Excavations of an Iron Age Site at Coxwell Road, Faringdon

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SUMMARY

In the summer of 1999 Oxford Archaeology (formerly Oxford Archaeological Unit) undertook a programme of evaluation and excavation of an area off Coxwell Road, Faringdon. The excavations revealed a settlement dating to the early and middle Iron Age, and a single late Iron Age pit suggests the settlement may have shifted to a nearby location. Continued activity in the Roman period suggests that the excavated area was on the periphery of a settlement. The Iron Age features included roundhouses, enclosures, ditches, pits and postholes. The Roman activity comprised a small number of pits and ditches, an inhumation and a corndrier. The Iron Age settlement was typical of the terrace gravel sites in the region, with a mixed agricultural economy that intensified in the middle Iron Age and continued into the Roman period. Special deposits of domesticated-animal bones, skulls, wild-animal bones, quern stones and human remains were recovered from pits, enclosures, eaves drip gullies and porch postholes in the Iron Age and Roman periods.

LOCATION AND GEOLOGY

The site lies adjacent to Coxwell Road (B4019) on the south-west side of Faringdon, Oxfordshire (SU 2812 9464). Until recently it was occupied by two dwellings, which lay in open fields used for grazing. The topography is relatively flat, sloping gradually downwards to the south and east from the crest of a hill situated just to the west of the site. It is located on the edge of the Corallian Ridge at a height of 128 m. O.D. on a subsoil of moderately compact gravelly sand with sandstone outcrops and is underlain by a geology of Lower Greensand and Corallian Beds, which are limestone and sands (Fig. 1).[1]

ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

The Coxwell Road excavation lies within a part of Oxfordshire that has seen varying levels of archaeological research. The Upper Thames Valley to the north of the site has seen intensive study; the valley gravels are exceptionally rich in cropmark sites and have produced much evidence of prehistoric settlement.[2] By contrast, the Vale of White Horse to the south has only recently been studied (see below). It is thought, however, that there has been human activity in this area since the early prehistoric period.[3]

[1] British Geological Survey, sheet 253 (1971).

[2] M. Tingle, *The Vale of the White Horse Survey. The Study of a Changing Landscape in the Clay Lowlands of Southern England from Prehistory to the Present* (B.A.R. ccxviii, 1991), 5.

[3] D. Miles, 'Confusion in the Countryside: Some Comments from the Upper Thames Region', in D. Miles (ed.), *The Romano-British Countryside: Some Studies in Rural Settlement and Economy* (B.A.R. ciii, 1982), 53–79.

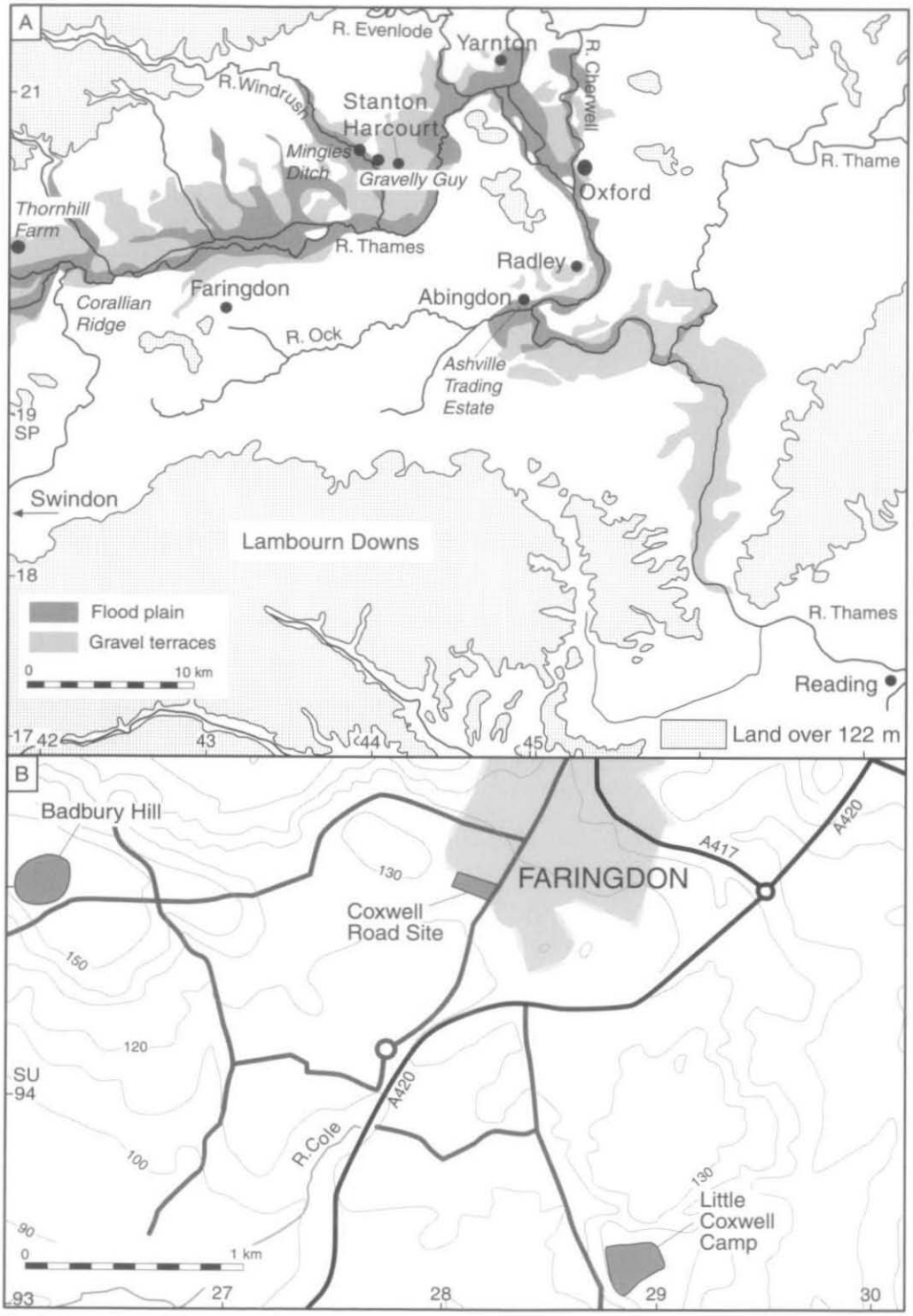


Fig. 1. Location of the excavation at Coxwell Road, Faringdon, within the Upper Thames Valley, and of selected prehistoric sites in the region.

The Coxwell Road excavations fall within the catchment of two extensive archaeological surveys, carried out in 1980 and 1991. Prior to these investigations, much of our knowledge of the area was based on chance finds of early prehistoric artefacts.

Early prehistoric period

Surveys of the Corallian Ridge undertaken in 1980 and 1991[4] revealed much evidence of early prehistoric activity. At the eastern end of the ridge, near Frilford/Garford (*c.* 16 km. to the east of the site) the 1980 survey recorded sites dating to the Neolithic period (flint scatters), the Bronze Age (over 21 ring ditches and several flint scatters) and the Iron Age (13 possible settlement sites). The Vale of White Horse Survey, undertaken in 1991, revealed a low density of prehistoric worked flint from the Corallian Ridge to the scarp of the Berkshire Downs, with concentrations on the scarp of the Downs and the hilltops and ridges of the Corallian Beds.[5]

Iron Age

Archaeological and environmental evidence from the Thames Valley area suggests that forest clearance in this region began in the middle Bronze Age. By the Iron Age the process had extended into the tributary valleys and on to the limestone hills, and an organised farming landscape was established.[6]

To the west and to the south of the Coxwell Road site the land rises to two hilltops, at the top of which are prehistoric hillforts of possible Iron Age date. These are the Scheduled Ancient Monuments of Badbury Hill, *c.* 2 km. to the west of the site, and Little Coxwell Camp, *c.* 2 km. to the south (Fig. 1). Cropmarks and isolated finds suggest Iron Age activity around the two hillforts which may have extended into the 4th century at Little Coxwell Camp.[7] Aerial photographs show a series of rectilinear cropmarks possibly representing a field system immediately to the east of Badbury Hill, where the ground levels out. The quality of soils in the area of the Corallian Ridge around Badbury Hill would have made this site suitable for agricultural activity.[8] The relationship between the hillforts and the rural agricultural settlements in the region is uncertain.

Roman

Investigations along the Corallian Ridge have also produced evidence of activity in the Roman period. Fieldwalking as part of the Upper Thames Valley survey in 1980 revealed a dense scatter of Roman pottery on Bury Hill, to the west of Great Coxwell village, *c.* 1.8 km. south-west of the site. The scatter covered an area of 1.5 hectares and included both early and late Roman wares.[9] Isolated finds of Roman coins and sherds of early Roman pottery were also found in parts of Great Coxwell village. Other finds dated to this period, within the 2 km. study area around the site, include the discovery of early Roman pottery during the excavation in 1955 of a swimming pool in a garden *c.* 300 m. to the south-east of the site.

[4] R. Hingley, 'Survey Projects: The Upper Thames Valley Survey', *C.B.A. South Midlands Archaeology, Group 9 Newsletter*, x (1980), 137.

[5] Tingle, op. cit. (note 2).

[6] D. Miles, 'Conflict and Complexity: The Later Prehistory of the Oxford Region', *Oxoniensia*, lxii (1997), 1–19.

[7] J.M. Jope, 'Archaeological Notes', *The Berkshire Archaeol. Jnl.* li (1948), 67–8.

[8] Tingle, op. cit. (note 2).

[9] K. Edward, C. Gould, D. Miles and G. Wright, 'Survey Projects: Great Coxwell', in Hingley, op. cit. (note 4), 144.


Features revealed by stripping
Features excavated
01 Evaluation trenches
40
700
120
660
N
03
01
04
02
20
640
0
30 m
A

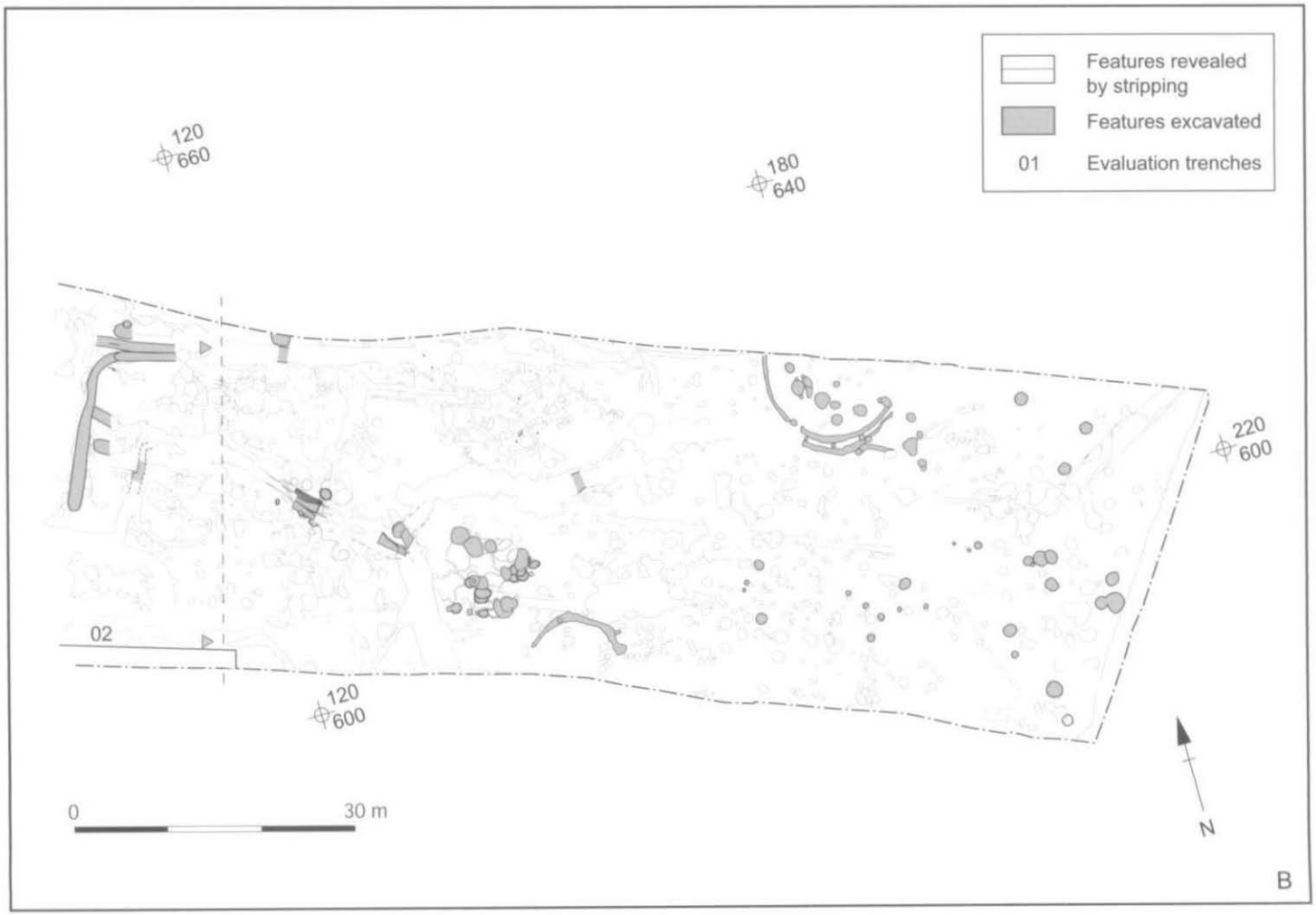


Fig. 2. Plan of the western part (A) and eastern part (B) of the site, showing features revealed by soil stripping, and features excavated.

In 1988 a field survey on the Corallian Ridge at Stanford-in-the-Vale, *c.* 5 km. to the east of the Coxwell Road site, revealed evidence of an extensive Roman settlement covering a *c.* 12-hectare area, including a possible villa and bathhouse.[10] Part of the site at Bowling Green Farm was excavated in advance of quarrying. The excavation uncovered a well-preserved late 3rd- and 4th-century settlement on a site previously occupied by the late Iron Age/early Roman farmsteads.[11] Most of the buildings appeared to have been constructed of timber. The site was interpreted as the remains of a small market town, based on the large number of kilns and hearths, the varied size and status of the buildings, and the substantial coin loss over a large area.[12]

THE TVAS SITE AT COXWELL ROAD

In 1998 Thames Valley Archaeological Services (TVAS) conducted an evaluation on the central and eastern parts of the current development area, and an excavation on adjacent land immediately to the south. These investigations recovered evidence of intensive settlement activity dating from the middle Iron Age to the Roman period.[13]

BACKGROUND TO THE EXCAVATION AND METHODOLOGY

During the summer of 1999 Oxford Archaeology (OA) carried out an evaluation and excavation on behalf of Bryant Homes in respect of planning permission from the Vale of White Horse District Council for the erection of fifty-eight dwellings plus new access roads and services. A written scheme of investigation (WSI) for the evaluation and excavation was agreed between OA, Bryant Homes and Mr Hugh Coddington, the Deputy County Archaeological Officer for Oxfordshire. The evaluation and excavation were funded by Bryant Homes and commenced in June 1999 over a combined area of 2.7 hectares.

The initial evaluation by OA consisted of four trenches measuring 1.6 m. in width and 30 m. in length (01–04, Figs. 2A and 2B). The upper deposits were machine stripped under direct archaeological supervision down to the first significant archaeological horizon. Archaeological deposits were then excavated by hand and recorded using the OA's single context recording system.[14] Each trench was assigned a discrete block of numbers to facilitate integration into the main excavation records.

Within these trenches a Roman boundary or drainage ditch was found in the north-west of the site, on a north-north-west to south-south-east alignment, and a middle Iron Age ditch on a north/south alignment was found in the south. A hollow, interpreted as natural, was found to the south-west of the site; a middle Iron Age pot sherd was found in the base, and a layer of closely packed limestone overlying the primary fill may have been deposited to improve ground conditions in a boggy area; but the layer did not extend beyond the feature. The fill above the cobble layer contained 2nd-century pot sherds.

[10] R. Chambers, 'Stanford-in-the-Vale: Bowling Green Farm', *C.B.A. South Midlands Archaeology, Group 9 Newsletter*, xviii (1988), 87.

[11] Ibid.

[12] Chambers, op. cit. (note 10).

[13] S.D.G. Weaver and S. Ford et al., 'An Early Iron Age Occupation Site, a Roman Shrine and Other Prehistoric Activity at Coxwell Road, Faringdon' (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 119–80).

[14] D. Wilkinson (ed.), *Oxford Archaeology Unit Field Manual* (1992).

Fig. 3. Looking across the excavated area to the east, with Roundhouse D in the foreground.

The evaluation trenches were placed around the periphery of the site and the features uncovered did not directly equate with those observed in the main excavation. They demonstrated limited evidence for middle Iron Age and Roman activity, in the form of boundary and drainage ditches and a possible surface. The lack of evidence for structures or domestic activity, such as animal bones, suggests that the settlement did not extend very far beyond the western limit of the excavated area.

The geology and soils in the evaluation trenches differed dramatically from the main area of the site, with a greater proportion of clays and waterborne deposits in the trenches. The difference suggests that the main body of the settlement was deliberately situated on the freely draining gravels rather than the boggy clay areas.

Full excavation followed soon after the evaluation was completed and the site was stripped down to the first significant archaeological horizon. This revealed a high density of archaeological features over the entire excavation area, apart from the extreme western end where the density of features dropped off dramatically (Figs. 2 and 3). A full plan of the archaeological features was compiled in order to facilitate the targeting strategy for excavation agreed with the County Archaeological Service and outlined in section 3.8 of the WSI. This was to include a minimum of 5% of linear features, 50% of no more than 75 pits (*c.* 2.5% of the estimated total) and up to 10% (by number) of other discrete features. Following stripping of the site it was decided that within the confines of the agreed strategy, careful targeting and excavation of relatively discrete circular or penannular structures was likely to maximise information recovery, and this strategy was implemented accordingly.

Environmental samples of up to 40 litres were taken predominantly from pits and ditches and processed for charred plant remains. The sampling strategy avoided recut and intercutting features in order to minimise the amount of residual material in the samples. Sub-samples of 1 kg. were extracted from deposits containing slag to test for hammerscale.

A corndrier was selected for intensive sampling as it was thought likely to produce evidence of Roman agricultural activity.

A rubble spread revealed along the southern edge of the excavated area was hand-cleaned and planned stone by stone in order to highlight possible masonry structures. No structures were obvious within the rubble, and as the area would not be significantly impacted by development the rubble was left *in situ* and no further excavation of that area was undertaken.

EXCAVATION RESULTS

Activity on the site dates to the late Bronze Age (early 1st millennium BC), early Iron Age (*c.* 8th century to 5th century BC), middle Iron Age (*c.* 5th century to 3rd/2nd century BC) and the late Iron Age/Roman period (*c.* 2nd century BC to 4th century AD). Residual Mesolithic and possibly Neolithic flints have also been found. The site has been divided into six phases based on pottery, stratigraphy and spatial relationships. However there is some indication that earlier fabric types were also employed in later pottery forms and therefore the ceramic progression shows some overlapping of traditions.[15]

A number of features could not be phased specifically to either the early or middle Iron Age, but could be dated to a general Iron Age (IA) period. Furthermore, two separate sub-phases of activity were encountered in the middle Iron Age period (MIA), denoted MIA1 and MIA2. This distinction was on spatial and ceramic grounds, with a markedly higher level of residual early Iron Age (EIA) pot found within those features denoted as MIA1. A number of other features could not be assigned to any of these periods either because they contained no dating evidence and could not be phased on stratigraphic grounds, or because there was a contradiction between the stratigraphy and the dating evidence. As there were large numbers of intercutting features on the site, which caused high levels of residuality and contamination, it was not possible to determine an exact chronology of the site, or the length of time between successive periods. This also meant that no material from the site was considered suitable for radiocarbon dating.

The excavated pits have been classified using the system employed on the OA Gravelly Guy excavation.[16] They were subdivided into four basic types: bell-shaped or undercut sides (U), straight-sided (C), bowl-shaped (B), shallow saucer-shaped (S) and irregular, uncertain or unknown profiles (M). The addition of a suffix indicated that pits had either a flat bottom (for example, U1, C1) or a rounded bottom (U2, C2). Examples of the different pit types excavated in the early Iron Age and middle Iron Age are shown in Fig. 7.

Introduction

The excavations revealed evidence for a settlement dating from the early and middle Iron Ages, with some suggestion that the focus of later activity shifted away from the development area. Early Iron Age activity, focused mainly in the east of the site, consisted of three roundhouses with associated pits and postholes, around a central communal area. In the middle Iron Age this activity had shifted towards the west of the site where three roundhouses were extensively altered and reused to form enclosures for workshops and animal pens. The late Iron Age and Roman activity on the site was more peripheral, with the major features being a large rubbish dump containing hundreds of sherds of pottery, and a corndrier.

Late Bronze Age/early Iron Age

The evidence for late Bronze Age/early Iron Age (LBA/EIA) activity was found in the eastern part of the site. The majority of the features that contained LBA/EIA pot were pits and postholes and were heavily truncated as they lay in a part of the site which was intensively occupied in later periods. The number of sherds found in each feature was small and only Pit 1079 could be phased to this period with any degree of certainty. Its bell-shaped profile suggests that it may have been a small storage pit (see Table 1). The two fills contained a mix of pot and bone that could represent rubbish or general occupation debris. Later activity in the area, including early Iron Age Pit Group 1 and Roman features, is discussed below.

[15] E. Bryan, K. Brown and A. Barclay, 'The Pottery', this report.

[16] G. Lambrick and T. Allen, *Gravelly Guy, Stanton Harcourt: The Development of a Prehistoric and Romano-British Community* (OA Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, 2005).

TABLE 1. FEATURES CONTAINING LATE BRONZE AGE/EARLY IRON AGE POT

Cut	*Feature*	*Fill*	*No. of sherds*
1079	Truncated pit, possibly bell-shaped storage pit	1081	32
1088	Posthole	1089	6
1110	Shallow truncated pit	1109	1
1126	Pit	1124	1
		1123	
		1122	
1147	Truncated bell-shaped storage pit	1125	9
		1146	
		1145	
		1144	
1158	Posthole	1095	1

Early Iron Age

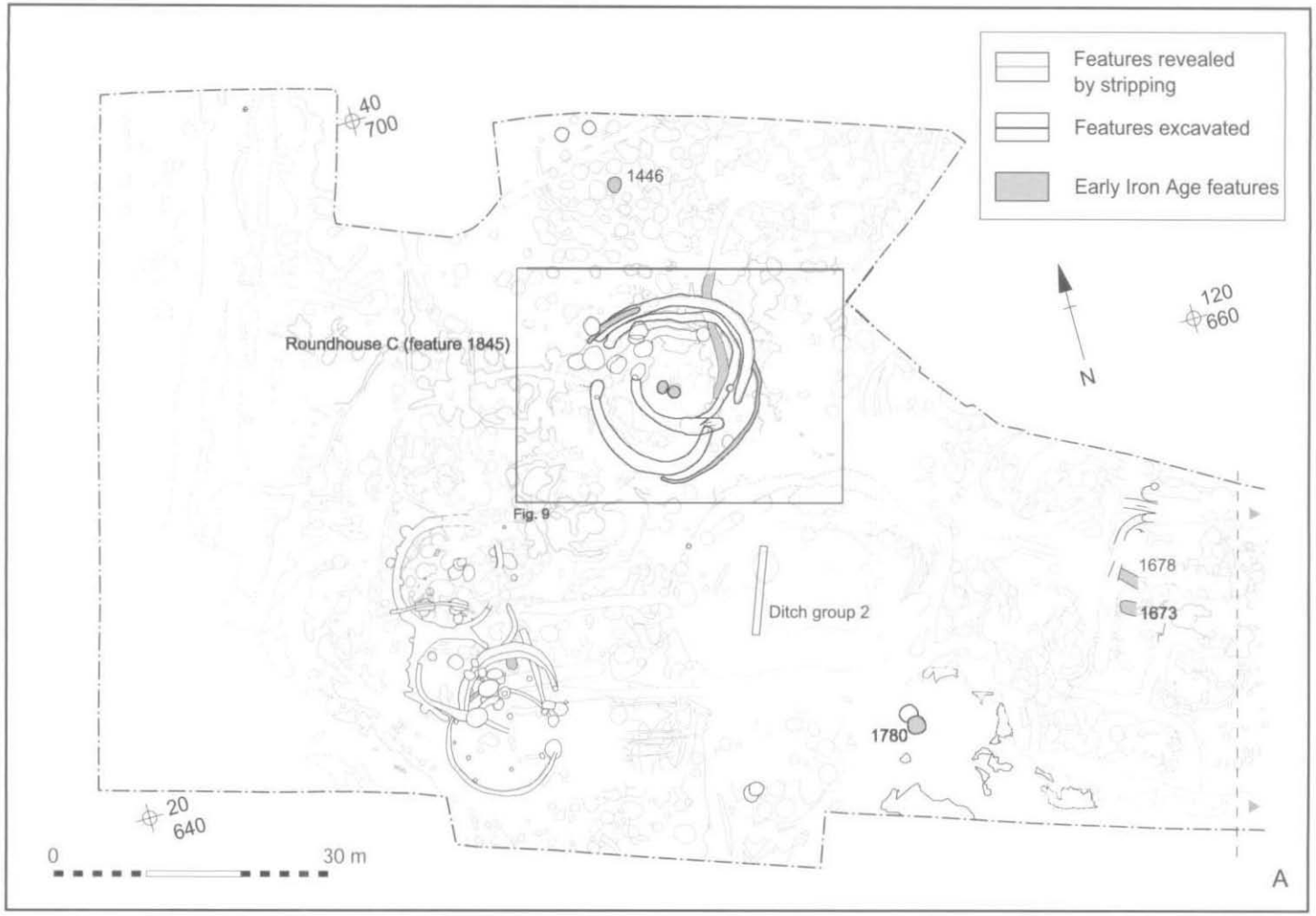
EIA activity was spread across the whole site, with the main focus of activity in the eastern area (Fig. 4B). The features included two ring gullies (1401 and 1454) characterised by narrow, evenly shaped ditches. Gully 1401 was interpreted as a construction trench for Roundhouse A, and 1454 was interpreted as an eaves drip gully for Roundhouse B. They were associated with pits, postholes and a densely packed pit group (Pit Group 1). The pit types include some that were bell-shaped (probably for grain storage), together with rubbish pits and a clay-lined pit.

In the western part of the site (Fig. 4A) was another ring gully (1845) interpreted as an eaves gully for Roundhouse C. Close to this structure was another pit cluster, smaller than that in the east. In the central part of the western area of the site was an isolated pit (1780) notable for containing the skeletons of two dogs. The central part of the site appeared to be free of cut features in this period, and may have represented some kind of communal or working area. While there were a few postholes dated to this period, no obvious structures have been identified.

Roundhouse A. This house (Figs. 4B, 5 and 6) was defined by Ring Gully 1401. Only half of the gully was exposed, with the remainder extending beyond the northern limit of the excavation. The interior diameter of the gully was 13.5 m. The profile was U-shaped in two of the excavated sections and V-shaped in another, with widths varying from 0.2 m. to 0.55 m. and depths varying from 0.1 m. to 0.3 m. The narrow, regular shape of this gully, in comparison with others found elsewhere on the site, suggests that this was a construction trench for the wall of a roundhouse rather than an eaves drip or drainage trench around the outside. One hundred and five sherds of Iron Age pottery were recovered, of which 84 could be definitely assigned to the EIA. Ten sherds of intrusive late Iron Age/Roman (LIA/R) pottery were recovered from a secondary fill. The fills were quite similar in character, consisting of mixed red/brown/yellow silty sand with occasional gravel inclusions. There were quantities of animal bone within all the fills that contained pot, whereas those without pot were also devoid of other finds. One primary fill (1265) was notable as it contained 38 sherds of EIA pot, flint, stone, a large stone spindle whorl (SF133, Fig. 33.13) and a copper alloy rove or suspension loop (SF134) of Roman style; the latter is considered to be intrusive.

At the eastern end of the ring gully was a terminus, which was cut by Pit or Posthole 1281. This was roughly saucer-shaped in profile and oval in plan, 1.3 m. x 0.7 m. in size and 0.47 m. deep, with some evidence of animal disturbance to its northern edge. It had three fills, which appeared to be layers of redeposited natural material. The lowest fill (1282) contained four sherds of early Iron Age pot and some bone, including the humerus of a passerine (a perching bird or songbird), and the latest fill (1284) contained a further two sherds of Iron Age pot and more bone. This appeared to represent a shallow post setting. Beyond the terminus was a gap 3.5 m. in width, implying a substantial entrance. At the other side of this gap was a second posthole, unexcavated, that appeared to mark the northern side of the entrance.

Approximately 2 m. to the south-east of Posthole 1281 was a shallow, saucer-shaped pit (1229). This was 0.97 m. x 0.82 m. in plan and 0.37 m. deep, with a U-shaped profile. This feature could represent a shallow post setting for a porch-style entrance to the roundhouse, although no matching feature was seen to the north-east, related to the northern side of the entrance. It had two fills. The primary fill (1231) contained half a saddle quern (SF127, Fig. 29.2) and a second possible quern fragment (SF128), along with metal, bone


Features revealed by stripping
Features excavated
Early Iron Age features
40
700
1446
120
660
N
Roundhouse C (feature 1845)
Fig. 9
1678
1673
Ditch group 2
1780
20
640
0
30 m
A

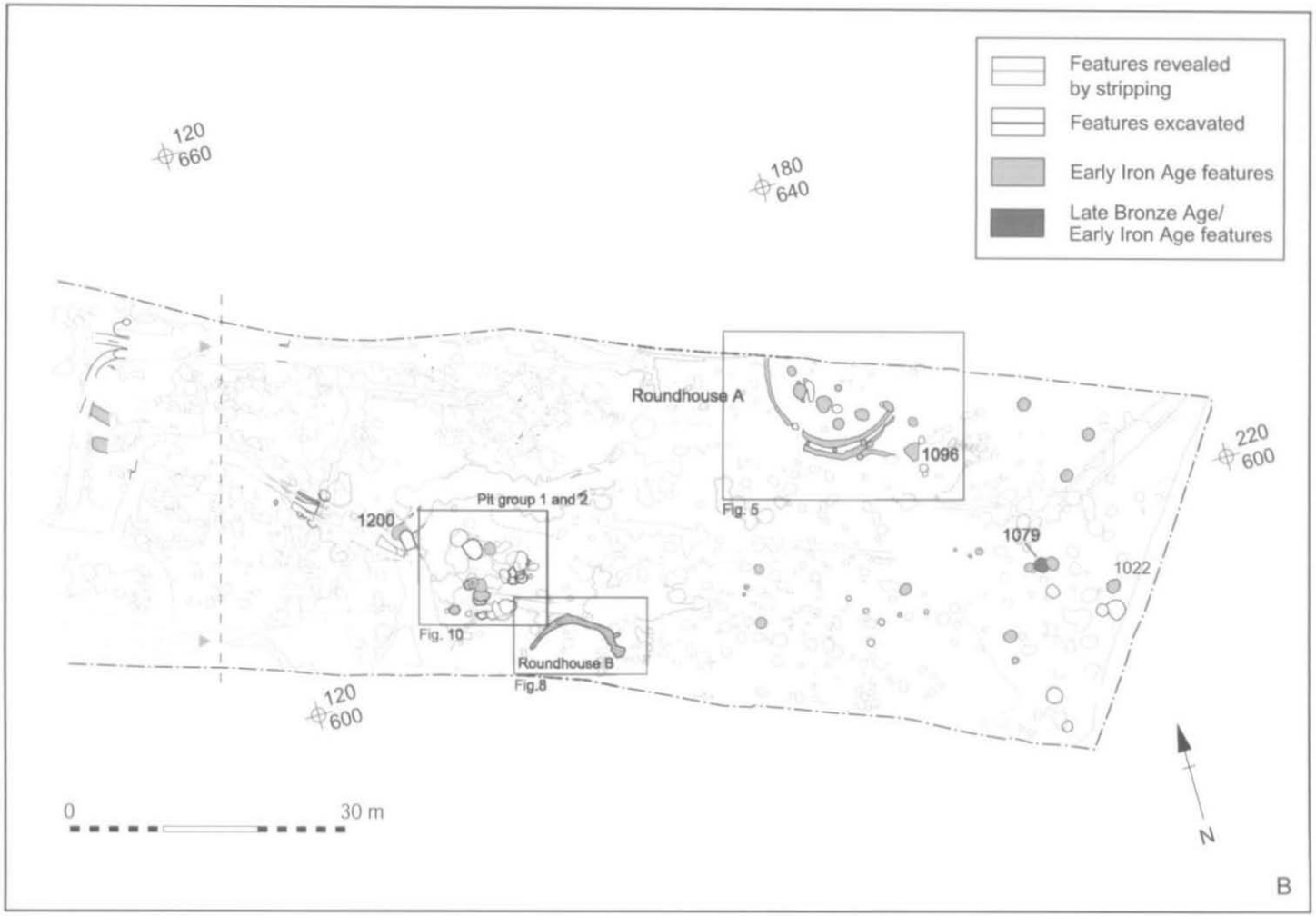


Fig. 4. Plan of the western part (A) and eastern part (B) of the site, showing all early Iron Age features excavated.

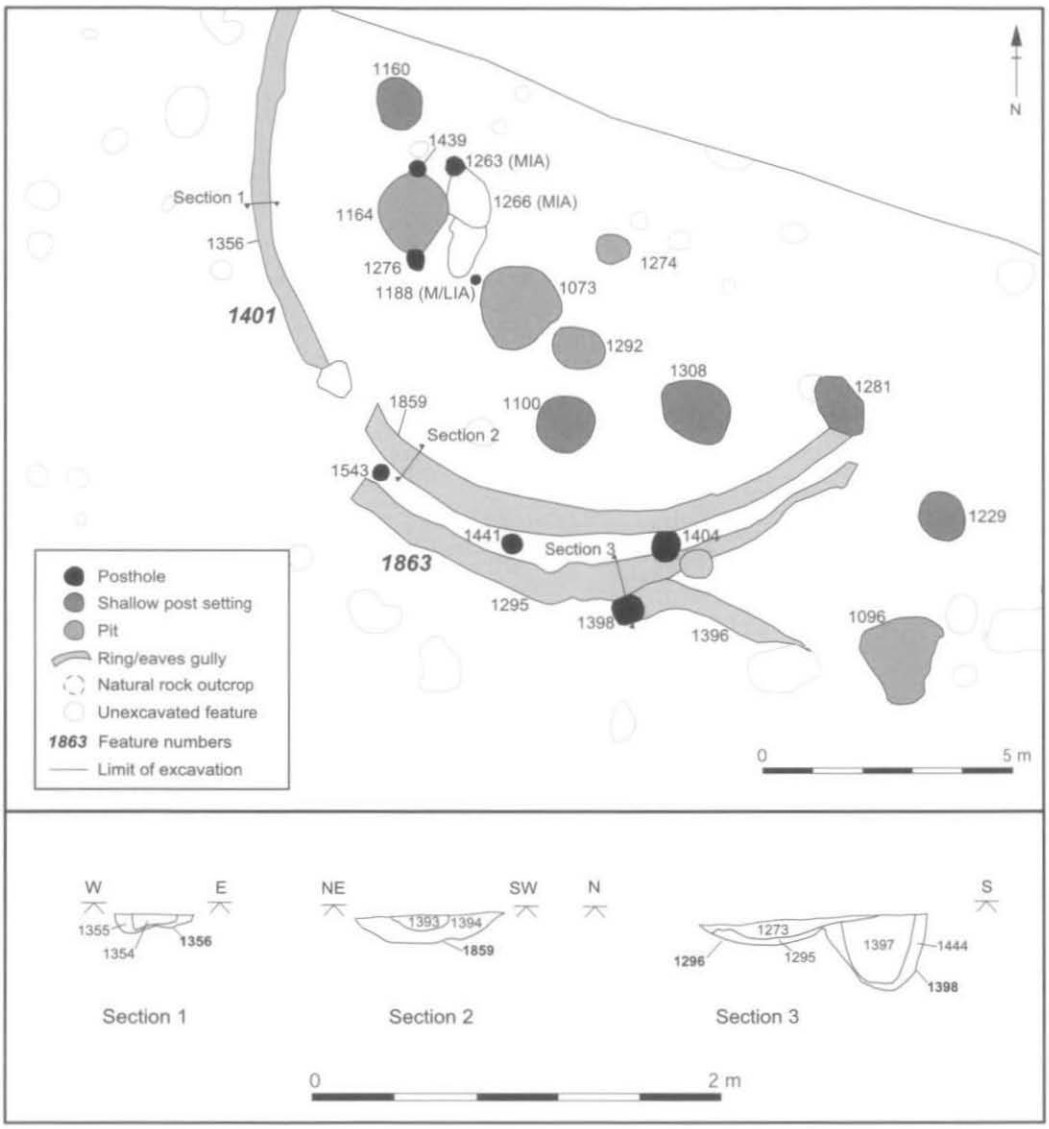


Fig. 5. Plan of early Iron Age Roundhouse A and sections through Construction Trench 1401.

(including the mandible of a water vole and two rodent tibia) and three sherds of early Iron Age pot. The secondary fill (1230) was either rubbish material or topsoil, and contained 11 sherds of Iron Age pot and some bone.

Around the outside of the gully were Post- or Stakeholes 1404, 1441 and 1543. They contained no dating evidence but related spatially to this feature. There were two further unexcavated features that also appear to represent post or stakeholes. The spacing between these was irregular, between 3.0 m. and 4.5 m. apart, but all were positioned no more than 0.5 m. from the outer edge of the ring gully. A further posthole (1398) was positioned slightly further away from the outer edge of the ring gully. It was more substantial than those described above, and had a clear post pipe surrounded by packing. The only dating evidence for this feature comes from seven sherds of non-specific IA pot, but it has been phased to the early Iron Age on spatial grounds.

Fig. 6. Roundhouse A, facing south; with Pit 1073 in the centre and sections through the ring gullies at the rear.

Bounding the southern edge of Ring Gully 1401 was a second gully, 1863. This was curvilinear in plan and roughly followed Gully 1401, a maximum of 0.7 m. from the outer edge. It measured between 0.45 m. and 0.5 m. in width and was 0.1 m. to 0.2 m. in depth. It was quite irregular in shape and appeared to taper away at both ends and has therefore been interpreted as an eaves drip gully for the roundhouse. The fills of the four excavated sections produced one sherd of EIA pottery, two sherds of non-specific IA pottery and 7 sherds of MIA pottery. The MIA pot in the upper fills of this feature is considered to be intrusive, possibly deposited by ploughing.

A small secondary gully (1396) which branched off this gully close to Posthole 1398 ran for 3.5 m. and was aligned north-west to south-east with a shallow, concave profile. It terminated in an unexcavated feature that appeared to be a large pit. The fill of the gully (1395) contained seven sherds of non-specific IA pot, but no other artefacts. This feature has been interpreted as a further drainage gully. In general the positions of the two drainage gullies follow the slope of the site, as this is the direction in which water would drain away.

Within the bounds of Ring Gully 1401 were a number of features phased to this period, shown in Table 2. These were too shallow, taking possible truncation into account, to be pits and contained no evidence of burning to suggest that they were hearths. As such they have been tentatively identified as post settings, although feature 1308 appears too large for this interpretation. Post Settings 1292 and 1274 were centrally placed within Gully 1401 and may have held the main structural supports for the roof timbers. The remaining putative post settings (1160, 1100 and 1308) were no more than 2 m. inside Ring Gully 1401, and may have formed part of an inner ring of secondary roof support posts.

Pit 1073 within the roundhouse was cylindrical, and has been interpreted as a storage pit infilled by at least two distinct dumps of domestic refuse, including burnt stone, animal bone, a total of 45 sherds of EIA pot and residual flints. In addition, Pit 1164 within the roundhouse contained no finds or pot. It was 1.3 m. x 1.4 m. in plan, 1.36 m. deep and had eight fills. The character of the fills suggests deliberate backfilling with a mix of mainly redeposited natural and a small amount of clayey and silty surface deposits. One possible interpretation is that this pit represented an earlier phase of activity in this area that was deliberately backfilled, possibly with natural material dug during the construction of the roundhouse. It may have been a quarry pit. Situated to either side of Pit 1164 were Postholes 1276 and 1439, which contained no dating evidence.

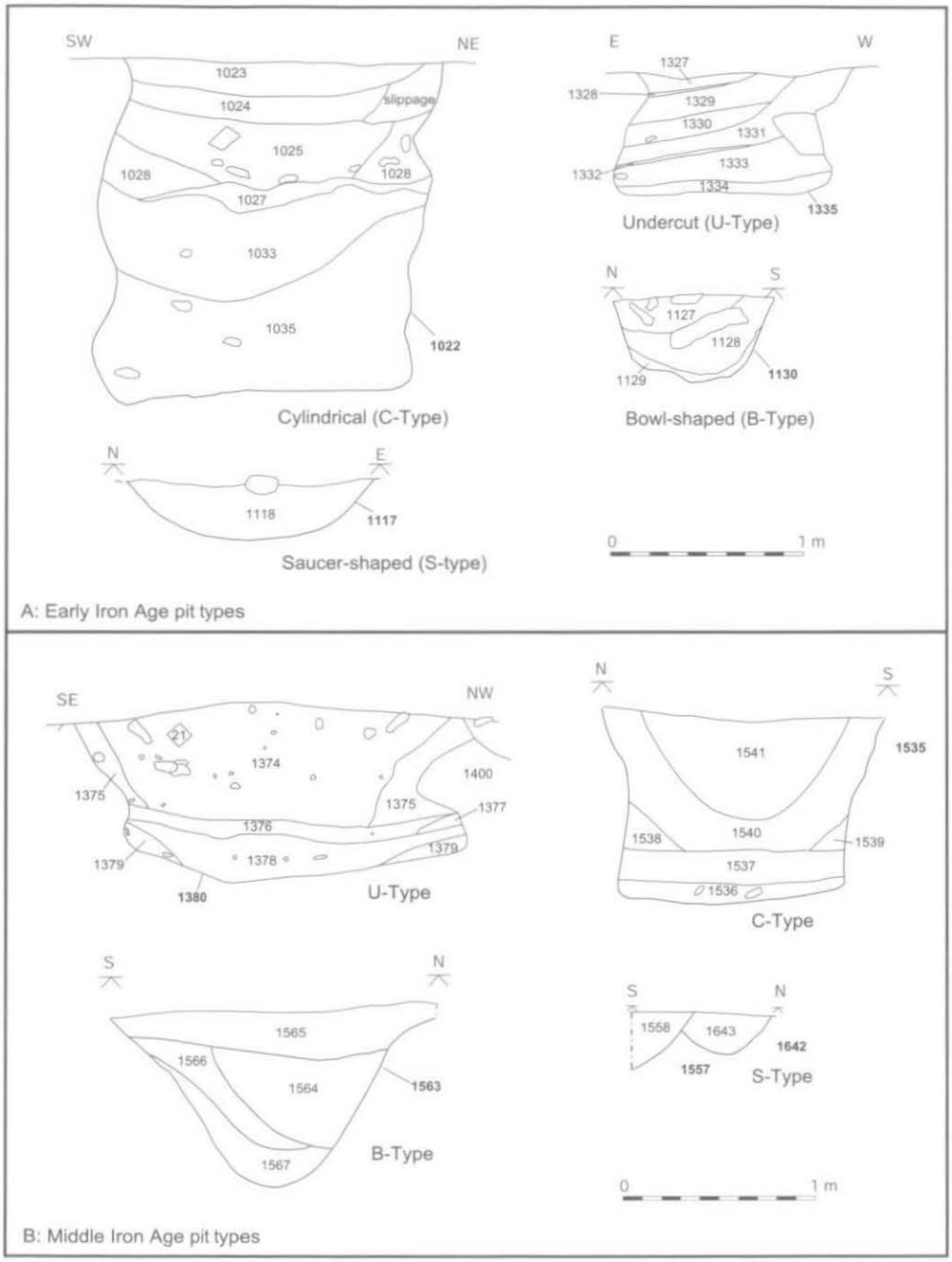


Fig. 7. Sections through different pit types from the early Iron Age and middle Iron Age.

TABLE 2. EARLY IRON AGE FEATURES RELATED TO ROUNDHOUSE A

Cut	*Type*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width/Diameter (m.)*	*Fills*	*Pot*
1073	Pit	0.55	1.8	1113	18 sherds EIA
				1074	27 sherds EIA
1100	Post setting	0.21	1.2	1101	29 sherds EIA
1160	Post setting	0.27	0.84	1161	8 sherds EIA
1164	Pit	1.26	1.3	1412	
				1413	
				1414	
				1415	
				1416	
				1417	
				1418	
				1419	
1263	Posthole	0.2	0.22	1264	
1274	Post setting	0.25	0.77	1275	2 sherds IA
1276	Posthole	0.33	0.38	1277	
1292	Post setting	0.18	0.8	1293	2 sherds IA
1308	Post setting	0.07	1x1.65	1309	
1439	Posthole	0.15	0.38	1440	4 sherds EIA

Roundhouse B. This was defined by curvilinear Ring Gully 1454 (Fig. 8) and was situated in the south of the excavated area (Figs. 4B and 8). The majority of the gully was situated outside the limits of the excavation, but it appeared to be approximately 9.5 m. in diameter. There was a clear terminus at the western end, but the possible eastern terminus was truncated by later features. The width of this gully varied from approximately 0.35 m. at the western end to 0.85 m. in the centre. It had vertical sides leading to a roughly flat but uneven base with a sharp break of slope at both top and bottom; it was only 0.2 m. in depth. It was filled by a friable brown sandy silt (1455) containing 14 sherds of EIA pot, bone and a possible Greensand grinding board (SF152, see below under 'The Worked Stone Objects'). The variation in the width of the gully and the varying shape of the profile suggest that it was not a construction cut, and it may have been for drainage. No features were excavated within this gully, although it may have contained some pits and postholes.

Roundhouse C. Roundhouse C was defined by a ring gully (1845) that had an internal diameter of approximately 18.0 m. and was interpreted as an eaves drip gully. The gully was even and regular in shape, with a V-shaped profile, between 0.35 and 0.6 m. wide and was 0.15 to 0.45 m. in depth (Fig. 9). The fills contained ten sherds of early Iron Age pottery and a complete horse skull, but the gully was heavily truncated by later Ring Gullies 1846, 1847 and 1848, which left only two opposing arcs visible. There were two potential termini, 1214 in the north, which was visible only in the base of later Cut 1206, and a second in the south-west that was not excavated, although neither could be definitively interpreted as evidence for an entrance. Within the south-east and south quadrants of the ring gully were three unexcavated features with the appearance of postholes, but no further evidence for its construction remained due to truncation.

Only two features identified within Roundhouse C (Pits 1067 and 1176) can be dated to the early Iron Age with any degree of certainty (Table 3). Both were positioned centrally and had fills consisting of a mid grey sandy loam with pottery, frequent bone and stone. The fill of 1176 (1177) also contained quantities of burnt stone, interpreted as pot boilers, and the partial remains of the left foreleg of a mature horse. The fill of 1067 (1068) contained a small amount of hammerscale, interpreted as small-scale smithing activity taking place on the site but not necessarily in this particular location. This fill also contained moderate quantities of grain, including spelt wheat, emmer and barley, as well as wheat chaff.

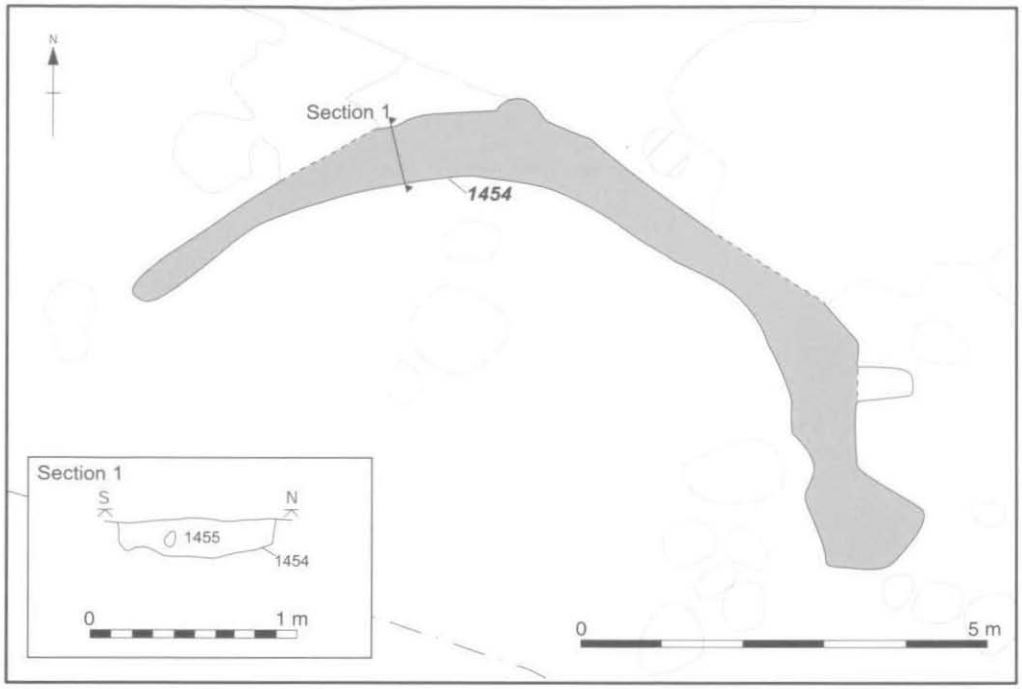


Fig. 8. Plan of early Iron Age Roundhouse B and section through Eaves Gully 1454.

TABLE 3. EARLY IRON AGE FEATURES WITHIN AREA OF ROUNDHOUSE C

Cut	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Width (m.)*	*Depth (m.)*	*Fills*	*Pot*
1067	Pit	Bowl-shaped	1.3	0.4	1068	31 sherds EIA
1176	Pit	Shallow, saucer-shaped	1.5	0.26	1177	63 sherds EIA

Pit 1446 (Fig. 4A) lay approximately 12.5 m. north of Roundhouse C, close to the northern limit of the excavation. It had a slightly irregular cylindrical profile and a single fill (1447) which contained 21 sherds of EIA pot, bone and charred plant remains in a matrix of redeposited natural material. Its original function is unknown, but may relate to activity taking place beyond the limit of excavation.

Other early Iron Age features. The other early Iron Age features, mainly pits, were spread across the eastern part of the site with a few isolated features in the west. Other than the closely packed Pit Group 1 (Table 4), the pits were randomly distributed throughout the area.

Pit Group 1 (Fig. 10) occupied an area of only 7.5 square metres and may represent repeated recutting of LBA/EIA Pit 1147 (shown only in section) and the earliest EIA Pit 1154. The character of the fills and the finds within them suggest alternating episodes of deliberate dumping of domestic rubbish, and periods when the pit was left open and allowed to fill naturally with water and wind-borne material. Other features were found within the vicinity of Pit Group 1 (Table 5). There were additional features, both excavated (but undatable) and unexcavated, and no structures were identified.

Three linear ditches (1200, 1673 and 1678) were phased to the EIA (Figs. 4A and 4B). They lay within the central part of the site and were aligned roughly east/west, with U-shaped profiles and widely varying depths and widths. Ditch segment 1200 was the western terminus of a ditch orientated east to west, situated to the north of Pit Group 1. It was 0.45 m. in depth and 1.3 m. wide, with a U-shaped profile and a flat base. It was filled by 1194, a reddish brown sandy silt with gravel inclusions, bone, flint, quern fragment SF117 and 16 sherds of EIA pot. This suggests that it was deliberately backfilled with a mix of redeposited natural and some domestic debris. Ditch 1200 is the earliest phase of ditch on this alignment, and may have been a boundary or enclosure ditch that was recut in later periods.

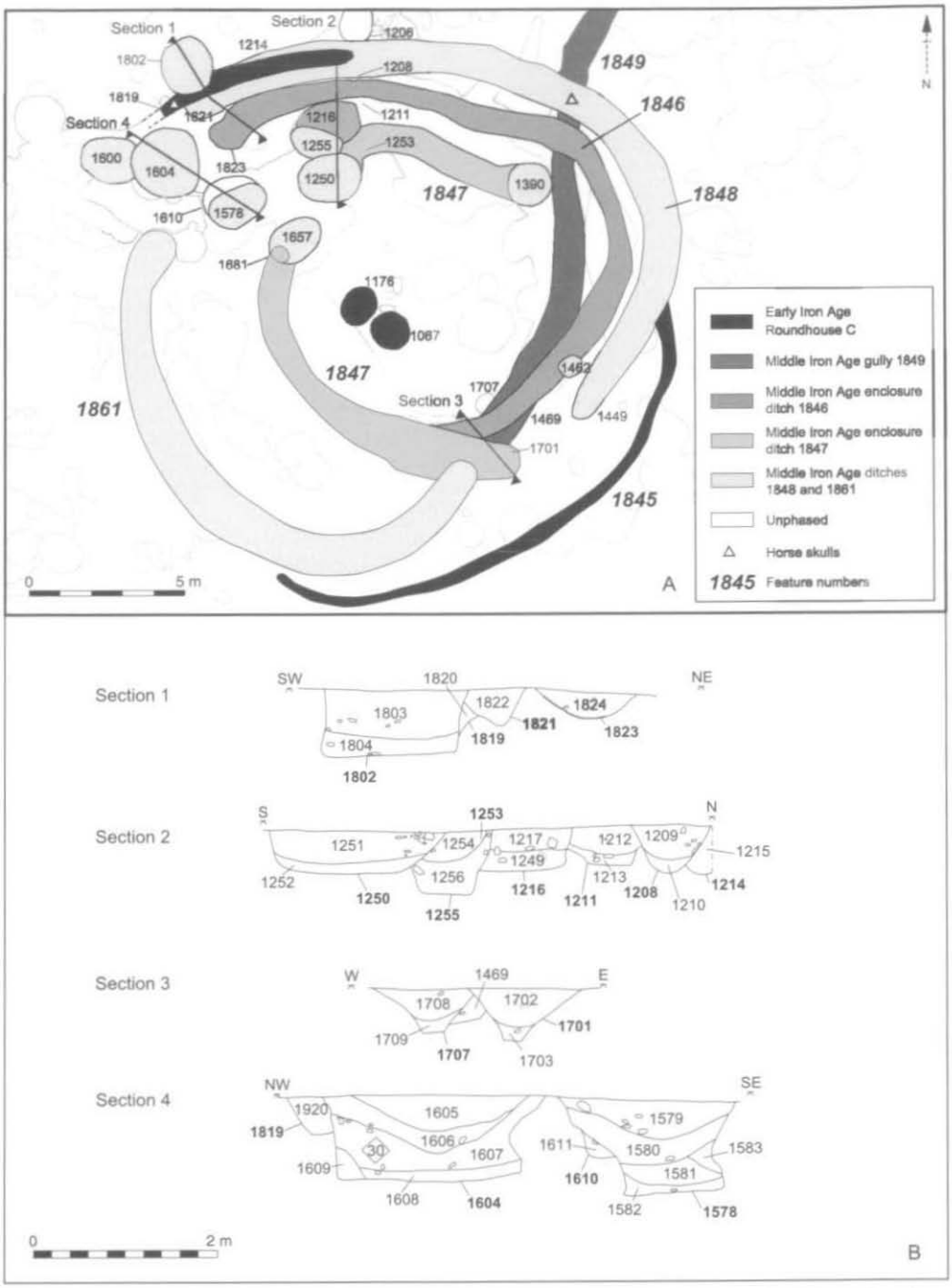


Fig. 9. Plan of early Iron Age Roundhouse C, middle Iron Age Enclosure Ditches 1846–9 and sections through the ditches.

TABLE 4. PITS WITHIN PIT GROUP 1

Cut	*Pit type*	*Description*	*Interpretation*	*Relationship*
1093	C1	4 horizontally deposited fills. Primary (1121) greyish orange silty sand with stones, EIA pot, bone, cu-alloy tweezers. Secondary (1120) brownish grey sandy silt with orange mottling, gravel, charcoal flecks, bone. Tertiary (1119) brownish grey sandy silt with limestone clasts, charcoal flecks, EIA pot. Final (1094) similar to 1119 with patches of orange silty sand, flint scraper.	Unknown	Cut by 1156
1151	U2	Shallow, with 2 fills deposited horizontally. Primary fill (1149) greyish brown sandy silt with limestone clasts and charcoal flecks in it as well as 10 sherds of EIA pot. Secondary fill (1148) is a cleaner version of 1149.	Small storage pit	Latest
1154	U2	Shallow, with 3 horizontally deposited fills. Primary (1150) dark greenish grey sandy silt with lumps of yellow clay, pot, bone. Secondary (1153) greyish brown sandy silt with small pieces of yellow clay in it and occasional pot. Final (1152) mid brownish grey sandy silt with gravel and patches of charcoal.	Storage pit, originally clay lined	Early, cut by 1151
1156	M (unknown)	1 fill (1155) mixed sandy silt with gravel and charcoal flecks and 12 sherds of pot.	Unknown	Cut by 1151

TABLE 5. EARLY IRON AGE FEATURES WITHIN VICINITY OF PIT GROUP 1

Cut	*Feature*	*Pit type*	*Interpretation*
1219	Posthole	C2	Possibly a posthole with limestone, pot and burnt clay packing
1223	Pit	S	Possibly a water hole
1241	Pit	S	Possible water pit
1335	Pit	U1	Storage pit, clay-lined

TABLE 6. SIZE AND VOLUME OF EARLY IRON AGE AND MIDDLE IRON AGE PITS

Pit type		*B*	*C*	*U*	*S*	*Unknown or M*	*Totals*
EIA	Number of pits	3	8	5	5	4	30
	Average depth (m.)	0.36	0.63	0.81	0.25	0.37	0.52
	Average diameter or width (m.)	0.81	1.27	1.33	1.15	1.13	1.18
	Average volume ($m.^3$)	0.20	1.12	1.49	0.27	0.43	0.8
MIA	Number of pits	7	7	7	5	3	29
	Average depth (m.)	0.65	0.91	0.86	0.22	0.56	0.65
	Average diameter or width (m.)	1.27	1.36	1.84	0.73	1.07	1.3
	Average volume ($m.^3$)	0.97	1.89	2.45	0.08	0.61	1.4

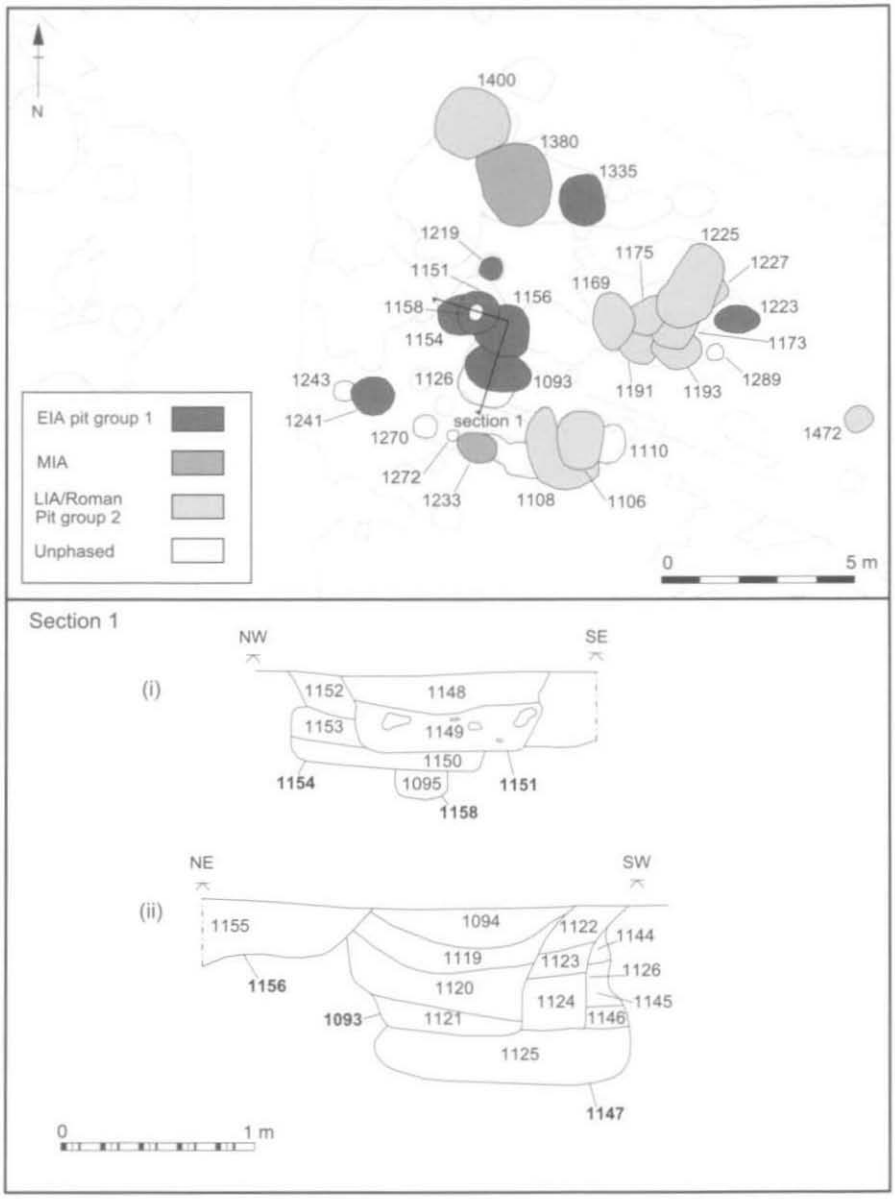


Fig. 10. Plan of Pit Groups 1 and 2 and other features in the area, and section through Pit Group 1, facing (i) south and (ii) west.

Ditches 1673 and 1678 were located in an area which also contained a number of later ditches, with 1673 being the most substantial, 1.58 m. wide and 1.0 m. deep, with five fills of brownish sandy silt containing bone and small quantities of EIA and non-specific IA pot. Ditch 1678 was heavily truncated by later Ditches 1625 and 1629, and survived only to a width of 0.16 m. and a depth of 0.04 m., with a fill of yellowish sand containing three sherds of EIA pot. It is possible that these represent boundary ditches; the fills do not appear to represent water-borne deposits as would be found in drainage ditches.

The other early Iron Age features (19 pits, 7 postholes and a gully) appeared to be randomly distributed across the eastern part of the site (Figs. 4A and 4B). Three pits were notable, and are discussed in detail below. The dimensions of all excavated EIA pits are shown in Table 6. There were between one and 8 fills in these pits, although the average was only 2. The large straight-sided (C) and undercut (U) pits had the largest number of fills, perhaps not surprisingly. Volume calculations were based on the assumption that the pits were either round or rectangular in plan, and no attempt was made to assess the degree of truncation.

Pit 1022 (Fig. 7A). This was situated close to the eastern limit of excavation amongst a general spread of early Iron Age pits (Fig. 4B). It was a C-type storage pit with a flat base, 1.45 m. x 1.6 m. in plan and 1.8 m. deep, thus providing a volume of over 4 m^3. It had seven fills (Table 7) and was notable for containing a total of 519 animal bones. Domestic artefacts and animal or human remains were found in nearly every fill. One fill (1025) also contained moderate quantities of grain (wheat and barley) and chaff (wheat), with a greater proportion of chaff than grain.

TABLE 7. FILLS OF PIT 1022

Fill (earliest first)	*Description and finds*
1035	0.9 m. deep deposit of light yellowish brown sandy silt containing 18 sherds of IA pot and SF91, a fragment of burnt sarsen quern.
1033	0.5 m. deep deposit of light yellowish brown sandy silt containing a semi-articulated dog skeleton, 9 sherds of pot and SF90, a possible quern fragment.
1027	0.15 m. deep layer of mottled reddish brown silty clay and sandy silt with charcoal inclusions containing 4 sherds of IA pot, bone, and SF92, a possible stone counter.
1028	0.2 m. deep layer of mottled yellow brown sandy silt with gravel inclusions, containing 6 sherds of EIA pot, bone and stone.
1025	0.38 m. deep deposit of humic dark greenish grey sandy silt containing burnt clay, charcoal, burnt stone, 51 sherds of EIA pot, SF93, a fired clay loomweight, SF94 and 96, large quern fragments, bone, including 88 fragments of burnt bone.
1024	0.2 m. deep deposit of dark greenish brown sandy loam with patches of clay, containing 42 sherds of EIA pot, bone and a fragment of ironstone quern.
1023	0.18 m. deep layer of dark greyish brown sandy loam with pea grit inclusions, disarticulated human remains and 14 sherds of EIA pot.

The character of the fills described above suggests that this pit was deliberately filled in a number of distinct episodes. The presence of articulated animal and human remains, burnt bone and domestic artefacts within almost every fill suggests that this was a special deposit of some importance.

Pit 1096 (Fig. 4B). This pit was a bell-shaped storage pit in the eastern part of the site. It was not totally bottomed due to depth. It was 1.5 m. x 1.65 m. in plan and at least 1.1 m. deep, giving a minimum volume of approximately 2.7 m^3. It had six surviving fills. Lumps of clay in the earliest fill (1163) have been interpreted as degraded clay lining. The later fills appear to have been successive dumps of midden-like material. This pit was notable for containing 20 fragments of burnt animal bone, the jawbone of a dog (1097), the scapula of a roe deer (1114), the tibiotarsus of a passerine (1159) and fragments of sheep bones. Loomweight fragments were also recovered. Again this appeared to be a structured or special deposit.

Pit 1780 (Fig. 4A). This pit appeared to be bell-shaped in profile but was not bottomed due to depth. It was 1.7 m. in diameter and at least 1.33 m. deep, giving it a minimum volume of 3 m^3. It had 15 excavated fills (Table 8). It is interpreted as a storage pit, probably not clay-lined, which was later infilled with special deposits. The difference in character between the earlier fills and the latest two suggests two very distinct phases of activity. The character of the earliest excavated fills suggests that the pit was left open and empty for a short period, in which time a small amount of slippage from the sides and some natural silting occurred. The position of two canine skeletons within the pit suggests that they were deliberately placed (Figs. 11 and 12). After the burial, it was again left open and alternating episodes of infilling and slippage from the sides occurred. The small rodent may have fallen into the pit, but its location in a special deposit may suggest deliberate placement. This suggestion is supported by the recovery of a water vole mandible and rodent bones in another EIA special deposit in Pit 1229. In the middle Iron Age the pit was filled with dumps of rubbish and midden material. There was clear evidence of butchery marks on the canine scapula in the latest fill (1776).

TABLE 8. FILLS OF PIT 1780

Fill (earliest first)	*Description and finds*
1836	A friable mid brownish orange sandy silt in small lenses against the sides of the pit.
1834	A mid grey sandy silt with gravel and lumps of charcoal, bone and IA pot spread across the base as excavated.
1833	A lens of loose orangish brown sand against the north side of the pit, with 1 sherd EIA pot.
1835	Same as 1833 against the southern side.
1830	A compact greyish brown silty sand that seals both 1833 and 1835 and contains the skeletons of 2 dogs along with 3 sherds EIA pot, bone and gravel inclusions, also contains the partial skeleton of a rodent the size of a water vole.
1831	A thin lens of friable dark grey sandy silt with gravel.
1829	A loose mid orange sand and gravel mix.
1828	A brownish grey sandy silt with 2 sherds EIA pot, bone and charcoal flecks in it.
1827	Two separate lenses of orange silty sand against the sides of the pit.
1826	A friable mid brownish grey sandy silt with charcoal and gravel in it.
1825	A thick layer of mid brownish orange silty sand and gravel slumping from the south, containing 3 sherds IA pot.
1779	A thick layer of mid brownish grey silty sand with charcoal flecks and bone in it.
1778	A thick layer of mid orange sand with gravel in it slumping from the south.
1777	A mid greyish brown sandy silt with occasional orange mottling, pebbles, charcoal flecks and 21 sherds of MIA pot (most of the same type).
1776	A thick layer of mid grey sandy silt with flints, greyish yellow clay, 67 sherds MIA pot and bone, including the pelvis and scapula of a dog.

Middle Iron Age phase 1 (Figs. 9A, 9B, 13A and 14)

There were four intercutting middle Iron Age phase 1 (MIA1) curvilinear enclosure ditches in the area of early Iron Age Roundhouse C, suggesting four probable sub-phases of activity (Fig. 9A). The ditches with clear termini or entrances all had openings facing roughly north-west/south-east. They differed from the early Iron Age roundhouse gullies, being generally wider and more irregular in shape but with a smaller diameter. These factors suggest that the ditches did not constitute domestic roundhouses, but may have been enclosures of some kind, possibly for animals. The fills of the ditches were very mixed. The earliest feature in this sub-phase was curvilinear Gully 1849. Its exact relationship with EIA Ring Gully 1845 or Roundhouse C was impossible to determine due to truncation (Fig. 9A). The fills in the northern segment of Gully 1849 contained residual EIA pottery, which probably derived from the earlier ring gully.

Gully 1849 was located to the north of Roundhouse C, and was aligned roughly north-east to south-west. It curved to the south as it was cut by Ring Gullies 1846, 1847 and 1848. Its southern extent was difficult to define due to truncation, but it appeared to turn to a north-east to south-west alignment again before being totally truncated by later features. The gully cut was U-shaped and was 0.5 m. to 1 m. wide and 0.4 m. to 0.5 m. in depth. It was sectioned in three places (not shown on plan), producing 41 sherds of EIA pot in Cut 1257, 37 sherds of non-specific IA pot in Cut 1384 and 33 sherds of MIA pot in Cut 1469. All of the fills contained quantities of animal bone, and fill 1469 also contained a fragment of Greensand saddle quern (SF158, Fig. 29.3) that had possibly been used as a whetstone. Fill 1258 in Cut 1257 contained a bone awl (Fig. 35.2).

Enclosure Ditch 1846. Ditch 1846 was an elongated oval in shape, with a maximum internal diameter of 12 m. The ditch was U-shaped and was 0.8 m. to 1.1 m. wide and 0.3 m. to 0.58 m. in depth. It had a rounded terminus at the north-west, curved round clockwise to the south and diminished at its southernmost point. It was situated entirely within the bounds of early Iron Age Ring Gully 1845, but was not concentric (Fig. 9A). Its fills all consisted of greyish brown sandy loam, with the exception of 1709, which was greenish brown in colour. The fills contained 38 sherds of EIA pottery, 44 sherds of MIA pottery, 29 sherds of non-specific IA pottery and 38 sherds of middle to late Iron Age pottery. Residual early Iron Age pottery may be present

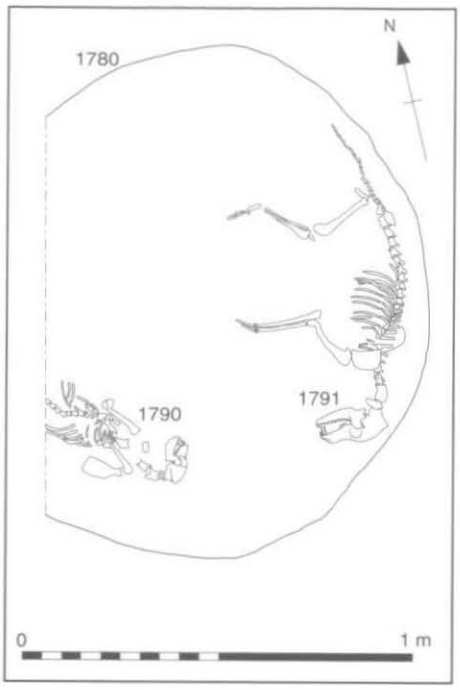


Fig. 11. Plan of two dogs 1790 and 1791 buried in early Iron Age Pit 1780.

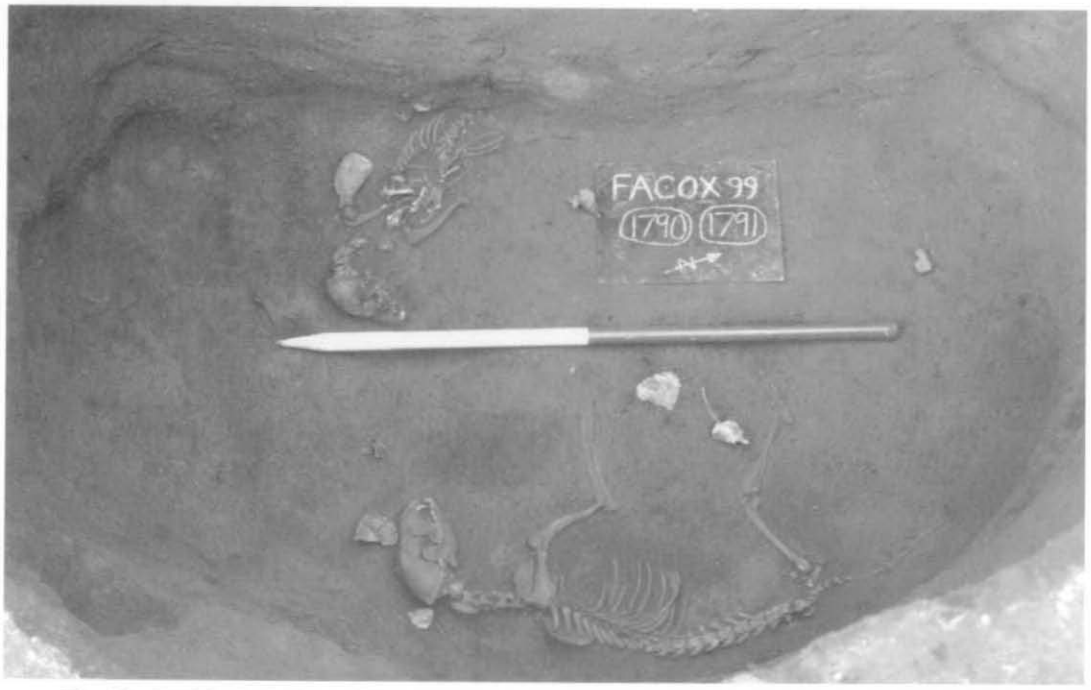


Fig. 12. Burial of two dogs 1790 (top) and 1791 (bottom) in early Iron Age Pit 1780, facing west.

because Ditch 1846 truncated earlier Gullies 1845 and 1849 at this point. The presence of intrusive middle/late Iron Age pot in fill 1428 suggests the ditch may have been at least partially open into this period.

Enclosure Ditch 1847. This was roughly oval in shape, with a maximum internal diameter of 9.0 m. It had rounded termini at the north-west and south-east ends and truncated Ditch 1846 (Fig. 9A). The profile was partly U-shaped and partly V-shaped, and the depths varied between 0.25 m. and 0.6 m. (Fig. 9B). The width was between 0.8 m. and 1.8 m., and there were up to three fills in each of the six excavated sections. The finds included 49 sherds of EIA pottery, 15 sherds of MIA pottery and 50 sherds of non-specific IA pottery. At the north-west terminus was a posthole (1681), but it is unclear which was the later feature.

Enclosure 1861/1848. This enclosure was defined by two semicircular ditches, 1861 and 1848 (Fig. 9A). Ditch 1861 had a maximum internal diameter of 7.5 m. and rounded termini at the north-west and south-east ends. Its south-eastern terminus cut earlier Ditch 1847. Spatially, it appeared to be associated with Ditch 1848 (described below), but this is not clear stratigraphically. There is some suggestion that the ditch may have been a recut of an earlier feature but this was not clear during excavation. It was 1.1 m. to 1.6 m. in width and 0.5 m. to 0.6 m. in depth. The fills produced 18 sherds of EIA pottery, 33 sherds of MIA pottery and 6 sherds of non-specific IA pottery.

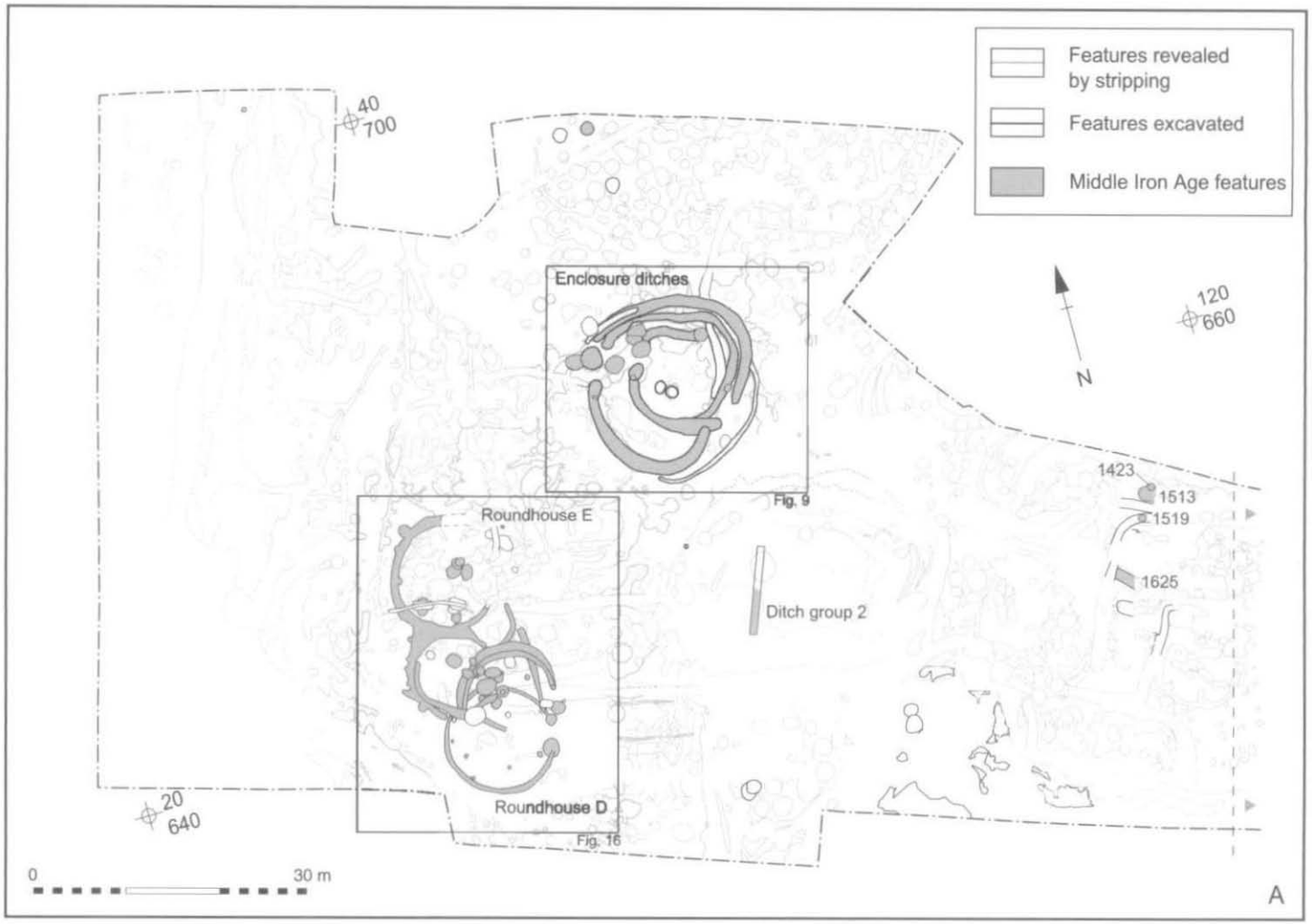
Ditch 1848 had a maximum internal diameter of 9.0 m., with two well-defined rounded termini (1821 and 1449). It opposed Ditch 1861, but had a wider diameter. The width was 0.6 m. to 1.66 m. and the depth ranged from 0.4 m. to 0.85 m. The profiles of the five excavated segments were both V-shaped (for example Cut 1821, Fig. 9B, Section 1) and U-shaped (for example Cut 1208, Fig. 9B, Section 2). The finds included 48 sherds of EIA pottery, 40 sherds of MIA pottery and 114 sherds of non-specific IA pottery. Several of the fills contained notable finds. Fill 1209 contained a stone slab with one worn face (SF136) and fill 1453 contained a fragment of metalworking crucible (SF151). These artefacts are likely to have been redeposited in this ditch, but the presence of the crucible in particular indicates that metalworking was taking place somewhere in the vicinity. One of the fills, 1346 in segment 1345, contained the partially complete skull of a horse, which is interpreted as a special deposit.

Pits related to MIA phase 1. A number of pits were situated within and around the MIA phase 1 enclosure ditches (Table 9 and Figs. 9A and 9B).

TABLE 9. PITS RELATED TO MIDDLE IRON AGE PHASE 1

Cut	*Pit type*	*Fills (earliest first)*	*Pot*	*Other finds*
1216	U1	1249, 1217	23 sherds EIA, 41 sherds IA	human bone
1250	C1	1252, 1251	27 sherds EIA	animal bone, flint
1255	C1	1256		
1390	U1	1387–1389	44 sherds IA	human bone, mallard bone
1462	C1	1464, 1463	11 sherds MIA	animal bone, flint
1578	U1	1579–1583	58 sherds MIA, 62 sherds IA	animal bone
1600	U1	1601–1603	73 sherds MIA	animal bone
1604	U1	1605–1609	7 sherds EIA, 54 MIA, 30 IA	animal bone
1610	C1	1611		
1657	C1	1680, 1649, 1683, 1668, 1663, 1669, 1667, 1659	33 sherds EIA, 23 sherds MIA, 2 sherds IA	animal bone, charred plant remains, crucible fragment, metalworking debris
1802	C1	1803, 1804	85 sherds EIA, 11 sherds IA	human bone, animal bone, burnt stone

Pit 1216 was situated in the northern area of the ditches discussed above, between Ditches 1846 and 1847. It cut 1846 and was itself cut by 1847, so is most likely to have been associated with Enclosure Ditch 1846. It was slightly bell-shaped in profile and its fills consisted of grey-brown sandy loam, containing animal bone, gravel and limestone clasts as well as pot. Fill 1217 also contained disarticulated human remains, which have been interpreted as a special deposit.


Features revealed by stripping
Features excavated
Middle Iron Age features
40
700
120
660
N
Enclosure ditches
Fig. 9
Roundhouse E
Roundhouse D
Fig. 16
Ditch group 2
1423
1513
1519
1625
20
640
0
30 m
A

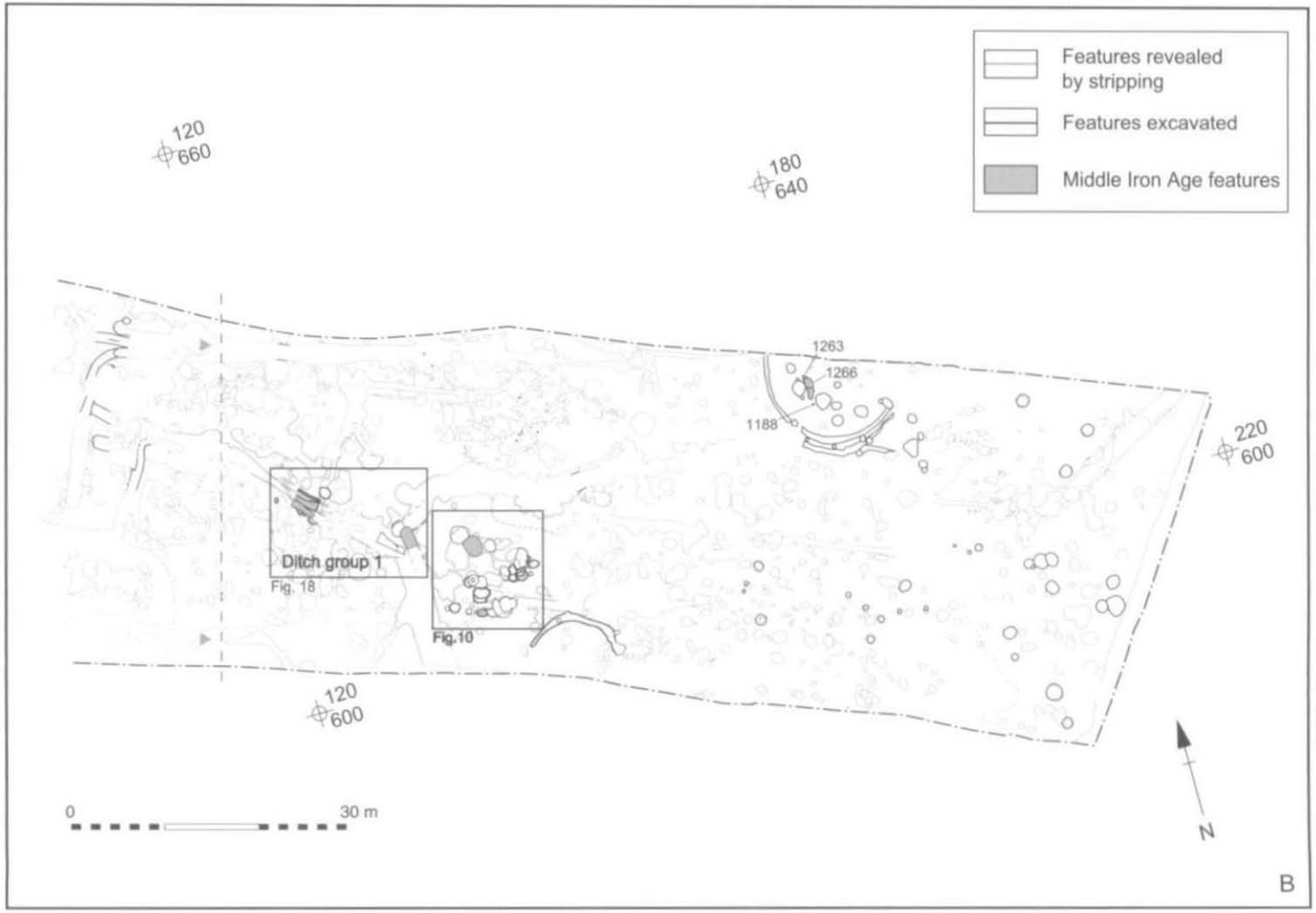


Fig. 13. Plan of the western part (A) and eastern part (B) of the site, showing all middle Iron Age features excavated.

Fig. 14. Looking east towards the gully (1845) of early Iron Age Roundhouse C (rear of picture), cut by middle Iron Age Enclosure Ditches 1846, 1847 and 1848.

Pit 1390 was situated in the north-east area of the enclosure ditches, cutting through Gully 1849, and possibly also Enclosure Ditch 1847 (Fig. 9A), although this relationship is not clear. It was roughly bell-shaped in profile with a bowed-out top, suggesting some degree of erosion, and contained horizontally deposited fills of grey-brown sandy loam containing gravel inclusions, limestone clasts and bone. The fills (1389 and 1388) contained the radius and ulna of a mallard and 20 pieces of disarticulated human bone; these finds are interpreted as a special deposit.

Pit 1802 was situated in the north-west area of the enclosure ditches, cutting the outer edge of the northern terminus of Ditch 1848 (Fig. 9B). It was cylindrical in shape with a flat base. The primary fill (1804) was a relatively clean grey-brown sandy loam with gravel and sand inclusions and the upper half of the skeleton of a prematurely born human infant. The deposit was sealed by 1803, a dark greenish greyish brown sandy loam with gravel inclusions, burnt limestone, charcoal flecks and bone.

Pits 1600, 1604, 1578 and 1657 were in a north-west to south-east alignment within the north-west entrance of Enclosure Ditch 1861/1848. These pits have all been identified as shallow storage pits or rubbish pits. The character of the fills suggests that these pits were used over a long period of time, with deposits of topsoil wash and slippage from the sides alternating with deliberate dumps of domestic debris. Pit 1657 contained copper slag, charred plant remains and a crucible fragment (SF172). The close proximity of this fragment to that found in Ring Gully 1848 supports the suggestion that metalworking may have taken place in this area of the site (Fig. 9A).

Pits 1250, 1255 and 1462 were also thought to be associated with Enclosure 1848/1861. They were situated on a roughly north-west to south-east alignment across the termini of Ditch 1848 but are not thought to form part of an enclosure or fence. They have all been identified as rubbish pits containing dumps of domestic debris including small quantities of MIA pot, residual EIA pot, animal bone and residual flint.

Middle Iron Age phase 2 (Figs. 13A, 13B, 15 and 16)

Roundhouse D (Fig. 15). This was defined by Ring Gully 1850, which had an interior diameter of 11 m. The gully was 0.2 m. to 0.7 m. wide and 0.1 m. to 0.22 m. deep. The southern half of 1850 was free from later contamination, but the northern half was heavily truncated by later ring gullies and pits. There was a possible terminus in the eastern quadrant, but this was also truncated by later pits.

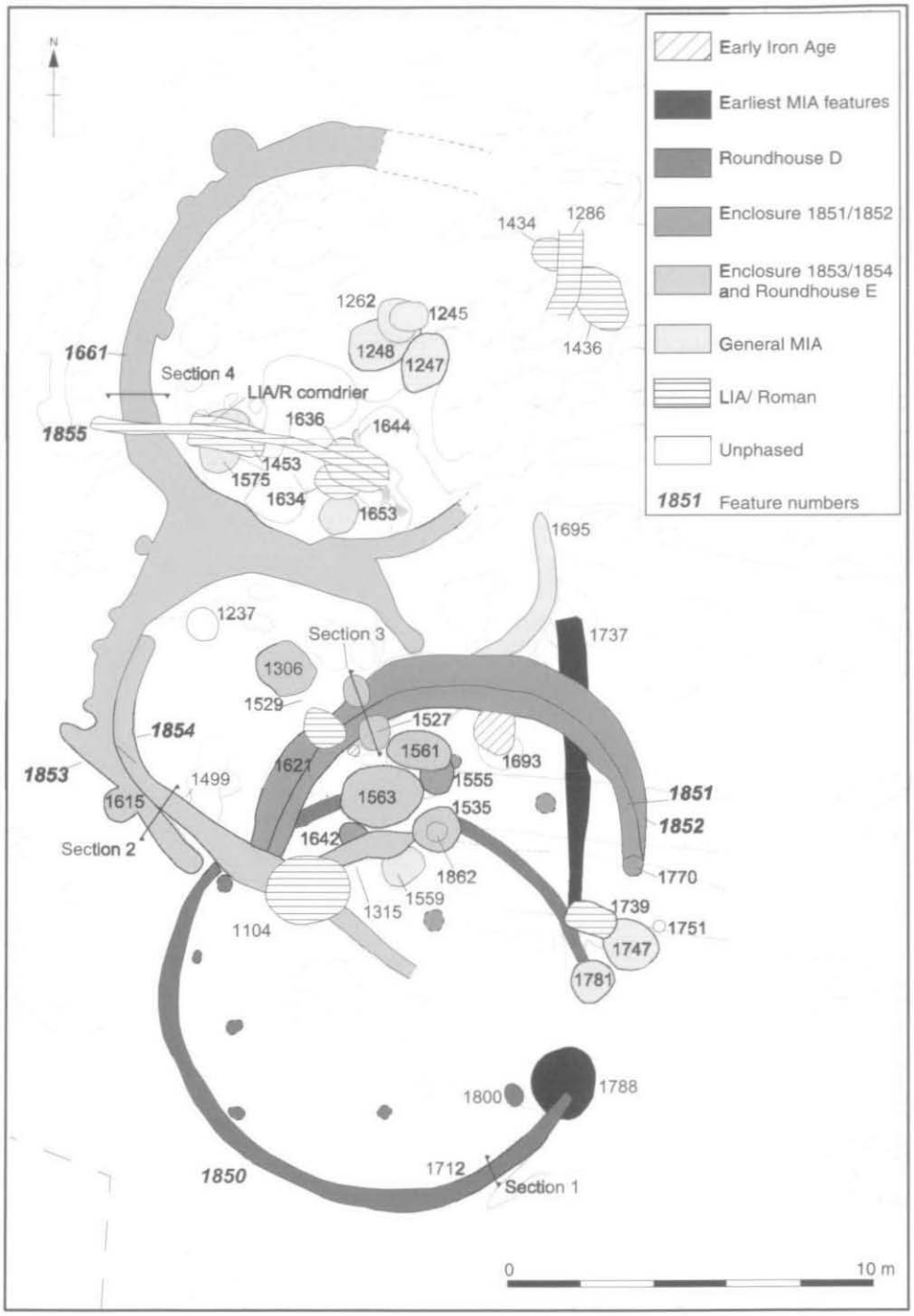


Fig. 15. Middle Iron Age Roundhouses D and E and Enclosure Ditches 1851–1854 (see Fig. 16 for sections).

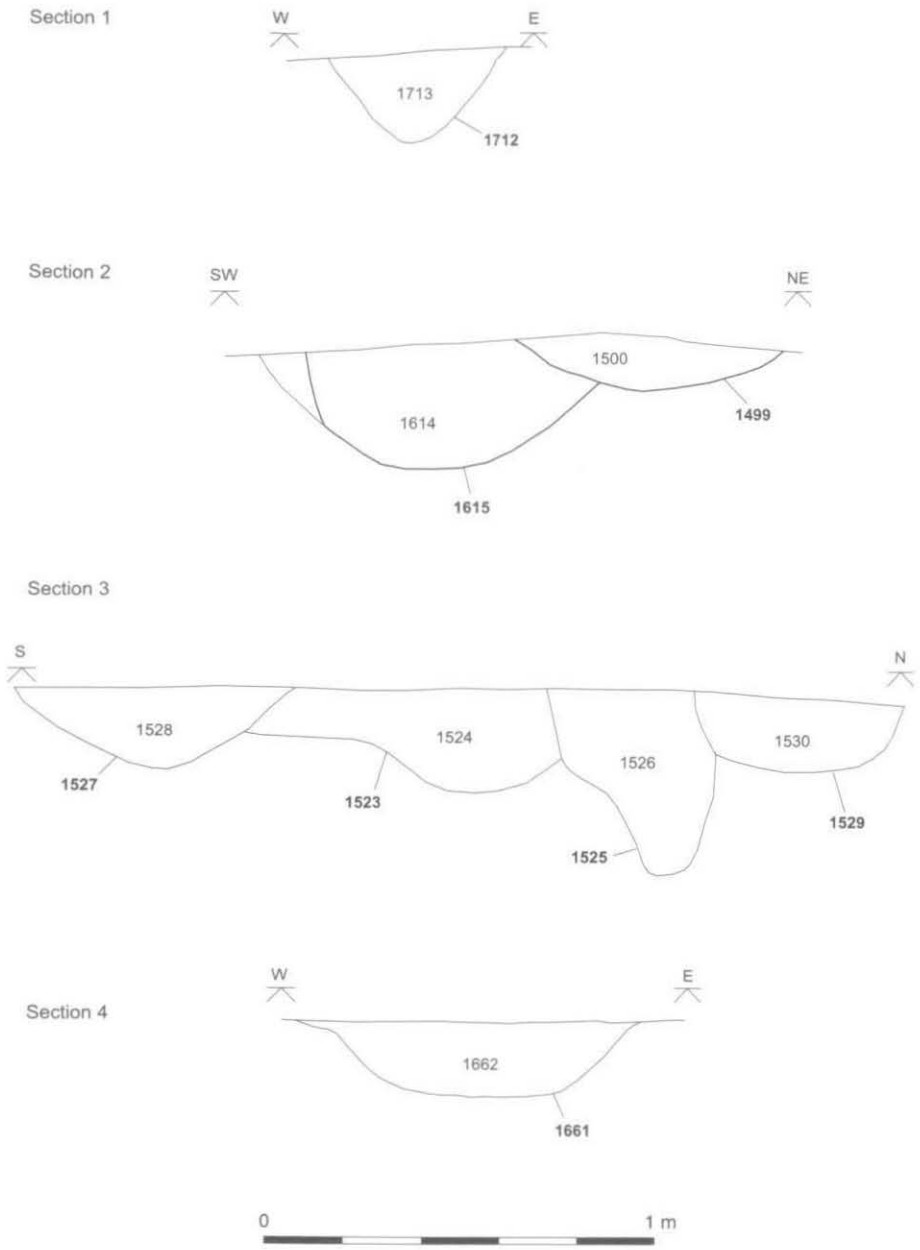


Fig. 16. Sections through Roundhouses D and E and Enclosure Ditches 1851–1854.

All of the fills except one (1806) consisted of orange-brown or yellowish brown sandy loam with occasional sand and gravel inclusions. The fills of the nine excavated sections produced 16 sherds of late Iron Age pottery and small quantities of bone and stone. The pottery was found in the northern quadrant of the ring gully, which was truncated by later features, and these sherds were therefore thought to be intrusive. The homogenous character of the fills suggests that they represent deliberate deposits of soils.

Just inside Ring Gully 1850 were at least six circular features, one of which was excavated. They were all less than 0.5 m. in diameter and were less than 0.3 m. from the inside edge of the ring gully. The excavated feature, 1800, was 0.4 m. x 0.5 m. in plan and 0.15 m. deep. It produced no dating evidence or finds and was filled with an orange-brown sandy loam similar in character to that filling the ring gully and was interpreted as a post setting. If the other unexcavated features are also interpreted in a similar way this would suggest a method of construction similar to early Iron Age Roundhouse A.

Enclosure 1851/1852 (Fig. 15). This was defined by Gullies 1851 and 1852, which truncated the northern quadrant of Roundhouse D. The first phase of this enclosure ditch was defined by Gully 1851, which was 0.3 m. to 0.8 m. wide and 0.2 m. to 0.38 m. deep. It was semicircular in plan, facing south, with its long axis aligned east/west. It had an internal diameter of 9.5 m. and a maximum external diameter of 10.5 m. The eastern terminus of the ditch was cut by Posthole 1770 (Table 10). The western terminus was truncated by later Ditch 1854. Four sherds of MIA pottery and five sherds of non-specific IA pottery were recovered from the fills.

TABLE 10. MIDDLE IRON AGE FEATURES IN THE AREA OF ENCLOSURE DITCHES 1851 AND 1852

Cut	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1555	Pit	unknown	0.58	1.0
1642	Post setting	V-shaped	0.2	0.45
1770	Posthole	unknown	0.3	0.55

Gully 1852 represented the second phase of the enclosure. It was a recut of 1851, following its outside edge. It had no defined termini, but appeared to diminish and merge with the earlier gully in the east and was cut by later Gully 1854 to the west. The gully was 0.5 m. to 0.95 m. wide and 0.3 m. to 0.55 m. deep, and produced 5 sherds of EIA pottery, 63 sherds of MIA pottery and 6 sherds of non-specific IA pottery. The partial remains of a cattle skull were also recovered.

Within the area bounded by Enclosure 1851/1852 was a potential structure, consisting of Posthole 1642 and at least three unexcavated postholes (Fig. 15). These formed a trapezoid with the long axis aligned north-east to south-west and sides between 2.5 m. and 3.5 m. in length. Post setting 1642 (Table 10) formed the western corner of this structure. It was filled by 1643, which consisted of redeposited natural material and contained 11 sherds of MIA pot.

Also within the bounds of Enclosure 1851/1852 was Pit 1555, a C1-type pit (Table 10). This was filled by 1556, which consisted of occupation debris and contained ten sherds of MIA pot and bone. Pit 1555 was situated on the line of the north-western wall of the putative four-post structure and appears to represent a small rubbish pit. It also cut an unexcavated posthole.

Enclosure Ditch 1853/1854 (Fig. 15). Gully 1853 was 0.36 m. to 0.7 m. wide and 0.21 m. to 0.34 m. deep, and produced ten sherds of MIA pottery in the two excavated sections. It was semicircular in shape, with the long axis aligned north-east/south-west, facing south-east. It had a clear western terminus but its eastern terminus was unclear and its stratigraphic relationship with Gullies 1851 and 1852 is unknown, but spatially it was unlikely to be contemporary. No postholes, excavated or otherwise, were visible within Gully 1853. This suggests that Enclosure 1853/1854 was not a roundhouse constructed in the same way as the early Iron Age roundhouses discussed above. However, the outer edge of Gully 1853 had at least four convex features that could represent posts either within the gully itself or very close to the outside edge (Fig. 15). There was no stratigraphic evidence to suggest that these formed part of a later phase of activity. This indicates that 1853 was a construction ditch rather than an eaves drip gully, and that this enclosure was some form of structure. However, it would have had a very wide opening to the south-east, which suggests that it was not a domestic roundhouse, but rather an animal pen.

Gully 1854 was a curvilinear ditch measuring 0.64 m. to 1.1 m. in width and 0.12 m. to 0.35 m. in depth. For the most part it was linear, aligned north-west to south-east, cutting Gullies 1851 and 1852 and diminishing to the south. At its northern end it curved clockwise to the north and ended in a rounded terminus. It followed the inner edge of the western part of Gully 1853 and extended south-east beyond its western terminus. It may have been an extension to the western arm of the enclosure ditch, implying a second

phase of use, rather than a separate feature and could be a drainage ditch. Nine sherds of MIA pottery, 7 sherds of non-specific IA pottery and 6 sherds of intrusive 1st-century pottery were recovered from the four excavated sections.

Features in the area of Enclosure 1853/1854 (Fig. 15). There were several pits and gullies spatially related to the enclosure, listed in Table 11.

TABLE 11. FEATURES IN THE AREA OF ENCLOSURE DITCH 1853/1854 AND ROUNDHOUSE E

Cut	*Feature*	*Pit type or profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1306	Pit	U1	1.12	1.8
1315	Gully	U-shaped	0.3	0.6–1.0
1527	Post setting	S	0.22	0.7
1529	Post setting	S	0.2	0.55
1535	Pit	C1	1.15	1.4
1561	Pit	C1	1.0	1.5x2.0
1563	Pit	B2	0.97	1.65
1862	Pit	B2	0.5	1.26

Gully 1315 was 2.5 m. in length and was aligned east to west. It was located 6 m. along the straight section of Gully 1854 at an angle of approximately 130°. Its exact stratigraphic relationship with 1854 is unknown as a later pit truncated the junction between the two; it could be part of the same feature. The eastern end of the gully narrowed slightly to a rounded terminus. The earliest fill (1314) was a thin layer of clean redeposited natural sediment that appeared to have been deposited by natural processes while the gully lay open. The later fills (1313 and 1558) consisted of gritty brownish silt and contained two sherds of EIA pot and four sherds of non-specific IA pot respectively. The EIA pot is thought to be residual. This gully may have been a fence or wall partition that blocked off part of the entrance to the enclosure, making it suitable for habitation or for animal stabling.

Feature 1527, which has been interpreted as a post setting, was situated inside the area enclosed by 1853/1854 and Gully 1315. A second similar but undated post setting, 1529, was situated a short distance away. Post setting 1529 was 0.55 m. wide and 0.2 m. deep and had a saucer-shaped profile. These two features have been interpreted as settings for posts associated with Enclosure 1853/1854.

Pits 1306, 1535, 1561, 1563 and 1862 were situated within the area enclosed by Ditches 1853 and 1854 and Gully 1315. Pit 1306 was centrally located and was filled mainly by processes of natural deposition. It has been interpreted as a storage pit. It contained a canine mandible with clear evidence of knife marks, suggesting that the dog had been skinned.

Pits 1561 and 1563 were just inside the entrance created by Gully 1315 and appeared to be rubbish pits filled with a combination of domestic debris and redeposited natural material. Pit 1535, nearby, cut the terminus of Gully 1315 and had a clay base (1536). It was filled by alternating episodes of midden material and side slumpage. It was cut by Pit 1862, the fill of which (1541) contained 67 sherds of very mixed and abraded MIA pot, including a small quantity of briquetage (pottery from salt making) in a matrix of greyish brown sandy silt.

Roundhouse E (Fig. 15). This was immediately north of Enclosure Ditch 1853/1854 and was defined by curvilinear Gully 1661, which was 0.85 m. wide and 0.3 m. deep. Its total extent was not clear due to truncation by later features, but its approximate internal diameter was 10 m. No termini were visible, but the entrance, if one existed, must have been in the eastern half. The stratigraphic relationship with Gully 1853 is unknown, and it is possible that they were part of the same feature. No post settings or postholes relating to this enclosure ditch were uncovered.

Other MIA features around Roundhouses D and E and Enclosure Ditches 1851 to 1854 (Fig. 15). The features listed in Table 12 were all situated around the area of Roundhouses D and E and Enclosure Ditches 1851 to 1854, but could not be securely related to any particular structure.

Gullies 1695 and 1737 were stratigraphically the earliest middle Iron Age features in the area of Roundhouse D. Gully 1695 was curvilinear, aligned roughly north/south but curving west at its southern end where it was cut by Ditch 1852 and diminishing to the north. Gully 1737 was aligned roughly north to south, with a slight westwards turn at its northern end. Its southern end was cut by Gully 1850, and it was cut towards its northern limit by Ditches 1851 and 1852. It also diminished to the north. Both gullies were filled with redeposited natural material and contained small amounts of MIA pot. Their functions are unclear.

TABLE 12. GENERAL MIDDLE IRON AGE FEATURES IN THE AREA OF ROUNDHOUSES D AND E AND ENCLOSURES 1851–1854

Cut	*Feature*	*Pit type or profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1245	Pit	M	0.5	1.4
1247	Pit	C1	0.5	1.0
1248	Pit	M	0.6	1.5
1262	Pit	M	0.7	1.0
1559	Pit	B2	0.5	1.0
1575	Pit	M	unknown	unknown
1653	Pit	M	unknown	1.0
1695	Gully	U-shaped	0.3	0.64
1737	Gully	U-shaped	0.1	0.5
1747	Pit	C1	1.03	1.65
1781	Pit	unknown	unknown	1.5
1788	Pit	C1	1.09	1.17

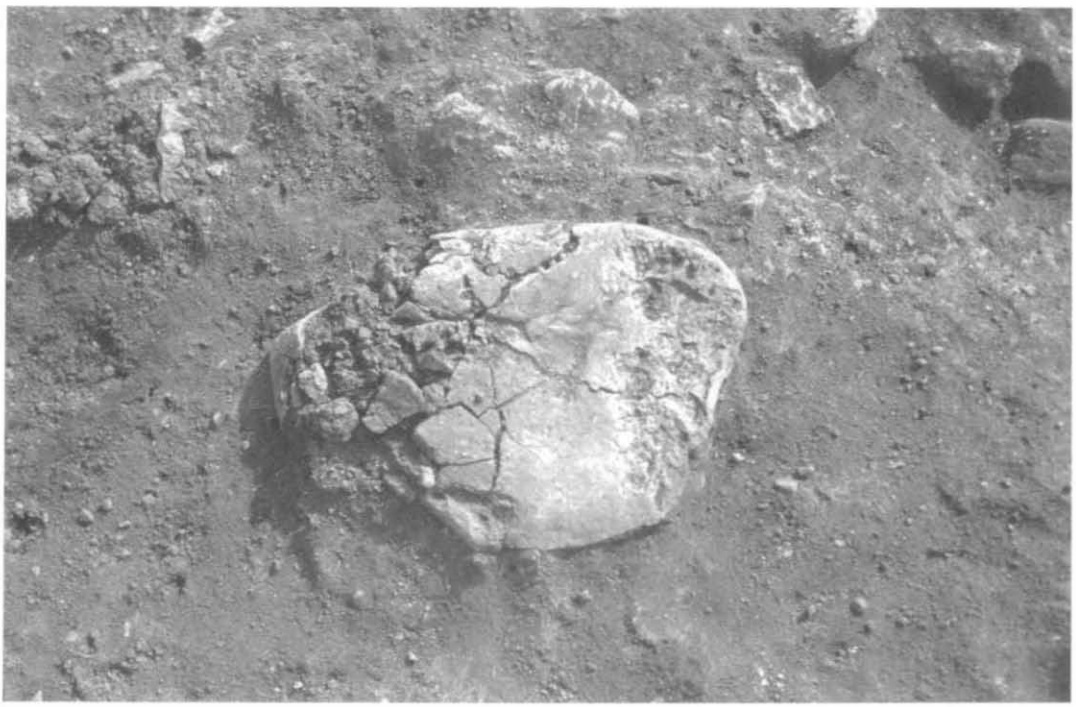


Fig. 17. Large loomweight found in Pit 1248, approx. scale 1:3.

Pits 1747 and 1788 were stratigraphically early features in this area. The character of their fills suggests that they were deliberately backfilled with redeposited natural material. A further pit (1781) cut the eastern arc of Ring Gully 1850 and contained redeposited natural material and two sherds of MIA pot. It was not fully excavated.

Within Gully 1661 were a number of pits phased to the middle Iron Age (Table 12). The phasing of these cuts is tenuous due to the intense pitting and Roman activity in this area, and the basic profiles are unclear due to truncation. Pit 1248 is noteworthy in that it contained a dump of loomweights, including a large complete example (Fig. 17), and 11,905 g. of fired or burnt clay. The lack of any definitively phased features such as storage or rubbish pits suggests that this ditch may represent an animal enclosure rather than a domestic roundhouse.

Pits near EIA Pit Group 1 (Fig. 10). There were only two middle Iron Age pits excavated in the area of Pit Group 1, Pits 1233 and 1380. Pit 1233 was oval-shaped, 0.7 m. x 1.25 m. in plan and 0.13 m. in depth. The cut was a shallow, saucer shape with a fill (1232) of greyish brown silt with limestone and charcoal inclusions, bone, three sherds of MIA pot and a broken bone tool that may have functioned as a scraper. The function of this pit was unclear and its location suggests that it could have been a hollow in the top of LBA/EIA Gully 1112 that was filled with later material.

TABLE 13. FILLS OF MIDDLE IRON AGE PIT 1380

Fill	*Description and finds*
1379 (Primary fill)	Lens of friable mid brownish grey sandy silt with charcoal and burnt soil against the sides of the pit.
1378	Mid greyish brown sandy silt with gravel, charcoal flecking and 14 sherds of MIA pot and bone.
1377	Lens of mid orange silty sand against the northern side of the pit.
1376	Thin layer of mid brownish grey sandy silt with 10% burnt soil and occasional lumps of yellowish clay, also 7 sherds of MIA pot and bone.
1375	Lenses of mid orange silty sand and gravel against the sides of the pit.
1374 (Final fill)	Thick deposit of mid brownish grey sandy silt with limestone clasts, lumps of yellowish clay, 43 sherds of MIA pot, bone and quern fragment SF140, which is burnt.

Pit 1380 was bell-shaped, 1.65 m. wide and 0.97 m. deep, with six fills (outlined in Table 13) and has been interpreted as a grain storage pit. The character of the earlier fills (up to and including 1377) suggest either that it lay open and empty for some time during which lenses of topsoil and occupation debris built up against the sides, or that these were remnants of earlier fills not properly cleared out. Fill 1376 appeared to be a degraded clay lining that was applied after the deposition of fills 1379, 1378 and 1377, but could also have been occupation debris. Fill 1375 was interpreted as redeposited natural that slipped from the sides of the pit after the deposition of 1376, implying perhaps that the pit was again left open for some time. The final fill, 1374, was probably a placed deposit. It comprised a thick deposit of domestic rubbish that totally filled the remainder of the pit. In addition to the finds cited in Table 13, the fill also contained small amounts of charred cereal, chaff and weed seeds.

Ditches. There were three sets of ditches with associated pits and postholes phased to the middle Iron Age (Figs. 13A and 13B). They were all situated within the central area of the site, but spread over a distance of approximately 60 m. The ditches were all aligned roughly east to west or north-west to south-east. Their exact functions are unclear, but they probably represent parts of boundary or enclosure ditches.

Ditch Group 1 (Figs. 13B and 18). The features listed in Table 14 were in the central part of the site (Fig. 13B). The ditches were aligned north-west to south-east, and Ditch 1487 cut Ditch 1485 (Fig. 18), and it is likely that they represent successive phases of boundary or enclosure ditches. Ditch 1482 also appeared, in plan, to cut Ditch 1485, but this was not clear in section. Their fills all consisted of friable dark brown silt and contained very small amounts of mixed pot. The fill of 1592 also contained a copper alloy ring brooch (SF164).

Two postholes (1490 and 1596) were also on a north-west to south-east alignment, and were cut by Ditch 1487. They may have formed part of a boundary fence along the earlier Ditch 1485. There were at least two unexcavated features that appeared to be postholes continuing on the same alignment to the north-west. Undated Pit/Posthole 1594 was on the same alignment to the south-east and may also have been part of an early boundary fence.

TABLE 14. MIDDLE IRON AGE DITCH GROUP 1

Cut	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1482	Ditch	U-shaped	0.14/0.19	0.36/0.64
1485	Ditch	U-shaped	0.48/0.54	1.05/0.94
1487	Ditch	V-shaped	0.42/0.54	0.6/1.14
1490	Posthole	U-shaped	0.2	0.28
1594	Pit/posthole	U-shaped	0.68	0.64
1596	Posthole	U-shaped	0.22	0.34

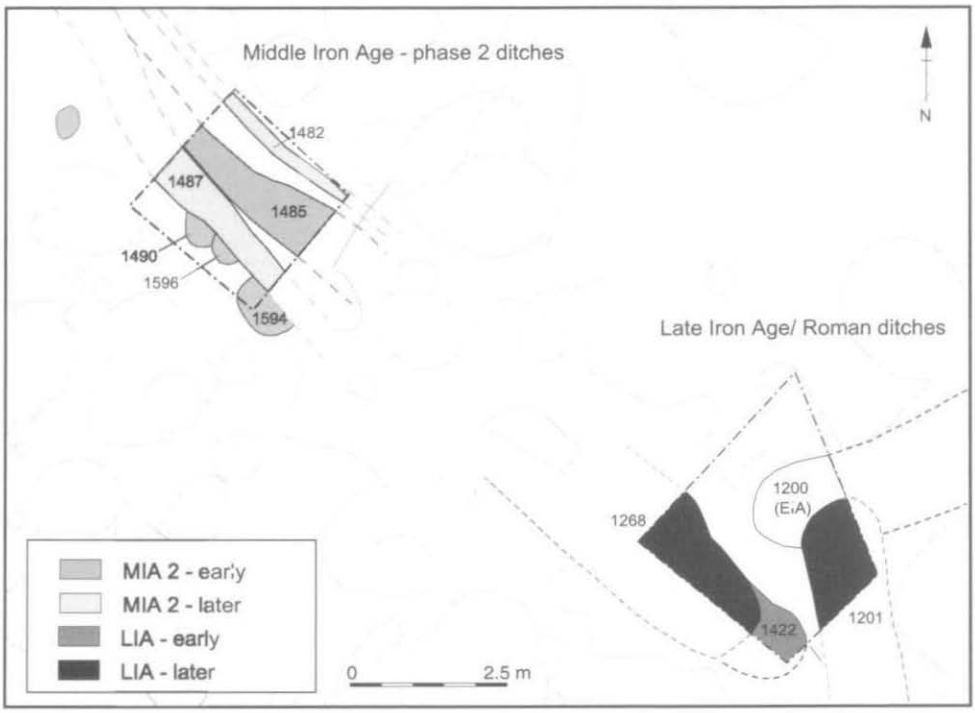


Fig. 18. Middle Iron Age Ditch Group 1.

Ditch 1625. The pits and ditches in Table 15 were all situated in the north central part of the site, close to the northern limit of excavation (Fig. 13A). The earliest features in the group were Pits 1513 and 1519, which were filled with redeposited natural material containing small amounts of MIA pot and bone.

TABLE 15. MIDDLE IRON AGE PHASE 2 DITCH 1625 AND ASSOCIATED FEATURES

Cut	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1423	Pit	S	0.18	0.52x0.8
1493	Pit	unknown	unknown	unknown
1513	Pit	B1	0.32	1.3
1519	Pit	B2	0.39	0.8
1625	Ditch	U-shaped	0.94	1.4

Ditch 1625 was south of Pit 1519 and was orientated roughly north-west to south-east. It appeared to line up with Ditches 1485 and 1487 of Ditch Group 1, approximately 25 m. to the south-west (Figs. 13A and 13B), but this alignment could not be verified. It was truncated by a later feature immediately to the west of the excavated portion, but its full extent is unclear. It was more substantial than the ditches of Ditch Group 1, and the character of its fill (1626) suggests that this portion at least had been filled with a single dump of midden material and domestic debris, including bone and 81 sherds of MIA pot.

Pit 1423 cut Pit 1513 and was filled with redeposited natural material containing four sherds of MIA pot and bone. It was shallow enough to be a post setting, but its close proximity to the northern limit of excavation means that interpretation is difficult.

Ditch Group 2. A small sondage was excavated through a complex area of intercutting features in the centre of the site (Fig. 13A). The majority of features within this sondage were Roman, but the three features noted in Table 16 were phased to the middle Iron Age. Evidence from this sondage has shown that there was intense middle Iron Age and later activity in this part of the site, which appeared to be relatively unoccupied in earlier periods.

TABLE 16. MIDDLE IRON AGE PHASE 2 DITCH GROUP 2

Cut	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*
1640	Gully	U-shaped	0.5	0.6
1644	Ditch	V-shaped	0.6	0.68
1650	Pit	M	0.8	1.3

Altogether a further 17 middle Iron Age features were excavated, which were distributed fairly randomly across the site. They consisted of 15 pits and 2 postholes. The dimensions of all excavated MIA pits are shown in Table 6. There were between one and nine fills in the MIA pits, although the average was three. Table 6 also shows the average dimensions and volumes of all the MIA pits excavated on the site, and that these were slightly greater than those of the EIA pits.

Other Iron Age features

A further 18 excavated features distributed across the site could not be phased specifically to either the early or middle Iron Age. They consisted of 11 mainly B- or M-type pits with either one or two fills, three postholes, one ditch aligned east to west, one gully aligned north-west to south-east and two amorphous features that were interpreted as animal disturbance or natural hollows.

The single ditch (1381) was 0.2 m. in depth and 0.5 m. in width with a single fill of greyish sandy silt containing seven sherds of non-specific IA pot. It was situated to the east of EIA Ditch 1200 and may represent a continuation of that feature to the east, although the dimensions were smaller and the character of the fill was different.

Late Iron Age to Roman (Figs. 19A and 19B)

A posthole (1188) was phased to the Middle/Late Iron Age (MLIA). It was notable for both its position and contents. It was situated within the early Iron Age Roundhouse A (Figs. 5, 13), and was almost entirely truncated by ploughing. It was filled by 1189, a friable yellowish red silty sand with 22 sherds of middle or late Iron Age pot from a single vessel, and no other artefacts. The character of this fill suggests that Cut 1188 had been deliberately infilled with redeposited natural, as a setting for the pot. The isolated nature of this feature and its contents suggests that it was some kind of ritual deposit. Its location within an older house site suggests that the remnants of the building were still visible, although it could also be coincidental.

A single pit, 1140, was phased to the late Iron Age. This was 0.4 m. wide and 0.25 m. deep with a bowl-shaped profile. It contained a single fill of greyish brown silty sand with charcoal inclusions, burnt stone, bone, residual flint and three sherds of late Iron Age pot.

Features in the area of Enclosure 1661 (Fig. 15). Pit 1104 was situated directly over the junction of the middle Iron Age Gullies 1854 and 1315. It had two fills, of which the earlier, 1103, was redeposited natural material and the later, 1102, was a dump of occupation debris containing occasional stone, bone and 26 sherds of LIA/R pot.

Gully 1286 (Fig. 15) was situated to the east of Enclosure Ditch 1661. It was aligned roughly north to south with a slight eastward curve in its length, but only a small section was visible. It had two fills, the earliest being 1307. This consisted of greenish grey silty sand with grit and charcoal inclusions, and contained 20 sherds of LIA/R pot and bone. This was sealed by 1287, a mid brown silty sand, also with grit and charcoal inclusions, bone and 22 sherds of LIA/R pot.

Gully 1286 also cut Pit 1434 to the west, and Pit 1436 to the east (Fig. 15). They were both filled with a mid greyish brown silty sand, containing gritty inclusions. Pit 1434 contained one sherd of LIA/R pot, and 1436 contained 33 sherds.

Pit Group 2. The pits in this group (Table 17; Figs. 10 and 19B) were in the same area as Pit Group 1 (immediately north-west of Roundhouse B) but were spread over a wider area. Pits 1400 and 1472 contained unusual deposits and are discussed in more detail below. The remaining pits appeared to be storage or rubbish pits, containing mainly dumps of redeposited natural and midden deposits.

TABLE 17. LATE IRON AGE/ROMAN PIT GROUP 2

Cut	*Period*	*Feature*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*	*Interpretation*
1106	LIA/R	Pit	B1	0.4	1.2	Rubbish pit
1108	LIA/R	Pit	S	0.22	0.85	Rubbish pit
1169	RB	Pit	B1	0.8	1.6	
1173	RB	Pit	B2	0.25	1.0	Probable rubbish pit
1175	RB	Pit	B1	0.45	0.8	
1191	RB	Pit	B1	0.15	0.8	
1193	RB	Pit	B1	0.3	1.0	Probable rubbish pit
1225	LIA/R	Pit	B1	0.6	2.0	Rubbish pit
1227	LIA/R	Pit	S	0.1	0.8	Unknown use
1400	LIA/R	Pit	B1	0.42	1.45	Special deposit?
1472	2C	Pit	B2	0.1	0.6x0.7	Special deposit?

Pit 1400 (Fig. 10) was shallow and bowl-shaped in profile, with three fills. The earliest, 1402, was a thin layer of friable black charcoal containing high frequencies of charred grain. This was sealed by 1399, a dark red sandy silt containing patches of mid greyish brown sandy silt, charcoal flecks and limestone clasts. The upper fill, 1373, was a thick layer of friable mid greyish brown sandy silt containing limestone clasts, lumps of yellowish clay, nine sherds of LIA/R pot and bone. The layer of charred grain and charcoal in the base of this pit may have been a special deposit, although in the absence of other finds this is not very clear.

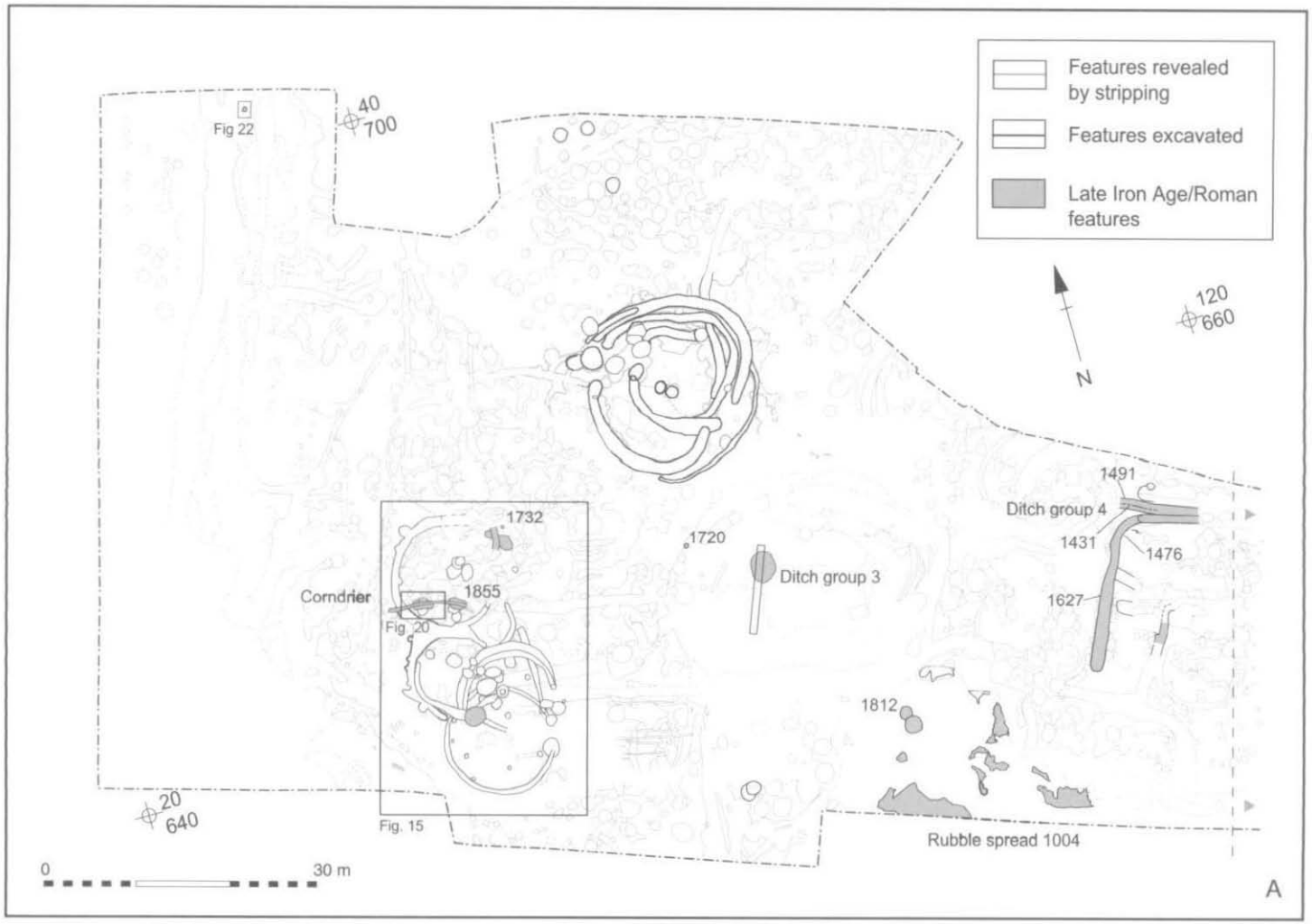
Pit 1472 (Fig. 10) was a shallow, bowl-shaped pit, 0.6 m. x 0.7 m. in plan and 0.1 m. in depth, with two fills. The earlier was 1473, a friable reddish brown silty sand with gravel inclusions and five sherds of 2nd-century pot. This was sealed by 1448, a layer of grey and pink burnt clay containing 86 sherds of a single EIA pot, interpreted as the base of a vessel that was deposited unbroken.

Roman

Ditches near to Ditch Group 1 (Figs. 18 and 19B). Ditch segment 1268 (Fig. 18) was the south-eastern terminus of a ditch orientated north-west to south-east, situated close to the northern terminus of Ditch 1201 (discussed below). It was 2.07 m. wide and 0.47 m. deep with a roughly V-shaped profile and a fill of loose brown silty sand with gravel inclusions and 38 sherds of 1st-century pot. It cut an earlier undated ditch terminus, 1422, and was aligned with the MIA Ditches 1487 and 1485 from Ditch Group 1. It is possible that 1268 represents the terminus of a later phase of boundary ditch on that alignment.

Ditch 1201 (Fig. 18) was aligned north–south and was 2.0 m. wide and 1.0 m. deep. The ditch truncated the western terminus of early Iron Age Ditch 1200 and extended past the southern limit of excavation. The ditch appears to correspond to a ditch found on the TVAS site, where it curved round to the south-east and extended beyond the eastern limit of excavation, although on the TVAS site it was phased to the early/middle Iron Age. Ditch 1201 was filled by 1187, a loose greenish brown sandy silt containing 97 sherds of LIA/R pot, bone and SF118, a residual flint flake. This suggests that Ditch 1201 may have been a later ditch on the same alignment as the ditch on the TVAS site.

Ditch Group 3. These features were situated in the same area as middle Iron Age Ditch Group 2, and were identified in the same sondage as the earlier group. This included a number of ditches and related pits (Table 18).


Features revealed by stripping
Features excavated
Late Iron Age/Roman features
Fig 22
40
700
120
660
N
1732
1720
1855
Corndrier
Fig. 20
Ditch group 3
1491
Ditch group 4
1431
1476
1627
1812
20
640
Fig. 15
Rubble spread 1004
0
30 m
A

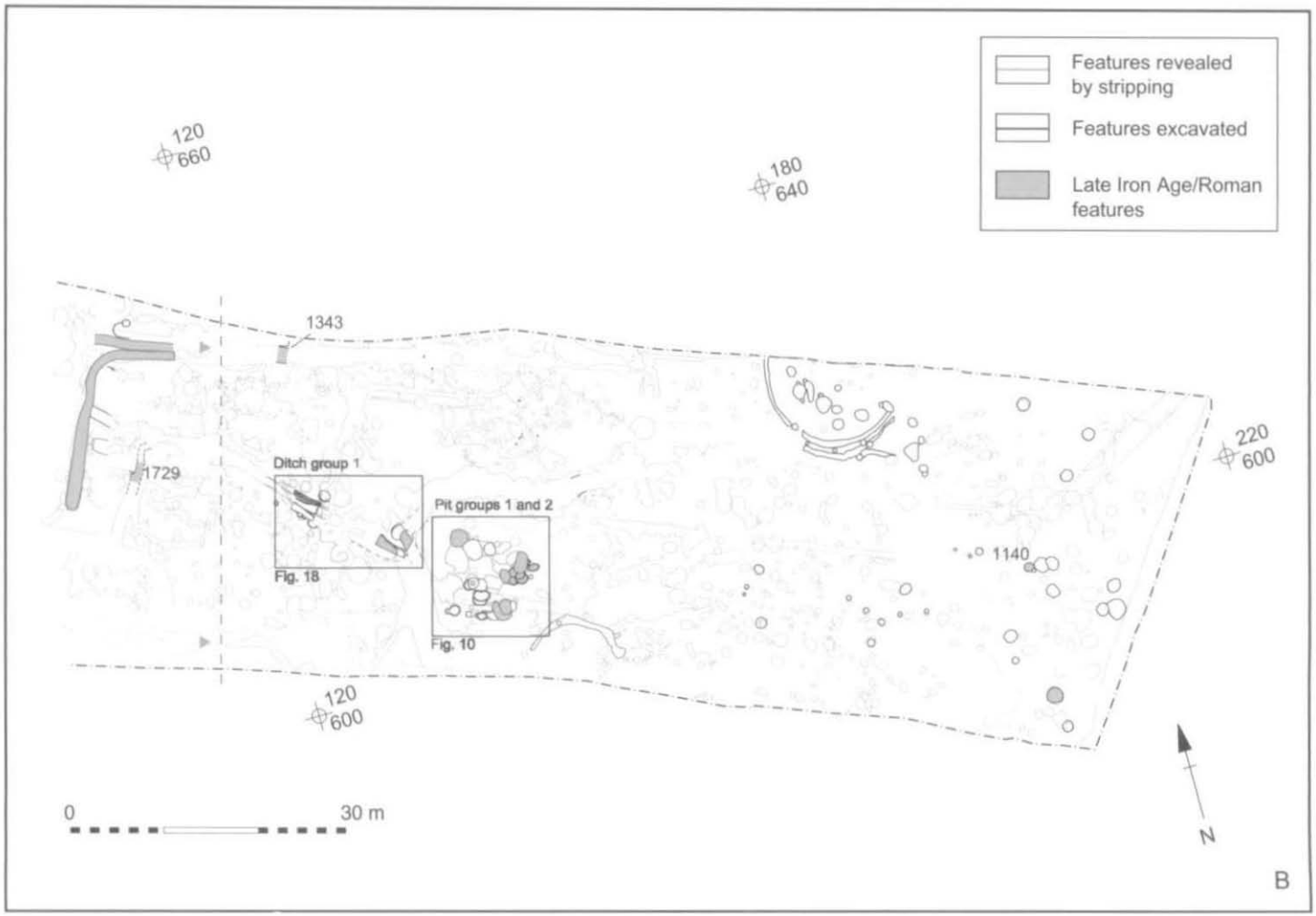


Fig. 19. Plan of the western part (A) and eastern part (B) of the site, showing all late Iron Age/Roman features excavated.

TABLE 18. LATE IRON AGE/ROMAN DITCH GROUP 3

Cut	*Pot date*	*Feature*	*Pit type or profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*	*Fills (earliest first)*	*Pot*
1518	2C	Pit	M1	1.5	2.0	1505	6 sherds RB
						1507	2 sherds LIA/R
						1504	4 sherds RB
						1503	11 sherds 2C
1548	2C	Ditch	U-shaped	0.4	0.4	1547	
						1502	6 sherds 2C
1549	1-2C	Pit	B1	0.5	1.2	1546	
						1522	5 sherds 1-2C
						1553	
1550	1-2C	Ditch	U-shaped	0.4	0.4	1521	8 sherds 1-2C
						1545	
1551	2C	Pit	S	0.3	2.5	1475	83 sherds 2C
						1445	951 sherds 1-2C

Ditches 1548 and 1550 were both narrow and were aligned east to west, with fills of redeposited natural. This suggests that they were boundary, enclosure or construction ditches rather than drainage ditches, but otherwise their function is unclear. Fill 1522 in Pit 1549 contained the earliest identified pottery on this site, a single sherd of grog-tempered Beaker dated to the early Bronze Age.

Pit 1551 is notable as it contained very large quantities of pottery, 1034 sherds in total. A further 727 sherds of pot were found in a layer (1438), which equates to the top surface of the upper fill of Pit 1551 (1445). This material was very mixed, with no complete vessels present although there were some cross-fitting sherds. The lower fill of Pit 1551 (1475) also contained a smithing hearth bottom, and clinker was discovered in the upper fill, 1445. Also within 1445 was SF149, a copper alloy disc, and parts of a mica-dusted bowl were found.

Pit 1551 also cut Layer 1443, a 6 m. wide and 0.2 m. deep spread of greenish grey silt containing stones, 196 sherds of 1st- to 2nd-century pot, slag, iron nails, a bone pin and an iron pin, possibly from a brooch (SF147). This layer has been interpreted as a dump of midden material, and indicates that intensive rubbish dumping took place in this area throughout the 1st and 2nd centuries AD. The presence of such large quantities of mixed pot in relatively few distinguishable deposits suggests that it was collected elsewhere until sufficient amounts had been amassed before being dumped.

Ditch Group 4. These ditches (Table 19) were all in the central northern area of the site (Figs. 19A and 19B). Ditches 1343, 1431 and 1491 were situated along the northern limit of excavation on an east to west alignment. Ditch 1431 cut Ditch 1491 and may have been a recut of the same feature, whilst Ditch 1343 was 16.5 m. to the east and also appeared to be part of the same feature. Stratigraphically it is uncertain which phase of cut Ditch 1343 belonged to, but the profile and size suggest that it was part of the later phase.

TABLE 19. LATE IRON AGE/ROMAN DITCH GROUP 4

Cut	*Pot date*	*Alignment*	*Profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*	*Fill*	*Pot*
1343	2C	E/W	U-shaped	0.64	1.64	1344	76 sherds 2C
1431	RB	E/W	U-shaped	0.42	1.5	1432	
1476	RB	Curvilinear, clockwise from N/S to E/W	U-shaped	0.56	1.2	1478	2 sherds RB
						1477	5 sherds 2-3C
1491	RB	E/W	V-shaped	0.3	0.4	1492	7 sherds RB
1627	2C	N/S	V-shaped	0.78	0.93	1628	35 sherds 2C

Ditch segments 1476 and 1627 were both part of a second ditch related to 1343/1431/1491. 1476/1627 represented a 90° return to the south, immediately south of 1431 and 1491. The spatial relationships between these two sets of ditches suggest that they are related in function. They may represent the western edge of a boundary or enclosure. The pottery found in the fills of both sets of ditches was a mix of 2nd- and 3rd-century material, which suggests that they were in use throughout both of these ceramic phases.

Ditch 1729 was in the same area as Ditch Group 4. It was 7 m. to the south-east of ditch segment 1627, but was not fully excavated. It was aligned north–south and was approximately 0.36 m. in depth with a V-shaped profile to its western side. The eastern side was unclear, as was the width. It may be part of the same enclosure or boundary system formed by Ditch Group 4.

The Corndrier (Figs. 20 and 21). This was situated in the western part of the site (Fig. 19A). It consisted of a rectangular construction cut (1456), which was 0.75 m. x 2.1 m. in plan and 0.5 m. deep. It had vertical sides and a flat base with a sharp break of slope at the top and bottom. Within the cut (1456) was a flue (1474), with walls built of limestone blocks, 0.28 m. x 0.1 m. in plan and 0.04 m. deep. These were roughly dressed, were not set in courses and had no bonding material between them. At the western end a possible stoke hole was identified, but this had been disturbed in antiquity. There was also an area of scorching at the western end. Between the flue and the construction cut was a layer of infilling consisting of a friable yellow sandy silt with clay and grit inclusions, containing nine sherds of 2nd-century pot.

The flue itself had three fills. The earliest (1461) consisted of a dark grey silty sand with high frequencies of charcoal and ten sherds of 2nd-century pot. The fill also contained a concreted lump of iron hobnails. When sampled this fill was found to contain a large amount of charred grain, including large quantities of wheat and barley, with smaller quantities of wheat chaff and weed seeds. This deposit probably represents accidental burning during use. This primary fill (1461) was sealed by a loose yellowish grey silty sand with charcoal and stone inclusions (1458), bone, and 63 sherds of 2nd- to 3rd-century pot. It also contained the head of an iron nail (SF156), a strip of lead (SF155) and an iron swivel loop (SF154). The upper fill (1457) was a dark greyish brown silty sand with grit and small stone inclusions, bone and 28 sherds of 2nd-century pot. When sampled for charred plant remains this fill was found to contain only very small quantities. These two fills are interpreted as separate episodes of backfilling with redeposited natural and occupation debris after the corndrier was abandoned.

In the same area as the corndrier were a number of other Roman features (Fig. 15, Table 20). The features that contained the earliest pot were Posthole 1621 and Pit 1739. Posthole 1621 had a clear post-pipe and two secondary fills. There were no other structural elements excavated that could have been associated with it so its function is unclear, but from its size it would have held a substantial post. Pit 1739 was a small rubbish pit with a whetstone fragment (SF181) and a quern fragment (SF183).

TABLE 20. FEATURES IN THE AREA OF CORNDRIER 1456

Cut	*Pot date*	*Feature*	*Pit type or profile*	*Depth (m.)*	*Width (m.)*	*Fills*	*Pot*
1621	1C	Posthole	U-shaped	0.8	1.1	1622	
						1623	8 sherds 1C
						1624	
1739	1-2C	Pit	C1	0.19	0.83x1.35	1740	15 sherds 1-2C
1634	2-3C	Pit	C1	0.4	0.5	1635	7 sherds MIA
1636	2C	Pit	C1	0.6	1.32	1637	42 sherds 2C
1855 (Cuts 1652, 1655)	2-3C	Gully	U-shaped	0.18	0.4	1633/1656	67 sherds 3C/none

Pit 1636 was situated *c.* 2.5 m. from the corndrier and may be contemporary; it contained 42 sherds of 2nd-century pot. It was cut by a later pit, 1634, which contained middle Iron Age pot which must be residual; Pit 1634 may also be contemporary with the corndrier. The position of the pits close to the corndrier might suggest an initial use as storage pits for materials used in the drying process.

The latest feature in this area was a gully (1855) aligned east to west (Figs. 15 and 19A). Its full extent was not determined, partially due to truncation from later ploughing, although it appeared to have a rounded terminus at its western limit. It was very similar in character to an unexcavated gully aligned north–south, and the two gullies together may have formed a right-angled boundary for some later enclosure. Gully 1855 cut both the corndrier and Pit 1634, which indicates that both of these features fell out of use in or before the 3rd century AD.

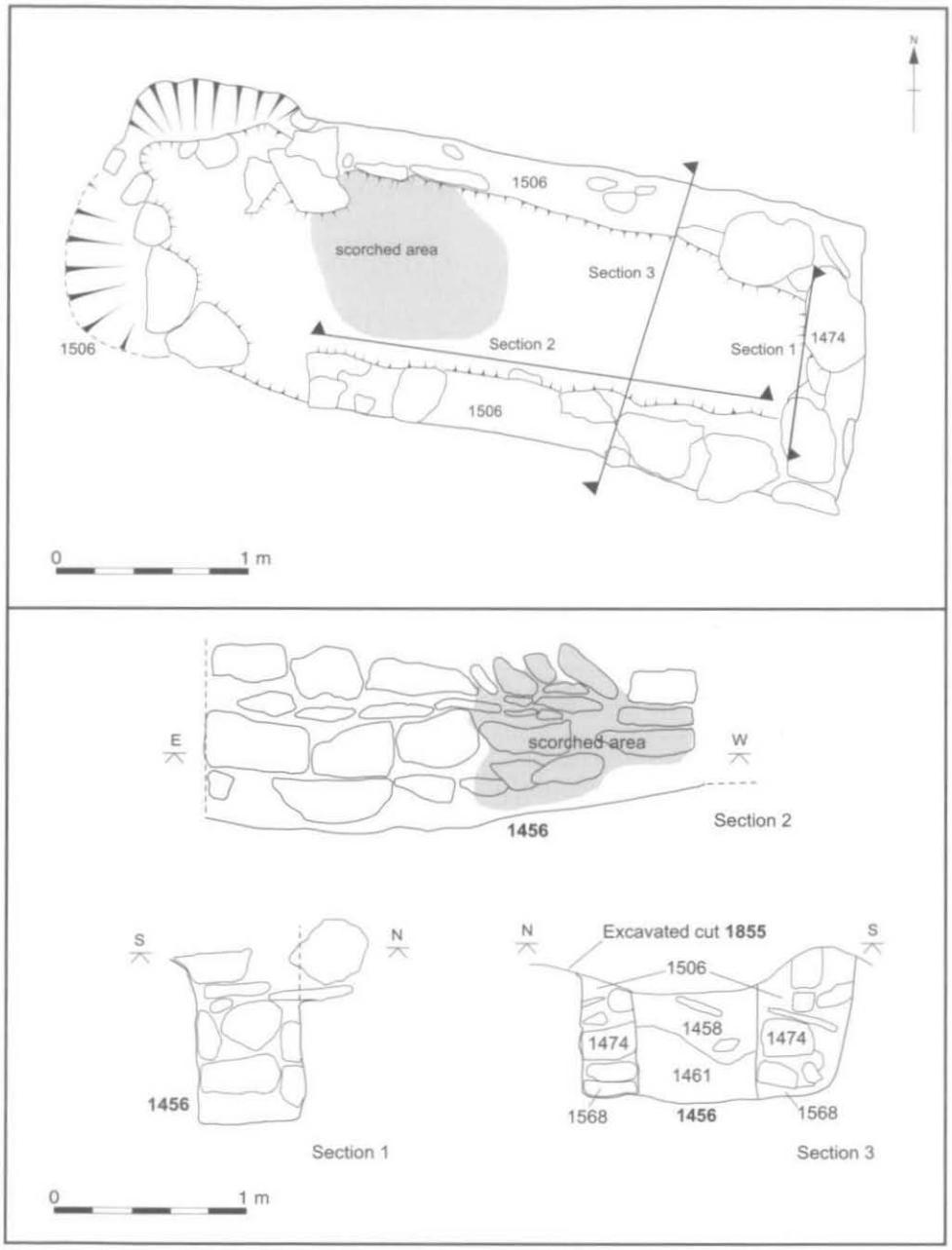


Fig. 20. Plan, section and elevations of Corndrier 1456.

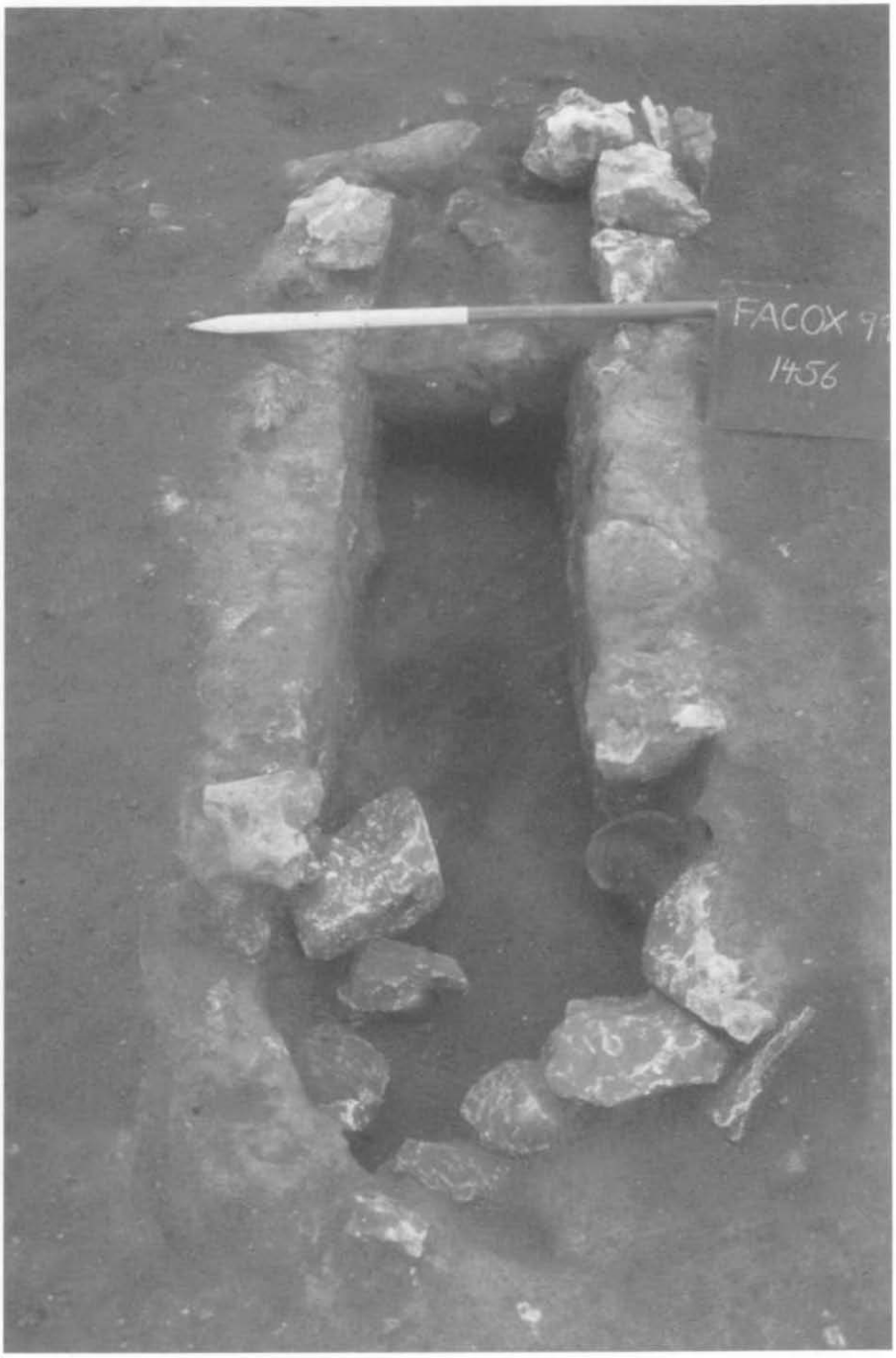


Fig. 21. Corndrier 1456 after full excavation, facing east.

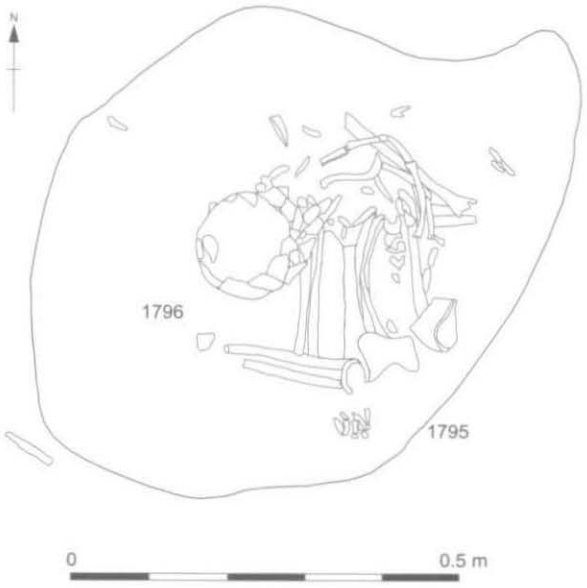


Fig. 22. Plan of Human Burial 1796 in Pit 1795.

Fig. 23. Human Burial 1796 in Pit 1795, facing north-west.

A group of enclosure ditches surrounding Ditch Group 3 (Fig. 19), which feature on the pre-excavation plan, may represent a small Roman settlement. The general character of the enclosure, including its irregular shape and large ditches, suggests that it may date to the early Roman period.

Inhumation 1796 (Figs. 22 and 23). This was situated in the extreme north-west of the site, close to the northern limit of excavation (Fig. 19A). The hollow (1795) was irregular in plan, 0.6 m. x 0.8 m. in plan and 0.07 m. deep. Within the hollow was a juvenile skeleton (1796). The skeleton was aligned east to west and was tightly crouched, with the legs flexed under the body and the feet under the skull. This suggests that the body was bound or placed in a bag, but no evidence of any bindings remained. The grave was then backfilled with 1832, a mid yellowish grey silty clay with grit, charcoal and gravel inclusions and 20 sherds of Romano-British (RB) pot.

The rubble spread. In the southern central area of the site a rubble spread (1004) was discovered (Fig. 19A). This was planned stone by stone and thought to be a destruction layer for a stone-built building, but no evidence of a structure remained. Within this layer were the partially articulated remains of sheep and goat skeletons, along with 162 sherds of 3rd-century Roman pot and a 3rd-century Roman coin.

On the TVAS site, in an area immediately to the south of spread 1004, were the partially robbed foundations of a small stone-built building tentatively identified as a shrine surrounded by a *temenos*. It is possible that rubble spread 1004 was a destruction layer associated with this building.

Other late Iron Age to Roman features. A further five pits were assigned to this phase, of which two were notable. Cuts 1720 and 1732 (Fig. 19A) close to MIA Roundhouses D and E contained pot sherds and charcoal-like deposits and were initially thought to be cremations, but were found to contain unburnt animal bone rather than burnt human bone, and very mixed pot rather than single vessels. The function and significance of these features is unclear.

Medieval and post-medieval

No evidence was found for activity during the medieval period, while the evidence for post-medieval activity on the site consisted of ploughmarks mainly running east to west across the site, and two sherds of post-medieval pot in the upper fill of Iron Age Pit 1178. This is likely to have been deposited by lateral movement during ploughing.

Unphased

A total of 67 further features excavated on the site could not be phased to any period, on either artefactual or stratigraphic grounds. These were distributed across the site and comprised 24 pits, 15 postholes, 4 ditches or gullies, 1 tree-throw and 12 spreads of material.

THE POTTERY by Elizabeth Bryan, Kayt Brown and Alistair Barclay

The excavations of features associated with a multi-period settlement produced a total of 7418 sherds weighing 87,767 g.; with the exception of a single Beaker sherd the assemblage belongs to the late Bronze Age, Iron Age and Roman periods. In 1998 Thames Valley Archaeological Services (TVAS) excavated part of this settlement in an adjacent area.[17] Where possible use is made here of the form and fabric series outlined by Jane Timby in the TVAS report.[18, 19] Comparisons between the two assemblages are made below.

Nature of the assemblage

The assemblage reported here is predominantly early Iron Age in date (*c.* 8th to 5th centuries BC), with a small middle Iron Age component (*c.* 5th to 3rd or 2nd centuries BC). Later material is represented by late Iron Age/early Roman (*c.* 1st century BC to 1st century AD) and Roman (*c.* 2nd to 4th century AD) material. The pottery was recovered principally from pit fill deposits during all phases of activity. Redeposition of Iron Age material was a major factor.

[17] J. Timby, 'Pottery', in Weaver and Ford (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 136).
[18] Ibid.
[19] J. Timby, pers. comm.

The prehistoric pottery by Elizabeth Bryan, Kayt Brown and Alistair Barclay

A total of 4270 sherds weighing 53,146 g. of prehistoric pottery was found on the site (Table 21). The condition of the assemblage is good, with an average sherd weight of 12.5 g., although this figure may be skewed somewhat by the occurrence in a number of pit deposits of very large sherds. Preservation of surfaces is also generally good as haematite coating (red finish) and burnishing is present, and thick sooting and carbonised residue deposits survive on some early and middle Iron Age sherds. Many sherds are well preserved, and there are instances of joining sherds and reconstructable profiles. However, in some deposits sherds are very fragmentary, and this is indicative of the friable nature of some fabrics, disturbance resulting from later activities and redeposition.

TABLE 21. QUANTIFICATION OF IRON AGE FABRICS BY SHERD COUNT AND WEIGHT (G.)

Fabric group	*Description*	*No. sherds*	*%*	*Weight (g.)*	*%*
I	Calcareous types (H1-3; HI1; HL; L1-3)	2253	52.8	33584	63.2
II	Sandy wares (S1-4; S00)	1564	36.6	14572	27.4
III	Sandy with sparse limestone (SL1; SL2; SL; S1/L; S2/L)	379	8.9	4040	7.6
IV	Ferruginous (I1-3, HI2)	66	1.5	897	1.7
V	Organic (ORG)	2		16	
VI	Flint (FL)	1		8	
	Unidentified	3	0.1	20	
	Earlier prehistoric fabrics	2		9	
Total		4270	100	53146	100

The pottery has been grouped into three ceramic phases based on diagnostic fabric and form types. As there is no independent dating of the features, the pottery is dated by comparison to similar wares from sites elsewhere in the region. However, the paucity of featured sherds, the continuity of some fabric types and the probable redeposition of significant amounts of material means that in some cases the dating of feature groups is tenuous.

Methodology. The fabric and form types utilised in this report take into account guidelines recommended by the Prehistoric Ceramics Research Group.[20] The assemblage was recorded using the OA recording system[21] and, as outlined above, use was made of the form and fabric series defined by Timby for the adjacent excavation.[22]

Within this report the pottery is discussed chronologically in the following ceramic phases:

Ceramic phase 1: earlier prehistoric (CP1). Very few sherds date to the Bronze Age. A single grog-tempered incised decorated early Bronze Age Beaker sherd was found (Fig. 24.1), though this was redeposited, occurring alongside later material in pit fill 1522. A fragment of a handle found in pit fill 1081 may date to the late Bronze Age.

Ceramic phase 2: earliest Iron Age to middle Iron Age (CP2). This phase has been subdivided into CP2A (Earliest/early Iron Age) and CP2B (middle Iron Age). CP2A covers the earliest Iron Age or what is sometimes referred to as transitional late Bronze Age/early Iron Age (8th to 6th centuries BC) and the early Iron Age (6th to 4th centuries BC). CP2C has been used where it is impossible to assign material to either CP2A or CP2B with any degree of certainty. The majority of the assemblage could be dated to CP2, *c.* 8th to 3rd/2nd centuries BC. The simultaneous occurrence of 'earlier' and 'later' fabric types in some features suggests

[20] Prehistoric Ceramics Research Group, *The Study of Later Prehistoric Pottery: General Policies and Guidelines for Analysis and Publication* (Prehistoric Ceramics Research Group Occasional Papers 1, ii, 1995).
[21] Oxford Archaeology Unit, 'OAU Pottery Recording Manual' (unpubl.).
[22] Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

that much material may be redeposited, and this makes it difficult to distinguish between early and middle Iron Age material. Although no clearly identifiable late Iron Age material was recognised, a small number of groups can be dated to the latest Iron Age/early Roman period, *c.* late 1st century BC to 1st century AD.

Fabrics. The 22 prehistoric fabrics occurring on the site fell broadly into six categories, defined in Table 21. Detailed descriptions of these fabrics can be found in the project archive. Most of the sherds fall into the first three categories: calcareous, sandy and sandy with limestone or fossil shell. The calcareous fabrics account for 63% by weight of the later prehistoric material, the sandy wares for 27%, the sandy with limestone 7.6% and ferruginous 2%. Fabrics containing organic or flint inclusions both formed less than 1% (Table 21). The coarse shelly wares were clearly early Iron Age, with the finer calcareous types and fine sandy types progressing into the middle Iron Age. A further three fabric categories were represented by single sherds. These were limestone with grog, sandstone and flint. One early Iron Age context, a pit/posthole fill, contained 36 jar sherds in the coarse calcareous fabric H1 that had been over-fired to an extremely hard state.

Forms

A vessel with expanded rim
A1 vessel with expanded T-shaped rim
A2 rim expanded internally
A3 rim expanded externally
B jar with curving profile
B1 slack-shouldered vessel with upright or slightly out-turned rim
B2 globular jar with short out-turned rim
B3 barrel-shaped jar with either thickened, upright or hooked rim
B5 jar/bowl with simple out-turned curving rim
B7 globular jar with short narrow upright rim
C angular vessel
C1 coarse ware vessel with flaring rim subdivided into a) angular type; b) with sharply everted rim and rounded body
C2a fine ware angular tripartite vessel with flaring rim
C2b fine ware angular tripartite vessel with sharply everted rim and rounded body
C3 bipartite vessel
D bowl
D1 coarse ware bowl
D2 small bowl/cup, fine and coarse ware
D4 furrowed bowl
D5 everted rim, hemispherical
D6 globular bowl with flaring rim
D7 globular bowl with upright rim
F bucket-shaped coarse ware vessel with simple, vertical squared rim
H handle
U unidentifiable

There were in addition three vessel forms occurring at this site that did not occur within the assemblage recorded by Timby.[23] These were a globular jar and two globular bowls. Seven handles or possible handles were identified, three from pit fills, two from ring gully fills, one from a ditch fill and one unstratified. A representative range of rim sherds and decorated sherds are illustrated, but no complete profiles could be constructed.

An attempt was made to classify every rim sherd. A minimum of 77 vessels were identified from rim sherds recovered from later prehistoric contexts, out of an estimated overall total minimum number of vessels of 207 (Tables 22 and 23).

Earliest Iron Age forms are represented by the bipartite vessel (Fig. 24.2) and a series of decorated sherds from fine ware bowls or jars (e.g. Figs. 26.16, 21 and 23) of angular or globular form. The short flaring rim form is characteristic of an early date as is the type and range of decoration (see below).

Early Iron Age forms are represented by vessels with expanded rims, most of which occur in coarse fabrics, which reinforces the likelihood that they are early in date (Figs. 24.3, 25.7–8). The angular vessels are also likely to be early, though these are not well represented (Figs. 25.9–11, Figs. 26.15, 18, 23). Other vessels have slack angular profiles (Figs. 25.4 and 27.30). The largest group comprises vessels with curving profiles, mainly

[23] Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

jars (Fig. 25.5), the majority of which occur most commonly in the coarse early Iron Age fabric H1 that might indicate continuation of the fabric into the middle Iron Age. However, a number of large sherds in this fabric displayed finger-tip (thumb) decoration on the shoulder, which is an early Iron Age trait (Figs. 24.3 and 25.4). A single example of a haematite-coated (red finish) bowl is represented by Fig. 25.11.

TABLE 22. COARSE WARES FORM AND FABRIC CORRELATION – MINIMUM NUMBER OF VESSELS

	Fabrics					
	Calcareous					*Ferruginous*
Forms	*H1*	*H2*	*H3*	*HL*	*L3*	*I3*
Vessels with expanded rims	7	1				
Jars with curving profile	18	4	1		1	
Angular vessels	1					
Bowls	1	1	1			
Bucket-shaped vessels	3					
Unidentified	39	9	3	1		1
Totals	69	15	5	1	1	1

Total: 92

TABLE 23. FINE WARES FORM AND FABRIC CORRELATION – MINIMUM NUMBER OF VESSELS

	Fabrics								
	Plain sandy		*Sandy with shell/limestone*						
Forms	*S00*	*S1*	*S2*	*S3*	*S4*	*SL1*	*SL2*	*S1L*	*S2L*
Vessels with expanding rims		1	1						
Jars with curving profile		8	2	2			2		1
Angular vessels		1			1				
Bowls	1	7	2	1	5				
Bucket-shaped vessels		1	1		1				
Unidentified	2	37	6	7	9	5	3	7	1
Totals	3	55	12	10	16	5	5	7	2

Total: 115

The round-shouldered form, H1 occurs in what are thought to be middle Iron Age fine fabrics. These included slack-shouldered jars (Figs. 25.4 and 27.30) and bowls with rounded bodies. The slack-shouldered vessels are likely to belong to the later part of the early Iron Age, while the closed globular and barrel-shaped forms are typical of the middle Iron Age (Figs. 25.5–6, 27.28 and 33).

A possible small cup with a rim diameter of *c.* 40 mm. (Fig. 27.31) in a fine sandy fabric, not burnished, was recovered from an early Iron Age pit fill. A degree of selectivity in choosing materials for jars and bowls was discernible: although some bowls occurred in coarse fabrics, most were fine wares and there were some jars in finer sandy fabrics. Few forms were confined to one fabric, though most were more commonly found in one fabric than another.

Manufacture, surface treatment and decoration. All the vessels were handmade, mainly coil built. Evidence of this type of construction was visible where vessel walls had sheared away. Four types of surface treatment were recognised: 1) no special finish; 2) rough burnishing or finger wiping; 3) burnishing but streaky and discontinuous; and 4) a high-quality burnishing. A total of 64 of the calcareous sherds were burnished, but none of these sherds was from an identifiable vessel. Burnishing was more common on sandy fabrics, but sometimes occurred on the coarsest fabric; this could be for functional reasons as well as appearance. The single example of burnished haematite coating (red finish) (Fig. 25.11) occurs on a vessel made from the finest fabric. There were very few examples of high-quality burnishing.

Decoration. Only 2.9% of Iron Age sherds displayed decoration. The range of decoration (techniques and motifs) is typical for the early Iron Age of this region and includes a variety: impressed (finger-tip (thumb), finger-nail, finger-printing, circles, dots), and stabbed and incised (bands, chevrons, triangles, curvilinear/swag).[24, 25]

Typically coarse ware jars are decorated on the shoulder with impressed finger-tip (thumb) (e.g. Figs. 24.3, 25.4, 25.9) or finger-nail (Fig. 25.10). Faringdon has an interesting and regionally significant group of sherds from what can be classed as fine ware bowls or jars (Fig. 26.13–23). This material is characteristic of Cunliffe's Early All Cannings Cross group that he places in the 8th to 7th centuries.[26] Similar material can also be found at the site of Potterne, Wilts, just south of the Upper Thames Valley.[27] Unfortunately at Faringdon much of the material is too small for certainty of the vessel form. However, the relatively short flaring or upright rims of Figs. 26.16, 21 and 23 indicate a probable early date. Complex motifs involving circles, bands and infilled geometric shapes are still relatively rare in the Upper Thames Valley.[28] Contemporaneous material has been recovered from settlement sites on the Thames gravels near to Oxford. Small quantities of mostly redeposited material were recovered from an Iron Age settlement at Gravelly Guy, Stanton Harcourt[29] and from pit deposits at another similar site at Creswell Field, Yarnton.[30] At these sites it is argued that the pottery is of earliest Iron Age date. The unusual vessel with incised curvilinear bands or swags (Fig. 26.23) can be closely paralleled at Creswell Field.[31] Vessels with complex geometric motifs and circles occur at Gravelly Guy.[32] It is possible that the occurrence of this type of pottery decoration decreases with distance from north Wiltshire. In the Upper Thames it is certainly more common on the Berkshire Downs and also on sites in the Vale of White Horse, with similar pottery occurring at sites on the chalkland downs at Rams Hill, Uffington Castle hillfort and Tower Hill, Ashbury, and from sites on the gravels at Uffington, Horcott, Fairfield and Shorncote.[33, 34]

Comparisons with the assemblage from the adjacent TVAS excavation

The prehistoric assemblage from the adjacent TVAS excavation[35] was slightly larger (*c.* 6400 sherds) than the one from this site. However, both assemblages have a similar overall date range with higher quantities of EIA pottery.

Timby also notes the presence of some LBA vessels as well as pots that might fall within an earliest Iron Age phase – in particular a number of plain bipartite vessels similar to those recovered from OA's excavation. Timby suggests that other vessels within the TVAS assemblage may be of an early date – an almost complete plain jar as well as a number of cordoned neck sherds. All Cannings Cross style decorated material occurs on both sites, and perhaps in similar quantities. The quantity of characteristically EIA is more striking in the

[24] D.W. Harding, *The Iron Age in the Upper Thames Basin* (1972).

[25] G. Lambrick, 'Pitfalls and Possibilities in Iron Age Pottery Studies – Experiences in the Upper Thames Valley', in B. Cunliffe and D. Miles (eds), *Aspects of the Iron Age in Central Southern Britain* (University of Oxf. Committee for Archaeology, ii, 1984), 162–77.

[26] B. Cunliffe, *Iron Age Communities in Britain* (1974), 64–5 and Fig. A2.

[27] A.J. Lawson, 'Potterne 1982–5: Animal Husbandry in Later Prehistoric Wiltshire', *Wessex Archaeology*, xvii (2000).

[28] Lambrick, op. cit. (note 25).

[29] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

[30] P. Booth, pers. comm.

[31] P. Booth, pers. comm.

[32] Lambrick and Allen., op. cit. (note 16).

[33] R. Bradley and A. Ellison, *Rams Hill: A Bronze Age Defended Enclosure and its Landscape* (B.A.R. Research Report, xix, 1975).

[34] D. Miles, S. Palmer, G. Lock, C. Gosden and A.M. Cromarty, *Uffington White Horse and its Landscape* (OA Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, xviii, 2004).

[35] Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

TVAS assemblage, where flared rim bowls account for 31% of all classified vessels. Red finish was more common (18 sherds). On both excavations relatively smaller quantities of MIA pottery occur, while LIA pottery is rare.

Wider discussion

The main comparative assemblages for the Iron Age material at Faringdon are to be found along the Upper Thames gravel terraces between Stanton Harcourt to the north and Dorchester to the east. There are a number of assemblages that show affinities with the material, including Ashville,[36] Farmoor,[37] Wyndyke Furlong,[38] Gravelly Guy[39] and Yarnton,[40] and many other sites listed by Harding. The earliest Iron Age component of the assemblage at Faringdon is typical of Cunliffe's All Cannings group[41] or the final stage of Barrett's 'decorated ware' assemblages of the 8th to 6th centuries BC.[42] This type of material and the more bipartite forms are absent at Ashville, Farmoor and Wyndyke Furlong[43] and present in the earliest feature groups at Yarnton and Gravelly Guy.[44] It is almost certain that this pattern is chronological reflecting use of the sites in the earliest Iron Age (8th to 6th centuries BC) and early Iron Age (6th to 4th centuries BC).[45]

Within the fine wares, bipartite bowls and jars with short rims are known from other earliest Iron Age sites. Tripartite bowls more typical of early Iron Age assemblages are also well known on sites within the region, for example at Wyndyke Furlong, Ashville and The Loders, Lechlade (in Gloucestershire).[46] The single example of a bowl with haematite coating, Fig. 25.11, is more likely to belong to the early Iron Age and is almost certainly contemporaneous with some of the slack-shouldered jars (e.g. Fig. 25.4). The bipartite form of vessel Fig. 24.2 is more commonly found in assemblages of late Bronze Age or transitional late Bronze Age/early Iron Age date.[47] The rim Fig. 27.32 could also be of this date.

It is now generally accepted that coarse calcareous fabrics give way to finer, sandy and mixed fabrics from the early to middle Iron Age,[48] but such a clear-cut pattern is not discernible at Faringdon. Recent work[49] has indicated that this is only a very broad trend that may be influenced by factors such as the date range of the pottery, the geographical location and the availability of local resources. There is some progression from coarse calcareous wares to finer sandy fabrics, but there are a number of instances of early fabrics in later forms, and it is unclear whether the mixed groups are the result of redeposition or the continuation of fabrics into the middle Iron Age.

Slack-shouldered jars in fine sandy fabrics, some with calcareous material or oolitic limestone, characterise the early Iron Age component of the assemblage. The slack-shouldered forms depicted by Figs. 25.4 and 27.30 are all typical of this period,[50] while the more angular forms, Figs. 25.9 and 25.10, could be slightly earlier in date. Lugged vessels can occur throughout the late Bronze Age and early to middle Iron Age. Vessel Fig. 27.30 has an angular profile indicating a probable early Iron Age date.

The globular and barrel forms of Figs. 25.5–6, 27.28 and 27.33 are typical of the middle Iron Age and can be paralleled at both Ashville and Farmoor.[51]

[36] C.D. De Roche, 'The Iron Age Pottery', in M. Parrington, *The Excavation of an Iron Age Settlement, Bronze Age Ring-Ditches and Roman Features at Ashville Trading Estate, Abingdon (Oxfordshire) 1974–76* (C.B.A. Research Report, xxviii, 1978), 40–78.

[37] G. Lambrick and M. Robinson, *Iron Age and Roman Riverside Settlements at Farmoor, Oxfordshire* (C.B.A. Research Report, xxxii, 1979).

[38] J. Timby, 'The Pottery', in J. Muir and M.R. Roberts (eds), *Excavation at Wyndyke Furlong, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, 1994* (Thames Valley Monograph, xii, 1999), 31–40.

[39] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

[40] P. Booth, pers. comm.

[41] Cunliffe, op. cit. (note 26).

[42] J. Barrett, 'The Pottery of the Later Bronze Age in Lowland England', *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society*, xlvi (1980), 297–319.

[43] Timby, op. cit. (note 38).

[44] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

[45] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

[46] R. Hingley, 'The Iron Age', in T. Darvill, R. Hingley, M. Jones and J. Timby, 'A Neolithic and Iron Age Site at the Loders, Lechlade, Gloucestershire', *Transactions of the Bristol & Gloucestershire Archaeol. Soc.* civ (1986), 27–48.

[47] Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

[48] Lambrick, op. cit. (note 25).

[49] E. Edwards and A. Barclay, pers. comm.

[50] Harding, op. cit. (note 24).

[51] Bradley and Ellison, op. cit. (note 33).

Roman pottery (ceramic phase 3) by Elizabeth Bryan and Kayt Brown

A total of 3144 sherds of Roman pottery, weighing 34,570 g., was recovered during the excavation. The majority of Roman sherds were from features that contained only Roman material, differing from the adjacent assemblage where most of the pottery came from post-Roman soil accumulations. The pottery recovered spanned the same date range as the Roman material recovered from the adjacent site, namely 1st to 4th centuries, and similarly was for the most part non-diagnostic local grey sandy wares.

Method. The Roman assemblage was assigned to fabric types and the material from each context quantified by sherd count and weight. The Roman material was recorded in accordance with the system devised by OA for later prehistoric and Roman pottery from the Thames Valley.[52] This system employs a hierarchical system of alpha-numeric codes to enable fabrics to be identified at three levels of precision: at the level of a broad group (e.g. W = white wares), at the level of a more defined ware group (e.g. W20 = medium sandy reduced wares) and as a specific fabric type (e.g. W21 = Verulamium white ware). Form types were likewise recorded using hierarchical alphabetic codes, with sub-types defined by an additional letter. Reference was made, where possible, to established typologies.[53] Also recorded were decoration, evidence of use and the condition of sherds.

Fabrics. A number of earlier Iron Age fabrics occurred alongside the late Iron Age and Roman material. These are included in Table 24, which shows the range and proportions of late Iron Age and Roman material present within the assemblage by sherd count and weight. Fabrics have been divided into late Iron Age/early Roman fabric, fine and specialist wares, and coarse wares. The former group comprises a number of fabrics characteristic of the mid–late 1st century BC to late 1st century AD. The proportion of fine and specialist wares (such as amphora, mortaria and Samian) compared to coarse wares has been successfully used on sites within the area as a means of assessing site status.[54]

Reduced sandy wares (B11, B30, R11, R21, R30, R90, R95) comprised the bulk of the assemblage. Much of this material was likely to have been locally produced, probably from the large Roman pottery industry within Oxfordshire. The paucity of diagnostic sherds means the majority of this material can only be assigned a broad date within the Roman period spanning the 1st to 4th centuries AD. Early Roman wares included the 'transitional' late Iron Age/early Roman grog-tempered material that can be dated to the 1st century AD, and the regional import Savernake ware. Other regional imports comprised a mica-dusted fabric (F30), possibly a London product, and a small amount of Dorset black-burnished ware. The later products of the Oxfordshire industry were represented by small quantities of Parchment and colour-coat wares (W11, F51). Continental imports were restricted to 21 sherds of central Gaulish Samian, including two mould-decorated sherds (one with a stamp) and one stamped base.

Forms[55]

C	jar
CC	narrow mouthed jar
CE	squat, high-shouldered or necked jar
CH	bead-rim jar
CN	storage jar
D	jar/bowl
H	bowl
HA	carinated bowl
HC	curving sided bowl
J	dish/platter
JA	straight-sided dish
K	mortarium
KC	hammer-headed mortarium
P	Museum of London Archaeology Service form[56]
P24	strainer
Z	uncertain/unknown

52 Oxford Archaeology Unit, op. cit. (note 21).
53 C.J. Young, *The Roman Pottery Industry of the Oxford Region* (B.A.R. xliii, 1977).
54 M. Henig and P. Booth, *Roman Oxfordshire* (2000), 173, Fig. 6.11.
55 Oxford Archaeology Unit, op. cit. (note 21).
56 R. Tomber and J. Dore, *The National Roman Fabric Reference Collection: A Handbook* (1998).

TABLE 24. QUANTIFICATION OF CERAMIC PHASE 3 (CP3) FABRICS

Fabric description	*Fabric code*	*Sherd count*	*Sherd weight (g.)*
Late Iron Age/Roman fabrics			
Limestone	E50	31	812
Flint	E60	33	1060
Grog	E80	221	3952
Sub-total		285	5824
Fine/specialist wares			
Samian	S	21	205
Oxfordshire red colour-coated ware	F51	34	197
Mica-dusted	F30	15	290
Oxfordshire white ware mortaria	M22	2	129
Oxfordshire red colour-coated mortaria	M41	1	31
Oxfordshire Parchment ware	W11	4	111
Misc. white wares	W20	51	444
Sub-total		128	1407
Other Roman fabrics			
Dorset black-burnished ware	B11	59	498
Black-burnished-type ware	B30	3	49
Unsourced calcareous wares	C10	126	1475
Oxfordshire fine reduced sandy fabrics	R11	2	50
Oxfordshire reduced medium sandy fabrics	R21	1	10
Unsourced reduced sandy wares	R30	1869	17763
Unsourced reduced coarse wares	R90	270	4565
Savernake ware	R95	90	1835
Unsourced oxidised sandy wares	O20	311	1094
Subtotal		2731	27339
Total		**3144**	**34570**

The assemblage was dominated by jars, occurring principally in unsourced sandy grey wares. Insufficient vessel profile survived in the majority of cases for these vessels to be assigned to a more specific vessel type. Where it was possible to assign to vessel type, the characteristically early Roman forms were dominant, namely squat, high-shouldered or necked jars and bead-rim jars. There was one complete vessel – a high-shouldered jar with cordons and a pedestal base, from the fill of a pit that dates to the 1st century AD (Fig. 28.40). Two jar bases in early Roman grog-tempered fabrics displayed burnished swirls on the underside (Figs. 28.35 and 28.35a). A ceramic spindle whorl made from a reused base sherd also displayed a burnished spiral. A small number of early Roman butt beaker body sherds, in both white ware and a fine reduced sandy fabric, were also present.

Uncertain jar/bowl rims account for a sizeable proportion of the forms recorded, with bowls, including late Roman flanged bowls and Oxfordshire colour-coat types (Young, types C44 and C45[57]) forming the only other significant group. Specialist wares were scarce; amphorae were absent from the assemblage and only

[57] Young, op. cit. (note 53).

two examples of mortaria were present (one Oxfordshire white ware and one Oxfordshire colour-coat, Young types M4 and C97[58] respectively). However, an almost complete, if fragmentary, mica-dusted strainer was recovered from pit fill Context 1445 (Fig. 28.39). This form is paralleled in London,[59] where this vessel was likely to have been produced.

Chronology. An attempt was made to define phases of activity by ceramic criteria. This resulted in the identification of broad ceramic phases within the Roman period (Table 25). The material was subdivided into ceramic phase 3A (mid–late 1st century AD); ceramic phase 3B (late 1st century AD to late 2nd century AD); and ceramic phase 3C (3rd century AD and later). Each of these phases was characterised by the occurrence of certain fabrics and/or forms. Where it was impossible to assign a more refined date, the material was just defined as Roman (ceramic phase 3), or to a transitional phase 3A/B. The ceramic repertoire of ceramic phase 3A was typified by the occurrence of late Iron Age/early Roman fabrics, a small number of handmade coarse wares and wheel-made vessels, and early coarse wares such as Savernake. Towards the end of the late 1st century and through the 2nd century AD there was an increase in the range of fabrics, with more characteristically Roman grey-ware products, early fine wares and black-burnished ware. Vessel forms were dominated by jar types. Later Roman material, such as products of the Oxfordshire colour-coat industry, characterise the later phase 3C, alongside a continued high proportion of Romanised grey wares, with a slight increase in the proportion of bowl to jar forms.

TABLE 25. PROPORTIONS OF FABRICS WITHIN THE ROMAN CERAMIC SUB-PHASES, BY WEIGHT (G.)

	Ceramic phase					
Fabric	*3*	*3A*	*3A/B*	*3B*	*3C*	*Total*
Late Iron Age/early Roman fabrics						
E50		21		791		812
E60	17	289	35	719		1060
E80	72	1561	134	2065	56	3888
Fine/specialist wares						
F30				290		290
F51	54				174	228
S	13			171	21	205
W11				10	101	111
W20	22			300	251	573
Other Roman fabrics						
B11				286	212	498
B30				49		49
C10	56	88	121	892	305	1462
O20	41		53	938	62	1094
R11	50					50
R21				10		10
R30	1618	105	255	13540	2199	17717
R90	123	503	49	3835	55	4565
R95	121	238		1249	227	1835
Total	**2187**	**2805**	**647**	**25145**	**3663**	**34447**

[58] Ibid.

[59] B. Davies, B. Richardson and R. Tomber, 'A Dated Corpus of Early Roman Pottery from London', *The Archaeology of London: Volume 5* (C.B.A. Research Report, xcviii, 1994), 138, Fig. 116.745.

Discussion

The excavation at Coxwell Road produced evidence of settlement, with a large proportion of the Iron Age material recovered from ring gully deposits and pit fills. This is in contrast to the adjacent excavations, which were located on the periphery of the settlement, and the majority of the Iron Age assemblage occurred only in pit fills. On this site all postholes containing pottery were also dated to this period. A complete quantification of pottery by feature type in each ceramic phase is presented in Table 26.

TABLE 26. DISTRIBUTION OF POTTERY BY WEIGHT (G.) IN DEPOSIT TYPES, BY CERAMIC PHASE

	Ceramic phase					
Feature type	*Unphased*	*CP2A*	*CP2B*	*CP2C*	*CP3*	*Total*
Animal disturbance				4		4
Cremation pit					984	984
Ditch		538	3223	813	3195	7769
Flue cut					1255	1255
Grave cut					137	137
Gully		73	9	274	1595	1951
Hollow			7	7	369	383
Pit	2	15872	7345	3648	16079	42946
Pit containing double dog burial		65	1159	108		1332
Pit/posthole		1601		7		1608
Pit/tree-throw hole				360		360
Posthole		559	61	70		690
Posthole?				81		81
Ring gully		2584	3265	1898	27	7774
Unstratified	3320	586	1198	4460	10929	20493
Grand Total	**3322**	**21878**	**16267**	**11730**	**34570**	**87767**

The most productive feature type were pit fill deposits, which accounted for approximately 74% (by count and weight) of the Iron Age assemblage. However, even with this quantity of material and a relatively large average sherd size, few ceramic patterns were discernible that would indicate any form of structured deposition, with the possible exception of Posthole 1188. There was no apparent selection of fabrics, forms or decoration in any of the features or groups of features. The fabrics in the pit fills were very mixed, although in the early period shell-tempered fabrics were dominant (Table 27; H1, H2, H3, H11). Sandy fabrics did occur in these early deposits but appear in larger quantities in the later deposits, alongside a slight increase in iron-rich and limestone fabrics. Of the two features containing human bone, Pit 1390 produced a mixed deposit, although Pit 1802 (which contained a premature newborn burial) produced a range of fabrics suggestive of a middle Iron Age date.

The early Iron Age ring gullies produced a substantial amount of material, including in many instances later material. The later sherds were interpreted as residual, given the degree of reuse of the area in later periods. Ditches comprised the only other feature type to produce significant amounts of pottery, although these individual groups were again small. However, in general terms there would appear to be an increase in activity in the middle Iron Age and then again in the Roman period.

It was not possible to define a late Iron Age phase, that is, preceding the occurrence of Belgic-type lst-century AD wares. The Roman assemblage is considerably larger than that recovered during the adjacent excavation and is likely to represent occupation debris from a settlement in the vicinity. The large sherd size, condition of the material and its deposition in a large number of pits would support this, and the major part of the assemblage was recovered from pit deposits (82% by sherd count, 63% by weight). Throughout the early Roman periods the majority of material occurred in pit fills: over 20 kg. dated to the late 1st and 2nd centuries, with no later material recovered from pit deposits. Ditches were the only other feature type to

TABLE 27. FABRICS BY WEIGHT (G.) IN PIT FILLS, CERAMIC PHASE (CP2)

		Ceramic phase				
Fabric group	*Fabric*	*Unphased*	*CP2A*	*CP2B*	*CP2C*	*Total*
	LG		4			4
I	H1	1	11673	2044	1363	15081
I	H2		387	459	236	1082
I	H3		275	15	54	344
I	HI1		318			318
I	HL		50	5	74	129
I	L1		49	137	12	198
I	L2		47	159	11	217
I	L3		7	49	37	93
II	S00		158	172	11	341
II	S1		834	2569	953	4356
II	S2		154	676	263	1093
II	S3		260	513	192	965
II	S4		311	68	169	548
III	S1L		76	60	109	245
III	S2L		613			613
III	SL1		239	268	142	649
III	SL2		378	89		467
IV	I2		9	18	6	33
IV	I3			40		40
IV	HI2		13			13
V	ORG		13		3	16
Roman	R30			4	8	12
Unidentified	U		4			4
	Total	**1**	**15872**	**7345**	**3643**	**26861**

produce significant quantities of material. The presence of a corndrier would indicate some degree of agricultural production during this period, although there was residual pottery in the fills of this structure.

Although it was not possible to define a late Iron Age phase, there was material indicative of 1st-century AD activity. A similar pattern occurred at Wyndyke Furlong, where it was suggested that the lack of a clearly defined late Iron Age phase may reflect either a break in the ceramic record or a continuation of middle Iron Age traditions into the 1st century AD.[60] At Faringdon the same broad trend is apparent. Recognisably early material includes the Belgic-type fabrics (E50, E60, E80) and Savernake wares. Belgic material was dated to the mid 1st century BC at Ashville but its association with Savernake ware would suggest a later date of mid–late 1st century AD following similar patterns at sites within the Thames Valley and further west at

[60] Timby, op. cit. (note 38).

Somerford Keynes[61] and Thornhill Farm.[62] A small quantity of imported fine ware of this date, which is in keeping with similar finds at Ashville,[63] was recovered from the adjacent site;[64] however, such material was absent from this assemblage. Fine and specialist wares (Samian, amphora, white wares, white slipped wares, mortaria and later Roman colour-coat fabrics) comprised only 3.8% of the assemblage, which is below the 5% suggested by Booth as distinguishing rural sites from higher status sites.[65] The Roman material spans the 1st to the 4th centuries and suggests a domestic assemblage from a rural settlement, which was probably located on the periphery of the excavated area.

Catalogue of illustrated material

1. Sherd of Beaker pottery decorated with incised lines. CP1 (Context 1522).
2. Form C3. Bipartite vessel. Fabric H2. CP2A (Context 1070).
3. Form B2. Fabric H1. CP2A (Context 1074).

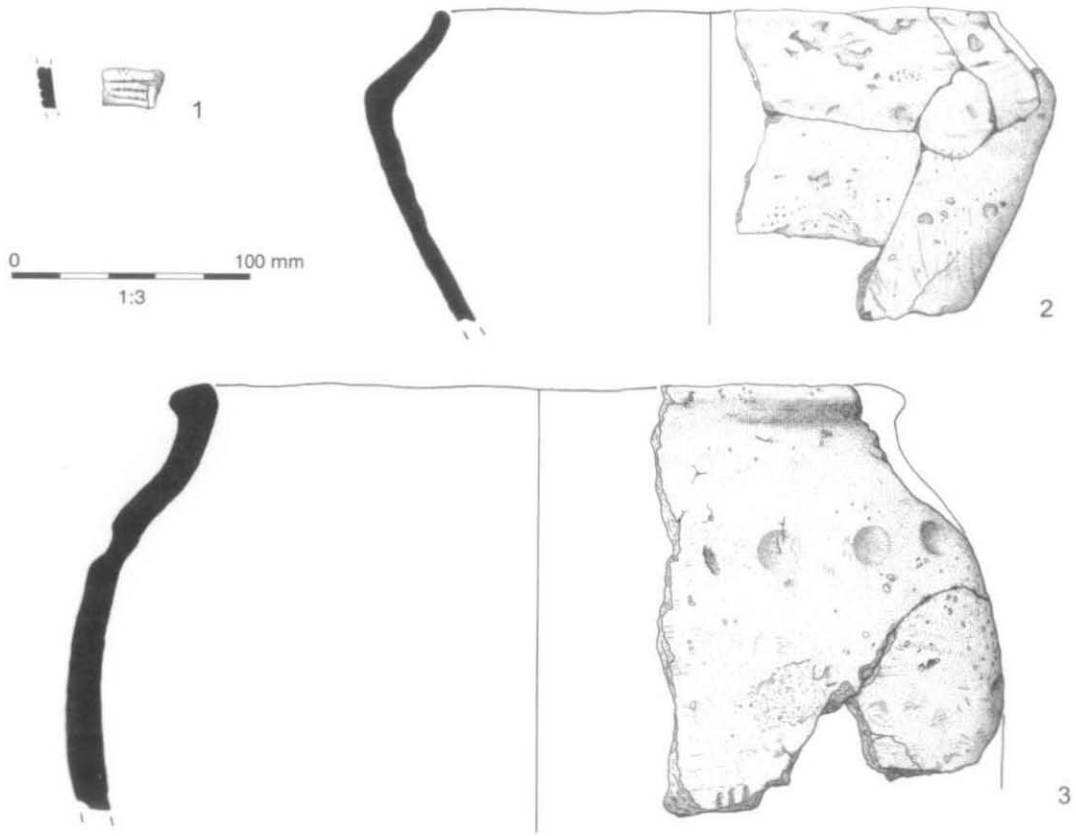


Fig. 24. Prehistoric pottery: Beaker sherd (1); early Iron Age (2 and 3).

61 K. Brown, in D. Miles, S. Palmer, P. Booth and A. Smith, 'Landscape Studies in the Cotswold Water Park: Prehistoric to Anglo-Saxon Use of the Gravel Terraces, and Roman and Native Interaction' (OA Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, in prep.).

62 J. Timby, 'The Pottery', in D. Jennings, J. Muir, S. Palmer and A. Smith, *Thornhill Farm, Fairford, Gloucester. An Iron Age and Roman Pastoral Site in the Upper Thames* (OA Thames Valley Landscape Monograph, 2003), 90–108.

63 De Roche, op. cit. (note 36).

64 Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

65 Henig and Booth, op. cit. (note 54).

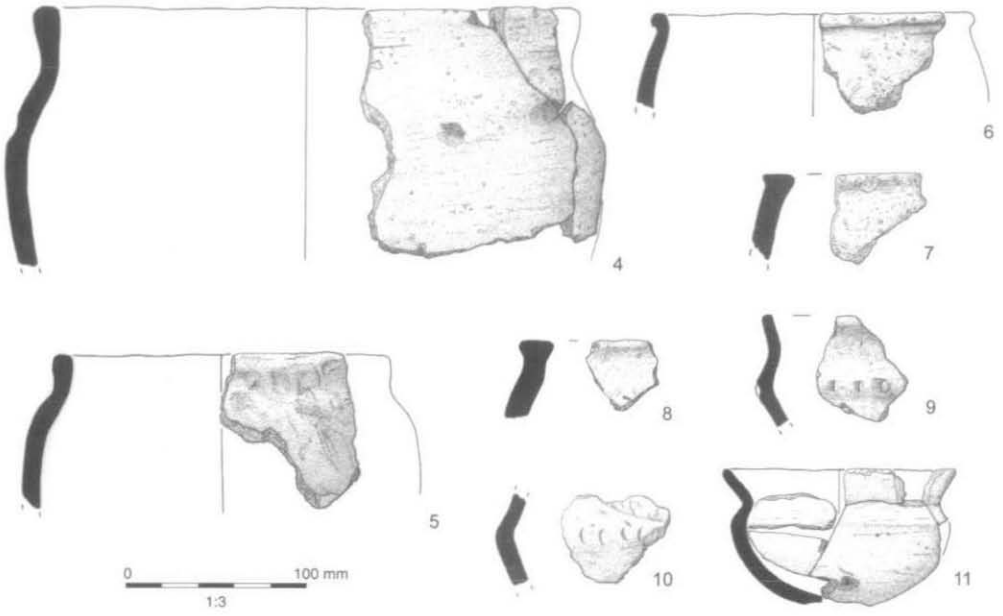


Fig. 25. Iron Age pottery (4–11).

4. Form B1. Finger-tip (thumb) decoration on shoulder. Fabric H1. CP2A (Context 1074).
5. Form B2. Fabric H1. CP2A/CP2B (Context 1689).
6. Form B2 (1st-century AD group). Fabric H2. CP3 (Context 1102).
7. Form A1. Fabric H1. CP2C (Context 1347).
8. Form A3. Fabric H1. CP2A (Context 1346).
9. Form C2A. Carinated sherd with finger-tip decoration on carination. Fabric H1. CP2A (Context 1601).
10. Form C. Carinated sherd. Finger-nail decoration on carination. Fabric H1. CP2A (Context 1757).
11. Form C2B. Carinated vessel. Haematite-coated. Fabric S4. CP2A (Context 1024).
12. Form D6. Fabric H2. CP2C (Context 1385).
13. Form C. Neck sherd decorated with stabbing inside incised triangular pattern, also stamped-ring decoration. Fabric S2. CP2A (Context 1346).
14. ?Form C. ?Neck sherd decorated with stabbing inside incised linear pattern, also stamped-ring pattern. Fabric H2. CP2A (Context 1032).
15. Form C2b. Shoulder sherd decorated on shoulder with stabbing and ring and dot pattern. Fabric S2. CP2A (Context 1010).
16. ?Form C. Rim sherd. Decorated with stabbing inside incised parallel lines. Fabric S3. CP2A (Context 1050).
17. ?Form C. Decorated sherd. Incised linear diagonal pattern within incised horizontal bands. Fabric S1. CP2A (Context 1036).
18. Form C. Decorated sherd. Incised linear parallel horizontal lines within 'triangle'. Fabric S1. CP2A (Context 1388).
19. Form C. Decorated neck sherd. Incised parallel lines running diagonally in sets of three. Fabric S2. CP2A (Context 1020).
20. Form C. Decorated neck sherd. Incised short lines running crossways. Fabric S1. CP2A (Context 1020).
21. Form C. Rim sherd decorated with incised zigzag pattern within parallel lines. Fabric S1. CP2A (Context 1389).
22. Form C2b. Sherd decorated with a double set of stabbed lines in zigzag pattern bounded by a single incised line. Fabric SL2. CP2A (Context 1066).
23. Form C2a. Curvilinear decoration. Fabric H3. CP2A (Context 1020).
24. Handle. Fabric H1. CP2C (Context 1803).
25. Handle. Fabric L3. CP2C (Context 1579).
26. Handle. Fabric H2. CP2C (Context 1025).
27. Form D3. Fabric L1. CP2B (Context 1187).

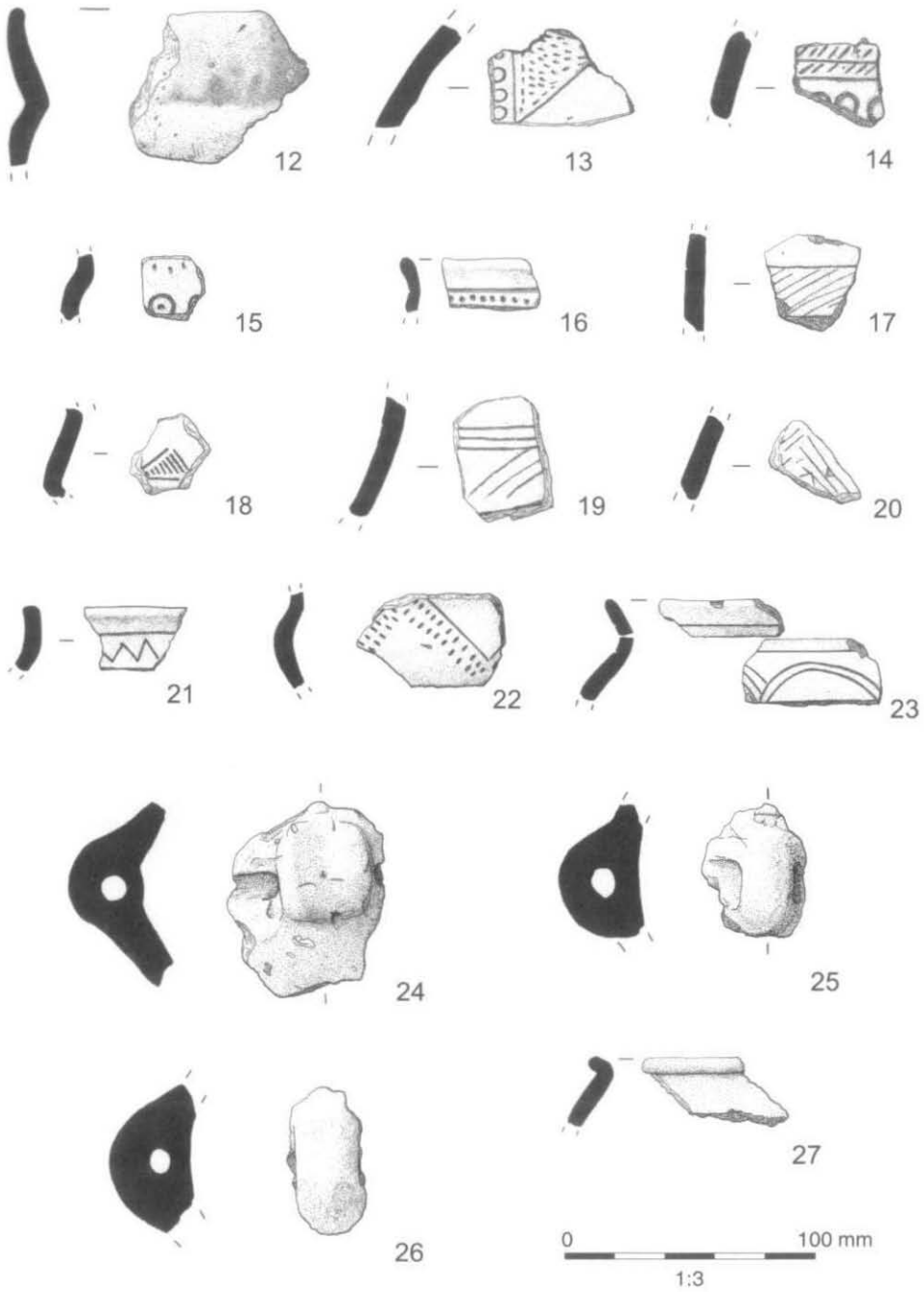


Fig. 26. Iron Age pottery (12–27).

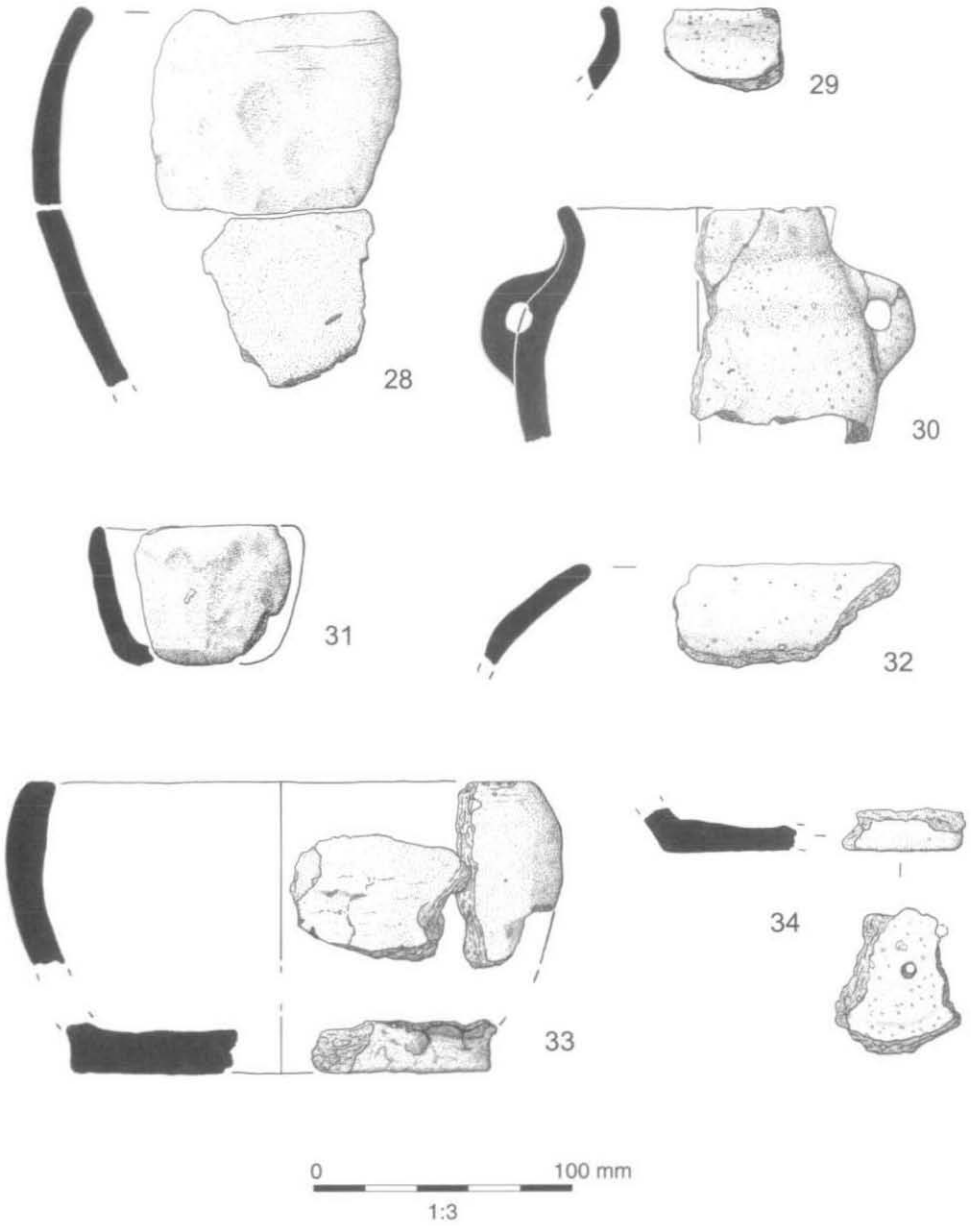


Fig. 27. Iron Age pottery (28–33); Roman pottery (34).

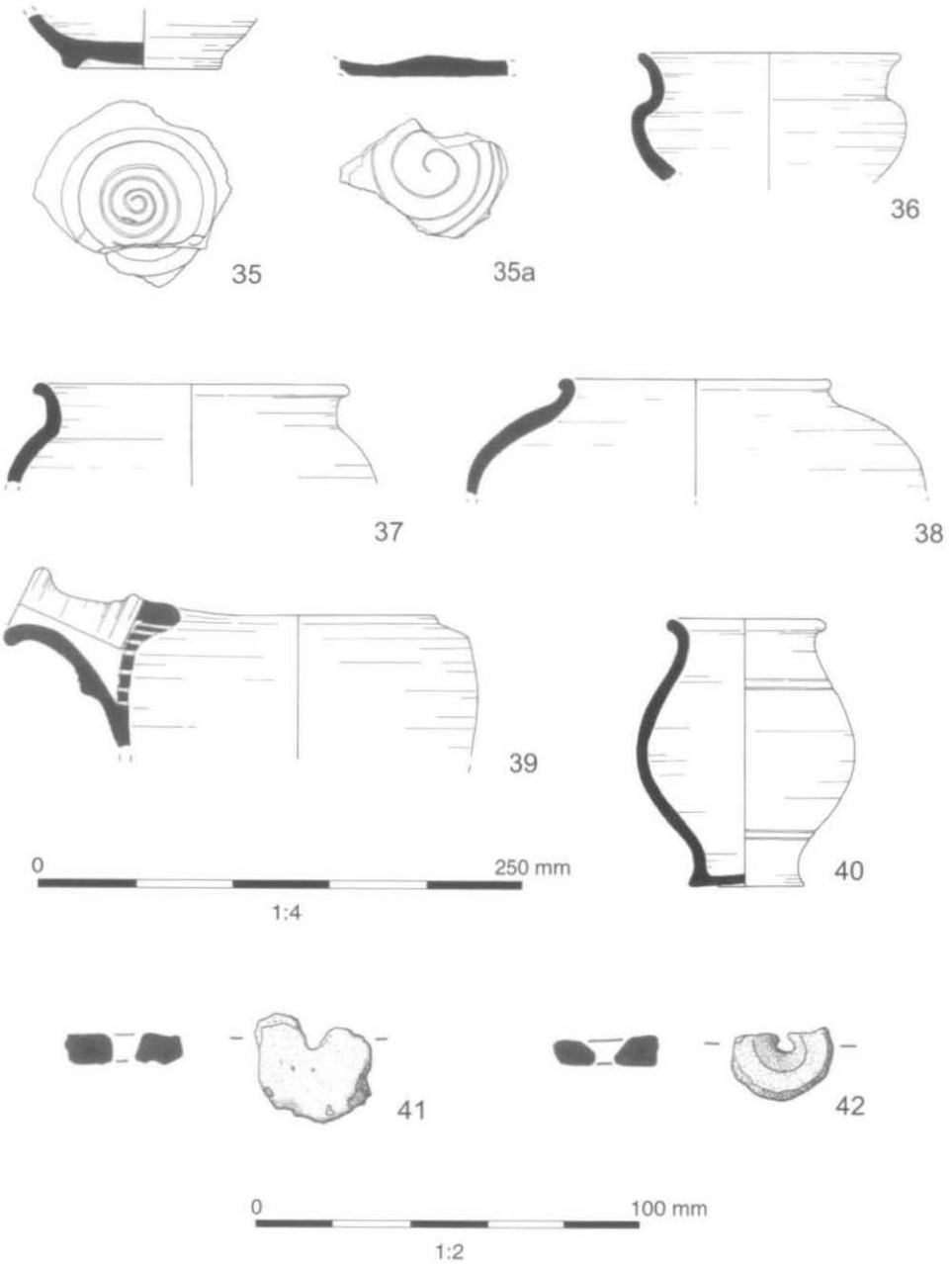


Fig. 28. Roman pottery (35–40) (scale 1:4); Iron Age spindle whorls (41–42) (scale 1:2).

28. Form B3. Very abraded. Fabric SL2. CP2A (Context 1068).
29. Form B5. Fabric H2. CP2B (Context 1470).
30. Form B1. Lugged jar. Fabric H3. CP2B (Context 1842).
31. Form D2. Small cup. Fabric S1. CP2A (Context 1205).
32. Form C3. Rim from a closed bipartite jar. Fabric H1. CP2C (Context 1687).
33. Form B3. Barrel-shaped vessel. Fabric H1. CP2B (Context 1537).
34. Perforated base. Fabric L1. CP3 (Context 1007).
35. Two bases, one foot-ring (35) and one flat (35a). Both have swirling circular patterns on base. Flat base has burnished pattern. Fabric E80. CP3 (Context 1733).
36. Jar form. 1st century AD. Fabric E80. CP3 (Context 1007).
37. Jar form. 1st century AD. Fabric E80. CP3 (Context 1007).
38. Form CE. 1st century AD. Fabric E60. CP3 (Context 1007).
39. Form MG. Mica-dusted strainer. Fabric F30. CP3 (Context 1445).
40. Complete 1st-century AD jar. Wheel-made (Context 1168).

THE FIRED CLAY by KAYT BROWN

The assemblage of fired clay objects and burnt clay comprised 613 fragments (15,572 g.). Diagnostic material included a complete triangular loomweight, fragments of other triangular loomweights, three spindle whorls, a possible clay 'plate' and a small quantity of daub. Two fragments of briquetage, or pottery used in the manufacture of salt, were also recovered. A total of 38 contexts produced fired and/or burnt clay material, of which the majority was recovered from a single context, pit fill 1197 (11,905 g.). The material was mainly dated through association with pottery to the early to middle Iron Age period. Two spindle whorls are made from the bases of late Iron Age/early Roman pottery vessels and occur in early Roman contexts.

Method and fabrics

The material was assigned to a number of broad fabrics, identified macroscopically, and quantified by fragment count and weight for each context. Loomweight fragments displayed oxidised surfaces with a reduced core, and were identified by one or more of the following characteristics: smoothed surfaces, corners or perforations. Although much of the remaining material comprised amorphous lumps, some structural material displayed evidence of wattle or other impressions, and a single clay 'plate' was also identified.

The majority of the assemblage occurred in two principal fabrics, a natural silty clay (N) with few visible inclusions and a sandy fabric (A) (Table 28). A small number of fragments occurred in a third fabric that contained sand and a small amount of shell. A grog-tempered pottery fabric had been utilised for two spindle whorls, and a third spindle whorl and unidentified object occurred in the coarse shell pottery fabric.

TABLE 28. COMPOSITION OF THE FIRED CLAY ASSEMBLAGE BY FORM AND FABRIC

Description	*Fabric type*	*Fabric description*	*Number*
Loomweight	N	Naturally silty fabric with no significant inclusions	64
	AS	Clay with calcareous grit	1
Spindle whorl	SHEL (H1)	Coarse pottery shell fabric H1	1
	GROG (I2)	Comparable to pottery fabric E80	2
Structural clay/daub	A	Clay with sand	287
Clay plate			1
Briquetage	AV	Clay matrix similar to fabric N but with voids from burnt-out organic material	2
Other	Various		255
		Total	**613**

Fired clay fabrics

N	naturally silty fabric with no significant inclusions
A	clay with sand
AS	clay with calcareous grit fragments and a small amount of shell
AV	clay matrix similar to pottery fabric N but with voids from burnt-out organic matter
GROG	comparable to pottery fabric E80
SHEL	coarse pottery shell fabric comparable to pottery fabric H1

Loomweights

There were 65 fragments of triangular loomweights, all of which displayed at least one smoothed face, occasionally with evidence of a perforation hole at an angle to the face. These fragments may represent only a small number of individual loomweights. A large, near-complete triangular loomweight was recovered from pit fill 1197 (Fig. 17). This was very fragmentary, and its approximate dimensions were 190 to 200 mm. (length) x 160 to 170 mm. (width at base) and 60 to 70 mm. (width at apex) x 70 to 80 mm. (thickness). Perforations could be seen across two corners, suggesting that there was probably a third perforation at the remaining corner. A further four corner fragments of loomweights that would appear to be similar in size were also recovered from this context, as were a number of fragments of smaller triangular loomweights. All the loomweights occurred in fabric N, with the exception of a single, burnt corner with two possible perforations, recovered from fill 1162, in fabric AS. A further three triangular loomweights were recovered from pit Contexts 1162, 1232 and 1374.

A similar deposit of loomweights was observed at Wyndyke Furlong[66] where the majority of loomweights were recovered from a single pit fill. Unfortunately, insufficient profile survived for measurements to be taken of the loomweights for purposes of comparison with other assemblages. The only near-complete loomweight from Faringdon, weighing 4000 g., is substantially heavier than any recovered at either Wyndyke Furlong or Gravelly Guy.[67] At the latter site an attempt was made to classify the loomweights as small (300 g.), medium (1375 to 1500 g.) and large (1750 to 2100 g.).

Spindle whorls

Three spindle whorls were identified. Only one is likely to be early to middle Iron Age in date, occurring in a coarse shell fabric similar to pottery fabric H1, with a worn groove on the edge. It was recovered from a Roman context. A similar spindle whorl was recovered from Ashville.[68] One complete spindle whorl and a fragment of another would appear to be reused pottery bases, the former with a burnished spiral on the underside, the latter with part of the foot-ring surviving (Figs. 28. 41 and 42). Both occurred in the same context alongside 2nd- to 3rd-century AD pottery.

Catalogue of illustrated material

41. Remains of spindle whorl. Fabric SHEL (H1). EIA (Context 106).
42. Remains of spindle whorl. Fabric GROG (I2). EIA (Context 1037).

Structural clay

Structural clay occurred in all the fabrics, but most was in fabric A. Many fragments displayed wattle impressions or smoothed surfaces and are likely to represent burnt wall daub or possible hearth/oven linings. Some 287 fragments (4364 g.) were recovered, although none of this material was found *in situ*, deriving entirely from pit fills.

Clay 'plate' and miscellaneous fragments. A single fragment of a possible 'clay plate', comparable to those found at other sites within the Upper Thames Valley, such as Wyndyke Furlong,[69] Ashville[70] and Thrupp House Farm, Radley,[71] was identified. The remainder of the assemblage was too fragmentary and abraded to be identified as anything other than undiagnostic or amorphous fragments, although this material is likely to represent domestic activity.

Briquetage. Two fragments of briquetage were found, both occurring in the classic Droitwich briquetage fabric.[72] Briquetage was used in the production and transport of salt, and its presence in this assemblage

66 A. Barclay, 'The Fired Clay', in J. Muir and M.R. Roberts (eds), *Excavation at Wyndyke Furlong, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, 1994* (Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, xii, 1999), 42–4.

67 A. Barclay and G.A. Wait, 'Fired Clay', in Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

68 M. Parrington, *The Excavation of an Iron Age Settlement, Bronze Age Ring-Ditches and Roman Features at Ashville Trading Estate, Abingdon (Oxfordshire) 1974–76* (C.B.A. Research Report, xxviii, 1978), 80–1.

69 Barclay and Wait, op. cit. (note 67).

70 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 71.

71 R.N. Everett and B.M.G. Eeles, 'Investigations at Thrupp House Farm, Radley, near Abingdon', *Oxoniensia*, lxiv (1999), 117–52.

72 E. Morris, pers. comm.

would therefore indicate that a degree of trade/exchange occurred at the site during the middle Iron Age. Although more commonly found on sites north of the River Thames, such as Thornhill Farm,[73] small quantities of briquetage have been found to the south of the river at Groundwell Farm, Wiltshire.[74]

Discussion

Fired clay assemblages, such as that recovered from Coxwell Road, are well attested at sites of comparable date within the Upper Thames Valley. While the occurrence of loomweights and spindle whorls suggests that textile production was occurring on the site, only a small number of weights was found, possibly indicating production for domestic requirements. Triangular loomweights are a common find on middle Iron Age sites within the Upper Thames Valley, for example at Farmoor,[75] Ashville[76] and Wyndyke Furlong (all in Oxfordshire).[77] A further three loomweights and two spindle whorls were recovered from the adjacent excavation at Faringdon.[78] Evidence of spinning in later periods is provided by the two examples of spindle whorls made from reused late Iron Age pottery bases. The remainder of the assemblage provides indirect evidence for domestic activity at the site and may represent buildings or linings of hearths or ovens.

THE WORKED STONE OBJECTS by RUTH SHAFFREY

Saddle and rotary querns

Quern fragments are the most common items of worked stone from the site, and there are examples of both saddle and rotary querns. Of the 22 potential quern fragments, 7 are from rotary querns, 11 are from saddle querns or rubbers and 4 are only identifiable as possible quern fragments. The saddle querns are made from a selection of materials with no one dominant lithology, and all would have been locally available. A lower Greensand, probably from the nearby Coles Pits,[79] was used for one saddle quern (SF135, Fig. 29.1) while a shelly limestone also used (SF183, Fig. 29.4) has a source in the Corallian Beds. An almost complete sarsen saddle quern was also found (SF123, Fig. 30.5). Boulders of sarsen and quartzite up to 300 mm. across would have been available in the northern drift.[80] These lithologies were used for both saddle querns (SF127, Fig. 29.2 and SF123, Fig. 30.5) and rubbings (SF44, Fig. 30.6).

Local materials such as the Greensand and sarsen continued to be exploited and other local materials such as iron-stained sandstone were also found; the transition from saddle querns to rotary querns saw a broadening in the types of lithologies used. Old Red Sandstone, imported from the Forest of Dean in the west,[81] and Lodsworth, imported from Sussex,[82] appear in the archaeological record here for the first time. Two of the rotary querns found are likely to be of Iron Age origin. One of the Old Red Sandstone querns (SF186, Fig. 32.10) is extremely thick,[83] while the Lodsworth lower quern (SF160, Fig. 31.8) has a partially perforated spindle hole.[84] Despite the fact that they were recovered from the Roman fill of a pit (1002), the distinctly Iron Age characteristics of both suggests that these are residual. The second Lodsworth quern found (SF70, Fig. 31.9) was also residual, being an upper stone which had been reused.

The presence of a handle slot in the upper surface of the second Old Red Sandstone quern (SF98, Fig. 30.7) is also of interest, as querns of Old Red Sandstone with handle slots are unusual.[85] Examples of sites with similar querns suggest that this specimen be placed somewhere in the Roman period but the exact date

[73] Timby, op. cit. (note 17).

[74] E.L. Morris, 'Production and Distribution of Pottery and Salt in Iron Age Britain: A Review', *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society*, lx (1994), 371–94.

[75] Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37), 55–7.

[76] Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 71.

[77] Barclay and Wait, op. cit. (note 67), 42–3.

[78] Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).

[79] W.J. Arkell, *The Geology of Oxford* (1947), 155.

[80] Ibid. 194.

[81] F.B.A. Welch and F.M. Trotter, *The Geology of the Country around Monmouth and Chepstow: Explanation of Sheets 233 and 250* (1961).

[82] D.F.S. Peacock, 'Iron Age and Roman Quern Production at Lodsworth, West Sussex', *The Antiquaries Jnl.* lxvii (1987), 61–85.

[83] R.L. Saunders, 'The Use of Old Red Sandstone in Roman Britain. A Petrographical and Archaeological Study' (Reading Univ. unpubl. Ph.D. thesis, 1998).

[84] Peacock, op. cit. (note 82), 71.

[85] Saunders, op. cit. (note 83).

is, as yet, uncertain. As querns are often residual it is difficult to be certain when this typological feature was introduced, but there are no Iron Age examples.[86] The closest specimens typologically would be those from Ashton Keynes,[87] Hengistbury Head,[88] and one from Oldbury Flats, which was recovered from the intertidal zone with a selection of other Roman artefacts.[89] Similar, though not identical, examples have also been seen at Chew Valley[90] and Alcester.[91]

More Lodsworth querns might be expected on this site but the appearance of Old Red Sandstone in a Roman context at the site is fairly typical of Oxfordshire, as it is one of the most common quern materials used during the Roman period in this locality. As iron-mining sites in the Forest of Dean were mainly located on the Old Red Sandstone[92] and as iron ore and coal from the Forest of Dean were probably exported as far as Oxfordshire,[93, 94] Old Red Sandstone may well have been exported alongside other resources. Examples of nearby sites with Old Red Sandstone include Wantage[95] and Old Shifford Farm, Standlake.[96] The presence of a probable Iron Age quern of Lodsworth also corresponds to other sites in the region such as Abingdon[97] and Gravelly Guy,[98] and although Old Red Sandstone querns have been seen in Iron Age contexts before (such as at Gravelly Guy[99] and Old Shifford Farm[100]), it is more unusual. However, it is known to have been distributed widely during the late Iron Age[101] and as Oxfordshire is known to have had wide-ranging contacts at this time,[102] it is not surprising that Old Red Sandstone occurs here.

Other objects of worked stone

Seven whetstones, all made from locally available stone, were recovered. Interestingly, only one from a Roman context (SF2, Fig. 32.11) could be considered to be of the typical elongate whetstone shape, the remainder reusing other objects or assorted pieces of stone such as saddle quern SF158 (Fig. 29.3). The pieces of stone utilised as whetstones are of varying shapes and sizes and were recovered from all periods of the site from the early Iron Age through to the 2nd century AD.

A large stone spindle whorl with a diameter of 47 mm. (SF133, Fig. 33.13) was recovered from the early Iron Age fill of a gully (Context 1265). This was not particularly well used, though it showed some signs of wear around the edges of the hole. Iron Age spindle whorls made from stone, especially sandstone (as opposed to chalk or shale) are unusual, and rarer than those made from pottery. Stone spindle whorls are commonly more oblong in their profile than this example and, although stone whorls are bigger than their ceramic counterparts, this example is still larger than average. The most prolific occurrences of stone spindle whorls are at Meare and Glastonbury Lake Villages. Both of these produced in the region of a hundred

86 Ibid.
87 Ibid.
88 K. Laws, 'Quernstones', in B. Cunliffe (ed.), *Hengistbury Head Dorset* (1987), 167–71.
89 J.R.L. Allen and M.G. Fulford, 'Romano-British and Later Geoarchaeology at Oldbury Flats: Reclamation and Settlement on the Changeable Coast of the Severn Estuary', *Archaeol. Jnl.* cxlix (1992), 118–19.
90 P.A. Rahtz and E. Greenfield, *Excavations at Chew Valley Lake, Somerset* (Department of the Environment Archaeol. Report, viii, 1977), 202–3.
91 J. Evans, 'Worked Stone and Quernstones', in S. Cracknell and C. Mahany (eds), *Roman Alcester: Southern Extramural Area. 1964–66 Excavations. Part 2 Finds and Discussion* (C.B.A. Research Report, xcvii, 1994), 232–44.
92 J.R.L. Allen and M.G. Fulford, 'Romano-British Settlement and Industry on the Wetlands of the Severn Estuary', *The Antiquaries Jnl.* lxvii (1987), 237–89.
93 Henig and Booth, op. cit. (note 54), 160.
94 H.V. Smith, 'Provenance of Coals from Roman Sites in England and Wales', *Britannia*, xxviii (1997), 297–324.
95 F. Roe, 'Stone Objects', in N. Holbrook and A. Thomas, 'The Roman and Early Anglo-Saxon Settlement at Wantage, Oxfordshire. Excavations at Mill Street, 1993–4', *Oxoniensia*, lxi (1997), 152–4.
96 F. Roe, 'Stone Objects', in G. Hey, 'Iron Age and Roman Settlement at Old Shifford Farm, Standlake', *Oxoniensia*, lx (1996), 145.
97 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 88.
98 F. Roe, 'Worked Stone', in Lambrick et al., op. cit. (note 16).
99 Ibid.
100 G. Hey, 'Iron Age and Roman Settlement at Old Shifford Farm, Standlake', *Oxoniensia*, lx (1996), 93–175.
101 Saunders, op. cit. (note 83).
102 T. Allen, 'The Iron Age Background', in Henig and Booth, op. cit. (note 54), 1–33.

spindle whorls and include a limited number of examples comparable to this in shape and size. Glastonbury Lake Village produced one example of the same style, which was 49 mm. in diameter x 22.5 mm. in thickness.[103] Meare Lake Village produced slightly more examples of the same style, measuring between 48.5 mm. in diameter x 25.5 mm. in thickness and 52 mm. in diameter x 26.5 mm. in thickness.[104]

A large perforated stone disc (SF32, Fig. 33.14) was also recovered. This seems too large to be a spindle whorl.[105] It is possible that it might be a gaming counter, perforated for the purpose of stringing several together.[106] The perforated discs of greater than 100 mm. diameter found at Danebury[107] were also felt to be too large to have been spindle whorls. There is no evidence of wear around the edges or centre of this object, which would be consistent with interpretation of it as a pebble hammer such as that found at Bicester.[108] The most likely interpretation is that it is a drill weight or small flywheel, which was postulated for similar objects found at Danebury.[109] This pierced round can also be singled out, however, for its additional characteristics. One of the faces is significantly smoother than the other, possibly caused by sliding the object along the floor or table as if it was some sort of gaming or reckoning counter.[110] Alternatively, if the object was rotated in some way and was positioned close to something else one of the surfaces could have been worn smooth and not the other. Most interestingly, one edge of the object has been carefully flattened so that although it still appears to be round, it can also be stood on one side, possibly for storage or ornamental purposes. This may have been an adaptation of the artefact at a later date or one of the original characteristics.

Other objects of interest include a hammer stone made from a quartzite pebble (SF47, Fig. 33.15), a possible square counter with all edges and faces smoothed (SF92) and a stone slab with one worn face (SF136). Another stone (SF152) may have been a board for grinding. A stone recovered from a middle Iron Age pit fill (SF184, Fig. 32.12) contains an approximately circular depression on one side, while on the opposite side it has a long cylindrical depression. This multi-purpose stone was possibly used as a mortar on one side, as a socket stone on the other, and additionally as a whetstone.

Summary

This collection of worked stone includes a wide range of artefact and material types. Almost all the objects are made from locally available stone, with the whetstones simply being made from waste stone on or near the site. In contrast to this are the late Iron Age and Roman rotary querns which, given their size, are significant as the only imported stone objects.

Catalogue of illustrated worked stone

1. Lower Greensand saddle quern fragment (Context 1207; SF135).
2. Half a sarsen saddle quern (Context 1231; SF127).
3. Incomplete Greensand saddle quern additionally used as whetstone (Context 1470; SF158).
4. Shelly limestone saddle quern fragment (Context 1740; SF183).
5. Sarsen saddle quern, almost complete (Context 1218; SF123).
6. Quartzite rubbing stone fragment (Context 1011; SF44).
7. Fragment of upper stone of Old Red Sandstone rotary quern (Context 1002; SF98).
8. Almost complete lower stone of Lodsworth rotary quern (Context 1512; SF160).
9. Upper stone of Lodsworth rotary quern (Context 1002; SF70).
10. Half upper stone of Old Red Sandstone rotary quern (Context 1793; SF186).
11. Quartzitic sandstone whetstone fragment (Context 1002; SF2).
12. Large sandstone whetstone (Context 1754; SF184).

[103] A. Bulleid and H. St. George Gray, *The Glastonbury Lake Village. A Full Description of the Excavations and the Relics Discovered, 1892–1907* (1917), 589.

[104] A. Bulleid and H. St. George Gray, *The Meare Lake Village. A Full Description of the Excavations and the Relics from the Eastern Half of the West Village* (1948), 95–7.

[105] N. Crummy, *The Roman Small Finds from Excavations in Colchester 1971–9* (Colchester Archaeol. Report, ii, 1983), 67.

[106] Ibid. 94.

[107] L. Brown, 'Objects of Stone', in B. Cunliffe, *Danebury: An Iron Age Hillfort in Hampshire. Volume 2. The Excavations, 1969–1978: The Finds* (C.B.A. Research Report, lii, 1984), 422–3.

[108] F. Roe, 'Worked Stone', in A.M. Cromarty, S. Foreman and P. Murray, 'The Excavation of a Late Iron Age Enclosed Settlement at Bicester Field Farm, Bicester, Oxon', *Oxoniensia*, lxiv (2000), 153–225.

[109] Brown, op. cit. (note 107).

[110] Crummy, op. cit. (note 105), 93.

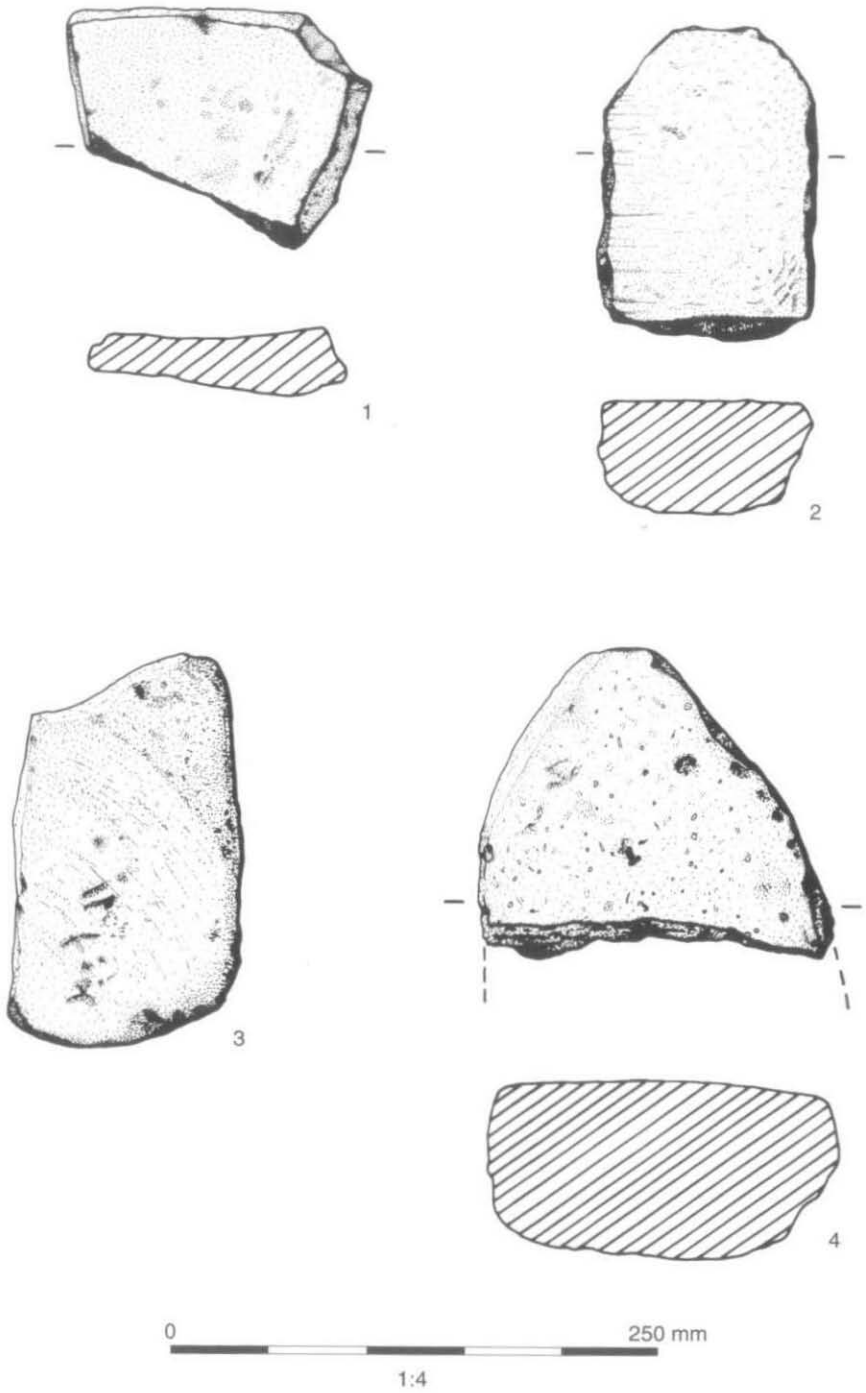


Fig. 29. Saddle quern fragments (1–2); whetstone from reused saddle stone (3); saddle quern fragment (4).

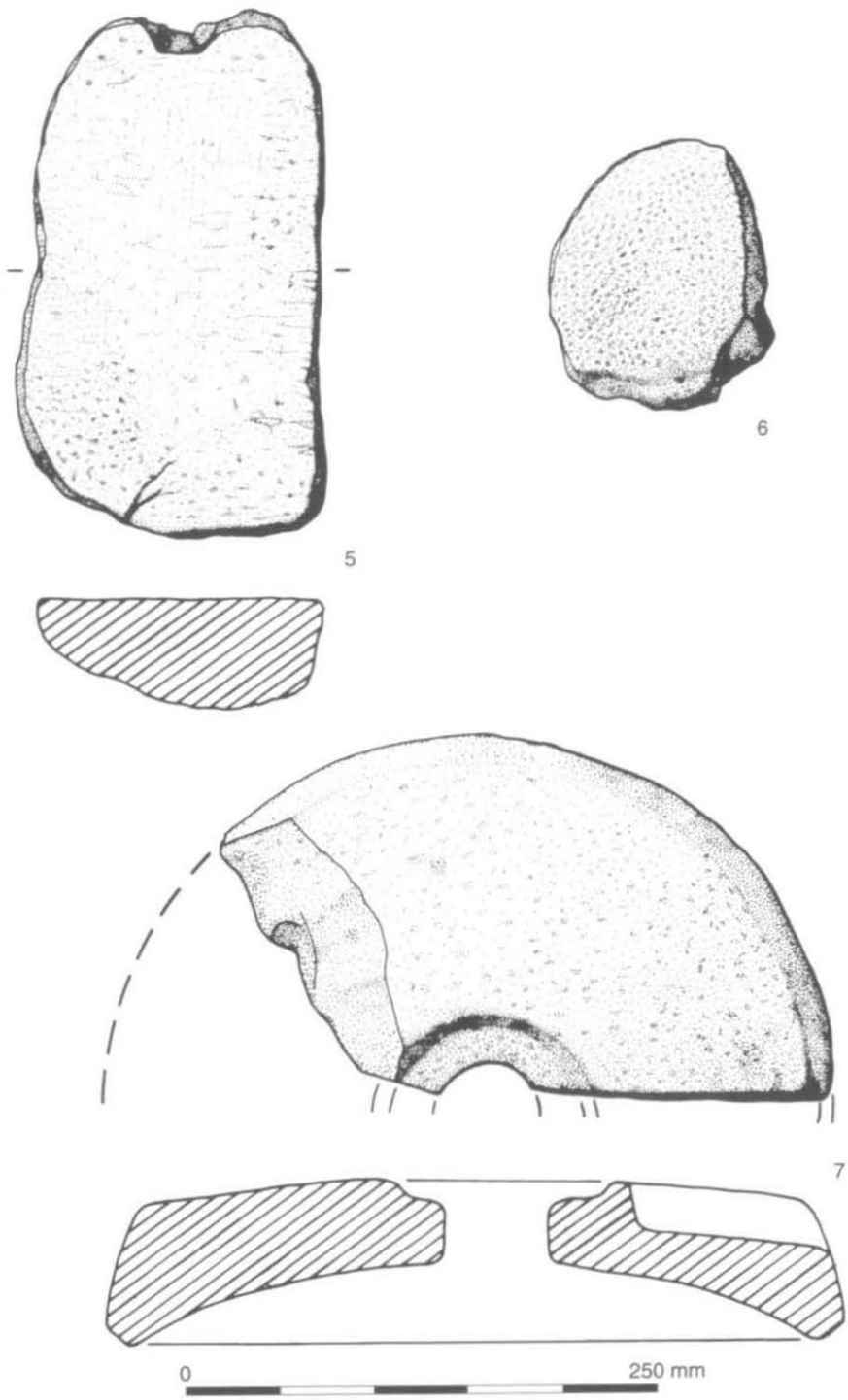


Fig. 30. Saddle quern stone (5); rubbing stone (6); rotary quern (7).

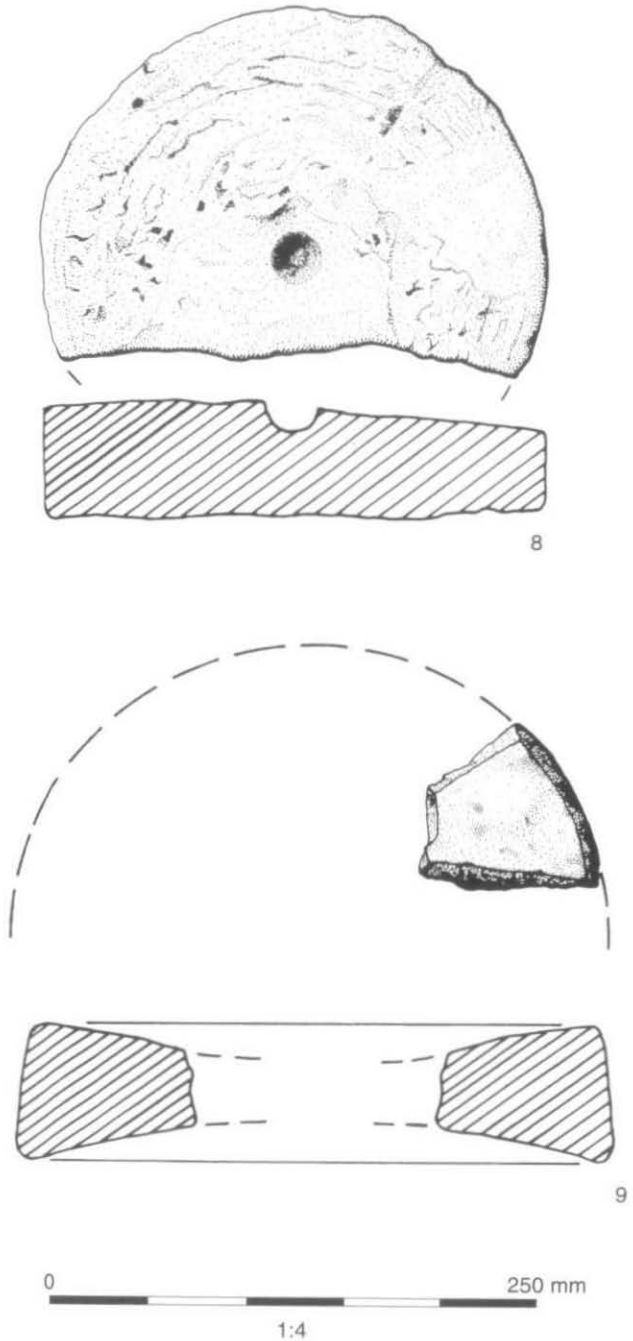


Fig. 31. Lower rotary quern stone (8); reused upper rotary quern stone (9).

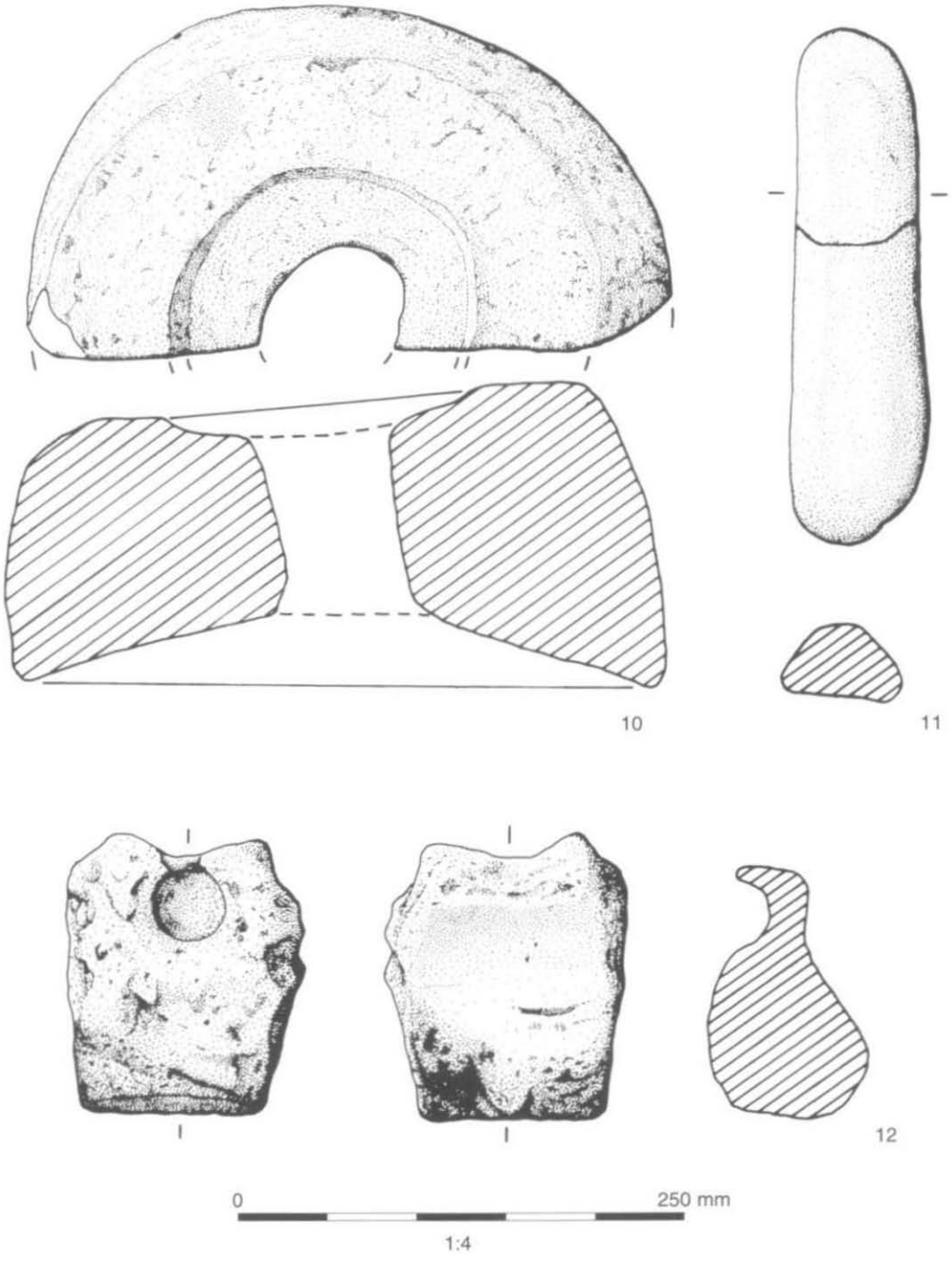


Fig. 32. Upper rotary quern stone (10); whetstones (11–12).

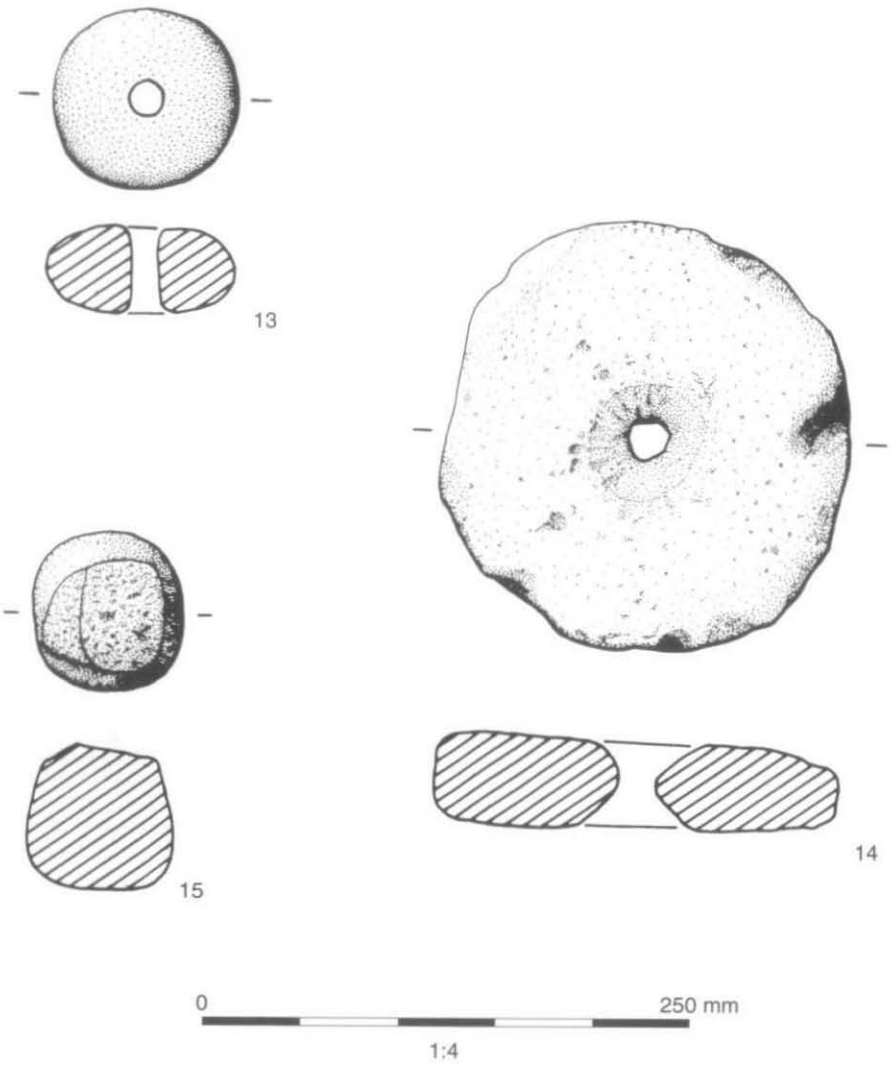


Fig. 33. Spindle whorl (13); perforated stone disc (14); hammer stone (15).

13. Sandstone spindle whorl (Context 1265; SF133).
14. Circular Greensand perforated disc (Context 1009; SF32).
15. Quartzite hammer stone (Context 1012; SF47).

THE WORKED FLINT by HUGO LAMDIN-WHYMARK

A total of 70 pieces of struck flint were found, from 49 contexts. The assemblage is entirely residual: no significant quantities of flint were recovered from any individual context. Furthermore, the condition of the flintwork suggests it was subject to considerable post-depositional movement prior to its incorporation into the Iron Age and Roman features from which it was recovered. Technological traits of the flint assemblage indicate some of the flintwork was the product of a blade-based industry, probably of earlier Mesolithic date. The remaining flintwork appears primarily to belong to a crude flake-based industry, probably of later Bronze Age date, but it is possible a small number of these flints may date from the Neolithic. A full report on the flint has been stored with the site archive.

THE METAL OBJECTS by CHRISTINE HOWARD-DAVIS

Eight fragments of copper alloy and 41 fragments of iron were recovered, from contexts spanning the life of the site. The state of preservation of individual objects varied considerably from the best, a copper alloy brooch (SF41) in excellent condition, to an iron brooch (SF97) which was very poor. Even considered together, the assemblage is small for any significant conclusions to be drawn from the detailed composition of function-related groups, and so the material is considered under four broad headings: personalia, domestic objects, structural objects, and other. Detailed descriptions of the objects are held in the site archive.

Personalia

Objects that might be regarded as personal possessions were not common, and spanned a substantial time range, from the late Iron Age to the Roman period. They comprised jewellery (brooches and a bangle), tweezers, and a disc, possibly used in a decorative fashion on clothing. Hobnails are included within the group.

Brooches. Two brooches were identified with confidence: both are Iron Age types (SF41, Fig. 34.1 and SF97, Fig. 34.2). SF41 is a well-preserved example of a copper alloy La Tène I brooch probably of Hull and Hawkes type 1Bb,[111] dated to the 4th century BC, but similar examples illustrated by Hattatt[112] are placed more generally in the 4th to 3rd centuries BC. A generally similar example which was excavated at Abingdon[113] is probably 4th century in date. The second brooch (SF97) is considerably later in date, a 'simple wire British brooch'.[114] Olivier argues against the use of the term Nauheim-derivative, or the rather more subjective 'poor man's brooch' favoured by Wheeler (and latterly Stead). In general such brooches are dated 1st century BC to late 1st century AD, with iron examples often seen as towards the earlier part of that range. They are not uncommon on sites with strong pre-Conquest associations.

One brooch fragment (SF164) bears a strong resemblance to the bow of a second, broadly similar brooch (see for instance Hattatt 1987[115]), but the spring, pin and catchplate are all missing and the general condition is poor, making the identification less certain. The fact that one end appears to terminate in a point raises the possibility that this fragment in fact derives from a relatively small example of ring-headed pin, an Iron Age type current from the 5th century BC. A number of examples have been recovered from Woodeaton, in Oxfordshire,[116, 117] and at 37 mm. in surviving length, this fragment would not seem out of place amongst that group. A second fragment (SF147) is a possible iron pin fragment.

111 M.R. Hull, and C.F.C. Hawkes, *Corpus of Ancient Brooches in Britain* (B.A.R. clxviii, 1987), Fig. 30.3082.
112 R. Hattatt, *A Visual Catalogue of Richard Hattatt's Ancient Brooches* (2000), Fig. 14.
113 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), Fig. 59.11.
114 A.C.H. Olivier, 'Brooches of Silver, Copper Alloy, and Iron from Dragonby', in J. May, *Dragonby. Report on Excavations at an Iron Age and Romano-British Settlement in North Lincolnshire*, vol 1 (1996), 233.
115 R. Hattatt, *Brooches in Antiquity* (1987), 723.
116 G.C. Dunning, 'The Swan's Neck and Ring-Headed Pins of the Early Iron Age in Britain', *Archaeol. Jnl.* lxxxi (1934), 269–95.
117 J.R. Kirk, 'Bronzes from Woodeaton, Oxon', *Oxoniensia*, xiv (1949), 1–45.

Other personal items. This is a small and disparate group, and no conclusions can be drawn from its composition. One object (SF9) has been identified as the terminal of a decorated bangle. Iron Age and Roman bangles with beaded decoration such as this are well known, and although poorly preserved, the low and poorly defined beading makes it likely that this example is of Roman date, resembling one illustrated by Crummy.[118] Similarly, the tweezers (SF110, Fig. 34.3) are well known from both late Iron Age and Roman contexts.[119] There is little variation in such an essentially simple and utilitarian object. The slight asymmetry of this example hints that it might originally have been one element of a chatelaine set, and again both late Iron Age and Roman examples are known. Copper alloy disc SF149 has been identified as, possibly, a decorative appliqué for clothing, perhaps of leather (Fig. 34.4). Finally, hobnails were recovered from two contexts. These are regarded as unequivocally Roman in date, and as yet there is no evidence for nailed shoes in pre-Roman contexts. Nailed shoes were everyday wear, worn by both men and women, and little can be said of their presence, except to note that they were a frequent inclusion in burials.

Domestic objects

Two needles were recognised, both from unstratified contexts. Copper alloy needle SF6 was made from a rolled sheet with a flattened oval section; this method of construction is one frequently noted amongst Roman examples. Both copper alloy and iron needles are known from Iron Age and Roman sites. Crummy notes that needles similar to this[120] seem confined to 3rd and 4th century deposits in Colchester, although the type does reoccur in the post-medieval period. An iron needle (SF11) is again from an unstratified context, and can thus be of any date, although iron needles are moderately well known from Roman sites and, in Britain, rarely from Iron Age ones.[121]

Two blades were recognised. One (SF12) is a complete iron knife or razor, with the blade and handle forged in one piece (Fig. 34.5). It is likely to be early Roman in date,[122] and seems to be an uncommon form. A second fragment (SF33) is part of a (probably) curving iron blade. Implements with curving blades (for example pruning knives) were common in later Iron Age and Roman contexts.

Structural objects

A single small T-shaped clamp (SF175) was recovered unstratified. Objects of this kind change little through time and are thus effectively impossible to assign to a date. The majority of objects considered under this heading are iron nails. Although many are fragmentary, the nails appear to fall into two groups. All of them correspond to Manning's nail type 1b, although many of the examples from this site appear to have asymmetrically set oval heads rather than the rounded or sub-rectangular heads described by Manning. The largest example, at *c.* 107 mm. in length, is still relatively short for a Roman or even an Iron Age nail. Many of the nails are clenched, suggesting that they were deposited whilst still in wood, rather than extracted for reuse. Two post-medieval horseshoe nails were recognised (SF69 and SF16), one of which was pyramid headed and the other of which had a flaring head.

A number of miscellaneous objects, which do not fit easily into the above categories, were also recovered. Some, like the horseshoe nails, are obviously considerably later than the main life of the site. Further fragments cannot be identified and might originally derive from a range of objects, many of them probably originally nails, although the remaining fragments are undiagnostic.

Other objects

A large swivel loop (SF154) is of a type often found at the end of chains. Although they might have had a number of uses, it is normally assumed that they were for the suspension of hanging kettles or cauldrons.[123] A very similar example is known from Bicester.[124] A second object (SF134) is either a simply made suspension loop (of a type seen in large quantities in military assemblages, where they are used, amongst other things, to hang decorative pendants), or a rove used as a crude backplate to aid in holding a rivet in place.

[118] Crummy, op. cit. (note 105), fig. 46.1717.

[119] D.S. Neal, A. Wardle and J. Hunn, *Excavation of the Iron Age, Roman and Medieval Settlement at Gorhambury, St Albans* (English Heritage Archaeol. Report, xiv, 1990), 124 and Fig. 124.

[120] Crummy, op. cit. (note 105), 67, type 3.

[121] W.H. Manning, *Catalogue of the Romano-British Iron Tools, Fittings and Weapons in the British Museum, London* (1986), 35.

[122] Ibid. 111.

[123] Manning, op. cit. (note 121), 139.

[124] L. Bevan, 'The Coins, Small Finds, and Metalwork, 89–93', in C. Mould, 'An Archaeological Excavation at Oxford Road, Bicester, Oxfordshire', *Oxoniensia*, lxi (1996), 65–106, Fig. 10.3.

An iron ring 31–3 mm. in diameter (SF121) was recovered; iron rings such as this are common finds on Roman sites and will have served a wide range of purposes.

Metalworking debris. A small, amorphous lump of copper alloy was recovered (SF177). Its hardness and irregular, angular surface suggests that it might be slag associated with the production of copper or copper alloy. Other fragments were unidentifiable and are described in the archive.

Crucibles. Two crucible sherds (SF151 and 172) were found in middle Iron Age contexts. SF151 was recovered from the terminal of Enclosure Ditch 1848, and SF172 was found in a pit inside this enclosure. The fabric of the crucibles was heavily vitrified, and there was a vitreous residue adhering to the sherds. The two artefacts were sent for analysis, which demonstrated that both crucibles were used for melting bronze. The impurities included 0.10% iron, 0.17% cobalt, 0.05% nickel, 0.71% arsenic, 0.04% antimony and 0.10% lead. The impurity pattern was typical of middle Iron Age bronze working in south-west and central England.[125]

The lead. Only four fragments of lead were recovered. One object (SF155) comprised two fragments of cast D-sectioned strip, one very small. It was recovered from the fill of a 2nd-century flue. It was clearly intended to reinforce a second object, and has a short projecting shank to the rear, presumably where it was fixed. It seems likely that it was not intended as part of the flue structure, since lead melts at a relatively low temperature and would thus not have proved a reliable structural element in such a context.

Other fragments (SF126 and SF176; unstratified) were solidified drips or spills of molten metal. The first (SF126) is a narrow strip, which appears to have run into a shallow groove, possibly in stone. Sharply defined hollows on the surface and nicked and twisted edges might be chisel or hammer marks. The second (SF176) is amorphous, having run on to and in part penetrated an open-textured deposit such as loose soil, preserving one or two impressions of grass-like organic materials. These are common finds, often the result of spillage during casting, the melting of structural leadwork in a building fire, or the accidental melting of lead during the disposal of rubbish.

Catalogue of illustrated metalwork

1. Complete La Tène I copper alloy brooch (Context 1009; SF41).
2. Simple wire British brooch, iron (Context 1048; SF97).
3. Copper alloy tweezers (Context 1121; SF110).
4. Slightly convex perforated copper alloy disc (Context 1445; SF149).
5. Complete one-piece iron knife (Context 1002; SF12).

THE COINS by Paul Booth

Five Roman coins were recovered, all from cleaning or unstratified contexts (Table 29). The 1st-century coin (SF125) is very worn, as is characteristic of such pieces in essentially late Roman groups. Two coins (SF5 and SF103) are in very good condition. The coins are individually unremarkable and are fairly typical of site finds of the later Roman period.

TABLE 29. ROMAN COINS

Context number	*Small find number*	*Type*	*Inscription*
1004	SF5	Antoninianus Allectus	PAX AVG. AD 293–296.
1002	SF102	AE4 illegible. 4th century	
1002	SF103	AE2 Constantine I	SOLI INVICTO COMITI. AD 317–318. RIC VII (Trier) 159.
1002	SF120	AE4 VRBS ROMA	AD 330–335.
1002	SF125	?As Vespasian or Titus	AD 69–79 or 79–81.

[125] P. Northover, 'Analysis of Crucible Fragments from Coxwell Road, Faringdon' (Oxf. Archaeology unpubl. report, 2001)

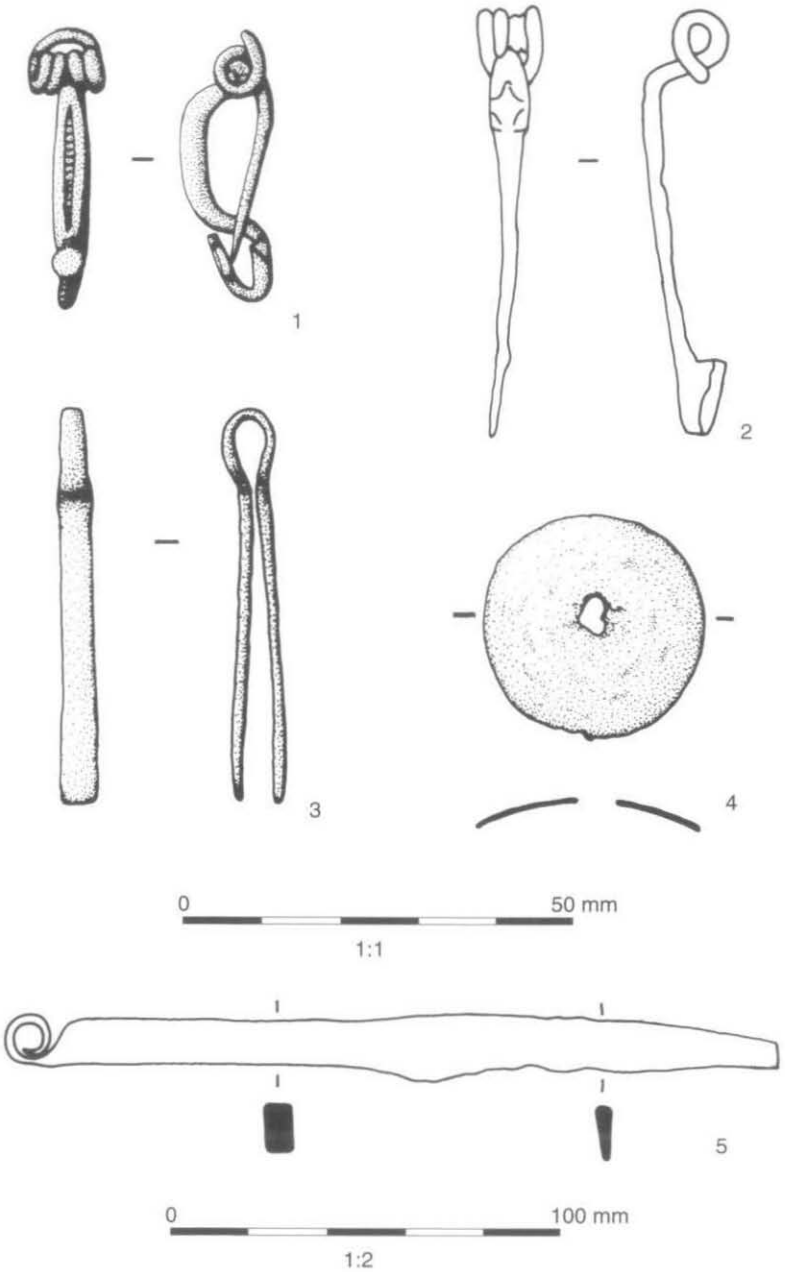


Fig. 34. Copper alloy La Tène I brooch (1); iron wire British brooch (2); copper alloy tweezers (3); copper alloy perforated disc (4), iron one-piece knife (5). (1–4 shown at scale 1:1; 5 shown at scale 1:2.)

METALWORKING DEBRIS by LYNNE KEYS

A total of 10.5 kg. of material was examined and the types of debris in each context were categorised on the basis of morphology and colour. The smithing hearth bottoms were individually weighed and measured to obtain their lengths, breadths and depths. The soil samples that were taken to recover hammerscale were laid out and a magnet was moved about amongst the samples to determine the amount of hammerscale present in each.

The majority of the iron slag was undiagnostic (that is, could not be securely identified as having been generated by either smelting or smithing), consisting mostly of small fragments. The rest of the assemblage consisted of three smithing hearth bottoms, vitrified hearth lining, cinder, and a small amount of what may be ironstone. Two fragments of crucible were examined (SF151 and 172), both of which had prills of copper alloy adhering to their insides.

The amount and types of material present suggest the iron slag was probably produced by small-scale rural iron smithing. The largest number of contexts with slag were dated to the Iron Age, while two of the three smithing hearth bottoms came from Roman contexts (the third had no dating evidence). The smithing hearth bottoms were all smaller than the Roman average. There is the possibility that some of the slag may be redeposited Iron Age material.

Unfortunately the slag and the copper-working crucibles were all recovered from the fills of pits, gullies and flues, while the amount of hammerscale in the samples was not large. This means that the sites of any smithing activity that might have taken place could not be accurately located.

THE WORKED BONE by KATE ATHERTON

A group of nine worked-bone objects was found during the excavation. The objects have been identified as one comb, two gouges, three pins or needles, one awl, one scraping tool and a worked tibia that may be a tool handle.

The comb (SF38, Context 1002) is a near-complete example, with the remnants of eleven teeth (Fig. 35.1). The upper side, which would probably have been decorated, is missing. The shape of the comb, with teeth at one end and with a long smoothed handle, is typical of Iron Age combs.[126] This comb is without the characteristic groove along the back of the teeth that many exhibit but it does have the usual arrangement of short teeth at the outside and longer central teeth. This may be through design rather than wear. The function of such combs is debatable, particularly as many are highly decorative objects, but it is most likely that this was a weaving comb used for beating in the weft on the loom.[127]

Gouges and awls are frequent finds from Iron Age sites. There were two highly polished gouges, one of which (Context 1004) is nearly complete and the other is a broken tip (SF21, Layer 1008). Both objects are likely to be of Danebury Class 2 type, although only the near complete tool has the flattened tip characteristic of this type.[128] This longer example has two circular perforations at the end of the handle, presumably for attachment, and at 174 mm. long it is towards the longer end of the type. At Danebury the gouges ranged in length from 60 mm. to 176 mm., and most were around 100 mm. long.[129] Gouges probably would have had several purposes, but the flattened ends may indicate they were regularly used as hide pressers. The smaller gouge fragment has numerous tiny horizontal scratches towards the tip. The awl was recovered from a middle Iron Age ditch (fill 1258). The shaft of the tool is rectangular and the end has been worked into a highly polished point (Fig. 35.2).

One near-complete needle (SF48) was found in a layer (1013). The needle has a slightly rough appearance and would have been worked from a bone splinter. One side is flat and the other is rounded and the point is upturned. Nine of the needles from Danebury had upturned ends, and this may have been deliberate although in some cases it may have resulted from continual friction on the underside.[130] The needle is broken at the eye and therefore its full shape cannot be determined. There are fragments from the points of two other tools that were probably needles or pins, although it is possible that they are awl points. One (SF35 from Layer 1009) has a rectangular section and a sharp delicate point, and the other (SF163 from Layer 1443, dated to the 2nd century AD) has a sub-rectangular section but a triangular point (Fig. 35.4). Both objects are polished and smooth through use.

126 J.M. Coles and M. Avery, 'The Catalogue of Relics from Meare Village East', in J.M. Coles, *Meare Village East: The Excavations of A. Bullied and H. St George Gray* (Somerset Levels Papers, xiii, 1987), 49–169.

127 Ibid. 105–6.

128 L. Sellwood, 'Objects of Bone and Antler', in B. Cunliffe, *Danebury: An Iron Age Hillfort in Hampshire. Volume 2. The Excavations, 1969–1978: The Finds* (C.B.A. Research Report, lii, 1984), 385.

129 Ibid. 385–7.

130 Sellwood, op. cit. (note 128), 382.

A broken bone tool was found in a middle Iron Age pit (Fill 1232) (Fig. 35.3). One end, with a rectangular section, was broken as it was tapering, presumably to form the handle. The other end flared out to form a wedge-shaped blade. This is smooth but with a couple of chips taken out of the edge. The tool would possibly have been used as a scraper. The end of a right cattle tibia (finds reference Layer 1007) had been flattened across the top and the other end was smoothed and polished around the shaft, and this object too may have been used as a handle. Therefore, in summary, at least nine of the worked-bone objects are Iron Age tools that may have been associated with domestic industry.

Catalogue of illustrated worked bone

1. Bone comb (Context 1002; SF38).
2. Bone awl (Context 1258).
3. Bone tool (Context 1232).
4. Bone tool (needle, pin or awl) (Context 1443; SF163).

THE HUMAN SKELETAL REMAINS by ANNSOFIE WITKIN

Human bones were recovered from six contexts and a cleaning layer. There were two burials (1796 and 1804) and the remainder were disarticulated fragments from Pits 1022, 1053, 1216 and 1390 and cleaning Layer 1015. Skeleton 1796 is believed to date to the Roman period. The burial was that of a child aged about 6 or 7, which had been placed tightly crouched in an oval grave cut. The articulated upper body and head from a premature newborn (1804) and the disarticulated isolated bones from pits date to the early and middle Iron Age.

Methodology

Preservation was recorded by the observation of the cortical integrity of the bones with condition rated on a sliding scale from excellent to poor. The completeness of each skeleton was scored using four categories, also from excellent to poor. Assessment of age was based on long bone length[131] and dental development.[132] When observed, pathological conditions were fully described and recorded following the standards listed in osteological textbooks. Dental inventory was recorded following the Zsigmondy system[133] and dental notations were recorded using accepted recording standards and terminology.[134] The recording of dental calculus followed Brothwell.[135]

The articulated human remains

The articulated human remains comprised two immature individuals. Skeleton 1804 was deposited in middle Iron Age pit 1802. Only the upper body and the skull were recovered. Skeleton number 1796 was a tightly crouched individual that may have originally been bound. The individual had been placed in an oval grave cut (1795). The skeleton is likely to date to the Roman period.

Skeleton 1796. Preservation was good and the individual was near complete. However, all major skeletal elements were fragmented apart from the 16 hand phalanges and 6 foot phalanges. All carpals and tarsals were missing as well as the epiphyses, both scapulae and most of the vertebral elements. This individual was 6 to 7 years old. Slight deposits of calculus were present on the lingual aspects of the mandibular molars and the lingual and buccal sides of the mandibular incisors.[136]

Skeleton 1804. The condition of skeleton 1804 was excellent but the completeness was poor. The skeletal elements present consisted of the cranium, radii, left ulna and distal half of right ulna, clavicles, scapulae, nine pairs of neural arches (cervical and thoracic), eight right ribs, three left ribs and all but one metacarpal as well

131 C.F.A. Moorees, E.A. Fanning and E.E. Hunt, 'Age Variation of Formation Stages for the Permanent Teeth', *Jnl. of Dental Research*, xlii (1963), 1490–1502.
132 D.H. Ubelaker, *Human Skeletal Remains* (1989).
133 J.E. Buikstra and D.H. Ubelaker, *Standards for Data Collection from Human Skeletal Remains* (1994).
134 J.L. Scheuer, J.H. Musgrave and S.P. Evans, 'The Estimation of Late Fetal and Perinatal Age from Limb Bone Length by Linear and Logarithmic Regression', *Annals of Human Biology*, vii (1980), 257–65.
135 D.R. Brothwell, *Digging Up Bones* (1981), 155.
136 C. Roberts and K. Manchester, *The Archaeology of Disease* (1995), 55.

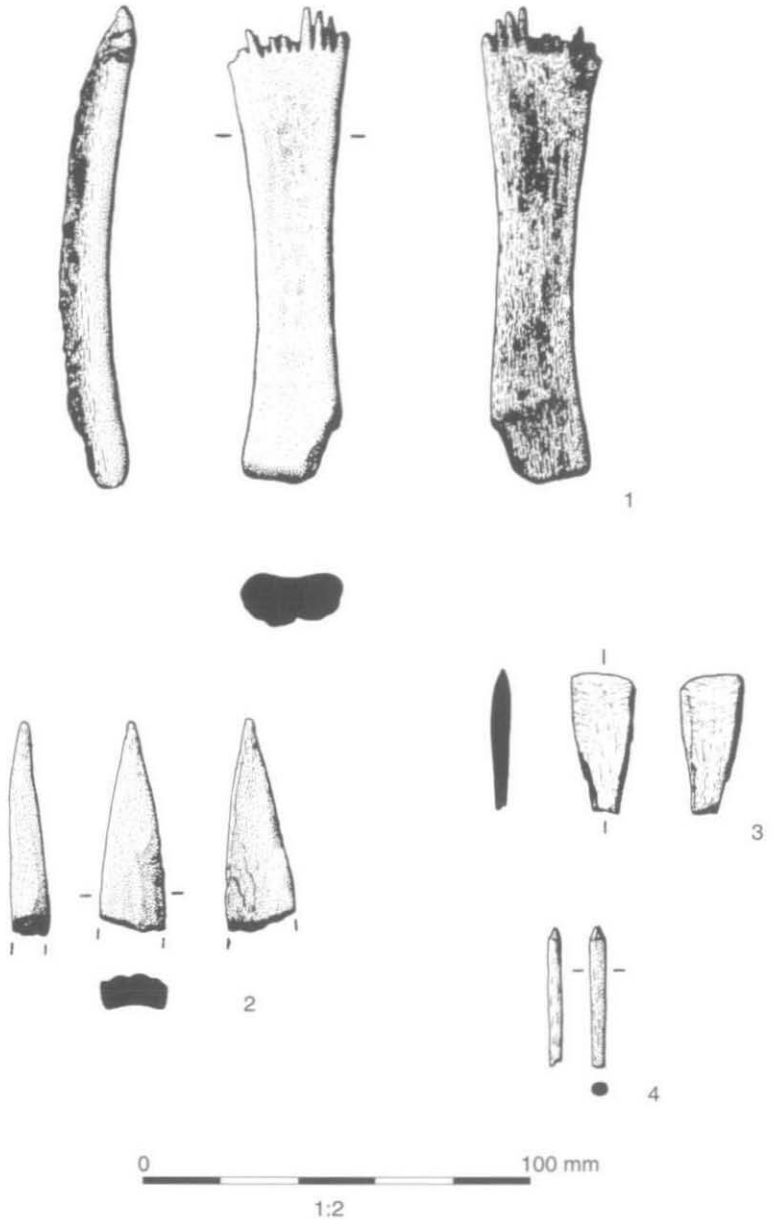


Fig. 35. Worked bone objects: weaving comb (1); awl (2); tool (3); needle or pin (4).

as six proximal phalanges. The ribs and the cranium were also severely fragmented and post-mortem breaks were present on the right humerus and clavicle. The age was assessed to be a premature newborn, 36 weeks in utero. No pathological lesions were present on the teeth or the bones. It is very likely that death was caused by premature birth.

The disarticulated human remains

Disarticulated human remains were recovered from the fills of two early Iron Age pits (1022 and 1053) and middle Iron Age pits (1216 and 1390). The preservation of the bones was fairly good but only one of the elements was complete (radius from Pit 1053). The remains comprised shafts from long bones and cranial fragments. None of the bones could be sexed. The results are summarised in Table 30.

TABLE 30. THE DISARTICULATED HUMAN REMAINS

Context number	*Description*	*Element*	*Side*	*Age category*	*Age*
1015	Cleaning layer	Occipital bone and parietal	Left	Sub-adult	
1023	Fill of pit 1022	Radius	Left	Adult	
1054	Fill of pit 1053	Radius	Left	Neonate	38 weeks
1054	Fill of pit 1053	Parietals	Left and right	Neonate	38 weeks
1054	Fill of pit 1053	Occipital		Neonate	38 weeks
1217	Fill of pit 1216	Occipital ossicle		Adult?	
1388	Fill of pit 1390	Humerus	Right	Adult	

Discussion and conclusions

The presence of disarticulated human remains and burials within features such as pits might appear to be indicative of casual treatment of dead bodies. However, isolated human bones as well as articulating parts of human bodies are often found in pits during the Iron Age.[137] Other examples of sites where these types of deposits have been found in the Upper Thames Valley include Mount Farm, Berinsfield,[138] Wyndyke Furlong and Ashville, Abingdon,[139] Gravelly Guy, Stanton Harcourt,[140] and Yarnton.[141] It appears that these deposits are indeed an integral part of the settlement and emphasises the juxtaposition of the living and the dead, which is seen as a defining character of the Iron Age.[142] Indeed, work focusing on the order of deposition of these features indicates that they are highly structured.[143]

Of all the 70 Iron Age pits excavated, 4 contained human bone and there was 1 pit burial. The excavated sample size suggests that the absence of human remains from other pits within the settlement area is genuine. Small numbers of inhumations within Iron Age settlements have also been noted at Ashville and Wyndyke Furlong, Abingdon.[144] The absence of articulated burials in pits may indicate that any cemetery was located

[137] A. Boyle, 'The Human Remains', in J. Muir and M.R. Roberts (eds), *Excavation at Wyndyke Furlong, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, 1994* (Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, xii, 1999), 50–1.

[138] A. Barclay and G. Lambrick, 'Berinsfield, Mount Farm, Post-Excavation Assessment and Research Design' (Oxford Archaeology Unit Project Design, 1995).

[139] J. Muir, and M.R. Roberts (eds), *Excavations at Wyndyke Furlong, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, 1994* (Thames Valley Monograph, xii, 1999), 51.

[140] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

[141] G. Hey, A. Bayliss and A. Boyle, 'Iron Age Inhumation Burials at Yarnton, Oxfordshire', *Antiquity*, lxxiii (1999), 551–62.

[142] P. Fitzpatrick, and E.L. Morris, *The Iron Age in Wessex: Recent Work* (1994).

[143] J.D. Hill, *Ritual and Rubbish in the Iron Age of Wessex. A Study on the Formation of a Specific Archaeological Record* (B.A.R. ccxlii, 1995), 95–101.

[144] Boyle, op. cit. (note 137), 51.

on the periphery of the settlement. The presence of cemeteries on the outskirts of settlements has been recorded in recent excavations at the middle Iron Age settlement at Yarnton,[145] at Cockney Down, near Salisbury,[146] and at Sudden Farm.[147]

There is strong evidence from central southern Britain that exposure of the dead with secondary manipulation was practised during the early and middle Iron Age,[148] and after exposure of the body, only larger bones were selected and incorporated into ritual deposits such as in pits. The small quantity of human remains found on Iron Age settlements accounts for about 5% of the Iron Age population,[149] and it is possible that bones were not retrieved from each person for secondary burial. Ethnographic evidence suggests that the accompanying ritual may have required conspicuous consumption, therefore the majority of ancestors would not have received secondary burial due to a lack of accumulated wealth.[150]

ANIMAL BONE by BETHAN CHARLES

A total of 5477 fragments of bone were recovered by hand from the site. Many of these fragments were reassembled, reducing the final count to 4542 fragments of bone (Table 31). From this number 45% of the assemblage was identified to species. An additional 88 fragments of sieved bone were retrieved from an early Iron Age context (1025).

TABLE 31. TOTAL NUMBER OF HAND-COLLECTED ANIMAL BONE FRAGMENTS ACCORDING TO PERIOD

Phase	*Horse*	*Cattle*	*Sheep*	*Goat*	*Pig*	*Roe Deer*	*Dog*	*Frog*	*Unidentified*	*Total*
LBA/EIA		1	8				1		30	40
EIA	17	77	426		13	1	348*		812	1694
E-MIA		14	19						62	95
MIA	13	135	321		21		3		712	1205
LIA/RB	5	78	226		35				502	846
Post-medieval								1	1	2
Unphased	3	53	219	14	10				361	660
Total	**38**	**358**	**1219**	**14**	**79**	**1**	**352**	**1**	**2480**	**4542**

* 344 of the fragments are from a double dog burial

Methodology

The total number of bones identified to species is indicated through use of the total fragment method. All fragments of bone were counted including elements from the vertebral centrum, ribs and long bone shafts. In addition, the minimum number of individuals (MNI) was calculated for the main domestic species from the main periods of occupation following the calculations suggested by Chaplin.[151] MNI was implemented using the most commonly identified fragments of bone identified from each species according to each phase.

145 Hey et al., op. cit. (note 141).

146 Trust for Wessex Archaeology, 'Clarendon to Cockney Down Water Main, Salisbury, Wiltshire' (unpubl. report, 1996).

147 B.W. Cunliffe, 'The Danebury Environs Project: Sudden Farm and Fiveways Excavation 1996' (Danebury Trust, Oxf. Institute of Archaeology internal report, 1996).

148 G. Carr and C. Knüsel, 'The Ritual Framework of Excarnation by Exposure as the Mortuary Practice of the Early and Middle Iron Ages of Central Southern Britain', in A. Gwilt and C. Haselgrove (eds), *Reconstructing Iron Age Societies* (Oxbow Monograph, lxxi, 1997), 167–73.

149 Ibid. 168.

150 D. Miles, 'Socio-Economic Aspects of Secondary Burial', *Oceania*, xxxv, (1965), 161–73.

151 R.E. Chaplin, *The Study of Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (1971).

The completeness of the bones was recorded using the zonal method devised by Serjeantson.[152] The incidence of surface modifications such as butchery, gnawing and burning was also noted. The small mammal and bird remains were identified at the Centre for Human Ecology and Environment, University of Southampton, with the aid of comparative specimens.

The separation of sheep and goat bones used the criteria of Boessneck,[153] Prummel and Frisch,[154] in addition to the use of the reference material housed at OA. However, since goat was only positively identified from one unphased deposit, all other caprine bones are listed as sheep.

The ageing of the animals was based on tooth eruption and epiphyseal fusion. Silver's tables[155] alone were used to give the timing of epiphyseal closure for cattle, sheep, pigs and horses. Sheep tooth eruption and wear was measured using a combination of Payne[156] and Grant's tables.[157] Cattle tooth eruption and wear was measured using Halstead[158] and Grant's tables.[159] Pig tooth eruption and wear was measured using Higham,[160] Bull and Payne[161] and Grant,[162] defined by Hambleton.[163] Horse tooth eruption and wear was measured using Levine's tables.[164] The sex of the animals was ascertained depending on the preservation of indicative fragments of bone. The measurements taken were those defined by von den Driesch.[165]

Condition

The condition of the bone was graded from 1 to 5, using the criteria of Lyman.[166] The majority of the bone was in excellent condition, and was graded between 1 and 2. Bone surfaces were well preserved, which allowed butchery marks and carnivore gnaw marks to be recorded (Table 32). However, much of the bone was fragmented as a result of taphonomic processes and new breaks. This is particularly prevalent in the material from the late Iron Age and Romano-British deposits, and will have affected the identification of many of the elements.

Only a small proportion of bones had evident gnaw marks, which implies that the deposition of the bones has not been too greatly affected by scavengers. Rodent gnaw marks were observed on two sheep bones from a middle Iron Age gully fill (1350) and a Romano-British pit fill (1443). There were no specific concentrations of burnt bone apart from 20 unidentified fragments recovered from early Iron Age Pit 1096.

[152] D. Serjeantson, 'The Animal Bones', in S. Needham and T. Spence (eds), *Runnymede Bridge Research Excavation. Vol 2. Refuse and Disposal at Area 16, East Runnymede* (1996), 194–223.

[153] J. Boessneck, 'Osteological Differences in Sheep (*Ovis aries* Linné) and Goat (*Capra hircus* Linné)', in D. Brothwell and E. Higgs (eds), *Science in Archaeology* (1969), 331–58.

[154] W. Prummel and H.J. Frisch, 'A Guide for the Distinction of Species, Sex and Body Size in Bones of Sheep and Goat', *Jnl. of Archaeol. Science*, xiii (1986), 567–77.

[155] I.A. Silver, 'The Ageing of Domestic Animals', in D. Brothwell and E. Higgs (eds), *Science in Archaeology* (1969), 283–302.

[156] S. Payne, 'Kill-Off Patterns in Sheep and Goats: The Mandibles from Asvan Kale', *Jnl. of the British Institute of Archaeology at Ankara*, xxiii (1973), 281–303.

[157] A. Grant, 'The Use of Tooth Wear as a Guide to the Age of Domestic Ungulates', in B. Wilson, H. Grigson and S. Payne (eds), *Ageing and Sexing Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (B.A.R. cix, 1982), 91–108.

[158] P. Halstead, 'A Study of Mandibular Teeth from Romano-British Contexts at Maxey', in F. Pryor and C. French, *Archaeology and Environment in the Lower Welland Valley* (East Anglian Archaeology Report, xxvii, 1985), 219–24.

[159] Grant, op. cit. (note 157).

[160] F.W. Higham, 'Appendix, Stock Rearing as a Cultural Factor in Prehistoric Europe', *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society*, xxxiii (1967), 84–106.

[161] G. Bull and S. Payne, 'Tooth Eruption and Epiphyseal Fusion in Pigs and Wild Boar', in B. Wilson, H. Grigson and S. Payne (eds), *Ageing and Sexing Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (B.A.R. cix, 1982), 55–71.

[162] Grant, op. cit. (note 157).

[163] E. Hambleton, *Animal Husbandry Regimes in Iron Age Britain. A Comparative Study of Faunal Assemblages from British Iron Age Sites* (B.A.R. cclxxxii, 1999).

[164] M.A. Levine, 'The Use of Crown Height Measurements and Eruption-Wear Sequences to Age Horse Teeth', in B. Wilson, H. Grigson and S. Payne (eds), *Ageing and Sexing Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (B.A.R. cix, 1982), 223–50.

[165] A. Von den Driesch, *A Guide to the Measurement of Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (Peabody Museum Bulletin, i, 1976).

[166] R.L. Lyman, *Vertebrate Taphonomy* (Cambridge Manuals in Archaeology, 1996).

TABLE 32. SURFACE MODIFICATION OF BONE ACCORDING TO PERIOD

	LBA/EIA		*EIA*		*E-MIA*		*MIA*		*LIA-RB*	
	No.	*% total*	*No.*	*% total*	*No.*	*% total*	*No.*	*% total*	*No.*	*% total*
Butchered			87	5	9	10	110	9	113	13
Burnt	21	53	54	3	1	1	30	2	25	3
Gnawed			36	2	5	5	73	6	79	9
Fresh break	19	48	830	49	81	85	865	72	658	78

Results

Cattle. Cattle bones were the second most numerous elements identified at the site during all periods of occupation. Most of the material appeared to consist of butchery and domestic refuse with very few articulating elements. The only possibly significant deposit was the partial remains of a cattle skull recovered from middle Iron Age Ring Gully 1852 (fill 1742). This may have been deliberately placed within the gully and could relate to the horse skulls that were found within other similar features (see below). Partially articulated remains, probably of a single individual, were also found in early Iron Age Pit 1229 (fill 1231). The remains included the left and right radius, right femur, right ulna, left tibia and the atlas vertebrae. The tibia had a small knife mark at the proximal end, possibly as a result of disarticulating the bone.

The age of the cattle was estimated by the rate of dental eruption and tooth wear on the few mandibles that were recovered (Table 33). The majority of the animals in the early Iron Age to the Roman period were fully mature animals. Evidence from the rate of epiphyseal fusion also indicates that the majority of the bones from the site appear to belong to animals over 2 years of age (Table 34). A calf mandible from the early Iron Age does suggest that animals were bred at the site during this period. However, the low number of juvenile and young animals does not indicate that the cattle were kept primarily for their meat or that there was an emphasis on dairy production. Three of the cattle bones from the assemblage were identified to sex, one from an early Iron Age feature and two from middle Iron Age features. All were from female animals. It is possible that fewer males were kept at the site since females were capable of working and producing milk in addition to producing calves. The measurements of the cattle bones from the site are consistent with those from other Iron Age sites in the region.[167, 168] The Romano-British metatarsal is considerably larger than that from the middle Iron Age context. However, the small sample size does not allow for the possible difference in size of the animals in relation to their sex.

TABLE 33. CATTLE TOOTH WEAR STAGES ACCORDING TO PERIOD

Age	*EIA*	*MIA*	*Roman*
1–8 months		1	
Adult	1		
Senile	2		1

[167] B. Wilson, J. Hamilton, D. Bramwell and P. Armitage, 'The Animal Bones', in Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 110–38.

[168] R. Wilson, 'Reports on the Bone and Oyster Shell', in T. Allen and M. Robinson, *Mingies Ditch, Hardwick-with-Yelford, Oxon* (Thames Valley Landscapes: The Windrush Valley, vol. 2, 1993), 123–34.

TABLE 34. EPIPHYSEAL FUSION IN CATTLE BONES FOLLOWING SILVER (see note 155)

Age	*Element*	*EIA*		*E-MIA*		*MIA*		*Roman*	
		F	*UF*	*F*	*UF*	*F*	*UF*	*F*	*UF*
10 months	Scapula D			1		1			
18 months	Humerus D	2				4			
	Radius P			1		1			
2–2.5 years	Metacarpal D					1		2	
	Tibia D	2	1			6	1		
	Metatarsal D					1		1	1
3.5 years	Calcaneum P					2		1	
	Femur P	5				1		1	1
3.5–4 years	Humerus P	2							
	Radius D							1	
	Ulna P	1				1			
	Femur D	1						1	
	Tibia P	1			1				1

Sheep. Sheep appear to be the most numerous of the domestic species kept at the site during all periods of occupation. Evidence indicated in Tables 35 and 36 suggests that the animals were not kept primarily for their meat, as many of the animals through all periods of occupation were living beyond 3 to 4 years of age. There appears to be a deliberate slaughter of many of the sheep before their 1st year during the early Iron Age (Table 35), which is comparable to the results from Ashville.[169] This may indicate that there was a greater emphasis on milk, although it is clear that at least some of the animals were kept until they were much older, almost certainly for their wool. During the middle Iron Age up until the Romano-British period the animals appear to have been kept until they were slightly older. This may be due to better management of the flock, or alternatively it could be because a greater emphasis was placed on the animals for their wool. However, evidence from Table 36 does show that at least a few of the animals from the later periods were being slaughtered before their 10th month.

Only a few elements within the assemblage could be sexed. The majority of the elements were from female animals, including seven from the early Iron Age and one from the Romano-British period. Only one male was identified, from early Iron Age Pit 1828. It is likely that most of the older sheep were ewes kept for breeding in order to replace slaughtered sheep and fatalities. There is no clear change in the size of the sheep during the transition from the early Iron Age to the Romano-British period. The size of the animals is typical for the Iron Age and Romano-British period in the region.[170, 171]

169 J. Hamilton, 'A Comparison of the Age Structure at Mortality of Some Iron Age and Romano-British Sheep and Cattle Populations', in Parrington, op. cit. (note 45), 126–33.
170 Wilson et al., op. cit. (note 167), 116.
171 Wilson, op. cit. (note 168), 190–1.

TABLE 35. SHEEP TOOTH WEAR STAGES ACCORDING TO PERIOD

Age	*EIA*	*MIA*	*RB*
0–2 months	1		
2–6 months	2		
6–12 months	4	2	
1–2 years	3	6	3
2–3 years	1		2
3–4 years	4	3	3
4–6 years		1	2
6–8 years	1	2	
8–10 years			1

TABLE 36. EPIPHYSEAL FUSION IN SHEEP/GOAT BONES FOLLOWING SILVER (see note 155)

Age	*Element*	*EIA*		*E-MIA*		*MIA*		*LIA–RB*	
		F	*UF*	*F*	*UF*	*F*	*UF*	*F*	*UF*
10 months	Humerus D	8	3			4	2	6	1
	Radius P	1				1		7	1
	Scapula D	5				5		3	
1.5–16 months	Tibia D	2				7	2	3	1
	Metacarpal D	1			1	2		1	
	Metatarsal D	2			1	2	2	1	
2.5–3 years	Calcaneum P								
	Radius D						1	1	
	Femur P	1							1
	Ulna P		2						
3–3.5 years	Humerus P	4					1		
	Femur D					1			1
	Tibia P	1				1	1	1	

Pig. Pig bones were not found in great numbers at the site (Table 31). However, Table 37 shows a minimum number of individual pigs that is almost equal to that of the cattle. The majority of the elements recovered were mandible, skull and tooth fragments, and whilst indicative elements for ageing the animals were not plentiful, the majority of the individuals are likely to have been slaughtered before 2 years of age (Table 38). Elements from at least two very young individuals were recovered from the site, consisting of a radius from gully group 1846 and a scapula from storage Pit 1151, which suggest that the animals were being bred at the site. It is unlikely that the pigs would have been kept beyond 2 years of age as they provided little in the way of secondary products.

There were not many elements in the assemblage to enable the sexing of the animals. However, three females were identified from early Iron Age, middle Iron Age and Romano-British contexts. It is likely that more females were kept until maturity for breeding, since fewer males would have been required for the purpose. Although pigs are capable of surviving and breeding in a variety of environments, they are generally

connected with forested areas.[172] Their ability to survive on food sources outside of the main settlement would have been particularly important during the autumn and winter, when food became scarce.

TABLE 37. MINIMUM NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS (MNI) ACCORDING TO SPECIES AND PHASE

Period	*Horse*	*Cattle*	*Sheep*	*Pig*	*Dog*
LBA/EIA		1	1		1
EIA	1	4	15*	3*	3**
E/MIA		2	2		
MIA	2	5*	17*	5*	1*
LIA/RB	1	3	10*	2*	

* mandibles
** includes double dog burial
Elements identified as late Iron Age and Roman were grouped together.

TABLE 38. PIG TOOTH WEAR STAGES ACCORDING TO PERIOD

Age	*EIA*	*MIA*
7–14 months		1
14–21 months	2	1
21–27 months		2
27–36 months		1

Horse. A total of 38 fragments of horse bone were identified from the site, of which the majority came from early to middle Iron Age deposits. The partial remains of a left foreleg were recovered from Pit 1176 (fill 1177), including the humerus, radius, ulna, metacarpal and carpal bones. There was a small amount of eburnation on the distal articulation of the humerus, indicative of arthritic modification, which may indicate that the bones were from an old animal.

Other deposits of interest included a complete skull, bar the prae maxillary section, recovered from early Iron Age Ring Gully 1845 (fill 1820), and a partially complete skull from middle Iron Age Ring Ditch 1848 (fill 1346). Other evidence of horse and cattle skulls placed in features relating to or enclosing domestic buildings has been found at Iron Age sites at Bicester Fields Farm,[173] Farmoor, Oxfordshire[174] and at the Roman site at Claydon Pike, Gloucestershire.[175] This may signify some form of ritual practice associated with the deposition of the bone in proximity to the structures.

It has been noted by Wilson[176] that horse remains associated with possible ritual activity during the Iron Age are often around 5 years of age. It was only possible to age one of the horse skulls, which was between 9 and 11 years old. This was found in the early Iron Age eaves drip gully of Roundhouse C. All other bones from the site appeared to belong to mature individuals. Two horses aged around 11 years and between 3 and 4 years were recovered from the TVAS site to the south.[177] Unlike cattle and sheep, horses provided little in the way of secondary products and would have been expensive to keep. It is likely that they would have been kept mainly for riding and as pack animals.

[172] B. Noddle, 'A Comparison of the Bones of Cattle, Sheep and Pigs from Ten Iron Age and Romano-British sites', in C. Grigson and J. Clutton-Brock (eds), *Animals and Archaeology 4: Husbandry in Europe* (B.A.R. Int. Ser. ccxxvii, 1984), 105–23.

[173] A.M. Cromarty, S. Foreman and P. Murray, 'The Excavation of a Late Iron Age Enclosed Settlement at Bicester Fields Farm, Bicester, Oxon', *Oxoniensia*, lxiv (1999), 153–233.

[174] Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37).

[175] R. Wilson, *Spatial Patterning among Animal Bones in Settlement Archaeology* (B.A.R. Research Report, ccli, 1996).

[176] B. Wilson, 'The Vertebrates', in Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37), 128–33.

[177] S. Hamilton-Dyer, 'Animal Bone', in Weaver and Ford (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 160).

Dog. A total of 344 fragments of dog bone were recovered from the site. All but eight fragments were recovered from a double dog burial in Pit 1780 (see section on special deposits below). The remaining fragments came mostly from early and middle Iron Age deposits (see below for comment on butchery marks). A small part of a maxilla surrounding premolars 3 and 4 was recovered from early Iron Age Pit 1096.

Wild mammal. The only fragment of bone from a large wild mammal was one fragment of roe deer scapula, also found in the early Iron Age Pit 1096. It does not appear that much hunting was being practised during any period. However, it is possible that the remains may not have been deposited in the same way as the main domestic mammals. A single frog bone was retrieved from a late Iron Age deposit; however, it is almost certain that this was a natural fatality.

Special deposits and notable features

The burial of two dogs was found in an early Iron Age Pit (1780) (Figs. 4A, 11, 12). The larger of the two dogs (1791) was laid on its left side with its head facing south and its tail pointing north. The smaller dog (1790) lay on its right side with its head facing east and the hind area angled to the north-west. Both the dogs were male and at least 1.5 years of age or more, according to epiphyseal fusion of the bones.[178] All the teeth were fully erupted with a small amount of wear. The measurements of the bone are in the archive.

Both of the animals had signs of pathological changes on the bones. The smaller dog (1790) appeared to have sustained an injury on its left femur. The bone had been broken at the lower section of the shaft and had healed well. However, the bone was significantly shorter than the right element. There were no other indications of damage to the rest of the skeleton. The larger dog (1791) had a number of pathological changes on the body. The left femur had a small amount of bone lipping around the head. The left innominate bone also had a very small amount of additional bone lipping around the edge of the acetabulum.

It is clear that the animals were buried with some care, and the fact that at least one of the animals may have been cared for after being injured may signify the importance of the animals to the community. It is possible that the animals were kept as working dogs for herding and protecting sheep, as well as to guard the site and possibly for hunting.

A partially articulated sheep and a goat skeleton were found in an unphased deposit (1004) which was identified as a putative rubble destruction layer. The epiphyseal fusion of the bones indicated that the goat was over 3 to 3.5 years old, and there were signs of arthritis. There was no skull with either the sheep or the goat skeleton. The majority of the sheep bone appeared to belong to one individual, although there were three left femurs amongst the bones. The evidence from the fusion of the long bone epiphysis appeared to suggest that the animal was less than 1.5 to 2 years of age.

The major part of the material gathered from the site from all periods of activity was recovered from pit deposits, particularly the earlier features. During the middle and late Iron Age to Romano-British period there was a slight increase in the material recovered from gullies and ditches.

Just over 70% of the material recovered from the early Iron Age was recovered from pit 1096 (Fig. 5). Identified elements included a few fragments of sheep bones and a fragment of dog maxilla. Also included in the assemblage were 20 fragments of burnt bone that were not identified to species. It is possible, as suggested by Hill,[179] that much of the rubbish disposal in pits should be considered to be associated with ritual activity. However, there is no clear evidence from this deposit that this is the case. A large amount of material (519 bones, 206 identified to species) was recovered from early Iron Age Pit 1022, which contained mostly sheep skull fragments, mandibles, feet, rib and vertebrae bones and a small number of elements from cattle and pig.

Some of the more important features identified from the middle Iron Age settlement were a group of penannular gullies including 1846, 1847, 1848, 1849 and 1861. A total of 392 fragments of animal bone was recovered from within these features, constituting just over 30% of the material recovered from this period of occupation.

Butchery

There were no clear changes in butchery techniques during the separate phases of occupation. Bones from all periods had evidence of disjointing cut marks as well as evidence of the removal of the head and feet. Chop marks across long bone shafts are likely to have been to separate the carcass as well as to split for the bone marrow. All of the bones from the main domestic species were represented, that is, the remains were of whole animals and there were no missing elements. This suggests that all processing of the carcass was conducted on site, including deposition of butchery waste and domestic debris.

178 Silver, op. cit. (note 155).
179 Hill, op. cit. (note 143), 95–101.

A dog mandible from Pit 1306 (middle Iron Age) had evidence of small knife marks on the ramus which may indicate that the animal was skinned. Clear evidence of butchery marks indicative of dismemberment were identified on a dog scapula and innominate (pelvis) from early Iron Age Pit 1780. A right scapula had a number of knife marks around the neck and proximal end of the blade and a part of the ilium blade and neck from a left pelvis had many small knife cut and chop marks. Both elements were recovered along with butchery waste from sheep and a pig. It is possible that dogs were eaten at the site, though it does not appear that this was often the case. Other evidence of butchery marks on dog bones has been identified at Ashville[180] and Winnall Down.[181] Four of the horse bones from Iron Age deposits had evidence of butchery marks indicating that the carcasses were occasionally utilised for food.

Pathology

Only a small number of the main domestic species from the site had signs of pathological changes on the bones. All of these were from Iron Age deposits. A sheep rib from Context 1804 (middle Iron Age) had been fractured and healed, a horse humerus from Context 1177 (early Iron Age) had signs of eburnation on the distal articulation. A sheep mandible from middle Iron Age deposit 1605 had evidence of a possible abscess with a small amount of bone remodelling on the outside of the jaw next to the cavity for the first molar. Another sheep mandible from Context 1628 showed signs of the bone thickening around the area of the first molar, with oval shaped growth of new bone on the outer side. The tooth was unaffected and the damage may have been caused by a trauma to the mandible.

SMALL MAMMAL AND BIRD REMAINS by CLAIRE INGREM

Results

A total of 42 fragments of bird and small mammal remains were recovered. Three species were identified, including domestic fowl (*Gallus gallus*), buzzard (*Buteo buteo*) and northern water vole (*Arvicola terrestris*). In addition, duck, passerine and indeterminate rodent were identified. The duck remains are interpreted as mallard, based on the size parameters used by Woelfle.[182] The majority of fragments were recovered from early Iron Age deposits although the carpometacarpal of a buzzard was retrieved from a middle Iron Age pit and two rodent bones the size of water vole came from a late Iron Age/early Romano-British pit (Table 39).

TABLE 39. SMALL MAMMAL AND BIRD BONE SPECIES, BY PHASE

	U/S	*EIA*	*MIA*	*LIA*	*RB*	*Total*
Domestic Fowl	1					1
Duck			2			2
Buzzard			1			1
Passerine		2				2
Bird indeterminate					1	1
Water vole		1				1
Rodent		30		2		32
Unidentifiable					2	2
Total	**1**	**33**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**42**

[180] B. Wilson, 'General Conclusions and Discussion of the Bone Sample', in Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 133–7.

[181] J.M. Maltby, 'The Animal Bones', in P. Fasham, *The Prehistoric Settlement at Winnall Down* (Hampshire Field Club Archaeol. Soc. Monograph, ii, 1985), 97–112.

[182] E. Woelfe, *Vergleichend morphologische Untersuchungen an Einzelknochen des postcranialen Skeletts in Mitteleuropa vorkommender Enten, Hälbgänse und Säger* (1967).

The mandible of a water vole was recovered from an early Iron Age pit (1229) along with two indeterminate rodent tibiae, one probably water vole on account of the size. Another pit (1780), which produced two dog burials, also produced the partial skeleton of an indeterminate rodent, the size of which suggests it was also probably water vole (Table 40). Two bird bones were recovered from pits. These include a duck ulna (probably mallard) and a tibiotarsus belonging to a small passerine.

TABLE 40. SMALL MAMMAL AND BIRD BONE SPECIES IN EARLY TO MIDDLE IRON AGE DEPOSITS

	Context				*Total*
	1159	*1231*	*1388*	*1830*	
Duck			1		1
Passerine	1				1
Water vole		1			1
Rodent		2		28	30
Total	**1**	**3**	**1**	**28**	**33**

There is no evidence to suggest that any of the small mammal and bird remains are anything other than natural fatalities. However, mallard is a good eating bird and locally available resources were probably exploited. Both buzzard and water vole were recovered from Iron Age deposits at Danebury,[183] where it was noted that buzzards are great vole feeders. Their retrieval from pits at Coxwell Road suggests that they are more likely to be pit fall victims.

Mallards favour still and slow-moving fresh water,[184] and in Britain the northern water vole is also associated with fresh water such as rivers, lakes and ditches. However, in Europe it is found in less aquatic habitats such as pasture, and it may have favoured similar environments in Britain during the Iron Age.[185] The buzzard is generally found in wooded areas, although in winter it can be found in more open country.[186]

Conclusions

The animal bone assemblage as a whole appears to be typical of many Iron Age sites in the region such as Ashville, Abingdon[187] and Mingies Ditch.[188] It is similar in content to material recovered from the earlier evaluation and excavation at Coxwell Road, Faringdon,[189] with sheep being the most frequent of the bones identified, followed by cattle and pig. Although sheep and lamb appear more frequently in the record, the smaller number of cattle kept at the site would have provided much more meat per individual and may have been equally important to the diet. Evidence from butchery marks indicates that horses were also being eaten and possibly dogs as well, though it seems unlikely that these animals would have contributed significantly to the diet of the inhabitants.

The exploitation of the sheep at the site appears to be mixed, with no clear evidence of specialisation for meat, milk or wool. There appears to be a very slight increase in the number of cattle at the site from the middle Iron Age and late Iron Age/Romano-British period of occupation. Studies conducted by Ellen Hambleton[190] have demonstrated an increase in the number of cattle during this period in the Thames

183 J. Coy, 'The Small Mammals and Amphibia', in B. Cunliffe, *Danebury: An Iron Age Hillfort in Hampshire. Volume 2. The Excavations, 1969–1978: The Finds* (CBA Research Report lii, 1984), 527–31.

184 H. Heinzel, R. Fitter and J. Parsolow, *Birds of Britain & Europe with North Africa and the Middle East* (1995).

185 D. MacDonald and P. Barrett, *Collins Field Guide: Mammals of Britain & Europe* (1993).

186 Heinzel et al., op. cit. (note 184).

187 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 110–37.

188 T.G. Allen and M.A. Robinson, *The Prehistoric Landscape and Iron Age Enclosed Settlement at Mingies Ditch, Hardwick-with-Yelford, Oxon* (1993).

189 Hamilton-Dyer, op. cit. (note 177).

190 Hambleton, op. cit. (note 163).

Valley. It is likely that cattle performed many functions at the site. It is almost certain that they would have been most valued for ploughing and haulage[191] as well as being utilised for their milk, dung, meat and hides.

There is very little evidence that the diet of the inhabitants was being supplemented by wild species. This is typical of Iron Age sites, which tended to depend on domestic species for meat and secondary products. The horses kept at the site did not provide much in the way of secondary products and would have been expensive to keep. It is likely that they would have been kept for riding and as pack animals, and they probably also conferred status on the owners.

The special deposits at the site are likely to be associated with ritual activity, possibly sacrificial offerings. Dog burials within pits and articulated horse bones and skulls have been identified on a number of Iron Age sites including Danebury,[192] Winnall Down,[193] Gravelly Guy,[194] Claydon Pike[195] and Thornhill Farm.[196] The remains of both dogs and horses are more likely to be found as complete or partial skeletons. This may be due to the fact that they are less valued in terms of their contribution to the economy of sites and the diet of the inhabitants but also, as suggested by Green,[197] for some symbolic reason.

THE CHARRED PLANT REMAINS by RUTH PELLING

In total 40 samples were taken for the extraction of charred plant remains, mostly from Iron Age pits, with additional samples from a corndrier of Roman date. Samples of volume ranging from 1 to 40 litres, but mostly 40 litres, were processed using a modified siraf-type flotation machine. Flots were collected on to a 250 μm. mesh. An assessment of the dried flots demonstrated that the concentration of charred remains was very high in two corndrier samples. Useful quantities of material were also recorded in seven pit samples. These nine samples were sorted and analysed in full.

Methodology

Flots were sorted under a binocular microscope at x10 to x20 magnification. Any quantifiable seeds and chaff were extracted. Identification was based on well-known morphological characteristics and by comparison with modern reference material held at the Oxford University Museum of Natural History. Nomenclature and taxonomic order follow Clapham, Tutin and Moore.[198]

Results

The detailed results are displayed in Table 41. The samples analysed dated to the early Iron Age, middle Iron Age and the 2nd century AD. The assemblages all consisted of a mixture of the cereal product (grain), with cereal processing waste (chaff and weed seeds). One grain from a corndrier sample was positively identified as having sprouted. The chaff consisted predominantly of glume bases. Occasional rachis fragments and rare culm nodes, coleoptiles (sprouted embryos) and detached embryos were also identified. The weed assemblages consisted of a mixture of weeds of arable fields and cultivated ground, grassland flora and wet land species. The preservation of the grain was generally poor in all samples, with many grains lacking their testa and being of tarry or 'clinkered' appearance (Hubbard and al Azm's preservation classes 4 to 6[199]). This is suggestive of the grain being burnt at fairly high temperatures.

191 J. Langdon, *Horses, Oxen and Technological Innovation: The Use of Draught Animals in English Farming from 1066 to 1500* (1986).

192 A. Grant, 'Animal Husbandry', in B. Cunliffe and C. Poole, *Danebury: An Iron Age Hillfort in Hampshire. Volume 5. The Excavations 1979–1988* (C.B.A. Research Report, lxxiii, 1991), 447–82.

193 Maltby, op. cit. (note 181).

194 J. Mulville and B. Levitan, 'The Animal Bones', in Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).

195 B. Wilson, B. Levitan and N. Sykes, 'The Animal Bones', in D. Miles, S. Palmer, P. Booth and A. Smith, 'Landscape Studies in the Cotswold Water Park: Prehistoric to Anglo-Saxon use of the Gravel Terraces, and Roman and Native Interaction' (OA Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph, in prep.).

196 M.A. Levine, 'The Faunal Remains', in D. Jennings, J. Muir, S. Palmer and A. Smith, *Thornhill Farm, Fairford, Gloucester. An Iron Age and Roman Pastoral Site in the Upper Thames* (OA Thames Valley Landscape Monograph, 2003), 109–33.

197 M. Green, *Animals in Celtic Life and Myth* (1992).

198 R. Clapham, T.G. Tutin, and D.M. Moore, *Flora of the British Isles* (1989).

199 R.N.L.B. Hubbard and A. al Azm, 'Quantifying Preservation and Distortion in Carbonized Seeds; and Investigating the History of Friké Production', *Jnl. of Archaeol. Science*, xvii (1990), 103–6.

TABLE 41. CHARRED PLANT REMAINS

	Sample	*1*	*6*	*14*	*40*	*25*	*5*	*21*	*3*	*4*
	Context	*1025*	*1077*	*1114*	*1068*	*1498*	*1205*	*1374*	*1461*	*1461*
	Feature	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Corn drier fill*	*Corn drier fill*
	Date	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*IA*	*MIA*	*MIA*	*2C*	*2C*
Grain										
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat	5	1	6	7	4	6		33	19
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat, short grain					1	1			4
Triticum cf. *spelta*	Spelt wheat						2			
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/emmer wheat	2		2	3	1			6	9
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/emmer wheat, sprouted grain									1
Triticum sp.	Wheat	10	5	30	16	10	10	4	122	183
Triticum sp.	Wheat, short grain	2								
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, hulled twisted grain	1	1	5						2
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, hulled straight grain			5			5		7	10
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, hulled grain	2		8	8	3	40	2	16	22
Hordeum vulgare	Barley	7	7	44	26	13	84	1	11	33
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate cereal	61	22	81	67	17	90	21	356	315
	Total grain	90	36	181	127	49	238	28	551	598
Chaff										
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat, glume base	36	7	57	18	2	57	6	530	640
Triticum cf. *spelta*	Spelt wheat, glume base	10	5	291	11	3	8	3	38	55
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/emmer wheat, glume base	131	56	39	58	22	221	40	1301	1554
Triticum dicoccum	Emmer wheat, glume base								7	12
Triticum cf. *dicoccum*	cf. Emmer wheat, glume base								4	
Triticum sp.	Wheat, rachis							1		
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, rachis			1			1	1	4	3
Secale cereale/ Hordeum sp.	Rye/barley, rachis							1		
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate basal rachis								1	2
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate culm node			2						1
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate rachis								2	4
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate cereal, coleoptile								4	5
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate cereal embryo				1				7	6

Sample		*1*	*6*	*14*	*40*	*25*	*5*	*21*	*3*	*4*
	Context	*1025*	*1077*	*1114*	*1068*	*1498*	*1205*	*1374*	*1461*	*1461*
	Feature	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Corn drier fill*	*Corn drier fill*
	Date	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*IA*	*MIA*	*MIA*	*2C*	*2C*
Triticum sp.	Wheat, awn								+++	+++
	Total chaff	177	68	390	88	27	287	52	1898	2282
Other										
Vicia/Pisum sp.	Vetch/pea							1		
Weeds										
Ranunculus subgen *Ranunculus*	Buttercup				1					
cf. *Ranunculus* subgen *Ranunculus*	Buttercup							1		
Papaver somniferum	Opium poppy								1	
Fumaria sp.	Fumitory				2					
Viola subgen *viola*	Violet								1	
Silene sp.	Campion/catchfly, capsule tip	1							1	3
Silene latifolia subsp. *alba*	White campion			1	1				1	1
Agrostemma githago	Corn cockle								6	1
cf. *Agrostemma githago*	cf. corn cockle								3	
Stellaria media agg.	Chickweed		1		5					
Caryophyllaceae		1						1	2	
Spergula arvensis	Corn spurrey								1	
Scleranthus annuus	Annual knawel				1					
Montia fontana subsp. *chondrosperma*	Blinks	6		2				1		
Chenopodium album	Fat hen	27	2	8	10	10	10	7	33	30
Atriplex sp.	Orache				4		1			
Chenopodiaceae						1	1	2	1	6
Linum catharticum	Fairy flax									1
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	Vetch,tare/vetchling	2	6	2	7	4	4	5	3	11
Vicia cf. *hirsuta*	cf. hairy tare			1	1				2	1
Medicago/Trifolium/ Lotus sp.	Medick/clover/trefoil	12	1		3	5		6	15	2
Medicago lupulina	Black medick seed pod				1					
Polygonum aviculare	Knotgrass	2		2	2			1		1
Polygonum persicaria/ lapathifolium	Redshank/persicaria					1				

Sample		*1*	*6*	*14*	*40*	*25*	*5*	*21*	*3*	*4*
	Context	*1025*	*1077*	*1114*	*1068*	*1498*	*1205*	*1374*	*1461*	*1461*
	Feature	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Corn drier fill*	*Corn drier fill*
	Date	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*IA*	*MIA*	*MIA*	*2C*	*2C*
Fallopia convolvulus	Black bindweed					1	1		5	3
Rumex sp.	Docks	7	2	8	27	4	4	2	21	14
Rumex acetosella	Sheep's sorrel	3	3		9	1		1	1	1
Polygonaceae		2		2	1	3				1
Polygonaceae/Cyperaceae								6		
Urtica urens	Small nettle	1								
Urtica dioica	Common nettle				1					
Corylus avellana	Hazel, nut shell frag.					1		2		
Boraginaceae									1	
Lithospermum arvense	Corn gromwell, silica	15		16	15		3	1	1	
Hyoscyamus niger	Henbane								1	
Veronica hederifolia	Ivy-leaved speedwell	1								
Odontites verna	Red barstia	2	2		1				5	1
Plantago media/lanceolata	Plantain	1			1					
Sherardia arvensis	Field madder	1		1	3	1		1		
Galium aparine	Goosegrass, cleavers	3	1	26	18	3	2	3		
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited cornsalad		1	1	1		1	3		
Anthemis cotula	Stinking mayweed								90	94
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless mayweed	1		1				1	16	15
Carduus sp.	Thistle								2	
Carduus/Cirsium sp.	Thistle									1
Picris hieracioides	Hawkweed ox-tongue								1	
Compositae	Large seeded								5	4
Compositae	Small seeded								5	4
Eleocharis palustris	Common spike-rush	1			10				1	1
Carex spp. Two sided	Sedges, two-sided	2			1	2			1	
Carex spp. Three sided	Sedges, three-sided	2			2	2		1		1
Lolium multiflorum	Italian rye-grass								1	
Poa annua type	Annual meadow-grass	1		5					3	14
cf. *Poa annua* type	cf. annual meadow-grass				2					
Bromus subsect *Eubromus*	Brome grass	10		25	9	4	3	1	7	11
Avena sp.	Oat				1				10	16
Arrhenatherum elatius	False oat-grass, tuber						1			

Sample		*1*	*6*	*14*	*40*	*25*	*5*	*21*	*3*	*4*
	Context	*1025*	*1077*	*1114*	*1068*	*1498*	*1205*	*1374*	*1461*	*1461*
	Feature	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Pit fill*	*Corn drier fill*	*Corn drier fill*
	Date	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*EIA*	*IA*	*MIA*	*MIA*	*2C*	*2C*
Gramineae, large seeded	Grass, large seeded	2	1	2	3	2		1	12	6
Gramineae, small seeded	Grass, small seeded	2	3	1	6	3		5	2	4
Monocotyledon	Rhizome				1		1			
Indet	Indeterminate, bud	1						1		
Indet	Indeterminate, nut shell								1	
Indet	Indeterminate, rhizome/tuber				1					
Indet	Indeterminate, seed				19	8		40	9	5
	Total weeds	**109**	**23**	**104**	**170**	**56**	**32**	**93**	**271**	**253**

+++ abundant

Cereal species. Hordeum vulgare (barley) and *Triticum spelta* (spelt wheat) are represented in all samples. Given the poor preservation, relatively few of the *Triticum* grains were identified to species level, although the larger number of glume bases confirmed the dominance of *T. spelta*. Occasional *Triticum* grains were particularly short, similar to some varieties of *Triticum aestivum* (bread wheat) type grains. The better preserved short grains which retained their testa showed clear, longitudinal impressions consistent with the grain being held tightly within glumes. The occurrence of short grains has been noted as a characteristic within Iron Age and Roman *T. spelta* assemblages elsewhere, such as with the Danebury Environs region[200] and Tiddington, Warwickshire.[201] It is likely that such variation in grain shape is due to a much more extensive gene pool than is seen in modern comparative material.[202]

Occasional glume bases of *Triticum dicoccum* or *T.* cf. *dicoccum* (emmer wheat) were recorded in the Roman corndrier deposits. They form only a minor fraction of the total glume bases, and while some of the less well-preserved chaff might also be of *T. dicoccum* it is not thought that they represent anything more than contamination of the spelt crop. *Triticum spelta* is the major wheat species consistently recorded on sites of Iron Age and Roman date in the Oxfordshire area and for much of central and southern Britain, for example at the Ashville Trading Estate,[203] Birdlip Quarry in Gloucestershire[204] and Danebury Environs.[205] While *T. dicoccum* continued to be cultivated in many parts of Britain, for example to the north of the Tyne,[206] and

[200] G. Campbell, 'Plant Utilization: The Evidence from Charred Plant Remains', in B. Cunliffe, *The Danebury Environs Programme: The Prehistory of a Wessex Landscape*, vol.1 (Oxf. University Committee for Archaeology Monograph 2000), 46.

[201] L. Moffett, *Crops and Crop Processing in a Romano-British Village at Tiddington: The Evidence from the Charred Plant Remains* (Ancient Monuments Laboratory Report, xv, 1986), 6.

[202] Ibid.

[203] M. Jones, 'The Plant Remains', in Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 93–110.

[204] R. Pelling, 'Charred and Waterlogged Plant Remains', in A. Mudd, R. Williams and A. Lupton, *Excavations Alongside Roman Ermin Street, Gloucestershire and Wiltshire: The Archaeology of the A419/417 Swindon to Gloucester Road Scheme* (Oxford Archaeology Unit, 1999), 469–93.

[205] Campbell, op. cit. (note 200).

[206] M. Van der Veen, *Crop Husbandry Regimes: An Archaeobotanical Study of Farming in Northern England, 1000 BC – AD 500* (Sheffield Archaeol. Monographs, iii, 1992).

in Kent and eastern Surrey,[207, 208] it occurs as little more than a weed of the *T. spelta* crop in much of central and southern England. However, a Roman site recently excavated beneath Mansfield College in Oxford produced a large assemblage of *Triticum dicoccum*,[209] which suggests it may have been cultivated as a crop in its own right in the Oxford region during the Roman period.

Hordeum vulgare was recorded in all samples and phases. A hulled variety is represented and occasional better-preserved grain still retained fragments of lemma and palea. Asymmetric grain in early Iron Age and Roman samples indicates the presence of at least some six-row barley. Again, the presence of hulled *Hordeum vulgare* is consistent with Iron Age and Roman sites across southern Britain.[210] While the number of glume bases suggests spelt wheat to be the major crop in all phases, barley grain does outnumber spelt grains in two Iron Age samples.

Grains of *Avena* sp. (oats) were recorded in the Roman samples while a single grain was also recorded in an early Iron Age sample. Given the absence of the diagnostic floret bases, it is not possible to establish if a wild or cultivated species is represented. The greater number in the Roman samples might suggest it had been introduced as a cultivated crop by this stage. *Avena* sp. appears to have been introduced as a cultivated crop in the Danebury Environs area towards the late Iron Age, although a change in the agricultural system might have resulted in its increase as a weed. Generally it does begin to appear in the archaeological record in greater numbers in the late Iron Age or Roman period in the region.[211]

The weed assemblages. In all samples the weed species represented are a mixture of arable weeds associated with ruderal (disturbed ground) habitats, grassland and damp ground habitats. *Chenopodium album* (fat hen) and *Rumex* sp. (docks), numerous in all phases, are common ruderal species which also occur on nitrogen rich cultivated soils. A significant number of leguminous weeds are also present in all samples, including *Vicia/Lathyrus* sp. (vetch/tare) types and *Medicago/Trifolium/Lotus* sp. (medick/clover/trefoil) type species. These are essentially species of grassland or grassy places, although they are commonly associated with cereal assemblages. As nitrogen-fixing species they tend to out-compete the nitrogen-loving weeds on poor soils, so an increase in leguminous weeds can be associated with decreasing soil fertility. Other grassland species are more prominent in the Roman deposits and include *Linum catharticum* (fairy flax), a species of short grassland, *Picris hieracioides* (hawkweed ox-tongue), *Plantago media/lanceolata* (plantain) and *Arrhenatherum elatius* (false oat-grass). These species suggest the utilisation of calcareous grasslands, possibly being brought into cultivation by the middle Iron Age or Roman period, or perhaps derived from cut turf. Many of the grasses, particularly *Bromus* subsect *Eubromus* (brome grass), may have been growing as field weeds, invading the crop. Large numbers of *Bromus* subsect *Eubromus* grain are consistently recorded in cereal assemblages of Iron Age date. Like wild *Avena* sp. the seeds would tend to stay with the cereal grain during processing and are likely to have been tolerated impurities. Within the present assemblages *Bromus* subsect *Eubromus* is more significant in the Iron Age samples and proportionately rare in the Roman samples, while *Avena* sp. is more significant in the Roman period. A similar relationship between the decrease in *Bromus* sp. and increase in *Avena* sp. was noted in the late Iron Age in the Danebury Environs area. Campbell[212] attributed this relationship to changing agricultural systems and expansion in the late Iron Age. If oats were introduced in the late Iron Age as a fodder crop *Bromus*, which might have previously been tolerated due to its own value as a fodder crop, would no longer be needed. Furthermore, if there was a move from principally autumn-sown crops to a combination of autumn- and spring-sown crops in the late Iron Age, oats, which flower later than *Bromus*, would stand a better chance of setting seed and being harvested with the spring-sown crop.

Galium aparine and *Lithospermum arvense* seem to be particularly associated with the Iron Age samples. Both are generally associated with autumn-sown crops, as is *Veronica*.[213] A decrease in these weeds might be related to a change from autumn sowing to autumn and spring sowing, which would support Campbell's interpretation of the changing *Bromus* and oats ratio. Likewise, *Fallopia convolvulus*, which is rare in the early Iron Age and seems to be particularly associated with the Roman samples, is associated with spring-sown crops.

[207] G. Campbell, 'Prehistoric Crop Husbandry and Plant Use in Southern England; Development and Regionality' (unpubl.).

[208] R. Pelling, 'Charred Plant Remains from Battlebridge Lane, Merstham, Surrey' (Thames Valley Archaeol. Services unpubl. report).

[209] R. Pelling, 'Mansfield College, Oxford: The Charred Plant Remains' (Oxford Archaeology Unit unpubl. report).

[210] Campbell, op. cit. (note 207).

[211] Ibid.

[212] Campbell, op. cit, (note 200), 50.

[213] J.D. Fryer and S.A. Evans, *Weed Control Handbook* (1968).

While many of the weed seeds identified in the samples are consistent throughout the phases represented, there does appear to be a vast increase in both the range of species and the number of items in the Roman period samples. This might be due to the greater concentration of material in the corndrier samples, although it is noticeable that other species are absent or are much less frequent than in the Iron Age samples. Given the small number of samples analysed it is not possible to establish how much this is to do with the particular assemblages/features and how much is a general pattern. Some species identified in the Roman deposits are known to be late introductions, so it is likely that their absence in the early and middle Iron Age samples is because they were not present in the weed flora of the time. *Agrostemma githago*, *Anthemis cotula* and *Tripleurospermum inodorum* are all noticeably associated with the Roman deposits. *Agrostemma githago* and *Anthemis cotula* were considered by Godwin[214] to be Roman introductions, although both species have in fact been recorded in late Iron Age sites. *Agrostemma githago* does not seem to appear until the very late Iron Age, at which time it is recorded from Bury Hill in the Danebury Environs region[215] and from Gussage all Saints,[216] although finds are rare. It seems to be associated with an increased weed seed bank and contact with the Continent in the latest Iron Age and Roman period. *Anthemis cotula* is more widely recorded on late Iron Age sites, for example at Ashville Trading Estate.[217] It is associated with cultivated ground on heavy alkaline poorly drained clay soils, and within the region of Oxfordshire and Berkshire is exclusive to these soils.[218] It was probably around as a rare plant of calcareous soils but only became common amongst cereal assemblages once heavy clay soils were more widely cultivated. Some cultivation of heavy clay soils might also have happened in the early Iron Age, as suggested by *Odontites verna* and *Galium aparine*. The weed evidence is, however, generally more suggestive of the cultivation of lighter well-drained soils in the Iron Age with *Scleranthus annuus* (annual knawel), *Valerianella dentata* and *Rumex acetosella*.

Some species indicative of wet ground were identified within the samples. *Eleocharis palustris* is a rhizomatous perennial herb requiring shade-free conditions and a very high water table in spring, and is generally associated with grazed damp meadows.[219] Several seeds were recorded in sample 40. *Montia fontana* subsp. *chondrosperma* also requires marshy conditions in the spring, preferably on light acid gravels.[220] Several species of sedge were present, although none were identified beyond the level of *Carex* sp. These may include further damp or wet ground species.

The weed assemblages generally suggest the cultivation of calcareous soils, although *Rumex acetosella* and possibly *Montia fontana* are more characteristic of acid soils. Pockets of acid sand do exist on the Oxford Heights.

Sample composition. The samples consist of poorly preserved grain product, usually forming *c.* 20–40%, with processing by-products, that is, the chaff and weed impurities, which themselves provide evidence for the range of habitats utilised for cereal cultivation. Chaff forms the greatest component of six samples while weed seeds are most common in three others (40, from pit fill 1068; 25, from pit fill 1498; and 21, from pit fill 1374; see Table 41). Grain is more numerous than chaff in only two samples, but includes large numbers of indeterminate grain or barley grain, while the chaff is dominated by wheat glume bases, for example in sample 5 (pit fill 1205), which is rich in barley. As grain always survives charring better than cereal chaff,[221] the deposits must represent assemblages either mixed prior to burning or containing material derived from more than one episode of burning and not from burnt wheat spikelets. The chaff and weed seeds must therefore represent the fine sievings, that is, the final stages of cereal processing, which may have been used as fuel or burnt as waste before being discarded. Some of the grain may represent tail grain that stayed with the chaff. The association of barley grains (which were much better preserved than the wheat grain) and wheat glume bases could occur as they were treated together, perhaps being stored for animal feed.

Three Iron Age samples show a slightly different composition (samples 40, 25 and 21), in that they produced a much greater percentage of weeds and, in samples 40 and 25, more grain than chaff. The number of items recovered from samples 25 and 21 were low, however, so the proportions may not be so representative and the low concentration would suggest that these deposits are mixed general waste and

214 H. Godwin, *History of the British Flora* (1975).

215 Campbell, op. cit. (note 200).

216 A. Evans and M. Jones, 'The Plant Remains', in G. Wainwright, *Gussage All Saints: An Iron Age Settlement in Dorset* (1979), 173.

217 Jones, op. cit. (note 203), 94.

218 Q.O.N. Kay, '*Anthemis cotula*', *Jnl. of Ecology*, lix (1971), 623–36.

219 S.M. Walters, '*Eleocharis*', *Jnl. of Ecology*, xxxvii (1949).

220 S.M. Walters, '*Montia fontana*', *Watsonia*, iii (1953), 1–6.

221 S. Boardman and G. Jones, 'Experiments on the Effects of Charring on Cereal Plant Components', *Jnl. of Archaeol. Science*, xvii (1990), 1–12.

possible background material. Sample 40, however, produced better numbers of weeds, including several indeterminate seeds and also a high proportion of species characteristic of waste ground or ruderal habitats. Such species also occur as arable weeds on nutrient-rich soils, particularly in spring-sown crops (e.g. *Fumaria* sp., *Stellaria media*, *Atriplex* sp., *Chenopodium album* and *Rumex* sp.). Sample 40 also produced a large number of *Eleocharis palustris* seeds and grass seeds. It is possible therefore that this sample included ruderal species around the settlement burnt as waste, and perhaps some burnt grassland species entering with burnt dung or turf. Alternatively, this assemblage could represent an earlier processing stage consisting of the by-products of winnowing pre-storage, which removes the bulk of the weeds, while the other samples contain more waste from the parching of spikelets post-storage and immediately pre-use.

The two Roman samples were taken from the lower fill (1461) of a 2nd-century corndrier (Fig. 20). A higher fill produced only very limited remains and was not analysed as it was thought to relate to the backfilling of the feature and not to its use. The analysed deposit is thought to represent waste collected during the use of the feature. Sample 3 was taken from the stoke hole end, while sample 4 was taken from the east end of the feature. The composition of the two samples appears broadly similar, although sample 3 was from 20 litres of deposit while sample 4 was from only 10 litres, therefore the concentration of remains is actually roughly double in sample 4 (228.2 items per litre as opposed to 94.9). The ratio of grain to chaff to weeds is very close in each sample. Grain forms approximately 20%, weeds 10% and chaff forms about 70%. *Triticum spelta* is clearly the principal cereal represented, although many of the *Triticum* grains were indeterminate to species. The occasional *Hordeum vulgare* grains and chaff and the *Triticum dicoccum* glume bases are possibly either contamination of the *T. spelta* crop or derive from other processing activities within the site. A large number of *Triticum*-type awn fragments were present, many of which were preserved as silica skeletons. A few sprouted coleoptiles were recovered, although they form a very minor component of the assemblages. Only one grain could be identified as being sprouted.

The large number of comparatively well-preserved glume bases and the poor preservation of the grain would indicate that the deposits include grain and chaff from separate sources, not just grain in spikelets. It is likely that the chaff was used as fuel, or had been thrown back into the structure as waste. Similar large chaff-rich deposits have been recovered from corndriers and associated pits elsewhere, for example from Catsgore, Somerset[222] and Birdlip Quarry, Gloucestershire.[223] An overview of evidence from corndriers by Van der Veen[224] suggested them to be multi-functional structures used for both malting and drying grain. Parching spikelets facilitates their de-husking. The use of spelt chaff and straw as a major component of the fuel used to fire the corndriers was demonstrated at Catsgore[225] and seems to be borne out by other examples. This would be particularly important in the malting process for beer because other fuels, such as wood, have a reputation for adversely affecting the flavour of the malt. While the general assemblage would suggest the present structure might have been used as a corndrier, there is no evidence that the material has been malted. The occasional detailed sprouted coleoptile could be from spoilt grain, and the majority of grain displays no sign of having sprouted (although many were too poorly preserved to tell). It would seem likely then that the structure was used for drying the grain or processing it on a large scale.

Discussion

The analysis of the Iron Age samples from Coxwell Road has demonstrated that, despite the limited number of samples, they are broadly comparable to those seen from Second Gravel Terrace sites within the Thames Valley, such as Ashville Trading Estate, Abingdon.[226] Such sites tend to suggest an extensive agricultural system based on spelt and six-row hulled barley. This was a period of agricultural expansion in much of Britain, which involved both the bringing of new areas under cultivation and the intensification of agricultural methods.[227] Previous archaeobotanical analysis from the Corallian sands of the Oxford Heights has been limited to assessment of samples produced during earlier excavations at Faringdon by TVAS[228] and at

[222] G.C. Hillman, 'Evidence for Spelting Malt', in R. Leech (ed.), *Excavations at Catsgore 1970–73: A Romano-British Village* (Western Archaeol. Trust Excavation Monograph, ii, 1982), 137–41.

[223] Pelling, op. cit. (note 204).

[224] M. Van der Veen, 'Charred Grain Assemblages from Roman-period Corndriers in Britain', *Archaeol. Jnl.* cxlvi (1989), 302–19.

[225] Hillman, op. cit. (note 222).

[226] Jones, op. cit. (note 203).

[227] M. Van der Veen and T. O'Connor, 'The Expansion of Agricultural Production in Late Iron Age and Roman Britain', in J. Bayley (ed.), *Science in Archaeology: An Agenda for the Future* (1998), 127–43.

[228] M.A. Robinson, 'Carbonised Plant Remains', in Weaver and Ford (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 176).

Hatford.[229] The concentration of remains recovered in this excavation was very low and provided no evidence for the scale of agricultural production or consumption. The present samples demonstrate that at least the late stages of cereal processing were taking place at the site from the early Iron Age onwards. The range of ecological habitats suggested by the weed seeds indicates that both low-lying damp ground and the higher sandy soils of the Heights themselves were probably being utilised, thus suggesting the site was producing its own cereals. The majority of the weeds suggest the cultivation of the calcareous soils which occur on the limestone and sands of the Oxford Heights, although some of the sandy soils are also acid, the cultivation of which is also suggested. There is some evidence for the cultivation of heavier clay soils, which must be situated within the Vale of White Horse, or in the Thames Valley to the north. There is no clear evidence for earlier sieving stages, although one weed-rich sample may contain early sieving and winnowing waste. This would further suggest that the site was involved in the cultivation and production of cereal crops as well as their consumption. The vast number of pits on the site might suggest collective storage of surplus grain throughout the main periods of occupation on the site.

The limited number of samples does not allow any conclusive comments concerning agricultural development through time. The corndrier samples suggest that the processing of cereals was operated on some scale, presumably as a collective process. This would suggest that by the Roman period cereal production was on a scale beyond the mere domestic. Chaff appears to have been used as fuel, which implies deliberate collection and storage. The general increase in weed diversity is common across Britain during the late Iron Age and Roman period, and must be related to greater movement of crops and their impurities. The Roman period may have seen the introduction of oats as a cultivated crop, and by this time there may have been a shift from principally autumn sowing to mixed autumn- and spring-sown crops, which would essentially enable increased agricultural output. The weed flora also hints at the increase in cultivation of new and possibly marginal land by the Roman period, with increased indicators of grassland and heavy clay soils. It is not clear if these developments were taking place gradually throughout the Iron Age, as is seen in the Thames Valley, or if they were the result of administrative reorganisation in the Roman period.

Conclusion

Previous archaeobotanical investigations at Faringdon produced very limited material, but this phase of the Coxwell Road excavations has been very productive. Sampling was limited, yet produced a good percentage of samples with useful assemblages. Previously it had been believed that agricultural activity on the Oxford Heights had only limited impact in the Iron Age. The present set of samples has demonstrated conversely that an extensive spelt-based agricultural system was in operation from the early Iron Age, possibly with increased expansion of arable land and intensification throughout the Iron Age and into the Roman period. This is much more in keeping with evidence recovered from sites within the Thames Valley and its tributaries. Both the light soils of the Corallian limestone and sands and the heavier clay soils at some distance into the Vale of White Horse or the Thames Valley seem to have been utilised. By the Roman period collective processing of grain may have taken place in corndriers. Barley was also cultivated in the Iron Age and Roman period, while oats may have been cultivated by the Roman period.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The excavation at Coxwell Road uncovered an early to middle Iron Age settlement with peripheral settlement activity dating to the late Iron Age and Roman periods. The excavation took place immediately to the north of an earlier excavation undertaken by Thames Valley Archaeological Services.[230]

The Iron Age settlement was in most respects typical of the period and the region. Like other Corallian Ridge sites such as Watchfield[231] and Hatford,[232] it had a mixed arable and pastoral economy with no evidence for specialisation. Grain may have been exported to

[229] R. Bourn, 'Manorhouse Farm, Hatford, Oxfordshire', in R.J. Zeepvat (ed.) *Three Iron Age and Romano-British Rural Settlements on English Gravels* (B.A.R. cccxii, 2000), 1–70.

[230] Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).

[231] R. Heawood, 'Iron Age and Roman Activity at Watchfield Triangle' (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 287–318).

[232] Bourn, op. cit. (note 229), 65–6; P. Booth and A. Simmons 'An Iron Age and Early Romano-British Site at Hatford Quarry, Sandy Lane, Hatford' (this volume of *Oxoniensia*, 319–54).

more specialised sites located in the river valley (Fig. 1), however, there is some evidence for the later stages of crop processing here and at Hatford.[233] From the early Iron Age onwards, sheep appear to have dominated animal husbandry at Faringdon and also at Hatford.[234] There was limited evidence for trade, which was mostly on a local scale.

There was a shift in settlement focus in the middle Iron Age, and the scarcity of late Iron Age remains suggests a further settlement shift out of the excavated area. The continued use of the site in the Roman period is demonstrated by the presence of a corndrier, an inhumation, a possible stone structure and the possibility of a small settlement.[235] There is little doubt that there was substantial Roman activity along the Corallian Ridge from the evidence gathered during fieldwalking of this area. The results were prolific, as temples, villas, roads and native settlements were identified. Of particular interest to this site was the field survey of the Vale of White Horse, where a substantial Roman villa was found on the low-lying ground, while a large native settlement was apparent on the slope above.[236] It is probable that the site at Coxwell Road reflects this general characteristic of continuity of native settlement into the Roman period.

An interesting aspect of the excavation was the special deposits, especially those with non-domesticated animal bone. Wild animal bones are not commonly found on Iron Age sites in this region, but where they do occur they are usually found as special deposits.[237] The location of possible special deposits in the entranceway to a roundhouse was also of interest.

Structural and stratigraphic evidence

Early prehistoric. The recovery of some residual early Mesolithic blade-based flint artefacts is evidence for sporadic early activity on the site, but whether these flints were the result of casual loss or of temporary use of the site for a specific task is uncertain. Residual Mesolithic flints were also found in the TVAS excavations to the south.[238]

Bronze Age. Evidence for Bronze Age activity on the site was also largely derived from residual finds, including flake-based flints and late Bronze Age pottery. Only one cut feature, Storage Pit 1079 (Fig. 4B), could be phased to this period with any degree of certainty. The presence of the storage pit suggests more than a casual, transient use of the area, but the discovery of only one Bronze Age feature from the site to the south suggests that either activity was limited or that the excavation located only the periphery of the settlement.

Early Iron Age. The excavated element of the early Iron Age settlement comprised three roundhouses (A, B and C) with associated pits and ditches (Figs. 4A and 4B). There was no evidence to suggest that the structures were not contemporaneous, although two different construction techniques were observed in the roundhouses. One roundhouse (A) appeared to be defined by a circular construction trench with an entrance to the east or south-east (Fig. 5). This would have held either split planks or posts with wattle and daub infilling. Within the ring of the construction trench were shallow post settings, presumably for supporting the roof. This roundhouse also had postholes around the exterior of the construction trench, which may have been support for protruding rafters. One posthole appeared to be a later addition, perhaps to provide extra support for a sagging rafter. Parallels for this style of

233 Bourn, op. cit. (note 229), 48.
234 Ibid. 63.
235 P. Booth, pers. comm.
236 Miles, op. cit. (note 3).
237 Hill, op. cit. (note 143), 63–4.
238 Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).

roundhouse are noted at West Brandon, Co. Durham.[239] This roundhouse also had a ditch to the south, to collect water draining from the roof, and a porched entrance. The second style of early Iron Age roundhouse construction consisted of a drainage ditch or eaves drip gully around a circular post-built structure (Roundhouses B and C, Figs. 8 and 9).

The pits from this period were distributed across the eastern part of the site, apart from a very discrete group towards the centre (Fig. 4). They respected the roundhouses, which suggests they were contemporaneous. There was no evidence of an enclosure around the pits to keep out animals or children, although there could have been lids of wood or wattle.

The centre of the early Iron Age settlement, south-east of Roundhouse C (Fig. 4A), was free of cut features. It is possible that there were buildings constructed in such a way as to leave no subsoil trace, or that this area was deliberately kept open. It has been suggested that activities such as winnowing of grain would require open spaces.[240] Such an open area might well represent the communal focus of the settlement. Close to this open area was a group of bell-shaped storage pits (Fig. 4). In the east of the site lay another similar storage pit (1022) (Fig. 7A). These were heavily reused, and have been interpreted as grain-storage pits.

Middle Iron Age. The middle Iron Age activity was mainly situated in the western part of the site, with some isolated features in the east (Figs. 13A and 13B). This shift in settlement focus was also apparent in the site to the south, where very little middle Iron Age material was uncovered. On this excavation Roundhouse D and associated or later enclosures were excavated in the south-western part of this site, and to the north a series of middle Iron Age enclosures were uncovered (Fig. 13A).

The earlier middle Iron Age enclosures comprised four phases of semicircular or circular ditches which cut the early Iron Age Roundhouse C (Fig. 9). The later phases of ditch roughly respected the earlier phases, and entrances to the north-west and south-east were maintained throughout all phases. The fact that there were two entrances suggests that the ditches did not define domestic roundhouses, but may have been animal enclosures or workshops. The discovery of two fragments of metalworking crucible in this area may be an indication that the enclosure was at one time used as a workshop. However, the number of associated special deposits, including the burial of part of a newborn infant, may indicate a different function. It is possible that the enclosure served both a practical and a ritual function.

The later middle Iron Age enclosures further south evolved around Roundhouse D (Fig. 15), which was defined by an eaves drip gully (1850). The enclosures were to the north of the structure and at least three of them (including a recut) were stratigraphically later. The original roundhouse was post-built with a drainage ditch and a possible terminus to the east. This was replaced by a four-post structure defined by postholes and surrounded by a semicircular ditch (1851), with its entrance to the south. The four-post structure was an approximate parallelogram in shape, with sides between 2.5 and 3.5 m. in length. Similar structures on Iron Age sites have been interpreted as granaries surrounded by a drainage ditch.[241, 242] The ditch around the four-post structure was recut on roughly the same alignment (1852).

239 Cunliffe, op. cit. (note 26), 212.
240 Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).
241 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 34.
242 B. Cunliffe, *English Heritage Book of Danebury* (1993), 65.

A semicircular enclosure (1853) which may post-date the enclosure with the four-post structure was constructed slightly to the north and facing south-east. This may have been either a workshop or an animal enclosure, but the absence of artefacts suggests the latter interpretation. The western arm of this enclosure (1854) was then extended to the south-east by a linear ditch. This has been interpreted as a drainage ditch, moving water away from the centre of the enclosure. Similar structures were found at Ashville[243] and other sites, where they have been variously interpreted as drainage ditches, windbreaks or walls. The lack of excavated structural features within the enclosure suggests that it is an animal pen.

Another semicircular ditch (1661) was cut to the north of this enclosure, possibly at the same time (Fig. 15). It is not clear whether this defined a roundhouse or whether it had some other function; there were a few postholes in the interior but they did not indicate any obvious structure. On sites where similar enclosures have been found it has been suggested that there may have been buildings with walls that do not leave subsoil traces, such as turf-walling.[244] The interior of the enclosure had a large number of pits, most of which were unexcavated. In the centre was an undated pit filled with burnt stones, which could represent pot-boilers, or the pit itself may have been a hearth. The domestic roundhouses in all phases had their entrances aligned east or south-east, but the putative workshops and animal enclosures do not follow the same pattern.

Towards the centre of the site was a boundary line, orientated north-west to south-east (Figs. 13 and 18). This comprised at least two phases of ditch, the earliest of which (1485; Fig. 18) was augmented by a post-built fence to the south. The later phase consisted of two ditches (1487 and 1482), the latter of which was considerably narrower. A possible terminus to this boundary was uncovered to the south-east, of which two phases were visible. Traces of other boundary ditches were also recorded (Fig. 13). A densely packed group of pits and ditches (Ditch Group 2, Fig. 13A) occupied the centre of the previously open space, suggesting that the focus of the settlement had changed.

Roman. There was very little material on the site that could be phased specifically to the late Iron Age, and no evidence of domestic occupation in that period (Fig. 19), which suggests either a break in occupation at this time or a shift in the location of the settlement centre. The late Iron Age/Roman material consisted of sherds with a large average sherd weight, suggesting that there was a settlement close by, although again no evidence of domestic occupation in that period was found on the site. In the Roman period, the large size and good condition of the pot sherds, and the occurrence of Roman pot in a large number of the pits (Table 26),[245] also suggest the close proximity of a settlement. The nature of excavated features from this period suggest peripheral or small-scale industrial activity.

It is possible that the group of enclosure ditches, seen in plan surrounding the excavated sondage through Ditch Group 3 (Fig. 19A), may represent a small early Roman settlement. The overall character of the ditches with their irregular, trapezoidal plan plus their substantial width, are very similar to nearby sites such as Hatford[246] and the classic late Iron Age enclosures found at Linch Hill Corner, Stanton Harcourt.[247] At both Hatford and Linch

243 Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 34.

244 D. Jennings, J. Muir, S. Palmer and A. Smith, *Thornhill Farm, Fairford, Gloucester: An Iron Age and Roman Pastoral Site in the Upper Thames* (OA Thames Valley Landscape Monograph, 2003).

245 Bryan et al., op. cit. (note 15).

246 Bourn, op. cit. (note 229), 17–19.

247 W.F. Grimes, 'Excavations at Stanton Harcourt, Oxon, 1940', *Oxoniensia*, viii/ix (1943), 19–63.

Hill Corner, the ditches are unusually large for the size of the area they enclose, and this is also reflected in the pattern of ditches at this site. From the dating of these comparable sites, it may indicate that the settlement dates from the middle of the 1st century AD.[248]

The corn-drying kiln was cut into a middle Iron Age enclosure in the western area of the site (Figs. 19, 20 and 21). It was constructed of roughly coursed limestone blocks inside a construction trench, with a stoke hole at the western end. Pottery associated with its construction was dated to the 2nd century AD. Inside was a burnt deposit of wheat, barley, chaff and weeds, sealed by redeposited natural backfill after abandonment. Pottery associated with the abandonment layers was dated to the 2nd to 3rd century AD, indicating that the corndrier was constructed and abandoned within one hundred years. The corndrier was cut by a gully dating to the 3rd century AD.

The rubble spread in the south of the excavated area was interpreted as a destruction layer derived from the collapse of a stone building, but no evidence for other structural remains were found (Fig. 19A). Amongst the rubble was a 3rd-century coin and 3rd-century pottery. The rubble spread was linked to a building on the southern site interpreted as a shrine, although there is little evidence to suggest this in the current excavations.

The cobbled area identified in an evaluation trench (02 on Fig. 2B) seems to have been an attempt to dry out a marginal area of land, possibly for use as a trackway. Traces of east to west and north to south ditches across the site may represent boundary ditches or the fragmentary remains of a field system (Fig. 19).

There were two pits with special or structured deposits, one of which (1188; Fig. 5) was placed within the EIA Roundhouse A. This suggests that the remains of the structure may have been visible at the time of deposition, although the placement could have been merely fortuitous. The spot on which the former roundhouse stood may have been differentiated by varying vegetation, since the area would probably have had enhanced levels of phosphates and possibly also organic material from the decayed structural remains.

The Roman burial, a crouched inhumation aged 6 to 7 years old, was found in a grave which was cut into a large ditch (Figs. 19A, 22 and 23). The ditch was orientated north to south and may have been a trackway along the western edge of the Iron Age settlement. Roman burials are often found along roads or trackways, and in the countryside the dead (apart from infants) were usually buried outside the farm precincts.[249] In this region pit burial probably continued as the standard burial practice into the early Roman period, whereas inhumation became more common in the 3rd to 5th centuries. Along with the Romano-British pottery found in the cut, this suggests that it was a post-2nd-century burial.[250]

Special or structured deposits

Type of deposit. There were a number of special or structured deposits at Coxwell Road, which included human remains, animal remains and artefacts (Table 42). There were also three pits with special deposits on the site to the south, including a pit with two complete horse skulls and a scapula, a pit with a fox, a raven and two newborn piglets, and a pit with a complete pot.[251]

248 P. Booth, pers. comm.
249 P. Salway, *Roman Britain* (1981).
250 P. Booth, 'Late Roman Cemeteries in Oxfordshire: A Review', *Oxoniensia*, lxvi (2002), 13–42.
251 Hamilton-Dyer, op. cit. (note 177).

TABLE 42. SPECIAL DEPOSITS AND POTENTIAL SPECIAL DEPOSITS (INCLUDES TVAS SITES)

Phase	*Feature*	*Description*
EIA	Posthole 1281 Roundhouse A	Songbird (passerine) humerus. Located on the ring ditch terminus
EIA	Porch post? 1229 Roundhouse A	Possible porch post with the mandible of a water vole, 2 rodent tibia, possibly water vole, $^1/_2$ a saddle quern, quern fragments, metal, pottery
EIA	Eavesdrip gully, Roundhouse B (1454)	?Greensand grinding board, 14 EIA potsherds
EIA	Eavesdrip gully, Roundhouse C (1845)	Complete horse skull
EIA	Pit 1176 (in Roundhouse C)	Horse's leg
EIA	Pit 1022	Quern stone fragments, dog burial, disarticulated human remains, abundant pottery and animal bone (including 88 burnt fragments), ?stone counter, clay loomweight
EIA	Pit 1780	Two dogs and a partial rodent skeleton, possibly water vole
EIA	Pit 1096	Roe deer scapula, songbird tibiotarsus, dog's jawbone, burnt animal bone
EIA	Ditch 1200	Possible enclosure ditch with quern fragment, 16 sherds EIA pottery
MIA 1	Pit 1216 (in enclosure)	Disarticulated human remains; pit cuts Enclosure Ditch 1846, cut by Enclosure 1847
MIA 1	Pit 1390 (in enclosure)	Pit with disarticulated human remains, and mallard radius and ulna. Pit cuts Enclosure Ditch 1847
MIA 1	Enclosure 1848	Horse skull, crucible, ?stone tile
MIA 1	Pit 1802 (in enclosure)	Within enclosure, cutting 1848. Upper half of human neonate (premature)
MIA 2	Pit 1306	Dog mandible
MIA 2	Enclosure 1852	Partial remains of a cattle skull
MIA 2	Pit 1380	Final fill: quern fragment (burnt), 43 MIA potsherds, bone, cereal, weed seeds
LIA/RB	Pit 1472	2nd-century pot in primary fill, 86 sherds of a single EIA pot in secondary (final) fill
LIA/RB	Pit/Posthole 1188 Roundhouse A	22 sherds of a single pot. Deposited in EIA roundhouse

The recognition of special deposits of an unusual type is not always clear, but on this site these have been interpreted using the work of Hill.[252] Special deposits often include the bone of wild animals that do not commonly appear in domestic Iron Age contexts, and also include whole pots and animal skeletons alongside human bone fragments and quern stones. Where there were a number of artefacts in one deposit, as in Pit 1022 (Figs. 4B and 7A), the interpretation seems clearer.

The recovery of wild animal bones was of particular interest. At Coxwell Road a songbird humerus was found with no other distinguishing artefacts, but the context was a posthole cutting the eaves drip gully terminus, which may support the interpretation of this as a special deposit. The presence of water vole bones together with artefacts such as quern stones, metal and the burial of two dogs might suggest that the small rodents were not pit fall victims, but were deliberately placed. Heron and thrush bones were found in middle Iron Age pits at Winnall Down, mallard and raven bones were found at Balksbury, and kittiwake and cormorant bones were found at Danebury.[253] At Winnall Down the bird bone occurred together with human bone in five out of the eight pits where it occurred.[254]

Location of deposit. The statistical analysis of Iron Age pits at Danebury and other Wessex sites demonstrated the presence of special deposits, which could be distinguished from rubbish which was simply discarded.[255] Special deposits are more commonly recognised in Iron Age pits, but increasingly they are also seen in other features.

The location of special deposits in entranceways and boundaries is a common feature of Bronze Age sites,[256] and the practice continued into the Iron Age. Concentrations of artefacts in the terminals of enclosures on Iron Age sites were interpreted as household waste that had accumulated near the entranceways when the houses and yards were swept clean,[257] but such entranceways are now thought to have been marked by special deposits. The enclosure terminals at Gravelly Guy contained horse and cattle skulls and large sherds from a single pot,[258] and at Abingdon a complete human skeleton was buried in a pit which cut the terminal of an enclosure ditch.[259] Horse and cattle skulls were also found in features relating to or enclosing Iron Age domestic structures at Bicester Fields Farm[260] and Farmoor, Oxfordshire.[261] Complete pots were found together with metalworking waste, skull fragments and animal bone in the ring ditches around Iron Age houses at Elms Farm, Leicestershire,[262] and human bone was found in both the outer and inner enclosure ditches at Mingies Ditch.[263]

[252] Hill, op. cit. (note 143), 95–101.
[253] Hill, op. cit. (note 143), 63.
[254] Ibid.
[255] Hill, op. cit. (note 143), 18–30.
[256] J. Bruck, 'A Place for the Dead: The Role of Human Remains in Late Bronze Age Britain', *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society*, lxi (1995), 245–78.
[257] Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).
[258] Lambrick and Allen, op. cit. (note 16).
[259] Parrington, op. cit. (note 68), 22.
[260] Cromarty et al., op. cit. (note 173).
[261] Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37).
[262] M. Charles, A. Parkinson and S. Foreman, 'A Bronze Age Ditch and Iron Age Settlement at Elms Farm, Humberstone, Leicester', *Transactions of the Leicestershire Archaeol. and Historical Soc.* lxxiv (2000), 113–220.
[263] Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188), 148.

Special deposits were identified at Coxwell Road in the eaves drip gullies, enclosure gullies and in pits within the enclosures. There were also three pits with special deposits (1022; Figs. 4B and 7A, 1096; Fig. 5, and 1780; Figs. 4A and 11) which did not have any obvious spatial associations. Of particular interest were the two possible special deposits in the postholes of Roundhouse A. The practice of placing special deposits in the postholes of roundhouses is known from several sites, but does not appear to be common. Cremated human bone and placed pottery deposits were found in the postholes of a number of structures on the late Bronze Age site at South Hornchurch, in the Thames Valley, Essex[264] and one of the postholes of a structure at Mingies Ditch[265] contained a number of unfired clay loomweights that appeared to have been used as post-packing. The placement of special deposits in structure entranceways seems to be another way of marking out territorial boundaries, but on a smaller, familial scale. This practice can be said to continue today, for example in Brittany where crosses are placed in doorways and in Turkey and other eastern countries, where a fetish is placed in doorways to ward off the evil eye.

Environment and economy

The site of Faringdon is located in the Thames Valley, where there is extensive evidence for clearance and settlement from as early as the middle and late Bronze Age. There are at least 44 middle and late Bronze Age field systems recorded in the Middle and Upper Thames Valley alone,[266] and the open landscape at that time is also demonstrated by pollen and molluscan analysis.[267] By the middle Bronze Age there is evidence for a raised water table in the Upper Thames Valley, and by the middle Iron Age the effects of forest clearance, ploughing, grazing and winter sowing had lead to the accumulation of alluvium.[268]

By the Iron Age the clearance was extending up into the tributaries of the Thames,[269] but this may also have taken place earlier and there is evidence that the Windrush Valley was cleared and intensively settled by the middle Iron Age.[270] Pollen analysis from Mingies Ditch, Hardwick-with-Yelford, indicated forest clearance in the late Bronze Age, which was also suggested by the discovery of a number of Bronze Age tree pits containing charcoal.[271]

There was only one clearly Bronze Age feature at Faringdon (and a second on the southern site), but it is evident from other studies that the region was cleared of primary forest before the Iron Age. Charred cereal remains dating to the middle Bronze Age were recovered from the nearby site at Abingdon, together with at least eleven species of arable weed.[272] The Iron Age site at Faringdon was set within an open landscape which was becoming more densely populated and more intensively farmed. The increase in size of the MIA pits suggests that more grain was being stored, possibly due to increasing population pressures.

264 E.B.A. Guttmann and J. Last, 'A Late Bronze Age Landscape at South Hornchurch, Essex', *Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society*, lxvi (2000), 319–59.

265 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).

266 D.T. Yates, 'Bronze Age Field Systems in the Thames Valley', *Oxf. Jnl. of Archaeology*, xviii (1999), 157–70.

267 M.A. Robinson, 'Landscape and Environment of Central Southern Britain in the Iron Age', in B.W. Cunliffe and D. Miles (eds), *Aspects of the Iron Age in Central Southern Britain* (1984), 2–11.

268 Miles, op. cit. (note 6), 1–19.

269 Miles, op. cit. (note 6).

270 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).

271 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).

272 Jones, op. cit. (note 203).

Cereal cultivation. The charred cereal remains at Faringdon included spelt, barley and occasional emmer, an assemblage that is typical of Iron Age sites in the region. The weed seed assemblage was perhaps more interesting, indicating the wide range of soils and drainage conditions that were cultivated. Most of the arable land in the Iron Age at Faringdon was on calcareous soils, but some was on heavy clays, which would have been more difficult to cultivate. The clays were increasingly cultivated as arable production intensified in the LIA/Roman period. The use of increasingly marginal soils in the Roman period is a pattern also noted at Watchfield. Here the land was divided into transects from high to low-lying ground, so that each farm could exploit a range of soil types.[273]

Arable production can be increased by improving the output on land already under cultivation, as well as by expanding the arable area. Some of the cultivated land at Faringdon in the Iron Age was nitrogen rich, and some was nitrogen poor; the nitrogen rich land was probably manured, a practice well known to the Gauls and also employed in Iron Age Britain.[274] By the Roman period manuring of arable land was widespread, and agricultural treatises written at the time describe in detail how to manure different types of crops.[275] Manuring also provided the additional nutrients needed to produce several crops a year, and the weed species recovered from Faringdon indicate that there was a change from mainly autumn sowing in the early and middle Iron Age to both autumn and spring sowing in the Roman period.

The expansion of agricultural production is an indication of increasing population, increased trade or both. In Iron Age Britain and Europe the population was expanding[276] and trade was probably also increasing. The site at Faringdon, however, appears to have been low-status and not particularly wealthy, and grain may have been sold or traded with local sites such as the specialist pastoral sites of Farmoor[277] or Mingies Ditch.[278] It may also have been brought to one or both of the nearby hillforts of Badbury and Little Coxwell (Fig. 1). Both saddle querns and rotary querns were found on the site, indicating that grain was processed at the settlement.

In addition to increasing production for trade, the cultivation of both damp and freely draining soils would have provided some security, enabling crops to survive both wet and dry conditions. The damp, low-lying fields which produced the sedge and other marsh species seeds would have sustained a crop during dry seasons, when the other fields would have suffered from drought. The crops on freely draining soils would have been more likely to survive during wet periods, when the lower-lying fields would have become waterlogged. This added security would have been important to a community that depended on arable produce.

Livestock. The species distribution was similar to that of the southern site, with sheep predominating, followed by cow, pig and horse. In the middle Iron Age a possible animal pen was attached to one of the roundhouses. In the early Iron Age the sheep were slaughtered before they reached one year, which suggests that at least a portion were kept

273 Heawood, op. cit. (note 231).
274 E.B. Guttmann, I.A. Simpson and D.A. Davidson, 'Manuring Practices in Antiquity: A Review of the Evidence', in M. Brickley and D. Smith (eds), *Fertile Ground: Papers in Honour of Susan Limbrey* (in press).
275 A.J. Fenton, 'Early Manuring Techniques', in R. Mercer (ed.), *Farming Practice in British Prehistory* (1981), 210–17.
276 Cunliffe, op. cit. (note 26).
277 Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37).
278 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).

primarily for their meat. A shortage of fodder for overwintering the animals may also have been a problem. In the middle Iron Age and later more mature animals were kept, suggesting that a greater emphasis was being placed on wool. The majority of cattle bone was from mature animals, but a single calf mandible indicates some breeding did take place. Fewer males than females were kept, which suggests an emphasis on dairy over meat.

The horse remains found on the site came entirely from mature animals. This indicates that they were not bred on the site, but may have been traded with nearby settlements in the river valleys. Such specialist settlements have been excavated at Farmoor[279] and Mingies Ditch,[280] where horses were bred and grain was not grown.

There is evidence that dogs were kept in the settlement, particularly in the early Iron Age. In this period a pit was found with two articulated canine skeletons deliberately placed in the base, and the articulated skeleton of a young dog was found in an early Iron Age pit on the southern excavation.[281] Dogs could have been used for herding sheep, protecting the settlement, and hunting. Disarticulated canine bones found elsewhere on the site contained butchery marks, which suggests they may also have been eaten.

The only wild animal bones on the site were those of songbirds, rodents and roe deer. The only wild animal bone on the southern site was a red deer antler,[282] which could have been picked up after it had been shed. The small proportion of wild animal bone is typical of the Iron Age in this region, and suggests that there was an almost total dependence on domestic animals for food and other products. However, it is possible that wild animal remains were subject to different preparation and deposition techniques, and were buried off site. The livestock in the Roman period were kept in the same proportions as in the Iron Age, although the size of late Iron Age/Roman cattle appeared to be larger than their earlier counterparts. Sheep were kept until they were older, which implies a greater emphasis on wool than on meat, and possibly also the greater availability of fodder.

Trade and industry

There is little direct evidence on this site for trade in the Iron Age period. A small quantity of Droitwich briquetage was found, indicating that the settlement traded for salt; a single sherd of briquetage was also found on the site to the south. The querns were made from local stone, and the botanical remains suggest that the settlement was self-sufficient in its cereal production and preparation. The large number of storage pits on the site might suggest that the settlement traded surplus grain for some other commodity, and it has been suggested above that horses might have been traded locally. It is always possible that organic goods that leave little or no trace in the archaeological record were also being exchanged. Copper alloy and iron brooches were found on the site (Figs. 34.1 and 34.4), and probably represent luxury items that were bought through trade, but it is difficult to say which of the metal finds were traded and which were produced on site.

Quantities of slag, hammerscale and smithing hearth bottoms found in Iron Age contexts indicate that metalworking was taking place in the settlement. In particular, two fragments of crucible with bronze-working residues were found in the area of the earlier middle Iron Age enclosure, which suggests that copper alloy production was taking place on site. As the crucibles (along with all of the metalworking debris) were redeposited in ditches and pits,

279 Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37).
280 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).
281 Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).
282 S. Hamilton-Dyer, op. cit. (note 177).

they do not pinpoint precise locations for activity. The use of metal tools is demonstrated by the presence of whetstones in contexts from all periods, and two iron blades were recovered, including one from a Roman context (Fig. 34.5). Textile production is indicated by the presence of spindle whorls and loomweights, although weaving was probably only on a domestic rather than an industrial scale. Textile production continued in the late Iron Age and Roman times, as attested by two spindle whorls made from reused late Iron Age pottery bases.[283]

Evidence for trade in the Roman period is derived partly from the artefacts and partly from the evidence for increased agricultural production. The majority of the pottery found on the site was a reduced sandy ware that could have been locally produced, although there were examples of imports such as the mica-dusted bowl from London (Fig. 28.39).[284] There was also a small quantity of Dorset-produced black-burnished ware. There was very little continental material, apart from a small amount of Central Gaulish Samian ware. These proportions were also mirrored on the site to the south.[285] Evidence for both trade and increased cereal production is demonstrated by the presence of rotary querns from Sussex and the Forest of Dean. The presence of a corndrier also suggests large-scale, possibly industrial-scale, grain processing. These artefacts support the botanical evidence for increased arable production.

In the 1st to 2nd century there was an increase in the range of pottery fabrics, with a move from handmade coarse wares and wheel-made vessels to Roman grey ware and fine ware. The assemblage was dominated by jars, with specialist wares such as amphorae and mortaria almost completely absent.[286] This suggests that the site was of a fairly low status.

Conclusions

The Iron Age settlement at Faringdon is typical of the Corallian Ridge sites in the region. Set within an increasingly densely settled agricultural landscape, it had a mixed arable and pastoral economy and in the early phases it depended almost entirely on local materials. Surplus grain was probably stored in pits and may have been traded with local pastoral settlements such as Farmoor[287] and Mingies Ditch[288] in the valley bottoms. In the middle Iron Age more marginal land was taken into cultivation and trade increased, with commodities such as salt and querns coming in from farther afield. By the Roman period the arable weed seeds, rotary querns and a corndrier demonstrate that the scale and intensity of agricultural production had expanded further.

The special deposits of the Iron Age were of interest both because of their composition and their location. Special deposits of wild animals are known from other Iron Age sites in the region, but there are not so many that they can be described as 'typical'. Skeletal remains from small rodents, possibly water voles, were tentatively interpreted as placed deposits, based on their inclusion in pits with more obvious special deposits such as quern stones, metal, and the burial of two dogs. More unusual were the special deposit and another potential deposit found in features interpreted as structural porch posts.

283 Bryan et al., op. cit. (note 15).
284 Ibid.
285 Weaver and Ford, op. cit. (note 13).
286 Bryan et al., op. cit. (note 15).
287 Lambrick and Robinson, op. cit. (note 37).
288 Allen and Robinson, op. cit. (note 188).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Oxford Archaeology (OA) would like to thank Bryant Homes for funding the archaeological investigations, post-excavation analysis and publication. The project was directed by Andrew Mudd. Thanks are also due to the specialists who contributed reports and to OA staff, for their assistance both during the excavation and later. Adam Brossler and Jonathan Chandler undertook initial post-excavation work, Jo Cook and Erika Guttmann of OA North undertook the final analysis and wrote the report, and Paul Booth provided assistance and specialist knowledge. Carol Allen managed and edited the post-excavation work and Wendy Sherlock copy-edited the report. Illustrations for the report were produced by Emma Carter and Adam Parsons.