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PORTABLE ANTIQUITIES SCHEME

Edited by John Naylor[1]

The Portable Antiquities Scheme (PAS) records archaeological finds discovered by members of the public in England and Wales.[2] Many come from archaeological sites which have been damaged or eroded, usually by agriculture, leaving the objects as the only evidence of past activity; others are of interest in their own right. By end of 2019 the PAS database contained 37,243 records (containing 55,110 finds) of early medieval date (c 410–c 1066) and 219,485 records (263,040 finds) of high and later medieval date (c 1066–c 1500).[3] A small proportion of these are subject to the Treasure Act 1996 which gives the Crown (in practice, museums) the right to acquire them; in 2019, there were 1,311 Treasure cases, of which 153 were of early medieval and 336 of high and later medieval date.[4]

In 2019, 80,903 finds were recorded,[5] of which 23,117 were of medieval date. There were a total of 5,090 pre-Conquest finds and 18,027 post-Conquest finds. Stray finds of coinage accounted for 5,969 finds, 395 of pre-Conquest date, and 5,574 post-Conquest coins.[6]

This round-up of finds and research from the last year includes summaries of interesting and important finds plus three short research notes.[7] The first discusses an important 5th-century hacksilver from the West Midlands, the second two lead objects produced using 11th-century coin dies reported to the PAS last year, and the third the discovery of a silver locket decorated with a curious snail-man design.

Focus on Coinage in 2019

Early medieval

Eleven gold coins of the 5th–7th centuries were recorded, comprising eight Continental and three Anglo-Saxon issues. Two rare mid-5th-century imports are interest, a solidus of the Roman Emperor Valentinian III (425–55) from Wantisden (Suffolk; SF-193352; Fig 1a), one of only three Roman (as opposed to Visigothic) examples recorded by the PAS; the other find is a Visigothic 'pseudo-Imperial' solidus copying that of Libius Severus (Severus III; 461–5) struck in the 460s and found at Rettendon (Essex; OXON-5E3E68; Fig 1b). Seventh-century gold coins are more regular discoveries: a Merovingian tremissis probably struck in the Lozère region of southern France was found in Thirston (Northumberland; DUR-184009; Fig 1c), a very rare find

this far north and possibly the first since the excavation of a plated forgery from one of the buildings at Yeavering.[8] At the other end of the country an Anglo-Saxon gold shilling of 'Witmen-derived 1' type from Stockton (Wiltshire; DOR-C0552F; Fig 1d) is the most south-westerly find of these coins recorded by the PAS; the coin belongs to a small, widespread group of coin all struck from the same dies and found in Kent and Oxfordshire.[9]

English and Continental early silver pennies (*sceattas*) dating from c 660–760 were the largest group of early-medieval coins with 187 recorded. Long-term recording has emphasised that some of these were especially large issues, probably struck in the large coastal ports or '*wics*'. A good example are three related design (types 39, 48 and 49) grouped together as Series H and thought to originate in *Hamwic* (Southampton) where many were found during excavation.[10] Just over 100 have been recorded by the PAS – the majority (71) belonging to type 49 – their overall distribution focused tightly on Wessex from southern Oxfordshire to the Solent with around a third from the Isle of Wight. Nine were recorded in 2019 including a single example of the rarest group (type 39) found at Shalfleet (Isle of Wight; IOW-6AF827; Fig 1e). Contemporary with, and very similar to the sceattas are Merovingian deniers although remarkably few of these are discovered. A single example was recorded last year; found at Lewknor (Oxfordshire; FAJN-93DC39; Fig 1f) it is part of a larger assemblage of 7th–10th-century coins and metalwork located in the vicinity of a junction between the broad east–west route of the Icknield Way with a postulated saltway.[11]

Broad flan pennies of the mid-8th–later 9th century are found less frequently than the sceattas with 40 recorded last year. Most belong to the kings of Mercia, especially Offa (757–96) and Coenwulf (796–821), and a few others to the unstable periods following both of their deaths. In Kent, independent rulers took control and Coenwulf had to install his brother Cuthred as sub-king (798–807); a single penny in his name was recorded last year, found at Aldington (Kent; KENT-143820; Fig 1g). East Anglia became independent from Mercia in the years following Coenwulf's death when a succession of short-lived Mercian rulers held the throne.[12] Their coins are rare finds with only one example recorded last year, a penny of Æthelstan I's (c 825–45) non-portrait type probably struck at Ipswich from Playford (Suffolk; SF-5231E4; Fig 1h). Only four coins of Wessex dating up to c 880 were recorded including two finds of Ecgberht (802–39) issued from the 'Wessex' mint (probably Winchester or Southampton) found at Arreton (Isle of Wight; IOW-1819EC) and Diss (Norfolk; SF-CAC2B6). An extremely rare stray find of a 'Two

Emperors' type penny of Alfred (871–99) dating to the mid-870s was found at Castle Camps (Cambridgeshire; SF-06FF49).

Tenth-century coinage (to Edgar's reforms c 973) remains uncommon – only 14 were added – although included an unusual 'floral' type for Eadwig (955–9) from Haddiscoe (Norfolk; NMS-5258A8; Fig 1i) which is only the second example known for the moneyer Ælfsige; it was probably struck in the western Midlands. Another unusual find may relate to the Viking presence in East Anglia; an Islamic dirham, possibly a contemporary copy given its base silver flan, was found at Stow Bredon (Norfolk; HAMP-9A67D4; Fig 1j) and had been converted into a brooch with the addition of attachments to one side.[13]

Ninety-six coins belonging to the coinage issued after Edgar's reforms of the early 970s–1066 were recorded. This brought greater standardisation to the coinage and regular type changes attesting to the increasing use of coin in society after the 10th century. The corpus as a whole inevitably masks much variation across this period, however.[14] Some types remain very rare, especially as stray finds, such as the 'second hand' type of Æthelred II (978–1016), the only find of which came from Lyminge (Kent; KENT-23EC73; Fig 1k). It was folded at some point, although it is hard to know if this can be related to the religious practice in the later medieval period of folding/bending coins while praying to a saint.[15] A 'PACX' type penny of Edward the Confessor (1042–66) from Slapton (Buckinghamshire; BUC-18BB6A; Fig 1l) is one of only 12 PAS-recorded stray finds, all but one of which has been found to the south of the line formed from the River Severn to the Wash. The overall distribution of post-Reform pennies thins towards the north and west, following a very persistent general pattern for overall coin finds.[16] Last year only a single penny was found across the area covering Wales, north-west England, the West Midlands and south-west England (excluding south-east Wiltshire and east Dorset). This coin, a 'radiate/small cross' type of Edward the Confessor struck in Winchester and found at Aston Somerville (Worcestershire; WAW-094D0B; Fig 1m) falls within the distribution of a broader group of finds related to the rivers Severn and Avon.

High and Later Medieval

Last year 157 Norman and Plantagenet coins (1066–1180) were recorded with 81 finds dating from William I to Stephen (1066–1154) and 76 from Henry II's 'cross-and-crosslets' coinage. In addition, a nationally-important hoard of 2,581 silver pennies and cut halfpennies was discovered

in the Chew Valley (Bath and North East Somerset; GLO-D815B3) consisting of 1,236 coins of Harold II (1066) and 1,342 coins of William I's (1066–87) first issue, the 'profile/cross fleury' type, plus three mules using dies of Harold II/William I and Edward the Confessor/William I.[17] A number of important stray finds were also recorded. A penny of William II's (1087–1100) 'cross in quatrefoil' type found at Over Kellet (Lancashire; LANCUM-F2AE53; Fig 2a) is the only PAS-recorded find for this ruler from north-west England and is only the second Chester-minted example recorded. Occasionally finds add to our knowledge of minting and a 'small profile/cross and annulets' type penny of Henry I (1100–35) found at Sutton (Kent; KENT-6CFD6E; Fig 2b) is the first known example of this type from the mint at Hereford. The variation and complexity of coinage struck during Stephen's reign (1135–54) was highlighted with the discovery of a penny at Downton (Wiltshire; WILT-239A33; Fig 2c), a previously unrecorded type in the name of Robert, Earl of Gloucester (c 1135–47); an Oxford-minted coin of Stephen found near Wheatley (Oxfordshire; OXON-4E677E; Fig 2d) is only the fourth PAS-recorded example of its type, all found within 30km of the city.

Just over 2,000 coins recorded in 2019 were of the 'short cross' and '(voided) long cross' types of Henry II–Edward I struck from 1180-1279. Of those where the mint could be identified the vast majority were issued from London or Canterbury illustrating a distinct mint hierarchy.[18] The variation in mint output is highlighted with many locations represented by fewer than ten examples and three and represented by a single find, including a short cross cut halfpenny of John (1199–1216) from the Chichester mint found at Tetney (Lincolnshire; NLM-FFF04C; Fig 2e) and a long cross cut farthing of Henry III (1216–72) from the Shrewsbury mint found at Freshwater (Isle of Wight; IOW-65EEFA).

The period after Edward I's (1272–1307) recoinage of 1279 until Henry VII (1485–1509) accounted for just over 3,000 recorded coins last year. Within these finds are an interesting group struck at Berwick-upon-Tweed, the town moving from Scottish to English control during Edward I's reign.[19] Made from locally-produced dies, farthings, halfpennies and pennies were struck into the reign of Edward III. Fourteen English coins from the mint were recorded last year – alongside 18 earlier Scottish coins – including two halfpennies of Edward III found at the other end of the country at Godshill (Isle of Wight; IOW-ED17DD) and Odcombe (Somerset; SOM-BBD3F4; Fig 2f), the latter only the second of its type recorded by the PAS.

Two gold coins of note were also recorded last year. One, a gold half angel of Henry VII (1485–1509) found at Monks Eleigh (Suffolk; SF-C56CBF; Fig 2g) is a rare example of this denomination from early in his reign using re-cut dies from the reign of Richard III (1483–5). The other is a contemporary forgery of the larger noble in the name of Henry VI (first reign; 1422 – 61) from Ottery St Mary (Devon; SOM-AF623E; Fig 2h). The coin, now torn, shows two outer sheets of gold around a (now degraded) base metal core, a typical method for producing such coins.[20]

Non-English coinage was well represented with 320 finds recorded last year, 144 of which are Scottish issues (up to 1488), most dating pre-1300.[21] Two examples of the coinage of Robert III (1390–1406) are important as finds from his reign are rare, the PAS only having recorded 13 in total to date. One of these, a Perth-minted halfgroat found Stockbury (Kent; KENT-2B9A81; Fig 2i), is the first the PAS have recorded from this mint; all of the others were minted at Edinburgh including a fragmentary groat from Felton (Northumberland; DUR-5464A4; Fig 2j). Low Countries coinage is also commonly found, 77 recorded last year, mostly belonging Edwardian sterling imitations (copying English coins of Edward I) of the late 13th–early 14th centuries. Far less common are the small, farthing-sized *petit deniers* of Flanders issued in the late 13th century. Three of the same type were recorded last year including one from Leckhampstead (Buckinghamshire; BUC-273253; Fig 2k), and the only PAS-recorded example found well inland, most being recovered from close to the coast.[22]

(*J Naylor*)

FOCUS ON NON-NUMISMATIC FINDS IN 2019

In 2019, 11,256 medieval objects (excluding stray and hoard finds of coinage) were recorded by the PAS including a wide variety of different object types and materials. Some highlights and insights into our dataset are outlined below.

Early Medieval

A copper-alloy buckle plate or strap end dating to the late 4th–mid-5th centuries was found at Candovers (Hampshire; WREX-AEACCA; Fig 3a). Decorated with motifs paralleled in both late Roman continental metalwork and Quiot Brooch Style (QBS) objects such as a hooked mount

from Saint-Marcel (France) and buckles from Oprington (Kent) and Bishopstone (Wiltshire), it may be an import or locally produced.[23] This find is towards the western edge of the known distribution of QBS objects although its findspot in south-eastern Hampshire is within a core zone for their discovery.[24]

A copper-alloy zoomorphic brooch found at Hayle (Cornwall; CORN-D9B9D4; Fig 3b) is in the form of an backwards-facing animal, its tongue meeting its tail which also curves up over the beast's back. Of likely 5th–6th century date, the form of the brooch is broadly paralleled by examples from Alveston (Warwickshire) and from Kent,[25] although it is possible that the Hayle brooch is of Anglo-Saxon rather than Frankish production. Large numbers of finds have been discovered in the parish, especially from the Roman to post-medieval periods illustrating its importance in maritime networks. It was a known Christian site from the 5th–6th centuries,[26] and this find perhaps belongs in the context of that community.

A number of other interesting finds from western Britain were also recorded last year. These include a silver Thomas Class A1 strap-end with 9th-century Trewhiddle Style decoration from Ystradfellte (Powys; NMGW-3457EA; Fig 3c), one of only three of this type recorded by the PAS from Wales.[27] A gilded copper-alloy pendant from the Carnforth area (Lancashire; LANCUM-2FADAF; Fig 3d) was reworked from a larger object. This carries a 9th-century Irish zoomorphic design depicting a wolf-like quadruped. It is an important addition to the growing corpus of Irish metalwork recorded by the PAS.

Our understanding of 8th–9th-century brooch types has increased greatly in recent years.[28] One example is a lozengiform strip brooch style (Weetch type 31.C) found at Burnham (Lincolnshire; NLM-FB5746; Fig 3e).[29] It is decorated with a 'Greek key'design, also seen on other examples of this type,[30] and was discovered in the region – from Norfolk to the Humber – where this form of brooch is most commonly found.[31] Another item with a form of 'Greek key' decoration is the head of a copper-alloy linked pin found in the Snelland area (Lincolnshire; LIN-D3FF8B; Fig 3f). This decorative scheme is located within a large central cross this the additional motif of roundels been placed in the angle of each cross arm. These roundels contain a trumpet-like device often seen within Irish art styles.[32] The overall shape of the design is not uncommon in England, seen on brooches, such as one from the Beeston Tor (Staffordshire) hoard of c 875 as well as coin issues of early 8th-century date, including a type struck in at the port of Hamwic (Southampton) in Wessex (see Fig 1e).[33]

A silver Trewhiddle Style brooch of Weetch type 11 from near Swaffham (Norfolk; NMS-BECE1C; Fig 3g) is a fine example of 9th-century disc brooch design.[34] Remarkably well preserved including the complete pin, its design focuses around a cross with concave-sided arms, highlighted by five silver rivets. Lobes decorated with plant motifs extend from the centre in between the cross arms. The surrounding field contains pairs of Trewhiddle Style beasts. It is one of a small number of such silver disc brooches, and is closely paralleled by two of the six brooches found at Pentney (Norfolk).[35]

A unusual gold pendant in the shape of a Latin cross was found in the Berwick area (Northumberland; DUR-B62F57; Fig 3h). Each short arm is decorated with an incised cross, the remainder filled with an incised runic inscription comprising six letters, possibly representing a personal name. The inscription at one end of the cross has been removed by the insertion of a piercing through the cross to form the pendant, perhaps as a repair following the removal or breakage of a suspension loop.

An incomplete silver 'Thor's Hammer' pendant, missing its suspension loop or hook, was found near Swaffham (Norfolk; NMS-BEBB91; Fig 3i). Found in small numbers across the Danelaw, Norfolk appears to be a core area for their use and possibly production, with around a dozen examples recorded from the county to date.[36] Their use has been interpreted within the prism of non-Christian Scandinavian beliefs and it is likely that their use in England would have been curtailed quite early by the Christianisation of the Danelaw.[37]

Another interesting objects of Scandinavian influence, and possibly manufacture, is a gilded copper-alloy disc brooch of Jansson type 1E found at Inkberrow (Worcestershire; WAW-6D8C42; Fig 3j).[38] Decorated with two sinuous S-shaped beasts in the Jellinge Style of the 10th century it is the most westerly find of a small corpus of this type recorded by the PAS.

High and Later Medieval

A lead-alloy brooch found at Benniworth (Lincolnshire; SWYOR-788773; Fig 4a) belongs to Weetch's Type 26 kite- or shield-shaped brooches of the late 11th century. The focus of the decoration is a cross formed of double lines enclosing pellets with as large central boss. Lobes protrude from the centre in the angles of the cross, a saltire behind. Only five have been recorded by the PAS, matched by another five listed by Weetch, all of which were found in the City of London.[39] Three of the PAS-recorded examples, however, were found in Lincolnshire

and the other two close by on the north bank of the Humber estuary and near Doncaster.[40] Given the lack of finds from elsewhere this raises the question of whether production was in the Humber region rather than London, the examples from the City of London reflecting the connections between the two regions.

A strap end dating c 1270–1400 of probable Continental origin was found at Brookland (Kent; KENT-5CAB0B; Fig 4b). Comprising a now-broken trapezoidal box plate, a circular panel with openwork decoration and a zoomorphic terminal, it is of a type rarely recorded by the PAS.[41] The openwork panel on this and most other PAS-recorded examples contains two facing figures, the meaning of which may be biblical in nature although its exact interpretation is not clear. This find along with two from Essex, one from southern Cambridgeshire and one from eastern Leicestershire illustrate their limited circulation, probably entering England via an eastern or south-eastern port.

Mirror cases of late 13th–mid-14th century date continue to be recorded in small numbers every year – 16 were added in 2019 – the majority belonging to a common type with the punched cruciform design (Lewis Type A1), such as an incomplete example from Acaster Malbis (York; YORYM-CF9235; Fig 4c) found near to the northern edge of their distribution.[42] Another find, from South Cerney (Gloucestershire; HESH-23C9E2; Fig 4d) is a slight variant of the less common Lewis Type B with its more elaborate decoration of collets and rectangular soldered mounts, although on this example the design differs slightly in its arrangement.[43]

Seal matrices are commonly-found objects with 374 medieval examples recorded in 2019, many of which are either non-personal seals or personal seals of otherwise unknown persons. An example which might be linked to a historically-known person is a seal matrix found at Hustbourne Tarrant (Hampshire; SUR-486E0E; Fig 4e) which is in the name of Robert Walerand and bears his arms; Walerand was a *justiciar* and close adviser to Henry III (1216–72) who held estates in Gloucestershire and Hampshire. A curious object from Shorne, Cobham and Luddesdown (Kent; KENT-8A4DDD; Fig 4f) uses the pointed oval form of a medieval seal with a star motif in the centre and inscription outside but is instead incised onto a sheet of lead which was folded when discovered and appears to be missing a small part of one end. Given it is on a neatly trimmed piece of lead, it was probably intended to act as a seal; it can be only broadly dated to around 1200–1350.

A single medieval vervel (hawking ring) was recorded last year found in Compton (Surrey; SUR-44916D; Fig 4g).[44] A simple annular silver ring, it would have been tied to leather jesses attached to the bird's legs and, in turn, used to secure it onto its perch.[45] One side carries an inscription, RAVEnShOLmE, identifying the bird's owner. While it is impossible to positively identify this individual, a John de Ravensholme is known from Pury, a manor in Bentley parish, Hampshire c 25 km west of Compton, described as the 'king's yeoman' in 1344 and it is possible it belonged to him or a member of the Ravensholme family.[46]

Forty-three pilgrim's badges were recorded in 2019 including a late 15th-century lead-alloy lozenge-shaped badge of St Thomas Becket found at Lewknor (Oxfordshire; OXON-A9145B; Fig 4h). Depicting the standing archbishop, nimbate, holding a staff in his left hand, his right raised in blessing, it is only a second example of this type known.[47] Other badges of interest recorded last year include a mostly complete badge of St Alban from Queenhithe (City of London; LON-642512; Fig 4i), one of only three recorded by the PAS to date;[48] an octagonal copper-alloy button badge of late 15th–early 16th-century depicting an archer and a bound figure being shot with arrows may represent either St Edmund or St Sebastian, both of whom were martyred in this manner. Found in Reed (Hertfordshire; SF-C555E9; Fig 4j) it is one of only two copper-alloy badges of this form recorded by the PAS.[49]

RESEARCH REPORTS

A 5th-century hacksilver hoard from Wem, Shropshire

At a metal-detector rally near Wem (Shropshire) in October 2018, three metal detectorists discovered a dispersed hoard of late-Roman silver (LVPL-9CF012). The initial discovery of 259 items (weighing 440.96g) included 67 siliquae and part of a denarius (Fig 5). Following harvesting of the crop, the same finders, the landowner and the author returned to the site in August 2019 to establish the find's archaeological context and to determine whether more of the hoard remained to be found. A small 7.5 x 7.5 m trench was machine excavated and the area investigated for cut features. Nothing archaeologically significant was found other than sub-soiling marks into the glacial sand and gravel. No evidence for an obvious marker for the hoard was located which it was concluded was a discrete deposit. A further 80 silver items were found, including 12 coins, weighing 91.19g (Fig 6). The hoard's total weight was 532.87 g comprising 336 items including 80 were coins.

The hoard was catalogued by the author but then reported on by Richard Abdy (coins) and Richard Hobbs (other finds) of the British Museum which has informed this note. The coins are mostly in a wretched condition and over a third are of uncertain mint and/ or issue. About half the period-identifiable coins are of the joint reign of Arcadius and Honorius (AD 395–402) putting Wem in the ultimate category of Guest's classification of siliquae hoards.[50] Clipping is at its most severe (Fig 7a–b) and there is evidence that we have reached such a late stage in the clipped siliquae hoarding process that attempts to retain the coin-like appearance during the reductions have been abandoned and we have 'hacksilver coins' (Fig. 7c–f), many halved and quartered, and one specimen is folded (almost rolled into a tube). This hacking down process is rough and ready with much evidence of cut marks from the knife (Fig 7f). One of these halved coins is an old, well-worn 1st-century denarius pressed back into service as a piece of bullion. The presence of a denarius in a hoard mainly comprised of siliquae is close to unique in Britain although it is less so beyond the *limes*.[51] Parallels are drawn with the Patching (West Sussex) hoard, which also contained a denarius,[52] but Wem, being much further inland, had no access to continental material and responded to the times differently; its halved and quartered coins could be seen as part of the increasing trend over time towards smaller and smaller pieces of hacksilver. With Wem we clearly have a *siliquae* hoard at a very late transitional stage to a bullion economy.

The hacksilver component of the hoard is characterised by extreme fragmentation: only 21 items (6% of the hoard) are greater than 5g by weight and 55% (including coins) are lighter than 1g. This makes it difficult to be certain of what is being cut up, but the identifiable elements are limited to tablewares (including at least one cochlear spoon) and objects of personal adornment, including penannular brooches, finger rings (including one of Brancaster type) and a zoomorphic buckle (Fig. 7g). The sole undamaged item is a complete Class F penannular brooch (Fig 7h) with panels beneath the terminals inscribed with saltires and upper surface zoomorphic decoration. There is wear on the upper surface of the right-hand terminal and loop and the pin is humped and barrel-headed. Found on top of the bulk of the hoard it is suggested, in the absence of any associated pottery or fittings from a box, that the brooch was used to secure the hoard in a fabric or leather bag. The remainder of the hoard comprised ingots (both complete examples and fragments) and plain cut-sheet or wire. One complete ingot was the heaviest item in the hoard: 26.48g, equivalent to one *uncia.*[53]

The number of 5th-century hacksilver hoards in Britain is small – this is only the sixth – but the closest parallels to the composition of the hoard are those from Gaulcross (Aberdeenshire) and Norries Law (Fife),[54] although this is the first example where the cutting has extended to the coins. The significance of the hoard lies in two areas: its geographical location and its date. This is the first unequivocally 5th century hoard from mainland western Britain, the West Bagborough hoard being firmly late 4th century in date.[55] As already noted, the main parallel for the Wem hoard is that from Patching, whose terminal date, provided by a Visigothic pseudo-Imperial solidus of Severus III, is likely to be 461–c 470.[56] Unlike Patching, however, the Wem hoard contains nothing that can be independently dated this late, the coins ending in issues of AD395-402. However, deposition must be later than the terminal date since many of the coins are extensively clipped, as was the case with nearly all the *siliquae* in the Hoxne hoard.[57] Guest's careful analysis of the phenomenon of clipping using the statistically meaningful sample of 14,136 siliquae from Hoxne concluded that the coins were drawn from the pool of currency circulating within the province and that clipping was being carried out in order to maintain a supply of silver used as bullion. This, and the effort taken to preserve the head of the Emperor intact, suggest that the process was officially controlled.[58] As Painter observes: 'the distribution of the coinage – in the form of clipped siliquae – and the administration which organised its circulation and production, seem reasonable evidence that Britain in the first quarter of the 5th century had some form of government or co-operating authorities.'[59] However, by the time that the Patching hoard was deposited, clipping had ceased since the five siliquae of AD 409–455 brought in with the later gold coins in that hoard were unclipped.[60] This means that the period when clipping was in operation 'could have ended *several decades* before 470'.[61]

Providing a terminal date for the Wem hoard is thus essentially guesswork as it could lie any time between c 410–470 but two factors can be taken into account. The first is that the Wem coins have not just been clipped; many have been halved, quartered and mutilated *after* they have been clipped, a unique phenomenon for late Roman coins. They are being treated as bullion, and the power of the Emperor's image is ignored. While this could be considered as a further stage in the clipping process – a Clipping Factor 5 to add to Guest's Clipping Factors 1–4[62] – it seems more likely that the hoard lies after the end of any official control over the coinage and its circulation within Britain, a date closer to the Patching hoard rather than to the end of Roman Britain. Some support for this comes from the consideration of the hacksilver component of the

hoard, its extreme fragmentation being the principal characteristic. Hacksilver appears to have acted as a special purpose currency valued by weight in Barbaricum and the emerging post-Roman world, as demonstrated by the close correlation of the weights of the pieces to Roman weight standards.[63] While the overall weight of the Wem hoard does not exactly correlate to a precise Roman weight (it is 13 g short of 20 *unciae*) several items (mostly ingots) do conform and the variety of weights within it allow for a wide flexibility of use for the purposes of exchange within a (presumably post-Roman) bullion economy.

(*Roger H White*)[64]

Two lead strikings using Late Saxon and Norman coin dies

Two unusual coin-related finds recorded in 2019 which can be dated to either side of the Norman Conquest are considered here together rather than in the separate numismatic sections above. Both are lead objects stuck using coin dies, and are two of only five medieval examples recorded by the PAS. [65] One was found at Swinbrook and Widbrook (Oxfordshire; FAJN-351177; Fig 8a) and used dies from a 'short cross' type penny of Cnut (1016–35) and was struck using London dies – the visible reverse inscription reads LVN for London – although little more of the inscriptions is discernible; the other was found in the Tewkesbury area (Gloucestershire; HESH-237E03; Fig 8b) utilising dies from a PAXS type penny of William I (1066–87) struck by Ælfgeard at the Worcester mint and shares the same dies as a coin in the Royal Collection, Copenhagen.[66] Interpretation of these objects is difficult, and they need not have all been produced for the same purpose. The Cnut example from Oxfordshire although now in poor condition, being bent and torn which has removed a portion of the coin design appear to be on a lead sheet, or flan, that was substantially larger than the coin dies. Such untidy examples are often interpreted as trial pieces,[67] testing the dies before striking coins in silver. An example for a coin of Stephen was interpreted as a potential test striking by a forger with the dies used for a mint distant from the findspot. The Cnut find in West Oxfordshire is also some distance from the mint named on the coin (London) but too little survives and its condition is too poor to fully assess whether these should be considered official or false dies. The find from the Tewkesbury area is very different. The dies used are official and the struck image clear and distinct. The dies are from a local mint (Worcester) and the lead sheet neatly trimmed to form a circular flan approximately 10 mm wider than the dies which are positioned centrally. This is paralleled by

other finds, mostly from London, where such traits were seen as an indication that these strikings were made for a particular purpose in this case that they were deliberately produced for an economic role, possibly acting as receipts for the payment of customs dues.[68] In this case, the use of local dies and regular flan would suggest that the Gloucestershire find should also be considered a potential customs receipt, and a rare example of such from western England.

(*J Naylor*)

A medieval secular 'Snail-Man' Locket

Medieval reliquary pendants are a well-recognised class of object , although one not commonly recorded by the PAS. A silver box pendant (or locket) found in Tilney All Saints (Norfolk; DUR-04365D; Fig 9) falls into this unusual category of artefact, albeit perhaps obliquely.

The locket is roughly square, measuring 13 x 11 mm (excluding loop). The front panel is decorated with a quasi-heraldic motif, its main feature a finely incised snail shell with a human head, wearing a hood or 'chaperon' over the back of the head. The face has heavy features: a protuberant forehead and sunken eye positioned above a bulbous nose, thickened lips and square jaw. The chaperon falls in several folds below the head, and covers the opening of the snail shell; the lower hem and upper edge decorated with a single row of small punched dots. The remainder of the field is formed of lozenges enclosing a cross. The snail shell is tightly coiled, decorated with a series of parallel grooves. The pendant is otherwise undecorated, although there are traces of gilding. A small rectangular cut-out and two small perforations on the lower edges indicate the position of a hinged back-plate; the attachment loop for suspension soldered at the top.

The pendant's box-like shape is a well-established form from at least the 12th century, many made from precious metals and decorated with religious devices. The imagery can be quite diverse: examples include St George and the Dragon, such as the 15th-century piece from Fen Ditton, Cambridgeshire now in the British Museum [69] and a lozenge-shaped box pendant from the Hockley area (Essex; ESS-2C4836; Fig 10) of early 16th-century date combines images of a female saint (probably the Virgin Mary or St Helena) with the cross, the wounds of Christ and the names of the Magi. Such boxes were intended to contain relics either visibly behind crystal or enclosed within, and to be worn highlighting their role as very personal symbols and reminders of faith through 'representations and by physical gestures of devotion'.[70]

The Tilney All Saints pendant exhibits a very different decorative style, however, and attributing devotional meaning to the 'snail-man' is challenging. In Christian iconography snail can be used to depict traits including humility, perseverance and repentance alongside allusions to Mary and the Virgin Birth, due to parthenogenesis in some species.[71] The depiction of the snail may also be emblematic of resurrection,[72] although the painting of an arbalist shooting a snail, as depicted in the 13th-century *Livre d'Heures* may guard against such interpretation.[73]

Other depictions of snails, this time combatting knights, are seen especially in 13th- and 14th-century illuminated manuscripts.[74] Randall argued that snail marginalia – common from the later 13th century – represented 'anti-Lombard stigma' in Northern Europe, Lombards as userers and pawnbrokers depicted as 'avaricious, malicious, and cowardly' a plethora of other interpretations are possible from their role as garden pests to the struggles of poor against rich.[75] However, it is difficult to attribute such interpretations to the 'snail-man, and other related images, which only appears in the 14th century. For example, in the The Breviary of Renaud de Bar, a rabbit rides a snail-man jousting with a dog riding a hare,[76] and in the early 14th-century Maastricht Hours a snail-man is depicted in a remarkably similar manner to that on DUR-04365D, although he lacks the chaperon.[77] Such 'snail-man' images appear to indicate that while snails images may have been born of anti-Lombard stigma, later depictions imbue quite different and more diverse thematic, satirical and comedic cultural meaning.

On the Tilney All Saints locket, the snail-man's form and features, and his presentation on a faux heraldic field, can be seen as comedic, in stark contrast to the more solemn characterisation of figures on religious pendants. As such, a secular rather than devotional purpose appears likely, although still probably intended to enclose a small object with personal significance, drawing upon the tradition of the reliquary pendant to convey meaning. On such devotional objects, their decoration draws the viewer into a symbolic act of display,[78] its content conveyed through the material presentation and it implies an exchange, or at least cognisance, of specific contemporary cultural knowledge between the viewer and the wearer. It is unfortunate that while we can recognise comedic and memetic traits in the imagery of the Tilney All Saints locket, their precise meaning remains enigmatic.

Parallels can also be sought with classes of objects designated as 'Satirical Badges' and 'Lover's Tokens',[79] including a number of lead pendants which depict animals (although none are snails). Recalling Randall's Lombard hypothesis,[80] Spencer argued that some pilgrim souvenirs

were related to supporters of Thomas of Lancaster and were 'were clearly politically propagandist as well as devotional in intent'.[81] Another series of more comedic badges depict Queen Isabella holding a stick above her submissive son Edward III symbolising her regency.[82] These likely date from around the Despenser War of the early 14th century. If we accept the idea that the usage of ornate and precious metal reliquaries was restricted to the elite, while cast lead badges catered to the 'faithful of humble means',[83] then this humorous silver gilt secular locket can be considered an expensive form of the humble satirical badges discussed above.

It is difficult to assess the locket's place of manufacture, with its snail imagery common across northern Europe, and so it is equally likely that it was made in the Low Countries or Northern France as in England. However, its symbology places it in the later 14th century as a rare, somewhat subversive form of a recognisable object, uniquely and exquisitely decorated.

(*B Westwood*)[84]

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[2] Full details of all finds recorded by PAS can be found at: <https://finds.org.uk/database>.
[3] Date accessed: 18 June 2020
[4] Finds reported via the Treasure Act 1996 are now included on the Portable Antiquities Scheme Database (PASD). PAS and Treasure Annual Reports are free to download (<*http://finds.org.uk/publications*>).
[5] As of 31 December 2019. Figures include finds reported under the Treasure Act 1996. Date accessed: 18 June 2020.
[6] See Allen et al forthcoming 2020 for further details. Coin finds include all medieval rulers up to and including Henry VII (1485–1509).
[7] Many thanks must go to the FLOs, volunteers and specialists (both within and outside of the PAS) for their work in identifying and recording the thousands of medieval objects brought to the PAS every year, as well as providing broader context for many of our finds. This round-up would not have been possible without their expertise and input into the individual records which are discussed. Additional thanks to Ian Richardson for his help and advice regarding last year's Treasure cases, and to Michael Lewis Leahy for his discussion and comments on some of the objects included. Any errors remain the responsibility of individual authors.
[8] Hope-Taylor 1977, 182–3.
[9] All recorded by the Corpus of Early Medieval Coin Finds (EMC) at < https://emc.fitzmuseum.cam.ac.uk/> under the following record numbers: 2003.0051, 2008.0308, 2013.0062 and 2014.0033.
[10] Andrews with Metcalf 1997, 212.
[11] Naylor forthcoming
[12] Higham and Ryan 2013, 239–40.
[13] This piece is still undergoing examination as under the Treasure Act 1996; its status as Treasure has yet to be decided by the coroner.
[14] See last year's round-up for a discussion of minor mint places (Naylor 2019, 406–7)
[15] Duffy 2005, 183–6.
[16] Robbins 2014, fig 18.
[17] Lewis *et al* 2019.
[18] Around half of those recorded were cut factions, either halved or quartered into halfpennies or farthings potentially removing this information from the surviving coin.
[19] Withers and Withers 2006, 44.
[20] Oddy et al 2012, 237–8.
[21] Including 144 Scottish coins dating 1195–1488 and 176 Continental coins dating c 1100–1500.
[22] The other finds were from Castle Hedingham (Essex; ESS-1872F8) and Wainfleet St Mary (Lincolnshire; LIN-9A4D57).
[23] Swift 2019, 8, 28–9, fig 5 and 10.
[24] Ibid, fig 21.
[25] Evison 1965, 71, fig 29h–j.
[26] Tyacke 2008, 170.
[27] Another was excavated at Llanbedroch, Anglesey (Redknap and Davies 2000).
[28] Eg Weetch 2014.
[29] Ibid, 137–40, 177–90.
[30] See, for example, HAMP-7FBF17.
[31] Weetch 2014, fig 4.6.
[32] Cf Ryan 1989, fig 3, nos 133, 138.
[33] Webster and Backhouse 1991, 269–70, no 245a; Gannon 2003, 160–5.
[34] Weetch 2014, 87–9.
[35] Webster 2012, 150–1, fig 112.
[36] Pestell (2013, 244) references ten examples from Norfolk, and the PAS has recorded 10 examples through the Treasure Act 1996 to date, including several post-2013.
[37] Ibid, 242.
[38] Jansson 1984.
[39] Weetch 2014, 126–7, especially no 831.
[40] The other PAS-recorded finds with similar decorative style are LIN-0CD090 and SWYOR-988AA1; YORYM-840603 and NLM-AC67C6 have a lion passant design.
[41] Fingerlin 1971, figs 228–34. Other openwork examples include LEIC-F31B97 and ESS-6A6774; morphologically similar finds are ESS-E4F1F4, CAM-A4D154.
[42] Lewis 2014, 356–7, fig 9
[43] Ibid 357–9.
[44] Most are c 16th–17th century in date (Lewis and Richardson 2017, 194) nine such examples were recorded in 2019, eight reported through the Treasure Act 1996.
[45] Ibid
[46] See record for further discussion; Page 1911, 27–30..
[47] Spencer 1990, 17, fig 13.

[48] The others are LON-D6B298 and LON-E75417.
[49] The other find, a badge of St Barbara, is recorded under WMID-C2E4D4; see Cahanier 2017 for discussion of copper-alloy button badges including those of octagonal shape (Cahanier form B).
[50] Group 6 in Guest 1997, 411-23. Guest uses the summaries listed in the 'Silver hoards' section of *RIC* X (Kent and Carson 1994).
[51] Eg Graben-Neudorf and Heilbronn-Böckingen, Germany (*RIC* X, p.cxx-cxxi). Childeric's tomb at Tournai is another famous example of such 'curated' coinage. See Harris 2003, 81-2. Within the empire, the Beaurains Treasure seems to be a special case – a packet of worn denarii present in the Constantinian hoard were interpreted as loot taken from Barbaricum: Bastien and Metzger 1977.
[52] Abdy 2006, 75–98; Abdy 2009, 393–5. On the Patching Hoard see Abdy 2013.
[53] Hunter and Painter 2013, 232 gives the Roman ounce as 27.2875g
[54] These two hoards are considered in context with other discoveries in Blackwell et al 2018, 69-93. The other hoards are Traprain Law (East Lothian), Patching (West Sussex) and Coleraine (N. Ireland).That from West Bagborough (Somerset; IARCH-39DCDF) is potentially another. All four are discussed in separate papers in Hunter and Painter 2013.
[55] Minnitt and Pointing 2013
[56] Abdy 2013, 107.
[57] A total of 88.6% of the hoard coins are clipped; for Hoxne the figure is 98.5% (Guest 2005, 110).
[58] Guest 2005, 110-115.
[59] Painter 2013, 229.
[60] Abdy 2013, 111.
[61] Ibid, 113; his emphasis.
[62] Guest 2005, fig.7
[63] Painter 2013, 229-231
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[65] Early Medieval: HAMP208 (Edward the Confessor); High and Later Medieval: DOR-4EEC18 (Stephen), WILT-08F477 (Charles the Bold).
[66] For types see North 1994, 168, 192; Galster 1972, no 1353.
[67] Blackburn 1993.
[68] Archibald 1991, 332–5.
[69] Accession number: BM 2002,0404.1.
[70] Standley 2013, 70.
[71] Jones 2014. /
[72] Mollet 1987, 299.
[73] Evans 1896, 217-8.
[74] Randall 1962; Pinon 1980.
[75] Randall 1962, 362, 365; Biggs 2013.
[76] British Library, Yates Thompson 8, fol. 294r
[77] British Library, Stowe MS 17, f.8r
[78] Oversby 2015, 243.
[79] Spencer 2010, 311.
[80] Randall. 1960.
[81] Spencer, 2010, 201 and 309.
[82] Ibid, 308, 310, nos 308, 308a–308b.
[83] Boehm 2001
[84] Finds Liaison Officer for Durham, 5/36-43, Archaeology Section, Durham County Council, County Hall, Durham, County Durham, DH1 5UQ; *benjamin.westwood@durham.gov.uk.*