PUBLICATION REPORT FOR WILTSHIRE ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND NATURAL HISTORY MAGAZINE

A LATE NEOLITHIC / EARLY BRONZE AGE ENCLOSURE AND IRON AGE AND ROMANO-BRITISH SETTLEMENT AT LATTON LANDS, WILTSHIRE

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SUMMARY

Prehistoric and Roman remains were exposed during fieldwork undertaken by Oxford Archaeology in advance of gravel extraction. An isolated oval enclosure (PRN 621) dating to the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age may have had a ritual function. An extensive early Iron Age settlement complex included a number of roundhouses associated with pits, waterholes, four-post structures and animal burials. Middle Iron Age activity included a series of penannular gullies superseded by a major boundary ditch, field system and enclosures. During the late Iron Age or early Roman period the boundary was modified and a group of enclosures constructed. Later in this period, inhumation and cremation burials, including an unusual partially burnt burial, were interred in the fill of the major late Iron Age enclosure. The excavation also exposed the northern part of a scheduled Romano-British settlement site (SAM

899), which lay to the south of Ermin Street. Roman trackways, quarries, enclosures, pits and inhumation and cremation burials were recorded. Medieval ridge and furrow and post-medieval ditches transected the prehistoric and Roman sites.

LOCATION, GEOLOGY AND TOPOGRAPHY (Figure 1)

The site is situated in north Wiltshire, to the east of the River Churn, north-west of Cricklade and approximately 8 km to the south-east of Cirencester (Figure 1). The development site, a quarry owned by Cotswold Aggregates, covered an area of 14 ha close to Cerney Wick, north-west of the village of Latton, centred upon NGR SU 085 961. The site represents a significant element of a wider archaeological landscape lying between the old A419 road (Ermin Street Roman road) to the north-east, a scheduled Romano-British settlement (SAM 899) to the south and a Bronze Age settlement to the west (Stansbie and Laws 2004). It is within the landscape study area investigated as a series of projects now forming the Cotswold Water Park Project (Miles *et al.* 2007). The underlying geology is First Gravel Terrace of the River Thames, forming a relatively flat topography at approximately 82 m OD. The gravels overlie fossiliferous Jurassic Kellaways clay and sand, calcareous sandstone and Cornbrash limestone of the Great Oolite Group, and Forest Marble clays lie 2 km to the north-west.

EXCAVATION METHODOLOGY

The site was excavated in four stages of work between 2001 and 2004. Each area was stripped of soil cover to the level of the archaeological horizon or the gravel geology using a mechanical excavator, and the exposed surface hand-cleaned. All visible features were planned and recorded and a sample of features hand-excavated. The aim of the excavation was to establish relationships between intercutting features and to investigate structures. Controlled mechanical excavation of larger features such as waterholes and ditches was undertaken where fills were relatively sterile. Soil cover was removed over half of a late Neolithic/early Bronze Age oval enclosure in order to examine surviving features, which were recorded prior to excavation of the remaining part. The excavated area and major features are shown in Figure 2.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Archaeological evidence from the wider landscape indicates human occupation from the Palaeolithic to the present day. Pre-Neolithic evidence includes an Acheulian handaxe found in the Latton area (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 15) and Mesolithic flints discovered close to Cerney Wick (CAT 1991a, 69).

Evidence for the early Neolithic is sparse, with activity apparently concentrated in the uplands of the Cotswolds, Corallian Ridge and Berkshire Downs (Darvill 1987, 46; Holgate 1988, 150). Evidence of middle Neolithic activity has been found on several lower gravel terrace sites, including Cotswold Community (OA 2003) and Horcott Pit (Lamdin-Whymark *et al.* forthcoming). Dispersed flint scatters from Norcote Farm and St Augustine's Farm South (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 23–5) and from earlier fieldwork

at Latton (Stansbie and Laws 2004) also attest to activity during this period. Evidence for the late Neolithic and early Bronze Age is more widespread and includes an oval enclosure south-west of Westfield Farm (CAT 1991b, 44–5) and a similar enclosure south-east of Latton within Scheduled Ancient Monument 900 (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 7). The oval ditched enclosure (PRN 621) within the current site was discovered by cropmark survey. Late Neolithic settlement activity has been investigated at several Second Gravel Terrace sites in the Lechlade area, some 10 km to the east (Darvill *et al.* 1986; Allen *et al.* 1993, 9–15).

Evidence of late Neolithic and early Bronze Age activity discovered on the First Gravel Terrace at Horcott Pit and Cotswold Community and a widespread distribution of round barrows and ring ditches in the Thames Valley generally indicates extensive Bronze Age occupation in the area (Barclay and Glass 1996; Darvill 1987, 95–114). A group of ring ditches east of Preston and an adjoining pair at St Augustine's Farm South were investigated by Oxford Archaeology (Mudd *et al.* 1999). Recent excavations at Cotswold Community west of Latton Lands produced evidence of Bronze Age settlement (OA 2004). In the immediate vicinity of the site Bronze Age monuments and features include a ring ditch (PRN 624) and the middle Bronze Age settlement enclosure adjacent to the present site (Stansbie and Laws 2004).

There is extensive evidence for Iron Age activity in the Upper Thames Valley. An early Iron Age settlement at Cotswold Community included post-built structures, waterholes and pits (OA 2003) and late Bronze Age / early Iron Age settlement sites have been investigated in and around Lechlade (OAU 2001). Middle Iron Age sites, concentrated on the Upper Thames river gravels, include Shorncote Quarry (Brossler

et al. 2002), Cotswold Community, Ashton Keynes (Powell *et al*. 2008), Horcott (Pine and Preston 2004) and Thornhill Farm (Jennings *et al*. 2004).

The late Iron Age complex at Bagendon, widely regarded as the centre of the Dobunnic tribal polity (Mudd *et al*. 1999, 7), lies to the north-west of the site. Settlements have been investigated at Claydon Pike, Fairford, Neigh Bridge, Ashton Keynes and Cotswold Community west of Latton, as well as within the immediate vicinity of the present site. A sub-rectangular enclosure (Wilts. SMR SU09NE201) lies within SAM 899 and Iron Age pottery was recovered nearby (CAT 1991b, 74–5). The Iron Age settlements at Claydon Pike and Ashton Keynes demonstrate continuity of activity from the late Iron Age to the Roman period. Cirencester functioned as military fort and *civitas* capital (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 7) and Ermin Street was constructed shortly after the conquest. The site lies within this centre of activity adjacent to the Romano-British settlement site (SAM 899). Aerial photographic survey shows an Iron Age and Romano-British field system occupying a large area to the south and west of the site, elements of which were exposed at Latton 'Roman Pond' and Westfield Farm (Mudd *et al*. 1999; Figure 3). An area adjacent to the site encompasses quarry pits, ditches and trackways related to the construction of Ermin Street. One large ditch may represent the southern *fossatum* (Wessex Archaeology 1998). A topographical survey identified a possible camber of the road at the north-west limit of the site (Barber 1993). Romano-British settlement activity has been identified at Field Barn, Neigh Bridge, Weaver's Bridge near Cricklade, Witpit Copse, Preston and Worm's Farm, Siddington to the north of the site.

Evidence of Saxon activity includes a small quantity of pottery and a headland at the Latton 'Roman Pond' site (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 9) and at Ashton Keynes (Powell *et al.* 2008). The medieval settlement pattern resembles that of the present day. A possible deserted settlement lies between Preston and Witpit Copse (Mudd *et al.* 1999) and there is cartographic evidence that houses at Latton lay to the west of Ermin Street, with plots running back to the River Churn (*ibid*). Medieval and post-medieval ridge and furrow and field boundary ditches cover extensive parts of the site and 12th–15th century AD pottery has been recovered from the area.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

Little stratigraphic evidence survived the extreme plough damage at Latton and there was differential preservation of features beneath the headlands and furrows of the extensive ridge and furrow crossing the site. This was particularly obvious in relation to the late Neolithic / early Bronze Age enclosure (below). Phasing has therefore relied largely on pottery and other datable artefacts. Nonetheless, where possible, the chronological sequence has been based on stratigraphic and spatial relationships. Phases are approximate and it is likely that the Iron Age settlements would have evolved gradually (Lambrick and Allen 2004).

Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age (Figures 4–7)

The only structural evidence for early prehistoric activity was an oval ditched enclosure (2255, PRN 621) situated in the south-western part of the site, isolated from the foci of later prehistoric occupation (Figure 4). All that survived medieval and later

plough damage was the truncated remains of ditches 2560 and 2561 and two discrete features (2259 and 2398) on the same alignment. Together these formed a discontinuous oval. No trace of a bank was visible either side of the enclosure or within the ditch fills (Figure 5).

The enclosed area measured 12 m x 9 m and two opposing causewayed entrances were identified. Terminals 2258 and 2509 defined a northern entrance and discontinuity on the southern side may signify a multiple, modified or blocked entrance represented by features 2259 and 2398. The depths and fills of these features were similar to the main ditches and feature 2259 produced early Bronze Age pottery contemporary with that from elsewhere in the enclosure.

Ditches 2560 and 2561 were 2.5 m wide and 0.5 m deep with a flat base. A primary fill of eroded and trampled natural gravel was sealed by a series of clay silts, alluvial deposits resulting from seasonal flooding. The terminals had a more complex fill sequence including deliberately placed burnt material and artefacts.

The main ditches produced only small quantities of abraded pottery, worked flint and fragments of cattle and sheep/goat bone, but more distinctive artefacts were found close to the terminals. Close to terminal 2258 a complete miniature vessel (‘pygmy cup’, Figure 6) and a Beaker period worked flint (Figure 7) lay upon a deposit of soil containing considerable quantities of oak and ash charcoal (2547) and were covered by another burnt deposit (2544) (Figure 5). ‘Pygmy cups’ are generally found as accessory vessels accompanying cremation burials of the early second millennium cal BC, but no cremated bone was identified in this case. Oak charcoal was also present

in the fill of the opposing terminal (2509) above natural silts and below an upper alluvial fill. The eastern terminal of the southern entrance produced decorated pottery sherds belonging to an Aldbourne cup (Figure 4; Figure 26, no. 2), and a cattle skull was found in the opposing terminal.

A shallow scoop (2443) within the enclosure contained abundant oak charcoal fragments. Spreads of charcoal elsewhere within the enclosure were probably the truncated remains of even shallower features. Their function was unclear and they produced no artefacts, but they were probably associated with the enclosure. Two small postholes (2393 and 2397) within the enclosed area may also have represented contemporary activity.

Although the original construction date of the enclosure is uncertain the miniature vessel, Aldbourne cup and worked flint indicate an early Bronze Age date for the filling of the ditches. Five radiocarbon dates obtained on elder, hazelnut shell and Maloideae charcoal, which lay below and above the 'pygmy cup', and blackthorn charcoal from terminal 2258 confirmed that the backfilling of the ditch started in 2020–1690 cal BC (95% probability; boundary start infilling ditch: Figure 35) and probably 1900–1720 cal BC (68% probability) (Griffiths and Marshall below; Table 14).

Other evidence of late Neolithic and early Bronze Age activity at the site was limited to a scatter of residual worked flints from later features.

Structure 2501

North-south aligned double posthole alignment 2501 lay *c* 35m east of enclosure 2255. It was 10 m long and 2.5 m wide and represented by 10 postholes, none of which produced finds. These were of similar size, *c* 0.35 m in diameter and 0.15–0.20 m deep, with the exception of 2458, which was 0.62 m in diameter and 2452, more accurately described as a stakehole. The alignment was not demonstrably related to other activity but its proximity to enclosure 2255 in an area otherwise devoid of archaeological features suggests contemporaneity.

Early Iron Age Settlements (Figures 8–14)

The Iron Age occupation sequence could not be precisely defined due to high levels of truncation, limited stratigraphy and, in some cases, paucity of dating material. Much of the pottery was fragmentary and other dateable artefacts rare. Nonetheless, morphological and spatial evidence provided a basic chronological framework.

Early Iron Age settlement activity was represented by at least 12 post-built roundhouses with associated pits, waterholes and four-post structures. A multitude of other postholes could not be assigned to structures or phases. Settlement activity was concentrated in three areas, one forming an east-west linear arrangement in the north-western corner of the site, one within the central part of the site, and the other to the east of the central area. Three apparently isolated roundhouses, 4020, 3008 and 2554 and a few pits and posthole groups located close to the north, west and south limits of excavation may have belonged to settlement foci lying beyond the excavated area. It was not clear whether the early Iron Age settlement groups were contemporary or represented several phases of occupation.

The best-preserved roundhouses were 7–10 m in diameter with south-east facing entrances, some with porches and central hearths. The structural postholes were 0.25–0.50 m diameter and up to 0.30 m deep. Porch postholes were generally at the larger end of the range and those defining roundhouse 2760 were exceptionally large. Pits and animal burials located close to some of the roundhouses were probably contemporary.

The early Iron Age settlement groups are described by area below.

Northern settlement area (Figure 8)

Roundhouses 3349, 2842 and 4007 lay in an arc in the north-western part of the site. Roundhouse 3349 was 8.9 m in diameter, represented by 17 postholes and the remnant of a scooped hearth containing ashy fill. Five main ring posts were 0.30 m in diameter and 0.5 m deep, interspersed with double settings of smaller posts *c* 0.20 m diameter, two of which produced Iron Age pottery. The south-east facing entrance lay outside the excavated area. The partial skeleton of a calf was buried in pit 3907 just to the north of the structure.

Roundhouse 4007 was represented by seven postholes, one of which produced later prehistoric sherds, animal bone, burnt stone and an iron nail and a second contained 21 early Iron Age sherds. The skeleton of a calf (3461) was found in rectangular pit 3460, immediately to the north-west of the structure.

Roundhouse 2842 was 8 m in diameter and comprised 19 postholes, four belonging to a 2 m-wide south-east facing porch. Post-pipes were visible in all of the postholes and the porch features were slightly wider and deeper than the rest. The post-pipe of one produced early Iron Age pottery and another contained residual Neolithic sherds.

Four-post structures are common on sites in the Upper Thames Valley and are generally thought to have been grain stores or drying platforms associated with agricultural activity (Lambrick and Allen 2004). Several were identified at Latton Lands, the most convincing examples within the northern area. They ranged from 2.2–4 m square, most at the larger end of the range, with postholes generally *c* 0.25–0.5 m in diameter. In several cases, postholes had been recut, suggesting maintenance of structures, possibly over several decades.

At least six four-post structures were arranged in an arc, which may have included waterhole 3165 (below), running between roundhouses 2842 and 3349. Structure 2845 lay immediately to the north of roundhouse 2842. It was *c* 3 m square and the postholes were 0.22 m deep. The eastern postholes, 2856 and 2864, had either been recut or were strengthened by ancillary posts. Three of these produced early Iron Age pottery. Structure 2844, just to the east, was also 3 m square. Posthole 2852 of this structure had been recut and its fill included charcoal and a few fragments of animal bone but no dateable finds.

A posthole cluster (2841) lay to the east of 2844. At least two four-post structures, 3410 and 4006, were identified within this group. Structure 4006 was *c* 3.5 m square and 3410 slightly smaller. Neither produced finds. The function of other postholes in

this group was unclear but some may have been associated with waterhole 3165. Posthole 3040 produced a single early Iron Age sherd. A row of three unexcavated four-post structures (3195, 2843 and 3196) completed the arc, running southwards from the waterhole.

Four-post structures 3107, 4023, 3197, 3485, 4024, 3486 and 4005 also occupied an extensive area to the north and west of roundhouses 2842 and 3349. They formed a roughly double alignment running east-west, possibly incorporating waterhole 3878 (below) at the eastern end. They may not have all been contemporary but the fills of most containined small quantities of charcoal. The postholes of 3107 were larger than the others at 0.5–0.8 m diameter. Posthole 3103 of this structure was probably recut and postholes 3101, 3103 and 3105 contained large packing stones, some burnt. Another four-poster may have lain within an unexcavated cluster of postholes (3201).

Structure 3485 was relatively large at 4 m square, and two of the postholes had been recut or offset by ancillary posts. Postholes 3358 and 3364 produced Iron Age pottery. The recut (3360) of the south-western posthole contained the articulated partial skeleton of a dog with a fractured foot. A group of features (4024) probably belonged to a six-post structure of which the southern postholes were recut. No finds were recovered from this feature. Structure 4005 lay immediately to the south of waterhole 3878/3881. It was 4 m square and three of the four postholes preserved post-pipes 0.20–0.30 m across. Structure 3486 was a small four-poster just over 2 m square. Several of the postholes had been recut and an Iron Age sherd was recovered from one.

Two animal burials (3441 and 3367) lay within 1 m of each other in this area in steep-cut pits *c* 0.85 m x 0.5 m. Both were articulated remains of juvenile ungulates, probably cattle, with limbs tightly flexed. The similarity and location of these burials suggests they were contemporary.

Two waterholes (3881 and 3165) were dug and filled during the early Iron Age (Figure 9). Waterhole 3881 was 4 m x 2.2 m and 0.9 m deep, filled with a series of clay and gravel tips, some representing collapse, others deliberate dumps incorporating early Iron Age pottery and animal bone. A quartzite saddle quern (SF303, Figure 33) was placed within the levelling fill when the waterhole went out of use. It was recut later in the early Iron Age by waterhole 3878, 4.7 m x 3.5 m and 1.15 m deep with an access slope on the northern side, possibly designed for watering livestock. The lower fills produced 43 sherds of early Iron Age pottery but later pottery from the upper fills suggest that the waterhole continued to fill during the middle Iron Age pottery. Waterhole 3165 was filled with a series of clayey silts, some slumped from the sides. Deliberate backfill deposits contained small quantities of early Iron Age pottery, animal bone and burnt limestone. It was recut during the middle Iron Age by pit / waterhole 3192.

Central settlement area (Figure 10)

Roundhouse 2760 was a focus of early Iron Age activity in this part of the site. It had a substantially built east-facing porch and, at 9.5 m diameter, was one of the largest houses (Figure 12). The post-ring was made up of 14 postholes, some double or recut. Eight postholes of the main circuit produced early Iron Age pottery and the

assemblages from postholes 2771 (43 sherds) and 2782 (24 sherds) were particularly large. Early Iron Age sherds were also recovered from the surface of unexcavated features in the porch area. The northern porch posthole, 2814, was 1.76 m x 1.5 m across and 0.65 m deep and produced a large quantity of early Iron Age pottery. A shallow intercutting posthole, 2817, probably held an ancillary post. The post-ring enclosed several features that probably held internal supports, including posthole 2765 which produced 26 early Iron Age sherds. A complete juvenile horse was buried in a small pit (2785) immediately behind the roundhouse. Occurrences of juvenile horses are uncommon on early Iron Age sites, suggesting this may have been an important structure.

A possible roundhouse (3200) was identified to the south of 2760. The post-ring enclosed several internal features, including a relatively deep posthole, the lower fill of which contained two early Iron Age sherds. Another posthole produced burnt animal bone. The remains of a central hearth (3017) included ashy material containing early Iron Age pottery.

Two curvilinear ditch segments (2800 and 2947) may be truncated remains of a small ditched enclosure (3203) with a 13 m gap at the north-eastern corner. Ditch 2800 was 1.2 m wide and 0.5 m deep and had filled by natural silting. It was cut at right angles by a small ditch (2810), possibly an internal division boundary, which contained fragments of animal bone. Ditch 2947 was 0.48 m wide and contained a dark fill with charcoal, burnt limestone and sherds of early Iron Age pottery. The western terminal was cut by a small oval pit (2932), which contained Iron Age pottery and an iron spiked loop of possible Roman date.

A number of unexcavated postholes and a small pit (2929) lay within the enclosure. The pit was 0.95 m in diameter and 0.62 m deep. A dump of clay with charcoal and burnt limestone, probably the remains of a hearth or oven, lay on its base, sealed by deposits of clay silt with charcoal, interspersed with eroded silts and gravels. Early Iron Age pottery was recovered from the lower fills and middle Iron Age sherds from the upper deposits, suggesting that the pit may have been open from the early Iron Age into the early middle Iron Age.

Four-post structures 3193, 3194, 3198 and 2895 (Figure 10) identified within the central settlement may have been contemporary with roundhouses 2760 and 3200 and/or 'enclosure' 3203. Only structure 2895 was excavated. It was 2 m x 2.5 m in size and represented by five postholes, one a recut. Four postholes produced early Iron Age pottery, but a small sherd of middle Iron Age pottery from recut 2891, which also produced a clay loomweight fragment, suggests maintenance over a long period or a middle rather than early Iron Age date.

A group of small pits (2724, 2727, 2730 and 2733) on an east-west alignment to the north of 'enclosure' 3203 were 0.50–0.90 m in diameter and 0.3 m deep, with flat bases. They contained similar fills of naturally eroded gravel and clayey silts. Pit 2733 produced a single early Iron Age sherd, but the proximity and alignment suggests the pits were contemporary.

Intercutting pits 2713 and 2719 lay *c* 15 m to the east of the pit alignment in an area of intensive Roman quarrying. Pit 2713 was exceptionally large for this phase at 3.1m

in diameter and 0.82 m deep. It may have been a Roman quarry backfilled with Iron Age settlement debris obtained from middens in the vicinity as Iron Age sherds were scattered throughout the fill.

Eastern settlement area (Figure 11)

Plough damage in the eastern part of the site was particularly severe and preservation of structural evidence poor. However, early Iron Age occupation was evident in a concentration of features, including two roundhouses (1829 and 1878) and two possible ancillary structures (1912 and 1914).

Roundhouse 1829 was, at 10 m diameter, the largest on the site (Figures 11 and 13). It was represented by an outer ring of 21 postholes, a central support posthole (1825), and a 2.5 m-wide south-east facing porch with double posts, an unusual arrangement for the region. The inner porch postholes (1810 and 1817) were substantial features, 0.60 m and 0.72 m in diameter. Unusually, post-pipes survived in most of the postholes (Figure 13). A group of 31 early Iron Age sherds and burnt animal bone was found in the post-pipe (1702) of entrance post 1762. This may have been a deliberate deposit marking the construction or decommissioning of the building. A shallow pit (1822) abutting the central post had probably been dug while the post was in place, cutting only the packing. It contained redeposited charcoal fragments and ash, probably the sweepings of a hearth. A wide shallow pit (1575) immediately outside of the back wall contained early Iron Age pottery and was probably associated with the roundhouse.

A semi-circular arrangement of nine postholes and a central feature (1737) was all that survived of structure 1878. Feature 1737 was 0.75 m in diameter and 0.17 m deep and contained a gravelly fill with refitting sherds of a shell-tempered early Iron Age carinated jar (Figure 26, no. 5). The jar may have been set into a recess in the floor as a storage container or the large sherds may have been used as a hearth base.

Structure 1912, represented by an arc of eight postholes, may have been a small roundhouse, the southern half removed by ploughing, or an ancillary oval or boat-shaped building such as the workshop hypothesised at Farmoor (Lambrick and Robinson 1979). One of its postholes produced early Iron Age sherds. Structure 1914 was represented only by an arc of five postholes enclosing a possible hearth (1885) containing burnt stone, flint, fired clay and charcoal. Charcoal was also noted in two of the structural postholes. Although no dating evidence was recovered from this structure, its proximity suggests that it was broadly contemporary.

A group of three postholes to the south of roundhouse 1912 may be the remains of a four-post structure (2143) with the north-east posthole missing. A small posthole at the north-west corner may have supported a ladder. Pottery of broadly Iron Age date was recovered from one of the postholes.

A cluster of 39 postholes lay to the south of structure 1914. Similarities in shape and fills suggested contemporaneity and a possible structure and fenceline were identified. Seven large, relatively deep postholes arranged in two parallel lines (2062) probably represented elements of four-post structures, as rectangular structures are unusual for the period and region. The post-pipes contained sufficient charcoal to suggest that the

posts had been burnt, and early Iron Age pottery was recovered from three of them. The fence (2063) was a north-south alignment of at least eight postholes. It may have respected 2062, although three postholes crossed 2062 and may have been a northern extension of the fence. Small sherds of broadly Iron Age date were recovered from two of the postholes.

Another posthole alignment (1845) was 40 m long, the southern end possibly removed by late Iron Age activity. The 15 surviving postholes contained similar fills but only a single Iron Age sherd was found in a posthole at the southern end of the alignment. The diameter range of the postholes was 0.4–0.76 m, and the depth up to 0.40 m, with notable consistency of size in the least truncated area.

A north-south alignment of seven postholes (1911; Figure 24), which lay within the Roman settlement area, may represent an eastern boundary for the early Iron Age settlement as one of the postholes produced pottery of that date. It was traced for 12 m, but continued northwards beyond the site limit.

Isolated roundhouses

Northern roundhouse (Figure 18)

Roundhouse 4020, located close to the north-west limit of excavation, was 8 m in diameter with a south-east facing porch. The post ring comprised 13 postholes, and a further two held porch posts. Three of the ring postholes produced a few early or broadly Iron Age sherds. Conjoining fragments in shell-tempered ware from posthole

3848 appear to belong to a straight-walled vessel of middle Iron Age type, but classification was uncertain and the balance of evidence suggests the structure was early Iron Age.

An alignment of three postholes (4021) running southwards from the porch may have belonged to a fence of the type common at the nearby site of Cotswold Community (OA 2006). The postholes produced Iron Age pottery and fired clay fragments. A small outdoor oven (3567) just to the south of the roundhouse contained 22 fragments (874 g) of an oven plate.

Western roundhouse (Figures 8 and 12)

Roundhouse 3008 was 8.5 m in diameter with a 2.5 m-wide south-east facing porch. Plough damage was severe but at least 13 postholes were identified. The porch postholes appeared to accommodate both a large and a smaller, ancillary post. Four early Iron Age sherds and fragments of fired clay were found in one of the porch postholes, which also contained significant amounts of charcoal, suggesting the structure had been burnt.

Southern roundhouse (Figures 10 and 12)

Roundhouse 2554, which lay at the southern edge of the site, was relatively small at 7.35 m diameter. Eleven postholes of the main circuit survived and a larger posthole (2515) represented one side of a south-east facing porch. Several postholes produced pottery of broadly Iron Age date. Posthole 2484 immediately to the west of the

structure may have held a supporting post. An internal feature (2512) may have held a support post or could have been the remnant of a hearth.

Pit group

A cluster of pits occupying the south-west corner of the site (Figure 14) produced an unusually large collection of early Iron Age pottery. Three small pits of similar size (2579, 2582 and 2585) were aligned approximately northeast-southwest. Pit 2582 and pit 2585 were 0.48 m in diameter and pit 2579 was 0.66 m across. Pit 2589 was larger at 0.8 m diameter and located to the south-east of this group. All had vertical sides and flat bases and were *c*. 0.35 m deep. Pits 2582 and 2585 had filled naturally and produced no finds. The larger pits had a more complex fill sequence, including charcoal tips and early Iron Age pottery. Another small pit (2565) 0.50 m in diameter and 0.34 m deep was located 25 m to the south of this group. Part of a decorated late Bronze Age / early Iron Age jar (SF238; Figure 26, no. 6) lay on its side within the main, secondary fill. Given the position of these pits close to oval enclosure 2255 and the unusually large amount of pottery recovered from some, it seems that this location retained an enduring significance in the prehistoric landscape.

Middle Iron Age Activity (Figures 15–20)

Two phases of middle Iron Age activity were identified, but it was not possible to phase all features due to limited stratigraphy and sparse dating evidence. The period has, therefore, been considered as a totality, and the chronological sequence indicated where possible.

During the first phase the early Iron Age roundhouses were abandoned and a series of penannular enclosures dug in the central area of the site. A subsequent change in land use was reflected by the construction of a major north-south aligned boundary ditch complex that bisected the central area of the site, cutting some of the penannular enclosures. An east-west aligned boundary complex running across the northern part of the site was almost certainly a return of the north-south boundary, but the corner lay outside of the excavated area (see Figure 2). A number of smaller enclosures and other features were associated with these boundaries.

Central area – penannular gully enclosures (Figure 15)

Penannular gully enclosures in their subsoil manifestation are best seen as drainage gullies which may have represented roundhouses or enclosures with an alternative function, such as agricultural pens (Lambrick and Allen 2004, 128). The Latton examples may have been either (or both) as no clear evidence of standing structures survived within them. Some enclosed postholes showed no obvious structural arrangement, with the exception of those within gully 2309, while others were devoid of internal features, possibly as a result of truncation.

The penannular enclosures occupying the central part of the site were aligned roughly north-south. This orientation was clearly reflected in the subsequent alignment of the major linear boundary ditch complex (2353/2945/3202 below). They varied in plan from circular to oval and the gullies had filled through natural erosion and alluviation and contained little occupation material. They generally survived to a depth of no

more than 0.4 m. Dating evidence was limited to a few sherds of pottery from some of the gullies, sufficient to indicate that they were filled during the middle rather than the early Iron Age. Some of the enclosures were superseded by later versions, which did not generally respect the position and orientation of the originals.

Intercutting enclosures 2949 and 2950 predated the main north-south boundary ditch (2945). Gully 2949 produced a few sherds of middle Iron Age date and, although it was stratigraphically earlier than 2950, it is likely that they were constructed in fairly rapid succession. Enclosure 2949 was 9.5 m in diameter with an east-facing entrance gap. Enclosure 2950 was oval, 7.5 m across and also open to the east.

The stratigraphic relationship between enclosures 2896 and 2897 was unclear but they were also probably dug within a short time of each other. Enclosure 2897 was 12 m in diameter with a south or south-east facing entrance. Enclosure 2896 was 13 m across and, unusually, opened to the north-west. Pottery of broadly Iron Age date and a few fragments of animal bone were recovered from the fill.

Enclosure 1280 produced no dating evidence but was cut by boundary ditch 2945, placing it within the earlier middle Iron Age phase. It was 11 m across with an east-facing entrance. The south terminal was cut by or contemporary with a small pit (1182), which contained a complete horse skull, possibly a votive deposit.

Two penannular enclosures lay to the north of this group, both cut by boundary ditch 2945. Enclosure 2916 was 8 m across with a 7 m wide east-facing entrance gap. The secondary fill of the gully incorporated charcoal, burnt limestone, animal bone and

middle Iron Age pottery. It enclosed a number of small, unexcavated features, probably postholes. Enclosure 2946 survived as a discontinuous curvilinear gully open to the west, also cut by ditch 2945. The upper fill incorporated charcoal and animal bone fragments. A surface scatter of 25 early and middle Iron Age sherds was recovered from the vicinity, brought up by ploughing across the gully.

The dating evidence for enclosure 3205 was ambiguous due to high levels of disturbance by ploughing and a medieval ditch. It was represented by the northern span of a curvilinear gully and an opposing gully, which may have been the southern arc. The northern gully produced no finds and apparent east- and west-facing gaps were probably the result of differential survival. The southern gully was 0.47–0.8 m wide and the upper fill produced occupation material, including 22 late Iron Age sherds, animal bone, fired clay and burnt stone. Despite the presence of late Iron Age pottery, which may have been introduced through later levelling or ploughing, the position of the two gullies and their similarity to others in the vicinity suggest that they were broadly contemporary with the middle Iron Age enclosures.

Gully 2309, to the south of the group, was cut by the later boundary ditch 2553. It was 12.5 m across with a south-east facing entrance gap. The gully enclosed a cluster of seven postholes of similar dimensions, which probably supported a structure. One of the postholes produced animal bone and a single late Iron Age sherd.

Field Boundaries/Trackways (Figures 15 and 16)

A major north-south boundary ditch complex (2353/2945/3202) superseded the penannular enclosures. The northern end was cut as a dogleg to accommodate the former site of roundhouse 2760, by this time the site of oval enclosure 2951 (below). There was an entrance through the main ditch, south of which the boundary is referred to as 2353. It continued northwards as 2945, and beyond the dogleg was numbered 3202. The northernmost stretch became a double parallel ditch, possibly a trackway of the type found at Slade Farm, Bicester (Ellis *et al*. 2000, 261). Ditch 3202 probably linked to an east-west aligned ditch complex (4001/4002) that transected the north-western part of the site.

Ditch 2353 was more substantial feature than the other elements of the boundary complex, up to 1.6 m wide and 0.60 m deep. Ditch 2945 (Figure 16) survived to 1.1 m wide and 0.3 m deep, whilst ditch 3202 was only 0.3 m wide and 0.11 m deep. The profiles were mostly U-shaped, with V-profile variants notable particularly where the boundary alignment changed.

The fill sequences of the ditches varied, partly relative to surviving depth. Ditch 3202 contained a single silty fill whereas 2945 contained a gravelly primary fill produced by slumping of the sides, sealed by a secondary erosion fill of clay silt. An exception to this was seen in one excavated section (2364) which contained eight distinct fills, evidence for recutting and maintenance along some stretches of the boundary. The upper fills throughout the length of the boundary produced middle Iron Age pottery.

The southern part of ditch 2353 was recut later in the middle Iron Age, in some places as a diverging feature (Figure 16). The recuts were shallower than the original

features but produced larger quantities of middle Iron Age pottery. A few late Iron Age sherds indicate that the ditches survived as hollows, perhaps even continuing as boundaries during this period. Evidence of recutting ceased at the point where 2353 intersected east-west ditch 2306 (below).

An elaborate gateway across boundary ditch 2353/2945 was marked by three recut or double postholes (1107/1110, 1160/1162 and 1150/1152) and antenna gullies 1310 and 2136. The entrance was 8 m across and the gullies formed a 5 m-wide funnel-shaped passage. The postholes survived to depths of only 0.2 m and 0.36 m, and their indistinguishable dark clay silt fills suggested a double post arrangement. The southern sets of postholes contained middle Iron Age pottery and posthole 1110 also produced animal bone, fired clay and burnt flint. A cluster of small intercutting postholes (1150) on the north side of the entrance produced no finds but may have supported an associated structure or marker.

Gully 1310 was 9.5 m long and produced middle Iron Age pottery. Gully 2136 extended 9 m from posthole 1107/1110 and contained burnt stone and animal bone. A shallow pit/posthole (1444) which also contained burnt stone, lay midway between the eastern gully terminals and was probably part of the entrance structure.

The entrance was flanked to the north and south with corresponding curvilinear ditches, 1309 and 2139, which extended eastwards from the main boundary ditch. A shorter ditch, 2306, on the same alignment and to the south of 1309 was no doubt related and the three together may have formed a stock control structure associated with the entrance complex. Similar structures have been recorded at Penycoed, Dyfed

(Murphy 1985) and Spratsgate Lane, Somerford Keynes, Gloucestershire (Vallender 2007).

Ditch 1309 lay 25 m to the south of the entrance. It was 1 m wide and 0.32 m deep. The main fill contained charcoal and burnt limestone, and middle Iron Age pottery was collected from the top fill. Truncation obscured the relationship between the terminal of the ditch and late Iron Age enclosure 1285. Ditch 2306 was 0.4 m deep and the main fill produced middle Iron Age pottery, animal bone, burnt limestone and comminuted charcoal. A shallow pit (1132) containing similar material lay adjacent to the ditch and may have been a related feature.

Ditch 2139, 30 m to the north of the entrance, was *c* 21 m long but disturbed by a medieval plough furrow, beyond which point it continued south as a double ditch. These were 0.45 m wide and *c* 0.35 m deep with V-shaped profiles. They produced animal bone fragments but no pottery. Their southern terminals were cut by or contiguous with enclosure 1442 (below), their fills indistinguishable.

North of the entrance complex, where the major boundary ditch changed alignment to become 2945, a series of short parallel ditches running 1 m alongside the western edge may be remains of a parallel trackway ditch. Further along its length ditch 2945 became a double and triple ditched feature (3202). One of these short ditches contained middle Iron Age pottery and cut penannular gully 2916, providing evidence for the sequence. These counter-ditches may have been recuts of 2945 or may have been designed to enhance the boundary in the vicinity of enclosure 2951. The ditch complex ran northwards beyond the limits of excavation but may have continued as

gully/ditch 3792 which skirted a series of middle Iron Age penannular enclosures in the northern part of the site (Figure 18).

Enclosure 3991 lay 15 m to the east of the major middle Iron Age boundary complex (Figures 2 and 11). It was represented by a north-south ditch traced for 150 m within the excavated area, with a poorly preserved eastward return at the southern end. A 14 m gap in the southern return continued eastward as three parallel ditches. Although the gap may have been a product of plough damage, the profile of the ditches changed beyond this point. Ditch 3991 was V-shaped, 0.2–0.4 m wide and up to 0.23 m deep. The parallel ditches were wider, shallower and flat-based and may have been an addition or modification to the enclosure. No dating evidence was recovered from any of these features and the spatial relationship with the concentration of early Iron Age settlement features is probably coincidental. Whilst it is possible that the enclosure was constructed concurrently with the early Iron Age settlement it may have been part of the major middle Iron Age realignment (above).

Central area – enclosures (Figures 15–17)

The common occurrence of middle and late Iron Age enclosures on sites in the Upper Thames Valley Iron Age (Lambrick and Allen 2004) is reflected at Latton Lands. A number of ditched enclosures of various sizes and shapes were constructed here during the middle Iron Age, most of them associated with major boundaries.

Four such enclosures were exposed immediately to the east of the entrance through boundary 2353/2945 (Figures 15 and 16). Enclosures 1258, 1442 and 3204 may have

been contemporary elements of a single complex. Ring-gully 1277 was completely different morphologically and was probably slightly later.

The largest (1258) was horseshoe-shaped and open to the north. It enclosed an area of 34 m x 25 m and a 2 m gap in the western ditch corresponded with the position of the entrance through boundary 2353/2945. The ditch was *c* 1 m wide and 0.4 m deep, the profile V-shaped and the entrance terminals expanded (Figure 17). The fill produced animal bone, burnt stone and residual worked flint flakes but no dateable artefacts. However, it was was cut by late Iron Age enclosure 1285 (Figures 2 and 21) and appears, on spatial evidence, to have been broadly contemporary with enclosure 1442 to the north.

Enclosure 1442 resembled 1258 in shape and alignment and was set within its northern opening. It enclosed an area *c* 20 m x 24 m. A possible western entrance was disturbed by Roman quarrying. The ditch was 1 m wide and 0.32 m deep, with a V-shaped profile. The naturally eroded fill produced a few animal bone fragments and sherds of middle and late Iron Age pottery.

A small penannular enclosure (3204) with a south-east entrance lay to the north of enclosure 1442. It was *c* 14 m in diameter and the ditch was 0.8 m wide and 0.43 m deep, recut on the south-west side. The upper fill contained animal bone fragments and middle Iron Age pottery, suggesting that this enclosure was broadly contemporary with enclosure complex 1258/1442.

Ring-gully 1277, which cut the western arm of enclosure 1258, produced middle Iron Age pottery and was cut by two late Iron Age pits (1270 and 1127). It enclosed an

area 10.1 m in diameter, with no evidence of an entrance, and may have been the site of a roundhouse. The V-shaped gully was 0.34 m wide and 0.2 m deep, and the single fill contained scraps of animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. The eastern side of the gully was recut as 1279 and also contained middle Iron Age pottery. A number of features enclosed by the ring-gully may have been contemporary, including shallow oval pit 1131, which contained burnt and unburnt animal bone, charcoal and middle Iron Age pottery. Analysis of the charred plant remains suggested that material including the by-products of cereal processing, possible animal fodder and hawthorn charcoal from a hearth had been disposed of in this pit. Other internal features may have formed a structure within the gully. These included two recut postholes at the western side of the enclosure which produced middle Iron Age sherds.

A large subrectangular ditched enclosure (2951) lay within a dogleg formed by boundary ditches 2945/3202 and occupied the former position of early Iron Age roundhouse 2760. The siting was probably not coincidental and suggests that the location had retained a significance over a prolonged period. The enclosed area was 33 m x 26.5 m and an entrance may have been located in the unexcavated north-east corner. The ditch was 0.42–1 m wide and 0.19–0.3 m deep with a U-shaped profile (Figure 17). The fills contained burnt limestone, animal bone and a substantial quantity of early and middle Iron Age pottery, probably a dump of domestic waste.

Central area – pits and posthole groups (Figure 15 and 20)

A number of other features were associated with boundary complex 2353/2945/3202. A group of pits and slots located adjacent to 2353 represented outdoor domestic or

light industrial activity, perhaps ovens or small corndriers constructed away from the main area of occupation.

Two small oval pits (2334 and 2338) flanked the western side of ditch 2352 where it intersected 2306. Both contained charcoal, burnt limestone and animal bone and 2338 also produced middle Iron Age pottery. A group of features lying immediately adjacent on the east side of the boundary included two small pits, which produced a similar range of finds. Two small intersecting linear features (2307 and 2308) which cut boundary ditch 2306 contained a dark silty fill with charcoal, burnt limestone and middle Iron Age pottery. A similar feature (2352), 2 m long and 0.4 m deep, contained burnt material and 54 sherds of early and middle Iron Age pottery.

An isolated oval pit (1289; Figures 15 and 20), located north-east of enclosures 1258 and 1442, was 1.6 m x 1.1 m and 0.35 m deep with steep sides and a flat base. It contained a thin layer of dense black charcoal (1700) and small-scale burnt oven/hearth material incorporating a few middle Iron Age sherds. An upper fill of charcoal rich soil (1290) produced animal bone. A substantial amount of charred emmer and smaller amounts of spelt/emmer, barley and an oat grain and hazelnut shell were also recovered. Radiocarbon measurements obtained on two samples of emmer wheat produced statistically consistent results ($T'=0.2$; $\nu=1$; $T'(5\%)=3.8$; Ward and Wilson 1978) of 340–40 cal BC (SUERC-12226) and 200 cal BC–cal AD 20 (GrA-33708). This feature was probably a small corn drying oven, probably contemporary with late Iron Age enclosure 1285 (below) rather than the middle Iron Age activity.

Pit 2918, which lay within the most southern dogleg corner of ditch 2945, was 1.8 m in diameter and 0.92 m deep with vertical sides and a flat base. A charcoal-rich fill (2921) contained middle Iron Age pottery. The charcoal was alder, which does not burn well, but produces good charcoal for activities such as metalworking (Challinor this report). A clay-lined pit (3009), to the south of enclosure 2951, was 0.9 m in diameter and 0.2 m deep with a flat base. It contained a silty fill with charcoal fragments, burnt stone and a few Iron Age sherds; a vertical stakehole 0.05 m in diameter penetrated both fills. Its function was unclear but it may also have been associated with metalworking.

Waterhole 3192, located towards the northern end of the site, recut early Iron Age feature 3165 (Figures 8 and 9). It was 3.7 m across and 1.35 m deep and the lower fills contained charcoal, burnt stone, animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. Fill 3181 also produced fired clay, and a Kimmeridge shale armlet roughout (SF268, Figure 19) was recovered from fill 3170. The roughout probably originated in Dorset as a knife-trimmed blank for lathe-finishing on site. The presence of a complete roughout is significant and could indicate trade links with Dorset during the late middle Iron Age (Laws 1991, 368–9). The waterhole was recut again later in the middle Iron Age by waterhole 3126 to a depth of 0.75 m. The fill produced burnt stone, charcoal, animal bone, middle Iron Age pottery and fired clay. Fill 3128 produced a nail (SF266) and a crucible fragment (SF265). It was clearly used at the end of its life as a receptacle for structural debris and domestic and industrial waste.

Northern area (Figure 18)

Northern field system

A major focus of middle Iron Age activity was exposed north of double ditch 4001/4002, the east-west extension of boundary ditch 2353/2945/3002. It was represented by a group of enclosures and other features which produced evidence of metalworking. The level of truncation in this area was such that stratigraphic relationships were heavily obscured.

Ditches 4001 and 4002 were traced for 130 m and 160 m respectively within excavated area. They overlapped for a distance of 23 m and it is likely that one ditch replaced the other, but the relationship was unclear and both produced middle Iron Age pottery. Beyond the point of overlap they were therefore separately numbered 3384 and 3387. By extension of the alignment ditch 3387 probably corresponds to 4002 and 3384 to 4001. The dating evidence indicates the entire complex was middle Iron Age.

The western ends of 4001 and 4002 were severely disturbed by medieval and post-medieval ploughing, and their profiles indistinct. Ditch 4001 changed alignment within this disturbed area from northwest-southeast to east-west, beyond which point it straightened at 1.4 m wide and up to 0.4 m deep. The main fill was a clay silt containing small quantities of burnt limestone and pottery. Several groups of shallow intercutting gullies (3432/3434/3832, 3093/3208 and 3207/3161) at the western end of ditch 4001 may be earlier boundary ditches, as 4001 cut them on the same alignment. Gullies 3093 and 3208 produced middle Iron Age pottery (a deposit of 48 sherds in the case of 3208) and burnt limestone fragments.

Ditch 4002 was a more uniform feature than 4001, 0.7 m to 1.5 m wide and up to 0.4 m deep, narrowing slightly to the east (Figure 16). The upper clay silt fills also contained burnt limestone and pottery. A shattered early 2nd century Roman jar recovered from upper fill 3898 at the eastern end of the ditch probably came from an unrecognised feature cut into the ditch, perhaps a truncated urned cremation burial, but no bone was recovered. Evidence of Romano-British activity was sparse in this part of the site, but Ermin Street lay only some 150 m to the north and the practice of burying the dead close to roadsides is well documented.

Ditches 3387 and 3384 were *c* 0.8–1.3 wide and up to 0.4 m deep with steeply sloping sides and a flat base. The fill of both produced relatively large quantities of finds, including animal bone, burnt limestone and early and middle Iron Age pottery.

L-shaped ditch 3206 formed a rectilinear enclosure south of ditch 4002 at the western end of the site. It was 1.3 m wide and 0.2 m deep and the naturally eroded fill produced no finds, but a shallow pit (3014) which cut it produced a middle Iron Age sherd. On the eastern side of the site two small parallel ditches (3448 and 4013) divided the area north of boundary 3384/3387. They produced similar pottery to the large ditch complex, and were probably contemporary field divisions aligned upon it.

Ditch 3448 was 1.1 m wide and 0.44 m deep with a V-shaped profile. It contained animal bone and early and middle Iron Age pottery. Ditch 4013 lay 55 m north of 3448 and some 65 m to the north of major boundary 4001/4002. It was 2.12 m wide and 0.6 m deep with a flat base. The main fill was an alluvial clay silt containing

charcoal and burnt stone, animal bone, fired clay and pottery. The eastern end of the ditch transected an oval enclosure (3955, below) but the relationship was unclear. This part of the ditch was recut and the primary fill of the recut produced 19 sherds of middle Iron Age pottery. A dump of burnt material in the upper fill included charcoal, burnt stone, fired clay and early Iron Age pottery, probably the residue of minor industrial processes such as metalworking.

Northern enclosures

A series of small round or oval enclosures surviving only as truncated curvilinear ditches lay within with the north-eastern field system. Not all produced dating evidence but, due to their spatial arrangement within a middle Iron Age field system and the occurrence of middle Iron Age pottery in some, they were collectively assigned to that period.

The southernmost enclosure comprised two opposing lengths of curvilinear gully (3588 / 3591), the former incorporating several small structural features. The two gullies may represent a large roundhouse *c* 16.5 m in diameter. Gully 3591 was 0.3 m wide and 0.09 m deep, and contained naturally accumulated silts incorporating a few Iron Age sherds. Gully 3558 was 1.2 m across and 0.2 m deep, and produced charcoal, burnt stone, slag and middle Iron Age pottery. Two shallow postholes (3542 and 3545), pit/posthole 3548 and pit 3491 were contiguous with the gully. Pit 3491 was 1.2 m across and 0.67 m deep, and its fills included two deliberate dumps of gravel. The upper fill (3492) produced pottery and a fragment of a triangular clay loomweight or oven brick.

Enclosure 3965 took the form of two opposing north-south aligned 0.4 m-wide curvilinear gullies, 0.12 m deep with V-shaped profiles. They produced no dateable material but mollusc evidence suggested the proximity of a herbaceous hedge. The eastern gully cut a 7 m-long gully (4010), also undated. Pit/posthole 3623, which lay adjacent to the southern terminal of the enclosure, was 0.75 m in diameter and 0.43 m deep, and produced pottery of broadly Iron Age date.

Enclosure 3960 to the north was open to the west and enclosed a presumably contemporary four-post structure (3628). The enclosure gully was 0.43 m wide and 0.12 m deep with a U-profile, and the single fill contained animal bone and ironworking slag. The gully was recut along its southern and eastern sides, indicating some degree of maintenance and longevity. The northern terminal, 3616, was filled with a dark silt containing burnt animal bone and stone, ironworking slag, an iron nail, copper alloy sheet fragments and 199 sherds of middle Iron Age pottery. Terminal 3616 cut a small pit (3619) which also produced burnt limestone, animal bone and Iron Age pottery.

The largest enclosure (3955) was oval in plan with possible entrances to the east and west. It enclosed an area 14 m wide and 17 m long and the gully was 0.9 m wide and 0.44 m deep. The fill of the southern gully was largely the product of collapse and alluviation, with evidence of recutting in the upper fill. It produced only a few middle Iron Age sherds. The fill of the northern segment, by contrast, produced dumps of burnt material, including charcoal, slag, burnt stone, fired clay, animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. Fill 3705 also produced worked antler, possibly an

unfinished toggle (Figure 34, no. 1). The gully cut two parallel east-west aligned ditches (4011 and 4012) which also contained middle Iron Age pottery. These may have been field boundaries predating the construction of the enclosure.

A large oval pit (3869) lay within enclosure 3955 (Figure 18). It was 1.42 m across and 1.04 m deep with sloping sides and a flat base. Deliberate dumps of sand and gravel lay on the base, below interspersed fills of naturally eroded silts and a large dump containing Iron Age pottery and animal bone. Two of the few bones of wild animal species from the site, a weasel and red deer, came from this pit. The charcoal-rich upper fill (3870/3872) incorporated ironworking slag, a small iron rod (SF302; Figure 32, no. 1) and a triangular cast copper alloy object (SF304), as well as animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. Carbonised blackthorn from this deposit was radiocarbon dated to the middle Iron Age, 400–210 cal BC (SUERC-12227) (Table 14). The skeleton of a crouched human neonate (3871) lay within or on top of this deposit, covered with a cleaner silty soil. The grave included no dateable artefacts but it was probably early Roman, placed within the subsidence hollow of a then still visible Iron Age pit. It was common practice during the Roman period to bury infants in shallow graves within non-mortuary settings, and its proximity of Ermin Street is notable.

A series of undated short linear gullies (3792) surrounding enclosure 3955 may have originally formed a continuous rectangular ditch, reduced by ploughing. Alternatively, the north-south stretch of this group may have been a northern extension of boundary complex 2945/3002. Two shallow recut postholes (3800/3824 and 3796/3822) probably mark a west-facing entrance into the enclosure/ditch system. The original

postholes (3822 and 3824) were 0.36 m in diameter and contained single fills of silty loam. The recuts (3800 and 3796) were 0.45 m and 0.67 m in diameter. Post-pipes filled with dark silty loam and burnt stone packing survived in these features, indicating a timber diameter of *c* 0.3–0.4 m. A group of gullies south of the small enclosures may have been part of rectangular enclosure 3792. Gully 3701 was 7.5 m long and produced animal bone and burnt stone. Gully 4009 was 0.6 m deep and contained no finds.

Short lengths of gully were common in this area and the ceramic, stratigraphic and spatial evidence suggests they were dug during the middle Iron Age. Curvilinear gully 4004 lay to the north of ditch 4001 and a group of short gullies (3844) ran north-south from ditch 4002. These produced burnt stone, animal bone and sherds of broadly Iron Age date. The presence of burnt stone may indicate they were middle Iron Age, as other well-dated features containing such material were of that date.

Pits and waterholes

Several middle Iron Age pits and waterholes were encountered in the northern settlement area. Waterhole 3574 (Figure 18) was 4 m in diameter and 0.9 m deep, with an access ramp on the south-east side. Its six fills represented a sequence of collapse, natural silting and deliberate dumps, which incorporated a few sherds of pottery, animal bone and burnt limestone. Although the pottery was early Iron Age, the location and the phasing of surrounding features suggests it was in use during the middle Iron Age. Feature 3713, to the west, may also have been a waterhole. It was 2.75 m across and 0.5 m deep with sloping sides and a ramp on the southern edge. It

produced burnt stone, animal bone, worked flint and early and middle Iron Age pottery.

Possible waterhole 3786 (Figure 20) lay within a part of the northern site somewhat devoid of activity, south of ditch 4013. It was 1.8 m in diameter and 1.1 m deep and contained dark, organic waterlogged fills, which produced burnt limestone and animal bone. The waterlogged plant assemblage included aquatic and damp ground species. Pit 3728 to the west was 2.6 m across and 0.54 m deep with near-vertical sides and a flat base. It produced pottery of broadly Iron Age date. Two smaller, shallow pits in the vicinity (3763 and 3761) contained single silty fills devoid of finds.

Three pits were excavated within the area of the oval enclosures. Subrectangular pit 3674 lay just north of enclosure 3960. It was 1.3 m x 0.75 m and 0.73 m deep and contained a dark, charcoal-rich fill (3672) incorporating slag (SF295), fragments of copper alloy (SF291, SF292, SF294) and burnt limestone, along with animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. Radiocarbon dating of blackthorn charcoal from this deposit produced a date of 390–170 cal BC (GrA-33510). It was cut by a small, shallow hollow (3637) which produced more slag, animal bone and a few Iron Age sherds.

A large well-defined pit (3745) was located north of enclosure 3955. It was 1.64 m in diameter at the top, narrowing to 1.08 m, at which point the sides were vertical to a depth of 1.4 m, with a flat base. The upper fills contained Roman pottery, two hammerstones (SF300 and SF301) and animal bone, the mix of finds indicating a high level of disturbance. A charcoal-rich fill containing burnt stone lay on the base, and

upper silts produced charcoal and burnt stone, animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery.

Pit 3774 was located immediately to the north of ditch 4001 at the western end of the site. It was 1.22 m in diameter, 0.97 m deep and produced a few pieces of burnt stone and Iron Age pottery.

Metalworking activity in the northern settlement (Figure 18)

Evidence of middle Iron Age metalworking was recovered from features in the northern settlement described above. The fills of the main boundary ditches (4001 and 4002) produced discarded burnt stone, hearth slag and fuel ash slag, and a crucible fragment. The hearths may have been used for both ironworking and copper alloy casting. Middle Iron Age waterhole 3192/3126 (above and Figure 9) also contained hearth slag, hearth lining and a crucible fragment.

Ditch 4002 cut an earlier pit (3915), 2.2 m in diameter and 0.95 m deep. The primary fill (3914) produced middle Iron Age pottery, fragments of horse or cattle skull and other animal bones. It also contained iron slag and burnt limestone associated with metalworking. The ditch was cut by another large pit (3091), 1.55 m in diameter and 1.07 m deep with vertical sides and a flat base. The primary eroded fills were overlain by a deliberate dump of clay silt (3087) incorporating middle Iron Age pottery. A subsequent episode of erosion was followed by the dumping of charcoal and burnt limestone (3085), which contained a few pieces of slag, middle Iron Age pottery and a few fragments of animal bone.

Enclosure gullies 3960 and 3955 also produced metalworking residues, as did pit 3869 within enclosure 3955. The assemblage from 3955 was particularly prolific, incorporating fuel ash, sintered sand, hearth slag and crucibles with copper corrosion – evidence of copper alloy casting (Morgan, below). Pit 3674, to the south of enclosure 3955, produced clear evidence of bronzeworking, including copper oxide and dross (Howarth and Powell, below). It seems that oak was used as fuel in addition to other species in the metalworking processes, as oak charcoal was found amongst the burnt debris in pits 3869 and 3674 (Challinor, below).

Late Iron Age/Early Roman Activity (Figure 21)

During the late Iron Age a large enclosure (1285) was constructed in the central area of the site, previously the focus of intense agricultural and domestic activity. At a later stage in the late Iron Age the entrance through middle Iron Age boundary ditch 2353/2945 was enhanced and a number of pits dug. Even later, sometime before the Roman conquest, several burials were inserted into the fill of the ditches of the by then abandoned enclosure.

Enclosures

Enclosure 1285 was represented by a large ditch with a 3.5 m-wide entrance gap to the north. It cut the southern side of middle Iron Age enclosure 1258 (see Figure 2). The enclosed area was *c* 35 m x 35 m in size, slightly wider at the north. The ditch, which was partly machine-excavated, had a V-shaped profile, generally 1 m wide but

expanding to 1.7 m in the south-western corner. Due to differential truncation, the depth varied from 0.07 m to 0.57 m. Most of the fills derived from gradual erosion. Posthole 1283 was cut adjacent to the western terminal at the enclosure entrance. It was 0.29 m in diameter and 0.17 m deep with steep sides and may have supported a gatepost.

A secondary fill of the north-west corner of the ditch produced a large assemblage of late Iron Age/early Roman pottery and the ditch fills generally contained small quantities of animal bone and burnt stone. A piece of metalworking slag (SF155) came from fill 1301 and fragments of copper alloy binding (SF153) from fill 1240. Overall, 51 sherds of late Iron Age/early Roman pottery and some residual pieces were recovered from the ditch.

Following a period of gradual silting the entire feature was recut to the same profile and generally on the same alignment, indicating a prolonged period of use and maintenance. The south-west and north-west corners were recut on a slightly different alignment, reducing the north-west part of the enclosure by up to 4 m. In most areas of the recut only a single naturally eroded silty fill was observed, but primary collapse material along some stretches produced animal bone, pottery and burnt stone. Fill 1196 produced fired clay and fill 1362 a lump of slag (SF165). Most of the pottery from the recut ditch was late Iron Age/early Roman, indicating the modification was not much later than the original construction.

Only two features were identified within the enclosed area, which may have been a livestock pen. But for the levels of plough damage, this could be taken to indicate a

total absence of structures. An oval pit (1345) in the north-east corner was 1.36 m long, 0.7 m wide and 0.57 m deep and its eroded fill produced no finds. A small posthole (1446) in the south-west corner was equally unproductive.

Ditch 2132

During the late Iron Age the entrance through the middle Iron Age major boundary complex was modified by the construction of ditch 2132, dug on an east-west alignment from the northern terminus of ditch 2353, at the southern side of the entranceway. The ditch was 17.5 m long, on a slight southwards curve, and terminated 2.5 m from enclosure 1285. It was generally *c* 1.5 m wide and 0.4–0.6 m deep, and contained fills of silty clay incorporating animal bone and pottery. Where the ditch adjoined 2353 the pottery was of varied date, indicating disturbance, but most was late Iron Age-early Roman. The position and alignment of 2132 suggests that the middle Iron Age boundary entrance was modified to provide access to enclosure 1285, and therefore that the boundary persisted as a landscape feature into the late Iron Age.

Pits

Three late Iron Age or early Roman pits, possibly contemporary with enclosure 1285, were cut through middle Iron Age features. Pits 1270 and 1127 cut ring gully 1277 (Figures 15 and 21). Pit 1270, 0.6 m in diameter and 0.45 m deep, had filled naturally and produced no finds. Pit 1127 was 0.7 m in diameter and 0.7 m deep with vertical sides. It had a single fill of burnt material, including limestone, animal bone and

pottery. The pottery assemblage (Figure 30, nos 22–27), dated to 75 BC–early 1st century AD, included a pre-conquest Dressel 1 amphora, sherds representing two barrel-shaped jars and two high-shouldered jars in grog-tempered ware. The large animal bone assemblage included horse, cattle and articulating elements of sheep/goat. The finds probably represented accumulated waste material rather than a votive deposit.

Oval pit 1282 (Figure 21) cut gully 2136, which formed part of the entrance through middle Iron Age boundary ditch 2353/2945. It was 1.9 m x 1 m and 0.62 m deep with steep sides and a flat base. In common with pit 1127, it produced a large quantity of late Iron Age-early Roman pottery, including four high-shouldered jars in grog-tempered ware, and animal bone, charcoal, fuel ash slag from domestic burning, burnt limestone and a worn limestone floor slab.

Burials (Figures 21–3)

Several burials were interred within the fills of enclosure ditch 1285 (Figure 21). Those excavated included two inhumation burials 1690 and 1668 (grave 1691) and 1694 (grave 1695), cremated bone deposits 1157 (grave 1158) and a partially cremated inhumation burial, 1100 (grave 1095).

Grave 1691 cut the south-east corner of the enclosure ditch. It was aligned approximately east-west, 1.9 m long and 0.6 m wide, surviving to a depth of 0.25 m with steep sides. It contained the poorly preserved skeleton of an adult male (1690) aged 24 to 30. The skeleton was crouched, head to the east, lying on its left side with

the left hand under the head. The fill of the grave produced a further deposit of burnt human bone (1668), also adult, and an Aucissa type brooch dated AD 43–70. The brooch was probably associated with 1690 but this uncertain.

Grave 1695 cut the south-west corner of the enclosure ditch. The irregular cut was aligned approximately north-south, 1.6 m long, 0.6 m wide and 0.78 m deep, with steep sides and a flat base. Skeleton 1694, an adult male over 40 years old, lay with its head to the north on its right side, the right arm extended and the left arm bent upwards and resting on the right arm, with the hand just under the chin and the legs bent, possibly upwards. No grave goods or other finds were present.

Cremation burial 1157 was contained within pit 1156/1158, which cut the western terminal (1389/1391) of the enclosure ditch. The pit was oval, aligned approximately east-west and measured 0.76 m by 0.49 m, with steep sides and a flat base, surviving to a depth of 0.32 m. The fill contained the partially burnt remains of an adult human and an unidentified animal. The human bone did not constitute an entire individual. The same fill contained a significant quantity of charcoal derived from Maloideae (hawthorn/apple/pear), possibly pyre debris. No finds were present but it is likely to be broadly contemporary with the other funerary deposits in the enclosure ditch.

Burial 1095 (Figure 23) contained the remains of a partially cremated individual (1100) indicated by radiocarbon analysis to be of pre-conquest date (93.2% probability). The grave was cut into the western side of enclosure ditch 1285 at the point where it intersected middle Iron Age ditch 1309. It was subrectangular, measuring 0.94 m x 0.58 m, and aligned approximately north-south with steep sides

that preserved evidence of burning. An iron knife fragment (SF168; Figure 32, no. 7), an Iron Age type which continued in use into the Roman period, lay on top of the primary fill (1554). Burnt timbers and charcoal (1104), perhaps the remains of a pyre, lay above this and the prone skeleton (1100) lay on top of this construction beneath two more burnt timbers. The timbers were rough-hewn, slightly chamfered planks of varying length, *c* 0.1 m wide and 0.02–0.04 m thick.

The bottom half of a shell-tempered jar (SF166; Figure 30, no. 28) rested on the charcoal layer beneath the pelvis. The pot, sooted but unburnt, was incomplete at the time of deposition, forming an open vessel from which a burnt timber (1572) protruded. Articulated foot bones and a tibia lay on top of this timber. The skeleton was an adult male over 40 years old. Two fills overlay the burial, the lower of which (1097) contained a significant amount of cremation debris and pottery dating from the mid 1st century to early 2nd century AD. The upper fill (1096) was redeposited natural containing bones from skeleton 1100 in addition to animal bone and late 1st century-early 2nd century AD pottery. The disposition of the body parts and timbers and the presence of post-conquest pottery in the upper fill suggest that the grave was disturbed, probably by Roman quarrying or medieval ploughing.

The Romano-British Settlement (Figure 24)

With the exception of a few isolated features, Roman period activity was concentrated in the eastern end of the site, directly to the north of the Romano-British settlement site (SAM 899) and south of Ermin Street. A network of trackways, enclosures, pits and quarries was dated on ceramic evidence to the 2nd century AD, with a small

number of later features. This indicates a chronological gap in activity between the late Iron Age/early Roman burials to the west and the eastern settlement, although Ermin Street was built in the 1st century AD and some evidence of 1st century AD activity was identified.

The survival of stratigraphy in the Romano-British settlement area was far superior to that observed in the Iron Age settlements but the pottery indicates that most features were dug over a short period. Consequently, whilst the order of construction was often clear, detailed phasing was not always possible.

Ditches and Trackways

Roman activity was represented by two alignments of features belonging to different phases. A long northwest-southeast aligned boundary complex (2146/2154) divided an area of dense activity to the south (which included enclosures, pits and two cremation burials) from a more open area to the north, crossed by trackways and boundary ditches. An inhumation burial was found in the northern area, *c* 80 m to the south of Ermin Street.

Early Ditches

Ditch 1000 extended from the southern edge of the site northwestwards for 40 m. It was 0.85 m wide and 0.3 m deep and the upper fill produced early 2nd century pottery. A long ditch (2146/2154) transected the eastern part of the site, running northwest-southeast for at least 200 m. It was 0.6 m wide and 0.25 m deep and the fill

of eroded silts produced small quantities of animal bone and 2nd century pottery. The southern end diverged into a series of overlapping segments, collectively numbered 2154.

Trackways 3940 and 986

At some point after these ditches had silted up, trackway 986 was constructed across them on a northeast-southwest alignment. It was represented by parallel ditches 2167 to the west and 2160 to the east. Ditch 2167 was 1 m wide and 0.5 m deep and the upper fill produced 22 sherds of 2nd century pottery and a few pieces of animal bone. Parallel ditch 2160 extended beyond the limits of excavation. It was 4.7 m wide, narrowing to the north to 1.3 m, and 0.12–0.62 m, deep. The naturally eroded fill produced animal bone, ceramic building material and early-mid 2nd century sherds. This trackway intersected another (3945) but the relationship was unclear.

An L-shaped ditch (1496) also cut ditch 2146/2154. It was 1 m wide and 0.5 m deep and contained a single silty fill, which produced early 2nd century-late 3rd century pottery.

Trackway complex 3940 lay on the same alignment as 986 *c* 65 m to the west. It comprised four ditches arranged in two parallel groups 5 m apart, the ditches within each group 2 m to 3 m apart. The eastern element included ditches 2155 and 2156, *c* 03 m deep. Outer ditch 2155 was 1 m wide and inner ditch 2156 was 2 m wide. Both contained a gravelly silt fill incorporating animal bone, 2nd-late 3rd century pottery, and burnt limestone. Ditch 2155 cut two east-west aligned ditches (923 and 927). The

western trackway was represented by outer ditch 2158 and inner ditch 2157. Ditch 2157 was 1 m wide, 0.3 m deep and produced mid 2nd century pottery. Ditch 2158 was a maximum of 1.76 m wide and 0.56 m deep and produced animal bone and pottery of broadly Roman date.

Trackway ditch 2158 was cut by gullies 879 and 2159, which belonged to complex 3950, four roughly parallel gullies in the southern part of the site. The southernmost gully (2159) was 21 m long and contained a single fill which produced animal bone, early 2nd to late 4th century pottery and a coin (SF202) of the house of Constantine (AD 330–341). This material may have been intrusive or the gully complex a late addition. Gully 879 was 0.9 m wide and 0.4 m deep and the lower fill produced 2nd century pottery. The other two gullies belonging to this group (2149 and 2166) did not impinge on trackway 3940, but they cut small quarry pits 902 and 898, demonstrating that the complex post-dated a period of quarrying.

Trackways 2150, 3945 and ditch 1667

An undated north-south aligned ditch (1667) ran between trackway complexes 3940 and 986. It was 1.4 m wide and 0.52 m deep and the eroded silty fill produced a sherd of middle Iron Age pottery. It reflected the alignment of the Iron Age posthole row (1911) and may have been contemporary with it. The southern end of this ditch was cut by east-west trackway 2150. The northern ditch of the trackway was visible for 49 m and the southern ditch for 73 m. The southern ditch was 1.78 m wide and the northern ditch was 1 m wide and produced 1st-2nd century pottery and animal bone. The relationship between the southern ditch and trackways 986 and 3940 was not

established, but 960, which cut trackway 986, continued the alignment of 2150 and may have been an extension of it. Two parallel ditches (923 and 927), cut by trackway 3940, also followed the east-west alignment.

Trackway 3945 consisted of three parallel ditches aligned northwest-southeast, double ditches 2161 and 2162 to the west and single ditch 2163 to the east. All had filled naturally and none contained finds.

Ditch 810/969

A large north-south Roman ditch complex (810/969) traversed the eastern end of the excavated area. The northern part of ditch 810 was cut by a parallel ditch (812). Ditch 810 was 0.73 m wide and 0.13 m deep and its silty fill produced only worked flint. Ditch 812 was 2 m wide and 0.34 m deep and contained animal bone and pottery of broadly Roman date. Ditch 968 probably represented a part of 812. It was 1.12 m wide and 0.24 m deep and an upper fill (973) produced a very large assemblage (2338 sherds/20,716 g) of middle to late 2nd century pottery, probably a clearance dump. Additionally, 153 sherds of late 2nd century pottery were recovered from the lower fill (972). Ditch 968 was cut at either side by shallow gullies 977 and 969, which produced no finds.

Enclosures

A dense complex of features lay to the south of ditches 2146/2154, between trackways 986 and 3940. Enclosure 1458/1485 lay to the east of trackway 986 and

comprised a curvilinear ditch (1458) and a straight ditch (1485) which enclosed an area 8 m across. Ditch 1458, which contained a large dump of 2nd century pottery, cut a large feature 4 m in diameter and 0.8 m deep with sloping sides and a rounded base, probably a quarry, which contained three fills of natural silts and produced early 2nd century-late 3rd century pottery and ironworking slag. Ditch 1485 was 0.8 m wide and 0.2 m deep and its single clayey silt fill produced 2nd century pottery and a 1st-3rd century coin.

A larger enclosure to the east was represented by curvilinear ditch 3930, which cut north-south aligned linear ditch 3935, suggesting that a D-shaped enclosure was constructed against an existing ditch. The enclosed area measured 16.5 m north-south and 13.5 m east-west. Ditch 3930 was 1–1.35 m wide and 0.34 m deep and produced animal bone and mid 2nd century-early 3rd century pottery and a few later sherds of late 3rd century date, suggesting that it had remained open for a long period. Ditch 3935 was 1.3 m wide, 0.6 m deep and its upper fill produced 2nd century pottery and a coin of Hadrian (119–121 AD).

Ditch 3935 cut a row of pits, perhaps an earlier boundary following the alignment of Iron Age posthole row 1911 to the north. The pits produced some Roman pottery, probably introduced by the cutting of ditch 3935, but Iron Age sherds were also found in some, indicating activity of that date in the area. Pit 1010 lay within the enclosure. It was 1.6 m in diameter and 0.24 m deep and contained a gravelly primary fill and a dark clay silt fill (1011) which produced 77 sherds of mid to late 2nd century pottery, burnt material and a nail. This may have been a dump of hearth debris. The

environmental evidence indicated that the pit lay within an area where the water table was high and retained stagnant water (Robinson, below).

A possible drainage feature or sump (1013) was located at the northern end of the enclosure where ditches 3930 and 3935 joined. It was represented by a series of ditches 1 m wide and 0.3 m deep which fed into a steep-sided pit 1 m across and 0.8 m deep. The clay fill of this pit contained animal bone and late 2nd century pottery. Ditches 3930 and 1496 cut an irregular linear feature (1494) 5 m long and 0.42 m deep and two gullies (1583 and 1654). These features may all represent part of the drainage system from ditch 3930. Gully 936, an extension of the drainage system, produced an interesting finds assemblage comprising 145 sherds of 2nd century pottery, residual middle Iron Age pottery, animal bone and a selection of small finds. These included iron nail fragments and fittings, a copper alloy toiletry scoop and a worked bone counter or spacer (Figure 31, no. 2). Ditch 3930 was cut by pits 1488 and 1491, which contained cremated human bone (below).

Pits, postholes and linear features

A dense cluster of intersecting pits and gullies lying to the south of enclosure 3930/3935 were broadly contemporary features. These were of uncertain function but their proximity to gully complex 3950 and the ceramic evidence suggests they were associated with it. Several of the features contained large dumps of mid 2nd century-early 3rd century pottery.

A complex of shallow, intercutting pits located to the south of enclosure 3930 may have been small quarry hollows on the edge of the Romano-British settlement, gradually filled and levelled with domestic waste. They contained similar silty fills with deposits of charcoal and ash, and produced animal bone in significant quantities, along with 2nd–4th century pottery. A group of heavily disturbed features located between gullies 2159 and 2166 included a hollow which contained 2nd century pottery, tile and nail fragments, and a small pebble-lined pit, the upper fill of which produced animal bone, charcoal, brick and early 3rd-late 4th century pottery.

Burials

A coffined inhumation burial (1312/1314) lay to the west of ditch 2160 of trackway 986 on the north-western edge of the Romano-British settlement, south of Ermin Street (Figures 22 and 24). It was aligned northeast-southwest and measured 1.81 m x 0.53 m and 0.14 m deep. The skeleton (1314) was a young adult male aged 18–25. No wood survived but coffin fittings, iron nails and a rivetted iron strip (SF 156) were recovered from the fill (1313). The skeleton was extended and prone with the hands over the back of the pelvis, suggesting they had been tied. The burial may belong to the 'deviant' category, bearing in mind also the absence of grave goods. However, isolated burials along track- and roadways are common for the Roman period.

Pit 1488 was dug into the northern part of enclosure ditch 3930 (Figures 24–5). The pit was 0.8 m x 0.75 m and 0.26 m deep, and filled with a dark charcoal-rich deposit (1489) incorporating cremated adult human bone and unburnt animal bone. This feature was cut by a larger oval pit (1491), 1.7 m x 0.7 m (Figure 25). The pit base

was covered by a charcoal-rich layer (1493) containing cremated human bone and mid to late 2nd century sherds. This was sealed by 1492, a deliberate dump of silty clay.

Isolated ditches

Ditch 1025 extended north-south for a distance of 218 m at the western edge of the excavation (Figure 2). It was *c* 1.5 m wide and 0.35 m deep and transected early Iron Age features at the back of roundhouse 3008, cutting middle Iron Age ditch 3206 before continuing north beyond the excavated area, possibly to Ermin Street. Surface finds collected from the ditch included late Iron Age and Saxon pottery and Roman tile.

Ditch 3322 was located in the north-west corner of the site, aligned approximately north-south and extending beyond the northern limit of the site (Figure 2). It was 0.73 m wide and 0.11 m deep and contained a single eroded fill which produced fired clay and a sherd of Roman pottery. These ditches were isolated from concentrations of Roman activity but may indicate further Roman activity to the west, beyond the excavated area.

Quarrying activity

Much of the excavated area was pitted with small gravel extraction quarries, irregular pits and hollows of varying size. Most were concentrated in the central area occupied by the Iron Age settlement, but similar features were encountered in the north-western

Iron Age and eastern Romano-British settlements. The quarrying may have been associated with the construction and maintenance of Ermin Street.

A number of the quarries were investigated. Most survived to a depth of only 0.2–0.3 m and the fills varied across the site. The northern and central area quarries, dug through Iron Age features, had silted naturally and their fills produced a mix of Iron Age and Roman pottery, animal bone, residual flints and slag. Roundhouse 1829, in the central early Iron Age settlement and oval enclosure 3955 in the middle Iron Age settlement were particularly badly affected by quarrying. The quarry pits in the Romano-British settlement area were generally smaller and had largely been deliberately filled with gravel, clay and domestic debris.

Medieval and post-medieval activity

Three sherds of 5th–8th century AD handmade Anglo-Saxon pottery were recovered from the top of enclosure ditch 1285 and Roman ditch 1025. No later medieval pottery was recovered despite the extensive ridge and furrow crossing the site. The furrows measured up to *c* 160 m long and 10 m wide and the medieval field system had been completely realigned at least once.

Five post-medieval boundary ditches lay on a similar alignment to the ridge and furrow. Those examined were *c* 1 m wide and 0.2 m deep and produced no finds. Features associated with the nearby creamery were identified in the eastern part of the site. Most of the post-medieval pottery recovered was 17th and 18th century glazed earthenware. A fragment of a German Westerwold stoneware tankard of *c* 1650–1750

and one from a German Frechen stoneware drinking jug of *c* 1550–1650 were also identified. Four of the sherds were from plough furrows, the remainder from pit 2064. Post-medieval artefacts included two loop fasteners (SF183), a tongue-shaped strap-end (SF307), a fragment of a highly decorated strap-end (SF191), a token of Hans Krauwinkel (SF305), a quarter of a clipped silver coin (SF185) and an iron spade (SF299). All were probably casual losses.

FINDS

Prehistoric Pottery

By Emily Edwards

Introduction

A total of 2373 sherds (16,577 g) of prehistoric pottery was recovered, dating from the Neolithic to the middle Iron Age (Table 1). Previous excavations at Latton Lands produced a predominantly middle Bronze Age assemblage (Timby 2004b, 119–25).

Sherds representing at least 88 vessels were identified, the majority middle Iron Age jars. The earliest material was a group of body sherds belonging to plain Neolithic wares. Late Neolithic/early Bronze Age pottery included an Aldbourne Cup, a complete miniature accessory vessel (‘pygmy cup’) and a middle Bronze Age Deverel-Rimbury Bucket Urn. The condition of the assemblage is variable and the mean sherd weight only 6.9 g, due in part to the fragility of the shelly fabrics. Several

refitting sherds were noted but no complete profiles apart from the miniature vessel, and only one vessel was represented by more than 15 % of the rim.

Fabrics

Summary fabric descriptions are presented in Table 2 and quantified by group in Table 3. Table 4 presents a breakdown of fabric occurrence by date, based on dateable sherds. The fabrics generally reflect the local geology, and 56% of the pottery was manufactured using clays containing fossil shell, whilst minor fabric groups include oolitic limestone, flint and sand.

Table 4 demonstrates that use of fabrics during the Iron Age followed a distinctive pattern common in the area, and possibly culturally determined rather than function driven. All fabric groups correlated to at least some classifiable forms, allowing some level of attribution of fabrics to periods. In most cases where correlation was possible, sherds were from secure deposits, for example pits 3126 and 3878, facilitating a level of refinement for the dating of otherwise undiagnostic sherds. Nonetheless, in some cases it was not possible to date sherds precisely; hence the broad date ranges presented in Table 1.

For the late Bronze Age-earliest Iron Age, fabric S1 comprised 81% of the assemblage, the remainder consisting of S2 (15%) and S3 (2%). During the early Iron Age recipes using either sand (51%) or less densely shell-tempered S2 (41%) were used in equal measure (2% of sherds were manufactured from both). By the middle Iron Age 41% of sherds were made from fabrics containing both sand and shell, with

fabric S2 representing only 20% of the group. Limestone tempered (L1, L2), very coarse shell (S4, S5) and very fine, sparse shelly fabrics (S6) were noted only in combination with middle Iron Age forms, the former indicating non-local sources.

Procurement of Resources

The fabric proportions reflect the variation in the local geology. At least four different sources of clay were utilised: shelly Jurassic clay, clean Jurassic or gravel clay (to which the flint, grog and quartzite may have been added), Palaeozoic fabric and oolitic fabrics. Jurassic clays can be highly fossiliferous (as was the case at Latton) yet are often free from visible inclusions. This may explain not only the fossil shell fabrics but also that the earlier fabrics contained no added temper. It is not certain that the sand was naturally occurring within the potting clay utilised for the manufacture of these vessels. The Kellaways Clay is the most likely local source for sandy clay. It is sandy and iron-rich, which matches the characteristics of the sandy clays of the early Iron Age assemblage. Clays containing discreet ooliths may have derived from the Forest Marble clays to the north-west.

The terrace gravel clays at Latton may also have been utilised as potting clay, and may have provided flint used in the manufacture of some wares, although it is more likely that these were imported from the downland areas to the south. Given Arnold's model of raw materials procurement for pottery production (Arnold 1985), the majority of the Latton fabrics were procured from local sources. Groups 1, 3, 4 and 6–8 are likely to have been manufactured using locally procured materials. The flint and Palaeozoic fabrics (groups 2 and 5) are probably indicative of vessels imported from

the Wiltshire Downs and from the Malvern Hills or east Herefordshire respectively (Peacock 1968; Morris 1983).

Comparanda

The flint fabrics were difficult to characterise and date, as the sherds were small and worn. Flint is as ubiquitous in more southerly areas of Wiltshire as the shell fabrics are at Latton. Flint-tempered Globular Urn sherds were noted within the assemblage from the earlier excavations at Latton (Timby 2004b, 123) and coarser flint fabrics are typical of Bucket Urn, Post-Deverel-Rimbury and earlier Neolithic pottery. The use of grog, sand and untempered clay is typical of the early Bronze Age. The middle Bronze Age fabric was associated with one vessel decorated with a fingertipped cordon and is consistent with fabrics described by Timby (Timby 2004b, 121). Coarse shelly ware is ubiquitous in this region (Timby 2004a, 94). The Palaeozoic fabric appears in some quantity across the region from the end of the middle Iron Age (Timby 2004a, 107). It equates with Peacock's fabric B1 (Peacock 1968; Morris 1983) and, for these vessels, a source in the Malvern area or east Herefordshire is likely.

Forms

Vessel forms were classified according to general types (PCRG 1997, 34) for which Table 5 provides basic descriptions and quantifications. This demonstrates the presence of a common range of early and middle Iron Age forms, carinated jars and bowls predating globular, ovoid and straight vessels. A total of 47 vessels were

assigned a form type but only 26 had measurable rims, all except one represented by under 15 % of the complete rim.

The assemblage by phase

Late Neolithic/early Bronze Age

The late Neolithic/early Bronze Age assemblage comprises four sherds (13 g) recovered from the terminals (2381 and 2553) of oval enclosure ditch 2255 and pit 2259, which formed part of the southern entrance. These included two refitting sherds of a sand-tempered Aldbourne Cup (2382, terminal 2381; Figure 26, no. 2), a small, plain grog-tempered body sherd (2366, pit 2259) and an undecorated miniature vessel ('pygmy cup', 2546, terminal 2553, SF 236) 50 mm high and 35 mm in diameter. A small, simple rim (2382; Figure 26, no. 1) and a tiny plain body sherd (2 g), manufactured from a fine, sandy fabric may also be early Bronze Age. The Aldbourne Cup sherds are black, smoothed, and manufactured from a closed, inclusion-free fabric. They were decorated on one side with incised triangles and on the other with incised chevrons (P2). Both internal and external patterns are filled with deep holes, which in places almost pierce the sherds. This pattern is typical of Aldbourne Cups.

Aldbourne Cups are a rare type of accessory cup typically found in Wiltshire, almost exclusively accompanying early Bronze Age cremation burials, particularly disc barrows (Ford 1991, 180). The function of the enclosure is not clear but no human bone was found in association with any of the sherds. The site from which Aldbourne Cups take their name is the Aldbourne Barrow, one of four excavated by Canon

William Greenwell at the end of the 19th century at Sugar Hill, Aldbourne, near Hungerford in Berkshire. This was recovered from a cremation within a bowl barrow and is at the British Museum. Other examples came from the primary cremation burial from a twin disc barrow at Wimbourne St Giles, Dorset, a bowl barrow at Durrington, Wiltshire and a bowl barrow at Winterbourne Stoke, Wiltshire (Annable and Simpson 1964, 433, 473–4).

Fragments of Aldbourne Cups were recovered from a pit at Charnham Lane in Berkshire (Ford 1991, 179, fig. 1; Ford 2002, 78). The decoration on these sherds resembles the Latton example. Open, straight-walled miniature vessels of a similar tiny size to the Latton cup were recovered from a bowl barrow at Winterbourne Stoke Dorset and from the primary cremation of a bowl barrow at Avebury, Wiltshire Dorset (Annable and Simpson 1964, 451, 454).

Middle Bronze Age (1500–1150 cal BC)

The middle Bronze Age assemblage (7 sherds, 58 g) comprised a thick-walled body sherd from a jar decorated with a fingertipped cordon (Figure 26, no. 3), a squared rim and a few small broken sherds. These were recovered from the secondary fill (3602) of ditch 3599 and were manufactured from coarse shell-tempered fabric S2. The fingertipped cordon (P3) is a feature characteristic of middle Bronze Age Bucket Urns and common on vessels from earlier excavations at Latton Lands (Timby 2004, figs 17 and 18). The diagnostic sherds were relatively well preserved although little of the vessel was represented. Other sherds recovered from this fill were probably of later date and the cordoned jar, therefore, residual or curated.

Middle Bronze Age pottery is scarce in the region. The assemblage recovered from the earlier excavations at Latton included cordoned Buckets Urns and coarse shell fabrics (Timby 2004b, 119–22). Recent excavations at Shorncote and Roughground Farm recovered Deverel-Rimbury assemblages from funerary and non-funerary sites. Sherds of possible middle Bronze Age date were recovered from features associated with segmented ditches at St Augustine's Farm South and St Augustine's Lane (Barclay 1999, 319).

Late Bronze Age (1150–950 cal BC)

Seven late Bronze Age sherds were recovered from sole or primary fills of pits 1586 and 1649 and the upper fill of ditch 2976. These were relatively thick-walled (*c* 10 mm) and manufactured from fabrics containing variable quantities of fine to coarse flint and sand. Other than fabric, only one diagnostic characteristic, a gritted base, was noted. These are a feature characteristic of late Bronze Age plain ware pottery.

Earliest Iron Age (950–500 cal BC)

A total of 283 sherds (1734 g; a minimum of seven vessels) of earliest Iron Age pottery was recovered from 16 contexts within ditches, ditch terminals, postholes and pits. The majority of forms (five) were carinated jars but a decorated bipartite bowl was also identified. The fine S1 fabric was used to manufacture the carinated jars whilst the biconical bowl was in a fine A1 fabric.

An isolated pit (2566), which lay some 30 m to the north-west of oval enclosure 2255, produced refitting fragments of a carinated jar (Figure 26, no. 6). Neck and shoulder sherds of another carinated jar (Figure 26, no. 5) came from a possible hearth (1737) within roundhouse 1878. The decorated bowl was a surface find from the proximity of roundhouse 2842 (Figure 26, no. 4).

The predominant fabrics used in the manufacture of earliest Iron Age pottery were S1 and S2, surface treatment was restricted to smoothing and little preference for smoothing vessels of either fabric type was noted. Decoration was rare but included fingertipping on rims and shoulders of carinated jars and incised and hanging triangles with white infill on the bipartite bowl. Six body sherds had burnt residue adhering.

The general condition of this group was fair, with an average weight of 7 g. Four rims from two vessels were identified; one was large enough to allow measurement of estimated vessel equivalents. Despite the paucity of rims, 53 % of the sherds were attributable to forms and 56 % were diagnostic sherds. These forms and types of decoration are a feature of the early All Cannnings Cross style (Brown 2003, 172; Gingell and Morris 2000, 165), the bipartite bowl resembling Morris' type 1 and the jars Morris' type 51.

All Cannings Cross type pottery is often associated with special deposits, and one carinated jar (Figure 26, no. 5) was recovered from a central feature within a roundhouse. At Horcott Pit, where settlement radically changed after the early Iron Age, pits containing earliest Iron Age pottery were sited inside and opposite the doorways of roundhouses. Similar deposits have been found at Dunston Park (Morris

and Mepham 1995, 77–89) in the Thames Valley, Knight's Farm in the Kennet Valley (Bradley *et al.* 1980), Uffington White Horse (Brown 2003, 174) in Oxfordshire, Potterne (Gingell and Morris 2000, 136–78) and Longbridge Deverill in Wiltshire (Hawkes 1994), where refired pottery was found within a roundhouse.

Early Iron Age (600–300 cal BC)

A total of 169 early Iron Age sherds (1404 g; minimum 24 vessels) was recovered from 18 features, including pits, postholes, waterholes and ditches. The range of fabrics was wider than for previous phases, but two sand fabrics and S2 predominated. Eleven forms were identified. Jars (six vessels) were carinated or slack-shouldered, with simple T-shaped and externally flared rims; bowls (six vessels) had either flared rims or were biconical and closed. Shell-tempered sherds (five refitting) from pit 1970 are from two lids (not illustrated), both thin-walled and flat with slightly raised centres.

Apart from one small red-finished body sherd, surface treatment was restricted to smoothing and no sherds of this date were decorated. Abraded fragments of a small flared bowl from posthole 2814 may also have been red finished. The external rim, neck or upper body of three carinated jars (Aii) had burnt residue adhering.

The condition of the early Iron Age material was variable. The average weight was 8.3 g but many of the heavier rim sherds belonged to a single large vessel and no vessel was represented by more than 10 % of the rim. Feature assemblages were very small, only nine contexts producing over 20 sherds. A total of 22 rims from 22 vessels

were recovered, including simple rounded, simple squared and externally expanded forms.

A high number of sherds (41 %) were attributable to form. One of the largest groups was recovered from waterhole 3878. The lower fills produced early Iron Age slack-shouldered and carinated jars and the biconical bowl. Fabrics from this context were predominantly S2. The upper fills of this feature produced middle Iron Age pottery.

Early Iron Age pottery in the Upper Thames Valley and Cotswold region is characterised by carinated jars with upright necks, flared-rim bowls, expanded and T-shaped rims, pie crust decoration on rims and fingertipping on rims and shoulders. Parallels are found at Gravelly Guy (Duncan *et al.* 2004), Wittenham Clumps (Hingley 1979; Rhodes 1948), Allen's Pit (Bradford 1942), Mount Farm (Myres 1937), Wigbald's Farm, Long Wittenham (Savory 1937), Ashville (De Roche 1978) and Appleford (De Roche and Lambrick 1980, 45–59).

Middle Iron Age (400–50 cal BC)

A total of 763 sherds (6711 g) of middle Iron Age pottery were recovered from 32 contexts within pits, postholes and waterholes. Forty-three vessels were identified, 27 attributable to forms. The majority were ovoid vessels (15 vessels), and five globular jars, four straight-walled vessels, one long-necked carinated jar and two bowls were noted.

The range of fabrics increased during this period. It is generally accepted that calcareous fabrics gave way to finer sandier and mixed fabrics from the early to the middle Iron Age (Duncan *et al.* 2004). Recent work has shown this to be a very broad trend dependent on factors such as local geology, geographical location of the site and the date range of the pottery (A. Barclay pers. comm.). The pattern was not entirely clear at Latton. During this period, the shell fabrics generally gave way to the sand and shell fabric (group 6). Group 6 accounts for 3.5 % of the early Iron Age diagnostic sherds and 41 % of the middle Iron Age diagnostic group. The use of the fine sandy fabric, however, dropped from 51% of the early Iron Age groups to 8.5 % of the middle Iron Age groups. The middle Iron Age at Latton also saw the ascendancy of limestone fabrics, not usually exclusively linked to this period, and of very small amounts of other generally more coarse shelly fabrics (group 4–6).

The presence of earliest Iron Age vessels and possible late Bronze Age sherds obscured identification of both the straight-walled jars (surface find 2727, postholes 3848, 3745, and pit 3126) and the ovoid jars (pits 1163, 3126, 2338, 2918, 3407, 3878, enclosure ditch 3955 and roundhouse 2916). Most ovoid jar sherds were recovered from discrete middle Iron Age features or undisturbed contexts within clearly stratified features (context 3874 within pit 3878) but most straight-walled jar sherds came from from features such as postholes in which redeposition could have been a factor and those from features 3745 and 3126 were not associated with any other diagnostic material. The dating of this form, therefore, relies partly on parallels with other local sites and partly on its occurrence in pit 3126 in association with ovoid jars and middle Iron Age limestone fabrics. Pit 3126 was a recut of pit 3192, which contained both a middle Iron Age globular jar and limestone fabrics.

Surface treatment was restricted to smoothing and no decoration was noted. Charred residues adhered to the external surfaces of rims, necks and shoulders of eight vessels, perhaps a result of the boiling over of contents during cooking. Every middle Iron Age jar form is represented by at least one example with surface residue.

The condition of the pottery was generally good, with an average weight of 8.7 g, but only eight contexts produced over 20 sherds. The 44 rims recovered included pointed, simple squared, simple rounded and internally bevelled forms. No complete profiles were noted. A small percentage of sherds (12 %) were attributable to form.

Middle Iron Age pottery in the Upper Thames Valley is characterised by ovoid, slack-shouldered and globular jars and globular bowls. This assemblage includes calcareous wares, which appear to be ubiquitous on sites of this date throughout the Cotswolds and the Upper Thames Valley (Timby 2004a, 107). Similar assemblages were recovered locally from Totterdown Lane (Timby and Harrison 2004), Thornhill Farm (Timby 2004a), Claydon Pike (Miles *et al*. 2007), Ashton Keynes (Jones 2007), Horcott Pit (Edwards forthcoming), Watkins Farm (Allen 1990), Gravelly Guy (Duncan *et al*. 2004) and Farmoor (Lambrick 1979).

Discussion

The prehistoric pottery represents activity dating from the Neolithic through to the middle Iron Age. The late Neolithic/early Bronze Age vessels from the oval enclosure are rare examples of a miniature vessels and Aldbourne Cup. The significance is

greater as these were not from barrows, the most common provenance. The nearest assemblage of similar date came from Roughground Farm (Hingley 1993, 21). The middle Bronze Age Bucket Urn is contemporary with the assemblage from previous excavations at Latton (Stansbie and Laws 2004).

Earliest Iron Age pottery of the All Cannings Cross tradition is not commonly found outside of hillforts in the Upper Thames Valley. Only one comparative site exists within the immediate locality, at Horcott Pit in Gloucestershire (Edwards forthcoming). Regionally, non-defended settlement sites include Knight's Farm (Bradley *et al*. 1980) and Dunston Park (Morris and Mepham 1995) in the Kennet Valley, Roughground Farm in Gloucestershire and Yarnton-Cassington (Bell and Stansbie forthcoming) in Oxfordshire. Hillforts include those along the Ridgeway such as White Horse Hill and Liddington (Brown 2003, 174).

Early Iron Age assemblages are uncommon in the immediate locality, but the Latton assemblage has many wider parallels within the Upper Thames Valley, the nearest being Roughground Farm (Hingley 1993, 40–4). The middle Iron Age pottery fits into a wider landscape of communities within the immediate area. Pottery of this type can be found extending from the Upper Thames Valley, across the Cotswolds and into the Severn Valley (Timby 2004a, 107). The fossiliferous shelly wares appear to be ubiquitous within these assemblages and the Palaeozoic limestone is common from the middle Iron Age through to the 1st century AD. The increase in numbers of sherds with charred residue by the middle Iron Age indicates changes in food preparation and eating, perhaps an increase in the use of pottery to cook foods containing starch, sugar and carbohydrate.

The range and date of pottery from Latton indicates continuity, significant in the regional context of shifting settlements. Latton Lands lies between two areas of shifting occupation. To the west are larger and later assemblages from Ashton Keynes (Jones 2007) and Somerford Keynes (Miles *et al*. 2007). There are important later Iron Age and Roman assemblages from Thornhill Farm (Timby 2004a), Whelford Bowmoor, Kempsford (Miles *et al*. 2007) and an early to late prehistoric assemblage at Horcott Pit (Edwards forthcoming). The Roughground Farm assemblage included late Neolithic, early and late Bronze Age and early Iron Age pottery. The Latton assemblage also provides a link with the Cotswold Water Park sequence.

Catalogue of illustrated sherds (Figures 26–28)

1. Ditch terminus 2381, context 2382. Early Bronze Age. Fabric A1

2. Ditch terminus 2381, context 2382. LNEO/EBA Aldbourne Cup decorated with framed punches. Fabric A1

3. Ditch 3599, context 3602. MBA jar with squared rim and applied finger tip decorated cordon. Fabric S1

4. Context 2850 (u/s). LBA/EIA, bowl decorated with hanging triangles. Fabric A1

5. Feature 1737, context 1738. LBA/EIA carinated jar. Fabric S1

6. Pit 2566, context 2565. LBA/EIA jar with fingernail-decorated rim and shoulder. Fabric S2

7. Ditch 1223, context 1221. EIA jar. Fabric S2

8. Ditch 1426, context 1424. EIA jar. Fabric S6

9. Pit 2713, context 2714. EIA carinated jar. Fabric A1

10. Pit 2713, context 2717. EIA bowl. Fabric A1

11. Posthole 2980, context 2979. EIA jar. Fabric S2

12. Posthole 3053, context 3052 (post-pipe fill). EIA bowl. Fabric S2

13. Waterhole 3878, context 3875. EIA flat-rimmed jar. Fabric A2

14. Waterhole 3878, context 3875. EIA bowl/jar. Fabric SA2

15. Waterhole, 3881, context 3880. EIA flat-rimmed jar. Fabric S2

16. Posthole 2745, context 2746. LBA/EIA jar with fingernail decorated shoulder. Fabric S5.

17. Waterhole recut 3126, context 3130. MIA jar. Fabric S2

18. Pit 3878, context 3873. MIA perforated base. Fabric S2

19. Pit 2338, context 2335. MIA jar. Fabric L1

20. Pit 2918, context 2921. MIA sherd decorated with grooved panels. Fabric L1

21. Gully 3070, context 3068. MIA ovoid jar. Fabric S2

22. Waterhole recut 3126, context 3167. MIA jar. Fabric S5

23. Waterhole recut 3126, context 3167. MIA jar. Fabric S5

24. Ditch terminus 3616, context 3615. MIA straight-sided jar. Fabric SA2

25. Ditch 3704, context 3705. MIA jar. Fabric SA2

26. Ditch 3704, context 3705. MIA ovoid jar. Fabric SA2

27. Ditch terminus 3729, context 3730. MIA vessel. Fabric S3

28. Ditch terminus 3729, context 3730. MIA jar. Fabric S2

29. Waterhole 3878, context 3874. MIA straight-sided jar. Fabric S2

30. Waterhole 3878, context 3874. MIA jar. Fabric S2

Fired Clay

by Emily Edwards

Introduction

A total of 221 fragments (2793 g) of fired clay was recovered from 32 features, including ditches and gullies, pit and postholes, a waterhole and a quarry. Fired clay is an indicator of domestic and industrial activities, including cooking, textile production and pottery manufacture. The material came from a variety of features but the number of identifiable objects was low for a site of this size. Most pieces were oxidised and undiagnostic, and were probably from hearths, ovens and accidental firings, but a triangular loomweight fragment, parts of a weight or oven furniture and a thick, rim-shaped fragment were noted. A previously unpublished early or middle Bronze Age comb-impressed cylindrical loomweight base (Figure 29) was recovered from pit 1750 during a watching brief (Stansbie and Laws 2004, 115).

Two fabrics were identified:

A Fine sandy clay with fine shell inclusions (structural clay fabric).

B Fine silty clay, rare inclusions (loomweight fabric, miscellaneous).

Most pieces were in Fabric A, an apparently unprepared clay with naturally occurring inclusions of shell. The only identifiable object in this fabric was a large squared block, possibly part of a kiln or oven. The loomweights were in Fabric B.

Loomweights

Fragments representing three Iron Age triangular 'loomweights' were recovered. One piece came from pit 3491, which also produced burnt stone and animal bone. Another

came from posthole 2891 and a fragment of a smaller triangular, pierced weight was recovered from posthole 3905. Refitting fragments of the top corner of a crudely made triangular 'loomweight' recovered from the terminus of curvilinear ditch 2800 (context 2801) may have been a special deposit.

A common interpretation is that the triangular objects are loomweights, but this has been challenged and they may have been multi-functional. Wild asserts that inclusion in a recognisable set distinguishes loomweights from other weights (Wild 2003, 32). Poole has demonstrated reasonable doubt as to the function of triangular, pierced clay objects (Poole 1995, 285–6) and produced results of research based on several large assemblages which suggests that they were associated with oven structure, daub and clay rather than weaving. These objects are typically early to middle Iron Age in date.

Oven Material

A total of 28 fragments (933 g) of oven material was recovered from Iron Age outdoor oven 3567 and gully 1084. Some of the fragments from 3567 refitted to form a very thick block with a sharply formed edge and basal surface covered with organic impressions, though its size could not be estimated. It was probably part of an oven plate.

A shaped fragment with a triangular-sectioned expanded rim recovered from Romano-British ditch 968 may be the lip of a small oven (Cynthia Poole pers. comm.). Its surface was fired to reddish-brown and the fabric resembled the

unwedged fabric of the fired clay fragments and bore traces of finger wiping across the internal face.

Cylindrical loomweight

Fragments of a decorated loomweight were recovered from pit 1750 during the 2002 watching brief at Latton Lands. The pit also contained organic remains and human bone. The base was decorated with four impressed lines of round-toothed comb impressions. The fabric was a poorly wedged, laminated clay with no visible inclusions. Objects of this type date from the early or middle Bronze Age, contemporary with the Deverel-Rimbury pottery from the site, and similar comb impressions are found on pottery of this date. A more complete (unpublished) cylindrical loomweight from Blackbird Leys, Oxford was decorated with lattice patterns created using an impressed round toothed comb but otherwise this object may be unique.

Figure 29

SF177. Pit 1750. Context 1751, 1752, 1753. Fragment of loomweight decorated with impressed round-toothed comb. Piercing approximately 15 mm wide.

Late Iron Age and Roman Pottery

by Dan Stansbie

Introduction

The excavation yielded 3716 sherds of pottery (45 kg) spanning the late Iron Age to the 4th century AD. Pottery was recovered from 144 deposits and the number of well-dated contexts is relatively high. With an average sherd weight of 13 g the condition of the pottery is generally good. Many identifiable rim sherds were present and decoration survived well. Legible potters stamps survived on five basal sherds from central Gaulish samian vessels.

Most of the assemblage dates to the 2nd to early 3rd centuries AD. Early Roman pottery dating to the 2nd century dominates the assemblage, representing 86% by weight. Late Iron Age / early Roman pottery constitutes 4% by weight and pottery of broadly Roman date 3.5%. It was difficult to determine unambiguously late Iron Age groups because the date of transition to 'Belgic' style pottery in the Upper Thames Valley is uncertain. Nonetheless, 3% of the assemblage by weight is classified late Iron Age and late Roman pottery also accounts for a mere 3% of the total.

Due to the limited stratigrahic sequence it was difficult to ascribe individual contexts to specific phases of activity. The pottery was therefore divided into broad period-based phases: late Iron Age (LIA), late Iron Age to early Roman (LIA-ER), early Roman (ER) and late Roman (LR). Late Iron Age groups include pottery of definite pre-conquest date and late Iron Age to early Roman groups span the late Iron Age period to the end of the 1st century AD. The pottery was phased by context group date and small amounts of earlier material therefore appear in all phases. Stratigraphic limitations affected the clarity of boundaries between ceramic phases, particularly for the late Iron Age/early Roman phase. Late Iron Age groups in the region have

traditionally been identified by the presence of grog-tempered 'Belgic' type fabrics, with high-shouldered necked jars and butt-beakers considered typical forms. Because it is unclear when these types were introduced to the Upper Thames region, contexts containing this material have generally been assigned to the late Iron Age to late 1st century AD and placed in the late Iron Age to early Roman phase.

Late Iron Age pottery

Grog-tempered fabrics (E80) dominate this assemblage. Also present are shell and limestone fabrics (SL3), shell-tempered (E40), flint-tempered (E60), Malvernian rock-tempered (E72), sand-tempered fabrics (E30), limestone-tempered (E50) and rock-tempered fabrics (E70). A sherd of Dressel 1A amphora, probably from an Italian source but possibly from northern Gaul, is likely to date to between the late second and early 1st centuries BC (Fitzpatrick 2003, 12). All late Iron Age vessels are jars, mostly high-shouldered necked jars of 'Belgic' type (CE) in grog-tempered ware. Two barrel-shaped jars (CB), one in limestone-tempered ware and one in Malvernian rock-tempered ware, a bead rim jar (CH) in shell-tempered ware and a jar of undefined type (C) in flint-tempered fabric were also identified.

Late Iron Age to early Roman pottery

Pottery of this date accounts for 4% by weight of the assemblage. Grog-tempered wares (E80) dominate at 83% by weight. Other fabrics include Malvernian rock-tempered fabrics, grog- and shell-tempered (E13), organic-tempered (E10) and coarse sand-tempered (E30), limestone-tempered and Savernake ware (R95). High-

shouldered jars with everted rims (CE7) in grog-tempered ware are most common. Two storage jars with heavy everted rims (CN7) in Malvernian rock-tempered ware and a simple bead rim beaker (E2) in grog- and shell-tempered ware were also identified.

Early Roman pottery

The early Roman assemblage accounts for 86% of the assemblage by weight and incorporates a wide range of fabrics. North Wiltshire sandy grey ware (R35) is the most common fabric at 33% by weight and Savernake ware (R95) accounts for 21%. Locally produced fabrics include Severn Valley oxidised ware (O40) and North Wiltshire oxidised ware. Some of the sandy grey wares (R20 and R30) may also be locally produced. Oxidised coarse-tempered sherds (O80) derive mostly from storage jars. White-slipped oxidised wares (Q20), south-western white slipped wares (Q22), white-slipped reduced wares (Q30), sandy white wares (W20), sandy oxidised wares (O20), white ware mortaria (M20) and fine grey ware (R10) are present in very small quantities. Unsourced wares include Upper Thames Valley Buff ware mortaria (M26) and oxidised mortaria (M50). Grog-tempered wares (E80 & E90) and transitional Iron Age/Roman fabrics are also present as residual material. Regional and continental imported wares are dominated by black-burnished ware (B11). Black-burnished ware variants include wheel-made black-burnished ware (B20) and handmade black-burnished ware (B10). Regional imports of mortaria include Verulamium region type (M21) and Mancetter-Hartshill mortaria (M23). South Spanish (Baetician) amphorae and south and central Gaulish samian ware are represented by a small number of sherds.

An increased range of forms is seen in this period, but the assemblage remains dominated by jars, which make up 70% by eves. Dishes, flagons, tankards, bowls, beakers, mortaria, platters and cups were introduced at this time. Most jars are in North Wiltshire sandy grey ware (R35), predominantly necked jars with a variety of everted rims (CD7), but including narrow-necked jars (CC), bead rim jars (CH) and 'cooking jars' (CK). Cooking jars with everted rims (CK7) in black-burnished ware (B11, B10, B20) were also common and there were two bead rim jars in the same fabric. Necked jars with everted rims (CD7) were relatively frequent in Savernake wares (R95), a fabric also represented by narrow-necked (CC), bead rim jars (CH) and a storage jar (CN). Necked jars with everted rims (CD 7), a narrow-necked jar (CC) and a bead rim jar (C) were also manufactured in medium sandy grey ware. A number of necked jars with everted rims (CD 7), along with a narrow necked jar (CC), a bead-rim jar (CH) and a cooking jar (CK) were made in coarse sandy grey ware. Two high-shouldered necked jars (CE) and a necked jar with everted rim (CD7) in grog-tempered ware also date to this period along with necked jars with everted rims (CD7) in sandy oxidised ware (O20), North Wiltshire oxidised ware (O30) and Severn Valley ware (O40).

Most dishes are straight or curving sided with flanged rims (JA/JB 410) in black-burnished ware (B11), or so-called 'pie' dishes, along with several plain rim (JB 110/120) dishes in the same fabric. These may be intrusive. Straight- and curving-sided dishes (JA/JB) have a variety of rims, including a flanged dish (JA 410) in wheel-made black-burnished ware (B20), flanged dishes (JA/JB 410) and a curving-sided dish with hammerhead rim (JB 640) in North Wiltshire grey ware, a flanged

dish (JA 410) in coarse sandy grey ware, a plain-rimmed dish in medium sandy grey ware (JB 110) and two curving-sided dishes (JB 180/220) in North Wiltshire oxidised ware. Five 18/31 type dishes in central Gaulish samian ware (S30) and two plain-rimmed platters (JC 110), one in fine grey ware and one in Severn Valley ware, were also identified.

The flagon assemblage included bead-rimmed flagons (BA 240) and lid-seated flagons (BA 840) in North Wiltshire oxidised ware, a bead rim type (BA240) in Severn Valley ware and an everted-rimmed flagon (BA730) in fine grey ware. Two tankards were found in North Wiltshire oxidised ware, one with a bead rim (G 210) and one with a plain rim (G 110). The other tankards (G200, G220 and G120) are Severn Valley wares. The bowl assemblage includes curving-sided bowls (HC) in North Wiltshire oxidised ware, a straight-sided bowl and curving-sided bowls in Severn Valley ware, a carinated bowl (HA) in coarse sandy grey ware, a carinated bowl and a curving-sided bowl (HA/HC) in North Wiltshire sandy grey ware, a curving-sided bowl (HC) in Savernake ware (R95) and a type 37 bowl in central Gaulish samian ware (S30). The most common beaker is the jar-shaped beaker (EH), which occur in North Wiltshire grey ware and black-burnished ware (B11). A girth beaker (EB) and two unclassifiable types (E) in North Wiltshire grey ware as well as a bag-shaped beaker in fine grey ware were present. Hooked-rimmed mortaria with beads (KA 520) were identified in Verulamium region white ware (M21), unsourced Upper Thames Valley buff ware and unsourced oxidised ware (M50). There was a single type 33 cup in central Gaulish samian ware.

Funerary Pottery

A large high-shouldered jar (SF166; Figure 30, no. 28) minus its rim was placed between the legs of skeleton 1100 (grave 1095). The jar was in shelly fabric E40 and the base was sooted externally and internally. The vessel body was not burnt, suggesting that the jar had been placed in the grave after the fire had died down and the external sooting accrued during the use life of the vessel, although the internal sooting is difficult to explain. Alternatively the cremation of the body may have been abandoned as ineffective, explaining the partial burning of the pot. The vessel is of a type produced during the 1st century AD, and the radiocarbon measurement obtained on elements of the burial deposit indicate a pre-conquest date. Such vessels are typical of grave goods of this period and need not denote an individual of high status.

Late Roman pottery

The range of late Roman fabrics, though extensive, is not as wide as the early Roman group. Savernake ware and North Wiltshire grey ware and black-burnished wares account for almost 75% of the pottery of this phase and a variety of fabrics of diverse origins in small numbers make up the rest. These include grey sandy wares, North Wiltshire Oxidised ware, Severn Valley ware, handmade black-burnished ware, south-western white-slipped ware (Q22), south-western white-slipped mortaria (M32), Oxfordshire white ware mortaria, Oxfordshire colour-coated ware (F51) and residual south Gaulish samian ware (S20).

Unusually for a later Roman assemblage, identifiable vessels are mostly jars, comprising 38% of eves. Flagons, mortaria, dishes and bowls make up the remainder.

Two of the four jars are necked with everted hooked rims (CD 760) in North Wiltshire grey ware and two are 'cooking' jars with everted rims (CK 700) in black-burnished ware. The single flagon is a small plain-rimmed type in North Wiltshire oxidised ware. Three dishes in black-burnished ware are typical late Roman forms. One has a dropped flange (JA 440) and the other two are plain rimmed (JA 110). A straight-sided dish with dropped flange (JA 440) in handmade black-burnished ware (B10) is also present. A single bowl is an Oxfordshire colour-coated ware with curving sides and a flange (HC 400). Two mortaria, one with a flange and slight bead (KA 430) in south-western white slipped ware and the other a Young type 22 in Oxfordshire white ware (M22) were identified.

Discussion

Some large and well stratified 'key groups' provide a reliable guide to dating and serve as a basis for the interpretation of economic links and socio-economic status. Two of these, from late Iron Age pit 1127 and early Roman boundary ditch 968, are presented below. The composition of the Roman assemblage from Latton Lands is typical of late Iron Age and early Roman rural sites from the Upper Thames Valley, dominated by North Wiltshire grey wares, Severn Valley and black-burnished wares, with few continental or inter-regional imports and a preponderance of jars. The dominance of locally produced coarse wares and jars indicates relatively low economic status, although small amounts of terra sigillata, amphorae and regional fine wares show that the inhabitants of the site had some external contacts.

Key groups

Key group 1 (Table 7) came from fill 1126 of late Iron Age pit 1127. It comprises 54 sherds (1021 g) with an average sherd weight of 19 g and is dominated by grog-tempered wares, including two high-shouldered jars in the 'Belgic' tradition. Malvernian rock-tempered wares and limestone tempered fabrics include barrel-shaped jars, and shell-tempered fabrics include a bead-rimmed jar. The handle of a Dressel 1 amphora with an uncertain source (probably Italian, but possibly northern Gaulish) was also present. This group is typical of a late Iron Age settlement assemblage in the Upper Thames Valley, combining elements of middle Iron Age traditions in the form of barrel-shaped jars with typically late Iron Age styles such as the high-shouldered jars, but showing a distinct lack of other typically late Iron Age forms seen further east in Essex and Kent, such as the butt-beaker. The presence of the amphora handle shows that the inhabitants of late Iron Age Latton Lands had some non-local contacts. The group illustrates the regional specificity of late Iron Age assemblages and also serves as a reminder that sites lacking the typical package of 'Belgic' forms need not necessarily be seen as low status.

Key Group 2 (Table 8) came from the upper fill (973) of early Roman enclosure/boundary ditch 968, part of ditch complex 810/969. This large group of 1338 sherds (20,726 g) has an average sherd weight of 15.5 g. The date range is mid to late 2nd century AD, with some residual grog-tempered sherds. The group is dominated by North Wiltshire sandy grey ware jars including necked jars with a variety of everted rims, two bead-rim jars, two cooking jars, a narrow-necked jar, a jar beaker, a carinated bowl, a dish with a hammerhead rim and several dishes with flanged rims. Black-burnished wares include large numbers of cooking jars, two bead-

rim jars, a jar beaker and several flanged dishes. Sandy grey wares and medium sandy grey wares are likely to be local and the range of forms resembles the North Wiltshire grey wares. Savernake ware necked jars account for approximately one third of this group but proportions may be biased due to the robustness of this fabric. Residual grog-tempered vessels include a high-shouldered jar and a necked jar with everted rim. Amongst the locally produced wares are sandy oxidised wares, a flagon, a jar, a tankard, a dish and two bowls in North Wiltshire oxidised ware, several tankards in Severn Valley ware, southwestern white slipped wares, a flagon and a girth-beaker in fine grey ware, unsourced white ware mortaria and unsourced oxidised mortaria. Regional and continental imports include a hook-rimmed and beaded mortarium in Verulamium region white ware, a body sherd from a Mancetter-Hartshill mortarium, a type 33 cup in central Gaulish samian ware and three type 18/31 dishes also in central Gaulish samian ware. All the dishes are stamped and two dish bases also have stamps.

This group is clearly dominated by locally produced fabrics with a few imports of black-burnished and Severn Valley ware from the south-west, and little from the south-east. It is also a group dominated by jars and in these respects it is typical both for its location on a rural low-status site and for its chronological range. In terms of supply the majority of the material originates from the north Wiltshire area, presumably from kilns local to Latton. The south-west import supply indicates reliance on markets just up Ermin Street at Cirencester, as opposed to 'down-the-line' trade using the Thames. This suggests that local cultural connections and long-term traditions were more important in determining the source of imports than were geographical conditions. However, relatively high proportions of black-burnished ware from sites along the route of the A5 in the West Midlands have been attributed

to proximity to Watling Street (Booth forthcoming) and it may be that Ermin Street played a similar role in relation to Latton Lands. Although the group is jar dominated, the presence of table wares and imports from the Verulamium region, mortaria and samian ware dishes suggest an aspiration to higher status through Romanising practices or, more prosaically, that the inhabitants of Latton Lands combined Roman-style cooking and dining with traditional styles.

The pottery in its regional context

Grog-tempered wares were ubiquitous in the late Iron Age of southern Britain, particularly in south-eastern Britain, along with a variety of sand-, shell- and limestone-tempered fabrics and Malvernian rock-tempered wares. Grog-tempered wares are present in ceramic group 3 (early 1st century AD onwards) at Thornhill Farm (Timby 2004a, 91), Coln Gravel (Stansbie forthcoming) and in the late Iron Age at Gravelly Guy (Green *et al.* 2004, 305). Malvernian rock-tempered wares are also present at Thornhill Farm in ceramic group 2 (1st century BC-AD) (Timby 2004a, 90) and at Coln Gravel. Late Iron Age to early Roman pottery is defined by the presence of high-shouldered necked jars in grog-tempered wares and necked jars in fine sandy wares, with small amounts of Malvernian rock-tempered wares. These fabrics are also present at Thornhill Farm and Gravelly Guy, although high-shouldered necked jars are absent from Thornhill Farm (Timby 2004a). This pattern is typical of the region, where an absence of the 'Belgic' repertoire of forms characterised by high-shouldered jars, butt-beakers and imitation 'Gallo-Belgic' platters in the late Iron Age is typical. Early Roman pottery is characterised by a preponderance of North Wiltshire sandy grey wares and black-burnished wares, with some Savernake wares and Severn Valley

wares, and is heavily jar based. These characteristics are typical of early rural assemblages in the region and the assemblage generally compares well with that from Thornhill Farm, Gravelly Guy (Green *et al.* 2004) and Coln Gravel (Stansbie forthcoming). The exception is the relatively high proportion of black-burnished ware from Latton, which contrasts with the small amounts from Gravelly Guy, Thornhill Farm and Coln Gravel. The small numbers of regional and continental imports present are also mirrored at similar sites in the region such as Gravelly Guy, Thornhill Farm, and Coln Gravel.

Socio-economic status

In the late Iron Age the dominance of the jar and the absence of forms more clearly associated with consumption, such as butt-beakers and platters, may be taken as an indication of low status, but chronological and regional factors must account for this absence to some degree. In his study of ceramic approaches to differentiation between Roman site types Jerry Evans (2001) argues that pottery assemblages from low-status rural sites are typically jar dominated, although he acknowledges that there is also a chronological factor in the presence of large numbers of jars. As the Latton assemblage is both early and jar dominated the large number of jars along with a lack of other 'status indicators', such as large amounts of decorated samian or amphorae, may be taken to indicate a comparatively low status for the site. This is reinforced by the comparative absence of finewares and regional imports (Booth 2004, 45).

Catalogue of illustrated late Iron Age and Roman pottery (Figure 30)

Key group 2 (context 973, ditch 968)

1 Fabric R95; medium-mouthed jar (CD 740)

2 Fabric R20; bead rim jar (CH 210)

3 Fabric R20; medium-mouthed jar (CD 730)

4 Fabric R20; bead rim dish (JA 410)

5 Fabric R30; narrow-mouthed jar (CC 770)

6 Fabric R30; medium-mouthed jar (CD 740)

7 Fabric R35; bead rim jar (CH 710)

8 Fabric R35; medium-mouthed jar (CD 730)

9 Fabric R35; bead rim dish (JA 410)

10 Fabric R35; curving-sided bowl (HA 770)

11 Fabric B11; cooking jar (CK 730)

12 Fabric B11; cooking jar (CK 730)

13 Fabric B11; bead rim dish (JB 410)

14 Fabric M21; flanged mortarium; (KA 520)

15 Fabric E80; high-shouldered jar (CE 740)

16 Fabric O40; tankard (G 120)

17 Fabric O40; body sherd with graffito

18 Fabric O30; curving-sided bowl (HC 150)

19 Fabric O30; cup-mouthed flagon (BA 240)

20 Fabric 030; medium-mouthed jar (CD 750)

21 Fabric S30; form 18/31dish

Key group 1 (pit 1127)

22 Fabric A10; amphora handle; ctx 1126

23 Fabric E80; high-shouldered jar (CE 740); ctx 1126

24 Fabric E40; bead rim jar (CH 210); ctx 1126

25 Fabric E72; barrel-shaped jar (CB 110); ctx 1126

26 Fabric E50; barrel-shaped jar (CB210); ctx 1126

27 Fabric O40; curving-sided bowl (HB 220), ctx 1449

Funerary pottery

28 Fabric E40; bottom half of large jar, ctx 1104, grave 1095

Samian stamps (Figure 31)

Five samian vessels with stamps came from a single deposit in ditch 968, where they appear to have been deposited as part of a large dump of material. The stamps were all internal on central Gaulish form 18/31 dishes, probably made at Lezoux. Letters whose reading is slightly uncertain are underlined in the catalogue below. It was not possible to ascertain any information on dies and so no additional information on the date of the vessels is available.

1 **AVITOSOF** (S is retrograde)

2 **P]ATERCLVSFE**

3 **COBNERTI·M**

4 **SVRDILLVS**

5 **PRIMI[GENI or [GENIVS etc**

Ceramic Building Material

by Martin Greaney

Little diagnostic CBM was recovered and most was heavily abraded. Most fragments (55% by weight) were unidentifiable flat tiles with no distinguishing marks. Roof tile was the most common material, and a few fragments of cavity walling, but no bricks, were identified. Tegulae and a box tile fragment came from the fills of trackway ditches, drainage ditches, quarries and enclosures associated with the Romano-British settlement. The building material would have originated from structures within the settlement to the south.

Six fabrics were identified, all but one predominantly sandy, the others calcareous.

Fabric 1: Fine sandy matrix, *c* 10% quartz inclusions, occasional other rock. Pale orange surfaces, grey interior.
Fabric 2: Fine fabric, inclusions of quartz and iron grains. Dark orange or brown.
Fabric 3: Coarse fabric with large quartz grains (>0.25 mm). Moulding sand contains calcareous flecks and grey/black argillaceous inclusions.
Fabric 4: Poorly mixed fabric, pale yellow and white laminations. Rare calcareous pieces in matrix and moulding sand.
Fabric 5: Extremely coarse, friable fabric, frequent quartz inclusions and sparse additional rock. Dark brown surfaces, dark grey interior
Fabric 6: Predominantly calcareous inclusions, occasional quartz. Pale pink to grey surfaces, grey interior.

Roofing tegula fragments were 15–20 mm thick. Flanges were of uniform shape, with curved inner top edge and straight sides, *c* 50 mm in height. Flat roof tile fragments without identifying marks 17–30 mm thickness were probably also tegulae. A single

imbrex fragment 19 mm thick was recorded. Four abraded box flue cavity wall fragments with traces of combing were recovered, none with more than five teeth evident, in single stretches, or two, crossing over at a midpoint. Two signature marks were identfied, one with two faint finger impressions tracing a curvilinear path, the other a similar, three-fingered pattern.

Metalwork (Figure 32)

by Kelly Powell and Ian Scott

The metalwork assemblage comprised 80 objects – 39 (49%) copper alloy, 33 (41%) iron and seven (10%) lead. A single silver coin fragment was also recovered. The finds date from the Bronze Age through to the post-medieval period but the majority of identifiable objects are Roman. Thirty objects were unstratified, metal detector or surface finds, including some of the best dated pieces.

Prehistoric metalwork

Two copper alloy objects of probable Bronze Age date were surface finds from the north-west part of the site. SF 311 (Figure 32, no. 1) is a length of copper alloy bar 82 mm long. The uneven surface with characteristic indentations and thinning at one end indicate the piece was hammered. It may have been discarded unfinished, possibly intended as an awl. SF 338 (Figure 32, no. 2), a fragment of a leaded copper alloy tapered blade with diamond cross-section and flattened midrib showing hammer dints, is possibly a dagger fragment.

Late Iron Age and Roman metalwork

Copper alloy personal accessories

A complete Aucissa type brooch (SF170, Figure 32, no. 3) came from the fill of grave 1691, presumably a grave good. This type, found widely within the Roman provinces, was probably introduced to Britain by the Roman army in AD 43 but was in use only until the end of the first phase of conquest, *c* AD 70 (Bayley and Butcher 2004, 151). The central ridge is flanked by longitudinal grooves along most of its length and resembles an example from Dragonby (Olivier 1996, 246 no. 68).

Three unstratified brooches came from the south-east part of the site. A near-complete Hod Hill type brooch (SF190) of Bayley and Butcher (2004) group (f) (Figure 32, no. 4) resembles brooches illustrated by Hattatt (1989, 321, no. 865) and Bayley and Butcher (2004, 79, no. 143), apart from the plain upper bow. This type was current in Britain between AD 43–70. A rosette brooch (SF184) missing the upper plate (Figure 32, no. 6) resembling that illustrated by Crummy (1983, 8, no.17), is an uncommon type in the Thames Valley area and probably dates to the early-mid 1st century AD (Olivier 1996, 246, no. 61 and Hattatt 1989, 309 no. 284). SF182 (not illustrated) is a fragment of a late Iron Age-early Roman one-piece brooch which survives as a robust squashed coil with a curved shank of circular section.

SF 272 (not illustrated) is a fragment of the bow and catchplate of a Hod Hill type brooch. It has longitudinal ribs on the lower bow, ring and dot decoration in the

central groove, and two transverse ridges at the top of the lower bow and possibly within the recess between upper and lower bow. It resembles a brooch illustrated by Bayley and Butcher (2004, figure 55, no. 119) but lacks knurled decoration. It was recovered from posthole 3324 of Iron Age roundhouse 4020.

A copper alloy button and loop or 'dress' fastener (SF310, Fig. 32, no. 5) was unstratified from the north-west area of the site. These objects were probably designed to fasten fabric or leather. SF310 is a Wild (1970) type 1 with a double-boss head. It has a raised central design of two concentric circles and resembles a Dorset example (Hattatt 1989, 417, no. 21). Wild suggests this type is British and predates the Roman conquest (1970, 138), probably made *c* AD 20–150 (Hattatt 1989, 414). Button and loop fasteners may have been exclusively used by the native population. They are found mainly in the north of Britain and are rare in the Wiltshire region, although two were found at Neigh Bridge, Somerford Keynes in Gloucestershire (Cool 2007, 257–8, figure 9.16, nos 56 and 58).

A copper alloy finger ring fragment (SF188, not illustrated), *c* 23 mm in diameter, was unstratified. An oval setting with traces of adhesive would have held an intaglio or glass ornament 12 mm by 9 mm. The ring has parallels at Lowbury Hill (Atkinson 1916, pl. xi, no. 12) and Wanborough (Hooley 2001, 90–1, no. 88). Stylistically, it probably dates to the 2nd or early 3rd century AD (Henig 2006).

A copper alloy Roman toilet implement or 'ear scoop' came from long ditch 936 (Figure 32, no. 7). The scoop was broken and the head was unusual, formed as a

flattened loop measuring 12 mm in diameter. A similar example came from Dragonby (Knowles and May 1996, no. 63).

Weaponry

Two iron knifes were recovered from archaeological features. SF168 (Figure 32, no. 8), a Manning type 23 (1985, 456, nos 66–71) distinguished by an upturned tip and curved edge, came from burial 1095. The type dates to the Iron Age but was current until the end of the 1st or early 2nd century AD. This example is unusually large. A similar knife was found at Dragonby (Manning and McDonald 1996, 304, no. 85).

An iron spearhead (SF264, Figure 32, no. 9) from the upper fill of middle Iron Age enclosure ditch 2945 is a late Iron Age 1A Hod Hill leaf-shaped type (Manning 1985, pl. 76–78, nos 38–81). It was heavily corroded and the section and socket forms are unclear. Similar examples were found at Dragonby (Manning and McDonald 1996, 291, no. 3) and South Shields (Allason-Jones and Miket 1984, 297, no. 92). They were throwing spears or cavalry lances and suggest a military presence.

Coffin fittings

Corroded iron coffin fittings and nails (not illustrated) were present in the fill of Roman inhumation burial 1312/1314. These comprise a rectangular strip with a triangular end and fastenings (SF156) and nails (SF157–164) including a Manning (1985) type 1b (SF162). The head of SF158 may be a hammered type 2, a type 8 or a coffin stud. SF163 was possibly a type 1a nail or stud with a large head.

Miscellaneous fittings

Iron fittings and fastenings of probable Roman date include a double spiked loop, a large ring (SF177), nail fragments or iron strips/rods. The spiked loop (cf. Manning 1985, l61, nos 34–47) came from pit 2932, which cut the terminal of early Iron Age enclosure 3203. The ring, a surface find from the vicinity of trackway 986, was 46 mm in diameter and 5 mm thick with a rectangular section. It could be a harness fitting or a handle of some type (cf. Manning 1985, l65, nos 26–35). Similar objects have been found at Dragonby (Manning and McDonald 1996, 307–8, nos 126 and 129) and Verulamium (Frere 1972, 187, no. 127; 1984, 104, nos 157–8). In total ten of the nails or fittings were recovered from within or around the Roman features, and five of the nails and rods came from early or middle Iron Age features in the north-west of the site. Thin rod/strip SF302 came from pit 3869, associated with metalworking debris.

Medieval and post-medieval

All metal objects dating to the medieval and post-medieval periods were unstratified. They include a 14th century tongue-shaped strap end (SF307), a post-medieval flat-sectioned strap end with elaborate raised decoration (SF191), a penannular buckle frame (SF309) and a loop fastener (SF183). A quarter of a clipped medieval silver coin (SF185) bears the letters HEN, indicating the reign of Henry and a 16th century copper alloy jetton of HANS KRAUWINKEL (SF305) were also found.

Discussion

The metalwork assemblage was relatively small but indicates a long period of occupation or activity. Although much of the collection was unstratified some interesting issues are raised.

The only prehistoric objects were the possible Bronze Age awl (SF311) and dagger fragment (SF338), both unstratified. These probably originated from the Bronze Age settlement to the west of the site (Stansbie and Laws 2004).

The Roman assemblage is notable for the generally narrow date range. Three of the five brooches (SF170, 272, 1901) dated to the period AD 43–70. Brooch SF184 and the spearhead (SF264) may date to the mid 1st century AD, the button and loop fastener (SF310) to *c* AD 20–150, and the knife (SF168) was late Iron Age-early Roman. This dating corresponds to the period of discrete burials and pits within the Iron Age settlement (from which brooch SF170 and knife SF168 came) and predate the Roman settlement to the east of the site, although many of these finds were collected from this area. The only exception is ring (SF188), which may be 2nd or 3rd century, corresponding to the majority of the Roman features. The presence of the spearhead indicates military activity in the area, perhaps related to the construction of Ermin Street. The rosette brooch (SF184) and button and loop fastener (SF310) are more commonly found in the north of Britain, indicating outside, possibly military, connections.

Metal finds from the late Iron Age-early Roman graves provide evidence for burial custom at this time. Brooch (SF170) and knife (SF168) were presumably interred with the individual as grave goods. The fittings from grave 1312/1314 illustrate the custom of coffined inhumation, though this grave is undated.

Catalogue of illustrated objects (Figure 32)

1. SF 311. Copper alloy hammered bar fragment. Unstratified.
2. SF 338. Fragment of hammered leaded copper alloy ?dagger blade. Unstratified.
3. SF 170. Copper alloy Aucissa type brooch. Context 1668, grave 1691.
4. SF 190. Copper alloy Hod Hill type brooch. Unstratified.
5. SF 310. Copper alloy button and loop fastener. Unstratified.
6. SF 184. Copper alloy rosette type brooch. Unstratified.
7. -. Copper alloy Roman toilet implement or 'ear scoop'. Ditch 936.
8. SF168. Iron knife fragment. Context 1574, ditch 1506.
9. SF264. Iron leaf-shaped spearhead. Context 2942, enclosure 2945.

Roman Coins

by Paul Booth

Eighteen Roman coins were examined. These ranged in date from an issue of Hadrian (AD 119–121) and a possible 1st-mid 3rd century piece – not certainly a Roman coin – to a probable issue of the House of Theodosius (AD 388–402), but all the remaining coins were of late 3rd to mid 4th century date. The coins were in variable condition, ranging from (occasionally) good to poor and in some cases very corroded. A majority were quite poor and even after cleaning several were effectively illegible. Some of the identifications are tentative as a result.

The assemblage is too small for detailed analysis, but the coins are fairly typical of lower status rural settlement of the Upper Thames Valley. There is only one certain early Roman coin (SF201) while a further piece (SF200) may be of this period. Six coins belonged to the second half of the 3rd century AD, of which at least four were probable or certain radiate copies, characteristic of the period from *c* AD 260/70–296. One of these (SF204) was extremely debased. This, plus two of the other radiate copies and a coin of Postumus came from the same (unstratified) location. The second quarter of the 4th century, always a period of high coin loss in this region, is well represented. Of the eight coins assigned to the House of Constantine all can probably be dated to the period AD 320–341, with all but SF312 dated AD 330 and later. Only SF174 might have been later, but thus is quite uncertain. The module of the corroded and unidentifiable coin SF189 is also consistent with a date in the second quarter of the 4th century, though earlier or later dates are possible. There were coins of the House of Valentinian – which is unusual for the region – and only one coin (SF335) which was probably later. Although its condition precluded certain identification the reverse type of the latter was almost certainly a figure of Victory, of a type particularly characteristic of the Victoria Auggg issues of the late 4th century (388–402). The presence of such a coin would be a little unusual given the absence of issues of the 360s and 370s, but the overall size of the assemblage is such that arguments from negative evidence cannot be conclusive.

Five of the 4th century coins can be assigned to mints: two are from Trier, two from Lyons and one from Arles – a typical pattern.

The size and chronological profile of the coin assemblage are broadly consistent with their derivation from a lower status rural settlement. In such assemblages, earlier Roman coins are scarce and often absent altogether. It is notable that the dupondius of Hadrian, although technically 'worn' (cf Brickstock 2004, 7), was in reasonable condition when lost and had clearly not been in circulation over an extended period, as is often the case with early Roman coins on sites of this type. The proportion of later 3rd century coins in relation to 4th century issues may also seem quite high for a low-status group, but the overall numbers are too small for this to be a reliable assessment, and the fact that four of these coins were found together may have skewed the list.

Copper Alloy Metalworking Debris

by Luke Howarth and Kelly Powell

Copper alloy metalworking debris was recovered from middle Iron Age pits 3674 and 3869 (Figure 18). Fill 3672 of pit 3674 produced one fragment of dross covered with copper oxide (SF292), three pieces of primarily copper oxide, possibly with metal beneath (SF291, SF293) and a piece of copper alloy dross (SF290). The latter is lathe-shaped, slightly undulating and, given its density, probably represents metalworking dross. A triangular cast fragment of copper alloy with an uneven raised circular boss (SF304) came from fill 3870 of pit 3869 and may have been part of a cast object. A piece of copper oxide was also found unstratified in the area. Most of this material is undiagnostic oxide, some with metal content, judging by the weight. The assemblage suggests that copper alloying and possibly casting was taking place on the site.

Slag

by Graham Morgan

A total weight of 2902 g of fuel ash slag, hearth slag, tap slag and fired clay with slagged coating was examined. In the descriptions (Table 9) fuel ash slag is a lightweight, and usually light-coloured, vesicular slag-like material formed by the reaction of wood ash with minerals such as sand. It is not necessarily of industrial origin. Hearth slag is here vesicular fayalite, iron silicate, with traces of fuel, such as charcoal, and iron residues in the form of rust. It is commonly found in hearths where iron has been worked.Tap slag is the residue from iron extraction, smelting. It is usually very dense grey fayalite, sometimes showing a flowed structure, occasionally partially vesicular and does not usually show any rusty iron corrosion. The fired clay with a slagged coating is probably hearth lining, whilst the crucible fragments have a slagged coating on one or both sides. The quantities of slag were very small, suggesting small-scale industrial activities were taking place in the vicinity. In the case of iron smelting very much larger quantities of tap slag would be expected.

Worked Stone

by Ruth Shaffrey

The stone assemblage comprised six worked pieces and several unworked but utilised pieces. They include a single large saddle quern, two hammerstones, a smoothing pebble, four chunks of building stone and several pieces of possible roof stone. The

most significant item is a quartzite saddle quern from the fill of early Iron Age waterhole 3881 (SF 303; Figure 33). It was manufactured from a boulder, with only the edges of the stone around the grinding surface shaped and only the grinding surface pecked. It was well-used (there are areas of polish at the edges) and now has a slight curve longitudinally, whilst across its width it is flatter in the centre but steeper at the sides. Other prehistoric stone use is represented by a well-used smoother from pit fill 1751 and two hammerstones with percussion marks (SF 300 and SF 361) recovered from the fill of middle Iron Age pit 3745 (3749).

During the Roman period, several chunks of stone were used in construction, including a flat specimen probably used in a floor or wall from enclosure ditch 1458. Two other slabs are likely to be from a floor, one showing evidence of wear on one face (fill 885 of pit 889 and fill 1288 of pit 1282). A number of small, thinly bedded, flat limestone fragments may have been used or intended for use as roofing stones but the fragments are too small to be certain. Another slab with a perfectly squared edge (SF 151) recovered from post-medieval fill 1047 of ditch 2136 was probably from a wall.

All the stone used on site could be of local origin.The quartzite pebbles used as hammerstones would have been widely available in the area either within the Northern Drift or as remnants of the Drift (Sumbler *et al.* 2000, 73). Quartzite boulders of the type used for the saddle quern are much less common but have been noted elsewhere (Arkell 1947, 194), and it could have been collected from within a few kilometres of the site. The limestone building fragments could have been taken from nearby exposures.

Flint

by Kate Cramp

A total of 68 struck flints was recovered, most sparsely scattered across the site, with few contexts producing more than a single piece and none exceeding eight. The assemblage spans the Mesolithic to Bronze Age, although no demonstrably Neolithic material was recovered. The small collection of flintwork from oval enclosure 2255 (Table 10) probably dates to the late Neolithic or early Bronze Age. The flintwork is generally in a very fresh condition apart from residual material. Cortication ranges from a light incipient speckling to an opaque white discoloration. Very few pieces are uncorticated.

Both chalk and gravel flint sources were used for the manufacture of the tools and debitage. The size of the flake cores, weighing as little as 16 g, may reflect the small size of the parent nodules or perhaps that that raw material was being treated economically. Thermal fractures and other defects are rare and suggest that the flint was of a reasonable knapping quality.

Group 2255

A small but potentially significant collection of flintwork was recovered from six sections through the oval enclosure. The assemblage consists of 21 flints in fresh condition, most pieces moderately or heavily corticated. The assemblage is dominated by unretouched flakes (10 pieces), but four pieces of blade material were recorded.

Most of the flakes were carefully struck, often following attempts at platform preparation. A small flake core (16 g) was recovered from deposit 2369.

The retouched component includes four tools: one retouched flake, one end-and-side scraper (Figure 7), one backed knife and a denticulated flake. The quality of the retouch suggests a late Neolithic/early Bronze Age date for the scraper and the knife, although the latter was manufactured on a re-used blank of unknown origin. The denticulated tool is a broad secondary flake with a series of closely spaced notches on one of the longer edges. It is possible that some of these pieces, and in particular the backed knife, were deliberately selected for deposition in the enclosure ditch.

Other features

The remainder of the assemblage occurred as a sparse, residual spread across the site, largely composed of unretouched flakes with a slightly lower representation of blades, bladelets and bladelike flakes. A second multi-platform flake core was recovered from ditch 1245, while an unclassifiable core fragment came from context 2592.

The tool inventory is dominated by retouched flakes, but scrapers are relatively well represented and may indicate specialised activity. Most scrapers are steeply retouched on thick, robust flakes. These crudely fashioned pieces are likely to have been used for heavy duty-tasks, such as woodworking or hide-scraping, and probably date broadly to the Bronze Age. Some of the more finely worked pieces may represent Neolithic or early Bronze Age pieces. A single microlith from context 2591 provides evidence of Mesolithic activity. It compares most closely with Jacobi's class 4 or

class 5 (Jacobi 1978, 16, fig. 6) but, in isolation, cannot be more closely dated. It is possible that the truncated blade from ditch 1038 (context 1037) is also Mesolithic. Other pieces of note include one serrated flake (context 3724), which displays some silica gloss on one edge indicating its use on silica-rich plant materials, perhaps for the production of fibres for textiles (Juel-Jenson 1994, 62).

Discussion

The flint assemblage demonstrates a long period of human activity in the area, from as early as the Mesolithic. Although no closely datable Neolithic types were identified, there is positive evidence for occupation in the late Neolithic or early Bronze Age from the oval enclosure. This flintwork collection includes a finely made scraper and a backed knife on a re-used blank. Along with a complete pygmy pot and cow skull from the northwestern ditch, these artefacts may have been deliberately selected for deposition in the enclosure.

Worked Bone and Antler (Figure 34)

By Kelly Powell

Two pieces of worked bone and antler were recovered. Middle Iron Age enclosure 3955 produced a fragment of a worked, polished antler object with a line incised around the top. It resembles a broken or unfinished toggle similar to those from Danebury (Cunliffe and Poole 1991). It was not fully hollowed out and marks on the bottom may represent cuts. Roman ditch 936 produced a bone counter or spacer, 18 mm in diameter and 3 mm thick with a central perforation, flattened surfaces and

bevelled edge. It resembles an example from the grave 677/8 in the eastern cemetery of London (Barber and Bowsher 2000).

Radiocarbon Dating (Figures 35–6)

by S Griffiths, P Marshall, A Bayliss, J van der Plicht, and G Cook

Thirteen radiocarbon age determinations were obtained on samples of charred plant material and cremated human bone. Seven samples were processed and measured by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) at the Centre for Isotope Research, Groningen University, The Netherlands in 2006, following the procedures described by Aerts-Bijma *et al*. (1997; 2001), Lanting *et al.* (2001) and van der Plicht *et al.* (2000). Six samples submitted to Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC) were prepared using methods outlined in Slota *et al.* (1987) and measured by AMS as described by Xu *et al.* (2004).

Calibration and Bayesian modelling

The radiocarbon results are presented in Table 11 and Figures 35 and 36, and are quoted in accordance with the international standard known as the Trondheim convention (Stuiver and Kra 1986) and are conventional radiocarbon ages (Stuiver and Polach 1977). The calibration of the results (to 95% confidence) are given in Table 14. All have been calculated using the calibration curve of Reimer *et al.* (2004) and OxCal (v3.10) (Bronk Ramsey 1995; 1998; 2001). They are quoted in the form recommended by Mook (1986) and the ranges quoted in italics are *posterior density estimates* derived from mathematical modelling. These are interpretative estimates

which may change as further data and models become available. The ranges in plain type have been calculated according to the maximum intercept method (Stuiver and Reimer 1986). All other ranges are derived from the probability method (Stuiver and Reimer 1993).

A Bayesian approach has been adopted for the interpretation of the chronology from this site (Buck *et al.* 1996). Although the simple calibrated dates are accurate estimates of the dates of the samples, it is the dates of the archaeological events represented by the samples which are of interest, in this case the chronology of the infilling of the oval enclosure ditch. This can be estimated not only using the absolute dating information from the radiocarbon measurements on the samples, but also by using the stratigraphic relationships between samples. The technique used is a form of Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling, applied using the program OxCal v3.10.

The radiocarbon programme was designed to achieve the following objectives:
To provide a date for the infilling of the ditch of enclosure 2255
To provide a precise date for the rare mortuary practise of burial 1095
To provide a precise date for the potentially early Iron Age metal working activity
To confirm the presence of Iron Age emmer wheat in pit 1289

The first stage in sample selection was to identify short-lived material, which was demonstrably not residual in the context from which it was recovered. All samples consisted of single entities apart from context 1700 where several grains of emmer wheat were required to provide enough carbon (Ashmore 1999). Material was

selected only where there was evidence that a sample had been put fresh into its context. The main category of materials, which met these taphonomic criteria, were:

- recognisable dumps of charred material which where interpreted as the result of single archaeological 'events'.
- charcoal with a direct functional relationship to its context, ie fuel from metal working pits and the cremation pyre.
- cremated bone from burial 1095

Additionally, samples of emmer wheat were submitted to confirm the Iron Age presence of this material at the site and *not* to date their context.

Results

Enclosure 2255 (Figure 35)

Six samples, including one from the terminus, were submitted from the fills of one of the ditches. A single sample (SUERC-12231) came from one of the lower fills (context 2547) stratigraphically below a possible recut. Determinations were also made on five samples from secondary fills; the two from context 2545 are statistically consistent (SUERC-12230 and GrA-33508 (T'=0.0; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8; Ward and Wilson 1978) and could therefore be of the same actual age, as is the case for the two results from context 2365 (GrA-33710 and SUERC-12229) (T'=0.3; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8). A single sample (GrA-33509) also came from the secondary fill of a

terminus; all five determinations from the secondary fills are statistically consistent (T'=0.4; ν=4; T'(5%)=9.5).

There was good agreement between the stratigraphy and the radiocarbon measurements (A overall=160.8%). The model provides an estimate for the start of infilling of *1890–1690 cal BC (95% probability; Boundary Start infilling causewayed enclosure*) and probably *1780–1700 cal BC (68% probability)*. This provides a *terminus ante quem* for the digging of the enclosure ditch. Infilling of the ditch probably occurred very rapidly as shown by the fact that all six measurements are statistically consistent (T'=0.8; ν=5; T'(5%)=11.1).

The Iron Age metalworking pits (Figure 36)

Two single samples from two metalworking pits produced statistically consistent results (T'=1.7; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8) and therefore could be of the same age. The results indicate a middle Iron Age date for the metalworking.

The Iron Age cultivation of emmer wheat (Figure 36)

The two determinations made on samples of emmer wheat (SUERC-12226 and GrA-33708) from pit 1289 are statistically consistent (T'=0.2; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8). This confirms a middle to late Iron Age date for the presence of emmer wheat at the site. Emmer wheat in an Iron Age context from North Wiltshire is unusual though not unprecedented. The subspecies is generally regarded as a contaminant rather than a cultivar at this time (see Griffiths this report).

Burial 1095 (Figure 36)

Three determinations were made on samples from the partially burnt burial, 1095. Two were made on samples of charcoal and one from the cremated human bone. All samples originated from the same context and represent the same archaeological event. The three measurements are not statistically consistent (T'=18.0; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8; Ward and Wilson 1978) and therefore represent material of different ages. The two charcoal samples are statistically consistent (T'=2.9; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8). The measurement on the cremated bone may simply represent one of the one in twenty cases where a radiocarbon result lies outside the 'true age' of the sample (Bowman 1990).

GrA-33707 (160 cal BC–cal AD 70) provides the best estimate for the date for the anomalous burial and analysis shows there is a 93.2% probability that the burial occurred before the Roman invasion of AD 43.

ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

Charred and waterlogged plant remains

by Seren Griffiths

Sixty-nine soil samples were selected for processing by water flotation to 250 µm after the exclusion of mixed deposits. The flots were assessed by Sikking (2005) and

four were selected for analysis, since the majority contained few identifiable seeds. Charred and waterlogged plant remains are presented in Tables 12 and 13; nomenclature follows Stace (1997).

Iron Age waterhole 3786

Sample 227 originated from fill 3919 of waterhole 3786. The flot contained a range of waterlogged weed seeds and other macroscopic plant tissues. Nettles, fat-hen, fig-leaved goosefoot and black nightshade are all indicative of the high nutrient levels of the ground surrounding the pit. There is also evidence of disturbed or trampled ground from silverweed, greater plantain and chickweed. This evidence of trampled ground and nitrogen-rich soils is consistent with the identification of enclosures and field systems at the site, as well as with the faunal remains.

Meadow/grassland seeds in the flot included the meadow buttercups (*Ranunculus* cf *acris* and *R. repens*), grasses and oxeye daisy; these probably represent the area immediately surrounding the pit. Damp ground species, presumably from the edge of the pit, include spike rush, true rushes and sedges. The true aquatic water crowfoot buttercup must originate from the fill of the pit itself. Thorns and seeds from a number of scrubby thorn bushes, probably including blackthorn, hawthorn, dogwood and brambles, were present in the pit. The presence of shade-loving plants three-nerved sandwort, ground ivy and dog's mercury is interesting. Dog's mercury seeds are quite large and unlikely to have been transported over significant distances, so there were probably substantial shady areas in the immediate vicinity of the waterhole. The shade-loving plants and thorny shrubs probably related to managed

hedging, recently cleared woodland or woodland surviving in the vicinity of the waterhole. Similar evidence for hedges probably associated with stock control was found at Mingies Ditch (Robinson 1993) although in this case the hedging related to the enclosure ditch. The presence of aquatic species in the waterhole also suggests poor maintenance and overgrowth.

Iron Age pit 1289

Samples 158 and 159 were taken from fills 1290 and 1700 respectively, both deliberate dumps of domestic waste within pit 1289. Sample 159 (lower fill) contained cereal grain and chaff dominated by spelt/emmer wheat. Slightly more emmer than spelt grains were present, and these included shorter grains than often observed. Hulled barley and a grain of probable oat were also present. Sample 158 (upper fill) contained six row hulled barley, spelt/emmer wheat, an oat grain and a hazelnut shell fragment. Weeds were limited to docks and grass. Given the limited volumes of cereal chaff, both deposits probably reflect accidental burning of cereal, either as part of the parching or another aspect of the crop processing (Nesbitt and Samuel 1996). The short emmer grains were perhaps a distinct variety of the crop.

While these deposits were relatively rich in cereal remains, the evidence overall for cereal crop exploitation is scant. The presence of middle Iron Age cereal crops in these quantities contrasts with large complex sites such as Danebury, but might be viewed as analogous to a series of sites in the Thames Valley such as Thornhill Farm (Robinson 2004) which demonstrate 'household' production/consumption *sensu* Stevens (2003).

Iron Age ring gully 1277 and pit 1131

Pit 1131 lay within ring gully 1277. Sample 151 was taken from the single fill, 1130, a dump deposit containing burnt and unburnt animal bone and middle Iron Age pottery. Wheat cereal glume bases dominated the charred assemblage, the majority of which were spelt wheat or spelt/emmer wheat, with a single example of possible emmer wheat. Only three cereal grains were present, but a short grain of spelt wheat may indicate adverse growing conditions. The weed assemblage includes many seeds of grass, plants of damp ground and some usual weeds of cultivation. The coarse vegetation may have been cut for animal fodder or bedding. The predominance of glume bases and absence of grain suggests that the assemblage is probably the by-product of cereal processing and the chaff may have been used as fuel. Hawthorn may represent domestic waste from a hearth or fuel from cereal processing.

Discussion

The evidence for cereals is limited and there is no direct evidence for large-scale cereal production or processing at the site. Nonetheless, the cereals recovered could have been grown locally. The proportions of grain and chaff in the analysed samples are indicative of localised domestic dumps from 'household' consumption. Stevens (2003) has noted the problems inherent in the interpretation of Iron Age arable subsistence strategies. The organisation of production and consumption of cereal crops should be regarded as site specific and can be as much influenced by available workers and social organisation as soil and growing conditions. The presence of a

distinct variety of cereal crop may be evidence of 'household' levels of production whereby a small seed stock might result in distinct varieties of grain produced within a very localised crop economy.

The presence of water-tolerant plants such as spike rush and sedges in the charred assemblage suggests cultivation of wet or damp, seasonally flooded arable farmland. The exploitation of wet ground might indicate that marginal land was exploited for crops, while the main focus of subsistence was pastoral. A community specialising in specific faunal resources, perhaps seasonally, and only 'household' use of cereal resources, would be consistent with other Iron Age specialist pastoral settlements occupying flood plains discussed by Stevens (2003).

Insect and Mollusc Remains (Tables 12–16)

by Mark Robinson

Bulk samples were taken from potentially waterlogged deposits for preserved macroscopic plant and invertebrate remains. Following assessment, one waterlogged sample (227) had potential to provide useful palaeoenvironmental information through analysis (see above). Many of the flots contained mollusc shells and three were selected for analysis (150, 167, 220).

Iron Age waterhole 3786 (context 3919), Sample 227

The most numerous insects from waterhole 3786 were small water beetles, particularly *Ochthebius* cf. *minimus*. Other aquatic invertebrates included larvae of chironomid

midges and a single example of the snail *Lymnaea truncatula*, suggesting that the waterhole held stagnant water. Unsurprisingly, there were also insects of mud and wet organic debris such as *Lesteva longoelytrata* and *Platystethus cornutus* gp. The other insects and snails had entered the deposit from surrounding terrestrial habitats.

Wood- and tree-dependent beetles comprised 5% of the terrestrial Coleoptera (Table 14, Species Group 4). Such a value suggests a largely open landscape but with a significant presence of trees or shrubs. One of the beetles, *Pyrochroa serraticornis*, tends to be associated with dead wood of woodland trees such as oak. However, others including *Rhynchites* cf. *germanicus* and *Magdalis* sp., also feed on scrub and hedgerow shrubs including hawthorn and sloe. The molluscs from the sample included some species of shaded habitats, such as *Oxychilus cellarius*, but they are as likely to have been living in tall herbaceous vegetation around the waterhole as in woodland.

Insects and molluscs of open habitats were well represented. The most numerous snails were from the genus *Vallonia*, with both *V. costata* and *V. excentrica* represented. The phytophagous insects included taxa associated with grassland plants. The leaf beetle *Hydrothassa* sp. feeds on *Ranunculus* spp. (buttercups) and the weevil *Tychius* sp. on *Trifolium* spp. (clovers) while the ciccadelid bug *Aphrodes bicinctus* feeds on various species of grass. The chafer and elaterid beetles of Species Group 11, with larvae which feed on the roots of grassland plants, such as *Phyllopertha horticola*, comprised 4.6% of the terrestrial Coleoptera while the clover and vetch-feeding weevils of Species Group 3, which tend to be favoured by tall grassland vegetation including hay meadows, comprised 2.3% of the terrestrial Coleoptera.

It is clear that the grassland was grazed by domestic animals. Scarabaeoid dung beetles which feed on the droppings of larger herbivores (Species Group 2) comprised 8.0% of the terrestrial Coleoptera. As well as species which still occur in the region, such as *Aphodius rufipes* and *Onthophagus ovatus*, there was a single example of the dark elytra form of *Aphodius varians*, which is now extinct in Britain (Allen 1967, 222–3). These results indicate that pastureland was a major component of the environment around the waterhole. However, grazing does not seem to have been particularly intensive; a much higher percentage of scarabaeoid dung beetles would have been expected if there had been a high concentration of domestic animals on this part of the site.

Disturbed ground vegetation was also present, ranging from annual or biennial Cruciferae such as *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (shepherd's purse) and *Brassica* spp. (wild turnip etc), the hosts of the flea beetles *Phyllotreta atra* and *P. nemorum*, through to *Urtica dioica* (stinging nettle), the food plant of the beetle *Brachypterus urticae* and the bug *Heterogaster urticae*. Most of the ground beetles, such as *Nebria brevicollis* and *Pterostichus melanarius* and some of the rove beetles, such as *Xantholinus linearis* or *longiventris* and *Staphylinus olens*, occur in a range of terrestrial habitats, including woodland, grassland and disturbed grassland. The ground beetles, which tend to be favoured by arable conditions, were absent. It is therefore thought likely that the weedy vegetation represented disturbed and neglected ground around the waterhole and settlement but did not necessarily include cultivated land.

The insects only gave slight evidence of timber structures and the settlement. There were single examples of *Anobium punctatum* (woodworm beetle) (Species Group 10) and of *Ptinus fur* (Species Group 9a) which tends to live inside buildings, sometimes being

associated with food waste. Beetles of foul organic material (Species Group 7) were, at 12.6% of the terrestrial Coleoptera, very well represented. It is possible that some of these beetles, such as *Megasternum obscurum* and *Anotylus sculpturatus* gp., were living in settlement-related midden material but they can also be plentiful in areas remote from human activity.

Middle Iron Age gully, Sample 220 ditch 3965

The molluscs from this gully comprised both shade-loving and open-country species. Water snails were absent. Most numerous were shade loving species, such as *Carychium* sp., *Aegopinella nitidula* and *Oxychilus cellarius*. However, the occurrence of a few examples of *Vallonia* sp., including *V. excentrica*, showed that conditions were not entirely shaded. The most likely interpretation is that there was coarse herbaceous vegetation in the ditch or a hedgerow alongside it but that the surrounding area was open.

Early Roman pit 1010, Sample 167 and early Roman ditch 968, Sample 150

Both of these features seem to have held stagnant water. Shells of *Anisus leucostoma* were very abundant in Sample 167 (context 1011) and were present in Sample 150 (context 973). *Lymnaea truncatula* was also present in both samples. The most abundant terrestrial snail in both samples was *Trichia hispida* gp. which occurs in a very wide range of habitats, but both samples contained species of *Vallonia* which require open conditions, while the occurrence of *Vallonia excentrica* and *Helicella itala* in Sample 150 suggests a well-drained habitat. It is thought likely that the early Roman site was

open and the ground surface relatively dry but that the water table was close to the surface, so stagnant water was sometimes present in the bottoms of deeper archaeological features.

Discussion

The results from the Iron Age waterhole again indicate a landscape which was largely open, with lightly grazed grassland but with some presence of woodland and scrub. This would be consistent with the evidence from Shorncote Quarry, Somerford Keynes (Robinson 2002) which indicated that there was some survival of woodland on the First Gravel Terrace in the middle Bronze Age above Lechlade whereas the main Thames Valley downstream had been cleared earlier. The insect results suggested that there were limited settlement structures associated with the waterhole.

The results from the middle Iron Age ditch showed conditions were relatively well drained and that coarse vegetation probably grew in the vicinity of the ditch. In contrast, the molluscs from the early Roman pit and the early Roman ditch indicated they had stagnant water at the bottom. A rising water table has been recorded for the Upper Thames Valley during this period (Robinson 1992). However, the snails also showed that conditions on the ground surface were well drained and open.

Human Remains

by Jonny Geber and Louise Loe

Full osteological analysis of all human skeletal remains was undertaken. These included a neonatal inhumation burial (3871) from the top of a middle Iron Age pit and four burials cut into the late Iron Age enclosure ditch 1285 – inhumation burial 1694 (cut 1695), 1690 (cut 1691), partially burnt burial 1100 (cut 1095) and cremation burial 1157 (cut 1156). Additionally two cremation burials were inserted into Roman enclosure ditch 3930 (1488 and 1491) and one isolated Roman inhumation burial (1312) lay to the north of the Romano-British settlement.

Neonate burial 3871

The neonate burial (3871) was recovered from the upper fill (3870) of middle Iron Age pit 3869, but may have been early Roman. It lay in a crouched position on its left side with its arms and legs tightly flexed, orientated west-east with head facing north. The skeletal remains were well preserved, but most of the skull, right shoulder and both feet were missing. Based on long bone measurements, the individual was estimated to have been about 38–39 weeks (birth typically 38–42 weeks).

Inhumation burials 1694/1695, 1690/1691 and 1312

Inhumation burial 1694/1695 was located in the south-west corner of enclosure 1285, orientated north-south and in a crouched position on its right side with legs and left arm flexed and right arm extended. The large size of the grave cut (1.6 by 0.6 m) suggests that organic material had been present. Skeleton 1690/1691 was buried in the southeast corner of the ditch, in an east-west orientated grave cut, lying on its left side. Truncation obscured the original burial posture but the records suggest a

crouched position. The burial was accompanied by an Aucissa brooch (SF 170) and a small quantity of cremated human bone (1668) was present in the fill. Inhumation burial 1312 was isolated, located *c* 10 m east of trackway 3945 (Figures 22 and 24). This may be a deviant burial associated with a nearby Roman cemetery. Coffin fittings and nails indicated that 1312 was a coffined burial. The skeleton lay in a prone position orientated northeast-southwest. The legs were extended and parallel, the arms slightly flexed and had been pulled round the back of the body so that the hand bones were resting on the posterior of the proximal femora, suggesting the hands had been bound.

The skeletons were between 40 and 70% complete. Only 1694/1695 was in good condition, the others considerably abraded as a result of post-mortem damage.

Age, sex and stature

All of the individuals were males. Skeleton 1312 was a young adult, the others prime adults. Skeleton 1690/1691 had a stature of 160 cm (5 feet 3 inches) and burial 1694/1695 was taller, at 173 cm (5 feet 8 inches). It was not possible to estimate the stature of skeleton 1312. The mean male stature during the Roman period in Britain is estimated at 169 cm (5 feet 6 ½ inches) (Roberts and Cox 2003, 396).

Non metric traits

Three of the skeletons had non-metric traits located cranially and post-cranially. Third trochanters and os trigonum were observed on one skeleton (1690/1691) and the other

traits present are detailed in the skeletal catalogue. They are among a range of traits that are frequently observed in skeletal material of similar date and type, but the present sample is too small to explore relatedness or activity patterns between the individuals.

Skeletal pathology

Osteophytosis was present on the margins of the vertebral bodies and vertebral articular facets of skeletons 1690/1691 and 1694/1695, the only skeletons with preserved vertebrae. On the vertebral bodies, the changes appeared as horizontal new bone that increased in extent caudally. The appearance of all of these changes is consistent with common normal age-related degeneration of the spine.

Porotic hyperostosis, in the form of increased porosity and expanded diploic space, was present on both parietal bones of skeleton 1690/1691. The changes were present along the sagittal suture and were not active at the time of death. The full extent of the changes was impossible to estimate owing to fragmentation. Cribra orbitalia, in the form of large and small isolated foramina and consistent with Type III lesions described by Stuart-Macadam (1991), was identified on the roof of the right orbit of the same skeleton.

Porotic hyperostosis and cribra orbitalia are believed to be the result of iron deficiency anaemia. It is generally believed that most examples in British material have been caused by the acquired form of the disease because the inherited form is rare (Livingstone 1967). Anaemia tends not to leave traces on adult bone (Stuart-

Macadam 1991) and so the lesions observed in skeleton 1690/1691 occurred in childhood, when skeletal lesions relating to this disease are manifest. Aetiological factors associated with this condition relate to dietary deficiency, malabsorption (due to gastro-intestinal infection or parasites), blood loss and chronic disease (Roberts and Cox 2003, 234). Because of their multi-factorial aetiology, cribra orbitalia and porotic hyperostosis are regarded as non-specific indicators of childhood health stress.

Dental pathology

Sixty-four teeth and 68 alveolar sockets were available for analysis. Four teeth (all from skeleton 1312) had caries (6.25%) and eight examples of ante-mortem tooth loss were observed (two from skeleton 1312 and six from skeleton 1694), ie 11.76% of all surviving sockets. Skeleton 1312 had two front teeth and two first molars affected by caries, mainly at the cemento-enamel junction. The caries rate for Romano-British skeletal populations is estimated to be 7.45% (Roberts and Cox 2003, 396).

Both skeletons 1312 and 1694/1695 had lost about 20% of their teeth in life, primarily the molars. Ante-mortem loss may arise from a range of factors including abscess formation, caries, periodontal disease secondary to calculus formation, and pulp exposure and abscess formation secondary to severe attrition or trauma. In these specimens, there was no macroscopic indication that ante-mortem loss was associated with abscess formation or calculus. However, both skeletons exhibited heavy attrition on their anterior dentition.

Cremation burials 1488, 1491 and 1157

Three unurned cremation burials were recorded. Burial 1157 (cut 1156/1158) was inserted in the fill of the ditch terminal of late Iron Age enclosure 1285 (Figure 21). Burial 1488 was cut into Roman enclosure ditch 3930, and burial 1491 into pit 1488 (Figure 24). Burials 1488 and 1491 were dated on stratigraphic and ceramic evidence to the 2nd century AD or later. The date of 1157 was less clear, but was probably Late Iron Age or early Roman.

Minimum number of individuals

Based on the non-duplication of elements and biological age and sex, at least one skeleton was identified in each of the three contexts that contained cremated remains, therefore representing a minimum number of three individuals.

Quantity and fragmentation

Five hundred and ninety-five bone fragments (617 g) were examined. Of these, 38.58% (43.57% of the total weight) were identified to skeletal element. The mean weight per fragment was 0.8 g, and the largest bone fragment ranged from 32.64 to 58.83 mm in size (Table 17). Compared to other British examples, the weights were low and the fragment size large (McKinley 2000b). Taphonomic factors aside, the low bone weights of these burials do suggest that recovery of the entire cremated remains of the dead from the burnt out pyre for burial was not significant to mourners of Latton's cremated dead. If the amount of time expended on collecting elements is

considered a useful reflection of that person's status in life (McKinley 2000a), then this implies the relative unimportance attached to the burial of these individuals.

Age and sex

Based on the relative thickness of the diploë, and the internal and external vault tables of a skull fragment, burial 1488 was estimated to have been 35 to 64 years of age. The remains of burial 1156 indicated only that the individual had attained adulthood (Table 18). Burial 1157 did not have any surviving diagnostic features by which age could be estimated. Biological sex could not be estimated for any of the remains owing to absence of sexually dimorphic features.

Cremation technology

The bones from all three cremations ranged from black to grey in colour, suggesting that they had all been poorly cremated. In total, 76 g (19.06%) was black, indicating that these bones had been burned at a temperature that did not exceed 400ºC. A complete, successful cremation displays white bones and requires prolonged exposure to temperatures exceeding 700–800ºC (Herrmann 1988, 578; Wahl 1982, 27). Colour variation indicated that approximately 20% of the total bone weight of burials 1156 and 1488 comprised partially burned bones, whilst the remaining 80% comprised fully cremated bone. Assessing degrees of incineration based on colour is considered, by some to be a useful way of estimating the original position of the body on the pyre. For example, Gejvall (1947, 45) suggested that the poor degree of burning was an indication that the corpses had been laid out in an extended, supine position on the

pyre. Wells (1960, 34–7) on the other hand, interprets the same findings as evidence that the deceased were placed directly on the ground in an extended, supine, position with the pyre built over it. Different degrees of burning between skeletal elements are also explained by the fact that bones with little soft tissue coverage will cremate more fully than bones with dense tissue coverage (McKinley 2000a; During 2002, 11). Other factors that may account for colour variation include a lack of oxygen during the cremation process, perhaps because the cremation fire was not stoked sufficiently (Gräslund 1978, 370) and/or because of rain and wind at the time of the cremation.

Additional deposit of cremated human bone (1668)

A total of 67 fragments (59.5 g) of cremated human bone was found in the fill (1668) surrounding skeleton 1690. They were not part of the inhumation and are likely to be the redeposited remains of a disturbed cremation burial. A skull vault and arm bone fragments were identified, representing a MNI of one adult individual (18–44 years old) of unknown sex.

Partially cremated skeleton 1100

The partially burnt remains of skeleton 1100 lay within grave 1095, which had been cut into late Iron Age enclosure ditch 1285 (Figures 21–3). They represented a prone adult skeleton lying between charred timbers. The skeleton was fitted tightly into the cut, with knees flexed and crossed. It was accompanied by an iron knife (SF 168; Figure 32, no. 8) and a largely complete pot (SF166; Figure 30, no. 28). Articulated foot bones were located beneath the pelvis but above the pot. The radiocarbon

determinations suggest a 93.2% probability that the burial was of pre-conquest date (Griffith and Marshall, this report).

Although the evidence for *in situ* burning and the partially burned skeleton initially suggested a bustum, several traits were not consistent with this definition. Busta were pyre sites that either had under-pyre pits (*Grubenbusta*) or flat sites covered by a mound (*Flächenbusta*) (McKinley 2000a, 38). They are thought to have been introduced into Britain from the Continent, particularly from the Rhine region, and are often associated with military contexts, and typically date to the early Roman period. They are not straightforward to identify in the archaeological record and, according to McKinley (2000a), several examples have been erroneously categorised. Five definitions of a bustum are presented in Table 19.

Burial 1100 met several of these criteria. It contained a relatively complete articulated skeleton that lay above most of the charcoal. The grave cut was larger the standard cremation burial graves, but smaller than the expected length of a supine, extended *in situ* cremation pyre. It was not the typical 0.3–1 m depth of a bustum, but was much shallower, with the skeleton lying close to the surface, The extent of truncation of topsoil and subsoils is not well understood, however. Field records did not include descriptions of the soil colour (to indicate the extent of penetration of the burning) nor the depth of the fuel ash, but only that *in situ* burning had occurred. Thus, this burial does not fulfil all the criteria of a bustum, and is best regarded as an anomalous burial of the remains of an incomplete cremation, which is rare and currently only recorded for the Roman period (McKinley pers. comm.).

The surviving skeleton was represented by the skull, spine, right and left scapulae, right and left distal humeri, fragments of radius and ulna, some hand bones, right and left femora, shafts of tibiae and both feet, all in varying degrees of completeness and extent of burning. The unburned bones exhibited little post-mortem abrasion.

Age, sex and stature

Sexually diagnostic pelvic features indicated a male, whilst degenerative changes of the auricular surface suggested a mature adult, aged 40–44 years. Stature was estimated as 170.27 cm (5 feet 7 inches).

Degree of burning

Most of the torso showed no evidence of thermal alteration. Only limited parts of the upper and lower limbs had been fully cremated. The posterior of the cranium, the mid-shaft of the right humerus (anterior and posterior), the iliac crest of the pelvis (anterior and posterior), both knees (anterior and posterior) and feet (plantar aspect) were burned black, but this was restricted to relatively small areas on the bones. The spine was slightly cremated on the posterior aspect, as were parts of the lower legs. The tooth roots were white, as were parts of the skull. The hand bones were black. This uneven extent of burning suggests an attempt at cremation. Burning to the back of the skull and along the extremities would be expected if the corpse had been laid supine and extended on top of the pyre. The unburnt torso would imply that the cremation was of short duration or of insufficient intensity, perhaps abandoned prior to completion due to adverse weather conditions and/or inadequate pyre construction,

resulting in its premature collapse. However, incomplete combustion of the skeleton may also reflect a cultural practice in which full oxidation of the bone was not considered necessary. For example, in the Derby Racecourse Roman cemetery, a fire lit within the grave had only charred two skeletons (Philpott 1991, 48).

Non-metric traits

Non-metric traits are listed in the skeletal catalogue (in archive), but two are described here. A third trochanter was present on the right femur (a bony projection on the proximal end of the shaft at the superior end of the gluteal tuberosity). This trait is associated with altered gluteal muscle function (Bolanowski *et al*. 2005). The second trait, *os trigonum*, that was present involved the process on the postero-lateral border of the left talus bone of the ankle, which was unfused. Non-fusion of this process has a modern prevalence of 2.5–13% (McGlamry *et al.* 1992, 934). It tends to occur unilaterally and may cause generalised pain in the rear of the foot (*ibid*.)

Pathology

Spinal osteophytosis was present as massive paravertebral bone extensions between L4 and L5 on the right antero-lateral aspect. Disc space between the vertebral bodies and facet joints was retained and, although broken post mortem, the outgrowths had clearly been fused originally. Such bony changes may result from ossification of the anterior longitudinal ligament, a change typical in individuals suffering from Diffuse Idiopathic Skeletal Hyperostosis (DISH). DISH is more common in males particularly in the older age categories, and has been associated with Late Onset (Type II) diabetes

mellitus and obesity (Rogers and Waldron 1995). In skeletal material, DISH is diagnosed if at least four contiguous vertebrae are fused by large flowing osteophyte on the right hand side. However, in the present example, no other vertebrae were involved. An alternative diagnosis may be spinal degenerative joint disease, a very common condition that results from degeneration of the intervertebral discs, which lose their elasticity with age.

Schmorl's nodes, or intervertebral disc herniation, were present on the surfaces of the lower thoracic and upper lumbar vertebral bodies. Although associated with degenerative disease, Schmorl's nodes have also been linked to activity and trauma (especially in adolescence) or metabolic disorders (Jurmain 1999).

Changes consistent with osteoarthritis (OA) were present on the left articular processes of C7 and T1. It is very unlikely that occupation and activity played the only role in the manifestation of OA on this skeleton. Many factors, including age, sex, ancestry, and genetic predisposition also play a part in the manifestation and course of the disease. The distribution of the disease on the skeleton may not be directly associated with a specific activity or occupation.

Trauma

Healed blunt trauma was identified on the cranial vault as a sagittal line with an adjacent medial depression on the left parietal bone. The lesion was well healed, although the depression presented a rugged and pitted external surface.

Discussion

The burials represent a total of at least nine individuals, which date to the late Iron Age/early Roman and Roman periods, the exception being a neonate of middle Iron Age to Roman date. The group includes four cremation burials, one unusual partially burnt burial and three inhumations. Three cremation burials were of adults, two of whom could be more precisely aged to 35–64 years and one to 18–44 years. The partially burnt burial was of an adult male, whilst the adult inhumations were also male. The latter were estimated to have been a young adult (one skeleton) and prime adults (two skeletons) when they died.

Among the pathological conditions observed were degenerative changes and osteoarthritis (probably associated with advanced age) and cribra orbitalia and porotic hyperostosis, which indicated that at least one of the individuals had a history of prolonged childhood anaemia. Most interesting was the blunt force trauma to the skull of skeleton 1100, which may have been the result of inter-personal violence or a fall. Healing of the lesion indicates this occurred perhaps several years before death. Dental pathological conditions included caries and ante-mortem tooth loss.

During the Iron Age, pits and ditches were the most common contexts for the placement of the dead. Neonatal burials are not often found in the early Iron Age, but appear to become more common in the middle and later periods (Wait 1985, 88–90). Examples are 22 pit burials from Berwick St John and Steeple Langford in Wiltshire (Whimster 1981) and at least 18 from Gravelly Guy, Oxon. (Lambrick and Allen 2004). In general, however, much of this period is characterised by the under-

representation of formal burial, and it is thought by some researchers (*eg* Haselgrove 1999, 123; Carr and Knüsel 1997, 168–73) that most dead were excarnated and their remains scattered. Why some individuals appear to have been selected for interment within pits and ditches is not well understood.

The late Iron Age/early Roman cremation and inhumation burials 1157, 1100, 1690/1691 and 1694/1695 were all cut into the ditch fill of late Iron Age enclosure 1285. Although the ditch had fallen out of use, it is unlikely that their placement within it was coincidental. Rather, the burials may have been situated to emphasise connections with past use of the site. Land ownership and belief in the power of the dead over the living are amongst explanations of this funerary practice (Esmonde Cleary 2000, 137–8). Late Iron Age cremation burials are very rare in the Upper Thames valley, an exception being Segsbury Camp (Boyle 2005). Although the cremation burial was not dated precisely, it is probably contemporary with the others.

Burial 1100 (radiocarbon dated to the pre-Roman Iron Age) comprised the partly burned remains of a prone older adult male, tightly confined within a rectangular pit with large quantities of charcoal. This combination of burial and burning in the late Iron Age is extremely rare. What constituted a 'normal' Iron Age burial in this area is not well understood. Most known Iron Age burials were inhumations within ditches and pits. How far this burial deviates from the 'normal' means of disposure is uncertain. Whether it was an attempted cremation that failed or a purification ritual is unknown. Late Iron Age burial in other parts of Britain comprised both inhumation and cremation, and this burial combined elements of both. Although it does not fulfil all criteria of a bustum or *in situ* cremation, it contains elements of this practice. Two

other Iron Age *in situ* cremations are known from Puddlehill, Bedfordshire (Whimster 1981, 154), whilst on the Continent, they are known throughout the entire Iron Age in Scandinavia (500 BC–AD 1050) (Gräslund 1978). In the early Roman period, busta are a frequent feature of burial along the Rhine frontier (J McKinley pers. comm.). Burial 1100 may mark the transition from inhumation to cremation practice, although the latter never enjoyed the same popularity in this region that it achieved in the south-east of England in the early Roman period. The ditch burials may be broadly contemporary, whilst burial 1100 may be interpreted as an early attempt at cremation, which was more successfully achieved in cremation burial 1157.

Both cremation and inhumation took place concurrently at the beginning of the Roman period in Britain (Philpott 1991). Cremation was the predominant burial rite during the early period until about the mid 2nd century AD when inhumation became the main burial tradition (*ibid*.; Taylor 2001, 87, 109). Ordinary domestic pots were usually used as containers for cremation burials. Unurned cremated bone deposits are generally thought to have been placed within a container made of organic material, such as wood, leather or cloth. In the inhumation tradition, the deceased were usually buried supine and extended in nailed wooden coffins or in high-status stone and/or lead coffins (Taylor 2001, 101–9). Prone burials are occasionally present in many rural late Roman sites, and until recently were interpreted as the burials of the socially deviant or spiritually dangerous. The interment of the body of skeleton 1312 within a coffin would suggest that far from being a casual burial, some care had been taken in its burial.

Wood Charcoal

by Dana Challinor

A selection of charcoal samples was recorded, most relating to burial 1100 (grave 1095). Two other samples of Roman date came from pits which also produced cremated human remains. Three Iron Age contexts were examined; one from a cremation burial and the others from domestic/industrial contexts. The aims were to determine the taxonomic composition of deposits relating to the cremation process and to investigate the evidence for the selection of fuelwood during the Iron Age and Roman periods. The results from the assessment are included in the discussion where relevant, in particular from the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age enclosure 2255.

The taxonomic level of identification varied according to the biogeography and anatomy of the taxa, but nine types were positively identified: *Ulmus* (elm), *Quercus* (oak), *Alnus* (alder), *Populus/Salix* (poplar/willow), *Prunus* (blackthorn, cherry), Maloideae (hawthorn, apple, pear *etc*), *Ilex* (holly), *Acer* (field maple) and *Fraxinus* (ash). The preservation of the charcoal was also extremely variable. It is likely that some indeterminate fragments represent additional specimens of taxa positively identified at the site. One sample (151) produced several pieces of charred worked wood.

Late Neolithic/early Bronze Age

Several samples from enclosure 2255 and some small associated pits were examined as part of the assessment. Oak or ash was present in most of the deposits. Only two

ditch contexts (2378 and 2370) produced mixed assemblages, including *Prunus* (cherry type) and Maloideae (hawthorn type). The provenance of the charcoal in these assemblages was difficult to determine, but the taxa identified are consistent with comparable sites (Smith 2002).

Iron Age/Roman

Pits

The samples from Iron Age pits 1131 and 2918 produced markedly different assemblages. Pit 1131 was dominated by large, round worked fragments of Maloideae (hawthorn type) charcoal. The worked pieces were *c* 30 mm in diameter and would have been considerably larger before charring. It is likely that much of the Maloideae in the sample came from worked wood, although this was only confirmed on the larger fragments. The wood probably represents a specific artefact, since the maker had not used small diameter branchwood, which would have naturally produced the rounded edge. Instead, the wood had been carved and carefully rounded by hand from a larger piece of trunk or large branchwood. The pit also produced a large quantity of animal bone and charred cereal remains, suggesting the majority of the deposit derived from a domestic hearth, fuelled by oak and ash.

The assemblage from pit 2918 may have been associated with industrial activities. Alder does not burn well as an unseasoned wood fuel, but makes a very good charcoal fuel (Edlin 1949). The use of charcoal as fuel in some industrial activities, certainly metalworking, is necessary (Cleere and Crossley 1985). Interestingly, the

assemblages from pits 3674 and 3869, which did produce evidence for metalworking, were dominated by oak, which is more commonly found in deposits of this type.

Cremation burials

The cremation burials were cut into the ditches of enclosures 1285 and 3930, dated to the late Iron Age/early Roman and mid-late Roman periods. The earliest burial, 1156, was dominated by a single taxon (Maloideae). This trend has been observed in Bronze Age ritual, in particular, where a single wood type seems to have been selected for cremating bodies (Thompson 1999). There is much less published data for the Iron Age, but it seems that later cremations followed a similar ritual selection of species. The wood is not always consistent, it is often oak but there are examples of Maloideae-dominated cremation assemblages (Challinor forthcoming). It is not always possible to determine from the charcoal which genus of the Maloideae family is represented, but most have reasonable burning properties, if used in sufficient quantity. The fact that the bones were poorly cremated suggests that either one of the less calorific Maloideae woods was used, or that not enough fuelwood was used. Estimates of the quantity of wood required to cremate an adult range between 300–500 kg (McKinley 1994, 80).

The presence of smaller quantities of other taxa is often explained by its inclusion as kindling, but this is unlikely as the genera of the Maloideae family would provide good kindling. Some small roundwood fragments were present in the charcoal assemblage of 1156 and accidental inclusion or the burnt remains of pyre goods remain more likely possibilities.

Partially burnt burial 1095

The samples from grave 1095 contrast sharply with burial 1156, both in the use of different species and the nature of the assemblages. The samples are not consistently dominated by a single species and have an average of five taxa per sample. Even samples 157 and 165, which came from the same context, 1104, have noticeably different charcoal. Context 1104 was a layer of burnt timbers beneath skeleton 1100, and directly above the primary fill (sample 166). Sample 155, context 1097, was a deliberate back fill of the grave, with mixed pyre debris. The differences between the assemblages probably relate to the pyre structure, and is of great interest since it differs from busta and typical pyre sites. For instance, the results from the charcoal analysis of five bustum pits from the Roman cremation cemetery at Pepper Hill, Kent, revealed that the assemblages were almost exclusively dominated by oak (Challinor 2006). There was no spatial difference in the burials which might reveal pyre structure, but this often appears to be the case at pyre sites of Roman date (Challinor 2007).

The use of *Ulmus* (elm) is particularly interesting as it is rare to find this genus in cremation charcoal in Britain. Elm does not make good firewood as it burns reluctantly and smoulders, although the heartwood emits relatively good heat when enclosed (eg in stoves) – perhaps the reason the body at Latton Lands was only partially burnt, but elm may not have been deliberately selected as fuel. The primary fill 1574 produced very little elm and was composed of 60% Maloideae, with some oak, blackthorn and ash. It seems likely that this deposit represents the main fuelwood

or brushwood infilling of the pyre structure which would have collapsed into the pit during the cremation. The elm probably relates to the pyre structure itself and perhaps represents the remains of a platform or possibly a coffin, since there were a number of burnt timbers surrounding the body when the grave was excavated.

It is significant that the other two mid to late Roman cremation burials (1488 and 1491) cut into enclosure 3930 also produced assemblages containing elm. Burial 1491 was dominated by oak but 1488 produced similar quantities of oak and elm. Similar to 1095, the bodies were poorly cremated, perhaps due to the use of elm platforms or coffins on the burial pyre. Not all of the burials were sexed, but all were adults (Geber and Loe, above) so any differences in the selection of fuelwood is unlikely to relate to age. It has been suggested that busta are associated with status and/or military position, and the potential use of coffins in cremations may be associated with this.

Animal Remains

by Kristopher Poole

Over 5000 refitted fragments of animal bone (64,678 g) were recovered, including several early Iron Age animal burials. Bone was recovered from contexts dating from the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age to the Roman period. Most of the material was collected through hand recovery. A full report and data is available with the site archive.

The assemblage derived largely from pits (47.9%) and ditches (34%). A substantial proportion (40.8%) of early Iron Age bone came from waterhole 3878, whereas most

middle Iron Age bone was recovered from pits. In contrast, 66.4% and 84.6% of bone came from ditches in the late Iron Age and Roman periods respectively.

Bone condition ranged from very good to poor, with a majority well preserved (Table 21). Bones from late Iron Age contexts were best preserved and least fragmented. There was a considerably lower proportion of loose teeth for this period and less evidence of gnawing, suggesting scavengers were largely denied access to the bone.

Species represented

Only four fragments of bone from the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age enclosure could be identified to species – a cattle skull fragment and maxillary molar, and two sheep mandibular molars (Table 20). The Iron Age and Roman assemblages consisted almost completely of domestic animals, with cattle, sheep/goat, pig, horse and dog all present. No specimens were identified as goat and hereafter caprid species are referred to as sheep.

Cattle dominated the assemblages of all phases, but in the early-middle Iron Age and Roman periods horse bones, even excluding deliberate burials, outnumber those of sheep. The representation of horses is interesting as sheep and cattle are usually the two most frequent species at Iron Age sites in Britain.

Studies have shown that the composition of bone assemblages can vary considerably between different context types and locations (Maltby 1985; Wilson 1996; Driver 2004). For example, remains of larger species (cattle and horse) are often better

represented in the peripheral areas of a site, with smaller animals more frequent closer to the main focus of a settlement. Unfortunately, the numbers of bones are insufficient to allow valid comparisons of the assemblages recovered from different locations, but it is possible that the dominance of large animals is at least in part due to the types of contexts excavated.

Few identifiable bones were recovered from early Iron Age contexts, apart from the waterhole and animal burials, despite this phase having clear evidence of domestic occupation and structures. This suggests that, apart from the animal burials, most animal remains from this phase were deposited off-site, beyond the limits of this excavation.

The only wild species present were red deer, duck (comparable in size to teal, *Anas crecca*) and weasel. Red deer made up a small proportion of the total bone in the early/middle Iron Age and Roman periods, but were well represented in relation to pig. In the middle Iron Age, all remains of wild species, apart from one red deer fragment, came from pits. The weasel tibia was recovered from the fill of Pit 3869, which contained additionally a cattle femur, red deer metacarpal, large-sized mammal vertebra and rib, and unidentifiable bone fragments, along with burnt material from iron working and a burial of a human neonate (3871).

Ageing – the disarticulated remains

Dental eruption/attrition and epiphyseal fusion were used to estimate age at death. Grant's methods (1982) were used for recording tooth wear in cattle, sheep and pig,

with wear stages/ages being assigned using standards set out by Halstead (1985) for cattle, Grant (1982) for pigs, and Payne (1973; 1987) for sheep. Fusion data was used to assign ages to cattle, sheep and pigs using data given by Getty (1975).

Cattle

Epiphysial fusion data for cattle were pooled by phase and, despite small sample size, some interesting patterns emerged. Unfused pelves in the early and middle Iron Age indicate the presence of juveniles in both periods, but in general older cattle appear to have been slaughtered in the early Iron Age, with 78% of animals still alive at around 3–4 years (ie adult) in contrast to 57% in the middle Iron Age, a figure which drops to under 20% using dental data. The late Iron Age group was particularly small; most bones were from animals of at least 2–3 years old but dental data suggests only around 10% of animals survived into adulthood. In the Roman assemblage there were no foetal/neonatal bones and it seems that animals may generally have been kept to older ages than before, with 88% surviving into adulthood and beyond. It is, however, likely that younger animals may be under-represented in the assemblage as a whole, since skeletal elements of immature animals are more porous than skeletally mature animals (Lyman 1994, 418). The dentition data indicates that in the Roman period around 35% of animals were killed between 8 and 18 months, so broadly supporting the view that in this case younger animals are under-represented by the proportions of unfused bones.

Sheep/goat

Epiphysial fusion and dental data were insufficient for inter-period comparison. No animals from the two earliest wear stages were represented, except for a late Iron Age mandible from an animal of 2–6 months. In all phases, most sheep had been killed by 3–4 years. Far more sheep mandibles and teeth were recovered from the middle Iron Age occupation than other periods, and these indicated most animals were killed at 2–3 years, as prime meat animals. In contrast to dental data, epiphysial fusion, where available, indicates the presence of younger animals, which is unusual (see above).

Pigs

Few bones or teeth could be aged, but in general pigs appear to have been killed before they reached full size (today at around 3½ years). In the early Iron Age, an unfused distal humerus and unfused proximal ulna came from animals less than 15 months and 42 months old, whilst a mandible came from a 21–27 month-old pig. In the middle Iron Age, one mandible indicated an animal of 2–7 months, one of 7–14 months and three of 14–21 months. Additionally, an older animal of at least 42 months was represented by a fused proximal tibia. No dental data was available for the late Iron Age; a fused scapula and distal humerus were from animals aged at least 9–12 months and 15–18 months respectively, whilst an unfused calcaneus and proximal femur were both from pigs less than 36–42 months old.

Horse

Apart from a juvenile horse burial in pit 2785, and one unfused distal tibia from middle Iron Age ditch 3616 (from an animal less than 24 months old) all horse bones,

from all phases, had fused. Dental wear data (Levine 1982) indicated that most animals were at least 7 years old and some were considerably older.

Body-part patterns – the disarticulated remains

Anatomical representation data is available with the site archive, and only very general points are given here. Apart from the articulated burials, cattle are represented by most parts of the body, but it is clear that the denser skeletal elements, in particular the mandible, distal humerus, distal femur, distal tibia, proximal radius and proximal metacarpal, are most frequent. Although bone condition was generally quite good, body-part patterns can apparently be explained by differential preservation.

There is relatively little body-part data for sheep, but again the recovered bones tend to be those with greater density, in particular mandibles, and the same is true for pig. In the case of horse the metatarsal is the most frequent element, possibly because metapodial fragments are relatively easy to identify. There is generally little difference between representation of bones with greater or lesser density, suggesting that horse bones were less fragmented than those of the other domestic species, with a greater number of complete bones. This suggests differential treatment of horse carcasses compared to those of other domestic animals.

Red deer remains from early Iron Age contexts consist of two pieces of antler, one mandibular molar, a pelvis and tibia, and in the middle Iron Age consist of eleven antler fragments, two mandibular molars, a metatarsal, pelvis, third phalanx and

femur (with chop mark on the medial side of the distal end of the diaphysis). In the Roman period there are only two tibia fragments.

Butchery

Very little butchery was noted overall (Table 22). Only 28 fragments had signs of butchery, of which 19 (68%) were cattle bones. The majority were cut marks characteristic of skinning and dismemberment. A fragment of red deer antler from an early Iron Age context had been chopped longitudinally across its width, evidence of craft working.

Pathology

A few pathological finds were recorded in addition to the fractured dog metacarpal from posthole 3360 (see below), all from early Iron Age contexts. A cattle metacarpal had well-healed periostitis on its shaft, whilst a large mammal rib was broken and subsequently remodelled. The most interesting pathological specimen was an unshed red deer antler from the fill of waterhole 3778. The bez tine seems to have been split along its length and rehealed, leaving only about half of the cross-section intact. The antler was fully grown and the damage was possibly caused by rutting.

Metrics

The limited measurements possible for each species hindered inter-period and inter-site comparison, but where measurements could be compared with other sites of a

similar date, all appeared to be consistent with the size of domestic animals found throughout England in the Iron Age and Romano-British periods (see for example Harcourt 1979; Hambleton 1999).

Articulated remains

Eight sets of articulated remains were recovered in total, with cattle, horse, dog and sheep represented. Most were early Iron Age examples from pit fills, except a partial dog skeleton from posthole 3360.

Early Iron Age

Four cattle skeletons were recovered from pits 3441 (skeleton 3442), 3367 (skeleton 3368), 3460 (skeleton 3461) and 3907 (skeleton 3908). Pits 3367 and 3441, located 1m apart, had a cattle carcass tightly fitted into each, suggesting the pits were cut specifically for the remains. Skeleton 3442 had been truncated; only the skull, vertebrae, some ribs, a right scapula and left humerus were extant. A mandibular deciduous fourth premolar from this animal was unworn, indicating an age of 0–1 months. Skeleton 3368, less than 7 months old at death, was substantially complete and had been deposited whole. Skeleton 3461 (from *c* 5 m north of structure 4007) was also probably substantially complete when placed, but the posterior part was missing. The animal appears to have been around 8 months old. Skeleton 3908 was complete, placed tightly into a pit close to roundhouse 3349. No epiphyses had fused, and a deciduous fourth premolar was unworn, indicating an age of 0–1 month. No butchery marks were noted on any of the calf bones.

Pit 2785, to the rear of structure 2760, contained a substantially complete horse burial. The skull and teeth were highly fragmented, but unfused scapulae, distal humeri, proximal radii, and pelvis suggest this horse was less than 12 months old.

Posthole 3360, from a grain store or drying platform, contained an articulating right dog pelvis, femur, tibia and fibula. A right calcaneus and four articulating metatarsals are probably from the same limb. The same context produced a left dog radius and tibia, four first phalanges, and four articulating left metacarpals. The fourth metacarpal had been fractured midshaft, with the two halves of bone subsequently displaced. Although the break has healed, exostosis enveloped the affected area, as well as the other metacarpals. Measurements on the femur indicated a withers height of 50 cm, within the range given by Harcourt (1974) and Clark (1995) for Iron Age animals.

Late Iron Age

Fill 1126 of pit 1127 produced elements of two sheep – an articulating sternum, twelve ribs and six thoracic vertebra, along with skull fragments, a maxilla, maxillary teeth, a complete mandible, a right mandible, left pelvis and femur, right scapula and radius. This deposit also produced a cattle humerus, mandibular molar and horse first phalanx.

Roman

An articulating right horse femur and tibia were recovered from ditch fill 1449, associated with remains of other horse, cattle, sheep and pig, the former two species making up the vast majority of the identified portion. Fill 1450, from the same section of ditch, also contained a significant amount of bone, but in neither feature was patterning of body parts for any species apparent.

Discussion

The Latton assemblage resembles those from most Iron Age and Roman sites in the Upper Thames Valley and Britain in the dominance of domestic species and paucity of wild animal remains. The relative frequencies of the main species are slightly unusual, however, with quantification data suggesting that, in all periods, cattle were the most important animals at Latton Lands. Sites in and around the Upper Thames valley typically have a range of 30–60% cattle (Hambleton 1999) in relation to sheep and pig (based on NISP), as is the case at the nearby sites of Thornhill Farm, Fairford (Levine 2004) and Longdoles Field, Claydon Pike (Sykes 2007, 4–5). However, in all cases, the Latton Lands bone exceeds this, with 68%, 61% and 82% cattle in the early, middle and late Iron Age respectively. Site topography has been cited as a factor affecting the relative proportions of sheep and cattle (Grant 1984), with cattle best kept in lower lying areas, where they have ready access to water, and sheep better kept on well-drained downland sites, to avoid susceptibility to liver fluke (Dark and Dark 1997, 112). However, Latton Lands sits at around 82m OD, higher than other sites in the region, and it seems, instead, that spatial patterning of animal remains disposal may have unduly biased the Latton sample, with remains of larger species (cattle and horse) preferentially dumped away from the focus of settlement in the

middle/late Iron Age and Roman periods. At many sites, an increase in proportion of cattle is noted between the Iron Age and Roman periods. This trend is not apparent at Latton, and problems of spatial distribution and small sample size mean that the patterns evident here may not directly reflect the relative importance of the different animal to the local economy through time.

Interestingly, horses are significantly well represented in all in all phases except the late Iron Age, being more frequent than sheep and pigs in the early Iron Age and Roman periods. No butchery marks were noted, and in general their remains seem to have been less fragmented than those of other species, suggesting that they were treated differently to the remains of the main domesticates, and were rarely, if ever, consumed by people living in the vicinity.

The ageing data in particular is indicative of the different uses to which animals were put, with differences evident between the phases, particularly with regards to cattle. Although the small assemblage size needs to be considered, it seems that in general a greater proportion of animals were retained into adulthood in the early Iron Age than in the subsequent periods. This, coupled with the evidence for the culling of neonatal and young calves, indicates exploitation for a range of products, including milk, meat and possibly traction. In the middle Iron Age there appears to be a greater emphasis on the production of prime meat animals. This pattern continues into the later Iron Age, before a shift to retaining animals to an older age in the Roman period. This is a common feature of the faunal assemblages on other contemporary sites (Grant 1989).

Epiphysial fusion data, although small, indicates the presence of younger sheep at the site during the middle and late Iron Age than in other periods. However, in all phases there is an absence of sheep mandibles and bones from the two earliest mandible wear stages. This is a pattern often noted for Iron Age sites, and it has been suggested to represent a transhumance strategy, with animals bred away from settlements (Hambleton 1999). Given that the excavations revealed areas peripheral from the main settlement focus, it may be that we have some evidence for animal breeding. However, it is unclear why younger animals at Latton are represented by bones and not teeth/mandibles, which usually preserve better. Mandibles of younger animals are more prone to destruction than their older counterparts, and their teeth, being small, are more likely to be missed than postcranial elements. It is perhaps significant that the young sheep bones recovered at Latton are those that, in the adult skeleton, have greater density than other postcrania, namely the distal humerus, proximal scapula and 2nd phalanx.

Pigs provide very little in the way of secondary products, and tend to be killed at the optimal age for meat, during their second and third years of life. This trend is reflected in the Latton assemblage.

For horses, the ageing data adds further support to other evidence indicating that at Latton they were generally not eaten. Charles (1999, 222) suggests that horses would have been prized animals, indicative of status, since it was expensive to keep animals that were not eaten. Most animals have been maintained into adulthood and beyond, and were probably used as riding and/or pack animals. The juvenile horse burial from early Iron Age pit 2785 and juvenile bone from the middle Iron Age ditch are also of

interest. Juvenile horses are infrequently recovered from Iron Age sites, leading Harcourt (1979) to suggest that horses were not bred by people, but were captured wild and tamed, with the poorer animals released. However, juvenile and infant animals were recovered from Gravelly Guy (Mulville and Levitan 2004) and Rooksdown (Powell and Clark 1996). Indeed, Wilson and Allison (1990) suggested that the Thames Valley could have been a suitable environment for horse breeding, and the evidence from Latton Lands may add support to this.

Wild animals are only present in small numbers at Latton Lands, a pattern consistent with that from other contemporary sites. This relatively scarcity of wild taxa may be linked to these animals being proscribed to some degree (King 1991, 18). In addition, it is often suggested that deer would have been more important as sources of antler for raw materials than for meat (Grant 1981) with people collecting shed antler rather than hunting. However, whilst the presence of worked antler at Latton suggests it was a useful material, the unshed antler and post-cranial bones, including a butchered femur, show that deer were at least on occasion hunted for meat.

Animal burials

Most of the articulated remains came from early Iron Age deposits and these burials represent the majority of bone for period. So-called 'special deposits' have often been recovered from sites in Iron Age Britain (Grant 1984; Wilson 1992; Hill 1995). As noted above, the frequency of species found in this type of deposit does not tend to reflect their representation in the total number of animal bones recovered from the

same sites (Hill 1995). At Latton, however, cattle are the most common species in the early Iron Age bone assemblage and also in the special deposits.

While it is possible that these animals represent natural deaths, or disposal by burial of sick/diseased animals, none exhibited marks from the cause of death. In contrast to other sites, where animal burials were often placed in grain storage pits, most of those at Latton seem to have been cut specifically for the animals and contained few artefacts. In one case, two calves were placed in pits immediately next to each other. Two other animals were buried close to buildings – a calf associated with Structure 3340 and a horse burial with Structure 2760. Additionally, the animals from the pits were all very young, the cattle 0–8 months, and the horse under 12 months. All were animals with economic potential, although it is possible that the very young calves were considered surplus, their culling freeing up milk for human consumption.

The placing of complete individuals in several of the pits is unusual in an Iron Age context as partial skeletons are more common (Hill 1995, 100). Larger species including cattle and horse are more commonly found as articulated units or skulls rather than as whole animals (Wait 1985, 134–7). However, young cattle were found as separate burials in several pits at Danebury (Grant 1984). The meaning of such deposition behaviour remains unclear, but it is possible that where the pits are associated with a building they represent some sort of foundation deposit, as suggested for cattle remains from a pit associated with a structure at Warrens Field, Claydon Pike (Sykes 2007, 54). The articulating dog elements from the posthole could represent the opposite; animal remains placed when the structure had ceased to be used. The articulating horse leg from the Roman ditch is rather more difficult to

interpret. It may represent a sacrifice, but equally could have resulted from differential disposal of horses, as their remains seem to have been treated differently from other species.

Whilst the weasel bone from pit 3369 may represent an accidental inclusion, either from an animal that fell into the pit or burrowed in, weasels have been found within special deposits at other sites (Hill 1995; Mulville and Levitan 2004, 473). The bone was found in association with several other animal bones, including a red deer metacarpal, and significantly the fill also contained neonatal human remains. Given the rarity of wild animals at Latton and British Iron Age sites generally, it is probably significant that two wild species were recovered from the same context, in association with human bone. As noted above, at other Iron Age sites the frequency of species in 'special' deposits tends to differ from the total faunal remains of the sites where they occur (Hill 1995) and the fact that almost of all of the wild remains are from pit fills may be significant.

DISCUSSION

A considerable amount of archaeological investigation has been undertaken in the vicinity of Latton Lands and in the wider region in recent decades (OA 2005). A probable early Bronze Age ring ditch, middle and late Bronze Age settlement and traces of Iron Age activity were discovered to the north-west of the current site (Stansbie and Laws 2004), a scheduled Romano-British settlement site (SAM 899) lies to the east and Ermin Street Roman road to the north of the site. Much of this area

is transected by medieval ridge and furrow and post-medieval ditches, a continuation of the extensive field systems that overlay the Bronze Age settlement (Stansbie and Laws 2004), and which severely truncated earlier archaeological deposits of all periods at the current site.

The results of the recent investigations have added a significant element of evidence for late Neolithic/early Bronze Age activity in the region. The late second millennium cal BC oval ditched enclosure, a previously unrecognised early Iron Age settlement and an extensive middle Iron Age agricultural complex with associated enclosures and metalworking industry are now known to have occupied the area directly between the Bronze Age and Romano-British settlements at Latton Lands, only a short distance from activity of the same periods investigated as part of the Cotswold Water Park project (Miles *et al.* 2007). Agricultural exploitation of the Latton landscape persisted, albeit in a different form during the late Iron Age, as evidenced by the large ditched enclosure, 1285. As the enclosure ditches filled they were utilised as a cremation and inhumation burial ground during the final stages of the late Iron Age. Although specific evidence for continuity of occupation represented by the burials was elusive, there would have been only a small chronological gap, if any, between any abandonment phase and the construction of Ermin Street in the early 1st century AD. The evidence of early Roman gravel extraction was probably associated with the construction and maintenance of Ermin Street, and a complex of early 1st and 2nd century AD trackway networks linked the Romano-British settlement (SAM 899) to this main road.

The late Neolithic/early Bronze Age

The oval enclosure lay in apparent isolation in the south-western part of the site, close to an undated double posthole alignment, possibly an associated structure. No other structural evidence for this period was found, but a sparse scatter of contemporary worked flint was present in later features. The presence of a hengiform monument, a cursus monument and similar features in and around Lechlade, some 10 km to the north-east of Latton Lands, suggests that this general area was a focus of ritual activity during the Neolithic period (Miles *et al.* 2007, 6) and a later version of this ritual landscape may be reflected by the occurrence of oval enclosures similar to the Latton example, and provisionally dated to the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age, south-west of Westfield Farm, Latton and within Scheduled Ancient Monument 900 south-east of Latton (Mudd *et al.* 1999, 7). The function of these enclosures has not been determined, but the deposition within the terminal fills of a cattle skull, a complete late Neolithic/early Bronze Age miniature vessel and sherds of a decorated Aldbourne Cup suggest it was a site of ritual rather than agricultural or domestic activity. Burnt deposits within the enclosed space may be the detritus of activities relating to such practices.

It is probably not coincidental that the enclosure lay between the previously excavated Bronze Age settlement (Stansbie and Laws 2004) and the Iron Age settlements of the current site. That it was isolated from other foci of activity of similar or earlier date suggests that the site of the enclosure may have been a significant location in the landscape, a significance that apparently endured into the later prehistoric and Roman period, during which time the spot apparently lay largely undisturbed. It was only in

the medieval period that wholesale agricultural appropriation of this area resulted in severe disturbance to the small monument.

The early Iron Age

During the early Iron Age the focus of domestic settlement and agricultural activity shifted south-eastwards from the adjacent Bronze Age settlement of the Churn Valley floor (Stansbie and Laws 2004). Although no absolute dates were obtained for the inception of the Iron Age settlements, the ceramic evidence indicates that the earliest features dated to sometime between the 7th-6th centuries BC. Sherds of a jar dating to this period were embedded in the hearth of roundhouse 1878. However, pottery dating to the later part of the early Iron Age (*c* 600–300 BC) was recovered from features associated with all of the settlement groups, suggesting continuity of occupation of these locations throughout the early Iron Age.

At least three foci of domestic activity were identified, one in the northwestern part of the site, one in the central area and another to the west of the Romano-British settlement. Three apparently isolated roundhouses 3008, 4020 and 2554, lying at the northwestern, western and southern limits of excavation, probably belonged to other settlement clusters. The settlement groups may not have been strictly contemporary, rather a shifting settlement, but the stratigraphic and dating evidence was insufficient to demonstrate the case one way or the other. Additionally, severe truncation caused by later ploughing, along with middle Iron Age activity, may have eradicated some traces of early Iron Age activity, particularly in the central part of the site.

The construction of the early Iron Age roundhouses was based on a post ring design with south- or southeast-facing porched entrances and central hearths, with no evidence of eaves drip gullies. These were generally located within groups with associated square and rectangular post-built structures, pits and waterholes. A similar early Iron Age settlement pattern was excavated at Cotswold Community (OA 2006). Roundhouses 4007, 3349 and 2760 were associated with juvenile animal burials. Two were calves, but one, unusually, was a horse. It seems unlikely that these burials reflected purely functional practice on the part of the inhabitants. Two cattle burials were also sited within the group of four-post structures in the northern settlement and a dog skeleton was associated with a four-post structure. The burial of complete animals, particularly young animals, in specially dug graves rather than storage pits was unusual in the Iron Age, but similar burials were found at Danebury (Grant 1984) and at Claydon Pike (Sykes 2007), where they were interpreted as foundation deposits for structures.

The northern and central roundhouse groups were apparently unenclosed, but the settlement represented by roundhouses 1829, 1878 and 1914 lay within an area bounded to the west and south by ditch 3991. A posthole row, 1991, on a similar north-south alignment, some 120 m to the east, provided additional evidence for early Iron Age land division, although the area immediately to the west of this line was notably devoid of prehistoric features.

Roundhouse 2760, in the central part of the site, was superseded during the middle Iron Age by a small ditched enclosure lying within a dogleg of the major middle Iron Age field boundary. The juvenile horse burial associated with this structure and the

reuse of the specific location may suggest special status or function, although the dimensions and orientation of the roundhouse were not unusual within the context of the site and the wider region. The only other roundhouse in the vicinity was the smaller and more tentatively identified 3200, which may have been an ancillary building, and it is possible that roundhouse 2760, along with enclosure 2800 and four-post structures to the southeast of the house, represented a self-contained and somehow special domestic site. This may suggest that, although apparently unenclosed in the early Iron Age, this particular location may have marked a significant place in the landscape, reflected in the later boundary construction. Alternatively, the dogleg may have been a recutting of an original early boundary ditch, incorporated in the later land division, but the surviving stratigraphic evidence did not support this possibility.

Evidence of specific domestic or agricultural activity was sparse. The environmental results were poor for the period and few artefacts, apart from pottery, were recovered. Nonetheless, the presence of waterholes and four-post structures (possible grain stores) indicates that both arable and pastoral agriculture were practised during this period, probably with a bias towards a pastoral economy, as seen in much of the surrounding region. The proportion of cattle within the early Iron Age animal bone assemblage was particularly high at 68%, especially for a relatively high topographical position (Dark and Dark 1997). This figure is higher than that for nearby sites at Thornhill Farm, Fairford (Levine 2004) and sites in the Upper Thames valley generally, where the proportions are lower at 30–60% (Hambleton 1999), but numbers may be biased by the cattle burials. These features apart, over 40% of the early Iron Age animal bone assemblage came from waterhole 3878, and the paucity of

identifiable and butchered bone overall suggests that food refuse was disposed of away from the settlement, or that refuse middens of this period had been completely removed by ploughing.

The middle Iron Age

Sometime after the early Iron Age roundhouses were abandoned, the site underwent a extensive reorganisation. A major north-south boundary ditch complex with an elaborate gateway transected the central part of the site, returned on an east-west axis across the northern area and may also have extended northwards as gully 3729 and associated entrance gate 3800/3822. If the latter were the case, it would present a similar picture to the central part of the site of a boundary with an entrance, and relatively empty space to the west and settlement activity along the boundary to the east.

The middle Iron Age boundary cut a number of penannular gullies in the central part of the site, possibly forming a pre-existing linear settlement constructed along a division in land use, a phenomenon typical of the Thames Valley at this time (Lambrick 2008). Notably, the area to the west of the ditch is lacking in features, with the exception of the earlier prehistoric oval enclosure, potentially indicating pasture land (Lambrick 2008), whilst contemporary and earlier features are focused east of the boundary and a possible rectilinear field system to the north. A number of enclosures appear to have been constructed around the entrance after the creation of the ditch and it is possible that the gateway gave access to these and facilitated animal management (ibid). A similar early-middle Bronze Age boundary ditch and enclosure

system was found at Slade Farm, Bicester (Ellis *et al.* 2000), though not as complex as that at Latton Lands.

Though penannular gullies are seen to represent the subsoil manifestations of drainage gullies surrounding houses in the middle Iron Age in this region, there was no conclusive evidence of domestic structures. It is equally possible, considering the survival of the early Iron Age roundhouse features, that the enclosures had an agricultural function, perhaps as livestock pens. Ring gully 1277 (Figure 14), which dates to a later phase of the middle Iron Age, may be an exception.

The northern stretch of the major boundary ditch, 2945, was deliberately adapted to accommodate enclosure 2951, which cut the southern curve of abandoned early Iron Age roundhouse 2760, suggesting that the location represented an earlier boundary or significant place. This enclosure was almost entirely devoid of features, and apart from a relatively large, mixed assemblage of early and Iron Age pottery, no evidence of unusual activity was recovered from the ditch fill.

The absence of clearly identified domestic structures may suggest that the middle Iron Age settlement/s associated with the contemporary agricultural landscape lay beyond the excavated area. A mix of arable and pastoral agriculture persisted from the earlier Iron Age, again the emphasis probably on the pastoral element, as attested by the livestock pens. Specialist pastoral settlements of middle Iron Age date have been excavated at Abingdon (Allen 1991; 1997), Mingies Ditch (Allen and Robinson 1993) and Watkins Farm (Allen 1990). Cattle was again the dominant domestic species during the middle Iron Age at Latton, although with a somewhat diminished

percentage over sheep and pig. Waterhole 3786 (Figures 17 and 18) produced evidence of hedging or recently cleared woodland in the northern part of the site and charred grains from pit 1289, ring gully 1277 and pit 1131, provided evidence for cultivation of emmer, spelt, six row barley and oats during the this time. Two radiocarbon determinations on samples of emmer from pit 1289 produced statistically consistent results (T'=0.2; ν=1; T'(5%)=3.8; Ward and Wilson 1978) of 340–40 cal BC and 220 cal BC–cal AD 20. Overall, the reorganisation of the landscape and possible intensification of settlement may indicate concurrent intensification of land use.

A cluster of small features containing burnt material, probably ovens or corn driers, was concentrated along boundary ditch 2353, close to the entrance through the boundary and the enclosure formed by ditch 2306. This area may have been designated for processing and drying grain and/or baking. Iron and bronze working, including smelting and casting, appears to have been largely restricted to the northern pat of the site (Figure 17). A fragment of worked antler and a few loomweight fragments attests to weaving and craft activity during the middle Iron Age and a Kimmeridge shale armlet roughout recovered from a waterhole attests to trade or exchange networks and craft working at the site, possibly also indicating increased specialism.

The late Iron Age

The site produced only limited structural remains and no specific evidence of late Iron Age domestic settlement. Nonetheless, activity at some level dating to the pre-

conquest period was verified by radiocarbon dating of an unusual, partly burned burial (1095) accompanied by an iron knife and a broken pottery vessel, dug into the fill of a large sub-square enclosure, 1285. Only a small pit, 1345, and undated posthole lay within the enclosed space, but pottery from the ditch demonstrated that it had filled during the 1st century cal BC. The southern arm of the entrance through middle Iron Age boundary ditch 2353 was extended or recut and maintained during this period, suggesting that the boundary system was still recognised. A subrectangular enclosure of similar size lies within the scheduled Romano-British settlement site (SAM 899) to the southeast of the current site (Wilts SMR SU09NE201) and may have been contemporary.

Enclosure 1285 is particularly notable for the series of burial features cut into it during this phase of activity. Inhumation burials were inserted into the upper fills at two corners, the *in situ* cremation at the junction with ditch 1309 and a cremation inserted into a terminal. These burials appear to be positioned at critical points perhaps emphasising boundaries (Lambrick 2008).

The evidence for late Iron Age occupation at Latton reflects the pattern observed at other sites in the Upper Thames Valley of abandonment or the shifting of settlement location or form during the later part of the late Iron Age (*c* 100 BC–AD 43), reflecting some degree of settlement disruption during this period (Miles *et al.* 2007, 7). At Thornhill Farm this change took the form of a conversion from dispersed deposits of the earlier Iron Age period to an organised complex of enclosures, seemingly associated with specialist pastoralist activity during the early part of the 1st century AD (Jennings *et al.* 2004). An increase in pastoral activity appears to have

been common in the region during the late Iron Age, and sites including Totterdown Lane, Horcott (Pine and Preston 2004), Ashton Keynes (Powell *et al*. 2008) and Shorncote Quarry (Brossler *et al*. 2002) seem to have been drawn into an organised agricultural landscape, in which the terraces were used for cultivation of crops and the lower-lying floodplain used as pasture (Robinson 1992, 56). These changes during the later Iron Age may have been related to wider socio-political changes, including increasing control of the landscape by the native elite. The emergence of sites such as Bagendon, north of Cirencester, was probably also linked to this trend (Darvill 1987, 166–8; Clifford 1961).

By the last years of the first millennium BC or slightly later at Latton, the ditches of enclosure 1285 were reused as a burial ground. In addition to burial 1095, a further two inhumation burials and a cremation burial were inserted into the fill of the ditch, a large feature which would have remained visible long after it had filled.

The Romano-British settlement

Iron Age settlements at Claydon Pike (Miles *et al.* 2007), Ashton Keynes (Powell *et al.* 2008) and Cotswold Community (OA 2006) demonstrate continuity of activity from the late Iron Age to the Roman period in the region. Ermin Street lies immediately to the north, the military fort and *civitas* capital of Cirencester a few kilometres to the northwest and the settlement site (SAM 899) to the south-east of the current site. Although it is likely that continuity of occupation also was the case at Latton Lands, this was not conclusively demonstrated. Burials of pre-conquest date in an area previously occupied by a late Iron Age enclosure and an early 1st century date

for the extraction of gravel, probably for the construction and/or maintenance of the early post-conquest road, Ermin Street, do however, provide evidence that total abandonment in the last years of the Iron Age was unlikely.

During the 1st and 2nd centuries AD trackways linking the Romano-British settlement and Ermin Street were constructed and modified. This mirrors developments at nearby sites such as Cotswold Community (OA 2006) and Claydon Pike (Miles *et al.* 2007), where reorganisation of the landscape specifically during the early 2nd century AD included the construction of large trackways indicating more sophisticated communication networks and definition of boundaries, and substantial settlements. It has been suggested that the impetus for this phenomenon may have been increased scope for social and financial ascendancy at this time and a desire to display this status (Miles *et al.* 2007, 378). In addition the growth of Cirencester (Corinium) to the north-west of Latton may have contributed towards this more widespread change, with the initial building programme of public works likely to have been completed by the early 2nd century AD (*ibid*, 379).

At least three human burials were found within 100 m or so to the south of Ermin Street, the main route to Cirencester, indicating its importance in the landscape. One was a neonate (3871), another an adult (possibly deviant) burial (1312) on the northern edge of the Romano-British settlement. A shattered 2nd century AD pot from the top fill of middle Iron Age ditch 4002 may represent a third – an urned cremation burial. Quarry pits probably relating to Ermin Street to the north of the settlement were backfilled during the 2nd and 3rd centuries with domestic refuse, including large quantities of pottery and animal bone. On the northern periphery of

the site small enclosures were also constructed between existing trackways, probably representing further development of the settlement. The location of the majority of the Roman features at Latton Lands on the very periphery of Roman settlement SAM 899 means that further analysis of the settlement is limited.

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LOCATION OF ARCHIVES

The site archives are currently stored at Oxford Archaeology and will be transferred to a storage facility provided by Wiltshire County Museums Service. A copy of the archive will be lodged with the Archaeology Data Service (ADS).

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Tables

Table 1: Prehistoric pottery quantification by period

Date	No.	Weight (g)	% total by count
Neolithic (Neo)	3	6	0.1
Early Bronze Age (EBA)	3	13	0.1
Middle Bronze Age (MBA)	10	81	0.4
Late Bronze Age (LBA)	7	60	0.3
Latest Bronze Age/earliest Iron Age (LBAEIA)	283	1734	11.9
Early Iron Age (EIA)	169	1404	7.1
Middle Iron Age (MIA)	763	7474	32.2
Early or middle Iron Age (EIA OR MIA)	334	2247	14.1
Earliest Iron Age to middle Iron Age (LBAEIA to MIA)	719	4227	30.3
Indeterminate (IND)	82	94	3.5
	2373	16577	100

Table 2: Prehistoric pottery fabric descriptions

Group	Code	Name	Description
Sandy	A1	Sand	10 % very fine sand (not visible) and 5 % fine glauconitic sand. Rare shell detritus. Rare charred organic remains
Sandy	A2	Sand	a mixed slightly coarse sand containing rare calcareous inclusions and ironstone, 5–15 %.
Sandy	AD1	Sand and voids	20 % fine sand and 20 & leeched shell voids (?)
Flint	AF2	Sand and Flint	Sand, common, 25 %. Flint, up to 2 mm. 10 %.
Flint	AF3	Flint	20 % flint up to 3 mm, moderately well sorted in an oxidised matrix containing very well sorted, coarse quartzitic sand.
Oolitic Limestone	AL1	Sand and ooliths	20 % sand and 2% ooliths
Sandy	AP1	Sand and ferruginous pellets	10 % sand and 5–10 % ferruginous pellets, all fine.
Fossil Shell and Sand	AS1	Sand and shell detritus	20 % fine qt sand and 5 % very fine shell detritus.
Fossil Shell and Sand	AS2	Sand and fossil shell	20 % sand and 10 % finely crushed shell, below 1 mm, 1 % larger shell up to 5 mm.
Fossil Shell and Sand	ASPfe1	Sand, shell and ferruginous pellets	20 % very fine shell under 1 mm, 10 % sand and 10 % rounded ferruginous pellets
Flint	F1	Flint	30 % fine well sorted and well distributed flint, under 1 mm.
Flint	F2	Flint	10 % very well sorted, angular calcined flint in a fine, black finish. Looks like L2 which appears to be used to the same effect.
Grog	G1	Grog	Iron-stained fabric containing no sand and what appears to be rare grog
Grog	G2	Grog	Fabric containing 10–20 % linear voids which could be air pockets and leeched shell, contains small rounded pellets of lighter colour than the matrix and irregular shapes
Oolitic Limestone	L1	Oolitic Limestone	40 % discrete ooliths. Rare thin-walled shell, Could be Athelstan Oolite
Malvernian Limestone Group B1	L2	Shelly limestone	Well-sorted angular chunks of shelly limestone 20–30 %
Fossil Shell	S1	Fossil Shell	40 % moderately sorted fossil shell. Distinguished by the non-uniform alignment of the shell. From 1 to 4 mm, including Bryzoan. Most of it is finely crushed, between 1–1.5 mm.
Fossil Shell	S2	Fossil Shell	20 % poorly sorted fossil shell (1–2 mm) with 5–10 % larger shell (4–5 mm), densely tempered, Bryzoan and discrete oolites.
Fossil Shell	S3	Fossil Shell	40 % extremely finely crushed and well sorted fabric containing fossil shell, bryzoan and others. 95 % under 1 mm. Needed to examine under x30 to see shell.
Fossil Shell	S4	Fossil Shell	50 % grey thin plated shell with rare very finely crushed fossils, ranges from very well sorted (all 2 mm) to mod (1–5 mm, most 1 mm)
Fossil Shell	S5	Fossil Shell	30–50 % coarse fossil shell
Fossil Shell	S6	Fossil Shell	20 % fine fossil shell
Fossil Shell and Sand	SA1	Fossil Shell and sand	30 % poorly sorted fossil ranging from fine 1 mm to coarse 5 mm, sand 10 % fine quartzite.
Fossil Shell and Sand	SA2	Fossil Shell and sand	30–50 % crushed fossil shell ranging from well sorted fine (95 % fine) to poorly sorted fine to coarse and rare Jurassic limestone, 10 % fine sand. Rare mica.
Fossil Shell and Sand	SA3	Fossil Shell and sand	30–50 % coarsely crushed mod well sorted fossil shell and limestone, 10 % sand and rare mica
No added temper	NAT		A closed, fine clay containing no added temper. Some lamination.

Table 3: Quantification of prehistoric pottery fabrics by group

Group Number	Name	% of assemblage	Sherd count	Weight (g)
Indeterminate		4.26	101	108
1	Grog	0.04	1	13
2	Flint	0.29	7	60
3	Sandy	12.90	306	1593
4	Oolitic Limestone	9.06	215	1293
5	Malvernian Limestone Group B1	3.62	86	312
6	Fossil Shell and Sand	13.32	316	2788
7	Fossil Shell	56.43	1339	10410
8	No added temper	0.12	3	6
		100.00	2373	16577

Table 4: Prehistoric pottery fabrics (sherd count) by period for diagnostic sherds

Group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	8	
Code	G	F	A	L1	L2	SA	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	NAT	Total
NEO													*2*	*2*
EBA	1		2											*3*
MBA							7							*7*
LBA		7												*7*
LBA EIA							184	34	5					*223*
EIA			87	2		4		70			3	3		*169*
MIA			23	25	23	112	2	50	7	5	23			*270*
Total	*1*	*7*	*112*	*27*	*23*	*116*	*193*	*154*	*12*	*5*	*26*	*3*	*2*	*681*

Key: Neo, Neolithic; EBA, early Bronze Age; MBA, middle Bronze Age, LBA, late Bronze Age; LBA-EIA, latest Bronze Age-earliest Iron Age; EIA, early Iron Age.

Table 5: Prehistoric pottery forms

Vessel Form	Form Description	LBAEIA	LBAEIA ?	EIA	EIA OR MIA	MIA	MIA?	Total
A	Jar misc					1		1
Ai	Ovoid (or barrel for MIA)					14	1	15
Aii	Carinated (short-necked, tripartite)	5		3	1	1		10
Aiii	Slack-shouldered (long-necked, tripartite)			2				2
Aiv	Long-necked carinated (tripartite)			1		1		2
Av	Globular					5		5
Aviii	Straight-walled vessel					4		4
B	Bowl misc			1				1
Bii	Globular and short necked bowl					1		1
Biv	Flared-rimmed round-bodied bowl			4				4
Bv	Biconical bowl		1	1				2
Total		5	1	12	1	27	1	47

Key: Neo, Neolithic; EBA, early Bronze Age; MBA, middle Bronze Age, LBA, late Bronze Age; LBAEIA, latest Bronze Age-earliest Iron Age; EIA, early Iron Age

Table 6: Late Iron Age and Roman pottery

Fabric	Description	NRFC	Sherds	%	Wt(g)	%
A10	buff amphora fabrics		2	<1	445	<1
A11	South Spanish amphorae	(BAT AM1/2)	25	<1	392	<1
B10	handmade black-burnished ware		8	<1	45	<1
B11	Dorset black-burnished ware	(DOR BB1)	573	15	5012	11
B20	wheel-made black-burnished ware		17	<1	79	<1
E10	organic-tempered fabrics		1	<1	2	<1
E13	organic- and grog-tempered ware		10	<1	35	<1
E30	medium to coarse sand-tempered fabric		18	<1	35	<1
E40	shell-tempered fabrics		15	<1	118	<1
E50	limestone-tempered fabrics		36	<1	132	<1
E60	flint-tempered fabrics		4	<1	58	<1
E70	rock-tempered fabrics		4	<1	11	<1
E72	Malvernian rock-tempered fabric		16	<1	296	<1
E80	grog-tempered fabrics	(SOB GT)	218	6	2750	6
E90	grog-tempered fabrics	(SOB GT)	4	<1	229	<1
F51	Oxfordshire colour-coated ware	(OXF RS)	3	<1	8	<1
M20	white ware mortaria		2	<1	318	<1
M21	Verulamium region white ware mortaria	(VER WH)	5	<1	462	1
M22	Oxfordshire white ware mortaria	(OXF WH)	1	<1	67	<1
M23	Mancetter/Hartshill white ware mortaria	(MAH WH)	4	<1	71	<1
M26	Upper Thames Valley white ware mortaria		10	<1	671	1
M32	South Western white-slipped mortaria	(SOW WS)	1	<1	82	<1
M50	oxidised mortaria		4	<1	653	1
O20	sandy oxidised ware		16	<1	245	<1
O30	North Wiltshire oxidised ware		186	5	1394	3
O40	Severn Valley ware	(SWV OX2)	228	6	1889	4
O80	oxidised coarse-tempered oxidised fabric		21	<1	545	1
Q20	oxidised fabrics		1	<1	8	<1
Q22	South Western white-slipped ware		9	<1	238	<1
Q30	reduced white-slipped fabrics		4	<1	56	<1
R10	fine grey ware		31	<1	242	<1
R20	sandy grey ware		284	8	2315	5
R30	medium sandy grey ware		139	4	2241	5
R35	North Wiltshire grey ware		1445	39	13484	30
R90	reduced coarse-tempered fabrics		6	<1	113	<1
R95	Savernake ware	(SAV GT)	325	9	9225	20
S20	South Gaulish Samian ware		4	<1	48	<1
S30	Central Gaulish Samian ware		28	<1	854	2
SL3	moderate shell and limestone fabric		10	<1	142	<1
W20	sandy white fabrics		1	<1	6	<1

Table 7: Late Iron Age/early Roman pottery Key Group 1 (Vessels quantified by eves)

fabric	Sherd no.	Weight(g)	Jars	Total eves
A10	1	353	-	-
E30	10	20	-	-
E40	8	104	0.24	0.24
E50	3	39	0.06	0.06
E72	11	34	0.06	0.06
E80	21	471	0.30	0.30
Totals	54	1021	0.66	0.66

Table 8: Late Iron Age/early Roman Pottery Key Group 2 (Vessels quantified by eves)

fabric	Sh no	Wt (g)	Jar	Bowl	Dish	Flagon	Cup	Tankard	Beaker	Mortar	Total eves
A11	25	392	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
B11	233	2647	3.78	-	1.28	-	-	-	0.10	-	5.16
E80	30	253	0.27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.27
M20	2	318	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M21	5	462	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.16	0.16
M23	4	71	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M50	1	172	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
O20	9	191	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
O30	55	565	0.04	0.24	0.11	0.43	-	0.10	-	-	0.92
O40	129	977	-	-	-	-	-	0.41	-	-	0.41
O80	8	421	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Q22	1	129	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
R10	15	107	-	-	-	0.19	-	-	0.10	-	0.29
R20	130	1166	0.42	0.14	0.12	-	-	-	-	-	0.68
R30	64	1795	0.09	-	0.18	-	-	-	-	-	0.27
R35	546	6606	3.13	0.13	-	-	-	-	0.11	-	3.37
R95	68	3780	0.32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.32
S30	13	674	-	-	0.37	-	0.04	-	-	-	0.41
Total	1338	20726	8.05	0.51	2.06	0.62	0.04	0.51	0.31	0.16	12.26

Table 9: Slag

Context	Description	Interpretation	Weight (g)
Pit 1282			
1281	Fuel ash slag	Domestic burning	3
1288	Fuel ash slag	"	2
Enclosure 1285			
1301	Party vesicular tap slag	Possibly iron smelting	135
1362	Hearth slag	"	167
1692	Fuel ash slag	"	4
1687	Granular haematite – iron ore	"	30
2974	Ferruginus clay-stone, possibly iron ore	"	1
Enclosure 1458			
1468	Partially vitrified and vesicular sandy clay	Hearth lining or residue - industrial activity	9
Enclosure 3930			
1486	partially vitrified and vesicular sandy clay hearth lining or residue	Ironworking and possibly extraction	2
1560	partially vitrified sandstone	"	10
1622	hearth slag	"	33
1634	partially vesicular tap slag	"	85
1015	partially vitrified and vesicular sandy clay hearth lining or residue	"	7
Waterhole 3126			
3128	Hearth slag	Ferrous and non-ferrous metalworking, including casting of an unknown non-ferrous metal.	90
3129	Crucible frag with glassy slag coating, no metal traces (SF268)		8
3167	partially vitrified and vesicular sandy clay hearth lining or residue		2
3167	hearth slag fragments		106
Ditch 4001, 4002			
3304	hearth slag	Ironworking (?). Hearths used for ironworking and copper alloy casting	80
3386	hearth slag	"	62
3389	Fired sandy clay with sintered sand and glass coating	"	11
3317	Crucible frag with fuel ash slag coating	"	11
Enclosure 3955			
3508	Hearth slag		229
3560	Fired clay with sintered sandy coating	Hearth lining?	21
3539	Vesicular fuel as slag		4
3590	Hearth slag		44
3615	Hearth slag		130
3636	Fired clay with traces of fuel ash slag		100
3636	Fired sandy clay with sintered sand and glass coating		20
3671	Hearth slag		73
3672	Fired clay with sintered sandy coating		101
3672	Crucible frags with slagged coating showing signs of green, copper corrosion		
3672	Hearth slag		419
3672	Iron rich vitreous vesicular slag		-
3870	Fired clay with sintered sandy coating	Hearth lining?	49
3870	Fired sandy clay with vesicular slag coating	Crucible frags or hearth lining	10
3913	Hearth slag		822

Table 10: Struck flint from enclosure 2255

Category:	Total:
Flake	10
Blade	2
Bladelet	1
Bladelike flake	1
Chip	2
Multi-platform flake core	1
Retouched flake	1
End-and-side scraper	1
Backed knife	1
Denticulate	1
Total:	21
Number (%) of burnt struck flints:	4 (19.1)
Number (%) of broken struck flints:	12 (57.1)
Number (%) of retouched flints:	4 (19.1)

Table 11: Radiocarbon dates

Laboratory number	Sample ID	Material	Radiocarbon Age (BP)	$\delta^{13}C$ (‰)	Calibrated Date (95% confidence)	*Posterior Density estimate (95% probability)*
SUERC-12226	LALA01 Context 1700 Sample 159A	Emmer wheat, *Triticum dicoccum*	2100 ±35	-23.1	340–40 cal BC	-
GrA-33708	LALA01 context 1700 sample 159B	Emmer wheat, *Triticum dicoccum*	2075 ± 40	-22.4	200 cal BC–cal AD 20	-
SUERC-12227	LALA04 Context 3872 Sample 225	Charcoal, *Prunus* sp.	2280 ±35	-26.0	400–210 cal BC	-
SUERC-12228	LALA01 Context 1104 Sample 157	Charcoal, *Hedera helix*	2105 ±35	-27.2	350–40 cal BC	-
SUERC-12229	LALA02 Context 2365 Sample 190A	Charcoal, *Prunus* sp.	3430 ±35	-25.6	1880–1630 cal BC	*1780–1670 cal BC*
GrA-33710	LALA02 Context 2365 Sample 190B	Charcoal, *Prunus* sp.	3455 ± 35	-25.8	1880–1620 cal BC	*1780–1680 cal BC*
SUERC-12230	LALA02 Context 2545 Sample 196A	Charcoal, Maloideae	3430 ±35	-25.9	1880–1630 cal BC	*1780–1670 cal BC*
GrA-33508	LALA02 Context 2545 Sample 196B	Charcoal, *Alnus/Corylus*	3245 ± 40	-26.6	1620–1430 cal BC	*1780–1660 cal BC*
SUERC-12231	LALA02 Context 2547 Sample 197	Charcoal, Maloideae	3410 ±40	-24.9	1880–1610 cal BC	*1870–1840 (3%) or 1820–1690 (92%) cal BC*
GrA-33510	LALA04 Context 3672 Sample 218	Charcoal, *Prunus spinosa*	2215 ± 35	-26.5	390–170 cal BC	-
GrA-33707-	LALA01 Context 1104 Sample 165	Charcoal, *Prunus spinosa*	2020 ± 35	-23.2	160 cal BC–cal AD 70	-
GrA-33713	LALA01 Context 1104 sk1100	Cremated human bone, lower limb fragment	2230 ± 35		400–190 cal BC	-
GrA-33509	LALA02 Context 2382 Sample 199	Charcoal, Maloideae	2215 ± 35	-25.7	1890–1630 cal BC	*1780–1670 cal BC*

Table 12: Waterlogged plant remains

Sample		227
Context		3919
Phase		MIA
Feature type		Waterhole 3786
Floated volume (litres)		20
Number of waterlogged items		845
No. of waterlogged items/litre		42.25
Ranunculus cf. *acris* L.	Meadow buttercup	3
R. cf. *repens* L.	Creeping buttercup	9
R. subgen. *Batrachium* sp. (A. Gray)	Water crowfoot	11
Papaver rhoeas L.	Common poppy	8
P. argemone L.	Prickly poppy	3
Urtica dioica L.	Common nettle	74
U. urens L.	Small nettle	?6
Corylus sp	Hazel nut (shell)	1
Chenopodium ficifolium Sm.	Fig-leaved goosefoot/Many-seeded goosefoot	2
C. album L.	Fat-hen	39
Atriplex spp. L.	Orache	6
Moehringia trinevia L. (Clairv)	Three-nerved sandwort	9
Stellaria media gp. (L.) Vill.	Common chick weed	102
S. graminea L.	Lesser stitchwort	6
Cerastium cf. *Fontanum* Baumg.	Common mouse-ear	2
Rumex sp.	Golden dock/Clustered dock	92
Rubus fruticosus L.*agg.*	Brambles	164
Rubus sp.	Brambles	2
Rubus sp prickles	Brambles	3
Potentilla anserina L.	Silverweed	1
P. cf.. *reptans* L.	Creeping cinquefoil	13
Prunus spinosa L.	Blackthorn	1
Prunus/Crataegus thorns		3
Crataegus cf. *monogyna* Jacq.	Hawthorn	1
Cornus sanguinea L.	Dogwood	1
Mercurialis perenis L.	Dog's mercury	3
Solanum cf. *nigrum* L.	Black nightshade	1
Stachys sp	Woundwort	32
Glechoma hederacea L.	Ground ivy	22
Prunella vulgaris L.	Selfheal	3
Lycopus europaeus L.	Gypsywort	1
Plantago major L	Greater plantain	1
Sambucus nigra L.	Elder	96
Carduus L./*Cirsium* Mill.	Thistles	8
Sonchus asper (L.) Hill	Prickly sow-thistle	1
Leucanthemum vulgari Mill.	Oxeye daisy	2
Juncus bufonius gp	Toad rush	59
J. articulatus L. gp.	Jointed rush	11
J. effusus gp	Soft-rush	22
Juncus spp.	Rush	4
Eleocharis S. *palustres* sp. (L.) Roem. & Schult.	Spike rush	2
Carex spp.	Sedges	6
Poaceae	Grasses	7
Leaf abscission pads		3
Buds and scales		5
Total weed seeds:		845

Table 13 : Charred plant remains excluding charcoal

Sample		158	159	151
Context		1290	1700	1130
Phase		MIA	E/M IA	Middle IA
Feature type		Pit 1289	Pit 1289	?rubbish pit 1131
Floated volume (litres)		40	30	10
Total number of charred items:		117	159	204
No. of charred items/litre		2.9	5.3	20.4
CEREAL GRAIN				
Triticum dicoccum(Schrank) Schulbl.	Emmer wheat		5	
T. cf. *dicoccum*(Schrank) Schulbl.	Emmer wheat	2	13	
T. cf. *dicoccum* short grains (Schrank) Schulbl.	Emmer wheat		5	
T. dicoccum/spelta	Emmer/spelt wheat	9	66	
T. spelta L.	Spelt wheat		6	
T. cf. *spelta L.*	Spelt wheat	1		
T. spelta L. short grains	Spelt wheat			1
Triticum sp.	Wheat	6	1	
Hordeum vulgare L. hulled lateral	6 row barley	1		
Hordeum sp.-hulled	Barley		4	
Hordeum sp.	Barley	12	4	
Avena sp.	Oats	1		
cf. *Avena* sp.	Oats		1	
Cereal indet.	Cereal	49		
Total grain		81	105	1
CEREAL CHAFF				
Triticum spelta L. glume base	Spelt wheat	1	3	80
T. dicoccum (Schrank) Schulbl.	Emmer wheat	1	3	
Cf T. dicoccum (Schrank) Schulbl.				1
T. dicoccum/*spelta* glume base	Emmer/spelt wheat	20	18	65
Avena sp. awn fragments	Oat		2	
Total chaff		22	26	146
OTHER SEEDS				
Corylus avellana L.	Hazelnut (shell)	1		
Chenopodium album L.	Fat Hen			7
Rumex sp.	Docks	2	4	
Crataegus sp	Hawthorn			1
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.			2	1
cf. *Medicago lupulina* L.	Black medick			1
Mentha sp.	Mint			1
Vallerianella dentate L.	Narrow-fruited cornsalad			1
Eleocharis S. *palustris* (L.) Roem. & Schult.	Tussock rush			1
Carex spp.	Sedges			4
Bromus cf. *seculinus* L.	Chess	1		
cf. *B. seculinus* L.	Chess			2
cf. *Bromus* sp.	Brome grass		5	
Poaceae indet.	Grasses	3	5	23
Weed seed indet.		7	12	15

Table 14: Coleoptera

	IA Waterhole 3786 Min. No. Indiv	
Context	3919	Species Group
Sample	227	
Carabus granulatus L.	1	
Nebria brevicollis (F.)	1	
Dyschirius globosus (Hbst.)	1	
Trechus obtusus Er. or *quadristriatus* (Schr.)	3	
Asaphidion flavipes (L.)	1	
Bembidion guttula (F.)	1	
Pterostichus melanarius (Ill.)	1	
Calathus fuscipes (Gz.)	1	
Amara sp.	1	
Harpalus S. *Ophonus* sp.	1	
H. affinis (Schr.)	1	
Badister bipustulatus (F.)	1	
Agabus bipustulatus (L.)	1	1
Helophorus aquaticus (L.) or *grandis* Ill.	1	1
Helophorus sp. (brevipalpis size)	2	1
Cercyon analis (Pk.)	1	7
C. haemorrhoidalis (F.)	1	7
C. pygmaeus (Ill.)	1	7
Megasternum obscurum (Marsh.)	4	7
Hydrobius fuscipes (L.)	1	1
Onthophilus striatus (Forst.)	1	
Atholus duodecimstriatus (Schr.)	1	
Ochthebius cf. *bicolon* Germ.	1	1
O. cf. *minimus* (F.)	8	1
Limnebius papposus Muls.	1	1
Ptenidium sp.	2	
Choleva or *Catops* sp.	1	
Metopsia retusa (Step.)	1	
Lesteva longoelytrata (Gz.)	2	
Omalium sp.	1	
Platystethus cornutus gp.	2	
Anotylus nitidulus (Grav.)	1	
A. rugosus (F.)	1	7
A. sculpturatus gp.	3	7
Stenus spp.	3	
Lathrobium spp. (not *longulum*)	1	
Xantholinus linearis (Ol.) or *longiventris* Heer	1	
Philonthus spp.	2	
Staphylinus olens Müll.	1	
Tachinus sp.	1	
Aleocharinae gen. *et* sp. indet.	3	
Aphodius fimetarius L.	1	2
A. cf. *rufipes* (L.)	1	2
A. cf. *sphacelatus* (Pz.)	1	2
A. cf. *varians* Duft.	1	2
Onthophagus ovatus (L.)	1	2
Onthophagus sp. (not *ovatus*)	2	2
Phyllopertha horticola (L.)	1	11
Agrypnus murinus (L.)	1	11
Agriotes sp.	2	11
Cantharis sp.	1	
Grynobius planus (F.)	1	4
Anobium punctatum (Deg.)	1	10
Ptinus fur (L.)	1	9a
Malachius sp.	1	
Brachypterus urticae (F.)	1	

	IA Waterhole 3786 Min. No. Indiv	
Context	3919	Species Group
Sample	227	
Cryptophagidae gen. *et* sp. indet. (not Atomariinae)	1	
Scymnus sp.	1	
Enicmus transversus (Ol.)	1	8
Pyrochroa serraticornis (L.)	1	4
Chrysolina polita (L.)	1	
Hydrothassa sp.	1	
Phyllotreta atra (F.)	1	
P. vittula Redt.	1	
Longitarsus spp.	1	
Chaetocnema concinna (Marsh.)	1	
Psylliodes sp.	1	
Rhynchites cf. *germanicus* Hbst.	1	4
Apion spp.	1	3
Barypeithes araneiformis (Schr.)	1	
Barynotus obscurus (F.)	1	
Sitona cf. *lineatus* (L.)	1	3
Magdalis sp.	1	4
Ceuthorhynchinae gen. *et* sp. indet.	2	
Tychius sp.	2	
Total	102	

Key to Species Groups :

1) Aquatic 2) Pasture/Dung 3) ?Meadowland 4) Wood and Trees 5) Marsh/Aquatic
6a) General Disturbed Ground/Arable 6b) Sandy/Dry Disturbed Ground/Arable
7) Dung/Foul Organic Matter 8) Lathridiidae 9a) General Synanthropic
9b) Stored Grain Pests 10) Esp. Structural Timbers 11) On Roots in Grassland
12) Heathland and Moorland

Table 15: Other Insects

	IA Waterhole 3786 Min. No. Indiv
Context	3919
Sample	227
Forficula auricularia L.	1
Legnotus picipes (Fal.)	2
Thyreocoris scarabaeoides (L.)	1
Heterogaster urticae (F.)	1
Anthocorinae gen. *et* sp. indet.	1
Megophthalmus scanicus (Fal.) or *scabripennis* Ed.	1
Aphrodes bicinctus (Schr.)	1
Aphrodes sp.	1
Aphidoidea gen. *et* sp. indet.	6
Stenamma sp.worker	1
Hymenoptera gen. *et* sp. indet. (not Formicidae)	3
Chironomid larval head capsule	+
Bibionidae gen. et sp. indet.	1
Dipteran adults (not Bibionidae)	9
Dipteran puparia	2

+ present

Table 16: Molluscs

	Minimum Number of Individuals			
	IA Waterhole	?MIA ditch	ER pit	ER ditch
Context/Feature	3919	3965	1011	973
Sample	227	220	167	150
Carychium sp.	4	9	-	2
Lymnaea truncatula (Müll.)	1	-	1	3
Anisus leucostoma (Mil.)	-	-	30	2
Cochlicopa sp.	2	2	1	1
Pupilla muscorum (L.)	1	-	-	-
Vallonia costata (Müll.)	9	2	3	1
V. pulchella (Müll.)	-	-	3	-
V. excentrica Sterki	1	1	-	1
Vallonia sp.	33	4	4	2
Punctum pygmaeum (Drap.)	2	1	-	-
Vitrina pellucida (Müll.)	2	1	-	-
Vitrea sp.	1	1	-	-
Nesovitrea hammonis (Ström)	2	-	-	-
Aegopinella nitidula (Drap.)	2	2	-	-
Oxychilus cellarius (Müll.)	4	3	1	-
Helicella itala (L.)	-	-	-	1
Trichia plebeia (Drap.) or *hispida* (L.)	3	4	28	20
Cepaea nemoralis (L.)	-	1	1	-
Helix aspersa Müll.	-	-	1	-
Totals	67	31	73	33

Table 17: Human bone - Distribution in weight of fragments >10mm, 5-10mm and 2-5mm after sieving. Abbreviation: ENF = Estimated number of fragments.

Cut no	Weight (g)	ENF	>10 mm (g)		5–10 mm (g)		2–5 mm (g)	
1156	260	300	229	*88.29%*	30.5	*11.7%*	0.5	*01%*
1488	328	141	328	*100.0%*	0	*0.0%*	0	*0.0%*
1491	29	154	21.5	*74.1%*	7.5	*25.9%*	0	*0.0%*
Total	*617*	*595*	*578.5*	*93.7%*	*38*	*6.15%*	*0.5*	*0.08%*

Table 18: Human bone age categories

Age group	Range
Foetal	< 0 years
Neonate	~ 0 years
Infant	0–1 years
Young child	2–5 years
Older child	6–12 years
Adolescent	13–17 years
Young adult	18–25 years
Prime adult	26–35 years
Mature adult	36–45 years
Older adult	> 46 years
Child	*2–12 years*
Sub-adult	*< 18 years*
Adult	*> 18 years*

Table 19: Common definitions of bustum used in archaeology

Wahl (1982)	Pyre and bone remains after a cremation, remaining within its layer or disturbed and covered with soil. In-situ cremation pyre and burial
McKinley (2000a)	Pyre site which also functioned as a burial. Archaeologically they may be identified by the following features: 1) Most of the cremated bone is close to the surface and above most of the fuel ash. 2) They include the remains of complete skeletons that are roughly in anatomical order, although secondary manipulation may take place. 3) The amount of bone retrieved is expected to weigh, for one adult individual, between 1600–2000 g but may be as little as 1000 g. 4) In the case of *Grubenbusta* the depth of the fuel ash in the pyre pit varies from between 0.30m at the corners to 0.10m in the centre. The sides and the base of the pit turn salmon pink in colour, as well as a margin of approximately 0.08–0.60 m that can be seen in plan around the top. 5) There is shallow penetration of burning into the ground to a depth of approximately 0.02–0.05 m.
Topál (1981)	Remains of pyre and calcinated bones in pits larger than that of other ordinary graves and containing the complete remains of the cremated body and the pyre.
Bechert (1980)	The cremated remains of a corpse in a grave pit including pyre remains.
Marquardt (1886)	A pit of about 1 m depth dug below the pyre and which contains the collapsed remains of the pyre with the cremated human remains, covered with soil or below a mound.

Table 20: Animal Bone: Number of Identified Specimens (NISP) per phase. ( ) denotes total bone from animal burials. Totals exclude animal burials.

Species	LNEO/EBA	EIA	MIA	LIA	ROMAN	MED	UNDATED	Total
Cattle	2	75 (1088)	205	239	101	2	1	625
Sheep/goat	2	25	104	46	31 (1)		2	210
Pig		10	27	8	7			52
Horse		29 (152)	51	10	77	1		168
Dog		(21)	1		1			2
Red deer		5	17		2			24
Weasel			1					1
Duck			1					1
Large mammal	8	140	806	58	225	2	38	1277
Medium mammal	5	92	258	24	114	2	12	507
Small mammal			4					4
Unidentified bird			1					1
Unidentifiable	2	159	294	145	222		29	851
Total	19	535	1770	530	780	7	82	3723

Table 21: Animal Bone: Proportions of fragments identifiable to species, and loose teeth, by phase (excluding animal burials).

	Early Iron Age	Middle Iron Age	Late Iron Age	Roman	Total
Total Fragments	535	1770	530	780	3636
No identifiable	144	407	303	218	1072
% identifiable	26.9%	23.0%	57.2%	27.9%	29.5%
No loose teeth	67	98	23	37	225
% loose teeth	46.5%	24.1%	7.6%	17.0%	30.0%

Table 22: Animal Bone: Proportion of butchery, burning and gnawing per phase (excluding animal burials).

Phase	Total	No. gnawed	% gnawed	No. butchered	% butchered	No. burnt	% burnt
Early Iron Age	535	19	3.6%	9	1.7%	2	0.4%
Middle Iron Age	1770	44	2.9%	13	0.7%	66	3.7%
Late Iron Age	530	4	0.8%	0	0.0%	19	3.6%
Roman	780	5	0.6%	9	1.2%	9	1.2%