

INVESTIGATIONS AT THE ANGLO-SAXON CHURCH OF ST PETER, TITCHFIELD, 1982–1989

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ABSTRACT

The historical evidence for the Anglo-Saxon minster church at Titchfield is elaborated. Work on the fabric of the church has included the unblocking of an early window built entirely of through-stones high in the west wall of the nave. In addition the east face of the chancel-arch wall was examined and the wall was found to be of Anglo-Saxon date above the present arch which is a later insertion; the wall is contemporary with the Anglo-Saxon fabric at the west end of the church. The wall also retains evidence for the Anglo-Saxon chancel in the form of the scars remaining where the early chancel walls have been torn away. The results of minor investigations into the early porch at the west end are reported, together with those of a watching brief maintained during construction work at the west end of the south aisle. An early date, probably in the late 7th or early 8th century, is maintained for the construction of the first church.

INTRODUCTION

A detailed study of the historical and architectural evidence for the Anglo-Saxon church of St Peter, Titchfield (SU 541058) was published in Hare (1976); a further paper (Hare 1984) concluded that the parallels often drawn between the western porch of Titchfield church and the Watergate at Portchester contained no real substance.

The study published in 1976 was concerned almost exclusively with the visible fabric. Between 1982 and 1987 the opportunity arose to unblock an early window and to investigate parts of the fabric concealed beneath plaster in order to elucidate further the character of the early church. In 1989 the construction of new Chapter Rooms at the west end of the south aisle enabled the first modern investigations beneath the floor of the church to be made.

These researches are the main subject of this paper.

HISTORICAL EVIDENCE

The historical evidence for the Anglo-Saxon church at Titchfield was discussed in detail in Hare (1976, 5–12 and 37–40). Since that paper was published further research has shed new light on several aspects of the historical background, and examination of the charter evidence relating to Titchfield has also produced new information.

The troubled political history of Hampshire in the second half of the 7th century was outlined in Hare (1976, 5–7). However a much better understanding of the historical context in which a minster church could have been founded at this time is now provided by Dr Barbara Yorke's recent study (1989) of the Jutes in Hampshire. A great deal of work has also taken place since 1976 into the origin and evolution of minster churches (Blair 1985; Blair 1988). In his study of the mother churches of Hampshire, Hase proposed that the early minster churches of the county were founded as the result of royal initiative (Hase 1975, *passim*; now published in abbreviated form in Hase 1988). The substantial extent of royal involvement in the foundation of minster churches throughout England is now widely accepted (Blair 1988, 38–44).

The name Titchfield first occurs in a charter of King Ethelred dated 982, preserved in the *Liber de Hyda*, confirming a bequest of 6 estates comprising 13 hides in total by Ealdorman Æthelmær to the New Minster at Winchester

(Edwards 1866, 217–27; Sawyer 1968, no 842; Keynes 1980, 241; Wormald 1988, no 44). Four of the six estates are stated in the charter to have been on the Isle of Wight, one on Portsea Island and one at Segenworth, just north of Titchfield. The history of these six estates is complex. It is recorded in the charter that they had been owned by a certain Lufa; it may be that Lufa originally acquired the estates from King Eadred (946–955), though only a meadow on the Meon is specifically stated to have been granted by Eadred (see below). Lufa forfeited the six estates for some unrecorded reason, an event which is stated to have taken place after Ethelred's accession on 18 March 978, though the possibility that in practice the forfeiture took place at an earlier date cannot be discounted (Wormald 1988, 278–9). The estates were subsequently sold by Ethelred to Ealdorman Æthelmær who in turn bequeathed the estates to the New Minster on his death on 18 April 982 (Keynes 1980, 240). The sequence of events is confirmed by the survival of Æthelmær's will (Whitelock 1930, 24–7; Sawyer 1968, no 1498), also preserved in the *Liber de Hyda*.

The later history of these estates is less certain; no further trace of them exists in the records of the New Minster. Rudborne records in his 15th century *Historia major* (printed in Wharton 1691, 249) that these estates, along with other lands, were seized by William the Conqueror and bestowed by him on the officers of his army. The statement does however need to be treated with some caution, for it does not square with the evidence of Domesday Book. Where they can be identified the estates appear to have reverted to royal ownership by the time of Edward the Confessor. For instance Fratton on Portsea Island is recorded as having been held by Ketel and Segenworth by Wulfric, both from the Confessor (Munby 1982, fol 47b, 34, 1 and fol 45a, 23, 13).

The name Titchfield is found twice in the 982 charter. The first occurrence is in the bounds of an estate *æt stæðe*, stated to be in the Isle of Wight. The relevant extract reads *on þara hina mearce to ticcanfelda*. In Hare (1976, 8) the various interpretations which had pre-

viously been put forward for this phrase were set out, but no conclusion was reached. In fact there are cogent reasons for accepting the interpretation originally put forward by Forsberg (1942, 153) who suggested that *to ticcanfelda* qualifies the word *hina*. The phrase would thus mean 'to the boundary (of the land) of the community of Titchfield'. A brief word should be devoted to the syntax, as the preposition 'to' in the sense of 'belonging to' is not commonly cited. In fact a number of examples of this usage survive. A particularly close parallel may be found in the bounds of an estate at Wickhambreux (Kent), granted by King Eadred to Ælfwyn in 948 (Sawyer 1968, no 535). Reference may be found here to *on norð healfe þæs hires mearc to Sancte Mildrype*, 'on the north side the boundary of the community of St Mildred' (Minster-in-Thanel). An example of this usage involving a landholding at some distance from the mother church is found in a charter of King Edmund dated 946, granting land at *Gamelanwyrðe* to Ordhelm and Alfwold (Sawyer 1968, no 510); *Gamelanwyrðe* has been located by Ward (1933, 133–7) in the parish of Burmarsh in Romney Marsh. Here part of the bounds run *on west hand æt þara hina lande to folces stane*, indicating that the estate adjoined land belonging to the community of Folkestone. Similar examples may be found in the bounds of other Kentish charters (for instance Sawyer 1968, nos 282, 300, 885, 905 and 1044).

Forsberg demonstrated that the land *æt stæðe* was on the north coast of the Isle of Wight, probably in the eastern part of the island. Hockey (1982, 8) has recently identified the estate with the parish of Binstead. While this suggestion is not implausible, it has not been convincingly demonstrated.

The evidence does however demonstrate beyond doubt that the tenth-century community at Titchfield held land on the Isle of Wight, though the exact site and size of the holding remain uncertain. Titchfield was not the only minster to hold land in the Isle of Wight; according to Domesday Book the canons of Twynham (Christchurch) held one hide of land on the island (Munby 1982, fol

44b, 17, 1). It is of interest to note that the two minsters known to have held land in the Isle of Wight, served parishes in the heartland of the areas of mainland Jutish territory (Yorke 1989, 90-1) (I am indebted to Dr P H Hase for drawing this point to my attention). The chance mention of land belonging to the community of Titchfield on the border of another estate is our only reference to this landholding, and there is no evidence of its subsequent history.

The second reference to Titchfield occurs at the end of the charter bounds. After giving the bounds of the one-hide estate at Segenworth, the charter continues, somewhat inconsequentially, as follows:

*Dis is seo mæd þe eadred cyng gean lufan his men on ece
yrfe in to sugging wyrdē on his witena gewitnesse seo ligð
betweox meone 7 þære mylendic. Dis he cyð on his witena
gewitnesse. þæt is ærest ælfsige ælferes sunu. 7 ælfsige
wulfsiges sunu. 7 eadric cild to gewitnesse 7 æðelweard
wulfðryþe sunu him to gewitnesse 7 þara hina on
ticcefelda 7 siððan oþra formanegra.*

This may be broadly rendered as follows:

This is the meadow which King Eadred grants in perpetuity to Lufa his man *in to* Segenworth in the presence of his counsellors. It lies between the Meon and the mill-ditch. This he announces in the presence of his counsellors (that is first Ælfsige, Ælthre's son, and Ælfsige, Wulfsige's son and Eadric *cild* as witnesses and Æðelweard, Wulfðryþ's son as his witness) and of the community at Titchfield and of very many others as well.

The witness list from the earlier transaction thus provides unequivocal evidence for the existence of a community at Titchfield during the reign of Eadred (946-955). The extract quoted is in the present tense, which suggests that it is likely to be a quotation from an earlier document. It is uncertain whether the words *in to sugging wyrdē* should be construed as meaning that the meadow already belonged to Segenworth or that Eadred was conveying the meadow to Segenworth. Indeed the reason for

the emphasis placed on the meadow remains unclear. The one-hide estate at Segenworth is presumably to be found in the vicinity of the present Segenworth House (SU 543 072), about 1 km north of Titchfield; unfortunately its boundary cannot now be traced. In the Latin text of the charter the mill is termed *cymncges mylen quod alio latino uidelicet usu nuncupatur regis molendinum*. The reference to a royal mill suggests that the mill in question could well be on the site of the mill which survives immediately to the north of Titchfield village to this day (SU 543 062).

The minster at Titchfield is considered to have been founded in the late 7th or early 8th century (Hare 1976, 10), but the 982 charter provides the only documentary evidence for its existence. It is uncertain how long any form of communal life continued at Titchfield. Blair (1985) has recently demonstrated that secular colleges continued well into the 12th century and even later in many more cases than is normally recognised. He also notes specifically that in the 12th century houses of regular Augustinian canons were frequently founded at old minster sites, 'It is clear enough that they appealed because they combined a relatively strict rule with the sort of involvement in the world that minster priests once had, and that is why so many old minsters were given to them' (Blair 1985, 138). The original intention seems to have been to found an Augustinian house at Titchfield, but eventually a Premonstratensian house was established (Hare 1976, 12). The Premonstratensian order itself followed the Augustinian rule, engaging actively in pastoral duties (Colvin 1951, 272-88). It is far from impossible that some remnant of collegiate life survived at Titchfield until the foundation of the Abbey in 1231, and it is certainly to be expected that the former status of the church was well-remembered.

The break-up of the ancient minster *parochia* of Titchfield was discussed in Hare (1976, 8-11). It should be noted that the recent statement by Hase (1988, 48 and 64 n 32) that the grant of Fareham to the bishop took place in 963 x 975 should be disregarded. The charter in question (Sawyer 1968, no 822) is a

charter of confirmation and only provides a *terminus ante quem* for the original grant of Fareham, a point accepted by Dr Hase (pers comm dated 21 October 1988).

INVESTIGATIONS INTO THE FABRIC

The work carried out between 1982 and 1987 concerned two areas, first the known Anglo-Saxon fabric at the west end and secondly the east face of the chancel-arch wall. The investigations involved the removal of plaster at several points. Although it was not anticipated that wall-paintings would be encountered in the areas in question, the possibility was borne in mind throughout the operations. In fact in most areas which were examined the walls were covered exclusively by heavy cement-like renders, almost certainly of Victorian date.

The west end

The investigations at the west end can be considered under two main headings, first the unblocking of the high west window and secondly a series of minor investigations designed to clarify certain specific points.

The window which survives high in the west wall of the nave was first investigated in 1974, when the plaster on the west face of its blocking was removed (Hare 1976, 22–6, Fig 5 and Plate 4). The outer face of the window is now visible inside the upper storey of the west tower, but the window originally lit the gable of the nave above the roof of the Anglo-Saxon porch (Hare 1976, Fig 6). Subsequently the porch was raised to form a tower, probably *circa* 1200, and the window, which no longer served any useful purpose, was blocked up to the level of the springing. For some uncertain reason the head of the window was left unblocked. By 1970 all that was visible from the floor of the church was the semi-circular outline of the head, filled by a disused ventilator; this arrangement is visible in a photograph of the west wall of the church (Appendix I, 1).

In 1982 a faculty was granted to unblock this window in order to commemorate the 1000th anniversary of the first documentary reference to Titchfield (see above, p 117). A scaffolding tower

was erected on the nave side and after it was ascertained that the dressed stonework of the window was still intact, the blocking was removed and the window exposed (Figs 1 & 2). The window has a shallow internal splay, with both head and jambs constructed entirely of through-stones. There are seven fine-jointed voussoirs, though the central voussoir is now cracked. The jambs each consist of a large upright stone, surmounted by a shorter stone bonding a little more deeply into the wall. The sill is flanked on either side by two further large stones, which pass almost through the whole thickness of the wall; no more than a single course of stones separates the visible portion of the outer end of these stones from the external wall-face (Fig 1). The lower edge of these stones was not exposed on the internal, east face, owing to the proximity of a large modern wall-painting on the west wall of the nave (Appendix I, 1); it is however unlikely that the stones extend much below the area uncovered (Fig 1). The stonework consists entirely of Bembridge limestone (Appendix II), and was in all likelihood completed by an external sill, lost due to weathering while the window was still in use. The jointing of the stonework is of very fine quality throughout, and the dressed stones are all 'axe' dressed to provide a key for a plaster covering, using a tool with a blade 40–55 mm wide. There was no evidence for glazing or shuttering of the window.

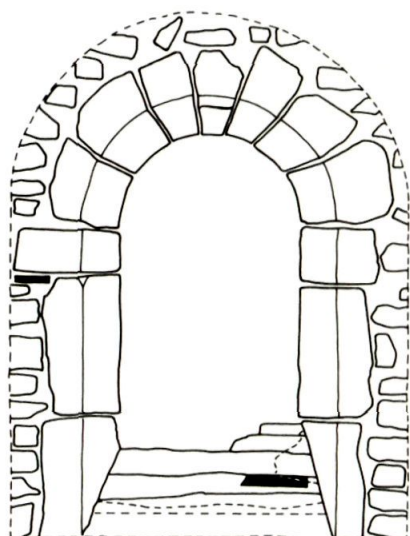
The internal sill was found to consist of rough and uneven steps built of limestone rubble, incorporating one re-used Roman tile. The steps were set in white mortar similar to that of the surrounding walling (see below). The lowest step was not uncovered in order to avoid damage to the wall-painting beneath.

The dimensions of the window, which is set in a wall 0.69–0.70 m (2 ft 3 in) thick, are as follows:

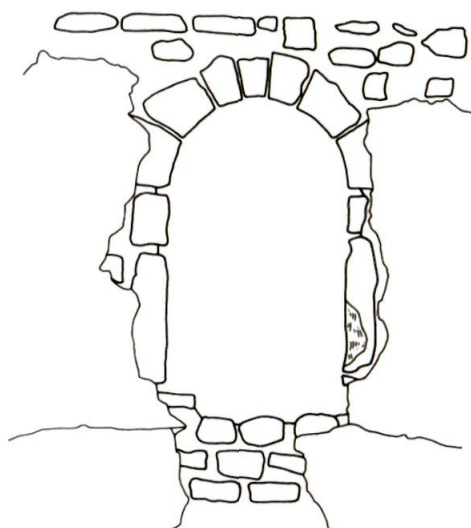
External width	0.72 m (2 ft 4½ in)
Internal width	0.99 m (3 ft 3 in)
Internal height	1.76 m (5 ft 9 in)

The internal height does not allow for the fact that the lowest stone of the sill was not exposed, while the original external height cannot be ascertained owing to the disappearance of the sill stone. The external height must however have measured approximately 1.00–1.10 m (3 ft 3 in–3 ft 7 in).

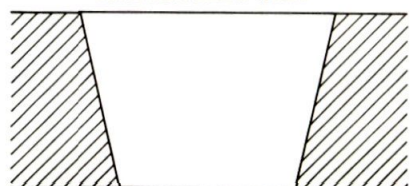
On the inner (eastern) face an area of walling 300 mm (12 in) in width was exposed around the window. This walling was of limestone rubble similar in character to the walling of the Anglo-Saxon porch; on the south side the walling incorporated



INTERIOR ELEVATION

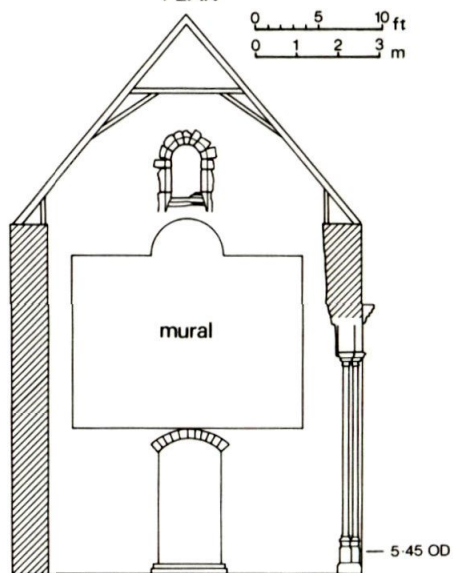


EXTERIOR ELEVATION



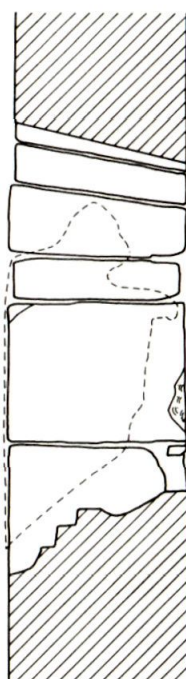
PLAN

0 5 10 ft
0 1 2 3 m

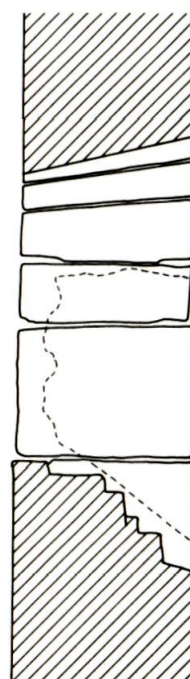


ELEVATION OF WEST WALL OF NAVE

PM



SECTION
LOOKING SOUTH



SECTION
LOOKING NORTH

ft 0 1 5
m 0 1 2

Fig 1. Titchfield church: the high west window. The dotted lines on the interior elevation show the surviving traces of the plaster sill, and the dotted lines on the sections similarly show the extent of plaster on the jambs. Stones shown in solid black are re-used Roman tiles.

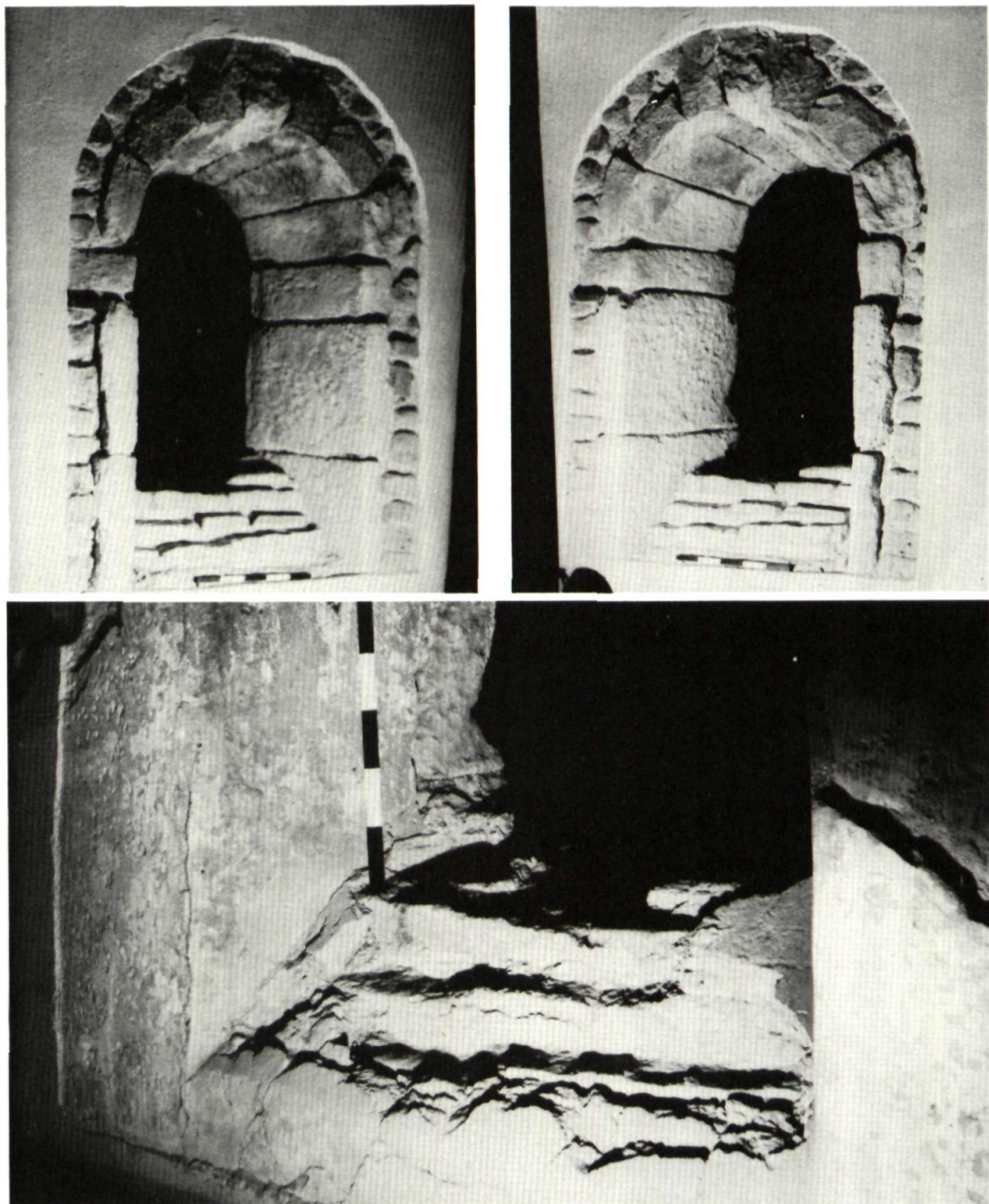


Fig 2. Titchfield church: the high west window. *Top left* Interior view from the south. *Top right* Interior view from the north. *Below* The window after removal of the flint blocking, with brown plaster still intact on the south jamb; the internal edge of the plaster sill can also be seen, as can the patch of plaster projecting on the north side. (Photos: N Bradford).

one re-used Roman tile. In this area it was possible for the first time to obtain sizeable samples of the original Anglo-Saxon mortar. The mortar used was hard, whitish in colour, with chalk and small pebble inclusions; it incorporated many flecks of charcoal and occasional shell fragments. This distinctive mortar has subsequently been observed in several other areas where plaster has been removed (see below, *passim*). At the time of writing (August 1990) this mortar is also visible extensively in the external north wall of the porch, where erosion in recent years has removed most later re-pointing.

In the 1974 investigations it was noted that a small amount of hard, brown plaster could be seen on the soffit of the window, and that this plaster could be observed to pass behind the blocking of the window (Hare 1976, 26). On removal of the blocking the plaster could be seen to cover most of the jambs of the window except for the area immediately adjacent to the west (outer) face of the window; substantial evidence was also found for a plaster sill (Figs 1 & 2). The brown plaster was of distinctive character, consisting of a dense mix of lime with a large proportion of quartz and some clay or tile; there were inclusions of limestone and ironstone and charcoal flecks (some quite large). The plaster retained traces of a white paint with a blue tinge; the paint was perhaps original, for a second coat of plaster and paint had been applied over it, apparently in order to smooth out minor irregularities in the surface. This plaster is visually identical to the brown plaster found on the east face of the upper floor of the tower (Hare 1976, Fig 5), and the same plaster was again identified on the east face of the chancel-arch wall (see below, p 129).

The evidence for the plaster sill is of particular interest. On both north and south jambs, the plaster had a clearly defined lower edge, indicating a sill with a pitch of about 40° (Fig 1). The sill itself was formed of the same plaster applied in considerable thickness to the rough steps. The thickness of the plaster was particularly noticeable at the internal edge which survived intact, though much cracked (Fig 2). A small amount of the sill remained along the lower edge of the south jamb, while a substantial patch projected from the northern side. The remainder of the plaster sill had either been lost through weathering before the window was blocked or was removed to provide a firmer seating for the blocking.

The brown plaster on the jambs was found to return north and south over the internal jambs and over the lower part of the walling exposed around the window. It was not however possible to ascer-

tain how far it extended over the upper part of the west wall of the nave. At one point about 0.60 m (2 ft 0 in) to the south of the sill the brown plaster could be seen where the plasterwork had blistered, and it is not improbable that it covers a substantial amount of the walling above the large mural painting on the west wall of the nave.

The brown plaster on the jambs and sill of the window had entirely lost its key and was extremely unstable. It was hoped to preserve at least some of the sill *in situ*, but even this proved impractical and all the plaster had to be removed on the grounds of safety. No evidence was found to indicate whether or not the plaster was original or whether it belonged to a later refurbishment.

The blocking of the window consisted of flints set in a very soft, bright yellow mortar, so soft indeed that the blocking was almost entirely removed by hand with little need for hammer and chisel. The only find in the blocking was a tiny fragment of tile, apparently medieval, but too small for certain identification. The ventilator which filled the head on the east side was also removed, together with the iron ties which fixed the ventilator to the west face of the wall (marked H in Hare 1976, Fig 5).

A few traces of hair plaster were found on the east side of the blocking, similar to the plaster observed on the outer face in 1976 (Hare 1976, 23-6). However the entire west wall of the nave had been re-plastered in 1888, when a large mural was painted on the west wall of the nave (Appendix I, 1). This plaster consisted of a gritty cement render and covered the whole of the area observed, including the blocking of the window; where the brown plaster still survived to either side of the window, the modern render was applied only in the form of a thin layer on the surface of the brown plaster. The unblocking of the window had the effect of increasing the sound of the bells within the church to an unacceptable level. In order to deaden the sound the window was boarded up on the west face (inside the tower). The boarding consists of two layers of chipboard filled with fibre-glass insulation and has been designed so that it can be removed to enable examination of the window by future scholars.

Three further small investigations at the west end of the church were carried out in 1986 (Fig 3), designed to resolve specific problems. No firm conclusion was reached in Hare (1976, 28) as to whether the Anglo-Saxon porch was of one or two storeys. Several early porches do, however, retain openings from the first floor towards the nave, for instance Ledsham (West Yorkshire) and Monkwearmouth (Co Durham) (Taylor and Taylor

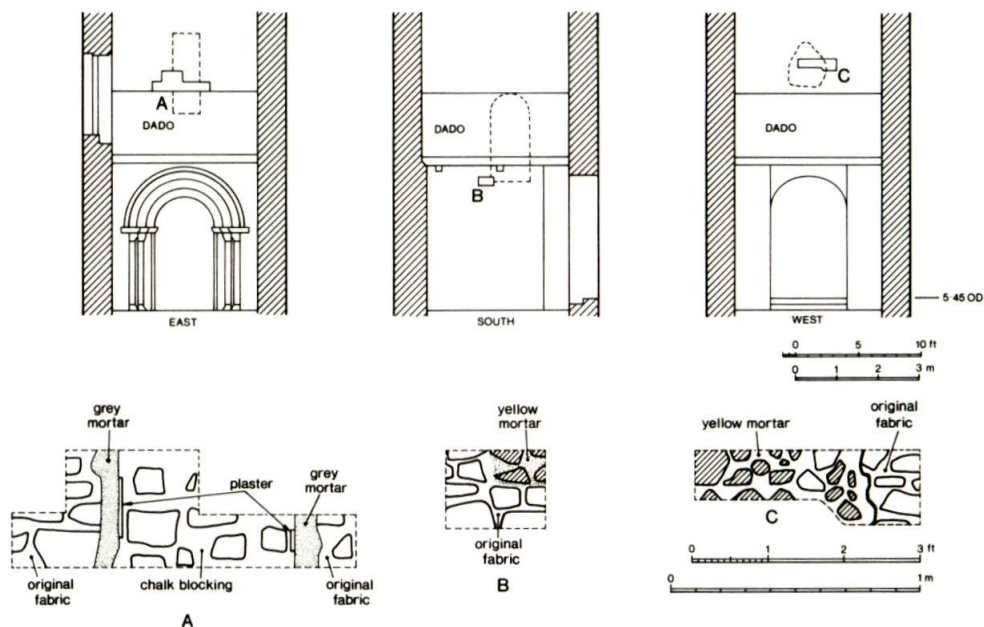


Fig 3. Titchfield church: minor investigations at the west end. Flints are shown hatched. *Left* Cross-section through the tower looking east, showing the position of the area (A) investigated on the east wall of the ringing chamber. The dotted lines show the probable height of the doorway discovered. *Centre* Cross-section through the tower looking south, showing the position of the area (B) investigated in the south wall of the ground floor. The dotted lines show the blocked opening visible externally projected onto the internal face. *Right* Cross-section through the tower looking west, showing the position of the area (C) investigated on the west wall of the ringing chamber. The dotted lines show the area of patched masonry visible externally projected onto the internal face.

1965, 378–84 and 432–46). It was therefore considered worthwhile to investigate the east wall of the first floor (ringing chamber) of the tower to see whether any trace of an early opening existed. An area of plaster was removed just above the wooden dado which surrounds the ringing chamber at a height of 1.53 m (5 ft 0 in) above floor level (Fig 3A).

No traces of an early opening were found and typical Anglo-Saxon coursed limestone rubble was found at either end of the area exposed, set in the characteristic early mortar described above. However a later opening, apparently a doorway, had been cut through the early fabric and this doorway had in turn been blocked. The doorway, which was 0.66 m (2 ft 2 in) wide, was cut straight through the early masonry. The sides of the doorway were lined with a thick layer of grey mortar 70 mm (3 in) in thickness; in places the mortar layer was even thicker where it filled gaps left by stones pulled out for the construction of the new doorway. The layer of grey mortar was in turn lined on each side by a thin coat of plaster painted white on its inner face.

At a later stage the doorway was blocked by an infill of large blocks of chalk set in a crumbly mortar of creamy colour. The blocking of the doorway was then coated in a thin layer of very hard bluish-grey render; in turn this was covered by a thick cement-like render, probably of Victorian date, which covers all the internal walls of the two lower stages of the tower.

The doorway was only uncovered to a height of 0.46 m (1 ft 6 in) above the top of the dado. It was however possible to obtain some idea of its original height. When the plasterwork above the area exposed was tapped with a hammer, it was found that the chalk blocking gave off a distinctively hollow sound. On the basis of this evidence it was concluded that the doorway extended to a height of approximately 1.40 m (4 ft 7 in) above the dado. The existence of the opening was also traced in the same manner on the west wall of the nave, though on this side it proved more difficult to distinguish clearly the extent of the opening. The top of the opening was however traced at about the same

height, while the bottom was located about 0.52 m (1 ft 8 in) beneath the top of the dado. The total height of the doorway is thus very approximately calculated as 1.92 m (6 ft 4 in), with its sill about 5.07 m (16 ft 8 in) above the floor of the nave. The approximate extent of the doorway is shown in dotted lines in Fig 3A.

No dating evidence was found for the insertion of the doorway or for its subsequent blocking. However the doorway does not appear to be medieval in origin and has every appearance of being of post-medieval date. The documentary evidence suggests a plausible context for the insertion of this doorway. In his description of the church in 1847, Sir Stephen Glynne records a two-tier western gallery and states that the organ was in the upper gallery (Appendix I, 2). It would appear possible that the doorway was originally the organist's entrance to his gallery, perhaps formed in the late 18th century; an organ is first mentioned in 1780 as having been recently installed. By 1859 there was an organ with casework of Gothic character in the chancel, and this replacement would provide an appropriate context for the blocking of the doorway. An alternative interpretation would be that the doorway was used as a means of access to the ringing chamber of the tower via the two-tier western gallery.

The second small investigation was concerned with the large disturbed area in the south wall of the tower (Hare 1976, 20 and Fig 4C). This disturbed area was provisionally interpreted as a window lighting the ground floor of the tower, though the possibility that it was a doorway was not rejected (Hare 1976, *loc cit*). The blocking is difficult to examine internally for it is largely concealed by the first floor and the wooden dado above it (see Fig 3B where the external outline of the blocked opening has been projected onto the inner face).

In order to investigate the opening further, the cement rendering of the porch was removed internally at a point equivalent to the bottom corner of the opening on the east side; it was intended to expand the area exposed further if the blocking proved to be wider or deeper internally than externally. However the bottom left hand corner of the blocking was immediately encountered. It consisted of flints set in soft bright yellow mortar visually identical to the mortar used in the blocking of the high west window. The blocking was surrounded by limestone rubble set in the characteristic early mortar described above.

It is evident that the opening was cut straight through the thickness of the wall, and that it must therefore be interpreted as a doorway rather than as

a window. The reconstruction in Hare (1976, Fig 6) should therefore omit the window shown in the south wall of the porch.

The actual date of the doorway and its original function remain uncertain. The problem is exacerbated by the fact that the lower edge of the flint blocking is below the head of the western arch into the porch; even allowing for the removal of a substantial dressed stone sill, the sill of the doorway can only have been slightly above the head of the arch. The western arch was itself blocked in the post-medieval period, probably from the late 17th century until 1831 (Hare 1976, 42). However the doorway cannot belong to this period for a substantial timber 'cornice' surrounded the exterior of the tower (Hare 1976, 44 and Plate 7). The presence of the bright yellow mortar suggests that it was blocked at the same time as the high west window, presumably when the porch was converted into a tower. If this interpretation is correct the doorway could be an original feature or a feature inserted at any time in the later Saxon or Norman periods. In the absence of any surviving dressed stonework it is unlikely that this question can be satisfactorily resolved.

The third investigation concerned an irregular area of masonry patched with cut stones (Hare 1976, 20-1, shown stippled in Fig 4B). An area of plaster was stripped from the west face of the ringing chamber in order to determine whether this patching represented a purely external feature such as repairs to the wall or the blocking of a niche or whether there had originally been an opening in this position (see Fig 3C in which the outline of the patching has been projected onto the inner face of the wall). It was immediately apparent that the external patching passed through the thickness of the wall, for the interior wall face was found to consist of a tightly packed blocking of flints set in soft bright yellow mortar; this mortar was visually identical to that used in the blocking of the high west window and of the opening in the south wall. The right-hand (north) edge of the blocked feature was exposed and butted against early fabric. At some stage, not necessarily at the time of the original blocking, the flintwork was covered with a hard bluish-grey render similar to that observed covering the doorway in the east wall of the ringing chamber; subsequently it was covered by the same thick cement-like render observed throughout the lower part of the tower.

Little can be said of the character of the opening, though it would appear that it was not splayed or only slightly splayed. It is too small to have been a

doorway and it must presumably have been a small window. The date of the feature is uncertain. The presence of soft, bright yellow mortar in its blocking suggests that it pre-dates the construction of the tower above the porch, but even if this were certain, the feature could be original or a later Saxon or Norman insertion.

The distinctive bright yellow mortar has been identified in three separate contexts. On the strength of its use in the blocking of the high west window, it is provisionally interpreted as a mortar used in a phase of alterations and repairs broadly contemporary with the raising of the porch to form a tower. The construction mortar of the upper part of the tower, which may be observed in the second floor of the tower, is of a hard white character, but this observation does not disprove the suggestion. The soft yellow mortar would have been entirely unsuitable for use in the construction of the upper part of the tower, but this does not mean that it could not have been used in a contemporary 'tidying-up' operation such as that proposed.

It is evident that the porch and tower have undergone a complex series of alterations over the centuries, and the investigations in the lower part of the tower have raised as many questions as they have answered. It remains uncertain whether the original Anglo-Saxon porch had one or two storeys. It must moreover be borne in mind that the Anglo-Saxon porch stood as a porch for several centuries, indeed for about 500 years if the late 7th or early 8th century date proposed for the Anglo-Saxon fabric in Hare (1976, 38) is correct. Alterations to the porch during that period are very likely to have taken place, and the doorway in the south wall and the small window in the west wall could belong to the original fabric or to any subsequent period. There is moreover no firm proof that the yellow mortar belongs to the period when the tower was raised, and an even later

date for the insertion and blocking of these features cannot be excluded.

The chancel-arch wall

It was suggested in Hare (1976, 30, 33) that the wall above the chancel-arch could be Anglo-Saxon in origin. There were four reasons for this suggestion:

- (1) The wall is 0.69 m (2 ft 3 in) thick, the same thickness as the Anglo-Saxon fabric at the west end.
- (2) The site of the chancel-arch, as a liturgical and property division, tends to be the most stable element in the evolution of churches.
- (3) A number of other walls and roofs about the chancel-arch wall and opportunities for total rebuilding of the wall would have been infrequent.
- (4) The chancel-arch itself is ungainly in appearance; there is little doubt that if a new arch had been built in a new wall when the present 13th century chancel was constructed, a more imposing and elegant arch would have been constructed.

The existing chancel-arch is difficult to date and may contain work of more than one period. The responds are relatively low and study is difficult as they are whitewashed and in part restored in modern (presumably Victorian) stonework. However the combined evidence of the half-round columns, of the base mouldings where they survive and of the capitals (particularly the broad-leafed foliage at each angle) suggests that the responds are of late 12th century date in origin, though perhaps not *in situ*. The tall pointed arch is undecorated, except for a single narrow chamfer on each face. In the course of the investigations described below the cut for the insertion

Fig 4. Titchfield church: cross-section through the west end of the chancel, showing the west wall of the chancel, which forms the east gable of the nave above the chancel roof. Solid black indicates re-used Roman tiles (except for the socket at the top of the wall-scar on the south side). Cross-hatching indicates post-medieval brick. The areas examined are indicated by letters A-F. In areas A, B and C stippling is used to indicate the extent of the wall-scars uncovered, while in area F stippling is used to show the surviving extent of early brown plaster. Q is the south-east quoins of the north aisle, while R shows a fragment of string-course in the south-east quoins of the nave.

Inset top right. Summary of the evidence. The solid black walls show the position of the walls of the Anglo-Saxon chancel, with the roof-line indicated by the surviving brown plaster. The hatched walls represent the present walls of the chancel, with the roofs of the chancel and of the nave indicated above the early roof-line.

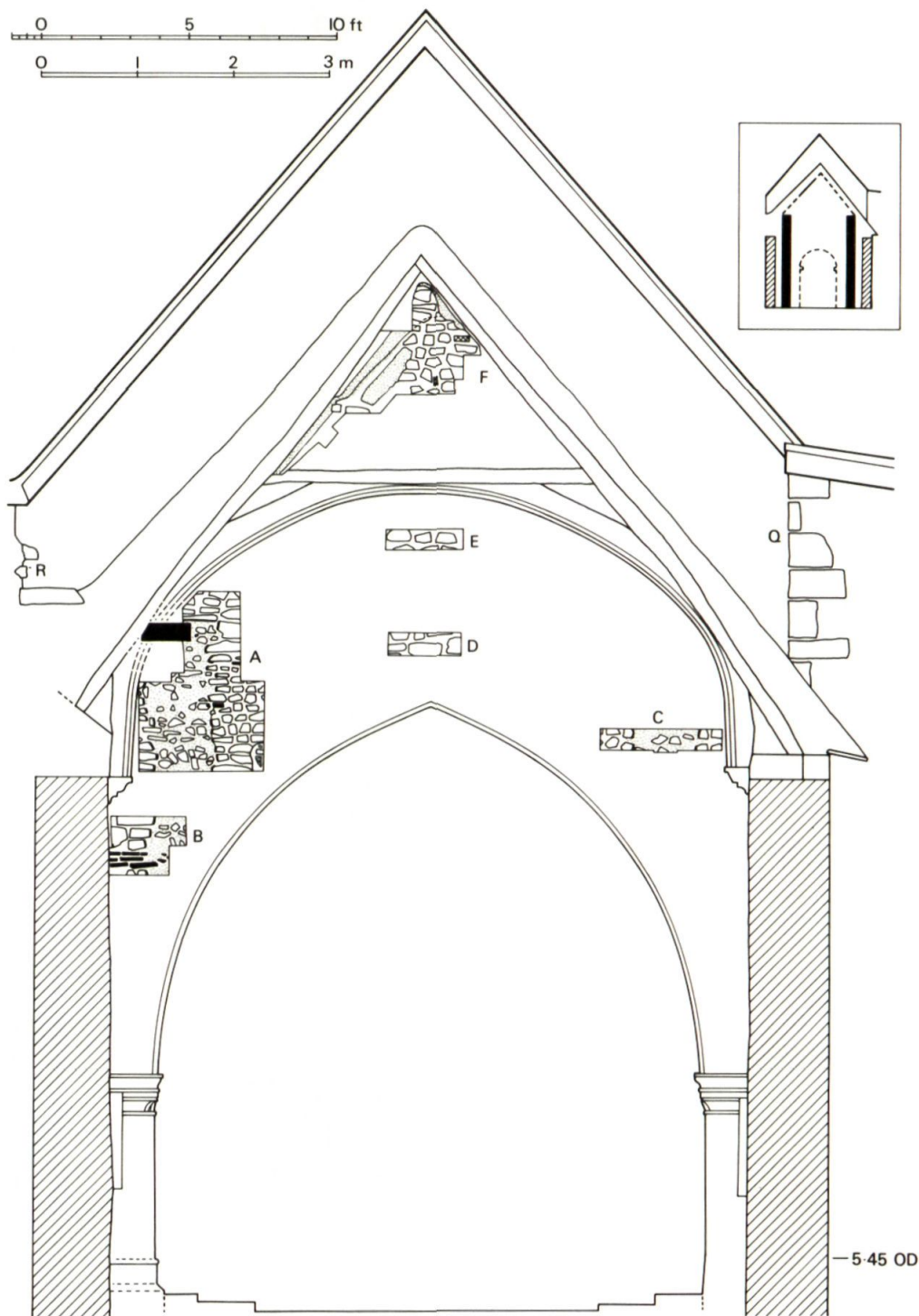




Fig 5. Titchfield church: bonding-course of Roman tiles exposed on the east face of the chancel-arch wall. (Photo: C. Harfield)

of the chancel-arch was encountered (see the bottom right-hand corner of area A in Fig 4). Within the cut was a piece of post-medieval brick, belonging to a modern repair.

In 1983 a small area of the east face of the chancel-arch was examined. The provisional results were promising and in 1984 the entire wall was scaffolded for further investigation. Further minor investigations were carried out in 1985 and 1987 and the results are shown in Fig 4.

Six areas of plaster (marked A–F) were removed; it was found that the wall had been almost entirely re-plastered with a heavy cement-like render, probably during the Victorian period. A small amount of earlier plaster was discovered in area F, described below.

Early fabric of coursed limestone rubble was found in all the areas exposed, set in a mortar of the same visual character as that at the west end. In this wall the mortar was consistently of creamy colour as opposed to the white colour observed at the west

end. There is, however, no reason to doubt that the masonry is of the same build as that at the west end. The clearest evidence was found in area B where a bonding-course of re-used Roman tiles was encountered (Fig 5). This bonding-course is at the same height as the bonding-course observed to pass round the west porch and across the west wall of the nave (Hare 1976, 15–20 and Figs 4A–4D). It seems evident that the bonding-course originally passed round the whole building. In the absence of any direct stratigraphic connection between the work at the west end and the chancel-arch wall, there could be no better evidence of the contemporaneity of the masonry in these areas.

In both areas A and B there was unmistakable evidence for the scar of a wall formerly running east. This wall had been bonded to and constructed at the same time as the chancel-arch wall. Owing to the irregular character of the scar the precise thickness of the wall could not be ascertained, but it would appear to have been about 0.69 m–0.70 m (2 ft 3 in) in thickness, in common with the other walls of the early church. The wall-scar was traced to its full height 7.10 m (23 ft 3 in) above the floor of the

present chancel. It is evident that the scar is to be interpreted as the south wall of the Anglo-Saxon chancel.

In 1987 the top of the wall-scar was re-examined to see if any traces could be found of a socket for a wall-plate, similar to the sockets found by Bassett (1986, 7) at the top of the chancel walls of the church of Wootton Wawen (Warwickshire). A hole with a loose fill of rubble comprising limestone, flint, a piece of Roman tile and another of medieval tile, was located. Examination of the hole was hampered by the fact that it was partly concealed by the arch-brace of the 15th century chancel roof. The arch-brace stands proud of the wall by about 70 mm (3 in), but the gap was filled by a cover-strip; fortunately permission was obtained to remove the cover-strip in the area around the hole.

After the loose fill was removed a neatly-formed cavity was discovered. The cavity has a thin coating of mortar on the top, sides and back, while its base is formed from a thick layer of mortar. The cavity penetrates 0.33 m (13 in) into the wall and is 0.19 m (7½ in) in height. In width it measures 0.54 m (21 in) across the base and 0.44 m (17 in) across the top. It would appear that the wall-plate which was set in the cavity projected a short distance, perhaps 50 mm (2 in), from the wall-face, though the irregular character of the wall-scar means that this cannot be stated with certainty. It is however evident from the neat construction of the cavity that the wall-plate had been chamfered on its upper edge.

Taken in conjunction with the socket for the ridge-piece of the porch at the west end of the church (Hare 1976, 26 and Fig 5), the evidence from the east end makes it clear that the roof-rafters of the early church were carried between wall-plates set against the outer faces of the north and south walls and a ridge-piece. Similar evidence from the late Saxon period has been uncovered in recent years at Barton-on-Humber (Humberside) (Rodwell 1986, 171) and at Wootton Wawen (Warwickshire) (Bassett 1986, 7).

Area C was opened to locate the exact position of the scar left by the north wall of the early chancel. The scar was found to be of similar character to the scar on the south side. The Anglo-Saxon chancel measured about 5.75 m (18 ft 10 in) in external width and 4.35 m (14 ft 3 in) in internal width.

Areas D and E were examined to see whether there were any features such as high-level doorways on the centre-line of the church, but in both cases normal coursed Anglo-Saxon masonry was encountered without any trace of disturbance.

Area F was examined to see whether any traces

could be found of the Anglo-Saxon chancel roof; in particular it was hoped that traces of a socket for the ridge-piece would be found, similar to that identified at the west end for the porch roof (Hare 1976, 26 and Fig 5). Unfortunately much of the masonry exposed beneath the apex of the present roof was found to have been repaired at some relatively recent date, for it was set in soft white mortar and incorporated two pieces of post-medieval brick. However immediately beneath the rafters a brown plaster was encountered, and on examination this proved to be visually identical to the brown plaster found extensively at the west end. Only a small amount of the plaster was traced on the north side but the surviving plaster curved round (as indicated by dotted lines in Fig 4) to the south side where the plaster continued in a straight line for some distance. It has been plotted on Fig 4 as far as the collar-beam of the chancel roof, but is visible for about a further 1 m (3 ft 3 in), though the timbers of the roof prevent accurate measurement. Just to the south of the apex a patch of plaster survives to the inside of the continuous line and is linked to it by a distinct crease. With the exception of a small area at the apex, the brown plaster has been left in position.

The line formed by the brown plaster is provisionally interpreted as following the outer edge of an early roof (though not necessarily the original roof), with similar plaster surviving inside the roof in a small patch on the south side. While the plaster is visually identical to that at the west end, the roof-line would also fit the 13th century roof, which must have existed between the rebuilding of the chancel in the 13th century and the construction of the present chancel roof in the 15th century. The possibility that the roof-line belongs to the 13th century roof cannot be excluded.

The elevation (Fig 4) has been extended to show the east gable of the nave projecting above the chancel roof. The gable is rendered, and it is therefore uncertain to what extent early masonry survives at this height. On the south side a short amount of the south-east quoin of the nave survives above the valley gutter between the chancel roof and the south chapel roof. This quoin is largely rendered, but incorporates a fragment of string-course or eaves-course (R in Fig 4). This fragment was discussed and illustrated in Hare (1976, 30-1 and Fig 7). It is probably Anglo-Saxon or Norman in date but cannot be given a proper context at present.

On the north side the east wall of the 15th century north aisle projects 240 mm (9½ in) east-

wards beyond the chancel-arch wall. The quoin indicated at Q in Fig 4 shows where the overlap is returned.

The various areas stripped of plaster on the east face of the chancel-arch wall have now been replastered, with the exception of a small area where the tile bonding-course has been left exposed. At the time of writing the wall has not yet been re-decorated; it is however intended that when this is done the position of the wall-scars will be indicated by the use of a slightly different colour wash.

It is perhaps worthwhile concluding this discussion of the chancel-arch wall by noting that even if the wall had been stripped of plaster, it is highly unlikely that it would have been recognised as Anglo-Saxon in date if the Anglo-Saxon masonry at the west end of the church had not survived. At Nether Wallop (Hampshire) the church contains no architectural details *in situ* of a date earlier than the late 12th century. The east wall of the nave does however retain a wall-painting of late Saxon style with close affinities to 'Winchester School' manuscripts (Gem and Tudor-Craig 1981). Examples such as this should alert us to the possibility that much Anglo-Saxon masonry may remain in churches in Hampshire and elsewhere without diagnostic architectural features.

WATCHING BRIEF AT TITCHFIELD CHURCH JULY 1989 *by Clive Harfield*

In 1989 new Chapter Rooms were constructed at the west end of the south aisle of Titchfield church. The new rooms are of two stories and communicate at both levels with the former vestry. It was originally intended that the internal partition walls should be of stud-work resting on the existing floor. A late change in plan resulted in the walls being built of blockwork, necessitating foundation trenches. Unfortunately this change in plan escaped archaeological attention. It was therefore only possible for the writer to carry out a limited watching brief during the contractors' excavations on 11 and 12 July 1989, coupled with a

few hours excavation in company with Michael Hare during the evening of 12 July 1989.

The south aisle of the church was completely rebuilt in 1866–7, with a vestry replacing the Victorian porch in 1905 (Hare 1976, 44–6). The Victorian aisle replaced an aisle of Norman date (Hare *loc cit*), of which several illustrations survive (Hare 1976, 41). The development of the church up to and including the construction of the Chapter Rooms may be seen below in Fig 9.

The foundation trenches for the new Chapter Rooms had an average width of 0.60 m (2 ft 0 in) and were dug to an average depth of 0.90 m (2 ft 11 in) below floor level. The pre-existing floor level was used for measurements during the watching brief and was 0.53 m below site datum (see below, p 134). The exact location of the foundation trenches is indicated in Fig 6. Apart from exposing burials it was anticipated that the trenches would cut across the line of the outer wall of the Norman aisle, the position of which had been postulated by Hare (1976, Fig 3 and 44–5).

To an average depth of 0.46 m (1 ft 6 in) all sub-surface levels consisted of make-up for the floor of the Victorian aisle. Two brick-built burial vaults were uncovered adjacent to the west wall of the Victorian aisle and within the confines of the Norman south aisle (see below, p 133). Both vaults had barrel-shaped roofs which were breached by the contractors. In the limited time available only a few basic measurements were plotted (Fig 6). The interior of Vault 1 was fully visible, but Vault 2 was largely filled with rubble. The position of the apexes of the two roofs is such that the vaults cannot have been separate and freestanding. The interior of Vault 1 was seen to have been built symmetrically, and it is therefore concluded that Vault 2 was subsequently built up against it, its roof overlapping and resting on the roof of Vault 1. The stratigraphic relationship between the two vaults was not however observed during the watching brief, and this conclusion was only reached later on the basis of the measurements plotted.

Both vaults were narrow, and in the case of Vault 1 there was no entrance to permit later burials after its original construction. No entrance to Vault 2 was observed, but the vault was not fully exposed. An unidentified brick feature, marked D in Fig 6, was observed in the bottom of the contractors' trench and abutted the east end of Vault 2. The feature consisted of a roughly square brick 'floor' mea-

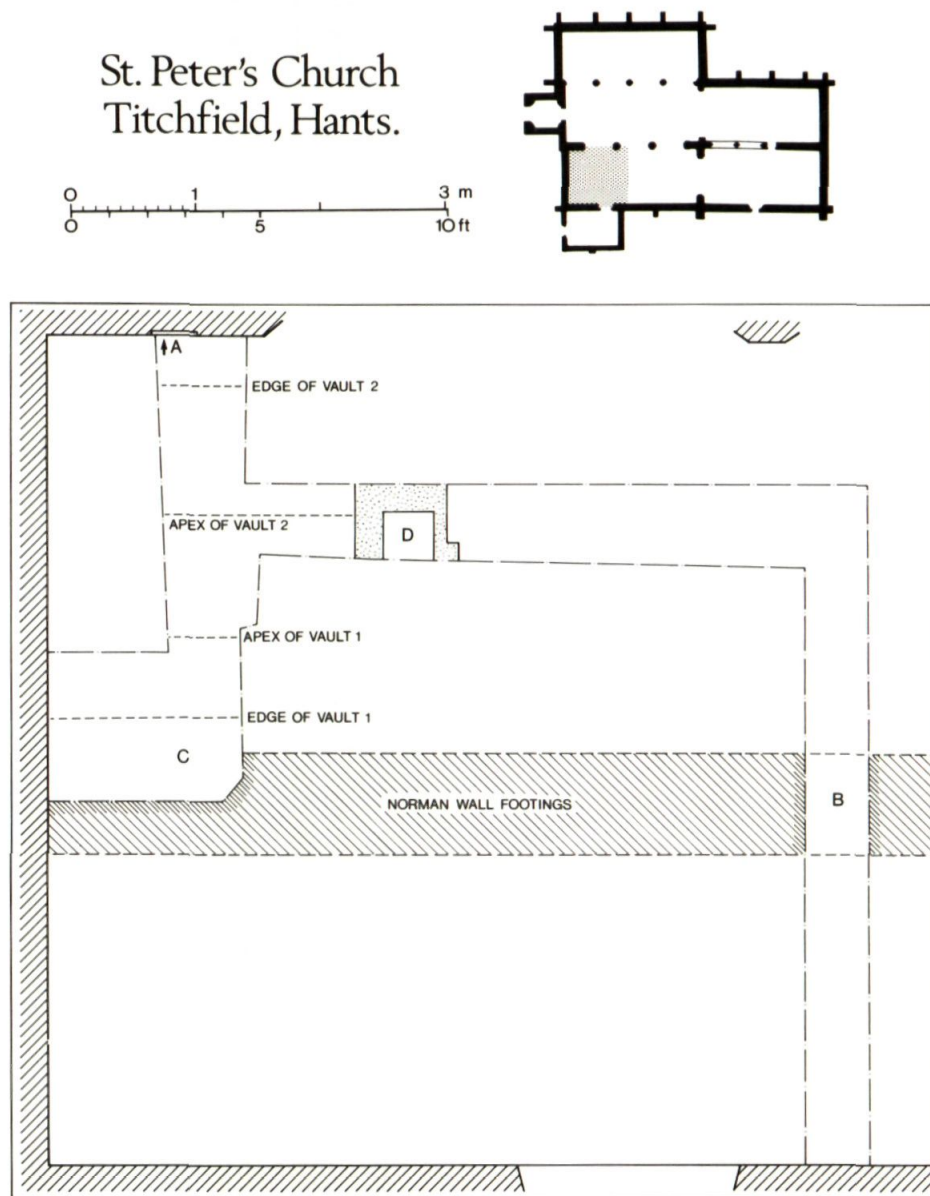


Fig 6. Titchfield church: investigations at the west end in August 1989, showing the position of the contractor's trenches. (The area of the investigations is stippled in the plan of the church above). A, position of the early foundations exposed in the west respond of the south arcade; B, Norman wall footings visible in section in the contractor's trench; C, Norman wall footings cut away by the contractor's trench; D, brick-built square feature adjoining the east end of Vault 2.

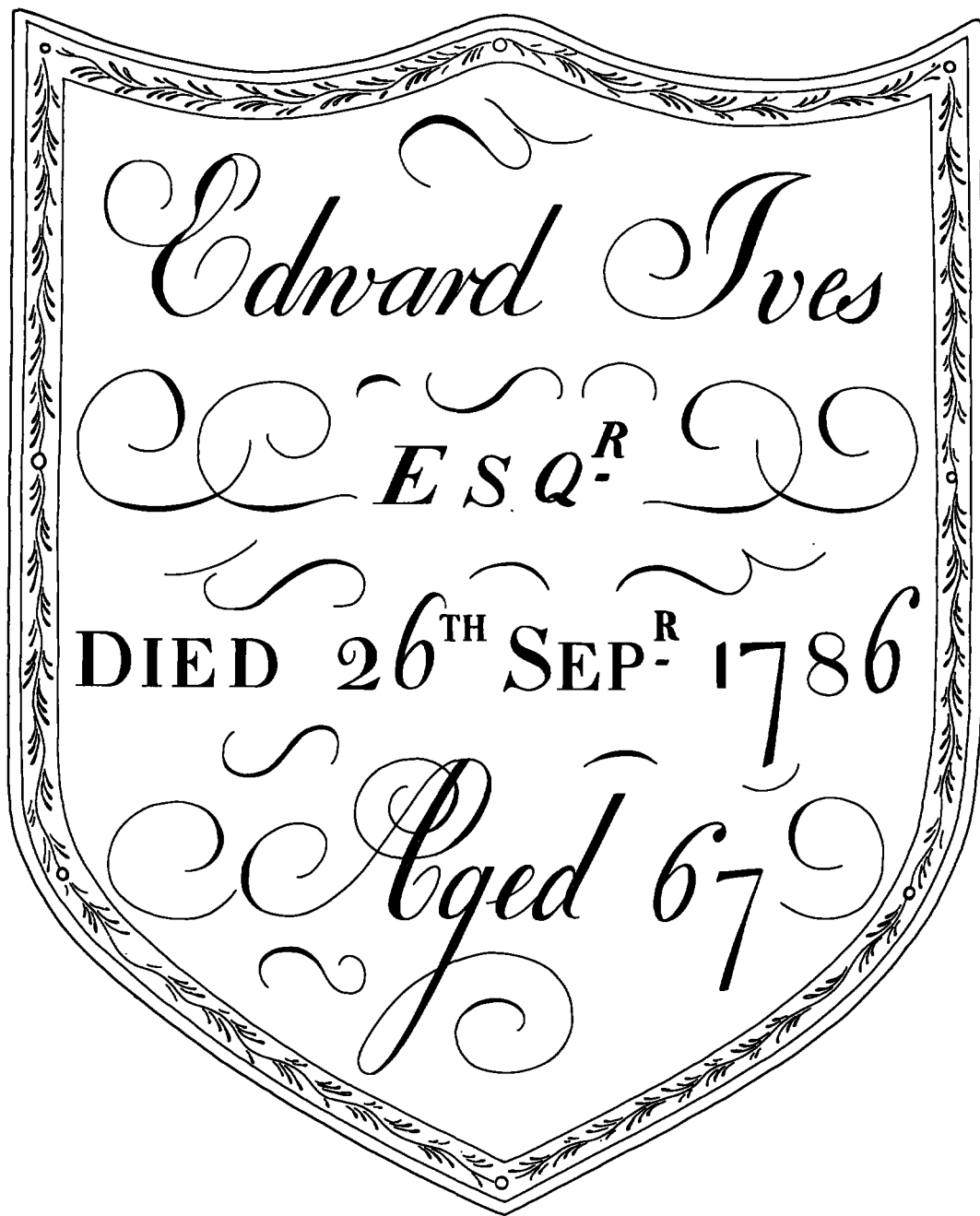


Fig 7. Titchfield church: coffin-plate of Edward Ives. Scale $\frac{1}{2}$.

suring 0.38 m (15 in) by 0.41 m (16 in), surrounded on all four sides by two courses of brick, the elevation on the south side being visible in the wall of the trench. The limited dimensions and depth of the contractors' trench meant that this feature could not be fully examined, nor was its exact relationship with Vault 2 determined, though it appears likely that it is contemporary with the vault. At present this feature is not understood.

In Vault 1 two coffins containing skeletal remains were found. The principal coffin was of lead, formerly encased in a wooden coffin now largely decayed. The coffin plate survived, identifying the burial as that of Edward Ives, a person of some importance in the 18th century. The inscription on the coffin plate (Fig 7) is short and to the point: 'Edward Ives Esq; died 26 Sept 1786; Aged 67'. Even this scanty information is at odds with the entry in the *Dictionary of National Biography* (Lee 1892, 79) which puts his death a day earlier in Bath; the date of death is however, in accordance with the information on his memorial tablet, which is to be found in the south-east corner of the chancel, together with another monument to one of Ives' sons, Edward Otto Ives.

Ives was a naval surgeon who served on the *Namur* and *Yarmouth* from 1744-46 and on the *Kent* from 1753-57 under Vice-Admiral Charles Watson and Colonel Clive in the East Indies during which time he conducted important research into the prevention of scurvy (Hayward 1989). When his commander-in-chief died in 1757 Ives returned overland from Bassorah to England on a journey that took two years. In 1773 he published a book about his service in the East Indies, India and the return journey (Ives 1773).

On his return Ives lived much of his later life in Titchfield, having already married Ann, daughter of Richard Roy, there on 20 June 1751 (HRO, 37M73A, PR3). She bore him three sons and a daughter. Whilst living in Titchfield Ives devoted his life to farming and literature and served as a magistrate. It is perhaps fitting that he should die in Bath, where a history of the imperial colonies but particularly India, could almost be written using the memorial tablets in the Abbey as the only source. It may well have been a visit to friends from naval or colonial service that took Ives to Bath in the first place.

Edward Ives' skeleton could be glimpsed through cracks in the surface of the lead coffin. No proper examination could be made, but the skeleton appeared to be of normal size, with teeth in very poor condition.

On top of the coffin containing Edward Ives there were the remains of a much decayed and disturbed wooden coffin, containing what was considered on brief examination to be the skeleton of a child or young adolescent. It was not possible to determine the gender or the identity of the skeleton. As noted above the vault did not have an entrance and this secondary burial is therefore likely to be virtually contemporary with the burial of Edward Ives, unless it is a reburial of a coffin discovered during the construction of Vault 1. Ives himself was buried on 2 October 1786 (HRO, 37M73A, PR4) and it is of interest to note that his son Robert was buried on 9 December 1786 (HRO, *loc cit*). Robert was aged 23 at the time of his death, and if he was the person buried in the wooden coffin, it can safely be stated that he was of very slight build.

Vault 2 was filled with rubble and its contents could not be examined. The manner in which it appears to have been built up against Edward Ives' vault suggests that it may have contained other members of the Ives family, perhaps Ives' wife Ann who died aged 88 in 1820 and/or his maiden sister Gertrude who died also aged 88 in 1816. They were both buried at Titchfield (HRO, 37M73A, PR10) and their names added to those on Ives' own memorial tablet.

The line of the Norman south aisle exterior wall was located in two places. It was cut across by the easternmost foundation trench, thus revealing the Norman wall in cross-section, and it was cut in half along its length for some 1.54 m (5 ft 1 in) at the west end. The line of the Norman south wall appeared to continue under the west wall of the Victorian south aisle. The western extent of the Norman south aisle was not established. In the contractors' trenches the base of the Norman foundations was not visible and there was no opportunity to attempt an excavation of these footings. The footings were unmortared, and consisted predominantly of flints with some chalk and limestone rubble. The width of the footings was approximately 0.87 m (2 ft 10 in).

The internal width of the aisle, measured from the inner face of the footings to the outer face of the Victorian aisle, was 3.30 m (10 ft 10 in). This width compares closely to documentary evidence of 1793-1801, which indicates a width of 3.20 m (10 ft 6 in) (Hare 1976, 44-5).

The location of the two vaults mentioned above presented the contractors with some practical problems to which the only solution was an unscheduled extension of the foundation trench to the edge of the western respond of the existing south arcade.

Only the western half of the trench shown in Fig 6 was exposed to any depth. The extension exposed wall footings beneath the Victorian respond which are almost certainly earlier than the south arcade itself. These footings were set back 70 mm from the face of the plaster of the Victorian respond.

To a depth of 0.67 m (2 ft 2 in) below floor level were stones set in a soft yellow mortar with few inclusions, which was distinct from the early wall mortar found elsewhere in the church (see above, p 123). Beneath this, to a depth of 1.02 m (3 ft 4 in), the foundation consisted of rammed chalk. At a depth of approximately 0.85 m (2 ft 9 in) below floor level there was a break in the rammed chalk, and below this level the outer face of the wall receded inwards at a slight angle. The outer edge of Vault 2 was only 0.40 m (1 ft 4 in) from the southern face of this foundation wall. There was no visible evidence of a construction trench for the wall or for the vault.

Attempts to excavate to the base of the rammed chalk were thwarted by the constraints of the contractors' trench which was only 0.35 m (1 ft 2 in) wide at the point where it abutted the respond. All that can be said with any certainty is that these footings continued to a depth below 1.02 m (3 ft 4 in) beneath the floor surface. A photograph of these foundations has been lodged in the Hampshire Record Office (HRO, 49M91/6).

There was no stratigraphic evidence to date these wall-footings. It can be said that they were of a character distinct from the footings of the Norman south aisle exterior wall. Whilst these footings could have been laid when the Norman arcade was constructed, it is probable that the arcade was cut through the earlier Saxon wall (Hare 1976, 45). Even if the wall was entirely rebuilt, the Norman builders would in all likelihood have made use of the earlier footings of the Saxon church. On the balance of probabilities it appears likely that the foundations exposed are those of the aisleless Saxon nave. As indicated above, only a very short length of the foundation was exposed, and this hypothesis needs to be tested elsewhere before it can be regarded as proven.

In the course of the work by the contractors and by the writer, a considerable quantity of disarticulated bone was discovered. The skeletal material was carefully collected and reverently re-buried in the Ives vault before it was sealed.

The work at the west end of the south aisle provided the first opportunity in modern times for archaeological observation within the church. Despite the fact that little more than a

watching brief was possible, two reasonably strong claims can be made. First the line of the outer wall of the Norman south aisle has been confirmed. Secondly it appears probable that the character of the footings of the Anglo-Saxon church has been established. The depth of these footings is promising for future investigation of the early church and gives hope that it may one day be possible to ascertain the form of the east end or to establish the existence of north and south *porticus*.

The results of this watching brief also confirmed that any future opportunities to conduct ground level excavations within the confines of St Peter's Titchfield are likely to yield rich results in the form of more evidence.

As a footnote to the watching brief, it may be noted that when the wall between the south aisle and the vestry was breached by the contractors in September 1989, three late medieval moulded fragments were recovered. These fragments have been removed for recording and safekeeping.

PLAN AND DIMENSIONS

As a result of the discovery of Anglo-Saxon masonry above the chancel-arch, the three main elements of the plan of the Anglo-Saxon church are now clear, comprising west porch, nave and chancel. Before detailed measurements are given, a few words must be devoted to the site datum level. In Hare (1976) site datum was taken as being represented by the stone flagging beneath the outer face of the west archway of the porch (± 0 in Hare 1976, Figs 4A–4D), and the same datum level has been used in this paper. The datum level is 1.08 m beneath the OS bench mark on the north-west quoin of the porch, which in turn is 6.53 m AOD; site datum is thus 5.45 m AOD. The present floor of the church is level throughout the main body of the church, after allowing for minor irregularities of up to 200 mm, and is 0.53 m beneath site datum; specifically this measurement has been established at the west end of the nave, beneath the centre of the chancel-arch and at the west end of the

south aisle before the construction of the Chapter Rooms. Measurements of height must be treated with caution, for we have no indication of early ground or floor levels. There has however undoubtedly been a build-up in the external ground level over the centuries; the measurements of height given below are taken from the present internal floor level, which is probably closer to the original floor level than the site datum.

The west porch was of imposing size, measuring 4.88 m (16 ft 0 in) square externally and 3.51 m (11 ft 6 in) square internally. The porch had walls 5.88 m (19 ft 4 in) in height above the floor of the present nave, with the apex of its roof at a height of about 8.32 m (27 ft 3 in).

The nave can be calculated as having been about 8.36 m (27 ft 5 in) in external width and 6.98 m (22 ft 11 in) wide internally. In length the nave measures 17.38 m (57 ft 0 in) externally and 16.00 m (52 ft 6 in) internally. The nave walls are 8.35 m (27 ft 5 in) in height above the present floor, and it is likely that this represents the original height, particularly as it corresponds to the apex of the porch roof. Assuming that the pitch of the nave roof was similar to the porch roof (about 45°) its apex would have been approximately 12.54 m (41 ft 2 in) above floor level.

The chancel, which had exceptionally high walls in relation to its width, was approximately 5.75 m (18 ft 10 in) in external width and 4.35 m (14 ft 3 in) in internal width, with walls 7.10 m (23 ft 3 in) above present floor level. The evidence would suggest that the apex of the chancel roof was 10.20 m (33 ft 6 in) in height above the present floor.

There is no evidence for the form of the east end of the Anglo-Saxon chancel. The most likely form is a chancel of square plan with a rectangular east end, which was rather more common in the Anglo-Saxon period than the apsidal form (Taylor 1978, 1028-9). However this point must remain in considerable doubt. The Old Minster at Winchester illustrates the difficulty; the original 7th century church had a square east end, but this was altered to an apsidal form in the 8th century (Kjølbye-Biddle 1986, 198).

In all probability the church had north and south *porticus*, but the existing fabric provides no clues to their existence, and there have been no opportunities for archaeological observation.

The dimensions establish that the early church at Titchfield was a building of substantial size in keeping with its minster status. It does not compare with the largest early Anglo-Saxon churches such as Monkwearmouth and Jarrow (both Co Durham) or the Old Minster at Winchester (Hampshire), nor with other major early buildings whose plan dates at least in part to the pre-Viking period such as Brixworth (Northamptonshire), Cirencester and Deerhurst (both Gloucestershire) (Taylor and Taylor 1965, *passim*; Taylor 1978, Figs 723-30 and Appendices F and G). On the other hand Titchfield church is substantially larger than the typical late Saxon two-cell parish church (Taylor and Taylor 1965, *passim*; Taylor 1978, Figs 723-9). Its dimensions are comparable with other important early churches, if not those of the first rank; it is for instance broadly comparable in size with Bradwell-on-Sea (Essex) and Ledsham (West Yorkshire) (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 91-3 and 378-84). The size of the nave at Titchfield is similar to the nave of the major late Saxon church at nearby Bosham (West Sussex), a minster of great wealth and prestige (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 81-4; Barlow 1979, 190-1).

In 1983 an accurate survey of Titchfield church was carried out under the direction of R M Bryant (Fig 8), and this survey has in turn enabled the preparation of a series of development plans, showing the evolution of the church (Fig 9). The measured plan shows that the nave and aisles are accurately set out, but there are marked irregularities in the plan of the chancel (Fig 8), built in the 13th century. The chancel is built on an alignment to the south of the alignment of the nave, but both north and south walls of the chancel themselves change alignment at about halfway along their length. The evidence suggests that the chancel was built round an existing structure.

The remainder of this section is devoted to a

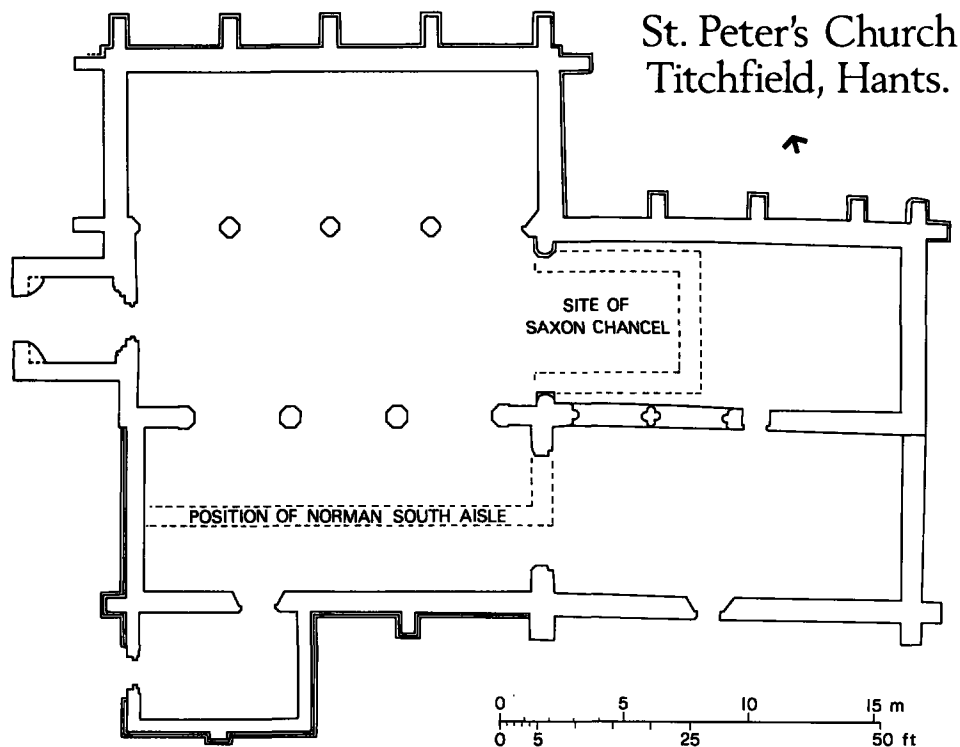


Fig 8. Plan of Titchfield church, 1983. The alterations made to the west end of the south aisle in 1989 are not shown.

brief consideration of the setting-out and unit of measurement used in the early church. It needs to be emphasised that studies in this field are in their infancy; while some provisional thoughts are offered, the present state of studies does not permit firm conclusions.

It appears probable that the nave was set out as a double square. The external length is 17.38 m (57 ft 0 in) and the external width is 8.36 m (27 ft 5 in), which means that the nave is 0.66 m too long to constitute two squares. The discrepancy is in effect one wall thickness (0.69 m). It is likely either that one end wall was deliberately omitted in the planning of the nave or that there was an error in setting out; errors of one wall thickness are a common fault in setting out (Rodwell 1989, 66). Double-square plans have been observed in several Anglo-Saxon churches. The nave of the seventh-century Old Minster at Winchester (Hampshire) has been

shown to have been built on a double-square plan (Kjølbye-Biddle 1986), while the nave at Brixworth (Northamptonshire) also consists of two squares, the presbytery constituting a further square of the same size (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 108–114).

Recent research has demonstrated the use of the Drusian or Northern foot, equivalent to 0.333 m, in the construction of at least some Anglo-Saxon churches. In Hampshire the use of this unit of measurement has been noted in the Old Minster at Winchester and at Breamore (Kjølbye-Biddle 1986; Rodwell 1986, 157). The external dimensions of the nave of the late Saxon church at Breamore are virtually identical to those of the nave at Titchfield. Rodwell (1986, *loc cit*) has shown that the nave at Breamore is a double square measuring 50 Northern feet by 25 Northern feet (excluding the wall opening to the central

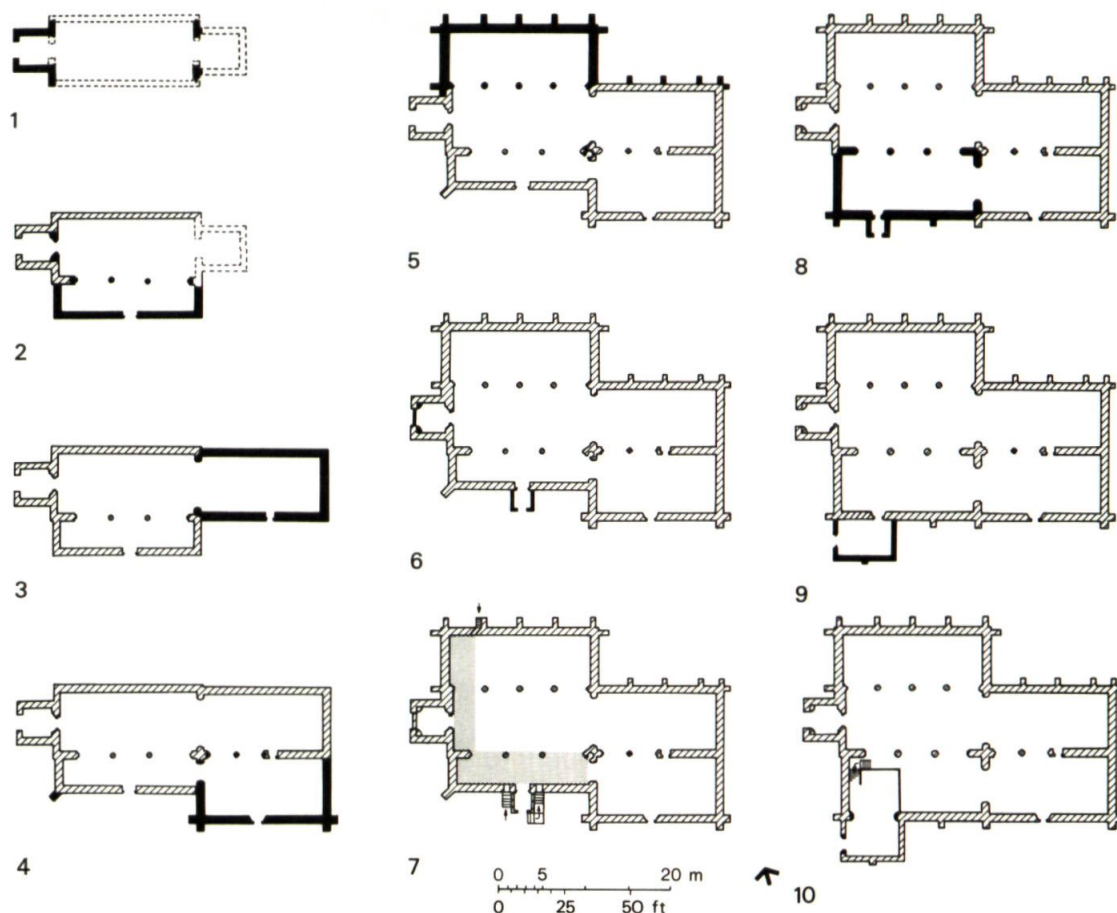


Fig 9. Titchfield church: phase-plans to illustrate the development of the church. 1. Anglo-Saxon; 2. Late Norman; 3. 13th century; 4. Early 14th century; 5. 15th century; 6. Late 17th century; 7. 18th and early 19th century (shading shows position of galleries); 8. 1866-7; 9. 1905; 10. 1989.

space). It is likely that the nave at Titchfield was constructed according to the same plan. However it should also be noted that the plans of the porch and chancel at Titchfield do not translate so readily into Northern feet.

It may finally be observed that the wall thickness at Titchfield (0.69 m) is virtually identical to that proposed for the standing walls of the seventh-century Old Minster at Winchester (0.70 m), though this latter figure is not established with total precision from the foundations (Kjølbye-Biddle 1986, 196).

DISCUSSION AND DATE

The arguments for an early date for the origins of Titchfield church, probably in the late 7th or 8th century, were set out in detail in Hare (1976, 33-8) and do not need to be repeated in full here. The evidence discovered in 1982-9 does not materially affect the arguments and indeed if anything the case for an early date is enhanced. For instance the use of a tile bonding-course which originally passed right round the church is consistent with the con-

struction of the church at a time when Roman building techniques, reintroduced to this country in the aftermath of Augustine's mission, were in use.

Particular stress was placed on the parallels with early Northumbrian churches in Hare (1976, 34–8). The connection with Northumbria was perhaps given undue emphasis. A particularly close comparison was drawn with the porch at Monkwearmouth (Co Durham) (Hare 1976, 34). Professor Cramp has pointed out (pers comm dated 7 March 1977) that the proportions of the Monkwearmouth porch are very different; it is both taller and narrower than Titchfield (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 432–46). The arguments for an early date stand independent of the possible Northumbrian connection, though it is certainly true that the best parallels for the structural details at Titchfield are to be found in Northumbrian churches. There are however few churches of early date in Mercia and Wessex, and those churches which may contain fabric of early date, such as Brixworth (Northamptonshire), Deerhurst (Gloucestershire) and Repton (Derbyshire) do not provide close parallels (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 108–14, 193–209 and 510–6).

The high west window exposed in 1982 proved to be larger and more imposing than was appreciated from an examination of its external face. It was suggested in Hare (1976, 28–30) that the window served to light an upper chamber between a flat ceiling over the nave and the roof. In fact the internal sill of the window is at about the same level as the wall-plate of the nave walls, and it now appears more probable that the window was intended to light the main body of the nave.

In its form of construction the window is unique among surviving Anglo-Saxon buildings. Although the use of through-stones is a feature of Anglo-Saxon building, there is no other recorded example of a single-splayed window built entirely of through-stones.

The through-stone voussoirs can be paralleled only in two windows at Brigstock (Northamptonshire) (Taylor 1978, Fig 677). Brigstock was previously considered to contain

an early phase to which the windows were assigned (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 100–105), but recent work by the Royal Commission on Historical Monuments (England) indicates that all the pre-Conquest work belongs to a late Saxon, perhaps tenth century, date (pers comm Mr D A H Richmond). The Brigstock windows are of unusually fine construction and cannot readily be paralleled in other surviving buildings of the late Saxon period. Moreover the jambs of the Brigstock windows are quite different from the jambs of the Titchfield window, and there are no other points of close comparison between the two churches.

Several of the window-heads in early Northumbrian churches display what Taylor (1978, 849 and Fig 675) terms three-quarter-through-stone technique. In this technique the outer face of each head is formed of a thin lintel, while the remaining thickness of the wall is arched with voussoirs. The best examples are the two windows high in the west wall at Monkwearmouth (Co Durham) and the two windows in the south wall of the early porch at Ledsham (West Yorkshire) (Taylor 1978, Fig 675).

Taylor (1978, 849) also lists single-splayed windows with through-stone jambs at Arreton (Isle of Wight), Bardsey and Ledsham (West Yorkshire) and Escomb, Jarrow, Monkwearmouth and Seaham (all Co Durham). With the exception of Arreton the examples are all in Northumbria, and these Northumbrian churches are in turn all considered to be of pre-Viking date. The proximity of Arreton to Titchfield might suggest that this church provides an important parallel. However on close examination the Taylors' description of Arreton is found to be inaccurate (Taylor and Taylor 1965, 30–1; Taylor 1978, Fig 677); although the jambs appear from the floor of the nave to be built of through-stones, they are in fact built in courses of two or three stones, the joints between courses being emphasised by heavy modern pointing.

It was noted above (p 138) that the jambs of the window at Titchfield consist of a tall stone surmounted by a short flat stone. This

distinctive arrangement can be paralleled in windows at Jarrow, Monkwearmouth and Seaham.

None of the early windows cited as parallels for Titchfield provides good evidence for the early arrangement of the internal sill; in the majority of cases any early evidence has been obliterated by the provision of a modern sill. All the windows cited above as possible parallels were examined in the course of 1988, and no examples of large flanking stones such as those found at Titchfield were observed.

The two high west windows at Monkwearmouth, with their three-quarter-through-stone voussoirs and jambs with upright and flat stones, provide the closest parallel to the Titchfield window. Parallels with the Titchfield window are indeed to be found almost exclusively among the surviving early churches of Northumbria; however the important example of the two windows at Brigstock (Northamptonshire) with their through-stone voussoirs shows the need for caution in drawing conclusions.

In summary the work of 1982-9 has provided no reason to reconsider the early date proposed in Hare (1976). While all that can be said with reasonable certainty is that the church is pre-Viking in origin, it is the view of the present writer that the most likely date for the construction of the church is during the reigns of Cædwalla (686-688) and Ine (688-726). Dr Barbara Yorke's recent study (1989) of the Jutes in southern Hampshire provides a political as well as a religious context for the construction of the building. There is no evidence to suggest that Titchfield was a place of any great importance during the later Saxon period. It may well be that the construction of a substantial church here represents an affirmation not only of the arrival of Christianity but of West Saxon supremacy in what had formerly been Jutish territory.

No firm evidence has yet been forthcoming for structural alterations to the early church in the pre-Conquest period. It is uncertain whether the ubiquitous brown plaster belongs to a single phase and if so, the date of that phase. It may belong to the original phase of

construction, but it could equally belong to a major refurbishment at any date prior to the construction of the upper part of the tower *circa* 1200.

As so much of the original building has been lost, it is difficult to know whether the absence of evidence for later structural alterations is purely a question of chance. In contrast to most early porches, the porch at Titchfield was not raised to form a tower during the late Saxon period. One possibility is that the minster community of Titchfield, which was probably small and which was recorded more by luck than as a result of its importance, was provided at the outset with a church which proved adequate for its needs throughout the later Saxon period.

The relationship between the minster community and the small town of Titchfield (Hare 1976, 39-40) remains uncertain. A market was recorded by the time of Domesday (Munby 1982, fol 39b, 1, 45). Blair (1988, 44-50) has suggested that many market towns arose in response to the economic stimulus provided by minster communities, and it seems likely that this is the pattern of development at Titchfield.

FURTHER WORK

The work carried out over the last few years has been designed to extract the maximum possible information with the minimum possible disturbance. It is not thought likely that any further removal of plaster will add substantially to our knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon church, but it is important that every opportunity for observation of the early fabric should be taken. It may also be noted that the presence of charcoal flecks, both in the early mortar and in the brown plaster, might permit radio-carbon dates to be obtained. While only limited results could be expected from radio-carbon dating, it might at least be possible to obtain some broad indication as to the position of the brown plaster in the sequence.

The opportunities for below-ground archaeological observation have been limited

to a small and unsatisfactory watching brief. The results of this watching brief demonstrated that any future opportunities for archaeological observation inside the church are likely to be of considerable interest. Much remains to be learnt about the early church and its subsequent development. It would be of particular interest to know the form of the chancel of the early church and whether or not there were any early *porticus*. In addition there is at present no evidence either for the internal floor-level or for the external ground-level at Titchfield in the pre-Conquest period. It is essential that any opportunity which may arise for archaeological excavation within the church is fully grasped.

APPENDIX 1

Evidence for modern repairs and alterations

This Appendix sets out the evidence for modern repairs and alterations relevant to the text of this paper:

- 1 In 1888 a large mural painting was executed on the west wall of the nave. A receipt for the work survives (currently on display in the exhibition area in the south chapel of the church) and reads as follows:

October 9th 1888 Hogarth Studios
Fitzroy Sqre
London W

Received the sum of £108 for Westwall in sgraffito representing the Miraculous Draught of Fishes in the parish church, Titchfield. Also the sum of £7.10 for the renewal of the plaster on Westwall of the Church And the sum of £2 for the inscription below the panel from J Fielder Esqre Treasurer

Alexander Fisher

A photograph of the original painting may be seen in the exhibition area; this photograph also shows the head of the high west window. By 1951 the painting had deteriorated considerably as a result of damp. It was overpainted in a different style by students from Portsmouth College of Art and is now signed 'Colin Morris and Kenneth Nutter 1951-2'.

- 2 The Vestry Minutes for 28 March 1780 (HRO, 37M73A, PV1) record that 'there has been an organ lately erected in the Parish Church of Titchfield to the Ornament of the same Church'; the first reference to an organ in the churchwardens' accounts relates to the organ blower's salary for the year 1779-80 (HRO, 37M73A, PO2). The vestry minutes for 4 September and 22 October 1828 (HRO, 37M73A, PV2) indicate an intention to replace the organ, though there is no confirmation that this decision was implemented.

These early organs were situated at the west end. A Singing Gallery at the west end of the nave is first mentioned in the vestry minutes for 14 September 1776 (HRO, 37M73A, PV1) and in a faculty petition dated 10 October 1776 (HRO, Titchfield faculty papers). Sir Stephen Glynne's description of the church dated 10 July 1847 (now published in full in Hare 1989) states that 'There are W. & S. galleries in the nave & an upper one at the W. end containing a good organ'.

A photograph of the interior of the church dated 1859 (HRO, Titchfield Topographical 2/16) shows an organ on the south side of the chancel with Gothic casework. The 1859 photograph shows other Victorian Gothic features and provides evidence for an unrecorded restoration of the chancel, probably during the 1850s (Hare 1989, 93). The organ shown in the photograph was in turn replaced by the present instrument, installed during the major restoration of 1866-7.

- 3 The west and south sides of the tower were scaffolded and the masonry re-pointed during the winter of 1977-8. Unfortunately there was no opportunity for archaeological observation during this work. At the same time the iron girdle, which surrounds the tower at a height of 3.81 m (12 ft 6 in),

together with the iron crosses at a higher level in the north and south walls, were painted cream (compare Hare 1976, Plate 2 and Hare 1984, Fig 2).

APPENDIX II

Notes on the building stones of Titchfield church

The wide variety of building stones used in the Anglo-Saxon fabric was noted in Hare (1976, 31-2). However no detailed geological examination of the building had been carried out previous to a visit on 12 April 1989 by Mr Bernard Worssam, formerly of the British Geological Survey. Following his visit a detailed report has been lodged in the Hampshire Record Office (HRO, 49M91/1-5), and this Appendix summarises the conclusions.

The dressed stonework of the early church, comprising the high west window, the western archway and the quoins, was examined in detail. The rubble fabric was also examined, more cursorily, to ascertain its general composition.

In considering the dressed stonework a distinction needs to be drawn between the high west window and the voussoirs of the western archway on the one hand and the jambs of the western archway and the quoins on the other hand. The stones of the high west window are of fine-grained pale grey Bembridge limestone, all of the same colour and weathered appearance. Likewise the voussoirs of the western archway are all of fine-grained pale yellowish grey Bembridge limestone.

By contrast the choice of stones used in the jambs of the western archway and in the quoins appears to have been much more random, and a wide variety of stone types was noted. Bembridge limestone remains the most common stone in use. Other stones observed include:

- 1 Several blocks of dark brown ferruginous sandstone, of Tertiary origin.
- 2 A number of blocks of greenish-grey to olive-green glauconitic sandstone, probably from the Upper Greensand.

- 3 The fourth stone above ground in the north jamb of the archway is an orange-brown sandstone, presumed to be from the Upper Greensand but possibly from the Lower Greensand. Two stones in the south-west quoin of the porch may be of similar origin.
- 4 The lowest stone of the south-west quoin of the porch is Portland stone.
- 5 The 6th, 7th and 8th stones above ground in the south-west quoin of the porch and the 9th stone above ground in the north-west quoin of the porch are of a whitish-grey, very fine-grained limestone. This stone is of uncertain provenance, but is not of Tertiary origin; it is possibly Beer stone.

The walling of the early fabric is of coursed rubble, in very large part limestone. The great bulk of the limestone consists of Bembridge and Quarr stone, with a predominance of Quarr stone. Various other types of stone were however also noted in the fabric:

- 1 In the south wall of the porch there is a course of long, thin stones (marked course y in Hare 1976, Fig 4C). This course consists largely, though not exclusively, of a fine-grained calcareous sandstone. The stone is also found randomly elsewhere in the fabric and is so far unidentified.
- 2 In the west wall of the porch a large square block of Bath stone (Coombe Down Oolite) was noted above and to the south of the archway.
- 3 A small piece of Portland stone was observed in the north wall of the porch.
- 4 A small piece of Purbeck Marble was seen in the south wall of the porch (three further stones of Purbeck Marble occurring also in the blocking of the doorway in this wall).
- 5 Several pieces of the dark brown ferruginous sandstone observed in the quoins are also to be found in the north and south walls of the porch.
- 6 Four blocks of the greenish-grey to olive-green sandstone, which is found in the quoins and in the jambs of the western archway, occur close to the jambs and voussoirs of the archway and two blocks

may also be seen in the north wall of the porch.

In addition the early fabric includes occasional uncut flints and a few burnt flints. Re-used Roman tiles are found sporadically throughout the fabric and a bonding-course of Roman tiles 3 and in places 4 tiles deep surrounds the visible fabric at a height of 4.25 m above ground level.

It was suggested in Hare (1976, 31–2) that the variety of stones used in the early fabric implies re-use from a Roman building. The observations made by Mr Worssam support this conclusion, for such an extensive assemblage could not possibly have been quarried for use in the building. Further support for this suggestion is provided by the extensive re-use of Roman tile and by the presence of Roman stones with remains of lewis holes (Hare 1976, 32).

As noted above, some care does however seem to have been taken in the choice of stones for the head of the western archway and for the high west window. Both features are built throughout of Bembridge limestone of uniform character, though the arch and window are not from the same bed. It may be suggested that while the choice of stones was random for the jambs of the arch and for the quoins, special care was taken in the choice of Roman stone in arched features or even that quarrying took place on a limited scale to provide suitable stone for such features.

The great bulk of the assemblage used in the early fabric can be found either in the Hampshire Basin or in the Isle of Wight. Although not enough research has been done into the building stones of Roman Hampshire to assert positively that all the stones identified at Titchfield have been recognised in a Roman context, many of the stones are found commonly in south-east England (Williams 1971; Blagg 1990).

The Bembridge and Quarr limestones which are used so extensively are to be found in the Isle of Wight almost immediately opposite the mouth of the former estuary of the River Meon on which Titchfield stands. Quarr stone is only

used in the rubble fabric, though a few stones are found (particularly in the south jamb of the western archway) which are best described as Bembridge limestone, of which the facies approaches that of Quarr stone. The point made by Jope (1958) that Titchfield contrasts with the late Saxon churches of Hampshire in the absence of Quarr stone from the freestone dressings remains valid.

In the surviving Norman work at Titchfield church the elaborate archway which opens from the porch to the nave was identified as being built of Caen stone. The remains of the Norman capital and column from the former south aisle arcade, now lying loose in the south chapel, are of Quarr stone. One or more pieces of Caen stone were also recognised in the lower part of the south-western quoin of the Anglo-Saxon nave. This part of the quoin was rebuilt in 1866–7 but appears to include at least some of the original stonework (including a block of dark brown ferruginous sandstone). Until 1866–7 there was a Norman south doorway (Hare 1976, 44), and it must remain uncertain whether the Caen stone in the south-west quoin was part of the original assemblage or whether it comes from the destroyed Norman doorway.

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