



# A Late Iron Age/Early Roman Enclosed Settlement at Basing View, Basingstoke Archaeological Excavation Report

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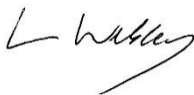
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# A Late Iron Age/Early Roman Enclosed Settlement at Basing View, Basingstoke

## *Archaeological Excavation Report*

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## INTRODUCTION

In 2018 Oxford Archaeology (OA) was commissioned by Basingstoke and Deane Borough Council to undertake an archaeological excavation on the site of a proposed commercial development (planning reference: 17/03775/FUL). The excavation revealed the remains of an Early Roman enclosed settlement that possibly originated at the very end of the Iron Age. The site consisted of a rectilinear enclosure, a series of intercutting pit groups (possibly chalk quarrying), and numerous postholes representing several possible structures. Pottery from the site suggests that the enclosure was laid out in the first or second decade after the Roman conquest of AD 43. A sunken rectilinear feature, containing a neonate burial, in the north-east corner of the enclosure may be the remains of a small building. A very small number of features dating to the early 2nd century represent a final phase of activity before the site's abandonment. After this point, sporadic Late Roman finds suggest that local activity was focussed elsewhere.

## Location

The site is located at Basing View within the modern town of Basingstoke (Fig. 1; SU 6470 5267). Prior to development, the site consisted of open grassland with a gradual north–south slope descending from c. 95 m aOD to c. 89 m aOD. The site lies at the very northern edge of the chalk bedrock that characterises the Hampshire Downs and overlooks the London Clays of the Middle Thames Valley to the north (BGS nd). The head of the River Loddon rises immediately south of the site and flows north-east towards the River Thames.

## Archaeological background

The site was previously investigated by trail trenching over 2 ha of grassland in advance of the current excavation. This work revealed several features dating to the Late Iron Age/Early Roman period and the density of finds suggested the presence of a settlement and possibly fields and trackways (OA 2017). Prior to this work, evaluations undertaken by Wessex Archaeology at Southview, c. 400 m north-west, and Thames Valley Archaeological Services at Gresley Road, c. 230 m north-east, failed to reveal features of any real significance (WA 2009; TVAS 1999). However, female human remains and several Romano-British urns were discovered in a railway cutting to the east of Reading Road Bridge, c. 150 m north-west of the site (HER 19529).

More widely, the Basingstoke area is fairly rich in terms of Late Iron Age and Romano-British archaeology. The site lies just less than 10 km due south of the oppidum and civitas capital of *Calleva Atrebatum* at Silchester, and it is bypassed by two Roman roads leading south, one on each side, towards Winchester and Chichester respectively (Fig. 2). The univallate hillfort at Winklebury lies c. 3.3 km to the west of the site, and was occupied in the 6th–5th centuries BC and in the 3rd–1st centuries BC (Smith 1977). The discovery of a relatively large number of Late Iron Age/Romano-British rural settlements in Basingstoke has resulted from the considerable amount of rescue excavation undertaken in the 1970s and 1980s and development-led work carried since 1990. Notable local sites include Oakridge II/IV and Oakridge VII (Oliver 1993), Cowdery's Down (Millett and James 1983), Daneshill (Millett and

Schadla-Hall 1991), Rucstalls Hill (Oliver and Applin 1979), Viables Farm (Millett and Russell 1984; Gibson 2004), Park Prewett Hospital (Coles *et al.* 2011; OA 2016) and several sites in the Popley area (Mayer 2005; Wright *et al.* 2009). Several more Iron Age/Romano-British settlements are known further south-west in the Brighton Hill and Hatch Warren area of Basingstoke (Coe and Newman 1993; Fasham and Keevil 1995; Howell and Durden 2005) and to these should be added the villa at Monk Sherborne, which was located about 6 km north-west of the centre of Basingstoke (Teague 2005). Rural settlements in this area would no doubt have benefitted from their location on the local chalk, with its good drainage and fertile arable soils, and its proximity to the gravel terraces immediately north which would have provided prime grazing pasture for livestock (Booth *et al.* 2007, 24–29).

## Methodology

Following the evaluation, a roughly square area measuring c. 43 m by 45 m was excavated to examine several Late Iron Age/Early Roman features exposed by the trial trenches (Fig. 3). The site was stripped using a mechanical excavator down to the first archaeological horizon. Following the soil strip, the exposed area was cleaned to clarify and define the archaeological features. The features present were subjected to sample excavation following standard OA guidelines. A 10 % sample of all ditches and gullies was excavated, and ditch terminals and intersections were examined in 1 m slots. Pits, postholes and other discrete features were either half-sectioned or fully excavated, depending on the nature and complexity of the context. A single funerary deposit discovered in the north-eastern corner of the enclosure was fully excavated. The excavation archive will be deposited with Hampshire Museums under the accession code A.2017.91.

## STRATIGRAPHIC NARRATIVE

The site appears to have been occupied over a relatively short period of time, with most features dating to the 1st century AD. Closer analysis of the stratigraphic sequence and the distribution of pottery types prompted the sub-division of the first period of activity into phases 1a and 1b (Table 1). Phase 1a features potentially dated anywhere between AD 1 and AD 70, and often contained local, Silchester-type, flint-tempered wares. Phase 1b features are likely to have been established in the post-conquest period, owing to the presence of more-distinctive oxidised and reduced wares that date to AD 43–70. Phase 2 is represented by a very small number of features containing pottery dating from around AD 90 to AD 150, some of which cut phase 1b features. It seems likely that this constituted the final period of activity at the site before its abandonment.

Phase	Date
1a	AD 1–70
1b	AD 43–70
2	AD 90–150
3	Late Roman
4	Post-Roman

Table 1: Site phasing

A tree-throw hole contained a single sherd of 3rd/4th-century pottery, though this appears to be a stray find relating to possible Late Roman activity (phase 3) focussed elsewhere, rather than continued use of the enclosure. A single, shallow linear feature was discovered at the southern end of the trench cutting several phase 1b pits. Although this feature was on the same alignment as other Roman ditches, it had a very shallow profile and could not be dated. It is tentatively interpreted as a post-Roman feature and is possibly a medieval furrow (phase 4).

### **Phase 1a: AD 1–70**

Phase 1a was characterised by a large number of postholes, several short gullies, and a couple of intercutting pit groups (Fig. 3). It is likely that many of these features were broadly contemporary with phase 1b activity, though some were clearly earlier than (and cut by) the enclosure ditches.

#### **Pit group 20003**

A group of intercutting pits were located in the south-western corner of the trench. This feature consisted of at least seven pits that were later truncated by phase 1b ditches 1564 and 20004 (Fig. 4). Pit group 20003 covered an area of about 6 m x 8 m, though its western edge was not fully exposed. Most of the pits were over 1 m wide, with the largest (1596) measuring 1.04 m x 1.84 m across, while the smallest (1585) measured c. 0.6 m x 0.68 m. The depths of the pits ranged up to 0.64 m below the surface. Five of the pits contained local flint-tempered wares and all were devoid of post-conquest pottery.

#### **Pit group 20009**

A group of five intercutting pits were dug about 10 m north-east of pit group 20003. These were similar in plan to those in 20003, ranging between 0.6–0.84 m wide and 0.86–1.6 m long, but were comparatively shallow at 0.16–0.26 m deep (Fig. 5, section 1515). The sequence of digging was clearer here than in pit group 20003, as these pits were not truncated by later activity. Three of the pits contained single fills, while pit 1542, the largest and latest in the sequence, contained two fills with pottery that dated broadly to the 1st century AD.

#### **Other pits, postholes and gullies**

Several pits and postholes lay to the south and east of pit group 20009 between phase 1b ditches 20001 and 20004 (Fig. 3). A group of six (including features 1526, 1532 and 1534) lay between ditches 20001 and 20004, and their consistent alignment suggests that they may have formed a small post structure. The three on the western side varied in size, however, ranging from 0.33–1.01 m long, and may have been too big to have been postholes. Pit 1532 contained sherds of local Silchester-type ware.

Other non-linear features in this area included pits 1511, 1551 and 1557, and posthole 1555. Pit 1551 was oval in plan, measuring 1.68 m long and 0.7 m wide. It was cut by circular pit 1557, which was 0.86 m across, but much shallower than its earlier counterpart (Fig. 5, section 1518). The numerous postholes in this area may have formed small structures or fence lines, though it was difficult to see any consistent arrangement in their locations. Unfortunately,

none of these features produced any dating evidence and they are only tentatively ascribed to phase 1a.

A large group of postholes were found closer to the centre of the rectilinear enclosure, concentrated mostly in the central area. Several of these were excavated, including 1503, 1505, 1520, 1798, 1800, 1802, 1804, 1808 and 1810. These were all fairly small and circular in plan, measuring 0.25–0.5 m across and 0.08–0.18 m. None produced any dating evidence, though their position within the enclosure suggest that they may have been in use at the same time. It was notable that several postholes were clearly on alignment and many were almost certainly related in function, but it is difficult to know whether they were all contemporary with each other, or represented successive phases of building. Gully 1826 was located within the less dense area of postholes on the south-western side of the area. The gully was almost 7 m long, 0.72 m wide and 0.14 m deep, and contained a single fill. As with the postholes in this area, the gully could not be dated, but it may have had a related function and it appears to have been orientated similar to several of the posthole alignments. A group of four postholes immediately west of gully 1826 was probably a four-post structure. The postholes were not excavated and were phased through their association with the gully.

Several small gullies were noted in different parts of the site. Gullies 1735 and 1792=1822 extended a short distance from the western trench edge and were both cut by ditch 20001. These gullies were spaced about 6 m apart and may have been related given their parallel alignments. Gully 20007 was located near the southern end of the trench and its alignment suggests that it may have been a continuation of gully 1826. It was cut at its northern end by ditch 20004 and it terminated about 2.7 m south of this point. Gully 1830 was located near the northern edge of the trench, about 1 m north of and parallel to ditch 20000 (it is possible that this was a precursor to the boundary ditch). The gully extended 2.8 m east–west, though it may have originally been longer as a second shorter gully section was identified on the same alignment almost 2 m east.

Pit 1547 was a circular feature located close to the eastern edge of the trench. It measured 1.45 m across and 0.5 m deep with fairly steep sides and a flat base (Fig. 5, section 1516). The pit contained a single silty, sterile fill, but it was cut directly through the centre by ditch 20000. Another large pit, 1760, extended from the northern edge of the trench. This feature was sub-rectangular in plan, measuring >1.1 m by 1.2 m across, and had a sloping, concave profile that reached 0.36m. It is possible that the feature represented a ditch terminal, though it would have been much wider than other ditches at the site.

### **Phase 1b: AD 43–70**

Phase 1b was largely characterised by the digging of the enclosure ditches, a rectilinear sunken feature, and a possible trackway extending along the southern boundary of the enclosure. As mentioned above, many of the features attributed to phase 1a, particularly those within the enclosure, were probably contemporary with this phase of activity.

### **Pits 1524, 1770 and 1777**

Pit 1770 was located next to the western trench edge. It was circular in plan, measuring 1.2 m across and almost a metre deep, and it contained four fills. The second fill contained four

sherds of post-conquest oxidised ware, while the uppermost fill contained local flint-tempered sherds that were probably still in use by this time. The pit was clearly dug earlier than the enclosure ditches as it was cut on its eastern side by ditch 20001.

Pits 1524 and 1777 were located within the enclosure about 8–9m east of pit 1770. Pit 1524 was very similar in size and profile to 1770, while 1777 was sub-circular and slightly smaller than the other two. Both contained post-conquest pottery sherds.

### **The enclosure boundary**

The main enclosure was rectilinear in plan, measuring c. 22 m x 40 m across, and was bounded by two L-shaped ditches (20000 and 20001) with adjoining sections (1516=1528 and 20008). Ditch 20001 extended westward from the trench edge over c. 45 m to where it curved north and continued for about 13.5 m before terminating. The basal fill of the ditch terminus contained post-conquest pottery, as did two upper fills in other interventions. The terminus of ditch 20001 was opposed by the southern terminus of ditch 20008, which extended south over c. 12 m from the northern trench edge. The two termini were dug 1.2 m apart and formed a western entrance into the enclosure.

Ditch 20008 was cut by ditch 20000, which extended eastwards from here over 42 m, before turning fairly sharply south and continued over 17 m to its terminus. Ditches 20000 and 20001 had largely identical sandy silt fills and they shared similar profiles, with straight sides and narrow concave bases about 0.5 m deep (Fig. 5, sections 1516 and 1518).

A short ditch section, 1516=1528, was dug into ditch 20001, extending north just less than 4 m, to form an opposing terminus with ditch 20000. The fact that this ditch did not extend south of ditch 20001 indicates that it was deliberately dug to create an eastern entrance to the enclosure. Two postholes, 1740 and 1742, were located within the 4 m-gap between the ditch termini and, along with 1732 to the north, may have formed the bases of a gate or similar structure across this entrance. These postholes were fairly substantial, measuring 0.42–0.72 m across, while the deepest, 1732, reached 0.32m below the surface.

### **Feature 20002**

In the north-east corner of the enclosure lay a sub-rectangular feature (20002) that appeared to be aligned against ditch 20000 (Fig. 6). A sequence of intercutting pits was identified next to and below the north-eastern corner of the feature. Pit 1762 was the earliest feature in this sequence (Fig. 6, section 1560). It was fairly deep, reaching 0.64 m below the surface, and was cut on its northern side by pit 1764, which was cut by ditch 20000 (1748) and pit 1752 (see below). Pits 1762 and 1764 may belong to phase 1a, as both were clearly earlier than the enclosure ditch, though neither feature produced any dating evidence.

Two oval pits, 1752 and 1754, lay immediately north and south of ditch 20000. These appear to have respected the ditch and may have been contemporary with it. Pit 1754 was steep sided with a flat base about 0.5 m deep. Its fill contained post-conquest pottery sherds. Pit 1752 was slightly wider (1.2 m) but shallower (0.2 m) with a broad flat base. This pit was flanked on both sides by two postholes, 1756 and 1758, both of which were c. 0.45 m wide and 0.05 m deep, and these may have related to a structure that stood next to or over the pit (Fig. 6, sections 1561 and 1562).

Feature 20002 (cut 1567) measured c. 5.6 m x 6.9 m across and reached over 1 m deep. The depth of the base varied considerably, and it is possible that an earlier pit was recut to create a flat sunken base (Fig. 6, section, 1527). The lowest fill (1574) contained two sherds of local flint-tempered ware, but the upper two fills (1568 and 1571) contained pottery sherds from at least 18 vessels, including local flint-tempered wares and post-conquest oxidised and reduced wares, mostly jars. The remains of a neonate were recovered from fill 1568 in the north-west corner of the feature, next to a large posthole, 1569, that was dug into the edge of feature 20002 (Fig. 6, section 1591). No relationship between the northern edge of feature 20002 and ditch 20000 (1572) was found and the two appear to have abutted. However, further to the east, pit 1750 cut the southern side of ditch 20000 (1748) to the east; it is uncertain whether 1750 was a later pit or a continuation of feature 20002 in this area (Fig. 6, section 1559).

### **Pit group 20006**

Pit group 20006 was located near the southern end of the excavated area. The feature comprised a complex sequence of 21 pits (Fig. 7), and the earliest may have belonged to phase 1a since they did not contain post-conquest wares. The pits were sub-circular or oval in plan but ranged in size. The smallest, 1621, measured 0.3 m x 0.46 m across, while the largest, 1631, was over 2 m long. Most of the pits were fairly shallow features with gradually sloping sides, and depths ranging from 0.15 m to 0.64 m. Most of the pits contained single silt fills, though 1631 contained five fills (Fig. 7, sections 1530 and 1533). Local flint-tempered pottery was recovered from eight pits, including two of the earliest (1623 and 1634), while post-conquest pottery was found in pits 1610, 1614 and 1625, all of which were fairly late in the sequence. Pit group 20006 was cut across by linear feature 1647, which was seen in section as a very shallow deposit, possibly the remnant of a furrow (Fig. 7, section 1532; see *Phase 4: Post-Roman*).

### **Pit group 20005**

Two pit groups were located in the south-eastern corner of the excavated area. Pit group 20005 lay adjacent to pit group 20011, but the two were differentiated by the fact that the former was cut by ditch 20004, which was cut by the latter (Fig. 8). A total of eight pits were identified in group 20005. These were fairly irregular or sub-circular in plan, ranging from 0.61–2.0 m long. The profiles of the pits varied: pit 1655 was comparatively shallow (c. 0.38 m deep) with gradually sloping sides, while pit 1656 had fairly steep sides with a flat but slightly undulating base that reached 0.66m deep (Fig. 8, sections 1538 and 1539). The deepest, pit 1714, was dug at least 1.2 m below the surface. Pits 1655 and 1656 were both cut on their northern sides by ditch 20004. Pit group 20005 is considered to be a phase 1b feature owing to 1664 and 1714 both containing pottery dated to the post-conquest period, while none of the pits contained flint-tempered wares alone.

### **The trackway**

Ditch 20004 extended east–west across the full width of the southern end of the excavated area and it appears to have formed a trackway along the southern side of the enclosure. A gap of c. 5 m was maintained between ditches 20001 and 20004, and it seems likely that the



phase 1a pits and postholes in this area had been abandoned by this time (Fig. 3). The ditch varied in width from 0.6–1.36 m and reached a depth of 0.5–0.6 m all along its length. The ditch had a V-shaped profile with straight sides and a narrowed base (Fig. 8, sections 1535–9). Post-conquest pottery was recovered from the basal (1698) and upper fills (1703) of the ditch. At its western end, the ditch cut pit group 20003. At this end, the ditch curved slightly northwards, perhaps to follow the northward curve of ditch 20001 on the opposite side of the trackway. Ditch 20004 also appears to respect ditch 1564, which extended c. 9.5 m eastward from the trench edge to its terminus. Ditch 1564 was similar in depth and profile to ditch 20004 (Fig. 4, sections 1523, 1524 and 1525), and it is possible that they were both open at the same time.

At its very western end, ditch 20004 was cut by pit 1606. This feature was not fully exposed in the trench but measured at least 3.1 m across and nearly 1 m deep. It had steep sides and a flat base and contained post-conquest pottery.

## Phase 2: AD 90–150

Only three features dated to the 2nd century AD, one possibly to the end of the 1st century AD. Pit 1784 was half exposed near the western trench edge, close to the corner of ditch 20001. The pit measured 1.26 m across at the top but increased to 1.33 m across about two-thirds of the way down, giving the feature a bell-shaped profile. The base was reached at 0.94 m below the surface. The second of four fills contained pottery, including a Farnham-type series lid dating AD 90–150, animal bones and large flint nodules. The Farnham-type lid would have been associated with imitation Gallo-Belgic dishes and it is significant as being one of the only Alice Holt vessels found at the site (the only one certainly dating later than AD 90).

Pit 1775 was located 16 m east of pit 1784. It was sub-oval in plan, measuring 0.88 m across and 0.4 m deep, with steep, almost vertical sides and a flat base. The pit contained a sizable pottery assemblage that included 2nd-century black burnished ware.

Pit group 20011 was located in the south-eastern corner of the trench. It consisted of nine pits, all sub-circular in plan. The pits ranged in size from about 0.5 m across (1660) to over 1.8 m long (1650). Within this group, pits 1648, 1649 and 1652 were found to cut ditch 20004 (1659) (Fig. 8, sections 1535–7). Pit 1652 also cut pit 1653 of the earlier group 20005 (see above). First-century post-conquest pottery made up the bulk of the ceramic material in this feature. However, a small quantity of 2nd-century black burnished ware sherds was recovered from pit 1661, which was later cut by pit 1660. This suggests that the digging of pit group 20011, certainly the last few features, occurred towards the very end of the period of occupation at the site.

## Phase 3: Late Roman

Phase 3 was represented by the presence of a sherd of New Forest colour-coated ware dating AD 260–370 that was recovered from tree-throw hole 1720. The tree-throw hole measured 2.5 m by 3.75 m across. It had a shallow, uneven base measuring 0.15 m deep. The recovery of a small amount of Late Roman pottery from this feature does not indicate continued use of the enclosure, but suggests probable agricultural activity in the area after the settlement's abandonment.

## Phase 4: Post-Roman

Linear feature 1647 was located at the southern end of the site. It extended east–west for c. 35 m, continuing beyond the limit of excavation in both directions. The feature was sampled in two interventions but remains essentially undated. It cut all the pits associated with group 20006 (see above). It is possible that the feature represents another Roman-period ditch as it was on the same alignment as ditches 20001 and 20004 to the north. However, it was only 0.06–0.1 m deep (Fig. 7, section 1532), far shallower than the Roman ditches, and on balance it seems likely that this was a later feature, possibly a furrow.

## ROMAN POTTERY

by Kate Brady

### Introduction and methods

Some 987 sherds of Roman pottery, weighing c. 17.95 kg, were recovered from the excavation. The assemblage was recorded following guidelines set out by PCRG *et al.* (2016).

Each context group was sorted into ware types, which were assigned codes following OA guidelines for recording Roman pottery (Booth 2016). Forms were identified by rim and assigned OA form codes (expressed as a two-letter code, such as CK for ‘cooking pot’-type jar, sometimes followed by a three-digit rim code; for example, JB 110, a plain-rimmed curving-sided dish). Each vessel was quantified by sherd count, weight, number of vessels (MV) based on rims, and estimated vessel equivalents (EVE), which measures the surviving percentage of the circumference of a rim. Thus, a complete rim was recorded as 100 %, while half a rim was recorded as 50 %. In this report, percentages have been converted to fractions of a whole, 100 % becoming 1 EVE and 50 % becoming 0.5 EVE. Ware codes pertaining to regional fabrics were cross-referenced with the National Roman Fabric Reference Collection (Tomber and Dore 1998). Quantification of forms and fabrics is given in Tables 2 and 3. A date for deposition was provided for each context group on the basis of the pottery it contained.

### Assemblage composition and supply

Pottery groups recovered from features assigned to phase 1 made up the bulk of the assemblage and although this phase was sub-divided into phases 1a and 1b, this resulted in pottery assemblages too small for meaningful interpretation. Thus, the phase 1 group has been analysed together, but an attempt has been made to consider the groups separately below.

Pottery from context groups spot-dated to the 1st century AD and assigned to phase 1 (including phases 1a and 1b) accounted for 68 % of the assemblage by weight and 81.5 % by EVE. The phased group was dominated by E wares (E20, E30, E60 and E80), which made up 91 % by weight although reduced wares and oxidised wares were represented (7.3 % by weight) (Table 2). Flint-tempered wares dominated the assemblage and were available as large coarse-tempered storage jars (CN) and bead-rimmed jars (CH). A single globular jar (CG) was represented in a handmade fabric and in an early form with an upright beaded rim and burnished exterior (Table 3).

The small number of phased groups assigned to the sub-phase 1a consisted entirely of bead rim jars and storage jars in E wares, and the total absence of Romanised oxidised and reduced wares may point to a pre-conquest date for these features, but due to the small amount of material from this sub-phase this is by no means conclusive.

Sub-phase 1b groups contained several forms closely paralleled in the early Alice Holt/Farnham industry output at site AH5. Lyne and Jefferies (1979) put the start of production at around AD 60 and this may be suggested as a broad date for the beginning of sub-phase 1b. E wares still dominate, and this may suggest that the sub-phase sits early in the period of this output. The absence of the only two forms (flat rim jars and lids) to suggest a later date in these phased groups may confine the date to before AD 90 which is when Lyne and Jefferies suggest they appear.

Fabric		No. sherds	Weight (g)	MV	EVE
<i>B Black-burnished wares</i>					
B11	Dorset Black-burnished ware (DOR BB 1)	4	14	0	0
<i>E Iron Age/Early Roman wares</i>					
E20	Fine sand-tempered fabrics	1	26	0	0
E30	Medium to coarse sand-tempered fabrics	21	273	1	0.1
E60	Flint-tempered fabrics	529	9783	33	2.9
E80	Grog-tempered fabrics (SOB GT)	185	1723	11	1.03
<i>F Fine wares</i>					
F57	New Forest oxidised colour-coated ware	1	52	0	0
<i>O Oxidised wares</i>					
O20	Sandy oxidised ware	121	3479	3	0.3
<i>R Reduced wares</i>					
R10	Fine reduced ware	4	14	0	0
R20	Coarse sandy reduced wares	41	543	3	0.31
R30	Medium to fine sandy reduced wares	23	317	2	0.06
R50	Dark surfaced sandy reduced wares	50	1286	9	1.39
R90	Coarse grog-tempered reduced ware	7	437	0	0

Table 2: Late Iron Age to Early Roman pottery fabrics

Type	C	CC	CE	CG	CH	CN	D	H	Total
B11									0
E20									0
E30					0.10				0.1
E60	105			10		0.62	0.71	0.42	2.9
E80	53	29			0.21				1.03
F57									0
O20					0.20	0.1			0.3
R10									0
R20					0.31				0.31
R30							0.06		0.06
R50	23		24		0.86		0.06		1.39
R90									0
<b>Total</b>	<b>1.81</b>	<b>0.29</b>	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.10</b>	<b>1.68</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>6.09</b>

Table 3: Fabric totals and vessel type by EVE

Pottery from context groups assigned to phase 2 accounted for 31.9 % of the assemblage by weight and 18.5 % by EVE. The group consisted of E wares (E30, E60 and E80) along with a marked increase in the presence of reduced and oxidised 'Romanised' fabrics. The most common identifiable forms were bead-rim jars suggesting a 1st century date for this group. A small amount of black-burnished ware was also present in contexts assigned to this phase.

The flint-tempered material consisted of a variety of fabrics recorded as E60, from coarse-tempered often oxidised sherds from large storage jars with everted rims, to thinner walled but still coarse-tempered sherds. All were handmade and in the Iron Age tradition. Other sherds contained finer and sparser flint. These sherds often had dark, burnished surfaces.

Flint-tempered fabrics are common in the area around Basingstoke, and Silchester ware represents a well-defined group of flint-tempered ceramics that dominate assemblages in the environs of Calleva Atrebatum from the Middle Iron Age to the early Flavian period (Timby 2018). Silchester ware pottery was produced in a restricted range of beaded-, everted- and thickened-rim jar forms, and these types were all represented at Basing View, although several vessels could only be recorded as jars/bowls (D) as not enough of the rim survived to distinguish the two. Several of the fabrics closely match those found at Silchester and this is the likely source of the material at the site, though another local source cannot be ruled out.

Two jars were in a handmade, rough, grog-tempered fabric (E80) and had smoothed surfaces. Both were recovered from context 1582. One had a plain/slightly beaded very upright rim and the other had a much more defined beaded rim and a larger diameter.

The reduced and oxidised wares further suggest a mid-late 1st century date for the phase 1 assemblage and several of the vessel forms from phase 1b groups are paralleled in the earliest products of the Alice Holt/Farnham kilns (Lyne and Jeffries 1979). The majority of these vessels were jars with everted or bead rims. One jar in fabric R50 had a cordon at the base of the neck and a carinated shoulder, and several jars had thick, rolled bead rims with high rounded shoulders. Upright beaded rims both forms are paralleled at the Alice Holt/Farnham site AH5 (*ibid.*, fig. 15).

The fabrics used for the bead-rimmed jars at Basing View varied and included an oxidised orange-brown fabric with glassy quartz grains, the vessels in this fabric included a large storage jar with a thickened everted rim (very slightly beaded) from context 1776 and patchy blackened areas (internal and external). A large amount of the vessel appeared to be present (sherds weighing 3312g in total) and it appeared to be fairly thin walled for its size. The phase 2 group also included two bead-rimmed jars and a lid in fabric R50 from context 1787. Lids appeared in the region alongside flat-rimmed jars by around AD 90 (Lyne and Jeffries 1979).

## Chronology

Despite the wide date range for the E wares from the site, including those in the Silchester ware type fabrics, some of the forms are more typical of those seen in the Flavian period. The flat-rimmed bowls are not likely to be early, and a flat-rimmed jar from context 1571 in fabric E60 was slightly hooked. Lyne and Jeffries (*ibid.*) put the emergence of flat-rimmed jars in Alice Holt/Farnham wares at around AD 90, and it may be that these evolved from handmade flint-tempered forms. At Basing View, this form is found in the same context as the typical

early Alice Holt/Farnham bead-rim jars, and an early date for this industry at around AD 60 (*ibid.*) suggests that this is a later form in this fabric.

Four sherds of black-burnished ware were recovered from the site, suggesting a very small amount of activity dating to after c. AD 120, when this ware began to be more widely distributed from its source in Dorset. The latest material on the site was a footing base of a vessel of unknown form in New Forest oxidised red/brown colour-coated ware (F57). This dates to the period AD 260–370 and was recovered from the fill of tree-throw hole 1720.

### Preservation, distribution and use

The mean sherd weight of 18.1 g suggests a fairly well-preserved assemblage, although this is likely to be inflated due to the amount of large flint-tempered storage jar sherds, reflected in the mean EVE of 0.16 (10 % completeness) which demonstrates greater fragmentation. The surfaces of the sherds were well preserved and not significantly abraded. Pottery was recovered mainly from pits (79.1 % of the whole assemblage by weight), with smaller amounts coming from ditches (19.3 %), tree-throw holes (0.79 %) and postholes (0.17 %).

Evidence of use was restricted to six vessels. One flint-tempered jar from context 1571 showed external sooting and one had a line of sooting on the interior at shoulder level. These had presumably been used as cooking vessels. Several large storage jars in flint-tempered fabric (including body sherds from context 1620 and 1766) had scorched patchy surfaces (also noted at Silchester: Timby 2018), and this may suggest a specialist function aside from storage for these large and fairly immovable vessels. It is possible that whole vessels were used as ovens, as at Heybridge, Essex (Biddulph 2015), or that the large sherds were reused as a hearth surround.

### Conclusion

The fairly small size of the assemblage and the restricted range of fabrics and forms makes it difficult to get an idea of the social status of the inhabitants. However, the complete lack of imported fine wares and amphorae at a site this close to Silchester, where access to traded pottery and imported goods would have been high both pre- and post-conquest, is revealing. The pottery is indicative of a low-status rural settlement that had yet to be influenced by 'Roman' practices of food preparation and dining.

### Catalogue of illustrated pottery

1. Globular jar with thickened everted rim and line of sooting on interior. Coarse flint-tempered ware. Context 1571, fill of pit 1567. Phase 1b.
2. Bowl with thickened everted rim. Coarse flint-tempered ware. Context 1571, fill of pit 1567. Phase 1b.
3. Jar with slightly hooked rim. Coarse flint-tempered ware. Context 1571, fill of pit 1567. Phase 1b.
4. Bead-rim jar. Medium quartz-sand-tempered oxidised fabric with some mica and red clay pellets. Context 1571, fill of pit 1567. Phase 1b.

5. Bead-rim jar. Coarse rounded quartz-sand-tempered brownish reduced fabric. Context 1571, fill of pit 1567. Phase 1b.
6. Large storage jar with everted rim. Coarse flint-tempered fabric. Context 1693, fill of pit 1714. Phase 1b.
7. Carinated jar with cordon at base of neck and bead rim. Medium sandy reduced ware. Context 1711, fill of pit 1664. Phase 1b.
8. Large storage jar with narrow mouth and upright everted rim. Coarse quartz-sand-tempered fabric. Context 1776, fill of pit 1775. Phase 2.
9. Bead-rim jar with burnished surface and burnished zig-zag decoration. Medium sandy reduced ware. Context 1788, fill of pit 1784. Phase 2.

## **FIRED CLAY**

*by Cynthia Poole*

### **Introduction**

A small assemblage of fired clay amounting to 97 fragments (3512 g) was recovered by hand from two features: phase 1a ditch 1564 (fill 1584) and phase 1b pit 1610 (fill 1611). Another two small fragments were recovered from sieved samples from phase 2 pit 1784 and Late Roman tree-throw hole 1720.

### **Description**

The phase 1a group (36 fragments, 837 g) from ditch 1564 comprised heavily abraded fragments of a cream-buff, clayey, chalk cob-like material that was lightly fired or heated to pale pink, and fragments in a more clayey, sandy fabric that was fired red. A few pieces retained a deliberately shaped flat surface and one piece as smooth convex surface. The more heavily fired sandy clay fragments measured 28–35 mm thick, and the chalkier, more cob-like fragments 37–53 mm thick. Both types produced one or two fragments with interwoven wattle impressions including three horizontal rods measuring 12 mm and 15 mm in diameter and a vertical sail of 19 mm.

The phase 1b material from pit 1610 divides into two groups. One consists of pale pink/cream chalky cob-like material (51 fragments, 1703 g) similar to that from ditch 1564. This too was soft, powdery, heavily abraded and lightly fired or heated, with little or no shaping surviving on many pieces. A few had a rough flat surface moulded on one side and interwoven wattle impressions on the opposite side, forming a flat wattle supported slab ranging between 30 mm and 66 mm thick. Nine horizontal rod impressions were identified, measuring 9–20 mm in diameter, and three vertical sails, one 16 mm in diameter and two split poles measuring over 10 mm and 20 mm in width.

The second group (sf. 1502) from pit 1610 comprised ten fragments (972 g) that together formed the corner of a substantial, triangular, perforated brick. It was made with red/yellow-brown fine sandy clay and contained a scatter of small angular flint grit up to 12 mm in size. The surfaces are even and well finished, and the corner and angles well rounded with the

apex of the corner flattened. The corner is fairly well fired, and the surface is burnt and blackened over one half including the triangular face, the adjacent half of both edges and all of the perforation. However, it is clear the core of brick was barely heated and it is possible the missing part of the brick was effectively unfired. The corner measured 118 mm thick and the surviving length is 100 mm, though the full length of the original object is likely to have been at least 200 mm. The perforation measures 17 mm in diameter within the core, widening to 29 mm at the edges.

The two small fragments from the sieved phase 2 features comprised a small fragment in the sandy clay fabric with a flat surface and a fragment in the chalky cob fabric with two wattle impressions.

## Discussion

The fired clay assemblage may be interpreted as the remains of oven structures and associated portable furniture. The more lightly fired or heated chalky cob suggests it was used for a low-temperature activity such as crop processing. While the presence of wattles might suggest this was building daub, the thickness of the fragments and size of the wattles are not consistent with known building daub, such as that from the Roman villa at Dunkirt Barn, Hampshire (Poole 2008, 167–70). The wattle-supported structure may have formed a drying floor in a crop-processing oven for drying or malting grain. The triangular brick, though traditionally regarded as a loomweight, was probably used as oven or hearth furniture, as noted for examples from Danebury (Poole 1995; see also Poole 2015). The variable firing pattern is a common feature of these objects and may indicate they were often used as oven or flue lining or as supports in ovens or hearths, with only one face exposed to the heat source.

## METALWORK

*by Ian R. Scott*

Four metal finds were recovered from the site, including a Durotrigian brooch dating to the 1st century AD (No. 1) and fragment from a simple bow brooch (No. 2), both from the fills of phase 1b ditch 1564. The other finds (Nos 3 and 4) are not closely datable but derive from stratified pit fills.

## Catalogue

No. 1: 'Durotrigian' or strip brooch in iron with hinged pin.

It has broad plain bow of flat section, which narrows from the head to the catch-plate in a continuous curve. There are no wings, and the head was formed by rolling the bow under to hold the axle for the pin. L: 63 mm; W: 14 mm. Context 1594, fill of ditch 1564, Sf. 1500 (phase 1b). Found in pre-Roman Iron Age, Claudian and later first-century contexts. Mackreth (2011, 150, pl. 102, no. 6899: Durotrigian Type 7b iron brooch) records that the distribution of known examples is concentrated in Dorset, Wiltshire, Somerset and Gloucestershire but with an apparent cluster of examples from Hertfordshire. There is a wider scatter of individual examples including one from Silchester.

No. 2: Simple bow brooch with sprung pin.

Extant fragment is probably the pin with part of the spring, rather than part of a thin bow. Fe. L extant: 46 mm. Context 1593, fill of ditch 1564, Sf. 1501 (phase 1b). This brooch form dates to the 1st century AD and is found in both Late Iron Age and post-conquest contexts.

No. 3: Rod or wire.

A length of thin rod or thick wire bent into a curve. Fe. L: 74 mm; L extended: c. 115 mm; D: variable 5–6 mm. Context 1761, fill of pit 1760 (phase 1).

No. 4: Bracket or corner reinforcement.

L-shaped strip, the longer arm (L: 120 mm; section: 15 mm x 5 mm) is broken and pierced by four nail holes, one at the corner, and one at the broken end with two holes between. The shorter arm is 80 mm long, lacks nail holes and appears to taper to a cross section of 10 mm x 5 mm. It may have served as tang. Fe. Context 1787, fill of pit 1784, Sf. 1505 (phase 2).

## SLAG

*by Leigh Allen*

A total of nine fragments of slag weighing 109g were recovered from four contexts. Four fragments from fill 1519 of ditch 20000 (cut 1516) all re-fitted to make a single lump. This was identified by David Dungworth as fayalitic (black in colour) material and is probably associated with ironworking. The lump is small and lacks a distinctive surface morphology, and it is not possible to identify the precise metal-working process. Three fragments from fill 1592 of ditch 1564 were undiagnostic. Two small fragments of fuel-ash slag were recovered from pit fills 1568 (feature 20002) and 1788 (pit 1784).

## STONE OBJECTS

*by Ruth Shaffrey*

Pit 1775 produced three items of stone. As well as a small, unworked quartzite pebble, a larger cobble had one flat, smoothed face suggesting that it was used as a rubber. An iron sulphide nodule (a possible manuport) was also recovered from this 2nd-century feature—this is reported on in more detail below by Dr Robert Knight.

## Catalogue

Hammerstone/rubber. Quartzite cobble. One flat worn face suggesting use as a rubber. Some burning/blackening. Measures 97 mm x 67 mm x 43 mm. Pit fill 1776 (phase 2).

## IRON SULPHIDE NODULE

*by Robert Knight (Oxford University Museum of Natural History)*

An iron nodule (sf. 1503), comprised of either pyrite or marcasite (both iron sulphide, FeS<sub>2</sub>), was recovered from context 1776. The object is roughly circular, measuring c. 49 mm across, and weighs 319 g. Pyrite is commonly known as ‘fool’s gold’, though this piece has lost its



original colour and shine. The outer surfaces are now oxidised and rusty, and both pyrite and marcasite are particularly vulnerable to oxidation. Individual crystal faces remain on the surface of the specimen, including characteristic pyrite cube faces in some places. Some pyrite can be quite stable in ambient conditions, and other samples can fall apart very rapidly.

These types of nodules can form within sediments, most likely on the seafloor, during secondary chemical processes aided by bacterial action. This can include the hardening of the sediments into rock (diagenesis) or other chemical interactions while the sediments are still soft. The specimen is likely to have been one of several iron nodules that formed concurrently where conditions were favourable. If the nodules are formed below the surface layers of sediment, they could have formed in any depth of water. If they formed on the surface of the sediment or in the top layers, it would be deep water because anoxic, reduced conditions are required for pyrite to form from bacterial action. It is not known where this nodule had originally formed. It is possible that it was recovered from rocks local to the site, and marcasite is particularly common in chalk formations.

The archaeological significance of the object is difficult to substantiate. The specimen may have been sought for its mineral content, though given the potential for pyrite to oxidise with air and moisture it would not be suitable for jewellery. Also, because the piece showed no sign of manipulation, it perhaps seems more likely that it was taken and kept as a decorative object in its own right (a manuport).

## WORKED AND BURNT FLINT

by Mike Donnelly

### Introduction

The excavation yielded a small assemblage of 222 struck flints (including six from the previous evaluation) and 282 fragments of unworked burnt flint, the latter weighing 1839 g. All the material was recovered from Roman features and included numerous pieces from samples taken from pit clusters and ditches. Unusually for a residual assemblage, the assemblage was fairly balanced in terms of the quantity of tools and debitage, perhaps owing to the bulk of the material being recovered from environmental samples. The assemblage contains two broad elements, the larger of which was early prehistoric in character including at least two Mesolithic artefacts. The second component was made up of a small number of typically later prehistoric debitage, associated with an assemblage of burnt unworked material that was likely to be Middle Bronze Age or later.

### Methodology

The flints were recorded according to the OA South standard system of broad artefact/debitage type (Anderson-Whymark 2013). Information regarding the condition (e.g. rolled, abraded, fresh and degree of cortication) and state (e.g. burnt, broken, or visibly utilised) of each artefact was recorded, and dating was assigned where possible. Retouched pieces were classified according to standard morphological descriptions (e.g. Bamford 1985, 72–7; Healy 1988, 48–9; Bradley 1999). Technological attribute analysis was undertaken and included the recording of butt and termination type (Inizan *et al.* 1999), flake type (Harding

1990), hammer mode (Onhuma and Bergman 1982), and the presence of platform edge abrasion.

## Provenance

Most of the struck flints were recovered from pits (61 %), while about one-third derived from ditches and a small number came from one tree-throw hole (Table 4). Pit 1567 contained the largest assemblage of struck flint, consisting of 56 pieces, and 50 flints were recovered from ditch 1564 (Table 5). Ditch 1726 contained 20 flints, while pits 1754, 1610, 1775 and 1784 each produced 10 or more. These features were located across the site. The south-western part of the trench included a concentration of material deriving from ditch 1564, ditch group 20004, pit groups 20003 and 20006. Along with material from the nearby pits 1775 and 1784, these groups constituted 48.65 % of the total assemblage. Nearly all the remaining pieces were found in feature 20002, in the north-east corner of the site, which contained 97 flints (43.69 %).

Feature type	No.	Percentage
Pits	136	61.26
Ditches	81	36.49
Tree-throw hole	5	2.25
Total	222	100

Table 4: The flint assemblage by context type

## The assemblage

The assemblage contained no cores, a few tools (4.17 %), many flake and blade blanks (31.53 %) and significant amounts of knapping waste (63.06 %). The remainder of the assemblage consisted of specialist debitage including a microburin and a janus flake (Table 5). The assemblage had a moderate blade index of 20 % which is characteristic of earlier Neolithic knapping (Ford 1987), though the scatter was probably created from several events. It may be that some groups were more blade-orientated and, thus, were probably Mesolithic. There was also a small number of crude squat flakes, typically later prehistoric in character, but these were limited in number and found dispersed across the site. Flint tools included one microlith of probable Early Mesolithic form, as well as a rare form of central microburin that is often found in crescent microlith assemblages dating to the beginning of the Late Mesolithic. Two of the remaining three tools were blades including a microdenticulate very common in Early Neolithic assemblages, though these can also feature in Mesolithic assemblages. This example does not have the very carefully prepared teeth so often a feature of Neolithic examples, but it has been heavily utilised and burnt which would have damaged the teeth.

The well-balanced character of the assemblage closely resembles an *in-situ* industrial assemblage. Its constitution probably results from the fact that a large percentage of the assemblage was recovered from environmental samples. These accounted for 81.53 % of the material, much of which consisted of sieved chips and larger pieces of knapping waste (73.21 %). The lack of cores possibly indicates that tools were being used at the site but were made elsewhere, though the large number of sieved chips would argue against this. It may be the case that cores were missed during excavation and were not recovered in samples, or that

the remains from primary knapping did not become incorporated in later features. Cores are often found at a distance from knapping foci, simply because they were often thrown away.

Category type	Pit 1567	Ditch 1564	Other contexts	Total
Flake	14	9	34	56
Blade	4	1	2	7
Bladelet	2	2	3	7
Blade index	30.0 % (6/20)	25.0 % (3/12)	12.8 % (5/39)	20.0 % (14/70)
Irregular waste	1	3	10	14
Janus flake			1	1
Microburin			1	1
Sieved chip	33	35	58	126
Microlith	1			1
Microdenticulate			1	1
Retouched blade	1			1
Retouched flake			1	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>222</b>
Burnt unworked	9/89 g	2/1 g	271/1749 g	282/1839 g
No. burnt (%)	2/56 (3.57 %)	12/50 (24.0 %)	14/116 (12.07 %)	28/222 (12.61 %)
No. broken (%)	14/23 (60.87 %)	3/15 (20.0 %)	11/58 (19.0 %)	28/96 (29.17 %)
No. retouched (%)	2/23 (8.70 %)	0/15 (0 %)	2/58 (3.45 %)	4/96 (4.17 %)

Table 5: Summary of stuck and burnt flints

## Discussion

The presence of worked and burnt flint may suggest that the site was visited periodically during early prehistory by people moving through the Loddon Valley. Such sites were locations temporarily used for specific tasks, rather than being more substantial habitation sites, and potentially from the Early Mesolithic through to the end of the Neolithic. The tools recovered suggest hunting, plant processing and possibly butchery, and are typical of the range of activities that might be expected. Later prehistoric activity was limited, though this did include the use of flint as pot boilers for cooking and other domestic activities. It is very likely that the whole assemblage would have lain in prehistoric soils that survived until the Roman period before being truncated away, and it is possible that other sites like this survive along the Loddon and on nearby terraces.

## HUMAN SKELETAL REMAINS

*by Helen Webb*

### Introduction

Unburnt human remains were recovered from two fills of phase 1b feature 20002 (cut 1567). The remains comprise an articulated juvenile skeleton (1766), which was recovered from upper fill 1568 in the north-west corner of the pit, and a disarticulated frontal bone that was recovered from fill 1571. The human bone was subject to full osteological analysis in

accordance with the recommendations set out by ClfA and BABAO (Brickley and McKinley 2004; Mitchell and Brickley 2017).

## **Skeleton 1766**

Skeleton 1766 was approximately 60 % complete, comprising both upper and lower limbs, multiple left and right rib fragments and parts of the lower spine. The skeleton was in poor condition. None of the skull had survived. The post-cranial bones were highly fragmented and had suffered a moderate level of taphonomic erosion in keeping with McKinley's (2004, 16) grade 3. This means that most bone surfaces were affected by some degree of erosion and, while the general morphology of the bones was maintained, some surface details were no longer visible.

The remains were those of a young juvenile and the measurement of a complete right humerus indicated that the child had died within or around a few weeks of birth. No attempt was made to estimate the sex of this juvenile skeleton.

A probable pathological deformity was observed in the right tibia. Although the surfaces of the bone were very eroded it was clear that the distal end (metaphysis) of the bone was notably angled (medially). The left tibia was incomplete and fragmented, thus comparison of the left and right sides was problematic, although the surviving parts of the distal shaft did appear to exhibit some level of medial flaring. A variety of diagnoses for this tibial deformity were considered, including infantile rickets (vitamin D deficiency), in which medial tilting of the distal tibial growth plate is one of the recognised changes (Brickley and Ives 2008, 97–8). No other macroscopic features of rickets, including fraying, flaring or porosity of growth plates, or more markedly bowed long bone shafts, were observed. However, this should not preclude a diagnosis of rickets given that there may be considerable variation in the manifestations of rickets deformities, and many of these are dependent on the age of the individual (*ibid.*). Skeleton 1766 was certainly a very young individual and would not have been bearing weight on any limbs when they died, which is a key factor in the development of long-bone bending deformities (*ibid.*, 92). Alternatively, the deformity may be a developmental or congenital abnormality. There are multiple congenital abnormalities that may involve bending of the lower limb bones and/or malalignment of the ankle joints. These may relate to, for example, abnormal intrauterine position (Lall and Gaillard *nd*). It is not possible to make a confident diagnosis of the abnormalities observed in skeleton 1766 and it is likely that the poor preservation of the remains precludes further analysis (e.g. radiography).

## **Disarticulated bone from fill 1571**

The human bone from fill 1571 comprised five adjoining fragments of a frontal bone. The frontal bone was approximately 80 % complete, missing a small section from the centre of the squama and the lateral portion of the right orbit and zygomatic process. The bone was fragmented as a result of both modern and historic damage, evidenced by the varying condition of the fracture margins. None of the broken margins were indicative of perimortem trauma. The bone was assigned to McKinley's (2004, 16) condition grade 3 (see above). While there was general surface erosion with some rootlet action, there were also multiple scratches and scrapes on the bone surface, consistent with taphonomic abrasion.

The size and morphology of the bone was in keeping with an adult (>18 years) or at least an older adolescent. Indicators of sex were limited but, while the orbit margin was ambiguous in its expression, the glabella region was fairly gracile, and therefore the individual was very tentatively estimated to be female. No lesions of pathology or non-metric traits were observed.

## Discussion

The presence of both sets of human remains in feature 20002 is interesting, as it is possible that it represents a small building. Baby burials in and around Romano-British domestic buildings, both in rural and urban contexts, are well documented. Such burials were known in the Roman world as *suggrundarium*, i.e. burial 'under the eaves' (Soren and Soren 1999, 478). Skull often predominate finds of disarticulated human bone (e.g. Webb *et al.* 2018), and the presence of multiple taphonomic abrasions on the surface of the bone indicates that the specimen may have been redeposited several times.

## ANIMAL BONES

by Martyn Allen

### Introduction

A total of 704 animal specimens were recovered by hand. Given the short chronology and the small sample size of the assemblage, the animal bones have been considered here as a single group rather than by phase. The assemblage was generally not well preserved. Nonetheless, some insights into cattle and sheep exploitation were identified, including possible evidence of cattle dairying and small-scale horn-working. A butchered dog bone is of interest and possibly indicates that dog meat was eaten on occasion.

### Methods

The assemblage was recorded at OA using the in-house skeletal reference collection. Each fragment was analysed and identified to taxon where possible. Undiagnostic skull fragments, long-bone shaft fragments, ribs and vertebrae were recorded as large-, medium- or small-sized mammal, and these were counted as part of the identified assemblage. Fragments that could be refitted or were obviously from the same element but broken post-deposition were counted as single specimens. Specimens were recorded according to element zone following the work of Serjeantson (1996), and these were used to calculate minimum numbers of elements (MNE) and individuals (MNI). A small amount of material was recovered from environmental samples. These were scanned by eye and species identifications made where possible, though no detailed analysis was undertaken.

Ageing data were generated from the analysis of tooth-wear patterns following the method of Grant (1982). Mandible wear stages were given for each specimen and categorised according to relative age groups following Halstead (1985) for cattle, Jones (2006) for sheep and Hambleton (1999) for pigs. Estimates of absolute ages of cattle and sheep refer to the work of Jones and Sadler (2012) and Jones (2006) respectively. Epiphyseal fusion of post-

cranial elements was recorded, and age estimates followed the timings presented by Sisson and Grossman (Getty 1975).

Measurements were taken using the standards of von den Driesch (1976). Too few measurable specimens were available for the analysis of animal size, though the biometric data have been archived. Butchery marks were recorded following Maltby's (2010) criteria. Evidence of burning was recorded according to colour (e.g. black, grey or white, i.e. calcined). Gnawing marks were recorded where present. Signs of pathology were recorded in detail and diagnoses are presented below.

## Preservation and taphonomy

The preservation of the material was highly variable. Modern breaks were common, and, in many contexts, the animal bones had degraded surfaces caused by the slightly acidic soil at the site. This meant that butchery, burning and gnawing marks were difficult to see. Only 18 bones, approximately 2.6 % of the assemblage, mostly from cattle, exhibited butchery marks. Only eight bones were found burnt and a single specimen had signs of gnawing marks.

It is likely that the poor preservation has biased against bones of smaller mammals, such as sheep and dogs, and of juvenile and neonatal animals whose bones are more fragile and gracile. Environmental sieving was undertaken and did recover some animal bones, though most of these were small and very fragmented mammal remains (see below).

## Provenance

The animal bone assemblage almost exclusively derives from ditches and pits, with a few fragments coming from one gully fill and one posthole fill. A total of 10 ditch/gully features produced 308 fragments (43.75 %) and 36 pits/postholes produced 396 fragments (56.25 %) (Table 6). One of the largest concentrations of animal bones came from a series of intercutting pits in the south-eastern corner of the trench (pit group 20003), ditch 1564 and the eastern end of ditch 20004. Of these, the greatest quantity (219 fragments) came from ditch 1564, which included numerous cattle bones, including a largely complete cattle skull, a pig skull, a range of sheep/goat bones, several horse bones from two animals (one of the horse bones was possibly deliberately burnt and fractured), and a couple of red deer teeth. Pits tended to produce small numbers of fragments, though another concentration of material (164 fragments) was recovered from feature 20002 (cut 1567) in the north-eastern corner of the main enclosure. This feature included a large number of cattle and sheep/goat bones, including a couple of cattle horncores with cut marks and a butchered dog bone (see below). Both ditch 1564 and feature 20002 appear to contain debris from carcass processing of several animals, and although neither included evidence of specialised activities, the horn-working evidence is notable.

Feature type	Ditch/gully	Pit/posthole
No. features with animal bone	10	36
No. fragments	308	396
Average no. per feature	30.8	11.0
% of total	43.75	56.25

Table 6: Contextual distribution of animal bones

## Taxa representation

Of the 704 specimens recorded in the hand-collected assemblage, 158 were identified as cattle, which represented 54.5 % of the remains identified to taxon (Table 7). Sheep/goat remains numbered 98 specimens, about a third of the identified remains, while pig and horse were represented by 12 and 11 specimens respectively, plus a total of five dog bones were recovered. No evidence of goats was found at the site, and most of the ovicaprid remains are probably from sheep. Red deer was represented by two upper molars from a fill of ditch 1564, though no antler specimens were identified. Bird bones were represented by four specimens, consisting of a possible femur shaft from ditch 1564 plus two ribs and a possible sternum fragment from pit 1775. All these came from wild birds, though specific species could not be identified. As mentioned above, the variable and somewhat poor preservation in some contexts probably biased against the survival and recovery of remains of smaller animals.

Fish, rodent and amphibian bones were identified from environmental samples. Two eel bones—a vertebra and a cleithrum fragment—were recovered from ditch 1564 (sample 1501) and identified by Rebecca Nicholson. Several rodent bones (24) from at least two individuals, tentatively identified as mouse remains, and some frog/toad bones (22) were recovered from the basal fill (1788) of phase 2 pit 1784 (sample 1511). This feature produced over 100 bones from small animals, all from either rodents or amphibians.

Taxon	No. fragments	%NISP
Cattle	158	54.5
Sheep/Goat	98	33.8
Pig	12	4.1
Horse	11	3.8
Dog	5	1.7
Red Deer	2	0.7
Bird	4	1.4
Large mammal	149	–
Medium mammal	82	–
Small mammal	4	–
Unidentified	179	–
Total	706	–

Table 7: Number and percentage of hand-collected animal bone fragments

## Cattle

Cattle bones were dominated by a sizable number of skull and mandible fragments. Modern breakage was an issue, and this is indicated by the high number of loose teeth (34.8 %). However, skull and mandible specimens were notably better represented than post-cranial bones when minimum numbers of elements were considered (Table 8). At least seven cattle skulls and 13 mandibles were recovered, representing a minimum of nine animals. Although generally fragmented, the remains of probably complete skulls were noted in several contexts, notably in ditches 1564 and 1659 (the latter was part of ditch group 20004). Analysis of MNE and MNI counts suggests some evidence for a preference for front haunches, with scapula, humerus and radius bones being slightly better represented than the rear parts of

the carcass. Given the small sample size, however, it is possible that this reflects the variation in the disposal of particular body parts in different parts of the site.

All the cattle bones were skeletally mature and there was no evidence of neonates or juveniles/infants in the assemblage. The presence of early fusing elements, such as the scapula, proximal radius and distal humerus indicate that all the remains come from animals over 7–18 months old, while late fusing elements, such as the distal femur and distal radius, suggest that most were probably older than 3.5 years (cf. Getty 1975). The epiphyseal fusion data are somewhat supported by the dental eruption and wear data. Four of the nine ageable dental specimens derived from cattle older than eight years (Table 9). Another two specimens were from animals over three years old, one was probably in its second year, and another was slaughtered below 18 months old. A single cattle pelvis was complete enough to sex and belonged to a female.

Element	NISP	MNE	MNI
Horncore	5	2	2
Skull	18	7	7
Mandible	29	13	9
Scapula	14	5	3
Humerus	3	3	3
Radius	7	5	3
Ulna	2	2	1
Metacarpal	2	1	1
Pelvis	4	2	2
Femur	1	1	1
Tibia	4	2	1
Calcaneus	1	1	1
Astragalus	0	0	0
Metatarsal	6	3	2
Teeth	55	—	—
Other	7	—	—
Total/Max.	158	13	9

Table 8: Cattle quantification data in terms of NISP (number of identified specimens), MNE (minimum number of elements) and MNI (minimum number of individuals)

Specimen	Context	Element	dp4	P4	M1	M2	M3	MWS	Stage	Estimated age
16	1789	2nd molar				E		10–14	C	5–18 months
222	1590	mandible	j		g	b		20–21	D	16–28 months
113	1607	mandible			k	g	g	39	F	34–43 months
117	1620	mandible				j	g	41	G	40m–6.5 years
304	1568	mandible			l	k		42–46	G/H	40m–10 years
54	1787	mandible			n	l	k	49	J	8–16 years
78	1693	mandible			n			46+	J	8–16 years
170	1593	mandible			m	l	j	47	J	8–16 years
294	1568	3rd molar					k	46+	J	8–16 years

Table 9: Dental eruption and wear data for cattle (MWS = mandible wear stage, following Grant 1982; stage follows Halstead 1985; and, estimated age follows Jones and Sadler 2012)



Two cattle specimens exhibited pathological markers. A cattle skull from 1659 (20004) had several natural perforations on the caudal surface of the occipital bone. Such lesions have been recorded on cattle skulls from a wide range of sites dating to several periods. However, there is little consensus as to the cause of the perforations and interpretations have ranged from the use of head-yokes, the presence of parasites, infections and even tumours, to being more simply a congenital condition (Baxter 2002; Brothwell *et al.* 1996; Manaseryan *et al.* 1999). A cattle pelvis from ditch 1564, interpreted as belonging to a female (see above), showed signs of low-level bony growth along the ilio-pubic ridge, possibly the result of inflammation rather than a severe infection.

Thirteen cattle specimens had butchery marks. Five of these were horncores, three of which had heavy cut marks around the base to remove the horn from the core, and two had been chopped through at the base to remove the whole horn from the skull. A largely complete skull from ditch 1659 (the specimen with the occipital lesions) had a hole c. 20–30mm across in the centre of the frontal bone. It was noted by the field excavators that this was not caused during the excavation, and examination of the breakage indicates that it occurred in antiquity. There was no sign of healing and it appears that this was caused by a blow to the head of the animal to end its life (i.e. poleaxing). One mandible had cut marks on the lateral diastema and a maxilla had oblique knife cuts, both made during skinning, while a second mandible had chop marks on the lateral ramus near the condyle, which was probably made to remove the jaw to access the tongue. A radius had superficial chop marks on the shaft, while a tibia had cut marks and a superficial chop mark on the shaft. One scapula had possible hook-damage in the centre of the blade, and a second had been chopped through on side of neck above the glenoid.

## Sheep/Goats

Sheep/goat remains were dominated by mandible and tibia elements, and this is clearly the result of differential survival (Table 10). The robusticity of sheep/goat mandibles and distal tibiae often means that these bones are well represented in archaeological assemblages. Other elements that have survived relatively well include the distal humerus, the proximal radius and the metapodials. Taking body side into account, at least six sheep/goats were represented in the assemblage, though, as mentioned, sheep are likely to be under-represented.

There were several signs that sheep/goats tended to be slaughtered at fairly young ages. The presence of unfused distal tibiae indicates that some were killed in their first year; in fact, one distal tibia was undergoing fusion, suggesting that the animal had been culled at about 10 months old. Several elements suggest culling prior to reaching three years, and there is a complete lack of late fusing elements that had undergone epiphyseal closure (Table 11). It is also worth noting here that two bones—a metacarpal and a femur—belonged to a foetus.

The dental eruption and wear data for sheep/goats somewhat supports the epiphyseal fusion data. Only seven dental specimens provided ageing data, but over half of these were animals aged between 10 and 24 months, suggesting a fairly early culling of sheep/goats at the site (Table 12). The presence of one animal older than nine years shows that some of the flock were retained to older ages, which should be expected in a local breeding group.

Only two sheep/goat specimens exhibited butchery marks, not helped by the poor surface preservation. These included a tibia with a cut on the shaft made during flesh removal and an astragalus that had been chopped to remove the foot. No pathologies were identified.

Element	NISP	MNE	MNI
Horncore	2	0	0
Skull	2	0	0
Mandible	24	9	5
Scapula	1	1	1
Humerus	6	6	3
Radius	5	2	1
Ulna	0	0	0
Metacarpal	4	2	1
Pelvis	0	0	0
Femur	1	1	1
Tibia	15	13	6
Calcaneus	0	0	0
Astragalus	1	1	1
Metatarsal	4	3	2
Teeth	30	—	—
Other	3	—	—
Total/Max.	98	13	6

Table 10: Sheep/goat quantification data in terms of NISP, MNE and MNI

Age when fusing	Element	Fused	Unfused	%UF
up to 10 months	P. Metacarpal	0	1	50
	D. Tibia	2	1	
1.5–3 years	D. Metacarpal	0	1	60
	P. Femur	0	1	
	Phalanx 1	2	1	
3.5 years	D. Femur	0	1	100
	P. Tibia	0	2	

Table 11: Sheep/goat epiphyseal fusion data

Specimen	Context	Element	dp4	P4	M1	M2	M3	MWS	Stage	Estimated age
112	1607	mandible	n		h			28	D	10–24 months
191	1593	mandible	j		e	c		19–	D	10–24 months
192	1593	mandible		C	e	d		19–	D	10–24 months
330	1525	mandible	n		g	e		25–	D	10–24 months
264	1571	mandible				f	e	33–	F	2.5–4.5yrs
107	1693	3rd molar					g	36–	F/G	4.5–9yrs
281	1568	mandible			n	m	h	48	J	9yrs+

Table 12: Dental eruption and wear data for sheep/goats (stage and estimated ages follow Jones 2006)

## Pigs

A total of 12 pig fragments were identified, mostly skull (including mandible) and tooth specimens which accounted for nine fragments. These included probable skull deposits in pit

1784 and ditch 1564 (see below). A loose lower canine from ditch 1564 was from a male. One ulna, also from ditch 1564, was unfused at the proximal end, which suggests the animal was slaughtered under four years of age (cf. Getty 1975). Four mandibles provided tooth eruption and wear data, which indicate that two pigs were culled between one and six months, and another two between six and 12 months (Table 13). A maxilla fragment from ditch 1784 showed signs of burning on the side of one of the upper molars and inside of skull/tooth cavity.

Specimen	Context	Element	dp4	P4	M1	M2	M3	MWS	Stage	Estimated age
5	1787	mandible			E	C		4	B	1–6 months
143	1584	mandible			E	C		4	B	1–6 months
11	1779	3rd molar					E	17–	D	6–12 months
144	1584	mandible				b	E	19–	D	6–12 months

Table 13: Dental eruption and wear data for pigs (stage and estimated ages follow Hambleton 1999)

## Horses

A total of 11 horse bones were identified, consisting of a range of post-cranial body parts and a few loose teeth. All the post-cranial elements with surviving epiphyses had undergone closure and there was no evidence of juveniles. One distal tibia from ditch 1564 had potentially been deliberately fractured in an oblique direction through the centre of the shaft and there were signs that it had been burnt close to the break.

## Dogs

A total of five dog bones were recovered from four contexts. Two of the bones had undergone epiphyseal fusion and there was no evidence of juveniles. The most notable aspect of these remains was the presence of a cut mark on the shaft of a proximal humerus, from pit 1567, just below the humeral head. The mark is suggestive of cutting through the tendon to remove the front leg, and it is possible that the dog was eaten.

## Discussion

The animal bone assemblage is fairly small and not especially well preserved. Nonetheless, it does provide some useful evidence of animal exploitation. Cattle and sheep were probably the mainstay of the livestock economy. A focus on the culling of older cattle suggests a reliance on secondary products, perhaps traction for arable cultivation and/or dairying. Clear evidence of cattle dairying is usually rare in zooarchaeological assemblages dating to the Roman period, which often show that cattle were slaughtered at younger ages than at Basing View (Allen 2017, 113–4). A lack of evidence for intensive culling of young cattle suggests the presence of a small local herd.

Since no clear evidence of goats was found at the site, it is assumed that all the ovicaprid remains were from sheep. Unfortunately, very few of the sheep bones were complete enough for measurement, but it is worth pointing out that, anecdotally, many of the sheep bones did appear to be very small and slender for Roman-period material. It is possible that the sheep at Basing View were of a short and unimproved type often associated with Iron Age sites (cf. Hambleton 2008, 48–9; Allen 2017, 105–7). Sheep ageing patterns suggest that, compared to

cattle, a slightly different husbandry strategy was employed. The presence of foetal and elderly animals almost certainly demonstrates that sheep were being bred and raised at the settlement; again, dairying may have been important. However, epiphyseal fusion and dental wear data indicate that sheep were consistently slaughtered before their third year, suggesting an emphasis on meat production. Intensive culling of young animals would also require the presence of a fairly large flock. Although meat was probably not an everyday source of food at the settlement, it seems likely that lamb was perhaps preferred, while pigs were also culled at particularly young ages (within their first year), though it is uncertain whether pigs were bred at the site or brought in from elsewhere.

The possibly poleaxed cattle skull is interesting given that methods of animal slaughter are rarely found in zooarchaeological assemblages. The apparent puncture wound found in the cattle skull from ditch 1659 is very similar to that recorded on a cattle skull from the Roman settlement at Wattle Syke, West Yorkshire (Richardson 2013, plate 55; see also Allen 2017, 119–20, fig. 3.44). Poleaxing is often used to stun an animal when throat-slitting and bleeding-out while the animal is conscious is not deemed to be appropriate. This latter method can cause a great deal of distress and pain in the animal, which the handler may have wanted to avoid.

Evidence for horn-working is also found in several contexts and suggests that cattle horn was probably used as a raw material for domestic items. There is no evidence that horn-working was undertaken at any great scale and the butchered horncores were found in contexts with other butchery waste, suggesting that it was not a specialised activity at the site.

A few horses were most likely kept as working animals on the farm, as were dogs. The possible butchered horse bones are not evidence of horse-meat consumption, as the bone may have been burnt and broken for other reasons. However, the dog humerus with the cut mark is less easy to explain as it does not appear to reflect skinning, but dismemberment of soft tissue around the shoulder of the animal. It is quite possible that this dog was either eaten, or that the butchery reflects some form of elaborate burial rite. If the dog was eaten, the general lack of dog bones at the site suggests that this was a rare event. The recovery of a few deer, bird and eel bones indicates that hunting and fishing was rare, but perhaps undertaken supplement the diet perhaps on special occasions.

## MARINE SHELL

*by Rebecca Nicholson*

Two oyster shells, both right valves, and a fragment of oyster shell together weighing 38 g, were recovered by hand. They are in fair condition, though the single valve from Early Roman pit fill 1711 (phase 1b pit group 20005) is heavily chambered and chalky internally, and also externally exhibits polychete worm tunnelling. The valve from pit fill 1693, also in pit group 20005, is in better condition but also has a chalky deposit internally. Although this is a very small assemblage, tentatively, the presence of chalky deposits and chambers may indicate collection from shallower, estuarine waters or creeks with changing salinity (Winder 2015).

## CHARRED PLANT REMAINS

by Sharon Cook

### Introduction and methods

Eleven bulk samples were taken during the excavation and processed in their entirety using a modified Siraf-type water flotation machine to 250µm (flot) and 500µm mesh (residue). The residue fractions were sorted by eye and all bone and artefacts removed while the flot material was sorted using a low power (x10) binocular microscope to extract cereal grains and chaff, smaller seeds and other quantifiable remains.

Identifications were carried out using standard morphological criteria for the cereals (Jacomet 2006) and with reference to the Digital Seed Atlas of the Netherlands (Cappers *et al.* 2006) for identification of wild plant remains, as well as comparison with modern reference material. Classification and nomenclature of plant material follows Stace (2010). Cereal grains and the seeds of wild plants were only quantified for items with more than half present, meaning that the total cereal and seed counts represent the minimum number of items present. In contrast, all observed fragments of legumes, chaff and nutshell were counted.

### Condition and preservation

The condition of the charred material is generally poor with the majority of grain from the samples being clinkered, fragmented and in some cases vitrified. Chaff fragments are generally small and many seeds have damaged and/or missing exterior surfaces. Some seeds in poor condition were identifiable only to family or genus. All flots included charcoal, though in some cases only in very small quantities. Most fragments were in good condition, but a small proportion were encrusted as a result of mineral precipitate. Sample 1500 contained some charred fragments, which may be the remains of galls or the result of regrowth after damage on the wood. These were in a poor condition and largely fused together and appear only in this sample.

### Results

The full results of the archaeobotanical analysis are presented in Table 14. Ultimately, however, only three samples produced significant remains. These included phase 1b pits 1610 and 1770 and phase 2 pit 1784. Sample 1502 from pit 1610 contained small quantities of grain together with a variety of probably uncultivated seeds, typically weeds of cultivation. Interesting examples of opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) and basil thyme (*Clinopodium acinos*) are discussed further below.

Sample 1508, taken from the second fill of pit 1770, produced the richest charred assemblage for the site with large quantities of emmer/spelt (*Triticum dicoccum/spelta*) glume base fragments and a moderate quantity of charred grain in poor condition. Large numbers of uncultivated plant seeds were mainly from plants found as common crop contaminants, though it should be noted that not all the chenopod seeds were certainly charred.



A Late Iron Age/Early Roman Enclosed Settlement at Basing View

Sample no.	1500	1501	1502	1503	1504	1505	1506	1507	1508	1510	1511	
<b>Context no.</b>	<b>1571</b>	<b>1592</b>	<b>1611</b>	<b>1607</b>	<b>1692</b>	<b>1721</b>	<b>1728</b>	<b>1755</b>	<b>1772</b>	<b>1776</b>	<b>1788</b>	
<b>Feature</b>	pit 1567	ditch 1564	pit 1610	pit 1606	pit 1714	tree throw	ditch 1727	pit 1754	pit 1770	pit 1775	pit 1784	
<b>Group</b>	20002	/	20006	20003	20005	/	20000	20002	/	/	/	
<b>Date</b>	AD 43– 70	AD 1– 100	AD 43– 100	AD 43– 70	U/D	AD 260– 370	AD 1– 100	AD 43– 410	AD 43– 100	AD 120– 150	AD 43– 100	
<b>Phase</b>	1b	1b	1b	1b	1b	2	1b	1b	1b	2	2	
<b>Processed vol. (L)</b>	38	35	35	20	35	40	35	40	40	35	40	
<b>Flot vol. (ml)</b>	16	50	75	400	14	75	22	50	—	20	450	
<b>% analysed</b>	100%	100%	100%	25%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	
<b>Charcoal</b>	>4mm	++	+++	++	+++		+++			++	+	+++
	2–4mm	+++	+++	+++	++++	++	+++	+++	++	+++	+	+++
<b>Cereal grain</b>												
<i>cf Triticum sp.</i>	cf. wheat										1	
<i>Hordeum sp.</i>	barley		1								10	
<i>cf Hordeum sp.</i>	cf. barley	1	1				1				5	
<i>Avena/Bromus</i>	oat/brome		2						4	1	6	
Cerealia	indet cereal		5	6		1	2		53	3	24	
<b>Chaff</b>												
<i>Triticum dicoccum/spelta</i>	emmer/spelt glume base fragment		5	1			1	1	296	3	40	
<i>Triticum/Hordeum</i>	rachis fragments								1			
<i>Avena sp.</i>	oat awns			**					**		***	
<i>Cerealia</i>	indet detached embryos								1			
<b>Fruit, Nutshell etc</b>												
<i>Corylus avellana</i>	hazelnut shell					4	1					
<i>cf Pisum</i>	pea?										8	
<b>Wild Species</b>												

A Late Iron Age/Early Roman Enclosed Settlement at Basing View

Sample no.		1500	1501	1502	1503	1504	1505	1506	1507	1508	1510	1511
Context no.		1571	1592	1611	1607	1692	1721	1728	1755	1772	1776	1788
<i>Papaver somniferum</i>	opium poppy			6								
cf. Fabaceae	pea family (small)			6						8		
<i>Vicia/Lathyrus</i> sp. 4–2 mm	vetch/vetchling/tare			1						2		9
<i>Vicia/Lathyrus</i> sp. <2 mm	vetch/vetchling/tare			7						61	1	18
Polygonaceae	knotweed family			3								
<i>Rumex</i> sp.	docks		1							56	1	1
Caryophyllaceae	pink family									1		
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	goosefoot			4						146		
<i>Montia fontana</i>	blinks									1		
<i>Sherardia arvensis</i>	field madder		1							1		2
<i>Galium aparine</i>	cleavers (small and large types)									76	2	4
<i>Lithospermum arvense</i>	field gromwell											1
<i>Clinopodium acinos</i>	basil thyme			3								
Asteraceae	daisy family									3	2	
<i>Leucanthemum</i> sp.	oxeye daisies			3						14		3
<i>Tripleurospermum</i> sp.	mayweed			1						1		1
<i>Valerianella dentata</i>	narrow fruited cornsalad			1						8		1
<i>Juncus</i> sp.	rushes									5	1	
Cyperaceae	sedge family									1		
<i>Carex</i> sp.	sedges									3		
Poaceae	grass seeds (various)			12						34	13	22
<b>Other</b>												
Indet.	seed/fruit			11						17	2	4

Table 14: Summary of the charred plant remains (\*1–5, \*\*5–25, \*\*\*25–100, \*\*\*\*100+)



Sample 1511 from the lower fill of pit 1784 produced a large flot mostly composed of fine modern roots, as a result of which it was not possible to riffle this flot to a more manageable size. However, this sample produced more identifiable grain than the other samples and included both glume wheat (*Triticum dicoccum/spelta*) and barley (*Hordeum* sp.) as well as fairly abundant awns which may be from wild (*Avena fatua*) or cultivated (*Avena sativa*) oats. A possible pea (cf. *Pisum* sp.) hints at the cultivation or consumption of this legume.

## Discussion

The charred plant assemblage is fairly small and generally poorly preserved. The vitrification of some grain and the 'exploded' appearance of many of the dock seeds would seem to indicate that the damage was largely a result of burning as opposed to preservation conditions on site.

Glume wheat (*Triticum* sp.) probably mainly or entirely spelt (*Triticum spelta*) and barley (*Hordeum* sp.) were the main arable crops at the site. Spelt and hulled barley were staples in the Late Iron Age and Roman periods, especially in this area of the country (van der Veen 2016, 807–33; Lodwick 2017a, 16–21). While the number of identified wheat grains was low, the presence of glume base fragments indicates that at least some of the indeterminate grain must also be wheat, though it is impossible to fully quantify and estimate proportions.

Uncultivated plant seeds are common and varied with a bias towards both those commonly observed with arable crops, such as vetches (*Vicia/Lathyrus*), grass seeds (Poaceae), docks (*Rumex* sp.), cornsalad (*Valerianella dentata*), daisies (*Asteraceae* and *Leucanthemum* sp.) and cleavers (*Galium aparine*). Oat/brome (*Avena/Bromus*) is present in small amounts and is also likely to be also a contaminant, though the lack of floret bases means that it is impossible to confirm if these were indeed wild varieties.

A small number of seeds from plants normally associated with damp conditions, such as blinks (*Montia fontana*), rushes (*Juncus* sp.) and sedges (Cyperaceae and *Carex* sp.), are present, albeit in small numbers. These are likely to be the result of either small areas with damp conditions, such as the bases of uncleaned ditches or from damp ground towards the periphery of the site. The low presence of seeds of this type may reflect the fact that uncharred seeds are far less likely to survive in the archaeological record.

The presence of glume wheat chaff together with seeds from wild plants typically harvested accidentally with cereals indicate that crop processing activities took place at or close to the site, but the small amount of material hints at domestic production for local use. The majority of charred material appears to be concentrated in the south-western part of the site and this could be an indication that this was an area utilised for crop-related activities.

Pit-stored grain has generally been assumed to be utilised for seed during the Iron Age, with grain for consumption stored above ground in granary structures (Reynolds 1974). Pit 1784 was of the classic 'bell' or 'beehive' shape often associated with grain storage in the Iron Age (sample 1511), though this feature in fact dated to the early 2nd century. While Roman grain storage is more usually associated with above-ground structures, it is possible that a continuation of some Iron Age practices occurred at this site.

Of further interest is the presence of opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) and basil thyme (*Clinopodium acinos*) which are both associated with Roman gardens (Ryley 1998) and having

decorative as well as medicinal and culinary uses. Basil thyme is a native plant with a preference for calcareous soils and could have been growing wild within the local area. There is some uncertainty about the origins of opium poppy in archaeological assemblages. Stace (2010) identifies opium poppy as an archaeophyte with no estimated date of introduction, while van der Veen (2008, 11–36) has suggested that it was a Roman introduction. Since the assemblage comprised mostly crop contaminants and weeds, it seems possible that poppies were growing wild rather than being deliberately cultivated. Opium poppy has also been observed in assemblages from early excavations at Silchester and more recent work at Insula IX (Lodwick 2017b).

The existence of what appear to be fragments of peas in sample 1511 indicate that these were being consumed on site and it is possible that legumes may have been cultivated locally. Unfortunately, peas and beans are rarely carbonised during their processing and cooking which bias against their preservation (Treasure and Church 2016). The small quantity of hazelnut shell in samples 1505 and 1506 may indicate some limited collection and utilisation of wild resources.

## DISCUSSION

The excavation at Basing View revealed a well-defined enclosed settlement. The site was almost certainly located within the political territory of the Atrebates, which had its administrative centre at Silchester (*Calleva Atrebatum*) and today falls within the Solent-Thames research area (Fulford 2014a, 155). The number of contemporary sites in the Basingstoke area suggests that the Basing View settlement was established within a relatively densely occupied landscape. Although fairly small scale, the site can add to understanding of the settlement archaeology of the area during the 1st and 2nd centuries AD and has the potential to contribute to several Roman-period research agenda for the wider region (Fulford 2014b). The following discussion seeks to draw out the significance of some of the findings from the excavation and place them within their local context.

## Chronology

Dating evidence for the establishment of the settlement is imprecise. It rests largely on the presence of Silchester-type pottery, which is preeminent throughout the period of occupation, and the relative lack of distinctive 'Romanised' wares. As its name suggests, Silchester-type pottery was a hand-made flint-tempered ware that was common at 1st-century AD sites in north Hampshire and south Berkshire (Charles 1979). It also dominated the Late Iron Age ceramic phase (c. 10 BC–AD 45/50) at Silchester where it accounted for almost 40 % of the total sherd count (22,196 sherds) and nearly 60 % by weight (36.7 kg) (Timby 2018, 152, table 8). While there was probably a nearby production source for the Silchester ware from the oppidum and early town (ibid., 166), it is uncertain whether the pottery found at nearby rural sites derived from the same kilns or were locally produced in very similar fabrics. There was no evidence of hearths that may have been used for firing pottery at Basing View. No wasters were present in the ceramic assemblage, and although fragments of possible kiln furniture were recovered, this was found redeposited in a post-conquest pit. Although the source of this pottery is unknown, its dominance in phase 1a contexts suggests that the earliest activity at the site preceded the conquest of AD 43. While

Silchester-type fabrics can potentially date any time from the Early Iron Age (*ibid.*, 167), a date in the first half of the 1st century AD seems most likely for this site. At Silchester, flint-tempered wares superseded grog-tempered as the dominant fabric around the middle of the 1st century AD and thereafter declined as more Romanised sandy wares became more popular (Timby 2000, 307).

Around the time of the conquest, probably sometime within the first two decades thereafter, the settlement was more formally defined by straight-sided enclosure and trackway ditches. These were orientated east–west and north–south and extended beyond the confines of the trench, presumably forming boundaries external to the main enclosure. The ditches clearly cut earlier features, and their fills tended to contain small quantities of ‘Romanised’ oxidised and reduced sandy wares. This period saw the appearance of Alice Holt/Farnham type wares, though these were largely restricted to early forms with very little dating after c. AD 70. A small collection of pottery dating between AD 90 and 150, including a Farnham-type lid that almost certainly post-dates AD 90 and black-burnished ware sherds (c. AD 120–150), indicates continued activity at the site potentially as late as the middle of the 2nd century AD. The apparent gap in ceramic dating between AD 70 and AD 90 is more likely to be a product of pottery supply rather than an absence of activity.

Compared with other sites in the area, the relatively short period of occupation at Basing View is fairly unusual. Several settlements were occupied from the Middle Iron Age, including Oakridge II/IV (Oliver 1993), Rucstalls Hill (Oliver and Applin 1979), Viables Farm (Millett and Russell 1984) and Brighton Hill South (Fasham and Keevil 1995), all of which were inhabited when the hillfort at Winklebury was in use (Smith 1977). However, there is good evidence for changes occurring at several sites in the 1st century AD, such as at Oakridge II/IV which was extensively enlarged, while a new rectangular enclosure was established within a larger Iron Age enclosure at Rucstalls Hill. Sites at Danebury Road, Hatch Warren and Brighton Hill South were abandoned by the end of the 1st century AD, slightly earlier than at Basing View. The period of occupation at Merton Rise, Popley, perhaps best matches that at Basing View, being established just before the conquest and lasting until the mid-2nd century AD (Wright *et al.* 2009). Several other settlements were also established in the 1st century AD but appear to have survived well into the Late Roman period (e.g. Marnel Park, Popley (*ibid.*), Daneshill (Millett and Schadla-Hall 1991), Cowdery’s Down (Millett and James 1983), Oakridge VII (Oliver 1993)). Together, the broad dating evidence from different sites in the area does not indicate any widespread reorganisation of the landscape at a particular point in time, but instead a varied pattern of establishment, expansion and decline of settlements over time.

## Site status and economy

The excavated remains at Basing View suggest the presence of a fairly low-status settlement. There is little evidence for imported pottery, a general lack of material wealth and no sign of architectural embellishment. The high proportion of Silchester-type pottery is very similar to that found at Merton Rise (Seager Smith 2009, 30), and while this is a product of the chronology of these sites, the dominance of fairly crude hand-made wares is also a reflection of the inhabitants’ status. Currently, it is uncertain whether local rural settlements were largely subsistence-based in terms of ceramic production, or whether they were tied to a more centralised economy centred on the oppidum/early civitas capital. If the latter was the

case, some of evidence of imported wares might be expected, as at Oakridge II/IV (Oliver 1993) and Marnel Park (Seager Smith 2009) where Samian and amphorae was found in Early Roman deposits.

The layouts of several settlements south of Silchester appear to be similar, mostly consisting of isolated rectilinear enclosures. Basing View is comparable to two similarly sized enclosures at Merton Rise, Popley, that were located about 200 m from each other (Wright *et al.* 2009, 19–25). Both enclosures contained numerous four-post structures, probably representative of small granaries suggesting that grain storage was an important aspect of the function of these sites. The Basing View enclosure also contained numerous postholes and although these were difficult to resolve into structures, at least one four-post structure was identified. The form of these settlements differed from the more complex farmstead discovered at Marnel Park, located on lower-lying ground about 1 km east of Merton Rise (*ibid.*, 26–35). This site consisted of several conjoined enclosures and trackways, with areas divided up for crop drying, grain storage, livestock enclosure, burials, and domestic habitation, and activity here appears to have been more intensive than at Basing View and Merton Rise.

Animal bone and charred plant assemblages suggest that the Basing View inhabitants were engaged in mixed farming, tending to relatively small herds and flocks of cattle and sheep, while growing a mixture of wheat and barley. Ageing evidence from cattle, although slim, suggests that animals tended to survive to fairly old ages before being slaughtered. This suggests a strategy aimed towards the exploitation of secondary products, possibly dairying alongside the use of plough cattle. The remains of older cattle were also identified in contemporary assemblages at Merton Rise and Marnel Park, Popley, where a similar interpretation of traction and dairying was also forwarded (*ibid.*, 36). Evidence for the use of poleaxes at Basing View provides a rare insight into methods of livestock culling, while several butchered cattle skulls and horncores suggests that limited horn-working was undertaken. Unfortunately, horn does not survive well unless in waterlogged or other favourable conditions and none has been recovered from the site. However, the relatively small number of horncores and their deposition with other butchery waste suggests that horn was probably being used on site, rather than being exported to market. This contrasts with the evidence from late 1st century BC/1st century AD features at Brighton Hill South, Sites B/C and K, where a large number of cattle horncores (at least 125 with saw marks) were recovered from pits and ditches. Maltby (1995) suggests that these remains represent ‘industrial’ working of horncores alongside evidence of antler-working at the site.

Overall, there is little evidence for variation in social status in the Basingstoke area during the Late Iron Age and Early Roman periods. Signs of wealth in the countryside is more prominent in the Late Roman period, such as at Monk Sherborne where a winged-corridor villa house and aisled hall were excavated in advance of chalk quarrying (Teague 2005). Although poorly preserved, dating evidence suggests that the house was in use by the 3rd century AD, while the hall was constructed by the 4th century when a large T-shaped corndryer was inserted in its foundations. The remains of a 4th-century bathhouse were also identified at Oakridge VII, and this could suggest the presence of another villa nearby (Oliver 1993), though the Basing View site had long been abandoned by this time.

## Buildings

Although numerous postholes were found at Basing View, particularly in the central part of the enclosure, none could be resolved into a structure (other than a single four-post structure). In terms of buildings, perhaps the most conspicuous feature was feature 20002. Located in the north-eastern corner of the enclosure, feature 20002 was sub-rectangular in plan, measuring about 5.5 m by 7 m across, and its northern edge aligned with ditch 20000. The relationship between the two features is uncertain, though the two certainly appear to respect one another. Several earlier pits along the eastern side of feature 20002, particularly in the north-eastern corner, complicates its interpretation. In the south-eastern corner, the excavators initially recorded a single cut (1567) for the whole feature, but re-examination suggests that the upper fill of a pre-existing pit (1574) may have been cut when the base of feature was dug (Fig. 6, section 1527). It is also notable that while local Silchester-type ware sherds were recovered from all the fills in this area, only the upper two fills (1571 and 1568) contained post-conquest wares. Several postholes were recorded within the edges of feature 20002 on the western and eastern sides (e.g. 1567 and 1569), and these may have supported posts for a superstructure and/or perhaps a raised floor. To the north-east, the positions of pits 1754 and 1752 and postholes 1576 and 1758 suggest that they were also associated with feature 20002 (the latter three being external to the enclosure). Their precise function is uncertain, though it is possible that they supported a structure that allowed access into the enclosure and perhaps directly to feature 20002.

Sunken-featured buildings, so often associated with the early medieval period, are becoming increasingly known from Romano-British sites. Three features excavated at the nearby Danebury Road, Hatch Warren site were suggested to be possible sunken-featured buildings, based on their resemblance to Saxon *Grubenhäuser* (Howell and Durden 2005, 43, 45, 50). Two of these features were located within a square enclosure and were dated to the Middle–Late Iron Age. These were rectangular in plan but were slightly smaller than the Basing View example, measuring c. 4 m x 4.65–4.80 m across and 0.28–0.35 m deep. The third feature was located outside the enclosure and was dated to the 1st century AD. It was also larger than its later Iron Age counterparts, measuring 8 m x 10 m across and 0.5 m deep. A general lack of postholes in all these features makes their interpretation as buildings uncertain, and it is possible that they were working hollows.

A large number of Roman sunken-featured buildings were excavated along the East Kent Access Road (EKA) on the Isle of Thanet in Kent (Andrews *et al.* 2015, 333–9). At least 18 probable and a further five possible examples were identified, first appearing in the Early Roman period, when they took over from post-built roundhouses as the dominant building type, and continued to be used into the Late Roman period. The excavated features ranged in size, measuring between 1.9–7.9 m wide and 3.5–10.0 m long, and in shape, with rectangular, sub-rectangular and ovoid plans all present (*ibid.*, 336–7, table 4.2). Five of the buildings were furnished with a ramp or steps, and several contained hearths, though no such features were identified in the Basing View example. Seven contained postholes and stakeholes (being notably smaller) either close to the edges or in the centre. As with the Basing View example, many of the EKA sunken-featured buildings contained sizable quantities of finds, including pottery, animal bones, items of personal adornment, tools and spindle whorls, highlighting aspects of everyday life at the household level.

## Human burial

The remains of a neonate were recovered from the upper fill (1571) of feature 20002, while part of a human skull was deposited in the lower fill (1568). No clear sign of a burial cut could be seen in feature 20002 and it seems that the neonate had been placed in the backfill along with pottery vessels and numerous cattle and sheep bones. Baby burials were also discovered three of the sunken-featured buildings excavated along the East Kent Access Road (there were five neonates in total, two each in two of the buildings). As at Basing View, these were generally found to have been placed in the bases of the features and covered over, though one had been positioned in a cut of the backfill (*ibid.*, 318, fig. 4.111).

The placement of infant burials in and around buildings during the Late Iron Age and Roman periods is far from unusual; examples of babies found sealed within successive floor layers and others overlain by domestic debris have been identified at several sites (Millett and Gowland 2015, 184–5). It may be tempting to see the Basing View infant as being conveniently disposed of with domestic waste. However, it is now increasingly argued that infants were rarely buried in such a haphazard or random manner but were often specifically located in places of meaningful interest (Moore 2009, 48). One possibility forwarded by Millett and Gowland (2015, 185–7) is that the burial of babies in the home, or elsewhere within the settlement, represents a concern for maintaining a ‘physical and symbolic connection’ between the family and the infant, particularly the mother. Citing anthropological evidence (*ibid.*), they suggest that pre-term and neonatal deaths not only cause significant emotional distress to the parents, but that mothers often perceive themselves as being indistinct from their off-spring, so that the death of a new-born is seen as a loss of part of oneself.

## CONCLUSIONS

The Late Iron Age/Early Roman settlement at Basing View contributes to our understanding in several areas of the rural settlement archaeology south of Silchester. The northern edge of the Hampshire Downs was fairly densely populated by rural settlements from the Middle Iron Age up to, at least, the end of the Roman period. The enclosed settlement at Basing View was established and survived for a relatively short period during the 1st and early 2nd century AD, a period when Silchester developed from a major Late Iron Age political centre into the region’s civitas capital. However, it is difficult to know the degree to which Basing View’s inhabitants were tied to the economy of Silchester and how far the oppidum/civitas capital influenced patterns of land tenure. The evidence suggests that Basing View largely operated on a subsistence basis, focussing on small-scale mixed farming practices. Although the site appears to have been fairly low status, there is little sign of social differentiation amongst local settlements and patterns of establishment/abandonment and economic fortunes may have been tied to local circumstances as much as they were influenced by Silchester.

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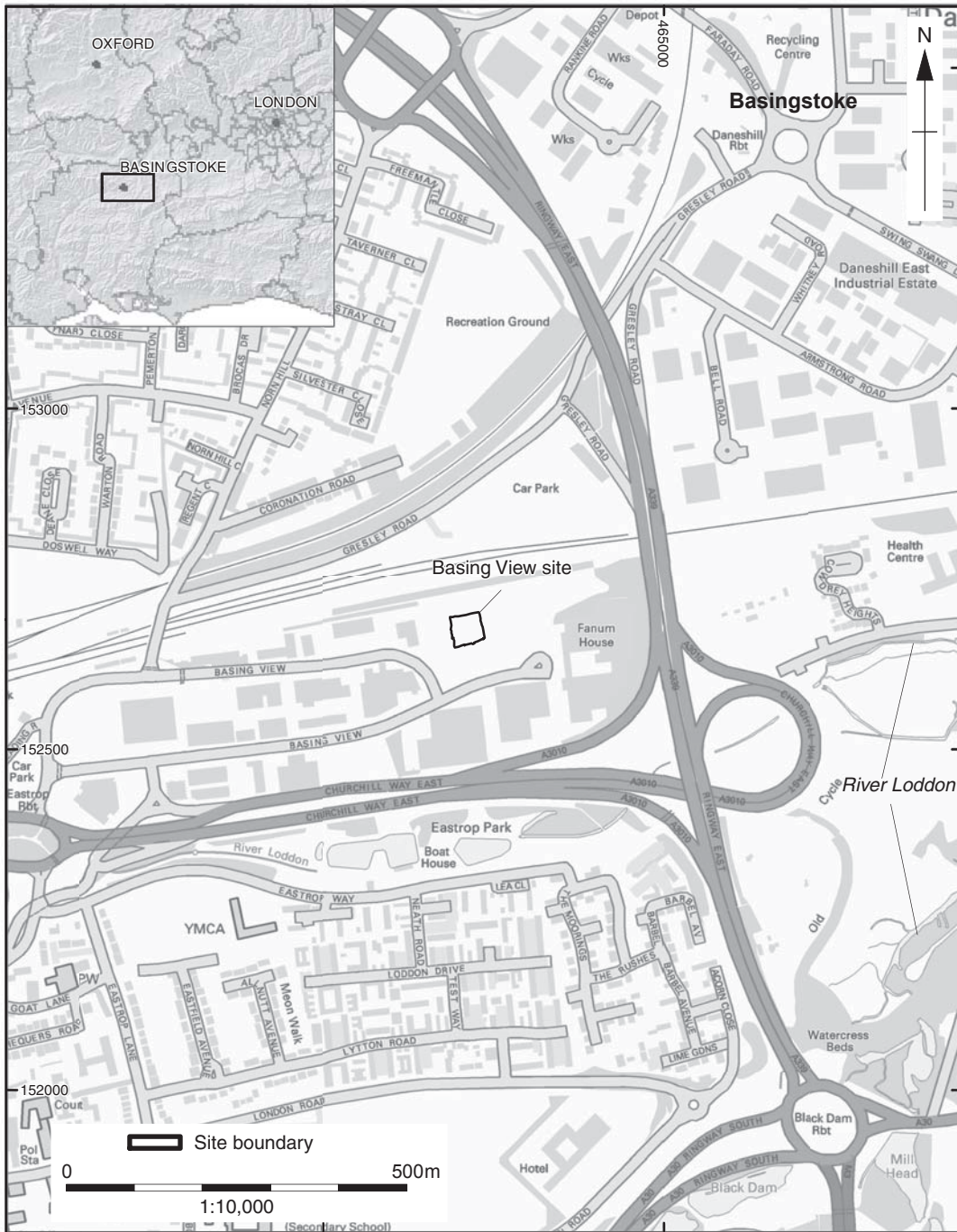


Figure 1: Site location plan

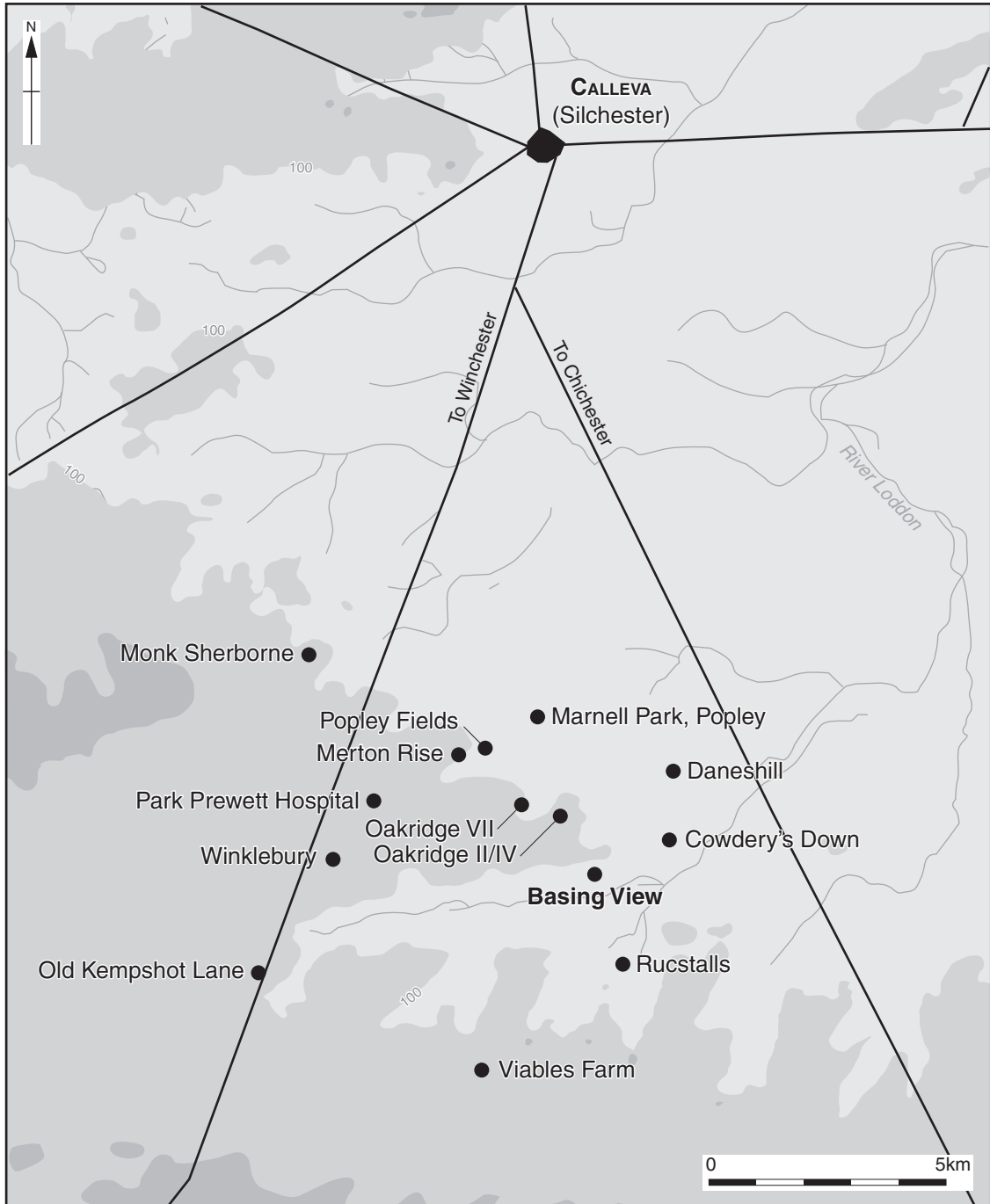


Figure 2: Selected Iron Age/Romano-British settlements in the Basingstoke area (data from [archaeologydataservice.ac.uk/archives/view/romangl/map.html](http://archaeologydataservice.ac.uk/archives/view/romangl/map.html))



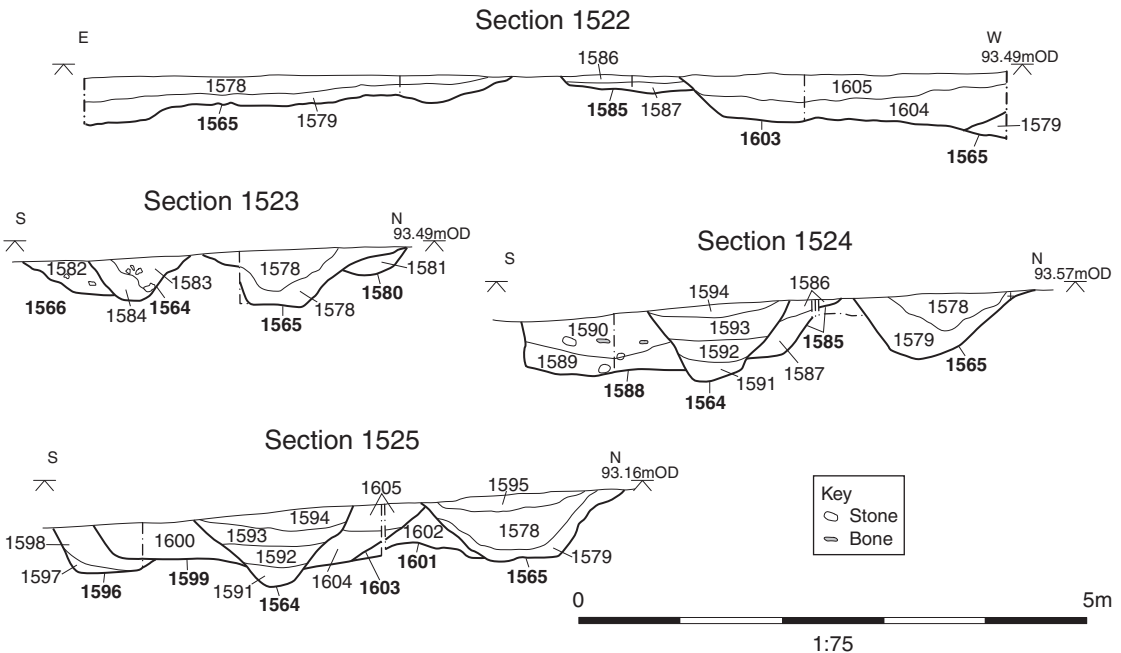
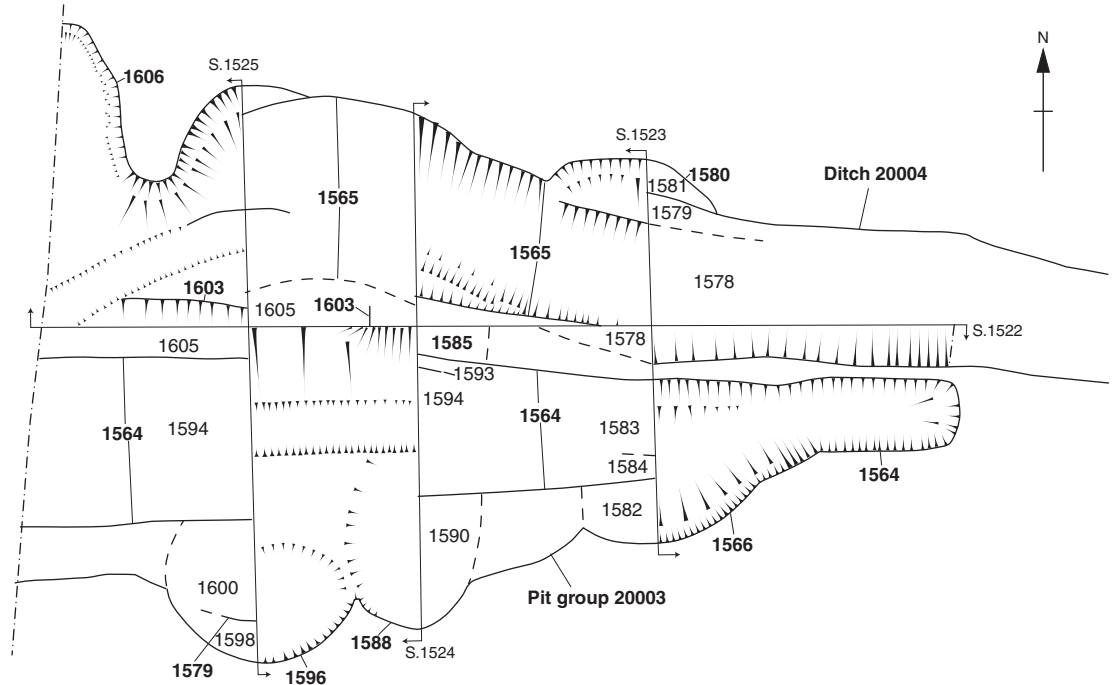


Figure 4: Plan and sections of pit group 20003, ditch 1564 and ditch 20004 (1565)



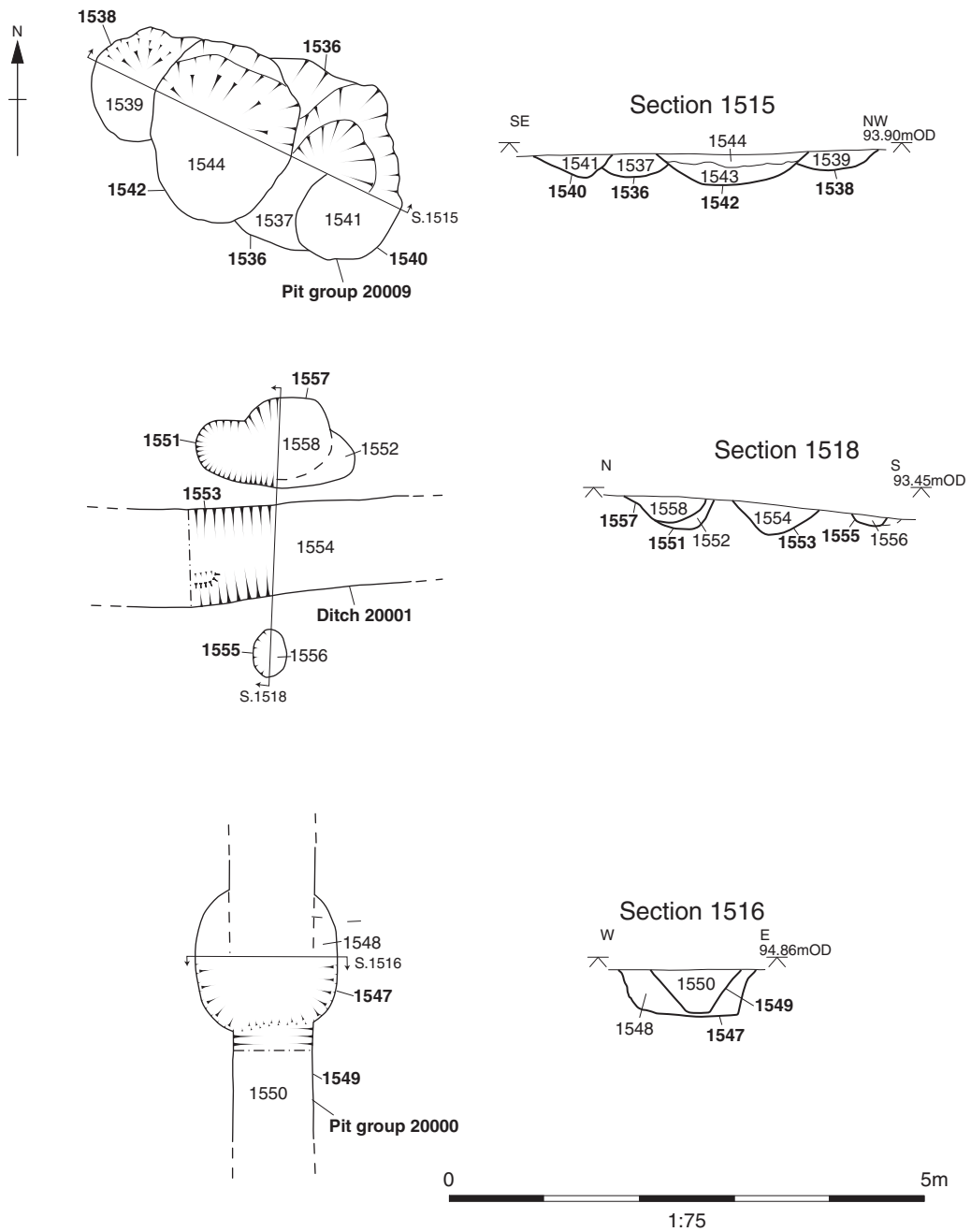


Figure 5: Plan and sections of pit group 20009, ditch 20001 (1553) and ditch 20000 (1549)

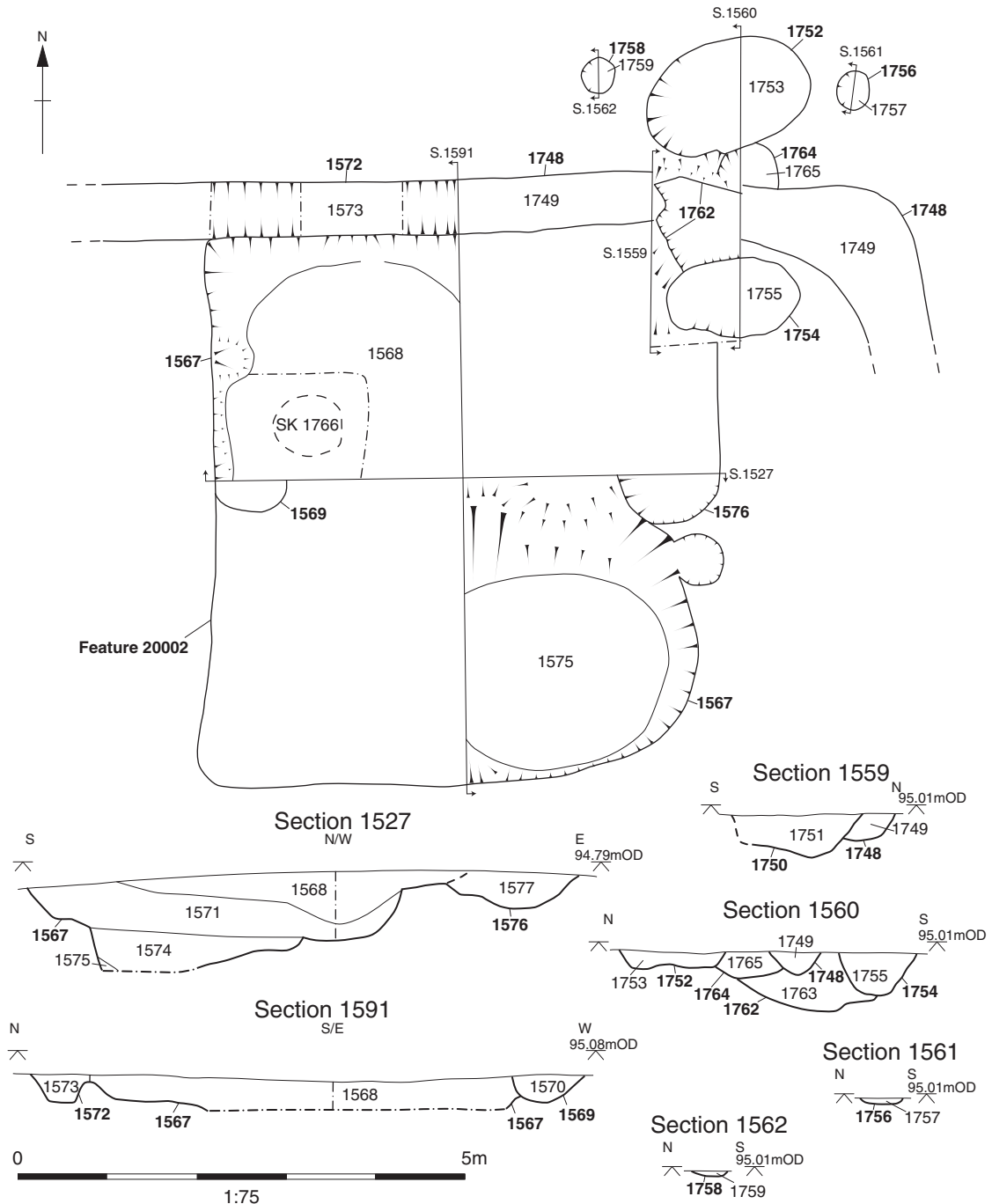


Figure 6: Plan and sections of feature 2002 and associated features

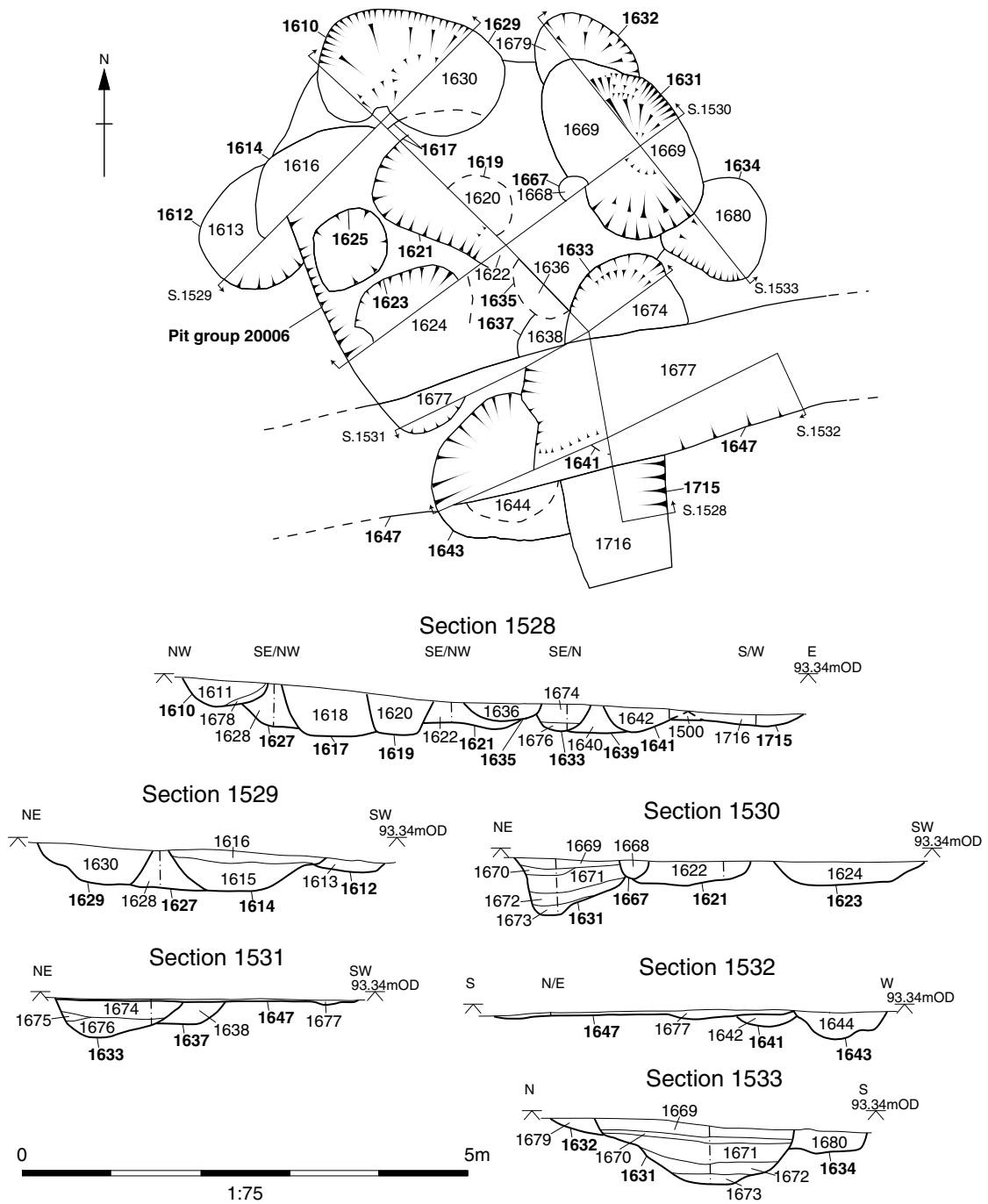


Figure 7: Plan and sections of pit group 20006

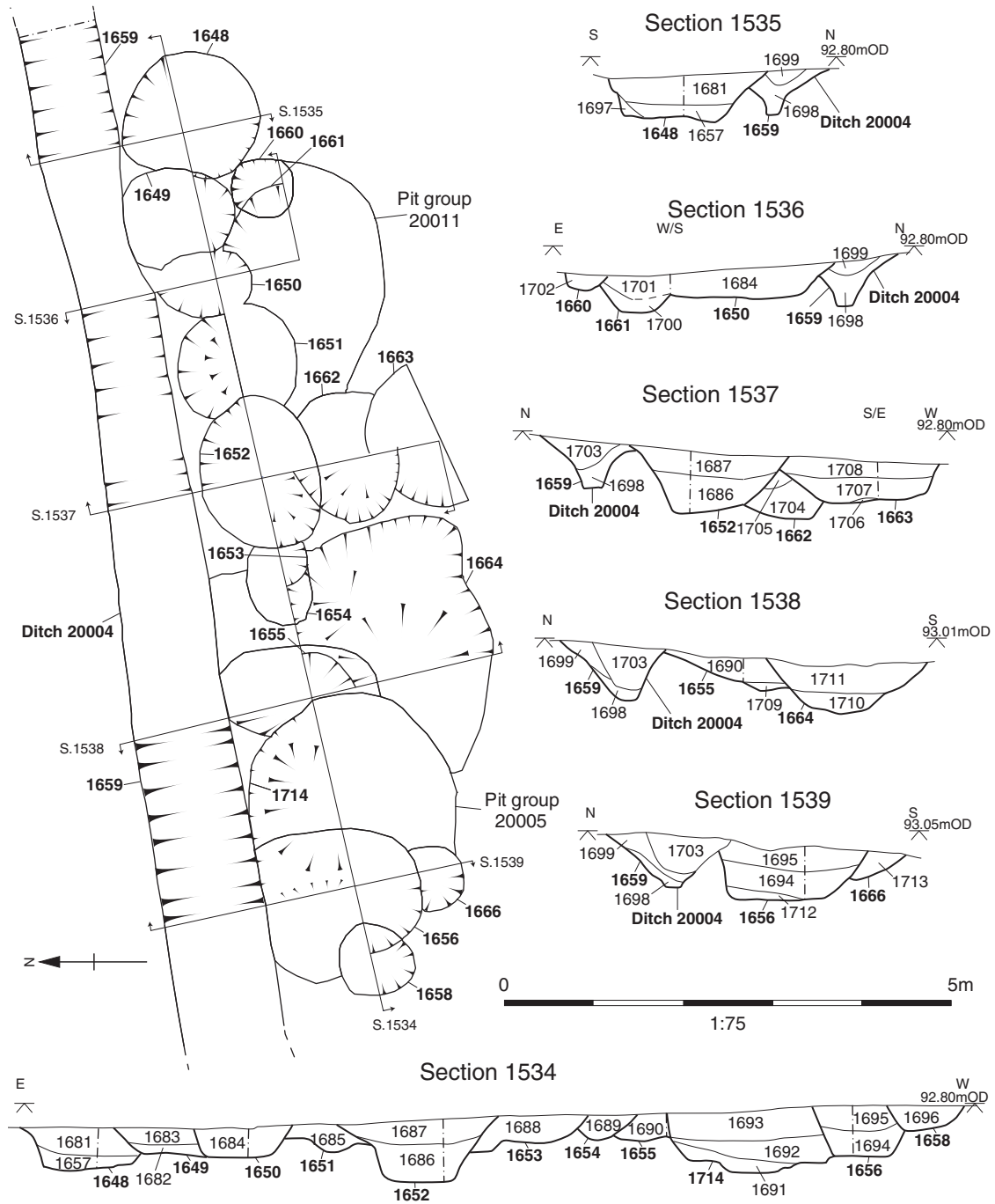


Figure 8: Plan and sections of pit groups 20005 and 2011

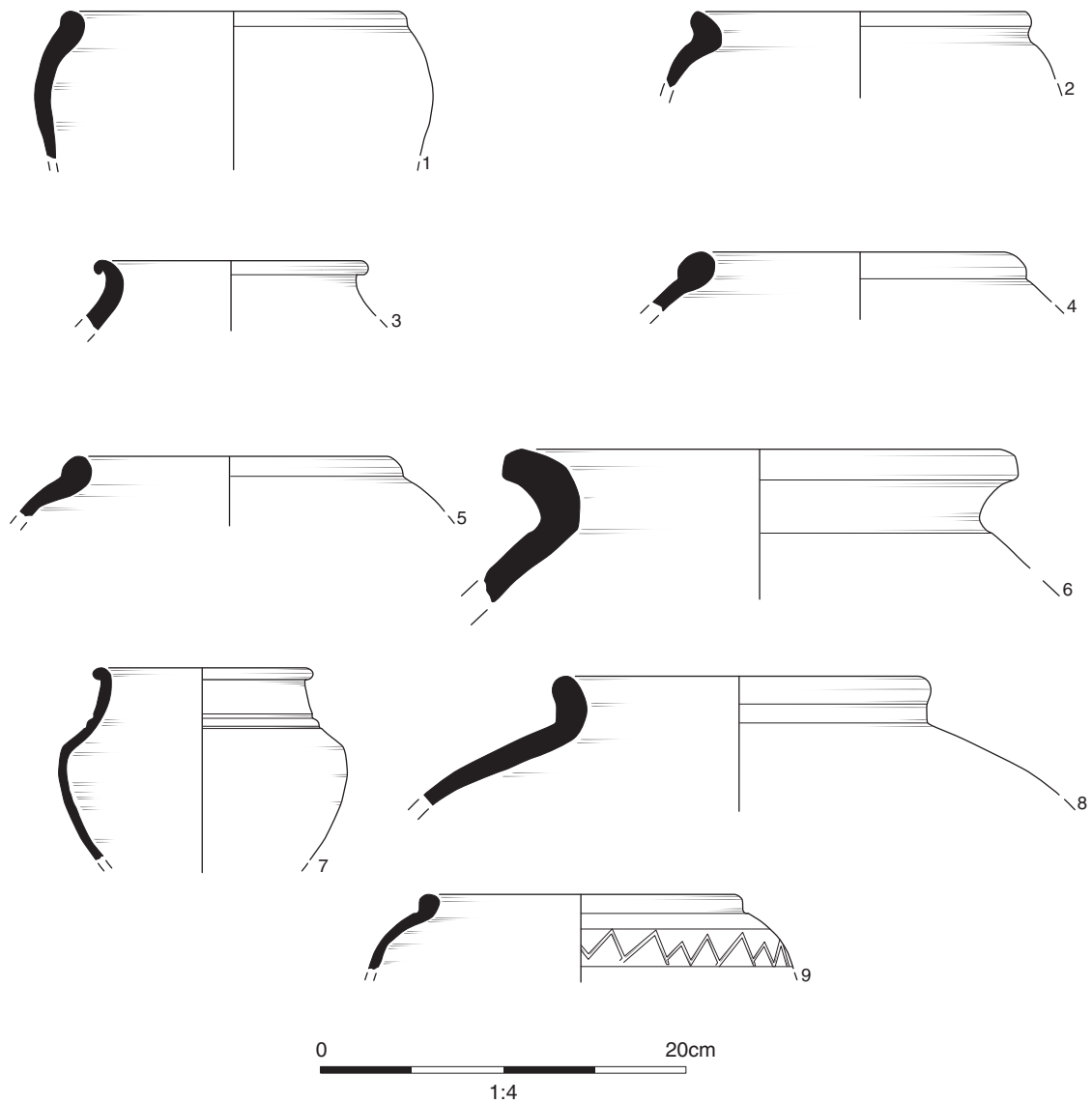


Figure 9: Roman pottery



Figure 10: The iron sulphide nodule



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