Really Special

or

Very Ordinary?

The act of 'odd deposition' in rural settlements from the early medieval Low Lands coastal area and Anglo-Saxon England

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Front image: Bloodmoor Hill, find from SFB 35 (after Lucy *et al.* 2009, 97).

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Content

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Het ding is af – Herman Gorter

1. Introduction

1.1. Research context

Archaeology has focussed on the relationship between human behaviour and material culture from its start as a scientific discipline (Reid *et al.* 1974, 125). As archaeologists we reconstruct the past by analysing the material we have access to. The deposition of archaeological material occurred by several different behavioural processes, which give us a variety of archaeological contexts such as burials, middens and waste-fills in former ditches and pits.
Garrow describes how deposits may vary from randomly disposed, meaningless, rubbish assemblages to deposits with high social value, such as heirlooms or objects with other types of agency to the people. Also within the spectrum of the later category, significant differences can be recognised ranging from *'material culture pattering'* to *'odd deposits*' (Garrow 2012, 94).

The principles behind these categories can be simple. Most of the material we find during excavations fits into the category of "*random 'everyday' rubbish disposal*". This could be seen as depositions with no clear social meaning. We will observe later how this notion is not as straightforward as is stated here.
Close to this lies *'material culture patterning*'. This is where the first problems arise. *'Material culture patterning'* is the structured distribution of objects. This can both be random or based on social rules.
The third category is that of *'structured depositions'*. These deposits are observed less in excavations for several reasons. They have a high structural element which can be confused with *'material culture patterning'*. Isolated deposits on a site might also be confused with *'odd deposits'* while they are less special on a regional level.

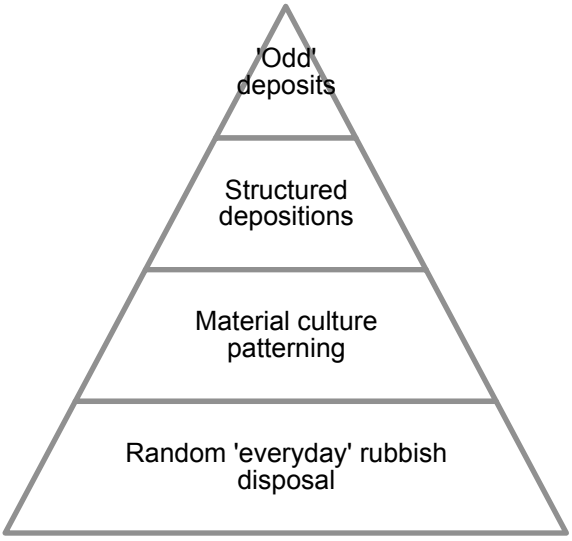

Figure 1.1: The imaginative 'iceberg' of deposition contexts (after Garrow 2012).

'*Odd deposits'* can be described as deposits that do not fit in other patterned forms of deposits. They are 'different', maybe even religious and/ or ritual, and hard to fit in any existing model of suspected human behaviour and/ or handling of items for everyday use. These deposits are the 'tip of the iceberg' of deposited archaeological material (fig. 1.1).
There is a thin line between 'structured' and 'odd deposits'. These terms are often used for the same types of contexts, as it is difficult to recognise religious aspects in rural contexts.
This thesis will try to create a clearer archaeological distinction between these two types of deposits.

Other terms that are used for *'odd deposits'* are for example *'special'* or the classic *'ritual'* (Brück 1999; Garrow 2012; Hamerow 2006, Hansen 2012; Richard and Thomas 1984; Thomas 2012, 125). Analysing *'odd deposits'* as a product of ritual behaviour has been the classic approach in prehistoric archaeology. Brück (1999) explains in her article on the use of the ritual-concept in British archaeology how tricky this concept is.
Archaeologists and anthropologists have been seeing ritual as a factor standing outside the social system of daily life for a long time. Anthropologists and archaeologists describe 'ritual' as being 'symbolic', 'non-practical', 'formal' and 'non-technical'. Ritual behaviour is described by scholars as "*highly formalised or structured modes of behaviour*" (Brück 1999b, 314-315). The approach to ritual contexts has been very theoretical, while rituals, such as that of *'odd deposits'*, are action-oriented practices (McGraw and Krátky 2017, 238). Archaeologists base the relationship between 'odd' contexts and ritual practices on these theoretical principles. One issue here is that properties that are 'typical' to ritual activity are also shared by several daily routines (Brück 1999b, 316; Insoll 2004, 11). The daily routine of food preparation is as structured as religious ritual routines. This ritual to non-ritual distinction is in fact not made by most pre-modern societiesl, as is made visible by anthropological studies (Brück 1999b 319-320). Such an anthropological example is the Marakwet study by Henrietta Moore. This study shows how the Marakwet people use a highly organised value system for their everyday waste disposal (Moore 1986, see chapter 2).

Archaeologists thus recognise ‘odd deposits’ as special because of their deviation from the norm. The context is unique at the site and there are few to no comparable examples from the surrounding area. ‘Odd deposits’ often are a bit strange to the modern observer.
The designations ‘odd’, ‘special’ and ‘ritual’ only capture single deposits, whilst small, structured, groups of material from an ‘everyday’ context can be meaningful as well. Archaeologists tend to have a black-and-white view on this. It is either really ‘special’ or really ‘normal’, while a holistic point of view would be more appropriate.
Deposition practices have been based on the same communal rules as everyday practices. The two spheres of ‘ritual’ and ‘non-ritual’ practice have the same basic social structure that connects them with each other (fig. 1.2) (Fontijn 2008, 88; Hill 1995, 112; Thomas 2012, 125). All of this makes *‘odd deposits’* part of both the irrational and rational aspect of daily life. There are examples from prehistoric settlements where *‘odd deposits’* mark the boundary between the settlement and the surrounding world (Brück 1999a, 152-153). Hamerow discovers how the same counts for Anglo-Saxon settlements, where she notices a direct association of ‘odd deposits’ with entrances and/or boundary systems (Hamerow 2006, 9-11). Such boundary can both be seen as physical and mental, and crossing it would not only involve a movement of the body, but also a movement in the state of mind.

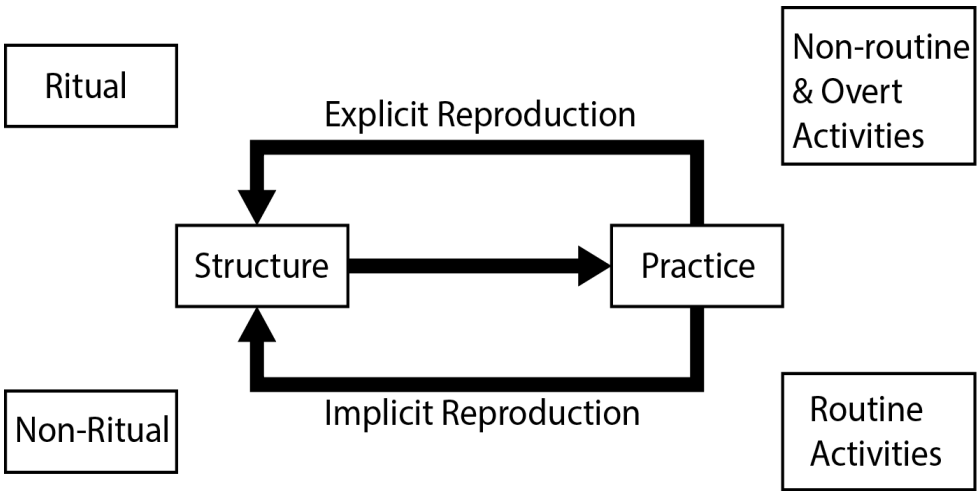

Figure 1.2: Diagram showing how ‘ritual’ and ‘everyday’ practices are connected by the same reproduction principles (after Hill 1995, 112).

This thesis focuses on these *'odd deposits'*. In this we follow Garrow's description of 'odd deposits': deposits that are clearly not the result of everyday repeated and routinely practice (Garrow 2012, 94-95). In contrast we add *'structured deposits'*. This type of deposits might not always show a highly religious/ritualized character, but they can be the product of structured and/or formalized behaviour.

Hamerow's article (see the historiography) is unfortunately one of the very few studies to 'odd' deposits in early medieval settlements. The limited amount of research is also visible through archaeological reports. 'Odd' deposits are hardly ever directly mentioned as a special site factor in grey literature, and especially not in the reports published before Hamerow's article.
This is not just because of the interpretation problems that Hamerow describes (Hamerow 2006, 2-3). It can be suggested that archaeologists tend to think too rational about early medieval symbolism. The early Middle Ages is a period we associate with the adaption of Christianity as a common widely shared religion and the first steps of working towards a modern society, a world that has moved away from such pagan practices such as the ritual deposition of objects. Certain pagan rituals are regarded to belong more specifically to prehistoric symbolism and are easier recognisable in that regard.

Another problem relates to the right terminology for 'odd' deposits. This introduction already mentions a variety of descriptions that can be applied to describe the seemingly inexplicable behaviour of people in the past. Even worse, every one of these descriptions can be interpreted in multiple ways. Archaeologists have made it unnecessarily complex for them to choose the most fitting label for a deposit. We should be going for the most fitting description for the process behind the deposition rather than just a label for the depositional context itself.

1.2. Research outline

This variety of terms and meanings makes it unnecessary complex to properly analyse 'odd' deposits. Add to this the approach of *'odd deposits*' as prehistoric, pagan practices and a complex research situation is created.
This is why the following question is the main research question of this thesis:

> "How should archaeologists approach 'odd' deposits in early medieval settlements? "

Multiple methods will be used to answer this question. One part of the question will be answered with archaeological and anthropological literature research. The historiography shows us there are more archaeological studies to prehistoric 'odd' deposit contexts as there are to early medieval contexts. This is why most archaeological concepts and theories in this thesis derive from research into prehistoric contexts. Other concepts and theories will derive from anthropological studies. Chapter three will describe these archaeological concepts and theories that will lead to answering the following sub-question:

> "Which archaeological theories can be applied to 'odd' deposits in the archaeological record?"

This thesis will compare 'odd' settlement deposits from two archaeological regions in Northwestern Europe: The Dutch and Belgian coastal area on the continent and a part of Anglo-Saxon England (see fig. 5.1; 6.1). There is a rising interest for the social and cultural aspect of the North Sea exchange network between these two regions (see for example Heidinga *et al.* 1975 and Davies 2010). There might be similarities between the two regions on a cosmological level which include *'odd deposits'*. A small sample from more inland case studies on the continent will be described as well to exclude any coincidences.
The analysis of these case studies will provide answers to the following sub-questions:

> "Which types of deposited objects can be recognised?"
> "Which types of locations were used for the 'odd deposition' of objects?"

> “Do object types differ between Dutch and Belgian coastal settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements?”
> “Do contextual specifics differ for places of ‘odd deposits’ between the Dutch and Belgian coastal settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements?

These case studies are described in chapter five to six and are analysed in chapters seven to eight. A clear overview will be created from this analysis. This will support a common purpose for this thesis: to create a holistic view on *‘odd deposits*’ in early medieval settlements. This hopefully makes it less complicated to analyse newly found *‘odd deposits’*.

2. The deposition practice in archaeological research: A historiography

This chapter gives a summary of previous work on the deposition ritual. Prehistoric scholars are one of the first who analysed archaeological 'odd deposits' in settlements and in their surrounding areas. This chapter will start with an overview of the prehistoric perspectives on these 'odd deposits'. This is followed by the perspectives of two scholars who focus on prehistoric 'odd' deposits in the province of Noord-Holland, the Netherlands. The last part will show the very few titles that discuss Early Medieval, pre-Christian, 'odd deposits' found in Anglo-Saxon settlements.

2.1. 'Odd deposits' from prehistoric contexts

English scholars start to analyse prehistoric 'odd deposits' by the end of the 1980's and beginning of the 1990's. One of the contexts they focused on are Middle Bronze Age (MBA) settlements (Brück 1999b, 328). A typical MBA settlement consists of several roundhouses, raised granaries (*spiekers*) and pits, and is surrounded by an enclosure ditch. A structured field system lies in the settlement's proximity. One household or extended family group occupied a single settlement. Most settlements do not show signs of long-term space structuring, which might indicate that settlements were abandoned after one generation (Brück 1999a, 146; 149; Brück 1999b, 323; 329).

'Odd deposits' in MBA settlements have mainly been recognized because they do not fit in the functionalistic models that archaeologists have been using to analyse these sites. The used models assume that MBA people also acknowledged depositional practices as abnormal (Brück 1999b, 328-329).

'Odd deposits' in MBA settlements include animal burials, (in-) complete vessels, bronze objects and (in-) complete querns in contexts such as angles or corners of settlement features, ditch terminals and pits, sometimes associated with roundhouses. All these types of deposits are processed with a similar care. It is suggested that the chosen location was as significant to the process as the object itself. The ends of enclosure ditches are 'popular' locations for MBA settlement depositions. MBA settlement entrances are already monumentalized locations in itself; they emphasise the movement between the settlement and the

'outside world' (Brück 1999a, 152-153; Brück 199b, 330-332). An 'odd' deposit at such a location empowers this process even more.
Hoards of metal objects outside the settlement are found at natural boundary marks, as for example in rivers, hilltops, passes, caves and marshlands (Arnoldussen and Fontijn 2006, 305; Yates and Bradley 2010, 3). These places not only mark a physical, natural boundary, but also the symbolical place where the life of certain objects ended (Fontijn 2008, 87-89). MBA deposits at these locations outside the settlement also show that there was a focus on 'places of transition'.
Fontijn notes how these locations were selected specifically for the deposition of metal. These places may have had a special significance which made them the focal point for a deposition. The suggestion can also be made that they were seen as transitional places to the 'outer' world (Fontijn 2008, 89; 98).

Brück suggests analysing deposition practices as if they are "*site maintenance practices*" which support the people's well-being as well as that of the settlement. In this view, the settlement and its inhabitants are each other's metaphorical representation. Deposition practices have their own place in the lifecycle of both the settlement and its inhabitants for instance at times of birth, marriage and death. An example is the deposition of objects in postholes during the construction, or 'birth', of the house. A deposition can also mark the end of a 'relationship' between a structure and its owner with the deposition of an object after a structure's demolishment (Brück 1999a, 152-154; Brück 1999b 333-335). These rituals, to mark death and ending, are not limited to the European Bronze Age. From Neolithic settlements in the Near East, for example, different types of death rituals are known that involve the demolishment of buildings, for instance caused by fire (Verhoeven 2010, 25; 30-31). Other archaeological and anthropological studies into the meaning of the house in pre-modern societies equally show that the house is a dynamic element that relates to the people's lives (Gerritsen 1999, 80-81). This dynamic element of house features will be discussed further in chapter three.

2.2. Prehistoric ‘odd deposits’ in Dutch coastal region

Marjolijn Kok describes prehistoric and Roman ‘odd deposits’ (2500 BC – AD 450) in the wetlands of North-Holland in her PhD-thesis (Kok 2008). She describes wetland offerings as the religious product of the interaction between human agents and *CPS-agents*, Culturally Postulated human Agents (Kok 2008, 19).

As with the British scholars, she recognizes an emphasis for (natural) border regions for the deposition of objects. Offerings occur at peat/ marsh lands on or next to the coastal barriers, on the edge of large peat areas, in creeks and on the borderzone of the Oer-IJ river. As the Oer-IJ became less active over time the offering sites move closer to its border zone. There is a preference for places with fresh water that have a bounded character (Kok 2008, 157). The emphasis for crop or plant offerings is remarkably. Not only the type of plant, but also its original ‘growing location’ can have had been important by the choice to use it for an offering. Some of these offerings are found within an inorganic container (Kok 2008, 166; 169). Other offerings contain the more ‘classic’ material like animal bones, human offerings, metal, imported goods and household objects. Over half of the offerings contain animal parts or articulated animal burials. Some of these are directly associated with north European mythology like horses, goats and wild boars. The offering of a human body did in most cases not take place directly after the moment of death (Kok 2008, 169-176).

The wetland offerings are not solitary situated. Offerings sites could lie in close proximity of occupation zones and activity areas. Kok describes examples of offerings sites close to a barrow, settlements and agricultural grounds. The offerings sometimes occur during or after these forms of activity, other offerings define the starting point of the activities (Kok 2008, 158-159).

The timespan in which an offering site is used differs from single events to repeated use of the location. An offering site can be used for several centuries (Kok 2008, 161-162).

Another scholar who focusses on prehistoric ‘odd deposits’ in the Dutch coastal region is Linda Therkorn.

Therkon mainly analyses house offerings in the province of North-Holland. She describes house offerings as the material product of past experiences linked with

future expectations. Construction offers are found at several differing sites, ranging from rural houses to churches, dikes and town defences, and occur at several differing moments in life, like construction, repairs and extensions or demolishment (Therkorn 1987, 107).
House offerings in North-Holland occur from the Bronze Age (BA). These are small deposits like ceramic cups in postholes. Other forms are deposits of crops and animal parts. Articulated animal burials also occur occasionally during the BA. Larger animal burials mostly occur at areas that are associated with labour areas that are situated at some distance of the house. House offerings occurred within the house or at boundaries associated with the house and its internal division (Therkorn 1987, 107-108; 110).
In her PhD-thesis, Therkorn recognises a pattern of single animal pit deposits in Roman Iron Age settlements in the Dutch province of North-Holland. She especially relates the deposition of feet and leg bones to foot symbolic and tree metaphors. It links settlement deposits to issues as fertility and earth-sky relations. Earth-sky relations are projected by structure patterns on the farmyard, which, in Therkorns view, project star constellations (Therkorn 2004, 1-2; 55; 59-60).

2.3. ‘Odd deposits’ in Anglo-Saxon studies

Research to ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval contexts is still very young and underexplored. An article by Helena Hamerow (2006) is one of the first studies focussing on ‘odd deposits’ in Anglo-Saxon settlements. She focuses on the problems of analysing special deposits in settlements. Most of these problems are methodological. An example are poorly recorded ‘odd deposits’ or deposits that are simply not identified as alien in regard of the larger context during excavations and which are therefore not treated as such during the post-excavation process. Another example is the isolate nature of most deposits, which make it hard to relate them to other, dateable, contexts. Other problems related to site specific circumstances, such as poor preservation of post-depositional processes make it hard to recognise *‘odd deposits’* in excavations (Hamerow 2006, 2). Hamerow mainly focuses on human and faunal bone material most of which are deposited in sunken-featured-buildings (SFB’s) and pits. There is no clear spatial patterning visible for ‘odd deposits’ based on the characteristics used by Hamerow. Still, some case studies show a direct association of *‘odd deposits’* with entrances and

boundaries (Hamerow 2006, 8-9; 12). Most ‘odd deposits’ are located on or just above the feature base. Another characteristic is that one-third of the settlement inhumations are formed by infants (Hamerow 2006, 12-13). Hamerow received several points of critique by Morris and Jervis (2011). One of them is that the term ‘special’ still suggests that a ‘normal’ and ‘ritual’ dichotomy regulates a society’s disposal system. Similar to prehistoric archaeologists, Morris and Jervis argue that cosmology and symbolism should be seen as integrated, active, aspects of daily life. They note that it is necessary to look at the specific explanation of the deposit’s creation process rather than just naming it ‘special’ and be done with it (Morris and Jervis 2011, 66; 70). Another point of critique is Hamerow’s narrowed description of deposits and deposition locations. Morris and Jervis argue that the compositions and contexts are more variable than the types Hamerow describes. Her research avoids classic waste locations like middens, while recent archaeological research starts to recognise exactly these locations as main foci for depositions (Morris and Jervis 2011, 67-69; 72). Sofield (2012), as Hamerow’s PhD-candidate, extended her research on settlement deposits. He recognises the early medieval period as a period of transformation where elites were formed and the conversion to Christianity started. Anglo-Saxon settlements transformed as well. They were build in transformed lay-outs and building techniques changed (Sofield 2012, 5-6). ‘Odd deposits’ could support the research to early medieval rural society and the symbolism part of its daily life (Sofield 2012, 8). Sofield names ‘odd deposits’ placed deposits, which suggests a form of structure and specially ‘placed’ objects (Sofield 2012, 18-19). This structure relates to social transformations within the settlement. He as well recognises the practicality of ‘odd deposits’ in the early medieval worldview (Sofield 2012, 225-227). Here ‘odd deposits’ are part of the settlements lifecycle.

3. Theoretical concepts

As the former two chapters show the concepts that are currently in use to describe 'odd deposits' are inconsistent and disagreeable. The situation is made, maybe unnecessary, complex. An explanation might be that one 'odd deposit' is not similar to another. A prehistoric metal hoard in the marshlands was regarded differently than an animal skull in the middle of a medieval farmyard. This is why this chapter discusses the concepts applicable to the 'odd deposits' central in this thesis: 'odd deposits' that are associated with early medieval settlements in North-Western Europe. These settlements are flexible in time and space as local religions are influenced by migrating groups, former inhabitants from the Roman period/ Roman Iron Age and the rise of Christianity.

This chapter will start with the discussion of the several ways 'odd deposits' can be interpreted: as an accidental loss, ritual deposition, sacrifice or 'organised' waste deposition.

The second part describes how people, animals and plants were valued in different manners during the early medieval period.

The third and fourth parts discuss the influence of historical and spatial context. How did Christianisation influence the deposition ritual? What is the role of location?

This chapter will probably not give one single solution for the 'odd deposition' concept. It will give a possible way of looking at 'odd depositions' found in early medieval settlements.

3.1. 'Odd deposits': accidental losses, ritual deposits, feastly sacrifice or waste?

It is easy to name a single item an *accidental loss* when you are standing in the clay on a rainy day with your Wellies on. This counts especially if a settlement is being dated to the historical period. An accidental loss implies that the item is literary lost by its former owner. There are on cultural, social or personal implications on why the item ended up at its find location. Placed deposits *"(...) Contain material that appears to have been deliberately 'placed' in the ground, in contrast with material deposited through loss or casual discard"* (Sofield 2015a, 111). Our description of 'odd deposits' can be equalized with Sofield's 'placed deposits'.

This means ‘odd deposits’ are no accidental loss by definition. They are intentionally placed in their find context.

‘Odd deposits’ can also be explained in the definition of *ritual deposition* or *sacrifice*. Ritual is a complex, variable concept. It is tended to be interpreted by our modern sense of religion, while ritual does not necessarily needs to equal religion. Ritual can be both religious and secular, as it varies between context. To understand the context is to understand the ritual that created it (Insoll 2004, 11-12). A religious ritual distinguishes itself from a ‘profane’ ritual as an act that is lead by *CPS-agents*, Culturally Postulated human Agents (Kok 2008, 19). The basic profane ritual reflects and legitimizes a society’s social order and structure in a non-religious, technical way (Swenson 2015, 331-332).
An example for a religious ritual is the act of making a sacrifice. A sacrifice can be seen as the ritualized slaughter to serve a ‘non-functional’ goal, like for divination or pleasing those from the ‘other world’. An example for a sacrifice might be a ritual feast, which includes the ritualized consumption and deposition of meat and animal bones (Sofield 2015a, 111-112). Ritual deposition and sacrifice are part of a reciprocity system between the human and the supernatural level. A system of ‘life-giving’ and ‘life-taking’ in which the deposition of ‘life-containing’ entities play their part as gifts to the supernatural (Huijbers 2008, 275-276).

‘Odd deposits’ as part of an organized *waste deposition* is a third possible interpretation. One title is cited in almost every paper written about the deposition ritual: the Marakwet study of Henrietta Moore (1996). Her study shows how waste deposition is highly organised in pre-modern society. The waste organisation of the Endo is related to a social system based on the roles of men and women. This system determines the position of compound elements (Moore 1996, 99-100; 103; 105).
Waste is divided in three categories: Ash, animal dung and chaff. These waste categories are disposed directly below the compound. The exact disposal location of these waste groups is based on the gender-bases social system and the relative position towards each other and other compound elements. ‘Male’ waste, like goat dung, lies close to male graves and other ‘male’ compound elements,

while ‘female’ waste, like chaff and ash, lie close to female graves and ‘female’ compound elements (Moore 1996, 109-110).
However, the compound’s layout is not static. The location of ‘male’ and ‘female’ elements are variable, which makes the burial location variable as well. The condition that men are buried with their wife on their left and close to ‘his’ house is more important than that a women lies close to ‘her’ house or the gender-related waste category (Moore 1996, 111-112).
The compound’s/ farmyard’s layout is related to the people’s own lifecycle. The construction of individual elements at the farmyard relate to several rite of passage as for example becoming of age, marriage or death.

The archaeological known farmyard equally have been perceived in both a temporal and spatial manner. Farmyards are constructed from scratch with an ideal climax stage: the temporal period in between involves the adding and removal of elements. The archaeological farmyard can both be seen as the ideal layout or practical effect of specific circumstances (Huijbers 2007, 263; 271). This is also visible in Moore’s study of the Marakwet, where the male perspective dominates the female perspectives.
Farmyard elements are part of the settlement’s perception schemes. Perception schemes relate to person-environment perceptions, gender perceptions and lifecycle perceptions (Huijbers 2007, 264-265).

‘Odd deposits’ are one of the elements on or near the enclosed farmyard. Their position is regulated by the settlement’s inhabitants perception schemes. This is similar to other, more secular, farmyard elements as houses and other buildings. ‘Odd deposits’ are, in this way, part of the schemes that regulate life on the farmyard, and were not necessarily perceived as ritual or extraordinary practices (Sofield 2015a, 11). Practices as ‘odd deposits’ might look special to us archaeologists because of our modern views on religion and cosmology, while the people that placed the deposits in the ground might not. To them the deposits are ‘just part of life’.

3.2. Value systems

The material used for ‘odd deposits’ was not chosen by randomness. Variable systems determined how people valued people, animals and plants. Value systems can explain why some species are more common in ‘odd deposits’ than others.

3.2.1. People

People in early medieval society can be valued in different ways, but it is difficult to find out how this value system worked in real life. Most studies to early medieval social statuses are based on cemetery evidence. This assumes that the status after death simulates the status during life. This is why the value system described here is only based on the status given by age and gender. Other status like the warrior-status are left out. These type of graves are often not found in settlements and therefore not relevant to the current’s thesis subject to ‘odd deposits’ in settlements. This part is based on research to Anglo-Saxon burial practices, as research to age and gender is more generalised for this region. The early medieval Low Lands burial practice might differ at some aspects.

Table 3.1:
Age groups as described by Stoodley (2000, 457)

Age	**Age group name**
0 – 1	Infant
1 – 7	Young child
7 – 15	Child
15 – 20	Youth
20 – 40	Adult
40+	Mature

Cemetery graves are mostly divided by age and gender (see table 3.1 for age categories)(Lee 2008, 25-27). In most cases, children were buried separate from older individuals. These graves have the lowest amount of grave goods. Most children between 0-5 have no grave goods or only one item. They stand at the beginning the life cycle and are depended on older relatives when wealth and status are concerned (Crawford 1999, 27-30; Lee 2008, 21). Children who do

have rich graves might mark the end of a chain of generations, like the last person who could have passed on the family's wealth did not survive (Lee 2008, 24). Infants under the age of 2 are sometimes hardly present at cemeteries. Only 3% of cemetery inhumations are infants. This is a low number when you consider that probably a larger number of children were stillborn or died within the first year (Crawford 1999, 75; Sofield 2015b, 354; Stoodley 2000, 458). This low number might be a problem of conservation, which means that the combination of shallow graves and fragile bones did simply not conserve. Another possibility includes that infants were not buried at all in cemeteries but in the domestic area instead or deposited in another way. Half of the infant graves in settlements are buried in or near the house on the family's farmyard. This could be a Roman inheritance or the product of believing that infant burials increased female fertility and strengthen a marriage. They also might have not been complete members of society yet (Lee 2008, 19; Sofield 2015b, 380; Squire 2014, 116-117; Stoodley 2000, 459). After the conversion to Christianity children acquired status after baptism, which meant unbaptised infants are excludes from churchyards (Lee 2008, 33).

Elderly people are at times and in certain regions buried as a separate group and with a lower amount of grave goods than adult individuals as well. They are sometimes found near or in combination with child burials. This custom continues on later churchyards where the old and sick are often placed with the young children (Lee 2008, 18; 27-31; 34-36; Stoodley 2000, 462-463). It seems they had a similar, independent age status as (young) children. Still, there was a difference during life at some time, as there are as yet no elderly inhumations found at settlement sites (Sofield 2015b, 363).

Adults and young adults or juveniles are more separated by gender. Female individuals in their fertile years are often buried with more fertility related grave goods and/or near the 'children-section', while male adults are more grouped together. Even within these gender clusters, individuals are spread based on age (Lee 2008, 21; 25-27). Young adults or juveniles between 12-18/20 might have been seen as marriageable but were probably not yet completely adult. They have less grave goods than adults in the 18-40 age group (Lee 2008, 23-24; Stoodley 2000, 461). This group might still be depended on the wealth of their parents and while adults above 20 have their own wealth.

Based on age the following value system for people in early medieval society could be generated (table 3.2). Infants beneath the age of 2 had the lowest value and might even not have been considered full persons. Infant burials are often not found at cemeteries and are often not furnished.
Children between ±2-±12 years old stand a little bit higher. These graves are also poorly furnished, but they are included within cemeteries more often. Elderly above the age of 40 can be found around the same value, but might be valued higher because of their life legacy. Still, they are found close to children and graves are poorly furnished.
Juveniles and young adults are fertile, marriageable individuals with a higher value than younger children, but they are still not fully adults. They have more grave goods than children but graves are still not as wealthy as older adults. This might be because they are not yet fully self-sufficient. Adult burials (age category 18/20-40) were richly furnished. This was a sign of the higher level of self-sufficiency and fertility of adults, who took care of the other members of society. Adult grave areas were ordered by gender the most compared to other groups, where fertile females lay close to children.

Table 3.2:
Value system of persons in Anglo-Saxon Britain

Age group	Description
Infants (<1)	In need of care from others. (almost) no gravegoods, sometimes not found in official cemeteries.
Children(>1 – 15)	In need of care from others. Poor graves, often buried in same areas.
Youth (15 – 20)	Fertile, but not yet self-sufficient. Moderate graves.
Adults (20 – 40)	Self-sufficient. Wealthy graves. Gender-based grave areas.
Elderly(40+) Sick people	In need of care from others. Poor graves, often buried in same areas.

3.2.2. Animals

Animal burials on cemetery sites, literary and iconographic evidence and historical sources show that animal species had variable social value in early medieval society as well (Prummel 2001, 74). Animal species can be divided in 'food animals', like cattle, sheep and pigs, and the species that were not consumed, like horses and dogs. The diet was completed by undomesticated animals like (shell)fish and different bird species like ducks, geese and swans (Prummel 2001, 74).

Animal parts were used for different type of purposes next to food consumption. Examples are protective amulets from animal teeth, found in graves (Prummel 2001, 76).

Early medieval cemeteries in Northern *Frisia* include the deposits of both consumed and non-consumed animals. This shows how animals played a role in burial rites. Consumed animals like cattle, sheep and pig were in most cases cremated together with the deceased in the form of complete carcases or as separate animal parts. Non-consumated animals like horses and dogs were mostly buried completely in or near to inhumation graves (Prummel 2001, 76-77). Most iconographic material depict birds of prey or ducks and geese. Other depict horses, lions and the imaginative dragons, which were symbols of status and power (Prummel 2001, 77-78).

Early medieval Laws in the *Lex Frisionum* and the Laws of the Salian Franks describe the exact value of different animal species. This does not only differ between separate species, but within one species as well. Both laws describe the different fines for the theft of for example a sow and a boar, or a lap dog and a watchdog. Horses, cattle and dogs had the highest (economic) value (Drew 1991, 65-67; 70-71; Prummel 2001, 79-80). The Laws of the Salian Franks even equalises the theft of a horse or mare with the theft of somebody else's slave (Drew 1991, 74-75).

Horses and dogs served a different role as non-consumed animals than cattle, which is visible in the funerary evidence mentioned earlier. Horses are most often mentioned as a species in early medieval literature like *Beowulf* and *Edda*. These often are war-horses and riding animals. In most cases, dogs from *Beowulf* and *Edda* are described as hunting animals. Other species like wolves, ravens and eagles were seen as bad omens. Regular livestock is mostly mentioned in an

economic way (Prummel 2001, 80-82). These literary sources mainly show us the values given to animals by the elite order. The social meaning common livestock species like cattle and sheep/goat to 'commoners' or farming part of society is hardly mentioned in medieval literature.
Horses stood close to aristocratic people, while cattle were the 'totem' of farmers. Cattle stables were in most cases incorporated within the farmhouse. Pigs, on the other hand, stayed further away from the house. This physical distance between the species relates to a mental distance between the people and the animal that is based on taboos of edibility and purity (Huijbers 2008, 313; 318). Animals from one enclosure had a different economic value than from another as well, even if they belong to the same species (Drew 1991, 65; 71)

Early medieval society made a distinction between consumed and non-consumed animal species. Both groups contain domesticated and wild species. The value of individual species is based on the species' role in society. Hunting animals, like hunting dogs and hawks, and (war)horses had an high status, while cattle had a high value for the secular part of society. They literally stood close to people with their location within the farmhouse, while pigs and sheep were locat-

Table 3.3:
Animal value system in the early medieval period

Consumed	Domesticated	Cattle
		Sheep
		Pig
		Chicken
	Wild	Birds (Anatidae family: ducks, geese etc.)
		(Shell)fish
		Sea mammals
		Oter wild animal (red deer etc.)
Non-consumed	Domesticated	Warhorse
		Draft horse
		Dog (lap/ hunting dog)
		Dog (Secular dogs, defenders of livestock
	Wild	Birds of prey (falcon, raven etc.)
		Wolf

ed further away. Table 3.3 shows an overview of the possible value system of animals in early medieval society.

3.2.3. Plants

It is harder to determine the social value of plants in early medieval Europe. We can think about a different value for grains and other crops compared to the value of herbal plants used in health care or trees used for fuel. A study from Kok shows two case studies where plants are used in ritual depositions. These depositions contain several types of plants and tree parts from both wild and domesticated, eatable, species (Kok 2008, 150-155). Plant-related activities on High Medieval farmyards show how plant species where processed at different locations on the farmyard. There is a distinction between grain, grass/ hay, garden vegetables and fruit/nuts. Grain had multiple purposes reaching from food to fuel, while vegetables, fruit and nuts only had a nutritious purpose (Huijbers 2008, 292-293). A concluding list with plant values will not be as complete as with those for people and animals. Still, we can start with a raw version (table 3.4).

Table 3.4:
Possible plant/ tree value system in the early medieval period.

Place	Type
1	Domesticated eatable crops and vegetables
2	Wild eatable plants, fruits and nuts
3	Animal food (grass/ hay etc.)
4	Trees and other plants used as fuel, building material or other non-food related purposes.
5	Other (non-eatable) plant and tree species

3.3. Historical context: a religious change

How is the ‘odd deposit’ ritual influenced by the conversion to Christianity in the early medieval period? One of the reasons ‘odd deposits’ from the Early Middle Ages are under lighted in archaeological research is because of the assumption Christianity removed pagan ritual from society.

Germanic religion reflected the way society was organised: relatively focussed on the local needs. There were no large religious centres, and rituals focussed on the local agricultural necessities (Griffiths 1996, 12).
The conversion to Christianity is accompanied by the emergence of centralised elite, or 'kings'. The elite played a major role in the conversion to the new religion: they centralised Christian rituals in the way former pagan rituals were carried out and replaced pagan cult centres by new churches (Griffiths 1996, 16; 20-21). It was a steady process in which the localised Germanic beliefs were replaced by the more centralised Christian belief system. Local pagan ritual was Christianised and local needs were transformed to communal needs. Good harvest became a gift from God, instead of the ancestors. Ancestor relations however remained important for a long period (Griffiths 1996, 22; 27; Jolly 1985, 284).

'Odd deposits' are seen as a ritual in former pagan folklore, but examples show that this ritual was Christianised as much as other rituals. Large pagan animal sacrifices were diverted into Christian feasting festivals (Sofield 2015a, 112). Other examples are founding deposits at church sites. Horse skull deposits are found beneath several thresholds at Anglo-Saxon church sites, as well as stove carvings next to altars (Sofield 2015a, 115-116). A ploughshare was deposited near an 8^{th} - 9^{th} century mortuary chapel at Flixborough, England. Examples from France include the deposit of coins inside an early chapel and the deposit of an iron ploughshare under a chapel porch. The deposition of ploughshares was a frequent practice in early medieval Western Europe (Loveluck 2013, 44-45).

Powers previously assigned to ancestors and gods were now seen as an expression of the new Christian God. As creator, God became part of the known natural order, showing his power through miracles. Miracles stood against pagan magic. They appeared to be similar, only miracles were assigned to God while magic came from sorcerers. Charms stood close to magic, with the difference that they were seen as a Christian ritual, not pagan (Jolly 1985, 279; 281-282; 284). The cycles of food production were diverted to sustain the system of the Christian church (Prummel 2001, 80).

Pagan folklore still played a major role in early Christianity. The diversion of pagan rituals to Christian ritual in the form of charms and feasts probably is the reason why society adopted the new religion. It slowly became part of society with a new established Christian and royal elite. 'Odd deposits' certainly stayed a part of local rituals during the early days of Christianity in Western Europe.

3.4. The role of contexts: liminality

Part of the story of an 'odd deposit' can be told by analysing the deposit's context. The former chapter describes how prehistoric deposits are mostly deposited at liminal locations. Contexts in settlements include ditches and pits close to physical settlement or farmyard boundaries (see chapter 2).

The same situation seems to count for early medieval 'odd deposits'. Sofield (2015a) recognises a similar preference for liminal contexts in Anglo-Saxon settlements. Not only liminal in space, but also liminal in time. 'Odd deposits' are deposited in or next to settlement features at moments of construction, modification and/or demolition. The deposits are part of the *rite de passages* that are involved with the lifecycle of a settlement, like the renewal of a ditch or the closing down of a pit (Sofield 2015a, 114; Sofield 2015b, 382). Inhumations are one type of 'odd deposits' found in association with features like pits and ditches, others are found in the final backfill of features. The associated features are part of spatial boundaries of individual farmyards and the settlement. Others lay at routes crossing the settlement (Sofield 2015b, 356; 362; 371). Fully fleshed heads of cows and horses are found in Anglo-Saxon pits that were long-lived. The deposit is part of the biography of the pit. This biography ends with a communal demolition of the feature as temporal 'threshold' (Sofield 2017, 202-203).

The model below is developed by Roymans (1995). This model describes the dualistic worldview existing in the Late Medieval period. It shows Christian vs non-Christian zones, or the inner domestic ring vs the outer peripheral ring (Huijbers 2008, 283; Roymans 1995, 18-19). This is not just in space, but also in time. The model is based on late medieval and early modern folklores, but is also applicable to the early medieval situation. It describes the division between two worlds: the safe domestic area of the farmyard and its human and faunal inhabitants compared to the mystic, undomesticated world that surrounds them (fig. 3.1).

Entrances were important both in structure and symbol. Enclosure entrances could be elaborate structures in the settlement. Entrances of buildings played a role in controlling the access to the spaces of the building (Sofield 2017, 195). Deposits in and close to entrances were part of controlling both the physical and mental access to features. The burials of (sick) animals on boundary locations

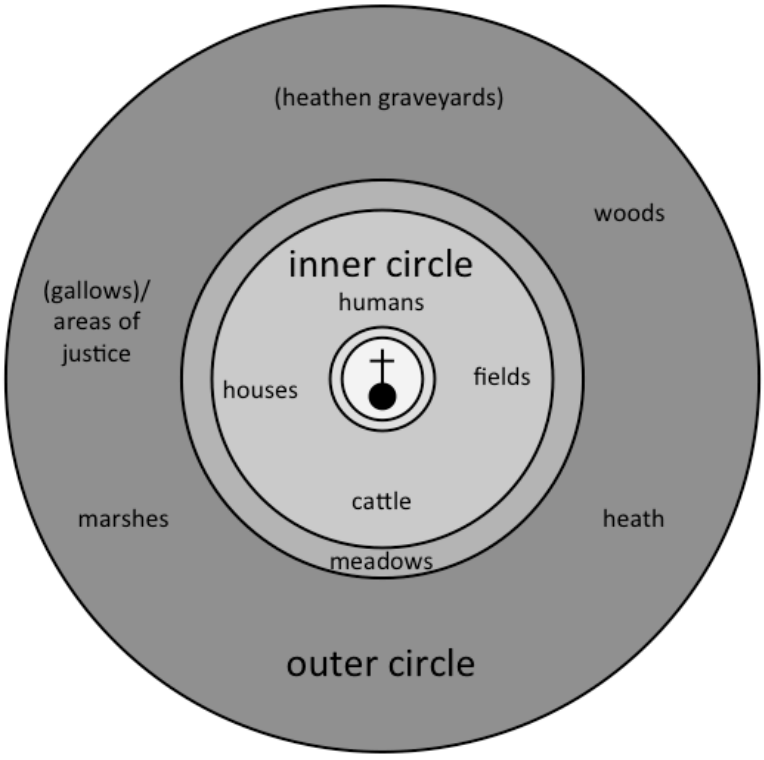

Figure 3.1: Model by Roymans on the dualistic worldview. Adapted to the early medieval situation (after Huijbers 2008, 283, Roymans 1995, 18)

kept sickness away from the remaining individuals. Marginal individuals like sick animals were buried on marginal locations of the farmyard and settlement (Huijbers 2008, 317-318). The same counted for settlement inhumations. Deviant inhumations are found further away from the domestic area than normative inhumations. Deviant inhumations contain 'powerful' or 'dangerous' individuals who in most cases were executed or threated in another deviant way. Their peripheral burial location shows the liminal role they filled in society. These inhumations mark the boundary between the domestic area and the wild world outside, an 'us vs them' situation (Sofield 2015b, 371; 377; 381). Normative inhumations are located close to the domestic household, showing their closeness to the social identity of the settlement. They are included in the settlement's life as reinforcement of the ancestoral relations (Sofield 2015b, 380).

'Odd deposits' from early medieval settlements need to be studied by analysing all the different aspects that define them. Material combined with the context, both temporal and spatial, gives us information on the deposits' role in ritual. A pit deposit containing a horse skull sends different messages than an inhumation in an enclosure ditch. This is why the further part of this thesis will focus on two aspects: material and context.

4. Methodology

4.1. Criteria

This thesis on ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval settlements is based on literature research. The dataset comes from official published reports and grey literature. The criteria that are used to determine an ‘odd deposit’ are based on the articles written by Hamerow (2006), Morris and Jervis (2011) and Sofield (2012; 2015a; 2015b; 2017).

The criteria are:

- Type of material
    - Material deposited in an unexpected way. Material concentrations that differ from the settlement ‘norm’.
- Location
    - Material from unexpected places, like burials in a posthole
    - Material at liminal places like boundaries, buildings and entrances.
- Clear association with a settlement phase
    - This supports the understanding of the ‘odd deposit’s’ context.

Some ‘odd deposits’ are already described as such by the excavators. These are included in the dataset as well. These criteria could not be applied as strict as was desired at first. Some reports were not clear about the exact location of the ‘odd deposit’, others were unclear about the total content of a deposit. Some excavations were simply too small to place an ‘odd deposit’ in the settlement lay-out. The criteria did not seem to be exclusive as well. They are based on the thought of single ‘odd deposits’, while Kok (2008) also describes the possibility of ‘odd deposits’ that were deposited within multiple events. It then was decided to include waterpools that are similar to the one described by Kok (2008, 150-152). At the end, the following type of deposits in early medieval settlements were chosen to describe as ‘odd deposits’:

- Inhumations
- Human bone deposits
- Animal burials
- Animal skulls
- Intentional broken objects

- Artefacts from postholes (especially pots and stone artefacts)
- Deposit contexts formed in multiple episodes of deposition

Interesting material that came with these deposits are included as well.

4.2. Database

The lay-out of the database is based on the database used by Hamerow (2006, 4-7) (table 4.1). Hamerow solely focuses on the deposition of animals and humans. This thesis also focuses on other types of materials in 'odd deposits' like pottery and stone. This is why an extra column 'material' is added. This is to describe the basic materials in the 'odd deposit', as for example animal bone, pottery or stone. The database is filled in as standardised as was possible. This standardisation is also based on the database of Hamerow (2006). The raw database also includes the associated feature of the 'odd deposit'. The feature types are based on the ones used by Sofield (2012): Earthfast buildings, SFB (sunken-featured-building), major enclosure, minor enclosure, rectilinear enclosure system, other enclosure, other ditch/ gully, earthwork and post (not associated with a building).
This list was not fully applicable to the early medieval Low Land coast settlements. Therefore two extra features were added: Wells and waterpools.

Table 4.1: Database table. Example

Site	**Type**	**Age/ Sex**	**Material**	**Species**	**Butchery**	**Date (century)**	**Context**	**Reference**
Site name	Deposit type	Age/ sex of animal or human individual	Material type	Animal species or human	Butchery marks	Date of the deposit	Associated context	Literature reference

4.3. Data processing

The two datasets are processed separately. This is done to make a clear comparison at the end. The same processes are conducted on both datasets, even when it was visible in advance that the numbers were too small to create a clear picture.

Results tables are based on the number of contexts at which a phenomenon was found. At first the material types are processed. The association of material with feature-types follows this. To describe the found animal species it was chosen to count in contexts with multiple animal species twice. The purpose here was to create a clear picture of the species spread over skull and burial deposits. Combinations of species within contexts are tested as well, to make the picture complete. It is mentioned at the table when contexts are included more than once.

4.4. Contexts numbers and problems

The chosen contexts are eventually picked out because of the available report data. It was not difficult to determine which Anglo-Saxon settlements to use in the thesis. All sites are published in detailed excavation reports. It was harder to find enough early medieval sites in the Netherlands and Belgium with detailed reports. Not every report is officially published, which makes it hard to get access to it, especially for Belgian reports. In the end we got our hands on multiple recent reports from Belgium via personal contacts. This thesis now contains 29 contexts from eight early medieval Low Land coastal settlements, four from the Netherlands and four from Belgium, and 34 contexts from nine Anglo-Saxon settlements.

The number of settlements is still small. Especially the early medieval Low Land coastal settlements do not show a homogenous picture, as will be discussed in chapter 7-8. This means the results are very flexible. One extra settlement might change the overall results entirely. The conclusions here need to be taken with caution. From the start, this research is seen as a starting point for the future. This is why numbers need to be taken with caution.

5. Settlement deposits from the early medieval Low Lands coastal areas

This chapter describes the continental settlements that are used as case studies. All settlement sites are excavated in the Dutch and Belgian coastal areas (fig. 5.1). One problem arose during the search of case studies in West-Flanders. The geology shifts rapidly from clay-rich coastal sediments to the sandy loam soils of the inlands. The conservation of bone material in the sandy loam is very poorly, hence we miss large amounts of animal bone and possible animal burials. This is, for example, visible at the case study from Poperinge.

Still, we were able to find several relevant case studies. This chapter is divided in the Dutch sites from the provinces of *Zuid-Holland* (South-Holland) and *Noord-Holland* (North-Holland). Settlement sites from this area are: 1) Den-Haag – Frankenslag (*Zuid-Holland*), 2) Katwijk – Zanderij (*Zuid-Holland*), 3) Leiderdorp –

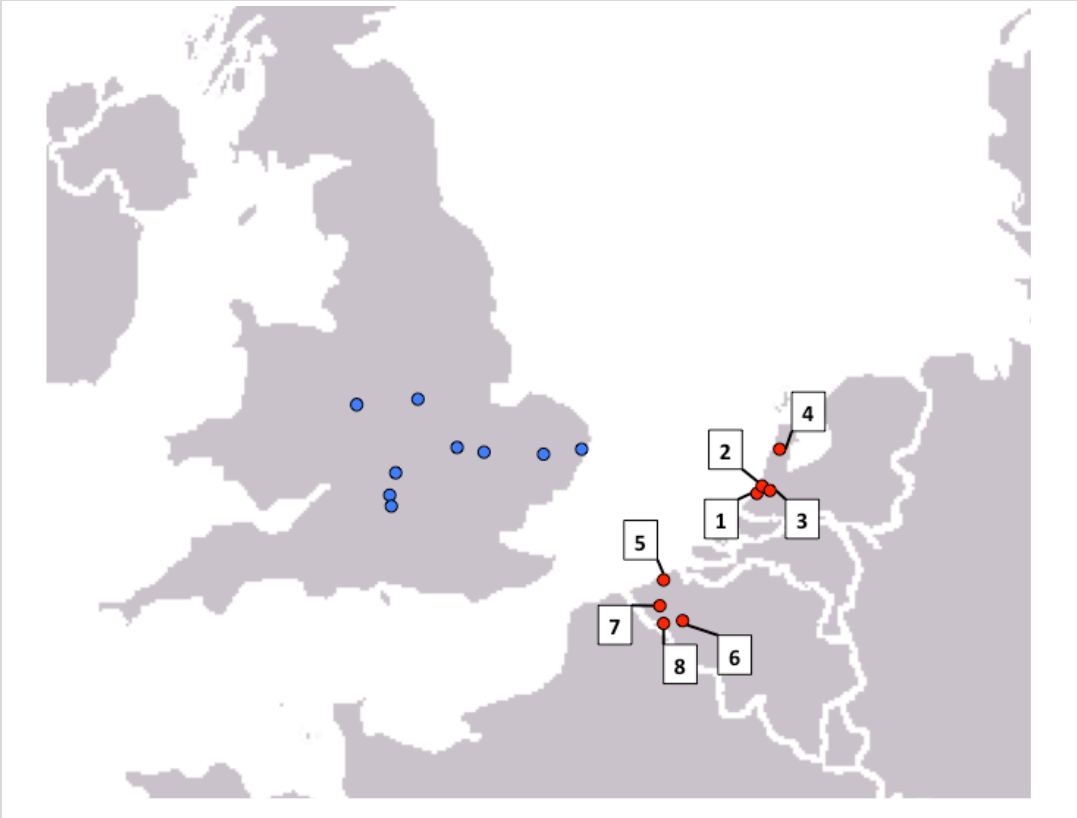

Figure 5.1: Dutch and Belgian settlement sites: 1) Den-Haag – Frankenslag, 2) Katwijk – Zanderij, 3) Leiderdorp – Plantage, 4) Limmen – De Krocht, 5) Blankenberge – Lissewegstraat, 6) Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat, 7) Lo-Reninge, 8) Poperinge – Sappen-leen (after cs.wikipedia.org)

Plantage (*Zuid-Holland*) and 4) Limmen – De Krocht (*Noord-Holland*).
All Belgian sites originate in the province of *West-Vlaanderen* (West-Flanders). Sites include: 5) Blankenberge – Lissewegstraat, 6) Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat, 7) Lo-Reninge and 8) Poperinge – Sappenleen.

All associated figures are listed in a table at the top of the settlement descriptions. These figures are included as an appendix at the end of this chapter (appendix I). The overview table of the settlement deposits is also included as an appendix (appendix V). This overview table visualises the site location, type of deposits, the age and/or sex of buried person/ animal, species, butchery marks, the suggested date of the deposit, a short description of the archaeological context and the associated literature.

5.1. Den Haag – Frankenslag, *Zuid-Holland*

Site introduction

The 6th-7th century settlement of the *Frankenslag* lies on a sand ridge of the *Oude Duinen*-complex. The former coastline lay approximately 1.5-2 km from the settlement. Prospection research was carried out in 1983, excavations followed in 1984. Part of the settlement's arable land is later excavated in 1987 (fig. 5.2)(Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 9-11; 13; 44). The early medieval settlement lies under the modern city of *Den Haag* (The Hague). This means excavations could only took place on a small plot that was opened for a development project. Due to this situation, it was not possible to recover the entire settlement (fig. 5.2). Material from the occupation layer was collected by 2.0x1.80m squares. This was later sieved. The fillings from settlement features were also sieved. Parts of the occupation layer unfortunately were already destroyed due to the construction of basements in the past (Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 15).

'Odd deposits'

Excavations at the Frankenslag recovered four animal burials, three of which are burials of dogs. Two of the dog skeletons are still complete. One of these is that of a young individual of c. 18 months old, the other is of an older individual with an age between 5-10 years old. Both of these two skeletons are found in a pit or

posthole (Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 42). The report is not clear about the exact location in the settlement.
The exact context of the horse burial is also not mentioned in the report. The skeleton shows that the animal was used for extensive labour works (Magendans en Waasdorp 1989, 42).

5.2. Katwijk – Zanderij, *Zuid-Holland*

Site introduction

The excavation area of Katwijk-Zanderij lies on a sandrige close to the coastline of *Zuid-Holland*, a few km north of *Den-Haag*, next to the Rhine in the Rhine-delta (Van Zijverden 2008, 40-41). The prospective research of the site took place in the early 90's by *RAAP Archeologisch Adviesbureau*, a commercial company in the Netherlands. This was followed by an excavation in 1996 and 1997 by the *ROB* (currently the RCE or Dutch Cultural Heritage Agency). This excavation revealed several Roman and Early Medieval features (Van der Velde 2008, 9-10).
ADC Archeoprojecten, a commercial company in the Netherlands, carried out a small testpit excavation in 2005. This was followed by a second excavation that same year. Their goals were to add new information to the earlier excavations (Van der Velde 2008, 11-12).
The excavations revealed several farmyards with accompanying farms and other features from the Roman period and the Early Medieval period, especially the 5th-7th centuries AD. There was no continuum between the Roman and Medieval phases (Van der Velde *et al.* 2008, 24-25; 31).

'Odd deposits'

The settlement at Katwijk Zanderij contains several placed deposits. An oval pit is recovered in barn 8 (fig. 5.3). The pit was used as a privy in its early phase. Later a horse skull and a pig jaw are deposited in the pit (Dijkstra and Van der Velde 2008, 142).
House structure 61 contains a construction deposit (fig. 5.4). An almost complete Carolingian Dorestad type W III D pot with a brown residue is found in one of the structure's posthole (Van der Velde and Waldus 2008, 184-185).

5.3. Leiderdorp – Plantage, *Zuid-Holland*

Site introduction

The site at Leiderdorp-Plantage is excavated in 2013. Earlier research reveals that the site includes an Early Medieval domestic area. The archaeological team of the University of Amsterdam carried out the excavations (Dijkstra *et al.* 2016, 17; 23-24).

The found harbour and settlement features date to the Merovingian and Carolingian period (550/680-760 AD and 760-840 AD). Merovingian settlement features include a possible granary and multiple wells. Features from the Carolingian period include wells, a settlement ditch, a bridge and several buildings, which could be identified as barns or farmhouses. The harbour features found at the site date to both periods (Dijkstra 2016b, 56-59).

'Odd deposits'

The settlement at Leiderdorp contains several deposits that can be regarded as 'odd'. Most of them are found in wells.

The first is from well STR 39 (fig. 5.5). The top fill is an organic layer of breaches, wooden sticks and wooden chips. One remarkable artefact from this layer is half a wooden disk with a hole in the middle. The fragment of a cattle skull with two horns and two leather shoes were found at the line with the lower fill. The lower fill dates to the late 7th or first half of the 8th century (Dijkstra 2016a, 111).

Well STR 42 contains the wooden fragments of wooden pens and an oval bowl (fig. 5.6). These date to the second half of the 8th or the first half of the 9th century (Dijkstra 2016a, 112).

A roll of cut bark is found at the bottom of well STR 49 (fig. 5.7). It is said to be a possible fabricate for a wooden box. This dates to the second half of the 8th or the first half of the 9th century (Dijkstra 2016a, 113).

Well STR 38 contains an almost complete wooden chop of a forked branch, which dates to the late 7th or the first half of the 8th century (fig. 5.8) (Dijkstra 2016a, 109).

Ditch STR 22 contains an almost complete articulated cattle skeleton (fig. 5.9-5.10). A horse skull accompanied with a cattle shoulder bone lies in the skeletons proximity (Dijkstra 2016a, 115). The shoulder bone possibly originates from the same specimen as the skeleton. The cattle skeleton shows butchery marks, but

the author thinks this does not necessarily means the animal was consumed. The horse skull and cattle shoulder bone might be related to the skeleton (Moesker and Cavallo 2016, 622-623). Ditch STR 22 shows a correlation to barn STR 9, and were probably part of the same farmyard. The ditch dates to the late 7th or 8th century (Dijkstra 2016a, 115).

Feature STR 57 is the horse burial of a mare and foal (fig. 5.11-5.12). It is a rectangular, shallow grave, close to the early medieval gully. The mare lies on her right side, the foal on top of her feet. The mare was around 6-10 years old. The foal was around 3-4 months old. The burial is dated by a Badorff ceramic sherd found in the grave, which dates to 750-900 AD (Moesker and Cavallo 2016, 618-619). The burial shows a correlation to granaries STR 2 and STR 3 and ditch STR 59. The context was possibly located at the edge of a farmyard (Dijkstra 2016a, 120).

The most remarkable deposit context is that of multiple human bones in midden STR 525 (fig. 5.13). This midden was filled in the first half of the 9th century and contains human bones from different individuals. These are both male and female individuals from different age groups. The bones are a secondary deposit and originate from older closed grave contexts, possibly a burial ground lying in the proximity of the settlement. The removal of bones from older inhumation graves was a common early medieval practice. Some of the bones show cut-marks and possibly originate from victims of violence (d'Hollosy and Dijkstra 2016, 569-573). STR 525 also contains the skull of an adult dog (Moesker and cavallo 2016, 621).

5.4. Limmen – De Krocht, *Noord-Holland*

Site introduction

The research area of Limmen-De Krocht is situated in the coastal area of *Noord-Holland*. Test pit excavations in 1995 revealed that the site contains several occupation phases dating to the (Roman) Iron Age and the Early and High Medieval period. After losing parts of the site due to agricultural activities, it was decided to excavate the entire site area in 2003 and 2004. The University of Amsterdam supervised the excavations (Dijkstra *et al.* 2006, 14-15).

The excavation area is geographically situated on the southern end of a long sand ridge (Dijkstra *et al.* 2006, 16).

Ceramic typology was of great use for dating the major part of the features. It was possible to fine-tune the dates with the analyses of the stratigraphy of features and farmhouse-typology (Dijkstra *et al*. 2006, 44-45).
Twenty occupation phases are distinguished at the site (table 5.??), ranging from the (Roman) Iron Age to 1900 (Dijkstra *et al.* 47). We are interested in phases 2, 11/12 and 16 (fig. 5.14; 5.16; 5.18; 5.20). Phase 11/12 and 16 are a bit younger than the Early Medieval period, but are included because of the nature of the deposits.

Table 5.1: Limmen – De Krocht. Site phasing (after Dijkstra et al. *2006. 46-61)*

Phase	Date
1	(Roman) Iron Age 400-200 BC
2	Merovingian/ early Carolingian period
3	AD 825-850
4	AD 850-875
5	AD 875-900
6	AD 900-925
7	AD 925-950
8	AD 950-975
9	AD 975-1000
10	AD 1000-1025
11	AD 1025-1050
12	AD 1050-1075
13	AD 1075-1100
14	AD 1100-1125
15	AD 1125-1150
16	AD 1150-1175
17	AD 1175-1200
18	AD 1200-1250
19	AD 1250-1500
20	AD 1500-1900

'Odd deposits'

The settlement of De Krocht contains several placed deposits. There are two pit deposits. S2128 contains a cleaved sheep skull in the corner of the pit. The pit is situated inside building 18 (fig. 5.14-5.15)(Dijkstra *et al*. 2006, 84-85).
S6984 inside building 47 is a shallow feature. A layer of charcoal lies at the bottom and against the edges. The other part of the pit is filled with grey sand. The authors think a wooden object is burnt here *in situ*. C14 dates this pit to 710-970. The building itself dates 1025-1075. The difference of date might be an effect of 'old wood', where the charcoal originates from old structure timber or such like (fig. 5.16-5.17)(Dijkstra *et al*. 2006, 85).
There are two inhumations inside the settlement. Burial 1 is NW-SE oriented and has crossed arms on the chest. The individual was a 20-24 year old male. Grave goods include a knife, buckle, possible shaft fragment, seven 8th-century coins and an unidentified metal object. Six of the coins are Anglo-Saxon *sceatta's* or so-called 'death-coins'. The coins post date 720. C14 dates place the grave between 640-780 (fig. 5.18-5.19)(Dijkstra *et al*. 2006, 86-88).

Burial 2 is the inhumation of an incomplete, 21-29 year old male individual. He is found in ditch. The skeleton is disturbed. The authors think it might be an older grave that is disturbed when the ditch was dug. Another possibility is that the man was deposited in the ditch. C14-dates date the ditch to the post-medieval period (fig. 5.20-5.21)(Dijkstra *et al*. 2006, 88).

5.5. Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat, *West-Vlaanderen*

Site introduction

The settlement excavated at Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat lies in the province of *West-Vlaanderen*, Belgium. The settlement lies in the Belgium coastal area, a

Table 5.2: Phasing Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat (Van Remoorter et al*. 2016, 44).*

Phase	Date
Merovingian period	6th- First half 8th century
Carolingian period	Second half 8th century-start 10th century
High Medieval period	Start 10th century – 12th century
Late/ post medieval period	13th – 20th century

few kilometres from the current coastline. The geology is formed by a dynamic, tidal environment and consists out of clay sediments and peat (Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 12-13).
The testpit excavation took place in 2010. A larger excavation followed in 2014 (Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 10-11).
The settlement features date to four medieval phases (table 5.2). The first occupation phase starts in the 7th century (Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 44). We are interested in the settlement's Merovingian and Carolingian phases (fig. 5.22). The early medieval settlement contains several house features, pits, ditches and canals, wells and granaries (*spiekers*) (Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 45; 51; 57; 59; 62; 81).

'Odd deposits'

Posthole 2.075 of building P3 contains the burial of a 3-4 year old male dog. The burial contains a few sheep/ goat bones. There were no other gravegoods (Nijssen 2016b, 156; Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 48).
Ditch 3.022 contains the incomplete skull of a young dog together with a large piece of the upper jawbone (Nijssen 2016b, 155).
Canal ditch 2.015 contains part of the mandible of a young dog. The feature is possibly disturbed (Nijssen 2016b, 156).
Pit 2.091 contains twelve cranial elements and four parts of the upper jaw of an older dog (Nijssen 2016b, 157).

Water pool

A Carolingian water pool (feature 2.063) is found at the edge of the settlement. A organic-rich layer lies at its base. The top layers are filled with different types of material. A small pit was dug in the southern part of the pool, which was filled with the same type of material as the other parts of the pool. Find material includes ceramics, animal bone, metal slugs and raw stone material. The major part of the ceramic assemblage from the pool dates to the Carolingian and High Medieval period. Small sherds of Merovingian pottery and *Terra Sigillata* are also found in the pool but are interpreted as residual. Pollen samples recovered pollen of grasses, composites, finial and cornflower (Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 85-86).

5.6. Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat, *West-Vlaanderen*

Site introduction

Harelbeke is situated in the Belgian province of *West-Vlaanderen*. Prospective research was carried out in 2012, followed by an excavation in 2013. The commercial companies Ruben Willaert bvba and Floris Beke carried out the fieldwork (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 6-7).

The excavated area revealed different features, for example postholes, pits, ditches, a ringditch, cremation burials and other burial contexts, from the early prehistory, Middle to Late Bronze Age, Early to early Late Iron Age, (Early-) Roman Age, the Merovingian and Carolingian period, Late Medieval period and World War I (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 18). Our interest lies with the Merovingian and Carolingian features (fig. 5.23). The Carolingian water pool is one of the features of our interest. There are no other associated Merovingian settlement features found besides the two burial contexts. It is possible these lie just outside the excavated area. The proximity of the Carolingian features suggests that a former Merovingian settlement should be nearby.

'Odd deposit'

Two burial contexts can be regarded as 'odd deposits' at the settlement of Harelbeke. Both 'odd deposits' date to the 6^{th}-8^{th} century AD.

GF01 includes a cluster of two pits disturbed by a modern feature. The grave goods assemblage contains flint artefacts, Bronze Age ceramics, a quern-fragment and glass and metal artefacts. The major part of the metal assemblage is comparable with other recovered Merovingian grave artefact assemblages, which support the conclusion that this context was a grave feature. The metal assemblage includes five glass and one ceramic bead, fragments of at least six fibula, possible knife and parts of at least one belt buckle. The flint artefacts and Bronze Age ceramics were probably part of a Bronze Age context that was disturbed by the burial. The burial is not conserved well enough to ascribe the context to an inhumation or a cremation (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 67-71; 86).

GF02 is analysed to be a cremation burial. This conclusion is based on its location compared to GF01 and the recovered artefacts. Its artefact assemblage includes fired bone, Bronze Age ceramics and raw stone material. The C^{14}-dates places the context in the Merovingian period, to the period of 540 cal AD – 650

cal AD (95,4%) or 570 cal AD – 635 cal AD (68,2%) (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 67; 87).

'Odd deposits' from 8th-9th century settlement phase include deposits in a posthole associated with one of the main buildings (Structure 3). The finds from posthole S8-17 included five quern-fragments and seven fragments of (re-used Roman) building material. A nearby water pool is been C^{14}-dated to 770 cal AD – 910 cal AD (86,2%) or 770 cal AD – 890 cal AD (68,2%) (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 91-92; 95). The building probably dates to the same phase as the water pool.

Waterpool

The water pool found near the settlement is described because of the analyses of Kok (2008) of such a pool and its accompanied importance as a location for deposition.

This is a general description of the pool, as the appendix with the detailed pollen descriptions is not accessible.

As said above, the pool's C^{14}-dates correlate to 770 cal AD – 910 cal AD (86,2%). Four sediment layers are distinguished (figure 5.24), of which layers one and four are the only ones including artefacts. Layer one recovered a fragment of building material and wheel-thrown ceramics. Layer four includes raw stone material, Roman building material and local *Terra Sigillata* (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 98).

Pollen samples recovered the following species: aquatic animals, algae, water plants in general, layer three included fir and cornflower. There is an increase of rye and bracken between the layers three and four. Other found pollen include flax, linseed, hemp and/ or hops. The authors conclude the pool lay close to an (open) forest and agricultural fields (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 99).

5.7. Lo-Reninge, *West-Vlaanderen*

Site introduction

The settlement of Lo-Reninge is situated in the province of West-Flanders (*West-Vlaanderen*) on the tidal sediments of the Belgium coastal area (Janssens 2016,

3-5). In 2013 a testpit excavation was carried out, followed by an overall excavation later that same year. Both were guided by BAAC Vlaanderen bvba (Janssens 2016, 1-2; 13).
The settlement features lie on higher sandy soils, surrounded by the lower clay soils of the tidal environment. Only one building structure is recovered. Other features include pits, and (smaller) ditches (fig. 5.25). Most features date between the 9th and 13th century, which is comparable with the late Carolingian and the central medieval periods (Janssens 2013, 25).

'Odd deposits'

The settlement reveals one possible 'odd deposit'. Feature 3.32 contains multiple cattle bone of the same species and is interpreted as a possible burial. All bones are completely present, with the exception of recent breaks (Janssens 2016, 33; Nijssen 2016a, 73-74).

5.8. Poperinge – Sappenleen, *West-Vlaanderen*

Site introduction

The research area is situated in a loamy sand soil (Bos *et al.* 2014, 47). This condition prevented for any bone material to survive at the site.
Prospection research took place in 2011 by Antea Group. Excavations were carried out in 2012 and 2013 by Ruben Willaert bvba and *Vlaams Erfgoed Centrum* (Flanders Heritage Centre VEC) (Beke *et al.* 2014, 9).
Archaeological features are found from the Middle- and Late Paleolithic, Late Iron Age, Roman period, Carolingian period, the High and Late Medieval period and Modern Period until World War I. These are diverted over five archaeological zones (Beke *et al.* 2014, 13). We are interested in the Carolingian features from Zone A (fig. 5.26).

'Odd deposits'

The poor conservation of bone material withholds us from recognising 'odd deposits' of faunal origin. We do however analyse two possible deposition contexts holding ceramic and grindstone objects.

Carolingian farmyard 2 contains two possible ‘odd deposits’. Pit 30 is charcoal rich and contains handmade pottery and the deposit of two quern-fragments of together 1400 grams (Beke *et al.* 2014, 180-181).
The northwestern posthole of granary 1 contains a whetstone (fig. 5.27) (Beke *et al.* 2014, 183).

Appendix I: Figures chapter 5

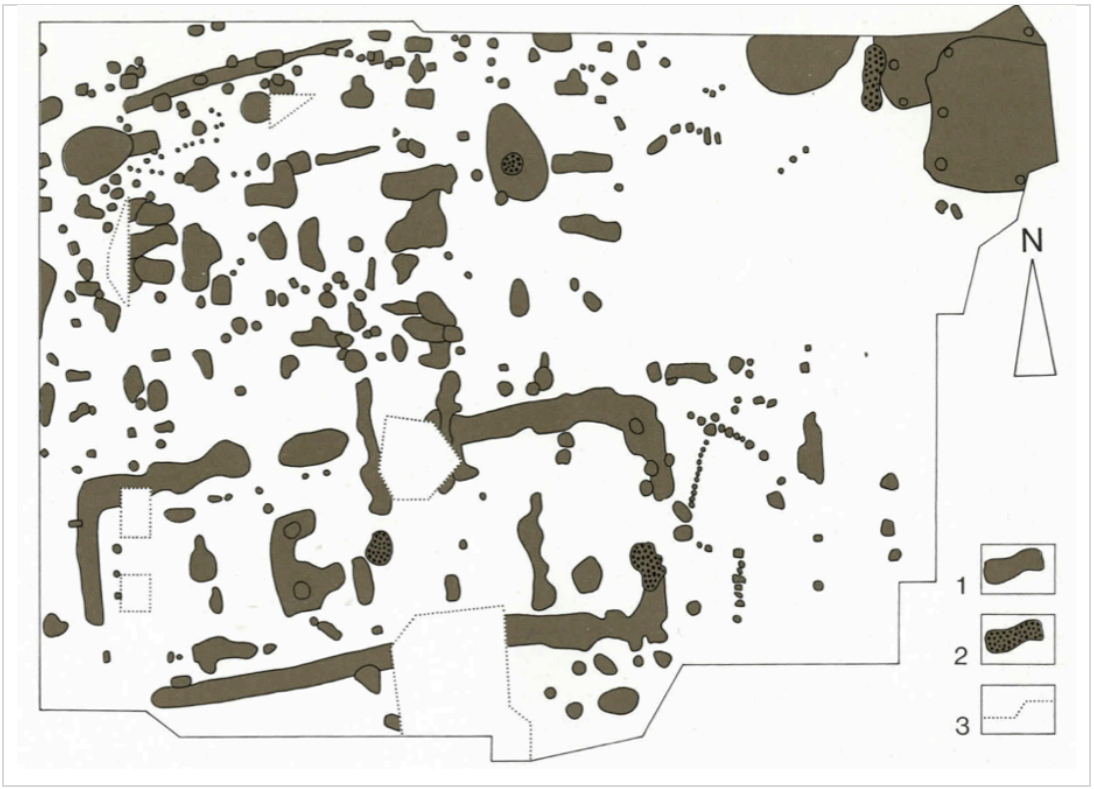

Figure 5.2: Den Haag – Frankenslag. Site overview. 1: Features, 2: Hearths and firepits, 3: Recent disturbances (Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 17)

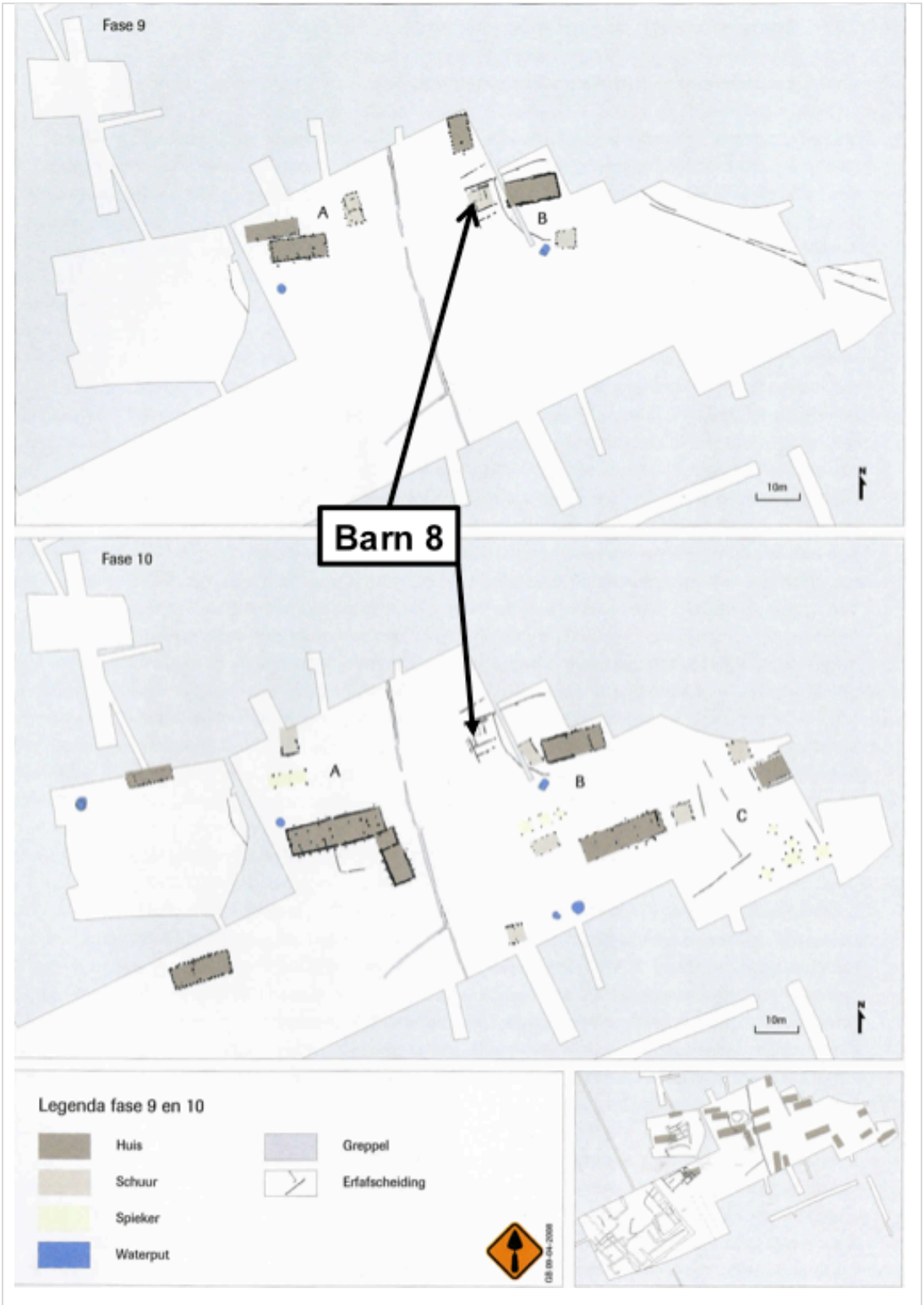

Figure 5.3: Katwijk-Zanderij. Phase 9 (top) and phase 10 (bottom) (after Dijkstra and Van der Velde 2008, 154)

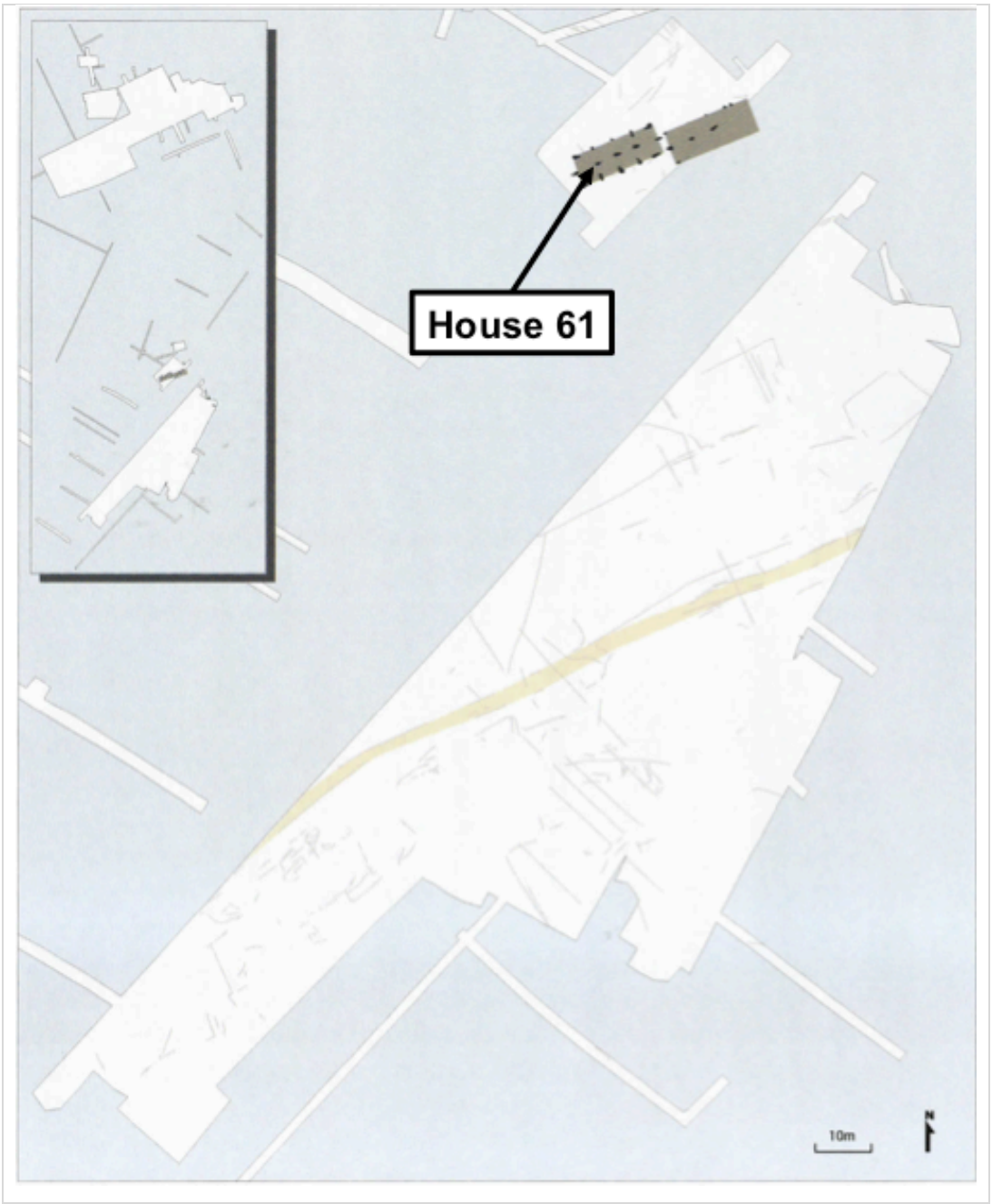

Figure 5.4: Katwijk-Zanderij. Phase 14/15 (after Van der Velde and Waldus 2008, 195)

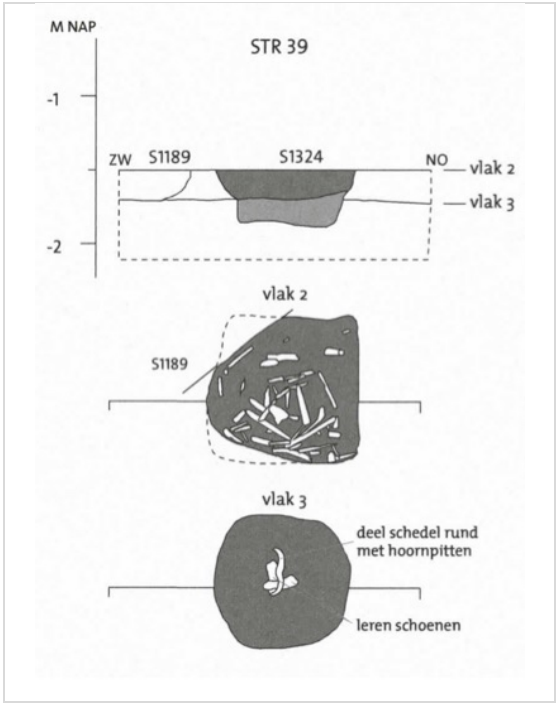

Figure 5.5: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Well STR 39 (after Dijkstra 2016a, 110).

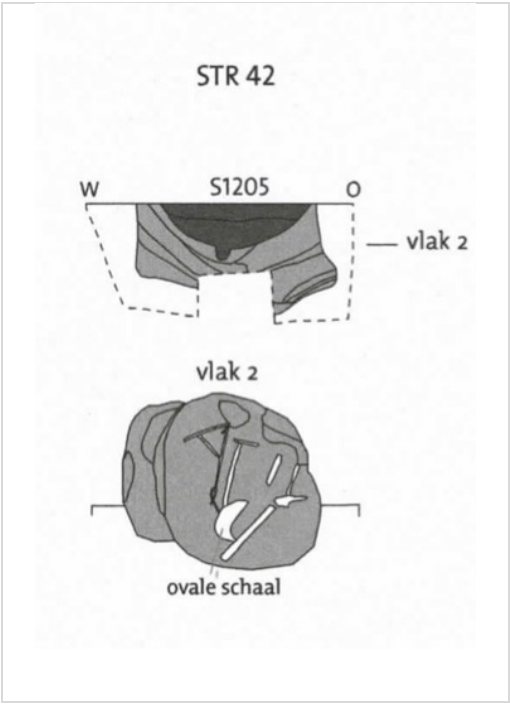

Figure 5.6: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Well STR 42 (after Dijkstra 2016a, 110).

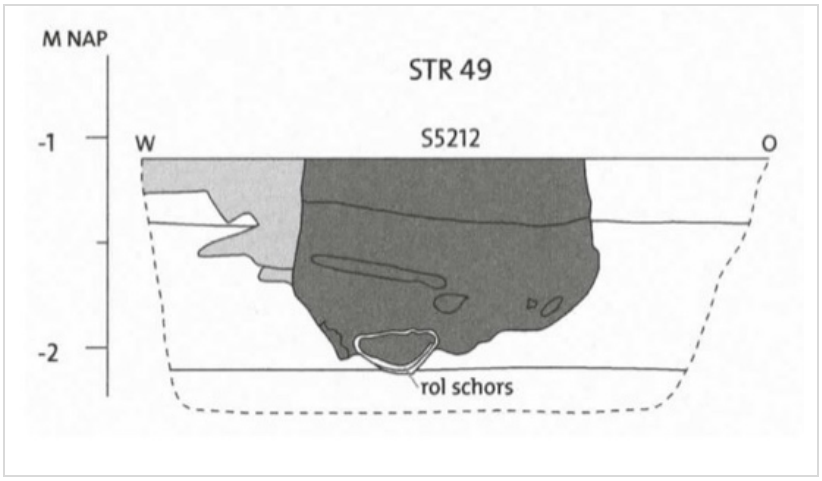

Figure 5.7: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Well STR 49 (after Dijkstra 2016a, 110).

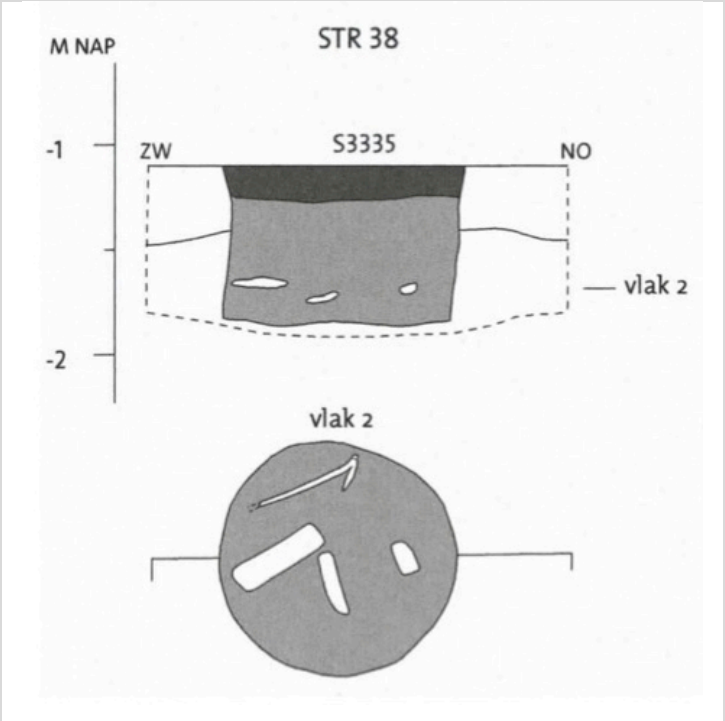

Figure 5.8: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Well STR 38 (after Dijkstra 2016a, 107).

Figure 5.9: Leiderdorp – Plantage. STR 22, cattle skeleton (after Moesker and Cavallo 2016, 622).

Figure 5.10: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Highlighted: STR 9, STR 22. 1. Feature structure, 2. Reconstruction feature structure. 3. Structure with number, 4. Other structures (mentioned in report), 5. Other structures, 6. Cattle burial, 7. Horse skull and shoulder (after Dijkstra 2016a, 90).

Figure 5.11: Leiderdorp – Plantage. STR 57, mare and foal burial. (after Moesker and Cavallo 2016, 619).

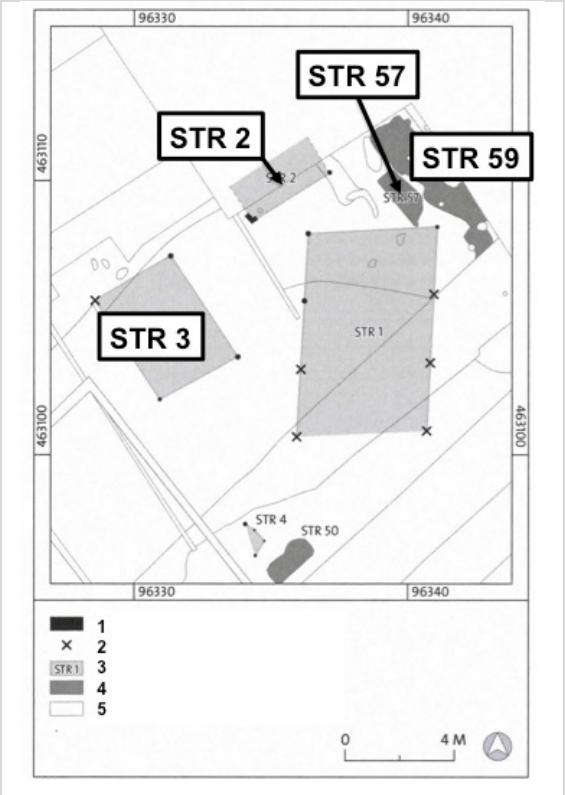

Figure 5.12: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Highlighted: STR 2, STR 3, STR 57, STR 59 1. Feature structure, 2. Reconstruction feature structure. 3. Structure with number, 4. Other structures (mentioned in report), 5. Other structures (after Dijkstra 2016a, 93).

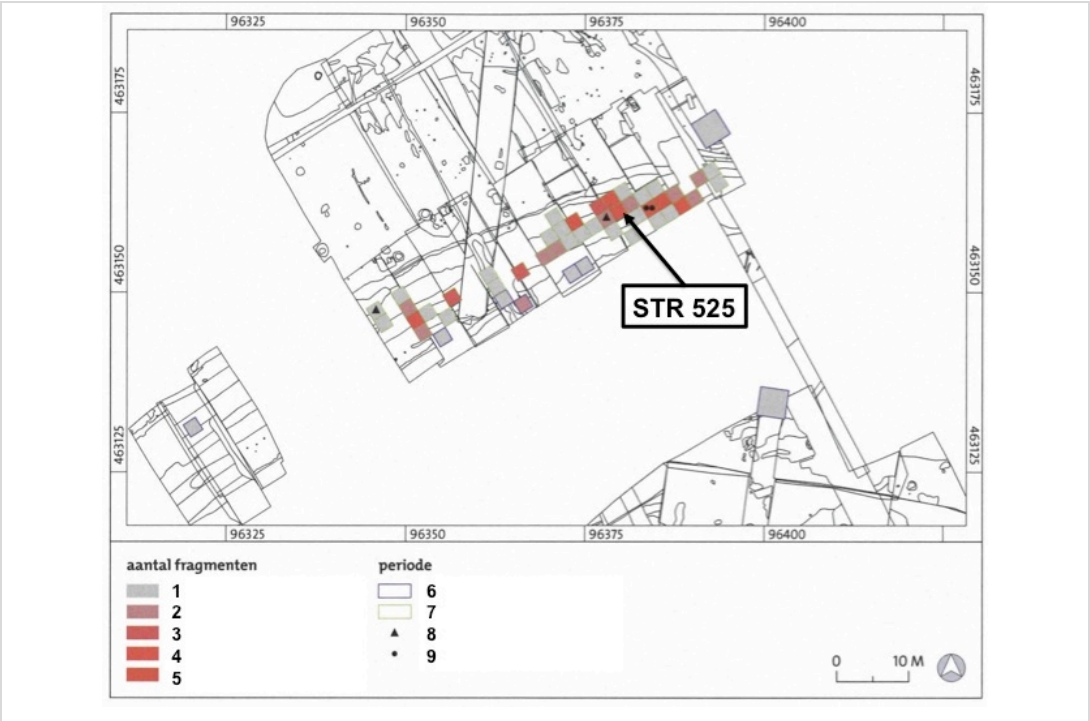

Figure 5.13: Leiderdorp – Plantage. Spread human bone material Highlighted STR 525. 1. 1 fragment, 2. 2 fragments, 3. 3 fragments, 4. 4 fragments, 5. 5-7 fragments, 6. Merovingian gully, 7. Carolingian gully, 8.-9. Finds. (after d'Hollosy and Dijkstra 2016, 562).

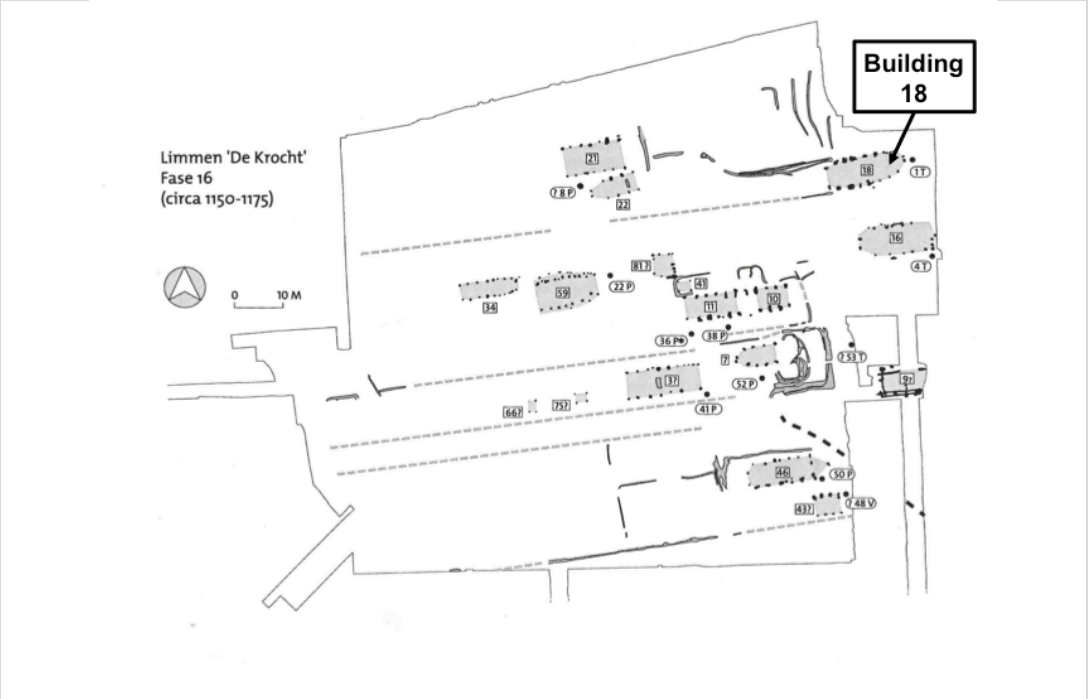

Figure 5.14: Limmen – De Krocht. Phase 16 (after Dijkstra et al. *2006, 56*)

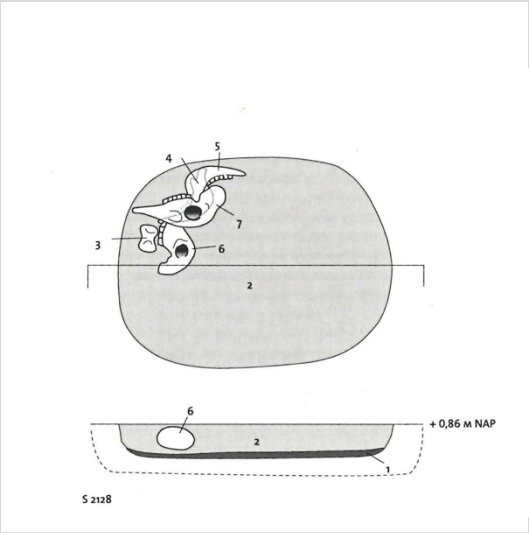

Figure 5.15: Limmen – De Krocht. S2128 with cleaved sheepskull (Dijkstra et al. *2006, 84)*

Figure 5.16: Limmen – De Krocht. S6984 with charchoal layer (Dijkstra et al. *2006, 84)*

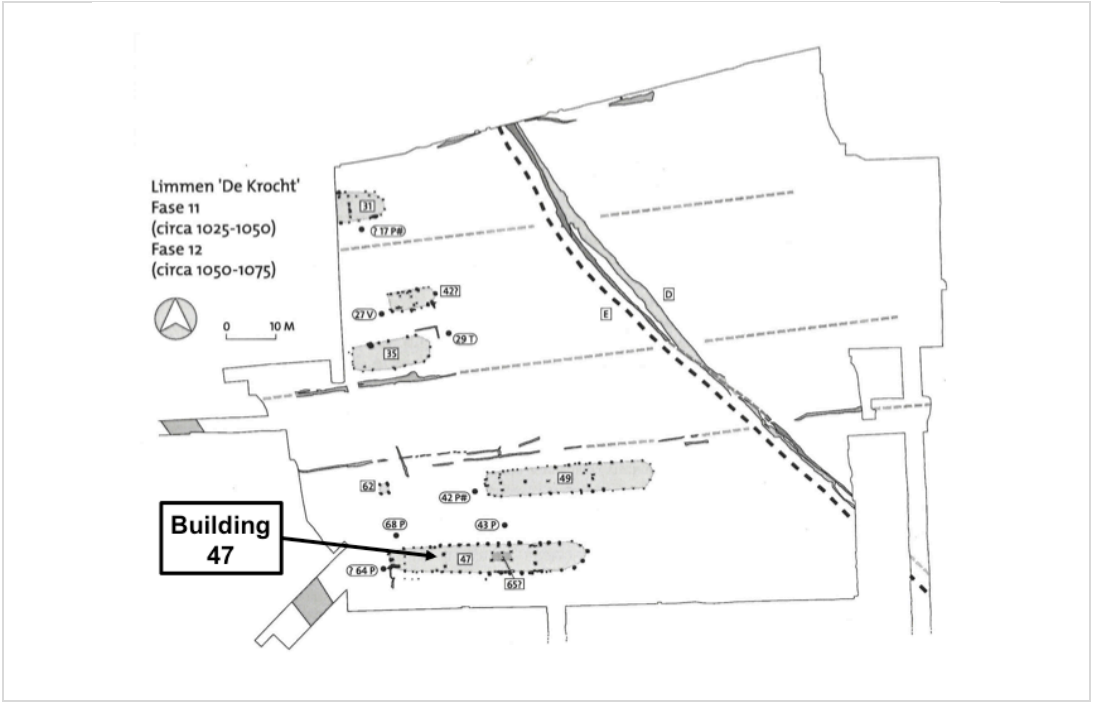

Figure 5.17: Limmen – De Krocht. Phase 11/12 (after Dijkstra et al. *2006, 54)*

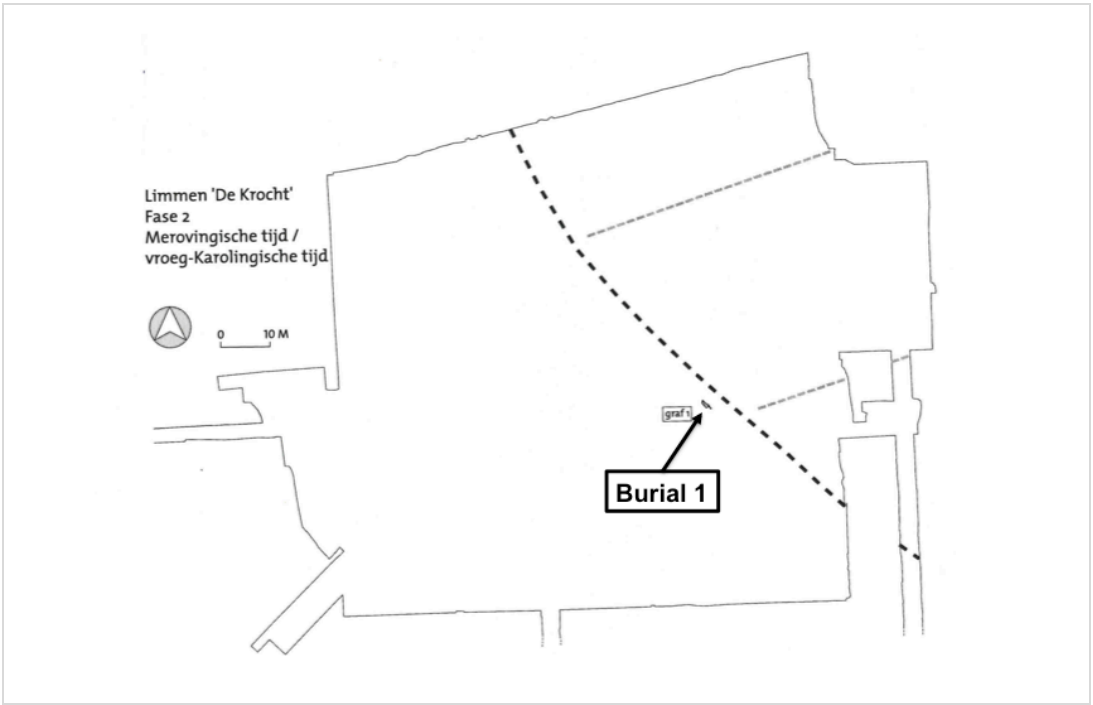

Figure 5.18: Limmen – De Krocht. Phase 2 (after Dijkstra et al. *2006, 48)*

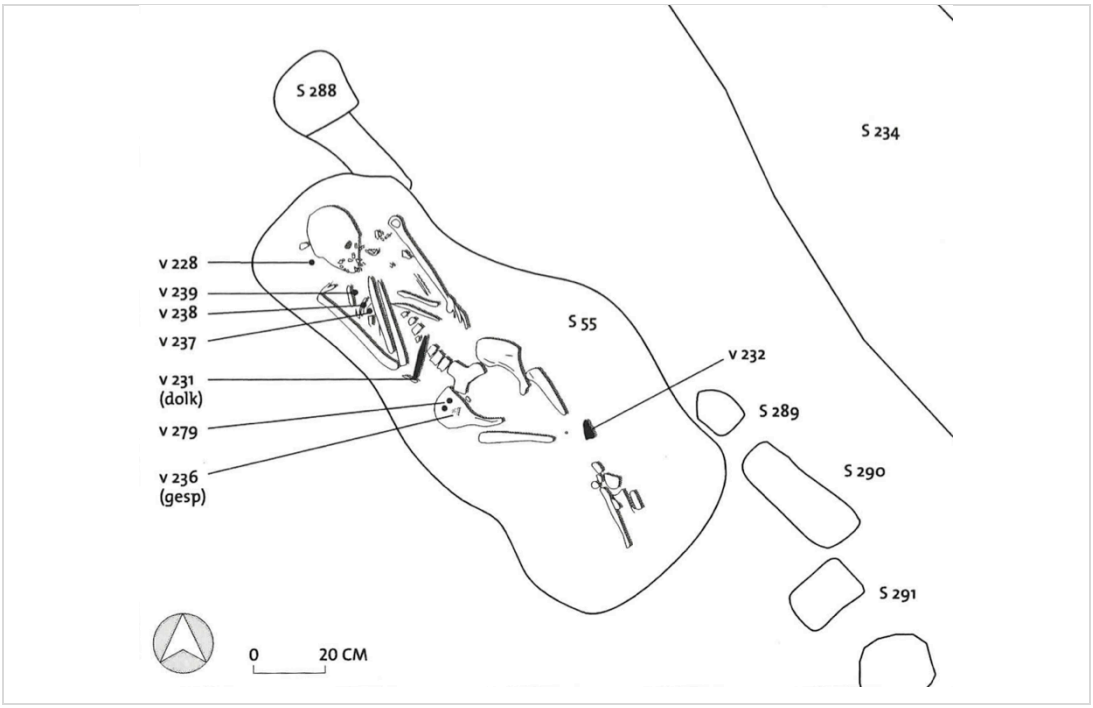

Figure 5.19: Limmen – De Krocht. Burial 1 (Dijkstra et al. *2006, 85)*

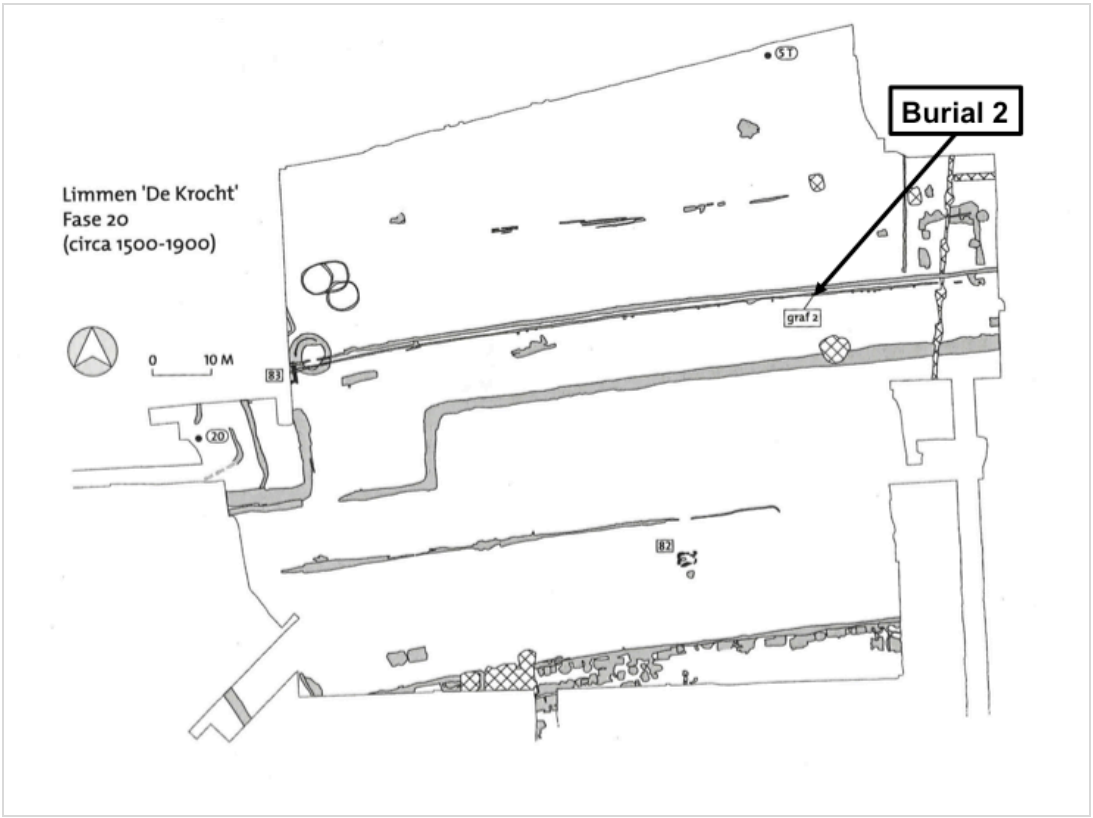

Figure 5.20: Limmen – De Krocht. Phase 20 (after Dijkstra et al. *2006, 60)*

Figure 5.21: Limmen – De Krocht. Burial 2 (Dijkstra et al. *2006, 89)*

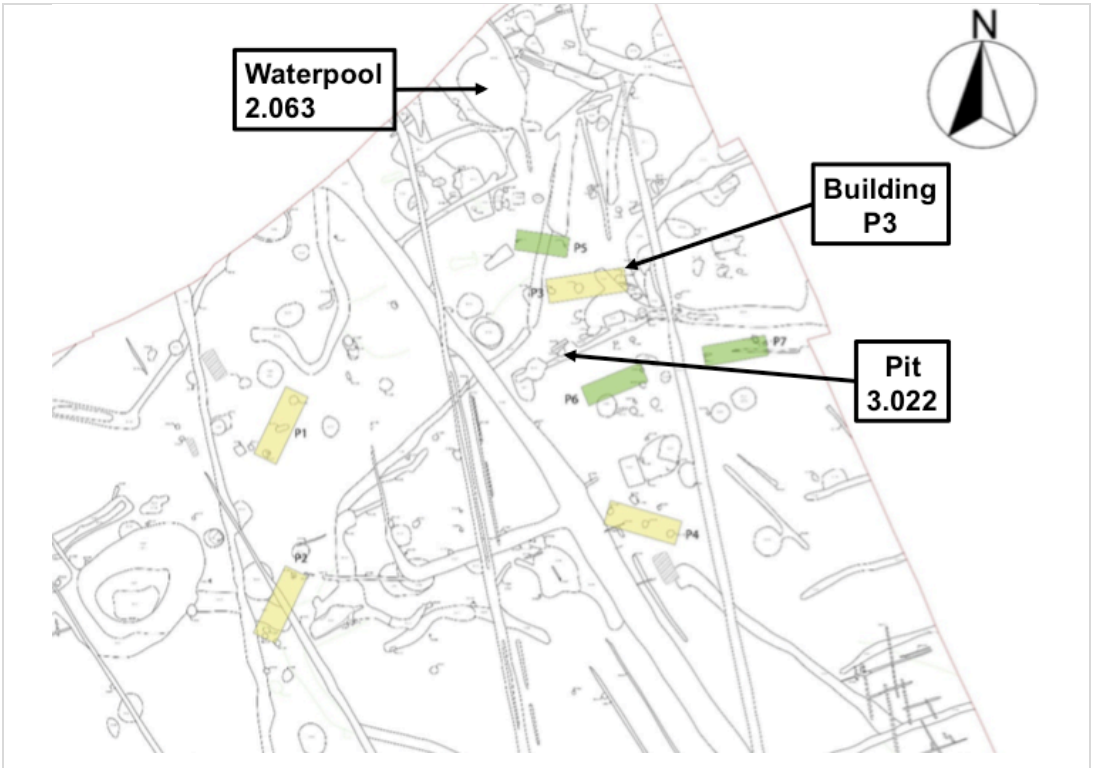

Figure 5.22: Blankenberge – Lissewegestraat. Excavation plan (after Van Remoorter et al. *2016, 46*)

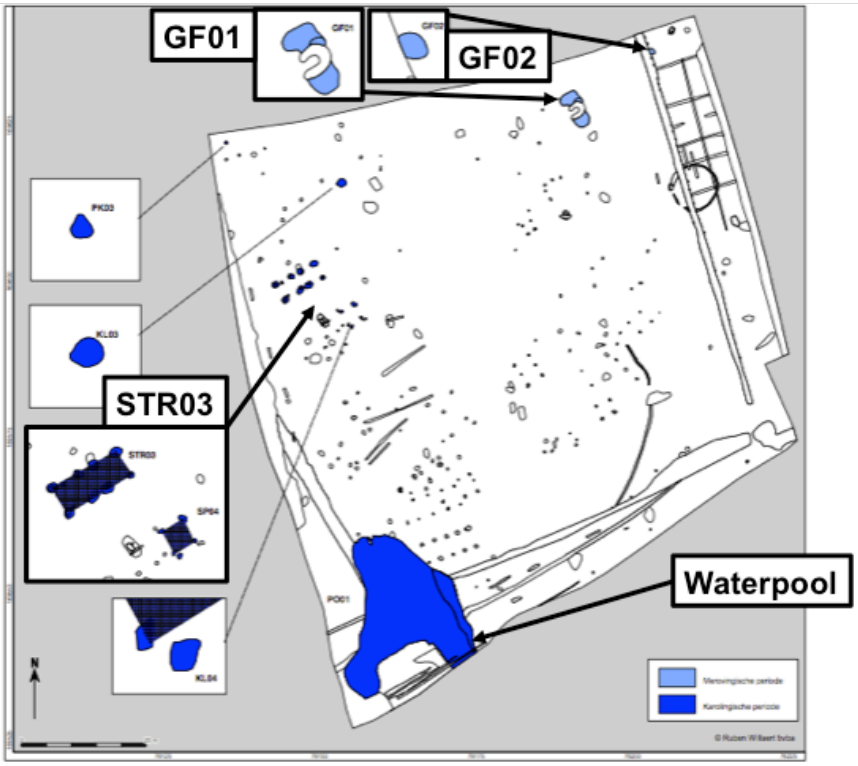

Figure 5.23: Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat. Feature plan (after Teetaert and Beke 2014, 67)

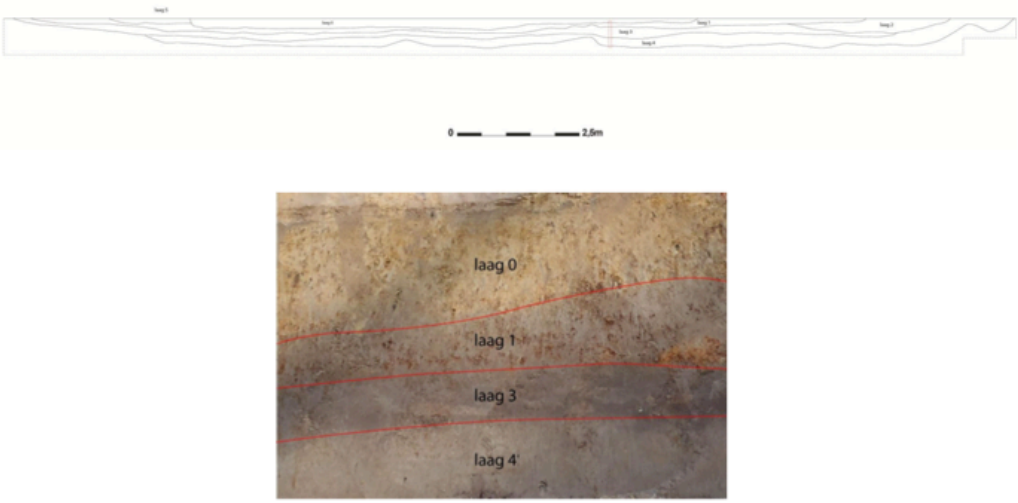

Figure 5.24: Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat. Profile water pool (Teetaert and Beke 2014, 100)

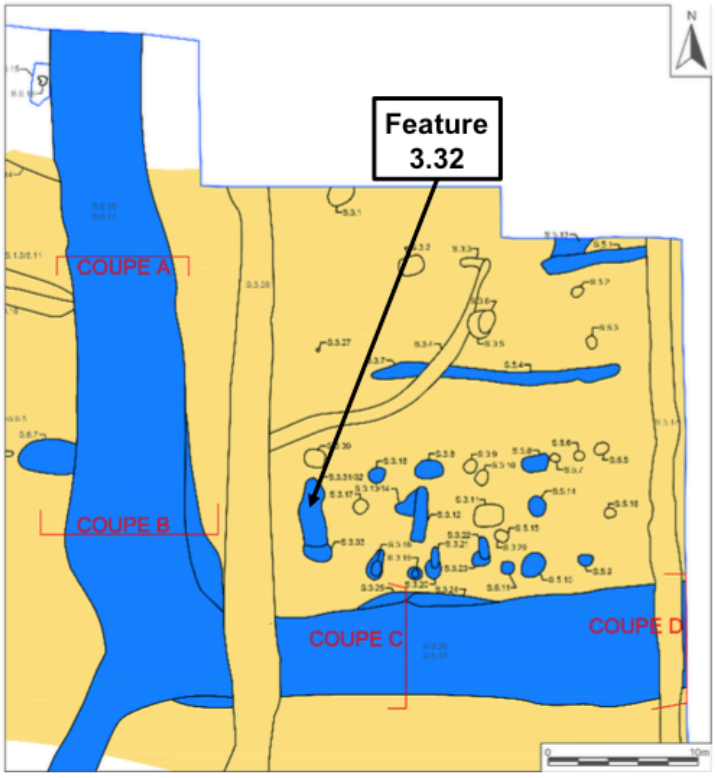

Figure 5.25: Lo-Reninge. Feature plan (Janssens 2016, 27)

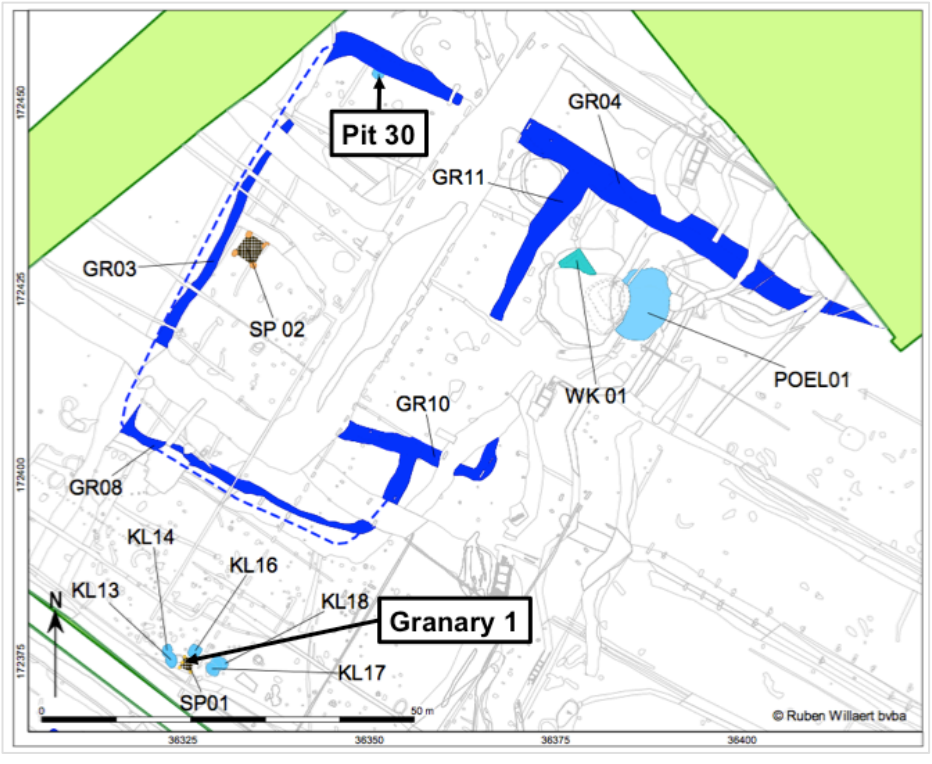

Figure 5.26: Poperinge – Sappenleen. Feature plan (after Beke et al. *2014, 178)*

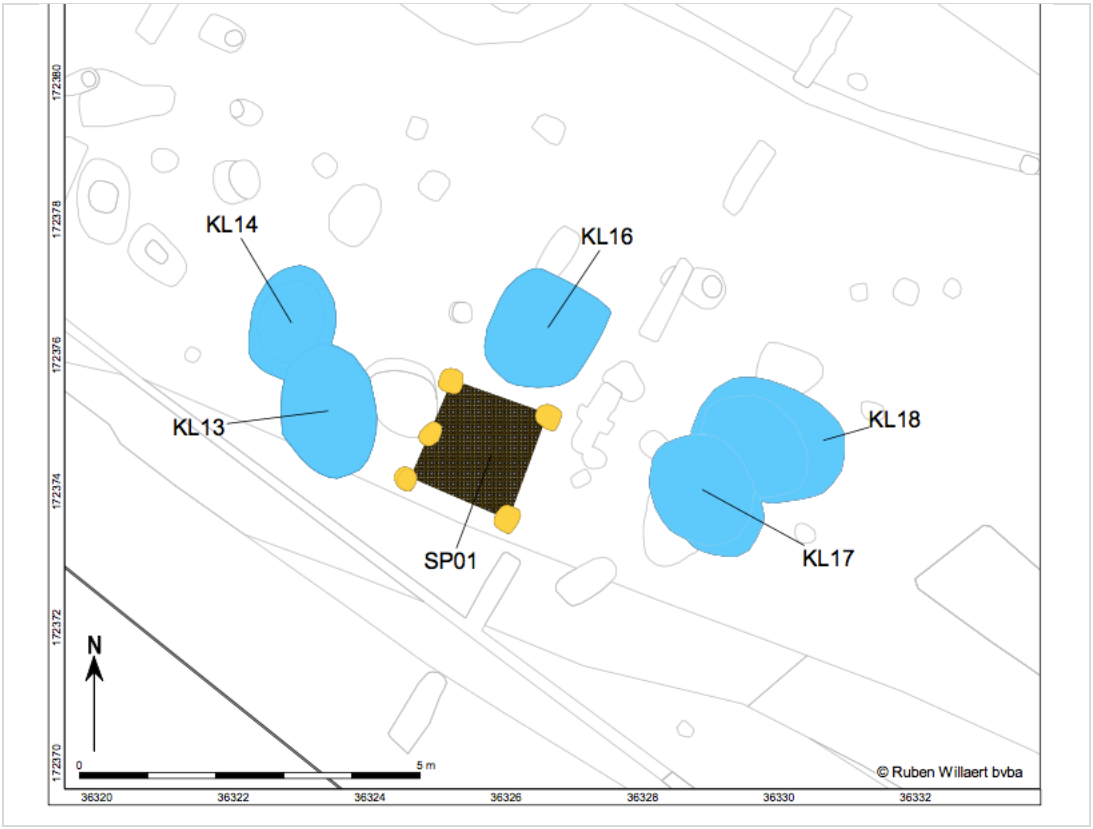

Figure 5.27: Poperinge - Sappenleen (Beke et al. *2014, 182)*

6. Settlement deposits from Anglo-Saxon England

This chapter describes the Anglo-Saxon settlements that are used as case studies. These descriptions include a site introduction and a description of the 'odd' deposits that are of interest to this thesis. Case studies include: 1) Barrow Hill (Oxfordshire), 2) Bloodmoor Hill (Suffolk), 3) Catholme (Staffordshire), 4) Eye Kettleby (Leicestershire), 5) Gamlingay (Cambridgeshire), 6) Higham Ferrers (Northamptonshire), 7) Sutton Courtenay (Oxfordshire), 8) West Stow (Suffolk) and 9) Yarnton (Oxfordshire) (fig. 6.1).

All associated figures are included as an appendix at the end of this chapter (appendix II). The overview table of the settlement deposits is also included as an appendix (appendix VI). This overview table visualises the site location, type of deposits, the age and/or sex of buried person/ animal, species, butchery marks,

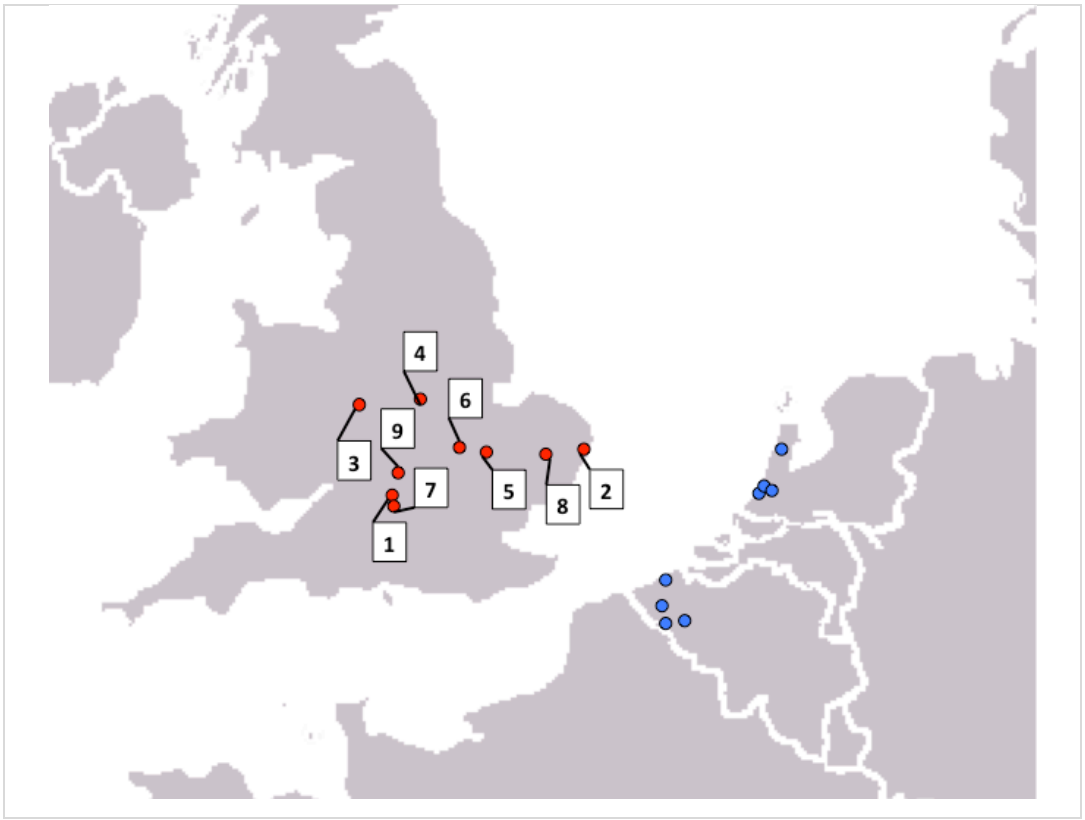

Figure 6.1: Anglo-Saxon settlement sites: 1) Barrow Hill, 2) Bloodmoor Hill, 3) Catholme, 4) Eye Kettleby, 5) Gamlingay, 6) Higham Ferrers, 7) Sutton Courtenay, 8) West Stow (after cs.wikipedia.org).

the suggested date of the deposit, a short description of the archaeological context and the associated literature.

6.1. Barrow Hills, Oxfordshire

Site introduction

The first record of the site name 'Barrow Hills' dates to AD 1547. A Neolithic oval barrow was found in the north-west corner of the excavation, Barrow 1 was found in the north-east corner and Barrows 12-13 was found at the south of the site (Crewe 2012, 136). The Anglo-Saxon settlement is excavated between 1983 and 1985 by the Oxford Archaeological Unit and Reading University. It was not possible to excavate the settlement entirely. The western boundary of the settlement lies next to a stream and the marshy lands of the Daisy Banks (Crewe 2012, 136).

Thirteen building structures and 45 SFB's have been excavated. The settlement was occupied from the fifth to the seventh century (Chambers and McAdams 2007, 66; 297 in Crewe 2012, 136). The phasing of the settlement is mostly based on the SFB's infill. There are three site phases are: 1) 5th-century (*terminus post quem)*, 2) 5th-6th century and 3) 6th- 7th century (Crewe 2012, 139). Most of the buildings stood centralised in the settlement. These were surrounded by several of the prehistoric structures, but not directly associated with them. On the other hand, some clusters of SFB's do have associations with the prehistoric barrows. Six SFB's were deliberately placed on or near prehistoric barrows (Crewe 2012, 137). The prehistoric monuments were still visible in the Anglo-Saxon period: several of the ring-ditches around the barrows were filled with Anglo-Saxon material. There are also some smaller prehistoric (pond) barrows and ring-ditches that are associated with Anglo-Saxon structures and deposits (Crewe 2012, 136).

'Odd' deposits

Two deposits of interest have been found during the excavation (fig. 6.2). Both deposits are associated with pond barrow 4866. The burial of a dog has been found in the barrow itself. The second deposit is an inhumation at the side of the

barrow. This is the inhumation of a woman, who was at least 45 years old when she died (Chambers and McAdams 2007, 201; 218 in Crewe 2012, 144).

6.2. Bloodmoor Hill, Suffolk

Site introduction:

The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Bloodmoor Hill lies at the slope of a clay ridge, close to a stream that leads to the river Waveney and Lake Lothing. The site was occupied in prehistory, and also has a possible Romano-British phase. An assemblage of worked flint from the Late Mesolithic until the Early Bronze Age has been found on the site, together with some industrial flint from later periods. There are also a few Bronze Age and Iron Age pits and ditches. A nearby barrow has unfortunately not been documented well enough, but Dickens *et al.* describe the barrow is to be likely prehistoric with a secondary Anglo-Saxon burial. Material culture dates the Anglo-Saxon settlement to the late 5th/6th century to the late 7th century. The settlement includes 39 SFB's, a minimum of eight post-build buildings, several pits and a large midden (fig. 6.3-6.4) (Dickens *et al.* 2005, 63-68; Lucy *et al.* 2009, 1).

'Odd' deposits

The Anglo-Saxon settlement includes four 'odd' deposits, one in a SFB, three others in regular pits.

SFB 35 contains three cattle skulls, accompanied by a large assemblage of animal bone. The skulls are located at the northwestern part of the SFB. This deposits indicates to be a discrete disposal or dump of animal bone (Lucy *et al.* 2009, 96).

Pit F345 contains two cattle skulls and one horse skull, accompanied by an animal bone assemblage. The skulls have been found at the interface of the lower and upper fills (Lucy *et al.* 2009, 127).

Pit F425 contains the large fragment of a cattle skull and a scapula. Other finds include a large fragment of a lava quernstone and several large flint nodules (Lucy *et al.* 2009, 127).

Pit F366 contains a group of frequent fire-cracked stones and several animal bones. It includes a cow skull that was situated at the centre of the pit, just above the base (Lucy *et al.* 2009, 127).

6.3. Catholme, Staffordshire

Site introduction

The Anglo-Saxon settlement at Catholme is situated in the mid Trent Valley, on the edge of a gravel terrace. Evaluation of the site was carried out in 1973, prior to planned gravel extractions. This evaluation led into a large-scale excavation uncovering the Anglo-Saxon settlement, a prehistoric settlement and several prehistoric ritual monuments (fig. 6.5) (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 1-3). Bone material did not always survive due to the dry and acid environment at the site (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 10)

'Odd' deposits

The Anglo-Saxon settlement contains five deposits of interest. Three of these are (possible) inhumations (fig. 6.6). Not all of the graves contain skeletal material because of the pour conservation of bone material at the site. Possible grave 3367 contains no signs that a human skeleton was present. There is neither skeletal material nor discolouration found. It has been described as a grave because of the size and orientation of the pit. The pit is 2.15 x 0.5 m and NE-SW oriented. It is located at the south area of Zone VII. A cattle long-bone in the middle of the pit has been identified as a possible (food) offering with the deceased. Pit 3367 has also been interpreted as a grave because it shows similarities to grave 3617 (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 40).

Grave 3617 has been dug into the filling of SFB AS13, which is located at entrance E1. It is 2.25 x 0.55-0.65 m with a possible N-E alignment of the body. Only parts of the skull and long-bones have survived. These are accompanied by a slight discolouration. The size of the surviving long-bones, signs in the discolouration and the surviving teeth indicate the body belonged to an adult male of at least 20 years old (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 40-41). Conclusions about the sex should be taken with some precaution, as it is based on limited surviving bone material.

Grave 3666 has been dug into ditch 3621 of building D49. It is located just north of entrance E12 in the southeast area of Zone IX. The pit is 2.35m x 1m with a S-N orientation. The depth of the grave indicates that the ditch was not completely filled when the grave had been dug. Most of the skeleton only survives as discol-

ourations at the base of the pit. A knife blade has been found directly on the discolouration that indicates the spine. The sizes of the discolourations suggest the original body belonged to an adult individual (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41).

The lower fill of ditch 3323, part of boundary D27, uncovers parts of a human skull. The skull still contains five teeth. The wear on this teeth indicate the individual was over the age of 35 years old (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41).

Pit 3663, found southeast from entrance E10 and through boundary D47, contains multiple cattle bones. The bones probably belong to one animal. The bones include parts of a skull en several limbs. The pit is too small to contain a complete articulated cattle skeleton. It is possible that a complete cow has been placed in the grave in a dismembered condition (Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41). This cannot be concluded with certainty because of the poorly conservation of bone material.

6.4. Eye Kettleby, Leicestershire

Site introduction

The University of Leicester excavated the Anglo-Saxon settlement of Eye Kettleby in the late 1990s. Unfortunately, medieval and modern ploughing damaged many of the archaeological features. Most of the information given by Crewe is based on (unpublished) interim reports and personal comments of the excavators, which make that some of the given interpretations might change. The site has currently been dated to the 5th-6th century with a possible extension into the 7th century (Crewe 2012, 159).

There are 20-23 post-built structures (fig. 6.7). These are divided over two building clusters at the northeastern and northwestern area of the site. Several other buildings lay dispersed over the southern area. A cluster of 25-26 SFB's has been found in the centre of the site. There is a possible Bronze Age ring-ditch with an accompanying barrow at northern corner the site. Only a part of the ring-ditch has been recovered. A Bronze Age pit alignment lay adjacent to the barrow. There are four Early Bronze Age enclosures at the eastern part of the site (Crewe 2012, 159-160).

'Odd' deposits

There are several deposits of animals in the settlement of Eye Kettleby. Pit 977 contains an almost complete, articulated cow skeleton. Only the skull is not present. The skeleton lies near the base of the pit, just above a thin layer of ash. Pit 2230 contains two articulated cow skeletons accompanied with some loose animal bones. A pit containing a number of sheep/ goat skulls has been cut into SFB 5. SFB 18 contains an incomplete dog skeleton. The spine is still nearly complete. SFB 14 also contains an incomplete dog skeleton together with some loose animal bones (Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164).

6.5. Gamlingay, Cambridgeshire

Site introduction

The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Gamlingay is situated on the low rise of the Cretaceous Lowe Greensand ridge. It is situated c. 60m from a stream, which was a more dominant feature in the Anglo-Saxon landscape for sure. There are links to prehistoric find spots in the area. One of these is a Bronze Age barrow situated just 150 m from the excavated area. Excavations were carried out in 1997. At least 50% of all discrete features have been excavated (fig. 6.8). Pits are described as one kind of discrete feature. The deposits depicted below date to the third site phase of the settlement (Table 6.1) (Murray and McDonald 2005, 173-175; 181-183).

'Odd' deposits

Pit F2320 is located just outside Enclosure 1. It seems the enclosure ditch is avoiding this pit. The pit itself contains Early Saxon pottery and fragments of lava

Table 6.1: Gamilingay. Relevant phases and associated dates (after Murray and McDonald 2005)

Phase	Period
3a	Early Saxon: Early Saxon Farmstead (5th to 7th century)
3b	Early Saxon: Early Saxon – New droveway, enclosures and timber building
3c	Middle Saxon: New enclosure layout
3d	Middle Saxon: Shift in settlement, new buildings and enclosures
(3e)	((possible) Middle Saxon: cemetery)

quernstone. The purpose of the pit is unknown. Its location together with environmental data indicates in that the area around the pit might have been used for the processing of grain and cereals. This pit dates to site phase 3a (Murray and McDonald 2005, 184).

6.6. Higham Ferrers, Northamptonshire

Site introduction:

Higham Ferrers is located along a limestone ridge in Northamptonshire, on the eastern bank of the River Nene. It was only called 'Higham' at first. Robert Ferrers added 'Ferrers' to the name in the 13th-century. Higham was complementing the royal centre at Irthlingborough, situated across the river, as a demesne centre during the 7th-century.

The fieldwork was conducted in several stages from 1994/1995 to 2000/2001, as the result of upcoming building development (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 1; 4-5; 11). We are interested in the Middle and Late Saxon phases (phase 2a-c 3) of the site (fig. 6.9) (table 6.8).

'Odd' deposits

One possible placed deposit is a bundle of nine needles found at the base of ditch 15165, belonging to phase 2c. Three needles were broken, but all parts are still present (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 39).

The enclosure ditch from phase 2c revealed the skeletal remains of at least three individuals, one of which was skeleton 6678. This individual was situated in the backfill (6621) of the enclosure ditch, close to its edge. Only 67 % of the skeleton survived. The remains show bite-marks of a medium sized carnivore. The individual was a 30-50 year-old (most likely between 30-40 years) woman. She lies

Table 6.2: Higham Ferrers. Relevant phases and associated dates (after Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 13).

Phase	Period	Date
2a	Middle Saxon	Late 7th to early 8th century
2b		Mid to late 8th century
2c		Late 8th to early 9th century
3	Late Saxon	Mid 9th to 11th century

SW-NE oriented (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 48; Witkin 2007, 141-142). Other disarticulated human remains have been found in close distance of skeleton 6678. These are mandibles sf 355 and sf 356. Mandible sf 355 is contemporary with skeleton 6678; mandible sf 356 is dating to the late 7th-early 8th century. Both are concluded to be male (Witkin 2007, 143). Witkin concludes female 6678 was probably executed. She is missing her arms, head, neck and 4th lumbar, and her legs were bound together. Witkin concludes that she was suspended upside down (Witkin 2007, 144).

Child burial 2591 has been found in a shallow oval pit (pit 2604) belonging to phase 3 (fig. 6.10). It lies under a post-medieval plough disturbance. The child is NW-SE oriented and is nearly complete. There are only few signs of gnawing by a small carnivore or herbivore. The child is a slightly premature baby of 37-38 weeks. Radiocarbon dating dates it to the late 8th to early 11th century (Cal. 780 AD to 1030, 2δ). It is located within the footprint of building structure 2666 that belongs to phase 2b (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 57-58; 212; Witkin 2007, 142-143). There is a small overlap between the dating of the structure and that of de burial, which makes it still a possibility that the child was buried at a time that the structure was still, more or less, standing.

6.7. Sutton Courtenay, Oxfordshire

Site introduction

The settlement excavations of Sutton Courtenay are divided in two areas (fig. 6.11). Area one includes 33 SFB's and several (partially) post-hole buildings. This area is excavated in the 1920s and 1930s. Parts of this area are disturbed because gravel quarrying that occurred before and during the excavations. The second area includes the non-intrusive investigations and excavations of several large timber halls in the 1970s. Cropmarks in this area indicated the location of several SFB's as well. These cropmarks have been further investigated between 2001 and 2003. Single elements have been further examined in 2009. A penannular ring-ditch bisected by Hall A was confirmed to be prehistoric during this examination (Crewe 2012, 146).

Several other prehistoric monuments have been recovered as well. The northern area borders contain three prehistoric ring-ditches. Other ring-ditches have been found in proximity of the large halls. A possibly Neolithic oval barrow has been

recovered as well. Geophysical survey abnormalities have been found around this barrow, but these have not been excavated. It is thought that they possibly are Anglo-Saxon buildings and graves, after example of the settlement at Barrow Hills. This settlement is situated only c. 5 km from Sutton Courtenay (Crewe 2012, 146). The settlement dates between the 5th/6th to the 7th century (Crewe 2012, 149).

'Odd' deposits

Sutton Courtenay shows several interesting pit deposits. Pit 2 contains a horse skull and parts of an articulated horse skeleton. It also contains a dog skull and several dog bones. This pit lies west of building VII (Leeds 1923, 165 in Crewe 2012, 151).

Building XVII contains the hind and front feet of a dog deposited in its postholes. The hind feet are deposited in the eastern posthole. The front feet are in the western posthole (Leeds 1923, 63; 1947, 71 in Crewe 2012, 151).

There are also two inhumations in the settlement. One is that of an adult male accompanied by an iron knife at building X(1). This inhumation post-dates the building (Leeds 1923, 169 in Crewe 2012, 151). The second inhumation is that an adult female with her arms stretching to an infant. Two ox skulls and a horse skull are found behind her head. The inhumation is located in pit α west of building XXIII (Leeds 1923, 151).

6.8. West Stow, Suffolk

Site introduction:

The Anglo-Saxon settlement of West Stow is situated on the West Stow Heath, a sand-blown area in the Lark Valley. The area contains several findspots dating from prehistory to the Anglo-Saxon period. An Anglo-Saxon cemetery is excavated at the end of the 19th-century. The Anglo-Saxon settlement is excavated between 1957 and 1961. Part of the settlement is destroyed by a gravel pit (West 1985, 3; 9).

The excavations recovered a clear pattern for the Anglo-Saxon settlement. The centre of the settlement lay just above the flood-plain of the river Lark. The edges of the settlement are covered by several SFB's. There are 67 SFB's, several oth-

er post-built buildings and 87 pits recovered at the site. The dating of the site is based on the pottery from these pits (West 1985, 10).

'Odd' deposits

There are several 'odd' deposits found at West Stow, including two inhumations and three articulated dog skeletons.

Two female (young adults) inhumations of uncertain date are found inside the settlement (grave 1 and 2) (fig. 6.12). Both graves lack substantial grave goods: Grave 1 contains one bronze loop; grave 2 contains no possible grave goods at all. The fill of grave 2 contains several Anglo-Saxon pottery sherds (West 1985, 58-59).

Two articulated dog skeletons are buried in SFB 16 (fig. 6.13). One is situated in the lower fill, just above the base of the feature. The second dog lay on the slope of the lower fill. This skeleton was disturbed due to post-depositional processes. The author describes this skeleton is left to decay in a hollow space, which was protected by a wooden floor, or such like, before being covered up. It is possible that the second dog ended up there accidentally, after crawling into the space to die from several injuries (West 1985, 23). A third articulated dog skeleton is found in the filling of SFB 52 (fig. 6.14). It is in a central position of the SFB, high in its fill (West 1985, 43).

The animal skulls of a horse and an ox are found in SFB 45 (fig. 6.15). The horse skull is situated just above the base of the SFB while the ox skull is at the top of the primary fill (West 1985, 38). A second ox skull is found in SFB 65, in the centre of the pit (fig. 6.16). It lay 15 cm above the base (West 1985, 50; fig. 212).

6.9. Yarnton, Oxfordshire

Site introduction:

Yarnton is located in the Upper Thames Valley. The Anglo-Saxon settlement is situated on the north bank of the Thames. Excavations started in 1989 as a rescue project, as the area was designated for gravel extractions. After this the project grew from a rescue excavation to a large landscape study. A Saxon cemetery is found north of the site during railway construction in the 19th century. The first Saxon settlement features like several SFB's, post-built structures, pits and graves, are excavated in 1990 (fig. 6.17). This excavation was done very quickly

due to limited time and budget. The northern part of the site is excavated more carefully. The eastern side of the settlement is excavated by the end of 1990 and recovered Middle to Late Saxon settlement features (Hey 2005, 3-5).

Placed deposits

The first 'odd' site deposit is not an isolated deposit. It is noted that the animal bone assemblage from the enclosure ditches show the lowest proportion of classic 'food' animals compared to all other feature-types in the settlement. On the other hand it shows the highest proportion of 'non-food' animals like dog and horse bones (Hey 2005, 71).

Two Middle Saxon placed deposits are recorded. The top of pit 3888 contains the burial of an articulated goose skeleton. This goose shows no signs that it was prepared for consumption. A second goose from the settlement does show signs of food preparation. This skeleton is less complete and found in a pit filled with food waste (Hey 2005, 74; Mulville and Ayres 2005, 343-345; 348).

Two SFB's contain a horse and cattle skulls. SFB 7395 contains four cattle skulls from animals of two to three years old. The skulls were placed upright in the southwest quadrant of the building. They have no butcher marks, but one of the cows had been poleaxed. The fill of this SFB also contains two horse jaws. There are no long bones found in the fill from this SFB. Other finds include Roman pottery sherds and several large limestone and conglomerate slabs. One slab is situated over a cattle skull. The cattle skulls were placed at the interface between the primary fill and upper backfill. Two cattle skulls have a slightly earlier C14 date than contemporary features. This is why the researchers conclude that the fillings of SFB 7395 probably relate to the construction or use of the building, rather than the later backfill (Bell 2005, 183; Hey 2005, 74-75; Mulville and Ayres 2005, 336-337; 342).

SFB 7325, situated in the centre of the site, contains one cattle skull and two horse skulls. It also contains the mandibles of at least five individual horses. One of the cattle skulls has a possible chop mark. There are no butchery marks on the horse bones (Bell 2005, 183; Hey 2005, 75; Mulville and Ayres 2005, 337; 342-343).

The last deposit is that of a partial articulated dog skeleton in context 5000 (Mulville and Ayres 2005, 343).

Appendix II Figures chapter 6

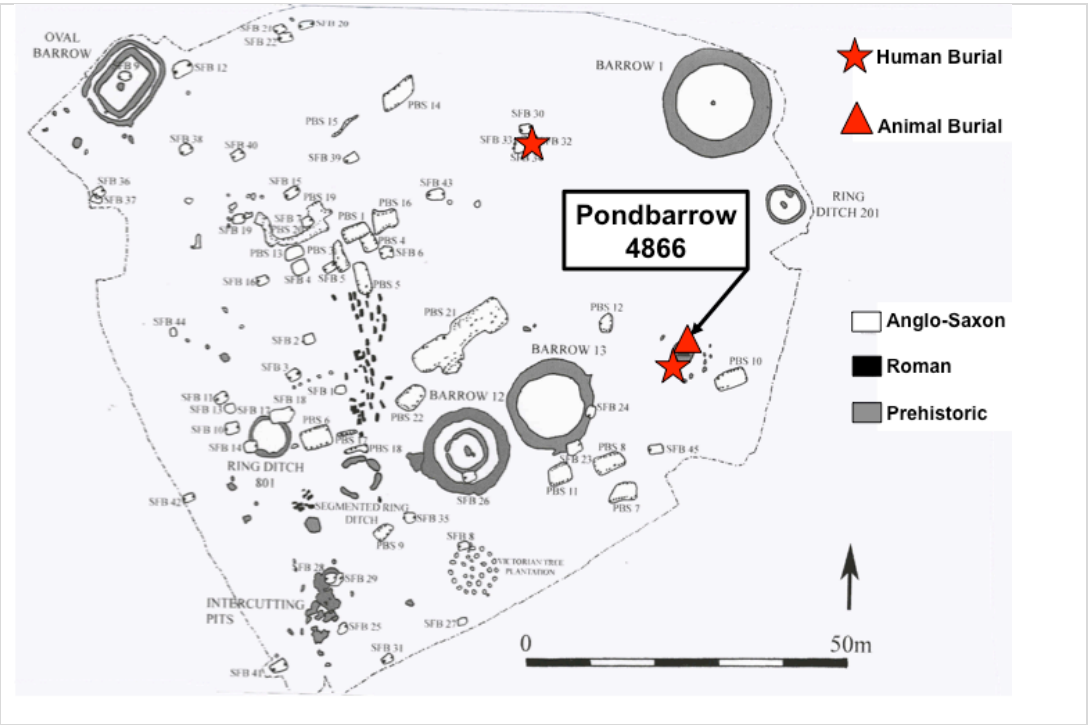

Figure 6.2: Barrow Hills. Site plan. Highlighted: pond barrow 4866 (after Crewe 2012, 181).

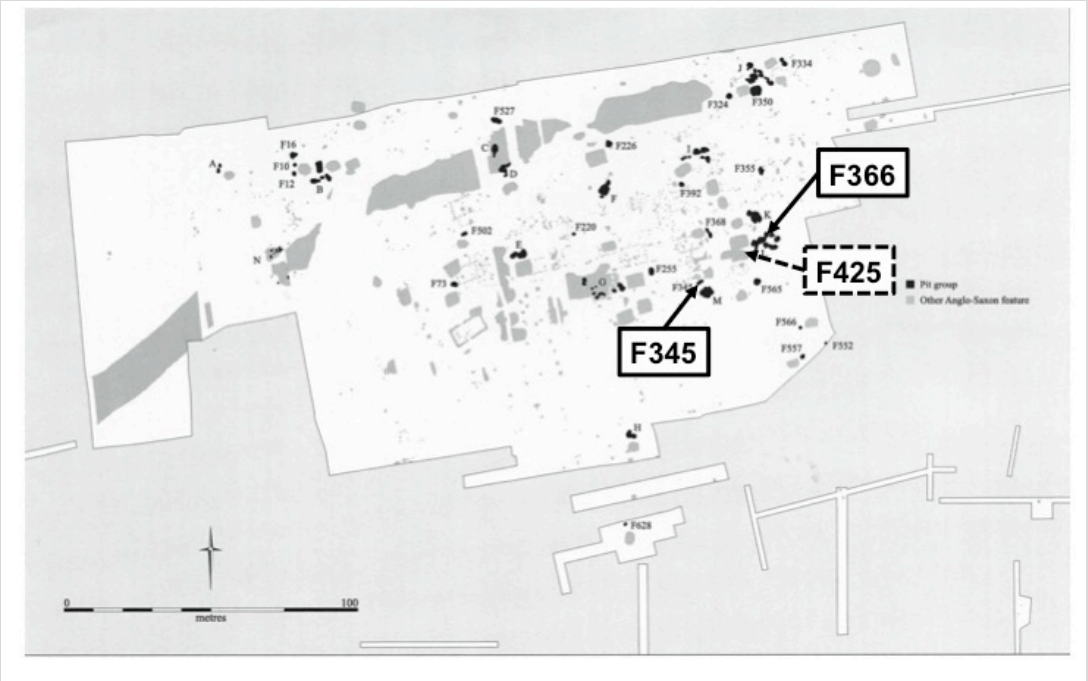

Figure 6.3: Bloodmoor Hill. Location of pits. Highlighted: F345, F366 and possible location F425 (after Lucy et al. 2009, 122).

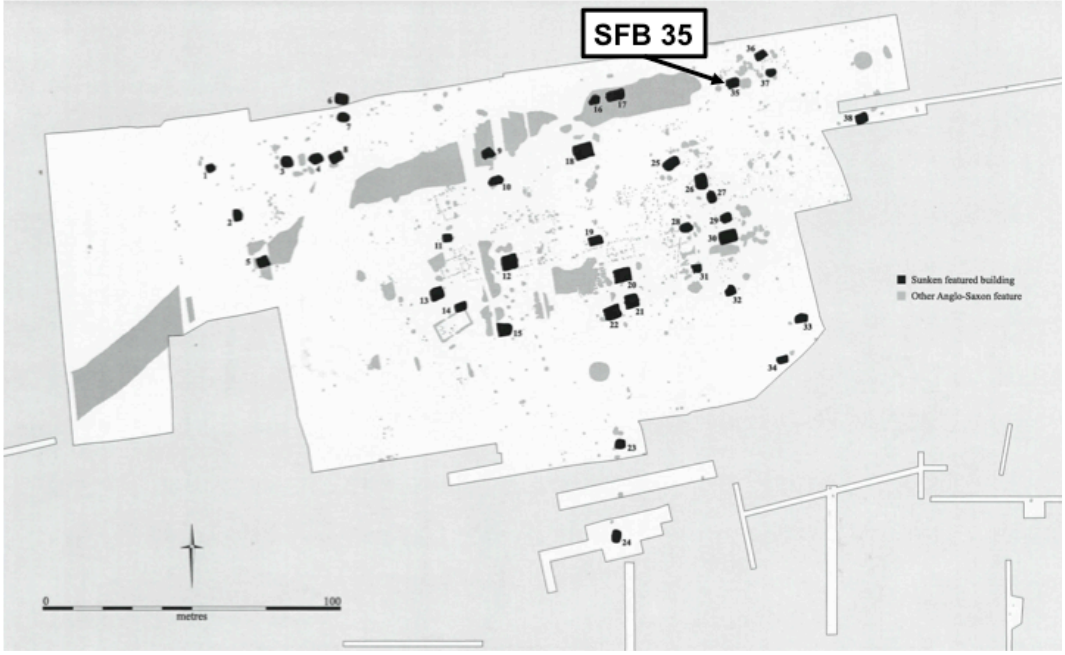

Figure 6.4: Bloodmoor Hill. Location of SFB's. Highlighted: SFB 35 (after Lucy et al. 2009, 39).

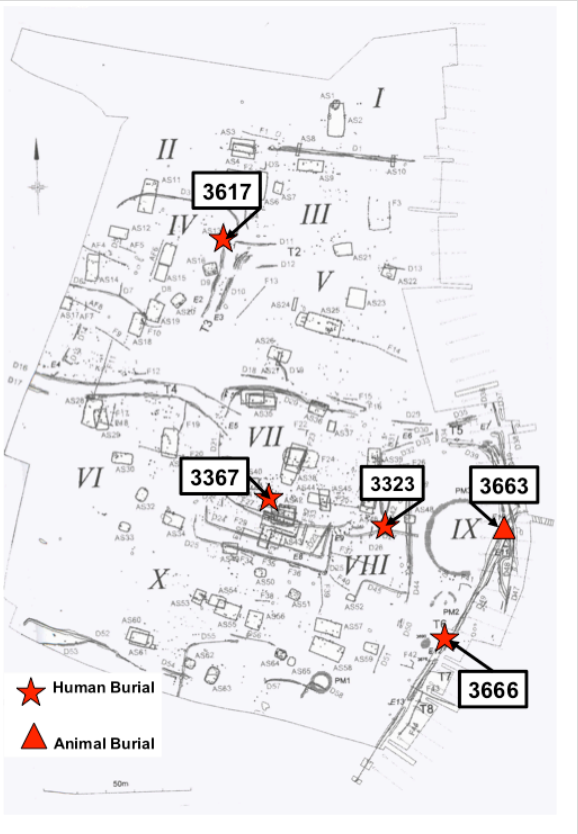

Figure 6.5: Catholme. Site plan. Highlighted: features 3617, 3367, 3323, 3663 and 36666 (after Crewe 2012, 191).

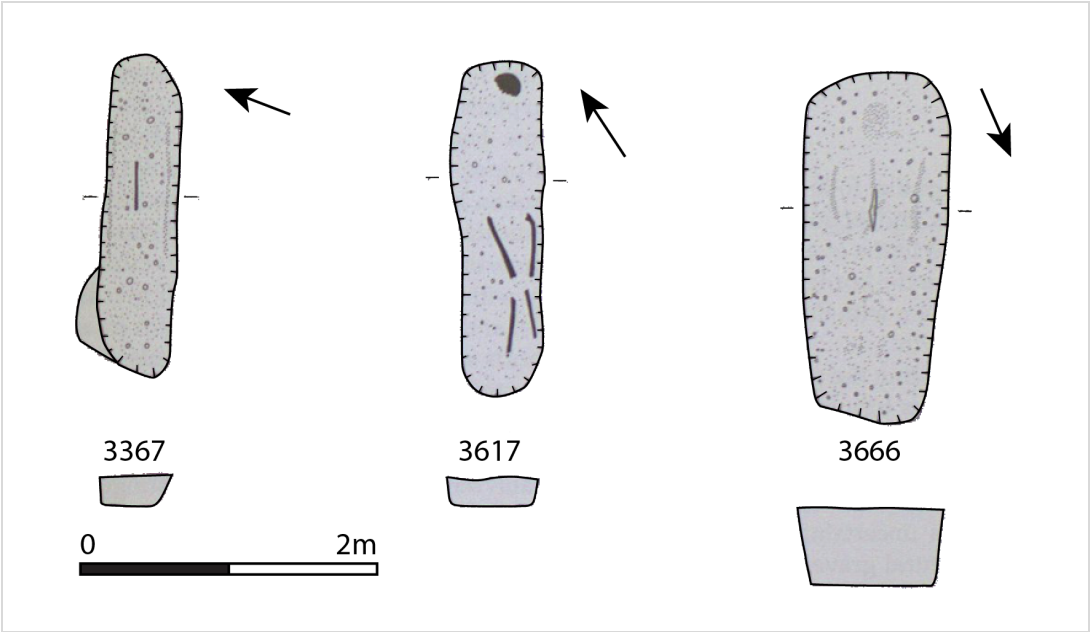

Figure 6.6: Catholme. Inhumations 3367, 3617 and 3666 (after Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41).

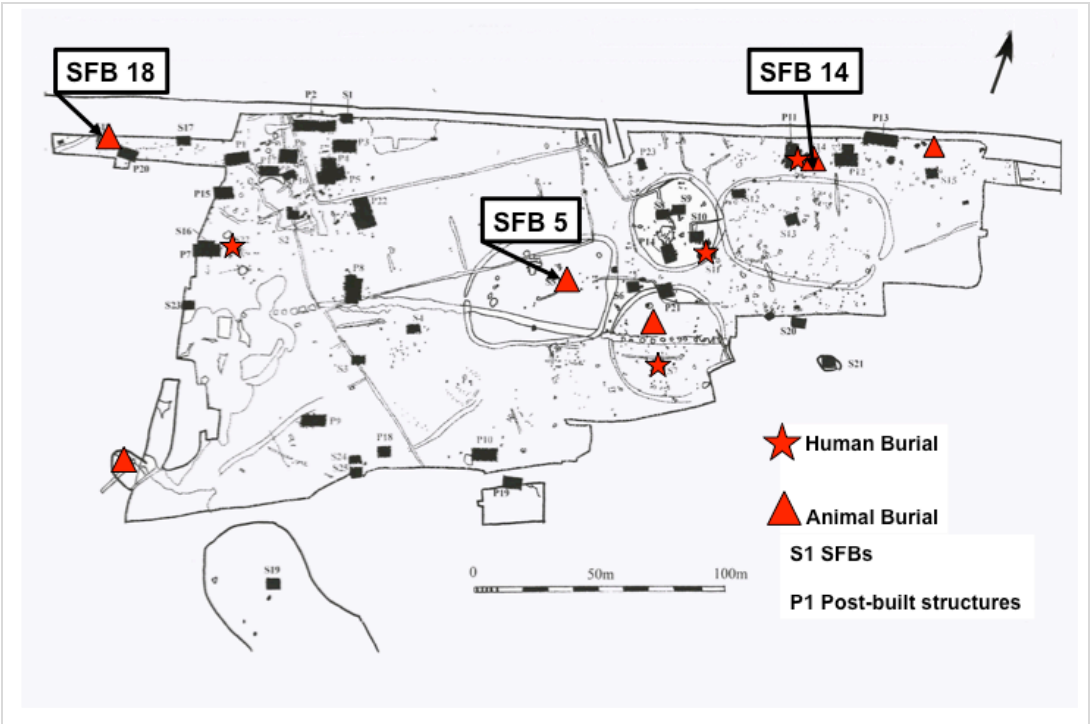

Figure 6.7: Eye Kettleby. Site plan. Highlighted: SFB's 5, 14 and 18 (after Crewe 2012, 195).

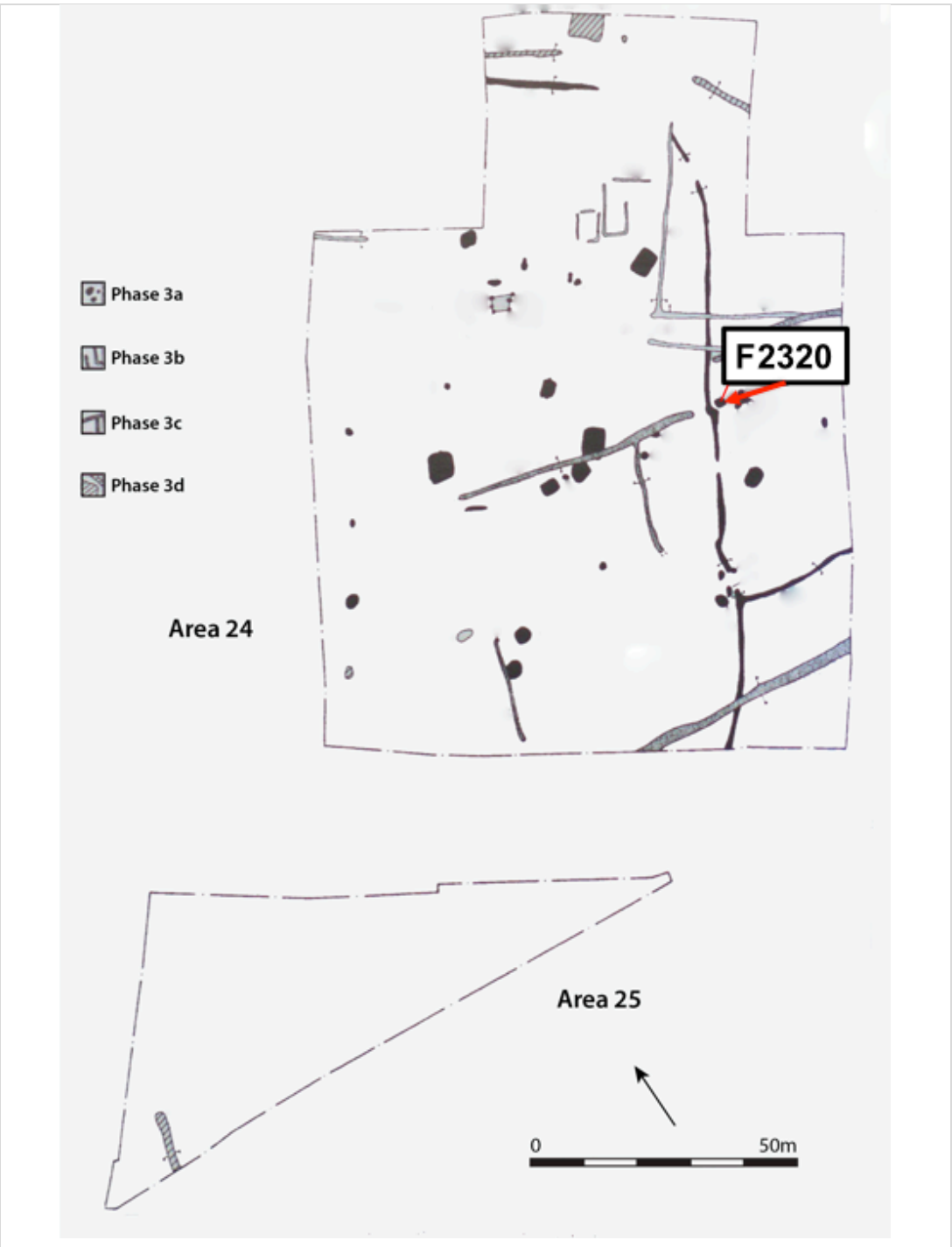

Figure 6.8: Gamlingay. Anglo-Saxon phase. Highlighted: F2320 (after Murray and McDonald 2005, 182).

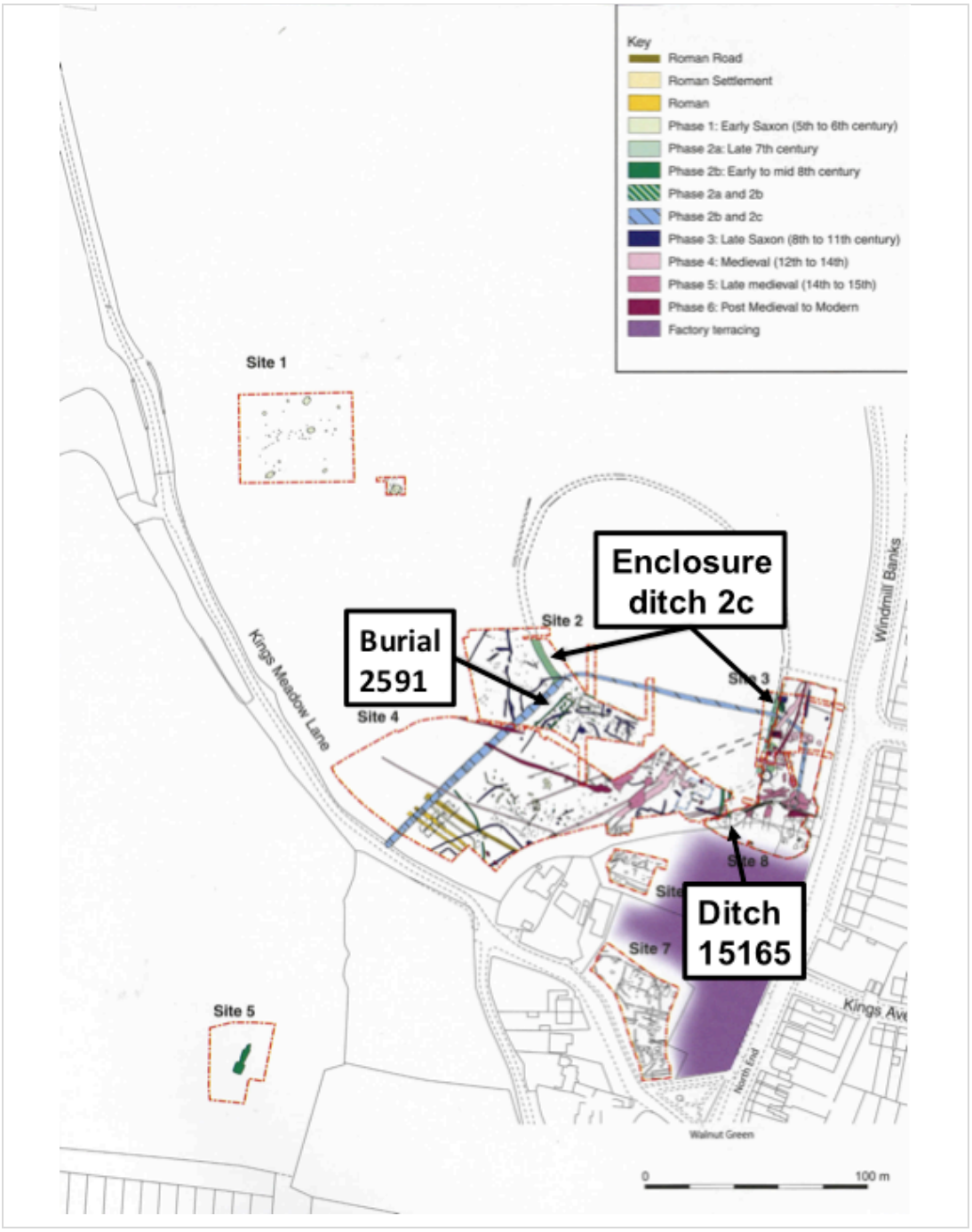

Figure 6.9: Higham Ferrers. Site plan. Highlighted: Burial 2591, enclosure ditch 2c and ditch 15165 (after Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 15).

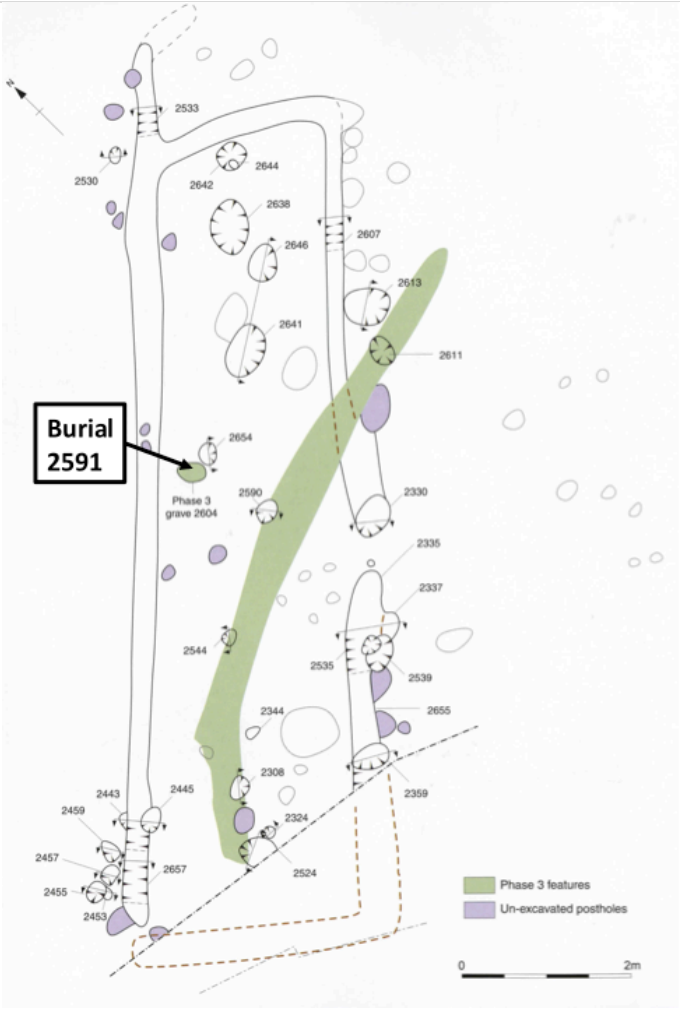

Figure 6.10: Higham Ferrers. Highlighted: Burial 2591 (after Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 42).

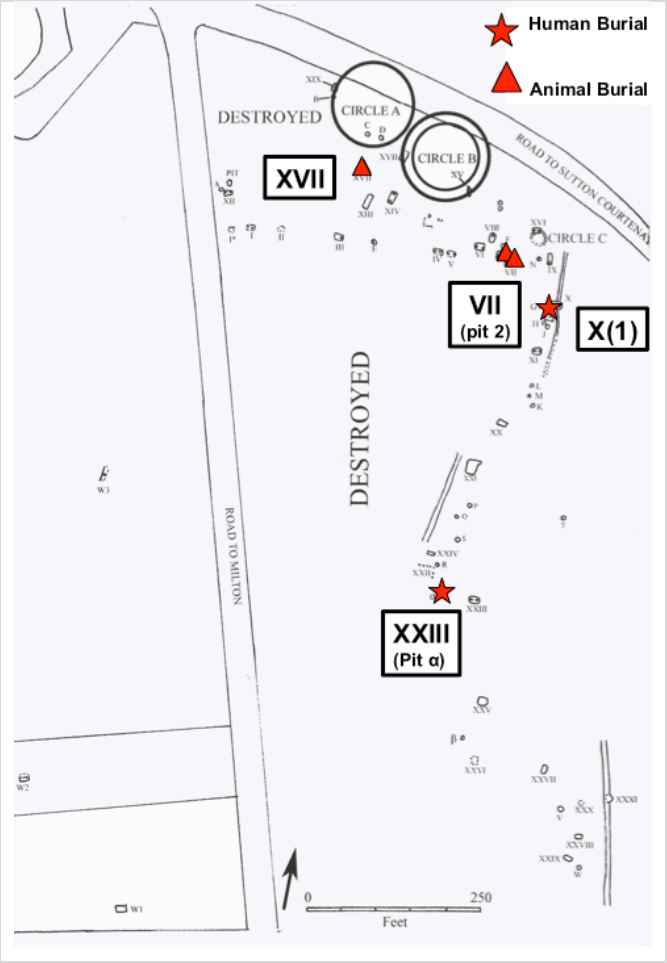

Figure 6.11: Sutton Courtenay. Site plan. Highlighted: Human and animal burials (Crewe 2012, 186).

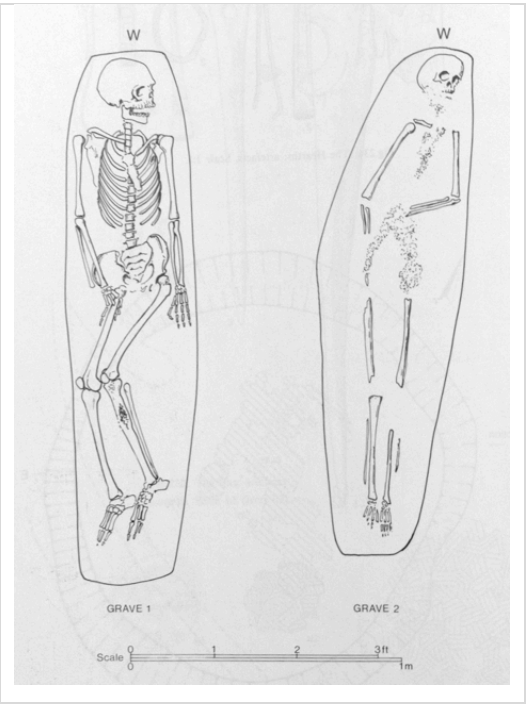

Figure 6.12: West Stow. Burials from (West 1985, fig. 236).

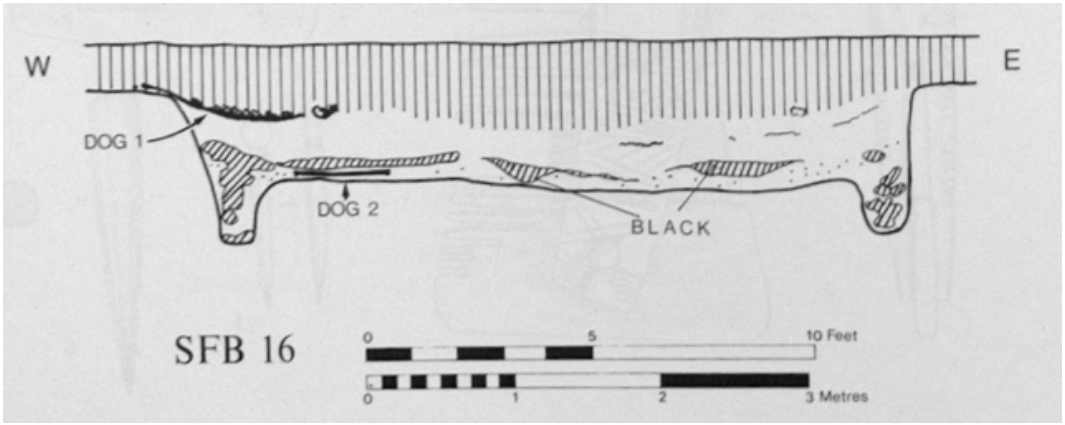

Figure 6.13: West Stow. Profile of SFB 16 with two articulated dog skeletons (West 1985, fig. 75).

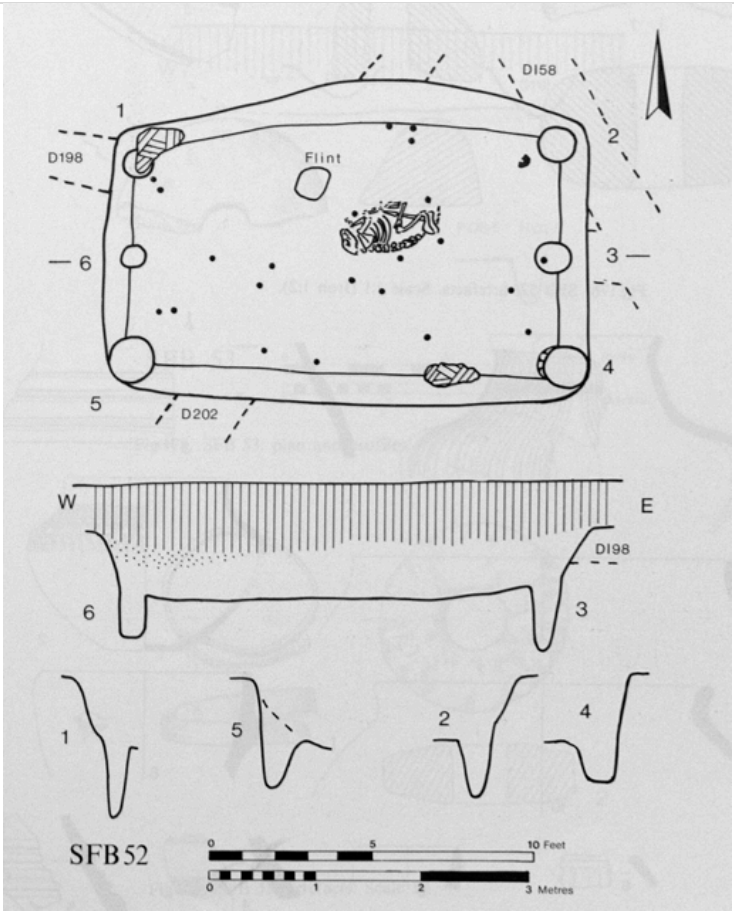

Figure 6.14: West Stow. SFB 52 with an articulated dog skeleton (West 1985, fig. 175).

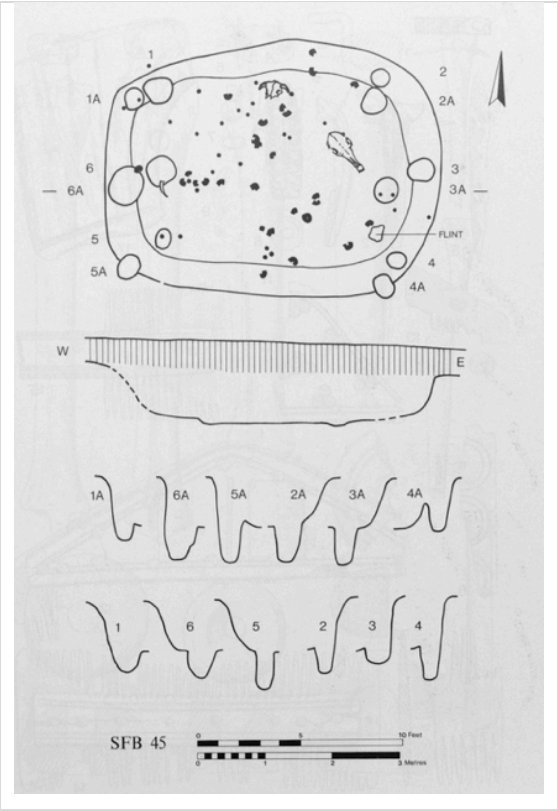

Figure 6.15: West Stow. SFB 45 with animal skulls (West 1985, fig. 153).

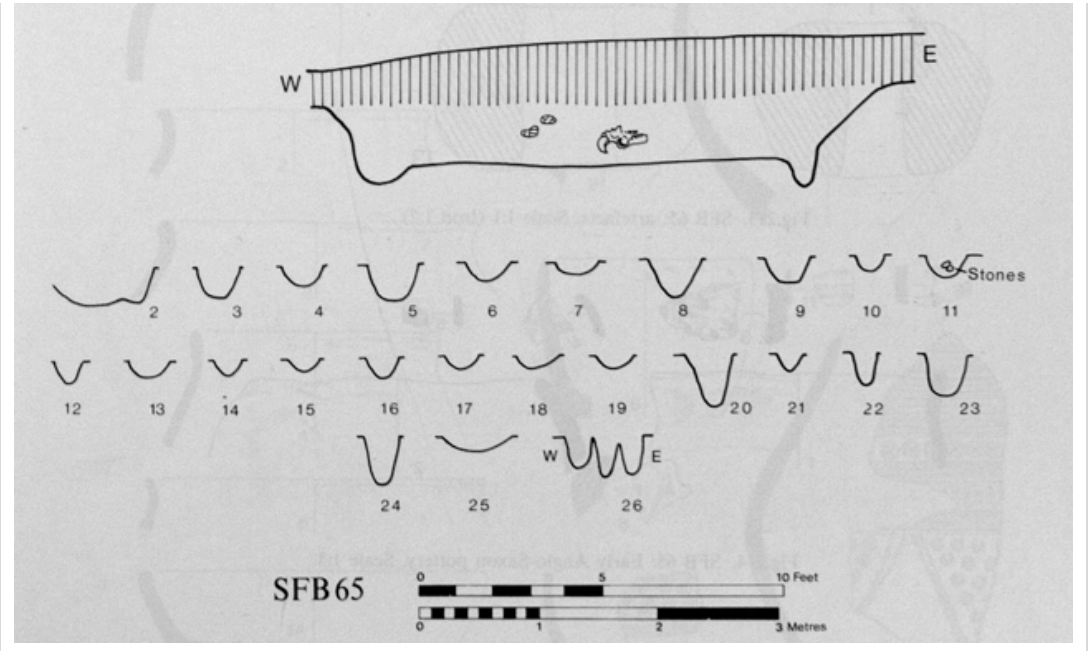

Figure 6.16: West Stow. SFB 65 with an ox skull (West 1985, fig. 212).

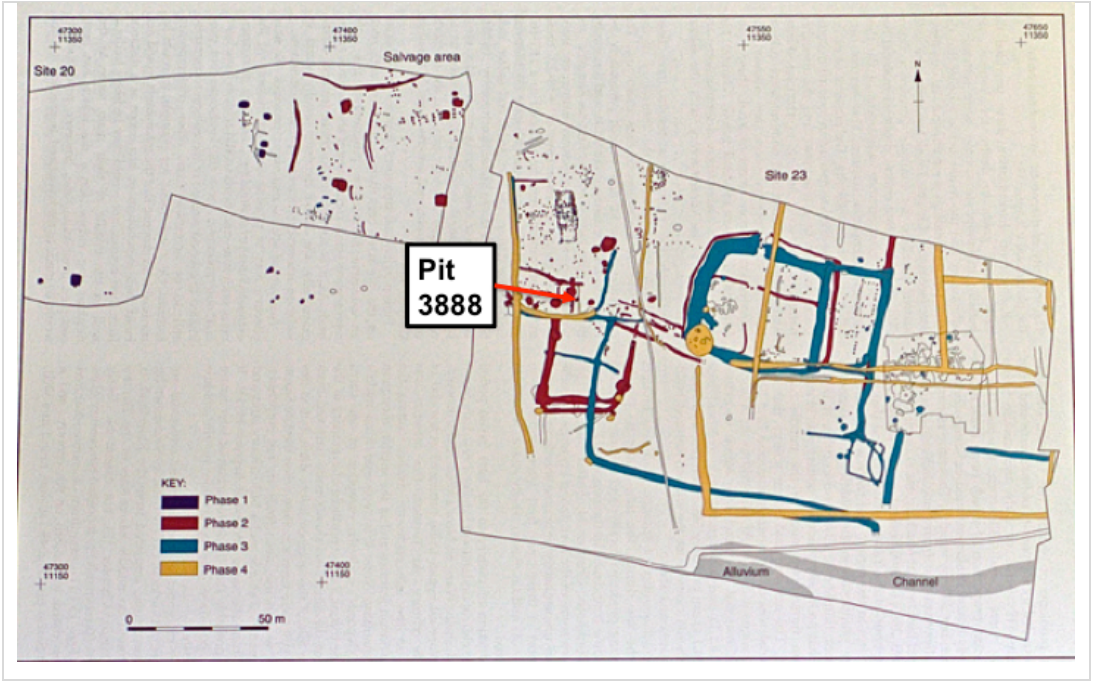

Figure 6.17: Yarnton. Anglo-Saxon phases. Highlighted: Pit 3888 (Hey 2005a, 20).

7. Material used for 'odd deposits'

This chapter analyses the material artefacts recovered from 'odd deposits' in the early medieval coastal area of Belgium and the Netherlands and Anglo-Saxon England. This material can be divided in several different categories (fig. 7.1). The results are discussed by material category in the following order: Faunal remains, human remains, other organic artefacts, pottery, stone and other inorganic artefacts. All associated figures are included as an appendix at the end of this chapter (appendix III).

7.1. Faunal remains

The main category of material recovered from 'odd deposits' is that of faunal remains. 44.8% of continental contexts and 58.8% of Anglo-Saxon context solely held animal artefacts (fig. 7.2-7.3; table 7.1-7.2). Another 10.3% (continental) and 8.8% (Anglo-Saxon) of the contexts held a combination of faunal remains and other artefacts.

Faunal remains can be divided in animal burials, animal skulls and loose animal parts (fig. 7.4-7.5; table 7.3-7.4). Most 'odd deposits' of faunal remains happened in the form of the burial of (almost) complete skeletons. 43.8% of the contexts with faunal remains on the continent are animal burials. A following 6.3% contains a combination of an animal burial with another category. 40.9% of contexts

Table 7.1: Continental coast. Main materials

Material	Amount	%
Animal bone	13	44.8%
Pottery e.o.	4	13.8%
Wood	4	13.8%
Animal bone e.o.	3	10.3%
Human material	2	6.9%
Pottery	1	3.4%
Stone	1	3.4%
Building material	1	3.4%
Total	**29**	**100,0%**

Table 7.2: Anglo-Saxon England. Main materials

Material	Amount	%
Animal bone	20	58.8%
Human material	10	29.4%
Animal bone e.o.	3	8.8%
Pottery e.o.	1	2.9%
Total	**34**	**100.0%**

with faunal remains from Anglo-Saxon England are animal burials. 9.1% of the contexts contain a combination of animal burials and another category.

Different animal species are found in animal deposits: Cattle, dog, horse, pig, goose and sheep/ goat. When we look at an overall of all found animal species, 47.1% of the continental contexts with faunal remains contain dog (fig. 7.6; table 7.5). Another 23.5% of continental contexts contain horse remains, and 17.6% of the continental contexts contain cattle remains. Anglo-Saxon contexts show a different picture (fig. 7.7; table 7.6). 42.4% of these contexts with faunal remains contain cattle. 27.3% of Anglo-Saxon contexts contain dog, 24.2% horse.
It is interesting to inspect which combinations of species are found in contexts with faunal remains. There are only three continental contexts with a combination of species: One horse – pig, one cattle – horse and one dog – human combination (fig. 7.8; table 7.7). The first is a horse skull with a pig jaw[1], the second a cattle burial with a horse skull[2] and the third a combination of deposited separate human bones and a dog skull[3].
It is more interesting to look at the Anglo-Saxon contexts (fig. 7.9; table 7.8). Here 22.7% of the contexts with faunal remains contain a combination of cattle and horse. One of these contexts contains two inhumations, two cattle skulls and

Table 7.3: Continental coast. Faunal remains

Material	Amount	%
Animal burial	7	43.8%
Animal skull e.o.	3	18.8%
Animal parts	2	12.5%
Animal skull	2	12.5%
Animal burial e.o.	1	6.3%
Animal parts e.o.	1	6.3%
Total	**16**	**100.0%**

Table 7.4: Anglo-Saxon England. Faunal remains

Material	Amount	%
Animal burial	9	40.9%
Animal skull	5	22.7%
Animal skull e.o.	5	22.7%
Animal burial e.o.	2	9.1%
Animal parts	1	4.5%
Total	**22**	**100.0%**

[1] Katwijk – Zanderij, pit in barn 8

[2] Leiderdorp – Plantage, ditch STR 22

[3] Leiderdorp – Plantage, midden STR 525

Table 7.5: Continental coast. Overview animal species from animal burials, skull deposits and loose animal parts[5]

Species	Amount	%
Dog	8	44.4%
Horse	4	22.2%
Cattle	3	16.7%
Unknown	1	5.6%
Pig	1	5.6%
Sheep/ goat	1	5.6%
Total	**18**	**100.0%**

Table 7.6: Anglo-Saxon England. Overview animal species from animal burials, skull deposits and loose animal parts[6]

Species	Amount	%
Cattle	14	42.4%
Dog	9	27.3%
Horse	8	24.2%
Goose	1	3.0%
Sheep/ goat	1	3.0%
Total	**33**	**100.0%**

one horse skull[4]. Four out of the five contexts contain multiple animal skulls and/or parts of cattle and horse. At Yarnton for example one SFB contains four cattle skulls and two horse jaws, while another SFB at the same settlement contains one cattle skull, two horse skulls and the mandibles of at least five individual horses. A pit at Bloodmoor Hill contains two cattle skulls and one horse skull.
It is interesting to look at the species used in animal burials compared to the species in skull deposits (fig. 7.10; table 7.9-7.10). Unfortunately, the numbers for the

Table 7.7: Continental coast. Species co-existing in one context of faunal remains

Species	Amount	%
Single species	12	75.0%
Unknown	1	6.3%
Horse – pig	1	6.3%
Cattle – horse	1	6.3%
Dog – human	1	6.3%
Total	**16**	**100.0%**

Table 7.8: Anglo-Saxon England. Species co-existing in one context of faunal remains

Species	Amount	%
Single species	15	68.2%
Cattle – horse	4	18.2%
Cattle – unknown	1	4.5%
Cattle – horse – human	1	4.5%
Horse – Dog	1	4.5%
Total	**22**	**100.0%**

[4] Sutton Courtenay, pit α.

[5] The table contains double contexts (example: a context with horse/pig is counted as 1 horse and 1 pig)

[6] The table contains double contexts (example: a context with horse/pig is counted as 1 horse and 1 pig)

Table 7.9: Continental coast. Species represented in animal burial compared to species represented in animal skull deposits[9]

Species	Animal burials (amount)	Animal burials (%)	Animal skull (amount)	Animal skull deposits (%)
Cattle	2	25.0%	1	16.7%
Horse	2	25.0%	2	33.3%
Dog	4	50.0%	2	33.3%
Sheep/goat	0	-	1	16.7%
Total	**8**	**100.0%**	**6**	**100.0%**

continental case studies are too small to make a conclusion. One extra case study could change the picture entirely. The numbers for Anglo-Saxon settlement are a bit more stable.

There was an emphasis for dog in animal burials, both in settlements in the continental coast and in Anglo-Saxon England. In Anglo-Saxon England, cattle serve as the second category. The picture is different with skull deposits. The major part of skull deposits in Anglo-Saxon England contains cattle skulls. Horse is found in 31.3% of the skull deposits contexts, which lies higher than the 8.3%[8] of horse animal burials.

Table 7.10: Anglo-Saxon England. Species represented in animal burial compared to species represented in animal skull deposits[7]

Species	Animal burials (amount)	Animal burials (%)	Animal skull (amount)	Animal skull deposits (%)
Cattle	4	33.3%	9	56.3%
Horse	1	8.3%	5	31.3%
Dog	6	50.0%	1	6.3%
Sheep/goat	0	-	1	6.3%
Goose	1	8.3%	0	-
Total	**12**	**100.0%**	**16**	**100.0%**

[7] The table contains double contexts (example: a context with horse/pig is counted as 1 horse and 1 pig)

[8] Equalises with one context

[9] The table contains double contexts (example: a context with horse/pig is counted as 1 horse and 1 pig)

7.1.1. Bone artefacts

Artefacts from bone material are also found at Anglo-Saxon settlements. A ditch at Higham Ferres contained nine (broken) bone needles (fig. 6.10). There are no bone artefacts recognised as 'odd deposits' on the continental case studies.

7.2. Human material

Five out of the 29 continental contexts contain human material (fig. 7.11; table 7.11). This is deposited in the form of inhumantions (2[10]), (possible) cremations (2[11]) and the secondary deposit of loose human material[12]. The two inhumations are both adult, male individuals. It was not possible to determine the age and sex of the (possible) cremations, as no real human material is conserved. The context of secondary deposited human material contains both male and female remains from different age groups. The numbers are too small to draw any more conclusions from them.

A higher amount of human material is found at the Anglo-Saxon case studies. Eleven out of the 34 Anglo-Saxon contexts contain human material, one of which in combination with animal bone[13] (fig. 7.12; table 7.12). There are eight contexts

Table 7.11: Continental coast. Human material

Description	Amount	%
Human parts – animal skull	1	20.0%
Inhumation	2	40.0%
(Possible) cremation	2	40.0%
Total	**5**	**100.0%**

Table 7.12: Anglo-Saxon England. Human material

Description	Amount	%
Inhumation	8	72.2%
Human skull	1	9.1%
Inhumation – animal skull	1	9.1%
Inhumation – human parts	1	9.1%
Total	**11**	**100.0%**

[10] Both inhumations are from *Limmen – De Krocht* (the Netherlands)

[11] Both (possible) cremations are from *Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat* (Belgium)

[12] This context from Leiderdorp – Plantage also contains the skull of an adult dog.

[13] Sutton Courtenay: two inhumations, two cattle skulls and one horse skull in one context.

Table 7.13: Anglo-Saxon England. Age/ sex groups in inhumations[17]

Age	Sex	Amount	%
Infant	Unknown	2	18.2%
Young adult	Female	2	18.2%
Adult	Female	2	18.2%
	Male	2	18.2%
	Unknown	1	9.1%
Mature	Female	1	9.1%
Unknown	Unknown	1	9.1%
Total		**11**	**100.0%**

with one or more inhumations, one human skull deposit[14] and one inhumation combined with human bone deposits[15].

The Anglo-Saxon inhumations show a divers picture when it concerns sex and age (fig. 7.13; table 7.13). Almost all age- and sex groups are represented at inhumations. It ranges from infant burials to a mature one. The numbers are not that large: every age/ sex group is represented by only one or two contexts[16]. There are a bit more female inhumations if you only look at sex, but this is not substantial: five adult/ mature females compared to two adult males. The context of these inhumations will be compared in chapter 8.

7.3. Other organic material

Other organic material is formed by wood, leather and plant materials. This type of material is only found at the continental coast sites (table 7.14). Eight out of 29 contexts contain wood, charcoal or plant remains, most in combination with other material like pottery, stone, building material and animal bone. Wood material includes wooden artefacts, like wooden pens and bowls[18]. Plant material describes pollen found in the context. The main problem in recognising wood at excavation sites with bad conservation circumstances for wooden material. This

[14] Catholme.

[15] Higham Ferrers, one inhumation and two loose mandibles.

[16] See chapter 3 for the ages related to the age groups.

[17] The table contains double contexts: One infant burial is found with a female inhumation

[18] 4/5 wooden artefacts are from Leiderdorp-Plantage, 1/5 is from Limmen – De Krocht

Table 7.14: Continental coast. Other organic material

Description	Amount	%
Wood	3	37.5%
Charcoal – pottery – stone	1	12.5%
Plants – ceramics	1	12.5%
Plants – stone – brick – pottery	1	12.5%
Wood – animal bone – leather	1	12.5%
Wood – ash	1	12.5%
Total	**8**	**100.0%**

might be the reason why no wooden artefacts are recognised at the Anglo-Saxon case studies.

7.4. Pottery

The first main category within the inorganic material group is pottery. Still, this group is smaller than the group of animal and human remains. Only five continental context contain ceramic material and only one Anglo-Saxon context (table 7.1-7.2). Early medieval pottery is not the only deposited pottery type. There are also assemblages that contain Bronze Age ceramics and *Terra Sigilata*. These might be secondary deposited or from older contexts that are disturbed by the early medieval deposition context. The later might be the case with the Bronze Age ceramics from the (possible) cremation contexts from Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat.

7.5. Stone

Stone artefacts include quern fragments, a whetstone, flint artefacts and unidentified (raw) stone material (table 7.16-7.17). The numbers are too small to draw a real conclusion from it. Continental coast settlements show an emphasis for

Table 7.15: Continental coast. Ceramic material

Date	Amount	%
Bronze Age	2	40.0%
Roman Age (*Terra Sigilata)*	1	20.0%
Early Middle Ages	2	40.0%
Total	**5**	**100.0%**

Table 7.16: Continental coast. Stone material

Description	Amount	%
Quern fragment	2	33,3%
Raw stone	2	33,3%
Quern fragment - flint artefacts	1	16,7%
Whetstone	1	16,7%
Total	**6**	**100,0%**

Table 7.17: Anglo-Saxon England. Stone material

Description	Amount	%
Quern	2	66,7%
Fire-cracked stone	1	33,3%
Total	**3**	**100,0%**

quern fragment deposits, but it has to be noted that two of them are from the same site[19]. All six stone artefacts are from two Belgian settlement sites: Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat and Poperinge – Sappenleen. The Anglo-Saxon stone artefacts are found at Bloodmoor Hill[20] and Gamlingay[21].

7.6. Building material

The third type of inorganic material is building material. This is only found at the continental coast case studies. All two continental contexts with building material contain (re-used) Roman bricks. Both are from Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat.

[19] Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat.

[20] One context with a quern, one with fire-cracked stones.

[21] One lava quernstone.

Appendix III Figures chapter 7

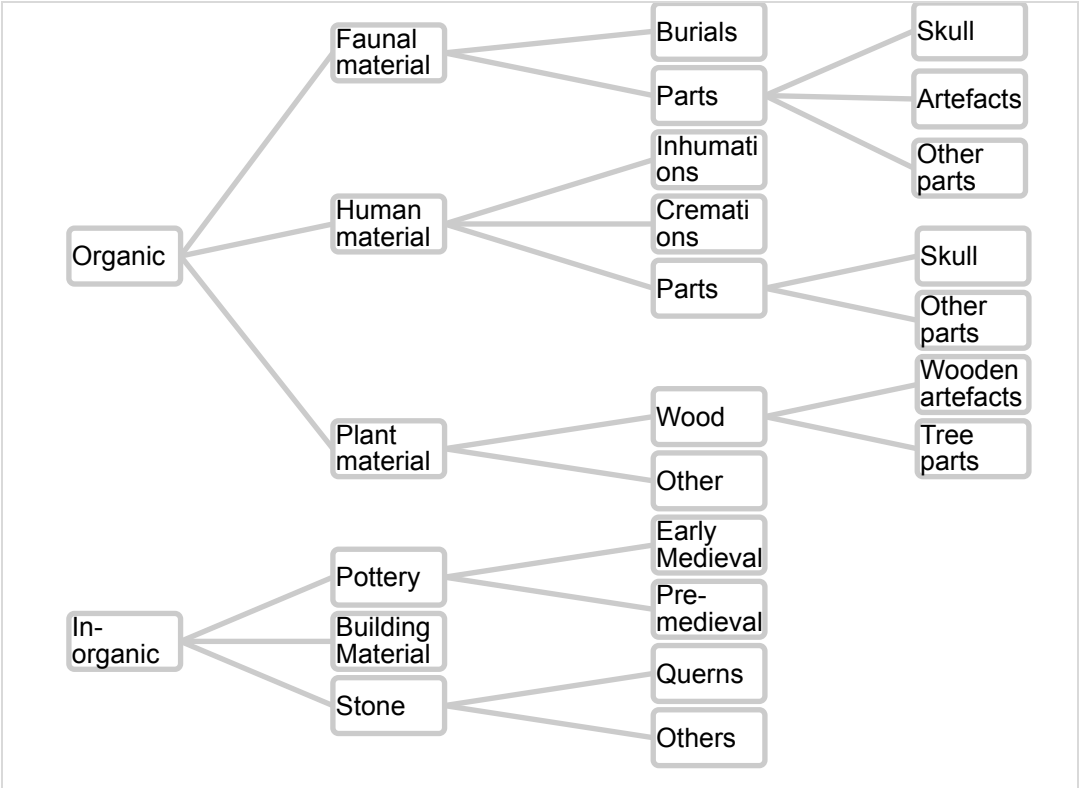

Figure 7.1: Scheme main material

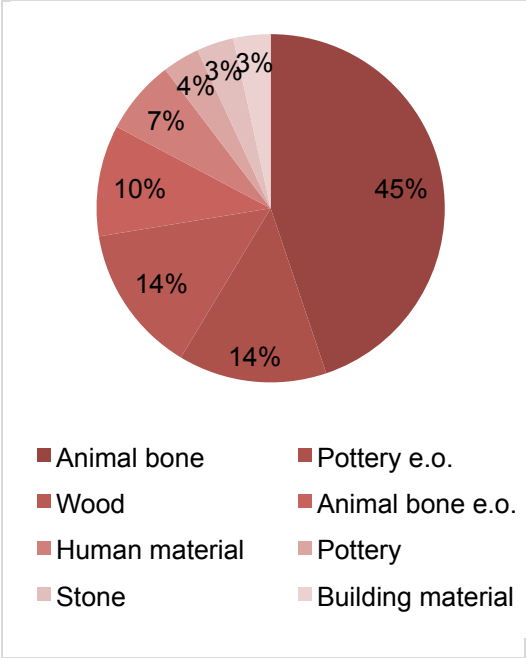

Figure 7.2: Low Land coast. Main materials

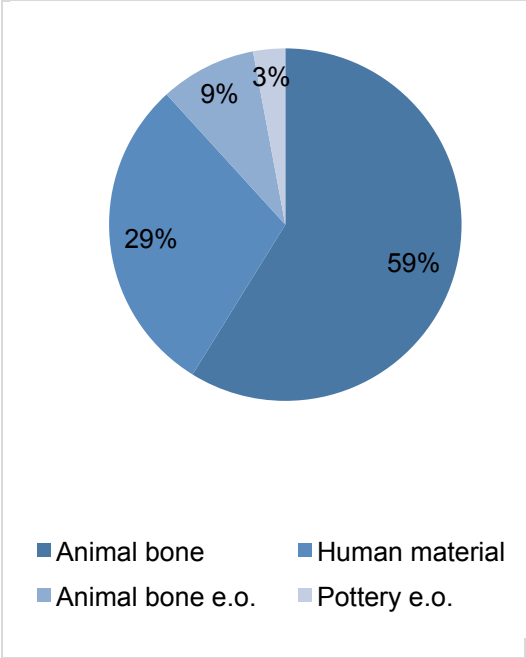

Figure 7.3: Anglo-Saxon England. Main materials

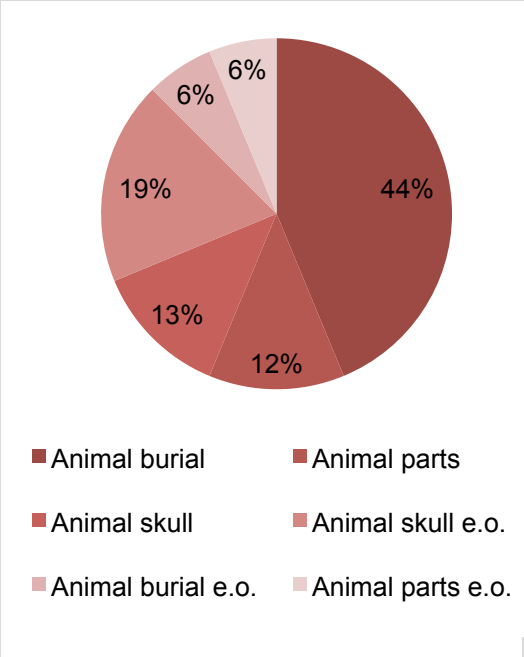

Figure 7.4: Low Land coast. Faunal remains

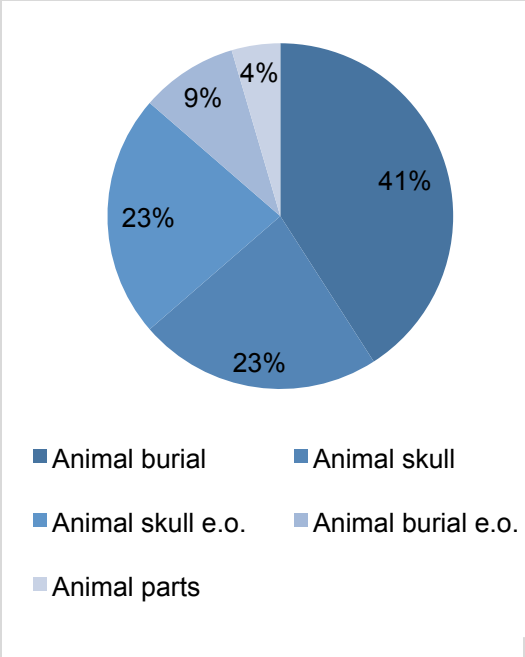

Figure 7.5: Anglo-Saxon England. Faunal remains

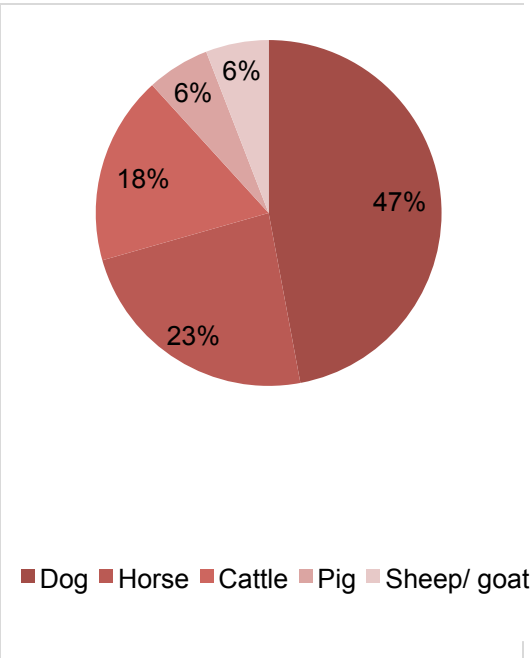

Figure 7.6: Low Land coast. Overview animal species from animal burials, skull deposits and loose animal parts.

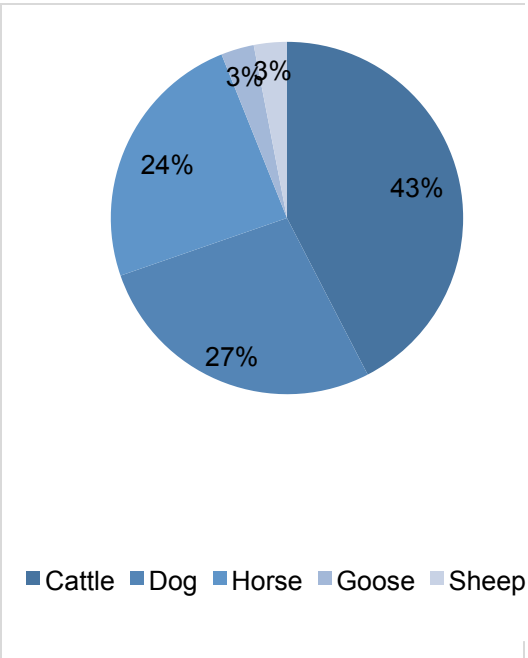

Figure 7.7: Anglo-Saxon England. Overview animal species from animal burials, skull deposits and loose animal parts.

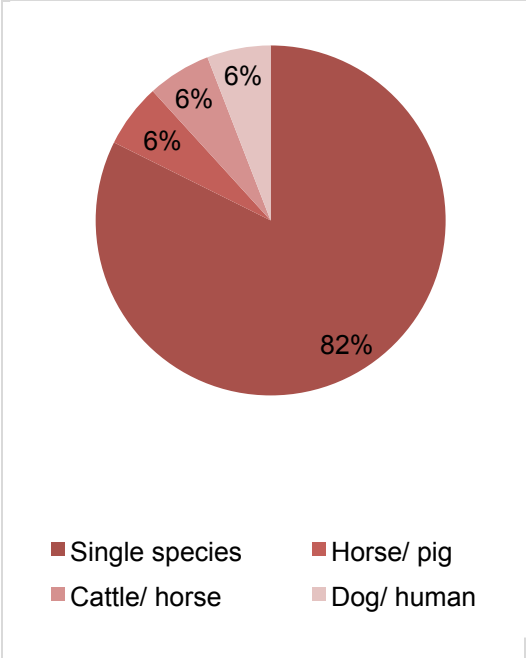

Figure 7.8: Low Land coast. Species co-existing in one context of faunal remains

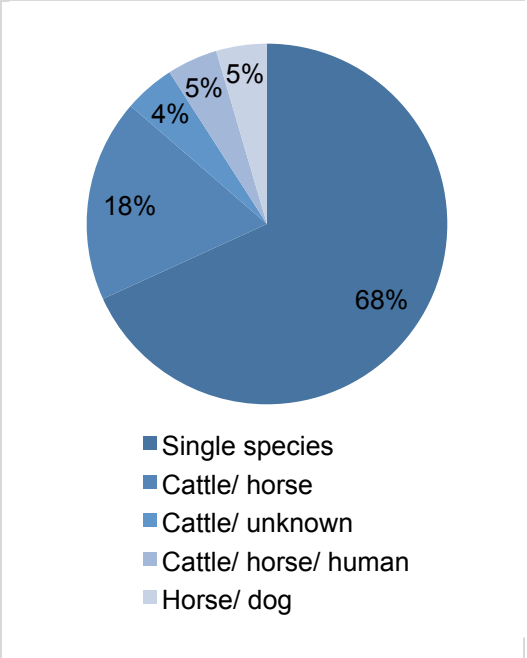

Figure 7.9: Anglo-Saxon England. Species co-existing in one context of faunal remains

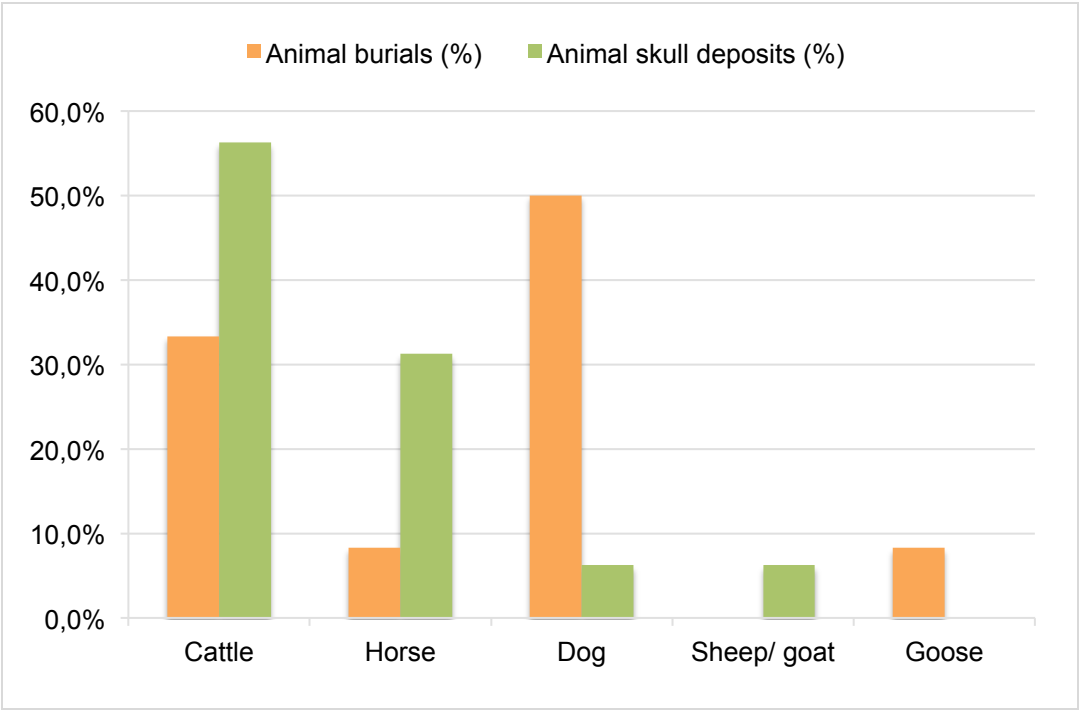

Figure 7.10: Anglo-Saxon England. Species represented in animal burial compared to species represented in animal skull deposits

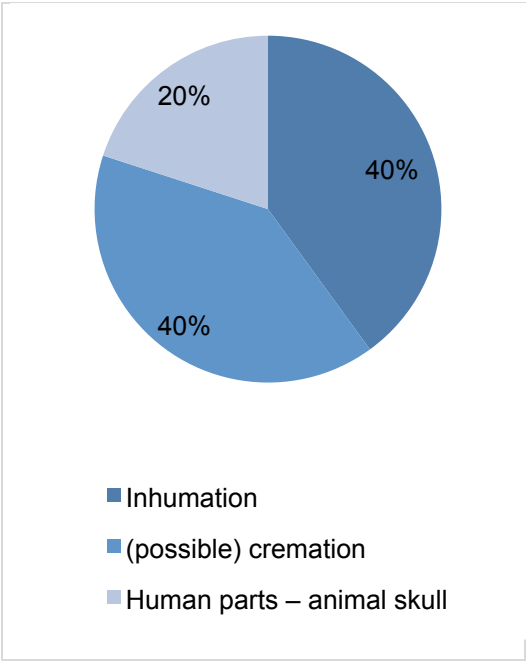

Figure 7.11: Low Land coast. Human material

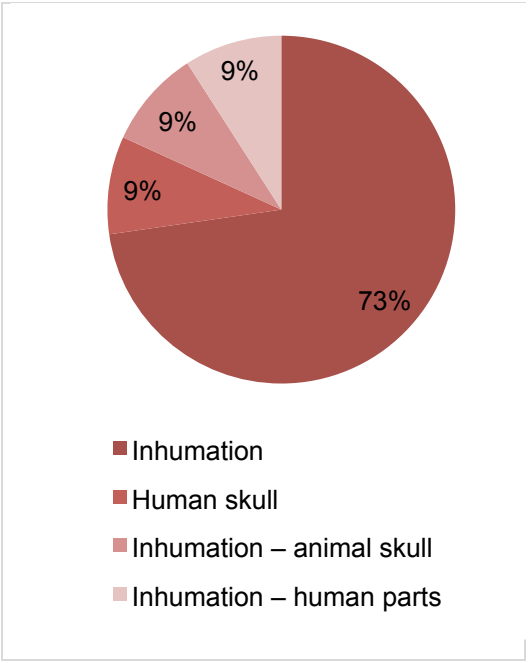

Figure 7.12: Anglo-Saxon England. Human material

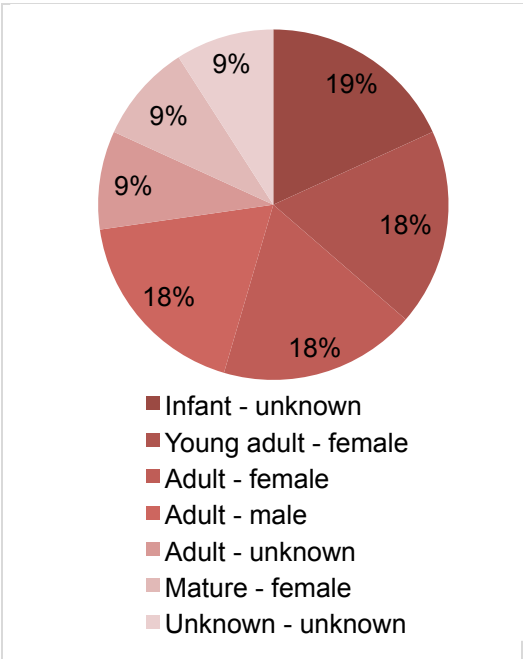

Figure 7.13: Anglo-Saxon England. Age/ sex groups in inhumations

8. ‘Odd deposits’ and their associated settlement features

This chapter describes the type of features associated with ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval Low Land coast settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements. First, we will give an overview of the associated features. Then we will zoom in on the connection between the type of feature and the ‘odd deposit’. Is there an emphasis for a certain type of ‘odd deposit’ at specific settlement features? The associated figures are included as an appendix at the end of this chapter (appendix IV).

8.1. Overall feature types

Varied feature types are used for the deposition of ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval Low Land coast settlements (fig. 8.1; table 8.1). The major part of ‘odd deposits’ is found in pits and/or postholes that are associated with earthfast buildings, followed by ‘odd deposits’ associated with major and/or minor enclosure ditches. Major enclosure ditches surround the settlement, while minor enclosure ditches surround smaller domestic areas like farmyards. Well and water pool features are less commonly represented as features for ‘odd deposits’.

There was an emphasis for sunken-featured building (SFB) structures for the deposition of ‘odd deposits’ at Anglo-Saxon settlements (fig. 8.2; table 8.2). Earthfast buildings were a second favoured feature for the deposition of ‘odd deposits’, followed by major and minor enclosure ditches.

Table 8.1:

Low Land coast. Overall features

Context	Amount	%
Earthfast buildings	8	27.6%
Unknown	7	24.1%
Well	4	13.8%
Minor enclosure	4	13.8%
Major enclosure	3	10.3%
Water pool	2	6.9%
Other ditch/ gully	1	3.4%
Total	**29**	**100.0%**

Table 8.2:

Anglo-Saxon England. Overall features

Context	Amount	%
SFB	11	32.4%
Unknown	8	23.5%
Earthfast buildings	7	20.6%
Major enclosure	4	11.8%
Minor enclosure	2	5.9%
Pond barrow	2	5.9%
Total	**34**	**100.0%**

The early medieval Low Land coast settlements show a more varied picture of the features associated with 'odd deposits' compared to the Anglo-Saxon settlements. Still, there are no large differences if you look at domestic and less domestic zones. 'Odd deposits' are mostly found within the domestic areas of the farmyard and craft area. Of course, this could also be a consequence of small excavation plots that miss out on the settlement's periphery.

8.2. Relations between 'odd deposits' and features

It is interesting to take a closer look at the relation between the type of 'odd deposits' and features. Some material is more common in one type of feature than another and vice versa.

8.2.1. Faunal remains and associated features

Chapter seven mentions eight animal burials found at the early medieval Low Land coast case studies (table 7.3; table 8.3). Four of these cannot be associated with a feature. This includes the three dog burials from Den-Haag – Frankenslag. The excavation report is unclear about the exact location of the pits/ postholes in which these 'odd deposits' were found. We could assume that they were associated with the found building, but this is based on the small excavation area (fig. 5.2). One dog and one cattle burial are associated with earthfast buildings. The dog burial is from a posthole associated with building P3 at Blankenberge – Lissewegestraat (fig. 5.22; 8.4). The cattle burial is from a pit close to the building found at Lo-Reninge (fig. 5.25).
A horse burial is associated with a minor enclosure at Leiderdorp – Plantage (fig.

Table 8.3:
Low Land coast. Animal burials and associated features

Description		**Earthfast buildings**	**Minor enclosure**	**Unknown**	**Total**
Animal burial					
	Cattle	1	1[22]	-	**2**
	Dog	1	-	3	**4**
	Horse	-	1	1	**2**
Total		**2**	**2**	**4**	**8**

5.11-5.12). It is closely situated to two granaries on the edge of a possible farmyard. A cattle burial is found in association with another minor enclosure at Leiderdorp – Plantage as well (fig. 5.9-5.10). This last cattle burial is found in relation with the deposition of a horse skull in the same enclosure ditch.

Four of the eleven animal burials from the Anglo-Saxon case studies are found in SFB-features (table 7.4; table 8.4). All four of these are dog burials. Two are from Eye Kettleby (fig. 6.7). The other two are found in SFB 16 and SFB 52 at West Stow (fig. 6.13-6.14). Dog 1 from SFB 16 was probably an accidental death, not a burial. A fifth dog burial is found in a prehistoric pond barrow at Barrow Hills (fig. 6.2). The burial is dug in the prehistoric layers. The inhumation of a mature female individual is found in association with the same prehistoric pond barrow.
Pit 2 with a horse burial, accompanied by a horse skull, a dog skull and several dog bones, is found in association with building VII at Sutton Courtenay (fig. 6.11). The second burial associated with an earthfast building is from a goose. This context is pit 3888, straight next to a building trench at Yarnton (fig. 6.17; 8.5).
The only cattle burial with a known feature context is found at pit 3663 in association with a major enclosure at Catholme (fig. 6.5). This burial lies outside the main settlement enclosure, close to one of its entrances. The deposition is related to one of the renewal phases of the enclosure ditch (Sofield 2015a, 114). In-

Table 8.4:
Anglo-Saxon England. Animal burials and associated features

Description		Earthfast buildings	Major enclosure	Pond barrow	SFB	Unknown	Total
Animal burial							
	Cattle	-	1	-	-	2[23]	**3**
	Dog	-	-	1	4	1	**6**
	Goose	1	-	-	-	-	**1**
	Horse	1[24]	-	-	-	-	**1**
Total		**2**	**1**	**1**	**4**	**3**	**11**

[23] One accompanied with animal parts from unknown species, Eye Kettleby

[24] With horse skull; dog skull and dog bones, Sutton Courtenay

humation 3666 of an adult individual lies at the other side of the same enclosure ditch, in the building trench of building D49. This is just north of another entrance in the enclosure ditch.

This analysis of animal burials shows how dogs were buried in close association with the domestic area of the farmyard and craft area. They lie close to earthfast buildings and SFBs.
Horses, on the other hand, are more commonly in minor and major enclosure ditches. But the numbers, unfortunately, are small. This is also visible at the cattle burials. The two continental burials are from an earthfast building and minor enclosure. The only cattle burial from Anglo-Saxon England is from a major enclosure. We cannot make too much assumptions based on these numbers, as will be discussed in chapter nine.

'Odd deposits' of faunal skulls show the following picture. There are six Low Land coast contexts that contain animal skulls (table 8.5). They are found in association with earthfast buildings, major enclosures, minor enclosures and wells. As discussed before, a horse skull is found with a cattle burial in a minor enclo-

Table 8.5:
Low Land coast. Animal skulls and associated features

Description	**Earthfast buildings**	**Major enclosure**	**Minor enclosure**	**Well**	**Unknown**	**Total**
Animal burial; animal skull						
Cattle; horse	-	-	1	-	-	**1**
Animal skull						
Dog	-	1	-	-	-	**1**
Sheep/ goat	1	-	-	-	-	**1**
Animal skull; animal parts						
Horse; pig	1	-	-	-	-	**1**
Human bone parts; animal skull						
Human; dog	-	-	-	-	1	**1**
Wood; animal skull; leather						
Cattle	-	-	-	1	-	**1**
Total	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**6**

sure at Leiderdorp – Plantage. A dog skull is found at the same settlement, together with secondary deposited human bone parts, but its exact feature association is unknown.
There are two skulls deposits associated with earthfast buildings. A cleaved sheep/ goat skull is found in building 18 at Limmen – de Krocht (fig. 5.14-5.15). A horse skull is found together with a pig jaw inside barn 8 at Katwijk – Zanderij (fig. 5.3). An incomplete dog skull is found in the enclosure ditch 3.022 at Blankenberge – Lissewegestraat (fig. 5.22). Pit 2.091 lies in association with a minor enclosure at the same settlement and contained several cranial remains of a dog. It is uncertain if the cranial elements are from the same individual, which is why it is categorised as animal parts instead of animal skull.

The Anglo-Saxon case studies recovered ten contexts that contain animal skulls (table 8.6). Six of these are found in association with a SFB. For example, there are three cattle skulls found in SFB 35 at Bloodmoor Hill (fig. 6.4). The same site also holds a pit (F345) that contained two cattle skulls and one horse skull (fig. 6.3).

Table 8.6:
Anglo-Saxon England. Animal skulls and associated features

Description		**Earthfast buildings**	**SFB**	**Unknown**	**Total**
Animal skull					
	Cattle	-	2	-	**2**
	Catlle; horse	-	1	1	**2**
	Sheep/ goat	-	1	-	**1**
Animal skull; animal burial; animal parts					
	Horse; dog	1	-	-	**1**
Animal skull; animal parts					
	Cattle; horse	-	2	-	**2**
Animal skull; animal parts; stone artefact					
	Cattle			1	**1**
Animal skull; stone artefact					
	Cattle	-	-	1	**1**
Total		**1**	**6**	**3**	**10**

Most of the contexts of skull deposits contained multiple skulls of one or more animal species. SFB 65 from West Stow is one of the exceptions and contains only one cattle skull (fig. 6.16). Another exception is SFB 5 from Eye Kettleby, which contains one sheep/ goat skull (fig. 6.7). SFB 45 at West Stow contained one cattle skull and one horse skull (fig. 6.15).
The deposition of a horse skull, partly articulated horse skeleton, dog skull and several dog remains is found in association with an earthfast building at Sutton Courtenay (fig. 6.11).
At Yarnton, SFB 7325 contained one cattle skull, two horse skulls and the horse mandibles of at least five individuals. SFB7395 at the same settlement contained four cattle skulls and two horse jaws.

We could say there is an emphasis for skull deposits at domestic features like farmyards and SFBs. Here we find mostly cattle and horse skulls at SFBs. These two species are mostly found in overall view as well.

8.2.2. Human remains and associated features

The previous chapter showed the small amount of burials recovered from early medieval Low Land settlements (table 7.11; 8.7). There are only two inhumations in our selection of case studies. Both are associated with major settlement enclosures at Limmen – de Krocht (fig. 5.18-5.20).
There are more inhumations and human bone deposits found at the Anglo-Saxon settlements used here as case studies (table 8.8). An overview shows that there is only one inhumation associated with a major settlement enclosure. This was the inhumation of a 30-40 year old woman, accompanied by two male mandibles

Table 8.7:
Low Land coast. Inhumations and other human deposits and associated features

Description	**Major enclosure**	**Unknown**	**Total**
Human bone parts; dog skull	-	1	**1**
Inhumation			
Male, adult	2	-	**2**
Possible burial	-	2	**2**
Total	**2**	**3**	**5**

in enclosure ditch 7330 at Higham Ferrers (fig. 6.9; 8.6). The skeleton was not incomplete and her ankles were bound. This inhumation was therefore assumed to be an execution victim.

There are four inhumations associated with earthfast buildings. One is the earlier discussed inhumation 3666 found at Catholme. Another is of a premature infant

Table 8.8:

Anglo-Saxon England. Inhumations and other human deposits and associated features.

Description	**Earthfast buildings**	**Major enclosure**	**Minor enclosure**	**Pond barrow**	**SFB**	**Unknown**	**Total**
Human skull							
Adult >35	-	-	1	-	-	-	**1**
Inhumation							
Unknown	-	-	1	-	-	-	**1**
Adult	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Infant	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Female, mature	-	-	-	1	-	-	**1**
Female, youth	-	-	-	-	-	1	**1**
Female, youth	-	-	-	-	-	1	**1**
Male, adult	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Male, adult	-	-	-	-	1	-	**1**
Inhumation; animal skull							
Female adult, in-fant	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Inhumation; human parts							
Female, mature; male mandibles	-	1	-	-	-	-	**1**
Total	**4**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**11**

Table 8.9:

Low Land coast. Stone artefacts and associated features

Description	Earthfast building	Minor enclosure	Unknown	Waterpool	Total
Animal parts; pottery; stone	-	-	1	-	**1**
Charcoal; pottery; quern	-	1	-	-	**1**
Plants; stone; brick; pottery	-	-	-	1	**1**
Pottery; stone; flint; glass; metal	-	-	1	-	**1**
Quern; building material	1	-	-	-	**1**
Whetstone	1	-	-	-	**1**
Total	**2**	**1**	**2**	**1**	**6**

at Higham Ferrers. The inhumation pit lies inside the footprint of structure 2666 (fig. 6.10; 8.7). Another infant lies together with a female individual in association with building XXIII at Sutton Courtenay (fig. 6.11). the female individual lies with her arms stretched towards the infant. A cattle and a horse skull lie behind her head. Another inhumation of a male adult individual is found next to building X(1) at Sutton Courtenay (fig. 6.11).

The burials described here give us some indications on the preferred location for an inhumation type. For example, infants are found closer to buildings. Deviant burials lie closer to the settlement's outer boundary ditches. But we have to mention again that the numbers are too small to create a strong argument for these assumptions. They will be discussed later in chapter 9.

8.2.3. Stone and associated features

Table 8.10.

Anglo-Saxon England. Stone artefacts and associated features

Description	Major enclosure	Unknown	Total
Animal skull; animal parts; stone	-	1	**1**
Animal skull; stone	-	1	**1**
Pottery; stone	1	-	**-**
Total	**1**	**2**	**3**

Table 8.11:

Low Land coast. Wooden and plant artefacts and associated features.

Description	Earthfast building	Waterpool	Well	Total
Plants; pottery	-	1	-	**1**
Plants; stone; brick; pottery	-	-	1	**1**
Wood	-	-	3	**3**
Wood; animal skull; leather	-	-	1	**1**
Wooden artefact	1	-	-	**-**
Total	**1**	**2**	**4**	**7**

Stone artefacts were recovered from 'odd deposits' in combination with other material types. Two early medieval Low Land contexts contain a quern (fragment) were found (table 8.9). One is from a minor enclosure at Poperinge – Sappenleen (fig. 5.26). The other was found in association with main building S8-17 at Harelbeke – Steenbrugstraat (fig. 5.23). A whetstone was found in a posthole of granary 1 at Poperinge – Sappenleen (fig. 5.26-5.27).

8.2.4. Wooden artefacts and plant remains and associated features

Only waterlogged contexts at the early medieval Low Land settlements recovered wooden and plant remains (table 8.11). There are two 'odd deposits' associated with waterpools and four with wells. All well features are from Leiderdorp – Plantage (fig. 5.5-5.8). They all contain worked wooden artefacts. Another possible burnt wooden artefact was found in association with building 18 at Limmen – De Krocht (fig. 5.14; 5.16).

The waterpools at Blankenberge – Lissewegestraat and Harelbeke - Steenbrugstraat both contain several types of material, one of which are plant remains from both domesticated and non-domesticated species (fig. 5.22-5.24).

Stone and wood/ plant artefacts seem to have a regional pattern. For wood this is mostly due to site circumstances. Wood and other organic material do not con-

serve as well as the inorganic artefacts, which will be the reason why we mostly find it in waterlogged features.
Stone is scarce at well. Some regions do not have close access to natural stone. The consequence of this will be discussed in chapter 9.

Appendix IV Figures chapter 8

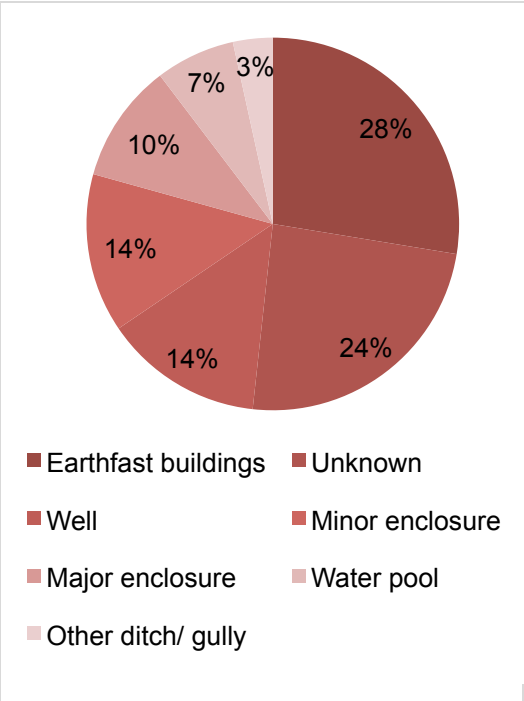

Figure 8.1: Low Land coast. 'Odd deposits' feature location.

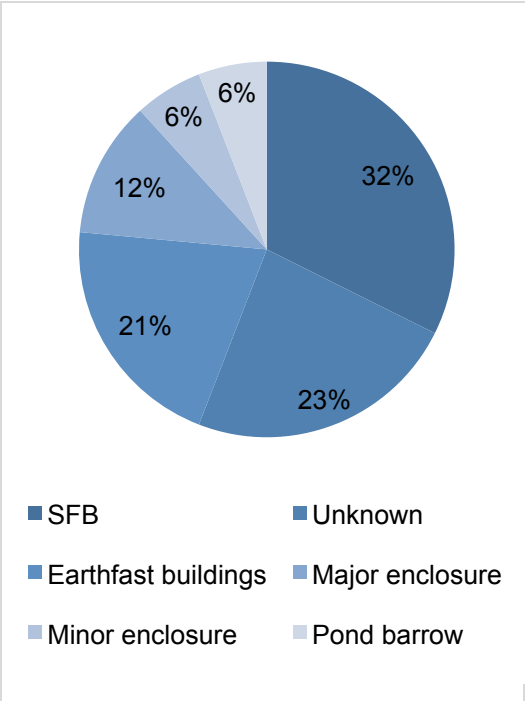

Table 8.2: Anglo-Saxon. 'Odd deposits' feature location.

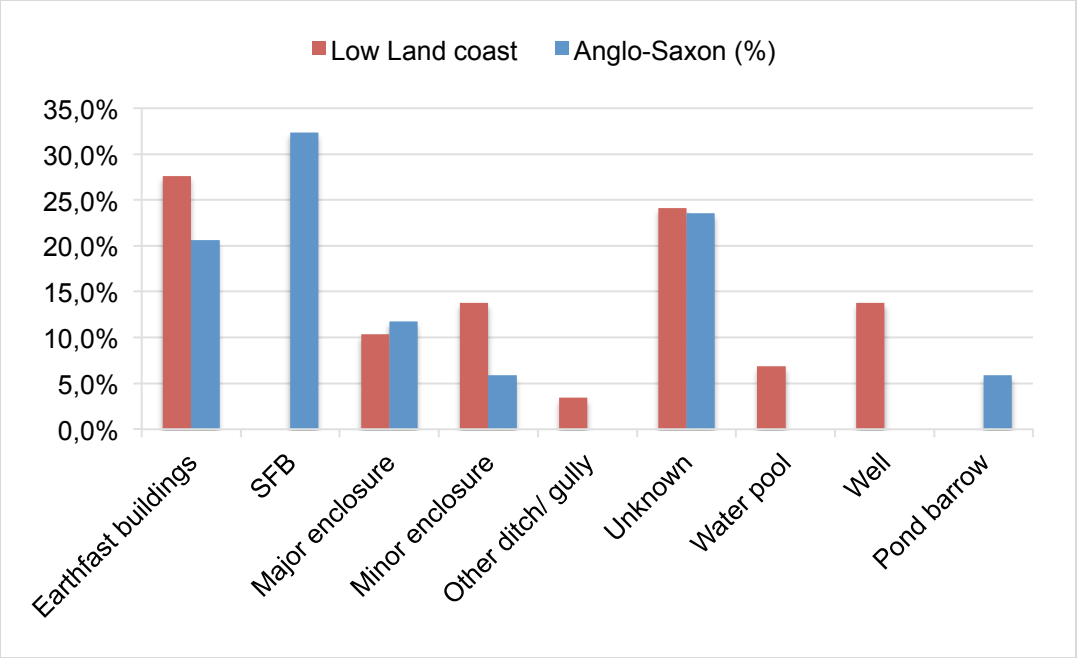

Figure 8.3: Low Land coast and Anglo-Saxon England. Features compared

Figure 8.4: Blankenberge – Lissewegestraat. Building P3. Left to right: post 2.074, 2.075 and 2.027 (Van Remoorter et al. 2016, 49)

Fig. 8.5: Yarnton. Goose burial (Mulville and Ayres 2005, 349)

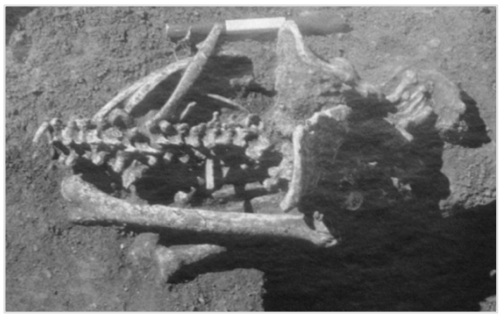

Fig. 8.6: Higham Ferrers. Skeleton 6678 from the phase 2c enclosure ditch (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 142).

Fig. 8.7: Higham Ferrers. Bone needles from ditch 15165 (Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 44).

9. ‘Odd deposits’: Really special or very ordinary? (Discussion)

This final chapter will discuss the answers on the research questions given in the first chapter. The chapter ends with a concluding answer on the main research question:

> “How should archaeologists approach ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval settlements?”

Especially specialists in medieval archaeology find it hard to interpret settlement deposits. They are usually defined as ‘odd’ or ‘special’ because they do not fit in the ‘normal’ picture archaeologists have of such practice (Morris and Jervis 2011, 73-74; 78).

9.1. Which archaeological theories can be applied to ‘odd deposits’ in the archaeological record?

We discussed the different ways of approaching ‘odd deposits’ in a theoretical manner. First of all it is discussed if ‘odd deposits’ should be seen as accidental losses, ritual deposits/ sacrifices or waste deposition. ‘Odd deposits’ are placed with a certain level of care (Sofield 2015a, 111). ‘Odd deposits’ have an intentional purpose, whether they are part of a ritual deposit, feasting sacrifice or structured waste. For example the human inhumations and animal burials close to a farmhouse. These were part of the reciprocity system with the divine outer world. The burials might have been used to increase fertility, renounce sickness or other ‘divine’ favours. The renouncement of sickness might be especially the case with animal depositions. In that case, old or sick animals were buried at marginal locations on the farmyard (Huijbers 2008, 317-318). The purpose of the ‘odd deposits’ is based on the association the objects and deposition context arouse.

The dynamic social structure in the early medieval period asks us to take historical social influences into account. The inhabitants oof the rural settlements probably still lived by the old animated religions and cosmologies. Still, in this period,

Christianity slowly started to influence the rural communities through the newly established local elite. This might not have been just yet of great influence at the act of 'odd deposition'. Early, rural, Christianity was still shaped by the previous pagan religions. In this time, early pagan rituals were formed to Christian customs. This thesis does not contain a further insight in the chronological change of 'odd deposits' through the early medieval period. This means the true influence of Christianity and other social reforms are not tested. This is one aspect on which more elaborate research can take place.

9.2. Which types of deposited objects can be recognised?

We recognised different types of objects used for 'odd deposits'. Deposits of animal burials, animal skulls and loose animal bone material are by far the largest material group. There are three main animal species: Cattle, horse and dog. Still, we see an emphasis on dogs when it concerns animal burials, while cattle and horse are more represented in the 'odd deposits' of animal skulls. Early medieval rural society closely related themselves to cattle, horses and dogs. They stood close to rural society, both in a physical and in a mental manner. Cattle were an important food source. The animals were often kept on the farmyard or in the farmhouse (as is the case in the early medieval Low Lands. Horse and dog were not consumed, but had a high symbolic association with aristocratic people. Interesting here is the low number of sheep and pig deposits. Both played an important part of the early medieval economy, especially secondary sheep products like wool. Pig and sheep are also mentioned as one of the first animal species within the Salian Laws (Drew 1991, 65; 69). This shows how a high economic value does not necessearily correlates to a high religious value. There is an emphasis on horse, dog and cattle in 'odd deposits', while sheep and pig are almost entirely unpresent.

Human inhumations and loose human bone material were also highly represented in 'odd deposits'. Here, we do not see a clear distinction based on age and/ or gender. Both children and adults are represented in our dataset, as well as male and female individuals. A larger dataset would support the creation of a more distinctive picture on this subject, as the study by Sofield (2012; 2015b) shows us. The number of human inhumations from the early medieval Low Lands

coastal dataset is very low, and no conclusions based on age and/or gender can be drawn from it.
Other types of material are pottery, both complete and incomplete pots, (Roman) building material, stone and wood/ plants. There is no wooden material from the Anglo-Saxon settlements, which might be an issue of bad conservation of wooden material.

9.3. Which types of locations were used for the deposition of objects?

The majority of 'odd deposits' was found in association with earthfast buildings, like farmhouses, barns and granaries. Sunken-featured buildings (SFBs) are the main focus point of 'odd deposits' at Anglo-Saxon settlements. The majority of dog burials and cattle skull deposits are found in SFB structures. Other features that are associated with 'odd deposits' from our dataset are wells, minor enclosures, major enclosures, water pools, pond barrows and other ditches or gullies. There is an interesting feature with the associated 'odd deposits' at Barrow Hills. This is the prehistoric pond barrow that includes an Anglo-Saxon dog grave. A mature human female individual is buried next to the pond barrow. This might be an expression of the person's social status based on her mature age.
The reuse of prehistoric and Roman context happened not just at Barrow Hills, but in other parts of Europe as well. Several 7th-8th century Christian chapels and associated burial grounds are located close to earlier Iron Age and Gallo-Roman structures (Loveluck 2013, 44).

One interesting inhumation from Sutton Courtenay is that of a female individual with her arms stretched to an infant. There lay two cattle skulls and one horse skull at her head. The deposited objects already show a high level of 'domestication', as cattle and horse were closely associated with the early medieval person. The deposition also lies within the domestic settlement area, close to a building. Half of the Anglo-Saxon inhumations lay in the domestic area close to a building or minor farmyard enclosure, both adults and infants. One infant lay in the middle of a departed house. On the other hand, a deviant burial of a female execution victim lies in a major settlement enclosure ditch, 'far' away from the civil domestic

area. The victim might have been associated with activities that did not belong within the domestic settlement area.
'Odd deposits' mark out specific locations in space and time (Brück 1999a). Like the cattle burial deposit of Catholme just outside a major enclosure, like to mark the borderline with the world outside the settlement. In contrast, the human inhumation at the other side of the enclosure ditch marks the inside, domestic, world of the settlement.

It will be interesting to analyse the type of objects correlated to feature elements like corners, entrances or crossing points. These elements highlight the liminal locations of the feature (Sofield 2012, 97). Research to Anglo-Saxon 'odd deposits' shows a correlation between skull and skeleton deposits, both animal and human, and contexts in- or outside walls and boundaries (Sofield 2012, 101). This thesis includes not enough data to create the same test as Sofield has done for Anglo-Saxon England. It would be interesting to see the picture given in a similar analysis of early medieval continental sites, both from the coast and the regions more inland. We could also increase the ability to analyse the chronological factor of 'odd deposit'-types. We do know the deposition practice continued during early Christianity. Early Christian sites in France recovered deposits that are associated with chapel sites and church entrances (Loveluck 2013, 44-45). For the future, analyses could include the change of objects and context during these periods of religious transformation.

9.4. Do object types differ between early medieval Low lands coastal settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements?

The most obvious material difference between early medieval Low Lands coastal settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements is the number of human 'odd deposits'. There are only two clear human inhumations from the Low Lands compared to eleven human inhumations at Anglo-Saxon settlements.
The Anglo-Saxon settlement case studies also show a more homogeneous picture of object types in 'odd deposits'. Almost every single settlement case study includes an 'odd deposit' of animal and/ or human bone material in the form of a burial or a skull or loose bone deposit. In contrast, the early medieval Low Lands

coastal settlement case studies show a very divers picture. Almost half of the case studies include animal bone material, but the other half consists out of 'odd deposits' of human material, pottery, wood, building material and stone.
Different causes can explain this difference in diversity between the two research regions. The first can be cultural. They both had their own way of expressing the social situation through 'odd deposits'. The higher diversity rate of objects and contexts suggest this might have been more locally oriented in the early medieval Low Lands coastal area than in Anglo-Saxon England.
The second is related to conservation, especially of wooden artefacts. The wooden objects from the early medieval Low Land settlement are all from case studies with good, humid, conditions for the conservation of wood.
The third is related to the archaeological excavations and reports. This became a clear issue during the data collection phase of this thesis. Not every excavator has the advantage of publishing a detailed report. Because of this details of context interesting to us were not always mentioned in the report. Next to this comes the excavator's personal 'favours'. For example, the SFB structures from West Stow were published in great detail, while others mostly mention the 'special finds'. The same counts for wells from the early medieval Low Lands coastal area. Only the wells from Leiderdorp-Plantage were described in high enough detail to point out the 'odd deposits' from them.

9.5. Do contextual specifics differ for places of 'odd deposits' between the early medieval Low Lands coastal settlements and Anglo-Saxon settlements?

The contextual specifics do not contain great differences between the early medieval Low Lands coastal settlements and the Anglo-Saxon settlements. On of the only two differences are the high amount of sunken-featured building(SFB)-contexts in Anglo-Saxon England. Only Katwijk-Zanderij recovered SFB-structures, but these did not include the same level of details as the Anglo-Saxon SFB-structures.
The other difference is the higher amount of well structures from the early medieval Low Lands settlement case studies. As mentioned before, these are all from the same settlement site, Leiderdorp – Plantage. Not every early medieval Low

Land settlement recovered well structures. They might have been situated just outside the excavation area, or not conserved well enough the describe its contains. The settlement structure might also be influenced by a degree of local variation, which there was a variation in building relations. Here as well, a greater dataset would be a solution. Maybe, as already suggested above, the coastal social groups might have lived more individually than the groups from the hinterlands. For now we can conclude that the influence from the early medieval Low Lands coastal area and Anglo-Saxon England on each other were minimal when it concerns ‘odd deposits’.

9.6 Conclusion: How should archaeologists approach ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval settlements?

The results of this study visualise the high variety of objects and contexts of ‘odd deposits’. This variety is the result of a very changeable act. This means there is not one standard for ‘odd deposits’. As archaeologists, we should be more careful with our data. ‘Odd deposits’ differ from single artefact contexts to contexts that were used for multiple ‘odd deposit’ chapters. ‘Odd deposits’ were a part of the settlements lifecycle. The objects are part of the construction, renewal and demolition of settlement features, as for example buildings, ditches and pits.

The following advise is given on how archaeologists should approach ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval settlements.

Do not make hasty decisions. The mistake of making assumptions lies around the corner with this subject. Field conclusions are quickly taken over in post-excavation reports, while a good second assessment of the data would create a stronger argument for or against the ‘odd deposit’.
So, be critical.

Be aware of the context, not just the object. Mundane objects do not necessarily equals a mundane context. We saw how contexts with a great variation of mundane objects could still be an ‘odd deposit’. These contexts are situated at an interesting settlement feature, or built up after several episodes. The latter was

the case with the two water pools described in this thesis or the SFB structures. Both are filled with varying types of objects. With SFB structures it sometimes is even the case that reports only mention the animal burial or skull included, while the SFB contained so much more interesting material. The skull or animal burial is often analysed as being the sole part of the structure's closing ritual.
Assess the complete combination of contexts and objects to determine if it is an 'odd deposit'.

We should approach 'odd deposits' as the caretakers of the settlement, which were chosen by the settlement's inhabitants. They all had their own associations and gave their own signals as 'odd deposit'. For example, as the boundary between the inner and outer world, a marker against sickness and to increase fertility, or for local needs which will always be a guess to us.

Abstract

This thesis analyses ‘odd deposits’ from the early medieval Low Lands coastal area (modern Netherlands and Belgium) and Anglo-Saxon England. ‘Odd deposits’ are deliberately placed in settlement context. They can be ritual or religious, but mundane as well. The deposits played a role in the several processes that sustained the early medieval settlement.

The data for this thesis originates from official published archaeological reports and grey literature. This is ordered by material, date and context feature, to create a comparable overview. A variety of materials were used for ‘odd deposits’. Material categories include animal burials, animal skulls, human inhumations, pottery, stone artefacts, building material and plants/ wooden material. ‘Odd deposits’ were placed at several settlement features. They are found within or in close association with earthfast buildings, enclosure ditches, sunken-featured buildings, wells and water pools. The data show us the great variety of objects and contexts used for ‘odd deposits’ in the early medieval Low Lands coastal area. There was a high local preference. Anglo-Saxon England was more homogenous when it concerns the deposition practice.

Deposition took place in single or multiple events. Single event deposits were often associated with the construction or demolishing of features. ‘Odd deposits’ associated with the renewal phases of features often happened in multiple episodes.

‘Odd deposits’ could also have been part of a reciprocity system, where the deposition was used as a gift to ask the gods or ancestors for favours. The deposits can be analysed by object in combination with their context of deposition. Animal deposits of cattle, horse and dog had a high domestic value and are mostly found close or on the domestic area of the farmyard. This also counts for infant burials. Deviant burials, on the other hand, are mostly deposited at the edges of the settlements.

It will be interesting to look further into the role of ‘odd deposits’ in early medieval rural society and how they are part of the settlement’s space organisation.

Samenvatting

Deze scriptie bevat de analyse van '*odd deposits*' gevonden in vroeg middeleeuwse kustnederzettingen van de Lage Landen (hedendaags Nederland en België) en Angelsaksische nederzettingen in Engeland. '*Odd deposits*' zijn intentioneel geplaatst in nederzetting contexten. Ze kunnen een rituele of religieuze intentie als wel een normale intentie hebben. Deze deposities speelden een rol in de verschillende onderhoudsprocessen van de vroegmiddeleeuwse nederzetting. De data van deze scriptie is uit verschillende gepubliceerde en ongepubliceerde archeologische opgravingsrapporten. Deze data is geordend op materiaal, datering en context, zodat een vergelijkbaar overzicht ontstaat. Verschillende materialen zijn gebruikt voor '*odd deposits*'. Artefact categorieën bevatten dierbegravingen, dierenschedels, inhumaties, aardewerk, stenen artefacten, bouwmateriaal en organisch materiaal van planten en hout. '*Odd deposits*' zijn bij verschillende nederzettingscontexten geplaatst. Ze zijn gevonden in of in associatie met gebouwen, greppels, hutkommen, waterputten en water poelen. De variatie van contexten en materialen is vooral groot in het kustgebied van de Lage Landen. Hier lijken lokale voorkeuren een grote rol te spelen. Het beeld voor Angelsaksische nederzettingen is meer homogeen.

Depositie vond in eenmalige of meervoudige momenten plaats. Eenmalige depositie momenten vonden vooral plaats in associatie met de bouw of afbraak van gebouwen. Deposities in associatie met reparatiefases gebeurden vaker in meervoudige momenten.

'*Odd deposits*' kunnen onderdeel zijn van een systeem van wederkerigheid waarin de deposities als gift aan de goden of voorouders werd gegeven in ruil voor gunsten. Deposities kunnen worden geanalyseerd via de combinatie van de object en hun context. Deposities van runderen, paarden en honden hadden een hoge civiele waarde en zijn vooral op of dichtbij de erven te vinden. Dit geldt ook voor begravingen van pasgeborenen. Begravingen van geweldsslachtoffers liggen daarentegen vaker op de rand van de nederzettingen.

Voor de toekomst is het interessant om te kijken welke rol '*odd deposits*' speelden in de vroegmiddeleeuwse rurale gemeenschap en hoe ze onderdeel zijn van de indeling van ruimte in de nederzetting.

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List of figures

List of tables

List of appendices

Appendix V Database case studies early medieval Low Lands coastal area

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
1	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Dog remains: incomplete skull	1.5 years	Animal bone	Dog	Unknown
2	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Dog remains: part jaw	1.5-2 years	Animal bone	Dog	Unknown
3	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Dog remains: 12 cranial elements + 4 jaw pieces	6-7 years	Animal bone	Dog	Unknown
4	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Dog burial	3-4 years	Animal bone	Dog	Unknown
5	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Pollen of different plants, metal slugs, ceramics, *Terra Sigillata*	-	Plants/ ceramics	-	-
6	Den Haag-Frankenslag	Articulated dog skeleton	18 months	Animal bone	Dog	No
7	Den Haag-Frankenslag	Articulated dog skeleton	5-10 years	Animal bone	Dog	No
8	Den Haag-Frankenslag	Dog burial	Unknown	Animal bone	Dog	No
9	Den Haag-Frankenslag	Horse burial	Unknown	Animal bone	Horse	No
10	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	Ceramics (BA), flint artefacts, quern fragment, beads, belt-buckle fragments	Unknown	Pottery/ stone/ flint/ glass/ metal	-	-

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
1	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Carolingian	Major enclosure	Ditch 3.022	Nijsen 2016b, 155
2	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Merovingian	Other ditch/ gully	Canal 2.015	Nijsen 2016b, 156
3	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Carolingian	Minor enclosure	Pit 2.091	Nijsen 2016b, 157
4	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Carolingian	Earthfast buildings	Posthole (paalkuil) 2.075	Nijsen 2016b, 156
5	Blankenberge-Lissewegestraat	Carolingian	Water pool	Possible deposition of assorted material in waterpool next to settlement	Van Remoorter *et al.* 2016, 85-86
6	Den Haag-Frankenslag	6th-7th century	Unknown	Pit/ posthole, exact context unknown	Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 42
7	Den Haag-Frankenslag	6th-7th century	Unknown	Pit/ posthole, exact context unknown	Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 42
8	Den Haag-Frankenslag	6th-7th century	Unknown	Pit/ posthole, exact context unknown	Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 42
9	Den Haag-Frankenslag	6th-7th century	Unknown	Exact context unknown	Magendans and Waasdorp 1989, 42
10	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	6th-7th century	Unknown	GF01, pit cluster, possible grave context	Teetaert and Beke 2014, 67-71; 86

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
11	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	Fired bone, ceramics (BA), raw stone material	Unknown	Bone/ pottery/ stone	Unknown	
12	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	Quern fragments, building material (RA)	-	Stone/ brick	-	-
13	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	Pollen of different plants, building material (RA), ceramics, raw stone material, Terra Sigillata	-	Plants/ stone/ brick/ pottery	-	-
14	Katwijk-Zanderij	Horse skull and pig jaw	Unknown	Animal bone	Horse; pig	Unkown
15	Katwijk-Zanderij	Almost complete pot	-	Pottery	-	-
16	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Wooden object/ cattle skull/ leather shoe	-	Wood/ animal bone/ leather	Cattle	Unknown
17	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Wooden pen fragments/ oval bowl	-	Wood	-	-
18	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Bark roll	-	Wood	-	-

	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
11	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	540 cal AD-650 cal AD	Unknown	GF02, pit, same area as GF01, possible grave context	Teetaert and Beke 2014, 67; 87
12	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	8th-9th century	Earthfast buildings	Posthole S8-17 of building STR03 (main building)	Teetaert and Beke 2014, 91-92; 95
13	Harelbeke-Steenbrugstraat	770 cal AD-910 cal AD	Water pool	Possible depostion of assorted material in waterpool next to settlement	Teetaert and Beke 2014, 98-99
14	Katwijk-Zanderij	475-500 AD	Earthfast buildings	Pit in barn 8; old privy; part of farmyard B	Dijkstra and Van der Velde 2008, 142
15	Katwijk-Zanderij	700-750 AD	Earthfast buildings	Posthole of house 61; possible construction deposit; brown residue inside pot; part of farmyard G	Van der Velde and Waldus 2008, 184-185
16	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Late 7th-first half 8th century	Well	Well STR 39. Wooden object with hole in top organic layer. Cattle skull fragment and two leather shoes at line lower fill	Dijkstra 2016a, 111
17	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Second half 8th-first half 9th century	Well	Well STR 42	Dijkstra 2016a, 112
18	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Second half 8th-first half 9th century	Well	Well STR 49	Dijkstra 2016a, 113

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
19	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Wooden chop of forked branch	-	Wood	-	-
20	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Articulated cattle skeleton/ horse skull/ cattle sholder bone	Unknown	Animal bone	Cattle; horse	Yes(cattle)
21	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Horse burial	Mare: 6-10 years; Foal: 3-4 months	Animal bone	Horse	Unknown
22	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Human bone parts; Dog skull	Unknown; dog: adult	Human bone/ animal bone	Human; dog	-
23	Limmen-De Krocht	Cleaved sheep skull	Unknown	Animal bone	Sheep	Yes
24	Limmen-De Krocht	Possible burnt wooden object	-	Wood/ ash	-	-
25	Limmen-De Krocht	Inhumation	20-24 years; male	Human bone	Human	-
26	Limmen-De Krocht	Inhumation (in-complete)	21-29 years; male	Human bone	Human	-

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
19	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Late 7th-first half 8th century	Well	Well STR 38	Dijkstra 2016a, 109
20	Leiderdorp-Plantage	Late 7th-8th century	Minor enclosure	Ditch STR 22. Horse skull lies on the cattle shoulder bone, in proximity of the articulated skeleton	Dijkstra 2016a, 115; Moesker & Cavallo 2016, 622-623
21	Leiderdorp-Plantage	750-900 AD	Minor enclosure	STR 57, rectangular shallow grave, close to early medieval gully. Correlation with STR2 and STR3 (granaries). Possible edge farmyard	Moesker & Cavallo 2016, 618-619
22	Leiderdorp-Plantage	?	Unknown	STR 525, midden with several secondary buried human bone elements. Bones originate from older, closely located, inhumations.	d'Hollosy & Dijkstra 2016, 569-573
23	Limmen-De Krocht	1150-1175 AD	Earthfast buildings	Pit S2128 in building 18; corner of the pit	Dijkstra *et al.* 2006, 84-85
24	Limmen-De Krocht	1025-1075 AD	Earthfast buildings	Pit s6084 in building 47; ash layer on bottom and edges, rest filled with grey sand	Dijkstra et al. 2006, 85
25	Limmen-De Krocht	8th century	Major enclosure	NW-SE oriented; crossed armes; grave goods: knife, buckle, shaft fragment, coins, unidentified metal object	Dijkstra et al. 2006, 86-88)
26	Limmen-De Krocht	1500-1900 AD?	Major enclosure	Ditch; possible older grave disturbed by the post-medieval ditch	Dijkstra et al. 2006, 88

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
27	Lo-Reninge	Possible cattle burial	Unknown	Animal bone	Cattle	Unknown
28	Poperinge - Sappenleen	Charcoal, ceramics, quern-fragments (1400g)	-	Charcoal, pottery, stone	-	-
29	Poperinge - Sappenleen	Whetstone	-	Stone	-	-

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
27	Lo-Reninge	Carolingian	Earthfast buildings	Pit feature 3.32	Janssens 2016, 33; Nijssen 2016a, 73-74
28	Poperinge - Sappenleen	Carolingian	Minor enclosure	Pit 30	Beke *et al.* 2014, 180-181
29	Poperinge - Sappenleen	Carolingian	Earthfast buildings	Northwestern posthole of granary 1	Beke *et al.* 2014, 183

Appendix VI Database case studies Anglo-Saxon England

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
1	Barrow Hills	Dog burial	?	Animal bone	Dog	?
2	Barrow Hills	Inhumation	Female, >45 years old	Human material	Human	-
3	Bloodmoor Hill	2 Cattle skulls; 1 horse skull	?	Animal bone	Cattle; horse	?
4	Bloodmoor Hill	1 Cow skull; fire-cracked stones	?	Animal bone; sto-ne	Cow	?
5	Bloodmoor Hill	1 Cattle skull; scapula; quernstone	?	Animal bone; lava stone	Cattle	?
6	Bloodmoor Hill	3 Cattle skulls	?	Animal bone	Cattle	?
7	Catholme	Inhumation?	?	Human material	Human	-
8	Catholme	Inhumation	Male? adult, >20 years old	Human material	Human	-

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
1	Barrow Hills	Late 6th-7th century	Pond barrow	In pond barrow 4866	Chambers & McAdams 2007, 218 in Crewe 2012, 144
2	Barrow Hills	Late 6th-7th century	Pond barrow	On the southwest side of pond barrow 4866	Chambers & McAdams 2007, 201 in Crewe 2012, 144
3	Bloodmoor Hill	late 5th-late 7th century	Unknown	Pit F345, interface of the lower and upper fills, including deposit of animal bone.	Lucy *et al*. 2009, 127
4	Bloodmoor Hill	late 5th-late 7th century	Unknown	Pit F366, skull at the centre of the pit, but above the base.	Lucy *et al*. 2009, 127
5	Bloodmoor Hill	late 5th-late 7th century	Unknown	Pit F425, together with large fragment of lava quernstone and large flin nodules.	Lucy *et al*. 2009, 127
6	Bloodmoor Hill	late 5th-late 7th century	SFB	SFB 35, in the upper fill, together with large quantity animal bone. At NW-part of the pit	Lucy *et al*. 2009, 96
7	Catholme	?	Minor enclosure	Pit 3367, no surviving bones or stains that indicate an inhumation. Conclusion based on pit dimensions. Cattle long-bone in pit might have been a (food)offering	Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 40
8	Catholme	?	SFB	Grave 3617. Dug into fill of former SFB AS13 at entrance E1. Limited bone material	Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 40-41

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
9	Catholme	Inhumation	Adult	Human material	Human	-
10	Catholme	Part human skull	Adult >35 years old	Human material	Human	-
11	Catholme	Cattle burial, articulated limbs	-	Animal bone	Cattle	?
12	Eye Kettleby	Cattle skeleton (skull missing)	-	Animal bone	Cow	?
13	Eye Kettleby	2 Cattle skeletons; loose animal bones	-	Animal bone	Cow; rest unknown	?
14	Eye Kettleby	Sheep/ goat skulls	-	Animal bone	Sheep/ goat	?
15	Eye Kettleby	Partial dog skeleton (spine nearly complete)	-	Animal bone	Dog	?

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
9	Catholme	?	Earthfast buildings	Grave 3666. Dug into ditch 3621 before it was completly filled. Very limited bone material, conclusions based on stains. Knife blade on top of the 'spine stain'	Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41
10	Catholme	?	Minor enclosure	Ditch 3323, part of human skull at base lower fill. Age based on wear 5 teeth	Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41
11	Catholme	?	Major enclosure	Pit 36663, articulated limbs and parts of the skull. Possible part of a dismembered, but complete, skeleton.	Losco-Bradley and Kinsley 2002, 41
12	Eye Kettleby	5th-6th century (possible until the 7th)	Unknown	Pit 977, near the base, above a thin layer of ash	Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164
13	Eye Kettleby	5th-6th century (possible until the 7th)	Unknown	Pit 2230	Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164
14	Eye Kettleby	5th-6th century (possible until the 7th)	SFB	SFB 5, pit cut in base	Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164
15	Eye Kettleby	5th-6th/7th century	SFB	SFB 18	Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
16	Eye Kettleby	Partial dog skeleton + other animal bones	-	Animal bone	Dog; ?	?
17	Gamlingay	Pottery and lava quernstone	-	pottery and lava stone	-	-
18	Higham Ferrers	9 bone needles	-	Animal bone	-	-
19	Higham Ferrers	Skeleton 6678; mandibles sf 355 and 356	Skeleton 6678: female 30-50 years old (most likely 30-40) Both mandibles: male	Human material	Human	Skeleton 6678: toothmarks
20	Higham Ferrers	Inhumation (child)	Child, 37-38 weeks (premature baby)	Human material	Human	Gnawing
21	Sutton Courtenay	Horse skull; partly articulated horse skeleton; dog skull; several dog bones	-	Animal bone	Horse; dog	?
22	Sutton Courtenay	Hind feet and front feet dog	-	Animal bone	Dog	?

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
16	Eye Kettleby	5th-6th century (possible until the 7th)	SFB	SFB 14	Sayer 2003, 101-102 in Crewe 2012, 164
17	Gamlingay	Early Saxon (site phase 3a)	Major enclosure	Just outside enclosure 1. Enclosure ditch avoids pit.	Murray & McDonald 2005, 184
18	Higham Ferrers	Mid - late 8th century (site phase 2b)	Major enclosure	Strung together, base of ditch 15165.	Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 39
19	Higham Ferrers	Mandible Sf 356: late 7th-early 8th century. Skeleton 6678 & mandible Sf 355: Late 8th - early 9th century	Major enclosure	Skeleton 6678: Backfill (6621) of enclosure ditch (7330), ankels have been bound. Inhumations are not complete. Post-depositional disturbances. Execution victims?	Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 48; Witkin 2007, 141-143
20	Higham Ferrers	Late 8th-early 11th century	Earthfast buildings	Oval pit 2604. Rudimentary, disturbed. Under post-medieval plough disturbance. Inside footprint phase 2b structure 2666	Hardy, Charles and Williams 2007, 57-58; Witkin 2007, 142-143
21	Sutton Courtenay	5th/6th-7th century	Earthfast buildings	Pit 2, west of building VII	Leeds 1923, 165 in Crewe 2012, 151
22	Sutton Courtenay	5th/6th-7th century	Earthfast buildings	Building XVII: hind feet in eastern posthole, front feet in western posthole	Leeds 1923, 63; 1947, 71 in Crewe 2012, 151

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
23	Sutton Courtenay	Inhumation	Male, adult	Human material	Human	-
24	Sutton Courtenay	2 Inhumations; 2 ox skulls, 1 horse skull	Adult, female; infant	Animal bone + human material	Human; ox; horse	?
25	West Stow	Inhumation	Female, 12-23 years	Human material	Human	-
26	West Stow	Inhumation	Female, young adult	Human material	Human	-
27	West Stow	2 articulated dog skeletons	-	Animal bone	Dog	-
28	West Stow	1 Cattle skull; 1 horse skull	-	Animal bone	Horse; ox	?
29	West Stow	Dog Skeleton	-	Animal bone	Dog	-
30	West Stow	1 Cattle skull	-	Animal bone	Ox	?
31	Yarnton	1 Partial dog skeleton	?	Animal bone	Dog	Gnawing
32	Yarnton	Goose skeleton	?	Animal bone	Goose	?

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
23	Sutton Courtenay	5th/6th-7th century	Earthfast buildings	Building X(1). Accompanied by an iron knife. Inhumation post-dates the building	Leeds 1923, 169 in Crewe 2012, 151
24	Sutton Courtenay	5th/6th-7th century	Earthfast buildings	Pit α, west of building XXIII. Body interred at an angle, arms stretched to an infant. Ox skulls and horse skull behind her head	Leeds 1947, 86 in Crewe 2012, 151
25	West Stow	?	Unknown	Inside the settlement, grave 1	West 1985, 58, fig. 236
26	West Stow	?	Unknown	Inside the settlement, grave 2	West 1985, 58-59, fig. 236
27	West Stow	5th-7th century	SFB	SFB 16. Dog 1: Lower fill, just above floor. Dog 2: top of lower fill.	West 1985, 23, fig. 75
28	West Stow	5th-7th century	SFB	SFB 45. Horse: just above the bae of the SFB. Ox; top of the primary fill	West 1985, 38, fig. 153
29	West Stow	5th-7th century	SFB	SFB 52. Central positon, high up in the fill	West 1985, 43, fig. 175
30	West Stow	5th-7th century	SFB	SFB 65. Centre of the pit, 6 inches (15 cm) above the base	West 1985, 50, fig. 212
31	Yarnton	?	Unknown	Context 5000	Mulville & Ayres 2005, 343
32	Yarnton	?8th century	Earthfast buildings	Top of pit 3888	Hey 2005b, 74; Mulville & Ayres 2005, 343-345; 348

Nr	Site	Type	Age/Sex	Material	Species	Butchery
33	Yarnton	4 Cattle skulls; 2 horse jaws	Cattle 1: 2-3 years, maybe 2 female	Animal bone	Cattle; horse	Cattle: possible 1 poleaxing
34	Yarnton	1 Cattle skull; 2 horse skulls; mandibles ≥ 5 horses	Horse 1: 12-13 years; Horse 2: 2.5-3.5 years	Animal bone	Cattle; Horse	Cattle: possible chop-mark

Nr	Site	Date	Feature	Context description	Reference
33	Yarnton	5th-mid 7th century	SFB	SFB 7395, surface of primary fill; Roman Pottery, large slabs (limestone & conglomerate, one over cattle skull)	Bell 2005, 183; Hey 2005b, 74-75; Mulville & Ayres 2005, 336-337; 342
34	Yarnton	?	SFB	SFB 7325, on/ near base	Bell 2005, 183; Hey 2005b, 75; Mulville and Ayres 2005, 337; 342-343