

# **CAREW CASTLE ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECT**

## **1993 SEASON INTERIM REPORT**

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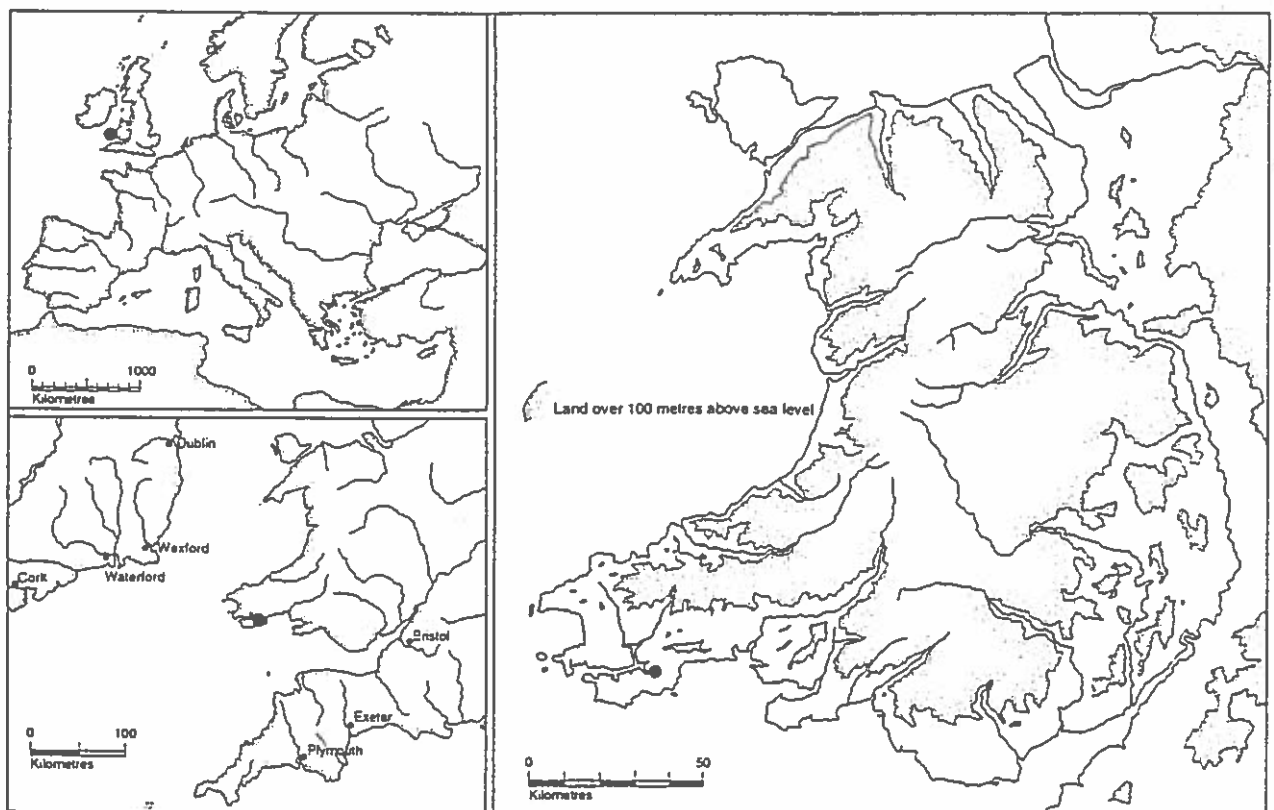
## Carew Castle Archaeological Project

### Interim Report 1993

#### Introduction

*David Austin*

The summer of 1993 saw the second season of work within Phase 2 of the Carew Castle Archaeological Project which is studying the area of a medieval lordship in south-west Pembrokeshire in Wales (figs 1 and 2). This year we fared much better with the weather, although the rain still managed to be very wet when it came. However, gales did not force us to march our tents around the camp-site, like demented soldiers, as we had done in 1992. We had also arranged a slightly shorter season which left most of us a little less frazzled by the end. Rather unexpectedly, however, the excavations had to continue beyond the end of the planned period and on into late September, because we were invited by the Park authorities to complete the examination of the Walled Garden in advance of building work on the Interpretation Centre. So some, under the gentle but firm guidance of Quentin Drew, stayed on for another two months.



*Figure 1: Carew location maps (D. Austin)*

This year we must again thank the Pembrokeshire Coast National Park and its staff both for their permission to conduct the excavations and for their great help in providing resources, facilities and materials for our work. We hope very much that the fruits of our co-operation will be seen in the exhibition to be put into the new Interpretation Centre when it is finally built. Next we must also thank Earthwatch who, as last year, provided both essential funding and a supply of able-bodied and ready-witted individuals who formed two teams of volunteers. This project would simply not be possible without them.

The organisation of the excavation and fieldwork was similar to the previous season. The joint directors in 1993 were David Austin and John Howells with the excavations run by Quentin Drew, the castle fabric analysis led by Nicky Evans (formerly Bignall) and the landscape study guided by Dick Cole, all assisted by a core staff of ten, and a work force of about 100 students and volunteers. The majority of students were from the Departments of Archaeology at St. David's University College, Lampeter and Trinity College Carmarthen, with a few more coming from Durham University. Earthwatch provided the main body of volunteers. The enthusiasm, hard work and skill which all staff, volunteers and students gave throughout the course of the work, helped secure the successes of this season. All of this was enhanced by the wonderful social atmosphere which developed among the crew, and this was particularly important because the programme involves both academic research and training at Carew. As a further monument to the success of this season (and the previous) should be acknowledged also the many friendships and fond memories that have arisen as a direct result of the project.



**Figure 2: Carew physical topography (D. Austin)**

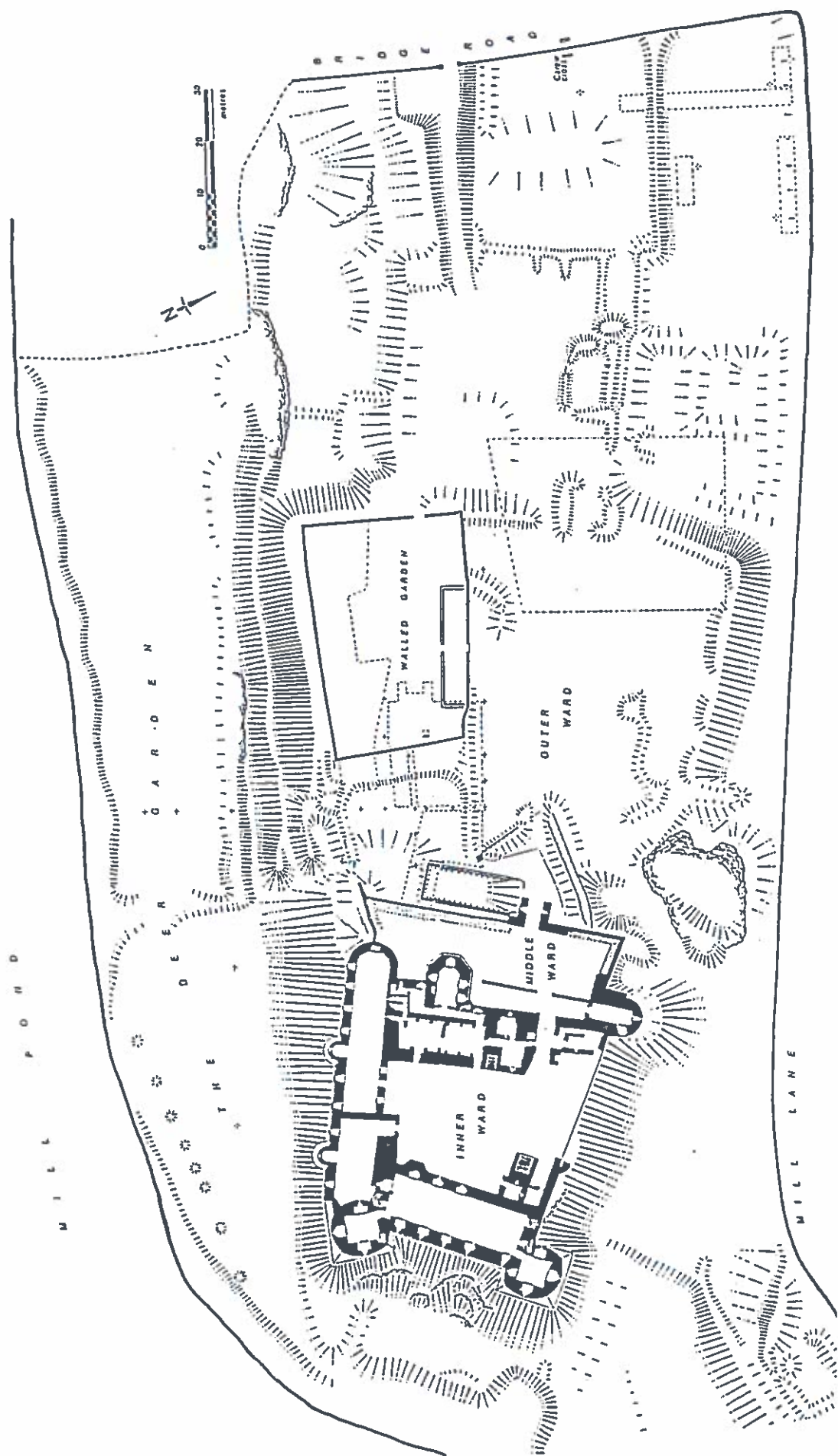


Figure 3: Carew Castle earthwork survey (D. Austin & Dyfed Archaeological Trust)



## 1. Excavations in the Castle

*Quentin Drew and David Austin*

The principal activity in 1993 continued the work of the previous season in the main research area in the Outer Ward (fig.3). This also involved the opening of a further trench to complete the area excavation of the space between the Walled Garden and the Middle Ward curtain. In addition, the excavation within the South-west Tower, which was started during the 1992 season, was completed, as was the Foreshore Trench III, located at the base of the northern exterior of the castle. A further trench was opened on the shoreline, close to the base of the South-West Tower, the purpose of which was to establish the nature of a series of surface features, that appeared to form a small harbour. Following the main research season the National Park commissioned a final rescue excavation within the Walled Garden in advance of work on a new interpretation building.

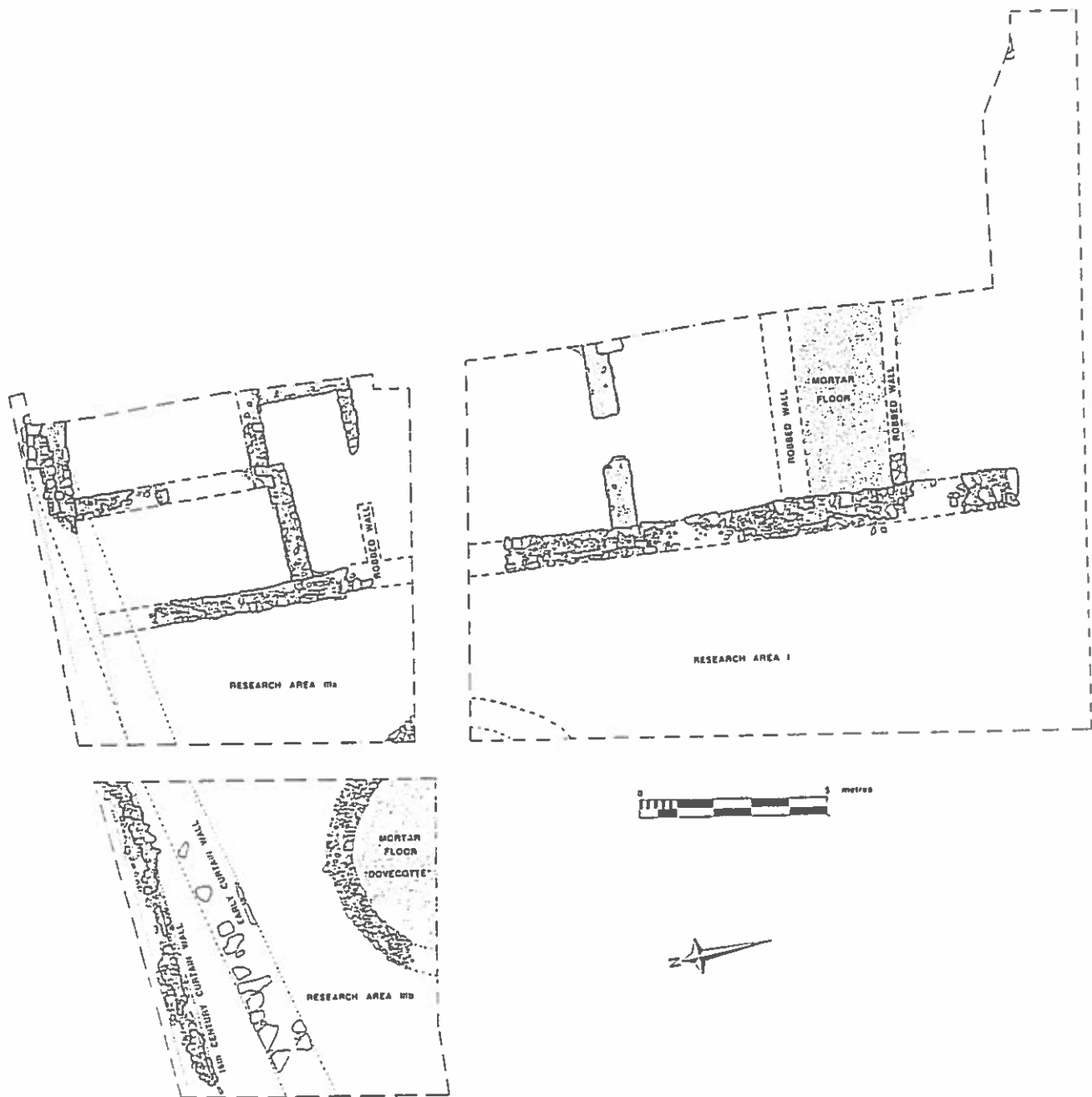
Discussion of this season's work can be divided into four areas: the main research area, the South-West Tower, the Foreshore (including the small harbour) and the Walled Garden.

### A) The Research Area (fig 4)

The 1993 season saw the continued excavation of the main research area, discussion of which can be divided into several major elements: the long building that was partially excavated during the previous season, situated to the east of the research area; the foundations to two phases of curtain wall revealed in the northern areas of Trenches IIIa and IIIb; a semi-circular structure, possibly a dovecote identified, again in Trenches IIIa and IIIb; a large rock-cut ditch lying under, but on the same orientation as, the long building (the discussion of which is included within section d below); and the large 'central space' which appears to have been used as an area for the dumping of building and domestic debris during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

i) *The long building*, as discussed in the 1992 CCAP interim report was apparent prior to excavation as a single earthwork. The 1992 season demonstrated that this structure, some 22 metres in length, had been robbed of much of its fabric following its abandonment. It was also seen that the eastern side of this structure was truncated by the later Walled Garden (Austin 1992), the foundations of which lay over the building's destruction debris. This suggested, therefore, that the long building formed part of the later medieval arrangements on the north side of the Outer Ward.

With further excavation during the 1993 season our understanding of this structure has been enhanced, though there still remain some key areas of this structure to be fully excavated during the next season. The impression that the structure was abandoned and left to collapse of its own accord due to neglect was shown to be incorrect. In fact, the building appears to have been carefully dismantled, at least in part, as demonstrated by neatly stacked piles of roofing slate recovered from the southern end of the building. It may be that the slate was collected and stacked after a roof collapse, though even so this still suggests an element of concern towards the structure, and not one of neglect. One of the stacked roofing slates recovered was decorated with a five pointed pentacle, scratched on to the slate surface. This may have deep religious or mystical significance, but it may simply be the result of a labourer idly doodling his way through a work break. The slate tiles as a whole were either pink or grey in colour, and this may suggest that the roof consisted of distinct patterns within its design.



**Figure 4: Plan of the later medieval features in the Research Area**  
(Q. Drew)

Such patterning and the use of slate themselves forcefully display high status on the exterior, which may be a contrast with its internal meanings and functions, as we shall see. The aspect of design is, however, only conjecture, for we have no way of knowing for certain whether the slates were used on the roof in a random or intentional way.

The plan of the structure demonstrates at least two identifiable phases. The first phase is built during the life of the original 12th/13th century curtain wall which survived until the sixteenth century. In this phase the building appears to have been separated from the curtain wall by a gap of 4 metres, allowing for access between the two. During a second phase, with the redevelopment and re-alignment of the curtain wall during Sir John Perrot's re-designing of the castle in the late sixteenth century, the long building was extended northwards to abut it. This extension necessitated the reorganisation of the internal layout, particularly within the former north end, but this will only be sorted out when the excavation of this structure is completed during the forthcoming season.

Though much of this building was subsequently robbed and the full extent lost due to the presence of the Walled Garden, it is still possible to put forward suggestions about its character and function. The structure does not seem to have very regular interior layout. It is certainly more complex at the northern end where several walls are distinct later additions, while at the southern end the building appears to have been open, creating an open bay. The gravel and pea-grit surface of this area was suggestive of a floor deposit, possibly the bedding for flagstones, though no evidence for these could be identified. The area between the southernmost internal division and the completely robbed internal wall revealed several alternating spreads of sand and mortar. These layers were likewise seen as floor deposits, though of a different phase to the 'courtyard' layers. The rest of the building within the southern area appeared to have been completely robbed of any floor features. In the northern part within Trench IIIa excavation has yet to reveal such surfaces, though signs of probable mortar floors are already apparent, and all the internal wall faces demonstrate the presence of plasterwork. One of the rooms in this area revealed evidence of intense and concentrated burning, demonstrated by large quantities of charcoal and ironworking slag. These deposits were only partially excavated during the 1993 season, and only with further excavation may a more accurate picture of this activity be constructed. The internal plan of this building appears to rule out the suggestion for it as a stable, though the presence of the open bay is unusual for a domestic structure. The presence of what may reveal itself as an area of intensive metalworking may point towards a smithy, with the open bay as a possible area for shoeing and coopering. That the structure appears to have been used for a considerable period, and that it underwent a series of modifications may suggest either changes in use or in the pattern of the same use.

ii) *The curtain wall* that is still standing immediately to the west of the main research area (Trench IIIb) continued eastwards as a foundation within the excavated area. This would all appear to date to the period of major redevelopment by Sir John Perrot in the sixteenth century. Within Trench IIIb the course of an earlier, and more substantial wall was identified. This earlier wall was aligned with the north-eastern corner of the castle as it was prior to the construction of the Perrot Wing, and as such probably dates to the late 12th / 13th century. What is of interest with these two features is their contrasting nature, though on the surface fulfilling the same function. The later wall is less than half the thickness of its predecessor, and as such would have offered little protection as a defensive curtain wall (except perhaps from local drunks). Rather it should be seen as part of the redevelopment of Carew Castle by Sir John Perrot, and all that it entailed. The

view of the northern face of the castle from the opposite bank of the Mill Pond was one that was intentionally created to display the wealth and status of Perrot to the locality. Indeed the castle was little more than a glorified country house. As such the curtain wall erected by Perrot was basically an ornamental feature; its height limiting the view of the curious and shielding from view the less picturesque Outer Ward. Thus Perrot can be seen to be manipulating his own image and impact upon the landscape, at a time when status was seen as a greater requirement than defense.

iii) The 'central space' mentioned in the 1992 interim report was a large area (15 x 22 metres) bounded on the south by a low soil bank, topped by a heavily robbed wall, on the west by the stone-lined ditch, on the north by the Outer Ward curtain wall and on the east by the long building discussed earlier. In 1993 this was found to consist of two major elements: a semi-circular walled feature to the north and, cutting this, a large rock-cut depression to the south. This latter area was covered by black soils rich in mortar, roofing slate, sandstone fragments and to a lesser extent domestic rubbish and seems, therefore to have been a dump of building debris which could not be processed through a lime-kiln. The further excavation of this area appeared to confirm this interpretation, though several large spreads of coal dust also suggests the close proximity of either a fuel store or a place of combustion. These deposits seem also to slope gently down into a north-south ditch which is the predecessor of the stone-lined ditch. They appear, therefore, to be the later fills of the original castle ditch, though the true edge of this feature has yet to be identified.

Within this area of the earlier ditch were found two large dressed oblong limestone blocks, which were sealed by the later black soil deposits of the 16th / 17th centuries. Beneath these were recovered over a hundred small fragments of what appears to have been an ornamental dragon or gryphon sculpture. Pieces of this remarkable find still retained traces of red and gold paint. From the fragments recovered it was possible to discern scales, talons and the three feathers of the insignia of the Prince of Wales. Interestingly some fragments were of sandstone and others of a form of limestone (as seen in several of the window structures of the castle itself). This would suggest either two separate figures each sculpted from a different medium, or a singular figure with composite sections, possibly incorporating a stage of repair. Though only fragments remain it is possible to suggest the design, which appeared to have been a three dimensional dragon or gryphon (maybe 60 - 80cm high) grasping a shield emblazoned with the three white feathers symbolic of the Prince of Wales. In turn, this figure then appears to have been resting on the edge of a shallow circular pedestal (that may have served as a form of font) around the rim of which was an as yet illegible inscription. It would appear that this ornamentation as a whole was a piece of medieval propaganda; a visible display of the unity espoused by Sir Rhys ap Thomas between the Crown and Wales. As such it may be a relic of, and perhaps commissioned for the Grand Tournament which itself was a further expression of such unity.

Around the eastern and southern edges of the depression were a series of relatively large pieces of undressed limestone situated as though close to an area of extraction. This might suggest a quarry, but central to the depression were the tantalizing glimpses of a piece of bonded stonework complete with plaster rendering which only began to appear at the end of the 1993 season. This will only be understood with further excavation. There is no other evidence for a structure associated with this unexcavated feature, and it may be no more than a large fragment of demolition debris.

iv) *The semi-circular structure* to the north of the rock-cut depression raises several questions. Originally it was probably circular with a possible external diameter of 7.5 metres, though it has subsequently been truncated by the depression on its south side. The structure had a regular compacted sand and mortar floor, and it may have been a dovecote like the one at nearby Manorbier. However, its location conflicts with the entry in a sixteenth century survey that refers to a dovecote at Carew Castle situated on the south side of the Outer Ward. An indication of the date of this structure is that the rock-cut feature which truncates it was filled by 16th / 17th century domestic and building debris.

## **B) South-west Tower**

The 1993 season saw the completion of the excavation of the floor surfaces and make-up within the second floor room of the South-West Tower. The removal of the accumulated deposits within this area was initiated during the previous season in advance of consolidation work to be undertaken by the PCNP with the intention of making the tower accessible to the public.

A complete excavation of the floor surfaces within the tower was undertaken, with the removal of floor make-up deposits, down to the upper surface of the vaulting. The curvature of the vaulting was raised to a level plane by a series of hardcore backfills, upon which lay the several layers of mortar and sand make-up. Though the original floor had been totally robbed, there were clear impressions in the mortar make-up layer suggesting that the original covering was tiles. The recovery of fragments of green glazed tile from the preceding layers may suggest the colour scheme of this room. However, these may well be intrusive, belonging rather to the floor surface from the room directly above. During consolidation work undertaken by PCNP in September 1993, green glazed tiles, still in situ in the window recesses, in the third floor room above were observed.

## **C) The Foreshore**

The 1993 season also saw the completion of the excavation trench, Foreshore III, that lay close to the base of the north face of the Perrot Wing. This trench was one of a series that were laid out to determine the depth of the archaeology between the north face of the castle and the high water mark of the Mill Pond. Initially this trench was two metres square, though this was subsequently extended to four metres square. The trench was excavated down to natural, at a depth of up to 80cm. A substantial section of window ornamentation was recovered, along with many unidentifiable dressed limestone fragments. These sealed, and likewise were sealed by, a series of mortar layers. These deposits can be firmly placed within the period of partial demolition and reconstruction necessitated by the design plan of the Perrot extension.

A further trench was excavated within the area of the foreshore (see fig.\*), this being a transect across the profile of a puzzling earthwork close to the base of the South-West Tower. It was not possible to excavate this trench to bottom, because of tidal waterlogging on the edge of the Mill Pond. However, we were able to establish that it was not a geomorphological but rather a deliberately dug feature. Its regularly cut edges would suggest it was not a quarry, and it is still best to regard it as an artificial inlet or small harbour, although considerably more work will be needed in the future to confirm this interpretation. Again because it was not dug to the bottom, it is very difficult to establish date, but it could be associated with the 16th/17th century lime-kiln that was situated to the south-west. The lime-kiln itself was probably part of the processes which cleared walls from the outer wards



and courts of the castle after its abandonment. However, an earlier date for this harbour feature cannot be ruled out, for it may have served as a landing point for dressed stone being brought to the castle during any of its periods of redevelopment or it may even have served the pre-Norman enclosure.

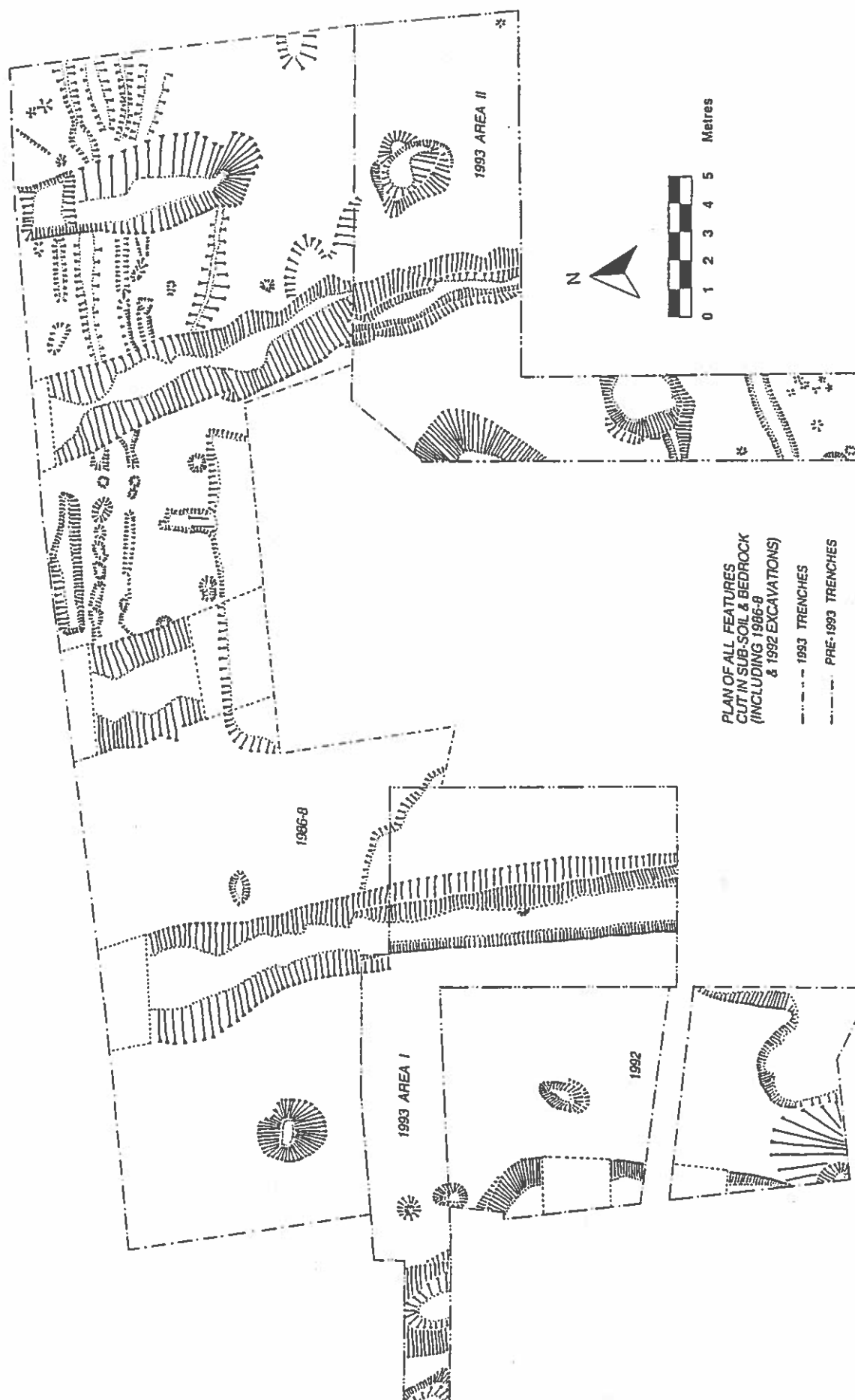
#### **D) The Walled Garden (fig. 5)**

The results of earlier excavations within the Walled Garden were summarised in the 1992 interim report where the almost complete lack of later medieval evidence was described. Indeed the principal findings were a series of parallel rock-cut ditches which pre-dated the Norman castle. These were also related in that report to a geophysical survey to produce an overview of the potential extent of the pre-Norman defences of Carew (Austin 1993). In 1993, in advance of the building of an interpretation centre, a further opportunity to excavate more of these ditches arose. The primary objectives were to recover additional dating evidence and to establish a more extensive plan of the early defences.

Two main trenches were dug; Area I, which lay on the western side of the Walled Garden and extended a short way through the modern access entrance in the west wall; and Area II which lay to the east of the Walled Garden. Both trenches were positioned so as to overlap slightly the edges of the earlier excavations. In both trenches modern activity was well represented in the archaeology. In Area II a modern utility trench was identified, (carrying electric and telecommunication cables, as well as a water pipe), providing the demands of the National Park's stone mason's workshops. A further feature within this trench can be attributed to the same period; a large, deep, roughly circular drainage pit, filled with loosely packed limestone fragments and fed by a buried plastic pipe. This latter intrusion dates to 1984, the period of construction for the site workshops, and acts as soak-away for them. It was immediately after this date that the southern area of the Walled Garden was heavily disturbed by clearance and levelling. The respective fills of both these features were sealed by a series of levelling deposits, comprising limestone hardcore and asphalt, providing an hardened area for plant machinery access. To the south of Area II a large deposit of clean sand was identified, which can be attributed to either the construction of the workshops or to stone mason activity thereafter. To the north of Area II lay a large concrete raft, that provided a base for a cement mixer that was in operation until early September 1993. The series of hardcore levelling deposits were also encountered in Area I, overlying which in both areas was a loose scree of asphalt acting as the existing surface prior to excavation.

In both areas, below the hardcore levelling deposits was a band of compressed dark soil, identifiable as the original garden deposits. To the north of Area II this band was much greater in depth, presumably where not greatly affected by clearance. This dark soil in both areas covered a series of thin demolition deposits, mainly sandy, silty clays with a high content of fragmented tile and slate. A shallow linear feature, running from north to south cut through this material in Area I, and was filled with the same dark garden soil. The function of this feature is unclear, though it may be the remains of a construction or robber trench.

The demolition material itself overlay either bedrock, rock-cut features or natural clay deposits. The source of this demolition activity is not clear, but it may be associated with any of the buildings which formerly existed within this area of the Outer Ward during the later Middle Ages, such as the barn whose south wall is preserved within the fabric of the Walled Garden's south wall.



**Figure 5: Collated plan of all the Pre-Norman rock-cut features in the Walled Garden (Q. Drew)**

Several features were sealed by the demolition material recorded in Area I. To the west of the trench a small circular cut was identified, with successive fills of regularly placed pieces of tile and a central limestone block. Between each layer of tile was a thin spread of sandy silt, acting apparently as a bed for the tiles to lay on. At present it is not possible to determine the function of this structure, though it may be associated with a large limestone paving stone situated close by in its' own cut and packed by vertical pieces of tile. They may have been the base stones of vertical timbers.

Two ditches encountered in Area I were likewise sealed by the demolition material. The ditch on the eastern side of Area I cut through limestone bed-rock, as well as natural boulder clay, and followed on the same north-south course as one identified from the earlier excavations. At the base of this was a small stake-hole, presumably associated with the construction of the embankment associated with this ditch. Sealing this feature was a shallow lens of sandy silt and sealing this was a series of clay deposits, with varying quantities of limestone pieces in them. These clays and silts suggest the accumulation of material over a period of time within an open ditch feature. Above the clays were extensive deposits of large, loosely-packed and irregular pieces of limestone with tip-lines suggesting that its related embankment, originally constructed with material quarried from the ditch, had been pushed into it from the west. That this deposit was not interleaved with silts and sediments suggests it was the result of one particular action (or a series of actions over a short period of time), and probably, therefore, an intentional in-filling rather than a gradual collapse of the embankment. The larger limestone pieces had probably acted as a form of revetment or facing to the embankment. Sealing this deposit were a series of similar deposits, though with smaller limestone pieces, presumably the main core to the embankment. It was these that were in turn sealed by the general demolition material previously described.

To the west of Area I another ditch, again on an alignment already seen in the previous excavations, was further uncovered, although not fully excavated, and the fills of this feature give a similar picture of intentional backfilling. However, this ditch cuts through an earlier feature, the full character of which cannot as yet be determined, though it appears to have an elliptical eastern edge, and a series of limestone and clay fills. It may be related to very early quarrying activity. Further quarrying was encountered on the extreme western edge of Area I, though this activity is stratigraphically much later.

In Area II several features were likewise sealed by the demolition spread. To the east a large pit was identified with a series of silt and charcoal fills. This cut through both limestone bed rock and natural boulder clay, but there are no signs of in situ burning to the limestone which could be directly associated with the charcoal. This pit in turn cuts through an earlier pit, though the full extent of this earlier feature could be seen because of later intrusions. It may be that the two pits served similar functions, though this may only be determined from the analysis of the respective fills. To the north of this feature, an oven was recorded from the 1986-8 excavations, and it may be that the two features (the oven and pit cuts) are contemporary.

Only one definite early ditch was identified in Area II, and this again followed the same direction as one seen in the earlier excavations. The cut was V-shaped, though the nature of the limestone bedding resulted in an irregular edge and sides to the feature. This ditch, like the others described above, showed the same signs of having been open originally for some length of time and deliberate back-filling from the west of a stone-faced embankment. In this case, however, these fills were in turn immediately sealed by a dark-brown silty clay deposit with frequent



limestone inclusions. This would suggest that there had been a deliberate action not only to backfill the ditch, but also to level it flat.

A further rock-cut feature found in Area II is less conclusive, partly because it ran beyond the eastern edge of the excavation. What could be seen was roughly semi-circular in shape and its fills were of the same general character as the ditches. The most likely interpretation is that it represents a terminus to a ditch revealed in the previous excavations to the north. It is, however, just possible that the feature may have no direct relationship with the ditch sequences, and may be a later feature cutting the ditch and containing redeposited ditch-fill material; it will only be with the analysis of the recovered finds and material later that a more definitive assessment can be given.

The only other feature sealed by the demolition material in Area II was another small semi-circular cut. This was located to the south of the trench, and was also truncated by the edge of the excavation. Little can be said of this feature at present, apart from its regular shape, steep tapering sides and loose packing of limestone pieces. The feature might be a post hole, but this suggestion is based almost solely on the regularity of the feature, and it should be remembered that the full extent of the cut is not known.

The latest excavation within the Walled Garden has allowed for a further examination of the ditch features within the area. By and large it has confirmed the previous impression of how they came to be, what they represent and how they came to be filled. Now only painstaking analysis in the future can determine whether they are broadly contemporary and therefore part of one uniquely defended location. All we can say at the moment is that they look very similar in constructional technique and form, and that, at least at the end of their lives, these ditches all appear to have been treated in the same way: they were rendered invisible in the Norman landscapes of South Pembrokeshire.

**Postscript:** During the winter of 1993-4 we received news of our second radio-carbon determination from bone recovered in the rock-cut ditches. To our absolute delight this came out at A.D. 700  $\pm$  60, plumb in the midst of the Dark Ages. We are now awaiting further determinations and we can only continue to hold our breath that they produce similar results.

## 2. Finds

### A) Pottery

*Cathy Freeman*

The 1993 research excavations produced a total of 1944 sherds of pottery, roof and floor tile, and the rescue excavations a total of 1155. There was again a wide variety of imports with first examples of several previously unrepresented types. In the rescue area in the Walled Garden there was some twelfth century pottery identical to that from Sandy Gerrard's excavations, but there were also some examples of types not found before.

There was only a small amount of Romano-British pottery but this was very similar to the previous finds of this material, comprising sherds of Samian, amphora, red/buff and Black Burnished wares, a greyware rim with rouletted body-sherd, and some possibly calcite-gritted sherds. There was no further Dark Age material.

Twelfth-century cooking-pots of types which may predate the local gravel tempered wares were found in the Walled Garden, sometimes in association with the local wares. The rim of what appears to be a lamp (fig 6, no.4) (although there is no sign of sooting or burning) was found in a calcareous gravel-tempered fabric. Lamps are generally earlier than twelfth century in date although one was found at Laugharne Castle. There is also some black material comparable to that found in twelfth century contexts at Laugharne, for example a vessel (fig.6 no.1) with applied vertical strips merging into the body of the pot. The rod handle (fig.6 no.3) with rouletted chevron decoration is from a Malvernian tripod pitcher of mid to late twelfth century date (Vince 1985, 46-8, fig.38). This is the first example of early Malvern wares identified west of Brecon. An unusual spouted vessel (fig. 6 no.2) is in a variation of gravel-tempered ware which possibly comes from Somerset. This may have been a socketed or spouted bowl, a characteristic 'Saxo-Norman' form in other parts of the country (for eleventh century examples see Rahtz 1974 p105 and p118 Fig.6). This sherd is from Research Area I where only a small amount of medieval pottery was found.

There is a wide range of fifteenth-seventeenth century imported wares from the Research excavations, many vessels consisting of sherds coming from different contexts and areas. There are two examples of Italian tin-glazed dishes from Montelupo (fig. 6 nos.11 & 12) of late sixteenth to early seventeenth century date. There is also part of the rim of an Alla Porcellana dish from Montelupo of the same date which is not illustrated since little of the glaze and decoration have survived (Hurst et al 1986 p 21). A further thick tin-glazed Italian sherd (fig. 6 no.13) is in a very good state of preservation with a glossy glaze and brightly coloured external decoration of dark blue, mustard and purple. This is probably late fifteenth century and from an ovoid jug (cf Johns 1973 Fig. 24 No. 173, Fig. 25 No. 174, both deposited shortly after 1484). We also found part of a South Netherlands Maiolica flower vase (fig. 6 no.8), and Spanish tin-glazed and lustrewares of fifteenth-sixteenth century date. There are further examples of sixteenth-century Spanish green and blue-glazed wares, the latter first identified in 1992. Merida wares of fifteenth to seventeenth century date are again well represented by a variety of forms, including lids. Only a jar, which may have had two handles, is illustrated (fig.6 no.5).

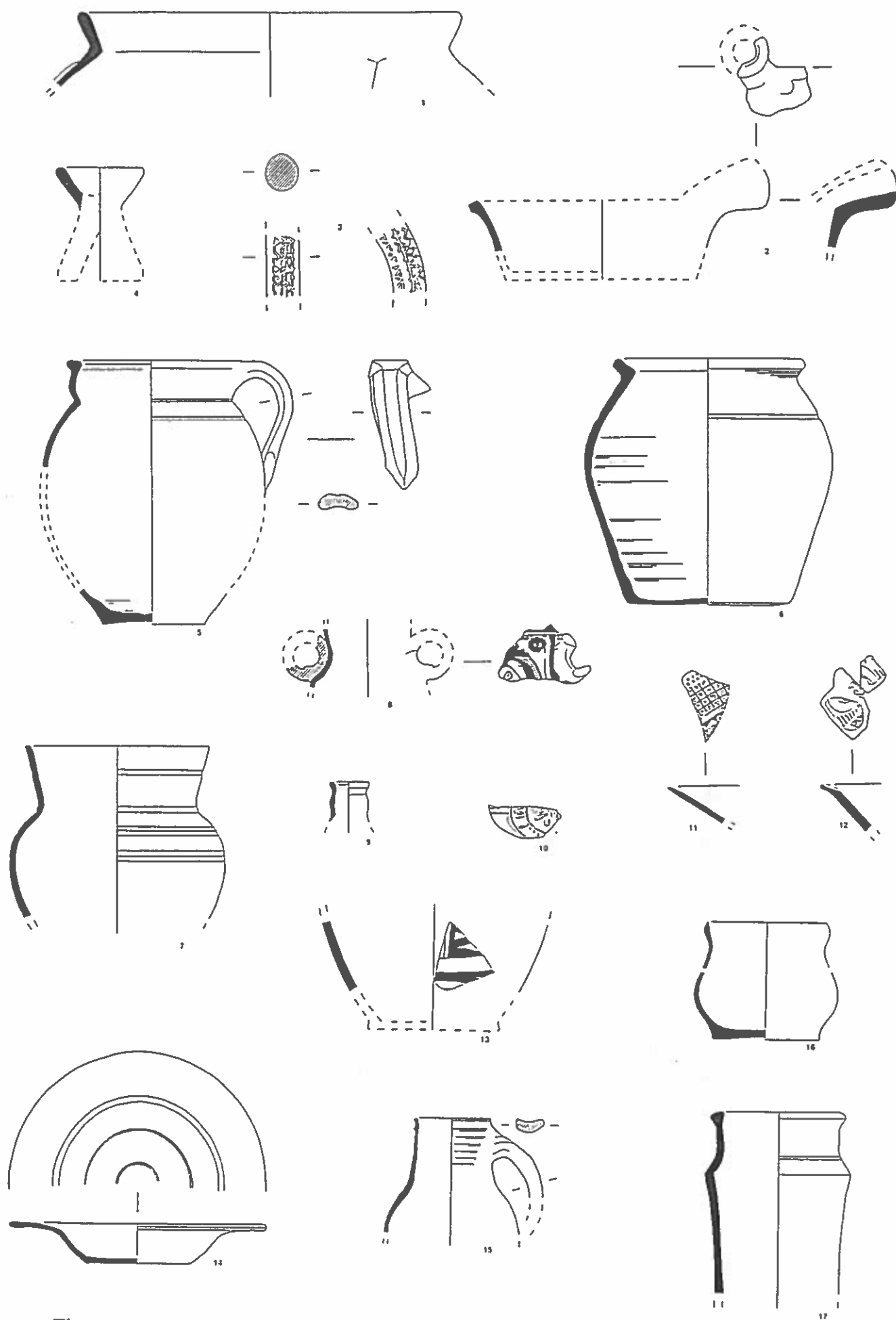


Figure 6: Pottery illustrations (25%) (C. Freeman)

There are a variety of sixteenth century Beauvais products including a dish (fig.6 no.14) with a full cover of mottled green glaze internally, a seal of a yellow-glazed drinking jug with a central floral motif surrounded by an illegible inscription (fig.6 no.10), and a rim of slipware which probably comes from a vessel of similar form. A strange yellow/green-glazed jug in a near stoneware fabric may be another variant of Beauvais ware, rather than from Martincamp as was originally thought. Other French imports include the rim of a Martincamp Type 1 flask (fig. 6 no.9) of late fifteenth early sixteenth century date, and part of a sixteenth century Saintonge chafing-dish.

German stonewares from Raeren and Frechen are again well represented. There is one jug rim (fig.6 no.15) in a fine pale grey stoneware with brown ash glaze, and one area of thick crazed green lead glaze. The form of this identifies it as a Siegburg product, although these are extremely rare in Wales, where most pale grey stonewares are from Beauvais.

There are also a variety of British sixteenth century and post-medieval wares. These include a selection of cups, both Cistercian and related brown-glazed wares, and green-glazed examples. Some of these have yellow slip internally and copper-stained slip externally (fig.6 no.16); the illustrated example is from Devon but there are also sherds in Somerset fabrics. There are also squat jars from both North Devon (fig.6 no.6) and South Somerset (fig.6 no.7). The North Devon example has a thick internal deposit. There is an unusual form in North Devon gravel tempered ware, a dripping dish with a lip and handle. Another surprising form is the albarello (fig.6 no.17) in a compact fine sandy pink fabric with an iron-flecked amber glaze. The source of this is unknown and it may be imported. The fabric occurs at Carew in small quantities and has also been found at Carmarthen Greyfriars.

As in previous years, there are large quantities of roof tile, of both medieval and post-medieval types, including a spur finial from a Llanstephan ware ridge tile. This would have been on the end of the last tile on the ridge of the roof. There is also a quantity of floor tile, but as in previous years nothing earlier than fifteenth century in date.

## **B) The Stone 'Dragon'**

In 1993 one object more than any other caught our eye. In the top of the back-filled ditch between the Outer and Middle Wards we discovered the fragmentary remains of a small (c. 2-foot high) painted sculpture. It was not in any way complete and we suspect there is more to find in another year. From what we have, however, it seems to depict a beast possibly a dragon with scales, talons and a tail, squatting or standing on the edge of a circular or semicircular bowl and holding the three feathers of the Prince of Wales' insignia. We may speculate that this formed part of the remaking of Carew Castle at the time of Rhys ap Thomas, when he also put the arm of Henry VII's son, Arthur, on the porch of the Great Hall. The Dragon of Wales holding the crest of the first Tudor Prince of Wales must have resonated with symbolic meaning among the cross-threading visitors to the Great Tournament of 1507.

### 3. The Fabric Analysis

*Nicky Evans (formerly Bignall)*

In 1993 we continued to focus our attention on the east side/facade of the Inner Ward of the Castle. In 1992 we had established that there were at least two major phases of Norman work: a primary and free-standing stone tower which dates possibly to the first construction of the castle in c. 1104; and additions to this which completed the east side of the castle as a curtain, gate and two square corner towers (Bignall 1993). Work in 1993 concentrated on the drawing of all the visible outer faces of the early tower and on the Norman curtain and corner tower to the north of it. This corner tower and its relationship with the curtain was masked by the later thirteenth-century Chapel Tower which will be drawn in future years.

#### A) The Norman Tower (fig.7) and the East Façade of the Inner Ward (figs.8 & 9)

The primary building on the site of Carew Castle appears to be a small rectangular Norman Tower, the principal external faces of which are shown in fig.7. Its east face now forms part of the East Face of the East Wing of the Castle, looking into the Middle Ward (see fig.8). The other faces of the tower have been obscured in part by later construction phases. The top storey of the original tower has been truncated and the roof line completely lost, though it may be possible to suggest construction detail from comparison with the similar tower at Manorbier Castle which survives up to battlement level. The tower is rectangular, 7.5m by 5.5m. When it was first built it appears to have had four storeys, but the original floor levels were not those that are in place now.

In its first form (fig.8, Early Norman 1) the tower appears to have had a low store room at ground level, lit by a small window in the east face and reached via an internal wooden ladder or staircase from the first floor. Approximately two metres above present ground level was the base of the first floor, entered through a door in the west face. This doorway is evident in the stones of its relieving arch still visible but partially obscured by later vaulting. No windows are evident at first floor level, of this age, but any original light, on the east face, may have been obscured by the later insertion of the large fifteenth century oriel. The base of the second floor of the building appears to have been approximately 5.5m above present ground level, lit by a slit window in the west face, again there may have been window in the east face, now obscured. Another slit window in the north face, now totally blocked by later building, suggests a third floor level at about 8m above present ground level. The doorway at first floor level was probably reached by an external, wooden staircase. Access to the upper floor levels would have been via internal wooden ladders or staircases.

At some stage, either early in the development of the freestanding tower (fig.8, Early Norman 2) or later as part of the stone east façade (fig. 8, Later Norman) a garderobe was added to the south face of the tower and a new door inserted on the south wall for access. The garderobe had a light in the first floor which was later blocked by the western extension of the curtain wall over the gateway to form a gatehouse.

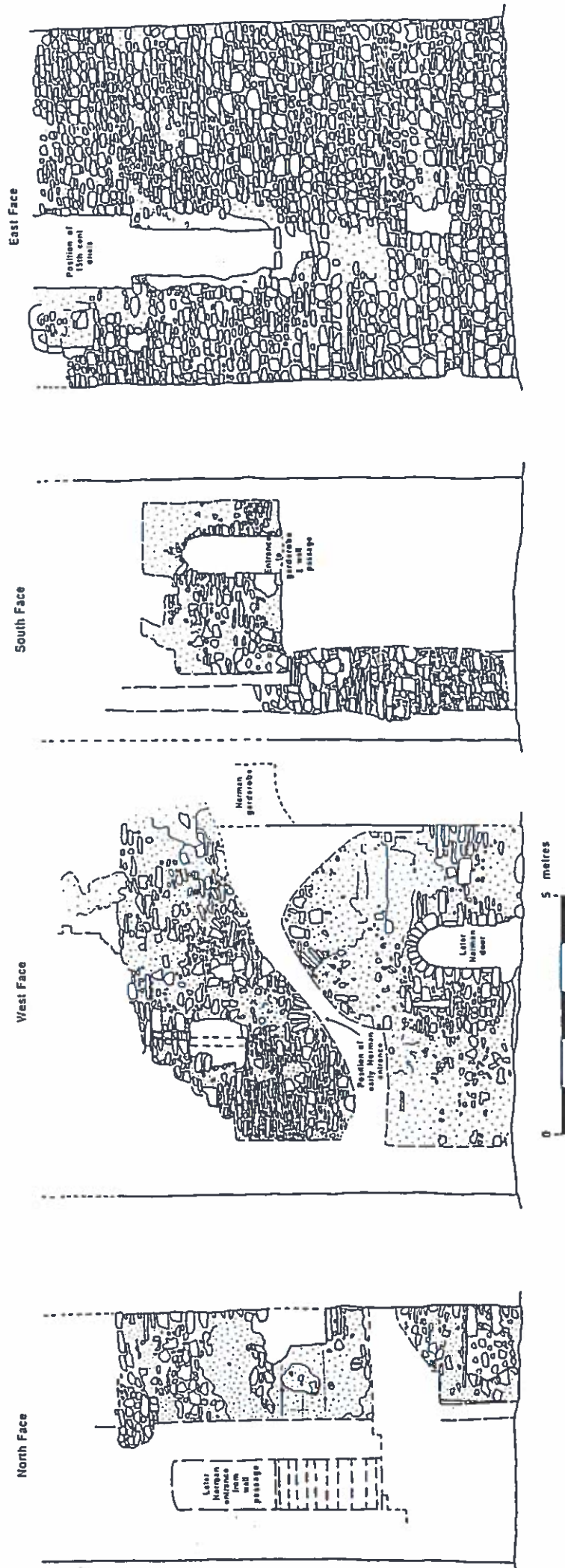


Figure 7: Elevations of the exterior faces of the Early Norman Tower (N. Evans)

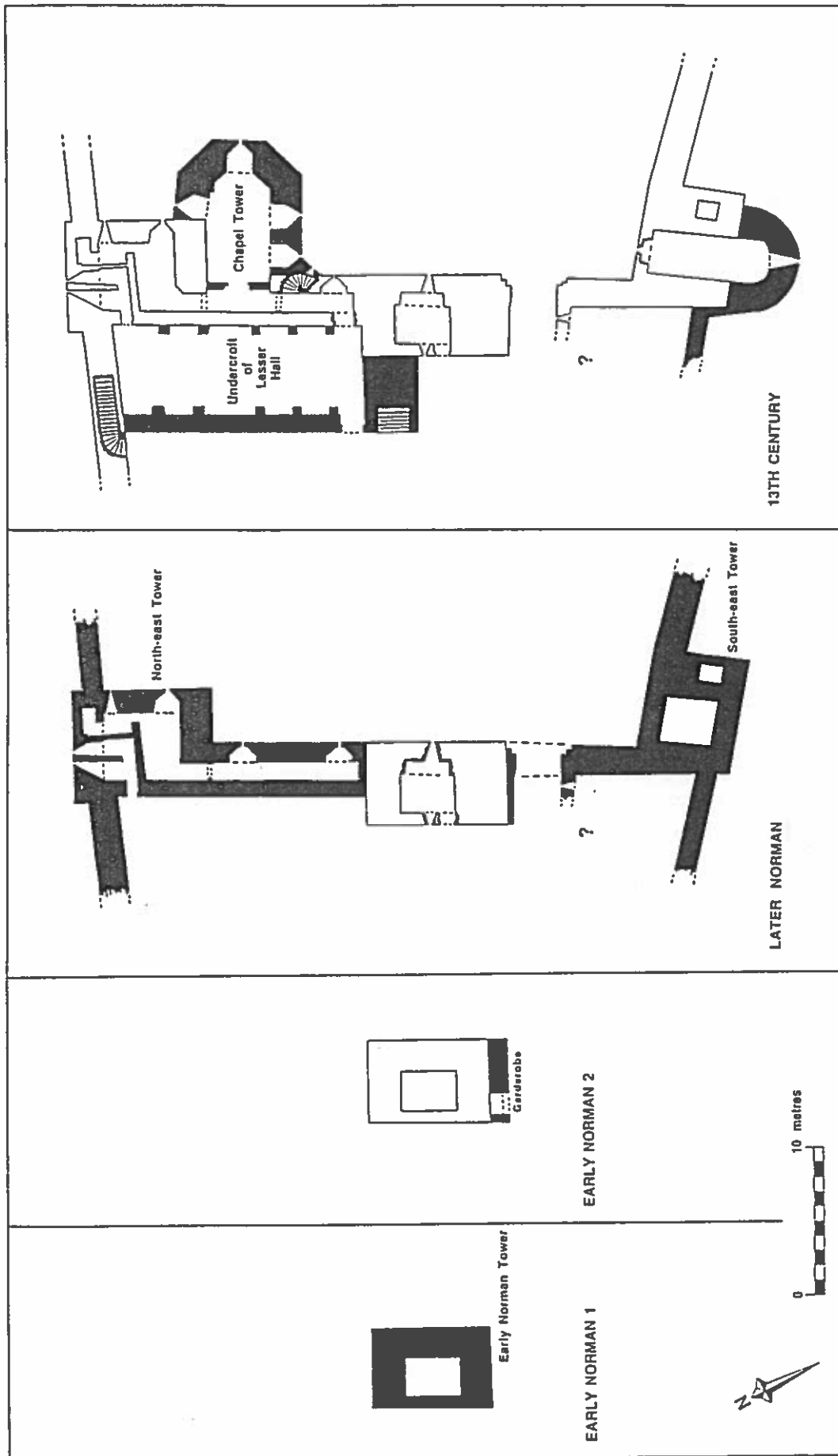


Figure 8: Sequence diagram of the east front of the Inner Ward (D. Austin)



In the second phase (fig.8, Later Norman) of Norman building the floor levels were changed and access and lighting re-arranged. The ground level storage area had round headed vaulting inserted and a small window was also put into the west wall, immediately below the head of the vaulting. This has been blocked by two vertical stones which can be seen on the external face, while internally the splay for the window is unfilled. Below this window there is a relieving arch for a door, now superceded. The first floor was raised to its present level, approximately 4.5m above the ground. The original door in the west face was blocked and a new door was inserted in the north face, leading out into an intermural passage in an added curtain wall. The curtain wall joined a new north-east tower, to the original tower. The original window on the west wall was filled in and a new one inserted at a lower level.

The second floor level was altered to be about 7.5 m above the ground. At this level there was access through a doorway, in the south wall, to the latrine block and over the gateway and up and over the corbelled roof of the first storey intermural passage. There was probably another door in the north wall at this level, now obscured by later stonework, as there is a window in the west face of the intermural passage just outside the tower chamber. The chamber had a double light window in its east face, partially visible on the external elevation but totally obscured by plaster inside.

At this stage of the development of the castle there was a central tower flanked on either side by a curtain wall (fig.8, Later Norman). In the curtain wall, south of the central tower and its garderobe was a single portal gateway at ground floor level. Some surviving ashlar blocks of its surround can still be seen on the East Face. The surround probably had a square head, like the one at Manorbier, but it could have had a rounded head. Inset into this was a smaller round-headed arch over a large gateway.

To the north the curtain wall contained inter-mural passages on all floors (fig. 8, Later Norman). A drawing was made of the internal face of the west wall of the inter-mural passage (fig.9), and this showed two blocked windows and two doors on the second floor which opened out into the space now occupied by the Lesser Hall and which were blocked when this structure was built at some time in the thirteenth century (fig.8, 13th Century). Somewhat later in the same century, a considerable part of the outer, east face of the curtain wall was removed when the Chapel Tower was added.

To the south of the central tower the inter-mural passage, at first floor level, has, on its inner east face the blocked remains of two round-headed openings (Bignall 1993, fig.11 right-hand side). These are not visible on the external elevation. The northernmost has been partially truncated and blocked during the insertion of a large fifteenth century window. The next is completely blocked on the internal face and externally is obscured by the fourteenth century butting wall of the south east Tower. Another round headed arch, south of the two just described, is still open and leads into the South East tower.



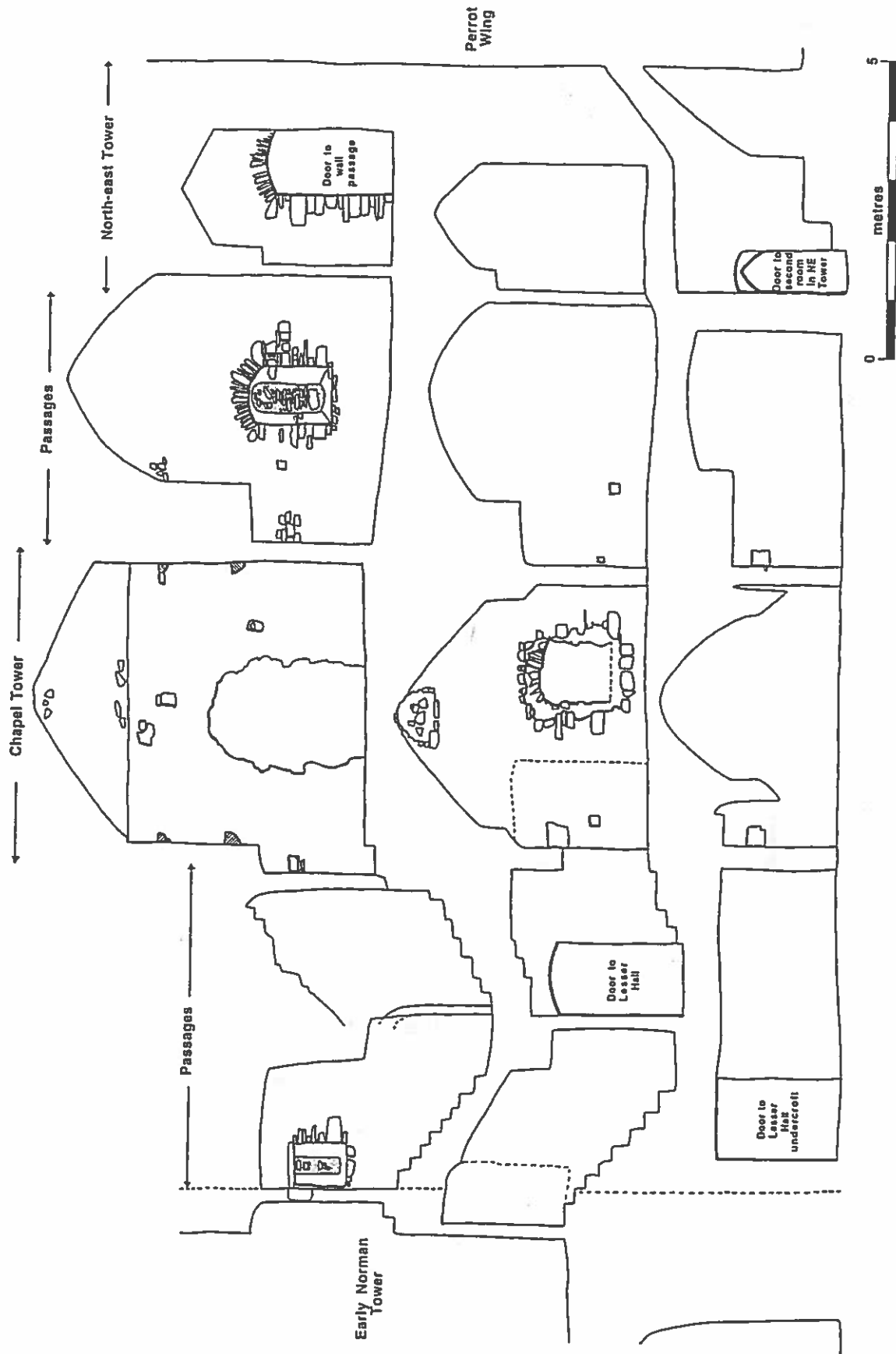


Figure 9: Elevation of the inner face of the west wall of the inter-mural passage on the east front of the Inner Ward (N. Evans)

## B) The South-east Tower (fig.10)

Stone-by-stone drawings of the north and east faces of the South-east Tower were completed in 1992, but were not analysed until the completion of the 1993 season, using information then available.

The South-east Tower appears to have been built as part of the second stage of Norman building. It originally appears to have been rectangular and built on lower ground than the first Norman tower on the site. Because of the variation of ground level the lowest chamber in this tower has no equivalent further north in the range. The first floor of the South-east Tower is at the same level as the ground floor chambers further north.

The South-east Tower contains three storeys. There is a round headed arch on the north face which gives access to an undercroft. This chamber contains round headed vaulting and has no access to the latrine chute which is on its eastern side within the tower. There is a doorway on its western face that is probably a later insertion and a blocked light also on the western face that is now covered on its external aspect by a modern earth ramp leading to the first floor doorway. There is a small light in the southern face.

The first floor chamber can be entered via an external round-headed doorway on the west face, probably reached from a wooden staircase although it is only slightly higher than the undercroft of the original Norman Tower. The second floor also has access through the west face, through the round headed arch from the intermural passage in the curtain wall.

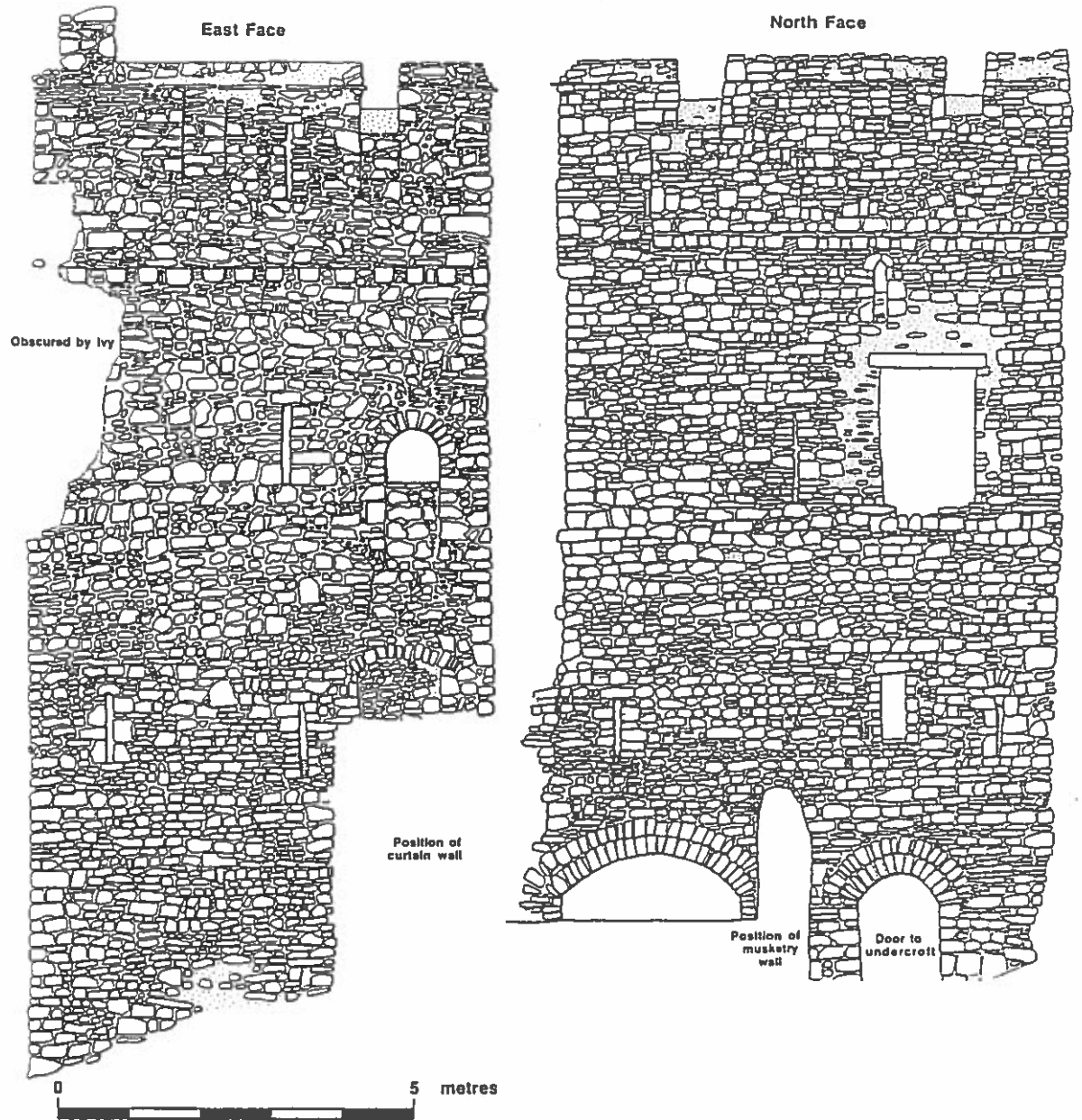
The tower contains on its eastern side a latrine block which appears to empty into a pit. There is a low round-headed arch on the eastern side of the north face which may have originally given access to the latrine pit for cleaning.

The garderobe on the first floor can be reached via a round headed arch, now much damaged. On the second floor there is an round headed doorway on the eastern face which may have led out onto a wall walk.

The lower part of the northern wall appears to be original, but above second floor level there are features which are fourteenth century. Also, at this level, the present northern wall abuts the curtain wall, blocking a Norman door opening. It is possible that the South-east tower was built originally as a rectangle of stone construction to second storey level and then had three sides of stone construction and a wooden, jettied out, northern wall. The jettied-out portion may have been fixed to the east face of the East Range between the two, now blocked, Norman openings and contained a passage, entered through the middle opening and giving access to the door to the wall walk on the east face.

The tower was altered in the thirteenth century; the south face of the rectangular tower was removed and a semi-circular apsidal area added on all floors. This phase of building included fireplace and chimney insertion on the second floor. This may have been when the wooden jettying was removed and a stone face added above the second floor on the north face.

In the fourteenth century the roof and battlement levels were raised and a small window inserted in the north face just under the roof line.



**Figure 10: East and north external faces of the South-east Tower**  
(N. Evans)

### C) The north end of the East Curtain and North-east Tower (fig.9)

The North-east Tower appears to have been built as part of the second phase of Norman construction. It was connected to the original building on the site by a curtain wall with inter-mural passages on three floors.

The tower appears to have had three floors originally, an undercroft and two upper floors. The southern face of this tower has been completely replaced by the later addition of the Chapel Tower and its associated fireplaces. The protruding rectangular portion of stone work on the upper southern corner of the east face has also been rebuilt to contain the Chapel Tower chimneys.

The northern face is still visible inside the sixteenth century Perrot Wing which was added to the tower. The northern edge of the eastern face is obscured by the added Perrot Wing and the southern edge by the added Chapel Tower. The western face is totally obscured by later building.

In its original form the tower contained a latrine block in its north east corner on all floors. The internal dividing walls have been altered in later building phases and are no longer clear.

There were windows at ground floor level on the east and north faces. At first floor level there were windows in the east face. At second floor level there were windows in the east face, the north face and also in the west face, now blocked by later building. There was also a door at second floor level in the western face. Access to the tower was probably via the curtain wall.

At ground floor level a door was inserted later into the west face, giving access to another latrine in the north west corner of the tower.

The wall surrounding the Middle Ward was probably tied into the north east corner of the building, but this area is now obscured by the later Perrot wing. There was probably a small return on the north west corner of the tower and then the curtain wall continued to the west.

#### 4. The Landscape

*Richard Cole*

##### **A) Carew Newton and Houghton Farm - A Study in South Pembrokeshire Settlement Patterns**

For the second year of the landscape fieldwork programme, the work was mainly split between the study of two morphologically distinctive forms of settlement within the parish of Carew. As noted briefly in the 1992 Interim Report (Cole & Drew 1993, 28-30), two of the most common types of settlement, and those most frequently mentioned in landscape studies of Pembrokeshire, are the hamlets or villages specifically associated with stripped field systems (i.e previous open fields) and the consolidated or ring-fence farms. The hamlet of Carew Newton and the farm of Houghton, were chosen for study as it was felt each was relatively free of recent (late 19th and 20th century) developments and still appeared to retain much physical and morphological evidence of its past organisation.

Apart from the need to produce in depth studies of these most frequent types of settlement pattern in the area, a comparative study was deemed worthwhile as it would allow an investigation of the relationship of these identified settlement types not just to each other, but also to the published historical record and the theories of landscape development in Pembrokeshire.

The study of the landscapes of early Dyfed and Pembrokeshire, like so many other historical or archaeological discourses, have tended to be ethnocentric with key changes being attributed to the replacement of population by conquest or migration. In Pembrokeshire, attention is drawn to the Irish and Norse activity of the ninth and tenth centuries, primarily from the documentation and the placenames, although undoubtedly the greatest emphasis in the historical account and subsequent landscape studies has been placed upon the supposed "large-scale" Anglo-Norman colonisation of the early 12th century.

The traditional model of settlement evolution proposed by Brian Howells (1955; 1956), for example, is one largely driven by these historical interpretations derived from the surviving documentation and place-names. He argues that the modern South Pembrokeshire landscape, in its structure and organisation, is largely post-1100, "stressing the significance of the 12th century as a formative period in the establishment of the Tudor and Stuart [and therefore modern] agrarian pattern" (1955, 331). This hypothesis of landscape change further stresses a military function behind many of the settlements supposedly created as part of the colonial strategy of the twelfth century Marcher Lordships, with Pembrokeshire specifically being seen as a frontier zone of almost constant warfare and social attrition between the native Welsh and the invading Anglo-Normans.

In this meta-narrative the first Norman settlements are argued to be military outposts placed at strategic points (such as Pembroke, Carew and Manorbier), but even this basic premise is problematic. It shows castles as primarily new military or strategic entities without considering the possibility that they may have been fundamentally social or political statements, and may have therefore directly superseded earlier defended elite structures. In such circumstances a new elite would perhaps be attempting to justify and strengthen its position by linking its own structures and institutions to those of its immediate predecessors. There is evidence to show that such reuse of an elite site actually occurred at Carew (Austin 1993, 7) and may also have happened at nearby Tenby and Pembroke.

As noted earlier, the dynamic for Howells, suggested remodelling of the landscape is the historically documented colonisation of the area, which includes

the Flemish settlement dated between 1107-1111 (Rowlands 1980, 147). It has been suggested that the primary sites of occupation were the hamlets or villages, with their associated strip or open field systems still visible in the morphologies of the fields to this day. Brian Howells has noted that some of these villages were accompanied by motte and bailey castles which he argues were built for defence. He further suggested that over 100 modern villages (such as Milton, Coshaston and Wiston) are such 12th century creations, principally on the basis of their Middle English place-names.

The further expansion of this settlement pattern is suggested in a third phase. Howells writes that "after the need for collective security necessitated by the alarms of the first few years of invasion and settlement had passed, the first several farmsteads were established consisting of compact areas of land held in return for military service" (1956, 35). To back up this hypothesis, Howells looks to the parish of Saint Florence. Here, he suggests that the village of St Florence was the original nucleated centre and that the four farmsteads of Flemington, Jordeston, Minerton and Tarr were the subsequent freehold developments (*ibid*). In actual fact, of these four modern farms, Flemington even appears to be the remnants of a shrunken village (Roberts 1987, 199-201).

Finally Howells argues that the last phase of landscape development may be noted from the 12th century onwards with some villages expanding and other new villages and settlements being created, due to social pressures such as population growth. In the parish of Manorbier, it is argued that Manorbier itself was the original Norman settlement whilst the villages of Jameston and Manorbier Newton were later secondary settlements. Howells (1956, 56) has also argued that "in Carew, the old village of Carew Cheriton around the parish church was left by a number of settlers who established a newton a mile away; it is noticeable that as late as the end of the sixteenth century the tenants of Carew Newton had a higher proportion of roughland than those of the old parochial centre. Here as elsewhere the primary settlement occupied the best site". Sadly, he gives no specific evidence to support this view; the sixteenth century document (PRO 2/206) to which he makes a reference shows that the parochial centre of Carew Cheriton had too few customary tenants (only two) to make such a comparison worthwhile.

Complexity in these proposed later stages of landscape development is stressed, with the possible break-up and amalgamation of holdings. It is suggested, however, that farmsteads were created in this period with assarts into as yet unused land. These are the modern farms in the less hospitable areas with greater degrees of wet land or furze; or which may be very irregular. It is unclear as yet, because of a lack of direct documentation, whether this hypothesis would identify the farm of Houghton as originally a 12th century freehold held by military service or a later assart into moorland.

The main problem with this hypothesis, is that the agenda of landscape studies in Pembrokeshire has been dictated by the surviving documentary evidence, and not by the landscape itself. Inherent within the historical research are assumptions about ethnicity, settlement type and settlement origin, that are not evident in the archaeological evidence. For a start, it assumes that the placenames relate to the origin of the settlements, and as so many of the names are Middle English it accepts, almost unconditionally, that the sites are 12th and 13th century Anglo-Norman creations. This is particularly so with the villages and their open field systems, which are assumed to be Anglo-Norman as they appear in the area of documented Anglo-Norman settlement.

But, as we noted in the 1992 CCAP Interim Report, it is necessary to demonstrate that such an hypothesis is based on "precious little evidence and rather more on hidden ethnic inferences about the nature of Englishness and



Anglo-Norman settlement in the landscapes of Pembrokeshire. There is a kind of trite equation in the scholarship between nucleation and the Anglo-Norman settlement and between place-names and origin which have no roots in the formal dating evidence, just a belief that the settlers brought the village and town as a template of community structure which they imposed on the Welsh" (Cole & Drew 1993, 30).

The equation of place-name etymology to settlement origin is particularly suspect as it takes a cultural signifier and gives it an ethnic meaning which it might not otherwise have had. Such ethnocentric assumptions largely ignore the fact that similar settlement forms are to be found in the lands to the north, which are not documented as experiencing the same colonisation.

Jonathan Kisson in his work on the origin of the village in South Wales has clearly demonstrated that village settlements are also not restricted to known Englishries or even the documented areas of settlement by non-Welsh speakers in South Wales, as might have been expected if villages were only there through plantation. He noted that "distribution corresponds to the physical, rather than to the post-conquest political geography of South Wales" demonstrating the "dominance of physical geography over political control" (1990, 53).

Indeed, there is a major paradox in Howells' work. He tends to define villages with evidence of open field systems in South Pembrokeshire as Anglo-Norman, and yet he is also happy stating unequivocally that open field farming was not just an Anglo-Norman or English tradition, accepting that it was also found in non-anglicised Wales. Rackham (1986, 178) demonstrates that such basic agricultural systems are found throughout Britain and large tracts of continental Europe. At the very least this shows that field systems cannot always be safely interpreted in cultural or ethnic terms, and therefore it may even be possible that the villages and the fields, as spatially organised to this day, could have been pre-Norman, or even post-medieval, developments in their basic structure.

Landscape studies elsewhere in Pembrokeshire are already beginning to test models built on the historical agenda. At Ambleston, for example, morphological studies have demonstrated an entrenched landscape of great time depth with at least two large pre-Norman co-axial or strip field systems, one of which may be linked to Iron Age enclosures and a girdle of farms around an open heath (Austin pers comm). Elsewhere in Britain and Ireland, it is possible to demonstrate co-axial field systems of prehistoric date, that bear striking comparisons to the co-axial systems in Pembrokeshire that have always been seen as Norman (Fleming 1987). Fleming has done a lot of work on the most famous prehistoric system, the reaves on Dartmoor, although he has also noted a large number of other such systems from as far apart as the Penwith peninsula in West Cornwall, Yorkshire and Western Ireland, describing them as "similar enough morphologically to be worth treating as a taxonomic group; arguably they form a more homogenous group than "hillforts", "megalithic tombs" or "henge monuments" (1987, 188).

Morphologically, these prehistoric systems are little different from those within our study area of South Pembrokeshire. It is often noted that the reaves on Dartmoor were first seen as medieval - "understandably as they demonstrate not the piecemeal and local enclosing of little fields but planned land division" (Fleming 1987, 188) and is it not pertinent to presume that if such broadly morphologically similar field systems survive on the moors, then why should not broadly similar patterns survive into the modern period in areas of lowland, where there might have been almost constant cultivation into the modern period?

It is vitally necessary to investigate whether the evidence of continuity as noted at Ambleston can be supported elsewhere in South Pembrokeshire. If it

can, models for landscape development, like that of Howells stressing proposed post-Norman reorganisation would have to be seriously questioned.

Admittedly, Brian Howells (1956, 31) does suggest that some Anglo-Norman villages may have actually been reworkings of earlier settlements and he does explore the issue of continuity elsewhere in his work. He suggests that churches with Celtic dedications may have been pre-Norman, although there is no surviving fabric and argues that they could be evidence of an "embryonic parochial system" (ibid, 2). He also notes a number of documentary references to estates and cultivation regimes in pre-Norman Pembrokeshire (ibid), and records that the Pembroke Lordship was largely co-extensive with the earlier cantref of Penfro (ibid, 5). Strangely however, he does not explore such continuity any deeper, preferring to see the organisation of the South Pembrokeshire landscape as essentially post-Norman.

I W Rowlands (1980) whilst working to the same established historical agenda has also written of accommodation and partial continuity discussing the initial survival of native land units like the cantrefs and commotes, for example. He makes a major distinction between the Welsh North and English South Pembrokeshire, arguing for continuity and indigenous development in the Welsh areas but seeing the south as a totally anglicised area, where the "vigorous and ruthless colonization of old and new, had insured the ubiquity of manor, English customary tenant, knight's fee and non-Celtic place-name" (1980, 156). Whilst qualifying the arguments in his article, which is based almost totally on the historical record, and in particular, his comments on possible Welsh continuity into the Norman period, he states "our ignorance as to their identity [the native Welsh], boundaries and, in many cases, their very existence before the Norman Conquest needs to be vigorously professed. This ignorance extends to much of the Welsh legacy to their Norman supplanters ... and any conclusions drawn from the Dyfed evidence are tentative and the illustrations highly selective" (ibid, 153-154).

There are two further suggestions as to the development of the modern Pembrokeshire landscape. First, there is the proposal which still sees the relationship between the villages and farms as an ethnic one, with the villages as later Anglo-Norman developments imposed onto an older dispersed Welsh landscape. Indeed, the original research design for the Carew Castle Archaeological Project referred to the landscape and all its constituent parts as "consistent *prima facie*, with an old-Welsh landscape overlain with Anglo-Norman and Flemish colonisation" (CCAP Research Design, 2). Criticism can be levelled at this suggestion as it also prefers to associate specific settlement types to different ethnic groups, and is especially dependent on the assumption that the village surrounded by open fields can only be Anglo-Norman or Flemish.

Secondly, there is the work of Jonathon Kisson. Whilst arguing for partial plantation of villages, he has suggested that the newcomers introduced a "landscape package" particularly associated with the new elite, which included castles, towns and latin monasteries, although already in evidence albeit in slightly different forms. This was in contrast to the continuity of the underlying landscape pattern perhaps reflected by the fields and holdings of the other social levels.

Subsequent research into landscape development in Pembrokeshire, will increasingly need to ascertain to what degree the modern landscape of South Pembrokeshire actually reflected that of the previous millenia. This is, at present, made problematic by the lack of authoritative evidence recovered from the Iron Age and Dark Age / Early Medieval periods where studies, by their very nature, have often been largely site specific. Less work has been done on the wider landscapes, although within Dyfed there is some fieldwork of direct relevance, as at Stackpole Warren (Benson 1990).



Emphasis must be placed on investigating what preceded the "so-called" Norman landscape in South Pembrokeshire. The possibility that the Norman and post-Norman settlements and field systems may have replicated the earlier organisation of pre-Norman Pembrokeshire must be tested further.

Following criticism of the traditional accounts of landscape change in Pembrokeshire, we could side-step the historically-based writings of the likes of Howells and Rowlands, and put forward another, but largely, speculative alternative model of large-scale continuity. Perhaps, the place-names so often used to argue ethnic change and therefore landscape change in Pembrokeshire can also be used to demonstrate limited degrees of continuity. Within the parish of Carew, four Welsh place-names survive to this day - Carew, Cardeeth, Landigwinnet and Kilfiggin (another name for Flemington Mill), whereas the English place-name Welston refers to a holding of Welsh people (Charles 1992, 476-83). Of the surviving Welsh names each refers to a site of some consequence - as well as Carew itself, Cardeeth contains the place-name element *caer* meaning 'fortification' whereas Landigwinnet contains the element *llan* meaning 'enclosure' (Charles 1992, 478-80).

As reported in the 1992 report, it is clear that the Norman castle at Carew was positioned on the site of an earlier earthwork with at least six ditches and ramparts (Austin 1993, 58-9). Likewise it has been suggested that the church at the local and elite religious centre of Carew Cheriton may be positioned on the earthworks of what may have been an earlier important site. The farm of Landigwinnet, for example, could easily be an actual reworking of a previous pre-Norman holding, whereas the place-name Kilfiggin survives at the site of a mill positioned at an important road junction (Cole and Drew 1992, 33-4). If this alternative model of replacement could be maintained, why should not Milton, for example, be on the site of the old Welsh Velindre, as the elite and important centres of the Welsh were themselves directly superceded and reused by the newcomers? Though at this stage only speculative, this model does allow for the possibility that the Normans were manipulators rather than innovators in the countryside of South Pembrokeshire.

It is hoped that the 1994 season of fieldwork will see the start of a reappraisal of the accepted notions of landscape studies in relation to South Pembrokeshire, exploring all the possibilities of how the Carew area may have developed - both inside and outside of the dominant historical agenda. The case for increased study of this landscape whilst, in particular, attempting to identify its pre-Norman form is compelling.

For the 1993 season, however, the approach was quite basic and split into two main sections; studies of the surviving cartography and a limited number of documents and a field survey programme of the two selected study areas. The preliminary work on the documentary evidence was strengthened by the survival of 18th century estate maps for both areas; a 1762 Bush Estate survey of Carew Newton and a 1751 Carew Estate survey of Houghton Farm, as well as the detailed 1592 written survey of the Carew Lordship which described both sites (PRO 2/260 fos. 30-40). The general field survey concentrated on the established techniques of traditional landscape archaeology such as field walking, boundary surveys and the occasional hachure survey.

One successful approach used was morphological comparisons between settlement and field systems. The aim was to produce possible typologies for settlements and field systems and then perhaps also possible chronologies of landscape development. It was accepted that it would not be possible to affix any absolute dates to such proposed chronologies from just the general field survey, and it was with this in mind that, for the first time this year, an element of trial

excavation was included within the landscape fieldwork programme. This, in particular, will be increased in the years to come.

## **B) Carew Newton**

In early 1993, a local Pembrokeshire newspaper carried a small article on Carew Newton. It stated that Carew Newton had hardly altered through recent years and claimed that a walk through the hamlet was like stepping back in time.

Such a romantic vision may satisfy many, particularly as the hamlet has had no large-scale housing developments unlike the nearby villages of Carew, Sageston and Milton, but all the surviving evidence points to a different scenario. In fact, Carew Newton has shrunk greatly over the last century. A number of buildings lie empty or derelict and some survive as little more than earthworks leaving the modern hamlet a shadow of its former self.

Carew Newton (fig.17) lies on a crossroads about a half kilometre to the north of the castle on the other side of the Carew River estuary and Mill Pond. The western arm is called Croft Lane leading towards the village of West Williamston and the southern, named Butts Lane leads down towards Newshipping and then Carew Bridge (fig.11). Both Butts Lane and the eastern road link up with the A4075 road heading for Haverfordwest. At present, the hamlet is concentrated around two working farms (Carew Newton Farm and Poplars Farm) to the north of the settlement, where there are also the remains of a third defunct farmstead. The field systems of these farms are still reminiscent of their use of open field farming, with the morphology of the modern field systems clearly demonstrating the former existence of strips. Indeed, the fields of the two modern farms are intermixed to this day.

The morphological layout of the modern hamlet shows a very regular crossroads, except to the north where the road follows the outer boundary of the derelict farmyard. It is possible that such a seemingly deliberate diversion of the road may imply the accommodation of something of antiquity in the area, perhaps the actual yard that today contains the derelict farmstead.

Study of the surviving 18th and 19th century cartography clearly demonstrates how the village had shrunk, losing the majority of its buildings and reordering itself around these two modern farms, although it does need to be emphasised that the earliest maps (ie. Bush estate map and tithe map) are both very problematic. Both these cartographic resources have a number of plots marked on the maps but with no actual buildings represented in those areas and yet the accompanying schedule records the existence of either a "house and garden" or a "cottage and garden" on each of them. The 1762 estate map, which is only a partial record of Carew Newton because it was primarily concerned with only recording the extent of Bush family holdings, is very inaccurate, poorly drawn and in places does not even resemble the topography it is meant to be representing. This 18th century map is a particularly poor piece of cartography, especially when compared to other estate maps of the same period for the Carew parish, which were generally of a very high standard. There was even one area of land to the north of Carew Newton which the map failed to record altogether.

Figure 11b: Carew Newton 1908

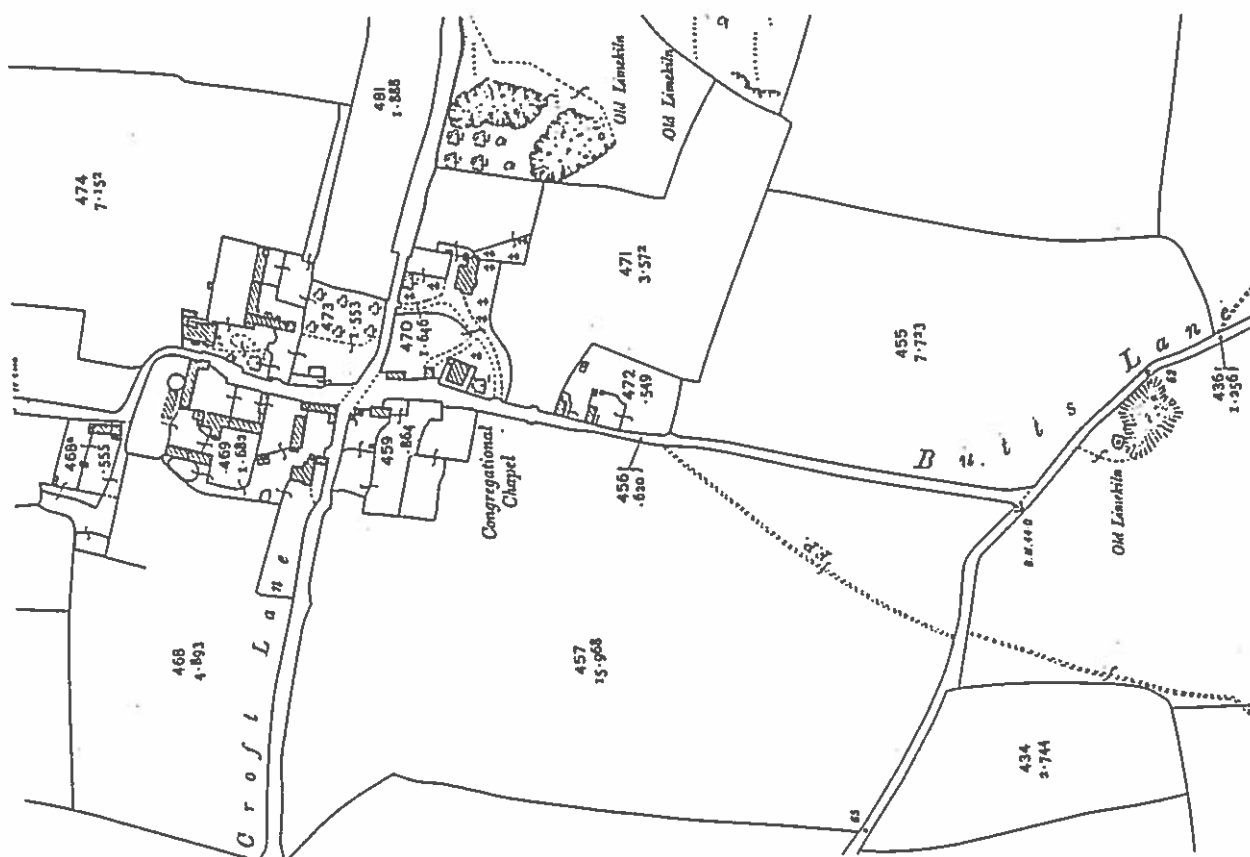
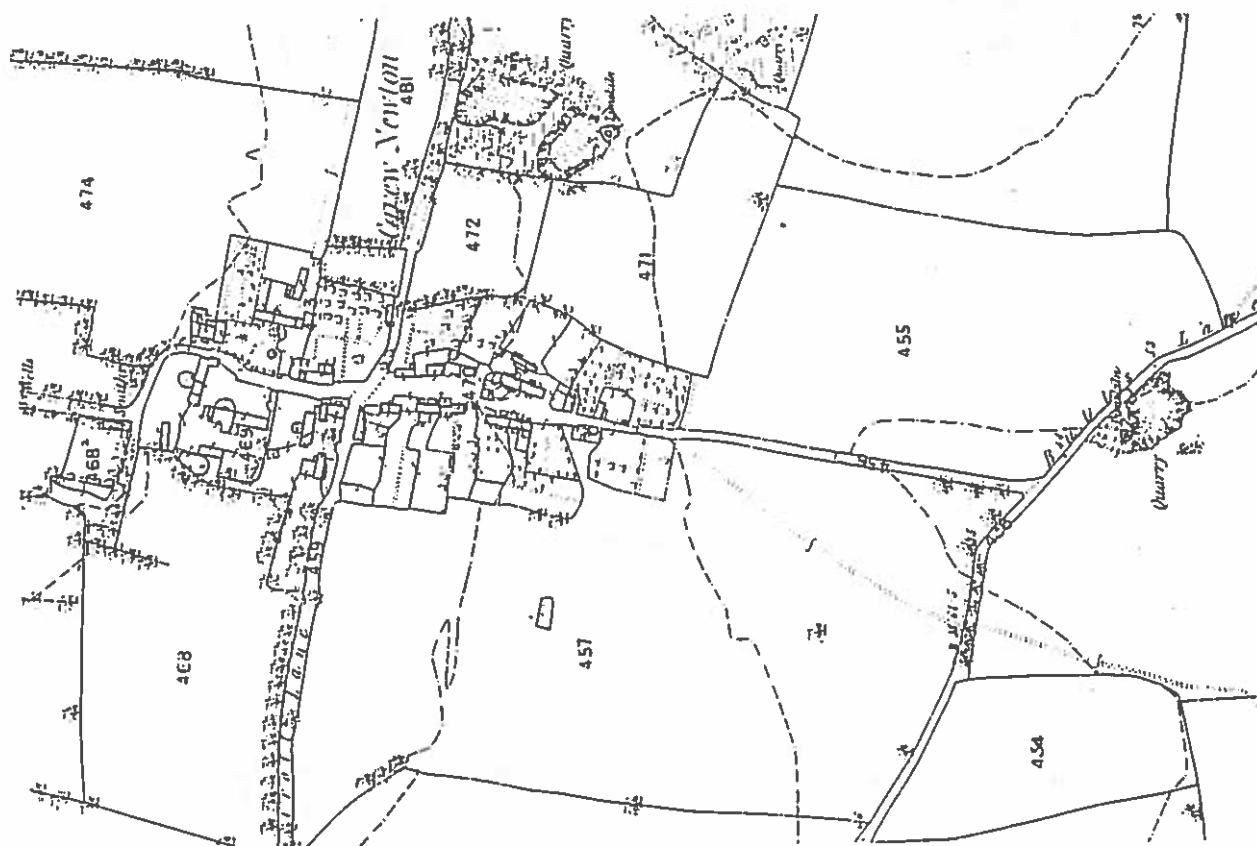
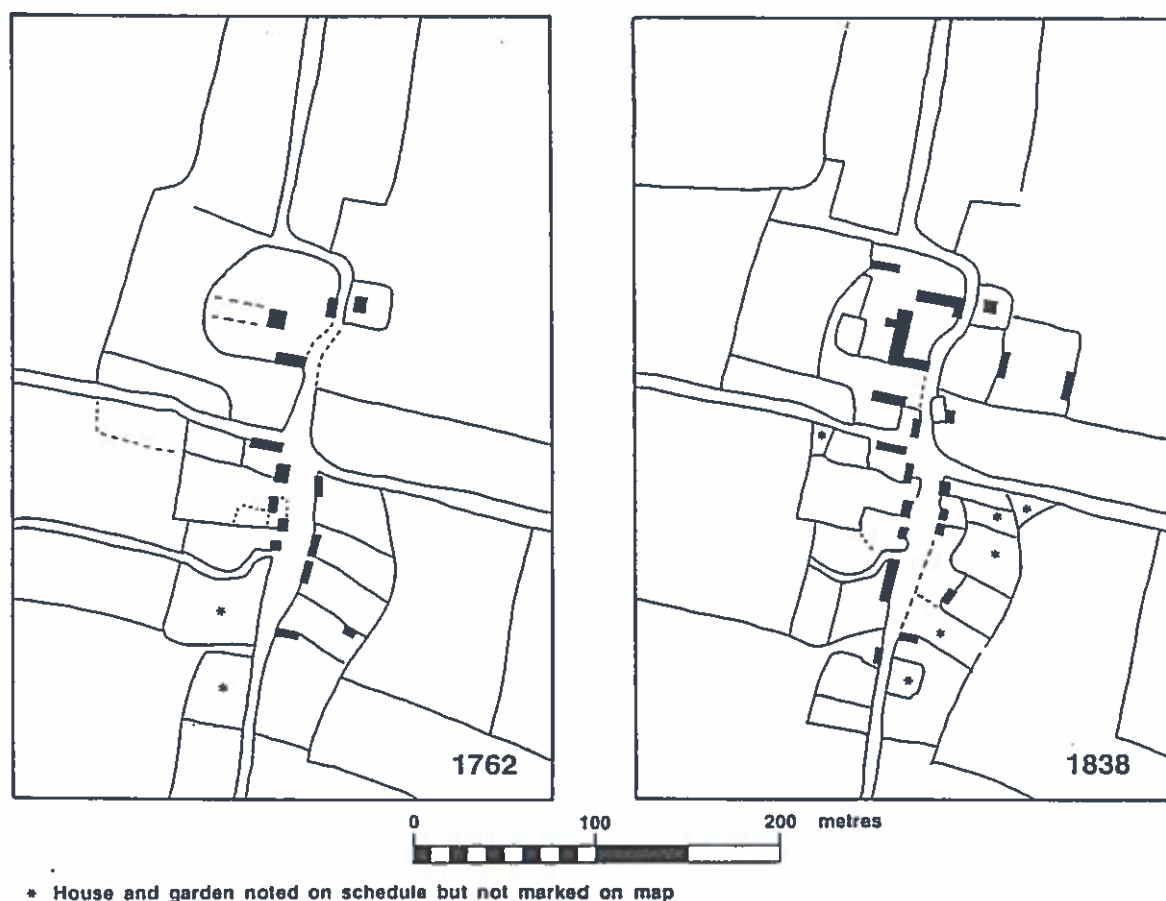


Figure 11a: Carew Newton 1863



The greatest difference between the hamlet as recorded in the early 20th century (1908) and in 1863 (figs. 11a & 11b), when the village was surveyed for the first Ordnance Survey 25in map, were the large number of buildings on both sides of Butts Lane in 1863, but which were to disappear by the turn of the century. Since then however, a small number of new structures have been added to the hamlet.

Spurrell noted that in 1857 a local clergyman, Vicar Lloyd, had recorded the presence of "several perfect Flemish medieval houses" in Carew Newton. Spurrell added, that 20 years later "a score of these houses were in ruins and later demolished" (Spurrell 1921, 57). There is no evidence to link this type of house to any Flemish building tradition, nor is there any direct material evidence as yet in the hamlet or the nearby villages to identify or date such structures as medieval. It is useful though, to have some evidence of the deliberate destruction of houses in the hamlet. Analysis of the cartography (figs. 12a & 12b) questions Spurrell's figure of 20 ruins, since there were only eight houses recorded on the 1863 O/S 25in. map but which did not appear on later maps. The tithe map suggests up to 13 houses that did not appear on twentieth century cartography, although it remains possible that some of these structures may have been in joint possession and therefore have more than one house under each roof, in certain cases.

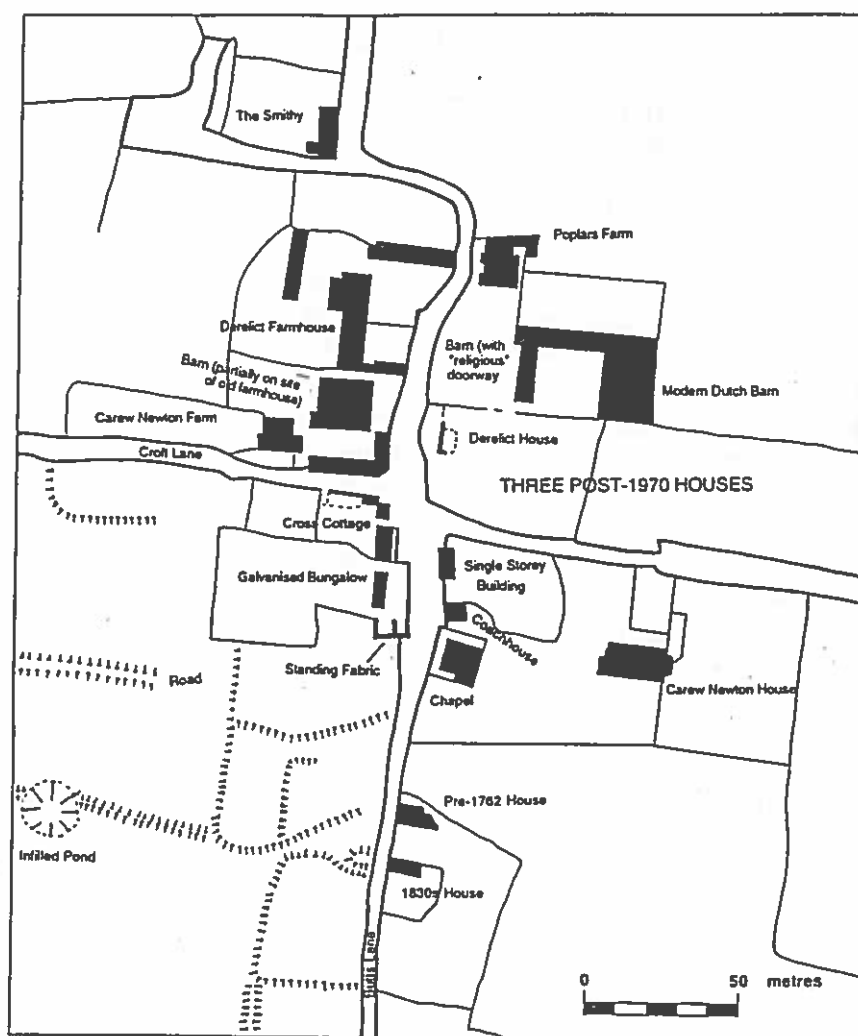


**Figure 12: Carew Newton - Reconstructed morphologies 1762 & 1838**  
(R. Cole & Q. Drew)

It is certainly clear that some of the buildings destroyed were only nineteenth century constructions. A lease of the Carew estate states that in 1829 John Harris had been given permission to "erect two good and substantial cottages or Dwelling houses each of them to be two stories in height with good stone walls and the walls to be twelve foot high from the ground floors and with timber of proper scantings slated roofs glazed windows and proper and suitable floors and doors and all aspects in a workmanlike and suitable manner" (D/CAR/62). The evidence of this lease does not tally with the cartography - in 1838 the tithe schedule records Harris's plot as just a single "cottage and garden" - the house was in disrepair by the turn of the century.

Also of interest is one block of buildings to the east of Butts Lane that is only recorded on the 1863 cartography, so it would appear that some of the buildings deliberately destroyed could not have been even 50 years old and were certainly not medieval.

The buildings and gardens, that once lay to the west of Butts Lane, survive as earthworks and platforms in the field now called Big Field (fig. 13).



**Figure 13: Carew Newton - present morphology (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

To the east of the road there are also surviving irregularities in the modern field surface but these are too indistinct to permit clear interpretation through survey alone. It is also interesting to note that similar evidence of destroyed structures should be present under the Zoar Congregational Chapel (fig. 13) to the east of Butts Lane and which was completed in 1865, according to its name plaque, immediately following some of the deliberate destruction noted by Spurrell, although not after a time gap of 20 years as he suggested. To the west of Butts Lane similar evidence lies below a twentieth century galvanised bungalow, while just to the south of this bungalow there are the remains of a single storey building (fig. 13) partially built into the stone wall that is the boundary for the top-half of Big Field and which flanks Butts Lane. This stone wall which clearly post-dates the destruction of the houses has to be given the provisional date of late 19th century / early 20th century.

The major feature of the modern settlement of Carew Newton is how few of the presently inhabited structures appear to be of any great antiquity. Analysis of the earliest surviving cartography, the problematic 1762 Bush Estate map, shows that only one structure can be safely documented as predating the map with any degree of confidence but which also remains occupied to this day. This house lies to the far south of the hamlet, (fig. 13) just north of another house which was first noted in 1838. James Rogers who worked the quarries at West Williamston was recorded as the occupier of the house on 1838 - he had been given permission by the Carew Estate to build it in 1829 (D/CAR/65). Both of these houses have been greatly extended in recent years.

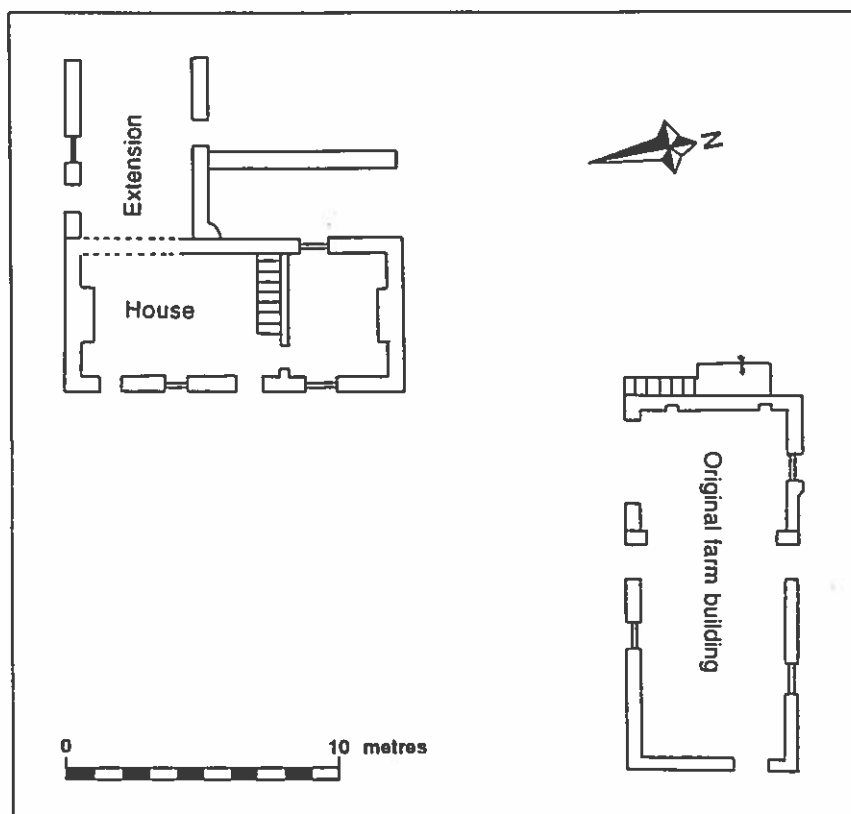
The farmhouse of Carew Newton Farm and the Smithy (fig. 13) to the north of the hamlet can both be dated as post-1838, appearing on the Ordnance Survey map in 1863 but not the tithe map. The farmhouse at Poplars Farm is known to be a 19th century construction (local farmer pers comm), but the 18th century cartography shows that this structure must have directly superceded an earlier building. Carew Newton House is first noted on the 1908 2nd edition Ordnance Survey 25 in. map.

A number of more modern buildings can be noted in the hamlet (fig. 13). The galvanised structure west of Butts Lane, can be dated to the early 20th century, and there are 3 new houses, to the south of Poplars Farm which have all been built in the last 20 years.

There are also a number of derelict or empty buildings, some of which clearly appear on the 1762 estate map. The derelict farmhouse opposite Poplars Farm is noted in 1762 (fig. 12a) and it is shown as linked to Poplars Farm, across the road. It records three buildings on the site of this old farmstead, two of which appear in the approximate positions of still-standing farm buildings. The accompanying schedule notes this area as containing "houses and gardens", so it must at least be considered that these farm buildings may have once been for human accommodation - although there is no physical evidence that they are anything other than farm buildings.

The derelict farmhouse (fig. 14a) can be noted as part of a common form of post-medieval house in South Pembrokeshire, based around a central stair passage similar to Class-T structures in England and I-houses in North America (Matthew Johnson pers. comm.). It is probable that this tradition can be dated to the seventeenth century in Wales (Smith 1988, 234-5), although it has been extended to the rear. The farm buildings all post-date the farmhouse, though the building to the north could be largely contemporary with the farmhouse. This two storey structure (fig. 14b) has also been greatly extended with a single storey to the east. Those out-buildings butted onto the farmhouse are obviously later, whereas



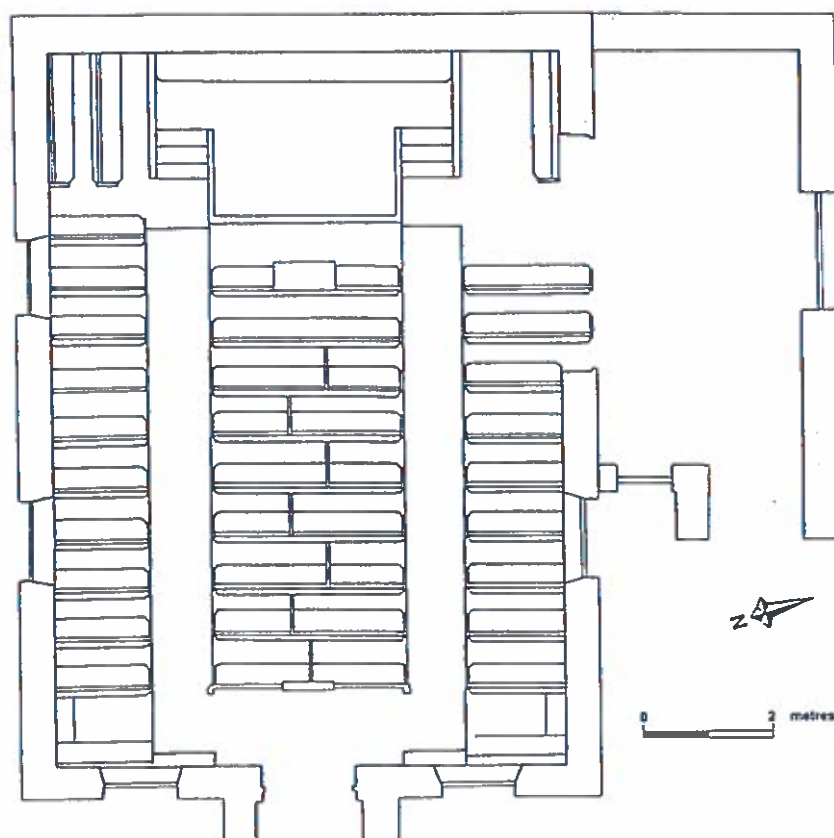


**Figure14: Carew Newton - Plan of Old Poplars Farm (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

the building to the west was built in two parts; the first prior to 1838 and an extension between 1838 and 1863.

It can be shown there was also an older farmhouse on Carew Newton Farm, but this has since disappeared underneath modern farm buildings (fig. 12). The farm does contain an out-building noted on the 1838 tithe map, although it has been greatly extended this century. To the north-east of the crossroads, a section of wall is all that remains of another building (fig. 12), but which was also first recorded on the tithe map. This house was out of use by the time of the 2nd edition Ordnance survey map in 1908. Both of these buildings may, of course, be considerably earlier than the first surviving cartographic reference of 1838 - in particular, they were not recorded on the 1762 Bush Estate map as neither plot formed part of the Bush holdings.

In the south-west corner of the crossroads there is a well preserved house known as Cross Cottage (fig. 13) in the position of a building marked on the 1762 estate map. Next to it, and also marked on the same estate map are the ruins of a single, long building. This long building, which survives well only in part, had a 19th century extension in the form of an outhouse or animal house as well as two later, presumably 20th century, sheds butted against it, one of which stored coal before falling into disuse. It is unclear whether the long building was for human habitation or an outhouse. Local tradition attests it was two or three cottages under a single roof but the 1762 map schedule records this area as a single "cottage and garden" although both buildings were illustrated on the cartography.



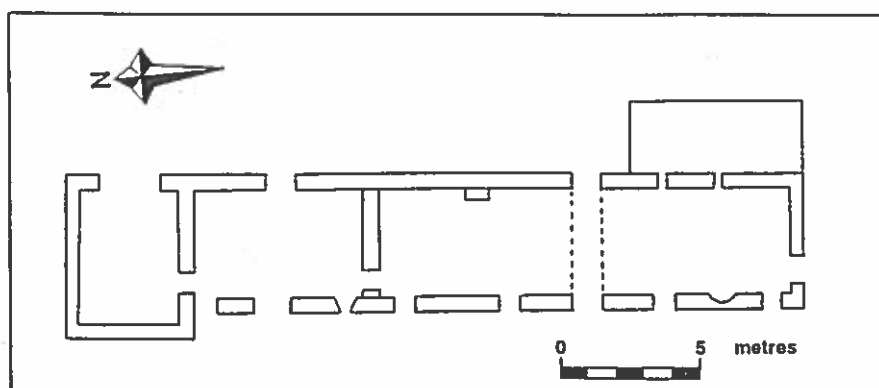
Plan of Zoar Congregational Chapel, interior  
(Built 1865; rebuilt 1912)

**Figure 15: Carew Newton - Plan of Zoar Congregational Chapel (Built 1865; rebuilt 1912) (Q. Drew)**

The non-residential structures also merit study. The Chapel (fig. 15), already noted as a late 19th century construction, lies beside two other structures that are clearly not houses. These are a two storey building, known locally as the Coachhouse and a single storeyed building, that local tradition attests was once the local school. One local inhabitant also said this building had been the Chapel before the construction of the present chapel. This building is a stable today. The 1762 estate map records a building on the site of the single storey structure, and it also records the presence of a number of other buildings in the general area of the Coachhouse, all of which no longer exist as standing structures. Interestingly, the schedule records all these structures to the east of Butts Lane as "houses and gardens," giving no suggestion of alternative uses for these buildings. It is also interesting to note that the 19th century cartography records a building on the exact spot of the Coachhouse, but which was approximately twice the size of the present structure.

The farm buildings (fig. 13) are also of great interest. Those noted in the yard of the derelict farmhouse opposite Poplars Farm and the building next to Cross Cottage have already been discussed as possible houses rather than farm buildings. Of particular note however, is the long barn at Poplars farm (fig. 16). This barn has an interesting arched doorway, that may be a religious statement, and it may be suggested that the barn served as an early non-conformist gathering place, as documented elsewhere in Wales (Austin pers. comm.).





**Figure 16: Carew Newton - Plan of long barn at Poplars Farm**

(R. Cole & Q. Drew)

As has been shown there are no physical remains in the hamlet itself that can be shown to be medieval or even date to the earliest recorded reference of 1476 (Charles 1992, 477). It may still be possible however, to propose that many of these later structures and their associated plots may have morphologically replicated the earlier spatial organisation of the settlement.

With this in mind two trial pits were dug during 1993 in Big Field at Carew Newton, which had earlier been surveyed (see fig.18). One pit was positioned amongst the area of the earthworks of the derelict buildings, opposite the Chapel, while the other sample pit was positioned to the rear of the associated garden area. The first pit was planned to catch the return of a section of wall preserved in the modern stone wall flanking the field. In the event, however, this expected section of wall did not materialise in the excavated area although we did discover sections of another wall and an associated flag stone floor surface. Interestingly, there was what appeared to be a further flag stone surface six inches below the surface of the first.

The second pit, to the rear of the garden area was free of features and just produced a large number of artefact finds. All the artefacts recovered from both pits were post-medieval in date, so could give no evidence to predate the documentation. It is clear though, that it is possible to demonstrate some degree of continued and repeated occupation on the same sites, with new structures directly replacing older buildings.

The first detailed written account of Carew Newton appears as part of the survey undertaken following the attainder of Sir John Perrot in 1592. This document records that the village included a single knights fee as well as 15 buildings and associated lands, which were held from the Carew Estate. These 15 buildings were all occupied by customary tenants and most of the tenants held arable as well as rough land. The document states:

*Newe Carewe*

Richard Bowen a howse and 17 acres of errable land, 8 acres of fursse and mountayne the old rent 22s. 6d. the new rent 45s.

John Woods for a howse, 13 acres of errable and 4 accres of mountayne ground the old rent 19s. 6d. the newe rent 46s. 8d.

Griffith Willm for a howse, 12 accres of errable and 8 accres of mountaine and fursse the owld rent 13s. 4d. the newe rent 26s. 8d.

John Androwe a howse 9 acres of errable and 9 accres of fursse and heathe 16s.

Owen Cooke for a howse 3 acres of errable land and 2 acres of mountayne ground owld rent 5s. 4d. newe rent 10s.

Thomas Gibbon a howse 18 acres of errable and 4 acres of fursse and heath the owld rent 29s. 9d. the newe rent 40s

Henry Sander for a house and 11 accres of errable and 5 acres of mountaine the owld rent 12s. 6d. the newe rent 20s.

Nicholas Julian a house, 20 accres of errable and 8 accres of mountaine the owld rent 22s. the newe rent 44s.

David Eynon a house, 4 acres of errable and 7 acres of fursse and heathe the owld rent 7s. the newe rent 14s.

Evan Hughe for a house and certen mountayne ground 7s.

John Turnor for a close called Hunger Park being 16 accres the owld rent 6s. 8d. the newe rent 13s. 4d.

Richard Soniake a howse, a garden and an accre of land late in the possession of Ellen Trewent 7s.

Mawd Grindam wydowe for tenement 7s.

Margarett Carver for a cottage 2s.

John Griffiths for a cottage 5s.

Thomas Gyllian for a howse and garden 7s. (PRO 2/260 fos. 37-37d)

It has been argued that such "typical villages" in South Pembrokeshire, often had tenements laid out according to the land measurement of the bovat, emphasising the "integrity of the bovat.....so far as tenemental structure is concerned" (Howells 1956, 92-9). This has been suggested by documentary analysis that this is the case within the hundred of Castlemartin at Lamphey in 1326, from the Black Book of St David's, and at the nucleations of Manorbier, Manorbier Newton and Jameston within the parish of Manorbier in 1609, with holdings seen to be originally based on part of, or one or more 12 customary acre bovates. It was even suggested that each bovat might have related to an individual strip and was therefore concurrent with the origins of field systems and settlements (Ibid).

It may be difficult to compare this evidence to Carew Newton as it lay outside the hundred of Caslemartin, within a different lordship and may also have used a different type of customary acre (Cole & Drew 1993, 43). But analysis of the above extract from the 1592 survey of Carew Newton, clearly shows that no such organisation based around the bovat can be suggested at Carew Newton, unless much decayed by land transfer or intake.

There is one major question that does need to be asked about this proposed regularity of division, however. If Carew Newton had indeed been laid out according to the bovat, as the historians might lead us to suggest, then how come other settlements such as Lamphey, or the nucleations within the parish of Manorbier, were able to maintain some resemblance of order in agricultural division into the post-medieval period whereas Carew Newton did not?

In total, 124 customary acres of arable land are recorded with 55 customary acres of rough land as linked to Carew Newton in 1592. But prior to the survey more land had been attached to the settlement, before being annexed by Sir John Perrot to form the demesne farm of Newshipping. 61 customary acres from the eastern side of what is now the modern Newshipping farm and the area north-west of Carew Bridge were taken, as were 9 acres in Carew Mountain (Cole 1993, 49-53). The attainder document records that the lands had been taken from the tenants John Androwe, Richard Bowen, Thomas Gibbon, John Griffith, Richard Matthews, Rees Phillips, Henry Saunders, Griffith Williams and John Woods

(PRO 2/260 f.34d). Of these only two were not tenants at Carew Newton (see above), though Rees Philip was a customary tenant at nearby Carew(ibid). No other mention was noted of Richard Matthews. It is also unclear whether the 40 acre messuage that became the core of the post-medieval farm of Newshipping had originally been part of Carew Newton.

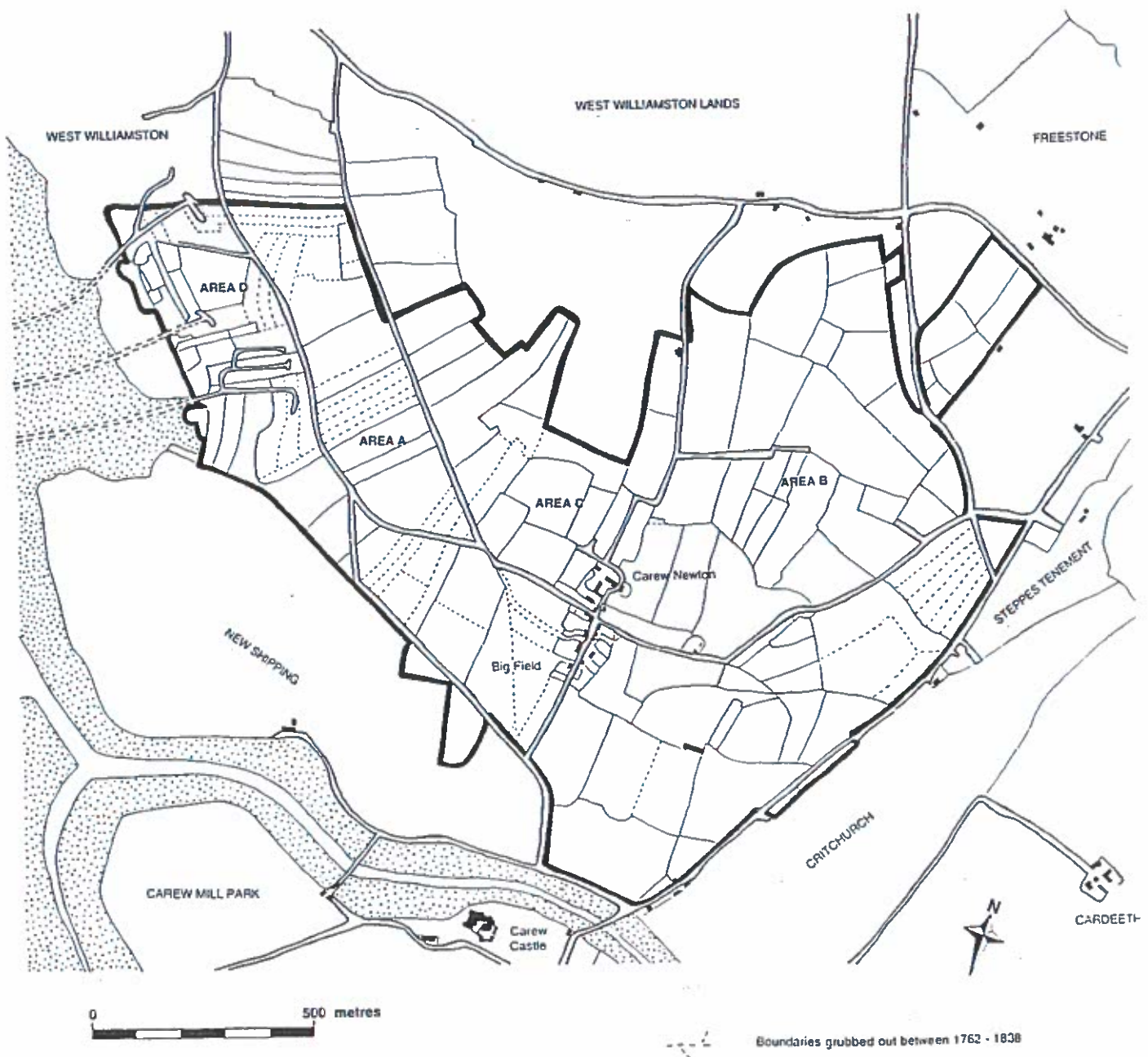
Being a written survey, the 1592 document does not specifically identify the geographical layout of lands linked to Carew Newton, although it seems probable the land farmed in 1592 largely resembled that of later periods. In 1762, Carew Newton was surveyed and recorded in measurements which were based upon a nine-and-a-half foot pole and therefore equal to 1.33 modern statute acres (Cole 1993, 43). It is possible that the same measurements were used in 1592. If so, the 249 customary acres would represent approximately 331 statute acres (or 285 statute acres if the lands still forming part of the modern New Shipping Farm are excluded). However, it is necessary to accept that we may not have included the extent of the single King's (or presumably knight's) fee noted in the 1592 survey, which might suggest the existence of a demesne farm. It is also unclear whether there were any other holdings in Carew Newton in 1592, but not recorded as they were not part of the Carew Estate.

By the 18th century the settlement was largely owned by 3 different estates. The estate map of 1762 from the Bush estate records approx 331 statute acres linked to the settlement which they controlled, and also shows the rough territorial extent of the other lands held by John Campbell, esq. or John Cuny, esq. The Carew estate retained just a single plot of land at Carew Newton.

The first complete documentary and cartographic record of the hamlet is the 1838 tithe map (fig. 17). The total area of land noted as linked to the hamlet at this stage was almost 419 statute acres, of which 263 were still part of the Bush estate. This is markedly less than the estate's holdings in 1762 when it was recorded as 331 acres. Slight changes in the scope of Bush Estate holdings can be noted by comparing the 1762 and 1838 cartography. For example, they did not hold the land at Whitehill in 1838, it had been sold to J. Harcourt Powell who also had much control over many of the lands previously held by messrs. Campbell and Cuny.

Therefore the surviving documentary evidence may be used to demonstrate a difference of 134 acres, between the extent of Carew Newton lands recorded in 1592 and those same lands recorded in 1838 (again New Shipping excluded). It is unclear as yet whether this difference in extent may be explained by Carew Newton holdings from other estates not recorded by the 1592 survey, poor surveying and measuring, or by later post-medieval assarts.

These actual field systems (fig. 17), under discussion, are obviously the modern product of an open field landscape, with the modern field boundaries fossilising the earlier spatial organisation of the open fields and its furlong divisions. It is important to note however, that evidence of open field farming in the late medieval or early modern period does not necessarily equate to the origins of the field system. Regular, elongated strip-shaped fields are most noticeable directly between Carew Newton and West Williamston, and for the most part running approximately north-east - south-west (area A). There are other areas associated with the settlement which exhibit more irregular field shape patterns, but which were clearly also organised in strips. These fields lie to the east and north-east of the settlement, although these field systems were also orientated roughly north-south (area B).



**Figure 17: Carew Newton - Plan of township 1762-1838**

(R. Cole & Q. Drew)

Indeed to this day, there remains a clear difference between the regular and the more irregular fields of Carew Newton, and this seems related to land quality. Those enclosures which are more irregular and lie to the north-east encompass land which is much poorer in quality when compared to the regular landscape to the south-west. Also, the regular fields are still today, those most likely to be ploughed and planted in arable. By contrast some of the more irregular fields although they have been improved this century are still rather wet, containing much furze and reed. It might be suggested that this distinction between good and poor land, may have related to distinct periods of initial cultivation, with the more fertile and regular fields the first to be brought into cultivation. It could be that this modern landscape, demonstrates the "arable" and "rough" land referred to on the 1592 survey document.

What is remarkable about both systems is their consistent orientation downslope. In two specific areas however, fields ran counter to that of the rest of the system. The first area is directly to the north of Carew Newton Farm (area C), and its east-west orientation suggested by the survival of ridge and furrow cultivation. Similarly, the 1762 estate map and the tithe map showed fields again running counter to the norm, to the north-west of New Shipping Farm (area D). It was also interesting to note that the original fields of the messuage that later became Newshipping farm also ran at a similar east-west orientation to the main portion of the field systems. Most of these fields have since disappeared under limestone quarries or been amalgamated into larger fields.

As yet, there is no definite idea why these two specific areas of cultivation should lie at a different orientation to the main tracts. In particular, the general topography of these two areas does not appear to have made such a move necessary. At least three suggestions are possible to explain this occurrence; perhaps the lands were originally distinct from the rest of Carew Newton lands and linked to another holding (ie; old New Shipping messuage) or perhaps these areas were first brought into cultivation at a different time to the rest of the field system. There is a third possibility however, which seems most likely. It is possible that the orientation of the field systems were turned at right angles to the main system as a later and internal rearrangement of the field system, a phenomenon well attested in the Midlands (Hall 1982, 41).

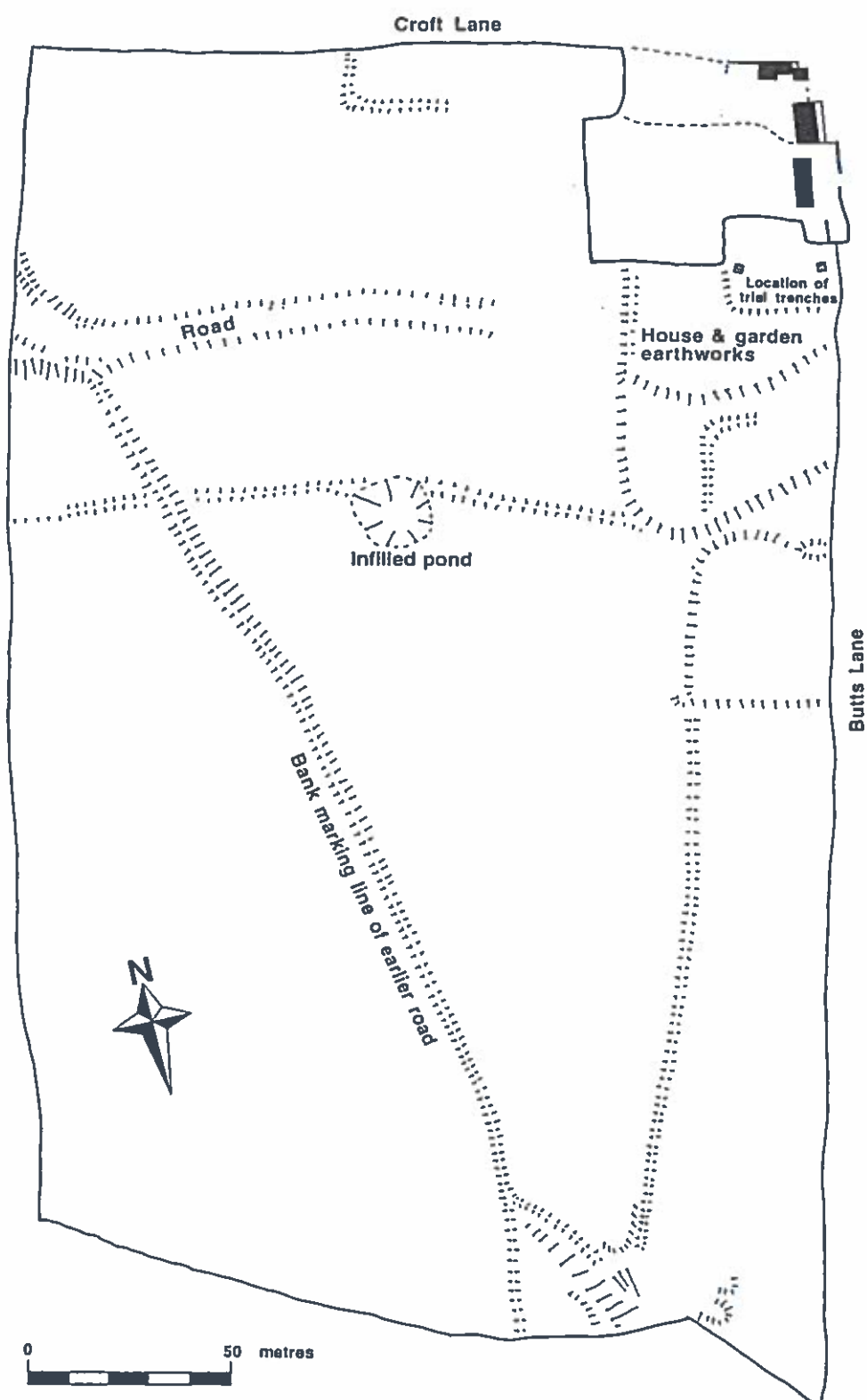
The consolidation of enclosures with the amalgamation of small stripped shaped fields into larger fields can be noted through field survey and a study of the cartography which shows numerous boundary banks have been grubbed out in the last 230 years, with much reworking of the landscape recorded especially between 1762 and 1838 (fig 17).

The earthen bank boundaries, the prominent local tradition, were replicating the earlier spatial division of the open field landscape, with the modern boundaries presumably overlying many of the earlier furlong divisions. It needs to be noted that presumably not all of the furlong divisions of the open fields would have been preserved in this way - as in 1592 survey of Carew Lordship noted intermixed strips within enclosures (Gray 1915, 175-6). The process of enclosure clearly seems to have allowed for a certain degree of accommodation between the tenants who were actually enclosing their own cultivation plots, hence the survival of the basic layout of the open field systems.

Some areas amongst the rougher land show evidence of defunct divisions, and a major fieldwork survey was necessary in Big Field to the south-west of the Carew Newton crossroads, which has not been ploughed in modern times. This field included evidence of old housing and associated gardens as earthwork features (see earlier), old field banks, a 19th / 20th century infilled pond as well as a disused road running parallel to Croft Lane (fig. 18), although the majority of the regular field systems to the west of Carew Newton do not retain much evidence of past cultivation regimes as deep modern ploughing has destroyed much of relevance. Some ridge and furrow does remain, most notably just to the north of Carew Newton Farm and within the holding of Newshipping. Some air photographs also show signs of ridge and furrow, in a number of fields, but this was not visible to fieldwork teams on the ground this summer.

If we return to the historians' fascination with the origins of such settlements and their open field systems, it is the morphological relationship between the fields and the interrelated road network which appears to be of most use. An understanding of the relationship between the roads and the field system is vital, when attempting to show how this pattern of land-use may have developed. At



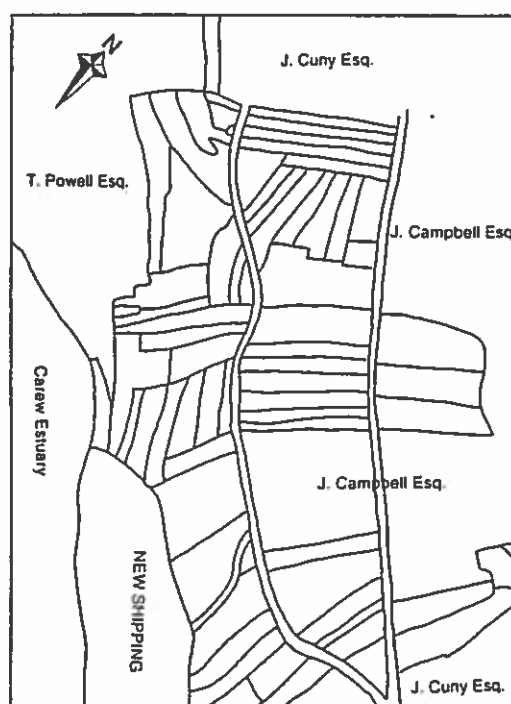


**Figure 18: Carew Newton - Survey of the earthworks in Big Field**  
(R. Cole & Q. Drew)



Carew Newton it appears that such comparisons may actually indicate a large amount of time-depth in this area.

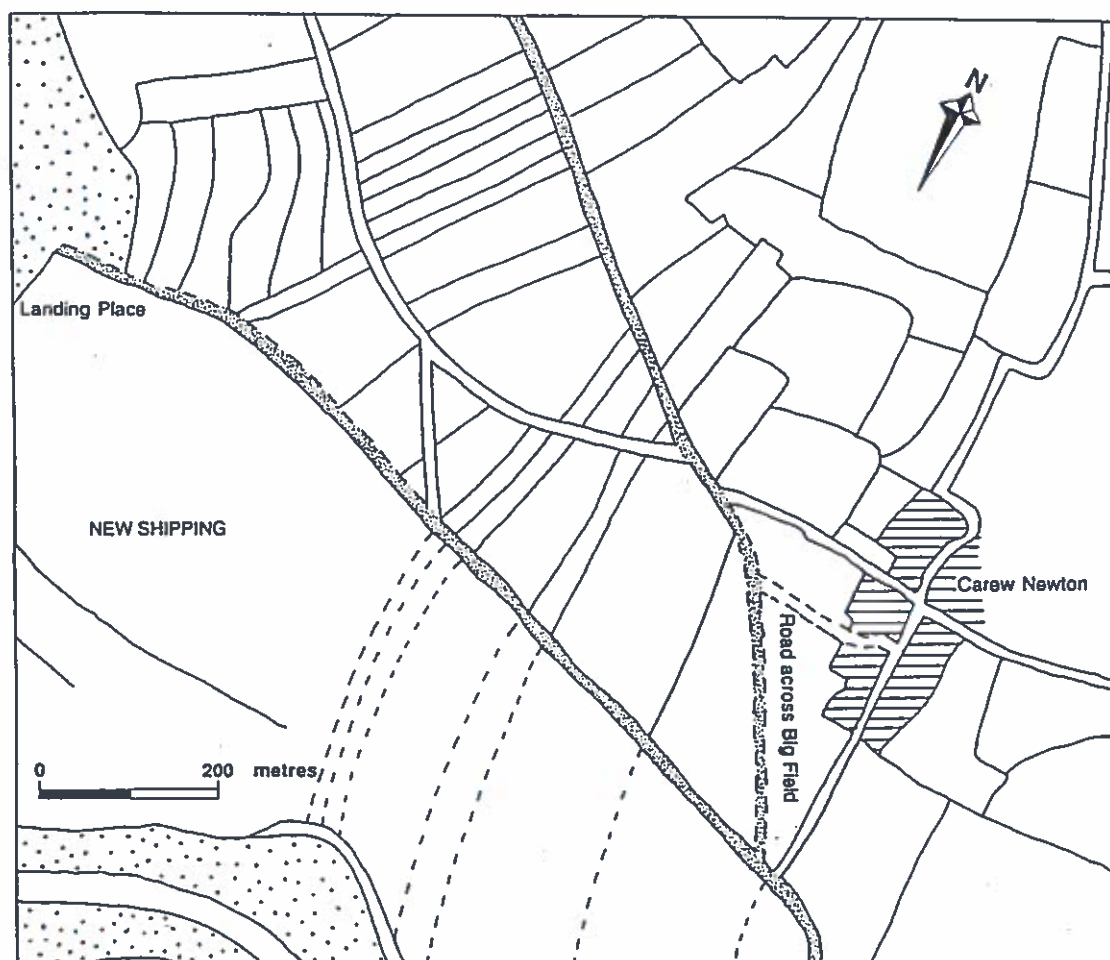
The regular and elongated pattern of the fields between Carew Newton and West Williamston has clearly been transected by some of the roads, proving them to post-date the field system. Lower Lane presents perhaps the best example of this, as the road clearly overlay a complex field pattern to the west of New Shipping - this is best preserved on the 1762 map (fig. 19) as most of these field boundaries do no longer exist. It is possible to suggest that the other roads were also impositions onto an already existing agricultural pattern, although this is much more difficult to prove. It is also difficult to understand the existence of the old road noted in the survey of Big Field, running parallel to Croft Lane (fig. 18). Likewise there is no evidence which of the two is earliest although both roadways were drawn on the 1762 Bush estate map and so were contemporary for at least a while.



**Figure 19: Carew Newton - Part of the 1762 Bush Estate map redrawn to show Lower Lane (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

The most illuminating feature of the Big Field survey was the existence of a considerable bank running diagonally across this field. It seems highly probable that this bank also marks the existence of an old road or trackway, and therefore links Higher Lane to the bottom of Butts Lane. Morphologically, such a road would predate the existence of all other roads in the general area of Carew Newton, with the possible exception of the road encircling New Shipping which once lead to a landing place in the estuary. And as this original road also by-passes the site of Carew Newton, it is obvious that this roadway predated the village (fig. 20).

As with Lower Lane, the section of this proposed road presently known as Upper Lane has strip-shaped fields lying at right angles to both sides of it. Of course, it remains possible that the field systems were simultaneously laid from either side of the road, but it is necessary to explore the possibility that, as with Lower Lane, the road was imposed upon an already existing field pattern. If such a scenario was thought likely, we would be in the intriguing position of having to



**Figure 20: Carew Newton: Contextualisation of the road across Big Field (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

consider the possibility that the hamlet of Carew Newton is actually later than the tract of fields now attached to it.

This is not to say however, that the roads post-dated the enclosure of this landscape, just that the spatial structure of the landscape was earlier than the roads. The enclosure of the fields, much of which might have taken place in the post-medieval period, would have then directly reflected and fossilised the spatial structure of the cultivation areas / fields as well as the edges of the roads. In such a case, the roads would have been laid down when the field systems still operated as open fields. The enclosure of this landscape would then have seen the modern boundaries replace or cover existing furlong divisions, replicating the field shapes as well as the roadways.

Such a proposal presupposes the existence of a relatively large and structured cultivation area of stripped fields, with the main part of the modern road network as later impositions. Although only speculation at this point, it does appear possible. In the nearby parish of Manorbier, continuous boundaries fossilising strips, whether of medieval or earlier date, continue for almost the entire length of the parish up to 1km in length, with roads also overlying the basic pattern (fig. 21).

Such basic ground patterns are also visible, very much nearer to Carew Newton. The two farms to the immediate east of the hamlet, Critchurch and Cardeeth, which appears to be an almost perfect example of a ring-fence farm at

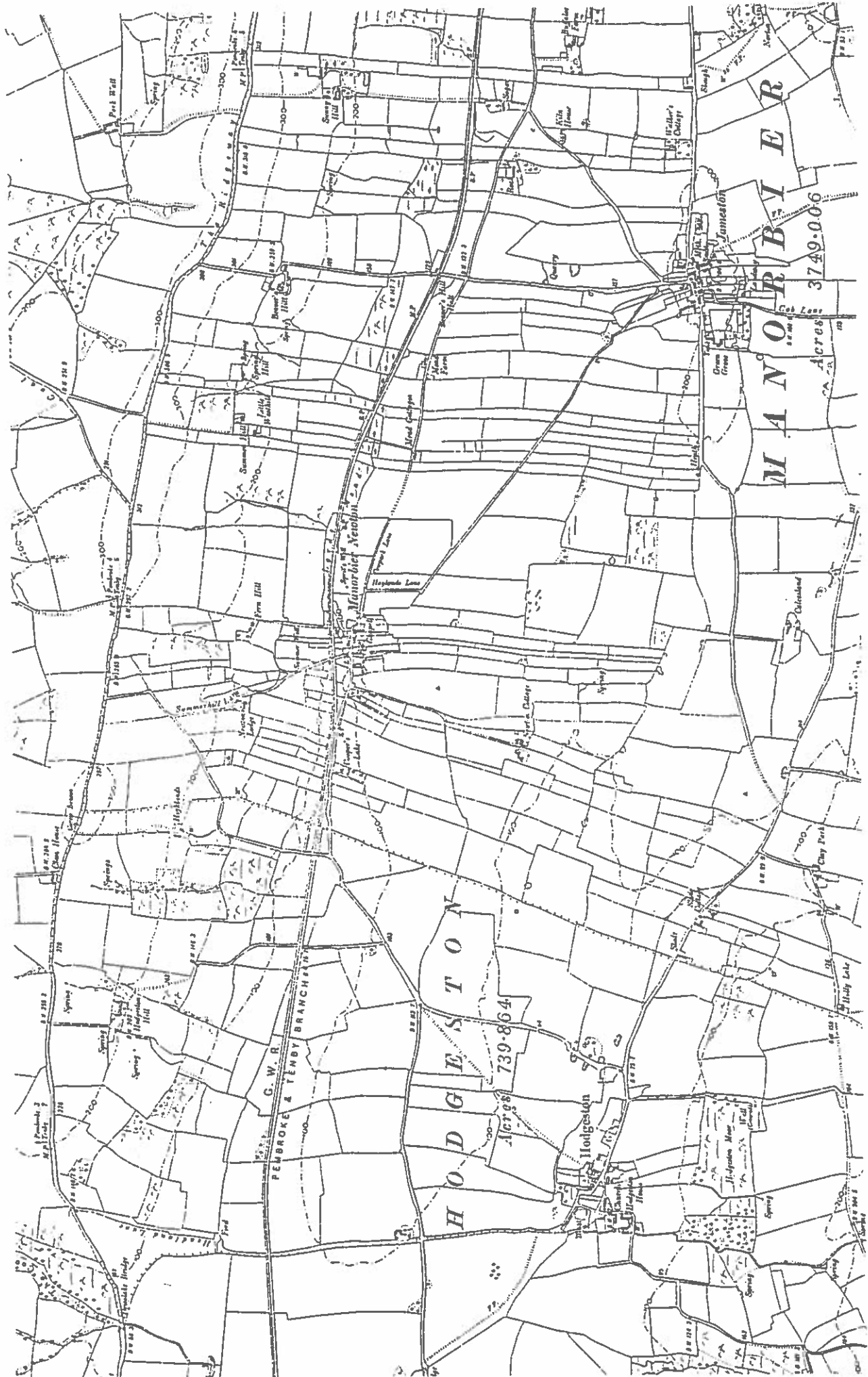


Figure 21: Co-axial field systems in Manorbier Newton and Jameston

first glance, are both recorded as still actually containing strip divisions in the 18th century. This is particularly clear from the morphology of Crickchurch, and appears most prominent for both farms on a Bush estate map of Critchurch from 1750. It is therefore possible to demonstrate the remains of open field farming present on, at least, 5 different settlements within the parish of Carew during the early modern period, and which are all lying adjacent to each other - stretching from West Williamston in the north through to Sageston/Pincheston in the east, and almost right up to the parish boundary with Redberth. Such field patterns were also visible around the nucleation of Redberth, which makes up the core of this small parish of the same name.

As noted earlier the suggestion that such stripped or co-axial field systems in Pembrokeshire are pre-Norman in date is therefore not ruled out by a consideration of the evidence at Carew Newton.

Also of note in any discussion of the road network, is the very entrenched nature of some of the roads particularly the top of Lower Lane, which is up to 1.5 metres below the level of the fields in one place. It is unclear whether such entrenchment can be equated to any sign of age, but such an entrenched, but now disused, road can also be noted between Carew Cheriton and the derelict Flemington Mill, which lies on the way to the other study site at Houghton Farm.

Within the field systems lying directly between Carew Newton and West Williamston there are seven enclosures, all of which are known by some variation upon the fieldname Yeoton. Charles (1992, 480) has interpreted the name as "Ewe Tun" meaning old holding. There is no evidence of any settlement or holding once distinct from Carew Newton in this area. There was a single ploughed field in the general area this summer, so a small fieldwalking exercise was undertaken, although all the finds have been provisionally dated as post-medieval.

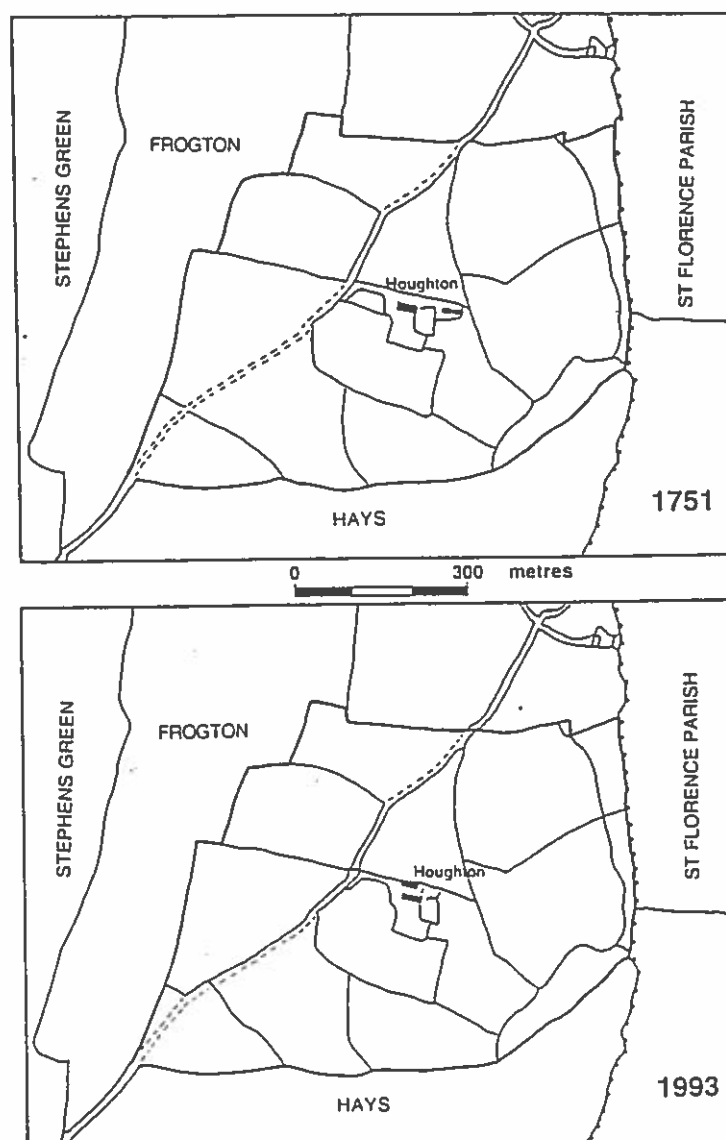
### **C) Houghton Farm**

Houghton Farm lies to the south of Carew Cheriton and Flemington Mill (1592 demesne) near similar consolidated or ring-fence farms such as Hays and Flemington (Austin 1993, fig 22).

The farm itself is a particularly compact holding of just over 90 acres, with the farmstead at the very centre of the holding. All the fields are pasture land at this time, with a large degree of rough land to the north of the farm and wooded copses to its fringes. Many of the fields are also very wet, due to the high number of springs on the farm. A certain amount of time depth may also be suggested, by the entrenched nature of this landscape with many of the farm's boundaries making use of natural features such as streams, wooded areas and low hollows.

From the surviving cartography it can be shown that the organisation of the holding has hardly changed in the last 250 years (fig.22). The only recorded differences in the farm between 1751 and today appears to be a couple of slight boundary shifts, although there was also the construction and decay of buildings within the actual farmstead.

The first documentary reference to Houghton is in 1382. Charles (1992, 478) explains the name as "Holt Farm" relating to the farm's situation on a hillside near a copse. The first descriptive mention is in the 1592 survey of the Carew estate, as a "tenement called Houulton conteigning 28 acres of errable and 30 acres of Roughe ground 51s. 9d." (PRO 2/260 f.38d). It was held at this time by a James Bull, a customary tenant who also occupied Frogland and Flemington Mill.



**Figure 22: Houghton - Comparison of morphologies of 1751 (from Carew Estate map) and 1993 (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

At the start of the 17th century we again encounter Houghton in the documentation, with the reorganisation of landholdings in the area following the attainder of Perrot, with the lands in royal hands. Spurrell summarised it thus:

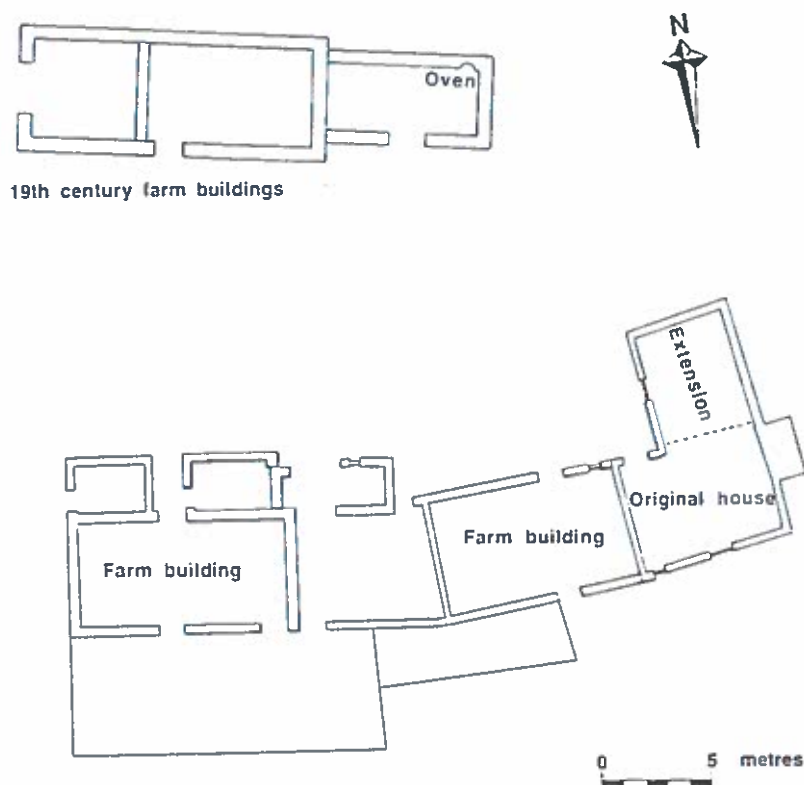
"On May 10, 1601, Queen Elizabeth granted a life lease of Houghton to John Grafton. On May 10 1602, Queen Elizabeth granted to Bridget Grafton, widow, and her two sons John and Rice on a fine of £12, the tenement of Houghton containing 34 acres of land and 34 acres "de la roughe grounde at an annual rent of 51s. 9d. In 1637 (Nov. 12) John Grafton surrendered his life lease of Houghton to George Carew ("to whom the remainder belongs") for £2,000 to be paid on May 6th next at or in the Church Porch at Carew." (Spurrell 1921)

The title for Houghton has remained with the Carew family ever since.

Comparison of the documented records of Houghton in 1592 and 1602 shows that the same rent is recorded (51s. 9d.) though different measurements of land are noted; 58 acres in 1592 and 68 acres in 1602. As the rent remained the same, it is probable that this recorded difference in the size of the land holding was due to inaccuracies in the process of measurement, rather than assarts in the last decade of the 16th century.

If we again assume that the acres were based upon a nine-and-a-half foot pole, the extent of the holding as recorded in 1602 would be just over 90 statute acres. This almost exactly tallies with the measurement, taken in a Carew Estate lease in 1789 (D/CAR/49) and 1838 (tithe), of 91 acres and 38 perches. The only possible conclusion must be that the territorial extent of Houghton Farm has altered little in the last 400 years, if not a long time before then.

The farmstead (Fig. 23) at the centre of the holding has a farmhouse which, similar to the derelict farmhouse at Carew Newton, was also originally based around a central stair passage and could therefore date to the seventeenth century. It also retains a traditional Welsh cylindrical chimney, one of very few still remaining in the area although this was originally a very common local tradition in Pembrokeshire (Smith 1988, 376-7) and therefore this house at Houghton may be one of the earliest surviving examples of this house type in the area. This house has been extended and the Carew Estate map of 1751, records the house complete with extension, as well as the core of the long farm building abutted onto the house.



**Figure 23: Houghton - farm buildings survey (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

The other surviving two-phase farm building, directly opposite the first, was essentially post-1838 in its construction, appearing on neither of the earliest maps. Within the original section of this building we have surviving evidence of ovens. To the west of the present farmyard there are the earthwork remains of two simple rectangular buildings. There is no evidence as to their function though they may



have been farm buildings / outhouses. These two structures were marked on both the 1751 estate map and the 1838 tithe map.

There are a number of smaller and more modern buildings around the farmstead, which include a Victorian privy and a derelict structure believed to be a pig sty. The original farm building has also been greatly altered with modern additions and alterations, and there is the metal skeleton of a disused Dutch barn which is prominent upon entrance to the yard.

To understand something of the antecedents of these buildings three 2 x 2 metre trial pits were dug. The first was positioned over a corner of one of the two derelict buildings to the east of the farmstead, which was clearly visible as an earthwork feature. Of the building, there were only six in situ stones remaining of the corner of its wall. Only 1 sherd of pottery was recovered and that was dated to the nineteenth century. The sandstone bedrock was very close to the surface and had actually been eroded so that its shape replicated the walls of the corner of the house. In the absence of any other material it might be best to interpret this structure as an animal house.

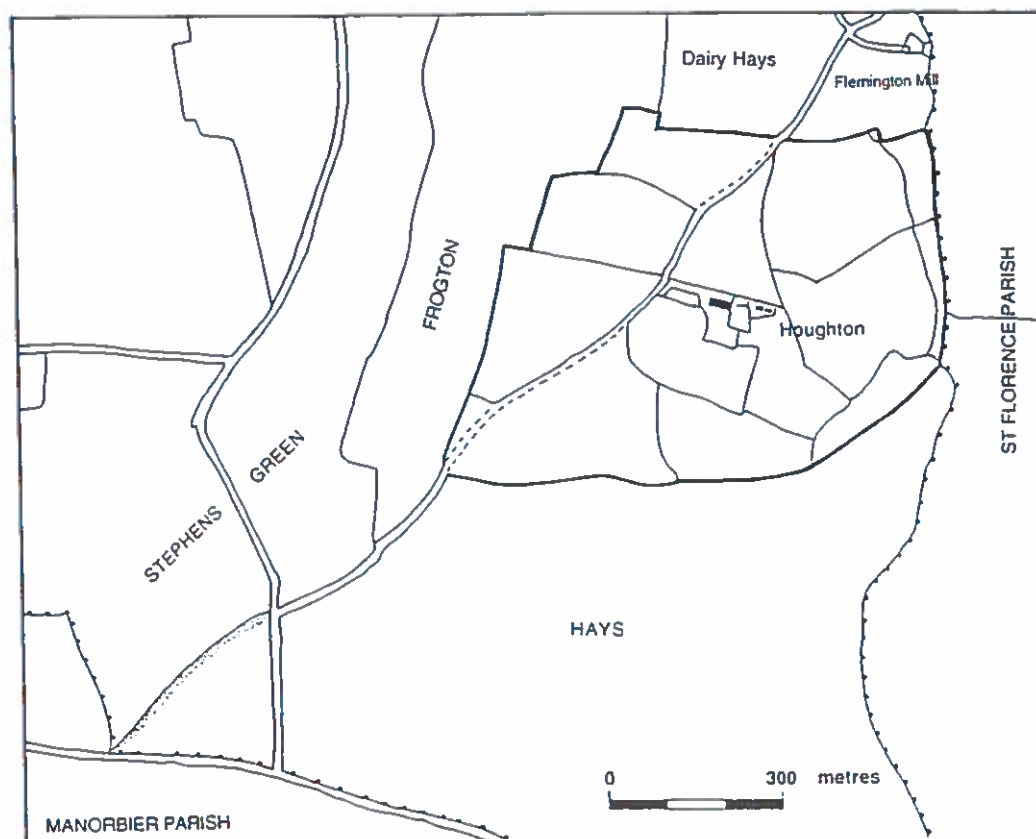
The two other pits were positioned much closer to the farmhouse, although in both cases the bedrock was again close to the surface. Modern debris and post-medieval pottery was found, and one of the pits was disturbed. So all in all, little was found to assist in an understanding of the development of Houghton Farm although the high nature of the bedrock particularly around the house has proved difficult to interpret.

To the south of the original farm building there are a number of unexplained earthworks, and it is not known whether they are essentially modern features or not. A slight mound in another field was identified as an old dung pile.

The farmstead lies upon a throughroad, which is no longer used except for access to the Houghton homestead. At present this road leading to Houghton from the south is no more than a track as it crosses two fields. It seems probable that the routeway was once more important than its present state might suggest. The road itself, continues past Houghton to the disused Flemington Mill, where it joins at a junction with other roads from Carew Cheriton (and therefore traffic from Carew), Flemington and possibly also Frogland (Cole & Drew 1993, 33).

Indeed, this proposed road through Houghton land is morphologically earlier than present road, called Stephen's Green road, which leads from the ancient trackway of Ridgeway to Milton. The proposed road clearly once continued straight to the Ridgeway and a surviving boundary still links the two today (see fig. 24). The modern road was therefore imposed on the landscape at a later date rediverting the end of the Houghton road, perhaps at the same time as the creation of the probably post-medieval holding of Stephen's Green. Such a state of affairs might suggest that the road past Houghton was the main roadway between Carew and the Ridgeway, in the late medieval and early modern periods.

Returning to the once focal Flemington Mill it appears that the milling complex was actually served with water collected on Houghton land. Two springs and a leat can be noted as feeding a holding tank or pond in the north-east corner of Pond Field. The water was then directed along another leat to the actual milling complex. As already noted the mill and the farm of Houghton were both holdings of the Carew estate, yet this obvious economic co-operation across the boundaries of distinct farm holdings does merit much further investigation. This may, of course, be integral to the importance of the mill to the local agricultural communities and especially the numerous tenants of the Carew estate.



**Figure 24: Houghton - Farm on tithe map (1838) with position of suggested road (stippled) (R. Cole & Q. Drew)**

#### **D) Conclusion**

The 1993 fieldwork programme has raised a number of important questions concerning the development of the landscape in the Carew area. Most obviously, it would appear to show that the possibility of continuity between the pre-Norman and post-Norman periods is compelling and demonstrates that the histories which see the 12th century as a watershed period are overly simplistic.

Problems have been encountered, both with the surviving material evidence and the methodologies used. Much of the evidence, particularly the standing buildings, has to be dated as post-medieval and likewise it is also difficult to affix any absolute dates to proposed chronologies of landscape development simply from the archaeological evidence, as at Carew Newton. Also the categorisation of settlements into simple typological groupings has proved inadequate, as in the case of Cardeeth. This farm which appears to be a ring-fence farm actually contained evidence of strip field divisions on an 18th century estate map.

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