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Recent work in the environs of Brecon Gaer Roman fort

By Richard Hankinson,[1] Joe Lewis,[2] Evan Chapman,[3] Hugh Toller,[4] Peter Webster,[5] Wendy Owen[1] and Bob Silvester[1]

INTRODUCTION
By Bob Silvester

The Roman fort of Brecon Gaer is positioned on a bluff overlooking the river Usk, some five kilometres upstream of the cathedral town of Brecon (Fig.1). Generally recognised as one of the nodal points in the network of Roman military bases that spread across Wales in the first century AD, it made an appearance in charters in the twelfth century and witnessed intermittent interest from antiquaries from the end of the seventeenth century. Thomas Dineley, accompanying the Duke of Beaufort on his progress through Wales in 1684, was told of the Gaer by the town clerk of Brecon (Dineley and Barker 1864, 115), Sir Richard Colt Hoare visited it on at least two further occasions after an initial visit in 1793 (Thompson 1983, 37), and his friend Richard Fenton in 1804 stated it was 'charmingly situated near the Usk; nor can a finer situation be imagined' (Fisher 1917, 23). Nearby, on the green way leading back to Brecon was a further draw, the Roman tombstone known as *Maen y Morwynion* ('Maidens' Stone') which had been found close to the fort in the sixteenth century. To Frances Haverfield, probably the leading Romanist in the early twentieth century Brecon Gaer was 'probably the most famous of all Roman forts in Wales', written of course at a time when rather fewer such military installations had been recognised, while to Grace Simpson half a century later 'Brecon [was] the pivot for military movement into the mountainous region of central Wales' (Haverfield 1909; Simpson 1963, 16). Unlike Haverfield, today's archaeologists are less likely to engage such superlatives, at least in print, but no one can doubt Brecon Gaer's importance in the military landscape of Roman Wales. In early observations the site was generally referred to as The Gaer or Y Gaer, the prefix Brecon only coming to prominence in the twentieth century, a means of distinguishing it from the many other Welsh sites carrying a similar title.

It is with Mortimer Wheeler that Brecon Gaer is inexorably linked (Fig. 2). In his autobiography he recounted that 'the completion of our work in Segontium and light which it threw upon North Wales turned our minds inevitably to the South . . . . The map and reconnaissance directed us to the Roman fort near Brecon on the fishful river of Usk. There, in an attractive countryside, was a place which, in spite of its present seclusion, had been a nodal point in the Roman road system; its history could not fail to reflect that of South Wales as a whole. . . . For two summer seasons (1924–25) we worked at the Brecon Gaer, and the site produced all that was demanded of it, from Early Roman to Dark Age. On the whole, it was, I suppose, the happiest and least anxious of all my enterprises' (Wheeler 1958). As an appendix to the excavation report makes clear, the Cambrian Archaeological Association were generous supporters of his excavations (Wheeler 1926, 256).[6]

Prompt publication followed, as was usually the case with Wheeler, but his two seasons of excavation in and around the fort may have inhibited others from undertaking further explorations. John Casey examined one of the corner turrets of the fort for the Ministry of Public Buildings and Works in 1970 (Casey 1971), but almost all of the writings since the Second World War that have focused on Brecon Gaer have been synthetic assessments of past work. Grace Simpson (1963) reassessed the pottery from Wheeler's excavations and emerged with a new timeline for the use of the fort; Michael Jarrett's site-specific reassessment identified interpretational problems (1968); the Royal Commission produced an

Fig. 1. Aerial photograph of Brecon Gaer from the south-east in 2005, showing its position within the confluence of the Usk valley in the foreground and the wooded valley of the Ysgir beyond. *Photograph: Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust, taken by Nigel Jones.*

excellent in-depth description of the fort with new plans in the *Brecknock Inventory* (1986), and three editions of *The Roman Frontier in Wales* (Nash-Williams 1954; Jarrett 1969), the third with a slightly different title and a wider geographical remit (Burnham and Davies 2010), have contributed increasingly comprehensive summaries of the fort.

The most recent volume was able to draw on new work undertaken by the Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust, grant-aided by Cadw, which seems appropriate given that some of the fort is in the guardianship of the state. This work coincided with a spate of metal-detecting across unscheduled areas around the fort, the passage of a gas pipeline to the north of the fort that exposed an unanticipated stretch of Roman road, and the discovery of a mirror burial, another metal-detecting find from somewhere in the broader environs of the fort (Redknap 2011, 90). All of the discoveries add to our overall picture of Roman activity in and around Brecon Gaer, so it seems appropriate to assess them collectively, at a time when Cadw in conjunction with the landowner is improving public access to the fort.

THE FORT AND ITS *VICUS*

Brecon Gaer measures 204m by 154m enclosing an area of 3.14 hectares (7.8 acres) ranking it amongst the largest forts in Wales, all of them lying in modern Powys (Burnham and Davies 2010, fig. 2.7). Opinion from Wheeler's time onwards favoured a composite garrison of both cavalry and infantry. Excavations

Fig. 2. Mortimer Wheeler and his team beside the well excavated in front of the granary by the north gate of the fort in 1924 or 1925. *Photograph courtesy of Eric Jones.*

by Wheeler and later Casey defined several phases of construction spreading over a protracted length of time. The defences of the Flavian fort (*c*. AD 80–100) had a turf-revetted clay rampart set on a cobbled foundation and fronted by two ditches (though these have never been sectioned). Both the *principia* and the *praetorium* were of timber, and it is assumed that so too were other buildings such as the granaries.

The fort was refurbished during the Antonine period (after AD 140). The rampart, raised to a height of 3m, was faced in stone, there were four corner towers, and it can be assumed that the four gates were all stone-built, though only three are accessible, the north gate lying beneath a modern farm range. The special treatment afforded the west gate with its twin guard towers projecting, a feature absent on the south and east, should be noted, although all had double carriageways. Probably though not certainly, the *principia* and the *praetorium* were rebuilt in stone at this time. So little of a granary lying to the north of the *principia* survived that it was impossible to attribute a date or phase to it; a well had been dug between the two buildings. The street plan within the interior of the fort was clarified by Wheeler in a set of trenches whose depiction in his definitive report was restricted to where his team encountered gravelled road surfaces (1926, fig. 107), creating the unresolved issue as to what features were uncovered in the *insulae* between.

A third phase saw the reinforcement of the defences by a solid revetment behind the rampart, which blocked the south and east gates and cut across the north-east angle tower. Wheeler thought this post-Roman while Casey was rather more ambivalent (Casey and Davies 2010, 201).

Not all of the known archaeology within the fort, however, can be accommodated comfortably within such a simple three-phase sequence, for the fort appears to have continued in use through the second, third

and at least part of the fourth century and is unlikely to have remained unaltered throughout that long period. The headquarters building (*principia*) was at some stage extended with a forehall that spanned the entire north to south road within the fort whilst blocking the west one. John Casey (Casey and Davies 2010, 203) has speculated that this could be linked to the changing functions of garrisoned forts in the mid third or fourth century as seen elsewhere. A bathhouse was constructed in the centre of the north-western *insula*, an area that would probably have contained barrack blocks in the initial occupation phase of the fort. It is not clear whether early second-century tiles found in the bathhouse were re-used or new and thus contemporary products; but the pottery evidence suggests that it was still functioning into the first half of the fourth century and was then converted into a residence or an ancillary building (Simpson 1963, 32). And there are some features such as an underground strong room that could reflect Severan modifications in the early third century.

John Casey's excavation apart, nothing has happened of archaeological intent within the fort itself since Wheeler's time. In 1953 the three gateways—fenced off after the excavations thirty years before—were placed in the guardianship of the Ministry of Public Buildings and Works, the predecessor of Cadw, along with the best-preserved stretch of the defences on the north-east side. The rest of the fort has stayed in private ownership, and our knowledge of its internal layout remains as sketchy as in did in the 1920s.

Recognition that a *vicus* or civilian settlement had grown up outside the northern defences of the fort was based initially on reports of Roman finds being made by workmen building a new farmhouse 100m to the north of the fort in the years around 1900. During his two seasons on site, Wheeler cut trenches on both sides of the Roman road in the fields between the fort and the house, and five long trenches in the field north of the new house. The exact positions of the trenches were not shown on the published plan, so it has to be assumed that three of them encountered stone buildings remains called buildings A, B and C in the excavation report and which were shown on the accompanying plan (see Fig. 4). One trench cut through a sequence of four clay floors with occupation layers lying about 55m north of the north gate and presumably signalled a timber building though this was not further examined. Five long trenches to the north of the farmhouse exposed hut floors and post-holes at a greater distance from the fort. With the parchmark of the road from the north gate at the centre, Wheeler was able to postulate 'an almost continuous series of buildings for a distance of 300 yards from the fort' (1926, 57), these being represented primarily by a combination of postholes, clay and cobble floors in association with material of first and second-century date.

The stone buildings in the *vicus* appear ill-matched. Building A was end on to, and east of, the road leading north from the fort, and overlay an earlier occupation level. It was rectangular with rough stone foundations and has generally been interpreted as a workshop, probably because of the oven or kiln close to the building's south wall and the iron slag lying near it. Building B was set back from the north road, on the lip of the steep-sided Ysgir valley. Of several phases, it was larger and considerably more complex than building A, not assisted by the remains of a cottage of probable sixteenth-century date overlying it. A central 'court' had two blocks of rooms attached, one with a small bath-suite. Both the Royal Commission and John Casey tentatively identify this as a guest house or *mansio* for the imperial post. Only the residual foundations of building C, lying close against the northern ditches of the fort, were examined in 'casual digging' (Wheeler 1926, 68); on the basis of this slight evidence (and with no extant plan), commentators have been content to follow Wheeler in seeing this as the original extramural bathhouse.

We need to recognise at this point that the elucidation of extramural activity around Roman forts was in its infancy at the time that Wheeler involved himself with Brecon Gaer, and that in this respect he was undoubtedly a pioneer. He himself noted that 'knowledge of the character and extent of the "civil settlements" which tended to grow up outside the more permanent Roman forts is, in this country, pitifully meagre' (1926, 76), and for parallels it was to the continent that he looked, primarily in Germany. The

examination in the 1930s of the *vicus* at Housesteads behind Hadrian's Wall is held to mark the beginning of a more specific research interest in what was happening beyond the defences of Roman forts, but even so it was probably not until the 1970s that the study of extramural settlements really began to develop (Sommer 1984, 2). At Brecon Gaer the discoveries made in the 1920s were probably sufficient to obviate the need for further research around the fort. Certainly the only archaeology in recent times has involved the cleaning and recording of a section within a mechanically excavated wildfowl pond beyond the fort's south-east corner which exposed a possible clay pit, partially refilled with organic material and fragments of second-century Roman pottery (Dorling 1990, 54; location shown on Fig. 8).

Some eighty years on from Wheeler's pioneering work at Brecon Gaer, the need for a deeper appreciation of the civilian settlements that emerged around the forts of Wales was recognised by Cadw and the Welsh Archaeological Trusts. Aerial photography has with the occasional exception such as Tomen y Mur, proved to be generally uninformative on extramural activity across Wales. However, initial studies in Gwynedd from 1999 revealed the rich potential of geophysical survey outside forts such as Pennal and Caerhun (Hopewell 2005) and the technique was subsequently employed in other regions. For the implementation of a similar approach in Powys, Brecon Gaer was an obvious starting point, though geophysics had already been used at Castell Collen in 1997 (Britnell *et al*. 1999) and with remarkable effect at Hindwell near New Radnor in 1998 (Gibson 1999). It was appreciated too that geophysics was unlikely to provide a complete picture, so it was supplemented by a phase of test-pitting which became all the more imperative when geophysics offered a blank picture outside the east gate of the fort, an area where metal-detected finds were coming up in abundance.

INVESTIGATION OF THE *VICUS*

By Richard Hankinson

Geophysical survey

Geophysical survey provides the opportunity to assess the potential of large areas of ground relatively rapidly (Fig. 3). At Brecon Gaer this involved a magnetic gradiometer which can detect small changes in the magnetic response of the soil, the resulting anomalies indicative of both sub-surface archaeological features and naturally occurring phenomena. The first two seasons of work, in 2004 and 2005 (Hopewell 2004; Silvester and Hankinson 2006) were guided by work on similar *vicus* sites in Gwynedd (Hopewell 2005), but were constrained to the north of the fort by the ancillary buildings of Gaer Farm which overlie the north gate and an area extending for about 50m beyond, ruling out access to some of those sectors of the *vicus* closest to the fort. Otherwise the geophysics coverage was designed to examine ground on each side of the fort, with the aim of clarifying the location and extent of extramural activity.

The first season of geophysics revealed a previously unrecognised stone building lying about 100m north-north-west of the north gate, but back from the frontage on the road leading from the fort gate. It consisted of at least eight rooms and measured overall about 27m in length on its north-north-east/south-south-west axis and 25m in width. Maintaining the published notation from the 1920s, this has been called building D. Its location in relation to both building B and the road network is shown in *Roman Frontiers* (Burnham and Davies 2010, fig. 7.27). Further traces of the extramural activity that Wheeler had recorded alongside the road from the north gate appeared in thermo-remanent anomalies that suggested hearths within buildings, several features that may have had an industrial function, and a ditch that could have formed a boundary on the western side of the *vicus*. Smaller surveys beyond the south and west gates (0.40 and 0.28 hectares respectively) produced no substantive evidence of any kind of Roman activity, which was not entirely unexpected as both locations accommodated only small tracts of flattish ground

before the natural slopes fell away to watercourses. A rather larger area of over 1.2 hectares was examined on the east side of the fort, where a relatively level field appeared to offer a suitable location for extramural settlement, but the geophysics picked up no more than faint traces of the road that ran out of the east gate and one modern drainage feature.

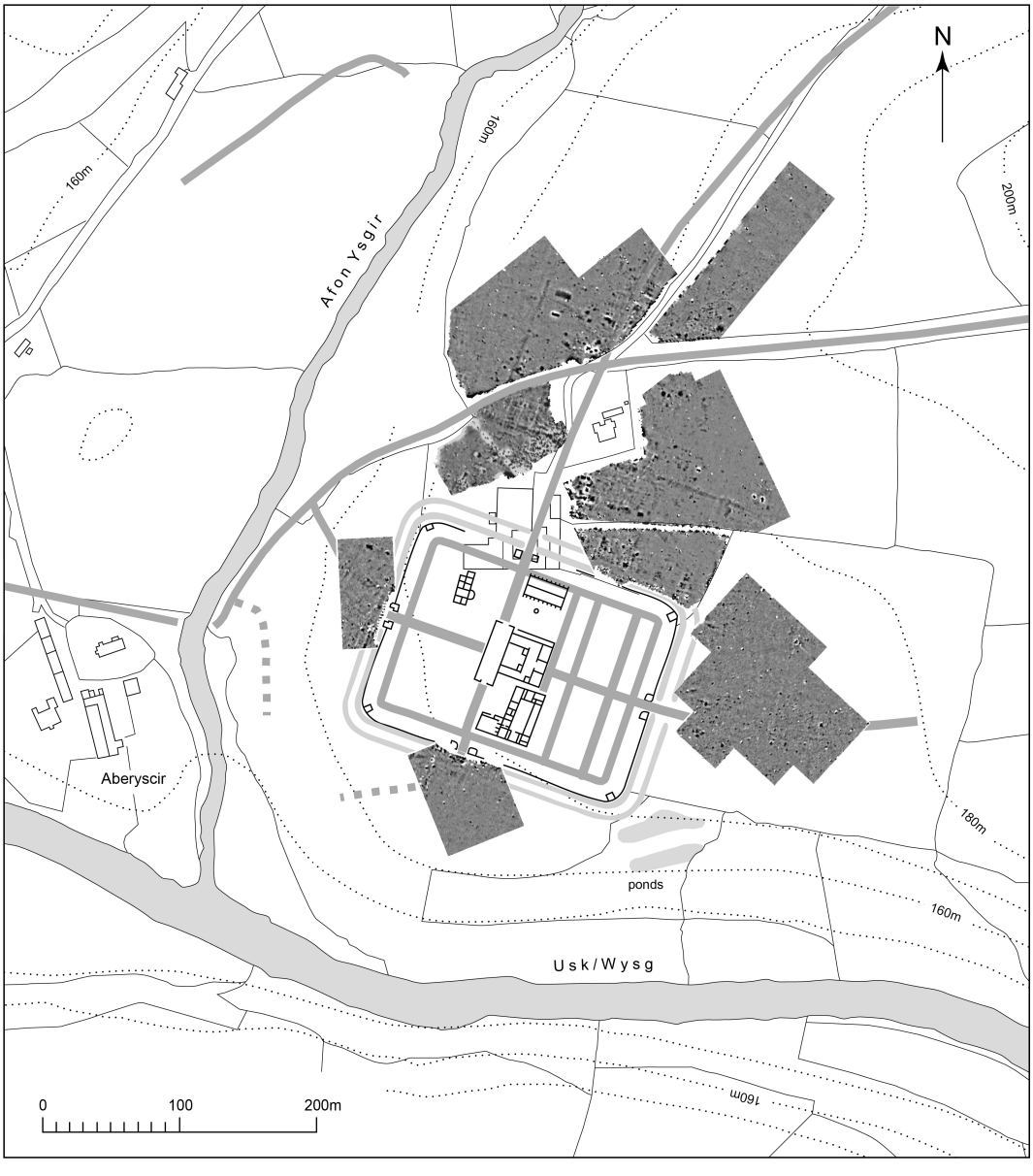

Fig. 3. Brecon Gaer: areas of geophysical survey and their relationship to the fort. Modern buildings shown in outline.

Geophysics in the following year concentrated on ground to the north-east of the fort and further areas adjacent to the road leading from the north gate. Collectively, about 4.5 hectares were surveyed north of the fort. Wheeler's building A, just outside the north gate, produced a clear geophysical response and there were signs of additional features in the immediate area, including buildings whose positions were

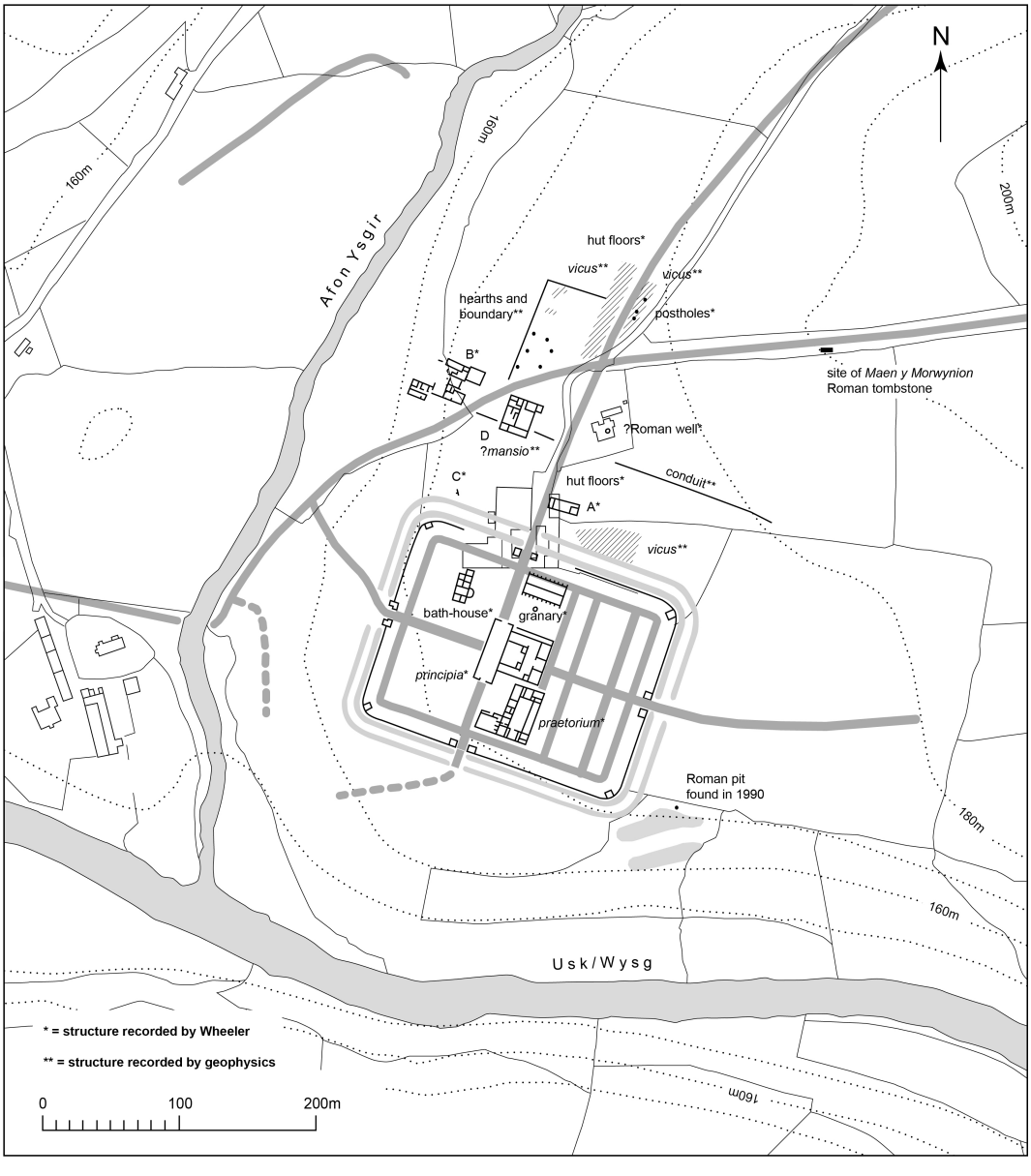

Fig. 4. Brecon Gaer: interpretation of geophysical survey shown in relationship to earlier finds and structures, based partly on Wheeler 1926 and Burnham and Davies 2010. For road plan see also Figure 8.

highlighted by thermo-remanent anomalies from presumed hearths. The outer defensive ditch, around 15m to the north of the fort also showed up in the survey.

Additionally, what was initially thought of as a ditch following a straight alignment, and subsequently labelled as a conduit by Casey and Davies (2010, fig. 7.27), runs parallel to and 90m distant from the north rampart of the fort, appearing to pass under building D. Neither interpretation is wholly convincing, although the suggestion that it was a conduit should not be dismissed as there is a possibility that the feature could link to an authentic conduit found by Wheeler underneath building b.

In summary the geophysical surveys provide information that broadly confirms the extent of the *vicus* as identified in the 1920s, in some places amplifying the existing evidence and refining the picture. Extramural activity was apparent for up to 200m beyond the fort defences and 100m away from the north road, the furthest features being two large thermo-remanent anomalies thought to represent ovens or kilns. Thus the activity beside the road from the north gate extended for about 230m from the fort itself before it faded out, not quite in line with Wheeler's claim of an almost 'continuous series of buildings for a distance of at least 300 yards [275m]' (Wheeler 1926, 57). While the origins of some of the geophysical anomalies are unambiguous—the road, the stone buildings—others are rather less easy to explain, and it is the overall impression of uninterrupted activity that emerges (Fig. 4).

Geophysical survey of an area about 150m to the north-east of the eastern corner of the fort on a potentially significant cropmark seen on aerial photography revealed nothing of archaeological interest (Hankinson 2011, 26).

Test-pitting and augering

Complementing the geophysical survey was a programme of test-pitting: small pits, thirty-five in number and each approximately one metre square, were excavated by hand to a depth that exposed either the first archaeological horizon or the undisturbed natural subsoil, offering a pointer to the existence or absence of Roman activity (Figs 5–6). In places the test pits were supplemented by small-bore hand augering. Occasionally, a deposit exposed in the base of a pit was examined to provide a better understanding of the archaeology. The pits were positioned as regularly as possible around the fort, though some were designed to assess specific geophysical anomalies. Detailed descriptions are to be found in the interim reports for these two years (Hankinson 2009; 2011).

Initially, test-pitting focused on the large field to the east of the fort. Contrary to the negative picture from the geophysics, it retained considerable evidence of occupation, extending up to around 200m from the fort defences and corroborating the pattern generated by the metal-detected finds. Charcoal-rich layers were evidenced in many of the ten test pits, and some features, tentatively identified as gullies and in one instance a possible floor surface, were recognisable. From the limited number of pits it would not be feasible to map in detail the extent of contemporary Roman activity, but we are reasonably confident that there are archaeological deposits, possibly continuous but more probably intermittent, across almost all of the field except in its extreme south-eastern corner (Fig. 5).

On the south side of the fort, an area some 200m long and 70m wide appeared to be available for settlement, and three of the nine test pits there revealed layers or features of archaeological interest. One near the western corner of the fort was taken down to 0.85m, double the normal depth, and produced an appreciable quantity of pottery, possibly suggesting that rubbish was being dumped on this side of the fort; the other pits revealed relatively insubstantial deposits and while it is not easy to gauge the intensity of extramural activity on this side of the fort, the test-pitting does not contradict the impression of sparse activity derived from the geophysics.

Compared with the south side, relatively little level ground lay beyond the west gate, and the general absence of activity predicted by the geophysical survey was largely borne out by negative results, although

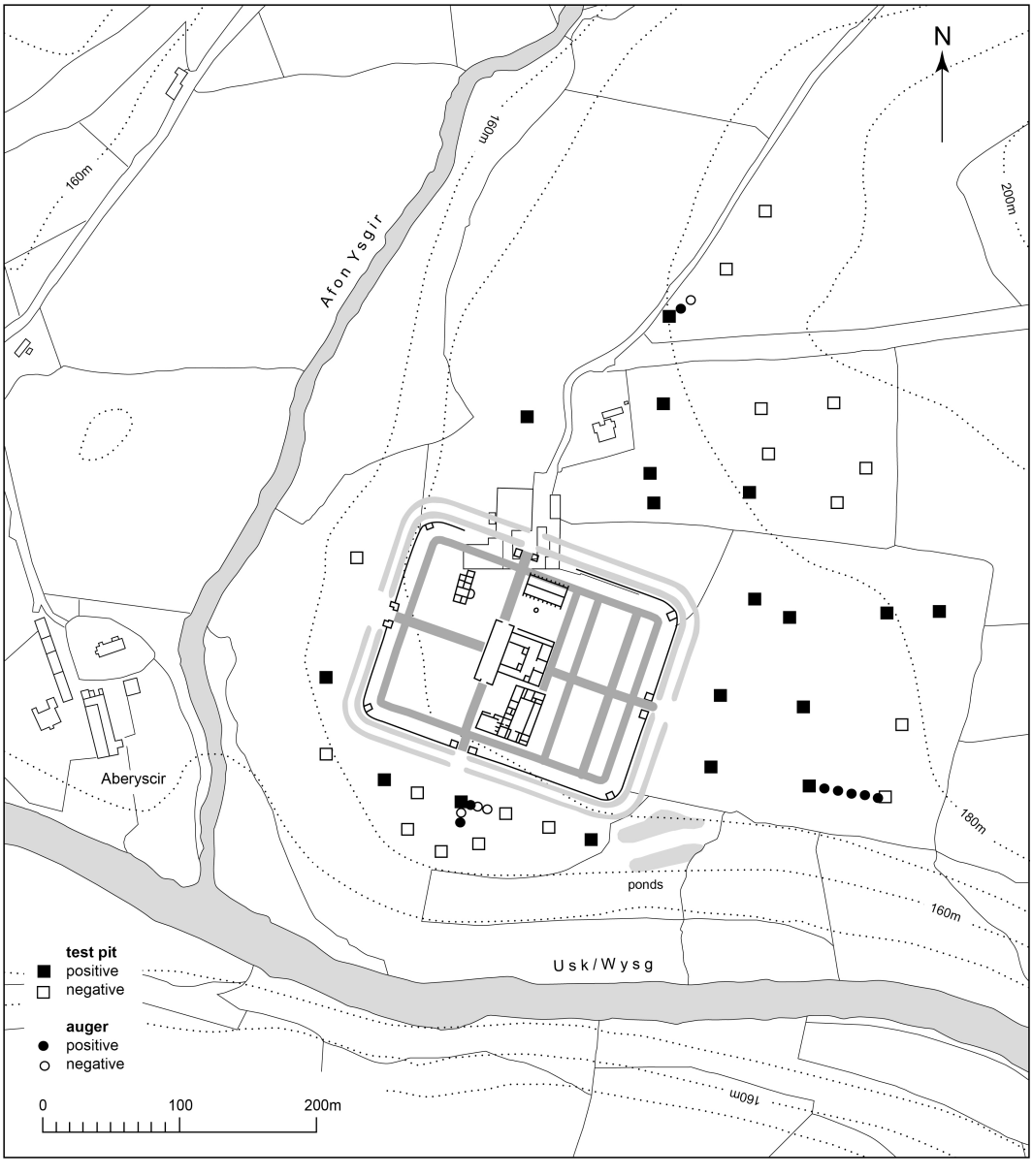

Fig. 5. Brecon Gaer: test pits and augering in the environs of the fort.

iron-smelting debris in one of the three pits included tapped furnace slag and pieces of fused furnace lining that in one case exhibited traces of the wattled structure of the furnace.

North of the fort a single pit was emptied above building D, at the junction of two wall-lines; these showed less clearly than had been anticipated, suggesting that much of the building stone had been robbed. West of the road leading from the north gate beyond its intersection with the east to west road, the

Fig. 6. Test-pitting in the environs of Brecon Gaer Roman fort, whose ramparts are visible in the background. *Photograph: Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust.*

geophysical survey clearly revealed the presence of extramural occupation and obviated the need for test-pitting, but on the east side of the road where the modern farm road and its accompanying field boundary restricted geophysical access, the trial pits coupled with augering signalled the fading out of extramural activity around 80m to the north-east of where the Roman roads crossed. In this the geophysical survey and the test pitting coincided.

A similar coincidence occurred in the field to the east of the modern farmhouse, with four test pits revealing archaeological deposits, five others further to the east being sterile. One pit placed over a large thermo-remanent anomaly duly revealed part of an oven or kiln composed of burnt clay with some structural sandstone blocks. And over the ditch or conduit that had been picked up by the geophysics (see above), the test pit was replaced by a trench 15m long which also took in a curving linear anomaly of uncertain nature. Its complete examination proved, however, to be too ambitious an exercise and had to be abandoned, for much of the trench exposed features or layers of Roman date including possible structural remains, and the conduit/ditch appeared to have been backfilled with sandstone rubble creating a spread six metres wide.

The artefactual material recovered from the test-pitting exercise over the two seasons was largely Roman in date and included just over three hundred sherds of pottery, parts of a pair of copper alloy tweezers, various iron objects primarily nails, a few fragments of burnt bone, seven fragments of flint, two or three whetstones and sharpening stones, 56 glass fragments of which 38 were vessel glass, the

rest window glass, possibly modern, and one black glass gaming counter, a small amount of brick, tile and slag, and a small piece (106mm by 36mm) of coarse sandstone displaying pecked grooves, possibly representing folds in drapery from a larger stone carving.

ROMAN POTTERY FROM TEST-PITTING

By Wendy Owen and Peter V. Webster

The Roman pottery excavated in 2009 and 2010 totalled 308 sherds (weight 1580g). Unsurprisingly, around 40% of the sherds were recovered from the ploughsoil and other disturbed deposits, rather than from secure Roman contexts, and as a result, much of the pottery was in poor, abraded and fragmentary condition, with only a very small percentage of any of the vessels surviving and little of it that could be closely dated. The pottery was examined and catalogued and fabrics were identified macroscopically, according to their petrological inclusions, with the aid of a ×8 hand lens and by comparing sherds with the Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust's fabric Type series. The fabrics are presented here in a series of major groups. The site archive contains details on the contents of each test pit, including sherd numbers and weight.

Fabric groups

Red wares

These constituted 28% of the sherds (approximately 24% by weight) in the assemblage. Amongst these were a number of Severn Valley ware-type fabrics, but the majority of the red wares were unremarkable, of varying degrees of softness and with varying amounts of fine quartz. No production centres could be recognised. The material includes a few sherds with traces of cream or orange-buff colour coats or slip which are likely to represent flagons. Vessel types include a probable butt beaker (a late Iron Age vessel form) with crudely rouletted decoration of early to mid-Flavian date; and a large ring-necked flagon with a prominent top ring, in sandy fabric and of late first to mid second-century date.

Grey Wares

These formed 15% (approximately 13% by weight) of the total. The fabrics varied greatly in hardness and inclusions, and the sources of the majority of these fabrics remain unknown. Although many of the fabrics are presumed to be of local origin, several sherds of Terra Nigra are present which will have been imported in the Flavian period from outside the region, though probably not from outside the Province. The group also contains a few sherds from vessels in Malvern-type fabrics (grey-black, rough, hard and with crushed rock inclusions) displaying typical burnished decoration. Grey ware vessel forms include jars of late first- to early second-century date; a jar with a pronounced lid-seated rim, but otherwise resembling jars with square rims which were popular from the middle of the first century into the second century; a vessel, possibly a jar (represented by two body sherds), in a micaceous dark grey, externally burnished fabric, with poppy head beaker-type barbotine decoration, the form probably Gillam 1970, type 68, an everted-rim jar of late first to early second-century date; a bowl rim in Terra Nigra (for which see Usk: Greene 1979, fig. 46), and two sherds from other bowls derived from Terra Nigra of Flavian/Trajanic date with smooth, dark, burnished surfaces.

Black-burnished ware

Sherds formed 27% of the sherds (approximately 24% by weight) in the assemblage. Very few rim shreds were present and many of the sherds were in poor condition, some burnt. Forms include second-century

flanged bowls and dishes some with acute-angled lattice decoration, and one base decorated with a wavy line on the underside, cooking pots/jars, some displaying worn, faint lattice decoration, but mostly undiagnostic sherds. There was also one jar rim of the mid-third-century or later date (as Gillam 1976, no. 8).

White wares

These constituted just 4% of the sherds (approximately 5% by weight). No sources have been identified for the fabrics. Identified forms include a probable flanged bowl of late first to early second-century date; and flagons (represented by base sherds and a handle), one in cream fabric with orange-buff slip externally.

Fine wares and colour-coated wares

These formed only 3% of the sherds (approximately 3% by weight). Vessels identified include North Gaulish colour-coated and rough-cast beakers (body sherds only). These vessels had a date range of *c*. AD 80–160 but in South Wales became considerably scarcer once the Caerleon roughcast industry started up in the early second century. A first-century date is, therefore, likely here. Also represented is a small everted-rim jar (Fig. 7, no. 1) in light orange smooth fabric; the vessel has a mica-dusted surface and is decorated with horizontal double grooves on the shoulder; the source is unknown, but may perhaps be from Caerleon, as others are known from Brecon fort (Wheeler 1926, C55). It is of late first/early second-century date. Two further small body sherds in a mica-dusted red ware fabric, may also have come from Caerleon.

A probable jar in a micaceous dark grey fabric (a small fragment only) with traces of white-painted decoration probably belonged to the period AD 70/80 to 120. Also identified was a probable beaker (Fig. 7, no. 2)—the form is a remote descendant of a butt beaker—burnished, in a fine thin-walled cream fabric, and of later first-century date, probably derived from eastern England. A mortar-like bowl (Fig. 7, no. 3) in an orange fabric with grey core, reminiscent of early examples of the samian form, Curle 11, its flange

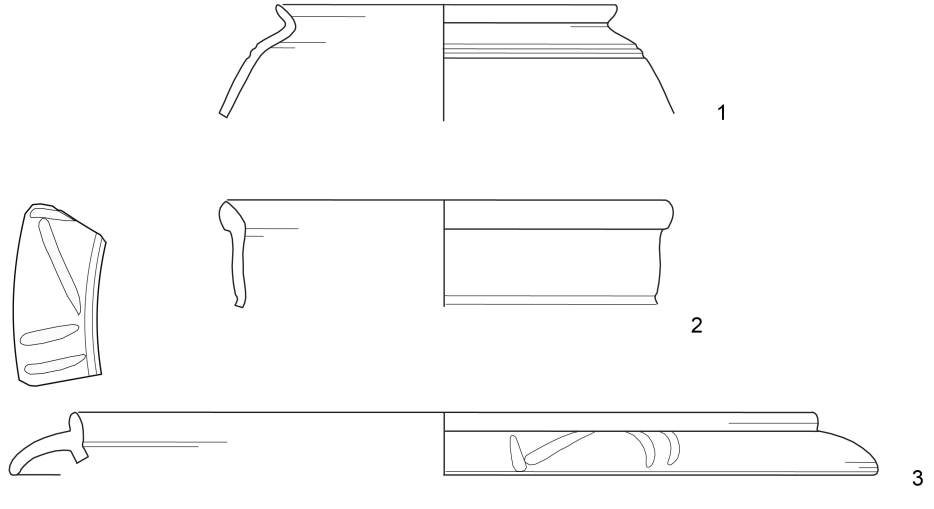

Fig. 7. Selected Roman pottery from test-pitting in the environs of Brecon Gaer. Scale 1:2.

decorated with painted cream lines; its probable date range is AD 70–100, and is similar to Wheeler 1926, fig. 100, C69.

Amphorae
Sherds formed 9% of the ceramic material (approximately 23% by weight) in the assemblage. Only body sherds were recovered, but all were from south Spanish olive oil amphorae (Dressel 20).

Mortaria
These accounted for only 1% of the sherds (approximately 1% by weight) in the assemblage. Only two vessels were identifiable. One burnt rim from a North Gaulish source, with the grits coming over the rim, and of first to (at latest) early second-century date. The other was a body sherd from a Verulamium vessel in a cream fabric with orange core and with trituration grits which include flint, of late first to mid second-century date.

Samian
These accounted for 13% of the sherds (approximately 7% by weight) in the assemblage. Nine sherds of Central Gaulish samian were identified, 29 South Gaulish, and 3 were too small and worn to distinguish their origins. Of note was a South Gaulish Form 37, with decoration in small panels and another decorated with a running dog. Both have a date range of AD 70–90.

General comments on the pottery
Much of the pottery collection was composed of small and undiagnostic sherds, but of those vessels that were identifiable, the majority fell within a date range from the late first to the early second century. The earliest pottery recovered included several examples of samian South Gaulish forms 18 and 37 which have a date range of AD 70–90. These were recovered in three test pits outside the east and south sides of the fort, from the fill of a Roman ditch and from Roman occupation layers. Certainly, mid–late Antonine samian forms like 31, 31R, 79/80 and 45 were absent from the assemblage. Very little pottery later than the second century was identified: just one black-burnished ware jar which can be no earlier than the mid-third century, recovered from an occupation deposit to the north of the fort. Samian dated AD 70–110 and a variety of other undated Roman pottery forms were also recovered from this trench, referred to above, and the larger number of sherds present here may be largely explained by its exceptional size. Overall, however, there was insufficient dateable material to suggest any definable phasing within the areas investigated.

ROMAN ROADS AROUND BRECON GAER
By Hugh Toller

Fieldwork on the Roman roads around Brecon Gaer has been carried out at various times since the eighteenth century. The most detailed assessment was undertaken by David Browne for the Royal Commission in advance of their *Hill-forts and Roman Remains in Brecknock* (RCAHMW 1986) and this work must form the primary basis for any new study of the road layout and remains. Nevertheless, the analysis of antiquarian observations, the evidence from aerial photographic and lidar imagery, and recent fieldwork and excavation have all contributed additional information.

The picture that emerges for Brecon Gaer is a complicated one, more so than for many forts. Here we summarise the evidence for firstly the major or arterial roads that ran past or through the fort and

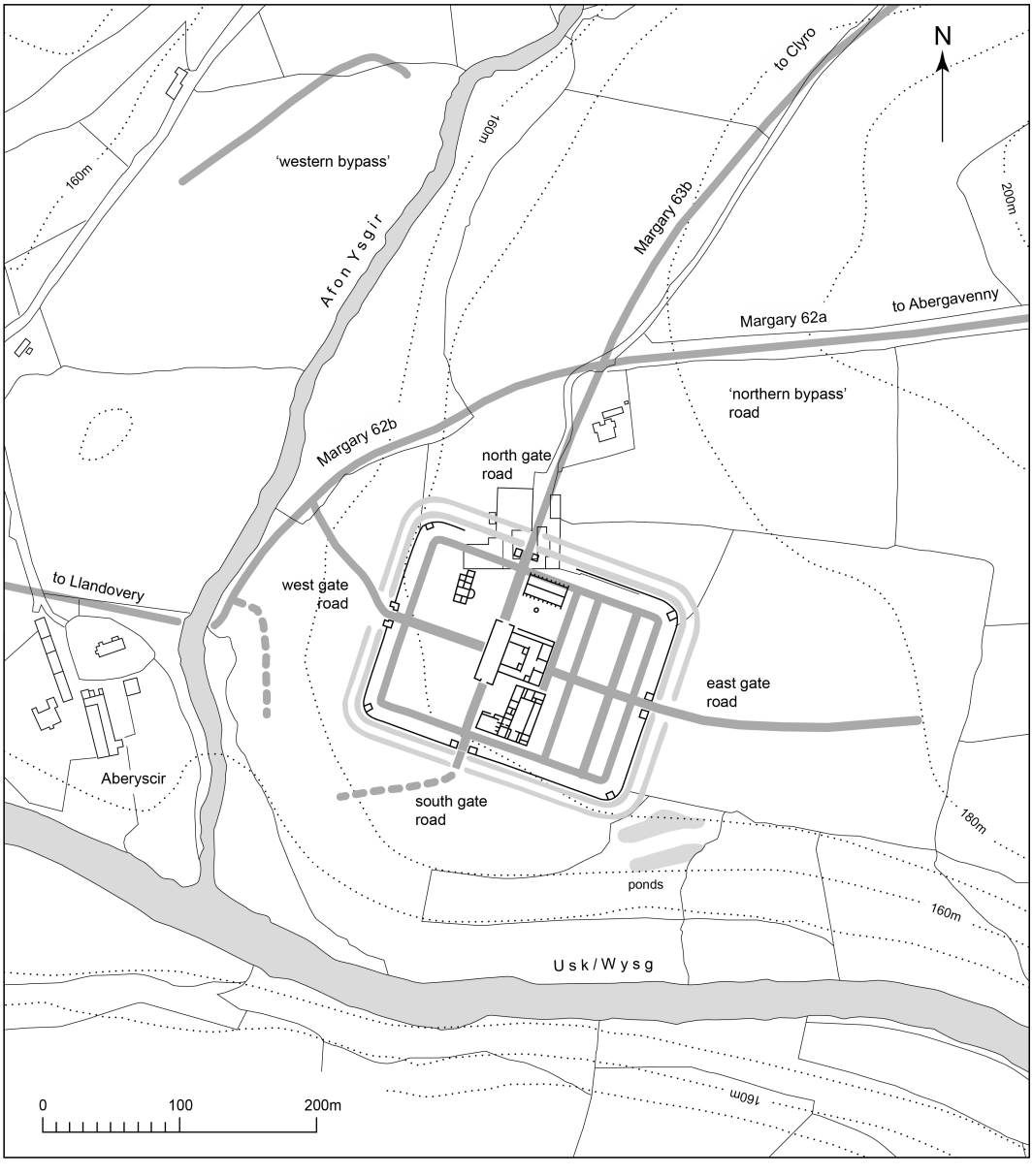

Fig. 8. Brecon Gaer: partly conjectural plan of Roman roads in the fort environs.

secondly the lesser roads that led out of the fort and linked into the arterial roads, in both cases working anticlockwise from the east (Fig. 8). The Margary numbers given below are those provided in the handlist of Welsh Roman roads prepared by David Percival of the Royal Commission[7] which have also been adopted in the recently revised *Roman Frontiers in Wales and the Marches* volume (Burnham and Davies 2010, 315–32).

Abergavenny to Brecon Gaer (Margary 62a)

There is surprisingly little evidence for this road and none that can be regarded as certain in the sense of significant physical remains over a long distance. The best stretch is in the vicinity of the fort where it becomes what is here termed the northern bypass road. Otherwise the evidence between Brecon Gaer and Pen-y-Gaer near Crickhowell is mostly circumstantial or destroyed, as noted by Thomas Codrington more than a century ago when he described 'a Roman road from Abergavenny, of which however there is little trace' (1903, 366).

Wheeler's observations are worth repeating here. 'The broad grass-grown lane which approaches Brecon Gaer from the east and passing at a distance of fifty to a hundred yards to the north of the defences, winds down the hillside as a deeply-scored holloway to a ford across the Ysgir, has long been regarded as Roman, and no one who has walked along it can doubt the justness of the attribution. In particular, the straight stretch, nearly a mile in length, in the immediate vicinity of the fort can scarcely be other than Roman in origin, and, when it be remembered that in any case a main road must have extended eastwards from Brecon Gaer along the flank of the Usk valley to Abergavenny, the absence of further proof may not be regarded as a serious difficulty' (1926, 56).

David Browne, conducting the only detailed fieldwork on the road, recorded that immediately north of the fort (at SO 0045 2989) was an apparent agger about 10.5 m wide, with a partly backfilled ditch 2–3m on its north side. A few metres to the west was the other flanking ditch, about 3m wide, with the crest of the causeway between 0.7–1m above its base, increasing to 2.3m 30m further east. A modern rough-metalled track had cut into the crest of the agger showing no sign of consistent metalling, but the causeway itself was made up of red clay and sandstone boulders. The upper layers of boulders on the crest of the causeway became more consistent further east, suggesting deliberate metalling. Eastwards for nearly 600m the remains were slight but at SO 0126 2993 became more marked with an agger 5m wide and its crest about 1m above the largely infilled north ditch, and a south ditch 3–4m wide. By SO 0155 2990 the traces were fainter and the south ditch was largely obliterated (RCAHMW 1986, 169).

This assessment confirms the antiquarian evidence of John Strange who stated that: 'within half a mile of the farm house, the present road from Brecknock joins an old Roman causeway; which, though much broken and over-run with bushes, is still very discernible. It was originally a raised way near forty feet wide, and seems to have been chiefly made with large round pebbles of various sizes, collected probably from the bed of a neighbouring river. This causeway runs in a direction nearly at right angles with the Eskir [Ysgir], a small brook which joins the river Usk just below the Gaer' (Strange 1779, 296). Colt Hoare noted that 'the other track south-east to Brecon and Abergavenny [is] sufficiently evident' and also that 'a part of the Roman causeway leading from Brecon to the Gaer is still in a very perfect state'.[8]

Kenchester and Clyro to Brecon Gaer (Margary 63b)

The evidence for this road is very good for the first 6 kilometres from Brecon Gaer. Wheeler placed at least four trenches across it in the vicinity of the fort, reporting that 'at a distance of 950 yards from the fort the road was just over 20 feet wide, and was built of pebb1e and broken stone to a thickness of about a foot between roughly defined curbs of larger stones. The central camber rose to a height of four inches above the curbs. Three cuttings at a distance of 200–300 yards from the fort showed that the road was there wider (about 30 feet), was more thickly metalled (about two feet at the centre) and was in places heavily grooved by traffic'. The road curves towards the north-east as it moves away from the fort and is crossed by the lane leading to the farm. Beyond the lane the road is visible on a direct alignment as a parchmark on air photographs running towards the modern settlement of Cradoc, and beyond the Honddu it is visible as an agger on lidar imagery for another 2 kilometres (Bryn Gethin pers. comm.), on an alignment just north of east as it heads towards the Wye valley.

Brecon Gaer to Castell Collen (Margary 621)
Antiquarian records exist of a Roman road running northwards from Brecon Gaer through the hamlet of Lower Chapel in the general direction of Castell Collen. No definite evidence for such a road has ever come to light. David Browne considered it unproven and instead postulated a route more to the north-west towards the fort at Caerau near Beulah (RCAHMW 1986, 173), but examination of lidar imagery for areas to the north and north-west of Brecon Gaer has proved as unproductive as the search for the putative road to Castell Collen.

Brecon Gaer to Llandovery (Margary 62b)
Much of the course of the road west of the fort has never been accurately defined and this is reflected in imaginative antiquarian reports that are frequently at odds with each other. Wheeler (1926, fig. 1) showed the east–west Roman road following a hollowed track, now disused, past the northern side of the modern farmhouse and curving down south-westwards to a ford across the Ysgir. Later writers have not questioned this as the course of the main Roman road along the Usk valley, though the evidence is slight and based on the assumption that the visible track follows a Roman line. It is conceivable that this track might be a post-Roman creation, but it is more likely that Wheeler was correct. He also recorded 'cobble paving' near the crossing of the Ysgir, and assumed a ford across this small river; the position of this ford is fixed not only by the line of the road, but also by the holloway set into the western slope above the river.

West of the Ysgir this holloway runs beside the northern edge of Aberyscir churchyard. It is certainly wide enough to be of Roman origin and an air photograph taken by the writer shows what appears to be the road's parchmark approaching the ford from the north-west. Strange found no further traces of the road on the west side of the Ysgir and generally no signs of a Roman road in the neighbourhood, other than near Rhyd y Briw bridge which is about 8 kilometres to the west (1779, 296). Rees in 1873 claimed that the road ran on the north side of the Usk and crossed to the south side at Cwm Wysg (SN 947297) yet cited no evidence for his observation (1873, 127). The early nineteenth-century Brecknock historian Theophilus Jones believed that the road crossed the Usk near Aberbran (SO 981291) and then ran south of the river, again without providing any evidence (Jones 1909, 26). Wheeler simply pronounced that for some miles up the valley from Aberyscir churchyard the course of the road was uncertain (Wheeler 1926, 56).

The laying of a pipeline along the Usk valley in 2007 led to the identification of three previously unknown stretches of Roman road, two of which help to clarify the courses of both this road to Llandovery and that to Coelbren as described below (Cotswold Archaeology 2013). The alignment of an excavated section near Aberyscir, if projected south-westwards, would point to an Usk river crossing to the east of Aberbran at approximately SN 995295. South of the river opposite Aberbran a short length of road was located on an apparently east-north-east to west-south-west course. This can be interpreted as the road on the south side of the river beyond the Aberbran crossing. It would coincide with a line of field boundaries running west-south-west to join the A40 road at Pont Llyn-du that has been suggested in the past as representing the course of the road. This would then run into an agger-like feature lying north of the A40 between Pont Llyn-du and Penpont.

Brecon Gaer to Coelbren and Neath (Margary 622b)
The point of separation where the road to Llandovery separates from that running south-westwards towards the fort at Coelbren on the other side of the Brecon Beacons has yet to be identified (Silvester and Toller 2010, fig. 4.3); it could be anywhere between the Usk river crossing noted above and Penpont.

The pipeline works of 2007, however, uncovered a 75m length of road to the east-south-east of Pont Llyn-du at SN 983286 on a slightly curving line running from north-east to south-west (Cotswold

Archaeology 2013, site 49.05). Extrapolating a likely course for the Coelbren road from known lengths on Mynydd Illtyd would bring it close to where this piece of road was excavated, so we can be reasonably confident that this was the road to Coelbren after it branched from the Llandovery road and climbed out of the Usk valley towards Wernfawr (SN 972 275). Prior to this discovery no certain traces of this road had been identified until the northern fringe of Mynydd Illtyd despite extensive fieldwork by the author and others (RCAHMW 1986, 159), and careful examination of aerial photography and lidar imagery.

Brecon Gaer to Penydarren and Cardiff (Margary 621)
Although a road descends into the Usk valley from the south gate of Brecon Gaer (see below) there are no traces of any road on the far side of the river running southwards into the Brecon Beacons (Silvester and Toller 2010, 94). There are indications of a road running north from the fort at Gelligaer on the periphery of the Glamorgan uplands and past the fort at Penydarren signalling the likelihood of a road heading for Brecon Gaer from the south, but nothing to corroborate this assumption (RCAHMW 1986, 163–67).

It is probably more likely that if there were a link between the Glamorgan lowlands and the Usk Valley, military installations would have been served by a road that joined the main Abergavenny to Brecon road well to the east of Brecon Gaer. As the recent discovery of the campaign fort just to the east of Brecon at Cefn-Brynich (Driver 2014, 171; Musson and Driver 2015, 120–1) has shown, there may be other unknown early military sites in the area.

Local roads: bypass roads and roads from gates
As would be expected, there is evidence of roads leading from each of the four gates of Brecon Gaer. None of these have yet been attributed Margary-style numbers.

The east gate road
This can be seen on Cambridge University Committee for Air Photography (CUCAP) images from July 1976 and July 1984, one of which was reproduced in the 1986 Brecknock *Inventory* (RCAHMW 1986, fig. 161). It is faintly visible, too, on oblique aerial photos taken by the Royal Commission (Casey and Davies 2010, fig. 7.26) and the Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust (CPAT 05-C-0153) and appears faintly in the geophysical survey of 2004 (Hopewell 2004). These show the road running as a straight line for a distance of about 35m beyond the outer ditch of the fort and then angling via a series of very slight realignments north-eastwards towards the Abergavenny to Brecon Gaer road, also referred to above as the northern bypass.[9] It may be no more than a coincidence that its line then appears to be picked up, closely though not precisely, by an existing field boundary which adopts a faintly curving course for over 150m, but beyond this neither lidar nor aerial photographs have anything further to offer.

The north gate road
This passes through the *vicus* and is the southern terminal of the Clyro to Brecon Gaer road considered above (Margary 63b).

The west gate road
There could have been a zigzag descent from the west gate to the ford. A single aerial photo taken by the writer when the ground was in optimum condition for parchmarks suggests that the descent might have involved four lengths and three directional changes to reach the holloway of the northern bypass road above the ford across the Ysgir. Wheeler, however, suggested a single alignment on a north-westerly traverse of the valley side (1926, fig. 1) receives support from both the lidar and other aerial photographs (Burnham and Davies 2010, fig. 7.26).

The south gate road

CUCAP air photography from July 1976 reveals a putative road running south-westwards from the south gate on ground sloping down towards river. It appears to start from a point slightly to the west of the gate which might relate to the layout of an earlier fort, but alternatively it could start from the present gate and then (for an inexplicable reason) runs westwards for a short distance before turning down the slope. A Royal Commission air photo gives a hint of this (Casey and Davies 2010, fig. 7.26). Air photographs taken by the writer suggest a further alternative, that the road turning through ninety degrees westwards to join up with the zigzag descent from the west gate.

The western bypass road

During the 2007 pipeline works a stretch of Roman road was discovered in a meadow west of the Ysgir on a south-west to north-east alignment for a distance of about 260m (Cotswold Archaeology 2013, site 50.11). Up to 5.2m in width, there were no surface traces of it on the ground nor on any of the remote sensing images so its survival, in apparently good condition, was remarkable. Coming from the fort at Abergavenny the main east to west road could not incorporate this section before passing on to a crossing of the Usk east of Aberbran, so this may be a further bypass road presumably linking the Coelbren and Clyro roads. It may have been a later introduction to the road network, or alternatively might be early, pre-dating the Flavian fort. At the north-east end of the excavated area the road appeared to be curving eastwards towards the Ysgir at SO 002 301. This in itself presents difficulties as there is no easy crossing point here that would allow a junction with the road from Clyro to Brecon Gaer; there is a sizeable bluff east of the river and the bypass road could not easily then have run east or south-east from a crossing at this point.

Summary of the road pattern

The picture that emerges from the foregoing is of a network which, though incomplete, is broadly intelligible with one exception. The main arterial road running from east to west linking the forts of Abergavenny in the borderlands with Llandovery and the western parts of the country, passed 100–150m to the north of Brecon Gaer and descended to a crossing of the Ysgir, presumably via a ford, before rising to the west bank and running westwards. At some point to the east of the fort a spur road dropped down towards its east gate, but only a short length where it approached the gate has yet been defined. Another road dropped down from the north-east—presumably from the fort at Clyro—and entered the fort through its north gate. Its counterpart on the south, coming over the Beacons from Gelligaer or Penydarren has yet to be firmly identified and at present it seems more likely that a road from the south would have joined the road Abergavenny to Brecon Gaer road some distance to the east of the latter. The road that exited from the south gate is something of a mystery and it remains unclear whether it crossed the Usk below the fort or swung around the south-western corner of the fort to converge on the crossing of the Ysgir in company with the Llandovery road.

This leaves the length of road, which is here termed the western bypass, which was uncovered in 2007. Several possible explanations for its presence come to mind. It might indeed have been a bypass linking the Llandovery and Clyro roads or it could have been a successor to the Ysgir ford/Aberyscir churchyard road, but both suggestions are handicapped by the perceived difficulty of crossing the Ysgir higher up its course.

METAL DETECTOR FINDS

By Joe Lewis

In total 452 finds are known to have been recovered by metal detectorists searching the fields surrounding the scheduled area at Brecon Gaer in 2008 and 2009 and reported to Mark Lodwick, finds liaison officer

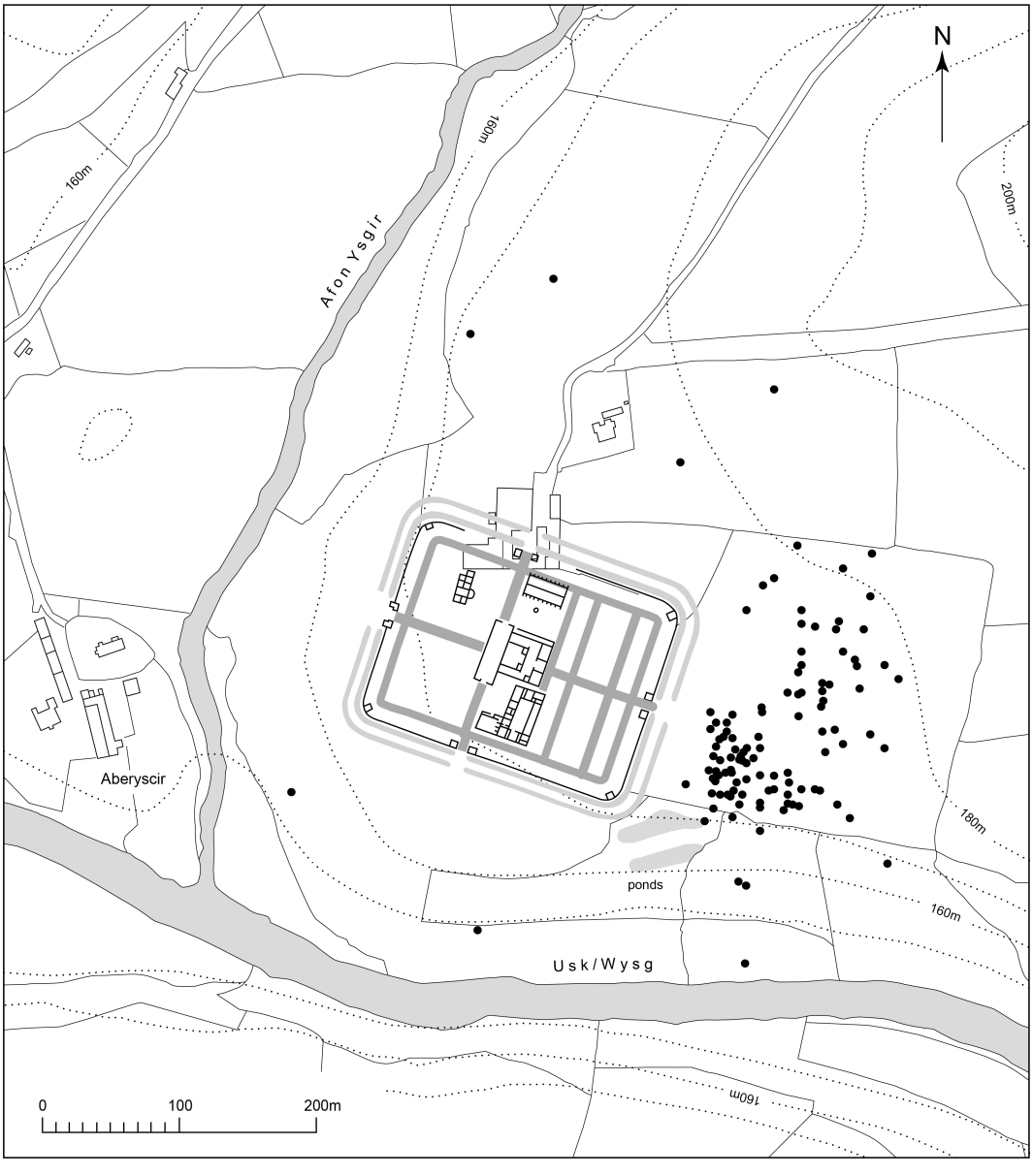

Fig. 9. Brecon Gaer: distribution of those metal-detected objects whose location is closely recorded.

for the Portable Antiquities Scheme at the National Museum Wales. These were subsequently studied by the writer for his postgraduate dissertation at Cardiff University in 2009–11. The majority of finds are of Roman date but there are also a number of late Iron-Age type; together these form the subject of this report. A further 27 objects are of non-Roman date and are mostly recent, but include a single medieval object and a possible Bronze-Age dress fastener, and there are another 95 objects, mostly small lead fragments and some iron objects, whose date is uncertain. A summary of all the finds examined is given in

Table 1. Only 42% of the finds have a recorded provenance, and these show a clear concentration outside the eastern entrance of the fort (Fig. 9). The majority of the finds have been donated to the Brecknock Museum, Brecon.

Composition of the metal detector assemblage

The recovered finds inevitably show a clear bias towards metalwork and include coins, pottery, items of military equipment, native metalwork, bells, personal ornaments, domestic items, items related to trade and production, and miscellaneous items.

Coins

Ninety-four coins were found. Of those which are closely identifiable, about fourteen are Republican coins, about 32 date to the first century AD, about seventeen to the second century, one to the third century and one to the fourth century.

Pottery

Forty-eight pottery sherds representing about 35 vessels were recovered. The sherds come from about twenty Samian vessels dating to the period *c*. AD 75–230, from about seven mortaria dating to between *c*. AD 60–90 and the early second century, from amphorae dating to the late first to early second century AD (two sherds), and from about seven coarseware vessels dating to between the first and fourth centuries AD.

Military equipment

The assemblage includes 76 items of military equipment, mostly of first- to second-century date. The horse harness equipment includes a buckle tongue, a Romano-British phalera, and a 'trifid' pendant (Fig. 10, nos 1–3). A further five harness pendants and seven miscellaneous pendants are also represented. It is difficult to be certain whether the miscellaneous pendants are from harnesses as it is equally possible that those included in that group were from aprons attached to military belts. Other items of military equipment include a plume-tube from a helmet, a belt buckle, a strap slide, a catapult bolt-head, and a scabbard chape (Fig. 10, no. 4).

Native metalwork

Six items of native metalwork, mostly of mid to late first-century date, are represented, including a tankard handle, a strap union, and a terret (Fig. 10, nos 5–7).

Bells

Six fragments from five bells are represented, including one of quadrangular form. These generally appear to be from first-century forms.

Personal ornaments

From the twenty brooches of first to third-century date, the following types are identifiable: Birdlip (1); Polden Hill or Polden Hill/T-shaped (5); Dophin/T-shaped (1); Zoomorphic (1) (Fig. 10, no. 8); Trumpet (3); T-shaped (5); Dragonesque (1); and Aucissa (1).

Domestic items

Fifty-five items are classed as domestic items of metal (48 items) or glass (7 items), most of which are not closely dateable within the Roman period. The metalwork includes eleven furniture fittings, sixteen other fittings, six lock-bolts, three metal vessel fragments and four patera handles, six mirror fragments and one key.

Table 1. Catalogue of Roman metal detector finds from Brecon Gaer

Full descriptions of the objects along with photographs are available on the Portable Antiquities Scheme website (finds.org.uk) and at Brecknock Museum.

COINS

2008.83.10	Vespasian, sestertius	*c*. AD 69–79
2008.83.11	Theodora/Helena, nummus	AD 337–40
2008.83.16	Petillius Capitolinus, Republican denarius	*c*. 43 BC
2008.83.17	Vespasian, denarius	*c*. AD 69–79
2008.83.18	Carausius, radiate	*c*. AD 287–93
2008.83.9	P. Clodius, Republican denarius	*c*. 42 BC
2009.14.1	T. Claudius Nero, Republican denarius	79 BC
2009.14.2	Vitellius, denarius	*c*. AD 69
2009.14.3	Vespasian, as	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.14.4	Vespasian/Titus, dupondius	*c*. AD 69–81
2009.14.5	Domitian, cast counterfeit as	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.14.6	Hadrian, as	*c*. AD 117–138
2009.19.1	L. Rosci Fabati, Republican denarius	*c*. 64 BC
2009.19.2	Mark Antony, Republican denarius	*c*. 32–31 BC
2009.22.1	P. Calp, Republican denarius	*c*. 133 BC
2009.22.2	Augustus, denarius	*c*. 7–6 BC
2009.22.3	Vitellius, denarius	AD 69
2009.22.4	Vespasian, denarius	*c*. AD 69–71
2009.22.5	Vespasian, denarius	AD 74
2009.36.1	Q. Titus, Republican denarius	*c*. 90 BC
2009.36.2	P. Crepusius. Republican denarius	*c*. 82 BC
2009.36.3	Augustus, denarius,	*c*. 27 BC–AD 14
2009.36.4	Nero, denarius	AD 60–64
2009.62.1	T. Carisius, Republican denarius	*c*. 46 BC
2009.62.2	Mark Antony, Republican denarius	*c*. 32–31 BC
2009.62.3	uncertain, Republican denarius	late 2nd–early 1st cent. BC
2009.62.4	uncertain, Republican denarius	late 2nd–early 1st cent. BC
2009.62.5	Vespasian, denarius	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.62.7	Trajan, denarius	AD 101–2
2009.62.8	Hadrian, denarius	AD 117–138
2009.62.9	Hadrian, sestertius	*c*. AD 117
2009.78.1	Titus, denarius	AD 74
2009.78.2	Hadrian, denarius	AD 118
2009.131.1	Mark Antony, denarius	*c*. 32–31 BC
2009.131.3	Augustus, denarius	*c*. 20–19 BC
2009.164.4	uncertain	*c*. AD 50s
2009.164.5	Nerva/Trajan dupondius	*c*. AD 96–117
2009.164.6	?Trajan, sestertius	*c*. AD 96–117
2009.164.7	?Trajan/Hadrian, sestertius	*c*. AD 98–138
2009.226.23	uncertain	uncertain
2009.226.27	Domitian, as	*c*. AD 81–96
2009.226.85	sestertius	late 1st cent. AD
2009.226.129	Hadrian, sestertius	*c*. AD 118
2009.226.130	Vespasian, as, counterfeit	*c*. AD 70–79
2009.226.131	uncertain, as	*c*. AD 65–95
2009.226.132	Hadrian, counterfeit	*c*. AD 117–138
2009.226.143	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st or 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.146	Titus, as	*c*. AD 79–81
2009.226.147	Vespasian, as	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.226.174	Trajan, sestertius	*c*. AD 103–11
2009.226.175	? Flavian, as/dupondius	*c*. AD 69–96
2009.226.176	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st-2nd cent. AD
2009.226.177	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.178	uncertain, sestertius	early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.179	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.180	uncertain, sestertius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.183	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.186	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.187	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.188	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.247	Domitian Caesar, as	*c*. AD 73–79
2009.226.261	Titus Caesar, sestertius	*c*. AD 77–78
2009.226.270	uncertain, as/dupondius	? 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.271	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.272	Hadrian, sestertius	*c*. AD 117–138
2009.226.273	uncertain, corroded	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.274	uncertain, corroded	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.277	Nero, dupondius	*c*. AD 66–68
2009.226.282	Crispina	*c*. AD 180–183
2009.226.301	uncertain	Roman
2009.226.323	Nerva, sestertius	*c*. AD 97
2009.226.328	Vespasian/Titus, dupondius dupondius	*c*. AD 69–81
2009.226.329	Flavian/Trajan, ?dupondius	*c*. AD 69–96–117
2009.226.330	Domitian, as	*c*. AD 81–96
2009.226.331	uncertain	Roman
2009.226.334	uncertain	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.336	Vespasian, as	AD 69–79
2009.226.337	uncertain	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.339	uncertain, corroded	Roman
2009.226.344	uncertain, corroded	Roman
2009.226.346	Trajan, dupondius	*c*. AD 103–11
2009.226.348	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.349	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.350	uncertain, as/dupondius	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.353	Domitian, as	*c*. AD 81–96
2009.226.354	Flavian, as	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.226.367	Flavian, sestertius	*c*. AD 69–96
2009.226.368	Vespasian, sestertius	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.226.372	uncertain, corroded	Roman
2009.226.378	same as 2008.83.10	
2009.226.379	Mark Antony, denarius	*c*. 32–31 BC
2009.226.380	Hadrian, as	*c*. AD 117–138
2009.226.381	same as 2009.14.4	
2009.226.382	same as 2009.14.3	
2009.226.384	Faustina	*c*. AD 141–161
2009.226.385	Vespasian/Titus, as	*c*. AD 69–79
2009.226.402	Domitian, as	*c*. AD 81–96

POTTERY

2009.226.211	sherd, amphora	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.231	handle frag.amphora	later 1st–mid 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.13	rim sherd, coarseware	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.18	jar sherd, coarseware	2nd–4th cent. AD
2009.226.100	vessel frag. coarseware	1st–4th cent. AD
2009.226.105	same vessel as 100	
2009.226.137	vessel frag., coarseware	1st–4th cent. AD

2008.83.7	sherd, samian	*c*. AD 70–230.
2009.226.14	base sherd, samian	*c*. AD 90–110
2009.226.15	base of jar, coarseware	uncertain
2009.226.16	sherd, samian	before *c*. AD 85
2009.226.17	base of jar, samian	*c*. AD 70–110
2009.226.19	jar sherd, greyware	1st–4th cent. AD
2009.226.20	rim sherd, samian	*c*. AD 120–150
2009.226.21	sherd, samian	*c*. AD 90–110
2009.226.51	samian	*c*. AD 60–80
2009.226.101	bowl fragment, samian	*c*. AD 120–150
2009.226.102	same vessel as 101	
2009.226.103	same vessel as 101	
2009.226.104	mortaria frag.,	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.112	rim, mortaria	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.121	rim, mortaria	late 1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.139	sherd, mortaria	mid–late 1st cent. AD
2009.226.144	rim sherd, samian	before *c*. AD 85
2009.226.145	same vessel as 144	
2009.226.154	vessel sherds, samian	*c*. AD 80–110
2009.226.159	same vessel as 154	
2009.226.160	same vessel as 154	
2009.226.172	rim sherd, samian	*c*. AD 90-110
2009.226.173	small fragment, samian	*c*. AD 120–200
2009.226.229	sherd, mortaria	
2009.226.230	vessel sherd, samian	before *c*. AD 85
2009.226.237	rim, mortaria	*c*. AD 60–90
2009.226.238	same vessel as 237	
2009.226.239	same vessel as 237	
2009.226.240	same vessel as 237	
2009.226.241	sherd, mortaria	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.242	same vessel as 241	
2009.226.243	same vessel as 241	
2009.226.244	same vessel as 241	
2009.226.245	same vessel as 241	
2009.226.268	vessel sherd, samian	*c*. 100–120
2009.226.314	vessel sherd, samian	*c*. AD 120–160
2009.226.315	same vessel as 314	
2009.226.325	vessel sherd, samian	*c*. AD 70–90
2009.226.347	vessel sherd, coarseware	1st–4th cent. AD
2009.226.355	vessel sherd, samian	*c*. AD 75–85
2009.226.356	vessel sherd, samian	before AD 85

MILITARY EQUIPMENT

2008.83.2	harness junction loop	Roman
2008.83.3	harnesss ring	Roman
2008.83.4	harness pendant, 2-piece	Roman
2008.83.6	harness mount, enamelled	2nd cent. AD
2009.226.1	harness pendant	Roman
2009.226.3	lion head mount	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.6	harness pendant, trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.11	pendant/strap end	Roman
2009.226.29	?snaffle bit/buckle	Roman
2009.226.30	circular stud	Roman
2009.226.35	harness phalera	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.36	harness junction loop Type 5c	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.38	pendant acorn terminal	Roman
2009.226.43	large circular stud	Roman
2009.226.48	harness pendant, trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.53	harness pendant, trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.54	bolt arrowhead	Roman
2009.226.57	pendant fragment	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.58	harness pendant, trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.68	harness pendant, trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.69	pendant, manus fica/phallic	late 1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.71	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.75	harness pendant, phallic	Roman
2009.226.76	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.77	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.79	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.80	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.83	harness phalera	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.84	button and loop fastener	2nd–4th cent. AD
2009.226.91	buckle tongue	1st cent. AD
2009.226.106	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.113	pendant fragment	Roman
2009.226.114	helmet fragment, plume tube	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.119	strap slip, belt	Roman
2009.226.120	harness phalera	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.123	belt buckle	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.125	male strap fastener	Roman
2009.226.127	pendant/strap end	Roman
2009.226.133	harness junction loop, Type 1d or 1f	Roman
2009.226.134	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.135	harness pendant, crescentic ‘lunula’	early 2nd–early 3rd cent. AD
2009.226.136	harness junction loop, Type 1c	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.141	male strap fastner	Roman
2009.226.142	harness junction loop	Roman
2009.226.157	harness phalera	Roman
2009.226.158	harness junction loop	Roman
2009.226.164	buckle tongue, iron pins	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.181	lion head mount	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.201	harness ring	Roman
2009.226.202	harness phalera	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.207	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.208	harness junction loop Type 1e	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.209	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.210	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.217	buckle link	late 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.225	pendant, crescenti ‘lunula’	early 2nd–early 3rd cent. AD
2009.226.226	terret, skirted	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.249	harness phalera	2nd cent. AD
2009.226.251	rectangular strap mount	Roman
2009.226.252	harness pendant frag., trifid	1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.253	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.254	harness junction loop	Roman
2009.226.265	terret, skirted	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.313	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.327	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.351	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.352	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.358	harnesss ring	Roman
2009.226.383	harness pendant, trifid	?1st cent. AD
2009.226.386	harness phalera	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.389	harness junction loop	Roman
2009.226.394	harness phalera	mid 1st–early 2nd cent. AD
2009.226.399	buckle frag., ?head stall	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.400	strap end	Roman
2009.226.401	scabbard chape, ?spartha	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.407	harness junction loop	1st–2nd cent. AD

NATIVE METALWORK

2009.226.150	strap union	mid–late 1st cent. AD
2009.226.151	strap union	mid–late 1st cent. AD

2009.226.25	tankard handle	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.26	tankard handle	mid–late 1st cent. AD
2009.226.149	terret	mid–late 1st cent. AD
2009.226.250	terret	mid–late 1st cent. AD

BELLS

2009.226.44	bell rim	1st cent. AD
2009.226.45	bell loop, top of .44	1st cent. AD
2009.226.61	bell rim	Roman
2009.226.64	bell rim	1st cent. AD
2009.226.87	bell rim	1st cent. AD
2009.226.246	bell, quadrangular	1st cent. AD

PERSONAL ORNAMENT

2008.83.1	brooch, Birdlip	1st cent. AD
2009.226.9	brooch, Polden Hill/T-shaped	1st cent. AD
2009.226.10	brooch, Dolphin/T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.67	brooch, Zoomorphic, plate	2nd cent. AD
2009.226.107	brooch, Trumpet	1st–3rd cent. AD
2009.226.111	brooch, T-shaped/Polden Hill	1st cent. AD
2009.226.118	brooch, Polden Hill	1st cent. AD
2009.226.124	brooch, Polden Hill	1st cent. AD
2009.226.153	brooch, T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.166	brooch, Head stud	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.167	brooch, Dolphin / Polden Hill	1st cent. AD
2009.226.168	brooch incl. pin, T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.169	brooch leg, T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.190	brooch, Trumpet	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.218	brooch, Dragonesque	2nd cent. AD
2009.226.258	brooch leg, Aucissa	1st cent. AD
2009.226.262	brooch, Trumpet	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.276	brooch, Polden Hill / T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.279	brooch head, Polden Hill/ T-shaped	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.288	brooch, uncertain type	Roman

DOMESTIC

2008.83.5	metal vessel lid	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.5	lock-bolt	Roman
2009.226.7	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.8	globular headed pin/nail, fitting	Roman
2009.226.24	?lettering, fitting	Roman
2009.226.28	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.31	globular headed pin/nail, fitting	Roman
2009.226.32	globular headed pin/nail, fitting	Roman
2009.226.37	decorative stud, fitting	Roman
2009.226.39	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.49	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.52	terminal/knob, fitting	Roman
2009.226.60	terminal, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.72	lion head mount, fitting	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.89	lock-bolt	Roman
2009.226.90	jug lid, metal vessel	Roman
2009.226.93	patera handle	Roman
2009.226.97	conical terminal, fitting	Roman
2009.226.98	mirror fragment	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.99	?strap handle frag., glass vessel	Roman
2009.226.108	patera handle fragment	Roman
2009.226.115	lock-bolt	Roman
2009.226.122	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.161	globular headed pin/nail, fitting	Roman
2009.226.162	rim sherd, glass storage vessel	Roman
2009.226.163	lock-bolt frag.	Roman
2009.226.170	key	Roman
2009.226.182	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.184	?washer from furniture knob, fitting	Roman
2009.226.195	flat headed stud, fitting	Roman
2009.226.199	stud, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.203	stud, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.204	mount, from metal vessel	Roman
2009.226.205	terminal/knob, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.213	pin/nail, fitting	Roman
2009.226.220	terminal frag., furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.221	stud, fitting	Roman
2009.226.228	glass vessel fragment	Roman
2009.226.233	mirror fragment	Roman
2009.226.234	glass vessel fragment	Roman
2009.226.235	glass vessel fragment	Roman
2009.226.236	glass vessel fragment	Roman
2009.226.257	casket binding, fitting	Roman
2009.226.260	patera handle	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.264	lock-bolt	Roman
2009.226.324	flat-headed stud, fitting	Roman
2009.226.335	lock-bolt	Roman
2009.226.345	patera handle	Roman
2009.226.390	terminal, furniture fitting	Roman
2009.226.396	pin/stud, fitting	Roman
2009.226.403	mirror fragment	Roman
2009.226.404	mirror fragment	Roman
2009.226.405	mirror fragment	Roman
2009.226.408	terminal, fitting	Roman
2009.226.410	metal vessel lid	Roman

TRADE AND PRODUCTION

2009.226.74	steelyard weight	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.152	?unfinished terret/handle, cast	1st–2nd cent. AD
2009.226.155	harness ring, mis-cast	Roman
2009.226.224	steelyard balance bar	1st cent. AD

MISCELLANEOUS

2009.226.46	enamelled plate, ?pendant	Roman
2009.226.47	?bell rim or vessel rim	Roman
2009.226.55	?bell rim or vessel rim	Roman
2009.226.117	vessel foot, ?candle holder	Roman
2009.226.216	handle, ?knife/razor	Roman
2009.226.219	?ink well lid	Roman
2009.226.275	figurine	Roman
2009.226.374	zoomorphic fish terminal/handle	Roman

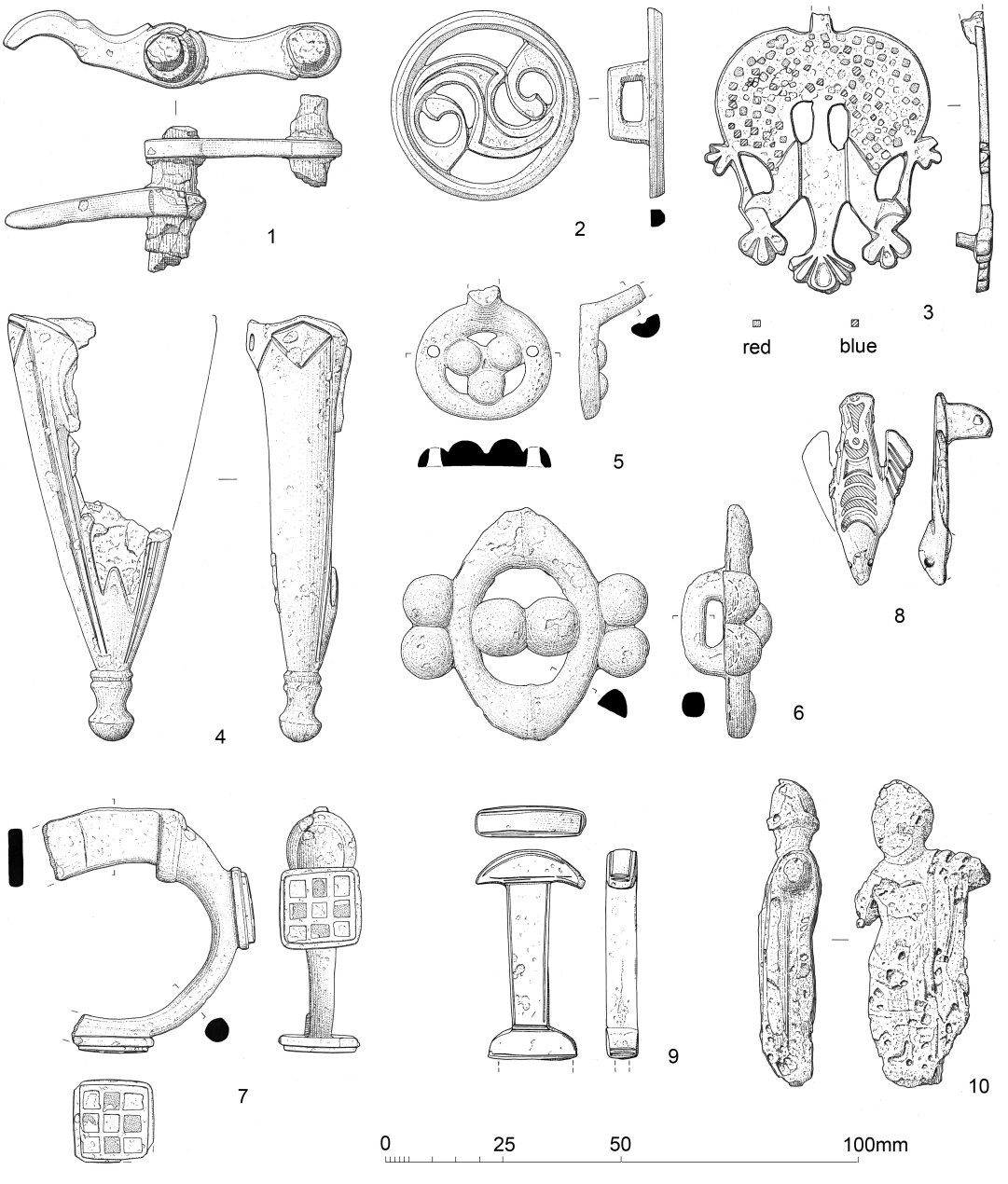

Fig. 10. Selected metal-detector finds from the environs of Brecon Gaer. Scale 2:3.

Items related to trade and production
The four catalogued Roman items are a steelyard weight, a steelyard balance bar, possibly an unfinished terret or handle and a miscast harness ring.

Miscellaneous
The eight miscellaneous items include a knife or razor handle and a statuette (Fig. 10, nos 9–10).

Illustrated finds
A selection of some of the intrinsically more interesting metalwork finds is described and illustrated in Figure 10. The writer's dissertation (Lewis 2011) provides a more comprehensive analysis of the collection.

Buckle tongue with links
1. Copper alloy and iron, Roman, possibly late first- to early second-century AD based on parallels. Two copper alloy sections, one of which is the buckle tongue, the other a link of unknown purpose, are connected by an iron rod with a fragmented iron rod in the copper alloy link (weight 29.1g, 70mm long, 40mm wide). Parallels include Loughor in Glamorgan (Chapman 2005, 132, Ta05 and Ta06, dated *c*. AD 73/4–*c*. 80) and Vindonissa in Switzerland (Unz and Deschler-Erb 1997, nos 1922–1926, dated to the first century AD). NMWPA 2009.226.164.

Harness phalera
2. Copper alloy, mid-first to second-century AD. Romano-British. This phalera may be a native object, though no native parallels are known for an object of this type. It appears to combine a Roman function with native design, discussed below, and could be interpreted as early Romano-British. Complete circular mount (weight 19.5g, 40.2mm diameter, 3.3mm thick). The decoration is openwork which shows strong affinities with late Celtic or La Tène style and technique: there are trumpets, lobes and linked bi-concave triangles, with half-moon comma and triangle voids, all showing an Iron Age or native style in preference to a classical style, though the motifs are isolated and the overall design is reasonably symmetrical, consistent with a continuing native style showing some Romanising influence within the Romano-British period (Adam Gwilt pers. comm.). There are two cell recesses in the centre which are likely to have originally contained enamel, but this has not visibly survived. The reverse is functional Type 1c (Bishop 1988, 139), with a single rectangular loop arranged centrally (length 17.6mm, width 3.4mm, 8.4mm). There are no exact parallels to this object, but the decoration is similar to several objects associated with horse equipment from the Stanwick hoard in Yorkshire, dated to AD 50–75 (MacGregor 1962) and a shield-boss from Llyn Cerrig Bach, Anglesey (Fox 1958, fig. 29, 43–44). NMPWA 2009.226.394.

Trifid pendant
3. Copper alloy, first- to early second-century AD. Mostly complete but missing the suspension loop (surviving weight of 20.2g, 45.5mm wide, 65.5mm high, 2.3mm thick). A sub-rectangular shank (7mm high 4.8mm wide, 5.2mm deep) set transversely to the upper part of the body. This may originally have been connected to the suspension loop (now missing). The central lobe narrows before flaring out to a floral terminal, with two smaller lobes to either side. Unlike the other 'trifid' pendants in the assemblage, the smaller lobes have floral terminals similar to the central lobe, and possibly represent bunches of grapes. There are four cut-outs, two oval-shaped in the centre

of the body and two 'comma-shaped' on the side lobes. Just above the 'comma-shaped' cut-outs are two small floral-shaped terminals that sit horizontally from the body (7.2mm long, 4.1mm wide). The outer face would have been tinned and the upper part is decorated with small rhomboid indentations which were made by punching and then filled with niello (Phil Parkes pers. comm.). The closest parallel is from Vindonissa (Unz and Deschler-Erb 1997, no. 1384) though this has several decorative differences. It appears that the Brecon Gaer pendant is a variant of this type. For similar use of niello on harness fixtures see a mount from Usk, Monmouthshire (Chapman 2005, 133, Tc07). NMWPA 2009.226.383.

Scabbard chape

4. Copper alloy, Roman, first/second-century AD. Broken and missing one of the arms (surviving weight 42.5g, 91mm long, surviving width 20.1mm, 20.5mm deep). Narrow V-shaped scabbard chape with a round terminal knob (9.9mm diameter). The remaining arm has a single surviving rivet hole at the top. Linear incised decoration followed the arms on either side from their points to the tops of the arms and formed a triangular shape around the rivet hole and a rhombus on the surviving arm's side. There are two collars separating the terminal from the binding. Inside the chape appear to be the remains of organic material, perhaps the wooden sheath. This is possibly from a *spatha* scabbard due to its narrow size and the association with a large number of cavalry objects. Parallels include Caerleon (Chapman 2005, 13, Ba05) and Vindonissa (Unz and Deschler-Erb 1997, nos 167, 172, 173). NMWPA 2009.226.401.

Tankard handle

5. Copper alloy, late Iron Age or early Romano-British (first/second-century AD). Incomplete with a broken column (surviving weight of 21.1g, 25.5mm long, width 29.9mm, 3.7mm thick). Ovoid openwork attachment plate with three hemispherical knobs (ranging in diameter from 6.5–7mm) situated centrally in a triangular arrangement; two small rivet holes on either side of the plate (internal diameter of 2.5mm). The frame has been cast and has a flat underside. A slender semi-circular single (rather than bifurcating) column (length 14.1mm, thickness 4.7mm) suggests this example does not easily fit into Corcoran's handle schema (1952), nor Spratling's schema (1972, 208–12). As such, this is a seemingly unparalleled tankard handle form, but not easily classifiable, as most of the mid-section is missing. Distribution: Generally, south-eastern and south-western England, Wales, and outliers in Scotland (Corcoran 1952, 95, fig. 3; MacGregor 1976, map 19, 166–8). Close parallels are unknown. A possible general parallel comes from Carlingwark Loch, Kirkudbright (votive deposit), with a slender single column, double-unit form with circular motifs (MacGregor 1976, cat. no. 287). The slender openwork treatment is also closely reminiscent of horse pieces in the Stanwick hoard, Yorkshire (MacGregor 1962), while the three knobs in the circular openwork attachment plate recall the repeated knobbed decoration on horse pieces in the Middlebie hoard, Dumfriesshire (MacGregor 1976, cat. nos 5, 6, 11–13, 22, 33–5, 55–8, 72, 88–93, 149). The overall date range of the object type is *c*. AD 1–200, but deposition at Brecon Gaer was probably during the first century AD. NMWPA 2009.226.25.

Strap union

6. Copper alloy, late Iron Age or early Romano-British (mid to late first-century AD). Complete (weight 45g, length 49.9mm, width 53.3mm). Type 3 strap union (Taylor and Brailsford 1985). The central section of the strap union differs considerably from its closest parallels. It is a pointed oval (max. thickness 6.7mm) similar to other examples but instead has openwork decoration with

two circular bosses arranged centrally side by side. Either side of the central feature sit four integral circular bosses, two on each side (approx. diams 11mm, thickness 6.6mm). On the reverse sit two strap bars (22mm long, 6.2mm wide, 8.6mm deep) of square section, with rectangular loops, sitting on opposite sides of the central feature. Distribution: East Anglia and Southern Scotland (MacGregor 1976, map 3, 57–8). Parallels include the Middlebie hoard, Dumfriesshire (MacGregor 1976, cat. no. 23; Taylor and Brailsford 1985, cat. no. 39); Traprain Law, East Lothian (MacGregor 1976, cat. no. 26; Taylor and Brailsford 1985, cat. no. 42); enamelled version, the Saham Toney hoard, Norfolk (Hutcheson 2004, cat. no. 43). The overall date range for the type is AD 50–125, though probably AD 50–90 in western Britain. NMWPA 2009.226.150.

Platform-decorated terret

7. Copper alloy, late Iron Age or early Romano-British (mid to late first-century AD). Incomplete, missing a platform and one side of the ring (surviving weight 42.1g, surviving length 42.2mm, width 52.6mm). Ovoid ring (internally 33.3mm wide) of circular section (5mm diameter) with two surviving rectangular platforms (17.9mm long, 17.6mm wide) set at 45º apart along its circumference. The platforms are decorated with nine square cells arranged in rows of three. These contain two coloured enamels arranged in a geometric pattern, one of which is red/orange, the other uncertain. One side of the ring is rectangular in section with a circular sectioned collar separating it from the rest of the ring. Examples of the type are known in East Anglia, Yorkshire and Southern Scotland (MacGregor 1976, map 9, 67–9). Parallels include Gayton, Norfolk (Hutcheson 2004, cat. no. 119); Tuttington, Norfolk (Hutcheson 2004, cat. no. 123); Birrens, Dumfriesshire (MacGregor 1976, cat. nos 65–6); Fremington Hagg hoard, North Yorkshire (MacGregor 1976, cat. no. 69); and Traprain Law, East Lothian (MacGregor 1976, cat. no. 74); The overall dating of the type is c. AD 50–150. NMWPA 2009.226.149.

Zoomorphic brooch

8. Copper alloy, second-century AD. Incomplete; missing the pin and catch-plate (surviving weight 6.4g, 41.2mm long, 17.2mm wide). The brooch is in the form of a bird in flight, with only the left wing surviving. The head is sub-triangular with the point acting as the beak and semi-circular in section (7mm thick). There is a circular recess (1.6mm diameter) on either side of the face representing the eyes; possibly originally containing enamel. The surviving wing (21.2mm long from shoulder to tip) projects towards the rear (6.8mm from the body at the furthest point) and has 5 linear decorative grooves running intermittently diagonally across the surface. These may have originally been cells containing enamel. The body (3.4mm thick) is a narrow oval shape and has 5 concave cells on the surface. The three central ones still contain blue enamel and the two either side are now empty. The four cells behind the head curve towards it, whereas the fifth is concave on both sides. The tail flares out slightly from the body (to a width of 7.6mm at the tip) with three cells containing blue enamel. The one closest to the body is concave with the curve facing the tail, this is followed by a small enamel dot between its two points. At the end of the tail the enamel decoration is in a v-shape with the point facing the body. On the reverse only a small remnant of the catch-plate underneath the head survives. The remains of an integral lug sits below the tail (9.6mm long). The surface has a brown patina with small patches of surface loss. A similar zoomorphic brooch dated to the second century AD was found near Wimborne, Dorset (Hattatt 1985, 176, no. 625). The enamel decoration and the length of the neck and head differ in this example. Other examples of bird brooches are found in Hattatt (1989, 361). NMWPA 2011.01.67

Razor or knife handle

9. Handle possibly from a razor or knife, copper alloy, Roman. Incomplete, missing the blade (surviving weight 23g, 45mm long). The head of the handle, crescentic in shape, is the widest part of the handle (7mm long, 23mm wide). Below is a narrow rectangular section to place the fingers (31.3mm long, 7.8mm wide). The bottom of the handle is semi-circular in shape (6.9mm long, 19.4mm wide) and has a thin sliver of an iron blade on the underside. The handle has incised linear decoration highlighting the edge of one face and looks like a small sword handle. The handle is very small and would not have been appropriate for a functional knife, so it may have been a votive object or a particularly special razor. NMWPA 2009.226.216.

Statuette

10. Copper alloy statuette, possibly representing a deity. Roman. Heavily corroded and missing the arms (surviving weight 44.6g, 65.7mm long, max. 29.4mm wide). Owing to corrosion much of the detail from the statuette has been lost; the only remaining detail is a toga draped across the figure's left shoulder. NMWPA 2009.226.275.

Discussion of the metal detector finds

Distribution

Although the distribution of metal detector finds obviously reflects the areas that were searched, the concentration of objects around the eastern entrance of the fort seems meaningful. The distribution of the objects here may provide some indication of the extent of the *vicus* on this side of the fort but, as yet, this has been confirmed only by the test-pitting. It is also possible that material was deposited in waste pits dug outside the fort defences. The evidence for deliberate site clearance and demolition followed by disposal in pits is a well-documented military phenomenon from archaeological excavations (Bishop and Coulston 2006, 26–30; Chapman 2005, 195).

Composition of the assemblage

The assemblage predictably shows a bias towards metalwork items and particularly those of copper alloy, accounting for over 80% of the number of items recovered. Other iron objects may either have been discarded by the finder or not removed from the ground. By contrast, about 60% of the finds from Wheeler's excavations in the 1920s and about 90% of the finds from Casey's excavations in 1970 were ceramic, and the test pitting described above in this paper, also emphasises the predominance of pottery recovered under controlled conditions.

The relatively high proportion of items of military equipment is perhaps unsurprising considering the nature of the site and it reflects the epigraphic evidence suggesting that a cavalry regiment was stationed at the fort in the late first century (RCAHMW 1986, 143; Burnham and Davies 2010, 200). These include items of horse harness, pendants, a fragment of armour, personal ornaments, and weapon fragments. The proportion of items of military equipment is much higher than those from the earlier excavations, certainly a reflection of the recovery method. The finds from Wheeler's excavations also show a strong element of cavalry equipment, however, including ten pieces of harness equipment. Wheeler's finds also included 2 fragments of a face-mask from a cavalry parade-helmet (1926, fig. 56) and nine iron weapon fragments.

The presence of a number of items of native metalwork is significant. In their discussion of similar finds in the Seven Sisters (Glamorgan) hoard Davies and Gwilt (2008) argued that objects of these types could be seen as a sign of native resistance to Roman occupation. The reason for their presence at Brecon Gaer, though, is open to conjecture. Native finds are well known from first- and second-century Roman contexts in Britain especially at forts (MacGregor 1976; Bishop 1998, 63–4; Hunter 2008, 131). There is

no evidence of pre-conquest activity at Brecon Gaer, the nearest known settlements being the hillforts at Coed Fenni-fach and Pen-y-crug (RCAHMW 1986, 66, 68–70) which are within 12 kilometres of the fort; neither site has been excavated and it is uncertain whether they were still occupied by the time Brecon Gaer was established. It is possible that native metalwork may have been seized during military campaigns in the conquest period, but alternatively Hunter (2008, 136) has argued for a process of acculturation and the adoption of native metalworking designs and technology. Certainly, the Roman-British phalera described above (Fig. 10, no. 2), illustrates a fusion of Roman functional type and native style. Objects of this kind might have been the result of diplomacy between Romans and local elites, or could have been used by the soldiers themselves. The native metalwork's link with horse equipment may reveal that cavalry soldiers deliberately choose to use this equipment.

Dating

Many of the finds are not closely datable within the Roman period, but the majority of the more closely datable items belong to the mid- to late first century and the second century AD. As noted above, the highest proportion of coins found by metal detecting are of issues in circulation during the first century, with a tailing off in the second century, and only one dating to the third century and one to the fourth century. In view of the fact that the Portable Antiquities Scheme database is dominated by third- and fourth-century coins, reflecting the abundance of low value copper-alloy coinage in the later Roman period (Brindle 2009, 56), the date distribution of the coins from Brecon Gaer is likely to be reasonably reliable. We can be fairly confident that the finders declared most of the coins if not all, because they submitted many coins for recording that they later kept as well as those that were donated.

The coin evidence provides a good basis for chronological comparison with earlier excavations inside the fort at Brecon Gaer. Figure 11 shows the date range of all the coins recorded from both inside (70 coins) and outside (125) the fort, based on the reported metal detector finds listed here and earlier finds catalogued by Guest and Wells (2007). The coin assemblage as a whole shows a peak in the Flavian period, around AD 69–96, and a marked decline from the middle of the second century AD onwards. There are some interesting differences between the patterns of coin loss inside and outside the fort, however. There is a greater reduction in the number of coins of the second half of the second century inside the fort than outside it, which suggests that the population of the *vicus* remained reasonably stable at this period despite an apparent reduction in the fort garrison. The reverse appears to be the case during the third and fourth centuries, however, with a lower number of coins outside the fort and a higher number inside it which might indicate a re-garrisoning of the fort in the later Roman period or alternatively reoccupation of the interior of the fort by a civilian population. However, the existence of evidence of activity in the third and fourth centuries does not necessarily mean the fort was under continuous military occupation during these periods. Guest (2010, 30) argues more generally that late Roman coinage does not prove that a site was military.

If there was any major occupation at the fort we would expect much higher peaks for the third and fourth century, owing to the abundance of coinage in the late period (Brindle 2009, 56). There are a total of 202 coins from the assemblage and from previous discoveries. Of the closely identifiable coins only 15 were third-century and 13 fourth-century. In the 1926 report a comparison was made with the Caernarfon excavations where there were around 250 coins from the third century and 600 coins from the fourth century (Wheeler 1926, 82). There is also a lack of substantial building activity at Brecon Gaer in the third and fourth centuries, with no stratified dateable evidence dating to these periods (Wheeler 1926, 78–85). Casey's excavation in 1971 ceded only one coin, of Antonine date.

Based on the earlier coin evidence, recent interpretations have suggested that Brecon Gaer may have been garrisoned into the third and fourth century with limited building activity in the vicinity (Casey and

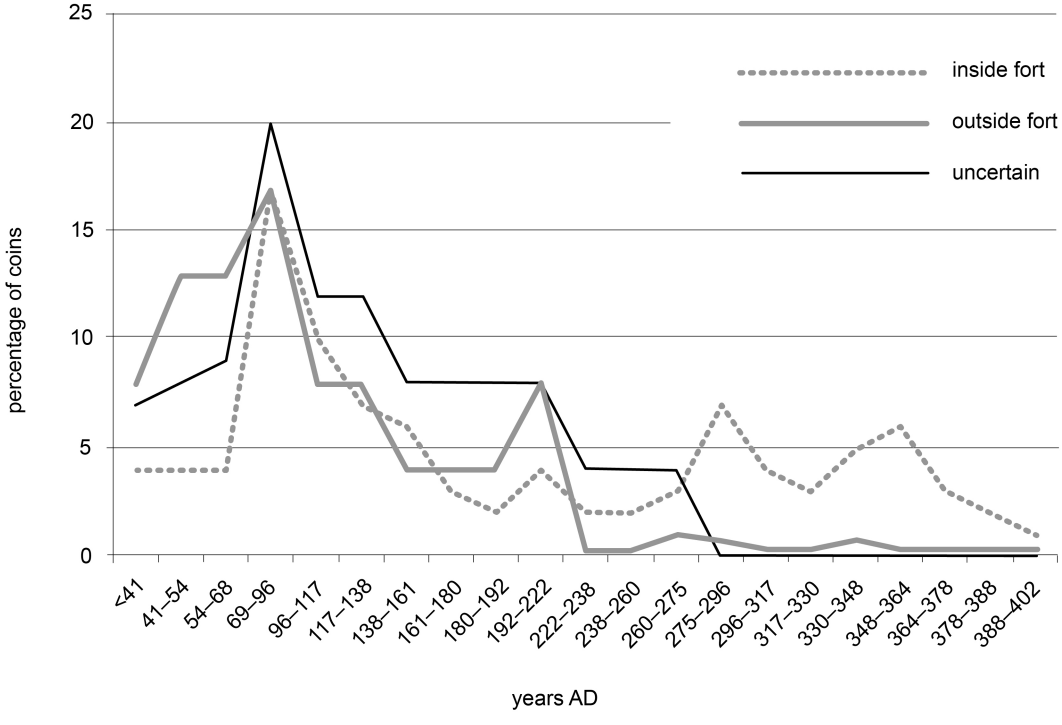

Fig. 11. Graph showing the chronologies of coins discovered inside and outside the fort (based on the assemblage and Iron Age and Roman Coins in Wales database (Guest and Wells 2007).

Davies 2010, 200–4). This activity may not have come from a military garrison or even from long-term occupation. In the 1926 report various alternative interpretations were put forward including civilian occupation, several short-term occupations or small-scale occupation referred to as 'care-taker' activity (Wheeler 1926, 83–4). The dateable objects from this assemblage reinforce the dichotomy between the first and second centuries and the third- and fourth-century evidence. It thus seems unlikely that the site was in military occupation in the late Roman period.

ROMAN GRAVE GROUP FROM BRECON GAER

By Evan Chapman

An early Roman grave-group (comprising a Celtic-style mirror, two miniature terrets, a toilet set, a pottery lamp and a pottery bowl and lid) was reportedly found in the in the vicinity of Brecon Gaer in the mid-1990s and was acquired from the antiquities trade by the National Museum of Wales in 1996 (accession no. 97.7H). It was published in summary fashion in the National Museum Wales *Discovered in Time* in 2011 (Redknap 2011, 90–1). Information about its finds spot and context is thus, unfortunately, very limited, amounting only to that known by the antiquities dealer at the time of sale: found 'two feet below the surface, with a flat stone on the bottom and top, beside a Roman road a quarter of a mile from a Roman fort in the area of Brecon – twenty-five miles within the Welsh border'. The find is, however,

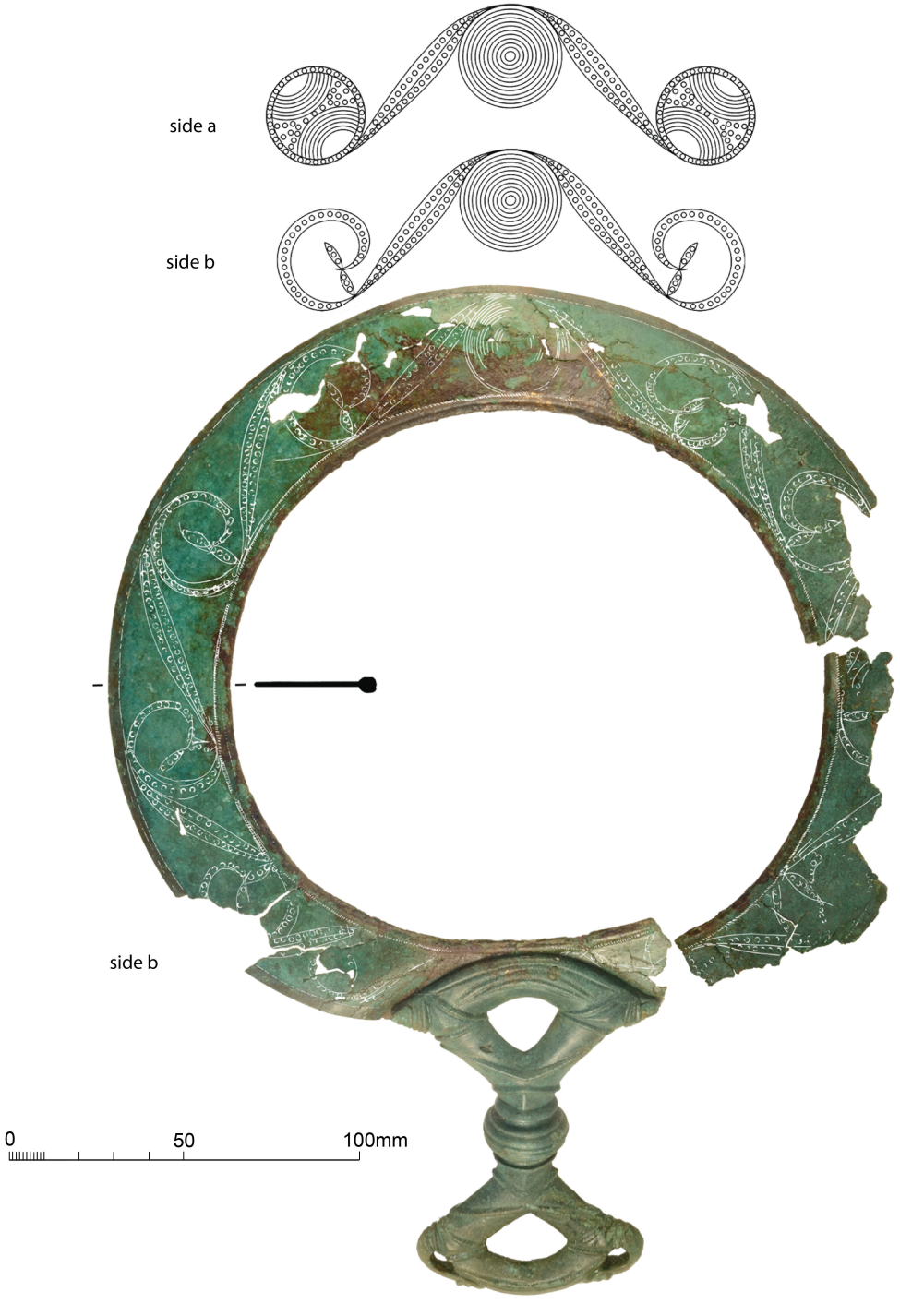

Fig. 12. Copper alloy and iron mirror. Scale 1:2. © *National Museum of Wales*.

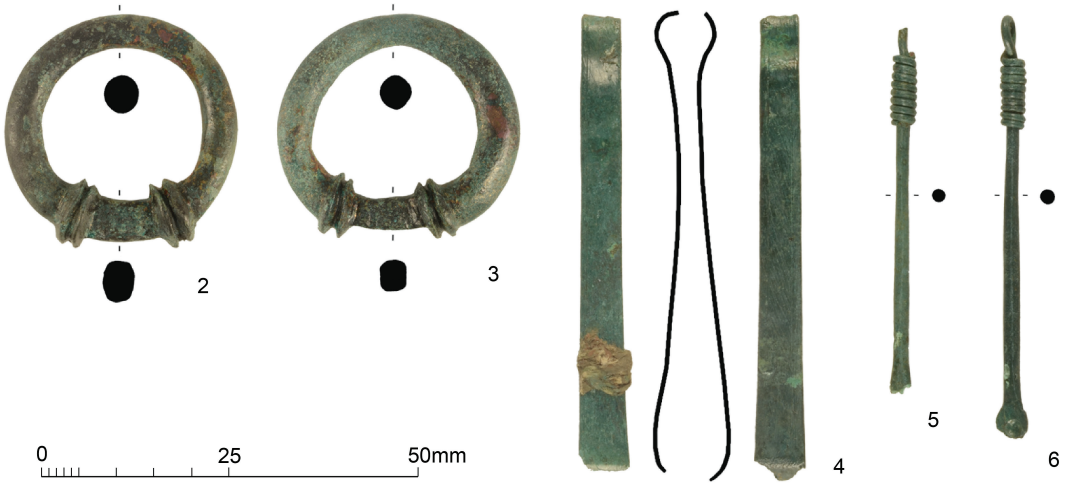

Fig. 13. Terrets and toilet set. Scale 1:2. © *National Museum of Wales*.

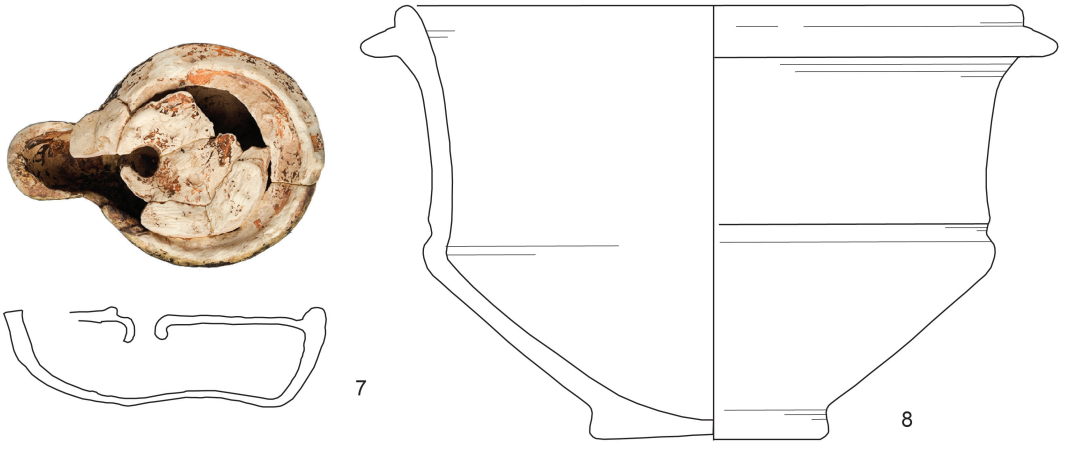

Fig. 14. Ceramic lamp and carinated bowl from the grave group. Scale: 1:2.

still of considerable significance and importance, as there is little evidence for burials with grave goods, of the period, from Wales.

The known contents of the grave group (Figs 12–14) is as follows.

Mirror

1. Copper alloy and iron mirror. The mirror has a heavy cast copper alloy double-looped bar handle of Fox (1949) Type I (Joy 2010, 159). The terminal of the handle is a large triangular-shaped loop, which has two voids in it, one to either side of the loop. The grip is very short, consisting of little more than a single ring-shaped protrusion with a narrow collar above and below. The top of the handle is also triangular-shaped with a void in the centre. The design is somewhat unusual: the closest parallel is a handle from Ballybogey Bog, Ballymoney, Co. Antrim (Raftery 1984, 208–10; Jope 2000, 267, no. 173a–b). The handle is secured to the mirror plate by means of a slot

in the top of the former, with a rivet at either end. The mirror plate itself was made up of three components: a central iron plate; a flat copper alloy ring or collar that thickens around its inner edge to accommodate a groove to take the iron plate; and a copper alloy edging or binding strip. Very little remains of the central iron plate, which, polished, would have provided the actual mirror surface, and what does survive is badly corroded. Nor does much of the outer binding strip survive. What does survive more or less intact is the copper alloy collar, which provided a decorative frame, having incised decoration on both faces. Unfortunately much of this incised decoration is now barely visible in the surface patina and then only where the original surface survives. What the decoration appears to consist of is a series of incised circles, approximately 25mm in diameter, the size of the full width of the flat part of the collar, linked by two curving parallel line of stamped dots, probably originally forming a scroll-like pattern. The large circles each appear to have a ring of similar stamped dots around the inside of their inscribed circumference and a line of dots across the middle. The two best-preserved circles have, to either side of the line of dots across the middle, a series of parallel incised lines, curving inwards towards the centre of the circle. Total length 290mm; diameter 220mm. The dating evidence for Celtic-style mirrors suggest that while in the south-east of England they belong firmly to the first century BC, in the West and in Wales most belong to the first century AD, 'with a *floruit* at the time of the Roman invasion' (Sealey 2006, 16).

Minature terrets

2–3. Two copper alloy miniature (or mini-) terrets. The terrets are small, circular to slightly D-shaped, cast rings. They are mainly oval in cross-section but between the double collars, on the flattened parts of the loops they are of rectangular cross-section. The collars probably acted as restrictions to help retain a strap in place. Diameter of one 30mm, of the other 32 by 29mm; width 5mm; thickness 4mm. Evidence from burials where miniature terrets have been found in close association with linch-pins suggest that they were part of the assemblage that attached wheels to carts and chariots (Stead 1991, 47).

Toilet set

4–6. Copper alloy toilet set of tweezers (no. 4), nail cleaner (no. 5) and ear scoop (no. 6), all originally attached to a common loop, fragments of which survive. The nail cleaner and ear cleaner have shafts of circular cross-section, and coiled wire handles and suspension loops. The tweezers are very slightly tapered and are decorated by a groove parallel to its edges. Length of tweezers 62mm; length of nail cleaners 49mm (broken); length of ear scoop 56mm (broken).

Ceramic lamp

7. Closed ceramic lamp with a circular body, in whitish buff clay, with traces of orange-brown slip. Damaged and badly abraded. Probably of Gaulish, or possibly British, manufacture, and of late first or early second century date. Length 87mm; width 62mm; height 24mm.

Carinated bowl

8. Pottery bowl with a flanged and beaded rim and a markedly carinated body, in a grey-brown fabric, with a darker surface. Diameter 165mm; height 125mm. Peter V. Webster has commented on the bowl as follows. The form is unusual. The rim is flanged in much the same way that later Black-burnished ware flanged bows are formed. However, the lower part of the vessel is carinated in a manner which would best suit a first or earlier second-century date and the latter period seems more likely for our piece. Below the rim, the form is reminiscent of the carinated beakers/

bowls found in earlier Severn Valley forms (cf. for instance, Manning 1993, fig. 135, 20.1 with references). It seems most likely that we see here a hybrid between what is in origin a late Iron Age form and the common Flavian–Trajanic flanged and carinated bowls. We can probably see a similar combination is two vessels from Caerleon (Nash-Williams 1929, fig. 33, 88–9) and on another Brecon bowl (Wheeler 1926, fig. 94, C1). Such a fusion could have occurred anywhere in the Severn catchment area and the fabric of our piece is not especially distinctive. A reasonably local origin for the piece and a Flavian or Flavian–Trajanic date seems most likely.

Pottery lid

9. The very fragmentary remains of a pottery lid, in the same fabric as the bowl and of matching diameter.

Cremated bone

10. A very small quantity of cremated bone survived alongside the grave group. Some of the bone was radiocarbon dated as part of the AHRC-funded project on early Celtic art in Britain called 'The Technologies of Enchantment' (Garrow *et al*. 2010, 94). Dating was undertaken at the Oxford Radiocarbon Accelerator Unit. Cremated bone samples were pre-treated using the acid digestion method, graphitized and AMS dated. Dates were calibrated with reference to the IntCal04 calibration curve using the OxCal calibration program (Garrow *et al*. 2010, 98–9). The determination obtained was 1905±28 BP (OxA-17455), which gives calibrated date ranges of cal. AD 20–220 (at 95.4% confidence), cal. AD 20–180 (at 93.0%) and cal. AD 190–220 (at 2.4%) (Garrow *et al*. 2010, table 2).

Discussion of the grave group

It would seem reasonable to assume that the pottery bowl and lid once held the actual cremated remains of the deceased, although this fact is not recorded. Grave goods deposited with the deceased may reflect status or a concern for future well-being in the afterlife. In this case the objects buried with the cremated remains are an interesting mix of Roman-style pieces and items of a more native tradition. The mirror is in a native Iron Age 'Celtic' style but is accompanied by a standard Roman style toilet set. Also in a native tradition are the two miniature terrets. These need be no more than 'trinkets', but could possibly have been intended to be a symbolic representation of a whole vehicle, as found in some Iron Age graves elsewhere in Britain. The oil lamp is possibly the most surprising piece, as lamps of any type, let alone elaborate classical examples, are not as common in Britain as elsewhere in the Roman Empire. A similar mix of Roman and native pieces is seen, on a rather grander scale, in the Welshpool hoard (Boon 1961; Jones and Gwilt 2014), which is probably most easily interpreted as another grave group of similar date, although no body or cremated remains were found there.

We do not know whose grave it was. It could be that of a native inhabitant who had already managed to acquire some of the trappings of Roman culture or that of an incomer, possibly a retired Roman soldier, or his wife, who had done the same in reverse.

OVERVIEW OF RECENT WORK IN THE ENVIRONS OF BRECON GAER

By Bob Silvester

It would be no exaggeration to maintain that recent years have seen a significant upsurge of interest in Roman military activity within Wales. This is not to suggest that such activity had previously been

neglected, rather that research when it occurred tended to focus on specific sites: Caerleon, Caersws, Loughor and Pumsaint are examples. New assessment work through several initiatives funded by Cadw on Roman roads, fort environs but less so on the forts themselves have subtly shifted the emphasis away from excavation to non-destructive forms of research and in doing so have broadened the basis available for analysis. Such has been the amount of new information generated by these as well as other pertinent projects on for instance marching camps and pottery that a new edition of the classic *Roman Frontiers in Wales*, the third since its inception in 1954, appeared in print under a fractionally different title in 2010, edited by two of the two of Wales' leading specialists, Barry Burnham and Jeffrey Davies.

It is against this background that the individual pieces of work at Brecon Gaer have progressed, more or less independently of each other. The recent spate of work, a temporary peak in a prolonged phase of general quietude, exemplifies how our growing appreciation of the Roman military in Wales often progresses in fits and starts. There are a few installations—and Llanfor (Mer.) in the Dee Valley (Hopewell 2005) is a good example—where discoveries have been wide-ranging and dramatic over a short period of time. More commonly and in east Wales foci come to mind such as Caersws (Monts.) where the expansion of the modern village provides sporadic opportunities for investigation (Jones 1996; 2011), and Forden (Monts.) where farming activity and river erosion are the main conservation issues (cf. Blockley 1990), the tendency has been for gradual progress. Brecon Gaer fits broadly into this pattern, even though some of the work has been archaeologically driven, and it coincides too with a renewed interest within Cadw who, responsible for those elements of the fort in the guardianship of the Secretary of State, are currently improving visitor access to the site and installing new stiles and fencing.

What is perhaps slightly unusual is that none of the work at Brecon Gaer relates specifically to the fort itself. In some places work funded by Cadw or resourced through other mechanisms has contributed considerably to an understanding of the plan and layout of a fort under examination. Displayed in *Roman Frontiers in Wales and the Marches*, a series of forts stand out—Caer Gai (Mer.), Caersws I (Monts.), Llandeilo (Carms.), Llanfor (Mer.), Tomen y Mur (Mer.) amongst others—where recent geophysical surveys in particular have transformed our appreciation of the internal layouts of the forts themselves. At Brecon Gaer we are still dependant on Wheeler's 1926 plan of the internal arrangement of the fort, partial in its detail particularly for the western quadrants and this despite the fact that there has been some excellent aerial photography of parchmarks in past years (see Burnham and Davies 2010, fig. 7.26). Unimpeded by later developments, the interior of Brecon Gaer is perfect for geophysical survey but this has yet to be commissioned, an omission which in the general context of work on Welsh military sites is both remarkable and unsatisfactory.

It is on the *vicus* that much of the recent work has focused (Fig. 15). Wheeler exposed elements of three stone buildings, to which the recent geophysical surveys have added a further example. Two of these buildings (B and D), facing each other across the main east to west road that dropped down to the ford across the Ysgir, appear to vie for the role of a *mansio* (Casey and Davies 2010, 204). Building C on the basis of very slender evidence seen by Wheeler, who was hampered by the presence of the old farmhouse now gone, was considered to be the military bathhouse. Building A may be slightly different in that it might have had stone foundations and a wooden superstructure rather than the stone walls exhibited for B and C.

What is striking is that the main axial alignments of B and D lie parallel to the fort and the north gate road, as did building A, and this in spite of the east to west road angling between them, a feature that Wheeler (1926, 68) was alert to, and from which he inferred that the east to west road was a later development. This points to a degree of planning within the *vicus* that can also be recognised in the layout of the less substantial features lying further from the fort and to the west of the north gate road. As some areas immediately to the north of the fort are simply not available for geophysical survey, it may well be that other stone buildings remain to be discovered.

In the main the results from the geophysics and the test pitting broadly complemented each other, with neither providing a complete or self-explanatory picture, but each contributing to the overall impression of settlement around the fort. This leads us, then, to the curious case of the field beyond the east gate. Wheeler himself queried the potential of this locality nearly a century ago (1926, 253).

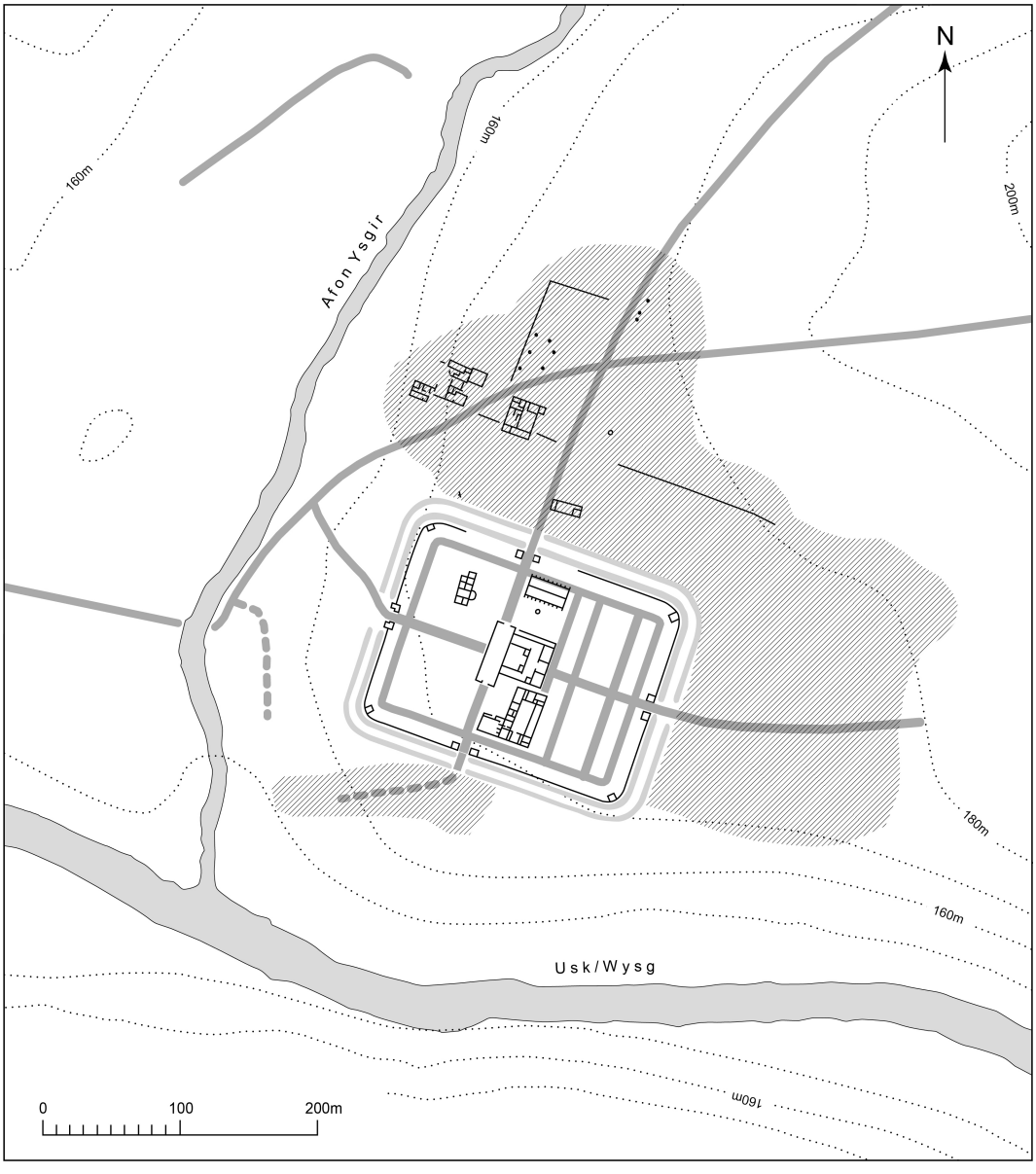

Fig. 15. Brecon Gaer: conjectural extent of the *vicus* (shaded) based on excavation in the 1920s and more recent geophysical survey, test-pitting and metal-detecting, shown in relationship to the road plan (see also Figure 8).

The conditions under which this flattish pasture field was surveyed geophysically varied very little from those experienced to the north of the fort: the same operator, the same equipment, and the same time of year (late summer 2004). The results, however, were surprising; over an area of about 1.5 hectares the only feature picked up by the geophysics was the faint trace of the road leaving the east gate. As David Hopewell put it at the time, 'there was no indication of settlement and the line of the road could not be resolved in any detail' (2004, 5). Yet this was the area on the flat terrace beside the Usk where extramural settlement might reasonably have been anticipated, and had it not been for the metal-detecting we might have gone on assuming that contrary to expectations it was an area relatively clear of activity. The metal detecting results have been confirmed by test pitting which revealed evidence of occupation and features up to 200m beyond the fort. The inability of the geophysics to identify archaeological anomalies has to be attributed solely to the ground conditions and specifically the soils, for it is not as though results were entirely absent. As shown by Figure 3, the road can be recognised, as can other faint marks, broadly attributable to a more recent date. It is a compelling indication that negative evidence, here of geophysics, needs to be treated with extreme caution.

Elsewhere, however, the evidence (or lack of it) for extramural activity is convincing. The fort is positioned to gain some strategic advantage from the confluence of the Ysgir and the Usk. Small though it is, the Ysgir has eroded a sharp valley through the rock strata on the north side of the Usk, while the main river has carved a deep step from the terrace down to the present river level below. On both the south and the west sides of the fort, there is relatively little flattish ground before the ground drops away to one or other of the watercourses. Weak geophysical anomalies reflected both the fort ditch and perhaps a road leaving the south gate, in appearance not so very different from the results from the east side of the fort, but on the south both the test pitting and the metal detecting seeming to confirm that activity on this side of the fort was sparse. The same is true on the west side.

The north side is very different. Wheeler demonstrated that this was the main focus of civilian activity during the lifespan of the fort, and the recent geophysical surveys have amplified rather than altered the picture. Wheeler found not only stone buildings, but also 'an almost continuous series of buildings for a distance of at least 300 yards from the fort', in the form of postholes, and clay or cobble floors with in one place four stratified occupation layers (Wheeler 1926, 57–8). To these we can now add a further stone building and indications of an increasingly complex *vicus* layout around what clearly served as the primary entrance to the fort.

Of the major roads that served the fort there can be little doubt. Wheeler was positive on the green lane which came in from the east, while the road running north from the fort has been seen as parchmarks, as a geophysical anomaly and in the excavation trench cut by Wheeler 1926, fig. 38) it could hardly be more convincing.

A reassessment of the roads in the vicinity of the fort above emphasises what is perhaps not as clear as it might be in such standard works as Ivan Margary's *Roman Roads in Britain* (1973), that while the general course of a road may not be seriously doubted, the detailing of its precise line can remain as vague as it was to antiquaries in past centuries. The road running west from Brecon Gaer towards Llandovery is a classic case in point, and one where developer-funded work has a made a positive impact, although this work has also complicated the picture by uncovering what Hugh Toller calls the western bypass, a road which though offering a logical route to the north creates new problems in determining how such a road would cope with the local topography.

Of interest is the relative insignificance of the road leaving the west gate of the fort. Casey and Davies (2010, 201) have remarked on the symbolic status of the west gate with its projecting guard towers which visually emphasised the facade (cf. Bidwell 1997, 49), in contrast to the other two gates—the east and the south—which have been examined. The west gate faced unknown territory and made a statement on

Roman military power to anyone approaching from the west. As a means of egress and access, however, it was of little significance. Hugh Toller has suggested above that in ideal conditions a parchmarked road can be seen zigzagging down the slope to the Ysgir; the Royal Commission's aerial photograph published by Casey and Davies (2010, fig 7.26) displays a narrow parchmark that adopts a straight line down the hill; but on the ground there is no sign of the landscaping that would have facilitated passage up the short but relatively steep slope from the Ysgir, and lidar offers no suggestion of a well-developed route. In short, despite its relatively impressive appearance the west gate was probably little used.

Roads were of importance too in the preference of communities, whether military or civilian, to establish cemeteries close to them. Relatively few burial grounds near to forts and their extramural settlements have been identified in Wales, though curiously they are attested at both Abergavenny and Llandovery, the major military installations situated to either side of Brecon Gaer (Burnham and Davies 2010, 113). The original location of the Roman tombstone called *Maen y Morwynion* is unknown but it was reputedly found close to the fort in the sixteenth century and was subsequently re-erected beside the green lane which is now recognised as the Roman road from Abergavenny, before being transferred to the museum in Brecon (Wheeler 1926, 103; RCAHMW 1986, 143); a fragment of a cavalryman's tombstone found near Battle, a village just over a kilometre to the north, and now also in the museum, was presumably moved there from Brecon Gaer, while a third which also commemorated a cavalry trooper has been lost. With the recovery of the rich Brecon grave group we have yet another burial, perhaps from a cemetery. Sadly, though we are still no closer in pinpointing the location of Brecon Gaer's cemetery or cemeteries.

Finally, we should return to the fort. Both Hankinson and Toller have independently questioned whether there could be an earlier fort at Brecon Gaer, while Casey and Davies (2010, 204) speculated on the possibility of an earlier phase of military activity. The geophysical survey of 2006 revealed two linear features to the south-east of the modern farmhouse, one running parallel to the north-west defences of the fort, being explained as a conduit (Casey and Davies 2010, fig 7.27), though how it might have functioned is a mystery, the other unexplained, although the rounded corner is suggestive. Trial excavation in 2010 revealed that the stratigraphy sealed beneath the topsoil was too complex to elucidate in such a limited area. Then, there is a fine Cambridge aerial photo taken in 1976 which displays a linear feature, presumably a road, passing through the stone *praetorium*; this must relate to an earlier phase of military activity. Toller has also pointed to the presence, approximately 90 metres from the fort's eastern rampart, of a slight earthwork, visible on lidar and on aerial photographs, but less obvious at ground level. It follows a parallel course to the eastern rampart for over 150m and appears to have a rounded corner at its northern end. Although it has what could be a later drain running along its course, the possibility that this was part of the first fort on the site cannot be ignored, and it is evident that a number of significant questions still remain to be answered at Brecon Gaer.

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NOTES

1. Clwyd-Powys Archaeological Trust, 41 Broad Street, Welshpool, Powys SY21 7RR.
2. Learning Officer, St Fagans National History Museum, St. Fagans, Cardiff, CF5 6XB.
3. Senior Curator: Archaeology, Department of History and Archaeology, Amgueddfa Cymru – National Museum Wales, Cardiff CF10 3NP
4. c/o Toller and Co. Ltd, 22 Breer Street, London SW6 3HD.
5. Honorary Research Fellow, Department of History and Archaeology, Amgueddfa Cymru – National Museum Wales, Cardiff CF10 3NP.
6. We would like to thank Mr Eric Jones for permission to reproduce his copy of the photo of Mortimer Wheeler and his excavation team at Brecon Gaer.
7. 'Roman Roads in Wales. A Handlist based upon the Archive Holdings of RCAHMW', Royal Commission on the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Wales, 1994.
8. Stourhead House Library, Richard Colt Hoare, Tour in Wales, MS 6.40.
9. There are currently difficulties in plotting the precise alignment of this road, owing to the fact that it appears only on oblique photographs where there are insufficient control points for accurate mapping. What is shown on Fig. 8 should be treated as approximate. The same problem affects the roads that seem to issue from the west and south gates.

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