

FOXCOTTE: THE ARCHAEOLOGY AND HISTORY OF A HAMPSHIRE HAMLET

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SUMMARY

Intermittent excavations, from 1979 to 1981, by the Test Valley Archaeological Committee on the site of the deserted settlement of Foxcotte near Andover, revealed a number of medieval and post-medieval structures and associated artifacts. Evidence of settlement in the Mesolithic, Bronze Age, Roman, and Saxon periods was also recovered. The artifact groups are of particular importance due to the lack of excavations in this area that have produced material of similar date. The history of the manorial estate is reconstructed from documentary sources, in particular a fine estate map of 1614, and evidence from other as yet unpublished excavations within the estate boundaries combine to give a comprehensive picture of settlement in the area over some 10,000 years.

The report includes detailed reports on flint, ceramics, stone, faunal remains, metalwork and soils, presented in microfiche.

INTRODUCTION

Although designated an area of landscape value in 1966, the Foxcotte site was redesignated for housing in the Andover Area Plan, despite recommendations for the preservation of the site (Champion 1973; Hughes and Stubbs 1975). Moves to schedule the site began in 1977 but, as outline planning permission had been granted before the process was finalised, the scheduling was intended both to 'give recognition to the archaeological dimension' (DOE 1978) and to provide a basis for rescue excavation prior to development. In March 1978, notice was given in advance of building work, but the Wessex Archaeological Committee, acting on advice

from the Medieval Village Research Group and the Royal Commission for Historic Monuments, declined to provide funds for excavation. This decision was based on the erroneous view that the lower half of the site had been destroyed by quarrying.

In June 1979 the developers, Dunning and Sons, allowed excavations to begin under the control of J Walker, then Field Director of the Test Valley Archaeological Committee. The excavation strategy was to obtain groups of datable material and structures that covered the medieval period of occupation. These objectives were an integral part of the TVAC Medieval Project, which covers the whole Test Valley region and seeks to examine the economic basis for medieval society in the area.

As the excavation was necessarily on a small scale, a survey of the whole area was undertaken with a metal detector. This had two aims: 1) to aid the interpretation of areas which would not be excavated; and 2) to assess the amount and types of material that might be removed from such a site by the activities of treasure hunters, the site having been listed in a national journal of the hobby.

In September 1979, the Andover Archaeological Society provided assistance for a short time, but their other excavation commitments did not allow them fully to partake in the excavation until April 1980. In August of that year, after J Walker's resignation, the AAS under M Dacre continued to excavate the site but, due to lack of TVAC supervision, no records were kept of this phase of the excavations on area G. In October, the writer, as assistant to the TVAC Field Director (now F Green), was given the responsibility of drawing the excavations to a conclusion. This

included opening a new trench to obtain information on the post-medieval phase of occupation. Once this was completed excavations ceased in the spring of 1981.

All finds and the archive are deposited with the Hampshire County Museum Service.

Unless cited in the text, references to documents are listed at the beginning of the 'References' section at the end of this article. Spellings of personal names are as they appear in the original sources.

TOPOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY

Foxcote is situated to the northwest of Andover at grid reference SU 344472 in northwest Hampshire (Fig 1). Foxcote has never been a parish although a boundary is recorded on the 1857 Ordnance Survey 1" Geological map. This boundary differs little from that recorded in 1614, and must represent the estate boundary at that time. This boundary has probably always been the extent of the Foxcote land unit, hereafter referred to as the estate. The estate was approximately 5km in length and nowhere more than 0.6km in width, resulting in a long thin landholding running on a north-south axis. The land is highest to the north, at 150m OD, and there is a gentle slope running down to Foxcote itself, where the chapel and the manor house dominated the settlement from the top of the steeper slope forming the valley of the upper reaches of the Anton stream. The valley was filled with gravel deposits, now quarried away and, to the south, the land rises again to a plain crossed by the Harroway, an ancient routeway. The south end of the estate is bounded by the Roman road from Silchester to Sarum, and the Roman road from Winchester to Cirencester is just within the estate at its northern end.

The whole estate is situated on the Upper Chalk, with deposits of river- and valley-gravel in the valley south of the village. This geology has resulted in four soil types (Soil Survey 1983). The very north of the estate lies on soil unit 343 i, a shallow, well-drained, calcareous silty soil over chalk, with patches of deeper,

non-calcareous, variably flinty, well-drained fine silty soil over clay with flints. The majority of the estate is composed of unit 581 d, a well-drained, fine silty soil, often very silty. Unit 571 m is found in the river valley, consisting of a well-drained flinty fine silty soil. To the south of the valley, the soil is unit 343 h, a shallow well-drained calcareous silty soil found over the chalk slopes and crests. All these soils show signs of periglacial features, many of them flame-like convolutions, especially on the valley sides where the slope influenced their formation.

PHASE 1: PREHISTORIC

The earliest signs of human settlement in the upper Anton valley are finds of Mesolithic material, principally the large axe heads commonly known as flint picks. These tools were recovered during work by the Test Valley Archaeological Committee on the Foxcote site, the Saxon cemetery excavated in 1982 on the Portway Industrial Estate, and during a watching brief on the Old Down Farm site. The presence of heavy axes of this type probably points to the area being well-wooded in the Mesolithic period.

The Bronze Age is represented on the site itself by the discovery of a single cremation and urn during building operations. The vessel was uncovered by earthmoving machinery and was partly destroyed. More urns may have been present, as the machine driver reported that there had been a number of areas of dark soil in the vicinity. The urn was empty and had been placed upright on the cremated bone (*Dacre pers com*), the majority of which had been finely crushed.

In the southern end of the estate, on what is now the Portway West Industrial Estate, a single barrow of a similar date was excavated by the Andover and District Excavations Committee in 1974 (Power forthcoming). A sherd of Late Neolithic Grooved Ware, and sherds from a beaker and a number of collared urns, were recovered. The barrow itself was approximately 15m in diameter and had had a

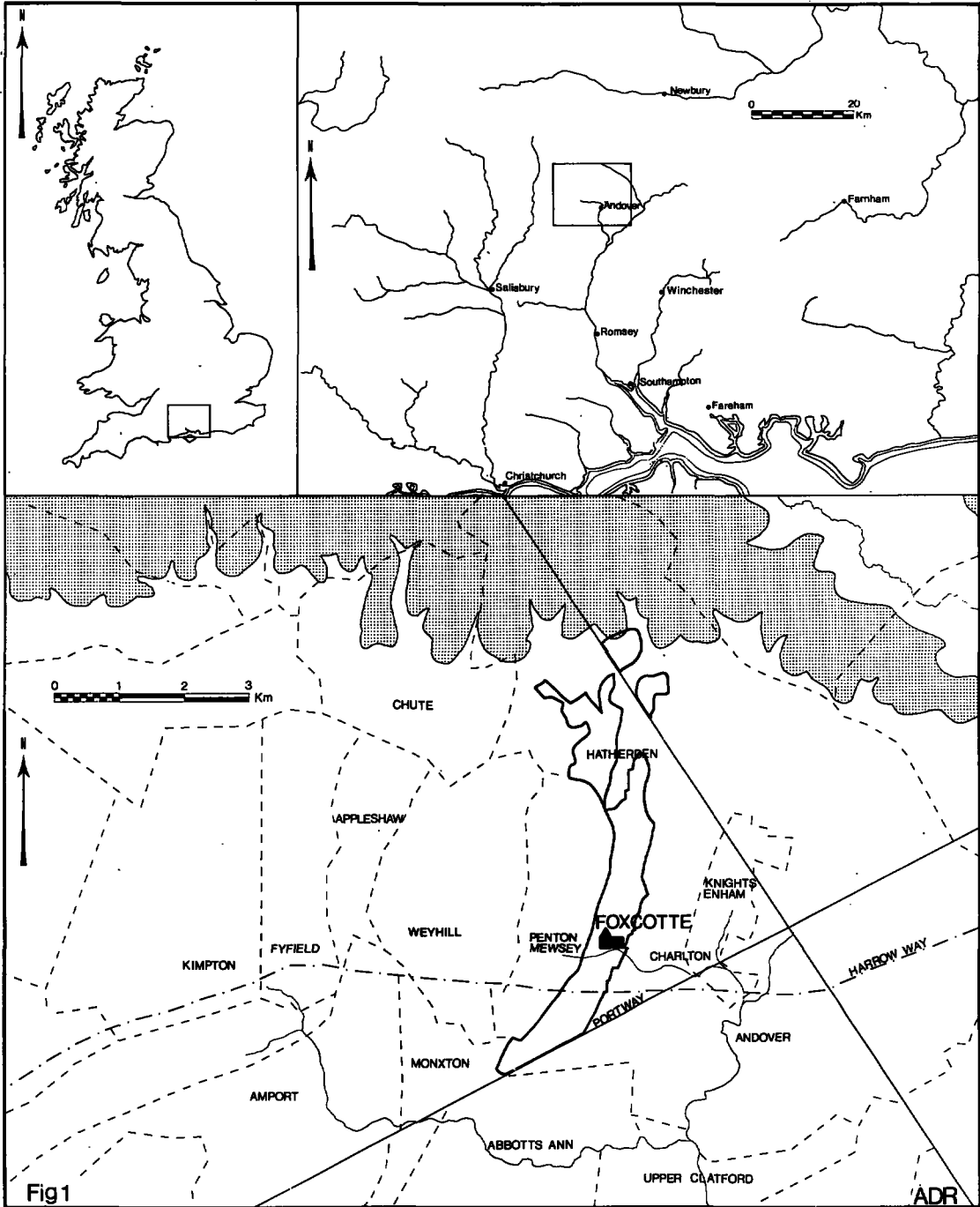


Fig 1. The location of the Foxcotte estate in north Hampshire. Parish boundaries are shown as prior to 1858. The Foxcotte estate boundary, marked in bold outline, is shown as in 1614. Land over 150m is shown stippled.

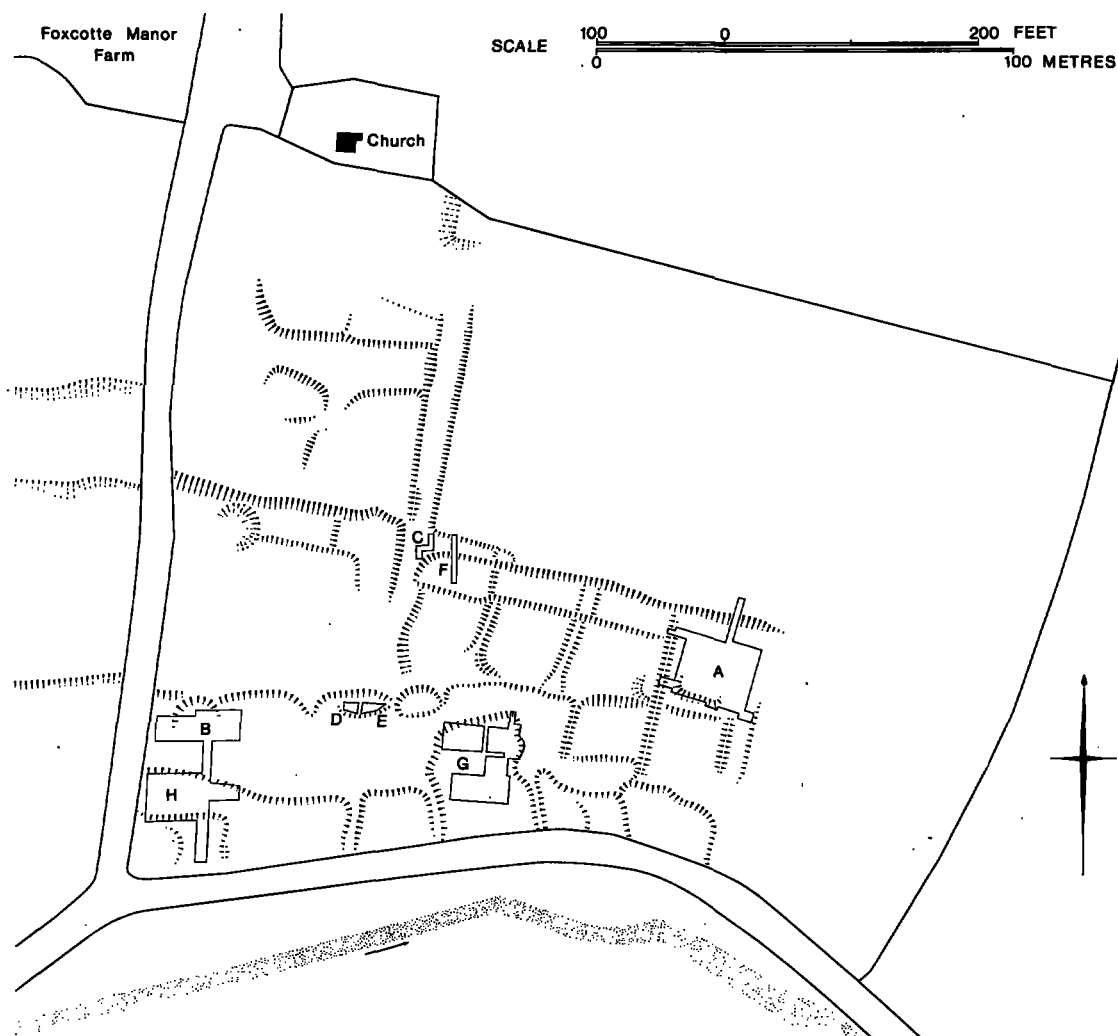


Fig 2a. The Foxcotte earthworks, showing the positions of the excavated areas. The equivalent area of the 1614 map is shown for comparison in Fig 2b.

single post in the centre. No burials were found.

The earliest known settlement site on the Portway Estate was of the Iron Age. It was excavated for the Andover and District Excavations Committee in 1974 (Champion in prep) and revealed a rectangular ditched settlement with numerous storage pits and traces of circular buildings (Bowen 1975, figs 11, 12). Associated with this settlement was a complex ditch system which was excavated in 1979 by

the Andover Archaeological Society (Dacre 1979). Sections across the ditches revealed that they originated in the Early Iron Age, or possibly in the Bronze Age, and remained in use into the Roman period, a similar date range to that of the settlement site, 600 BC – 100 AD (Champion and Champion 1981).

This arable-based community may have been responsible for the few prehistoric sherds found during the Foxcotte excavations, but

west boundaries in the area of the medieval settlement. Traces of this survive in the field system portrayed on the estate map of 1614, where a number of boundaries appear to continue across the north-running Foxcotte Lane (Fig 2).

The prehistoric lithic material from the site was mostly culturally undiagnostic, but a detailed analysis is given here and in microfiche. The assemblage, from an open valley-bottom site, will, it is hoped, be a useful comparative group.

PREHISTORIC LITHIC ASSEMBLAGE

by W A Boismier

Introduction

The purpose of this analysis is to provide some basic data on flint technology and the range of tool types present in the Andover area. It is concerned only with the pieces recovered from excavated contexts, plus the cores and core fragments (eight pieces) collected during fieldwalking to the north of the site. The remaining pieces collected during fieldwalking exhibit considerable plough damage and will be discussed elsewhere (Boismier in prep).

Excavation and fieldwalking at Foxcotte produced an assemblage of 752 pieces of recognisably prehistoric worked flint, four hammerstones and 2.35kg of burnt flint. Out of the 752 pieces of worked flint, 490 (65.34%) were recovered from excavated contexts, and 262 (34.84%) were collected during fieldwalking. All pieces of burnt flint and the four hammerstones were recovered from excavated contexts. The residual nature of the excavated pieces and their small number has resulted in their analysis as a single group.

Condition

Post-depositional edge-damage occurs in varying degrees on all major classes of artifacts. Patination on the 498 pieces of worked flint ranges from a light grey or bluish film to white, and was simply recorded as being either present or absent on individual pieces. A total of 469 pieces (94.18%)

exhibit signs of patination with 29 (5.82%) being unpatinated.

Raw material

All pieces examined were flint, and no other raw material was present. Where patination was sufficiently light on individual pieces, an attempt was made to distinguish between possible sources of flint on the basis of colour and inclusion. Only two clear cut groupings were recognised. The first group comprises all but three of the pieces examined, with colour ranging from a light brown or grey to very dark brown or grey, with red or black inclusions. Three possible local sources for this group exist within 3km of the site: 1) Upper Chalk; 2) clay-with-flints; and 3) valley gravels. Twelve of the twenty-one core pieces discussed below indicate that clay-with-flints was a major local source, but it is not possible on the basis of the present collection to determine if the other two potential sources were systematically exploited. The second group of flint comprises three pieces of yellowish-brown flint, for which no source is known. A core fragment of the same flint has been recovered from a surface scatter 4km away during the A303 survey (Boismier unpublished), and it also occurs at the site of Broom Hill, 25km to the south (Boismier forthcoming). The larger quantities at Broom Hill indicate a source for it outside the immediate catchment area of Foxcotte. At present there is insufficient data on the Test Valley region as a whole to indicate possible sources and the exchange networks (if any) that were involved in its procurement.

Assemblage Composition

Table 1 presents the major classes of the assemblage with percentages relative to the total number of 502 pieces. Various classes of 'waste' account for 64.94% of the assemblage, with the retouched or utilised component accounting for the remaining 35.06%.

Cores

A total of 21 cores and core fragments was discovered by excavation and fieldwalking. The 21 core pieces comprise 17 complete cores (80.95%) with 4 fragments (19.05%). Full details will be found in microfiche.

Core Renewal Flakes

Four core renewal flakes were recovered by excavation.

Table 1. *Lithic assemblage composition.*

Artefact class	complete	fragments	total	percentage
Cores ¹	17	4	21	4.18
Core renewal flakes	4	—	4	.8
Debitage: flakes	147	2	149	29.68
blades	91	24	115	22.9
other	37	—	37	7.37
Utilised pieces	101	3	104	20.72
Tools	64	4	68	13.54
Hammerstones	4	—	4	.8
Totals	465	37	502	

¹ Includes core pieces collected during field-walking.

Table 2. *Number of primary, secondary and tertiary flakes, with percentages relative to the total of unburnt pieces.*

	number	percentage
Primary	18	12.33
Secondary	34	23.29
Tertiary	94	64.38
Total	146	

Table 3. *Number of primary, secondary and tertiary blades, with percentages relative to the total number of unburnt pieces.*

	number	percentage
Primary	4	3.5
Secondary	26	22.8
Tertiary	84	73.7
Total	114	

Table 4. *Number of primary, secondary and tertiary utilised flakes and blades, with percentages relative to the total number of each recovered.*

	flakes		blades	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
Primary	10	12.2	1	4.54
Secondary	25	30.49	5	22.73
Tertiary	47	57.3	16	72.73
Totals	82		22	

Debitage

A total of 301 pieces classifiable asdebitage (56.96% of the assemblage total) was recovered

during excavation. This broad category contains flakes and blades, tool manufacturing debris and waste from tool maintenance or modification. Due to low counts, these last two debitage classes have been grouped together under the category 'other' in Table 1. Flakes account for 49.50% of the total debitage, blades 38.21%, and 'other' 12.29%.

Flakes

The flakes comprise 144 complete pieces (96.64%), three burnt pieces (2.01%) and two fragments (1.34%). Once identified, burnt pieces were excluded from any further analysis. The remaining 146 flakes were divided into primary (dorsal surface wholly cortical), secondary (dorsal surface partially cortical) and tertiary (dorsal surface non-cortical) flake classes. Table 2 presents the division of the assemblage into these flake classes with percentages relative to the total of unburnt pieces. Primary flakes accounted for 12.33% of the total, secondary 23.29% and tertiary 64.38%. Details of platform angles and length-width ratios will be found in microfiche.

Blades

The blades comprise 90 complete pieces (78.26%), 1 burnt piece (0.87%) and 24 fragments (20.87%). As with flakes, the burnt piece was excluded from further analysis. The 114 blades were divided into primary, secondary, and tertiary blade classes. Table 3 presents the division of the blades into these three classes. Primary blades account for 3.5% of the total, secondary 22.8% and tertiary 73.7%. Of the fragments, 14 are proximal pieces (12.28%) and 10 are distal (8.77%). No medial fragments were recovered. Details of platform angles, and length and width ratios will be found in microfiche.

Other Debitage Classes

The composition of the remaining debitage pieces grouped together under the category 'other' is presented in Table 4. Thinning flakes comprise the majority of these pieces, while the remaining classes, microburin, notched bladelet, and axe-sharpening flake each contain only one example (Fig 3). Thinning flakes have a mean length of 21.6mm (range 9mm to 35mm) and a mean width of 19.2mm (range 6mm to 33mm).

Utilised Pieces

The 104 utilised pieces recovered by excavation comprise 82 utilised flakes (78.85%) and 22 utilised blades (21.15%). Out of the total of 82 utilised flakes, 81 are complete and one is a fragment. Of

the total of 22 utilised blades, 20 are complete and two are fragments. Table 4 presents the division of utilised flakes and blades into primary, secondary, and tertiary classes relative to their individual totals. Primary pieces account for 12.2% of the total utilised flakes, secondary 30.49% and tertiary 57.3%. For utilised blades the one primary piece accounts for 4.54%, secondary pieces account for 22.73%, and tertiary pieces 72.73%. Of the three fragments in this category, the flake fragment lacks its platform, while the two blade fragments are proximal and distal pieces. Details of platform angles, length and

width ratios, and utilisation damage will be found in microfiche.

Tools

A total of 68 recognisable tools accounting for 13.54% of the total number of 502 pieces was discovered by excavation. Tools were initially divided into the blank category from which they were manufactured. Out of 68 pieces, 45 (66.18%) were manufactured on flakes (43 complete, 2 fragments), 21 (30.88%) on blades (20 complete, 1 fragment), one from a nodule (1.47%), and one is undiagnostic in

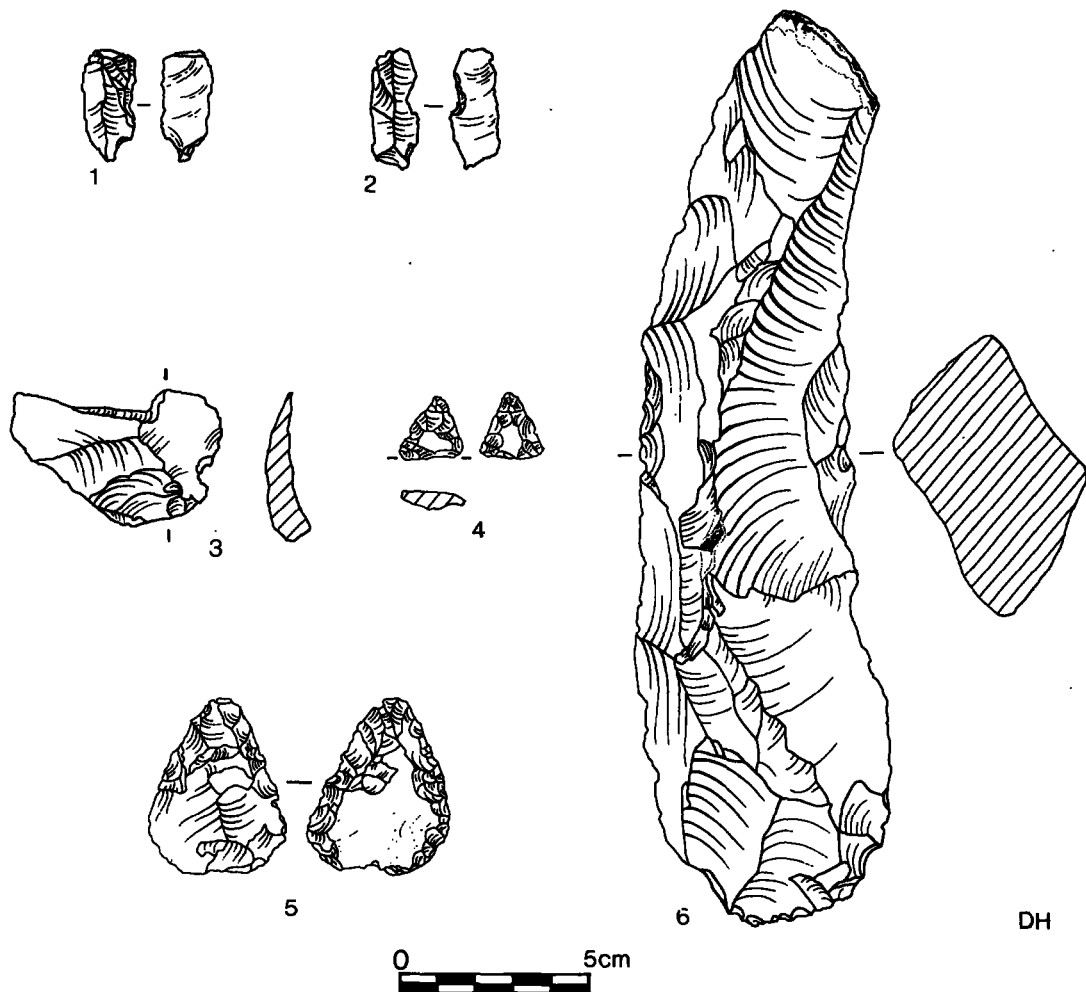


Fig 3. Prehistoric flintwork from the Foxcotte site: 1. micro burin; 2. notched bladelet; 3. axe sharpening flake; 4. triangular arrowhead; 5. triangular knife; 6. pick.

Table 5. Tool types and their blank classes.

	flake	blade	other	undiagnostic	total	percentage
Triangular arrowhead	—	—	—	1	1	1.47
Piercer	5	—	—	—	5	7.35
Scrapers: End	9	3	—	—	12	17.64
Side	6	1	—	—	7	10.3
End/Side	5	—	—	—	5	7.35
Triangular knife	1	—	—	—	1	1.47
Pick	—	—	1	—	1	1.47
Burin	1	—	—	—	1	1.47
Denticulate	2	—	—	—	2	2.9
Microdenticulate	—	4	—	—	4	5.9
Spokeshave	8	6	—	—	14	20.6
Spurred	5	—	—	—	5	7.35
Retouched	3	2	—	—	5	7.35
Multiple tool	3	2	—	—	5	7.35
Totals	48	18	1	1	68	

regards to its original blank (1.47%). Twenty-three of the pieces manufactured from flake and blade blanks retain cortex on part or all of their dorsal sides. Some cortex also remains on the tool manufactured from a nodule.

Table 5 presents the fourteen tool types recovered, and the number of pieces of a particular blank class within a type, together with the type's percentage relative to the total number of pieces classified as tools. The triangular arrowhead is in outline and asymmetrically bi-convex in cross-section, with bifacial retouch covering both sides. The piece is illustrated in Fig 3.4. All piercers were made from flake blanks. All three types of scrapers possess unifacial retouch along one or more edges of their dorsal sides. As a group, scrapers form 35.29% of the total pieces classified as tools. Like the triangular arrowhead, the triangular knife is asymmetrically biconvex in cross-section and bifacially retouched along both lateral edges to a rounded point at its proximal end (Fig 3.5). The pick is typologically Mesolithic in date. It is relatively narrow, measuring 240mm in length and 57mm in width, with a trapezoidal cross-section (Fig 3.6). Three similar picks have been found within 1.5km, one in the neighbouring parish of Penton Mewsey (Roe 1968) and others at Charlton (Old Down Farm), and the Portway Industrial Estate. The burin was manufactured on a primary flake with only one spall detached to produce the burin facet. The denticulates were manufactured on flakes and possess irregular 'open' denticulation along one edge. The spokeshaves have semi-circular notches

on one or more of three edges, with no piece having a notch located on its proximal end. All spurred pieces were manufactured on flake blanks. The retouched pieces comprise three retouched flakes, one marginally retouched blade, and one truncated blade. The multiple tool pieces comprise one piercer-side scraper, one piercer-spokeshave, two end-scrapers-spokeshaves and a denticulate-double-ended scraper.

Hammerstones

Four hammerstones were recovered from the excavation. All four pieces are unmodified, irregularly shaped flint nodules, with traces of battering on two or more of their surfaces. The weights of the four pieces range between 70g and 610g. Measurements for maximum length and maximum width were taken at right angles to each other. Maximum length for the four pieces ranges from 34mm to 95mm with a mean of 68mm. Maximum width for the pieces ranges from 31mm to 86mm with a mean of 55.5mm.

Discussion

Wainwright (1972, 66) has suggested that retouched tools generally contribute no more than 4 to 5 percent to assemblage composition. The unrepresentativeness of the assemblage in relation to Wainwright's observation of what is known about the proportional composition of lithic assemblages is indicated by the relatively high proportion of tools (13.54%) recov-

ered. Similarly, the high proportion of utilised pieces (20.72%) also suggests that the assemblage is uncharacteristic in its relative proportions of artifact classes. These skewed proportions are more than likely a product both of the assemblage's residuality and of the varying recovery rates of lithic artifacts between the major excavation areas. While it is not possible to assess biases in assemblage composition due to residuality, biases as a result of differential recovery rates are indicated by the general absence of small item classes.

The recovery of four temporally diagnostic pieces indicates that the date of the assemblage recovered at Foxcote probably ranges from the Mesolithic to at least the Early Bronze Age. Both the pick and microburin are typologically Mesolithic, with the triangular knife being Late Neolithic and the triangular arrowhead Early Bronze Age in date. Both the typological and the temporal mixture of the assemblage prevents any meaningful comparisons with other datable assemblages in the Wessex area, but the chronological and typological diversity indicate that prehistoric occupation of the site was long and varied, if intermittent.

THE BRONZE AGE CREMATION

THE CREMATION URN by C Matthews

The cremation urn was revealed by a mechanical excavator, and only the lower half survives. It consists of 80 sherds, most of which can be reconstructed; weighing 1,795g.

The fabric is of dark grey clay with lighter buff external surfaces, and is tempered with abundant calcined flint grits up to 5mm in size.

The urn has an applied cordon 80mm above the base. This probably served a functional purpose rather than a decorative one, since a non-visible internal band had been applied opposite the external one.

This urn is of Ellison's Lower Thames type 12 dating from *c* 1300–900/800 BC, with a preference for the later portion of that range (Ellison pers com).

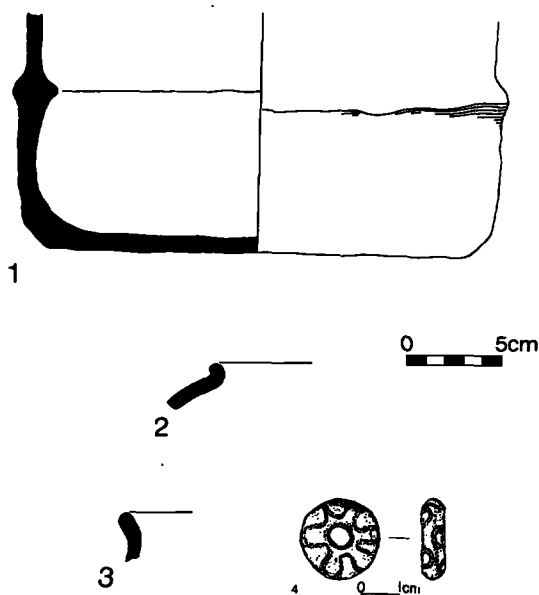


Fig 4. Prehistoric (1), Roman (2) and Saxon finds.

HUMAN REMAINS by A Stirland

The cremated bone recovered weighs 2200g and had been very consistently crushed, with the long bone fragments being approximately 30mm and the cranial fragments being approximately 20mm in size. A high uniform temperature of burning is suggested as most pieces are white, twisted, cracked and calcined, and there are very few blue or grey fragments. These few do not come from any specific part of the skeleton.

Fragments from all parts of the skeleton are present. A number of tooth roots, all closed, cranial and long bone fragments, some metacarpals and metatarsals and hand and foot phalanges survive. A fragment of the distal end of an ulna with the epiphysis (articular surface) fused to the bone suggests an adult, and an unfused sacrum fragment suggests a fairly young adult perhaps early twenties. Sexing is not possible, due to the small size of the fragments.

Some cranial fragments show evidence of porotic hyperostosis, a condition that results in a thickening of the skull and a pitting of the

outer surface. It is thought to be related to periods of dietary deficiency, probably a lack of dietary iron, and caused either by periods of illness or by a change in the food supply such as a poor harvest.

Conclusions. A very complete adult, perhaps young, is represented. The whole skeleton is represented, and burnt to a generally high temperature, the subsequent pieces then being broken to consistent sizes. The consistency of the burning and both the degree of calcination and the large amount of very small fragments suggest that the body may well have been burnt on top of a pyre (Wells 1960, 34). The cremation appears to be very similar to those recovered from the Kimpton cemetery (Everton 1981) both in colour and size of the surviving fragments.

PHASE 2: ROMAN

The upper reaches of the Test Valley, and especially the downland to the northeast of the river, are rich in villas and substantial buildings (Davies 1981, Fig 1), and Foxcotte is less than 3km from the failed settlement at East Anton (Johnson 1981, 50). Surface finds of Roman material are not uncommon in the vicinity and a scatter of sherds were found during excavations, all probably the result of manuring the fields with household refuse.

POTTERY by C Matthews

Fifty-five sherds weighing 316g were recovered. All are residual. They were divided into four fabrics: sandy grey ware, fine white ware, grog-tempered ware (Fig 4.2) and New Forest colour coat. Details will be found in microfiche.

PHASE 3: SAXON AND NORMAN (SIXTH-TWELFTH CENTURIES AD)

PREVIOUS WORK

Early Saxon settlements in the area are known from Old Down Farm (Davies 1980) and Charlton (Dacre and Warmington 1977, 72),

and a mixed cremation and inhumation cemetery was excavated in a field to the east side of the Foxcotte estate boundary in 1974 (Cook and Dacre 1985). A separate inhumation cemetery was discovered nearby, within the estate, during the excavation of a Bronze Age barrow in 1974 (Power forthcoming) and again during building work in 1982 (Green and Russel in prep). The presence of sherds of vegetable-tempered pottery and the Saxon bead on the Foxcotte settlement site suggest that the medieval settlement had its roots in the early Saxon period, with its cemetery placed on the hilltop on the other side of the stream. The cemetery may have been placed there because the Bronze Age barrow acted as a focus for the mortuary ritual; certainly one Saxon burial was cut into it.

DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

The Domesday survey contains the earliest reference to Foxcotte. It provides a picture of the Foxcotte settlement during this period and records the estate as being held as two manors by Ralf, from Walcan the Huntsman. The two manors were probably Foxcotte and Hatherden, the hamlet to the north, which is not listed elsewhere in the Domesday survey. The vill of Hatherden belonged to the Foxcotte estate from at least 1316 until it passed to the Stonors, and it was still considered a manor in 1586 (VCH).

The Domesday Book records the population as being ten villeins, thirteen bordars and three slaves which, including the manor house, gives a total of 27 households if each slave was head of a family. This is a higher figure than at any other time in the history of Foxcotte and indicates a system of dispersed settlements, all included in the Foxcotte figure. The Foxcotte settlement proper would possibly have consisted of about twelve families.

During the late eleventh century the overlordship descended to William Fitzwaleran whose tenure was confirmed by a charter of that time. The lords of the manor took the name of the estate and from this period

onwards the de Foxcotte family figure in the records. Edward de Foxcotte held the manor from William Fitz Waleran and he granted the tithes from the estate, together with eight pence from the villiens, to St Mary's, Andover, in return for a priest being sent to Foxcotte chapel to serve on feast days and seasons. This is the first mention of the chapel and indicates that it was not used for regular services at this period.

The de Foxcotte family seems to have been a large one as, in the reign of Richard I (1189–1199), five of the de Foxcottes, including Edulf, Walter, Miles and Robert, were charged, together with the younger and elder Adam, and Geoffrey son of Ralf, with building a wall on the common pasture to the damage of the free tenement of Michael, son of Luke, of Clebton. The term free tenement suggests that, at this date, parts of the estate had been leased or sold to outsiders, a practice that is well documented in later periods.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

No structures that could be dated to this phase were found during the excavations and it is most likely that these are located nearer to the chapel and manor house. Parts of this area have been scheduled and are thus preserved as open space or pasture.

The archaeological evidence for occupation in this period consists of a glass bead, a silver coin and pottery.

COINAGE

Silver Penny of Profile/Cross fleury type struck at Winchester by the moneyer Anderboda, 1066–68 (North 1980). Obv: + P [ILLEV] RSE + AI. Rev: [+] ANERBODE [ON PII].

POTTERY by C. Matthews

Eleven sherds of Early and Middle Saxon pottery and three sherds of Late Saxon pottery were recovered. Early Medieval wares are represented by a scratch-marked sherd and a spout possibly from a tripod pitcher. Full details will be found in microfiche. Fig 4.3 shows a rim sherd of vegetable-tempered pottery.

SAXON BEAD by Alison M Cook

A translucent deep turquoise blue oblate shaped glass bead (Fig 4.4), 8 × 22mm. The bead is inlaid with a 'not-crossed double wave' pattern (see Beck 1927, 67 and Fig 76 for an explanation of these terms) of yellowish translucent glass, dotted with translucent green; the green effect may be caused by the underlying turquoise glass shining through the yellow.

Anglo-Saxon beads have received little scholarly attention, and there are very few publications where beads are described and illustrated in sufficient detail to permit comparisons to be made with other assemblages. On the Continent, the study of beads is more advanced, and one cemetery publication in particular, that of Schretzheim, is helpful in studying Anglo-Saxon beads. Unfortunately, although Schretzheim has produced beads with a similar decorative scheme to the Foxcotte example, there is none in an identical colour combination (Koch 1977).

The type of inlaid decoration of the Foxcotte bead makes it unusual. It is reminiscent of the class of 'mosaic' beads *ie* beads inlaid with 'ropes' of mosaic glass described by T C Lethbridge in his publication of the cemetery of Burwell, Cambridgeshire (Lethbridge 1931, 50, 51). A further two examples were published by Lethbridge from the seventh century cemetery of Shudy Camps, Cambridgeshire (graves 11 and 104, Lethbridge 1936). Within Andover, a somewhat similar bead, but olive green in colour with four rows of wave decoration, was found at the seventh century AD cemetery of Portway West (information, A Russel). It seems reasonable to suppose that the Foxcotte bead was manufactured in the seventh century or later.

PHASE 4: MEDIEVAL (THIRTEENTH–FOURTEENTH CENTURIES AD)

DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

Documentary sources for this period unfortunately tell us little of the inhabitants of the estate and are mainly concerned, as in the previous period, with the affairs of the lords of the manor.

The overlordship at the beginning of the thirteenth century belonged jointly to the de

Nevill and Waleran families but the de Foxcotts appear to have acquired half of the de Nevill's share. Possibly because of their state of semi-overlordship the de Foxcotts considered that they held greater rights, for in 1280 they were summonsed for taking the assize of bread and ale. They denied holding the assize of bread and although they claimed the right of the assize of ale from the reign of Richard, eighty years before, they lost the case and were fined. The presence of numerous cisterns in the archaeological deposits is testament both to the amount of ale brewed and to the amount of money that could pass to

the holder of the assize, who kept the fines.

The Foxcotte estate does not seem to have been a particularly wealthy holding as, in the Lay Subsidy of 1334, only four villages paid less from the 18 contributors in the Andover Hundred. The low returns from the estate cannot have been helped by Thomas de Foxcott granting the Hatherden part of the estate to Henry de Harnhill in 1324. The de Harnhills also held land in Penton Mewsey, a neighbouring parish, and passed on their property to the Stonor family, who incorporated the Foxcotte land into the Penton holding. The de Foxcotts objected to this but

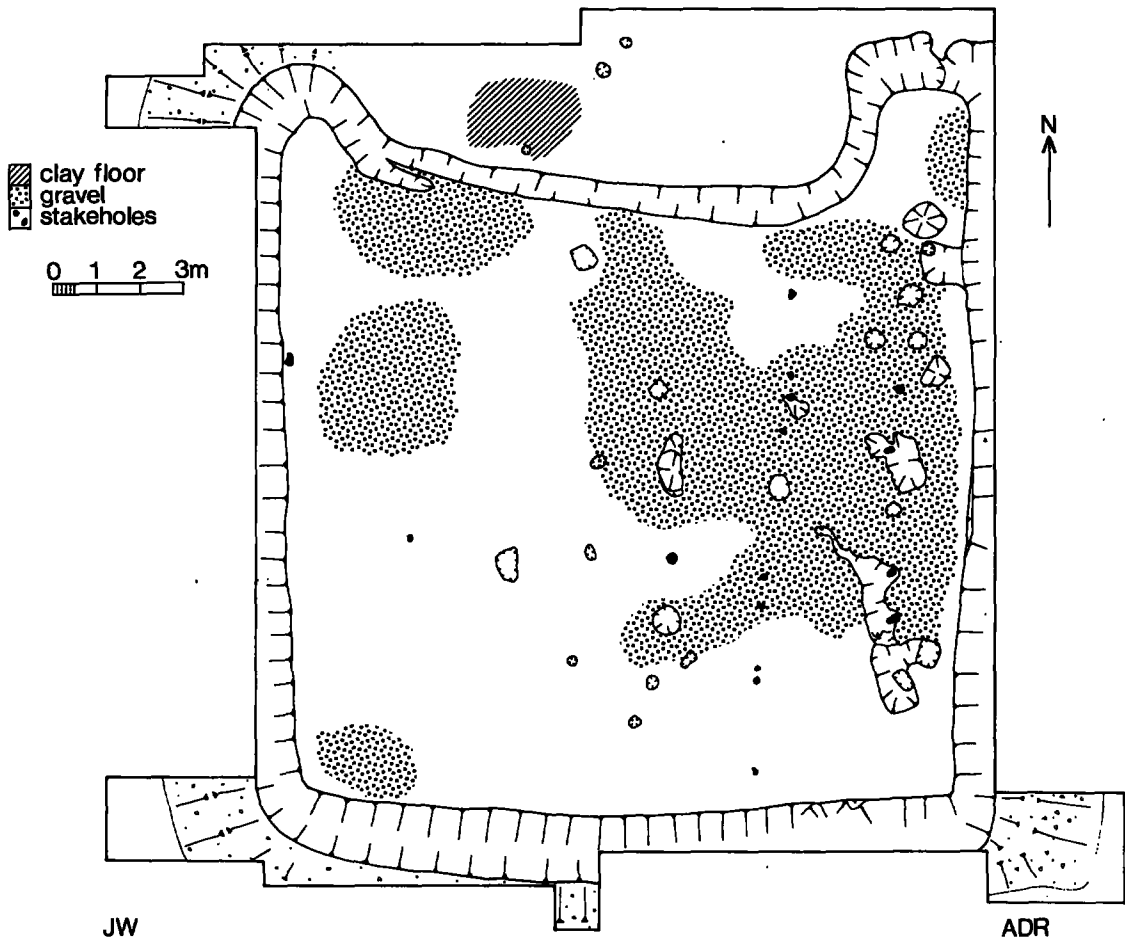


Fig 5. Plan of the features exposed on Area A.

gave up their claim in 1405, probably being unable to make headway against such a powerful family as the Stonors.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

Archaeological evidence for this phase was found across the whole site, but structural evidence was found only in Areas A and G. The excavation on Area A revealed the plan of a post-built structure (Figs 5, 6) surrounded by a shallow gully, on average 95cm wide and 29cm deep. The gully seems to have been avoiding a possible structure to the north, as evidenced by three postholes and a spread of hard-packed clay. On Area G a number of postholes were found below the fifteenth/sixteenth century building, and an adjacent spread of thirteenth century material was found associated with pits and wells (Fig 7).

Area A

This area was chosen for the original excavation by Walker because it would reveal any chronological shift in the settlement pattern, *ie* whether the village originated at the eastern end of the site and spread to Foxcotte Lane, or whether the reverse happened, this area representing the periphery of the settlement in its late medieval expansion. The excavation consisted of a two phase operation, the sectioning of the main east-west bank, and the area excavation of the supposed house platform. This section has been written up from Walker's notes.

Bank Section. Beneath the topsoil, the bank was found to consist of a layer of hard yellow clay (A17), overlying another layer of similar material, but containing a higher proportion of loam and with some charcoal present (A18). These overlay a ditch filled with yellow silty clay with occasional flecks of charcoal (A29). This feature was found in three



Fig 6. View of Area A looking south. Photo: J Walker.

other widely-separated places beneath the east-west bank, and must represent an earlier phase of land division.

Platform Excavation. The exact relationship between the east-west bank make-up and the layers on the platform was difficult to see but the layer of gravel and silty clay (A28) which overlay the platform, and was sealed beneath the bank around it, appeared to interdigitate with the two main bank layers. This shows the bank had developed before the settlement spread this far.

The platform was created by excavating a shallow ditch in a rough rectangle to enclose an area of 225m². The northern edge had a marked kink in it, probably a diversion around an existing building represented only by a few postholes and a thin floor layer of yellow clay (Fig 5).

The spoil from the ditch had been piled around the outside of the platform to form a boundary to either animals or surface water. It is not possible to say with certainty whether a fence or hedge was planted in the bank but the bank's texture was more humic than that of the subsoil from which it was cut.

On the platform the remains of a post-built structure were found, represented by a series of stakeholes and a number of postholes. It is difficult to know which postholes are contemporary – there are clearly too many for one building – but it is possible to re-construct a long building with a centre aisle with temporary partitions to provide space for stabling animals, and storing agricultural tools or produce. The postholes and stakeholes which do not fit this pattern probably relate to particular jobs or functions such as animal tethering, further partitioning of stalls, or extra supports for a sagging roof.

The lack of occupation debris suggests either a short lifespan or a distance from domestic occupation and, as the latter is probably untrue, the first must be looked at more closely. A building constructed on earthfast posts deteriorates rapidly in the British climate and a building such as this may not have lasted longer than a generation. A number of depressions in the ground, whose bases were covered in a layer of water-sorted pea gravel, perhaps point to a leaking roof, the first part of a building to deteriorate. An agricultural building such as this would probably have been roughly thatched or shingled and certainly the few fragments of roof tile found do not justify reconstructing a tile roof. Two of the postholes showed clear evidence, by their disturbed sections,

of the timbers having been removed and it is probable that any good timber was salvaged for re-use elsewhere.

The eroded state of the pottery from this area and the heavy corrosion of the ironwork suggest that it was ploughed after its abandonment.

Area G

The earliest phase of occupation on Area G can also be assigned to this period. Lack of records for the southern part of the excavated area mean that it is not possible to say how far the thirteenth/fourteenth century deposits continued in that direction, but a layer of fine black soil containing pottery and food refuse was found under the walls of the later building along its north side and below the easternmost partition wall (Fig 7). The quantity of thirteenth/fourteenth century pottery from inside the building suggests that the earlier layers formed the floor for the fifteenth century structure.

The same black soil was found in the yard area, between the sites of the later buildings, where it sealed a number of pits. Two of these pits were not bottomed at two metres and are probably best interpreted as wells. The largest, which was only half-sectioned, had been constructed by digging three circular pits, each new one in the base of the former, to give a cone shaped top to the well. The well had been backfilled with loose flint nodules, probably the remains of a building.

The only traces of a building of this date on Area G were a series of postholes, some of which were sealed below the wall and hearth of the later building. These postholes formed two parallel rows of at least three posts each and were perhaps internal supports for a building whose external walls left no trace. Alternatively, they are the posts for a small rectangular structure measuring 3.5m by 2m.

STONE

The stone objects can be divided into two classes, artifacts and building materials. The artifacts are whetstones, querns, and mortars; the building material consists of dressed stone and roofing material. A few small fragments of sarsen stone were also recovered, which are considered to be naturally occurring. A brief summary is given here, fuller details appearing in microfiche.

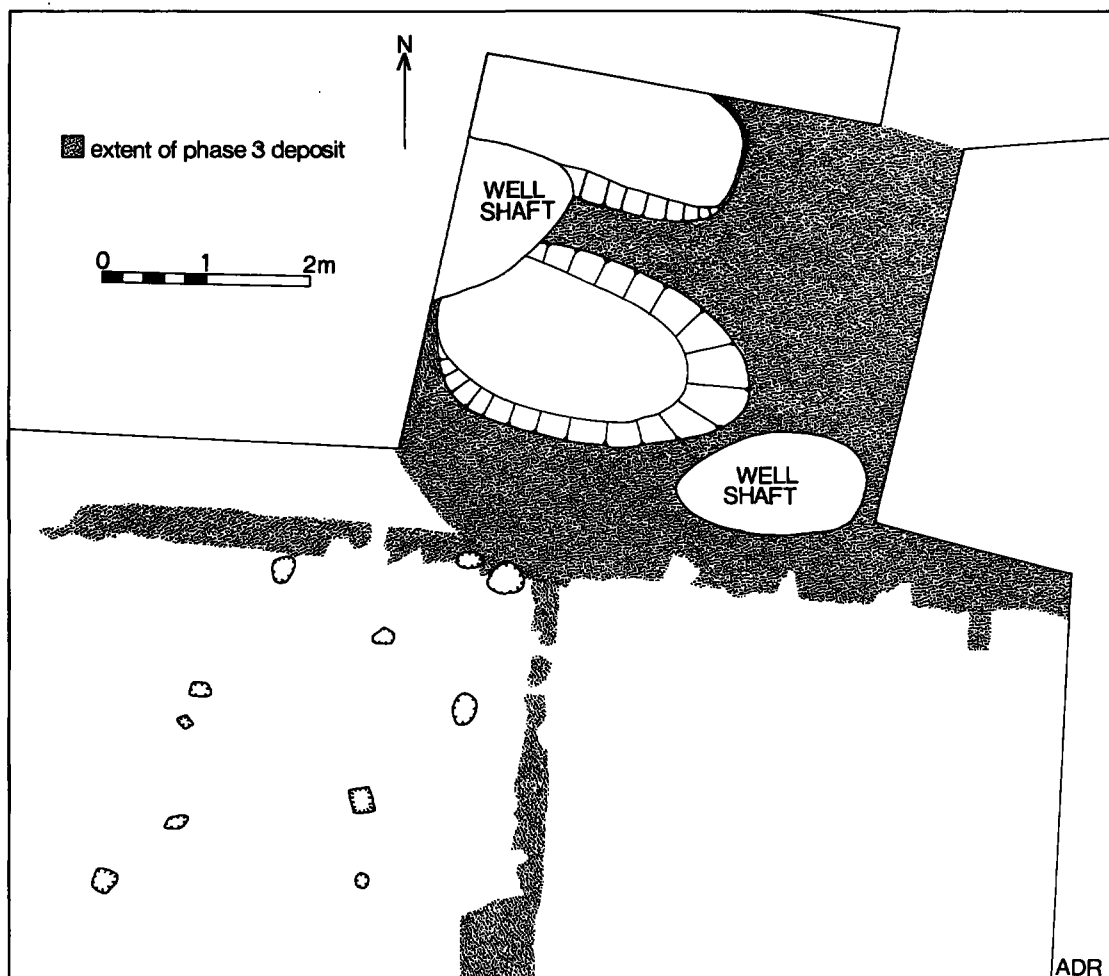


Fig 7. Plan of the thirteenth/fourteenth century deposits and features recorded on Area G.

Whetstones

The whetstones can be divided into two types; large stones with deep grooves which were probably used for sharpening heavy tools (Fig 8.1–3), and smaller slender stones which were probably used for knives or reaping implements (Fig 8.4–6). The majority of each type were of ferruginous sandstone with a few examples in sandy limestone.

Quernstones

Two types of quern were present, those of German lava and those of British stone. The

thickness of the lava stones (Fig 8.7) is suggestive of Roder type 8 (Roder 1953) introduced into this country *c* 1000 AD, which finally replaced the thinner type 7 by about 1300 (Hurst 1961).

Mortars

Nine fragments of stone mortars were found, all of them of Purbeck stone, and all from Area G. They were commonly found in structural elements and are probably of thirteenth or fourteenth century date judging by parallels at Southampton (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975,

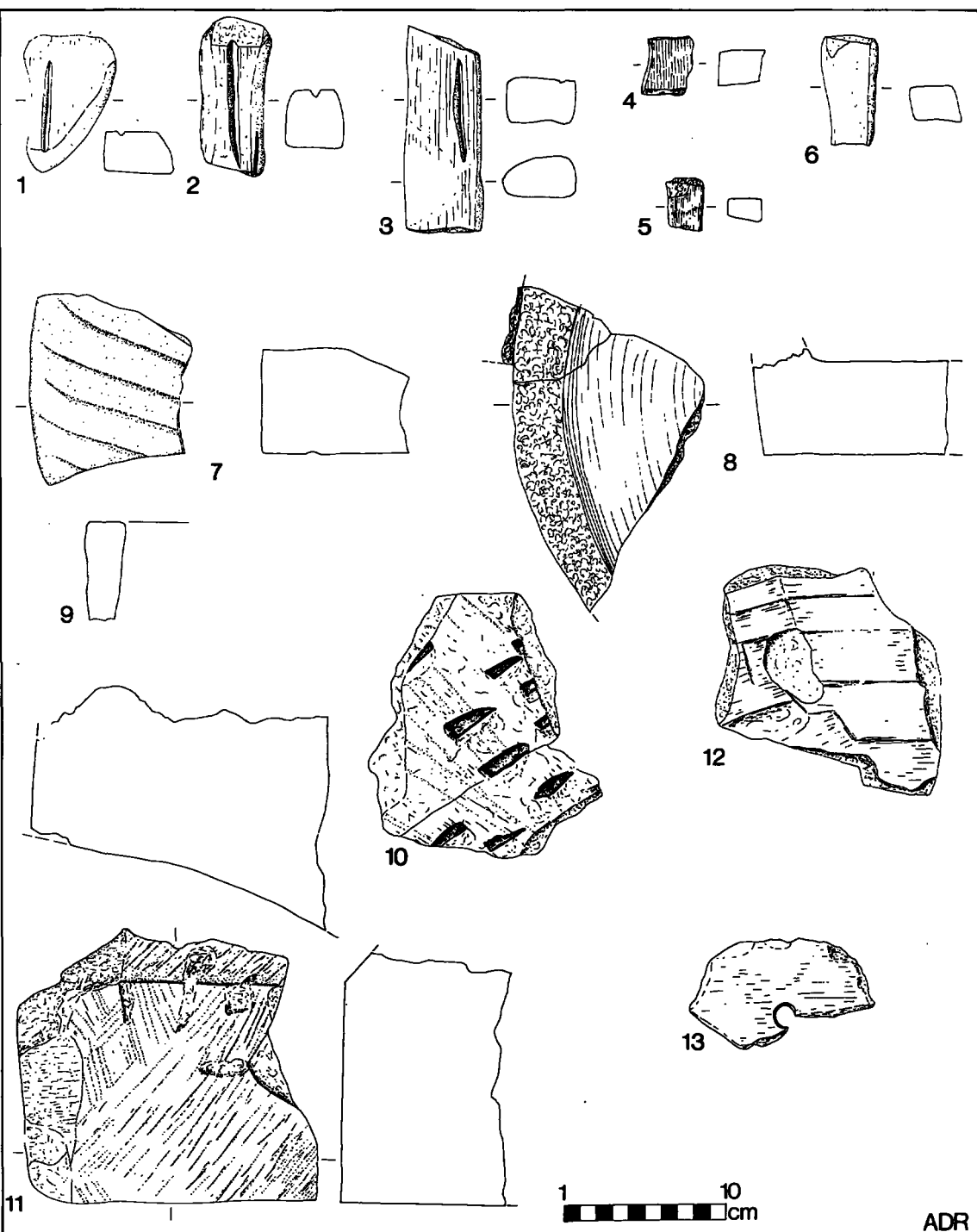


Fig 8. Stone artifacts of the thirteenth/fourteenth century phase of occupation.

vol 2, 307, Fig 268), later incorporated in the fifteenth/sixteenth century buildings (Fig 8.8–9).

Building Material

Worked blocks of malmstone and fragments were recovered from Areas B, D, G, and H. Malmstone or hearthstone was well known for its heat resisting qualities and at Foxcote was usually found associated with hearths or ovens. All the fragments appear to have come from an earlier building, as a number are definitely architectural fragments (Fig 8.10–12). Two fragments of Quarr limestone were found on Area B, and four fragments of sandstone roof tile were recovered from Area G (Fig 8.13).

ROOF TILE

All the roof tile found can probably be assigned to the thirteenth-fourteenth phase of occupation as, although pieces were found on Areas G and H, no evidence was found of tiled structures.

Of the Area A fragments, half (12 pieces) came from the topsoil with five in the ditch fill and four from postholes. The presence of tile in the postholes could indicate a date earlier than that of the building but it could be seen that some of the postholes had hour-glass shaped cross-sections, indicating that the posts had been removed and the holes left open.

On Area G the roof tile was predominantly associated with the north and west buildings, and probably came from the substantial tile built hearths or ovens.

All the roof tile is of one fabric; a fine sandy clay with many iron rich clay pellets, probably from the same source as hearth tile fabric 3. There is a wide range of colour from light orange to purple with an increasing hardness that points to the tiles being fired in a clamp rather than a kiln. Many tiles had glaze on the upper surface, usually confined to a strip between 5 and 9cm wide along the lower edge of the tiles. The upper end was pierced with two circular holes to take wooden pegs.

A number of tiles bore traces of mortar which could point to their being bedded onto the roof at the ridge or the eaves, but most of these fragments came from near to hearths or ovens which were built of mortared tile.

Five fragments of ridge tile were recovered, all from Area G, two of them being from a layer below the fifteenth-sixteenth building. Only one fragment of crested ridge tile was found, from the topsoil.

Four fragments of hip tile were found, all possibly datable to the thirteenth-fourteenth century phase. One piece was built into the extension of the hearth in the south building, and one piece was from the yard.

Three fragments of a buff sandy fabric with traces of green glaze are probably from a louvre of Dunning Type 2, that is attached to a ridge tile (Dunning 1968). Louvres and ridge tiles in a similar fabric are found in Romsey (Russel forthcoming). These fragments were found predominantly incorporated into fifteenth/sixteenth century structures such as the hearth in the south house and the oven of the north building.

The evidence of the roof tile points to a substantial high-status building existing nearby in the thirteenth-fourteenth century. It would seem to have had a tiled roof, hipped gables, decorated ridge tiles and a louvre. It is probably the same building from which the worked stone came, the most likely source in a rural context being the manor house.

POTTERY by C Matthews

Pottery of this date (1200–1400 AD) was found in all excavated areas, either in contemporary or residual contexts. It consisted of 1,676 sherds, weighing 9,766g. The assemblage was divided into the following fabric groups:

- 1) Chalk, sand and flint tempered
- 2) Flint tempered
- 3) Sand and flint tempered
- 4) Coarse sandy
- 5) Medium sandy, unglazed
- 6) Medium sandy, glazed
- 7) Medium sandy, glazed, reduced
- 8) Medium sandy, white
- 9) Fine sandy, glazed.

Details of quantity and fabric, and notes on forms and source are given here, further details of forms and decoration appear in microfiche.

Fabric 1: Chalk, sand and flint tempered (Fig 9.1–19; Fig 10.20–34).

Quantity: 67.42% by sherd count, 66.18% by weight.
Description: Common chalk inclusions often

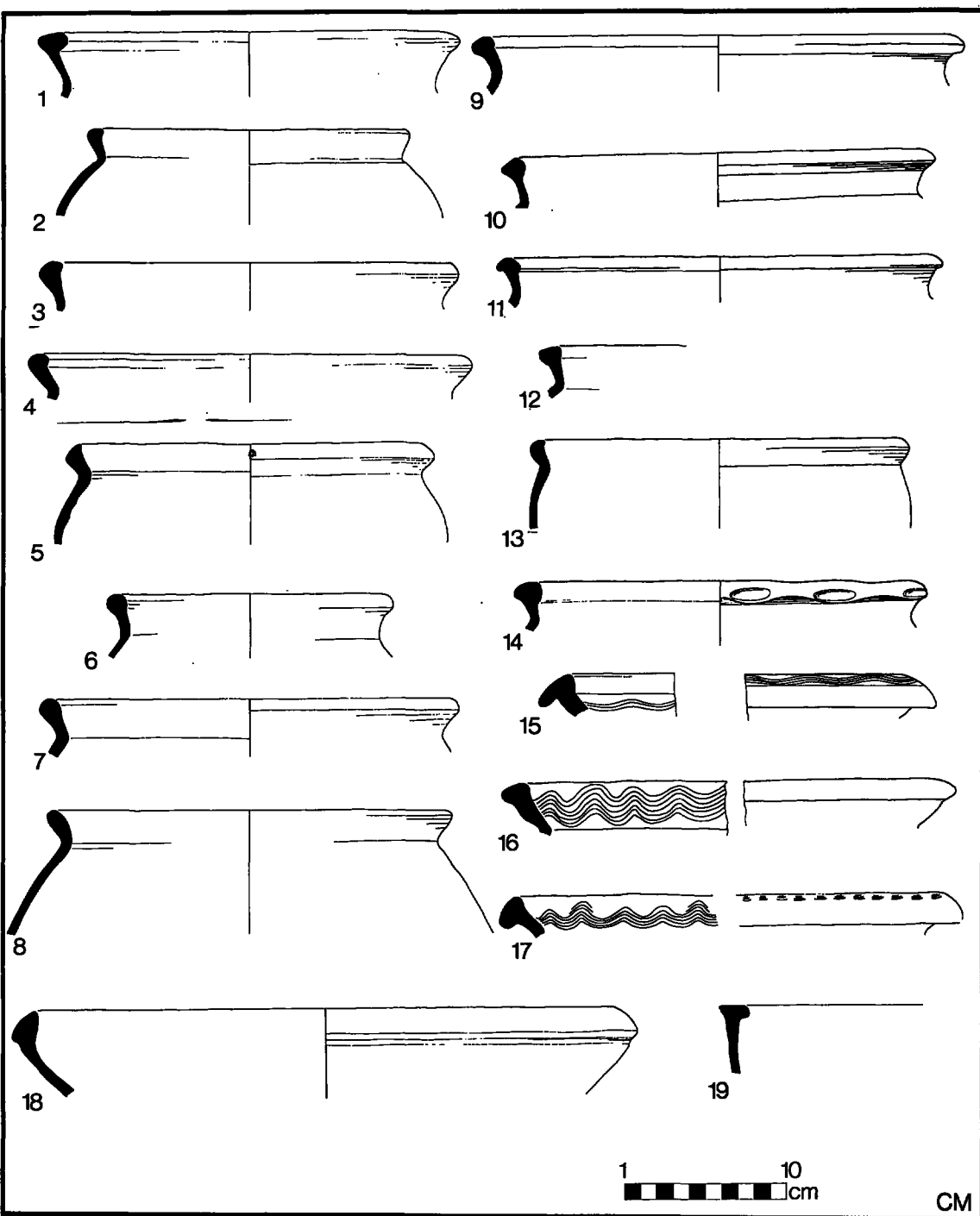


Fig 9. Thirteenth/fourteenth century pottery. Vessels of fabric 1.

leached out leaving voids. Common medium to coarse transparent quartz grains, 0.3 to 0.6mm in diameter. Fairly common flint grits. Occasional inclusions of conglomerate sandstone (probably sarsen) and/or grog. May be oxidised red through to brown, or reduced grey to black. Usually unglazed, although a few sherds, which appear to be from the same vessel were glazed with a light yellow-green glaze. They were residual on Area H in contexts 401 and 422. Forms: Cooking pots, bowls, and pitchers.

Source: This fabric belongs to Vince's Newbury Group B (Vince forthcoming). This group has been shown to cover a large area taking in northwest Wiltshire, north Hampshire, southern Oxfordshire and west Berkshire (Vince 1981, 315, Fig 21.1, map G area 2).

The concentration in the Kennet Valley has led Vince (1981) to suggest this as a possible source. This fabric is common in north Hampshire from Foxcote, Netherton (Fairbrother 1974) and Andover (Russel pers com) but rare in assemblages further south in Winchester (King forthcoming) and Romsey (Russel pers com).

Fabric 2: Flint tempered (Fig 10.35–37).

Quantity: The second most common fabric in phase 1, being 5.13% by sherd count and 5.21% by weight. Description: A hard clay matrix with abundant flint temper and occasional iron-oxides. Occasional chalk and quartz grains as in fabric 1 but never in such density. It is possible that fabrics 1 and 2 have a common source and result from different tempering techniques, a possibility backed up by similarities in rim forms.

Forms: Cooking pots and bowls.

Source: No production centres are known, but this fabric was possibly produced alongside fabric 1 in the Kennet Valley. This fabric has been found in Winchester but only as a small percentage of the assemblage (Collis 1978, 156, Fig 63.5 and 222, Fig 98.71; King forthcoming). It does however, represent a slightly greater proportion of the Winchester assemblage than the more chalky fabric 1.

Fabric 3: Sand and flint tempered.

Quantity: 0.95% by sherd count and 0.94% by weight. Description: Clay matrix with dense medium sand, 0.2–4mm, and a few scattered flints. Chalk is occasionally present, iron oxides are common.

Forms: Cooking pots.

Source: No production centre is known. The fabric may be a variation of fabric 1, and therefore share the same source.

Fabric 4: Coarse sandy (Fig 10.38).

Quantity: 0.75% by sherd count and 1.7% by weight. Description: Clay matrix with coarse sand grains, 0.5–1mm diameter, with common iron-oxides.

Forms: Cooking pots and glazed jugs.

Source: Possibly a variant of fabric 5 (see below).

Fabric 5: Sandy unglazed (Fig 10.39–40).

Quantity: 4.75% by sherd count and 4.15% by weight. Description: Fairly hard clay matrix with abundant medium sized quartz grains, 0.3–0.5mm, transparent or with reddish (iron stained) tinge. Iron-oxides are common. The fabric is generally oxidised to a pinky-orange colour but sometimes reduced grey. Forms: Cooking pots and possibly bowls.

Source: No production centre is known. The forms, fabric and manufacturing technique are significantly different to those of fabrics 1 to 3 and suggest a different production centre.

Fabric 6: Medium sandy glazed (Fig. 10.40–44; Fig 11.45).

Quantity: 12.51% by sherd count and 12.08% by weight.

Description: Fairly hard clay matrix with abundant medium sized transparent quartz grains, 0.2–0.5mm. Iron-oxides are common. The fabric is usually oxidised to a distinctive orange colour (Munsell 5YR 7/6). Some sherds have a reduced grey core.

Forms: Jugs and tripod cooking pots.

Source: The dot and circle motif and the tripod cooking pot can be paralleled at Laverstock. The other forms and decorative styles are widespread in southern England, and although may come from Laverstock more detailed work would be needed to prove this.

Fabric 7: Medium sandy, glazed, reduced (Fig 11.46–49).

Quantity: 2.94% by sherd count and 3.96% by weight.

Description: Abundant medium sized 0.1–0.5mm transparent quartz grains, and common iron-oxides. Some sherds contain numerous white clay pellets. The sole difference between this fabric and the oxidised fabric 6 is that it is reduced to an off-white or light grey colour and they probably share the same source.

Forms: Jugs.

Source: The only kilns known to be producing similar material are at Laverstock.

Fabric 8: Medium sandy, white (Fig 11.50–510).

Quantity: 0.06% by sherd count and 0.05% by weight.

Description: Hard white clay matrix, with well spaced transparent and red (iron stained) quartz

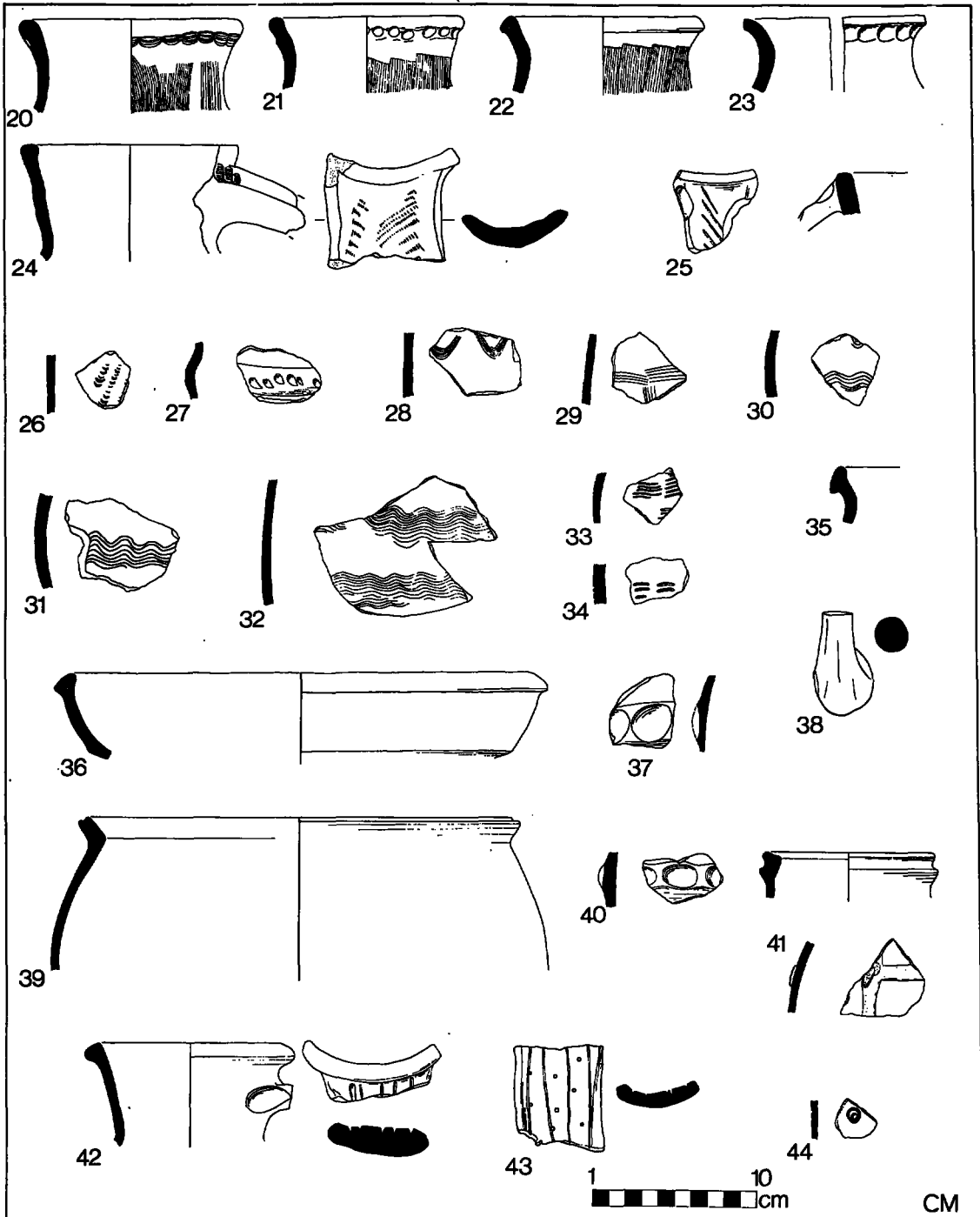


Fig 10. Pottery of fabric 1 (20-34); fabric 2 (35-37); fabric 4 (38); fabric 5 (39-40); fabric 6 (41-44).

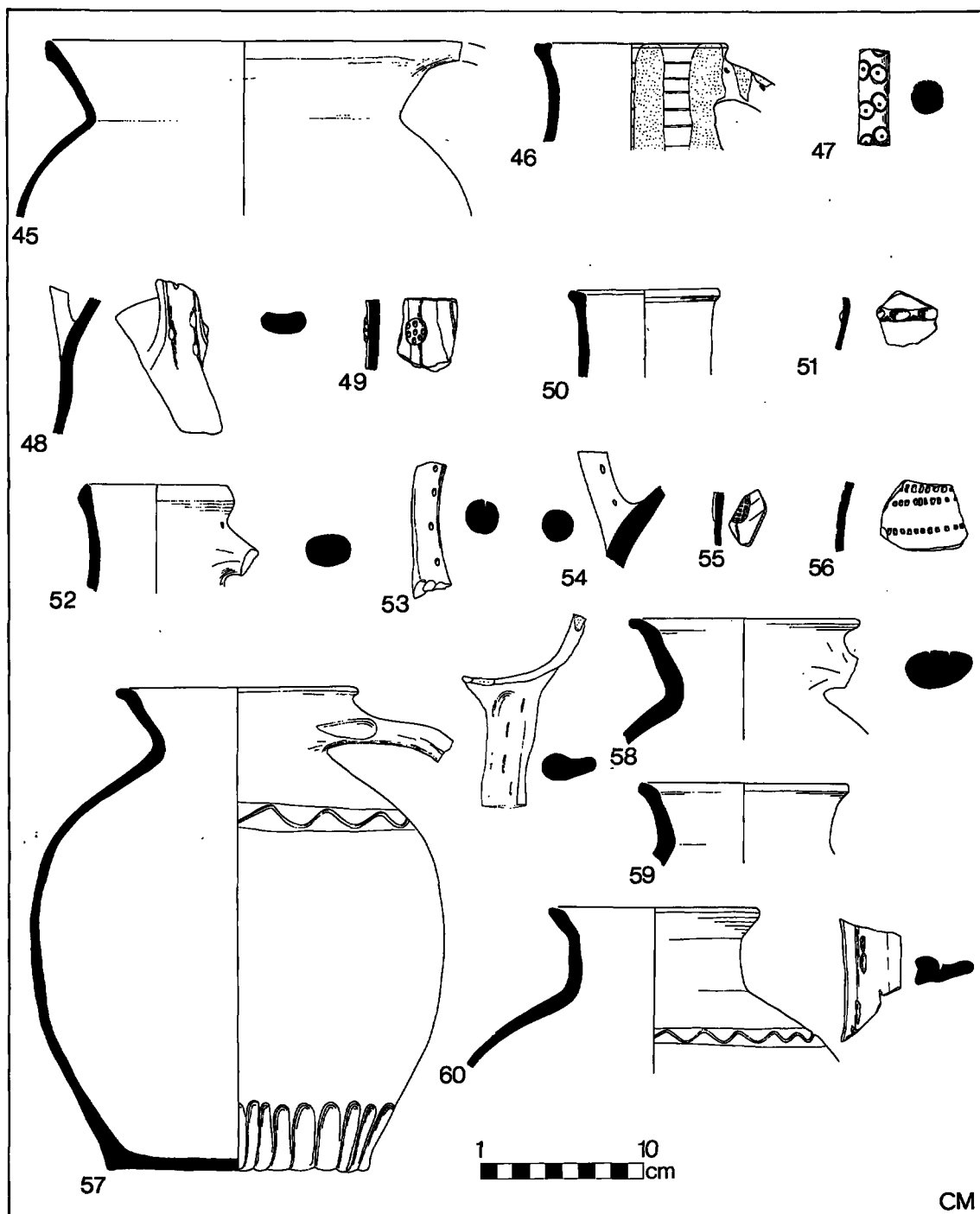


Fig 11. Pottery of fabric 6 (45); fabric 7 (46-49); fabric 8 (50-51); fabric 9 (52-56); fabric 10 (57-60).

grains, 0.2–0.5mm. Occasional red iron-oxides.

Forms: Jugs.

Source: The featured sherds are typical of ceramic styles in central southern England. At Hamble Priory the same fabric was found with typical Laverstock rim and decoration (Matthews 1981, 34, fabric 84), and Laverstock would seem to be the most likely source for this fabric.

Fabric 9: Fine sandy, glazed (Fig 11.52–56).

Quantity: 5.5% by sherd count and 5.72% by weight.

Description: Abundant small transparent quartz grains, usually less than 0.2mm. Common iron oxides. May be reduced or oxidised.

Forms: Jugs.

Source: Some of the decorative elements have parallels with the Laverstock industry. Others are typical of central southern England types and are harder to attribute to a particular source, although Laverstock is a possibility.

Conclusions

The phase 4 pottery assemblage is characterised by the chalk, sand and flint-tempered wares and by the thirteenth/fourteenth century glazed sandy jugs. The proportions of the different fabrics are shown in the histogram (Table 6). It can be seen that the chalk, sand and flint tempered fabric is more abundant than any other fabric in terms of sherd number and weight. As already mentioned, the source of this fabric is likely to have been the Kennet Valley (Vince forthcoming). It was supplied to Newbury and Andover in quantity but very little reached Winchester or the southern end of the Test Valley. The Winchester assemblage of this period was dominated by a medium sandy fabric used solely for cooking pots and bowls which is not found at Foxcotte. This distribution pattern is almost mutually exclusive and suggests a respect for marketing areas. Alternatively, it shows the distances to which it was viable to distribute the pots. Unfortunately the Winchester sandy fabric cannot be linked to a production centre, and so the above hypotheses are somewhat speculative.

The sandy jugs are the second largest fabric group. All are characteristic of thirteenth/fourteenth, and perhaps mainly fourteenth, century jug types of central southern England. Many of the decorative features of this group

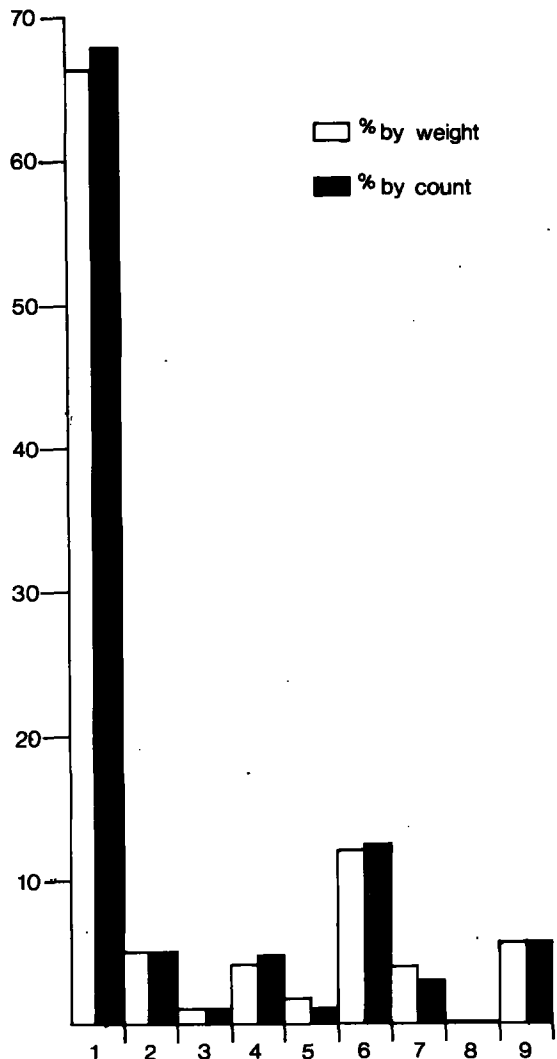


Table 6. Histogram showing relative proportions of the thirteenth/fourteenth century pottery fabrics.

can be paralleled by material from Laverstock kilns, but further analysis would be needed to assess how much is true Laverstock, and how much is from other kilns using Laverstock styles. It is possible that the pottery was carried from Laverstock using the old Roman road, the Portway, and distributed either at Andover market, or else via the huge medieval fair at Weyhill. Certainly, more characteristically Laverstock motifs have appeared

on pottery from Foxcotte than on pottery of this date at Winchester. This is surprising in view of the fact that a thousand Laverstock pitchers are documented as being allocated to Winchester by the Clarendon Royal Household (Musty *et al* 1969, 83).

It is possible that the thirteenth/fourteenth century pottery from Foxcotte was supplied by only the two production centres, the Kennet Valley and the Laverstock kilns, the former supplying mainly cooking pots and the latter mainly jugs. More of the former fabric reached Foxcotte probably because more cooking pots were required in every day use than jugs (see Moorhouse 1978 for the multifarious functions of the medieval cooking pot). This also suggests that cooking pots from the Kennet Valley were cheaper than those from Laverstock.

Also of interest is the complete lack of foreign imports amongst the Foxcotte pottery. This fits the distribution pattern of foreign imports to southern England (Allan 1983, 196) summarised as:

- 1) Major coastal ports: up to 30% imports in assemblages in wealthy areas of towns, *eg* Southampton (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975);
- 2) Rich sites which were not major ports: up to 1 or 2% imports, *eg* Netherton manorial site (Allan 1983, 196) and Hamble Priory (Matthews 1981, 34);
- 3) No imports at all at many deserted villages, *eg* Popham, Hants (Allan 1983, 196).

METALWORK by S Langford

Area A

Most of the metal objects from this area were found in post-holes, the ditch and the house-platform/floor levels. Virtually all of the copper alloy and coins were found by the metal-detector survey and are thus unstratified.

Iron. Approximately 240 pieces of iron were found, of which over 100 are nails or fragments of nails. The house-platform context 2 contained over 50% of the total number of iron objects from Area A, including a large group of small and encrusted nails

(SF 23). Some of the nails in this group of 60 or so were probably horse-shoe nails of the 'fiddlekey' type, (Fig 26.21) and the same context also contained two horse-shoes and two badly broken knives, as well as domestic fittings such as a pintle and hinge-fragments.

The post-holes beneath the house-platform and the ditch around it contained more nails similar to those from SF 23, horse-shoes, a small hook, two conjoined waisted chain-links and a boot-iron. Other post-holes, both inside and outside the building, contained similar iron finds, while context 28 contained half of an ox-shoe and a ring which was probably for harness. Context 17, the bank to the north, contained 14 fragments which may have been from shears.

Non-ferrous. No stratified copper alloy objects or coins were found in Area A until context 8, which contained a fragment of sheet bronze and a copper alloy lace-tag. Of the non-ferrous objects recovered from the metal-detector survey, the two complete little rumbler-bells SF32 and SF33 (Fig 28.1-2), and the fragmentary example of a finely-decorated and smaller rumbler-bell SF S4 (Fig 28.1-5) are of interest, as are a number of buckles (Fig 27.1-5, 9 and 10).

Area G

A number of nails were found in thirteenth/fourteenth century deposits. Two knives were also recovered, one from below the north wall of the east room of the south house, and another, in a fragmentary condition, from the wall itself.

PHASE 5: LATE MEDIEVAL (FIFTEENTH – SIXTEENTH CENTURIES AD)

DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

It is during this period that the documentary side of the estate becomes less exclusively the concern of the lords of the manor, and the independent villagers start to leave their mark, particularly in a series of wills from 1516 to 1587, now in the Hampshire Record Office, Winchester.

In the fifteenth century the de Foxcott family passed the estate on to William Stokes, a relative by marriage, perhaps because they were without male heirs. Stokes died in 1427 and his son John was named as his heir, (Anct D PRO C3250, C2348), but in 1428 William

Dyneley, who had married the sole daughter and heir of the last of the de Foxcotts, was in possession (Feud Aids, ii, 347). The Dyneley family maintained possession throughout the fifteenth century, until Elizabeth, the heir of Thomas Dyneley, married into the Barrett family of Essex in the early sixteenth century (L and P Hen VIII, ii, 3789).

Their son, Edward Barrett, possibly named after his maternal grandfather, Edward de Foxcott, held the manor and some lands in Hatherden until his death in 1586. His son Charles, who had married the daughter of the Elizabethan statesman Sir Walter Mildmay, died two years before his father and the estate thus passed to his infant son, also called Edward. This Edward was later to become a politician, accompanying the Earl of Nottingham to Spain in 1605, and was knighted in 1608. He became Baronet of Nova Scotia and in 1614 was elected MP for Whitchurch. In the same year he commissioned an Essex map maker to make a detailed plan of the Foxcotte estate. The surveyor, John Walker, had learnt his trade from his father and a number of their estate maps, mostly of properties in eastern England, survive. Barrett carried the title of Sir Edward Barrett of Belhouse, in Essex, which is only a few kilometres from Ingatestone Hall for which another Walker map survives, and the Walkers were probably recommended by other local landowners.

The earliest will that has survived of a Foxcotte husbandman is that of John Cooper, made in 1516. In it he left sums of money to his wife Juliana and his son John.

The lay subsidy of 1524, the most rigorously collected, gives the most accurate figure of the number of households and their relative wealth.

	£	s	d
Thomas Jeffrey	20	—	—
Thomas Fydler	9	—	—
John Blake	4	—	—
John Wale	4	—	—
Nicholas Wytt	4	—	—
William Tredgold	3	6	8
John Wytt	3	—	—
John Firber	1	3	4

	£	s	d
Robert Cooper	1	—	—
John Gilbert	1	—	—
John Page	1	—	—
William Mole	1	—	—
Thomas Penton	1	—	—

This suggests at least 13 households on the Foxcotte estate. Thomas Jeffrey's goods were worth so much more than the other individuals that he was probably the tenant of the Manor Farm. The other twelve households would have formed the rest of the village although it may not have been quite such a large settlement. The same subsidy roll gives only seven taxpayers for Hatherden (six of them named Blundell) and, as the Foxcotte estate runs to the centre of the Hatherden hamlet, it is probable that a number of Hatherden dwellers appear on the Foxcotte list.

In 1546 another subsidy was levied. By that time ways of evading the tax had been calculated and only eight people paid tax.

Thomas Smyth	£8 worth of goods
John Helliard	£5
John Page	£5
William Tredgold	£5
Alice Molles	£4
John Cooper	10s
Thomas Cooper	10s
Edward Sallet	10s

Despite a gap of twenty years, only four families appear on both lists, suggesting a very mobile population.

Two years after the 1546 lay subsidy, William Tredgolde made his will, proved in 1551. Like other Foxcotte dwellers whose wills survive he asked to be buried in Andover churchyard, and he left money to Winchester diocese for prayers to be said for his soul. He bequeathed goods to six members of the Tredgole (*sic*) family, and also to John Cooper and the Tapner family. The Tapners are a shadowy family in the documents which survive in the HRO, being much in evidence in other peoples' wills but never appearing elsewhere.

William Tredgolde left specific bequests of sheep, cattle, wheat, barley and malt worth at least £5, the rest of his estate going to his wife Jane.

William Tredgolde junior had possibly moved to Charlton, as a feoffment of 1559 records a transac-

tion between him and Thomas Boswell of West Wyke concerning 16 acres in Charlton Common field, and in 1614 a Tredgolde also called William, and perhaps his son, is recorded as farming land in Foxcotte, although no Tredgolde lived there by then.

From this same period comes the only record of academic achievement by a member of a Foxcotte family. In 1552 Thomas Wryte of Foxcotte entered Winchester College and later moved on to New College, Oxford (Bennet and Parsons 1920, 4). The Wrytes do not appear in any other document, unless they are the Wyt family of the 1524 subsidy, which is puzzling, for a family that could send a son to Winchester and Oxford must have had considerable wealth.

From the year 1553 we possess the will of Thomas Cole. The Coles were mentioned in William Tredgolde's will of 1551 and in an inventory of 1557, but not elsewhere. The will is written in the past tense which is unusual and is as if Thomas was already dead and the clerk recording a will made verbally at an earlier date. It was witnessed by Alice Cole, presumably the wife of the deceased, who received two sheep. Her son, presumably by a former marriage, received one sheep. Such a low level of surplus – a sheep was worth about 3s at this time – would explain the Coles' absence from the subsidy list. The document was carelessly written and the clerk originally left Thomas Coles' wife to his sheep before noticing his mistake and correcting it. Thomas Cole junior received the rest of the estate.

Three years later, in 1556, Joanne Tredgolde made her will. She was the widow of William who had died in 1551 three years after making his will. William Tredgolde junior is not mentioned in the will and the bulk of the estate was left to the daughter Isbel. The 1548 will had left half a quarter of barley to Alice Tredgolde but she does not appear in the will of 1556. However, an Alice Tapner does receive a sheep and possibly the Tredgolde girl had married in the intervening period. In comparing the two wills of husband and wife it is interesting to see that the non-family members who received bequests in William's will are all male, whereas those in Joanne's will are predominantly female, although of the same surnames. This suggests that close friendships were more common within the sexes than across them. There is a definite bias towards males in both wills, with women receiving gifts of lesser value.

Joanne's will gives an unusually detailed breakdown of her possessions, which can be

checked against the inventory made on her death in September 1559. Despite being compiled three years apart the two lists coincide on most points. The estate was valued at £12 12s 9d, with over half that amount coming from a flock of 41 sheep with 14 lambs, and a pair of cows. A single feather bed appears on the inventory, although two were bequeathed in the will, and possibly Isbel's room and its contents were not included in the inventory. The inventory appears to go from the bedroom to the hall, then to the buttery or kitchen and finally to an outhouse or barn. The bedroom contained a bed and two coffers; the hall a cupboard; the buttery/kitchen a number of brass pots and cauldrons, pewter items, including saltcellars and candlesticks, pothooks, a griddle, a frying pan and two tables; and the barn contained tubs and bushel containers, two weights of wool, and 22 bushels of wheat and barley. The two weights of wool, a pair of wool cards, a piece of new cloth and two kirtles all in the barn perhaps point to cloth production, but there is no mention of a spinning wheel or a loom.

The next three wills in the Foxcotte sequence are those of John Page 1557, Richard Wale 1562, and Joan Page 1571. John and Joan Page were husband and wife but Joan had previously been married to Richard Wale's father. She appears to have had two children, both called Thomas, in addition to Richard, by her first marriage, but none by her second. When John Page died he left barley and wheat to his brothers and sisters and their children but left his copyhold to the children of his eldest stepson Thomas Wale. Thomas himself did not receive any bequests and may have recently died. John Page's estate was worth £29 15s 7d (the highest in Foxcotte) mostly due to his large flock of 60 sheep and his higher than average acreage of grain crops.

Richard Wale, a younger brother of Thomas, died in 1562. He left only sheep in his will and is described as a shepherd but, as no inventory survives, we do not know the full extent of his possessions. He does not seem to have been married and he left his estate to his mother Joan Page and his brother Thomas. It is possible that he worked as a shepherd for his mother and owned a number of sheep in his own right.

The last of the trio to die was Joan, and she fortunately left a will and an inventory. The will leaves her goods to the Wale, her children by her first marriage, and their children. The elder son Thomas and his son Thomas were left the largest share. The latter, possibly recently having set up house, received two bedsteads, the best ceiling, the

best blanket and a bolster. The bequests in the will amount to about 13s from a total value of £5 8s 10d and the majority was left to Thomas Wale, although the document does not make it clear which of the three Thomases that was.

Analysis of the inventory suggests that the Page house consisted of two bedrooms, a buttery/kitchen, a hall and a barn or outhouse. The farm stock comprised 22 sheep, and there were 10 quarters of wheat and five of barley. Nine of those quarters of wheat were said to be in the field which, in an inventory made on the 13th of February, suggests winter wheat. There is also mention of 'fatches' in the field, the term used at that time for pea crops.

In the main bedroom the furniture consisted of an old flock bed with sheets, bolster, two pillows and a canopy, and there were five spare pairs of sheets. An unusual item in the inventory, for Foxcotte at least, is the presence of an old sword, an old pistol and an old 'peticot'. The latter was presumably a military garment and was either an heirloom or perhaps John Page had at one time been a soldier.

The inventory makers then passed to the kitchen where they recorded two brass pots and two brass kettles; two platters, a saltcellar and two candlesticks, all probably of pewter. A kneading basin and a cistern were also present, for bread and beer production respectively.

The second bedroom was furnished with a bed, cupboard and chair, and in the hall were found two benches and pothooks, gridirons and irons, presumably arranged around the open hearth.

The total value of all these goods was only half that left by Joan Tredgolde, the shortfall being mainly in the lower number of sheep and their lesser value. The Tredgolde sheep in 1559 had each been worth 3s but the Pages' animals were only valued at 1s each.

For 1585 another lay subsidy survives. This lists William Henwood as having goods worth £10, John Helliar and Edward Cobb with £4 each and Thomas Monday with £3. The high figure for William Henwood suggests that he was now renting the manor farm, having taken it over from Thomas Smyth. William Henwood was still the wealthiest when the 1611 subsidy was levied but by 1614 he is not recorded at Foxcotte when we know the farm was in the hands of Peter Payne. Cobb and Monday appear as tything men for Foxcotte in the 1590s but they may have only rented land at Foxcotte, as both families were renting Foxcotte land when the 1614 survey was carried out. At that date the Cobbs were in Charlton and the Mondays in Penton, the two villages immediately to the east and west of

Foxcotte. This would leave John Helliar as the only resident paying tax. The Helliars do seem to be the wealthiest family in Foxcotte at this time and the other six copyholders' goods must have been below the £3 mark. This may have been caused by the low price for sheep that we saw in the Page inventory, but John Helliar died the following year and his sheep were then valued at 3s each again.

John Helliar's will and inventory both survive, and his inventory is by far the fullest. As it is probably his house that was excavated on Arca H (see p 200) it is given here in full, so that 'a comparison can be made between the archaeological record and the documentary. The total estate was valued at £20 14s which is the second highest of the Foxcotte inventories, but is low compared with people of similar status in the Romsey area (P Berrow pers com), where it was common for a husbandman to leave goods worth £40. A woollen draper in Romsey who died two years later had possessions worth £77 16s 8d – processing the wool was obviously more profitable than keeping the sheep.

Inventory of John Helliar – 2 November 1587
Appraised by Edward Cobb, William Henwood,
Thomas Cooper, John Moire

	£	s	d
in ye hall			
Impris i table i benche i planck one	6	8	
formme one olde cubbarde, one chaire & one painted cloth			
Item ii pewter platters, one potinger one salt cellar & ii candlestickes & one sawcer	4	0	
Item ii brasse pannes, one cawdron and one brasse pott, one chafing dish one possint, one settle	20	0	
Item one broche, one Andyron, one pothanger & pothooks & one girdiron	2	6	
Item one bedstede, and olde fether bed, one payer of sheetes one bolster, one pillowe two coverletts one cupto: & two coffers	30	8	
Item two tubbes, one kyber one bolting hutch, one halfe bussshell one lidingy barrell one spinning wheale, one boll one bucket one treen platter, vi disshes xii trenchers, vi spones	7	0	

	£	s	d
Item one hatchet, one bill, ii riphooks	5	0	
one pith: ² , one ripper, two angors parre			
olde Iron, one Iron wedge			
Item two coates i jerkine, ii pair of hose,	20	0	
ii shirtes, ii pair of shoos one hatt & one			
cloke			
Item xxii sheep wethers yewes & tegges	3	0	0
Item one cowe & one bullock	30	0	
Item iii hogges & two pigges	20	0	
Item one horse	26	8	
Item halfe a cart & halfe a plowe & two	22	0	
harroes with thrapplinnes			
Item iii quart wheat, vi quart barley	4	0	0
Item peapon fatches & oates	26	8	
Item in the fiede viii acres of wheat &	8	4	
fatches			
Item one cock v hennes iii ducks	3	6	
sum totall £xx xiiiis ³			

1. Probably cupboard contracted
2. Probably pitchfork contracted
3. The total should be £18 13s 0d. The standard of mathematical skill of clerks at this period was not high. Research has shown that 10 per cent of the Micheldever inventories were incorrectly summed (Anne Mackay pers com).

One interesting aspect of this inventory and the others that survive from Foxcotte is that they may well give us some information that was lacking from the text of the 1614 map. In that document (see p 195) the number of sheep and cattle that a copyholder could put upon the common is set at a certain number to the yardland, but the figures are missing. John Helliard had 22 sheep, John Page had 22 sheep and John Tredgold (sic) had 41 sheep. It is therefore likely that the Helliards and Pages each farmed one yardland and the Tredgolds farmed two and had twice as many sheep. As far as cattle are concerned, the Tredgolds and Helliards each had two. One would have expected the Tredgolds to have twice the Helliards' number, and this would be true if only cows are counted. The Tredgolds have two cows, whereas the Helliards have a single cow and a bullock. Obviously, when a cow calved, the young would remain on the common until old enough to be sold and the

bullock mentioned in the Helliard inventory can probably be explained as such.

John Helliard's is the only inventory to include agricultural implements such as carts, ploughs and harrows, and the fact that he owned half a cart and half a plough throws light on agricultural systems operating in the late sixteenth century, with husbandmen sharing the large implements, as they either lacked the capital to purchase individual items or did not farm enough land to need a plough to themselves. John Helliard owned the only horse recorded in an inventory and it is probable that it went with the cart or plough when they were used by himself or the other partner. Whereas John Tredgold possessed a pair of cards for carding wool but no spinning wheel, John Helliard's household possessed a spinning wheel but no cards, and it is possible that other items of equipment were shared between households.

The inventory started in the hall but gives no further sub-divisions of the house, although it would seem to consist of hall, kitchen, bedroom and outhouse. In common with other Foxcotte households, the Helliards owned a number of metal vessels. It appears from the inventories that if a generic term such as pewter is given at the start of a list of vessels it applies to the whole list. If so, the same probably applies to the treen (wooden) platter, 6 dishes, 12 trenchers and 6 spoons. Ceramics, as in other inventories, do not seem to be of sufficient value to be listed.

Between 1590 and 1599 five annual lists of the tything men survive (Andover Archives). The tything was a medieval feudal organisation consisting of a group of villagers who elected a tything man as their leader. The tything was responsible to the lord of the manor for the behaviour of all its members, and if one member refused to do as the lord ordered the whole tything would have to pay his fine. In this way the lord could control the peasantry by making them police themselves. Foxcotte seems to have had three tything men although often only one is listed as appearing at the Court Leet, and the occurrence of some names for periods of three years suggests that

the office of tything man was carried out on a three yearly rota basis. If we knew how many people composed a tything, usually all males over 12 years of age, we would have more idea of the Foxcotte population at this time, but no figure survives as the manorial records are mostly lost. It also appears, from other documents that give places of residence for some of the people listed as tything men, that often two out of the three were not inhabitants of Foxcotte but farmed Foxcotte land.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

Area G (Fig 12), *Southern Structure* (Figs 13, 14) The southernmost building, 13m × 5m, was constructed to the north of a yard, created by removing first the clay and gravel capping, and then some of the chalk, between the intended house site and the road to the south. The south wall of the house was built against the back face of the terrace, which was 0.35m in height at its eastern end. Two courses of knapped flints were laid on the chalk, and upright timbers were placed with their face edges in line with the knapped flint face, and their rear edges on the clay behind. The wall was then built up around the posts to a height of 0.4m with irregular courses of knapped and unknapped flints. Fragments of a Purbeck stone mortar and of roof tiles were incorporated. As the wall grew it became thicker, (due to the angle of the terrace face) to a maximum of 0.5m at floor level (Fig 15).

In the southwest corner of the building an oven was constructed. There were no post spaces in the oven walls, and shorter lengths which sat on the top of the stone oven surround may have been used. The oven itself was formed of knapped flints, battered in towards the base, creating a bowl-shaped firing chamber. The fire mouth had been built of mortared roof-tile fragments, and the oven surround was constructed of unmortared, flint rubble walling incorporating pieces of malmstone and roof-tile.

The north wall was constructed in a similar way to that on the south, but the posts stood on the surface of the natural. The east end of

the wall was built on pre-existing layers of earlier occupation, and these were cut through to place the posts on the firmer deposits below. Both the long walls, running east-west, supported an interrupted sill beam which, when the house burnt, resulted in calcination of the flints. No such traces of burning were found on the shorter north-south walls.

The north-south partition walls were slighter than the main walls. The wall between the west and central rooms had been partly destroyed, but the extant portions were only a single flint in height although protected from later damage by their position on the terrace. The partition between the central and eastern rooms was more substantial. Some 1.7m of its southern end had been constructed at over twice the thickness of the northerly portion, 64–75cm as opposed to 30cm. There was also a large post space at the southern end of this reinforced section which would have held a post of a size larger than normally used in the wall construction. In relation to this, it must be noted that there were more posts in the wall of the eastern end of the building, and these two factors suggest a floored upper chamber, with a means of access supported on the reinforced wall.

The superstructure was probably a timber frame with wattle and daub infill. Numerous fragments of fired daub were found in all three rooms and scattered across the yards around the building. One piece from the central room had two surfaces extant and was 4.5cm thick. This may however have come from a hood above the hearth. Some daub fragments had withy impressions of between 1 and 2cm diameter, and others, from the east room, bore traces of whitewash.

The building probably had a thatched or shingled roof, as fewer roof tiles than would have been expected from a tiled roof were found. Many of the tile fragments were small and some had mortar adhering to them and may therefore have come from earlier hearths or ovens.

The building was destroyed in a fire and, though it could not be ascertained if it was still in occupation or was derelict, the former

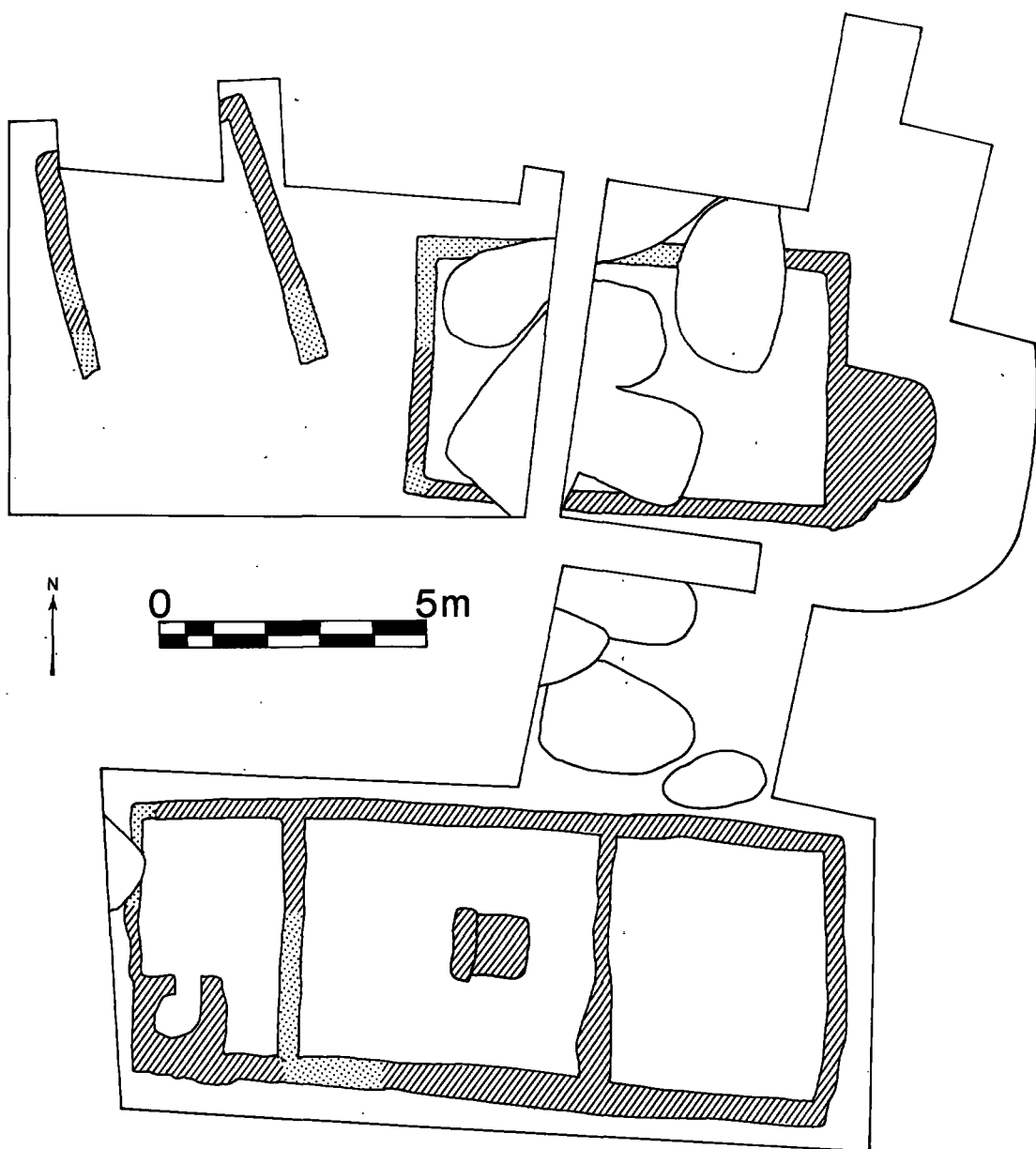


Fig 12. Plan of Area G showing the excavated (hatched) and conjectural (stippled) walls. Detailed plans of each structure appear in Figs 14, 17 and 19.



Fig 13. The southern structure looking towards the southwest. Photo: A Russel.

seems more likely. The door and window fittings were found where they had fallen, and some pottery vessels were found, partly burnt, beneath the ashes of the fire. This burning and sealing in ash was probably responsible for the excellent preservation of the ironwork. The exact position of the fittings was supposedly recorded by the excavators (AAS), but has not been made available to the author. A coin of 1450–53 was recovered from the east room, apparently in the topsoil.

The Central Room. The central room was probably a hall-type room open to the rafters. The hearth was of two phases, the earliest being constructed of roof tile fragments laid on edge. Later, the hearth was extended to the west by the addition of roof tiles laid flat, and by the construction of a hearthback of malmstone blocks. Associated with both phases were postholes on either side of the hearth, possibly supporting a daub hood. The first phase

postholes were sealed by the second phase extension. The phase one hearth had been repaired a number of times, at least once by additional on-edge roof tiles, and also by the use of hearth tiles. The final repair, probably contemporary with the hearthback, was of malmstone blocks (Fig 16).

Superstructure and Fittings. The superstructure of the house was probably a timber frame with panels of wattle and daub between the structural elements. The main wall posts did not align with the internal divisions or with each other across the house, and this would argue against a cruck construction. The end walls, however, seem to have been of slighter construction, with posts only on the corners (except at the southwest corner, complicated by the oven) and this points to their not being load bearing. The weight of the roof and any upper floor may therefore have been transmitted through crucks at the ends of the

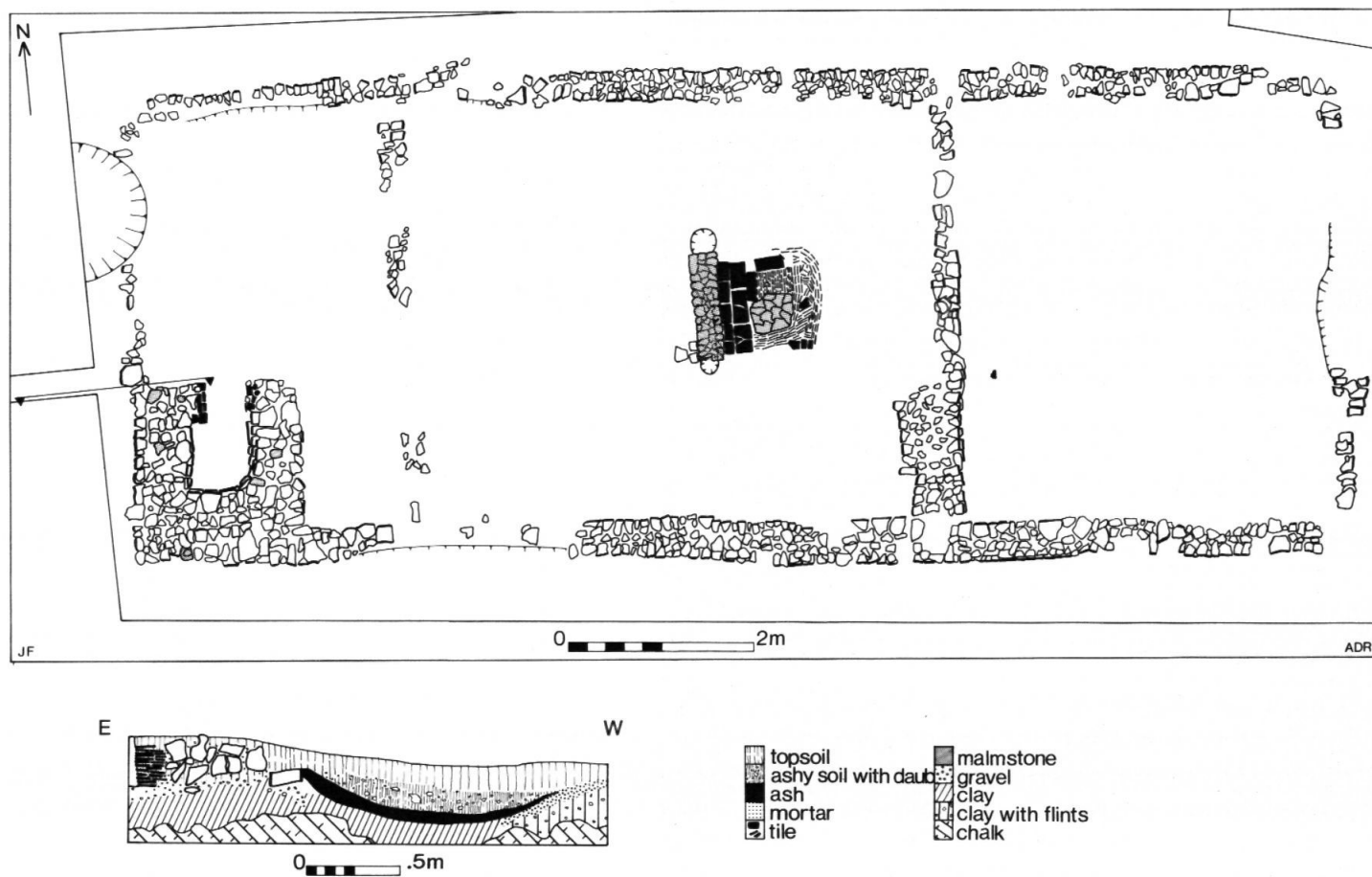


Fig 14. Plan of the southern structure on Area G.



Fig 15. The south face of the south wall showing the post spaces. Photo: A Russel.

building. A mixture of upright timbers and crucks was discovered in a fifteenth/sixteenth century hall from Boarhunt (Harris 1982, 14).

Parallels can be drawn with the method of construction used at Netherton, Hants, to build the fourteenth century manor house. Upright timbers were there built into the gable walls in a similar manner, interpreted by the excavator as supports for the ends of the roof beams. A sillbeam was not thought to have been present, and the timbers were thought to have acted as strengthening for the wall rather than the base for a timber-framed superstructure, which seems to be the case at Foxcotte. The corners of the Netherton structure were strengthened with upright timbers and this can be paralleled at Foxcotte, although here they are seen as an integral part of the timber frame.

Parallels also exist at Netherton for the internal fixtures in the southern house (Fairbrother pers com). At Netherton, the central hearth had been built in two phases, and had postholes on either side. Like Foxcotte it had been constructed of both roof and hearth tiles. The oven or kiln in the south-west corner of the Foxcotte building can be paralleled with one at Netherton belonging to a period when the manor house was not occupied by the lord of the manor, but sub-let to a tenant. The oven was there interpreted as a malting kiln. The Netherton kiln was built at the same time as a large oven was constructed in the same building, and the two must have had complementary uses. At Foxcotte the oven was placed in a separate building, but the two together must have been considered to be essential items in a fairly wealthy late-medieval household.

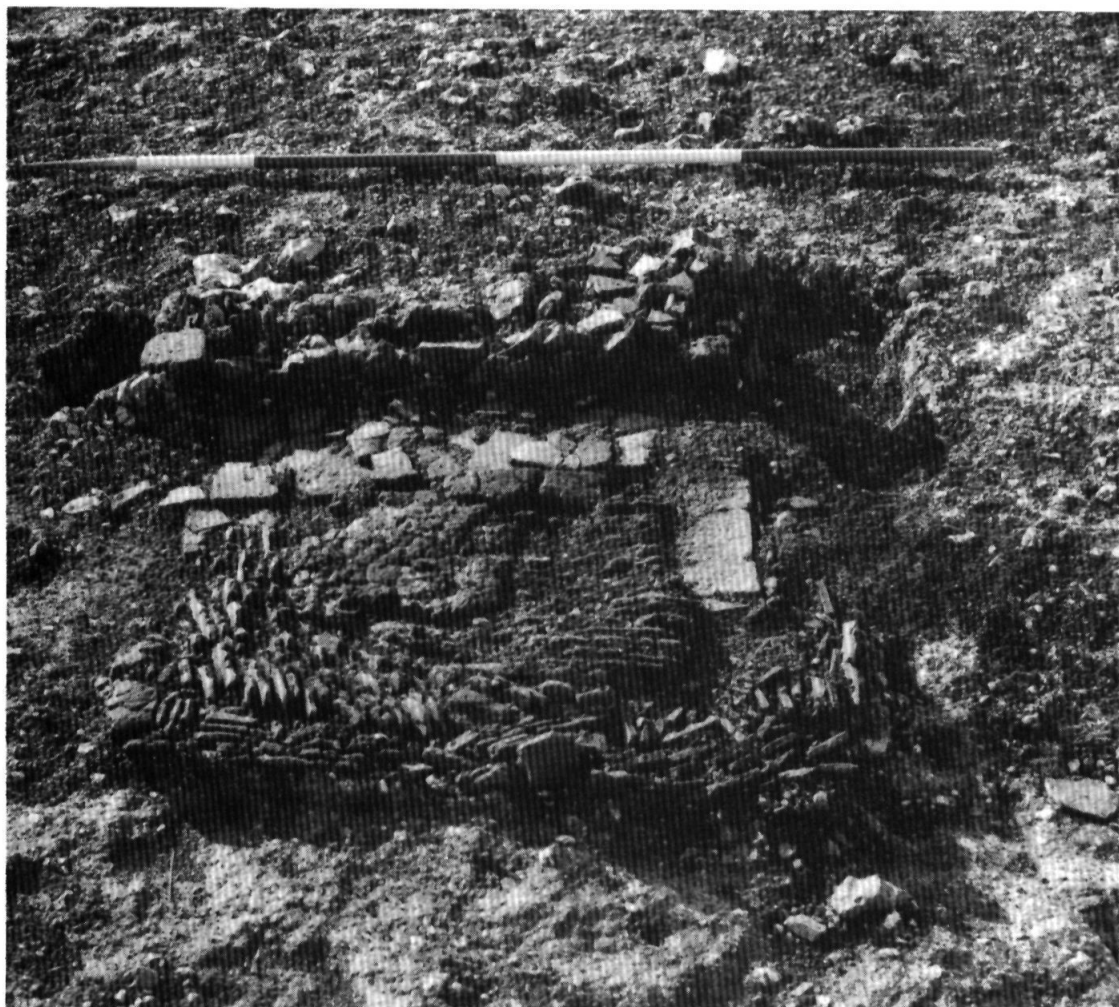


Fig 16. The tile and malmstone hearth in the central room of the southern structure. Photo: A Russel.

Northern Structure (Fig 17)

This building was constructed on a terrace cut into the hillside, and was built to a slightly trapezoidal plan, being 8m from east to west, with a west wall 4.4m in length, and an east wall of 5.2m (see Figs 17, 18).

The north and west walls had been largely destroyed by later pits, and the south wall, being on the edge of the terrace, had been eroded away apart from ten flints. Enough traces remained, however, for a tentative

reconstruction of the building. It appears to have been built with timber uprights at the corners, the northern two being sunk into postholes. Between the posts, knapped and unknapped flints were laid, in some areas interlocking in a herring-bone fashion. The north wall was more substantial than the west, and parallels with the southern house would suggest that the north and south walls were the load-bearing elements. The east wall was built in a different fashion, with a cob

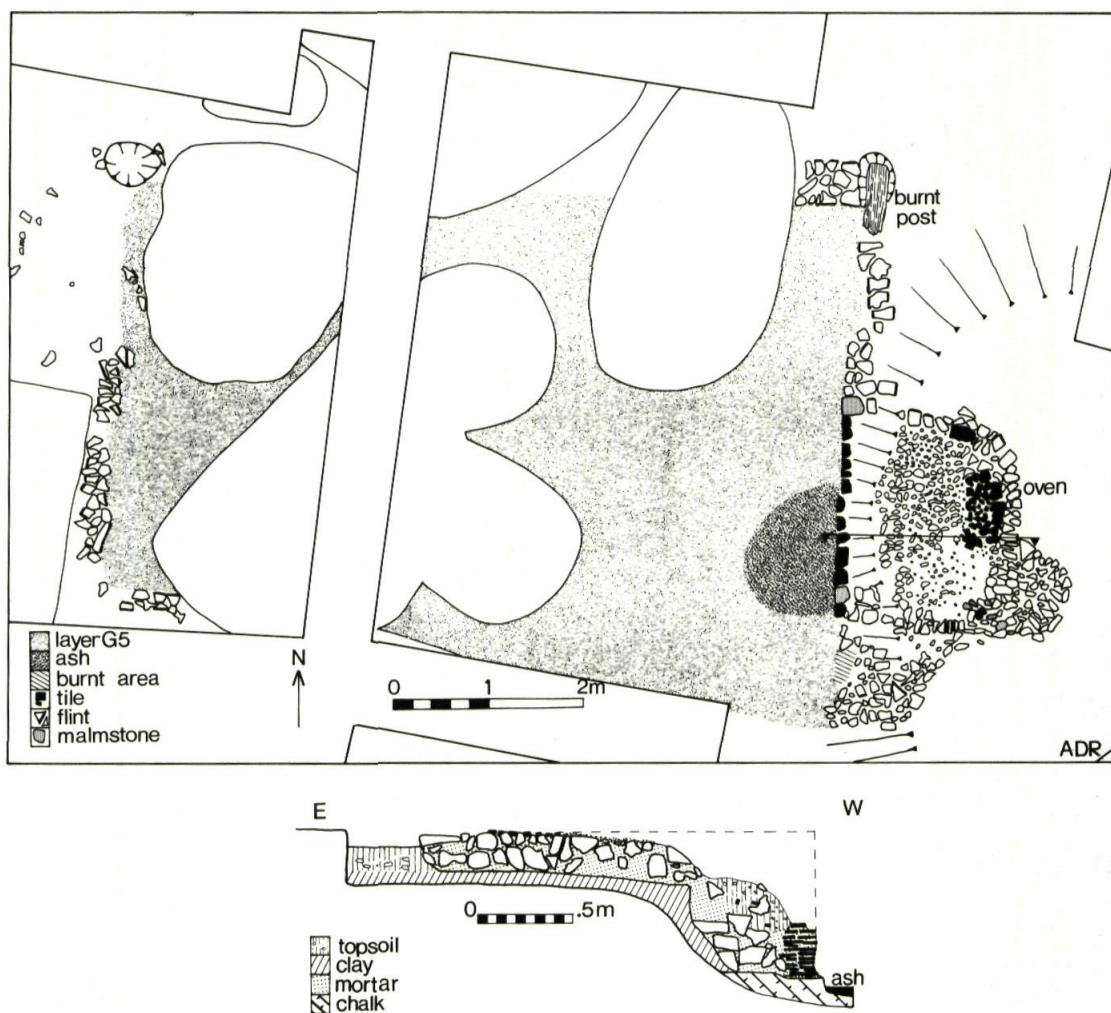


Fig 17. Plan of the northern structure with a section through the oven base.

(rammed crushed chalk and clay) base to the flint footing. Built as one with this wall was a large oven, as follows:

The terracing operation had removed the clay capping from the chalk, and a wall of roof tile fragments, bound with mortar, was constructed on the chalk to a height of about 80cm. The turf was removed where the oven base was to be and, into the space created, was poured a mass of large flint nodules in a chalky mortar matrix (see section, Fig 17). An area of loose flints on the southern corner of the sub-rounded oven may have represented the

base of a chimney, but these flints were unmortared and may well have been later rubble.

The oven floor was constructed on the flints and mortar, once it had set, and consisted of a layer of fine, flint river gravel as a base for clay oven tiles. The end result was an oven with internal measurements of 1.9m across and 1.7m deep, and a floor area of nearly three square metres.

The oven experienced considerable use, as 10cm of the solid chalk floor was eroded away in front of it. A spread of trampled charcoal and wood ash was found concentrated at the southern end of the oven



Fig 18. General view of the northern structure with oven base to the east. Photo: J Walker.

face, probably marking the spot where the ashes were piled after the oven had been raked out, once the correct temperature had been reached.

The nature of the building's superstructure is not known, but it was probably constructed in a similar manner to the southern house for which it served as bakehouse and kitchen. No evidence was found to show that the interrupted sill-beam technique had been used, but this may have been destroyed by later pit digging. The lack of roof tiles points to a thatched roof, and the two burnt corner posts and patches of burnt cob show that it ended its life in flames, like the southern building. If both houses had had thatched roofs and were in contemporary use it is unlikely that one would have burnt down without the conflagration spreading, as their eaves would have been less than 6m apart. No fragments of burnt daub were found in the destruction layer of the northern structure, and it is therefore likely that the timber frame was filled with undaubed wattle panels. This would accord with

an outbuilding not intended for occupation, and would allow light and air into a building used primarily for cooking and storage. No iron window or door fittings were recovered, which points to simpler wall openings than the dwelling house.

Western Structure (Fig 19)

The remains of a building were found in the northwest corner of Area G. It was built in a similar fashion to the other structures of this phase but was not terraced into the slope, instead being constructed directly on the clay capping the chalk. The southern part of the building had been eroded, and its full length is therefore not known, but the surviving portions indicate a structure at least 4m in length, with an internal width of 3.7m. This is 20 percent smaller than the other two buildings in the area, which both have internal widths of 4.5m.

The walls were built of knapped and unknapped flints, with fewer knapped flints

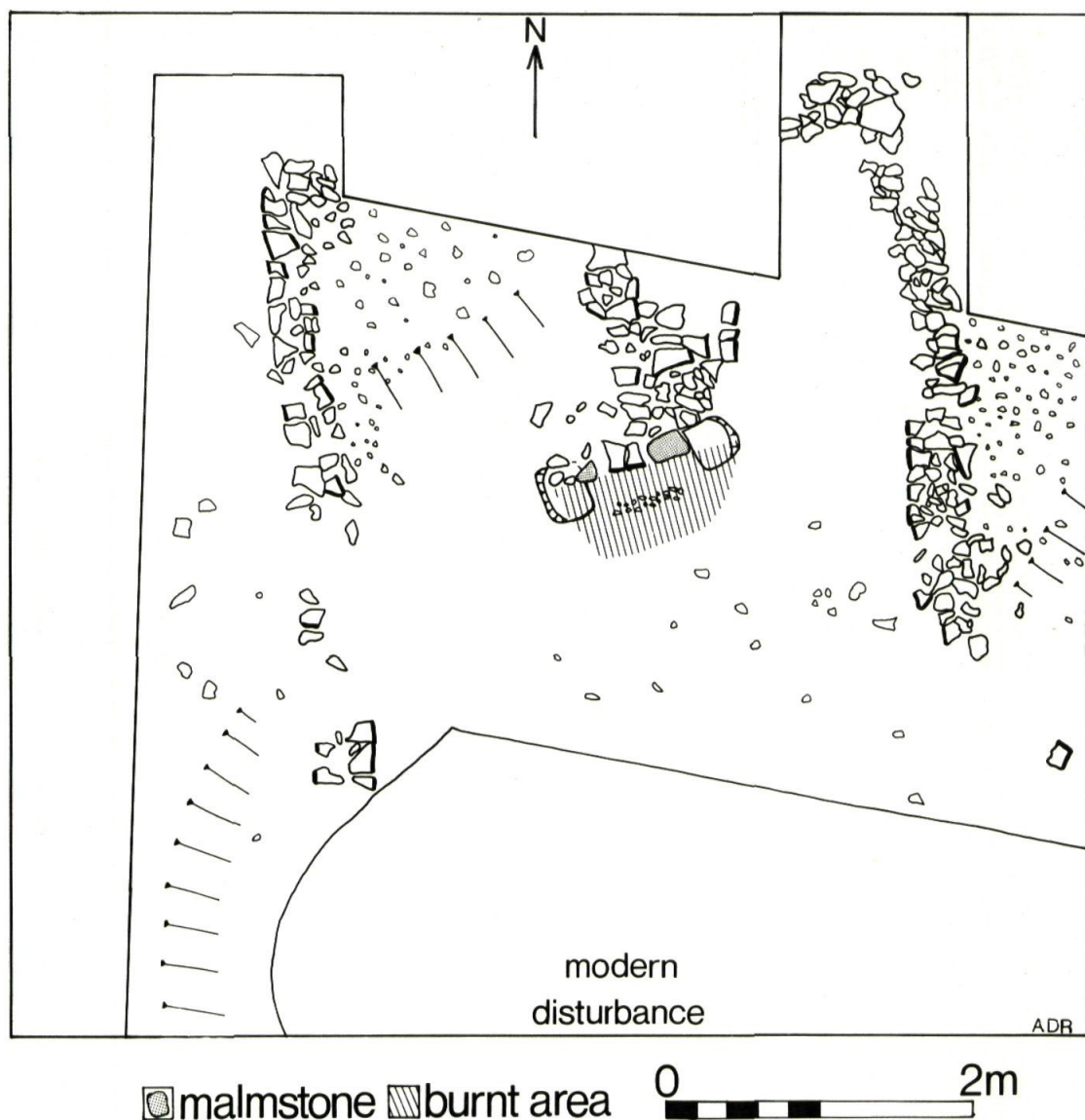


Fig 19. Plan of the western structure on Area G.

used at the northern end. No post spaces were present. The only internal feature was a hearth or oven, built into the north end of the building. The hearth was originally like that in the south house, with a pair of posts flanking the rear, and supporting either a daub fireback or a chimneyhood. This was altered by remov-

ing the posts, the combustion area was enlarged, and a flint and malmstone fireback was installed. Probably in contemporaneous use was an oven behind the fireplace, only the base of which survived. The internal area of the building was marked by many fragments of roof tile which, as they were not found outside

the walls, probably do not come from the roof but from a tiled hearth or a tile face to the oven. None of the tiles had adhering mortar and they were perhaps bonded with the local, clayey soil.

The small size of this building, and the lack of posts to hold the superstructure, suggest that it was an outbuilding of probably one storey, and it may have served as the external kitchen for the south house. Its rather unstable construction would have had a short life and it was probably replaced by the northern structure.

Area H

Traces of occupation from period 5 were found on Area H, in the form of pottery and metalwork incorporated in later levels, and this part of the settlement was certainly occupied in this phase. A buckle from sealed floor deposits possibly comes from the same manufacturer as that found in the south house on Area G. It is not possible to link the majority of the artifacts with any structural evidence, however, and this area will therefore be discussed in the following phase.

THE HEARTH TILES

Three fabrics were present: 1) flint tempered, 2) sand tempered and 3) fine, sandy with red iron pellets. The latter was very similar to that of the phase 4 roof tile, and probably comes from the same source.

No reconstructable tiles were recovered, except one from the central hearth in the south building, Area G. This was a flint tempered tile and measured 25 by 8 cm and was 3.5cm thick. The average thickness of the tiles in both fabrics 1 and 3 was 3.2cm, whereas that of fabric 2 was 2.3cm. Fabric 2 also differed in having knife stabbing on the underside of the tiles, which is a common tradition in Sussex (Barton 1979, 68) and Southampton (Platt and Coleman-Smith 1975 2, 220). This, combined with the difference in thickness, perhaps points to fabric 2 being of non-local origin.

What little dating evidence there is from the stratigraphy points to fabrics 2 and 3 pre-dating fabric 1. Only fabrics 2 and 3 were found in the west building in Area G, which seems to be the earliest of the three structures there, and fabric 2 was found built into the wall of the southern-most house, which also had a tile of fabric 1 in its final stage

hearth. Fabric 2 was also present in a posthole of the earliest building on Area A.

On the other hand, all three fabrics had been used for the floor of the oven of the north house. This may indicate their contemporaneity, but if that building was a replacement for the earlier west building then some tiles may have been reused.

THE POTTERY by C Matthews

Pottery of phase 5 date was found mainly in Area G, and in one small pit (465) on Area H, along with a few residual sherds from the latter area. The concentration in Area G is associated with the three buildings with flint sleeper walls. Two of these, the north and the south buildings, are known to have burnt down, from the archaeological evidence. The fire-blackened pottery from these two buildings would suggest that the fire was accidental rather than deliberate, since it makes up several nearly complete vessels. One would expect that the vessels would have been removed if the fire had been started deliberately to destroy the house after its useful life. No complete or nearly complete vessels were found within the buildings in Area H, Area A or the unburnt building in Area G.

This, therefore, presents an opportunity to look at the pottery assemblage which was used in the two buildings at the time of the fire. Unfortunately much of the pottery, due to a lack of on-site recording, must now be classed as unstratified and many sherds of the same vessel were apparently found scattered both in the buildings and in the yard. It was therefore not possible in post-excavation work to pinpoint the exact location of the vessels within each building. Nor was it always possible to distinguish whether the unburnt pottery had been discarded before, after, or at the time of the fire. All the fifteenth/sixteenth century pottery has therefore been dealt with as one assemblage, although it is probable that most of the unburnt pottery is pre-fire. The burnt vessels are described as such beside their illustration numbers in microfiche and, since none of the pottery appears to have been burnt through domestic use, the word 'burnt' refers to the

building fire. An idea of the general location of each vessel is also given besides each illustration number, *eg* yard, or north building.

In the phase 5 contexts 1,085 sherds weighing 11,814g were recovered. Of the assemblage the following are residual:

Type	Sherds	Weight
Roman	1.3%	0.39%
Saxon	0.1%	0.02%
C13/C14	24%	19.82%
Total % residual	25.4%	20.23%

The high proportion of residual thirteenth/fourteenth century pottery in phase 5 contexts can be accounted for partly by the disturbance of earlier layers during the construction of the building platforms, and partly by the difficulties the excavators had in recognising stratigraphic changes.

The contemporary phase 5 assemblage consists of 812 sherds weighing 9,541g, which have been divided into the following fabric groups:

- 10) Medium sandy;
- 11) Fine sandy;
- 12) Coarse sandy;
- 13) Tudor green;

8) Medium sandy, white. A small amount of this fabric appeared in the phase 4 assemblage, but it seems to be more established by phase 5.

Fabric 10: Medium sandy (Fig 11.57–60; Fig 20.61–66).

Quantity: 73% by sherd count and 78.8% by weight. Description: Hard clay matrix with dense, small to medium-sized (0.2–0.3mm), transparent quartz grains. Common iron oxides, and sometimes occasional mica. Usually oxidised to pinky/light brown on the surfaces with a reduced grey core, but a few examples are reduced to a dark grey throughout. Forms: Cisterns or pitchers, with some cooking pots and bowls.

Source: The kiln which produced this ware has yet to be located. The Knighton kiln on the Isle of Wight was producing similar material but of different styles and in a coarser fabric (Fennelly 1969,

97–110). The pitchers and cisterns in this fabric might be compared stylistically to the Late West Sussex Group: the Middleton Group (Barton 1967; Cunliffe 1973, 45–46). These vessels are characterised by their white slip, wholly or partially under the glaze. Other elements also compare with the Foxcotte vessels, such as multiple incised horizontal lines around the neck and shoulder, applied horizontal bands and slashed handles (Barton 1967, Cunliffe 1973). However, in detail, none compare exactly. Binstead, Sussex, has been suggested as a kiln source for Late West Sussex wares (Cunliffe 1973, 46). This might seem too distant to be a possible source but white painted wares from Graffham, Sussex, also reached Foxcotte. Alternatively, incised single wavy line decoration (Fig 11.57, 60) is common on Wessex Red Ware at Christchurch (Thomson *et al* 1983, 53 and 58; Fig 19.59–61) but this ware lacks the white-slipped bands of the Foxcotte examples and has plain rather than thumb pressed bases.

Fabric 11: Fine sandy (Fig 21.67).

Quantity: 6% by sherd count and 12.1% by weight. Description: Dense, fine transparent quartz grains 0.1mm and less. Common iron oxides. Scattered mica in some examples.

Forms: Cisterns.

Source: The featured sherds were all stylistically similar, except possibly in the treatment of bases, to those of fabric 10. It is thus possible they came from the same source, with fabric 11 being a finer variation.

Fabric 12: Coarse sandy.

Quantity: 1% by sherd count and 0.6% by weight. Description: Clay matrix with coarse sand temper, generally 0.5–1mm. Iron oxides are scattered throughout.

Forms: No vessel forms could be recognised.

Manufacture: Wheelmade.

Source: It is possible that this fabric is a coarser variant of fabric 10.

Fabric 13: Tudor Green (Fig 21.68–71).

Quantity: 7% by sherd count and 1.8% by weight. Since the vessels involved are small, light and fragile, a better estimate is perhaps provided by the 'estimated vessel equivalent' method, 'eve' (Orton 1975, 30–35), calculated on the rim and base percentages. This gave one Tudor Green 'eve' to every three fabric 10 'eves', and shows that this fabric played a more important role in the assem-

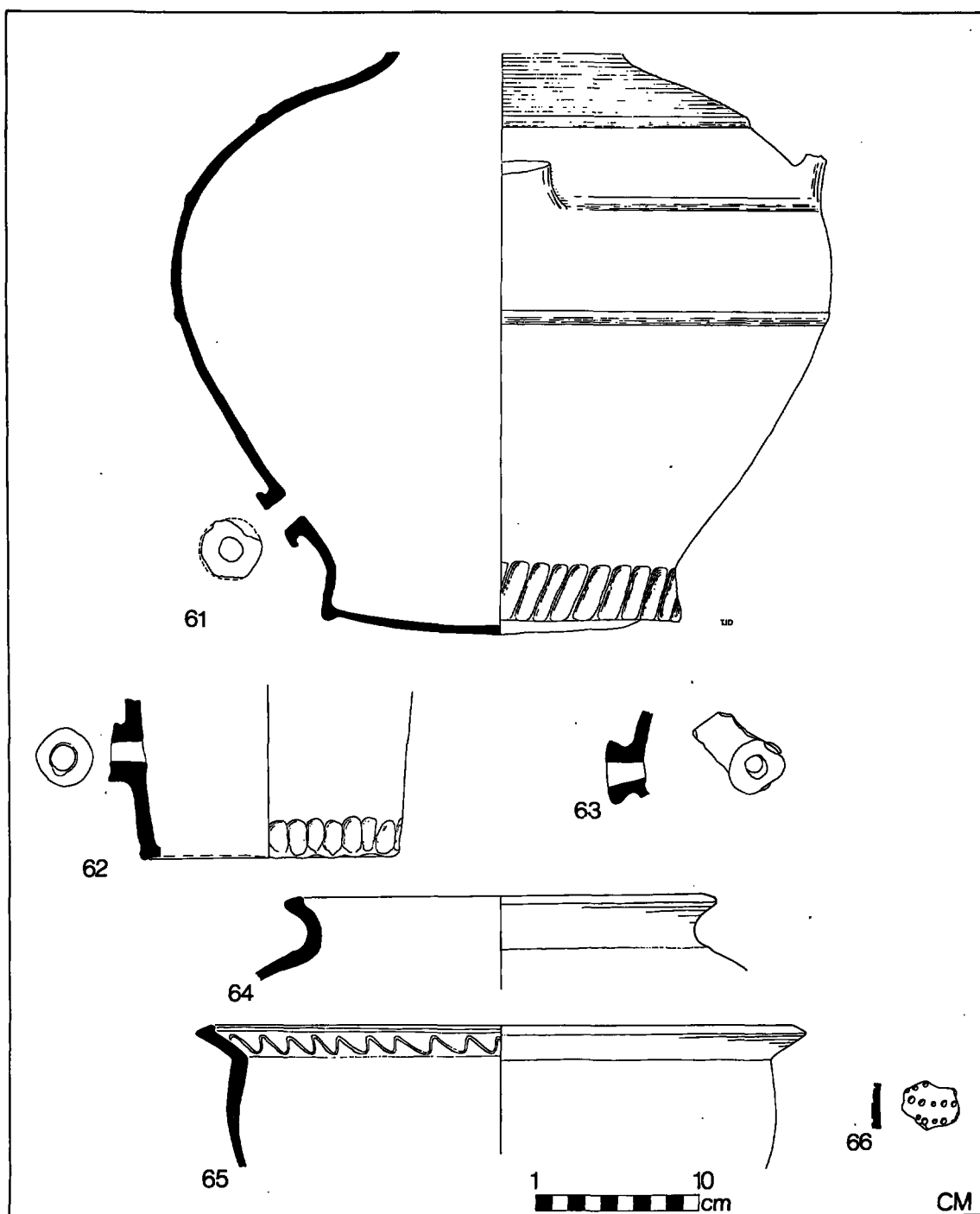


Fig 20. Pottery of fabric 10.

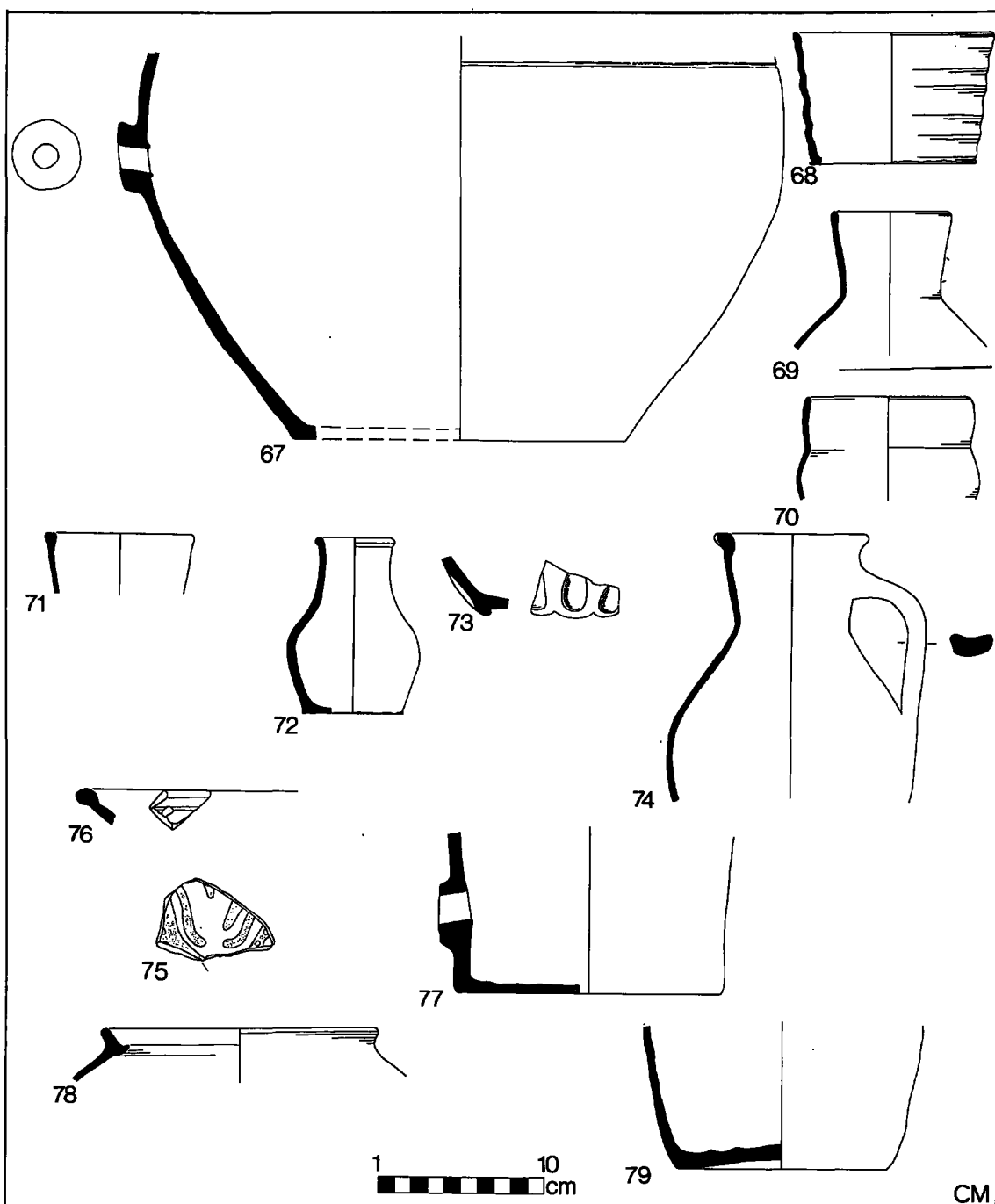


Fig 21. Pottery of fabrics 8 (72-4); 11 (67); 13 (68-71); 16 (78); 20 (77); and 23 (79). Also white-slipped ware (75) and Green on White slipware (76).

blage than simply weighing or counting sherds would suggest.

Description: Extremely fine, white clay matrix with common, small, less than 0.1mm, transparent quartz grains. Occasional small haematite particles.

Forms: Drinking vessels.

Source: This fabric was produced as part of the Southern Whiteware industry, which exploited the white clays of the Reading Beds in Surrey, Hampshire, Berkshire and Sussex (Holling 1977, 61–66). Given the location of Foxcotte, kilns on the Surrey/Hampshire border, such as Farnborough Hill, would be a likely provenance for this fabric.

Fabric 8: Medium sandy, white (Fig 21.72–74).

Quantity: 13% by sherd count and 6.7% by weight.

Description: See fabric 8, phase 4.

Forms: Bottle and jug.

Source: The bottle form was being produced at Laverstock in the fourteenth century (Musty *et al* 1969, 133; Fig 22.179, 180) but also at Farnborough Hill, Hampshire, in the fifteenth century (Holling 1977, 62; Fig 1.11). Only detailed fabric analysis could determine the provenance of this vessel. The similarity of the jug form (Fig 21.74) to those from the Cheam kilns, Surrey (Marshall 1924, 79–97; Orton 1982, 63, fig 17 24–29) and to the form and fabric at Farnborough Hill suggests that it was produced by the Southern Whiteware industries. Yet another source for this fabric is suggested by the sherds decorated with red slipped bands, that of Dorset (Thomson *et al* 1983, 53). However, Dorset Red Painted wares are generally oxidised to a brown-red colour although cooking pots and jugs in a white sandy fabric (Dorset White Wares) are known from Christchurch and Poole (Thomson *et al* 1983).

Fifteenth/Sixteenth Century Pottery from Unstratified Contexts: Graffham White-Painted Ware.

Fabric: Abundant transparent sands, 0.1–0.4mm. Common iron oxides and some mica. Reduced grey. Two sherds were found in a general unstratified layer. They were identified by their characteristic white slip decoration, which are two bands joining each other.

Provenance: Graffham, Sussex (Aldsworth and Down 1976; Streeten 1980).

Date: Mid-fifteenth to mid-sixteenth century (Cunliffe 1973).

Distribution: Foxcotte is outside the known distribution area of the ware (Streeten 1980, 110), and it probably reached Foxcotte through subsidiary marketing.

Conclusion

The fifteenth/sixteenth century pottery is characterised by large sandy cisterns and Tudor Green cups. The proportions of the different fabrics can be seen in Table 7. It is worth noting again that the proportion of Tudor Green is more significant when the pottery is quantified by 'eves' than by sherd count and weight.

The phase 5 assemblage is very different from that of phase 4, not only in fabric but also in the vessel forms; cisterns and Tudor Green cups appear and the gritty cooking pots of phase 4 are no longer present. This change must be viewed in the context of the general change in pottery assemblages at the beginning of the fifteenth century which is apparent from the archaeological evidence throughout the country (Moorhouse 1979, 57–58). This seems to have occurred for a number of reasons. Economic changes meant that, firstly, by the late Middle Ages all sections of society could afford to drink ale regularly (Dyer 1982, 36), which resulted in the mass production of cisterns to store and carry the ale (Moorhouse 1978, 7–8), and cups from which to drink it (Dyer 1982, 40). Secondly, more people were able to afford drinking vessels made from pottery rather than wood (Dyer 1982). Documentary evidence (Matthews and Green 1969, 1) indicates that Tudor Green cups were being produced in the late Middle Ages as replacements for wooden vessels (which would not have survived in the phase 4 contexts). Economic changes also meant that all households could afford a cast bronze cooking pot in preference to a pottery one (Dyer 1982, 39). The low number of cooking pots in the phase 5 pottery assemblage points to the use of metal cooking vessels and, indeed, such vessels were found in excavation. All these changes were accommodated in the late Middle Ages along with changes in organisation of the pottery industry which are apparent from the documentary sources (Le Patourel 1968, 110–111). The different assemblages from Areas A and G do not therefore equate to strictly functional differences but are a result of more complex

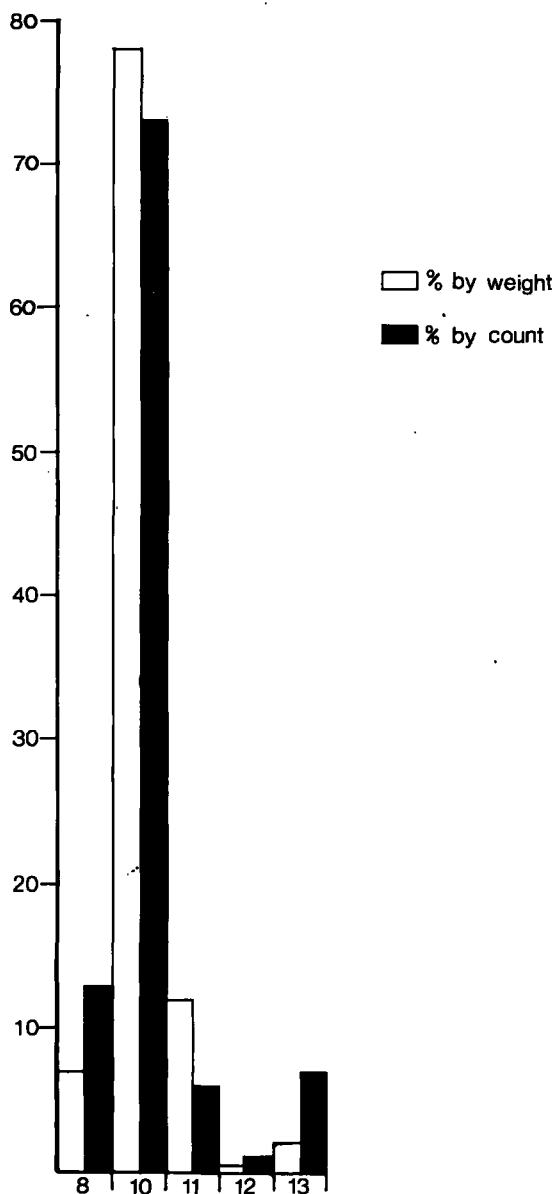


Table 7. Histogram showing the relative proportions of the fifteenth/sixteenth century pottery fabrics.

factors such as the economic and social changes within the later medieval period.

The nationwide changes in the organisation of the pottery industry are reflected in the Foxcotte material in two ways. In terms of

standardisation, the phase 5 vessels show a greater degree of standardisation than those of phase 4. This can be seen by comparing the range of cooking pot rims from phase 4 with the standardised rims of the cisterns of phase 5. It is a change linked to manufacturing methods. The phase 5 vessels are all wheelmade whereas the majority of the phase 4 assemblage were handmade. This may have been as a result of increased labour costs and the general shortage of labour in the late Middle Ages (Dyer 1982, 38).

Within Area G it is not possible from the pottery alone to suggest different functions for the three buildings excavated. However, it is worth noting that most of the Tudor Green sherds came from the south building. One sherd came from the north building, but it came from context 255 which was thought to be a later pit cut into the demolition deposits. No Tudor Green came from the west building. A similar distribution pattern can be seen with fabric 8, the medium sandy white ware. Most came from the south building with only one jug (Fig 21.74) coming from the north building.

Another notable difference is that the westernmost building contained little pottery compared with the other two. This may be due to the fact that it was earlier than the other two buildings, and was not caught in the fire, rather than any functional difference. As far as functional differentiation within each building is concerned, it was only possible at the post-excavation stage to determine where vessels came from in the south building. Here, no pottery was found in the central room. However, the following burnt vessels were found in the east room:

Pitcher (cistern ? Fig 11.57)

Cistern (Fig 21.67)

White-ware jug (Fig 21.74)

Tudor Green rim fragment, context 247, unillustrated.

And from the west room:

Tudor Green drinking jug (Fig 21.69)

Red painted white-ware sherd partially green-glazed (context 210 and 232, unillustrated).

The following vessels were burnt and came from outside the south wall of the house, possibly from an upper storey:

White-ware bottle (Fig 21.72)

Thumb-pressed jug base sherd (Fig 21.73)

Tudor Green handle (from a cup or jug, context 243, unillustrated).

This can be compared with the assemblage from the north building which would seem to have been caught by the fire at the same time. None of these vessels can be located precisely within the building:

Pitcher/cistern (Fig 11.60)

Cistern (Fig 20.61)

Bowl (Fig 20.65)

White-ware plain jug base (context 246, unillustrated).

It has been suggested that the north building was not only a bake-house but was also used for brewing (Green 1981, 20), due to the presence of cisterns. Brewing may well have been carried out, but the presence of cisterns does not necessarily mean that the buildings in Area G were used for this purpose in a more specialised way than any other at Foxcote. Other contexts of this date from elsewhere on the site would be expected to produce a similar range of vessels. Indeed pottery assemblages from Manor Houses of this period produce similar vessel types in their assemblages, for instance at Wickham Glebe (Matthews forthcoming) and at Chalton (Cunliffe 1973, 45–55). Documentary evidence for the breach of the assize of ale at the Manor Courts of Faccombe, 1361–1366, suggests, from the number of people fined, that brewing was commonplace (Fairbrother 1974, 18).

The dating of the pottery from phase 5, and particularly that burnt in the fire, is unfortunately difficult to establish precisely. A general fifteenth century date can be given to the cisterns, and a broad fifteenth/sixteenth century date to the Tudor Green forms. The Tudor Green drinking jug (Fig 21.69) can perhaps be dated to the late fifteenth/early sixteenth centuries and this date, in conjunction with that for the cisterns, might give a late fifteenth century date for the group burnt in the fire.

As in phase 4, no foreign imports were found in this phase. This might seem surprising in view of the number of Tudor Green vessels. But the economic situation was probably much the same as it had been in phase 4, with only the wealthier sites being able to afford such imports, or the goods they may have contained.

METALWORK from Area G by S Langford

Metal objects from Area G can be assigned to four distinct site subdivisions – the north, south and west buildings, and the yard area.

Yard Area. The yard surface area and pits contained small domestic items which seem to have been deposited after the demolition or destruction of one or more buildings. There is very little direct evidence for fire damage to these finds, apart from one pintle which appears fire-reddened.

The yard surface and topsoil contained some 70 iron objects, of which 60 or so are nails or nail-fragments. Other iron finds included a swivel-ring (Fig 25.12), a carpenter's bit (Fig 26.17), a knife (Fig 26.1), a cleat and horse-shoe fragments. A number of small, neat cut-nails were found which have distinctive double-lobed heads (Fig 26.23). These nails may have provided a decorative means of fitting panelling but it seems more likely that they were cobblers nails of a type which was fairly common until recent times.

West Building. This structure was very eroded and has been dated to the fifteenth-sixteenth century.

The iron finds from this building included nails of various types, mostly on the demolition layers and in the topsoil. Also in the topsoil were one or two horse-shoes and a curry-comb handle of a type usually ascribed to the thirteenth-fifteenth century period (Fig 25.8). The occupation layer of the building and beneath produced a few nails, a knife (Fig 26.2) and half of a horse-shoe.

South Building. As with the west Building, the destruction layers and topsoil produced most of the metal finds recovered from this area.

Of the nails from these contexts, one or two were of the 'cobbler-type' seen in the yard area. Also in these layers were other iron objects, mostly domestic debris, including five strap-hinges, a latch-bar, four pintles, scissors fragments and a simple arrowhead of unbarbed form, probably for hunting

(Fig 26.18). A large knife with a bronze guard-plate (Fig 26.4) was found in the destruction layer 233 and a smaller knife (Fig 26.5) in context 243, also a destruction layer.

The occupation levels of the house itself were divided into three rooms, of which the west room produced the largest and most varied assemblage of ironwork (some 40 pieces). Iron objects included 30 nails or fragments of nails, two probable shears-fragments, two pintles, a candle-holder (Fig 25.11) which seems to have been plated, and a small knife (Fig 26.3).

The central room contained a hearth but relatively few iron finds (nine objects) including horse-shoe fragments, a ring and a pindle.

The east room produced 22 iron finds, of which 18 were nails, and which included a wall-hook (Fig 25.9) and possibly part of a snaffle.

North Building: Iron. The upper occupation and destruction levels of this building produced an iron assemblage similar to, but richer and more varied than, those from the comparable layers of the other buildings. It may be that the swiftness of the house's destruction precluded the stripping of salvagable ironwork. Finds included a billhook (Fig 25.7), horse-shoe fragments and probable horse-shoe nails, a boot-iron, a carpenter's bit and almost 40 of the 'cobbler-type' cut-nails with double-lobed head, as found also in the yard area.

The occupation and building levels of this house were relatively lacking in metal finds, although context 248 contained half of a sinuous-edged horse-shoe, and context 249 contained a hoe-blade (Fig 25.10).

Non-ferrous. Few stratified non-ferrous objects can be definitely ascribed to Area G, although it may be that many of the unstratified and unprovenanced non-ferrous objects recovered by the metal-detector survey came from this area. A small, neat double-loop buckle came from context 252 (Fig 27.7) and part of a buckle-frame decorated with a 'ring and dot' motif came from context 244.

Several pieces of copper alloy cooking vessels were present among the unstratified finds of Area G, as well as from contexts 251 and G1. There were some 30 small fragments of thin, flat skillets, including some rim fragments (Fig 28.7-8). Other unstratified cooking vessel fragments included a leg of a skillet support (Fig 28.9) and a possible cauldron rim fragment.

COINAGE

The following coins were recovered from the site:

Henry VI	Penny (Ag)	1430-4
Henry VII	Penny (Ag)	1485-1509
Elizabeth I	Sixpence (Ag)	1567

Jettons. A number of German jettons were recovered from both the metal-detector survey and the excavations. The majority were probably the work of the Krauwinkel family. Such types are commonly found in England during the Tudor period (Fig 27.18-19).

PHASE 6: POST MEDIEVAL (SEVENTEENTH-EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES AD)

DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

It is for this phase of the site's occupation that the fullest set of documents survive. The map of 1614 gives full details of the landholdings of the Lord of the Manor and the other inhabitants, and its oblique view of the buildings around the chapel are almost as good as an aerial photograph (Fig 22). The Walkers, junior and senior, the former being responsible for the Foxcotte map, were amongst the finest of the local Tudor surveyors, second only to the national figures such as Saxton and Speed. On their maps 'buildings are depicted in remarkable detail, as they would be seen from the ground level, with careful distinction as to the number of storeys, and by colour coding whether the roofs were tiled or thatched' (Tyacke and Huddy 1980, 60). The full map has been published previously, reduced to a scale of 6 inches to the mile (*Proc* 1923, 291). Together with the rentroll of 1629, the map and its text give a detailed picture of Foxcotte at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

A few years previous to the drawing of the map the lay subsidy of 1610 (E 179/175/485 CP3510) gave the names of four people in Foxcotte and the value of their goods:

William Hynwoode	£5
Henry Hapgood	£4
John Frances	£3
John Blake	£3

The first two names do not appear on the 1614 map, but are associated with Foxcotte in earlier and later periods, respectively. William Henwood appears on the lay subsidy of 1585 and was a tything man in 1590. A document of 1700 mentions land late in the occupation of John Hapgood. He was a tything man four years later. It is possible that William Henwood had died by the time the map was drawn and his property had been taken over by the Helliars who held a double holding in 1614, but it is harder to understand why the Hapgoods are not mentioned in such a detailed document, only three years after they were the second wealthiest family. Elizabeth Hapgood is listed in the hearth tax of 1665 as being not chargeable, and another Hapgood is listed as being chargeable in Hatherden. It is possible that they held land in the northern part of the estate that was considered as part of Foxcotte in 1610 but not in 1614.

FOXCOTTE: THE MAP OF 1614 (Fig 22)
by Richard Arnold Jones

In the November and December of 1614 the Hampshire manor of Foxcotte, to the northwest of Andover, was surveyed by John Walker Junior. The resultant map (Bodleian MS Rolls Hants 44) is in colour, and illustrates the woodland, pasture, meadows and arable land; the village with its chapel, manor house and other dwellings; field names, the demense and the copyholders' strips. It is a beautifully produced document, and recent archaeological work has confirmed its accuracy.

The map is accompanied by a long text of about eight and a half thousand words, divided into three parts or 'tables'. The handwriting is clear and orthography of a high standard, so that apart from archaic usages (such as 'i' for 'j', and 'y' for 'i' as in 'adioying', or 'v' for 'u', as in 'vpon'), the modern reader has little difficulty in deciphering it. One

unusual word, piddle, occurs repeatedly. It is listed in the Oxford English Dictionary as a variant of 'pightle', and means a close or croft. There are some omissions: Walker was unable to discover the Christian names of three landholders in Charlton, who appear, as '... Powell Gent.', '... Vyneable Gent.' and '... Gunter Gent.' Similarly he writes that 'Peter Noyes Gent holdeth a Tenement called ...'

More irritatingly he failed to discover, or at least to record, the number of animals the copyholders were allowed to graze upon the common lands. 'It is to be understoode, though not sett downe in the sayd Platt' (or map), Walker wrote, 'that the Tenants of Fosscut doe common vpon the Sheepdown and Common Fields as well as the Farmer accordinge to the quantitie of landes that they hould, vizt-for euery yeardland ... sheep'. Again: 'It is likewise to be noated that the Tenants of the Manor of Charlton whose names are written and sett down in the last Table doe both common vpon the Cowdown and Sheepdown and also vpon the Common Fieldes in which there landes lyeth as also is mentioned in the sayd Table accordinge to the quantitie that they hould, as for a yearde land which lyeth for thirtie acres vpon the Cowdown, ... Ewes or young Bullocks, vpon the Sheepdown and Common Fieldes ... sheep, and so accordinge and after the rate of every yeard land and half yeard land.' It would have been interesting to know precise details of what was technically known as 'common appendant', the right attached to arable land of pasturing oxen, horses, sheep and cows in the way indicated above. A document about half a century later asserts that for Foxcotte farm (that is the demesne lands), the custom was for it 'to have common for 400 sheep on Focott Down' (HRO 12M53/63).

In the first table Walker records that his map was drawn up for the benefit of the Lord of the Manor, 'the right worshippfull Sir Edward Barret' and he then goes on to give a general description of the manor, which 'is scituate, lyinge and beinge in the parish and fieldes of Andeuere in the Countie of Southampton in a verie healthsome soyle and havinge a Chappell belonginge vnto it, and lyeth between two Mannors vizt the Mannor of Penton and the Mannor of Charlton, extendinge in length from Abbott Sande common fieldes to the Parish and Fieldes of Tangley, beinge a thinge verie well wooded and partelie

for the most parte reasonable good lande as that Quarter doth afford. The woodes and landes called Dynes lyeth between two Heathes, vizt Heatherden Heath and Charlton alias Dowles. Heath, which two Heathes abbutteth vpon two Forrests, to witt the Forest of Chute and Kinges Maiesties, lyinge or abbuttinge vpon ye edge of Wiltshire, and the Forrest of Dowles, the Lord Marquess' (of Winchester).

Walker then indicates the contents of the two subsequent tables. The first of these gives details of the lands and dwellings of the Lords of the Manor and the copyholders. The Manor House itself, with its adjoining orchards and yards, accounted for over four and a half acres. In addition there were more than 400 acres of arable and pasture, and a hundred and seventy-five acres of woodland, giving a grand total for the demesne of 591 acres, one rood and seven perches. All these are coloured yellow and marked with the letter F on the map. References to 'the Farmer' imply that the demesne was leased out rather than managed by a bailiff, and a document of 1625 suggests this was Peter Payne.

Of the seven copyholders one, Peter (or perhaps Thomas) Noyes – both names are used – is described as 'Gent.', and the others presumably came in the social category of yeoman, although this is not stated. Apart from Noyes they held their lands in the traditional strip system associated with medieval farming, but the demesne lands, apart from one strip called 'Farme acre', had been consolidated into continuous groups, as had the two copyholds belonging to Noyes.

These latter are described as being 'about Hatherden'. The first of them is assigned to *Peter* Noyes, but the entry concerning the second begins, 'The sayd *Thomas* Noyes houldeth another tenement'. As the lands held in Charlton as recorded in the third of Walker's tables are allotted to Thomas Noyes, it seems probable that this is the correct ascription. Possibly it is a question of father and son, the former having recently died. Noyes also held over 156 acres in Charlton.

In any case the first of these copyholds consisted of a tenement, with arable pasture and meadowland, totalling 132 acres 1 rood and 1 perch. The second contained another tenement, arable pasture and meadowlands, six crofts in one group

and four in another, giving a total of 73 acres and 27 perches. The first of these is coloured blue and marked with the letter W, and the second 'a sadd redd and signed with H.'

The Noyes family was a powerful one in the Andover district. Peter Noyes was Bailiff in 1602 (Spaul 1971) and Member of Parliament for Andover in 1614. In 1625 he was to buy lands in Foxcotte for £160 from Sir Edward Barrett (HRO 12M53/63). Robert Noyes had bought Hatherden in 1574 and this is confirmed by the map of 1614. He was excused election to the office of Bailiff in 1603 but served in 1625 (Spaul 1971). A Thomas Noyes was elected one of the capital burgesses before 1642 and was Bailiff in 1657 (Spaul 1971, 4–5). The family continued to be prominent well into the eighteenth century, and another Robert Noyes became one of the Approved Men in 1740 (Spaul 1971, 7–8).

The remaining six copyholders which were marked blood red on the map with the initials of the copyholders, lay 'about Foxcoate Strete and in ye Common Fieldes', and totalled 175 acres and 3 roods.

No less than three of these copyholders were widows – a surprisingly high proportion. The most prosperous of these, Joanna Hellier, whose holding was recently excavated, had a tenement, an orchard, three piddles, and strips in the four common fields which gave her a total of just over 53 and a half acres. Mary Caricke, alias Cooper, had a tenement and strips amounting to nearly 24 acres. Joanna Edwards had a tenement, an orchard and piddle, with strips, totalling eleven and a half acres, and also over eight acres in Penta (Penton Mewsey).

John Francis (or Fraunces) had the largest holding of the three men – more than 50 acres – consisting of a tenement with a yard and a number of piddles, over two acres in extent, and strips in the East South Field, West South Field, Lee Field and Chapel Field. John Blake held a tenement, an orchard and a piddle, with land in the common fields which gave him over 18 acres in all; he had, in addition, over 36 acres in Charlton. Thomas Daby (or Dalby) had a tenement, an orchard and two piddles, and strips in the common fields – fifteen acres altogether.

The map, but not the text, records the existence of John Wale, who had a tenement and a piddle abutting on a large holding which probably represents three or four consolidated strips. In addition he had some meadow land, two strips in Lee Field, two in Chapel Field, four in East South Field, and six (one very large) in West South Field. These

holdings, whose area is not recorded, are all marked 'Extra', presumably an indication that he was a freeholder with no communal obligations to the rest of the Manor. He may have been some relation of the 'thomas weles' who is recorded as a resident of Andover in the tithing of 'charullton' in 1582 (Bennett and Parsons 1920, 214).

The lands in Charlton Manor held by Thomas Noyes (over 156 acres) and by John Blake (more than 36 acres), as well as those of Joanna Edwards in Penton (just over 8 acres), are described in some detail. Noyes also held the 'copse called North Grove which once belonged to Foxcote Mannor', an area of just over 8 acres.

This last entry draws attention to the changes which had taken place in Foxcote during the Middle Ages. In Domesday Book the manor was credited with four ploughlands, two of them in the demesne, which at a notional 120 acres to the ploughland gives a total of just over 500 acres. In 1614 the Farm alone contained 400 acres of arable, to which must be added the 200 of Noyes's copyholds and the 170 of the other six. In 1086 the arable lands were all (presumably) distributed in strips, but by 1614 a large part of the manor had been enclosed, only the six smaller copyholds being organised according to the ancient system. The copyholders were, in effect, the successors of the ten villeins recorded in Domesday Book, each of whom would in theory have held a yardland of about 30 acres. A document of 1659 (HRO 10M54/1) describes the holdings of Joanna Hellier and John Francis as being two yardlands each, although their total area was only just over 53 and just over 50 acres respectively. The other four copyholds (and apparently an extra one) are all rated as half yardlands, though the biggest of these (that of Mary Caricke alias Cooper) comprised 24 acres.

1625-1629 ESTATE FINANCES

The year 1625 saw a great deal of legal activity at Foxcote, as Sir Edward Barrett appears to have decided to use the estate to raise capital. In May of that year he leased to John Tarrant and Edward Blake a tenement and two yardlands, and in

October five separate transactions were carried out with John Blake, John Wale of Foxcott, Peter Noyes, Edward Blake of Charlton and the Pentons of Charlton, which brought in over £250. Finally, in 1626 Sir Edward Barrett, his mother who had since become Lady Leveson, his half brother Richard Leveson, both of Halling in Kent, William Tuthill of Upminster, and John Slany a London merchant, all people who had acquired an interest in the estate, conveyed it to Thomas Sergeant of Melton Mowbray. It was described as the manor of Foxcote and land pertaining, with five messuages. The 1614 map showed seven messuages, but John Wale's was freehold, giving six. It appears, by the fact that no Edward is recorded on the 1629 rentroll, that Joanne, a widow who had held only 11 acres overall, had died, and her holding leased out to one of the other families who were farming on the estate, probably Robert Blake. By 1629 the holding of the Francis family seems to have been purchased from the estate, possibly on the death of John, and was being held in trust by George Tarrant of Upper Clatford and Edward Thurman of Charlton, as it too is not mentioned on the rentroll. The rentroll does not give the farm's owner and he must have been paying under a different system, but the muster roll for the same year (HRO 44 M/69) gives one Richard Payne whose corselet was furnished by the farm. Two other men listed, Robert Blake and Thomas Day (probably Daby/Dalby) had their corselets furnished by the tything, while Richard Noyes and Matthew Carricke bore muskets, furnished by Edward Blake and John Francis respectively.

The rentroll was for the money due to Thomas Sergeant and a note, written down the side of the document, records that it was collected by Peter Sergeant and paid to Thomas in London on the same day, the 20th of November. The copyholders were Joanne Hellyar, Mary Carrwick, John Blake, Robert Blake, and Thomas Dalbie, who each made a payment for their copyhold and a separate cash payment in lieu of their custom work (feudal obligations). Chief rents were received from John Francis, William Penton and a certain Pristoe, whose Christian name was unknown. The rentroll also records the receipt of eight peppercorn rents. Two were paid by Peter Noyes for two different leases, and one each was paid by Thomas Noyes, John Blake, John Wale, William Nicholas, Robert Grace and John Penton. These leases were all for terms of 99 years and were all presumably made by Barrett in 1625, although the figures do not tally exactly with those given in the 1625 documents. If

so, they would be up for renewal in 1724 and, in fact, two leases do survive from that year. The rentroll records these leases as totalling £579, the real amount that Sir Edward Barrett had raised, not including the price that Thomas Sergeant had paid. Barrett's need for such a large amount of cash is not known, but it may be not unconnected with the accession of Charles I in 1625 and Barrett's becoming Lord of Newburgh in 1627.

The status of the families within the manor can be judged from the amount of money they had to pay for their copyhold and their custom work. Joanne Hellier, who had 53 acres in 1614, paid 25s, and she was also charged as follows 'sheep at 1s 8d, four bushells of wheat at 3s 4d, and four bushells of malt at 2s 4d or allowance therefor'. Mary Carrick, who was farming 24 acres in 1614, paid 12s; John Blake with 18 acres in 1614 paid 8s 2d; Robert Blake, who appears to have taken over Joanne Edwards' 11 acres, paid 7s 2d; and Thomas Dalbie, who had 15 acres in 1614, paid 7s 6d. It appears that copyholders paid roughly 1s for every two acres, with Joanne Helliar, as the wealthiest copyholder, being required to pay extra. The value of her extras is not contained in the total of the rents, so she presumably paid them in kind, possibly to the farmer Payne who would have then settled up with Thomas Sergeant or his agent.

The 1614 map shows that the Foxcotte copyholders held their land in scattered strips, a system that had probably survived for centuries; indeed some of the boundaries between strips are shown to have large trees growing upon them. The seventeenth century was a period of enclosure, with the replacement of the strips by amalgamated holdings. Foxcotte was no exception and a document of 1647 records the sale of four acres of arable 'newly divided by a quickset hedge'. A lease of 1724 includes land that was originally 'John Hellier's allotment on the enclosure of the common fields', possibly the John Hellier who was husband of Joanne and had died in 1587 but, as no such allotment is shown on the 1614 map, John is probably a misreading by a previous clerk for Joanne.

1645-1700 THE RISE OF THE HINXMAN FAMILY

In 1645 Sir Edward Barrett died and left his Hampshire lands to his half brother, now Sir Richard Leveson, who seems to have disposed of the overlordship because, in 1652, it belonged to a Henry Mitton, his wife Frances, and John Mitton, who quitclaimed the manor to Edward Arnold. By

1686 it belonged to Joseph Hinxman who had been steadily buying up the estate since at least 1647, when he had purchased the farm from William Pine, who had it from Edward Blake, who had it from Sir Edward Barrett in 1625.

During this period Joanne Helliar had died and her holding was taken over by Thomas Munday, and the Hellier name drops from the record. The Francis family likewise disappear but their demise is more fully documented. The Francis holding had been in the custody of trustees until Peter Francis came of age, and although the trustees had mortgaged it once in 1627, by 1650 it was in the possession of Peter Francis who used it to raise the sum of 10s. This was paid off but, in the following year, part of the holding was sold to Robert Grace of Penton Mewsey. The financial needs of Peter Francis grew, for in 1654, he mortgaged the property, excluding the portion sold to Grace, to Dorothy Pope of Micheldever for £100. One of the witnesses was William Moody who had lent him the first 10s on the property four years previously. The property was again mortgaged two years later by Francis and Edward Bond of Foxcotte, presumably partners, to James Earle of Winchester for £150, a transaction witnessed by Anne Francis. Edward Bond apparently paid off his share but later we find Francis and Earle mortgaging the property to Joseph Hinxman for £200, and it was finally sold to him in 1661.

Previous to this, in 1659, Joseph Hinxman had purchased the manor from John Milton of Melton Mowbray, there presumably having been some connection with Thomas Sergeant of the same town. The document lists the manor's lands, including two yardlands with barn thereon erected in Foxcotte, late of Thomas Munday; the half yardland late of Lawrence Brownjohn; the house and half yardland belonging to Matthew Cooper; the house and half yardland belonging to Robert Blake; and the house and half yardland late of Thomas Dalbie. Comparison with the holdings listed on the 1614 map suggests that Munday was farming the Helliar plot, and the Cooper portion had been split between Brownjohn and Blake. It is to be noted that the Helliar house was replaced by a barn, and the only surviving buildings were the Edwards' house, now occupied by Robert Blake, the Cooper house, the Blake house and the Dalby house. The Francis house and the Wale house (if surviving) were not mentioned, as they were freehold.

Joseph Hinxman was soon involved in a court case brought by Peter Noyes, who complained that the Hinxman family were putting too many sheep

onto Foxcott Down. He claimed that, in the days of Sir Edward Barrett, the Farm had common for 400 sheep. Noyes had purchased some of the farm's land and, presumably, the agreement over numbers of sheep had not been honoured by the Hinxmans.

In 1661 Hinxman was able to secure the Francis house and its two yardlands, probably by calling in the mortgage, although Peter Francis may have remained as a tenant farmer, as he appears on the 1665 Hearth tax. This lists 17 households, and must include a wider area than the hamlet of Foxcotte proper, probably parts of Hatherden in the north and some houses properly in Charlton to the east. Charlton manor had been linked with Foxcotte from the fifteenth century and Foxcotte chapel was the church for the inhabitants of Hatherden and Charlton at this time.

Since the time of Barrett, land in the estate had been passing to people from other villages in the surrounding area, and to townspeople who wished to invest in land. Margery Blake of Charlton, and others, sold 12 acres of land they held in Foxcotte to Joseph Hinxman in 1669, and Hinxman was able to purchase the land that had previously been sold to Samuel Pitman of Quarley in 1686. This land had previously been mortgaged in 1672 by Pitman's father John to a consortium of Somerset gentlemen and Edward Fripp, a grocer; Roger Bashett and an ironmonger, Christopher Gardiner, both of Salisbury. Samuel Pitman had been farming the land since at least 1682, when he was mentioned in an agreement between two members of the Grace family. This agreement also mentions Cooper, and Robert and Edward Blake, but none of the other families who lived in Foxcotte in 1614. It is possible that the Wales still held property, as a Thomas Wale is mentioned as a tything man in 1692, but a 1724 lease suggests that Thomas Wale's father John had sold part of his holding to Thomas Grace. Various people had interests in Foxcotte land at this time. Owners came from East Grimstead, Wilts; East Winterslow, Wilts; Bighton, Hants; Linkenhold, Hants; with at least eight acres owned by a clerk who must have bought land as an investment.

1700-1800 ESTATE OWNERSHIP CHANGES TO THE GALES

In 1700 Joseph Hinxman married Miss Beata Barber and settled on her over 100 acres of land in Andover and Foxcotte. They had a son, also called Joseph. It is not clear when Joseph junior took over the estate, but in 1751 he married Mary Goldwyre of

Salisbury, and settled on her the manor of Foxcotte.

Unfortunately the manorial records of Foxcotte do not survive, apart from a single page recording the sitting of the manor court in 1706. Given the frequent changes of ownership and the number of absentee landlords, the lack of manorial records is not surprising. The court was held on the 11th November, and Widow Sweetapple and John Blake failed to attend, for which offence they were fined. The first resolution noted was that no one should allow pigs or hogs to stray, but no detail is given of the punishment that the owners would suffer. The court then moved on to consider cases brought against individual members.

Henry Etwall had encroached on the Lord's waste by enlarging his garden. The Etwalls were a Charlton family and the offence probably took place in that manor. John Batchelor was charged with laying dung on the highway, and Giles Carter, another Charlton dweller, was accused of laying soil in the highway. Thomas Grace of Penton Grafton, who farmed land in Foxcotte manor, was charged with throwing certain items, but the clerk's hand becomes unreadable at this point. All the accused were found guilty and were fined, as was the father of the younger Stooks, who was admitted to the tything. The proceedings then closed and were witnessed by Edward Noyes, John Farr, Edward Noyes, Giles Carter and Thomas Grace. It would appear from the other documents that survive from around this time that none of the people mentioned were actually resident in Foxcotte, except possibly John Batchelor. The tything-men list of 1704 gives 11 names but, again, most of these people can be connected with surrounding settlements, and their link with Foxcotte is that they farmed land there. Only two of the tything men can be certainly linked with Foxcotte. One is William Griffin, whose cottage in Foxcotte passed to Stephen Harding in 1724, and the other is Christopher Bishop, whose cottage and garden are mentioned in a lease of 1720.

1724 was 99 years since the spate of leases of Sir Edward Barrett. Joseph Hinxman released some land to Andrew Leggatt of Penton Mewsey and Thomas Grace of Highclere, and also the cottage mentioned above. The lease to Christopher Bishop of 1720 mentions the newly erected tenement, and this house and that occupied by Stephen Harding were probably those shown on the 1841 tithe map on the west side of Foxcotte Lane of which one, a brick and flint thatched cottage, still remains.

Christopher Bishop was described in the 1720 lease as a yeoman, but he is not mentioned in other

leases of this period. The only other mention of a Bishop in connection with land is in 1742 when Hinxman leased eight acres of the common field, which had been lately enclosed, to Benjamin Bishop who is described as a cheeseman. He was probably therefore keeping cattle there rather than being a cheese factor. Cheese was an important element in the rural economy and Weyhill fair was noted for its cheese market. Benjamin may have been the son of Christopher who had connections with Foxcotte from at least 1693, when he was a tything man, although he did not lease the cottage in Foxcotte until 1720. Possibly the family lived in Charlton or Hatherden and owned land outside the Foxcotte estate but inside the manorial holding, and took the cottage when it became available.

In 1751, as stated previously, Joseph Hinxman married Mary Goldwyre of Salisbury, possibly a descendant of the William Goldwyre who had held the manor of nearby Upper Clatford during the reign of Charles I. Hinxman settled on her the manor of Foxcotte, with its 'capital messuage and farm lands', and the land settlement document records that another house, associated with the land of Thomas Grace, was no longer in existence. At least one of the 1614 houses (or its replacement) still existed, as a lease of 1762 was made between Hinxman and Thomas Charlton of Charlton for the house and half yardland called Woodyers in Foxcotte. This was possibly the last lease that Hinxman made, as two years previously he had made his will. He apparently left Foxcotte to a James Mansfield, but it remained in the Hinxman family, for in 1779 Mary Hinxman of Bath leased Foxcotte farm to James Jennings of East Cholderton, Ampert. Mary was perhaps a daughter of Joseph as she is not described as a widow, and is therefore unlikely to be Mary *nee* Goldwyre. The lease included a licence to build one or two new rooms, near or adjoining the house, but for some reason it excluded the newly-built stables, possibly because they were leased to another party.

Mary, with her property, would have been a very eligible spinster, and it seems that she married Thomas Gale, because it is he who leased out Foxcotte and Hatherden manor in 1786 to Alexander Willis. One would postulate the sale of the estate by the Hinxmans to the Gales were it not for the fact that Thomas's son and grandson were both given the middle name of Hinxman, presumably named after Mary, their mother and grandmother respectively. She was probably dead by this time, as the lease mentions land of the late Mrs Hinxman.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

Area H

Area H was excavated to examine the house plot that was known to have been occupied in 1614 by Joanne Hellier, widow. The structures that could be assigned to this phase consisted of the Hellier house, which was of a number of phases, and two postholes that were probably associated with the barn shown on the 1614 map.

Interpretation of the house structure was made difficult by the demolition and clearance of the house, and the subsequent re-use of the site, but traces of the floors and walls survived (Figs 23, 24).

The building was erected on an east-west alignment on a levelled area of the flint gravel that lies at the foot of the slope. It consisted of two rooms originally, of similar dimensions to those of the kitchen and hall of the south house on Area G.

The sleeper walls were built of knapped and unknapped flints, but most of these had been cleared from the site, probably in the seventeenth century, and the exact lines of the walls are not known. They are indicated, however, by slight concentrations of flints. The timber superstructure left no trace and the walls were too disturbed to tell if they were of similar construction to those of the Area G dwelling house, that is of interrupted sillbeam type.

The west and smaller room was marked by the remains of a crushed chalk floor, bounded on the east side by a concentration of flints. To the east there was a change in level, with a drop of 5cm, to the remains of a mortar spread lying on crushed chalk and fragments of brick. This was bounded on the north by a strip of crushed chalk alone, up to 40cm wide. Although no brick impressions were seen in the mortar, this was probably the base for a brick floor as most of the brick fragments found in the demolition deposits showed evidence of having been paving bricks. The 5cm drop may well have been to allow the surface of this brick floor to have been at the same level as the chalk floor in the west room.



Fig. 24. View of the east end of the house on Area H. Photo: A Russel.

At the east end of the lowered area a series of flint walls was uncovered, the remains of two extensions to the house, the first extending it by 2.6m, and the second adding another 2m. The first extension had a crushed chalk floor and used large flints and a single brick in its construction, whereas the second was built of smaller flints. The east wall of the first extension was demolished when the second was built and a partition wall constructed to provide a cubicle, 1m wide, at the north end of this new room, which also had a floor (416) of crushed chalk. Pottery and a belt buckle from these floor levels suggests that both extensions were built and occupied in the sixteenth/seventeenth century (Fig 24).

The small amount of roof tile recovered agrees with the Walker map, which does not show a tiled roof.

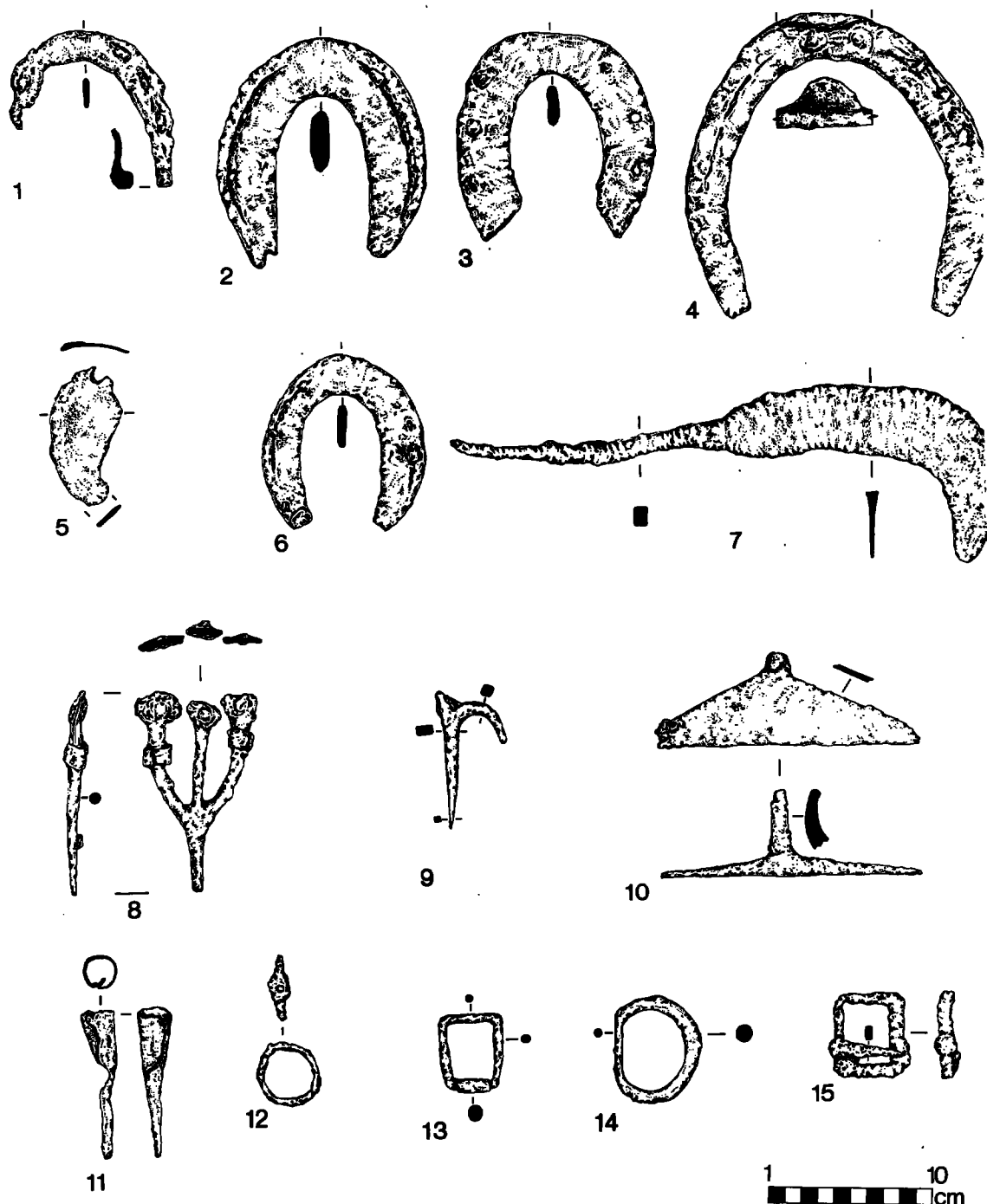
The Barn

Time and resources did not allow the full excavation of the barn area, but a trench 2m wide was excavated along its length. The two postholes found are assumed to mark the position of the north wall, with the barn aligned north-south, as on the Walker map. If

these were the corner posts of the structure it would have been a little over 4m wide, and it is 11m south from the postholes to the road edge. This can be compared with the barn on Area A which measured approximately 5.5m by 11.5m. The barn on Area H had been constructed on the flint gravel and there was no evidence for a chalk or earth floor. No evidence for internal partitions was located, but this may be due to the trench being in the centre of the building, which was perhaps kept clear. To the south of the house, and the west of the barn, was a level area terraced into the hillslope, which must have formed a small yard. On the 1614 map a barred wooden gate is shown giving access to the lane. An area of soft ground in the south-west of the yard may have been a pond, but none is shown on the 1614 map.

The Granary

In the mid-seventeenth century the Hellier house, being either in disrepair or no longer needed, was demolished and the site cleared. The remains of the flint sleeper walls were used to fill in the hollow to the north of the house site; and to lessen the break of slope to



DH

Fig 25. The ironwork.

the south by filling in the negative lynchet resulting from the earlier terracing of the yard. On the cleared house platform a nine-post structure, roughly 4m square, was erected, probably a granary, and perhaps that mentioned in 1659. The post-holes may have held timber uprights, or else staddle stones, and were generally wide and shallow, averaging nearly 70cm in diameter and cutting 20cm into the gravel. Most of the sections showed no sign of the post position, despite the use of large flints in the packing, and it is likely that the building was dismantled and the posts/staddle stones used elsewhere. Two fragments of greensandstone in the demolition layers may well have come from staddle stone tops.

Probably contemporary with the use of the site as a granary was the removal/destruction of the barn and a new layout of the yard, with an entrance on the Charlton road replacing that on Foxcotte Lane. From this new entrance a cart track was established, crossing the site of the barn and giving access to the fields to the northeast.

THE FINDS

BRICK

Over two-thirds of the bricks from Area H came from the demolition/clearance levels. All the bricks are hand made from a fine, red, silty clay with cream coloured clay streaks. If high fired the body changes to purple and the streaks to black. Quartz sand was used to prevent the clay sticking to the mould. A number of the bricks had mortar adhering, usually to one face and the edges, and the opposite face was often heavily worn. Most bricks had one face worn down from approximately 6cm down to as much as 2cm, and all these bricks must have been used to make a floor surface.

ROOF TILE

Roof tile was found in most contexts on Area H, but predominantly, over 60 per cent, in the demolition/clearance levels. Two fragments of ridge tile were also recovered. None of the flat tiles were glazed but

there were traces on one of the ridge tiles. The fabric was the same as the medieval tile from the site. It is possible that the tiles come from three different manufacturing occasions as three different parting media are present, flint grit, quartz sand, and chaff. These three types may relate to different building phases, or indicate that the tiles were perhaps obtained piecemeal and secondhand. The 1614 map indicates that only the Manor Farm and the Chapel were tiled at this date.

As only two pieces of tile with adhering mortar were found, it is therefore probable that this house did not contain hearths or ovens constructed in the style of those in the Area G structures.

POTTERY by C Matthews

Pottery dating to the second half of the sixteenth century and later was found on Area H. Excluding one small pit (465) which has been included in phase 5, 493 sherds weighing 3,609g were recovered from stratified contexts on Area H. Of this the following percentages were residual:

	Sherds	Weight
Roman residual	1%	1.2%
Scratch-marked sandy, eleventh century	0.2%	0.1%
Thirteenth/fourteenth century	41.6%	28.4%

The fragmented state of the post-medieval pottery and the small number of sherds from each context means that there are few reconstructable vessels, but a sequence of fabrics and forms is apparent.

Sixteenth century. Two sherds, weighing 14g, of Tudor Green (fabric 13) and 21 sherds, weighing 170g, of medium sandy ware (fabric 10) were found. The Tudor Green two-handled cup (Fig 21.70) is of a type in use at Basing House after 1540 and even possibly after c 1560 (Moorhouse 1979, 55; 1970, Fig 14.133, 134).

The following fabrics were also found: *fabric 14*, stoneware; *fabric 15*, fine red ware; and *fabric 16* buff Surrey ware. Full details will be found in microfiche.

Seventeenth/Eighteenth Century Pottery (Fig 21.75-79). The dating of this pottery proved to be difficult due to the paucity of datable fine wares. Layer 423 was contaminated by nineteenth or twentieth century blue transfer ware.

The following fabrics were found: *fabric 17*, tin-glazed ware; *fabric 18*, Staffordshire white salt-

glazed stoneware; *fabric 19*, southern whiteware; *fabric 20*, red earthenware; *fabric 21*, stoneware (Frechen or Cologne); *fabric 22*, medium sandy ware; *fabric 23*, fine sandy ware; *fabric 24*, Verwood type.

Topsoil and unstratified contexts produced white slipped ware possibly of Dutch origin, green-on-white slip ware and Fareham red earthenwares. Full details will be found in microfiche.

Conclusion

The seventeenth/eighteenth century assemblage is characterized by its abundance of coarsewares and lack of fine wares (Table 8). The tin-glazed sherd and the stonewares are of a seventeenth to eighteenth century date. The dating of the coarse wares is more difficult and is not helped by the general lack of featured sherds. Although thought to be

seventeenth/eighteenth century in date, some may be residual from the sixteenth century. These dates are in agreement with those known for the occupation of Area H from documentary evidence, of 1614 to c1659, and probably as early as 1545.

The general nature of the pottery from Area H is in complete contrast with that from Area G. There are no complete or nearly complete vessels and most of the sherds are small. This suggests that Area H was deliberately abandoned rather than accidentally destroyed, unlike the north and south buildings from Area G.

The pottery from Area H is significant, however, in that foreign imports appear for the first time from the excavations at Foxcotte. This may be a result of the general date of the occupation of Area H in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when imports, particularly stonewares, were becoming more common. However, it may be to do with the status of the occupants, the Helliars, who are documented as being the wealthiest household in Foxcotte in the rental of 1629.

□ % by weight
■ % by count

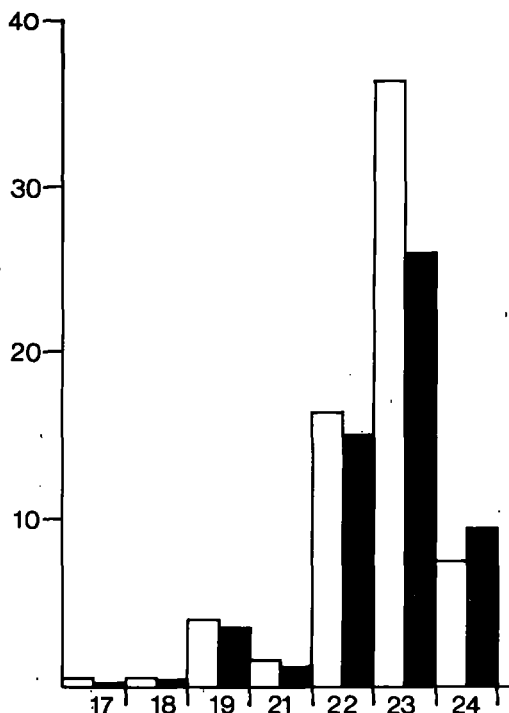


Table 8. Histogram showing the relative proportions of the seventeenth and eighteenth century pottery fabrics.

CLAY PIPES

Seven fragments of clay pipes were found, one from the demolition levels on Area H, the others from topsoil. The overall distribution is weighted towards the west part of the site, like that of the glass, and they may share a common source.

Stamped Pipes

Heel. Stamped SO, Area H, 422, topsoil. A nineteenth century pipe whose maker is not at present known.

Heel. Stamped on the base with an 'M' in a heart in relief. This mark was common in Andover on the Winchester Street excavations (1984), where it was found associated with the pipes of a late seventeenth century date. It has not been reported elsewhere in Hampshire or Wiltshire and may be a local product, possibly from East Woodhay.

GLASS

Eleven fragments of bottle glass were recovered, all from topsoil or relatively modern features. The majority, eight fragments, came from Area H, two from Area A, and one from Area B. The absence of glass from the fifteenth-sixteenth century deposits on Area G shows that glass was not used for vessels

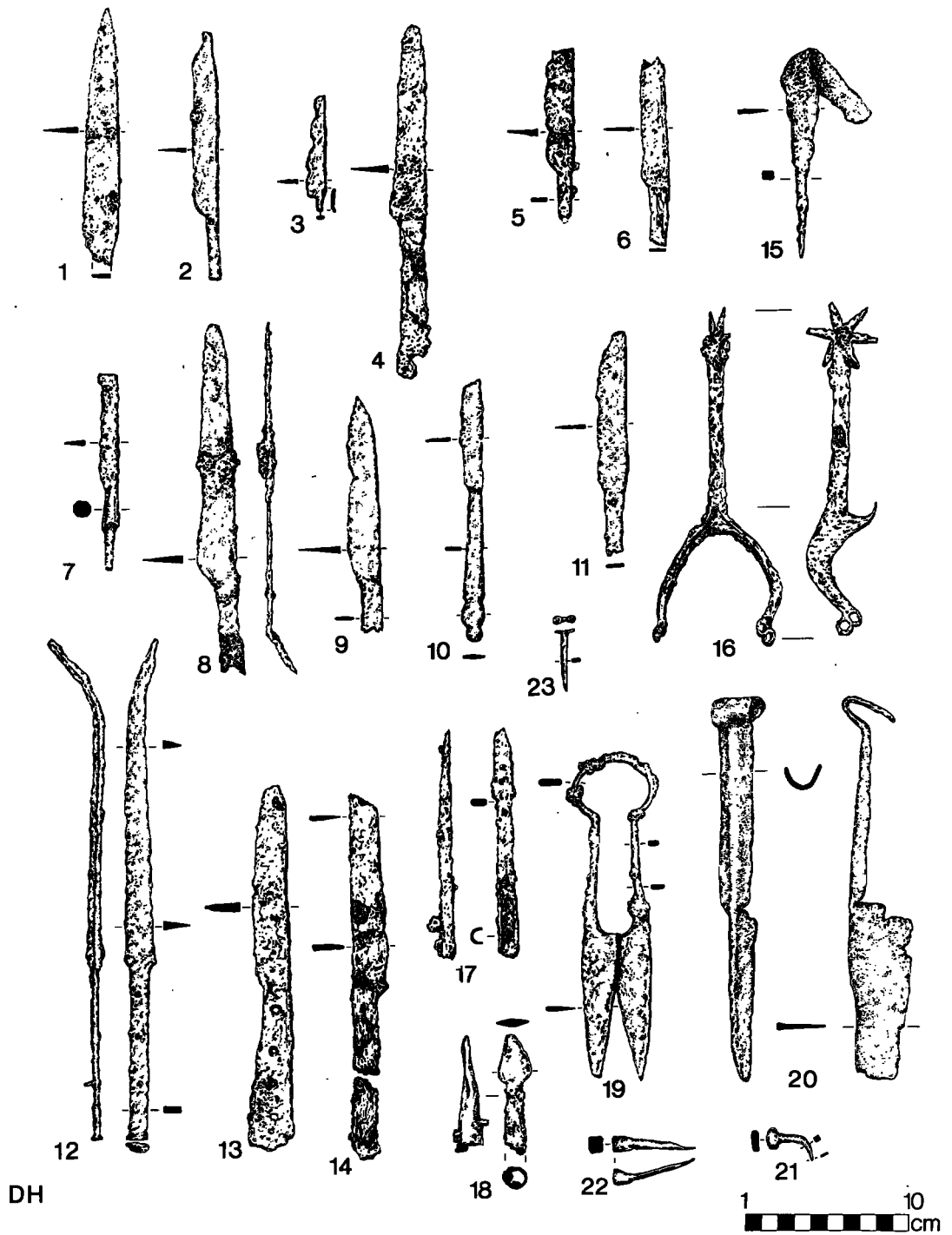


Fig 26. The ironwork.

or windows. No diagnostic fragments were found that would be dated earlier than the early eighteenth century and they are all likely to be part of the general spread of domestic refuse that emanated from the last plot to be occupied, that owned by John Blake in 1614, which was inhabited into the first quarter of the nineteenth century as shown on Greenwood's map of Hampshire published in 1826.

METALWORK by S Langford

Area H. The house on this area of the site is first recorded in c 1614, but some of the metal finds pre-date this.

Most of the iron finds were from the topsoil and house-platform levels and included some tool fragments – scissors, curry-comb handles, knives, an ox-shoe fragment and a buckle-frame.

Context 448, the post-house ? granary phase, produced a knife with an octagonal tang, probably sixteenth – seventeenth century or later in date (Fig 26.7).

The demolition layer of the house produced relatively few iron finds, including a sickle-blade and a few pieces of iron slag. With regard to the slag, it seems likely that some small-scale smithying could have taken place on the site after the demolition of the building, or even while it was in occupation. The levelling of the house (context 464) produced knives with very similar cutler's marks (visible on radiographs), probably seventeenth century or later in date (Fig 26.8–9).

Context 424 produced a rowel-spur, of fifteenth century type (Fig 26.16), as well as two knives (Fig 26.10–11) of similar date.

Of the building itself, the occupation layers were virtually bare of metalwork finds, in contrast to the hillwash layers around the building which contained nails, knives, a buckle-frame and horse-shoe nails. From the general scarcity of iron objects in this area, it seems that either the household was a poor one or that the ironwork associated with the building was scavenged prior to demolition – the relatively large amounts of iron objects from below and above the occupation layers may indicate the latter. Around the house, the hillwash layer 420 also produced a knife.

Very few non-ferrous pieces from this area were recovered, and those of interest are listed below:

A pewter spoon-bowl, badly damaged, with part of the handle (Fig 28.3); a small strap-buckle with

a buckle-plate (Fig 27.15); a small hook-ended fitment fragment; and a piece of glazing-bar.

COINAGE

William III	Penny	1696
Anne	Penny	Illegible 1702–14
George III	Penny	1773
	Penny	1775
	Penny	1806
	Farthing	1775
Louis XIV	Liard	1658

Tokens (Fig 27.20)

A Romsey token of 1669 was found in the topsoil in Area H adjacent to the granary structure.

Obv: Portcullis above date 1669. Legend: TOKENS FOR Y BENEFIT OF Y. POO(R)

Rev: SET FORTH BY THE CORPORATION OF (YE) TOWNE OF ROMSEY.

PHASE 7: MODERN (NINETEENTH – TWENTIETH CENTURIES AD)

DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE

Although the farm had been leased to Alexander Willis in 1786, the parish registers, which run from 1814 onwards, record the baptisms of the children of the Wallis family. Their father William's occupation is farmer and the place of residence is given as Foxcotte Manor House. Possibly he was the son of Alexander, and the clerk, in drawing up the lease, spelt the name wrong, but this seems unlikely on such an important transaction, so it may have been the visiting curate who spelt the name in the register as it was pronounced. There are a number of instances of misspellings in the Foxcotte registers, such as Chivers being spelled Chevers or Chevis.

The 1786 document shows that the Hinxmans and the Gales had to some extent consolidated the estate, and the land had been purchased back from John Pitman, Henry Blyth, Robert Blake, Samuel Pitman and Peter Noyes. This was a trend that continued.

From the early nineteenth century onwards the Dowling Family made their appearance as landowners in Foxcotte. The 1848 tithe map

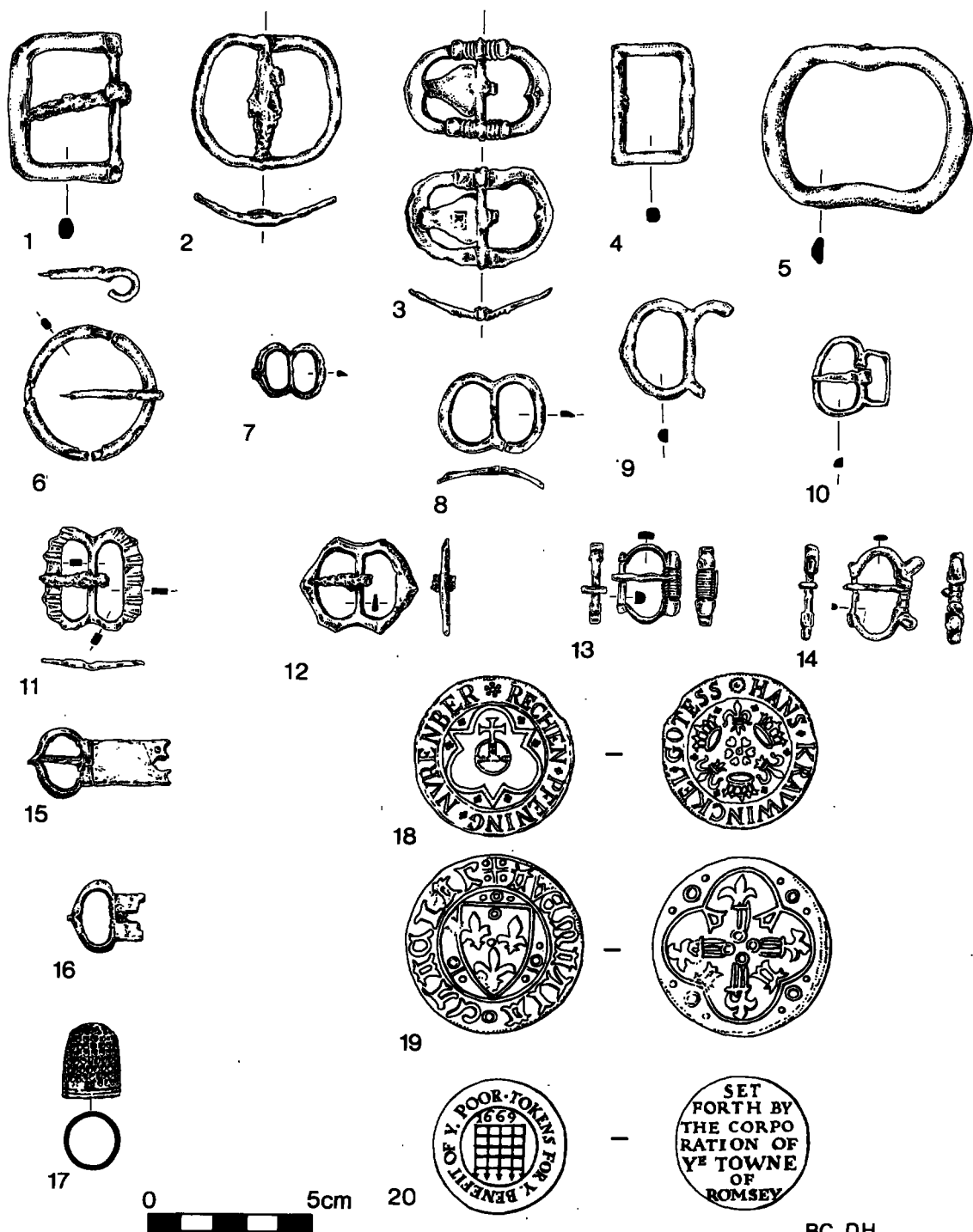


Fig 27. Objects of copper alloy. Coins and tokens, 1:1.

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shows that the Dowlings owned a farmstead on the plot that had belonged to Thomas Daby in 1614, and a number of fields on the estate. The Dowlings possibly came by this holding due to the marriage of Thomas Dowling to Anne Gale in December 1809. She presumably had been given parts of the Foxcotte estate as her marriage settlement.

In the 1820s William Cobbet made a number of visits to the region and he notes the low population figures in the area:

'In this north of Hampshire, as everywhere else, the churches and all other things exhibit indubitable marks of decay. There are along under the north side of that chain of hills which divide Hampshire from Berkshire ... eleven churches along in a string in about fifteen miles, the chancels of which would contain a great many more than all the inhabitants, men, women, and children sitting at their ease with plenty of room.'

(*Rural Rides*, 1830)

Foxcotte must have fitted this description at that period. The 1841 census lists seven households comprising 20 adults and 19 children, and the baptismal register suggests a similar number of households between 1814 and 1829.

Although the Gale family had numerous children, none are recorded in the Foxcotte baptismal register and they probably lived in Andover. In 1834, however, John Hinxman Gale was buried in Foxcotte, probably using his right as lord of the manor. Three years later the estate was in the possession of the Rev Thomas Hinxman Gale who lived at Rainham in Essex, and from the same year survive documents relating to land transactions carried out by Martha Gale.

Martha Gale had been born a Waite but, from the age of 10, she was brought up by her aunt, Henrietta Gale, and uncle, the Rev William Goddard, in Winchester where he was the second master and later headmaster of Winchester College. On his retirement from the teaching profession in 1809, Dr Goddard took up the position of Vicar of Andover, where he was responsible for the demolition of the Norman Priory church in 1840 and its replacement with an Early English design, inspired by Salisbury Cathedral.

He had repaired Foxcotte church in 1812 and a water colour by RHC Ubsell shows this building in the 1840s (Portsmouth City Museum). This appears to show a small, tiled building with nave and chancel of approximately equal length, the chancel

slightly narrower and with a lower roof than the nave. The walls of both chambers seem to be built of flint rubble with stone quoins. A small wooden bell cupola surmounts the west end. The east window was apparently of rectangular form and of perpendicular style. This building must be that depicted by John Walker on the 1614 map, which shows an apparently crenellated structure with a possible bell cupola at the west end and a cross at the east.

Martha Waite moved to Andover with her foster parents and took her maternal grandfather's surname. On his death she received a portion of his estates, apparently sharing jointly with Thomas. Certain pieces of land she held in her own right and she further consolidated the Foxcotte estate by exchanging with Ralph Etwall Esq of Andover a field called Mead Lot in Andover for three parcels of land in Foxcotte and £185. These three fields she then leased back to him, which suggests that the aim was to hold the whole Foxcotte estate, but not necessarily for the purpose of running it as a single farm.

Martha and her uncle were both church builders, as she followed his example and in 1853 had Foxcotte church demolished and replaced with a new building that would accommodate 200 people. The population of Foxcotte was given as 78 at this time, but Foxcotte served as the place of worship for the people of Charlton also. The religious census of 1851 records that 60 attended Divine Service on Sunday 30th March, and 27 children attended Sunday school. The minister of Foxcotte added that these figures were considerably lower than normal due to the bad weather and the distance that some of the congregation had to travel.

By the beginning of the nineteenth century it is obvious from the parish registers and the later census returns that the yeoman farmers of seventeenth and eighteenth century Foxcotte had been bought out and the hamlet consisted of a farm and a group of cottages inhabited mostly by the labourers who worked for that farm. The 1841 census lists the occupations of those present on the estate and, of the seven households recorded, in five of them the head of the household was a labourer. One is given as a tailor, and the other household was the Manor House.

There was a general slump in agriculture at this time and in 1859 Robert Dowling and Mr Holloway, who farmed the land for the Gales,

asked for a reduction in their rents due to the low prices they were receiving for their produce. The Rev Gale replied to his agent, from Canterbury where he was Vicar of Godmersham, saying that they had never offered to pay more when prices had risen, but he agreed to the reduction. The labourers had been feeling the colder economic climate for years and Ann Spreadbury of Foxcotte, who is recorded as a widow and a labourer aged 77 in the 1841 census, had been in receipt of poor relief in 1837 (Anstruther 1973). By the 1851 census she had died, but her widowed daughter, also listed as a labourer, was still in residence. Of the eight households listed in the census as of labouring status, six were in houses owned directly by the Gales, as a Guardian Fire Office policy of 1865 makes clear (HRO 19 M 60/8), with two of the cottages being in multiple occupation. Although one cottage was brick and tiled the others had thatched roofs and were all probably old by this time. They were each insured for £100 when a cartshed was insured for £40.

In 1907 Foxcotte church was pulled down, apart from the tower which was retained as a mortuary chapel. The knapped flints of the walls and some internal fittings, notably a fifteenth century niche canopy, were removed and used in the building of a new church at Charlton. The growth of Charlton had finally eclipsed Foxcotte as the religious focus. The process had been a continuous one over the previous fifty years, and can be traced in the register of baptisms. In the first half of the nineteenth century the offspring of Foxcotte inhabitants had comprised 100% of the baptisms, but in the decades following 1854 the Foxcotte element dropped to 75%, 28%, 20%, 4%, and finally to 0%.

JH Gale died in 1893 and the estate was finally sold by his executors in 1913. The sale document (HRO 24m 75 Z3) shows that the Dowling holding was then in the possession of a Captain Sutton, and the estate proper consisted of only 560 acres, all grouped in the southern end of the medieval estate. The Manor Farm itself consisted of the farmhouse and four cottages and, although it possessed a

cowhouse with space for 25 cows, it would seem that there was a concentration on arable.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

None of the areas excavated was occupied in this phase, but a spread of domestic refuse was found across the whole site, as evidenced both by the metal detector survey and the finds in the topsoil on the excavated areas. The metal detector survey revealed a concentration of nineteenth century material on what had been the Blake plot in 1614, that is, the area to the north of H. Slag and brick rubble encountered in extracting the objects point to smithing activities. The occupation of this area was probably the source for the majority of the clay pipe and glass fragments found on Area H and the infilling of the hollows of Areas D and E which contained engineering brick. Items of personal costume such as buckles and buttons were found in the excavated areas, the livery buttons perhaps being those from the house servants at the Manor Farm.

The twentieth century was marked by coins of three monarchs, all found near the bus-stop on the Charlton road, and the recovery of spent .303 cartridges and military buckles and buttons points to the area having been used during manoeuvres, probably in the Second World War. Even the coming of the internal combustion engine is documented in the archaeological record with side light and windscreen wiper parts being recovered from the topsoil.

COINS

William IV	Penny (x2)	Illegible 1830-7
Victoria	Penny	Young head 1838-95
	Penny	1896
George V	Halfpenny	1917
George VI	Halfpenny	1940
	Threepence	1942
Elizabeth II	Penny	1971

METALWORK : DISCUSSION

By S Langford

In general, the metalwork finds from Foxcotte were domestic and agricultural in nature.

The greatest percentage of the ironwork was made up of nails, which comprised roughly 50% of the total iron finds. A number of horseshoes was also recovered, but the relatively large quantity (122) may be due in part to the size of the horseshoes themselves, making them difficult to miss during the metal-detector survey.

The finds, both iron and non-ferrous, from within and around the buildings did not show any real evidence of specialist crafts or activities – the sole exception may be possible shoemending activity indicated by the nails from the yard and south and north buildings in Area G, but the general area involved shows no concentration of associated tools.

The iron finds (apart from the spur from context 424, which was probably lost before the house was built on the site) are examples of workaday objects and structural pieces such as pintles, and the copper alloy objects are not a great deal richer. The buckles from this site, both iron and cuprous, are fairly plain with only a handful of decorated examples, and it seems that either the community was not very wealthy or that large amounts of metalwork were scavenged and recycled during the life of the site. While the latter may be true of structural ironwork, it is the relatively small amount and the plainness of the copper alloy assemblage which makes the former explanation most likely.

The small amount of slag from the site showed no evidence of any activity other than small-scale smithying, such as would be carried out in a domestic setting or by itinerant workmen.

Items of Interest

Several pieces or groups of metalwork from Foxcotte are intrinsically interesting, and are discussed below.

Horse-shoes

Of the horse-shoes found on the site, c 75% were kept for study. Some 65 whole horse-shoes were recovered and 57 broken pieces could be identified. Of the 122 total examples, c 113 were straight-edged, four or five sinuous-edged and the rest were too corroded, en-

crusted or fragmentary to be differentiated.

Type 1: Of the sinuous-edged horse-shoes, none are fullered but three have a lip at the leading edge of the centre. The horse-shoes have thick-ended heels rather than true calkins and ovoid nail-holes (Fig 25.1). This type of horse-shoe is often thought to be pre-Norman or at the latest pre-fourteenth century, but the sinuous edge is a product of the method of manufacture, where the nail-holes are punched and countersunk, and can occur at any date. The lack of fullering on these shoes may indicate an early date, but the small number of examples recovered is not sufficient to draw firm conclusions.

Type 2: These horse-shoes are larger, thicker and more slender than those above, with plain edges. Some examples were fullered. Most have simple heels, but a few have true calkins and these shoes seem to fit the later fourteenth century pattern in the development of the horse-shoe. During the later medieval period, shoes for draught horses followed the heavy continental style, evolving into the plain 'Guildhall' shoe of the Tudor period (Sparkes 1976, 12) (Fig 25.2). As with Type 1, above, the classification should not be rigidly adhered to, as there is a large variation in horse-shoes at any date.

Type 3: A few of the plain-edged shoes (Fig 25.3) are broader and flatter than those of Type 2, and are not usually fullered. These resemble the splay-ended 'keyhole' type of the sixteenth and seventeenth century.

Type 4: The horse-shoes in this category are lipped over at the centre and sometimes at the side (Fig 25.4). The lipping would protect the hoof of a draught-horse when leaning in to a heavy pull. One or two of these shoes may have been remedial, as the thickness can vary greatly within one shoe. Although often considered to be a later nineteenth and twentieth century innovation (Sparkes 1976) this feature may be seen from Roman times onwards (Neuberger 1930).

Type 5: Ox-shoes. Only one or two examples of possible ox-shoes were found on this site, and in a broken and encrusted condition (Fig 25.5).

Pony-shoes: Some of the smaller examples of horse-shoes from Foxcotte may be pony-shoes, but it is difficult to identify them by means of any feature other than relative size (Fig 25.6)

Horsehoe nails: There were approximately 30 nails from the site which could be identified as horseshoe nails, as well as many other possible examples (eg Area A SF23, above). Of the identified nails, most were of the simple 'fiddlekey' type (Fig 26.21) which was gradually replaced during the medieval period by the 'club-head' type (Fig 26.22).

Spur

A complete rowel-spur was found in context 424 (Fig 26.16) in the clearance levels of the house on Area H. The spur, for a right foot, has a 6-pointed rowel, a long neck and double-holed terminals. The evenly-curved sides of the spur end in a pronounced curved crest at the junction with the neck.

Similar crested spurs are known from Golpho (Beresford 1975, 89–90, Fig 42) and Pleshey Castle (Ellis 1977, 179, Figs 40 and 46), where they are dated to the early fifteenth century.

The fifteenth century saw an increasing elongation of spur-necks and elaboration of the sides (Ward-Perkins 1929, 106), and it seems likely that the Foxcotte spur dates from the second quarter to the middle of the fifteenth century.

The use of items such as spurs for dating purposes may be misleading, as such pieces are by their nature likely to become heirlooms. In this case, the presence in the same context of the two fifteenth century knives (Fig 26.10–11) would tend to confirm the approximate date of deposition.

Weedhook

The weedhook was unstratified and unprovenanced, but is of interest for its method of manufacture. The tool was made from a simple flat-backed single-edged knife with a rectangular tang. The blade has been split or cut almost across its width about half-way down, and folded back on itself (Fig 26.15).

The cutting and folding may have been caused accidentally, but the final shape of the object and its relatively undamaged condition apart from a missing blade-tip probably indicate that the folding was deliberate. As the fold is not welded, it is assumed that the item was made in a domestic setting, probably as a use for a knife that had lost its tip.

A similarly-shaped weedhook is known from the twelfth – sixteenth century bailey of Pleshey Castle (Goodall 1977, Fig 38.19) where the blade had been formed by joining two pieces lengthways rather than by folding,

and purpose-made weedhooks, billhooks and like implements have a similar shape from Roman times to the present day.

Curry-combs

Three curry-comb handles were recovered from Foxcotte from contexts 228 (Area G), 401 (Area H) and a fragmentary example from 2 (Area B). All are of trident form (Fig 25.8) and have broadened, flattened terminals for riveting to the combs proper, which have not survived. The tang-ends would have been set into wooden handles. Examples of complete curry-combs are known from Princes Risborough, Bucks, and Rickingham Superior, Suffolk (Knocker 1964, 222–223, Fig 29), while similar handles to the Foxcotte examples were found at Winchester (Goodall 1982, Nos 3840, 3842 and 3843).

Carpenters bit

The carpenters bit, from context 251 in Area G, has an expanded and flattened terminal to fit a wooden handle. The lower end is hollowed into a gouge, which is set at a slight axial twist to the handle (Fig 26.17). Similar bits are known from various medieval sites, and three examples are illustrated from the twelfth–sixteenth century bailey of Pleshey Castle, Essex (Goodall 1977, Fig 38.15, 16, 17).

Candle-holder

This candle-holder, from context 239 in Area G, is made of iron and is formed by wrapping a piece of thin sheet to form the hollow stock (Fig 25.11). The spiked end could be stuck into an earthen floor or a wall. Examples are known from all periods, and a similar medieval example from Wintringham is described as the commonest form of candle-holder (Goodall 1982, 60, Fig 58.6).

Shears

One complete pair of shears was found at Foxcotte, unstratified and very plain (Fig 26.19). A half-pair, also unstratified but from Area G is of interest because of its form, with the handles having a hollow semi-circular section (Fig 26.20). These were for specialist

use, for sheep-shearing, and would have been much more comfortable to use for long periods. A very similar fragment of shears is dated from the sixteenth century to the first half of the seventeenth century at Cheddar (Goodall 1979, 272, Fig 92.214), where their uses are said to include sheep-shearing and thatching.

Thimbles

One fragmentary and seven whole copper alloy thimbles were found in Area A of the site, all of which appear to have been stamped out and then hand-finished (SF 55). Of the whole examples, six are quite finely made, while the seventh is thicker, heavier and deeper-pored. It bears a maker's mark (Fig 27.17). Thimbles are known from other sites, *eg* Cheddar (Goodall 1979, Fig 94.38), where they are dated to the later medieval period or later.

Rumbler-bells

Three complete examples of copper alloy rumbler-bells were found on the site, one from Area B (unstratified), and two from Area A (SF 32 and SF 33). A fragmentary, smaller example was also from Area A (SF 34).

All four were decorated on the lower surface, while the small, more elaborate SF 34 was also decorated on the upper hemisphere (Fig 28.1, 2, 4, 5).

The bells were made by joining together two hemispheres, the upper with a suspension-loop and the lower with a slot. Inside was an iron ball which rolled freely to create the noise.

Examples of this type of bell are quite widespread, including one from Rye, East Sussex (Hadfield 1982, 224 Fig 12) which bears the same 'W' mark on the base as SF 32 from Foxcotte, and was probably made in Shaftesbury, where this type was manufactured from the late seventeenth century until the late nineteenth century. The Rye example is described as a cowbell (Hadfield 1982), but the larger ones were also worn by sheep and horses. The smaller rumbler-bell, SF 34, may have been for a domestic pet, or could even have been a clothes-bell like those from Bordesley Abbey, Hereford (Wright 1976, Fig 38.11 and 12).

Knives

Full details appear in microfiche (Fig 26).

Buckles

Full details appear in microfiche (Fig 25.13–15, Fig 27.1–16).

FAUNAL REMAINS by J Coy

A small quantity of animal bones (1,327 fragments) resulted from the excavation of pits and buildings probably in use until the mid-eighteenth century AD. There was, in addition, some later use of the area which may have produced material. Table 17 (in microfiche) gives a list of the layers included in each of the phase divisions. Layers underlined contained reasonable samples of bone (>50 fragments).

Species Present

Most of the bones were those of domestic ungulates – horse, cattle, sheep and pig. The elements represented are shown in Table 18 (in microfiche). In the absence of any certain goat bones all the ovicaprid bones were classified as 'sheep' although a minority of them bore anatomical criteria distinguishing them to that species. 'S-size' fragments are probably mostly sheep as pig bones are fairly distinctive even when very fragmentary. 'C-size' fragments are likely to be mostly cattle. The bones were highly fragmented, with a quarter of them only identifiable as fragments of long bones ('l b fragment' in Table 18). The preservation varied very much according to the type of deposit in which they were found.

Other domestic species represented were the dog, cat, fowl and goose. Wild species were poorly represented but included some native species of bird – the partridge, *Perdix perdix*; crow or rook, *Corvus* sp; and a mallard, *Anas platyrhynchos*. It is conceivable that the last could have been a domestic bird, but the bone is a good match for mallard with no evidence of domestication.

Three non-native species were also represented. The rabbit, *Oryctolagus cuniculus*, and fallow deer, *Dama dama*, are generally accepted

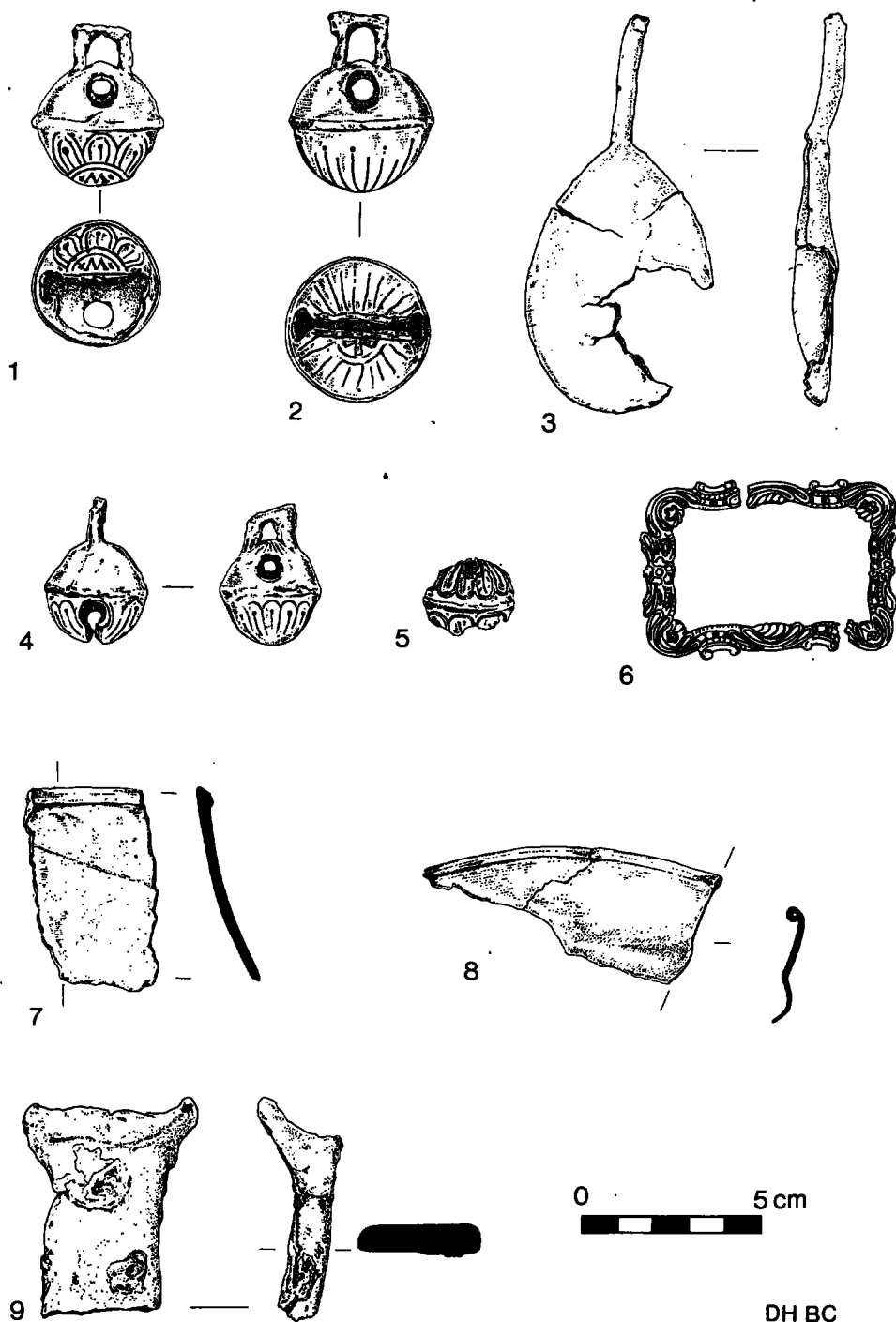


Fig 28. Objects of copper alloy and pewter (3).

to have been introduced in post-Norman times (Corbet and Southern 1977). In the medieval period they were subjected to considerable human manipulation through the practices of warrening and emparkment, respectively. It is always a difficult matter to decide whether rabbit bones are contemporary with a deposit, and the derivation of these remains, especially the partial immature skeleton in Area A, layer 5, should be confirmed. Two rat long bones were a good match for the black rat, *Rattus rattus*, the species expected in pre-eighteenth century deposits. Details of these less common finds are in Table 19 (in microfiche).

Details of the Assemblage

The largest samples of bone were from layers which contained post-medieval pottery or were of mixed or uncertain origin. The bones associated with fifteenth/sixteenth century pottery showed the largest spread of species (Table 9) and the thirteenth/fourteenth century and sixteenth/seventeenth century

Table 9. *Species represented in the different deposits.*

Major domestic	13/14th C	15/16th C	16/17th C	Later PM
horse	X	—	—	X
cow	X	X	X	X
sheep	X	X	X	X
pig	X	X	X	X
dog	in mixed layer only			
cat	—	X	—	—
fowl	X	X	X	—
goose	—	X	X	—
Other Species				
fallow	X	X	—	—
rabbit	X	—	X	—
rat	—	X	—	—
partridge	—	X	—	—
crow	—	X	—	—
duck	—	—	X	—
Number in sample	135	308	38	430

samples were very small. The most interesting specimens often came from mixed layers and it was not possible to pinpoint certain finds as accurately as had been hoped. Table 9 gives the occurrences of the various species in the datable layers. The solitary dog bone was found in a layer containing mixed material of medieval and post-medieval date. Despite this

Table 10. *Percentages of bones showing erosion gnawing or butchery.*

Phase	13/14th C	15/16th C	Post-Medieval
number in sample	135	308	468
eroded	19%	1%	2%
gnawed	11%	15%	19%
butchered	10%	3%	5%

scarcity of dog bone, many of the bones from all periods showed carnivore gnawing (Table 10).

In view of the importance of such rural medieval material an attempt was made to use the bones to shed more light on changes of usage in different periods. It was hoped that this might later help to clarify which was residual medieval material in post-medieval deposits and which was post-medieval contamination in medieval layers. The different types of butchery were therefore recorded in detail and the state of preservation of the fragments also recorded.

The overall occurrence of butchery is shown in Table 10. The incidence of erosion seemed to be much greater in the earlier medieval deposits, and is likely to be due to the type of deposit from which bones came. The ones from pits were best preserved. Despite the high degree of erosion, the dog gnawing and butchery (with both knives and heavier implements) was noticeable. There was evidence of splitting of cattle and sheep carcasses down the midline of the vertebral column in some of the medieval material but not in any layers securely dated to either medieval phase. Evidence for the introduction of this practice as early as the eleventh century AD was found at Flaxengate, Lincoln (O'Connor 1982), and it would be interesting to know when it became common practice in rural areas.

The bones associated with fifteenth/sixteenth century pottery showed a higher incidence of burning than those from other phases. Most of the butchery evidence from this phase came from ribs which showed a characteristic antero-posterior chopping on both cattle and sheep. This was not seen on the few thirteenth/fourteenth century ribs available.

The post-medieval bones included two cases

of sawing, in layers associated with seventeenth/eighteenth century and eighteenth/nineteenth century pottery respectively. There were two cases of very efficient midline splitting in Area H, layer 464, associated with deposits dated to the sixteenth/seventeenth century.

Interesting Individual Finds

Some immature animals were represented – a kitten in G5 (fifteenth/sixteenth century) and piglets in G210 (fifteenth/sixteenth century) and floor layers in H 458 (sixteenth/seventeenth century). Young pig occurred in H 464 (seventeenth/eighteenth century). The only finds of calf bones were two sixteenth/seventeenth century layers in H 464 and H 468; the latter also contributed some large cattle and an associated ulna and radius of goose.

A cattle metatarsus with a severely pitted arthritic proximal joint was in G 279 associated with medieval pottery (Fig 29).

The metatarsus, metacarpus and phalanx of fallow deer were found in JCB clearance in the area of a well 20m northeast of Area G.

Conclusions

Such a collection of rural medieval material is a rarity in Wessex and is a useful addition to the present medieval and post-medieval programme now being undertaken at the Faunal Remains Unit to complement earlier work in the Iron Age and Saxon periods (Coy and Maltby nd). The detailed records (for example those of tooth wear sequences and all measurements) will ultimately be used for comparisons in the region. It is hoped that phase differences, such as the incidence of different types of butchery, can be refined as a diagnostic tool for quick dating assessments of Wessex rescue material.

Sadly in the case of Foxcotte, with its thin and difficult stratigraphy and continuous use, much of the material is too mixed to use in this way. With hindsight, too, it is important to stress that maximum recovery of animal bone from an important site like this is likely to provide more detailed knowledge. There is

evidence from the range of anatomical elements presented in Table 18 (microfiche) that selection of bones occurred at excavation – probably inadvertently, as small bones like sheep phalanges are easily missed.

BONE ARTIFACTS

Two bone artifacts were found, both from Area G; one, a fragment of mammal rib from the yard; the other, a fragment of long bone from the west room of the south building. Both, from the iron staining on one surface, the polish on the other surface, and the holes drilled through them, are probably plates from knife handles. Unillustrated.

SOIL REPORT by N Campling

This is a summary of the full text which appears in microfiche.

Introduction

Soil geochemical studies were conducted at the deserted medieval village site of Foxcotte for two reasons: 1) to provide the excavator with an additional data base to evaluate ideas about, and help interpret, the more conventional archaeological record; and 2) to provide comparative geochemical data for a 'known' site where intra-site activities or land uses could be separately determinable, as part of post-graduate research by N Campling.

Techniques

See microfiche.

Results

Compositions are mostly well within the expected ranges for soils (Bowen 1979, 60–1). However, anomalous concentrations are also present with low Ti, K and Cr but high P and S, from layers G-5 and H-406. Low S and high F concentrations typify the Foxcotte Bt and colluvial silt layers.

Humans deposit mostly inorganic P (Eidt 1977), so the actual increase in P due to human activity on Foxcotte is probably between 50 and 250 ppm, specifically for layer G-5. The layer H-416 has, in addition to



Fig 29. Proximal metatarsus, cattle, showing severe pitting of the articular surface. Photo: R Allen.

inorganic P attributable to humans, rather a lot of organic P derived from animal excreta, deposited in the past or more recently. The other Foxcotte soil samples have not been affected very much at all by human depositional processes. The geochemical data are entirely consistent with a colluvial and/or residual origin for these samples.

Conclusions

On the site of Foxcotte, only two soil layers exhibited any degree of geochemical modification by direct human activity. It is estimated that this modification amounted to between 50 and 250 ppm phosphorus added to the layers. For the majority of Foxcotte soil layers, parent material geochemical characteristics dominated. There had been very little importation, deposition or removal of elements by human activity. The main geochemical process on Foxcotte seems to have been the re-concentration or secondary deposition of calcium carbonate, phosphorus and organic matter in limited habitation or activity areas (layers G-5, H-416). A corollary to this conclusion is that Areas A, C and D of Foxcotte saw little human activity and that there was virtually no spill-over or dispersal of elements into gardens and paddocks surrounding habitation areas.

CONCLUSIONS

The archaeological and historical researches at Foxcotte have shown how much still remains to be learnt about the rural basis of medieval society and economy, and their relationship to preceding periods. The evidence for human use of the area is considerable and it is probable that much of the landscape in northwest Hampshire has seen similar intensive use. Specific sites as such do not exist, the landscape is an archaeological continuum and its present form is the result of a long process of human interaction with the environment, which will not be revealed except by extensively excavated areas.

Foxcotte, as a manorial holding within

Andover parish, probably originated in the Middle – or Late – Saxon period. Andover was held by the monarch and there are documentary references to the king being in residence there in 959 and 994. Within the large Andover parochial area were a number of separate manorial holdings one of which, Enham, became a separate enclosed parish. The division of that holding into Kings Enham and Knights Enham may point to a royal bequest of a manor to provide for the king's followers on royal visits. Likewise Charlton may well have been similarly linked to the royal manor. Many Charltons in Domesday Book are satellites of royal manors and may well have been the *tun* of the kings *ceorls* or churls, relatively free peasants, who provided food and services for the royal manor.

The meaning of the name Foxcotte is thought to be the 'abode of the foxes' but research in the Midlands (Hook 1982) has shown that *cot* settlements were often on the edges of larger holdings and remained small settlements that failed to grow, or even survive, an example being Foxcotte in Swinford, Gloucestershire. The original Domesday name of the Hampshire settlement was Fulsecote. Could this be a personal name and record the gift of part of the king's manor to a deserving follower?

On the site of the medieval village the excavations have shown that Foxcotte was probably a small hamlet in the Saxon and Norman periods (Phase 3), which grew considerably in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The settlement spread down Foxcotte Lane and then along the Charlton Road. The houses appear to have been close to the edge of the road with barns and agricultural buildings behind them. The regular plots on the excavated area suggest some form of central authority, undoubtedly provided by the de Foxcotte family.

The archaeological evidence for this period is similar in a number of aspects to that found on sites of similar date in Hampshire and elsewhere in southern England. At Popham in Hampshire, a flint-walled building with a chalk floor was found, associated with tripod

pitcher sherds, stone mortar fragments and a rowel spur (Fasham 1976). At Dean in Hampshire a twelfth century timber building was found below a thirteenth/fourteenth century wooden barn. The change from post-built structures to unmortared flint sleeper walls was seen at Gomeldon, Wiltshire, to have taken place in the thirteenth century (Musty and Algar 1966) and at Wythemail in Northamptonshire in the late thirteenth and fourteenth centuries (Hurst and Hurst 1969).

This growth of the hamlet to something approaching village size was probably related to the general growth in population at this time, a growth probably due to favourable climatic conditions. The deterioration in the climate and the concomitant fall in population, accelerated by the Black Death and other plagues, was probably responsible for curtailing the growth of Foxcotte. Other factors will have played a part and Wright (1976) has stated that changes in the social structure of the rural population and the relationship between factors such as demography and the market must be taken into account. The excavation of a single rural settlement will not, of course, reveal these.

The shrinkage of Foxcotte was obviously not sudden, but a gradual process. The house on Area G was in occupation until perhaps 1500, Area H until perhaps 1650, and the plot to the north of Area H was probably still occupied into the early nineteenth century. Foxcotte is not therefore a deserted medieval village, in that the desertion was a phenomena that requires an explanation. Rather, it is the expansion of the settlement that is less explainable.

There are a number of similar sites in the chalk valleys of the Andover region, one example being Littleton Farm, Fyfield, where a manor house survives above earthworks on a south-facing slope. One of the questions to be answered is how the land could support such a greatly increased population in the late medieval period, and what social and economic pressures this must have created. Excavations carried out in Andover over the last two years suggest that a similar expansion

and contraction occurred in the urban centres in the region, and that it took some two centuries for the towns to recover their fourteenth century size.

The Test Valley Archaeological Committee will continue to seek more information and explanations, through its Medieval Project, for the changes occurring in this period, when the basis of the modern settlement pattern and economy was laid down (Green 1984, 112-113). A greater understanding of the past organization and economy of the region will undoubtedly be of relevance to the future.

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Abbreviations

Arch	Archaeology	20 M 52/17	Lease, 1625
BAR	British Archaeological Reports, Oxford (British Series)	10 M 54/1 10 M 54/3	Conveyance, 1626 Sale, 1627
BROB	Berichten van de Rijksdienst voor het Oudheidkundig Bodemonderzoek	20 M 52/8 18 M 63/17 12 M 53/38	Lease, 1629 Rentroll, 1629 Sale, 1647
CBA	Council for British Archaeology	20 M 52/9 12 M 53/40 12 M 53/23	Sale, 1650 Sale, 1650 Sale, 1652
Ceram	Ceramics	20 M 52/15	Sale, 1652/3
Coll	Collections	20 M 52/10	Mortgage, 1654
Comm	Committee	20 M 52/12	Mortgage, 1650s
DNHAS	Dorset Natural History and Archaeological Society	10 M 54/1 12 M 53/63 12 M 53/21	Sale of manor, 1659 Chancery papers, post 1659 Sale, 1669
Hist	Historical	20 M 52/19	Mortgage, 1679
J	Journal	20 M 52/17	Sale, 1682-3
Med	Medieval	12 M 53/32	Sale, 1686
PPS	Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society	2 M 37/411 79 M 74 ET 2	Lease, 1693 Sale, 1700
Proc	Proceedings of the Hampshire Field Club	12 M 53/65 79 M 74/T3	Marriage settlement, 1700/1 Lease, 1705
Rep	Report	68 M 80 M1	Juror's presentment, 1706
Res	Research	12 M 53/52	Lease, 1720
Surrey Arch Coll	Surrey Archaeological Collection	20 M 52/20 20 M 52/18	Lease, 1724 Lease, 1724
Soc	Society	12 M 53/53	Lease, 1724
TVAC	Test Valley Archaeological Committee	12 M 53/54 12 M 53/55 12 M 53/43	Lease, 1742 Lease, 1745/6 Mortgage, 1745
		20 M 52/21	Mortgage, 1748
		12 M 53/66	Marriage settlement, 1751
		12 M 53/76	Will, 1760
		12 M 53/51	Lease, 1762
		12 M 53/56	Lease, 1779
		12 M 53/70	Covenant, 1786
		12 M 53/59	Lease and release, 1837
		19 M 60/7	Sale and exchange, 1837
HRO Wills:		12 M 53/61	Lease and release, 1837
B 1516	John Cooper	19 M 60/11	Gale letters, 1850-63
B 1549	John Hyde	19 M 60/12	Estate of T H Gale dec'd, 1864
u 1551	William Tredgolt	19 M 60/13	Gale papers, 1864-75
u 1553	Thomas Cole	19 M 60/8	Insurance policy, 1865
u 1557	John Page	19 M 60/9	Insurance document, 1878
A 1558, A 1559	John Tredgold		
B 1562	Richard Wale		
A 1572	Joan Page		
A 1587	John Heliare		

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HRO Other Documents:

20 M 52/14	Lease, 1625	2/JC/2, 5	Court leet book and quarter sessions of Andover, 1643-1690
20 M 52/16	Lease, 1625		
32 M 57	Enfeoffment, 1625	2/PP/1	Pie Powder Court, 1653-1658

Andover Archives:

2/FP/3, 46, 47, 48 View of Frank Pledge,
tithingmens returns,
1560-1704

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