An Iron Age Enclosure and Romano-British Features at High Post, near Salisbury

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Abstract

In 2008–9 a programme of archaeological works was undertaken on the site of an Iron Age hilltop enclosure on the southern margins of Salisbury Plain. The works were undertaken in advance of an extension to the Chemring Countermeasures Ltd (formerly Pains Wessex) factory at High Post, 6 km north of Salisbury, Wiltshire. The preliminary stages of work, comprising geophysical survey and evaluation, revealed parts of two adjacent ditched enclosures. The northern part of the southern enclosure was subject to excavation, and a watching brief during ground clearance.

Previous archaeological investigations to the south of the site had revealed Iron Age settlement features, and part of a stone structure associated with predominantly late Romano-British pottery.

The excavation revealed that the enclosure was bounded by a deep V-shaped ditch. No traces of an internal bank were found, although its presence was suggested by a wide zone largely devoid of features immediately inside the ditch. Among the few features in this zone was a length of curved gully suggesting that a roundhouse, closely associated with pits containing Early Iron Age pottery, may have pre-dated the enclosure's construction.

Another, more significant feature lying below the line of the bank was a large spread of mostly articulated animal bone, deriving from a minimum of 25 cattle, five sheep, a pig and a horse. This unique deposit is interpreted as a feasting and/or foundation deposit associated with the construction of the enclosure's defences. Samples from the bone deposit produced radiocarbon dates around the end of the Early Iron Age.

The Iron Age occupation of the enclosure was represented by three roundhouses, and numerous pits and post-holes. Many of the pits were bell-shaped and cylindrical grain storage pits which had been re-refilled, with varying degrees of formality and care, with deposits of domestic waste, placed objects including pottery, objects of stone and articulated animal bones, as well as soil, crushed chalk and other materials. The finds and environmental remains from the pits indicated a farming community cultivating barley and spelt wheat, keeping cattle, sheep and pigs, and undertaking a range of craft activities within the settlement as well as trading and/or exchanging goods over longer distances.

The enclosure was abandoned during the Middle Iron Age, this event possibly linked to the construction of the nearby Ogbury Camp hillfort. Although the fills of the enclosure ditch indicate the encroachment of agriculture during the Romano-British period and the consequent levelling of its defences, the site remained unoccupied until the late Romano-British period. A number of pits, hearths and post-holes of this period were recorded both within and outside the enclosure.

An unusual feature inside the enclosure was an oval gully, possibly some form of shrine, with two pits at its southern end containing a collection of rare, placed objects – including in one pit an iron saw and a steelyard balance, and in the other part of a shale spindle whorl, and a possibly Neolithic discoidal flint core. In addition, an inhumation burial was made on the edge of the former enclosure, the grave cutting through the remnant bank down to the Iron Age animal bone spread.

The other significant Romano-British feature was a well-preserved corn drying oven built into the hollow of the silted up Iron Age ditch. The ashy rake-out material in the base of the oven's stoke-hole contained a sherd of Early Saxon pottery indicating its continued use into the start of post-Romano-British period, a date supported by a radiocarbon date from the same layer. Following the abandonment of the oven, a human skull was placed in the back of its T-shaped flue.

Chapter 1
Introduction

The excavation of part of an Iron Age hilltop enclosure and Romano-British features on the southern margins of Salisbury Plain (Fig. 1) was undertaken in 2008–9 on the site of an extension to the Chemring Countermeasures Ltd (formerly Pains Wessex) factory at High Post, 6 km north of Salisbury, Wiltshire (Fig. 2). The excavation, covering *c.* 0.76 ha centred on National Grid Reference 414400 137130, was the main element of a staged programme of archaeological works formulated in consultation with Wiltshire County Council and funded by Chemring Countermeasures Ltd.

Stages of Work

The first stage of work was a geophysical survey undertaken in June 2008 on a rectangular area of open ground covering *c.* 6.9 ha in the north-east corner of the Chemring premises. This revealed parts of two adjacent ditched enclosures, the southern with a curved ditch, the northern sub-rectangular in form, and both containing many geophysical anomalies identified as features of high archaeological significance (Wessex Archaeology 2008a) (Fig. 3). These findings were consistent with the interpretations of aerial photographs (Wiltshire County Council 1999).

In July 2008, seven evaluation trenches were excavated, four of them targeted on the southern enclosure, one on the northern enclosure, and the other two positioned outside the enclosures (Wessex Archaeology 2008b). These revealed the ditches of both enclosures, that of the southern one being recorded as up to 12 m wide. Both enclosures were considered to be of Iron Age date, with their ditches apparently falling out of use during the early Romano-British period. Numerous Iron Age pits and post-holes were recorded within the southern enclosure (Fig. 3). There was also evidence of a smaller Iron Age ditch extending at least 200 m to the east of the southern enclosure.

The mitigation strategy, based of the results of the previous work and agreed by Wiltshire County

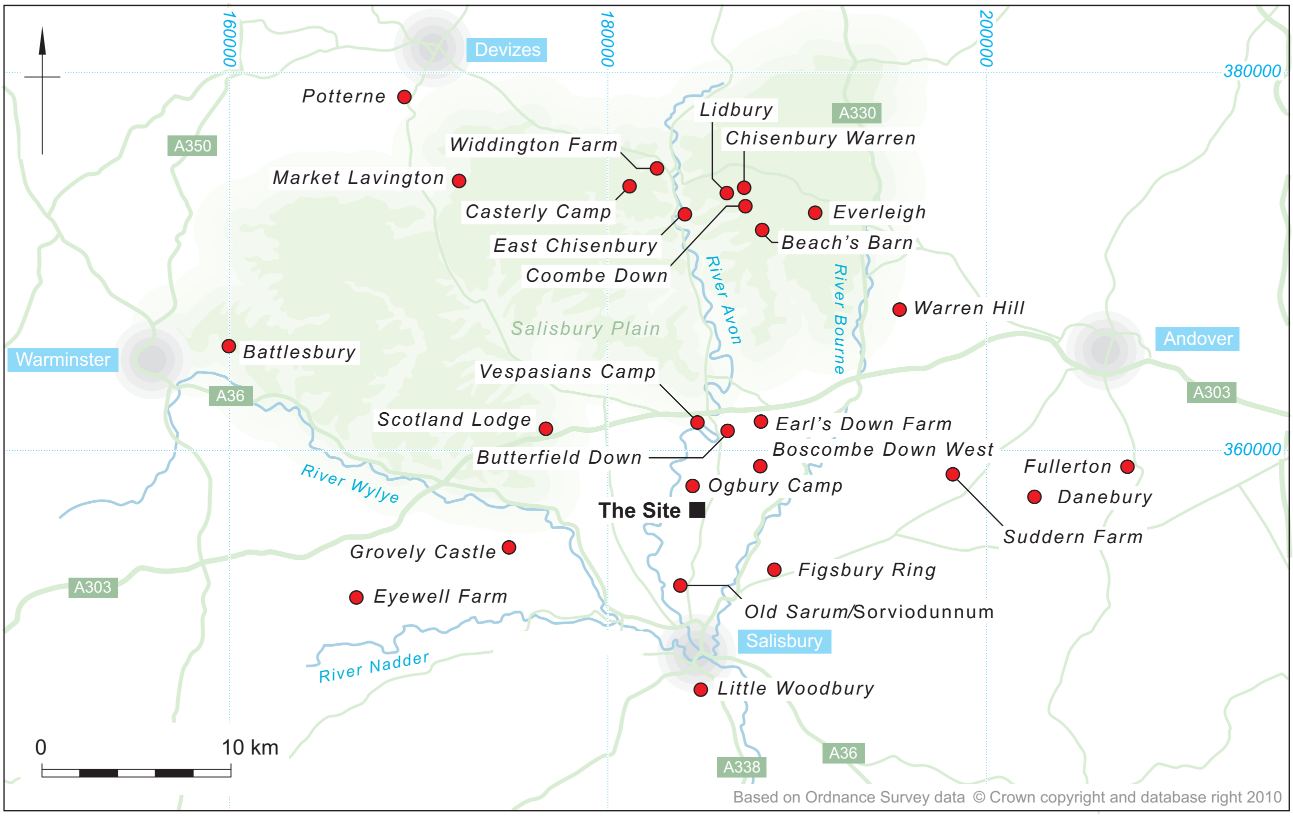

Figure 1 Sites around Salisbury Plain mentioned in the text

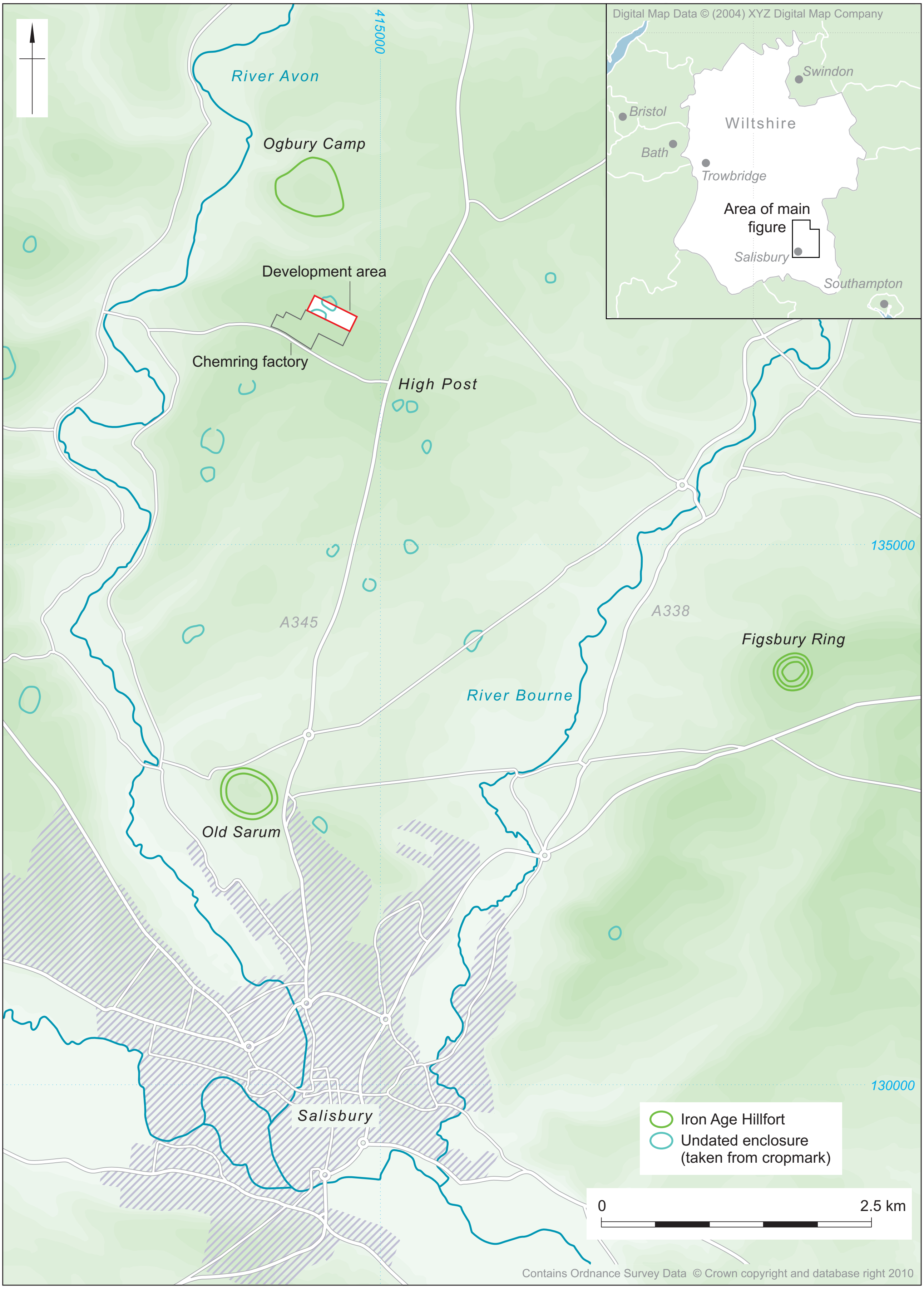

Figure 2 Location of the site, showing other hillforts and enclosures

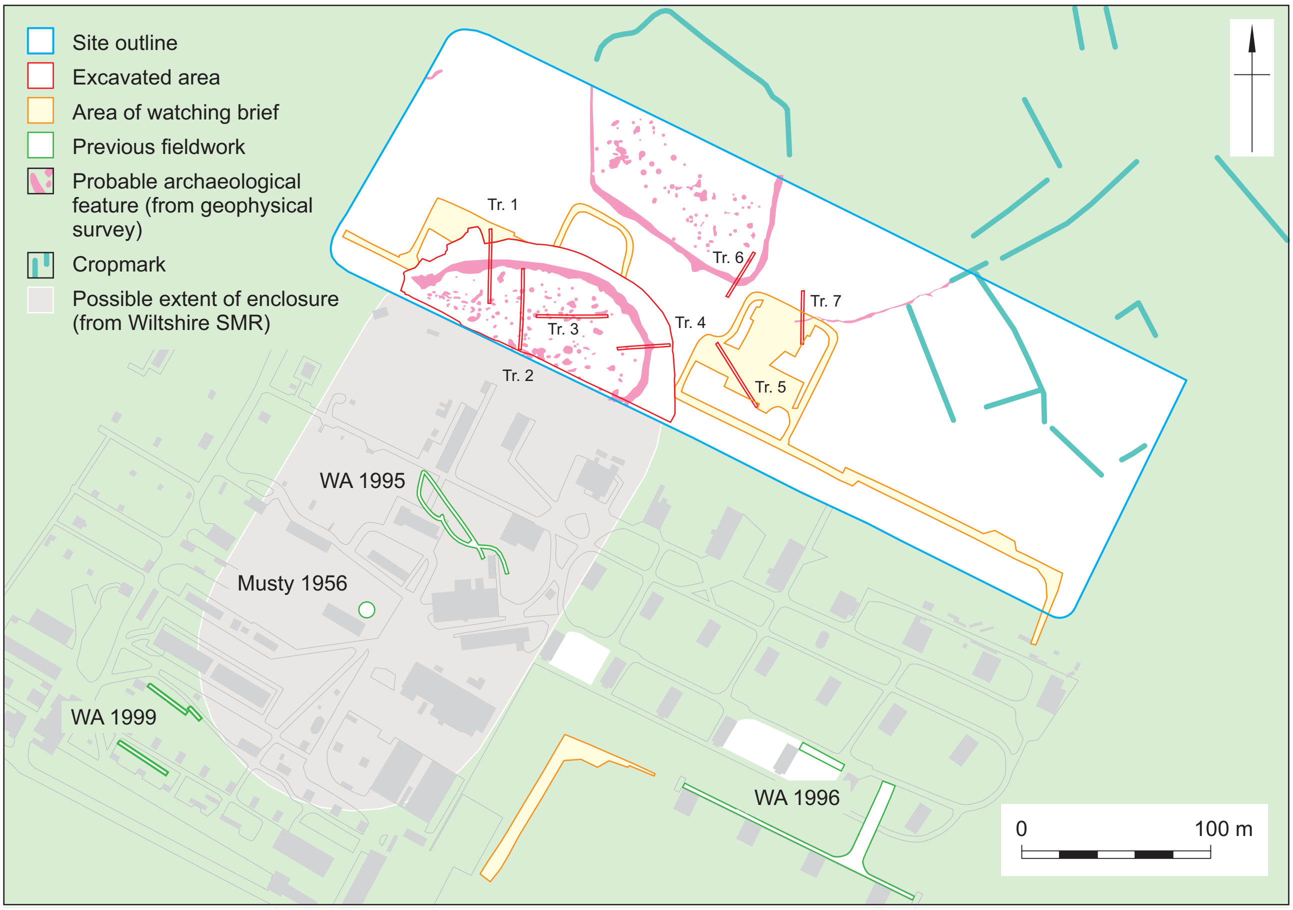

Figure 3 The site in relation to previous work

Council, involved the preservation *in situ* of the northern enclosure, and the detailed excavation of the affected part of the southern enclosure, followed by a watching brief both on the excavated area and on any other parts of the site that would be subject to development impacts; a small area *c.* 200 m south of the site was also monitored (Wessex Archaeology 2008c).

Geology, Soils and Topography

The underlying geology is recorded as Upper Chalk, with an area of clay-with-flints to the south (Geological Survey of Great Britain, Sheet 298 Salisbury, 1976). On site, the natural geology was encountered at a depth of 0.25 m, immediately below the topsoil, and consisted of fissured chalk and bands of brown clay-with-flints.

The site is generally flat, but is in a commanding position, at *c.* 131 m above Ordnance Datum (aOD), on the broad downland ridge that flanks the eastern side of the Avon valley and extends south to the Iron Age hillfort of Old Sarum (Fig. 2). To the east, there is a more gradual and undulating fall into the valley of the River Bourne, while to the north there is a shallow dry valley, running down to the River Avon, that separates the site from the hillfort of Ogbury Camp, which is at a lower elevation of *c.* 91 m aOD. The plateau on which the site is located was used as an airfield before and during World War II.

Archaeological Background

There had been a number of earlier investigations on and around the Chemring premises (Fig. 3). In 1956 part of a stone structure, associated with predominantly late Romano-British pottery and other finds, was discovered *c.* 170 m south-south-west of the site; a single sherd of Iron Age pottery was also found (Musty 1959). A watching brief in 1995, *c.* 100 m south of the site, recorded Iron Age settlement features such as pits, post-holes, and ditches (Wessex Archaeology 1995).

The site lies *c.* 1 km south of Ogbury Camp, and *c.* 4 km north of Old Sarum hillfort. Aerial photographs of the surrounding area, in addition to revealing the two enclosures at High Post, also revealed a series of field systems of possible Iron Age and Romano-British date to both the north and south of the site (Wiltshire County Council 1999). The site also lies close to the conjectured line of the Roman road (Wiltshire SMR SU13SW319) between *Sorviodunum* (Old Sarum) and *Cunetio* (Mildenhall, near Marlborough), running below the A345, which may be aligned on a pre-Roman ridgeway.

Chapter 2
Iron Age

The Enclosure

The Iron Age enclosure is of unknown overall size and shape as only the northern part of its ditch (1838) and interior was exposed, this having been previously identified both in aerial photographs (Wiltshire County Council 1999) and by the geophysical survey (Wessex Archaeology 2008b) (Figs 3–5; Pl. 1). The line of the ditch as recorded during the excavation suggests that the enclosure may have been oval, measuring internally *c.* 150 m east–west, by 100 m north–south, which would give it an internal area of *c.* 1.2 ha. However, the Iron Age features previously recorded to the south (Wessex Archaeology 1995) lie well outside this projected oval, suggesting that the enclosure may have been larger and less regular in shape. The Wiltshire SMR (SMR no. SU13NW201) depicts the possible area of the enclosure as being sub-rectangular with rounded ends, orientated north-east–south-west, and measuring *c.* 320 m long and 180 m wide (*c.* 4.70 ha).

In Musty's small excavation in 1956, layers associated with a Romano-British stone structure were encountered to a depth of *c.* 0.6 m below ground level, which surprised the excavator as, elsewhere, the chalk lay only 0.3 m below ground level (Musty 1959, 173). Below these levels was a further *c.* 1 m of disturbed soil which Musty took to indicate that the building had been sited over part of an Early Iron Age working hollow. Although Musty did not characterise the structure, it is referred to in the Wiltshire SMR as a 'corn drier' (SMR no. SU13NW300). Given the discovery during the recent High Post excavation of a Romano-British corn drying oven built into the upper fills of the enclosure ditch (see below), it is possible that Musty's structure had been built in a similar location. If so, this would make the enclosure *c.* 220 m long. No features were recorded in two 1999 evaluation trenches (Wessex Archaeology 1999) opened further to the south-west (Fig. 3).

It is possible that the curvature of the exposed ditch at the south-east of the site marks an in-turning on the north side of an entrance. There was no break in the ditch within the site, but a south-east-facing entrance would be consistent both with the apparent significance of this orientation in the Iron Age (as reflected for example in the preferred positioning of round-house entrances), and with the locations of entrances at a number of other comparable enclosures in the region, such as Widdington Farm, Everleigh, and Warren Hill (Fulford *et al.* 2006, fig. 3.1).

Plate 1 Aerial view of the site from the north-east

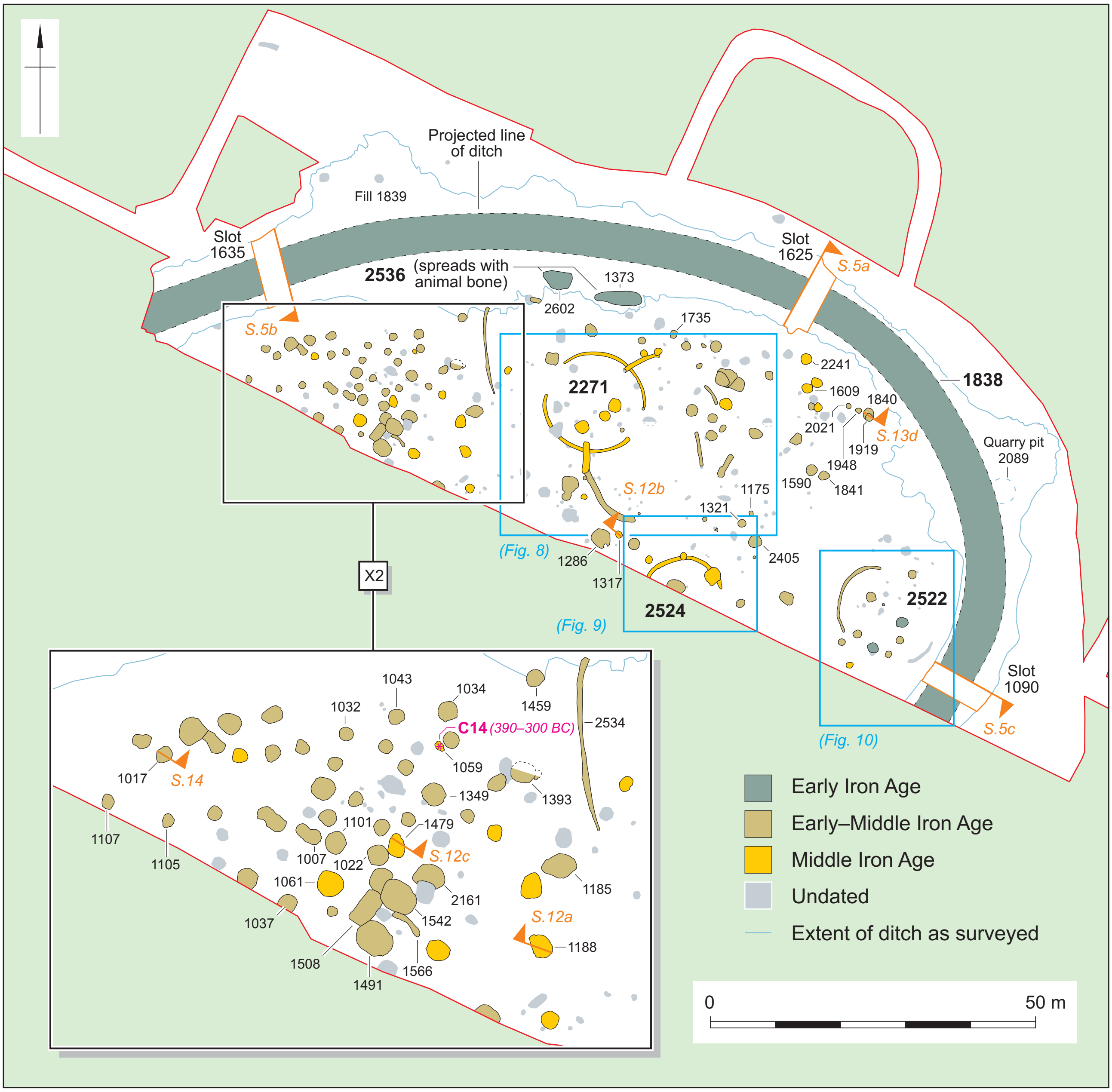

Figure 4 Iron Age features

Ditch

Following the stripping of the topsoil from the site, the uppermost fill of the ditch was clearly visible as a broad but irregularly edged band of dark soil (1839) between 7 m and 25 m wide (Figs 4 and 15). However, its widest points were shown during the excavation to be due to the presence of clusters of quarry pits at the north-east, and an area of Romano-British activity at the north (see below). Beyond these areas, the band of dark soil was still up to 12 m wide, and this was shown by excavation to include further quarry pits along the outside of the ditch, as well as widening caused by erosion of the ditch's upper edges.

Three slots (1635, 1625, and 1090, west to south-east) were cut through the ditch, and excavated by hand to their full depth; at four other locations only the upper 1.2 m of the ditch was excavated. In each of the full sections, the lower *c.* 2.5 m of the ditch profile was distinctly V-shaped with a narrow base, and projecting these steep, straight sides upwards provides a good indication of the ditch's likely original dimensions – *c.* 5.8–6.4 m wide and 3.2–3.5 m deep (below the present topsoil), enabling the probable line of the ditch's original edges to be estimated (Fig. 4), and this corresponds closely to the line revealed by the geophysical survey (Fig. 3).

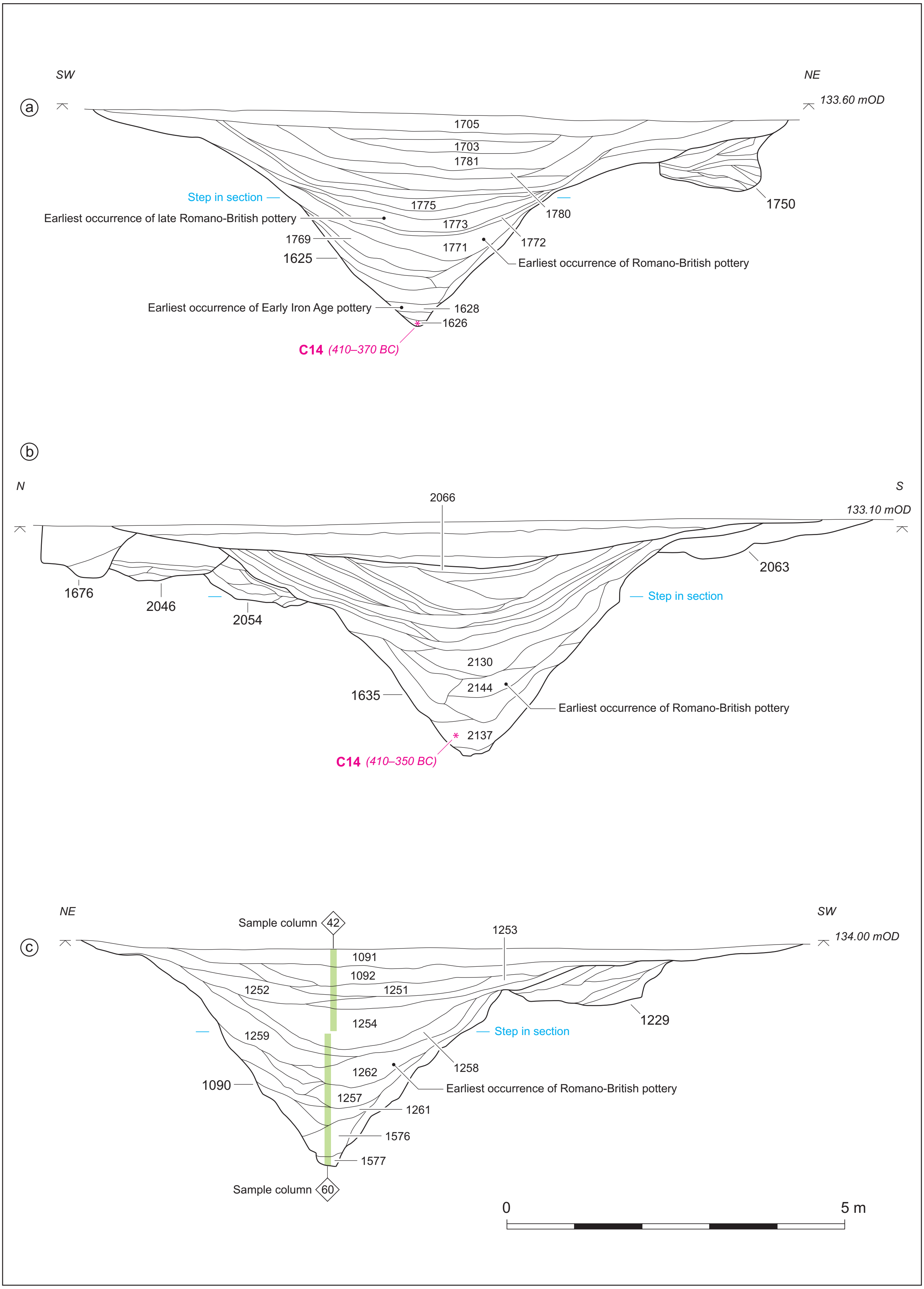

Figure 5 Iron Age enclosure ditch, slots 1625, 1635, and 1090

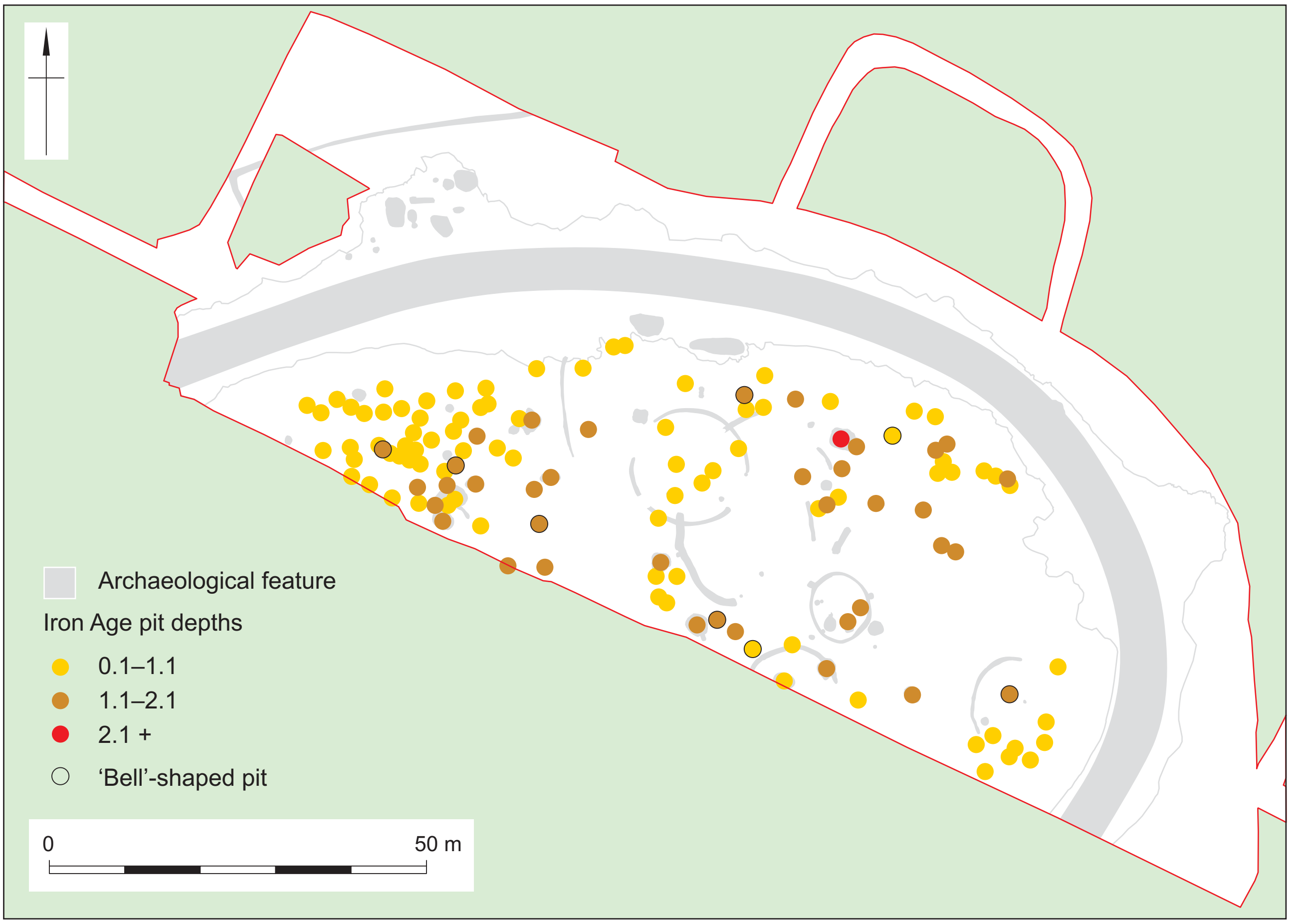

Figure 6 Iron Age pits' depths

Two radiocarbon dates from around the transition between the Early and Middle Iron Age were obtained from samples of animal bone near the base of the ditch (Table 1). (All the radiocarbon dates quoted are 'Model 1' calibrated dates – see Stevens and Barclay, below, for explanation.) That from the primary fill (1626) in slot 1625 produced a calibrated date of 410–370 BC (2330±30 BP, SUERC-32317), while that from layer 2137 immediately the primary fill in slot 1635, produced a date of 410–350 BC (2310±30 BP, SUERC-32318). Other dating evidence includes large fragments of Early Iron Age pottery (from two, possibly three, vessels) recovered from a fill (1628) just above the base of the ditch in slot 1625 (Fig. 5). This suggests that the ditch was constructed around the start of the 4th century BC.

There were no clear indications that the ditch was ever recut although had it been regularly cleaned out to the base, at least in the early part of its life, the dated bone could have become incorporated in the lower fills some time after construction. That some form of maintenance occurred is suggested by the considerable depths within the ditch from which Romano-British pottery was first recovered (Fig. 5), ie, in layers between 0.9 m and 1.2 m above the base.

There was no evidence that the ditch had been deliberately backfilled; instead, it appears that it was eventually left to silt up largely through natural processes, involving episodes of gradual accumulation interspersed with a number of stabilisation horizons, followed in the late Romano-British period by the more rapid inwash of cultivation soils (see below). The only evidence of activity on the site in the Late Iron Age was sherds from a carinated bowl and a round-bodied bowl in the same sandy fabric, which probably date to the first half of the 1st century AD, recovered with Romano-British sherds from context 1254 (in slot 1090). The recovery of two late Roman (late 3rd and 4th century) coins from the tertiary fills (1781 and 1705, respectively, in slot 1625) indicates that the silting up of the ditch probably spanned some 1000 years.

Bank

The internal ramparts of Early Iron Age defended enclosures and hillforts were frequently vertically faced at the front with timber and/or stone walling (Cunliffe 2006, 157). However, ploughing, from antiquity up to the present, had heavily truncated the site and no physical traces of any internal (or external) bank were recorded, either as a surviving earthwork or in the form of post-holes for any timber revetment or internal timber lacing. However, the natural chalk in the area immediately inside the ditch was recorded as being less weathered than elsewhere, indicating its possible protection by a bank. In addition, in all three full ditch sections (Fig. 5) there were a number of rubble-rich deposits, some of which, on the inner side, may derive from episodes of erosion of bank material (eg, 1769 in slot 1625; 2137, 2144, and 2130 in slot 1635; 1576, 1261, 1257 and 1262 in slot 1090). The presence of a bank built up from the edge of the ditch may in fact have preserved that edge from erosion, at least until the bank itself had become denuded.

While some of the chalk excavated from the ditch may have been used for consolidating surfaces within the settlement area, for making daub, or for other purposes, it is likely that much of it was used in the construction of a bank. This could have been a substantial earthwork, possibly as wide as the original ditch cut, and the two features together could have formed a visually imposing and highly effective defensive boundary.

The presence of a bank would have resulted in an internal zone devoid of contemporary settlement features, which certainly appears to have been the case around the northern edge of the enclosed settlement (Fig. 4). Here, despite the density of pits within the enclosure, there were few pits within 9 m of the suggested original ditch edge. Furthermore, the relatively small number of pits that do lie within this zone are generally shallower than those at a greater distance from the ditch, perhaps indicating that some were dug from a higher level, ie, through the shallow tail of the gradually eroding and levelling bank; correspondingly, the deeper pits are concentrated towards the centre of the site (Fig. 6). A number of pits close to the ditch are relatively wide in relation to their depths and have the distinct appearance of being the bases of originally much deeper pits (eg, 1034, 1459, 1735, 2241, and 2430 – Fig. 12e). It should be noted, however, that other, immediately adjacent pits do not fit this pattern, which may reflect the relative chronology of the pits, some possibly pre-dating the enclosure, and others dug at various stages of the bank's erosion and levelling.

At the north-east and east of the site, the empty zone inside the ditch appeared to be significantly narrower (*c.* 4–6 m). A length of curved gully (unexcavated but possibly forming part of a round-house (2522, below) lay less than 3 m from the ditch edge. The only two pits on the site dated to the Early Iron Age (1208 and 1236) were located in the same area, both within 10 m of the ditch. This too could indicate pre-enclosure settlement activity.

Quarry Pits

In each of the full sections across the enclosure ditch, there was at least one pit cutting the chalk natural along its outer edge (Fig. 5), and it is likely that comparable features occurred around much of the

Plate 2 Aerial view of the interior from the north-west, showing relationship of animal bone spread 1373 to the enclosure ditch

rest of the ditch's circuit. In addition, as noted above, extensive concentrations of intercutting pits, varying considerably in size and form, were recorded at the north-east.

The dating of these features is uncertain, the only datable finds from any of them being two sherds (30 g) of Romano-British pottery from one of the group at the north-east (2089). As the pits appear to follow the line of the ditch, it is likely that they were cut into the natural chalk exposed in the upper part of its outer edge (or in the sides of earlier pits cutting the ditch edge). Although the fills of those closest to the ditch were truncated by it, they were only cut by its shallow upper (ie, eroded) edge (and overlain by its uppermost, tertiary fills). As such it can only be said that they pre-date the final phase of the ditch's infilling.

The two Romano-British sherds were recovered from the top of the fill of pit 2089, and could well be intrusive, deriving from the overlying tertiary ditch fills. An Iron Age date is further suggested by the presence of comparable features at other Iron Age enclosures, such as the ditch-edge pits recorded at the Nettlebank Copse banjo enclosure, Wherwell, Hampshire (Cunliffe and Poole 2000a), and broad clusters of intercutting pits outside the enclosure ditch at Winnall Down, Winchester (Fasham 1985).

The profiles of the fills in these pits suggest that many had been deliberately backfilled. In fact, the clear tip lines of soil sloping from one side, visible in some of the pits, suggest that this material had derived in part from the excavation of an adjacent pit. The most likely interpretation is that they were quarry pits for the extraction of clean chalk for various uses within the settlement, or even possibly for marling areas of clay with flint in the surrounding fields (see pits 1749 and 1840, below). With the chalk that was extracted from the enclosure ditch used to construct the bank, and with the bank covering the inner edge of the ditch, the exposed outer edge of the ditch would have be the easiest place to initially extract chalk.

Plate 3 Eastern animal bone spread 1373

Animal Bone Deposit

An extensive deposit of articulated animal bone (2536) was recorded immediately inside the ditch, being recorded in the area between the ditch's projected original line and the edge of its uppermost fill as surveyed following removal of the topsoil; the

Table 1 Summary of calibrated radiocarbon dates: Model 1

Feature	*Context*	*Material*	*Lab ref.*	*Date BP*	*Model 1/* calibrated (95.4%)
Bone spread 2536	1373 ABG 275	Cattle bone	NZA-31064	2420±35	*500–390 BC*
as above	1373 ABG 269	Cattle bone	SUERC-32316	2380±30	*490–390 BC*
as above	1373 ABG 379	Cattle bone	SUERC-32315	2355±30	*490–390 BC*
Pit 1236	1347	Cattle bone	SUERC-32314	2345±30	*480–370 BC*
Enclosure ditch (1625)	1626	Cattle bone	SUERC-32317	2330±30	*410–370 BC*
Enclosure ditch (1635)	2137	Cattle bone	SUERC-32318	2310±30	*410–350 BC*
Pit 1236 (recut)	1237	Pig bone	SUERC-32313	2240±30	*400–280 BC*
Pit 1059	1089	Residue on pottery	SUERC-32312	2165±30	*390–300 BC*
Corn drying oven 2607	2614	Human skull	SUERC-35359	1710±30	AD 250–410
Burial within bone spread	2371	Human femur	SUERC-35358	1730±30	
as above	as above	as above	SUERC-35885	1745±30	AD 230–350
as above	as above	Human humerus	SUERC-35884	1770±30	
Corn drying oven 2607	2618	Charred spelt grain	SUERC-32322	1645±25	AD 335–535

(see Table 20 for full details)

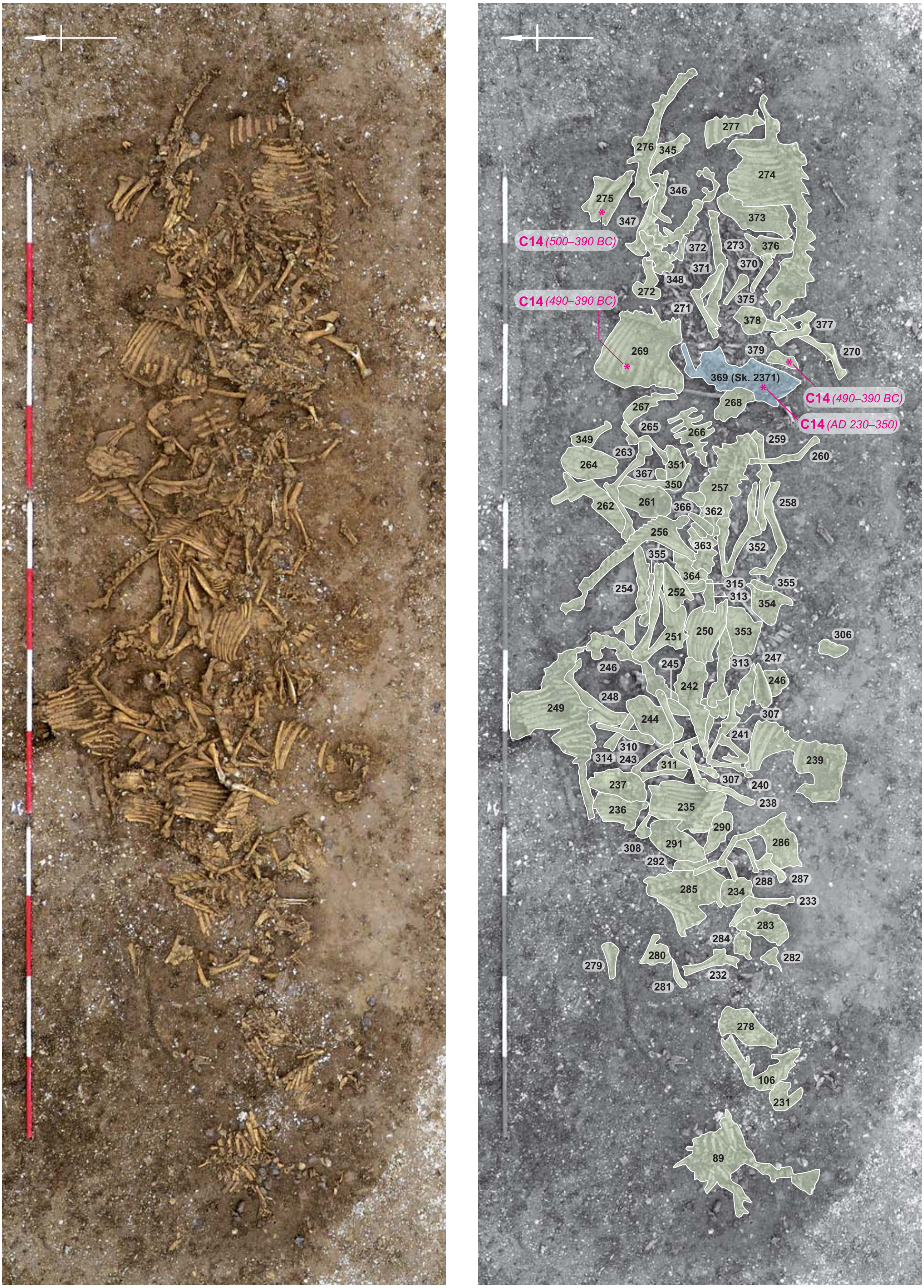

Figure 7 Animal bone spread 1373, showing bone groups

ditch as surveyed at this point was approximately 15 m wide (Pl. 2). The bone deposit survived as two east–west aligned spreads. The eastern part of the deposit (1373 – recorded during the main excavation phase) (Pl. 3; Fig. 7) was *c.* 7.3 m long and up to 2.3 m wide, and lay within *c.* 4 m of the suggested original edge of the ditch. A partial human skeleton (2371) found on the bone spread was assumed at the time of excavation to be directly associated with it, but radiocarbon dating (Table 1) has shown that it was in fact a Romano-British burial (see below), for which no grave cut was observed.

Three radiocarbon dates, all calibrated to the 5th century BC (470–390 cal BC), were obtained from samples of cattle bone from the deposit (Table 1): 500–390 BC (2420 ± 35 BP, NZA-31064), 490–390 BC (2380±30 BP, SUERC-32316), and 490–390 BC (2355±30 BP, SUERC-32315). When compared with the two dates obtained from the lower fills of the ditch (see above), this suggests that the bone spread probably pre-dated the ditch construction by a relatively short period.

The western part of the deposit (2602 – cut by, but not recognised in, evaluation trench 2, but recorded during the watching brief) lay *c.* 3.5 m to the north-west of 1373, and was *c.* 4 m long and up to 2 m wide (Pl. 4). It lay within *c.* 2 m of the ditch. It is possible that the two spreads originally consisted of a single deposit up to 15 m long. Together, 155 associated bone groups (ABGs) from a minimum of 32 animals (25 cattle, 5 sheep, a pig and a horse) providing an estimated 7450 kg of meat, were recorded within the deposit (see Higbee, below).

Crucial to any understanding of this deposit is its stratigraphical relationship with the ditch and any internal bank. The bone deposit lay within *c.* 2–6.5 m of the suggested original inner edge of the ditch (Fig. 4) and would have lain squarely below the line of a bank. The eastern spread (1373), which was *c.* 0.15 m thick, appeared to lie within an elongated depression within the pre-bank subsoil. The northern edge of the depression, and hence its direct relationship with the ditch, however, was not clear; nor was it established whether the depression was in fact a discrete cut or a natural hollow. The bones were recorded within a silty clay matrix from which were also recovered 54 sherds (386 g) of Iron Age pottery, 12 Romano-British sherds (62 g), single pieces of worked and burnt flint, and a piece of vessel glass (ON 614). The location of the Romano-British pottery was not recorded, but the glass was found close to ABG 291 towards the western end of the spread (Fig. 7). The bone deposit was covered with a layer of soil (2537) up to 0.1 m thick, described as a deliberate backfill. However, the northern edge of layer 2537, which lay immediately below the topsoil, was not distinguished from the uppermost ditch fill

Plate 4 Western animal bone spread 2602

(1839). While it is possible that some of the pottery was associated with the human burial, it is also possible that the Romano-British finds from layer 1373 are intrusive from the uppermost layers in the ditch.

The western spread (2602), which was exposed during the watching brief, was *c.* 0.1 m thick, and was covered by a layer of soil (2603) immediately below the topsoil. Here too the spread's stratigraphical relationship to the ditch was not clearly established. The soil around the bones, a mid-brown silty clay from which eight Iron Age sherds (54 g), one struck flint, and two pieces of burnt flint were recovered, was recorded as being distinguishable from chalkier material at the eastern, western, and northern (ditch-side) edges of the feature, although this is not clearly evident in the site photographs.

As suggested above, it is likely that any substantial erosion of the ditch's inner edge did not occur until the bank itself had been significantly reduced. The radiocarbon dates obtained from deposit 2536 suggest, therefore, that any shallow cuts into the subsoil within which the deposit was made must pre-date the bank and, given that the bank material would have derived from the excavation of the ditch, the cuts must also either pre-date the ditch, or at the latest be contemporary with the initial stages of its construction.

No closely comparable deposits are known from Iron Age enclosures. Deposits within enclosure ditches are more common, such as the deposit of four cattle skulls near the base of the ditch of a similar enclosure at Warren Hill, *c.* 15 km to the north-east of the site (Fulford *et al.* 2006, 43), but again these are not on the same scale and may have had very different significance.

The Settlement

Settlement Structures

Three Iron Age round-houses were recorded within the enclosure, all represented by curved gullies (Fig. 4) although, as noted above, it is possible that one may pre-date the enclosure. There were, in addition, a number of other gullies which may not have had an structural function. Although the areas covered by, and immediately flanking, these round-houses had generally lower densities of pits than either the western or north-eastern parts of the enclosure, there were still a considerable number of pits, post-holes, and other features either within, cutting or cut by, or immediately outside, the round-houses. While some of these may have been directly associated with those round-houses, in many cases this could not be determined.

Round-house 2271

The two gullies (1847 and 2235) which formed the largest round-house (2271), positioned some 14 m from the ditch in the central northern part of the enclosure, had an internal diameter of 14.4 m (Fig. 8). The gullies were *c.* 0.3–0.7 m wide and up to 0.3 m deep, although the northern gully (2235) was slightly narrower and shallower probably due to heavier truncation. Both gullies had two fills, the lower being the result of natural silting and the upper apparently backfilled. The material recovered from them appears to be entirely domestic in character, comprising predominantly pottery, burnt flint, and animal bone. The pottery suggests a date in the early part of the Middle Iron Age (see Jones, below).

Gully 1847 (at the south) increased in width to 0.75 m at a terminal on the south side of a *c.* 5 m wide, south-east-facing entrance. On the north side of the entrance there was a post-hole (1814, *c.* 0.5 m diameter) positioned immediately adjacent to the narrower northern terminal. There was also a gap, no more than 5 m wide, between the gullies on the north-west side of the round-house, although a possible terminal was recorded only on the southern side of the gap; any northern terminal fell within (but was not recorded in) evaluation trench 2. It is possible that this gap is the result of localised truncation, which was also evident at round-house 2252 (below).

However, although rare, examples of round-houses with opposed entrances are known (eg,

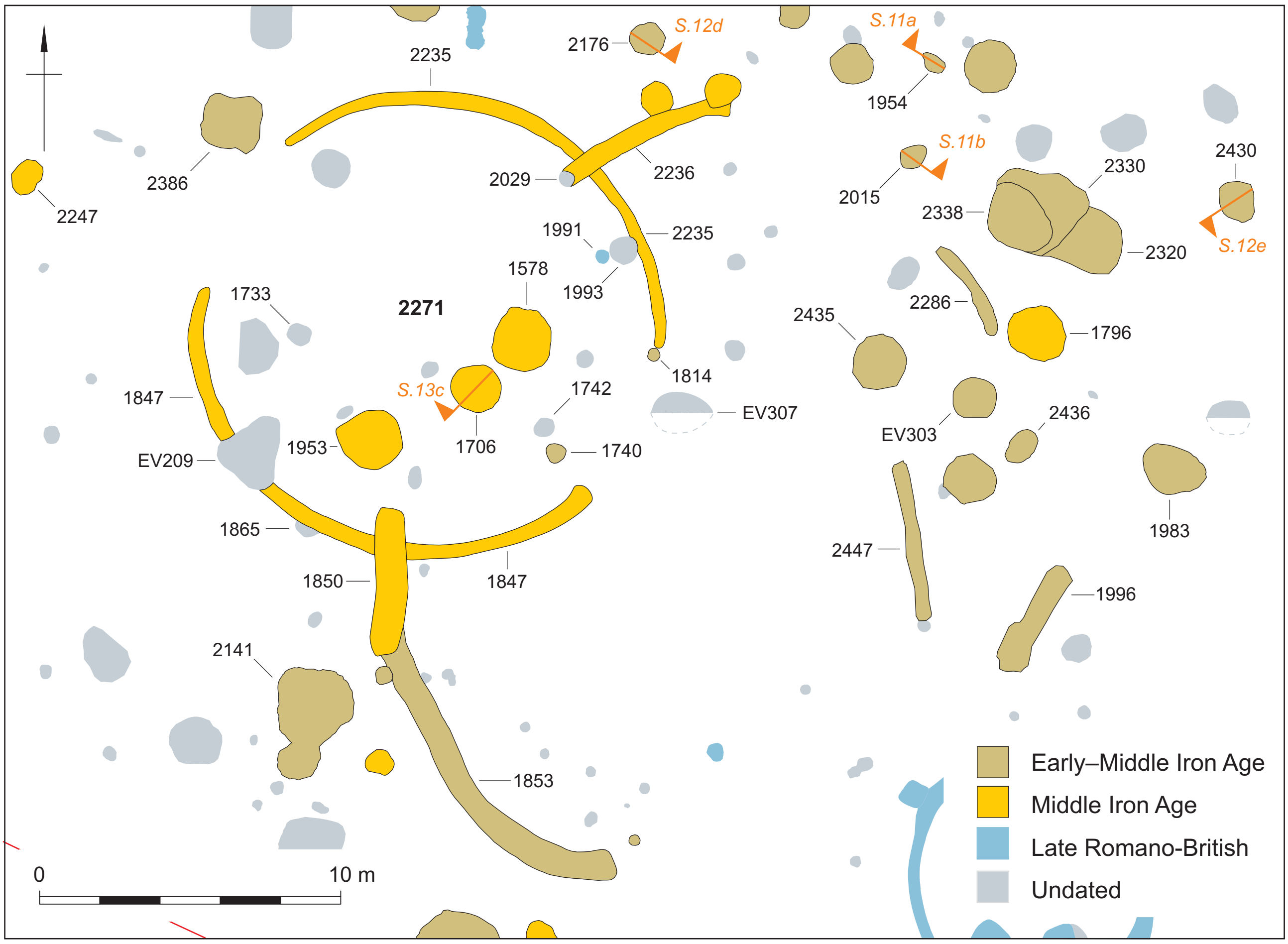

Figure 8 Round-house 2271 with associated features

Harding 2004, fig. 2.6; Powell 2009, fig. 4) and it is at least possible that this was such a structure. Two opposed entrances could have made the interior of a domestic structure very draughty, which would be hazardous if there was an internal hearth – although none was recorded in this round-house. Such a structure could, however, have had some other, non-domestic function, perhaps requiring either greater internal light, such as for craft activity, or a through-draught, such as for winnowing grain or drying materials and foodstuffs inside.

The timber structure of the round-house is possibly represented by an arrangement of nine post-holes, some of which lie approximately along the southern arc of a circle, *c.* 10 m in diameter, slightly off-centre within the gullies. These were spaced between 3.4 m and 4.5 m apart (centre to centre), with the exception of the two at the south-eastern entrance which were only 2.5 m apart. The post-holes were 0.4–0.8 m wide (average 0.56 m) and up to 0.2 m deep. Two (1733 and 1742) contained large flint nodules that may have been packing stones. The absence of post-holes on the northern side may reflect heavier truncation in that area. It should be stated, however, that this post-ring is highly tentative, the post-holes varying considerably in size and profile, and given the relative density of post-holes in this general area of the site (see below) it is quite possible that some or all of the post-holes within the round-house were not structurally associated with it.

There were also eight pits within the circuit of the gullies (two of them unexcavated), and a further two had stratigraphical relationships with the gullies – pit 1865 was cut by the gully, and pit 1993 cut the inner edge of the gully; a third, unexcavated pit (EV209), exposed during the evaluation, lay on the line of the gully but their stratigraphic relationship was not recorded.

Round-house 2524

Only the northern arc of the gully of round-house 2524 lay within the excavated area and this had a projected internal diameter of 12.4 m (Fig. 9). The gully was of similar width to that of round-house 2271, but survived to no more than *c.* 0.15 m deep. A terminal at the east end indicates an eastward-facing entrance possibly at least 3.4 m wide, the opposing terminal apparently lying outside the excavation area. The gully contained pottery suggesting a Middle Iron Age date, worked and burnt flint, and animal bone. There was a single, unexcavated, possible post-hole lying off-centre within the round-house, and a pit (1224), but their relationship with the structure is uncertain. The gully, however, was cut by two pits (1131 and 1155).

Round-house 2522

Two lengths of gully at the south-east of the site appear to form a third round-house 2270, although the shorter (unexcavated) gully lies over 3 m outside the 12.4 m diameter circle projected from the longer gully (2270; Fig. 10). The two lengths of gully therefore may not be directly associated; if they are they would have formed a slightly irregularly shaped round-house over 15 m wide, and hence the largest on the site. Both gullies, however, lie close to the enclosure ditch, the unexcavated one lying less than 3 m from its estimated line, and the projected circuit of the longer gully lying *c.* 6 m from it. Both, therefore, encroach well within the suggested span of an enclosure bank. While it is possible that gully 2270, which comprises only the north-western quarter of the projected circle, did not belong to a round-house, but represents some other type of curved structure, the fact that it is the same diameter as round-house 2524 suggests otherwise.

While the phasing of this round-house relative to the enclosure is hampered by the recovery from its gully of just a single sherd of pottery (of possible Middle Iron Age date) and three fragments of slag (9 g), its position suggests that it could potentially pre-date the construction of the ditch and bank. Although it is possible that it was built significantly later, following a significant degree of levelling of the bank, it seems unlikely that it would have been built on the tail of the bank given the presence of a largely empty, and more level, space to its north-west (Fig. 4).

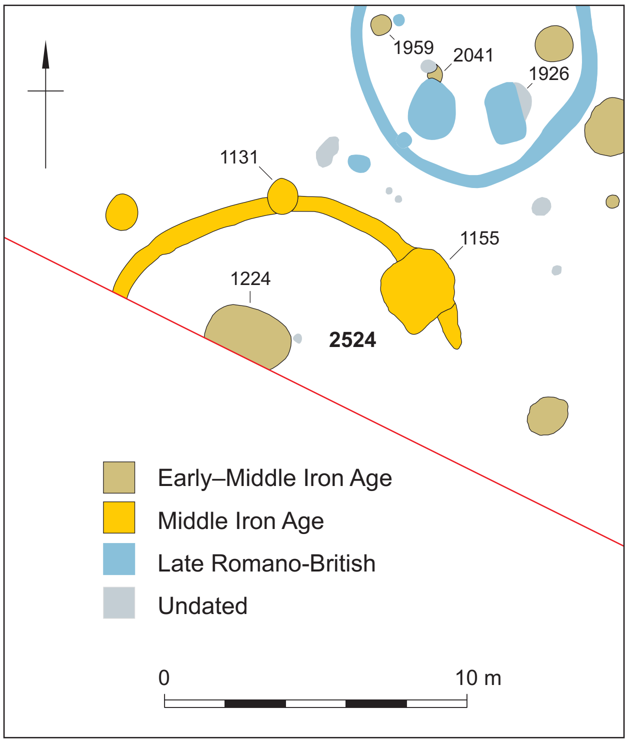

Figure 9 Round-house 2524

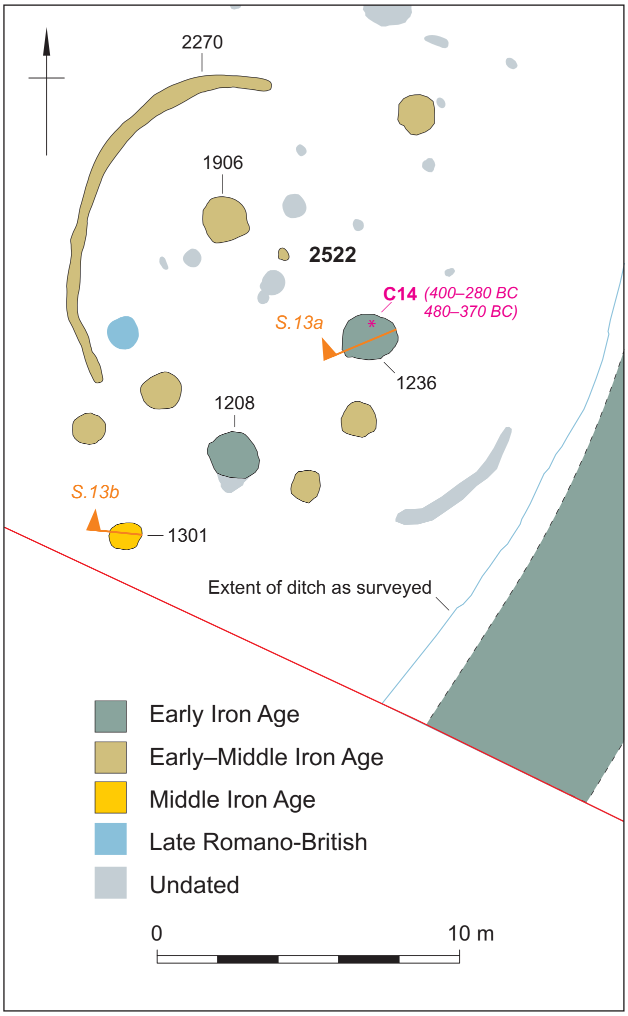

Figure 10 Round-house 2522

It may be significant that the only two pits containing exclusively Early Iron Age pottery (1208 and 1236) both lie within this round-house. A sample of cattle bone from the basal fill of pit 1236 also produced a calibrated radiocarbon date of 480–370 BC (2345±30 BP, SUERC-32314) (Table 1).

There were at least six possible post-holes inside the round-house; all but one were undated and they formed no obvious pattern or relationship with the gully; other possible post-holes lay either on, or outside the projected line of the gully at the north-east. There were also a number of pits, none of which had any stratigraphical relationship with the gully.

Other gullies

There were a number of lengths of gully in the central part of the site, most of them in the area east and south-east of round-house 2271 (Fig. 8), but with one to the north-west and another short length within the concentration of pits at the west of the site (Fig. 4). These vary in length and orientation, and form no obvious pattern nor do they have any clear function although the positions of some in relation to the round-house suggest they had some association with it.

Gully 2534, north-west of round-house 2271 (Fig. 4), averaged *c.* 0.2 m wide and 0.1 m deep, and ran south for *c.* 13 m from the enclosure ditch, curving slightly to the east. Its fill at its northern end was indistinguishable from the upper ditch fills, so that its stratigraphic relationship with the ditch was not established. Its position suggests that it may have marked a division within the enclosure between the large cluster of pits at the west and houses. The recovery from the gully of two sherds (3 g) of Romano-British pottery, along with four Iron Age sherds (12 g) and two of uncertain date (3 g), raises the possibility that this feature is of later date, but it is considered more likely that the Romano-British sherds are intrusive in its single fill.

Two other short lengths of gully radiated out at right-angles from the north-east and south sides of round-house 2271. The northern, slightly curving gully (2236) was 6.8 m long, and up to 0.6 m wide and 0.4 m deep. It cut the round-house gully, and its terminal, lying just inside the gully's line, was cut in turn by a *c.* 0.5 m diameter post-hole (2029). The southern gully (1850) was 4.9 m long, and up to 1 m wide and 0.6 m deep. While its northern end also cut the round-house gully, its southern end cut the northern end of another, shallower (*c.* 0.2 m) slightly curved gully (1853). Although clearly of more than one phase, these three gullies together appear to form an 'apron' framing the round-house's south-eastern entrance. It is notable that, apart from a single feature (EV307) located almost within the round-house entrance (recorded but not excavated during the evaluation), the area partly bounded by this 'apron' was empty of pits. Moreover, although this area contained a significant number of post-holes, their arrangement still left an area, measuring *c.* 8 m by 15 m, south-east and south of the entrance, which contained no features at all. The three other short lengths of gully (1996, 2286, and 2447) all lay to the east of this 'apron' and although they display no obvious spatial or functional relationship, the fact that they all lie within such a limited area suggests that they too are associated. Together, these gullies produced sherds of Early/Middle Iron Age and general Iron Age date.

A short length of curved gully (1566; Fig. 4), 2.8 m long and up to 0.5 m wide and 0.3 m deep, was recorded within the concentration of pits at the west of the site, its north-western end cutting the edge of, and a dumped fill within, pit 1542. Although its curvature was similar to that of the round-house gullies, its short length and location suggest it had some other, undetermined function.

Post-holes

Approximately 65 post-holes were excavated within the enclosure, in addition to which a further 30+ possible post-holes were surveyed but not investigated further. The excavated post-holes varied in their dimension from *c.* 0.2 m to 0.7 m in diameter and were up to 0.56 m deep, but relatively few had clear profiles or evidence of having held posts either in the form of packing stones or visible post-pipes. Although distributed across the interior of the enclosure, there was a notable concentration of them, including the deeper post-holes (over 0.3 m), in the central part of the site in the areas east of round-house 2271 (Fig. 8). Some of these post-holes may be associated with Romano-British oval structure 2488 (below).

None of the post-holes combined to form readily recognisable structures, including those within round-house 2271 (above). There were, for example, no instances of the four-post arrangements found commonly on late prehistoric and Romano-British settlement sites and usually interpreted as granaries. It is possible to see in the arrangements of a number of post-holes short irregular lines, possibly indicating short fence lines or screens, such as a line of five or more post-holes north of gully 1853 (Fig. 8). However, such potential structures are by no means certain. Many post-holes could be paired with others nearby, possibly representing some frame structure, perhaps for drying or for holding a loom, and of course individual post-holes could have had any number of possible functions.

Among the possible pairs of post-holes were the two deepest inside the enclosure (1954 and 2015), positioned 2.3 m apart to the north-east of round-house 2271 (Figs 8 and 11). Both were oval in shape, measuring 0.6 x 0.8 m (1954) and 0.7 x 0.9 m (2015), and both 0.56 m deep. Both had a packing layer of large flint nodules at one end and a stone-filled post-pipe at the other, post-hole 2015 also having a stone-free upper layer. Their proximity and similarity in form and contents suggest a probable structural relationship. Comparable pairs, however, were very rare across the rest of the site.

Storage and Other Pits

Approximately 130 Iron Age pits were exposed within the enclosure, unevenly distributed across its interior (Fig. 4). In addition to the bank zone immediately inside the original line of the ditch (above), which contained very few pits, there were also largely open spaces to the west and east of round-house 2271, and to the north and north-west of round-house 2522. In contrast, there was a noticeable concentration of pits in the north-western part of the enclosure, with a lesser concentration at the north-east.

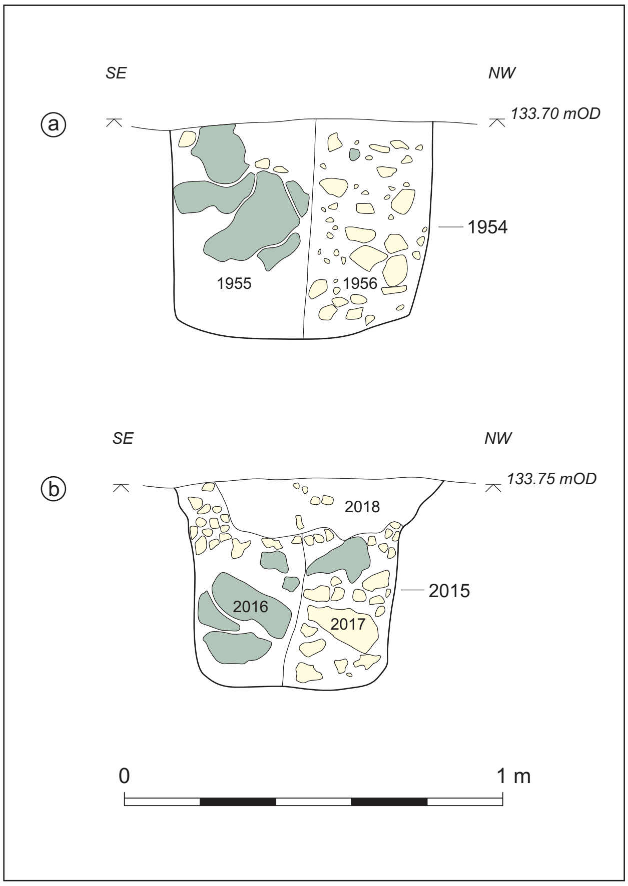

Figure 11 Sections of post-holes 1954 and 2015

Pit forms

The pits varied considerably in form and size, with circular bell-shaped (with overhanging sides), cylindrical and conical forms, and sub-rectangular forms all being represented (Figs 12–14). However, it was difficult to determine with confidence the forms of relatively shallow pits, as even minor erosion or collapse of the pits sides could significantly alter their apparent profiles. Of the 54 pits whose original forms could be clearly established, 44 (81.5%) were cylindrical, eight (14.8%) were bell-shaped, one (1.9%) was conical, and one was sub-rectangular (1.9%).

They ranged from 0.6 m to 2.8 m wide at the top and were up to 2.3 m deep, with almost one-third being over 1.6 m wide, and with a similar proportion being over 1.1 m deep. While their widths may have been affected to some degree by erosion and collapse of the pit sides, the range in depths will have been determined not only by their original forms and functions, but also perhaps by the depths from which some were cut (see above). One pit (2430; Figs 8 and 12e), for example, which was 9 m from the enclosure ditch, was less than 0.5 m deep but had clearly overhanging sides, being *c.* 1.5 m wide at the base narrowing to 1.1 m at the top (Fig. 12). The construction of a pit in this form would make little sense if this was near to its full depth, since its volume

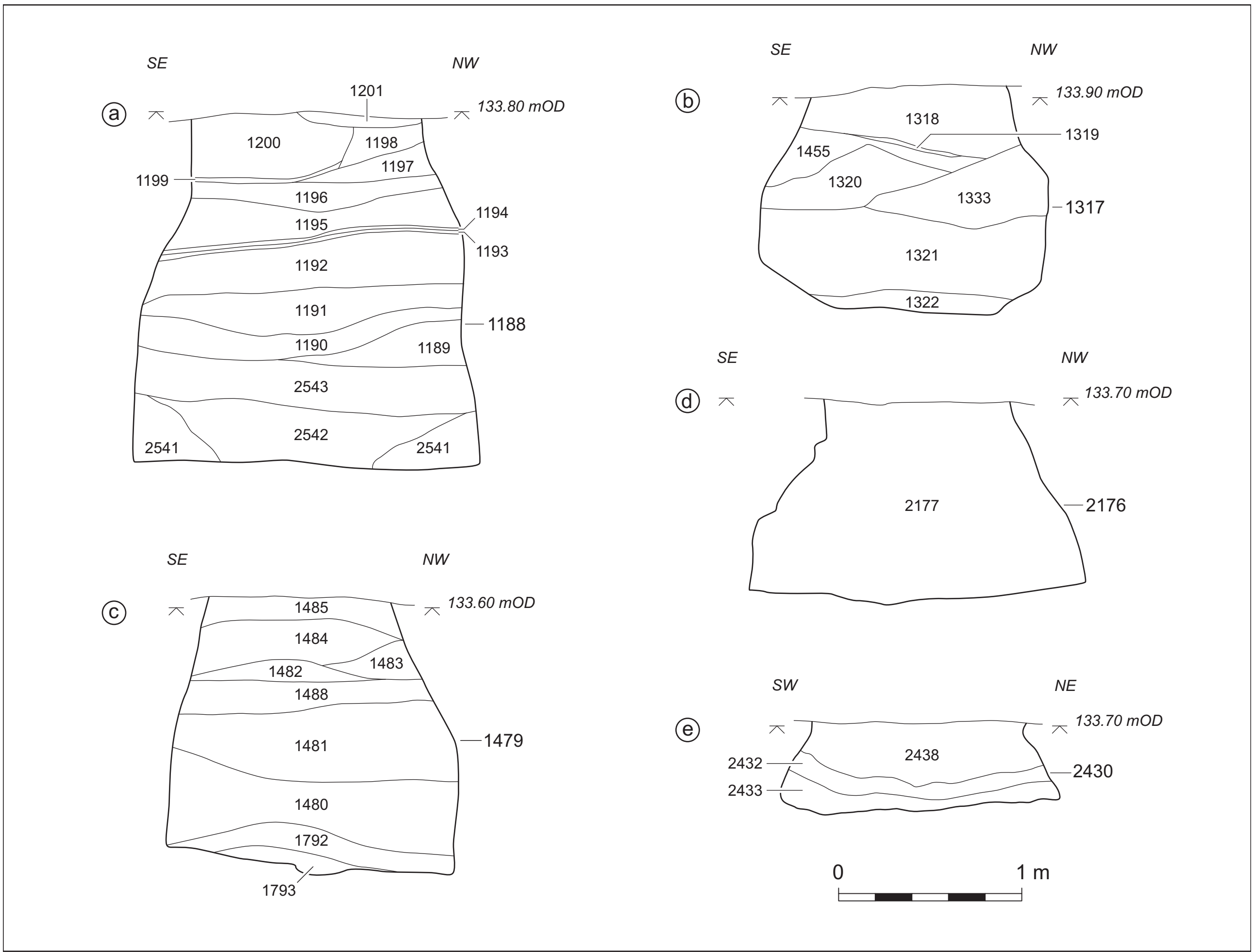

Figure 12 Sections of bell-shaped pits 1188, 1317, 1479, 2176, and 2430

relative to the size of its opening would not have been significantly increased. It appeared, therefore, to be the base of a bell-shaped pit that had been dug from a higher level, and subsequently heavily truncated.

Bell-shaped and cylindrical pits are generally interpreted as storage pits for grain as their relatively narrow tops can be more easily sealed than the other forms (eg, Whittle 1984). However, even accounting for subsequent truncation and other factors affecting pit depth, some of the pits with vertical or undercut sides appear to have been too shallow for effective food storage, with over half (53%) having depth:width ratios of 1:3+.

The bell-shaped pits were distributed widely and apparently randomly across the site, being both close to and at a distance from the enclosure ditch, both within the pit concentrations and in relatively isolated positions, as well as within (although not necessarily contemporary with) one of the round-houses (pit 1906 in round-house 2522) (Fig. 6). There was some variation in their profiles (Fig. 12), particularly in the degree and location of the overhang, some being angled in from the base, others narrowing only in the upper parts of their profiles.

The deepest bell-shaped pit (1188; Fig. 12a) was 1.8 m deep, and 1.9 m wide at the base; its mouth was 1.2 m wide (at excavation level), but its profile suggests that, prior to erosion of its top, its mouth may originally have been *c.* 0.9 m wide or less. Its sides were near-vertical towards the base, only narrowing significantly above 1 m. Others, such as pit 1479 (Fig. 12c), which was 1.5 m deep, 1.6 m wide at the base and 1 m wide at the mouth, had similar profiles, and it is possible that a larger number of pits, originally bell-shaped, appear now to be cylindrical either because only their lower parts survive, or because their upper sides have eroded. Conversely, in some originally cylindrical pits, erosion or collapse of the lower sides may have given them a slightly bell-shaped appearance.

The sides of bell-shaped pits 2430 (above) and 2176 (Fig. 12d), in contrast, were angled sharply inwards from (or close to) the bases. Pit 2176, which was 1.1 m deep, was 1.8 m wide at the base narrowing to 1 m at the top. Further variation is provided by pit 1317 (Fig. 12b), which first widened from the base, from 0.9 m to 1.5 m then rose vertically to a height of *c.* 0.7 m before narrowing

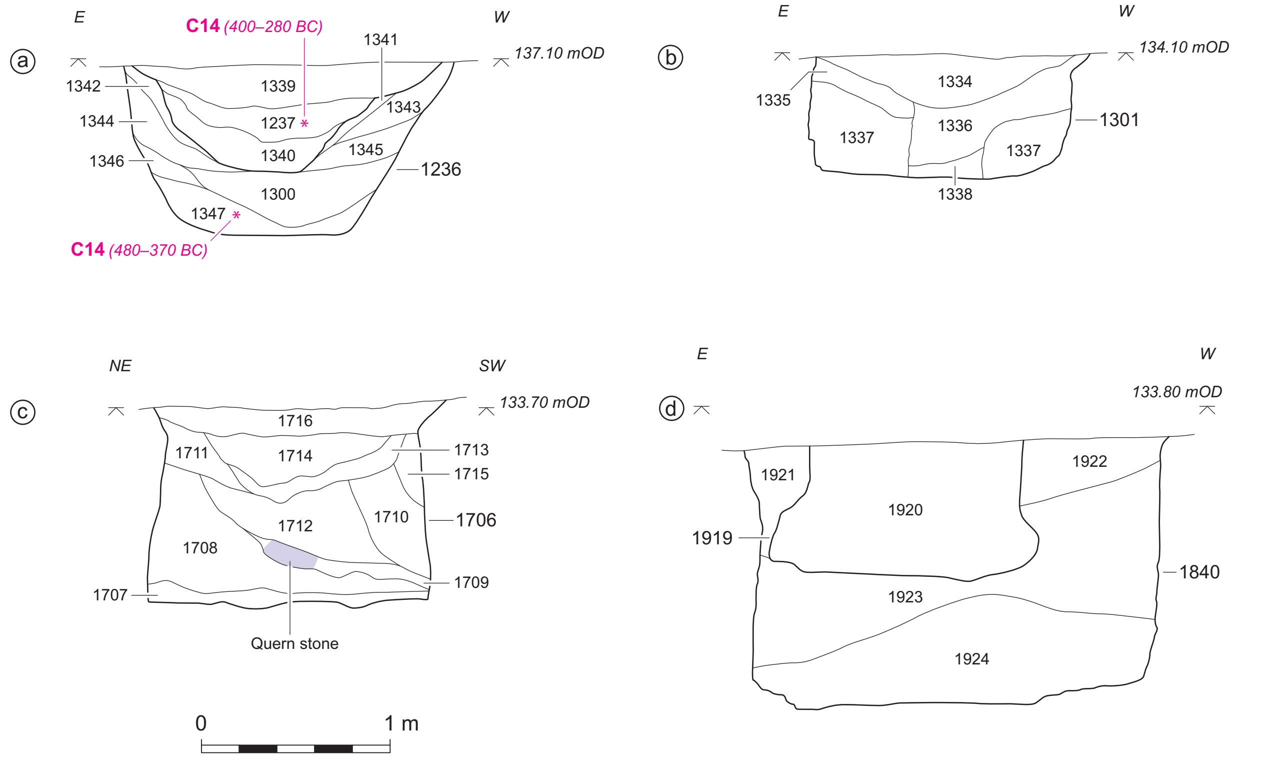

Figure 13 Sections of conical pit 1236, cylindrical pit 1301 with post-hole, cylindrical pit 1706, and cylindrical recut pit 1840/1919

again to 1.1 m, giving the pit a distinctive bulb-shaped profile.

Only a single, Early Iron Age, pit (1236; Fig. 10) had an approximately conical form (Fig. 13a); other pits with straight sloping sides were generally too shallow to establish their original profiles. Pit 1236, which was 0.9 m deep, was 1.80 m in diameter at the top, narrowing to 0.9 m wide at its flat base, with variable straight to concave sides. However, there was nothing distinctive in its fills that might indicate its function, such as for mixing clay as indicated at Danebury (Cunliffe 1993, pl. 8). It was 7 m from the enclosure ditch, within the south-eastern part of the circle described by the arc of gully 2270 (Fig. 10).

There was a single apparently rectangular pit (1508), although its position among a tight cluster of other, in some cases intercutting features towards the east of the site meant that, although its north-western side and south-eastern end were clearly defined, its exact form was not determined (Fig. 4). It was 2.8 m long, orientated north-east–south-west, and 1.6 m wide. It had near vertical sides and was excavated to a depth of 1.3 m beyond which it was probed for a further 0.7 m giving a depth of at least 2 m. There was nothing in its sequence of (middle and upper) backfill layers to suggest its function, although these contained over 75 kg of burnt flint, 68 sherds of pottery (677 g), and animal bone (243 g) including a bone gouge (object number (ON) 166).

The greater number of pits classified as cylindrical inevitably display greater variation, not only in their widths and depths, but also in the shapes of their bases, some being flat and other distinctly concave, and in the straightness and angle of their sides, some having slight overhangs (but well short of those in the bell-shaped pits) and others widening slightly towards their tops. Some of this variation is clearly functional, the large number of pits of this form having many possible uses in addition to grain storage.

It is noticeable that the majority of pits did not overlap with others. Care was clearly taken to excavate pits for storage into fresh chalk, rather than clipping the backfills of an earlier pit, in order to ensure a good seal and hence the preservation of the grain or other foodstuff. A number of pits, however, did overlap, some of which were relatively shallow suggesting a non-storage function, while others appear to have been deliberately recut, or had later pits cut into them.

Plate 5 Bone deposit in pit 1017

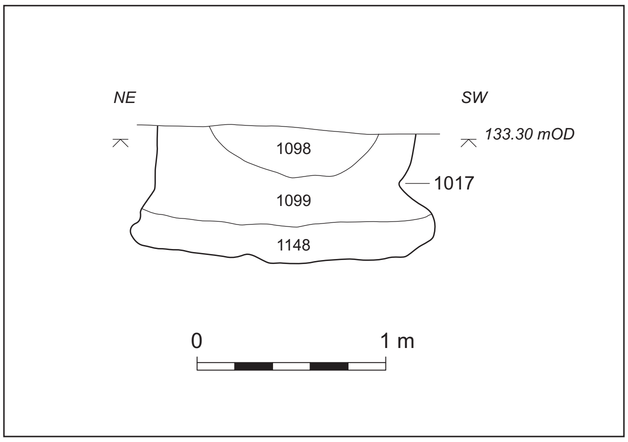

Figure 14 Section of pit 1017

The deliberate backfills of a large cylindrical pit (1840, below), *c.* 2 m wide and 1.4 m deep, were cut into to approximately half the pit's depth by a much smaller pit (1919) (Fig. 13d, Pl. 10). This seemed to have a bell-shaped profile, 1.1 m wide at the top, with vertical sides at the top widening to 1.4 m near the slightly concave base. However, the fact that it was cut through the relatively soft fills of an earlier pit suggests that it was not intended for storage, and the undercutting of its sides may have resulted from the instability of the surrounding material. It contained a single loose, dumped fill containing over 11 kg of burnt flint, along with bone, pottery, and charcoal, and may have been dug specifically for this deposit.

Notable among the overlapping pits was a sequence of three pits (2320, 2330, and 2338) east of round-house 2271 (Fig. 8). The earliest in the sequence (2320), possibly a storage pit, was 2.6 m wide and 1.6 m deep with near vertical, slightly undercut sides and a slightly concave base; as such it was among the deepest 10% of pits on the site. It had a rounded eastern side, but because it had been cut on its north-west side, its full shape was not determined. The shapes of the later pits (2330, cut by 2338) were also hard to determine, although pit 2330 appeared to be at least 3 m wide. However, with depths of 2.2 m and 2.3 m, respectively, pits 2330 and 2338 were the two deepest pits on the site. The repeated recutting of a deep pit at this location clearly suggests some specific function apparently unrelated, at least in the later cuts, to grain storage, but possibly related to the adjacent round-house.

Pit deposits

The primary (storage) function of many of the pits cannot be ascertained from their contents, in terms of their fills, finds, and environmental remains. However, it is clear from the pits' contents that they had a number of secondary uses of potentially variable and changing significance, including as receptacles for the deposition of a range of materials from soil and stone, to domestic and other waste (in two pits fragments of human bones were found; see McKinley, below), to deliberately selected groupings of cultural material. While the original (storage) and secondary uses appear quite distinct in character, it is possible that the construction, use, re-use, and final closure of the pits were viewed as a coherent sequence of practically and symbolically related processes.

The pits vary considerably in their contents. Moreover, individual pits display anything between relative homogeneity and wide variability through their fill sequences. Some pits seem to have been rapidly and deliberately backfilled, while others have silting horizons indicating that they were left open for periods of time. In some cases the backfill deposits appear to have been levelled off, resulting in an ordered sequence of horizontal layers; in others, the deposits may have been simply dumped in with little care or formality. Fills, therefore, were the products of both natural processes – including primary fills of weathered chalk and silt, and accumulations of chalk rubble from the collapse of the pits' sides, and secondary and tertiary fills resulting from gradual silting and infilling – and human activity – including placed deposits, deliberate dumps of waste material deriving from domestic, industrial and possibly other activities, and backfill deposits, perhaps with the primary purpose of filling up the empty pit.

In order to illustrate this range of variability, a sample of the pits is described below in greater detail, including some with deposits of particular interest, and others with deep and variable sequences.

Pit 1017

This pit is remarkable for its large deposit of animal bone (Figs 4 and 14; Pl. 5). The pit was *c.* 1.4 m in diameter and 0.7 m deep with sides vertical at the top but slightly undercut towards the base, and a slightly concave base. As recorded, it had a sequence of these fills although, because of its position less than 9 m from the suggested inner edge of the enclosure ditch at the north-west of the site, it is possible (as discussed above) that it was originally considerably deeper. A small group of sheep bones (ABG 41) had been placed in the centre of the base, over which had been laid, to an even 0.2 m thickness across the base, an apparently levelled layer of grey/brown soil (1148) containing 17 kg of burnt flint as well as occasional pieces of pottery and animal bone, a piece of briquetage, and lenses of charred material.

This was overlain by a deposit of over 12.3 kg of animal bone (ABGs 20–25, 29–40). The bone was mostly articulated, although there was no evident pattern to the way the bone groups had been placed within the pit. The most complete animal was a sheep which was missing its legs and there were generally very few long bones. There were two horse and two cattle skulls, and several partial spines (from both horse and cattle), some with ribs still attached. There were several full or partial sets of ribs, and four either complete or half pelves. Apart from the sheep, cattle, and horse bones, the only other deliberately deposited bone was half a dog's mandible. The articulated bones were deposited as carcasses, but the movement of some bones from their original positions suggests that they had been left uncovered for some time, at least until the connective tissue had decomposed. A number of small mammal bones, mostly water voles, probably derive from animals that fell into the open pit. A large flint nodule had been placed close to the centre on top of the bone deposit.

Eventually the bones were covered with another layer of backfilled soil (1099), largely filling the pit (as it survived), not levelled off as with layer 1148, but sloping in from the sides, with the central hollow filled with a similar but slightly stonier layer (1098) containing 4 kg of burnt flint. These upper fills incorporated domestic refuse, including further small quantities of animal bone (but not in groups), as well as pottery, briquetage, and slag.

Pit 1059

This small pit, in the western group of pits (Fig. 4), was *c.* 0.9 m in diameter and 0.3 m deep, with variable sides (moderately steep to vertical) and a flat base. It appeared to just clip an earlier, shallower pit (1094) to its immediate north-east although this relationship is not absolutely certain. A deposit (1089), rich in charred material and burnt clay and containing a collection of objects, had been placed on,

Plate 6 *Pit 1059 with placed deposit*

Plate 7 *Pit 1188 (before base exposed)*

but not covering the whole of, the pit base (Pl. 6). The finds included 80 sherds (2476 g) of pottery from at least five vessels, a complete greensand saddle quern (ON 26), and a spherical flint hammerstone or slingshot (ON 11). There were also fragments of animal bone and burnt flint. Burnt residue from one of the vessels produced a radiocarbon date, from the start of the Middle Iron Age, of 390–300 BC (1645±25 BP, SUERC-32312) (Table 1). The find had been covered by a single backfilled deposit of soil (1060), containing a small amount of pottery, animal bone, and almost 1.5 kg of burnt flint.

Bell-shaped pit 1188

This 1.9 m deep, bell-shaped pit (profile described above) lay in the relatively open area between the western concentration of pits and round-house 2271. It contained a sequence of 16 variable fills, indicating a range of deposition episodes (Figs 4 and 12a, Pl. 7). Chalk rubble (2541) on the base had clearly eroded into the pit after it had been emptied of grain, but it appears then to have been banked up around the edges to leave the central part of the base clean. The base and the rubble were then overlain by two apparently levelled layers of soil (2542 and 2543); these lower fills were exposed only in a machine cut section so their finds contents were not established. They were overlain by more collapsed chalk on one side (1189) and three further soil layers (1190–2), the upper two again clearly levelled, although slightly sloping. The upper of these layers (1192), which was stonier than those below (containing 4.5 kg of burnt flint), was sealed by thin (0.02 m) spreads, first of black organic-rich silt (1193) and then what appeared to be crushed daub (1194), at *c.* 1.1–1.3 m above the pit base. Two further soil deposits (1195 and 1196) were laid down over the spreads, the lower rich in burnt flint (7 kg) and burnt clay, the upper more humic soil again levelled at the top.

Only the overlying deposits in the narrower neck of the pit had less regular profiles, layers 1197–8 having been dumped from one side. These had been cut into, on the western side of the pit, by a small feature, possibly a hearth, over the base of which was a thin spread crushed chalk (1199) and a layer of burnt flints and burnt clay. The overlying fill (1200) contained a number of large flint nodules, along with charcoal.

Apart from the layers of collapsed chalk rubble near the base, there is nothing to indicate that this pit had remained open for any length of time. Nonetheless, care had clearly been taken to fill it up in a deliberate and organised manner, levelling off the deposits as they were laid down. Although the pit contained a range of finds (burnt flint: 26.3 kg; fired clay: 1.1 kg; pottery: 79 g; stone: 158 g; animal bone: 66 g), there were no objects that could be characterised as 'placed'.

Conical pit 1236

This Early Iron Age pit (profile described above), *c.* 7 m from the enclosure ditch, was positioned in what could have been the south-east facing entrance of possible round-house 2522 (Fig. 10), suggesting these two features may not have been contemporary, although both possibly pre-dated the enclosure (see above). It contained a sequence of 11 fills, although their profile in section (Fig. 13a), and the two radiocarbon dates obtained from the pit (below), suggest that the pit may have been subsequently recut.

Weathered material on the base suggests that the pit had initially been left open. A sample of cattle bone from the basal chalk rubble fill (1347) produced a radiocarbon date, near the end of the Early Iron Age, of 480–370 BC (2345±30 BP, SUERC-32314) (Table 1). Above this, and a layer of weathered clay (1346) against one side of the pit, there was a dumped deposit of dark soil (1300) filling the lower 0.30 m of the pit. This contained moderate quantities of domestic waste – Early Iron Age pottery, fired clay, slag, two whetstones (one perforated: ON 69), worked and burnt flint, and animal bone.

Above these layers was a chalk rubble layer (1344, 1345), which on the western (ditch) side (fill 1345) comprised *c.* 60% chalk. It cannot be determined whether the pit had been deliberately backfilled or left to fill up naturally, although it is also possible, if the pit pre-dated the construction of the enclosure, that this material is bank material.

These upper fills, however, appear then to have been subsequently cut through to a depth of *c.* 0.6 m. As with other pits close to the enclosure ditch the relative shallowness of this cut may be due to its having been cut through the tail of the bank. The main fill on the base of the recut was a deposit containing small quantities of pottery, worked flint, and animal bone (1340). Above this was a layer (1237) containing the semi-complete skeleton of a small pig (ABG 61), a sample of its femur producing a radiocarbon date, in the earlier part of the Middle Iron Age, of 400–280 BC (2240±30BP, SUERC-32313) (Table 1).

The positions of the pig's front legs suggest that they may have been tied together. Large pieces of a broken sandstone saddle quern lay over the pig's head, and may have been used to smash the skull which was heavily fragmented; other pieces of stone, one of them from a sarsen saddle quern, another from a whetstone, lay near the pig's hind legs. Also above and around the skeleton there were fragments of cattle bone, 7 kg of burnt flint, three sherds of pottery, and charcoal. The pit recut's upper fill (1339) was the result of natural silting.

Despite the Middle Iron Age date from the pig skeleton, all the pottery from the pit was of Early Iron Age date and it seems likely that the sherds from the recut were redeposited, derived from the disturbed lower fills; they had an average sherd weight of 4.6 g, compared to 17.8 g for those from the layer 1300.

Pit 1301

This cylindrical pit, immediately south of round-house 2522, appeared to have a post-hole cut through its lower fills (Figs 10 and 13b). The pit was *c.* 1.2 m in diameter and 0.7 m deep, and clear tip lines of charred material and ash, burnt flint and soil, were visible in the dumps of domestic waste lying against the sides (1337 and 1335). These appeared to be cut through, from the base up to a height of *c.* 0.4 m, by a vertical sided cut, 0.4 m wide, perhaps a post-pipe or the void left after the removal of a post. The cut was filled with chalky silt (1338) at the base, and a mixed, relatively stony layer (1336) above containing further finds. The sherds from a small but almost complete Middle Iron Age saucepan pot were split between contexts 1337 and 1338. The upper fill (1334) sealed all the layers below. In total, the pit contained 120 sherds (1913 g) of pottery, a bone gouge (ON 97), 18 struck flints, burnt flint (6.2 kg), animal bone (66 g), and slag (70 g).

Bell-shaped pit 1317

This 1.2 m deep pit (profile described above), in the middle of the enclosure between round-houses 2271 and 2524, contained a sequence of seven fills (Figs 4 and 12b). The primary fill of weathered chalk (1322, *c.* 0.1 m thick) covering the base of the pit, contained nine sherds (150 g) of Middle Iron Age pottery, slag (337 g), and animal bone (326 g). This was overlain by a possibly levelled layer, 0.4 m thick, of burnt flint (182 kg) in a black silt rich in charred organic material (1321) containing further pottery, slag, and animal bone. Above this was a dump, made from the north-west side of the pit, of a friable, black but largely stone-free soil (1333), and then a second dump (1320) of burnt flint (74 kg), containing fired clay along with further pottery and animal bone (including a piece of decorated worked bone, ON 73). The latter material was in a reddish-brown, charcoal-free matrix, which probably derived from the overlying dump of charcoal-free soil (1455). A thin deposit of black, grain-rich silt (1319) containing further pottery, slag, animal bone, and burnt flint (4.5 kg), as well as an iron nail, lay below the uppermost silting layer (1318), containing further finds.

Although some of the material in this pit may have come from a domestic context, the large quantities of burnt flint (over 26 kg), as well as charred material, slag, and fired clay in its fills suggest that it may have been used for the dumping of industrial waste, or at least the waste from some form of specialised non-domestic activity involving fire. Moreover, despite the differences between the alternating layers of burnt flints and artefact-free soil, the apparently rapid filling of the pits may indicate that the two main fill types were both associated with this activity.

Pit 1479

This Middle Iron Age bell-shaped pit (profile described above) contained a sequence of distinct layers contrasting significantly in their colour, texture and character (Figs 4 and 12c, Pl. 8). Above two layers of brown soil (1793 and 1792), slightly mounded in the centre of the flat base and containing pottery, animal bone, flint, and stone, there was a

Plate 8 Pit 1479

Plate 9 Quern in pit 1706

layer of largely sterile clean chalk (1480). In the lower half of the layer, the chalk had been crushed to a powder or paste, while in the upper part it consisted of looser rubble. This layer, which rose slightly towards the pit edges where it was up to 0.5 m thick, is probably quarried chalk rather than deriving from erosion of the pit's sides. The powdered chalk appears to have been deliberately crushed and processed for some functional use within the enclosure, possibly for the creation of marl to form and air- and water-tight seals for the tops of grain storage pits, or for construction purposes.

The chalk was overlain by two very stony layers, the lower (1481) containing a piece of quern (2848 g), and large piece of possibly burnt sarsen (7400 g), other pieces of non-local stone (2293 g), and 38 kg of burnt flint, as well as 66 sherds (1795 g) of Middle Iron Age pottery, fired clay, and animal bone. The upper (1488) contained 32 kg of burnt flint and 45 sherds (1158 g) of pottery, plus further stone, animal bone, and fired clay; the top of this layer had been levelled very flat. It was overlain by a domed dump of dark organic material (1482), probably hearth waste, containing charcoal, burnt bone fragments (including one worked piece, ON 82), burnt flint, and fired clay, as well as further pottery. This was overlain, against one edge of the pit by a dump of burnt flint (1483), then another possibly levelling layer of relatively sterile brown soil with frequent small chalk inclusions (1484), and finally a soil layer (1485) resulting from natural silting.

Pit 1706

This pit, one of an adjacent but not necessarily contemporary pair in the south-eastern quadrant of round-house 2271, was *c.* 1.6 m in diameter and 1.1 m deep with straight, slightly undercut sides (with only minor erosion at the top) and a flat base (Figs 8 and 13c). There were two, possibly related, aspects of interest in its sequence of ten fills, many of which contained pottery (total 306 g), burnt flint (31 kg), and animal bone (603 g). Across the base of the pit was a layer of soil (1707), up to 0.1 m thick, a sample from which produced a notable number of glume bases probably derived from cereal processing, as well as occasional grain and weed seeds (see Pelling, below). This was overlain by a backfill layer (1708) which sloped down steeply at the north-east side, where it was 0.7 m thick. Sitting at a moderate angle on the top of this layer, in the centre of the pit, there was a complete greensand rotary quern upper stone (ON 200, weighting over 20 kg), its working surface upwards (Pl. 9; Fig. 24.1). The pit was then left for a period with the quern exposed. It was eventually surrounded, but not covered, by a layer of washed-in silt up to 0.1 m thick (1709), before being covered by a series of backfill layers probably in rapid succession (1712, 1710, 1711, and 1715), and then by a dark layer of dumped probable domestic waste (1713) containing charred remains probably of heather (see Pelling, below), and further backfill (1714).

Pit 1840

Cylindrical pit 1840, *c.* 4 m from the enclosure ditch at the north-east of the site, was slightly oval in shape, measuring *c.* 1.8 x 2.2 m and 1.4 m deep (Figs 4 and 13d; Pl. 10). It contained a sequence of four fills, the upper fills cut into by a smaller pit (1919, above). Like

Plate 10 Pits 1840 and 1919

pit 1479, pit 1840 contained a layer of clean chalk (1924), mounded in the centre and up to 0.6 m thick, lying directly on the pit base and containing no finds. Some faint tip lines were visible in the layer, but here too the material was either powdery or finely granular, with only a small proportion (*c.* 15%) being blocky.

The overlying deposit (1923), which almost filled the pit, consisted of numerous interleaved layers and lenses, represent a whole series of small dumping episodes, sloping down from west to east, and possibly undertaken within a very short time span. The uppermost backfill deposit (1921/2) was more homogeneous in character. The layers above the chalk deposit contained small quantities of pottery, burnt flint and animal bone.

Bell-shaped pit 2176

This 1.1 m deep bell-shaped pit with a sharply overhanging profile (described above) lay north-east of round-house 2271 (Fig. 8). Its was distinctive in containing a single homogeneous fill (2177), indicating its very rapid backfilling with material probably from a single source, with the absence of any collapsed chalk rubble on its base suggesting that this took place immediately after the removal of the pit's stored contents (Fig. 12d). The backfill contained 5.3 kg of burnt flint, 28 sherds of pottery (290 g), 165 g of animal bone, and a single struck flint.

Discussion

The pit deposits provide a wealth of information, both direct and indirect, about aspects of life within the settlement. The indirect evidence derives from the make-up of the fills (such as burnt flint or crushed chalk) and from the range of environmental and artefactual materials recovered from them (see specialist reports, below). In some cases, particular objects – whether pieces of pottery vessels, objects of worked stone and bone, or animal bones (either associated bone groups and/or skulls etc) – were deliberately selected and placed within the pits. In others, these materials were incorporated either within deposits of collected domestic or other waste, or as residual material within more general soil deposits used for backfilling. These pit fills, therefore, inform us indirectly about aspects domestic and social life, farming and other subsistence practices, and processes of manufacture, exchange, and trade.

The direct evidence relates to the reuse, for various purposes, of emptied storage pits (as well as other smaller pits whose original purpose could not be determined). This displayed a wide degree of variation although, as the placed objects in small Middle Iron Age pit 1059 demonstrate, there is no apparent correlation between the size or location of a pit and its subsequent use. Some pits, like bell-shaped pit 2176, appears to have been immediately backfilled with a single homogeneous deposit containing only background quantities of residual pottery, burnt flint, and animal bone. In others, the processes of infilling are more complex, displaying greater levels of formality and deliberation, and deriving material from a wider range of sources.

In some cases, care seems to have been taken about the visual appearance of the pits contents, a feature noted elsewhere, such as at Weston Down, Hampshire (Gibson and Knight 2007, 28). The large deposit of animal bone in pit 1017, for example, was left open and visible for some time, despite the fact that it is likely to have become quite unpleasant as it started to decompose. Similarly, the complete and still usable quern in pit 1706 remained openly visible for some time in the half-filled pit. Another visual aspect was the evidence for levelling deposits as pits were filled up. The fact that many pits had no evidence of levelling only makes these instances more noteworthy. Of particular note in this respect is pit 1188, where many of the different levelled layers would have had different appearances – 2543 (grey/brown soil), 1193 (black charred material), 1194 (beige crushed daub), and possibly 1199 (white crushed chalk) (Pl. 7).

No clear patterns of deposition have been discerned within the wide variation in fill sequences recorded in the pits across the site, although it is possible that fuller analysis than is possible here would reveal particular correlations or associations. Possible patterns are discernible, however, within sequences in a small number of individual pits. For example, although many pits appear to contain a largely random sequence of naturally accumulated fills, dumped deposits and backfill layers (some deliberately levelled but most not), the sequence of levelled layers in pit 1188 points to a consistency of deposition that implies a degree of significance for this process. Similarly, it may be no coincidence that there was a layer of plant processing waste on the base of the pit (1706) containing the quernstone, or that there was a group of sheep bones on the base of the pit (1017) containing the large animal bone deposit. The implications of such formalised deposition are discussed further below.

Chapter 3
Romano-British

Romano-British material was recovered mainly from features and deposits outside, or within the top of, the Iron Age enclosure ditch (Fig. 15). However, significant and distinctive finds were also made within the enclosure interior, their location possibly related to contemporary perceptions about this bounded space.

Features within the Iron Age Enclosure

Human Burial 2371

The partial human skeleton (2371) of a female aged *c.* 35–40 years was found among (and originally considered to be associated with) the eastern Iron Age animal bone spread (1373) (Fig. 7; Pl. 11). Radiocarbon dating of three samples from the skeleton, however, indicated a late Romano-British date (Table 1: combined as AD 230–350). The skeleton was orientated approximately south-south-west–north-north-east, and appeared to have been placed in a flexed position on its right side, facing east. The skeleton included the right shoulder and upper arm, part of the rib cage and seven vertebrae, and the left and right pelvis, the latter articulated with the upper part of the right femur. Not only had the skeleton been disturbed during machining, but it also appears to have been heavily truncated by earlier ploughing. Nonetheless, its condition suggests that the body was already partially decomposed when deposited.

Although no trace of a grave cut was recorded, some of the animal bone appeared to abut the skeleton, suggesting that a grave had cut at least some way into the bone spread. A further small amount of bone from the same skeleton was recorded a coming from the bone spread. Twelve sherds of late Romano-British pottery were also recovered from the bone

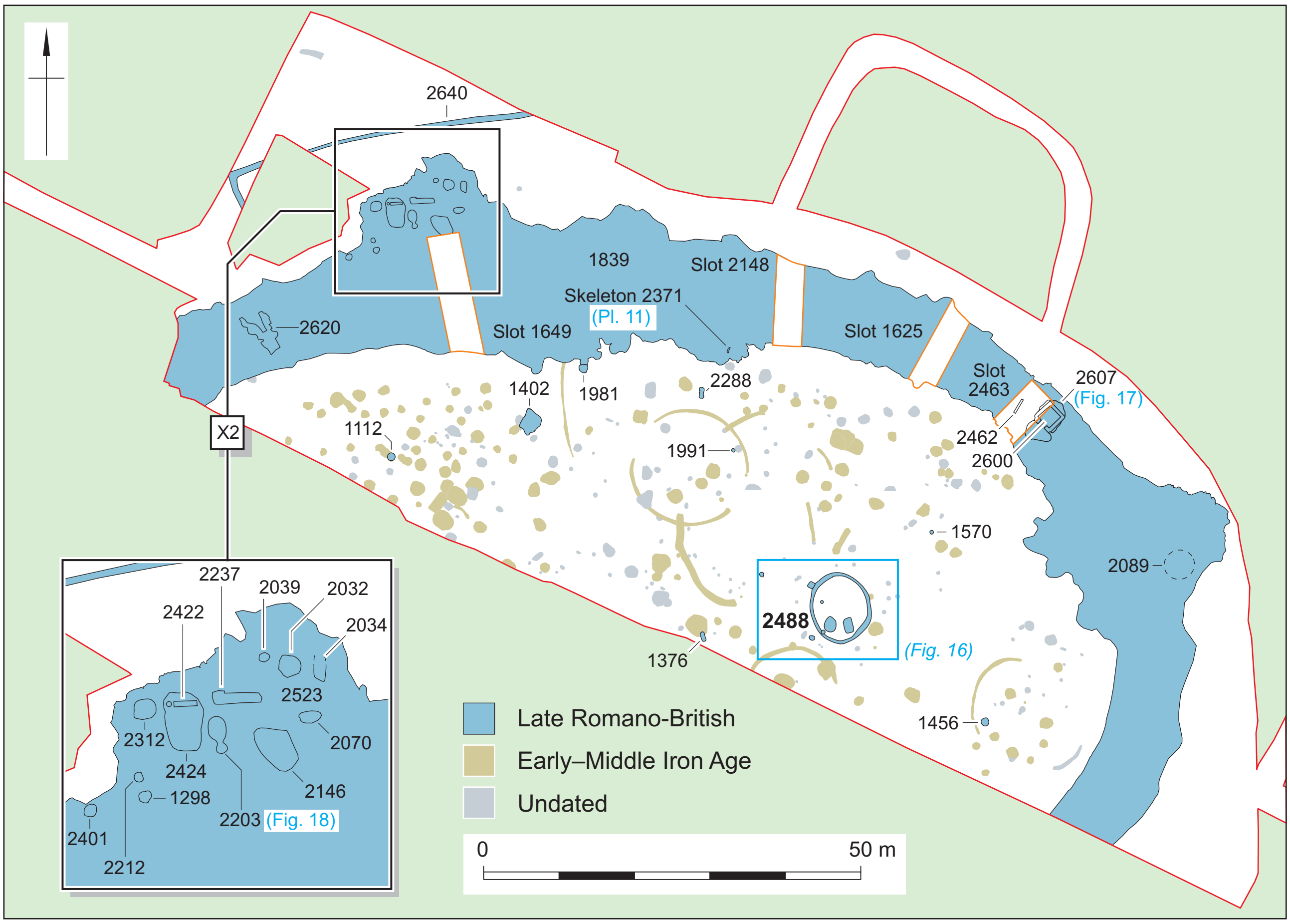

Figure 15 Romano-British features

Plate 11 Partial human skeleton (highlighted) on animal bone spread 1373

spread, but as their precise locations was not recorded it is not possible to tell whether or not they were associated with the burial; the location of a piece of Romano-British glass (ON 614) also found in the bone spread was recorded, coming from *c.* 3 m to the east of the skeleton, and it is possible that all these Romano-British finds were intrusive.

To what height the Iron Age enclosure bank survived at the time of the burial is uncertain, but it is possible that the grave was cut through some depth of bank material, at least down to the top of animal bone spread, and possibly cutting into it. Certainly, those making the burial could hardly have been unaware of the dense spread of animal bone forming the base of the grave. Whether foreknowledge of the existence of the bone spread, either through some centuries-old folk memory, or due to its earlier partial exposure, had some determining role in the selection of this location for the burial, or whether it was entirely coincidental, remains unknown.

Oval Structure 2488

In the area between the Iron Age round-houses there was an oval gully (1173), 7.1 x 8.2 m internally, its long axis lying slightly west of north (Fig. 16). It was 0.35–0.75 m wide and 0.05–0.15 m deep but, unlike the Iron Age round-houses, there was no break indicating the position of an entrance. There were, however, two adjacent and clearly associated pits within its southern end.

At the west, pit 2042 was sub-oval in shape, *c.* 1.6 x 2 m, and 0.65 m deep with steep, slightly irregular sides and an almost flat base. On the base, in the north-east part of the pit, there were parts of a Roman *statera* (steelyard balance; ON 229a) – including the graduated balancing beam (*scapus*), the square scale pan (*lancula*), and a weight and double hook – as well as a double spiked loop (ON 304) and two bucket handles (ON 229b) (Fig. 21; Pl. 12). Against the pit's western side there was a complete handsaw blade in excellent condition (ON 305; Fig. 23) (see Jones, below). These were covered by a dump of mixed chalk and soil (2044) from which was also recovered 26 sherds (338 g) of late Romano-British pottery, a number of iron nails (ON 224–5, ON 303), a piece of ceramic building material (CBM), and fragments of animal bone (9 g). The overlying layer (2045) filling the rest of the pit, had a lower chalk content but contained a number of large flint nodules and was also rich in finds, including a further 21 nails (ON 213–23, ON 294–301 and ON 618), an iron cleat (ON 312), 99 sherds (981 g) of late Romano-British pottery, a limestone floor tile (2966 g) in two pieces, animal bone (412 g), and a piece of burnt flint.

The adjacent pit (1929), 1 m to the east, cut and almost completely truncated the fills of an earlier but otherwise undated pit (1926), whose two remaining fills contained no finds. Pit 1926 is probably broadly contemporary with three adjacent Iron Age pits – one within the oval gully, one cut by it, and one outside it.

Pit 1929 was sub-rectangular in shape, *c.* 1.2 x 2 m and 0.65 m deep with steep sides and a slightly concave base. Above deposits of collapsed chalk rubble against the edges, there were three deposits of soil, different in character but each containing large flint nodules. The lowest (1932), which included concentrations of chalk rubble and which filled the pit to over half its depth, contained a quern fragment (ON 208), part of a shale spindlewhorl (ON 209), 19 sherds (249 g) of late Romano-British pottery, and animal bone (106 g). Overlying this in the centre of the pit was a black, organic-rich deposit (1933), *c.* 0.2 m thick, containing a further 43 pottery sherds (415 g), burnt flint (1827 g), and animal bone (817 g). The uppermost fill (1934), possibly naturally accumulated, contained 41 pottery sherds (431 g), three nail shanks (ON 176), a hobnail (ON 177), and iron fitting (ON 178), a piece of combed flue tile, oyster shell (15 g), animal bone (645 g), slag (99 g), and a single worked flint – a possibly Neolithic discoidal core. This latter object, which may have been reused during the Romano-British period, was possibly found and retained as a curio before being deposited in the pit.

The northern edge of pit 2042 cut an Iron Age post-hole (2041), that was itself cut to the north by post-hole 2376, which although undated could be associated with the pit. To the immediate south-west of the pit, another post-hole (1221)

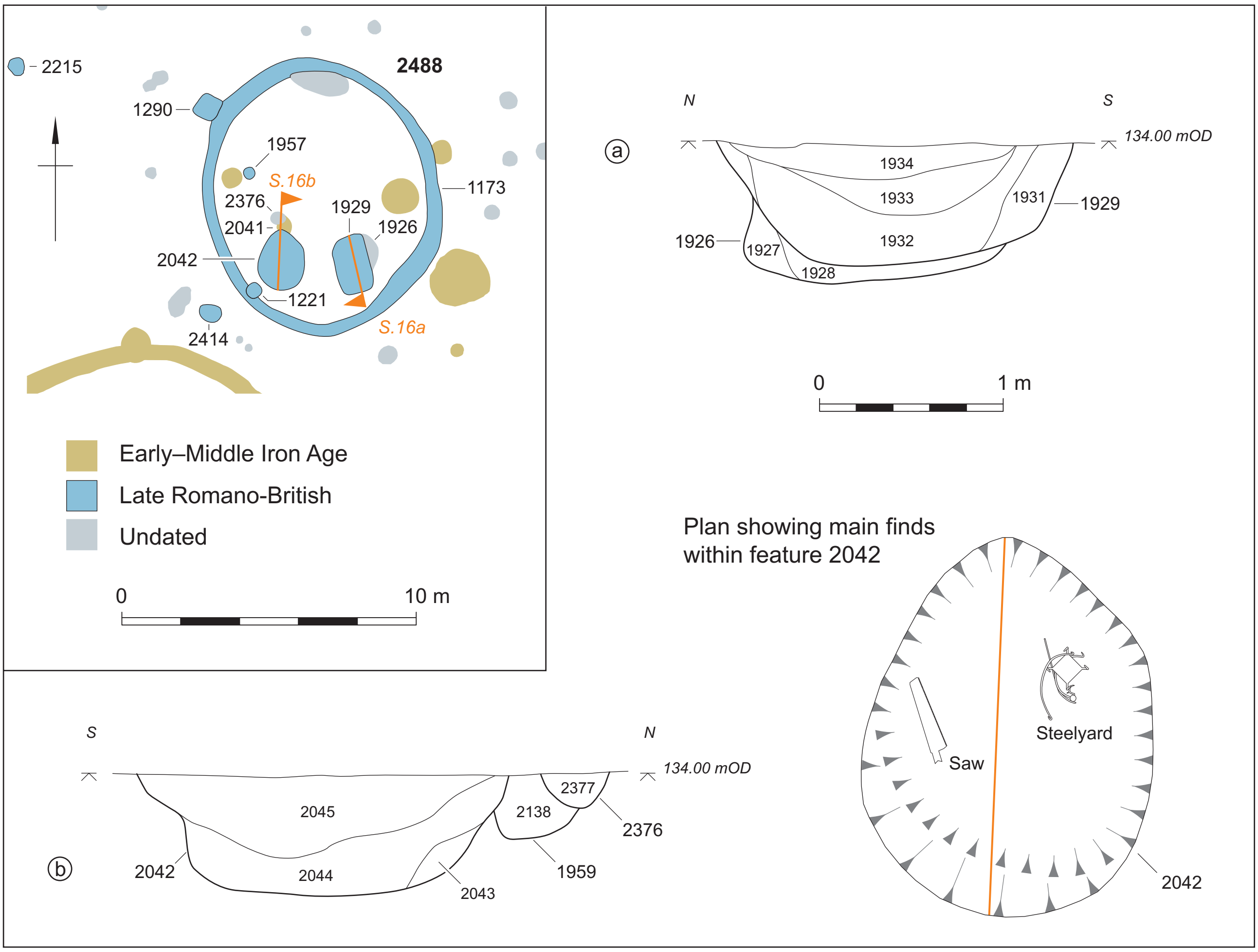

Figure 16 Oval structure 2488 and sections of pits 1926/1926 and 2402

cut the inner edge of the oval gully, and contained six Romano-British sherds (48 g) and a nail (ON 47), while a third (1957), inside the gully, contained a three more sherds (7 g). Cutting the outer edge of the gully, at the north-west, was a sub-square pit (1290), *c.* 0.8 m wide and 0.25 m deep with a shallow concave profile, and a single fill containing six sherds (87 g) of Romano-British pottery, a nail (ON 66) and animal bone (13 g).

There were a number of post-holes around the outside of the oval gully although unevenly spaced and at varying distances from it. While eight of them lay on a circle *c.* 11.5 m in diameter roughly encircling the gully, this is slightly offset from the gully and it is unclear whether they are associated with it. Only one of the post-holes (2414), at the south-west, contained datable material – 12 sherds (101 g) of Romano-British pottery.

This structure is an unusual feature. Its regular oval shape, the absence of any obvious entrance, and the distinctive objects placed in one of the two pits at its southern end, indicate that this was not a feature with a mundane practical use, but may have had some ritual function. Romano-British shrines of this shape

Plate 12 Excavation of the Romano-British steelyard

Plate 13 Romano-British feature 2288, with placed bowl on base

are rare (Rodwell 1980, 68–73), but a possible parallel is a Romano-British 'oval shrine', within a circular Iron Age round-house (or other circular building) at Maiden Castle, Dorset (Wheeler 1943, pl. 12). Similarly, a shallow ring gully, *c.* 7–8 m in diameter, at Butterfield Down, from which was recovered a sceptre head in the form of a copper alloy figure of a bird on an iron rod, and which had an infant burial in one of the gully terminals, was interpreted as a possible religious structure (Rawlings and Fitzpatrick 1996, 39).

Other Features

A small number of other, isolated Romano-British features was recorded inside the former Iron Age enclosure (Figs 15–16). Two contained single Romano-British sherds, post-hole 2215, *c.* 7 m north-west of the oval gully, and post-hole 1991 within the former floor area of Iron Age round-house 2271. A more substantial feature, pit 1456, lay within the former floor area of Iron Age round-house 2522. This pit was 1 m in diameter and 0.3 m deep, and its upper of two fills (1458) contained 83 sherds (1480 g) of late Romano-British pottery (as well as eight residual Iron Age sherds).

Towards the west of the enclosure, pit 1112 contained a Romano-British iron padlock key (ON 16) and a nail, along with three sherds (8 g) of residual Iron Age pottery and a fragment of animal bone. The pit, which was *c.* 1.1 m in diameter and 0.3 m deep with steep sides, a flat base, and a single fill, cut the eastern edge of an Iron Age storage pit.

A small elongated pit (1376), 1.4 x 0.6 m and 0.35 m deep with steep sides and a concave base, which cut the edge of Iron Age pit 1286, had a sequence of dumped layers which together produced 14 sherds (445 g) of late Romano-British pottery, burnt flint (453 g), and a fragment of animal bone.

Another elongated feature (2288), with a slightly hour-glass shape, lay towards the north of the enclosure. It was *c.* 1.8 m long and 0.7 m wide (0.5 m at the centre), and 0.4 m deep. Its shape and the fact that an area of the chalk natural on its western side showed signs of burning might indicate that this was a small oven but there was little charcoal. A complete vessel – a Dorset Black Burnished ware drop-flanged bowl (ON 368, Fig. 27.31) – had been placed upright centrally on the base of the cut (Pl. 13), surrounded by the lowest of the three fills (2289), which also contained burnt flint and animal bone. Above a sterile chalky layer (2290), similar material, although with less pottery, was recovered from the uppermost fill, which contained large flint nodules.

Within the north-western part of the enclosure, an irregular feature (1402) of uncertain dimensions, possibly a tree-throw hole, contained 220 sherds (909 g) of late Romano-British pottery, pieces of fired clay (35 g), mortar (1 g) and stone (192 g), and fragments of animal bone (44 g).

The Enclosure Ditch in the Romano-British period

The fact that a late Romano-British oven (below) was constructed when the ditch (in slot 2464) had filled to within 0.8 m of the excavation ground level, suggests that, compared with the Iron Age, the ditch saw rapid infilling during the late Romano-British period, largely as a result of cultivation possibly right up to its edge.

Romano-British pottery was recovered from the middle and upper fills of the Iron Age enclosure ditch which, despite the lack of any evidence for its maintenance during the Iron Age, was evidently still a substantial feature in the landscape (Fig. 15). In slot 1625, the lowest occurrence of Romano-British pottery was three sherds (47 g) of general Romano-British date (found along with six Early Iron Age sherds) in layer 1771, a largely stone-free secondary fill *c.* 1–1.3 m (in the centre) above the base of the ditch (Fig. 5). This was overlain by a possible turf line (1772), and then another moderately sorted secondary fill (1773), 1.4–1.6 m above the base, within which the pottery was of distinctly late Romano-British date.

These fills may indicate episodes of erosion and silting, resulting from cultivation near the enclosure, separated by a period of stabilisation perhaps indicating animal husbandry within a largely grassland environment. It was possibly during this period that the late Romano-British grave was cut through what remained of the Iron Age enclosure bank, which by then is likely to have been considerably reduced through erosion, although not yet by cultivation.

A more pronounced pattern of alternating periods of silting and stabilisation was recorded in slot 1635 (Fig. 5). Here, when the ditch was almost filled, the upper tails of these alternating silting and stabilisation layers had been truncated where they rose up towards the ditch sides, indicating the extension of cultivation over the ditch. The uppermost of these truncated fills was a chalk-rich layer (2066) possibly marking the start of ploughing over the chalk bank, and so marking the process of levelling and destruction of the remaining traces of the enclosure. While the date of this cultivation is not clear, the fact that it would have involved ploughing over the grave cut into the bank suggests that sufficient time had passed for the location of the grave to have been forgotten, or considered no longer worth avoiding.

A roughly V-shaped spread of closely packed flint nodules (2620) lay within the largely silted enclosure ditch towards the west of the site (Fig. 15; Pl. 14). The spread, measuring *c.* 7 m long across the ditch and 4 m wide, lay directly above layer 2066 (above), which may have derived from initial ploughing of the bank. If flint nodules had been employed in the construction of the bank, it is possible that these had been disturbed and exposed by the ploughing, with some being collected and laid down, perhaps to form the surface of a pathway across the ditch. Four 4th century Roman coins were recovered from the soil (2619) cleaned off the stone spread.

Plate 14 V-shaped flint spread in ditch

Plate 15 Corn drying oven

Corn Drying or Malting Oven

A well preserved masonry oven with a T-shaped flue (2600) was built into the outer side and upper fills of the Iron Age enclosure ditch towards the north-east of the site (Figs 15 and 17). Such structures are usually interpreted as corn drying ovens although other uses, such as for malting (Reynolds and Langley 1979, see below), have been suggested; for simplicity's sake it is referred to here as a corn drying oven. Its cut (2607), which partly cut into the chalk on the outer side of the ditch, was also recorded as cutting tertiary ditch fill 2606 (in slot 2463). In section, this fill reached the top of the ditch at the sides but was 0.80 m below the excavation surface in the centre of the ditch, indicating the level to which the ditch had silted up when the oven was built.

As discussed above, the Romano-British stone building recorded by Musty (1959), *c.* 220 m to the south-west, may also have been a corn drying oven (according the the Wiltshire SMR), and possibly also built in the top of the Iron Age enclosure ditch.

Construction

The oven comprised two parts, a sub-square construction cut (2607) at the north-east, measuring *c.* 4 m long and 3.6 m wide, containing the stone oven structure, and a sub-oval stoking hole, 2.5 m long (along the axis of the oven – giving a total length of

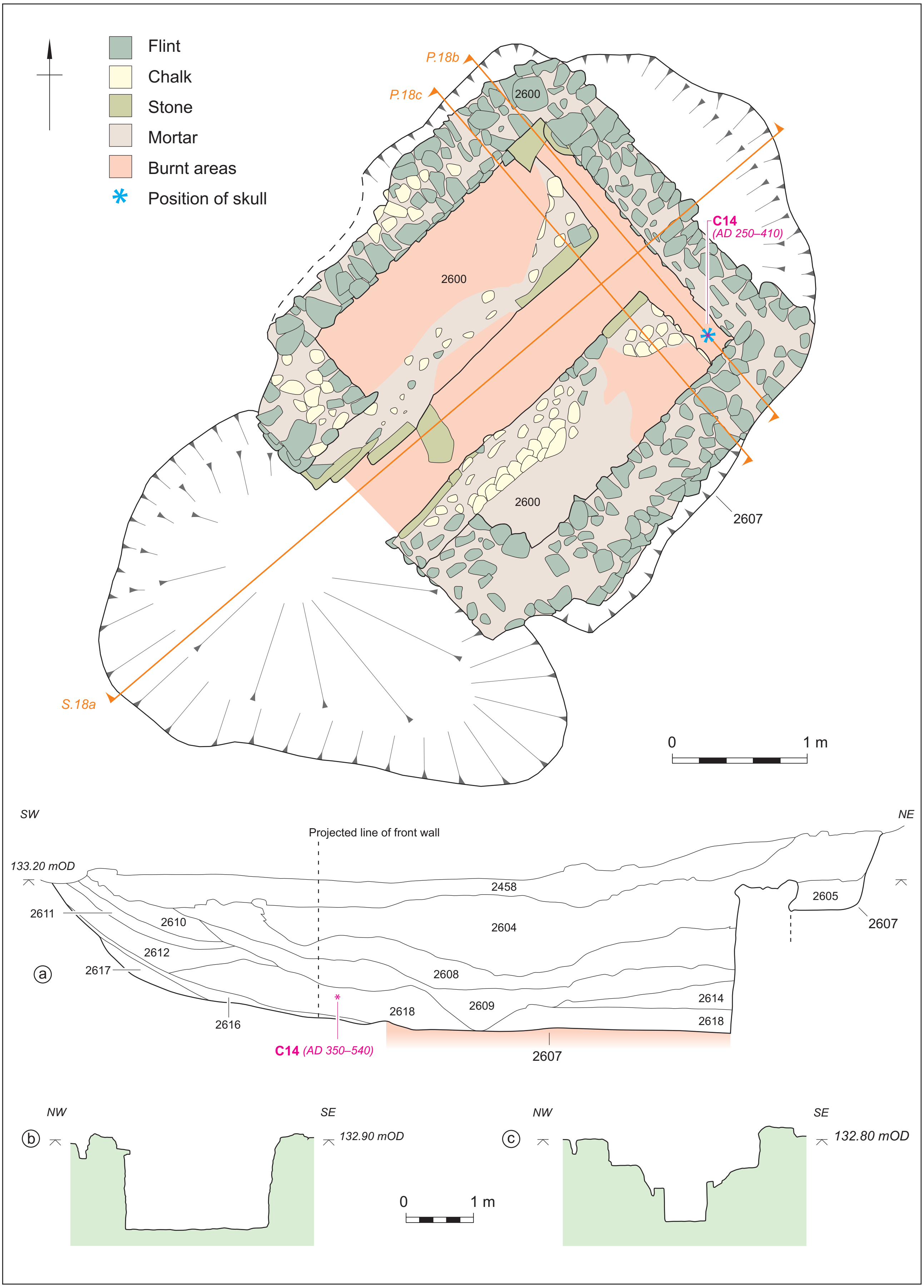

Figure 17 Plan, section and profiles of corn drying oven

Plate 16 Layer 2076 in the top of the enclosure ditch

c. 6 m) and *c.* 3.6 m wide (Fig. 17; Pl. 15). The base of the stoking hole, which was level with the base of the main flue channel, curved upwards to the south-west where it abutted the natural chalk on the inner side of the ditch. The sides of the stoking hole were also concave, although asymmetrical, the south-eastern side having a shallower curve and extending out beyond the sides of the oven structure.

The rear of the construction cut dropped almost vertically through the natural chalk of the outer side of the enclosure ditch to a depth of 0.6 m, at which level there was a horizontal step, 0.5 m wide before it dropped a further 0.9 m to the base, the back wall of the structure abutting this lower vertical face. The base of the main flue channel was flat and level. Towards the rear it cut the natural chalk but towards the front, where it showed signs of heavy burning, the floor appeared to comprise a layer of redeposited chalk overlying the ditch fills.

On its north-west side, the construction cut was dug through ditch fills, into the natural chalk, apart from at the very front. In contrast, the entire length of the south-east side appeared to cut through fills, perhaps indicating that there had been an Iron Age quarry pit in the side of the ditch at this point. Only the flues (and their associated walls) were cut to the full depth; the two 'platforms', 0.8 m wide and 0.8 m high, flanking the main flue channel, were left partly unexcavated by the oven's builders. The oven's front elevation shows that the side walls were built up for most of their lengths from a higher level; they were only built up from the base level at the ends of the cross flue at the rear corners (Pl. 15). The front wall also was only built from the lower level where it flanked the mouth of main flue channel.

The oven's masonry structure (2600) was almost square, measuring 3.2 m wide and up to 3.5 m long. The walls were made primarily of faced courses of flint nodules bonded with a lime mortar with fine inclusions of sand, and with limestone slabs lining the two ends of the main flue channel. In places, the core of the wall also contained chalk rubble. The walls varied in width from 0.4 m at the back to 0.8 m at the front. The inner face of the rear wall, and the rear ends of the side walls, were exposed within the cross flue up to a height of 1.5 m above the floor.

Further forward, however, the side walls had been more heavily damaged, as had the front wall and the upper part of the mouth of the main flue channel. There was no indication whether the mouth, which was 0.7 m wide, had been arched or had a horizontal lintel across the top, but its surviving lower part was lined by mortared vertical limestone slabs, 0.15 m thick and 0.5 m high on the left side, and 0.1 m thick and 0.6 m high on the right side. There were similar vertical slabs at the 0.6 m wide inner end of the channel. Since the channel would have been covered along its full length by horizontal slabs, it is possible that it was originally fully lined in order to provide support for the capping stones. In places, however, the mortar on the sides of the channel appeared to be flush with the outer surfaces of the stone lining suggesting that channel may not have been fully lined, although elsewhere it looked as if some slabs had been robbed out.

The edges of the 'platforms' flanking the main channel had also been eroded, revealing something of their internal make-up. While only mortar and flints were exposed on the left side, a core of chalk was exposed below and behind the mortar on the more heavily eroded right side. It is not clear whether this was redeposited chalk used to build up the core of the platform, or *in situ* natural chalk. Parts of the upper surfaces of the 'platforms' survived on both sides, particularly on the left side, where the mortar was reddened by heat and had patches of dark staining from smoke and charcoal.

Use

Determining exactly how such ovens were operated, and hence their precise function, is hampered by the fact that only their below-ground elements usually survive. The height, of up to 1.5 m, to which the walls of this structure survived, therefore, is rare and is due

Plate 17 Human skull in flue of corn drying oven

largely to its construction within the partly silted Iron Age enclosure ditch.

It is evident from this and other comparable structures, such as nearby examples at Butterfield Down, Boscombe Down and Durrington Walls (Rawlings and Fitzpatrick 1996; Wessex Archaeology 2000; Wainwright 1971), that the air, heated by a fire in the mouth of the covered main flue channel, was directed upwards through the uncovered cross flue at the rear. In this oven, this was up to 0.2 m wide, with sides of mortared flint with no additional stone lining. One possibility is that the heated air then flowed directly up through the superstructure, removing the moisture from the structure's contents. Alternatively, it may have been confined below a raised (and therefore heated) floor before being vented out of the structure near its base, creating a low level heat as would be required for malting (Morris 1979; Reynolds and Langley 1979).

One unexplained feature of this oven, which would not have survived had it been more heavily truncated, is a slab (probably limestone) that projected into the chamber from the side wall, above the left end of the cross flue, and 1.15 m above its floor. Although projecting only 0.24 m from the wall, the slab appeared to be broken and may originally have been longer. The lack of a record of a corresponding slab on the opposite side (indeed anywhere else in the structure) may be due to heavier damage to the face of opposing wall and the front of the oven. The base of the slab was *c.* 0.25 m above the level of the north-western platform.

One possibility is that the slab may have formed a shelf above the flue, to act as a baffle to deflect the heated air away from the back wall as it flowed directly into an above ground chamber, and so distribute it more evenly; this would support a corn drying function. Alternatively, its position could indicate the height of a sub-floor cavity, which could support the malting oven interpretation. The scorching and sooty staining of the mortar on the upper surface of the two platforms could also indicate that the heated air was contained at a low level. Unfortunately, while the staining also extended up the side walls at least to the level of the projecting slab, the walls above that level were too damaged to determine whether they had been similarly affected. However, unless the oven operated at very high temperatures, perhaps too hot for drying grain without the risk of damage or fire, heated air free to rise within a drying chamber is perhaps unlikely to have scorched the floor of the chamber in the way that it appears to have done here.

The use of the oven is also indicated by a layer of ash- and charcoal-rich silty clay (2618), up to 0.16 m thick, lying directly on the floor of the main flue channel and the cross flue. A thinner layer of similar material (2616) in the mouth of the flue, and overlying a trampled layer (2617) in the stoking hole, probably represents fire debris raked out from the mouth of the oven during its last use. Among the finds of pottery, animal bone and stone (including querns) from layer 2616, there were also scorched fragments of a human skull and scapula from an individual aged over 30 years.

An extensive organic spread (2076), rich in charred cereal chaff and grain, was recorded in the upper levels of the enclosure ditch *c.* 25 m south-east of the oven (Pl. 16). It is probable that it represents cereal processing waste used as fuel in the oven and subsequently raked out of the flue and dumped close by (see Pelling, below).

A line of large, roughly shaped flint nodules (2462), forming a dry-stone wall 2.1 m long, 0.3 m wide and up to 0.4 m high, lay *c.* 2.4 m south-west of the oven and with the same orientation, and is probably associated with it. It lay on ditch fill 2606 (the same layer that was cut by the oven's construction cut) but appears to have been too insubstantial to have had any significant structural, or load bearing function.

Demolition and Abandonment

Among the late Romano-British pottery (46 sherds, 1773 g) recovered from the organic-rich layer (2616) on the base of the oven's stoke-hole was one vessel in a form whose use may have extended beyond the middle of the 5th century (see Jones, below). Another sherd was from the pedestal base of an Early Saxon vessel of potentially 5th–6th century date (see Mepham, below). Their presence in a deposit deriving probably from the oven's final operation suggests that the oven continued in use into the early post-Romano-British period. This is supported by a radiocarbon date from charred wheat grain in layer 2618 of AD 335–535 (1645±25 BP, SUERC-32322) (Table 1).

In addition, within the oven, resting on ash-rich layer 2618 (above) in the right hand end of the cross flue, there was an adult human skull (2621, missing the mandible) of a female aged 16–18 years, placed upright and facing inwards (Pl. 17). While it bore no evidence of scorching or sooting, indicating that it had been placed there after the oven's final use, a sample of bone produced a radiocarbon date of AD 250–410 (1710±30 BP, SUERC-35359), potentially significantly earlier than that from the charred grain. This suggests that the skull, which was in good condition apart from damage to the left parietal, may have been taken from an earlier grave (or some other context within which it had been curated). Isolated skulls are not uncommon in Romano-British contexts, some possibly resulting from judicial executions (Philpott 1991, 77; Harman *et al.* 1981), but this skull bore no evidence for decapitation, although it did show signs of trauma and the deliberate cutting of the bone (see McKinley below).

Both the skull and layer 2618 were overlain by a series of layers of mixed rubble and soil filling the oven and the stoking hole, and indicating the structure's demolition, collapse, and gradual infill. Varying quantities of finds were recovered from the post-use fills in the oven, including Romano-British pottery (89 sherds, 3534 g), animal bone (2.3 kg), over 30 iron nails (possibly from the above ground structure), one iron fitting and a piece of slag, and a number of quern fragments. Among these finds there were also two red deer antlers – a complete six-point antler from layer 2604, and another, fragmented but possibly also complete, from the overlying and uppermost fill (2458). Layer 2604 also produced a charred human skull fragment from an individual aged over 25 years (a different individual to the skull in the flue).

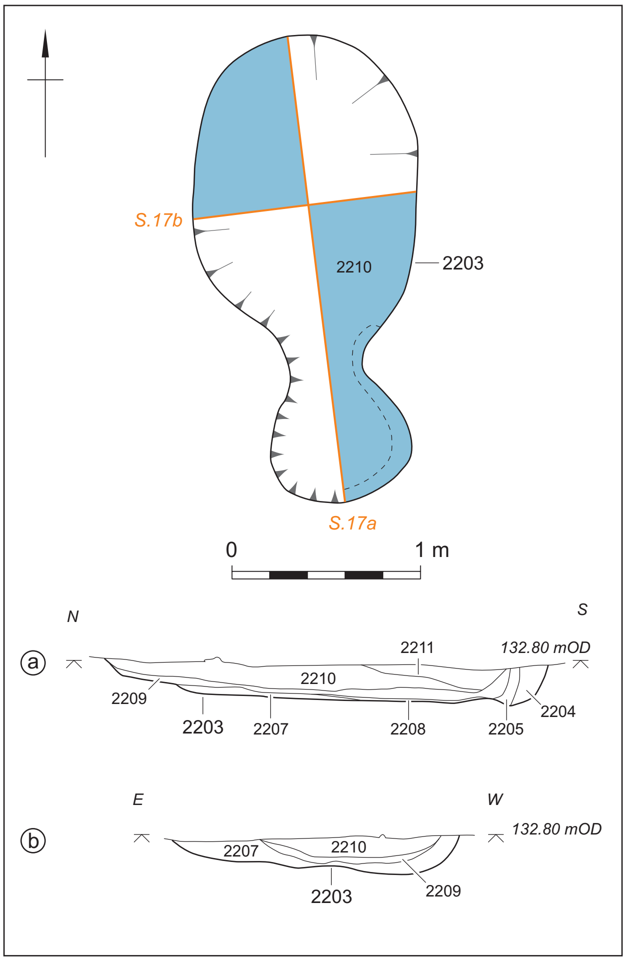

Figure 18 Plan and section of oven 2203

Features outside the Enclosure Ditch

A number of features, possibly largely industrial in character, were recorded on the outer edge of the enclosure ditch at the north of the site (Fig. 15). They were overlain by an extensive area of dark brown soil (2523, below, comprising layers 1181, 1235, 1406, 2075 and 2280), rich in Romano-British artefacts.

Ditch 2640

It may be significant that these features appeared to be bounded to the north and west by ditch 2640, which was recorded for at least 40 m, approximately parallel to, and *c.* 17 m to the north of the enclosure ditch, before turning towards the enclosure at its western end. Its western end lay in an unstripped area (between the watching brief and excavation areas). The ditch was *c.* 0.7 m wide and 0.2 m deep.

Oven 2203 and Associated Features

Central among the features in this area was a keyhole-shaped oven, 2.5 m long aligned north–south (Figs 15 and 18). It had a *c.* 0.7 m diameter chamber at its southern end, linked by a 0.4 m wide flue to an oval stoking hole measuring *c.* 1.8 m long by 1.2 m wide, and it had a maximum depth of 0.2 m. The natural chalk below the chamber had been heavily heat-affected. The chamber walls had a clay-lining (2204), up to 0.15 mm thick, containing occasional flint nodules, which extended through the flue to the front of the stoking hole. There was also heat-affected clay (2207), but not heavily fired, on the base and sides of the stoking hole, over which was a thin layer of redeposited burnt chalk probably raked out of the chamber.

A layer of charcoal (2205) at the back of the chamber was overlain by a slab of fired clay, possibly a partial collapse of the clay dome requiring repair, then by a further layer of charcoal (2209), up to 0.5 m thick, extending out into the stoking hole, indicating the oven's continued use. This was overlain by mixed material (2210) resulting from the collapse or demolition of the oven and the gradual infilling of the remaining hollow (2211). The layers relating to its construction and use contained 13 sherds (355 g) of late Romano-British pottery, and small quantities of animal bone and burnt flint. Three nails were recovered from the subsequent fills.

Immediately west of oven 2203, there was a large irregular pit or hollow (2424; Fig. 15), *c.* 3.5 m long (north–south), 2.5 m wide and up to 0.5 m deep, containing three layers of flint and chalk rubble. This material may have derived from a robbed or demolished east–west wall (2422) in a construction cut (2421) at the pit's northern end. The wall, composed of unfaced flint cobbles bonded with a compact chalky mortar, survived as 1.2 m long and 0.3 m wide. A neonate burial (skeleton 2429), aged 2–3 weeks, was found in the construction cut.

A linear spread of flints (2237), forming a possible laid surface *c.* 3.3 m long and 0.7 m wide, lay just north-east of, and at a right angle to the oven's stoking hole, on a similar alignment to wall 2422.

Other Features

A steep-sided, flat-based slot (2034), aligned north–south, measured 0.25 m deep and 0.4 m wide. It was exposed for a length of 1.2 m, but its northern end was concealed below layer 1406 (part of 2523). It had a thin primary fill overlain by a possible backfill deposit and contained 32 sherds of late Romano-British pottery (563 g), eight nails, a fragment of stone, and animal bone (115 g).

In addition, there were three other pits in this area, one (2312) containing no dating evidence but probably contemporary, another unexcavated. Conical pit 2312, immediately north-west of pit 2424, was 2 m in diameter at the top, narrowing with straight sides to 0.7 m at the limit of excavation at 0.9 m depth. It is of uncertain function, although clearly not for storage, and it appears to have been deliberately backfilled, possibly in two phases. Its four fills contained four nails and animal bone (43 g).

Pit 2032 was *c.* 1.5 m in diameter and 0.3 m deep with moderately steep concave sides and a flat base. Its single backfilled layer contained over 8.8 kg of late Romano-British pottery, two pieces of glass (3 g), two nails and another iron object, eight pieces of stone (560 g), and animal bone (287 g).

Oval pit 2070 measured *c.* 1.4 m by 0.8 m and was 0.4 m deep, with near vertical sides and a flat base. It contained 23 sherds (277 g) of late Romano-British pottery, a bone spindle-whorl (ON 623), two nails, animal bone (182 g), oyster shell and burnt flint (27 g).

An irregular shallow feature (2146), *c.* 1 x 3 m and up to 0.16 m deep, produced 78 sherds (690 g) of late Romano-British pottery, a looped iron fitting, and a nail.

There were also four small features, possibly post-holes in this area, three of them appearing to form an L-shaped structure to the south-west of the spread. However, of these three, only one (2401), which lay *c.* 2 m north of the original edge of the ditch, was convincing as a post-hole. This was 0.5 m in diameter and 0.4 m deep, with steep to vertical sides, and packing stones on the south side and a post-pipe to the north. Approximately 3 m to its north-east, a pair of features (1298 and 2212), 0.70 m apart, had much shallower profiles, measuring *c.* 0.50–0.70 m wide and up to 0.20 m deep, the latter containing a small hooked blade (ON 380). All three were sealed by layer 1235 (part of 2523). The fourth possible post-hole (2039), which was of similar form and dimensions to features 1298 and 2212, lay among the group of features to their north-east.

All these features were sealed by layer 2523, which covered an area *c.* 10 x 20 m and was 0.2 m thick, and which spread south over the upper ditch fills at the north-west of the site. It was rich in Romano-British artefacts, containing over 14 kg of late Romano-British pottery, 6 kg of stone, and 2.6 kg of animal bone, as well as smaller quantities of fired clay (298 g), slag (107 g), lead (25 g), glass (23 g), and shell (17 g). It also contained a decorated copper alloy finger ring (ON 94), 11 predominantly 4th century coins, a bone gaming counter (ON 125), and numerous iron objects including over 60 nails, 14 hobnails, a blade fragment (ON 52), a small awl or punch (ON 186), the possible tip of a chisel (ON 343), an iron ring (ON 132), and an angled binding (ON 140).

Chapter 4
Finds

Coins

by Nicholas Cooke

Twenty late Roman copper alloy coins were recovered (Table 2). The majority show signs of post-depositional corrosion while many also show signs of wear. Despite this, it is possible to identify 15 of them to period. The remaining five coins can all be dated to the late 3rd or 4th centuries (ON 197) or the 4th century only (ON 51, ON 113, ON 201, and ON 207) based on the size and shape of the flan.

The distribution of these dated coins by period can be seen in Figure 19. The earliest of the 15 dated coins (ON 71, context 1781 – a tertiary fill of the enclosure ditch) is an *antoninianus* of Tetricus I, minted AD 270–3 (Period 13). The remaining coins all date to the 4th century. There are peaks of coin loss in periods 17 (coins of the House of Constantine) and 19 (House of Valentinian). These mirror the most common peaks of coin loss in the 4th century, as does the absence of significant numbers of period 18 coins.

All of these coins are typical 4th century issues although three are contemporary copies or probable copies (ON 48, ON 138, and ON 538) of 'official' coinage, possibly struck to compensate for gaps in the supply of coinage to Britain and to supply sufficient small change for the province's needs. It is unclear whether these copies were officially sanctioned but they are not uncommon as site finds, and seem to have circulated in the same fashion as officially struck coins. Fifteen coins were found in just three contexts (contexts 1235, 1406, and 2619).

Three coins were recovered from context 1235, a component of a late Romano-British spread (2523) overlying the north-western side of the Iron Age enclosure ditch. These coins comprise issues dated to AD 330–360 (ON 77), 350–360 (ON 48), and a corroded 4th century issue (ON 51), and suggest a date in the mid–late 4th century for this deposit.

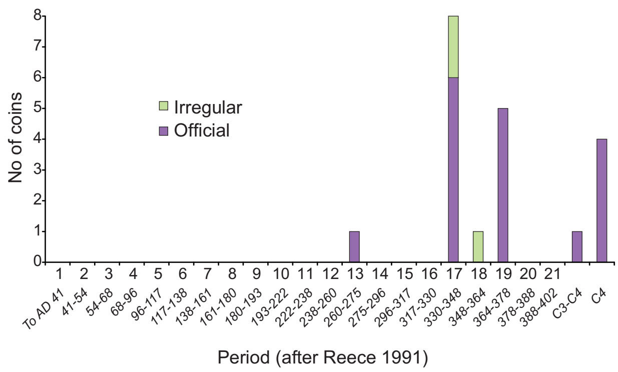

Figure 19 Coins by period

Eight coins were recovered from context 1406, another component of spread 2523. Five are period 17 coins, minted 330–348 (ON 104, ON 138, ON 139, ON 183, and ON 195), one is a period 19 coin (ON 117) minted 364–378. The other two are illegible 4th century coins (ON 113 and ON 197). Context 1406 comprises the final fill of another slot through the ditch. Here the coins suggest a date in the second half of the 4th century, with the coin of the House of Valentinian (ON 117) suggesting continued activity into the 360s or 370s.

The final group comprise four coins from context 2619, a tertiary fill of the enclosure ditch above stone spread 2620. One (ON 538) is a Gloria Exercitus issue of the House of Constantine, minted 330–335, while the other three (ON 518, ON 519, and ON 539) are *nummi* of the House of Valentinian. These again point to activity and coin use on the site during the 360s and 370s.

Although the assemblage is small, the coins recovered point to activity in the late 3rd and 4th centuries.

Metalwork

by Grace Perpetua Jones

Iron dominates the metalwork assemblage (278 objects, Table 3), with only four copper alloy objects and 11 fragments of lead (not including the lead weight classified with the iron steelyard). All came from Romano-British features and layers and were almost all recovered by hand. The condition of the iron objects is good, due to soil conditions and land-use which has included limited use of pesticides (Lynn Wootton pers. comm.). All objects were catalogued and the data entered onto an Access database. Sections of the saw, steelyard, and bucket handle were cleaned. The finds presented below are of iron unless otherwise stated.

Distribution

The iron objects came from 13 pits, three post-holes, oven 2203, corn drying oven 2600, enclosure ditch 1838, construction cut 2421 in pit 2424, and spread 2523 (Table 3). Most, however, were concentrated in a small number of these features. Spread 2523, for

Table 2 Coins

ON	*Context*	*Denomination*	*Issuer*	*Description*	*Mint*	*Issue Date*	*References*
48	1235 (=2523)	Nummus	House of Constantine	Fel Temp Reparatio type. Soldier spearing a fallen horseman, very stylised engraving	Unknown	350–360	Copy as LRBC II, 25
51	1235 (=2523)	Nummus	Unknown Emperor	Extremely worn. Very small flan. Almost certainly a C4 copy	Unknown	C4	–
71	1781	Antoninianus	Tetricus I	Laetitia Aug type. Laetitia l, with wreath and anchor	Unknown	270–273	As RIC V, Part II, 87
77	1235 (=2523)	Nummus	House of Constantine	Reverse illegible. Badly damaged. Obverse suggests the coin is a Nummus of the House of Constantine	Unknown	330–360	–
104	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	Constans	Gloria Exercituus type. 2 soldiers, 1 standard. Mint Mark: I / SLG	Lyons, 2nd officina	341	LRBC I, 253
113	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	Unknown Emperor	V small thin damaged flan. Probably a C4 copy	Unknown	C4	–
117	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	Gratian	Gloria Novi Saeculi type. Emperor l with standard and shield. Mint Mark: -CON	Arles	367–383	As LRBC I, 503
138	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	House of Constantine	Constantinopolis type. Winged victory on prow l	Unknown	330–345	? Copy as LRBC I, 52
139	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	House of Constantine	Gloria Exercituus type. 2 soldiers, 1 standard. Mint Mark: -TRP	Trier, 1st officina	335–341	As LRBC I, 87
183	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	House of Constantine	Gloria Exercituus type. 2 soldiers, 1 standard	Unknown	335–341	As LRBC I, 87
195	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	Constans	Victoriaeddauggqnn type. 2 facing victories, with wreaths. Mint Mark: palm/TRP	Trier, 1st officina	341–348	As LRBC II, 162
197	1406 (=2523)	Nummus	Unknown Emperor	V badly corroded. Dated by size alone	Unknown	C3–C4	–
201	1705	Nummus	Unknown Emperor	V badly corroded small flan. Dated by size alone	Unknown	C4	–
205	1839	Nummus	Constantius II	Gloria Exercituus type. 2 soldiers, 1 standard. Mint Mark: TRP	Trier, 1st officina	330	As LRBC I, 100
207	1936	Nummus	Unknown Emperor	V small thin flan. May be a C4 copy	Unknown	C4	–
400	2458	Nummus	Valens	Gloria Romanorum type. Emperor r with standard, dragging captive	Unknown	364–378	As LRBC II, 80
518	2619	Nummus	House of Valentinian	Securitas Reipublicae type. Winged victory l with wreath	Unknown	364–378	As LRBC II, 82
519	2619	Nummus	Valens	Securitas Reipublicae type. Winged victory l with wreath. Mint Mark: OF | I / | ./u / LVG-	Lyons, 1st officina	364–375	LRBC II, 340
538	2619	Nummus	House of Constantine	Gloria Exercituus type. 2 soldiers, 1 standard. V stylised engraving	Unknown	330–345	Copy as LRBC I, 87
539	2619	Nummus	Valens	Securitas Reipublicae type. Winged victory l with wreath. Mint Mark: OF | I / LVG	Lyons, 1st officina	364–378	As LRBC I, 285

example, which covered the upper ditch fills in the north-west of the site and was rich in late Romano-British artefacts, produced 117 of the 278 objects, while the ditch's upper secondary and tertiary fills produced a further 16 objects. Pit 2042, within oval structure 2488, contained 38 objects, including a saw, a steelyard, and the handles from two buckets. The corn drying oven contained 44 iron objects, predominantly nails, but also three hobnails, a possible punch or chisel (ON 401), and a joiner's dog (ON 490).

Ten objects were unstratified and one was recorded from an evaluation trench. The remaining 52 objects were stratified in 18 features but the vast majority were nails, with two hobnails from pit 1929 (also with the oval structure) and single hobnails from pit 1105 and ditch 2640. A possible chisel came from pit 2032 (ON 343) and a small hook from post-hole 2212 (ON 380). With the exception of Iron Age pit 1317, from which two small rod/shank fragments were recovered from sample 25, and Iron Age pit 1105, containing an intrusive hobnail, all of the features were Romano-British in date.

Personal Items

The only identifiable copper alloy object was a finger ring (ON 94, Fig. 20.1) from spread 2523. It comprises a strip of rectangular section, 1.7 mm wide, coiled into a rounded triangle, the maximum external length and width are equal at 20 mm, the internal diameter is 15–17 mm. It is similar to a bracelet fragment from Wanborough, described as decorated with a 'central groove met from both sides by closely spaced' triangular notches (Hooley 2001, 80). One terminal of the High Post ring is decorated with transverse grooves; the other, overlapping, terminal is decorated with a dot surrounded by three concentric grooved circles, similar to a motif on a buckle from Wanborough, Wiltshire (Hooley 2001, fig. 32.49). Other examples of grooved and notched decoration come from a flattened bracelet fragment from Richborough, Kent (Bushe-Fox 1928, plate XXI, 51) and another from Porchester Castle, Hampshire (Webster 1975a, fig. 112, 36), both in association with the ring and dot motif. A bracelet fragment from

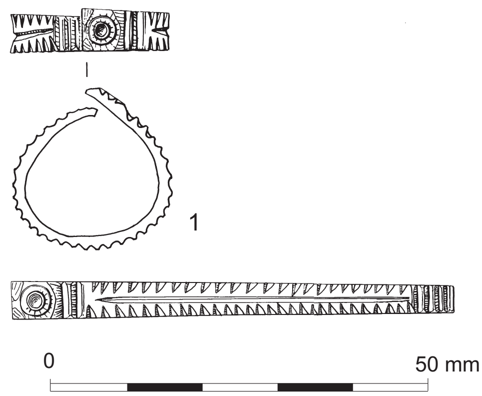

Figure 20 Copper alloy object 1. ring, ON 94, spread 2523

Table 3 Iron objects, by feature and object type

Feature	*Personal*	*Weighing*	*Writing*	*Tools*	*Fitting*	*Horticulture*	*Container*	*Query*	*Total*
Iron Age									
Pit 1037	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Pit 1105	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Pit 1317	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	2
Romano-British									
Pit 1112	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	2
Pit 1290	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Pit 1929	2	–	–	–	5	–	–	–	7
Pit 2032	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	1	3
Pit 2034	–	–	–	–	8	–	–	–	8
Pit 2042	1	5	–	1	26	–	5	–	38
Pit 2070	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	2
Pit 2146	–	–	–	–	9	–	–	–	9
Pit 2312	–	–	–	–	4	–	–	–	4
Pit 2424	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	3
Post-hole 1221	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Post-hole 1298	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	2
Post-hole 2212	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
Ditch 2640	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Enclosure ditch 1838	3	–	1	–	6	–	–	2	12
Layer 1839	2	–	–	–	1	–	–	1	4
Spread 2523	14	–	–	2	93	–	–	8	117
Oven/kiln 2203	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	3
Corn drying oven 2600	3	–	–	1	36	–	–	4	44
Construction cut 2421	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Evaluation	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Unstratified	–	–	–	–	10	–	–	–	10
Total	27	5	1	5	217	1	5	17	278

Gadebridge Roman villa, Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire, is decorated with oblique lines above and below a central groove (Neal and Butcher 1974, fig. 60.137). Most examples are of 4th century date, although one ring with similar decoration on its terminals is of Saxon date (Rogers 2007, fig. 4.21d). The terminals of the High Post ring appear to have been cut and it seems probable that this ring started life as a bracelet and was cut down and bent into a finger ring.

Twenty-four hobnails and three cleats are from footwear. Fourteen hobnails came from spread 2523 and are moderately or well worn, three were from the corn drying oven, one from an upper fill of the enclosure ditch and two from its tertiary fill, two were from pit 1929 (in the oval structure), one was from ditch 2640, and one from pit 1105. Two incomplete cleats were from upper secondary fills of the enclosure ditch, with the third from pit 2042 (in the oval structure, see below).

Objects used for Weighing and Measuring

A steelyard with balancing beam, weighing pan, fixed weight and double hook, had been placed on the bottom of pit 2042 within the oval structure, and is discussed below. Two bucket handles, which may have had related uses, were also present.

Objects used for Written Communication

A decorated iron stylus, characteristic of Manning (1985) type 4, was recovered from the upper fills of the enclosure ditch (ON 621, Fig. 21.2). The upper half of its stem is plain and square-sectioned; the lower half is decorated with cross-hatching, with a bead above and two beads, or a moulding, below. The stylus is complete, 64 mm in length, but this is quite short as many examples are around 100 mm. The eraser is triangular in shape, expanding from 6.2 mm at the bottom to 10.4 mm at the top; its edges are straight and it is clearly defined from the stem by the presence of moulded scrolls.

Tools

A small number of tools were present, the most impressive being an almost complete handsaw blade from pit 2042 within the oval structure (described below). Other pieces include a small square-sectioned rod, tapering to a point at both ends, probably a small awl or punch that was presumably hafted (Fig. 21.3, ON 186), and a knife blade fragment, triangular in section and up to 4 mm thick (ON 52), both of them from spread 2523. The broken tip from another square-sectioned tool, which tapers to a flat end, is probably the tip of a chisel (Fig. 21.4, ON 343, pit 2032). The broken tip of a rod of rectangular section (ON 401), recovered from the corn drying oven, has one end tapering to a flat edge, and the other end to a point; depending on which was the working end, it may have been a punch or a chisel.

Fastenings and Fittings

The iron objects are dominated by fittings, accounting for 217 of the 278 objects. These include 152 flat-headed, iron nails (Manning 1985, type 1B), all of square section, the complete nails ranging from 28–89 mm in length but most being 65–79 mm long. The largest groups came from spread 2523 (62 nails), the corn drying oven (33 nails), and pit 2042 (17 nails, commented on below). A variant on the flat-headed type is a nail from the corn drying oven (ON 492) with a head 8 mm thick. It is paralleled by an example at Skeleton Green (Partridge 1981, fig. 61.86), listed as a stud although most of the shank is missing. One object (ON 181, spread 2523) has the appearance of a flat-headed nail; the head is 23 mm in diameter, the square shank 8 mm thick. The shank is bent at 90°, 33 mm from the head, apparently deliberately rather than through use, suggesting it may have been some form of rivet or holdfast. Two further unusual nail types are also represented. A triangular-headed nail (Manning 1985, type 2) from pit 1037 is 143 mm in length, up to 30 mm wide across the head, and its shank 11 mm thick. There are also three studs (Manning 1985, type 8), of a type that was commonly used for upholstery. Their heads are hollow and their shanks missing or broken. One came from the upper fill of the enclosure ditch, and the others from spread 2523. A further 46 shank fragments, concentrated in spread 2523, pit 2042, and the corn drying oven, would also have come from nails. A joiner's dog was also present in the corn drying oven (ON 490), while a double-spiked loop was among the objects from pit 2042 (ON 304, see below).

A padlock key from pit 1112 (ON 16, Fig. 21.5) is similar to an example described by Manning (1985, 96) thus: 'a tapering strip rolled into a loop at its narrow end and turned through a right angle at the other end to form the bit' which is pierced by two holes. It is 250 mm long, up to 35 mm wide, and 5 mm thick. A fragment of angled binding, probably from a wooden box, recovered from spread 2523 (ON 140), consists of a tapering bar, measuring 21–17 mm, with a rounded end and rivet, widening to 43 mm at the bend. An iron ring was also recorded from this layer (ON 132). Other objects of this class include a fitting

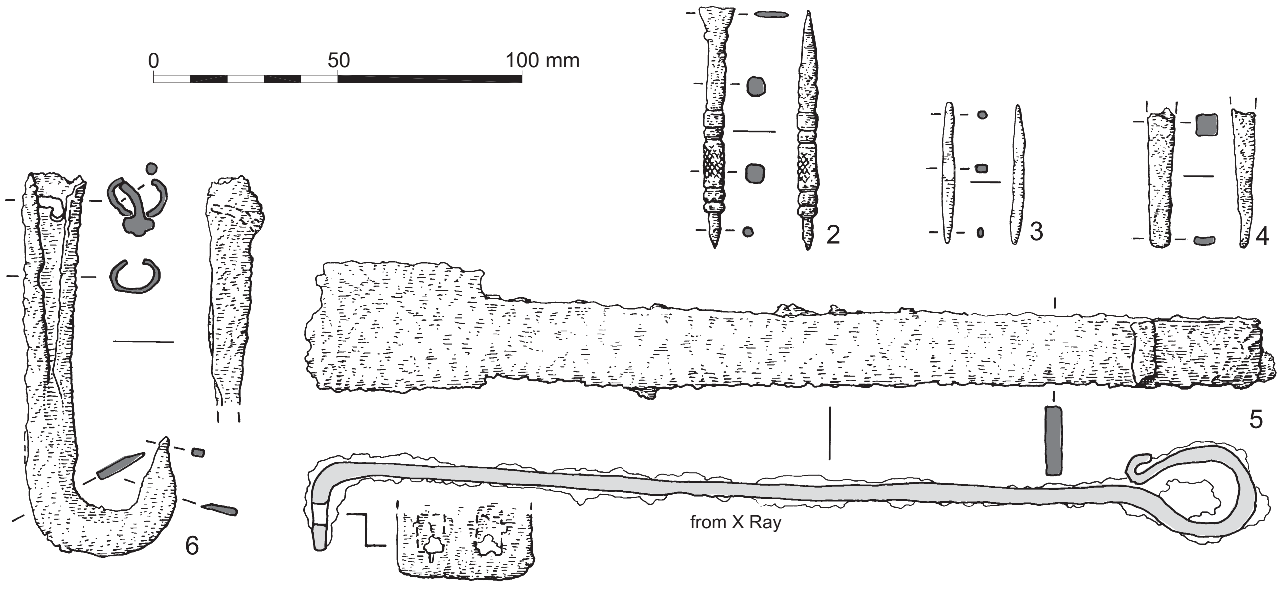

Figure 21 Iron objects 2. stylus, ON 621, context 1780, slot 1625, enclosure ditch 1838; 3. awl or punch ON 186, spread 2523; 4. possible chisel, ON 343, pit 2032; 5. padlock key, ON 16, pit 1112; 6. hooked blade, ON 380, post-hole 2212

with a loop at one end and part of a loop at the other end, probably some form of link, from feature 2146 (ON 620). A rod fragment with a flat end loop, possibly from the terminal of a curb-bit, key, wall hook or a loop-headed spike, was unstratified (ON 164).

Horticultural Items

A small, socketed hooked blade was recovered from post-hole 2212 (Fig. 21.6, ON 380). The hook is 41 mm wide and rectangular sectioned; the socket is folded, 16 mm wide, and has a nail passing through it. The object, which is 102 mm long, was probably a multi-purpose tool, perhaps used for pruning or reaping, or cutting leaves or fodder.

Unidentified Objects

Seventeen iron fragments could not be identified. An incomplete possible spindle from the tertiary fill of the enclosure ditch was 20 mm wide, with two arms projecting from one side and a single arm from the other (ON 609).

The only other copper alloy objects from the site (see ON 94, above) comprised two sheet fragments from spread 2523 (ON 194 and ON 96), the latter with a curved edge possibly from a coin or token, and a very small lump, possibly a waste fragment, from pit 1374 (ON 91).

Spread 2523 also contained 10 small pieces of lead, representing offcuts or waste fragments (ON 124 and 142); another fragment was present in pit 1789 (ON 202).

Objects from Pit 2042 (and Pit 1929) in Oval Structure 2488

The group of iron objects placed on the base of pit 2042 is extraordinary, comprising a saw (ON 305, Fig. 22.7), two bucket handles (ON 229b, Fig. 22.8–9), a steelyard (ON 229a, Fig. 23.10), three nails, and a double-spiked loop (ON 304). In addition, the upper fill (2045) produced 15 nails and seven shank fragments from at least six other nails, as well as a small cleat (ON 302).

The adjacent pit (1929) contained two nails (Manning 1985, type 1B), one of which (ON 178) is completely bent, its head curved over and touching the shank; three shank fragments, and two hobnails (ON 177).

Saw

ON 305 (Fig. 22.7) is the almost complete blade of a handsaw. Sections at each end and across the middle of the object have been airbraded. Its condition is excellent with few corrosion products masking the surface, and details of the teeth are visible even in the areas that were not cleaned. The saw would have been designed for quite rough work, perhaps cutting down branches and relatively small trees, or for general carpentry.

The cutting edge measures 410 mm in length, with only the very tip missing. It has six teeth per inch

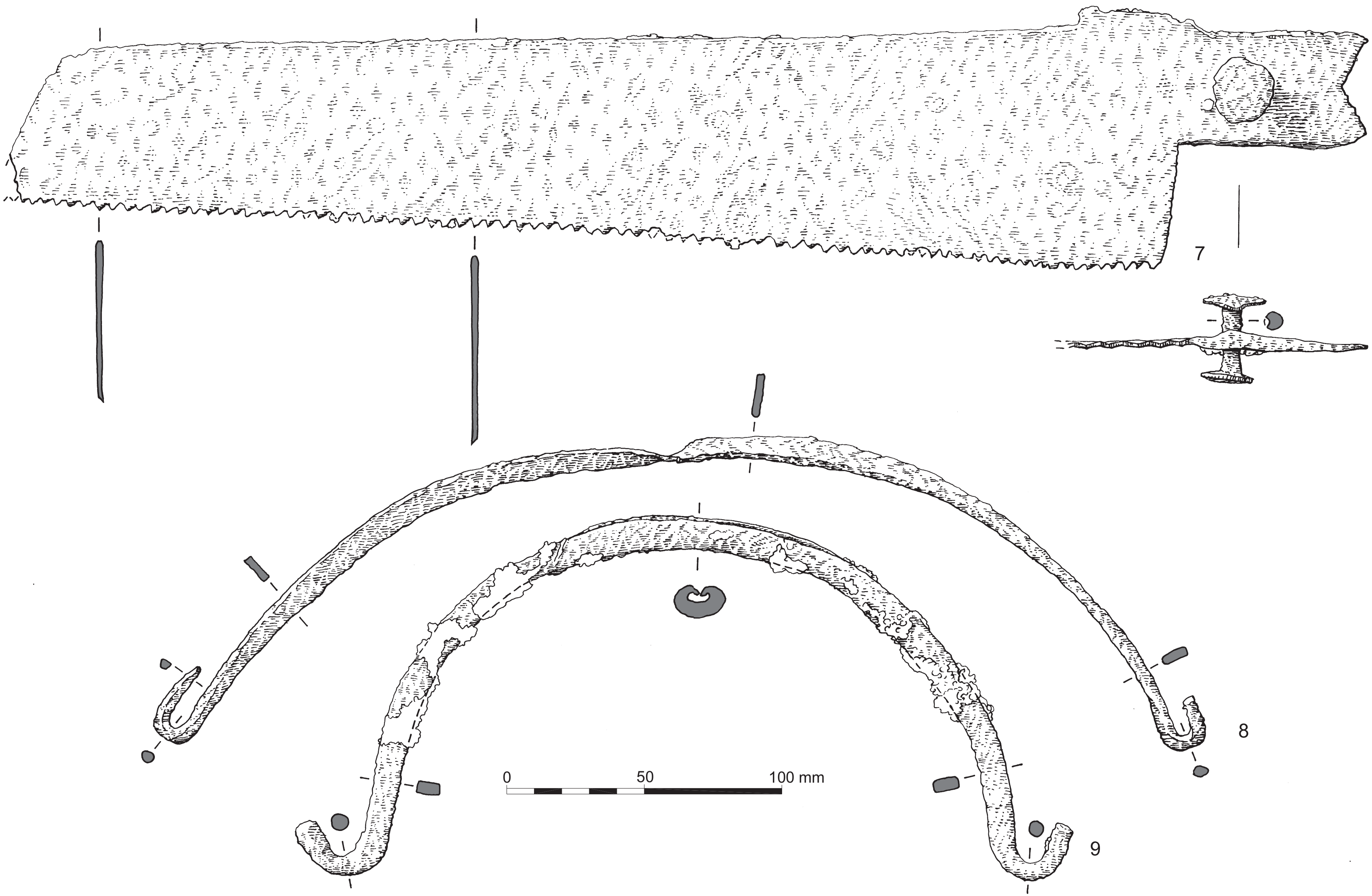

Figure 22 Iron objects 7. iron saw ON 305; 8–9. bucket handles ON 229, all context 2044, pit 2042

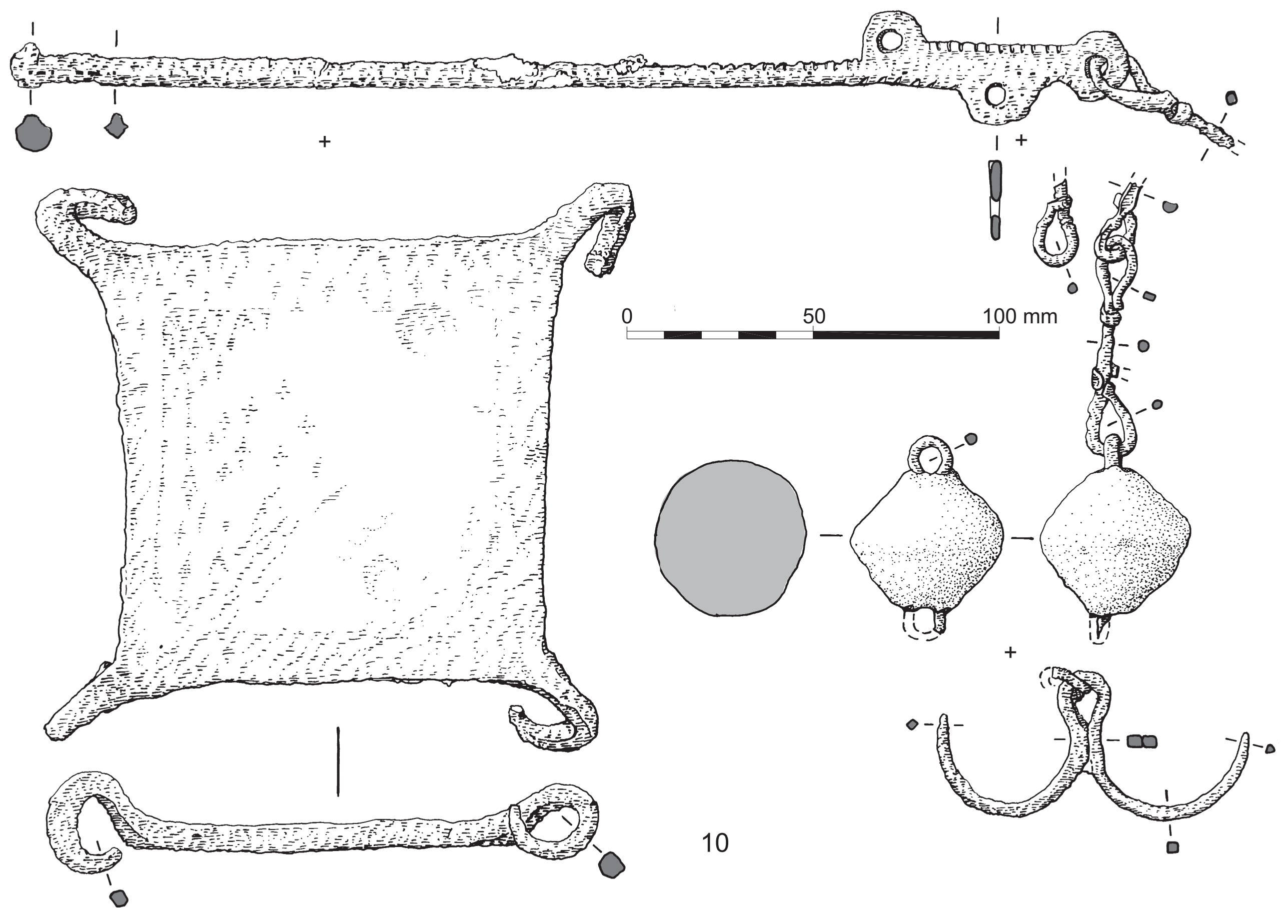

Figure 23 Iron object. 10. Steelyard ON 229a, context 2044, pit 2042

(ie, 7 point), these being evenly spaced and 'set' (in modern terminology), flaring outwards in alternating directions to create a groove in the wood (kerf) slightly wider than the blade, to prevent it getting stuck. The angle of the teeth suggests this was a 'rip' saw and probably worked more efficiently on the push rather than the pull. The back is relatively straight and measures 365 mm before rising slightly and curving, then continuing for another 40 mm. This raised area at the heel of the back may relate to the form of the handle. The tang appears complete, measuring 60 mm in length along the back and 67 mm at the front, and finishing in a fishtail shape. The rivet (medallion) survives in the tang, located close to the blade; the head is 17 mm on one side and 22 mm on the other. A small amount of mineralised wood around the tang and possible mineralised organics present on the blade towards the handle are all that remains of the handle. The original shape of the handle is therefore unknown although it is likely to have been curved in some way, perhaps similar to a modern 'pistol-shaped' handle, to offer control when sawing. The blade is 50 mm wide at the toe, 80 mm wide at the heel before it rises, and 87 mm at the heel end.

Bucket handles

Two complete bucket handles (Fig. 22.8–9) were found with the steelyard (ON 229). The metal is heavily deteriorated and the surfaces pitted, particularly in the twisted areas of one of the handles. The larger handle, now twisted, measures 375 mm in length (including the hooked ends) and up to 110 mm wide (Fig 22.8). It has a plain, rectangular section, 15 mm wide and 4 mm thick. Its hooked ends are 27 mm high, 17 mm wide on one side and 14 mm on the other where the tip is broken. The other handle is 278 mm long (including the hooked ends) and up to 130 mm high (Fig. 22.9). It has a central U-sectioned grip, 20 mm wide across the centre and 12 mm thick. Towards the hooked ends the handle is rectangular in section, 5 mm wide and 140 mm high. The hooked ends are 21 mm in height and 24 mm wide on one side, and 25 mm by 29 mm on the other.

The steelyard

The steelyard (ON 229a; Fig. 23.10) comprises the balancing beam (*scapus*), weighing pan (*lancula*), a weight, and a double hook. The corrosion of the beam is relatively light but, as it was not cleaned in its entirety, only parts of its graduated scales are visible.

The start of a scale is visible on the long arm running from the second fulcrum (for lighter loads), while on its other side, at least four notches can also be seen starting at the first fulcrum (for heavier loads). In addition, 11 notches are visible on the short arm between the second fulcrum and the load point at the end of the arm.

The total length of the beam is 298 mm, approximately a Roman foot. The long arm is diamond-sectioned and terminates in a stop 10 mm in diameter. The short arm (from the second fulcrum) is flat and ends with a perforated disc, through which a piece of broken wire was looped. It is from this disc that the load to be weighed would be suspended, using the weighing hooks and, where appropriate, the weighing pan.

The biconical lead weight, which has corrosion products on its surface, is up to 40 mm wide and 38 mm high. Its central iron shaft is looped at the top, while at the base a short section of protruding iron and the stump of a second piece probably formed a loop at the base of the shaft. An iron wire was threaded through the upper loop, then folded back and twisted around itself. The other (upper) end of this wire has also been looped, creating a link piece 58 mm long. A loop from a second broken wire passed through the link's upper loop.

The presence of a loop at the base of the weight suggests that it was not the movable counterweight suspended from the long arm to measure the weight of the load (this was not present) but a fixed weight suspended from the load point. While its precise function is not clear, its purpose might have been to compensate for the inequality in weight of the two sides of the beam – a technical problem discussed in *Liber de Canonio* (Anon., cited by Damerow *et al.* 2002). It may have enabled the beam to be in balance when the counterweight was at the zero mark on the long arm before any load was added, although this would only have worked when the second fulcrum – for light loads – was being used. The wire loop passing through the upper end of the wire link was probably the other end of that which passed through the disc at the end of the balancing beam, representing two parts of a broken, upper link.

A double iron hook, 84 mm in length and 40 mm wide, appears to have been attached to the loop at the base of the weight, but it became detached during cleaning as very little of its surface remained and the join was too weak to support reconstruction. Together with the iron chain, the weight weighs 226 g (the approximate equivalent of a *bes*: 8 Roman ounces).

The weighing pan is slightly concave, and square in shape, measuring 111 x 117 mm and 8 mm thick, and weighs 614 g. It is heavily deteriorated in places with deep pitting. Its corners are pulled slightly and hooked under. Its suspension chains, which would have passed through its hooks and then hung from the double hook, are not present.

The steelyard is of the Walbrook type, dating from the second half of the 1st to the end of the 2nd century AD, of which examples have been found across southern England, the Rhineland, and northern France (Franken 1993, Abb. 7). The steelyard's arm is similar to an example from Wanborough, Wiltshire (Isaac 2001, fig. 54, 216).

The steelyard was a very adaptable asymmetrical balance which provided at least two different ranges over which items could be weighed. Heavier loads would be weighed by suspending the balance from a hooked handle (*ansa*) attached to the first fulcrum, located closest to the load point at the end of the short arm, whereas to measure lighter loads the balance would be inverted and suspended from a handle attached to the second fulcrum, the crucial difference being the distance between the fulcrum and the load point; neither handle is present. The load would be suspended from the hooks that were attached to the load point by the wire links and, in the case of light objects, placed on the weighing pan. A counterweight (*aequipondium*), also not present here, would be moved along the scale arm 'until the instrument was in equilibrium when the weight of the load could be read' from the position of the weight along the scale (Manning 1985, 106). It is possible that containers, such as the buckets represented by the two handles found with the steelyard, were used to hold bulk items for weighing.

Without the counterweight it is not possible to ascertain the heaviest loads that could be weighed using the two fulcrums. However, the extent of each range is indicated by the ratio of the distances from the load point to the fulcrum and the fulcrum to the end of the long arm (Manning 1985, 106). In this steelyard, the distance between the second fulcrum and load point (measured from the centre of each eye) is 56 mm, and the distance between the second fulcrum and end of the long arm is 229 mm, giving a ratio of 1:4.1; for the first fulcrum these distances are 28 mm and 258 mm, giving a ratio of 1:9.2. Therefore, when weighing lighter items, a counterweight of one unit would allow up to four units to be weighed, and by inverting the balance loads of up to nine units could be weighed.

Like the High Post steelyard, a well preserved example from Walbrook, London, also has markings (three groups of three parallel lines) on the short arm between the second fulcrum and the load point. The function of such a third possible scale is not clear, but it may have allowed an even wider weight range to be measured. If the second fulcrum was used, and the load was suspended not from the load point at the end of the beam but from the marks along this scale (the closest on the High Post example being 10 mm from the second fulcrum), this would give a ratio of up to *c.* 1:23.

Nails

The nails are all flat-headed (Manning 1985, 1B) with square-sectioned shafts. The smallest examples are 34 mm long (three nails), and the largest 77 mm long. Most of the shanks are straight, but one is bent at nearly 90° (ON 301) and two at 45° (ON 297, 300), and three of the shank fragments are also slightly bent.

Cleat

The cleat, from layer 2045, is 24.60 mm long and 9.40 mm wide and would have come from the sole or the heel of a boot. One tang is 13.40 mm high, but the other is broken.

Double-spiked loop

A double-spiked loop was recovered from context 2044 (ON 304). It measured 100 mm in length, 24 mm wide, and was 7 mm thick.

Discussion

The metalwork assemblage is relatively small, particularly the copper alloy component which comprises a single object and three unidentifiable fragments, and is not suggestive of a settlement of any size during the Romano-British period. Much of the assemblage was recovered from spread 2523 which covered features in the north-west of the site and may represent the spread of a midden.

What is particularly interesting about the assemblage is the group of objects placed on the base of pit 2042 within the oval structure. The complete handsaw was placed against the pit's western side, and the steelyard and two bucket handles in the north-eastern part. Only the tip of the handsaw's blade was broken but the condition of its handle at the time of deposition is not known. Of the steelyard, the balancing beam, the weighing pan, a weight, and a double hook were recovered, but its handle hooks, the counterweight, and the suspension chains of the weighing pan are missing, The steelyard is of a type that dates to the 1st–2nd century and, therefore, it may have been curated for a significant period of time before being deposited. The handles are all that remains of two buckets, which were probably made from wooden staves bound by iron bands and possibly with iron handle mounts. The staves would not have survived in the pit but the absence of the iron bands and handle mounts suggests that only the detached handles had been deposited.

All three groups of objects appear to have been incomplete or damaged in some way, although this need not have negated any benefit if the objects were placed as some form of offering. Ceramic vessels placed in graves, for example, are often damaged, sometimes deliberately, or are 'seconds' and, although this pit does not have any funerary association, the principle of using damaged or incomplete objects may be relevant to a range of different practices. There is no way of knowing why these objects were placed in this pit, although their deposition was clearly deliberate and significant.

With the exception of the group of objects from the corn drying oven, dominated by iron nails that were presumably related to its construction, the majority of the rest of metalwork assemblage appears to be more of a background spread of objects than *in situ* deposits.

Slag

by Samantha Rubinson

Approximately 9.7 kg of iron slag were recovered from Early–Middle Iron Age pits, from some Romano-British contexts within the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch, and from a pit within Romano-British oval structure 2488. It consists of a mix of iron smelting and iron-working slags.

The assemblage was subjected to visual classification only; four categories of material were identified comprising smelting slag, smithing (iron-working) slag (including hearth bottoms and pieces of combined hearth lining, cinder, and slag), hearth lining, and non-diagnostic pieces (Table 4). The smelting slags were identified by their characteristic

Table 4 Slag by type

	Iron Age contexts		*Romano-British contexts*	
Type	*No. pieces*	*Weight (g)*	*No. pieces*	*Weight (g)*
Smelting slag	40	1411	7	300
Smithing slag	23	422	2	347
Hearth bottoms	5	2978	2	487
Hearth lining	40	340	4	243
Non-diagnostic	52	3168	1	7
Total	160	8319	16	1384

'ropey' structure indicative of tapped slag from a bloomery furnace. The smithing slag includes hearth bottoms and randomly shaped fayalitic slag formed in the smithing hearth. Hearth lining is a non-diagnostic form that consists of the vitrified clay lining of a furnace, hearth, or kiln. Other non-diagnostic pieces include any that could not be assigned to a specific industrial process and may not necessarily derive from iron smelting or smithing.

The slag from Iron Age contexts includes both smelting and smithing residues. This slag was recovered from 21 pits scattered across the site in quantities averaging *c.* 250 g per feature. Its distribution within the dump layers and backfill of pits is more likely to be the result of waste disposal than selective deposition.

Evidence for smelting was evenly distributed across the site with no more than 360 g present in any of the 13 Iron Age pits that contained smelting slag. The relatively small amounts of smelting debris and the absence of structural evidence for furnaces indicate that although no active smelting was occurring within the excavated area it may have been conducted in a different part of the settlement or in the surrounding area.

Similarly, no structural evidence for iron-working (such as hearths or areas of heavily burned earth) was encountered and no hammerscale was recorded in association with the smithing slags. However, evidence for iron-working in the form of the waste products from Iron Age contexts included eight hearth bottoms and two combined smithing hearth lining, cinder, and slag pieces. Such evidence of smithing and smelting without the presence of hearths and furnaces is not an unusual occurrence on Iron Age sites from this region, where several sites, including Battlesbury hillfort (Mepham and Andrews 2008), the Salisbury Plain sites (Andrews and Sim 2006), Danebury (Salter 1984) and, locally, Boscombe Down West (Richardson 1951, 165) have produced small quantities of slag without other manufacturing evidence.

The smaller quantities of slag from Romano-British contexts were mostly from the secondary and tertiary fills within the Iron Age enclosure ditch (1838). This material comprised 834 g of smithing slag, including two hearth bottoms and a piece of combined hearth lining, cinder, and slag. Five small pieces of smelting slag (201 g) and a piece of hearth lining also came from the ditch. Hearth lining was also present in the debris that filled the late Romano-British corn drying oven (2600) and two small pieces (99 g) of smelting slag were recovered from the upper fill of pit 1929 (within oval structure 1844). This material is likely to be contemporary with its context rather than residual Iron Age.

Table 5 Worked flint

Type		*No.*	*%*
Debitage			
Flakes (incl. broken)		183	92.5
Rejuvenation tablets		1	0.5
Irregular debitage		1	0.5
Cores		1	0.5
Core fragments		4	2.0
	Sub-total	*190*	*96.0*
Retouched			
Scrapers		2	1.0
Other		1	0.5
Miscellaneous retouch		5	2.5
	Sub-total	*8*	*4.0*
Total		198	100

Worked Flint

by Matt Leivers

A small flint assemblage, comprising 198 pieces, was recovered (Table 5). Almost all the pieces are of mottled dark grey flint, mostly with a cream/white patina. The only notable exceptions are a very small number of pieces of very dark grey/black flint without obvious inclusions. Most of the material is likely to have been sourced locally, either from the chalk or drift deposits.

The condition of the material varies. While some is relatively fresh, more has at least some degree of rolling, staining, and edge damage. Most is likely to be redeposited, and little need be contemporary with the features and layers from which it was recovered.

The prevalence of flake debitage makes dating the material difficult. Where it is possible to determine, hammer mode appears to have been direct and hard. Platforms are normally broad. The degree of preparation and maintenance varies but, on the whole, no special care seems to have been taken.

There are some chronological indicators, mostly suggesting dates in the later Neolithic and later Bronze Age or earlier Iron Age. Neolithic pieces are scarce: some of the flake debitage would not be out of place in later Neolithic assemblages. The only truly diagnostic piece is a discoidal core from late Romano-British pit 1929 within oval structure 2488. Its condition, and the damage to its edges which has removed portions of the patina, suggest that it may have been reused during the Romano-British period. Other patinated core fragments and flakes also show evidence of similar reuse, and most of the other retouched tools are heavy pieces with wear indicating that they were used to chop or crush. All of these are typical of later prehistoric assemblages, which are generally expedient, unskilled, and relatively casually worked.

Shale

by Grace Perpetua Jones

A partial spindle-whorl (ON 209) was recovered from late Romano-British pit 1929 within oval structure 2488. The diameter would have been 40 mm, but only 35% of the object remains. An incised line is visible 5.7 mm from the edge of the central perforation. It is similar in form to examples from Portchester Castle, Hampshire (Webster 1975b, fig. 121.130–2).

Worked Stone

by Kayt Marter Brown and R.H. Seager Smith

Two hundred and forty-six pieces of stone, weighing 126 kg, were retained. Approximately 60% of these (25% by weight; 145 fragments, *c.* 31 kg) were found to be unworked and probably originated as building stones or roof/floor tiles. These pieces are not considered further here although it is worth noting the absence of worked freestone blocks which emphasises the utilitarian nature of activity on the site. The remaining pieces derive from worked stone objects – quern- and rubstones, whetstones, perforated weights, and discs. No detailed petrological identifications have been undertaken; rather each stone has been assigned a broad rock type using, where appropriate, a x20 binocular microscope and the application of dilute hydrochloric acid to determine the presence of carbonate.

Relatively few rock types were identified. Glauconitic sandstones from the Upper Greensand are by far the most common, used for querns, rubstones and as building material during the Iron Age and Romano-British period. The nearest outcrops occur in the Nadder Valley, 12 km to the south-west, and the Vale of Pewsey, 20–25 km to the north, forming part of the broad arch across the north and west of the county that extends eastward into Sussex. Quern production has been suggested in the Vale of Pewsey (Smith 1977, 108) but the only known production site is at Lodsworth, West Sussex (Peacock 1987). A small number of querns and rubstones made from coarse, gritty sandstone perhaps came from the Bristol/Mendips area or the Forest of Dean, while shelly limestones from the Upper Purbeck Beds in the Vale of Wardour were especially prevalent among the building materials. Sarsen derives from the Vale of Pewsey/Marlborough Downs area (Bowen and Smith 1977, fig. 1) while locally-available materials from the Upper Chalk included flint and chalk.

Querns

Seventy-three pieces were confidently identified as quern fragments (*c.* 85 kg), comprising a minimum of 13 saddle querns, 10 rotary querns, and 3 late Romano-British flat quernstones. Five other pieces (*c.* 3 kg) may also derive from querns but are too small to be assigned to type.

Saddle querns

The saddle querns are all of the relatively small, oval or sub-rectangular type with smoothed, flattish working surfaces and more roughly-finished, often domed undersides. Eleven are of Greensand, including a complete oval stone (170 x 135 x 40 mm) from Middle Iron Age pit 1059, but the others (from Iron Age pits Ev 303, 1061, 1479, 1948, 2247 and residually in the demolition deposits within Late Romano-British corn drying oven 2600), are all much more fragmentary. The complete quern from pit 1059 formed part of a placed deposit which also included an unworked, fist-sized spherical flint nodule and pottery (Pl. 7). Similarly, five joining pieces from a roughly rectangular coarse, micaceous sandstone quern had apparently been deliberately placed on top of a pig deposited in the recut of Early Iron Age pit 1236; part of a sarsen saddle quern and a broken bar-shaped whetstone (see below) were also found in this deposit. This juxtaposition of querns and an animal skeleton may also indicate a special deposit or ritualised activity; at Danebury, for example, large stones have been found inside the chest cavity of animals buried in pits, while in other instances, animal and human burials appear to have been pelted with stone rubble, perhaps in some form of ritual stoning (Poole 1995, 262).

Rotary querns

A complete upper stone was recovered from Middle Iron Age pit 1706 (Fig. 24, 1) and may be regarded as another special, deliberate deposit (Pl. 10). This stone, of Greensand, is well-finished with a concave lower grinding surface, curved sides, and a concave upper surface forming a shallow, funnel-shaped hopper surrounding the central, roughly circular cavity. It has a deep, well-defined, rectangular lateral handle slot in the upper surface which stops short of the central cavity. Typologically, it is broadly similar to Curwen's (1937, 142) Wessex type and although not directly comparable in the range of types first recognised at Danebury (Brown 1984, 415–8, fig.7.53–7.56), it shares elements of types R1, R2, and R4. Subsequent analysis of a greater number of querns from Danebury has shown that characteristics initially attributed to different forms can also appear together on a single stone (Laws *et al.* 1991, 390), and this stone is clearly part of the same 'family' of querns as the illustrated Iron Age examples from Boscombe Down West, also found complete in pits (Richardson 1951, 159, fig. 19, 3 and 4).

Two Greensand rotary quern fragments were found in the tertiary fills (contexts 1780 and 2619) of

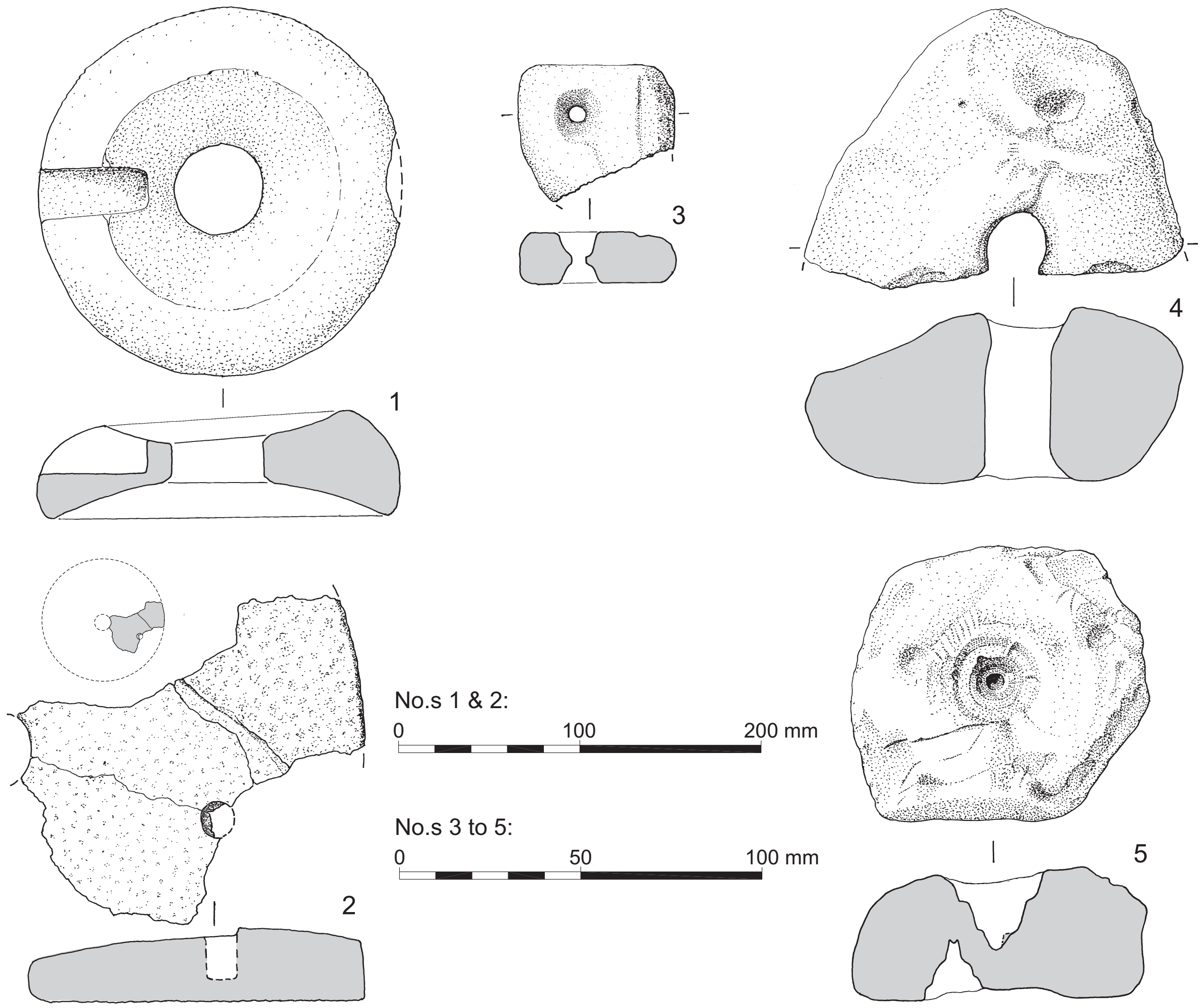

Figure 24 Worked stone. 1. ON 200, upper stone, Greensand rotary quern, context 1708, pit 1706, Middle Iron Age; 2. ON 511, ON 516, ON 517, joining fragments of rotary quern upper stone, contexts 2458 (ON 511) and 2604, corn drying oven 2600, late Romano-British; 3. ON 69, whetstone, off-centre perforation and smoothed edges; context 1300, pit 1236, Early Iron Age; 4. ON 602, perforated chalk weight, context 1287, pit 1286, Early/Middle Iron Age; 5. ON 203, chalk disc, context 1804, pit 1796, Middle Iron Age

the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch and, like the associated pottery, are probably of late Romano-British date. Pieces from six Greensand querns and one of coarse, gritty sandstone were also found in the backfill and demolition deposits of late Romano-British corn drying oven 2600. All but one of these Greensand stones have the swirls and stringers of dark cherty material characteristic of the Lodsworth quarry (Peacock 1987, 62). All appear to be of relatively consistent type, with the flat grinding surface characteristic of the Romano-British period and evidence for a circular central cavity, a vertical handle slot in the upper surface (Fig. 24.2) and, in some instances, a grooved grinding surface and vertically tooled sides. Two of the stones also have a raised ridge on their upper surface extending from the central cavity out towards the edge of the stone, perhaps providing a shallow, funnel-shaped hopper. Vertical handle slots are somewhat unusual, with only one example from the larger collection at Silchester, Hampshire (Shaffrey 2003, 159) and none at Wanborough, Wiltshire (Buckley 2001, 156).

Disc-type querns

The fills of the corn drying oven also contained 24 fragments belonging to Curwen's (1937, 146) late or post-Romano-British disc-type querns; relatively large, thin discs with parallel surfaces and of more or less uniform thickness. Eighteen pieces probably derive from a single Greensand stone, at least 800 mm in diameter and 36–40 mm thick. Diameter measurements were unobtainable for the remaining fragments although they all fall within the same thickness range (34–40 mm) and may comprise pieces from at least one other stone. Part of a coarse, gritty sandstone disc-quern also of a similar size (800 mm diameter and 34 mm thick) was found in late Romano-British spread 2523. No evidence for the central cavity, handle hole, or rynd slot was preserved on any of these stones and it is unclear whether they were hand- or mechanically-operated; while Shaffrey (2003, 163) notes that stones over 600 mm in diameter are usually millstones, these pieces are much thinner than her defining thickness of at least 100 mm.

Whetstones

The six incomplete whetstones are all made in fine-grained, flaggy sandstones. Four, from Iron Age pits 1236 (2 examples), 1948, and 2478, are bar-shaped with sub-rectangular cross-sections. Both of those from Early Iron Age pit 1236 (context 1300) have longitudinal grooves on one flat face, probably used for creating or sharpening points, while one (Fig. 24.3) also has a counter sunk perforation; the narrow edge above the perforation of this stone has also been utilised and is worn flat and smooth.

The two other whetstones are probably of Romano-British date. One is from late Romano-British spread 2523, while part of a rod-shaped stone with a tapering, oval cross-section, typologically more characteristic of this period, was found in association with significant quantities of late Romano-British pottery in the tertiary fill (context 2619) of the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch.

Other Stone Objects

The apex from a triangular chalk weight (Fig. 24.4) was found in early Middle Iron Age pit 1286 and is similar to numerous examples from Danebury (Brown 1984, 419, figs 7.59–60; Laws *et al.* 1991, 397, figs 7.62–3). A rather battered, roughly pentagonal chalk block (Fig. 24.5) from Middle Iron Age pit 1796 has had countersunk hollows drilled into each of its flat faces but they are off-set from each other and the object appears to have been abandoned during manufacture. Although their function is unclear, similar perforated chalk discs, including some polygonal examples, that are too large and rough to be interpreted as spindle-whorls, are known from Danebury (Laws *et al.* 1991, 404, fig. 7.64, 8.161–2, 8.164, fig. 7.66, 8.178) and may have functioned as drill weights or small flywheels (Brown 1984, 422). More locally, chalk weights and spindle-whorls, including some ‘very crude’ examples, are known from Boscombe Down West (Richardson 1951, 164).

Seven other stone fragments were classified as rubstones. Although of uncertain, and probably diverse, function, all are from fairly thin (less than 36 mm) stones with at least one flattish, sometimes slightly dished, smoothed surface. Four are of Greensand, one of Pennant-type micaceous sandstone, and two of unassigned fine-grained sandstones. They were found in Middle Iron Age pits 1061, 1497, and 1953 as well as in a late Romano-British context (1775, slot 1625) in the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch, and in spread 2523.

Glass

by Grace Perpetua Jones and R.H. Seager Smith

A small assemblage of Roman glass was recovered. Four pieces came from late Romano-British layer 1406, comprising a clear metal vessel neck that had collapsed flat as a result of exposure to extreme heat; a dark green fragment, possibly from the attachment of a ribbed handle; a green metal fragment, possibly part of a vessel neck, also heat affected (ON 126); and a clear metal, melted fragment (ON 136).

Late Romano-British pit 2032 contained two pieces, one very thin-walled, pale blue/green with one heat-affected surface, and the other a melted fragment of clear glass. A fragment of clear glass (ON 614), probably from a fine drinking vessel, was also recovered from animal bone spread 1373 but is most probably Romano-British in date. A final clear, melted fragment came from Romano-British post-hole 2039.

The glass is mostly undiagnostic but probably originates from drinking vessels. The fragments from layer 1406 in particular were exposed to very high temperatures suggesting a fire; this is borne out in the pottery from this context which is heavily abraded and burnt.

Pottery

Iron Age Pottery

by Grace Perpetua Jones

The Iron Age pottery assemblage comprises 4013 sherds (47,493 g) of predominantly Early–Middle Iron Age date; two Late Iron Age vessels were also recovered, from the secondary fills of the enclosure ditch. A deposit of Early Iron Age pottery from the lower fills of the enclosure ditch consisted of abraded sherds although their average weight was 23 g. The remainder of the assemblage is in relatively good condition, with an average sherd weight of 11.8 g, within which a number of complete profiles could be reconstructed. The assemblage has many parallels, in terms of fabric, form, decoration, and surface treatment, from other sites on Salisbury Plain and the wider Wessex region.

The pottery from each context was quantified (by number of sherds and weight), assigned to a broad fabric group or specific fabric type, and classified by form. The diameters of all rim sherds, and the percentage present, were recorded. Variables such as decoration, surface treatment, and evidence of use were also noted. Due to the similarity of the sandy wares in the hand specimen, small groups without diagnostic rims sherds were recorded by broad fabric group only, such as 'Q99: sandy ware'; these accounted for 23% of the assemblage by count and 19% by weight.

Fabrics

Forty-three distinct fabric types were recorded (Appendix 1), which have been grouped into eight categories according to their dominant inclusions (Table 6). The range of types present finds wide parallels on Salisbury Plain and the wider Wessex region.

The Iron Age fabrics are dominated by a range of sandy wares. They include a very clean fabric with no visible inclusions at x20 magnification (Q14); fabrics characterised by very fine or fine inclusions of quartz (Q9, Q12, Q13, Q21); poorly sorted fabrics containing a range of fine to coarse-grained quartz (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q10, Q16); moderately sorted fabrics with medium to coarse-grained quartz (Q11); well sorted fine to medium quartz (Q19); and medium to coarse-grained quartz (Q23, fully oxidised fabric). Several fabrics contained well or very well sorted coarse-grained quartz (Q7, Q15, Q18). Fabrics Q8 and Q22 contained poorly sorted, coarse to very coarse grains, and fine to very coarse quartz respectively.

A number of the sandy wares also contained small and incidental quantities of other inclusions, such as shell, flint, argillaceous material, and iron. Of note is a hard fabric containing 20% quartzite fragments and fine to coarse-grained quartz sand (Q25); however, only four body sherds (39 g) in this ware were recorded. Seven sandy fabrics were characterised by a significant glauconitic component (Q17, Q20, Q24, Q26, Q27, Q28, Q29). While Q28 and Q29 were essentially the same fabric, Q29 had the addition of up to 15% of crushed shell. All sandy sherds recorded at the basic level were classified as Q99 and were included as part of the 'Quartz' group (Table 6, Appendix 1). The glauconitic sandy wares included a range of form types, including three barrel-shaped jars (Q17, R44; Q28, R27 x 2); two shouldered jars (Q17, R20; Q24, R5); two saucepan pots (Q17, R22; Q20, R22); a proto-saucepan pot (Q17, R11) and a cup (Q27, R32).

It is very difficult to identify the source of the sandy clays used for pottery production, even with recourse to petrological examination. Unless accompanied by more diagnostic traits it is often not possible to ascertain if the vessels were locally produced or represent the regional movement of ceramics, although it is usually assumed that such vessels were made from locally available resources. As this site is on the Upper Chalk, close to deposits of clay-with-flints, suitable sandy clays for potting would have been locally available. The glauconitic clays were also probably obtained from the Upper Greensand *c.* 11 km to the south-west, and the Gault at *c.* 12 km, both in the Nadder Valley (Geological Survey of Great Britain, Sheet 298 Salisbury, 1976). Arnold's (1985) model of resource procurement, created using ethnographic data, suggests the maximum distance travelled for potting clay is 7 km (and 10 km for temper). If this model is applied to the present assemblage the glauconitic vessels are at the interface of the distances for local/non-local production. However, given that suitable clay sources were available closer to the site, the presence of vessels made from glauconitic clays is more likely to represent regional exchange systems. The presence of shell in one of the glauconitic fabrics is of interest, as Raymond (2006, 111) notes that such wares 'are confined to sites on the eastern side of the Bourne ridge'. One fabric (R1) was characterised by a common amount of sandstone fragments, probably Greensand. Although only represented by a small number of sherds these included the rim from a barrel-shaped jar.

Table 6 Iron Age pottery, by dominant inclusion

Dominant inclusion	*No.*	*% no.*	*Weight (g)*	*% weight*
Oolitic limestone or shell	251	6	2233	5
Flint	147	4	1704	4
Grog	3	<1	19	<1
Iron	7	<1	32	<1
Organic	157	4	2641	6
Rock	8	<1	124	<1
Quartz and glauconite	316	8	3315	7
Quartz	3124	78	37425	79
Total	4013		47493	

The calcareous fabrics include 12 sherds (153 g) containing a common amount of oolites in a slightly sandy clay matrix (C1); seven sherds (11 g) with calcareous inclusions that could not be closely identified, and 232 sherds (2069 g) of shelly wares. Three distinct shell-gritted fabrics are present, one with a moderate amount of poorly sorted shell, up to 4 mm in size (S1, used for at least one barrel-shaped jar); one with abundant fine fossil shell, up to 3 mm (S2, two barrel-shaped jars); and one with a common amount of shell and sparse amount of limestone (S3). The oolitic fabric includes a saucepan pot (R22). Morris (2000a, 144) has suggested that oolitic fabrics in the Potterne, Wiltshire, assemblage may have originated from the Bradford-on-Avon/Budbury area, although they could have come from any point along the Jurassic Ridge (Raymond 2006, 111). The shelly wares would also have come from a Jurassic source, possibly the Kimmeridge Clay, a large swath of which is present between Tisbury and Gillingham, Dorset.

The organic fabrics (V1–4) contained moderate to common amounts of voids from linear organic inclusions (10–25%) in silty or very fine sandy clay matrices. V4 additionally contained 7% rounded clay pellets and very fine rounded dark grains, probably glauconite. The organic material may have been added deliberately to act as an 'opener' in the clay, or may have been naturally present from roots in shallow-dug clay (Phil Jones pers. comm.). Identifiable forms include a saucepan pot and barrel-shaped jar.

Three fabrics are dominated by inclusions of flint (20–25%) in fine or silty clay matrices (F1, F2, F4). A fourth fabric contained only sparse quantities of flint (F3). In all cases the flint was poorly sorted, measuring up to 3 mm in F2, 2 mm in F1 and 1.5 mm in F4. F4 was used for a proto-saucepan pot (R11) and two saucepan pots, and F3 for a straight-sided vessel/probable saucepan pot (R38) and three possible bowls (R16). Flint, like quartz, is difficult to source, and given the geology of the site these wares may well represent local products. However, finer fabric such as F4, containing 20–25% of very fine flint inclusions in a silty matrix, with burnished surfaces, is similar to vessels from other sites in the region, such as Danebury (Brown 2000, fabric B1), and may represent a regional ware, although, with only 17 sherds present, no conclusions can be drawn.

Forms

Rims from 104 vessels were present, although 45 of these were represented by sherds that were too small or incomplete to ascertain their form. The assemblage is dominated by jars and neutral-profile vessels including saucepan pots.

Jars (26 vessels)

R1 Squared, flat-topped and upright rim on a barrel-shaped jar, burnished on the interior (Fig. 25.1).

R4 Rounded rim, slightly concave neck, probably from a slack-shouldered jar (not illustrated).

R5 Flat-topped rim, slightly expanded on the exterior, probably from a slack-shouldered or barrel-shaped jar (Fig. 25.2).

R6 Upright-rimmed jar, similar to the R1 but more rounded in body (Fig. 25.3).

R10 Barrel-shaped jar with short, everted and squared rim (Fig. 25.10).

R15 Flat-topped rim from barrel-shaped jar with irregularly-shaped neck (Fig. 25.5).

R20 Jar with upright neck and squared rim (Fig. 25.4).

R27 Barrel-shaped jar with flattened, rounded or pulled rim (Fig. 25.6–7).

R39 Long-necked jar with pulled rim (Fig. 23.9).

R44 Barrel-shaped jar with upright/slightly out-turned rim, almost creating a lid-seating (Fig. 25.8).

Bowls (8 vessels)

R7 Carinated bowl with slightly flared, flat-topped rim (Fig. 26.28).

R8 Necked bowl with rounded body (Fig. 26.29).

R9 Bowl with expanded, flattened rim, grooved on top (Fig. 26.15).

R14 Short-necked bowl with out-turned rim and angled shoulder (Fig. 26.13).

R19 Globular bowl with everted rim (Fig. 26.12).

R34 Expanded, flat-topped rim from bowl/dish with straight or slightly curved walls (Fig. 26.14).

Jar/bowl (2 vessels)

R40 Small, globular vessel with out-turned rim; exterior is highly burnished, interior burnished but to a lesser degree (Fig. 26.11).

R43 Bowl/jar with upright neck and flat-topped rim (not illustrated).

Neutral-profile vessels/saucepan pots (23 vessels)

R11 Rounded, incurving rim from neutral-profile vessel (Fig. 26.16); some examples have evidence of pinching on the interior of the rim.

R17 Saucepan pot (Fig. 26.17).

R22 Saucepan pot; some examples decorated with tooled lines (Fig. 26.18–21).

R32 Small, crude cup, straight-walled, flat-topped, undifferentiated rim (Fig. 26.23).

R35 Flat-topped rim fragment with internal lip, neutral-profile vessel, possible saucepan pot (not illustrated).

R36 Small, crude vessel with slightly incurving rim; pinch/thumb-pot (Fig. 26.24).

R37 Neutral-profile vessel with irregularly beaded rim (not illustrated).

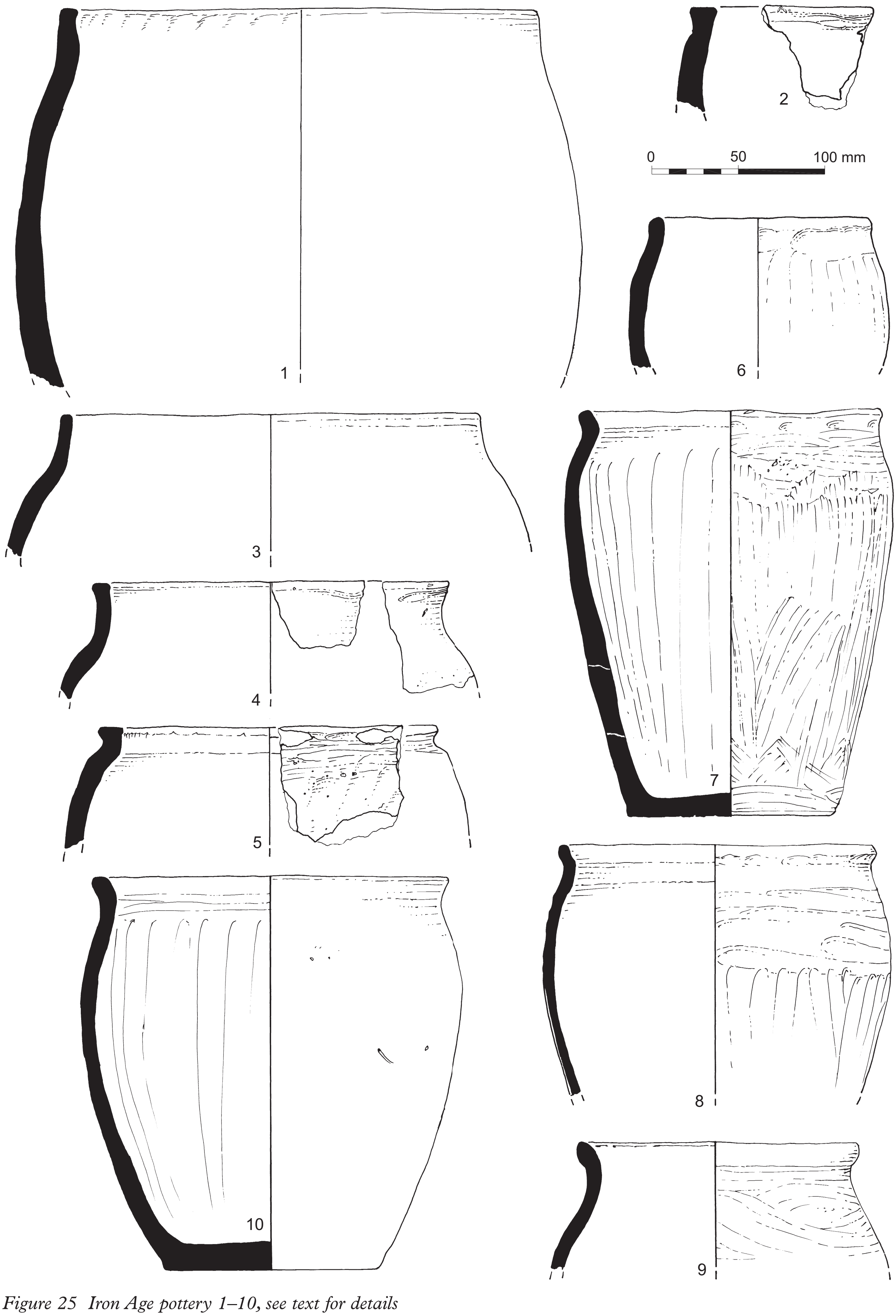

Figure 25 Iron Age pottery 1–10, see text for details

Figure 26 Iron Age pottery 11–29, see text for details

R38 Straight-sided, neutral- or open-profile vessel, flat-topped rim with slight pinching under the rim exterior (Fig. 26.22).

Rim sherds too small to ascertain form (45 vessels, not illustrated)

R2 Undifferentiated, rounded rim, profile unknown.

R3 Undifferentiated rim with flattened top, profile unknown.

R12 Rounded rim, long, concave neck, unknown vessel profile but possibly a bowl (Danebury form BB1).

R13 Plain, pointed rim, broken at the neck, unknown profile or form.

R16 Everted rim from fineware vessel, possible bowl.

R18 Rounded rim, slightly concave neck, unknown profile; lines of burnish on exterior.

R21 Flattened rim top, vessel profile unknown, probably a jar.

R23 Plain, undifferentiated, rounded rim, orientation uncertain, probably from a bowl (Danebury form BB1).

R24 Flat-topped rim fragment with slight external lip, probably from a neutral-profile vessel, possible saucepan pot.

R25 Flattened rim top, vessel profile unknown, probably a jar.

R26 Flat-topped, undifferentiated rim from neutral-profile vessel, probable PA2.1 saucepan pot.

R28 Slightly out-turned and rounded rim, orientation uncertain and vessel profile unknown.

R29 Small rim fragment with upright or slightly out-turned rim, and cordon, possible from a furrowed bowl (Danebury form BE1).

R30 Flaring rim of medium-length, squared on exterior but rounded on interior, very slight shoulder suggests tripartite profile; orientation uncertain as only 1–2% present, but may have been a bowl (Danebury BA2.3).

R31 Flat-topped rim, orientation uncertain, slightly expanded on both sides.

R33 Flat-topped rim fragment, profile unknown.

R41 Rounded, upright rim, almost beaded, defined neck, unknown vessel profile.

R42 Flat-topped rim, expanded externally and internally, similar to Danebury form JA2 form.

These forms find parallels amongst those published from other sites in the region, including other sites on Salisbury Plain (Raymond 2006): Danebury, Hampshire (Cunliffe 1984; 2000); Lains Farm, near Andover (Morris 1991); Battlesbury, Warminster (Every and Mepham 2008) and Little Somborne, Hampshire (Nation 1980). They are summarised by broad type and fabric group in Table 7.

Jars are the most commonly occurring form, with 26 recorded. They are dominated by vessels with barrel-shaped profiles, a characteristic Middle Iron Age form with a long currency, with types JB4 and JC1 at Danebury dated 5th–1st centuries BC. The earliest identified form is the R1 shouldered jar recovered from one of the lowest fills of the enclosure ditch. It is of Early Iron Age date, probably from the later part of the period, and had been made from a ubiquitous sandy fabric (Q1) presumably from clays local to the site.

Neutral-profile vessels, including saucepan pots, are also well represented, with 23 vessels identified. The earliest form is the proto-saucepan pot (R11, five examples, PA1.1, 470–360 BC). The more developed saucepan pots include Danebury forms PA2.1 (360–270 BC, R17, two vessels) and PB1.1 (310–50 BC, R22, 11 vessels). Two of the R22 saucepan pots are decorated, one with two horizontal tooled lines around the upper exterior (Fig. 26.20, only a small fragment recovered, other motifs may have once been present), the other with a horizontal line just under the rim and, below that, a tooled wavy line. Somewhere between the two forms is a straight-sided vessel with flat-topped rim (R38, Fig. 26.22). There are also two very small, crude vessels. The smaller, which is only 46 mm in diameter and 36 mm high, has relatively straight walls and a flat-topped, undifferentiated rim (R32, Fig. 26.23). The other is 60 mm in diameter and 40 mm high (R36, Fig. 26.24); its walls incurve more than the R32, but the form is otherwise similar. Parallels may be drawn from Danebury (PA3.1, 470–310 BC) although the High Post vessels are smaller.

Eight bowls were recorded, the earliest form is short-necked with out-turned rim and angled

Table 7 Iron Age pottery, by vessels by type and broad fabric group

Fabric group	*Jar*	*Jar/bowl*	*Bowl*	*Neutral- profile*	*Saucepan pot*	*Cup/thumb- pot*	*Total*
Calcareous	3	–	–	–	1	–	4
Flint-tempered	–	–	–	1	3	–	4
Organic	1	–	–	–	1	–	2
Rock	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Glauconitic	6	–	–	–	3	1	10
Sandy wares	15	2	8	2	10	1	38
Total	26	2	8	3	18	2	59

shoulder, dating from the 5th to the 4th centuries BC (R14: BA2). Middle Iron Age bowls comprise two related forms (R9: DA1.1, Fig. 26.15; and R34: DA1.2, R14), with straight or slightly curved sides and flattened, expanded rims; the R9 is grooved, and an S-profiled bowl (R19, Fig. 26.12). Two bowls appear to date to the first half of the 1st century AD: the R7 (Fig. 26.28) is carinated and the R8 (BD4.2, Fig. 26.29) is round-bodied, but both have everted or slightly flared rims. A post-firing perforation through the neck of the R7 suggests that this vessel was repaired at some point or possibly adapted to secure a lid.

Two vessels are of relatively equal height and width proportions and have been classified as bowl/jars (R40; R43). Forty-five vessels are represented only by fragments from the upper part of the pot so that their profiles and forms could not be reconstructed. They include two rim fragments that may have come from scratch-cordoned bowls (R12 and R23) and one that may represent a furrowed bowl (R29), both forms characteristic of the Early Iron Age.

Surface treatment

Surviving surface treatments, comprising burnishing, smoothing, wiping, red-finishing, and scoring, were recorded on 22% of the records (Table 8). Burnishing is the most common, usually on both surfaces, but also on the exterior only. Of interest are a number of red-finished sherds, including body fragments decorated with scratched zig-zag lines that probably come from a scratch-cordoned bowl (PRN 469, pit 2176; PRN 1404, Fig. 26.25). Red-finishing (or haematite-coating) was relatively common on Early Iron Age sites in the Wessex region, and was achieved by applying powdered iron oxide/ochre to leather-hard surfaces and burnishing, or applying as a slip/slurry and oxidising during firing (Middleton 1995, 203). One body sherd has a rough surface, perhaps finger-wiped, creating a furrowed effect (Fig. 26.26), similar to the surface of Early Iron Age furrowed bowls.

Five of the R27 barrel-shaped jars were burnished, smoothed or wiped on one or both surfaces. Long-necked jar R39 is burnished on the exterior and on the rim top. Of the bowls and jar/bowls, both tripartite R14 bowls are burnished on the exterior; one is also smoothed on the interior, while the other has some red-finish remaining on the inside of the rim. Bowl form R34 is burnished on both surfaces, as is S-profiled bowl R19 and the small, globular R40. The fine, everted rims thought to originate from bowls (R16) are also often burnished or red-finished.

The decorated R22 saucepan pot (Fig. 26.21) is burnished on both surfaces. Surface treatments were also recorded on plain examples of this form, including three vessels with burnish on the exterior and smoothing on the interior, one vessel with burnish on the exterior, and one that had been wiped on both surfaces. The surfaces of the R17 saucepan pots have also been carefully finished – one is burnished on the exterior, the other is smoothed on the exterior and wiped on the interior. Of the five proto-saucepan pots, one is smoothed on both surfaces, one burnished on both surfaces, and one burnished on the exterior. The R35 neutral-profile vessel has been smoothed on both surfaces.

Table 8 Iron Age pottery: surface treatment

Surface treatment	*No. records*
Burnished, both surfaces	40
Burnished, ext.	45
Burnished, int.	9
Red-finish, both surfaces	8
Red-finish, ext.	13
Scored, ext.	1
Smoothed, both surfaces	17
Smoothed, ext.	7
Smoothed, int.	8
Wiped, both surfaces	3
Wiped, ext.	11
Vertical wiping, ext.	3
Burnished ext., smoothed int.	14
Burnished ext. body & int. rim	1
Burnished ext. body & top rim	3
Smoothed ext., wiped int.	1
Wiped ext., smoothed int.	1
Red-finished ext., burnished int.	1
Red-finished ext., smoothed int.	2
Smoothed both sides, burnished top rim	1
Horizontal wiping int., vertical wiping ext.	5
Wiped ext. & under base	1

Decoration

Although decoration is evident on a number of vessels, it is not widespread in the assemblage. Two saucepan pots are decorated, one with horizontal tooled lines, the other with horizontal and wavy tooled lines (Fig. 26. 20–1). The other decorated vessels are represented by body sherds and were not related to rim forms. They include lines of impressed dots, bordered by curved and straight tooled lines (Fig. 26.27), paralleled at Warren Hill, Salisbury Plain (Raymond 2006, fig. 5.2, P68); three examples of a scratched zig-zag motif (Fig. 26.25), one in association with a horizontal cordon presumably from a scratch-cordoned bowl; and eight instances of corrugated/furrowed exterior, perhaps suggesting furrowed bowls. Other examples of decoration include horizontal and diagonal tooled lines; a horizontal cordon with incised vertical and horizontal lines; burnished arcs (two examples); horizontal cordons (two examples); two parallel curved tooled lines; short, tooled slashes; and fingernail impressions on the exterior of a vessel.

Evidence of use

Evidence that vessels had been used for cooking consisted of burnt residues and soot deposits. There are 22 examples of sooting on the exterior; eight of sooting on the exterior and burnt residue on the interior; and nine of burnt residue on the interior only.

Distribution

Of the 372 contexts that produced Iron Age pottery, 33 contained more than 25 sherds and may be considered reliable for dating (PCRG 1997, 21). These came predominantly from pits, with one group from the enclosure ditch (1838) and one from round-house 2271.

Enclosure ditch 1838

A large group of Iron Age pottery (243 sherds, 5479 g) was recovered from one of the lowest fills (1628, in slot 1625) of the enclosure ditch (Fig. 5). All are sandy sherds, with the exception of a tiny shell-tempered fragment, and many are from a single jar with an upright, flat-topped/squared rim (Fig. 25.1). The jar was relatively thick-walled. Firing shadows are visible on the exterior and it had been burnished on the exterior, with patches of burnish also noted across the interior of its profile. Some sherds are unoxidised in section while others are more grey and it is possible that this vessel was refired/burnt at some point.

A second vessel from this layer is represented by a plain, undifferentiated rim (R2, PRN 4) and body sherds in a coarser sandy fabric, all of which have traces of external burnish or wiping. Several other sherds in this fabric have a more rounded wall and may be from a further vessel (PRN 6 and 7). Two other rim fragments were recovered, but neither is diagnostic and little remains of their profiles. One is undifferentiated with a flattened top (PRN 8, R3), while the other is more rounded and appears to have a very slightly concave neck (PRN 9, R4). Slightly higher up the fill sequence in this ditch slot, context 1766 produced a further eight sandy Iron Age body sherds.

Round-houses

Eleven slots through the gullies of three round-houses produced Iron Age pottery although most contained only one or two sandy body sherds that could not be closely dated. A larger group came from round-house 2271, with 27 sherds (189 g) recorded from the terminal on the south side of the south-east-facing entrance (1876) including the rim from a neutral-profile vessel (R35) which probably dates to the Middle Iron Age. A shell-tempered barrel-shaped jar was present in the fill of the opposite terminal (1811), suggesting a date in the earlier part of the Middle Iron Age. A body sherd with tooled line decoration was also recorded from this round-house.

Two glauconitic sandy sherds from round-house 2524, and a single sandy sherd from round-house 2522, may also be of Middle Iron Age date.

Pits

Pits 2330 and 2338

The largest groups of pottery from the pits within the enclosure came from the deep intercutting pits 2330 (305 sherds, 4155 g) and 2338 (204 sherds, 1974 g). The assemblage from 2330 includes complete profiles of two saucepan pots, one in a flint-tempered fabric (Fig. 26.18) and one in a sandy/organic-tempered fabric (Fig. 26.19). Both have been burnished on the exterior and smoothed on the interior. A small, well burnished globular vessel was also present (Fig. 26.11), some of whose body sherds appear to have been deliberately reduced.

Well finished saucepan pots in flint-tempered fabrics are fairly characteristic of the St Catherine's Hill/Worthy Down style of pottery and suggest a date in the early 3rd century BC or later (Cunliffe 2000, 17). The pottery from pit 2338 is almost identical to that from 2330. Other rims include another saucepan pot (PRN 1290, R22) and a barrel-shaped jar (PRN 1293, R27) which, unusually, is burnished on the interior and the top of the rim, with patches remaining on the exterior.

Pits 1578

This pit, in the interior of round-house 2271, contained 150 sherds (852 g) of Middle Iron Age pottery. The assemblage includes part of a saucepan pot (Fig. 26.21), decorated with a groove around the upper exterior, creating a slight bead, and tooled curved lines around the upper exterior, similar to examples from Danebury (Brown 2000, fig. 3.37, DA339, SF243, SF26), although the curves on the High Post vessel are shorter. The vessel is very well finished, burnished on both surfaces. Decorated body sherds, presumably from a different vessel, were also present.

One sandy body sherd has a small post-firing perforation (PRN 736), and a shaped base had also been perforated. This latter fragment, 86–90 mm diameter and 6–8 mm thick (ON 157), has been shaped into a roughly circular disc and has one post-firing perforation of 4.5 mm and part of a second at the edge of the sherd. It may represent a vessel that broke during an attempt to perforate its base, the centre of which was then shaped for some other use, perhaps as a lid.

Pit 1479

This pit contained a large assemblage (144 sherds, 3240 g) of Middle Iron Age pottery, including much of a barrel-shaped jar (Fig. 25.07) distributed across four fills. The vessel had been heavily wiped on the exterior with something organic, mostly with vertical strokes but horizontally around the neck. Less horizontal wiping was evident on the interior. Traces of soot are present on the upper exterior; the exterior had been oxidised but the interior was unoxidised. The base of the vessel is plain.

Bases from four other vessels were also present in the pit, one of which had been well burnished on the exterior.

Pit 1059

Parts of three vessels (a jar, ON 18/19; a bowl, ON 7 and a proto-saucepan pot, ON 27), had been placed on the base of the pit. The 27 sherds (1630 g) from the jar (ON 18/19, Fig. 25.10) were spread across the base, some of them adjacent to bowl ON 7. All the sherds (except one tiny one) join, and a complete profile was reconstructed showing that it was barrel-shaped, with a short, everted and flat-topped rim. The form is plain and current through much of the later Early Iron Age and Middle Iron Age. Charred residue from this vessel produced a radiocarbon date of 390–300 BC (1645±25 BP, SUERC-32312) (Table 1). There are vertical finger channels on the interior, while the exterior is smooth with small surviving patches of burnish. Burnt residue was present in the interior around the shoulder, and a very small amount in the base. Sooting was visible around the exterior on the shoulder and neck, with a small trace on the lower exterior wall. A further five sherds (167 g) of pottery in the same fabric were grouped with ON 7 but are probably from this vessel, although they could not be joined to it.

The bowl (ON 7, Fig. 26.15) has an expanded, flat topped rim with two grooves on the rim top. Ten sherds join to form a nearly complete profile, while three base sherds from another section of the bowl allow the complete profile to be estimated. The base appears flat, and the lower wall/base join is slightly concave. The interior and exterior are smooth, the exterior having traces of burnish. A similar rim sherd, in the same fabric, was present in pit 1706 (PRN 419). The form has parallels at Danebury during cp 5–7 (DA1.2, 350–50 BC).

A large rim sherd from a proto-saucepan pot was also recovered (ON 27, Fig. 26.16), whose equivalent form at Danebury (PA1.1) suggests a date of 470–350 BC. Its surfaces had been left rough, although it is now covered in post-depositional concretions. There is some evidence of pinching around the exterior of the rim, presumably traces of the manufacturing that were not smoothed over.

Using the ceramic sequence proposed for Danebury, a date in the middle of the 4th century BC may be suggested for this feature. The upper fill contained 32 small sandy sherds and a single Romano-British greyware sherd.

Pit 1796

This pit contained a nearly complete profile of an S-profile bowl, of a type dating from the Middle–Late Iron Age but, in this example, probably of Middle Iron Age date (Fig. 26.12). It is in a very fine fabric and is burnished on the exterior and interior. Two upright-necked shouldered jars with squared rims, both of 5th–4th century date, were also present. One rim is 180 mm in diameter (PRN 441) but the other only 100 mm diameter with a wall thickness of 7 mm. Nearly all the other pottery from this pit consists of sandy body sherds, including a large, heavily burnished sherd (PRN 445).

Pit 1301

This pit contained a small and almost complete saucepan pot (Fig. 26.17). Its exterior has been smoothed and the interior wiped. The upper exterior is sooted, and some burnt residue remains in the central interior. The rim is flat and undifferentiated. The sherds were recovered from two fills, 1337 and 1338.

Pit 1349

Pottery was recovered from six fills within this pit. Four contained fineware red-finished sherds from at least two long-necked, fineware bowls, both in different fabrics. The rim from a possible proto-saucepan pot was also present, which suggests a date in the first half of the 5th century. Other rim fragments include two coarseware jars.

Pit 1280

Pottery in both sandy and shelly fabrics was recorded from fills 1282 and 1283, mostly from the former. The sandy fabrics are predominantly glauconitic, although some also contain shell. The vessels include a ‘thumb pot’ – a crude, tiny vessel, probably a cup (Fig. 26.23) – in a coarse, sandy fabric which appears to have a glauconitic component. The vessel is straight-walled, and the rim undifferentiated and flat-topped. The upper exterior and interior are oxidised and the core and base unoxidised. An arc on the exterior, which appears be an impression from something organic, does not seem to be deliberate decoration. The vessel is probably of Middle Iron Age date.

Pit 1906

Pottery was recovered from six fills of this pit (within the interior of round-house 2522), mostly sandy body sherds, but some glauconitic, and a few in a shelly fabric. Identifiable forms comprise a flat-topped/squared rim from a neutral-profile vessel, possibly a saucepan pot, and a crudely made little thumb/pinch pot (Fig. 26.24). Much of the latter’s exterior surface and its base are missing, presumably spalled during firing. The exterior of the pot, and the uppermost interior, are fairly oxidised, the lower interior unoxidised. Finger channels and indents can be felt on the surviving external surface. Given the rough nature and probable firing failure, it seems entirely possible that this may be an apprentice pot or made by a child.

Discussion

The Iron Age pottery from High Post shares many affinities with other sites on Salisbury Plain, such as Widdington Farm, Chisenbury Field Barn, Coombe Down South, Warren Hill (Raymond 2006), and also Battlesbury hillfort, near Warminster (Every and Mepham 2008) and in the wider region, such as Danebury (Cunliffe 1984/2000); Winnall Down, Winchester (Fasham 1985); Lains Farm, Andover (Morris 1991); Little Somborne (Nation 1980), and Old Down Farm (Davies 1981), all in Hampshire. Comparison of the fabrics, forms, surface treatments, and decoration of the pottery from these sites indicates that, with the exception of two Late Iron Age bowls from the secondary fills of the enclosure ditch, the bulk of the pottery is of Early–Middle Iron Age date.

Although the assemblage contains certain attributes typical of the earliest Iron Age (as defined by Brown 2000, 120), there are no distinct groups that could be defined as such. Elements present include a small number of sherds with furrowed exteriors, but other key indicators, such as fingertip decoration and the more angular vessel profiles, are absent and parallels for the forms from sites such as Potterne (Gingell and Morris 2000; Morris 2000b) are relatively few. Affinities with the Danebury material include forms characteristic of ceramic phases (cp) 3–7, *c.* 470–50 BC, and suggest occupation during the 5th–2nd centuries. A number of forms, such as the barrel-shaped jars, span this broad period. Those more specifically dated to the 5th–4th centuries (470–360 BC) include jar forms R6 and R20 (JB2), bowl form R14 (BA2), proto-saucepan pot R11 (PA1.1) and the small, crude vessels R32 and R36 (PA3.1).

During the 3rd century BC there is a gradual move towards standardisation in ceramic production throughout the Wessex region (Brown 2000, 122) although, within that overall pattern, a number of regionally distinct styles emerge (Cunliffe 1991, 79). The more developed Middle Iron Age forms from High Post include bowls with straight or slightly curved walls and thickened, flattened rims (R9, R34, DA1), and saucepan pots (R17, PA2.1; R22, PB1.1). The assemblage incorporates elements of both the Hampshire St Catherine's Hill/Worthy Down style and the Wiltshire Yanbury/Highfield style, including the decorative motifs present on the glauconitic sandy vessels of the latter, paralleled here by a group of glauconitic body sherds with similar decoration (Fig. 26.27; Cunliffe 1991, A.16:20). Vessels such as a flint-tempered saucepan pot from pit 2330 are more characteristic of the Hampshire style. Cunliffe (2000, 179) notes that the Yarnbury/Highfield style slightly preceded the St Catherine's Hill/Worthy Down style, the change occurring at approximately 270 BC. The two later bowls (R8, R9, enclosure ditch 1838) probably date to the first half of the 1st century AD; 24 sherds (398 g) of Romano-pottery were recovered from the same context.

Classifying the assemblage by ceramic phase was not attempted due to the small numbers in which many of the forms occurred. Using the ceramic sequence at Danebury as a template, the assemblage falls within the period 470–50 BC. Pits 1272, 1280, 1317, 1508, 1796, 1841, 1907, and 2176 contained vessel types typical of cp 3–5 (470–310 BC). A slightly tighter range of 360–270 BC for pits 1059, 1301, 1479, and 2389 is indicated by one of the saucepan pot forms. Many of the other pits fall into a broader Middle Iron Age range of approximately 350–50 BC (pits 1061, 1145, 1188, 1349, 1456, 1578, 1597, 1706, 1811, 1876, 1945, 1953, 2141, 2247, 2330, 2338, and 2347).

The assemblage is dominated by sandy wares, which account for 78% of the number of sherds, with smaller quantities of glauconitic fabrics (8%); wares with inclusions of oolitic limestone or shell (6%); organic sandy fabrics (4%), and flint-tempered wares (4%) (Table 6). Sandy wares dominate Early and Middle Iron Age assemblages from sites in this region, with flint-tempered wares becoming more common during the later part of the Middle Iron Age. Although represented by very few sherds, wares with inclusions of oolitic limestone (which are more typical of the Early Iron Age) and shell are evidence of products brought to the site from production centres along the Jurassic Ridge. Because of the site's location on the Upper Chalk, close to deposits of clay-with-flints, clay sources for the sandy wares and flint-tempered fabrics were close to hand.

Sources for the calcareous and glauconitic fabrics, however, were not immediately available and their presence therefore suggests exchange networks on a regional scale. This is certainly not uncommon for sites in this area at this time. For example, 70% of the pottery recorded from Lains Farm is thought to have originated from sources 10–40 km from the site (Morris 1991, 27). At both Lains Farm and High Post clay suitable for pottery production was available locally, yet ceramic vessels were brought in from neighbouring communities. Morris (1991, 27–8) suggests that the reasons for this may have been both technological, with the glauconitic clays being in some way superior, perhaps in their resistance to thermal shock, and social, with the trade being 'a form of artificial exchange organised to articulate the social and political system', facilitating the creation or renewal of social networks (Morris 2000b, 172). Such networks may have been called upon at times of stress, such as a after a poor harvest or during warfare, or to provide partners for marriage (Morris 1997, 38).

Aspects of form, surface treatment and decoration may also be indicative of regional exchange patterns. A number of sherds are red-finished, some with scratched zig-zag decoration, suggestive of the scratch-cordoned bowls dated at Danebury to 470–360 BC (Brown 2000, 88), but more recently associated at Barton Stacey, Michelmersh, Hampshire with a slightly earlier date of 790–520 BC (Jones forthcoming). Petrological analysis suggests that the red-finished bowls were produced using clays from brickearth deposits in the Avon Valley immediately north-west of Salisbury (Cunliffe 1984, 254). Brickearth was also available in the Nadder Valley, just to the west of Salisbury (British Geological Survey, Sheet 298). However, these vessels are known to have travelled up to 40 km from their production area (Morris 2000b, 161). Just over half of the recorded instances of red-finishing from the High Post assemblage are from vessels in this very clean, silty fabric. The scarcity of these vessels from the site is probably a factor of chronology rather than location, although the greatest concentrations of this type of vessel occur to the east, between the Bourne and the Test valleys (Cunliffe 2000, fig. 4.25). The steep west-facing scarps of the Bourne valley, 'would have formed a notable feature signalling the divide between what is now Salisbury Plain to the west and the Hampshire uplands to the east' (*ibid.*, 142).

Without a programme of petrological analysis it is not possible to estimate the proportions of pottery made locally or on the site, and non-local pottery brought to it. Identifying exchange networks from the forms is equally problematic, since, with the exception of the saucepan pots and barrel-shaped jars, they are represented by such small numbers that few conclusions may be drawn. Nonetheless, there is evidence of ceramic vessels being brought to the site, and also of shared ideas, with local potters producing vessels that were popular during this period, probably copying examples seen elsewhere. That is not to suggest that the choice of forms, fabrics, decorative techniques, and surface finishes were solely aesthetic, but they also incorporated technological innovations and perhaps reflected changes in the social aspects of eating. There is no evidence of any production at High Post other than that at the household level. It seems likely that vessels were made for immediate use rather than a surplus being created to trade or exchange with neighbouring communities.

At the end of their useful lives, a significant number of the vessels ended up in the pits, as well as in the enclosure ditch and one of the round-house gullies. Parts of three vessels on the base of pit 1059 appear to represent deliberate deposition. Pit 2330 also contained an interesting assemblage, including two complete profiles of saucepan pots and a small, highly burnished globular vessel. Two small pots from pit 1906 (located within round-house 2522) and pit 1280 were almost certainly made on site, and their rather crude manufacture, indicated by rough finishing and the spalled surface of one, suggests they were made by a child or an apprentice. Only one of the key groups of pottery mentioned above (from pit 1349) correlates with any of the animal bone groups (a juvenile dog, ABG 79; see Higbee, below) although 55 sherds (336 g), none of them diagnostic, were present in pit 1017 which contained 17 associated bone groups.

Illustrated pottery

(Fig. 25)

Jars

1. PRN 1, R1, Q1, context 1628, slot 1625, ditch 1838
2. PRN 23, R5, Q1, context 1771, slot 1625, ditch 1838
3. PRN 22, R6, Q1, context 1771, slot 1625, ditch 1838
4. PRN 441, R20, Q17, context 1799, pit 1796
5. PRN 314, R15, Q4, context 1321, pit 1317
6. PRN 1293, R27, Q4, context 2342, pit 2338
7. R27, V2, PRN 577 (1481), PRN 576 (1482), PRN 579–580 (1488), PRN 578 (1493), pit 1479
8. PRN 1327, R44, Q17, context 2252, pit 2247
9. PRN 1244, R39, Q17, context 2308, pit 2305

Jar

10. PRN 261, R10, Q4, ON 18/19, context 1089, pit 1059. Bowl/Jar

(Fig. 26)

Bowl/jar

11. PRN 1277 (2341), PRN 1254 (2333), R40, Q4, pit 2338

Bowls

12. PRN 435, R19, Q19, context 1799, pit 1796
13. PRN 313, R14, Q8, context 1321, pit 1317
14. PRN 1371, R34, Q11, context 1147, pit 1145
15. PRN 263, R9, Q5, ON 7, context 1089, pit 1059

Saucepan pots/neutral forms

16. PRN 264, R11, Q4, ON 27, context 1089, pit 1059
17. PRN 352, R17, Q13, context 1337, (post?) pit 1301
18. PRN 1252, R22, F4, context 2333, pit 2338
19. PRN 1253, R22, V2, context 2333, pit 2338
20. PRN 464, R22, context 1198, pit 1188
21. PRN 654, R22, Q4, context 1585, pit 1578
22. PRN 1227, R38, F3, context 1947, pit 1945
23. PRN 961, R32, Q27, context 1282, pit 1280
24. PRN 1100, R36, R36, Q7, context 1913, pit 1906

Decorated body sherds

25. PRN 1404, Q9, D, context 1831, pit 1806
26. PRN 631, D, Q16, context 1501, pit 1491
27. PRN 733, D, Q17, context 1585, pit 1578

Late Iron Age

28. PRN 136, R7, Q3, context 1254, slot 1090, ditch 1838
29. PRN 135, R8, Q3, context 1254, slot 1090, ditch 1838

Romano-British Pottery

by Grace Perpetua Jones

A total of 4233 sherds of Romano-British pottery, weighing 57,201 g, was recovered. All datable groups were assigned to the late Romano-British period although residual elements occasionally occurred within these groups. The average sherd weight is 13.5 g, but the condition of the pottery is generally poor, with high levels of surface abrasion causing the removal of surface treatments on many vessels, particularly the colour-coated wares. Many of the

Table 9 Romano-British pottery, by feature type

Feature type	*No.*	*Weight (g)*	*MSW (g)*
Animal bone spread	12	62	5.2
Cobbled surface	4	123	30.8
Corn drying oven	139	4169	30.9
Ditch	1109	16002	14.4
Gully	2	7	3.5
Irreg. feature (?tree throw)	299	1591	5.3
Oven	17	431	25.4
Pit	949	19255	20.3
Post-hole	59	694	11.8
Round-house gully	16	48	3.0
Spread	1619	14724	9.1
Topsoil	4	65	16.3
Unclassified	4	30	7.5
Total	4233	57201	13.5

Table 10 Romano-British pottery, by fabric

Ware code	*Ware type*	*No.*	*Weight (g)*
Imported finewares			
E300	Samian, source unspecified	5	15
E304	Samian, Central Gaul	7	19
British finewares			
E160	New Forest parchment ware	6	146
E162	New Forest colour-coated ware	133	1114
E170	Oxfordshire colour-coated ware	120	1083
Q108	North Wiltshire colour-coated ware	8	150
Q110	Colour-coated ware, unsourced	3	6
Mortaria			
E210	Oxfordshire white-slipped redware mortaria	3	37
E211	Oxfordshire colour-coated mortaria	43	752
E212	New Forest mortaria	3	66
Coarsewares			
E100	Black Burnished Ware 1	119	1896
E163	New Forest greywares	2	47
G100	Grog-tempered	350	5587
G101	Grog-tempered (late)	41	666
Q100	Sandy greyware	2673	34,933
Q101	Oxidised ware	177	1296
Q103	Coarse, sandy ware	521	9179
Q104	Whiteware	4	18
Q105	Very coarse sandyware	1	13
Q106	Fine greyware	9	86
Q107	White-slipped redware	2	26
Q109	Fine oxidised ware	2	45
S100	Shell-tempered ware	1	21
Total		4233	57,201

greyware sherds have become partially oxidised as a result of burning/re-firing, most notably those from spread 2523.

Distribution

Approximately half the Romano-British assemblage came from the fills of the Iron Age enclosure ditch (1838; 26% by number, 28% by weight) and the overlying spread (2523; 38%/26%). Pottery from pits accounts for 22% of sherds but 34% of the weight, indicating better preservation in this type of feature. The remaining pottery (14%/12%) came from a range of features including the animal bone spread; a cobbled surface; a construction cut; a gully; an oven/kiln; post-holes; a robber trench; a round-house gully; and a tree-throw hole (Table 9). Ditch 2640, outside the enclosure, produced three sherds (16 g) of probable Romano-British pottery; these sherds were grog-tempered and could not be closely dated.

Composition of the assemblage

Finewares and specialist wares

Imported finewares comprised only 12 sherds (34 g) of samian (Table 10), 0.3% of the total of Romano-British sherds, perhaps not surprising considering the lack of early groups. Finewares from British production centres are better represented, with a range of products from the New Forest and Oxfordshire industries, and a small number of North Wiltshire colour-coated sherds. The Oxfordshire industries provided colour-coated bowls (Young 1977, forms C45, C51, C75, and C81) and colour-coated and white-slipped redware mortaria (1% of sherds). Colour-coated vessels from the New Forest industries are predominantly flagons/flasks (R108, R136; Fulford 1975, Type 8, 9) and beakers (body sherds from indented beakers, R135, Fulford 1975 type 57). New Forest parchment ware mortaria are also represented. The North Wiltshire vessels include a copy of a C51 bowl and a beaded rim of uncertain form. Unfortunately the number of vessels represented is too few to ascertain if certain types of tablewares were being selected from the different industries. The tablewares and mortaria from the New Forest and Oxfordshire industries account for 7% of the assemblage, as was the case for the sites of the Salisbury Plain (Iron Age and Romano-British landscapes) project (Seager Smith 2006, 116).

Coarsewares

The coarsewares include vessels from the New Forest greyware industries, Alice Holt on the Surrey/Hampshire border, and Black Burnished ware from south-east Dorset. With the exception of the latter, all greywares were recorded under the general 'Q100' fabric code; they accounted for 63% of the assemblage by number, 61% by weight. Grog-tempered fabrics were quite well represented (9% by number, 11% by weight) and, although most were recorded under the generic G100 code, the majority are thought to be late Romano-British in date. Few oxidised and whitewares were recorded. The coarseware assemblage is dominated by jar forms although a range of other vessels is also present, including bowls, dishes and platters, flagons, a beaker, a strainer, and a possible lid.

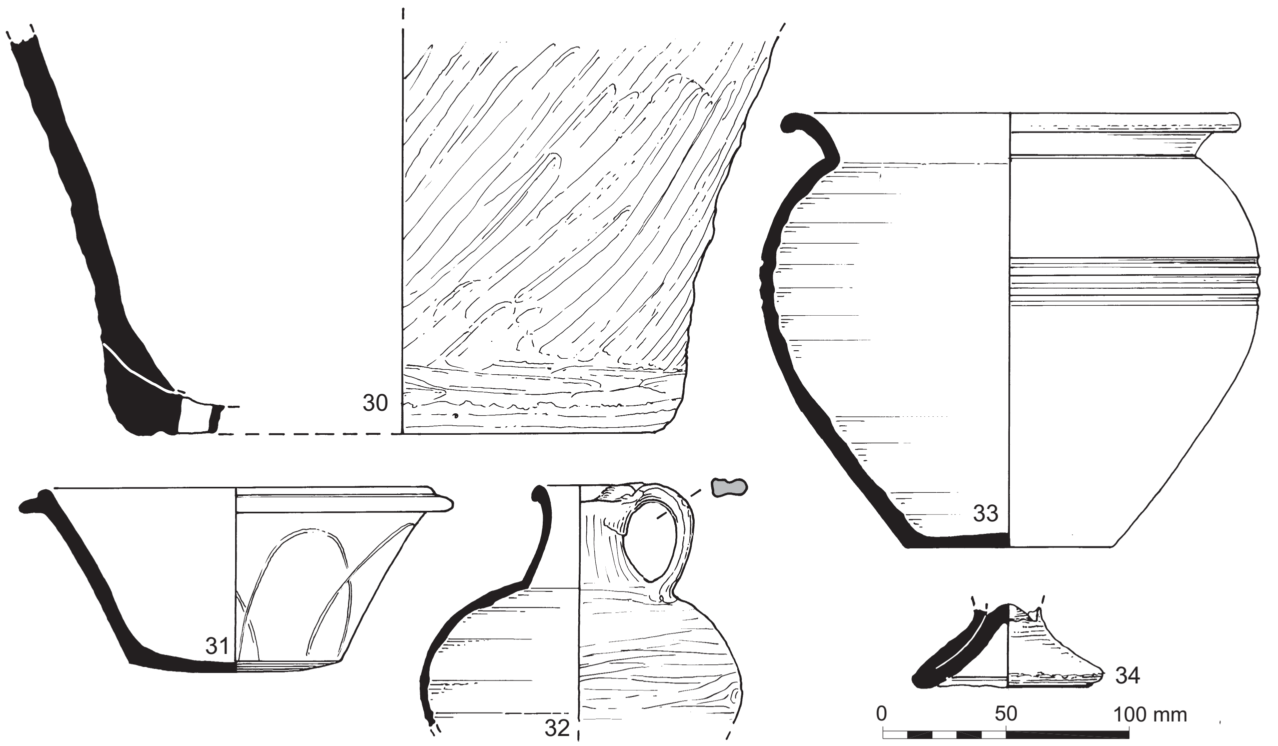

Figure 27 Romano-British pottery. 30. PRN 684, B1, Q103, context 2428, pit 2424; 31. PRN 1008, R140, Q100, context 2616, corn drying oven 2600; 32. ON 368, PRN 1121, R109, E100, context 2289, pit 2288; 33.PRN 551, R141, Q100, context 1425, pit 1376. Saxon pottery: 34. PRN 1010, Q400, B400, context 2616, corn drying oven 2600

The forms for all fabric types are presented below, with the number of vessels recorded in parentheses after each form code.

Jars

R100 (1) Bead-rimmed jar. Early Romano-British (ERB)
R101 (56) Everted rim jar. Romano-British (RB)
R102 (10) Upright-necked jar. RB
R107 (4) Late Romano-British storage jar with everted rim. Late Romano-British (LRB)
R110 (6) Everted rim jar, Black Burnished ware type 2/3 (Seager Smith and Davies 1993). AD 120+
R112 (2) Storage jar with everted rim. RB
R116 (3) Necked and cordoned jar with grooved and undercut rim (Lyne and Jefferies 1979, class 1A; Fulford 1975, types 31–5). LRB
R117 (1) Everted rim jar, Black Burnished ware type 3 (Seager Smith and Davies 1993). AD 120+
R118 (1) Cable-rimmed storage jar (Lyne and Jefferies 1979, class 10). AD 180+
R119 (2) Upright-necked jar with flat rim
R121 (1) Storage jar with rounded, upright rim, decorated with fingertip impressions on the rim and diagonal lines on the shoulder. RB
R122 (1) Everted rim jar (Fulford 1975, type 30). LRB
R126 (1) Upright, narrow-necked jar. RB
R128 (10) Jar rim fragment. RB
R129 (2) Small, necked jar with out-turned rim and slight, narrow cordon. ?2nd/3rd century
R133 (2) Storage jar with beaded rim. RB
R144 (1) Jar with triangular rim, grooved on the exterior; rilled body. LRB
Type 30 (2) Fulford (1975) greyware jar with everted rim. LRB
Type 33 (2) Fulford (1975) greyware jar with closed mouth and reeded upper surface to rim. LRB

Jar/bowls

R140 (2) Short, squat vessel with everted rim, beaded at tip. Grooved linear decoration in a band around the belly, degenerated. AD 350+
Type 57 (1) Fulford (1975), jar or bowl with everted rim. 4th century

Bowls

R104 (2) Carinated bowl. ?2nd/3rd century
R105 (5) Flat-rimmed bowl (*c.* AD 150–300)
R109 (20) Drop-flanged bowl LRB (Fig. 27.32)
R111 (1) Reed-rimmed bowl LRB
R123 (2) Flat-rimmed bowl with groove, possibly a New Forest greyware type 5 (Fulford 1975). LRB
R132 (2) Bead-rimmed bowl, possible copy of Oxford colour-coated ware form 45 (in turn a copy of samian form 31). LRB
R142 (1) Copy of Oxford colour-coated ware bowl, C51. LRB
R143 (1) Bowl with out-turned rim. RB
R145 (1) Bowl rim fragment. RB
R146 (1) Beaded and flanged bowl (Lyne and Jefferies 1979, class 5B). LRB

Oxford colour-coated ware forms (Young 1977)

C44 (1) Shallow bowl copying samian form 31 with slightly hooked rim

C45 (1) Shallow bowl copying samian form 31 with bead rim

C51 (3) Flanged bowl copying samian form 38. AD 350+

C75 (2) Necked bowl with out-turned rim and full, curved body. Neck is rouletted or ridged. AD 325+

C81 (1) Wall-sided, bead-rim, carinated bowl, sometimes rouletted at rim and carination. 4th century

New Forest forms (Fulford 1975)

Type 8 (1) Greyware bowl with moulded rim. LRB

Type 13 (3) Greyware bowl with wide mouth and moulded rim, white slip on exterior. AD 350+

Type 89 (1) Fineware bowl with internal flange below the rim. AD 270+

Dishes and platters

R113 (2) Straight-sided dish with plain or beaded rim. Black Burnished ware type 20 (Seager Smith and Davies 1993). AD 120+

R130 (4) Plain-rimmed dish (Lyne and Jefferies 1979, class 6A; Fulford 1975, greyware type 19.2). LRB

R131 (1) Plain-rimmed dish with external grooves (Lyne and Jefferies 1979, class 6A (10); Fulford 1975, greyware type 19.2). LRB

R127 (1) Copy of Gallo-Belgic platter, CAM 21. 1st century AD

Beakers

R125 (1) Short, everted rim from beaker. RB

R135 (1) New Forest beaker, type unknown

Flagons/flasks

R136 (1) New Forest flagon, type unknown

R137 (1) Flagon with collared, grooved rim

R141 (1) Flagon with single 'B' profiled handle and burnished lines on neck. Bulbous body, slightly triangular rim. ?LRB

R108 (3) Narrow-necked vessel with rounded rim (flagon/flask?)

R115 (8) Jug/flagon rim, collared, possibly New Forest type 20.

New Forest forms (Fulford 1975)

Type 8 (1) Colour-coated ware flask with globular body. First half 4th century

Type 9 (1) Colour-coated ware flask with globular body and flanged rim. AD 320+

Mortaria

C100 (4) Young (1977) Oxford colour-coated mortarium with upright rim and angular flange, sometimes rouletted. AD 300+

Type 102 (2) Fulford (1975) New Forest parchment ware mortarium with stubby flange. AD 270–350

Miscellaneous

R120 (1) Strainer rim

R138 (1) Strainer rim, undercut. LRB

R134 (1) Probable lid with hooked rim. RB

R106 (2) Flat-topped rim, profile unknown

R114 (1) Plain, rounded rim from small vessel with rounded wall

R124 (1) Plain rim with impressed dot decoration on exterior, unknown form

R139 (1) Beaded rim, vessel form unknown, North Wiltshire colour-coated ware

Key groups

Enclosure ditch 1838

Romano-British pottery was recovered from six slots through the Iron Age enclosure ditch (Table 11). The lowest fill to produce Romano-British pottery was context 1262 with two sherds of Black Burnished ware (AD 120+). Context 1254 contained a late Romano-British group, including two residual Late Iron Age bowls. The upper fills (1780, 1781, 1703, and 1705) contained several indicators of a date in the second half of the 4th century, including two greyware wide-mouthed bowls with reeded rims from the New Forest industries (Fulford 1975, type 13, *c.* AD 350–400).

Spread 2523

A large quantity of late Romano-British pottery was recovered from spread 2523 (incorporating contexts 1181, 1235, 1406, 2075, and 2280), totalling 1619 sherds, 14,724 g. The material is highly abraded and many of the sherds burnt. The average sherd weight is 9.2 g, lower than the overall average for the Romano-British pottery of 13.5 g. Context 1406 produced the largest group (1343 sherds, 12,141 g) but was dominated by sandy greyware body sherds. Most of the rims are from jars that had broken at the neck but were probably everted. There are at least three necked jars represented; four drop-flanged bowls; two flat-rimmed bowls (one with a groove); a 'waisted' plain-rimmed bowl with an external groove; two plain-rimmed bowls (one is Black Burnished ware); a flat-rimmed bowl with a groove; a collared jug rim; and a perforated fragment, possibly from a strainer base. Grog-tempered sherds are also present, including rims again from jars broken at the neck, and a lid fragment. Storage jar fragments make up 30% of the weight of pottery from this context, including six beaded rim fragments. Oxford colour-coated wares include white-slipped mortaria and two bowls (Young 1977, C51 and C75). Colour-coated vessels from the New Forest industries are also represented, including two flagons (R135, R136), a flask with globular body dating the first half of the 4th century (Fulford 1975, type 8), and a jar/bowl with everted rim, also of 4th century date (*ibid.*, type 57). Contexts 1181, 1235, 2075, and 2280 contained a similar range of forms and fabrics, but in smaller quantities.

Table 11 Romano-British pottery from enclosure ditch 1838, by slot

Slot	*No.*	*Weight (g)*
1090	353	3744
1625	457	7680
1635	257	4001
1649	8	81
2148	21	332
2463	10	148
Total	1106	15,986

Pits

Romano-British pottery was recovered from 20 pits, six of which (1376, 1456, 1929, 2034, 2424, and 3032) contained more than 25 sherds and were dated to the late Romano-British period. Two were within oval structure 2488 (below).

The largest assemblage, 407 sherds (8825 g), comes from the single fill of pit 3032. It is dominated, by fragments of storage jars from the Alice Holt industry, including five white-slipped rim fragments and 26 body sherds decorated with a white band and swirling comb designs. One body sherd from a storage jar has a pre-firing perforation. The greyware body sherds are abraded and often partially oxidised, suggesting they were refired/burnt at some point. They include rim fragments from nine jars, mostly everted. Grog-tempered sherds are also present, again abraded and discoloured, and include two everted rim jars. Fine and specialist wares comprise a small number of colour-coated sherds from the New Forest and Oxfordshire industries, including the flange from a C51 and a rim and body sherds from an Oxfordshire white-slipped redware mortarium (Young 1977, C100).

The pottery from pit 2424 (117 sherds, 4186 g) is dominated by the lower part of a large (storage) jar (Fig. 27.30) in a coarse and sandy fabric, with diagonal finger smearing evident on the exterior. Very little of the base is present, but a pre-firing circular hole is visible at its edge and other holes may have once perforated the rest of the base. The edges of three body sherds also have part of a pre-firing perforation, apparently square in section but smaller than that through the base. Pre-firing holes around the circumference of the base and one in the centre were recorded in a vessel from the A37 Western Link Road, Dorchester, Dorset (Seager Smith 1997, fig. 108, 13), in a Poole Harbour/ Wareham Black Burnished Ware clay pellet fabric and dating from the late 3rd/4th century (possibly into the 5th century). A similar vessel has also been identified from recent investigations at Durrington, Wiltshire (Seager Smith pers. comm.). Other pottery from pit 2424 includes a grog-tempered bowl with out-turned rim, two sherds of New Forest colour-coated ware, an Oxfordshire colour-coated mortarium fragment, and a samian flake.

Pit 1376 contained only 14 sherds of late Romano-British pottery, but it is notable as it included two perforated body sherds, one with a wiped exterior, suggesting it is probably from a late Alice Holt storage jar. Also present was the upper part of a small, bulbous flagon with a single handle and vertical burnished lines on the neck (Fig. 27.32).

A number of pits (1290, 2070, and 2312) and possible oven 2288, contained few sherds but could also be assigned a late Romano-British date. A complete profile of a Black Burnished ware drop-flanged bowl was also present in pit 2288 (Fig. 27.31, Pl. 13). Other features, which could not be closely dated but which contained small quantities of pottery of general Romano-British date, include elongated pit 1376, and quarry pit 2089. A number of Iron Age pits contained small quantities of Romano-British pottery in their upper fills, including pits 1037, 1953, 1034, 1059, 1393 and 2141.

Corn drying oven 2600

A total of 134 sherds, 4144 g, of late Romano-British pottery was recovered from six fills within the corn drying oven. The group includes a nearly complete, squat bowl/jar with an everted rim, beaded at the tip (Fig. 27.33). The belly is decorated with a band of grooved lines, although the decoration is quite rudimentary. It is similar to a Black Burnished ware type 18, of 4th century date onwards. The vessel had been burnt and had also spalled during firing. Other vessels represented include a late Alice Holt flanged bowl, with burnish on the upper interior and burnished line decoration on the exterior, and a strainer with an undercut rim. Two bases, both with footrings, appear to have been deliberately shaped into discs, one from an Oxford colour-coated ware vessel and one from an Oxford colour-coated mortarium, both of which are burnt. A third base, in an oxidised but partly burnt fabric, may be simply broken. The lower part of a late grog-tempered vessel was also present, with diagonal burnish. A Saxon pedestal base was also present in layer 2616 (see Mepham, this volume, Fig. 27.34).

Oval structure 2488

The assemblage from pit 2042 (120 sherds, 1263 g) was abraded. It includes greyware, grog-tempered, and sandy sherds; some of the latter may be residual later prehistoric wares. Rims from two drop-flanged bowls and a jar with a triangular rim grooved on the exterior (*cf.* Lyne and Jefferies 1979, fig. 29 3C. 8,9,16) are present amongst the greywares. Also recorded were a couple of burnt samian fragments and an abraded Oxfordshire colour-coated ware sherd.

The adjacent pit (1929) also contained a relatively large assemblage (100 sherds, 1049 g), including greywares, sandy wares, Black Burnished ware, grog-tempered sherds, Oxfordshire colour-coated ware, and a small number of residual Iron Age sherds. Rims come from four drop-flanged bowls, two in Dorset Black Burnished ware; another with external burnished decoration may be an Alice Holt product. Two jar rims and a rim from a collared flagon were also recorded.

The gully and post-holes of structure 2488 produced very small quantities of pottery, all undiagnostic body sherds of mixed Iron Age and Romano-British date.

Summary

The Romano-British pottery assemblage is typical of other sites in the region, including the sites of the Salisbury Plain project (Seager Smith 2006). Continental imports are few, but this may be partly due to the fact that most of the pottery is of late 3rd–4th century date, a time when few fineware vessels were being imported. No evidence for the import of wine, olive oil, or other products carried by amphorae was found. Tablewares from the New Forest and Oxfordshire industries are represented, but out-numbered by the more domestic, utilitarian vessels, including products of the Alice Holt and Black Burnished ware industries. The pottery assemblage, therefore, suggests a low status settlement with limited access to luxury items.

Much of the Romano-British pottery was recovered from the spread overlying the enclosure ditch and the tops of features. This is a phenomenon seen on other Wiltshire sites, such as Boscombe Down (Seager Smith, pers. comm.), suggesting that 'domestic debris from the Romano-British settlements on Salisbury Plain was originally deposited in discrete middens that were only spread out after the abandonment of sites, presumably by agricultural processes' (Seager Smith 2006, 120).

Of particular interest is the assemblage from the corn drying oven, which includes a coarse, sandy ware vessel whose form is similar to the late form 18 of the Black Burnished ware industries. This type is usually made in a shale-rich fabric (Seager Smith pers. comm.) and recent work by Gerrard (2010) suggests that this particular Black Burnished ware fabric – first identified as Q107 (Seager Smith 1997, 103) and subsequently labelled as South-East Dorset orange wiped ware (SEDOWW) (Gerrard 2010) – was produced from the middle of the 4th century but its manufacture and use may have extended as far as the middle third of the 5th century. Although the High Post vessel is in a coarse sandy fabric that could not be sourced, the similarities of the form are suggestive of a late date. A pedestal base from the same context, of a type dated to the early 5th–6th centuries (see Mepham, below), increases the likelihood of a very late 4th century or early 5th century date for this vessel.

Saxon Pottery

by Lorraine Mepham

A single sherd of Saxon pottery was recovered from the site, from an ashy layer (2616) within the mouth of the flue of the late Romano-British corn drying oven (2600), and relating to its use. The sherd is from a hollow pedestal base (Fig. 27.34), and is in a moderately coarse, hard-fired sandy fabric, containing common quartz grains <0.5 mm, subangular to subrounded, with very rare organic inclusions. The fabric itself is not particularly distinctive, but stands out from the Iron Age sandy fabrics by virtue of its relative hardness.

The pedestal base is discussed by Myres, who found evidence for its use from the very earliest Saxon ceramics in this country, in the early 5th century, through at least to the 6th century (1977, 34–7); dating within this range relies on the form of the upper body, and any decoration, neither of which are present here. The width of the pedestal at its narrowest (30 mm) could suggest that this vessel falls within the group of narrower, vase-like forms ascribed a Jutish origin by Myres (*ibid.*, 36, fig. 202, eg, nos. 1077, 3196). If so, this example is outside the main distribution in this country, which is south-eastern.

Early and Middle Saxon assemblages are sparsely represented within Wiltshire, but parallels for the sandy fabric can be found within the domestic assemblages from Market Lavington and Collingbourne Ducis (Mepham 2006; Timby 2001). There is a suggestion, based on evidence from other parts of southern England, that sandy fabrics have a slightly earlier origin than the organic-tempered wares which are so characteristic of the period (eg, Hamerow 1993, 31; Cowie and Blackmore 2008, 152), but it is clear that they have a currency at least through the early Saxon period, and dating a single sherd on this basis would be foolhardy.

The presence of this single sherd in what otherwise appears to be a Romano-British corn drying oven is intriguing; a further 45 sherds of pottery, of late Romano-British date, were recovered from the same ashy layer (see Jones, above).

Ceramic Building Material

by R.H. Seager Smith

Very small quantities of CBM were recovered (37 pieces, 1173 g). Romano-British pieces include part of a flue tile with combed keying from pit 1929 and a fragment from a brick, 45 mm thick, found alongside considerable quantities of late Romano-British pottery in a tertiary fill (context 2619) of the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch. Sixteen other pieces, from the enclosure ditch (context 1091 in slot 1090, and context 1637 in slot 1635), Romano-British pits 2042 and 2424, and layer 1406, are too small to be identified to type but are probably of Romano-British date.

One small (32 g), very battered piece from a medieval or post-medieval peg-hole roof tile was found in the uppermost fill (1098) of Early/Middle Iron Age pit 1017.

Fired Clay

by Matt Leivers

A total of 423 pieces of fired clay, weighing 7091 g, were recovered (Table 12). Most are undiagnostic fragments in a variety of oxidised, sandy or chalk-tempered fabrics, probably daub but without any wattle impressions; some have one flat surface. Seventy-four pieces are more definitely structural, having flat surfaces, wattle impressions, or both. These were recovered from pits 1007, 1022, 1317, 1590, 2161, 2247, and 2435 – all the dated examples are Iron Age. Fragments from perforated oven plates similar to examples from Danebury (Poole 1984a, 115–21, figs 4.76–8) and more locally at Boscombe Down West (Richardson 1951, 161, pl. viI) and Little Woodbury (Brailsford 1949, figs 2 and 3) were also found in Iron Age pits 1491, 1578, 2161, and 2298.

More recognisable pieces include loomweight fragments, a possible spindle-whorl, and briquetage. Three pieces with a vertical, curved outer surface (Early Iron Age enclosure ditch 1838) may derive from a cylindrical weight of Middle/Late Bronze Age type, while the other four pieces, probably from a triangular weight typical of the Iron Age, were found in pit 2320. The possible spindle-whorl came from Iron Age pit 2021. This object is cylindrical with thickened ends, perforated centrally, and shaped something like a cotton reel (Fig. 28). The thickened ends are decorated with fingernail impressions. No close parallels are known for this object: at 83 g it is at the very upper limit of the weight range of spindle-whorls from Danebury (12–87.5 g: Poole 1984b, 401; 1991, 372).

Briquetage was recovered from Iron Age pits 1011, 1017, 1022, 1107, 1114, 1254, 1286, 1349, 2338, and

Table 12 Fired clay

Type	*No.*
Loomweight fragments	7
Daub	74
Briquetage	71
Perforated oven plate	4
Undiagnostic fragments	266
Spindle whorl	1
Total	423

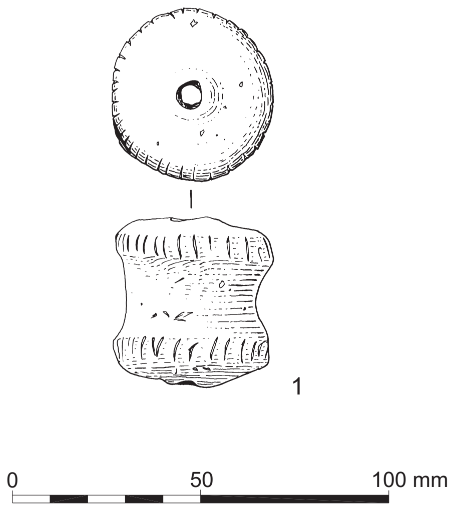

Figure 28 Fired clay. Possible spindle-whorl, Iron Age pit 2021

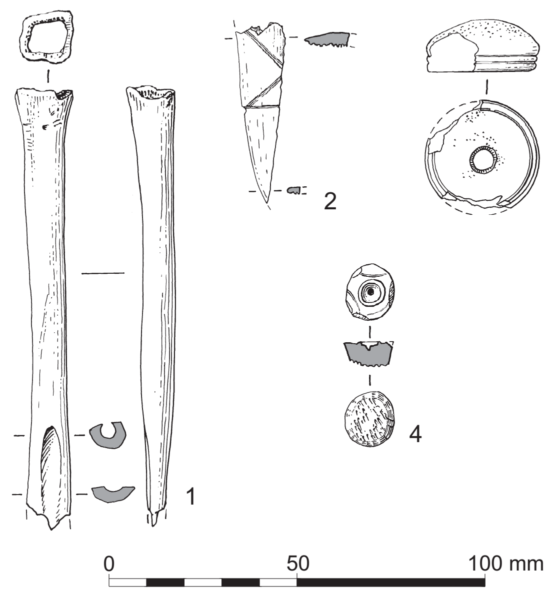

Figure 29 Worked bone. 1. gouge, ON 166, Iron Age pit 1508; 2. polished and decorated fragment, ON 3, Iron Age pit 1034. 3. spindle-whorl, ON 623 pit 2070; 4. gaming counter, ON 125, late Romano-British layer 1406

2405; Romano-British spread 1406; and Romano-British fills of the Early Iron Age enclosure ditch. All are featureless flat fragments identified on the basis of fabrics (oxidised, sandy, sometimes with organics) and, in some instances, interior surface treatment (smoothed or burnished).

Worked Bone

by Grace Perpetua Jones

A small assemblage of worked bone was recovered, comprising seven objects from Iron Age pits and two from late Romano-British contexts.

Iron Age Objects

Gouges and points

Two incomplete gouges were identified (ON 97; ON 166, Fig. 29.1). The latter is made from a sheep metatarsal; the distal end is obliquely and longitudinally cut and it survives to a length of 117 mm but the point is missing. The other example (ON 97) consists of the point of a gouge; the upper part of the tool is missing, and the point is worn and rounded. The term 'gouge' is used to refer to a class of objects with an oblique, longitudinal cut to expose the medullary shaft and a pointed end (Sellwood 1984, 382). Suggested uses for this type of tool at Danebury include as a pin-beater for weaving or in the dressing of hides (*ibid.*, 387).

Two bone points were recovered, from pit 1491 (ON 165) and pit 1286 (ON 608). Both are sharp and polished and ON 608 is burnt, perhaps deliberately blackened. They were presumably the working ends of tools, probably awls or gouges.

Miscellaneous

A polished bone object from pit 1317 (ON 73), decorated with incised horizontal and zigzag lines, had been made from the rib of a large mammal. Only a portion now remains, consisting of seven joining fragments, and the original form is uncertain.

Two small joining fragments from pit 1034 (ON 3, Fig. 29.2) are polished and decorated with incised transverse and zigzag lines. One edge is rounded and polished and therefore clearly worked, but the other edges appear broken. It terminates in a point but this may be fortuitous. The motif is similar to patterns seen on bone combs from Danebury (*cf.* Sellwood 1984, fig. 7.27, 3.1), but it is unlikely these fragments originated from a comb, and they are too small to ascertain the original object type.

A burnt (black) hollow section of sheep long bone, broken at both ends, was present in pit 1479 (ON 82). It is highly polished, however its original form and function are unknown.

Romano-British Objects

A plano-convex spindle-whorl was recorded from pit 2070 (ON 623, Fig. 29.3). It weighs 8 g – 'an appropriate weight for spinning Soay-type wool' (MacGregor 1985, 186, after Ryder 1968) – measures 30 mm in diameter and is 14 mm thick. The central perforation is 8.5 mm in diameter on the flat side, narrowing to 6.8 mm on the convex side. The flat side is polished and decorated with a grooved line running around the edge of the surface; two further grooves create an edge moulding just below this surface. It had been made from a cattle femoral head and is partially burnt.

A gaming counter was found in late Romano-British layer 1406 (=2523), on the north side of the enclosure ditch (ON 125, Fig. 29.4). It measures 13 mm in diameter and is decorated with a dot and single ring, a common motif for this type of object. The reverse is slightly angled, creating a thickness range of 4.5–6.2 mm. The edge is multi-faceted. The bone is burnt, and white to grey in colour.

Chapter 5
Human Bone

by Jacqueline I. McKinley

Human bone was recovered from nine contexts – two Early/Middle Iron Age and seven late Romano-British. Redeposited skull fragments were found within the fills of two Early/Middle Iron Age pits within the Iron Age enclosure. The partial remains of an articulated skeleton were found amongst the upper levels of a large Early/Middle Iron Age spread of animal bone originally sealed below the enclosure's internal bank; the human and animal remains were initially assumed to be associated and of a commensurate date, but radiocarbon analysis of samples of the skeleton showed it to be late Romano-British. Redeposited neonatal remains were recovered from late Romano-British contexts to the immediate north-north-west of the enclosure. Redeposited bone was retrieved from three context associated with the late Romano-British corn drying oven, built within the enclosure ditch, including a possibly 'curated' skull which was also radiocarbon dated to the late Romano-British period. A summary of the results is presented in Table 13.

Methods

The degree of erosion to the bone was recorded using the writer's system of grading (McKinley 2004, fig. 7.1–7). The minimum number of individuals within the disarticulated bone assemblage was ascertained following criteria presented in McKinley 2004. Recording of ancient modification and data pertaining to the formation processes affecting the assemblage was also undertaken (*ibid.*). Age was assessed from the stage of tooth and skeletal development (Beek 1983; Scheuer and Black 2000), and the patterns and degree of age-related changes to the bone (Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994). Sex was ascertained from the sexually dimorphic traits of the skeleton (Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994). Measurements were taken (Brothwell and Zakrzewski 2004) and skeletal indices calculated where possible (Bass 1987). Non-metric traits were recorded in accordance with Berry and Berry (1967) and Finnegan (1978).

Table 13 Summary of results from analysis of human remains

Feature	*Context*	*Deposit type*	*Quantification*	*Age/sex*	*Pathology*	*Comment*
Early/Middle Iron Age					–	–
Pit 1983	2014	redeposited	1 frag. s.	adult >18 yr	–	charred
Pit 2437	2440	redeposited	2 frags. s.	subadult/adult *c.* 16–30 yr	–	–
Late Romano-British						
Spread	1406	redeposited	*c.* 12% u.l.	neonate <1 week	–	green/semi-green bone crushing
Unidentified cut	**2371***	partial articulated	*c.* 23% a.u.l.	adult *c.* 35–40 yr. female	Osteoarthritis – right hip, right costo-vertebral joint; osteophytes – right prox. ulna, right rib facet, 2T & 1L bsm, S1 bsm, 1T articular facet; pitting – right rib facets; enthesophytes – right prox. ulna	dry bone breaks
(Iron Age animal bone spread)	(1373)	**= 2371**	*c.* 1%	adult >18 yr	–	green/semi-green bone crushing
Constr. cut 2421	**2429**	redeposited	*c.* 14% s. l.	neonate 2–3 weeks	–	–
Oven 2600	2604	redeposited	1 frag. s.	adult >25 yr	–	scorched/charred
Oven 2600	2616	redeposited	*c.* 2% s.u.	adult >30 yr	–	canid gnawing; charred
Oven 2600	**2621***	?placed	*c.* 15% s.	subadult *c.* 16–18 yr female	calculus; *cribra orbitalia*; trauma/surgical intervention; plastic changes; morphological variation - occipital bunning	–

* – radiocarbon date; s. – skull, a. – axial skeleton, u. – upper limb, l. – lower limb (skeletal areas where not all are represented); prox. – proximal; T/L/S – thoracic/lumbar/sacral vertebrae; bsm – body surface margins; contexts in **bold** – skeleton record number

Results and Discussion

Taphonomy and Ancient Modification

Most of the bone is in good condition (grades 1–2) and exhibits mostly old dry-bone breaks. The neonatal bone from the late Romano-British contexts is slightly abraded and eroded (grades 2–3), probably due to the relatively exposed (un-enclosed) nature of the deposits and having been subject to more incidental manipulation that other bone within this small assemblage.

Canid gnawing, in the form of puncture marks and crenulated margins, was observed in the adult scapula recovered from the charcoal-rich deposit (2616) in the flue of the late Romano-British corn-drying oven (2600); gnawing to green or semi-green bone is indicated. Although not always readily visually accessible, canid gnawing is a characteristic feature in human remains subject to exposure and excarnation, and has most frequently been observed in prehistoric assemblages of Neolithic and Late Bronze Age–Middle Iron Age date (Boylston *et al.* 1995; Carr and Knüsel 1997; McKinley 2008a; 2008b; Pryor 1998; Smith 2006; Walker 1984). These mortuary practices are not known to have been followed in later periods in Britain but exposure of human remains, either deliberately (eg, criminals, desecration, combat victims; Hope 2007, 162–71) or accidentally (disturbance of unmarked graves), may occur by a variety of other mechanisms, and such may have been the case in this instance. Alternatively, the bone may be residual from an earlier period and relate to the use of the enclosure in the Early–Middle Iron Age; however, since a late Romano-British date for other bone recovered from this feature has been confirmed by radiocarbon analysis, these fragments are most likely to date to this phase of activity.

Fragments of cranium from two contexts associated with the oven (charcoal-rich layer 2616 and demolition layer 2604) have evidence for dry bone burning (brown/black charring of mostly the exocranial surface and diploe, probably to bone already partly broken). The question again arises whether these fragments are residual from a much earlier phase associated with the enclosure, and at what stage they were burnt. Most of the fragments represent parietal vault, several fragments of which were recovered layer 2616 in the mouth of the flue, together with the unburnt fragments of gnawed scapula. The presence of the latter suggests the burning to the skull did not occur *in situ* and it is, again, possible that this could be residual Iron Age material. Further fragments of similarly burnt parietal vault were also recovered from Early/Middle Iron Age pit 1983 situated *c.* 23 m to the south-west. Once again, burning/charring of dry/semi-green human bone appears to be a characteristic feature, if relatively infrequent, of some types of prehistoric disarticulated bone assemblages (Boylston *et al.* 1995; Brothwell and Blake 1966, 40; McKinley 2000; 2008a; Saville 1987, 104, 183 and 260), including those from some Iron Age ‘structured’ pit deposits (eg, McKinley 1998). Skull fragments are predominantly affected, the burning generally appearing to have occurred after the bone was broken. It is unclear whether such burning was deliberate or accidental – ie, occurring after the main process of transformation had blurred the distinction between human and animal bone and any other ‘debris’.

What appear to be small crush-fractures to semi-green bone (small ‘pushed-in’ bone fragments leaving a clean, sharp margin with the flake still partly attached to the rest of the bone) were observed in several of the fragments probably deriving from late Romano-British partial skeleton 2371 (although recovered from the surrounding Iron Age animal bone spread 1373), and amongst the neonatal remains from late Romano-British spread 1406. The latter is likely to represent accidentally disturbed remains from a shallow grave situated in a non-cemetery location; both of these features are characteristic of Romano-British neonatal burial although by the late Romano-British period deposition within cemeteries was becoming more common (McKinley 2011; Molleson 1993, table 62; Philpott 1991, 97–102; Struck 1993; Scott 1999, 110–5).

The precise locations of the adult human bone fragments recorded from animal bone spread 1373 are unknown. However, they are clearly derived from partial skeleton 2371 as there are direct joins and matches between some bone fragments from both contexts. The articulated remains predominantly comprise parts of the axial skeleton, the right arm and the right femur, with some bones of the left hand, and the only complete skeletal elements are the carpal bones (*c.* 23% skeletal recovery; Pl. 11). The bone is in good condition (grades 1–2) and, although there are some fresh breaks to the pelvic bones indicative of machine disturbance, most of the breaks are old and were made to dry bone. The recovery of fragments of human skull and left arm (together with other elements) from amongst the animal bone spread suggests that a complete or near complete corpse may originally have been deposited, though the possibility of this being in the form of body parts cannot be discounted. It is not possible to be conclusive, but the fractures to the bone recovered from context 1373 appear to represent deliberate human manipulation to break-up what probably comprised a partially decomposed corpse. It is difficult to deduce with confidence whether any such fragmentation of the body occurred *in situ* or if already disjointed remains were brought into the site.

The human remains seem to have been laid on their right side with the left side uppermost and slumped slightly forwards, and with the leg (what remained of it) slightly flexed at the hip. They did not appear to directly overlay much animal bone; rather, the two sets of remains seemed to butt against each other. Some of the animal bone could be seen to lie at a physically higher level to either side of the human bone suggesting that little (if any) of the skeleton had been removed in machining. Both the human and the animal bone was stratigraphically sealed by a layer of soil indistinguishable from the upper fill of the adjacent enclosure ditch.

The manipulation and deposition of partial corpses and body parts has been observed within numerous prehistoric mortuary assemblages featuring exposure and excarnation (e.g. McKinley 2008a; 2008b; forthcoming; Whimster 1981, 178, 183–4; Walker 1984, 455), as has the recovery of human and animal bone from the same contexts in various stages of ‘fragmentation’, but such deliberate placement together with so many animal copses – representing prime meat joints – is unusual. Even more unusual is the confirmed date of the human remains, which without radiocarbon analysis, would have been assumed to be contemporary with the animal bone spread (ie, Early/Middle Iron Age). Although the use of pre-existing ditches as suitable places of burial is a well recognised trait in the Romano-British period, in this case the human remains may have been deliberately located with respect to the earlier deposit of animal remains. The latter may have been at least partly visible in the eroding bank by the late Romano-British period; its presence would certainly have been apparent during the deposition of the human remains, and it appears respected. The human corpse – or parts thereof – seems likely to have been placed in an archaeologically undetected grave, of unknown original depth, extending to the surface of the animal bone deposit but resulting in minimal disturbance to it.

The animal bone deposit, possibly only a remnant of its original extent, is believed to represent a ritual feasting/foundation deposit linked to the construction of the enclosure (see Higbee below), and something of the magnitude of the event may have survived in the collective memory of the local population. Given that there is evidence to suggest that the confines of the enclosure were still witness to some forms of ritual activity in the late Romano-British period (see Chapter 3, above), the deposition of the human remains – in whatever state – may have been an attempt to reawaken or appeal to that which inspired the original event.

The almost complete cranium (2621, mandible missing) from the late Romano-British corn drying oven (2600) is in excellent condition, and undamaged

Plate 18 Skull 2621: view of left side showing post-mortem damage to parietal and frontal and location of cuts in superior anterior are of the frontal bone

Plate 19 Skull 2621: detail of the superior anterior portion of the frontal bone showing the cuts in the exocranial surface

Plate 20 Skull 2621: detail of depression in the endocranial surface of the right parietal close to the bregma

other than for a missing area of the left lateral parietal (Pl. 18). The skull, which was clearly deposited in the oven as dry bone, may represent a placed deposit. Romano-British burials in rural locations in northern England were reportedly often made in disused features such as ditches and corn-drying ovens (Faull 1977 in Whimster 1981, 57). At least one such late Romano-British case is known from Wiltshire at Eyewell Farm, Chilmark (Fitzpatrick and Crockett 1998), where the remains of an adult male lay in a grave cut though the demolition debris infilling the flue of a disused corn dryer. However, those deposits represent the remains of formal burials, rather than 'placed' deposits of potentially curated individual skeletal elements, occurrences of which appear comparatively rare in Romano-British contexts.

Most finds of lone skulls appear to be potentially linked to decapitation as a punishment or associated with acts of war, both featuring subsequent display of the 'criminal'/vanquished head (eg, Ross 1974, 99). However, although there is evidence for trauma to skull 2621 (see below), it does not suggest decapitation; neither the individual (a teenage girl) nor the location of the find appear characteristic of such cases (*ibid.*; Boylston *et al.* 2000). Other, less common examples, suggestive of more ritual motives, include the skull and a cranium of early and middle Romano-British date recovered from the ritual shaft within the sanctuary complex at Springhead in Kent (Andrews *et al.* 2011), and a case from Oxfordshire where the skull had apparently been pierced for suspension (Taylor 2008). Such curation and deposition of skulls is generally viewed as a characteristic feature of the Iron Age, with the recognised Celtic head cult (Ross 1974). The latter appears to have continued under Roman rule, the conquered peoples of the Empire retaining many of their own practices with adaptations influenced by external art forms; Ross observes that the majority of the known British cult heads stem from this later period (*ibid.* 106). It could follow that if the artistic and symbolic tradition of the head cult continued within the provinces, then so may the curation of human skulls – particularly at the less heavily influenced margins of the Empire.

Demography

A minimum of six individuals (MNI) are represented within the assemblage; one adult from the Early/Middle Iron Age contexts, and five individuals from the late Romano-British contexts. The latter comprise two neonates, one subadult female, one mature adult female and one other unsexed adult (Table 13). Although it is possible that the redeposited skull fragments from the corn drying oven could have derived from the individual represented by the articulated remains, there being no duplication of elements, parts of the right scapula from the two deposits were duplicated.

Skeletal Indices

Insufficient material survived in adequate condition to allow the calculation of many skeletal indices but it was possible to calculate the cranial index for 2621 which, at 73.0, fell in the dolichocranial (long-headed) range. The platymeric index (demonstrating the degree of anterior–posterior flattening of the proximal femur) was calculated for the adult female (skeleton 2371) at 72.8 (left femur), falling in the platymeric range.

Pathology

Pathological changes were observed in the remains of the two late Romano-British females; a summary of the observed lesions and the bones affected is presented in Table 13. Very slight dental calculus (calcified plaque/tartar) was observed in the single surviving dentition (maxillary, 16 socket positions, 10 teeth); no other dental lesions were present. *Cribra orbitalia*, manifest as pitting in the orbital roof, results from a metabolic disorder associated with childhood iron deficiency anaemia, though there may also be other contributory factors (Molleson 1993; Roberts and Manchester 1995, 166–9). Very slight cribotic lesions were observed in both orbits of skull 2621. Lesions indicative of various forms of joint disease (osteophytes and other forms of new bone development, and micro- and macro-pitting) were recorded at various sites within skeleton 2371. Most of the changes were very slight and represent lone lesions largely reflective of age-related wear and tear.

The most notable lesions were seen in the possibly curated skull of the teenage female (2621). There is damage to the left parietal extending into the frontal bone resulting in the loss of the bone from this area (Pl. 18). The broken edges in the parietal are uneven and jagged and appear largely the result of old dry-bone breaks. The frontal bone is also damaged, but the upper portion has clearly been cut. Only part of the cut area survives, presenting a small oval extending superiorly and dorsally from the temporal line towards, but not crossing the coronal suture. The anterior portion of the cut from the temporal line (*c.* 13 mm length) is almost straight, with a slight curve over a *c.* 18 mm length across the superior portion (Pl. 19). The endocranial surface along the line of the cut is damaged so the full extent is unclear, but there are clean sharp exocranial edges with slight internal bevelling (ie, widening towards interior). The margins of the lesion are slightly smoothed with an almost polished feel/appearance which may be the result of handling. Consequently, it is difficult to say if there was any healing but, if so, it appears to have been slight since the trabecular bone of the diploe is still apparent in places. Midway along the upper margins of this oval cut lie what appear to be the remnants of two small sharp cuts (max. 5 mm long) set perpendicular to it, *c.* 30 mm apart, and which only penetrated part of the outer plate.

The cuts could have been made peri-mortem and represent some form of surgical intervention, or they may have been made post-mortem to green bone possibly for cultural reasons. The latter is partly suggested by the apparent slight polishing/wear to the margins of the cut suggestive of subsequent handling of the lesion (though suspension of the skull, as suggested for a comparative case outlined above, from this lateral position would have been an odd choice), and the apparent 'curation' of the skull. The two possible motives need not be mutually exclusive however, since an apparently unsuccessful surgical intervention may still have lead this skull to be selected for subsequent curation. One other distinguishing feature of the skull may be linked with its later treatment and could be associated with the reason for the apparent surgery. A very shallow, *c.* 17 mm wide, 'band-like' depression can be seen crossing the skull vault immediate dorsal to the bregma/coronal suture, which is most marked at the sagittal line (Pl. 18). Very slight ovoid 'bulges' visible in the exocranial surface to either side of the sagittal line dorsal to this 'band' correspond with the location of depressions (*c.* 35 mm long and 25 mm wide) in the endocranial vault, especially on the left side (Pl. 20). The latter lesions are indicative of plastic changes in response to pressure exerted on the bone from within. It is possible that the 'band' visible in the exocranial vault, itself reflective of plastic changes due to the long-term presence of some kind of binding around the head, was associated with some form of attempted treatment for symptoms induced by the internal pressure on the skull. Similarly, the suggested surgical intervention may have been undertaken in an attempt to alleviate associated symptoms.

Concluding Remarks

There are numerous features of the late Romano-British human bone assemblage, indicative of mortuary activity and ritual function attributed to the material, which are not characteristic of the period. Whilst non-normative activity involving human remains is known to have occurred in the Romano-British period (eg, Boylston *et al.* 2000; Harman *et al.* 1981; Taylor 2008), those seen here appear more reflective of earlier, Iron Age traditions. Clearly, the two do not have to be mutually exclusive. It is very likely that the community living in this area in the late Romano-British period traced its identity in part from its Iron Age forebears. Although their way of life would have been affected by centuries of Roman influences, those influences would have been amalgamated with their earlier traditions. This may have been particularly apparent at the location of what would have been a significant monument in the Iron Age, the function and importance of which may have been at least partly retained by oral tradition, and which may have provided a focus for the continued application of older customs and practices.

Chapter 6
Animal Bone

by Lorrain Higbee

The animal bone assemblage comprises 10,093 fragments (almost 170 kg), the majority of which was recovered during the normal course of hand excavation. The wet sieving of bulk soil samples produced only a small amount of material (2.6% of the total by fragment count). The assemblage has been divided into three phases: Early Iron Age, Early/Middle Iron Age, and late Romano-British.

The Early Iron Age assemblage comprises 3481 fragments (34.5% of the total) and is dominated by a large bone deposit (2536). The Early/Middle Iron Age assemblage comprises 4529 fragments (45%) and includes a number of placed deposits in pits. The assemblage from the late Romano-British phase is relatively small in comparison and comprises only 1976 fragments (19.5%).

In addition to material from dated contexts, a small amount (107 fragments, 1% of the total) of bone was recovered from undated contexts or is unstratified. This material is quantified in Table 14 but does not merit further consideration.

Methods

All anatomical elements were identified to species where possible, with the exception of ribs which were assigned to general size categories. Where appropriate the following information was recorded for each fragment: element, anatomical zone, anatomical position, fusion data, tooth ageing data, butchery marks, metrical data, gnawing, burning, surface condition, pathology, and non-metric traits. This information was directly recorded into a relational database (in MS Access) and cross-referenced with relevant contextual information. The site archive includes the database and an archive version of this report complete with supporting tables, figures, appendices, and digital images.

In order to facilitate the analysis and discussion of associated bone groups (hereafter referred to as ABGs; see Grant 1984; Morris 2008a; 2008b; 2010) these elements of the assemblage were assigned an additional unique number. Quantification methods applied to the assemblage include the number of identified specimens (NISP), minimum number of elements (MNE), minimum number of individuals (MNI), and meat weight estimates (MWE) (Boessneck *et al.* 1971; Bourdillon and Coy 1980; Bond and O'Connor 1999; Dobney *et al.* 2007).

Results

Bone preservation is generally good to fair. The vast majority of post-cranial bones have intact cortical surfaces with little or no signs of weathering. Fine surface details such as knife cuts are clear and easily observed. Some (2.5%) poorly preserved fragments are present, most notably from the late Romano-British tertiary fill of the enclosure ditch and from some Early/Middle Iron Age pit fills, typically those interpreted as deliberate backfill or dump deposits. Many of these contexts include bones in different states of preservation and this suggests that the poorly preserved fragments are likely to be residual having been redeposited from surface accumulations or reworked from earlier deposits. The proportion of gnawed bones from these two phases is fairly high, at 4.4% and 5% respectively, which further suggests that bone waste was accessible to scavenging carnivores for a period before it was deposited into ditches and pits. Few poorly preserved fragments were recorded from Early Iron Age contexts, but this is probably a reflection of the deliberate and ritual nature of much of the material from this phase and the fact that it appears to have been rapidly covered by up-cast from the enclosure ditch.

The number and percentage of burnt bones from each period is small and probably the result of normal food preparation (ie, cooking on open fires). Deliberate incineration as a means of waste disposal does not appear to have been practised.

A little over 42% of fragments were identifiable to species (Table 14). The assemblage is dominated by the bones from livestock species, in particular cattle and sheep which, together with pig, account for 81% of the total NISP. Horse and dog bones are also fairly common and account for a further 10% of NISP. Less common species include wild and domestic cat, red and roe deer, hare, and common frog, as well as rodents and birds.

Table 14 Animal bone: number of specimens identified to species (NISP) by chronological period; counts include ABGs (total for groups in brackets)

Species	*Early Iron Age*		*Early/Middle Iron Age*		*Late Romano-Britash*	*Unstrat./ Undated*	*Total*	
Cattle	1319	(1281)	453	(81)	256	11	2039	(1362)
Sheep/goat	87	(57)	848	(52)	327	14	1276	(109)
Pig	68	(59)	59	(1)	17	1	145	(60)
Horse	58	(39)	109	(13)	38	1	206	(52)
Dog	1	–	212	(166)	14	1	228	(166)
Cat	–	–	1	–	1	–	2	–
Wild cat	–	–	–	–	1	1	2	–
Red deer	–	–	1	–	7	–	8	–
Roe deer	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	–
Deer	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–
Hare	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–
Bank vole	–	–	7	–	–	–	7	–
Field vole	–	–	73	–	19	–	92	–
Water vole	–	–	62	–	–	–	62	–
Wood mouse	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–
Pigmy shrew	–	–	–	–	45	–	45	–
Mouse	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–
Domestic fowl	–	–	–	–	2	–	2	–
Raven	–	–	2	–	–	–	2	–
Crow/rook	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–
Red kite	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–
Blackbird/thrush	–	–	1	–	2	–	3	–
Common frog		1	131	–	9	1	142	–
Total identified	1534	(1436)	1964	(313)	739	31	4268	(1749)
Large mammal	1794	(323)	729	(60)	355	21	2899	(383)
Medium mammal	105	(41)	681	(35)	213	12	1011	(76)
Small mammal	–	–	264	–	–	–	264	–
Bird indet.	–	–	1	–	4	–	5	–
Unidentifiable	48	–	890	–	665	43	1646	–
Total unidentifiable	1947	(364)	2565	(95)	1237	76	5825	(459)
Total	3481	(1800)	4529	(408)	1976	107	10093	(2208)

Common Domestic Species

Relative importance

All four methods of quantification (NISP, MNE, MNI, and MWE) indicate that cattle are by far the most important livestock species in the Early Iron Age assemblage (Table 15). However, the assemblage from this phase is dominated by material from deposit 2536, which includes a large number of ABGs and accounts for 90% of the total NISP (Table 16). The special significance of this deposit, as suggested by the selection and placement of carcass parts, most notably from cattle, means that the assemblage cannot be taken as representative of the wider pastoral economy. This point is particularly apparent when the NISP totals for livestock species are compared to those for the Early/Middle Iron Age assemblage from High Post and with other Iron Age sites in the Wessex region.

The Early/Middle Iron Age assemblage is almost exclusively from pits (Table 16), 12 of which include single (eg, pit 1236) or multiple (eg, pit 1017) ABGs. The bias presented by these ABGs is far less significant than for the bone deposit and, therefore, this assemblage can be taken as largely representative of the wider economy. Quantification methods (NISP, MNE, and MNI) all indicate that sheep were of prime importance (62–3% of livestock species), followed by cattle (32–4%) and then pig (4–5%), although cattle provided the majority (*c.* 76%) of the meat consumed at the site (Table 15). The low frequency of pig suggests that the landscape was largely opened up to arable cultivation and pasture for sheep and cattle grazing (see Wyles, below).

The general species proportions for this phase are typical of the majority of Early and Middle Iron Age enclosed settlements in Wessex and central southern England, particularly those on the chalk (Hambleton 1999, 45–6, 48–9, 55–6). Enclosed settlements in the region with sheep-dominated assemblages (>50% NISP) include Battlesbury, Wiltshire (Hambleton and Maltby 2008), Brighton Hill South (Maltby 1995), Chilbolton Down (Maltby 1984), Old Down Farm (Maltby 1981) and Rucstalls Hill (Gregory 1978), all in Hampshire. The importance of this species to the Iron Age economy of the region is also reflected by their dominance (61–69% NISP) in the assemblages from hillforts such as Danebury, Hampshire (Grant 1984; 1991) and Maiden Castle, Dorset (Armour-Chelu 1991).

The late Romano-British assemblage is largely (66% of the total) from ditches, in particular the

Table 15 Animal bone: relative frequency of livestock species by NISP, MNE, MNI, and MWE by period

Species	*Early Iron Age*		*Early/ Middle Iron Age*		*Late Romano-British*	
	NISP	%	NISP	%	NISP	%
Cattle	1319	93	453	34	256	42.6
Sheep	87	6	848	62	327	54.4
Pig	10	1	59	4	17	3
Total	1416	100	1360	100	600	100
	MNE	%	MNE	%	MNE	%
Cattle	1076	94	297	32	196	53
Sheep	59	5	590	63.4	160	43.5
Pig	9	1	43	4.6	13	3.5
Total	1144	100	930	100	369	100
	MNI	%	MNI	%	MNI	%
Cattle	27	79	19	32	9	31
Sheep	5	15	38	63	19	65.5
Pig	2	6	3	5	1	3.5
Total	34	100	60	100	29	100
	MWE (kg)	%	MWE (kg)	%	MWE (kg)	%
Cattle	7425	95.4	5225	75.7	2475	75.6
Sheep	187.5	2.4	1425	20.6	712.5	21.8
Pig	170	2.2	255	3.7	85	2.6
Total	7782.5	100	6905	100	3272.5	100

Meat weights based on 275 kg for cattle, 37.5 kg for sheep and 85 kg for pig after Boessneck *et al.* 1971

Table 16 Animal bone: number of specimens (NISP) by feature/deposit type and period

Period	*Species*	*Pit*	*Ditch*	*Gully*	*Spread*	*Other*	*Total*
Early Iron Age	Cattle	14	24	–	1281	–	1319
	Sheep	21	18	–	48	–	87
	Pig	61	1	–	6	–	68
	Horse	3	7	–	48	–	58
	Dog	–	1	–	–	–	1
	Other	1	–	–	–	–	1
Total		100	51	–	1383	–	1534
% Total		6.5	3.5	–	90	–	100
Early/Middle Iron Age	Cattle	440	2	5	–	6	453
	Sheep	829	7	7	–	5	848
	Pig	52	3	4	–	–	59
	Horse	104	1	3	–	1	109
	Dog	210	1	1	–	–	212
	Other	283	–	–	–	–	283
Total		1918	14	20	–	12	1964
% Total		97.6	0.7	1	–	0.6	100
Late Roman	Cattle	33	200	–	–	23	256
	Sheep	69	231	–	–	27	327
	Pig	2	10	–	–	5	17
	Horse	3	30	–	–	5	38
	Dog	2	11	–	–	1	14
	Other	1	7	–	–	79	87
Total		110	489	–	–	140	739
% Total		14.8	66.1	–	–	19	100

enclosure ditch (slots 1090, 1625, and 1635; Table 16). The four quantification methods all give slightly different results (Table 15). Sheep are the most common species (54%) according to NISP, but MNE indicates that cattle bones are more abundant (53%). This discrepancy implies that cattle bones are less fragmented than sheep bones which is surprising since cattle require more extensive butchery to reduce the carcass into manageable portions. The MNI results, on the other hand, indicate that there are more sheep present than cattle (65% compared to 31%). When considered together with the MNE results, it appears that, although there are fewer sheep than cattle bones, the range of sheep body parts is less diverse and therefore the MNI count is higher. This evidence could indicate the selective import or export of mutton joints or simply be a product of sample size. Regardless of the discrepancies between these three quantification methods, it is clear that cattle provided most (75%) of the animal-based protein consumed at the site during the late Romano-British period. Taking just the NISP counts, species proportions for the late Romano-British phase are similar to the Early/Middle Iron Age phase and this is typical of many rural settlements, with the exception of villas which tend to have higher cattle bone frequencies (King 1978; 1984; 1991; 1999). Horse bones are slightly more numerous in the assemblage that pig bones, at *c.* 5% of the total NISP, or 4–5.5% per phase.

Body parts

Ninety per cent of the Early Iron Age assemblage is from deposit 2536 – a placed deposit comprising 155 ABGs and a quantity of disarticulated bones. In total, there are 1047 cattle bones (by MNE) from at least 25 individuals (*c.* 6900 kg of beef), 57 sheep bones from five individuals (*c.* 190 kg of mutton), 48 horse bones (MNI = 1, *c.* 300 kg of horsemeat), and 9 pig bones (MNI = 1, *c.* 85 kg of pork).

Cattle are clearly the dominant species in this deposit and all parts of the beef carcass are represented including small skeletal elements such as carpals, tarsals, and even sesamoid bones. Skulls are the most common skeletal element overall (Fig. 30); most (64%) are disarticulated (eg, ABGs 244, 261, and 286), some include the lower jaw (eg, ABGs 237, 264, and 278), whilst others were deposited as articulated units with the rest of the axial skeleton (ie, spinal column and ribs), for example ABGs 257 and 313. Complete and partial sections of the axial skeleton, minus the skull and mandibles, are also a common feature of the deposit. Groups that include the thoracic and/or lumbar and sacral regions (eg, ABGs 235 and 269), occasionally with the pelvic girdle (eg, ABGs 256, 273, and 426) are particularly common compared to sections from the cervical region. Articulating limbs (eg, ABGs 275 and 240) are another common feature and most are from the hindquarters. Analysis of anatomical position indicates that there was no side preference in the selection of cattle body parts. The body part representation for other species is similar to cattle (ie, mostly skulls and parts of the thoracic region.

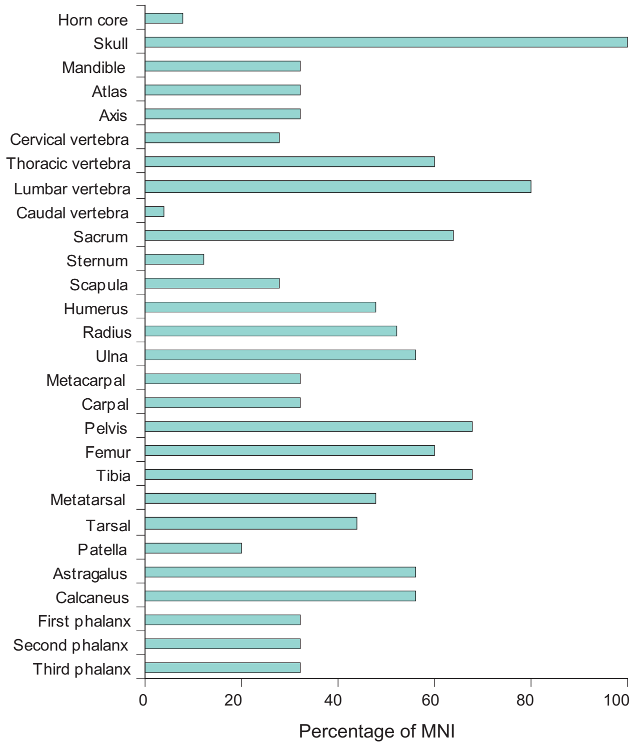

Figure 30 Cattle bone assemblage from Early Iron Age deposit 2536

The Early/Middle Iron Age cattle bone assemblage is much smaller at just 297 bones (by MNE) from at least 19 individuals and the body part information indicates some similarities with deposit 2536 (ie, an abundance of skulls) but also some differences, most notably the under-representation of bones from the hindquarters. The sheep bone assemblage from this phase is comparatively large, comprising of 590 bones (by MNE) from at least 38 individuals. All parts of the mutton carcass are represented, indicating local slaughter and consumption, and the most common skeletal elements are generally those that show a good survival and recovery rate in most Iron Age assemblages (Hambleton 1999, 31). Only 59 pig bones were recovered and these are from a minimum of seven individuals.

Eighteen cattle ABGs were recorded from eight separate Early/Middle Iron Age pits; over half are skulls, many of which occur as isolated elements (eg, ABGs 226 and 227 from pit 1959) or were found in

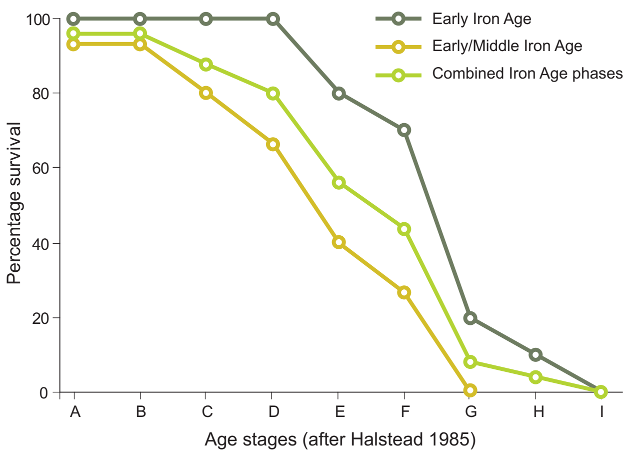

Figure 31 Iron Age cattle age at death profiles based on dental eruption and occlusal wear for mandibles

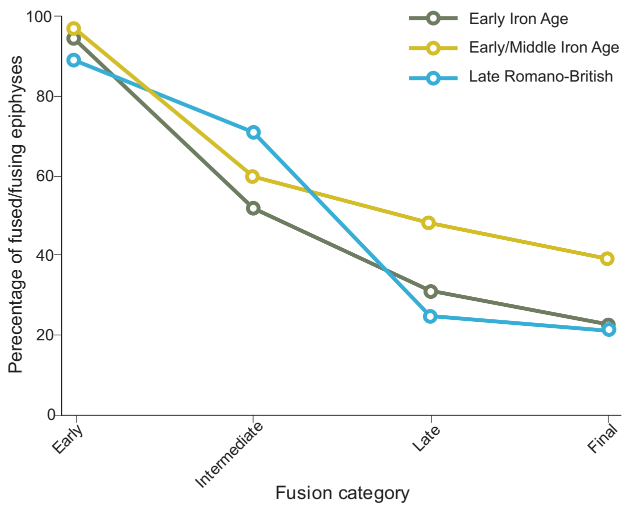

Figure 32 Cattle: percentage of fused/fusing epiphyses by fusion category

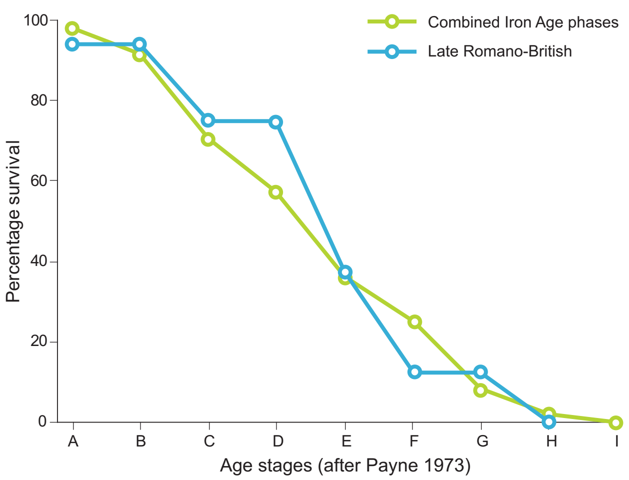

Figure 33 Sheep age at death profiles based on dental eruption and occlusal wear for mandibles

articulation with the lower jaw and cervical vertebrae (eg, ABG 23 from pit 1017). Other cattle ABGs include parts of the axial skeleton (eg, ABG 29) and limbs (eg, ABGs 24 and 25). The assemblage from pit 1017 also includes a number of ABGs from other species and is further described below.

The late Romano-British assemblage is quite small and includes the bones from just nine cattle, 19 sheep and a pig. Given the small size of the sample it is unsurprising that some body parts are under-represented and others are entirely absent.

Age and sex

All of the cattle mandibles from the Early Iron Age bone deposit are from animals over 30–36 months of age (stage E), half are adults (stage G) and the rest are old adult and senile cattle (Fig. 31). A similar pattern was noted for Early/Middle Iron Age mandibles although some cattle were slaughtered at an earlier age (stages A, C, and D) than in the previous phase. Age information based on epiphyseal fusion of the post-cranial skeleton is more abundant than that available from mandibles. This information suggests that there is little overall difference in mortality patterns between Iron Age phases (Fig. 32). Only a small proportion of cattle from each phase were culled before 12–18 months (early fusion category), after which there is a fairly steady rate of mortality across all age groups. The late Romano-British fusion data indicates more intensive culling of animals in their prime but is otherwise similar to that for the Iron Age phases.

The Iron Age cattle mortality pattern is fairly typical for the Wessex region (Hambleton 1999, 81–3). The low rate of neonate/calf mortality and peaks of slaughter amongst animals past the optimum age for prime beef generally indicates that cattle were kept mainly as a source of dairy products and to support arable farming by providing manure and traction (*ibid.*, 87–8). The fact that this basic pattern remains largely unchanged into the late Romano-British period is probably a reflection of the continued importance and intensification of arable farming (Johnstone and Albarella 2002, 45; Thomas and Stallibrass 2008, 10).

Sex determinations for seven cattle pelves from the Early Iron Age bone deposit suggest a ratio of five males to two females. The preferential slaughter of male cattle is likely to have been both practical and symbolic. In a husbandry regime geared toward dairying males are obviously more expendable than females; furthermore the characteristics associated with them (eg, virility and fertility) are likely to have been of some significance in ceremonies.

In total there are 63 sheep mandibles and the majority (47 or 75%) are from Iron Age phases. Sheep from all age groups are represented in the Iron Age dataset, from lambs through to old adults (Fig. 33). The rate of mortality is fairly gradual, with minor peaks of slaughter at 6–12 months, 2–3 years and 4–6 years (stages C, E, and G). The late Romano-British mandibles are also from a range of ages, although most were slaughtered between the ages of 2 and 4 years (stages E and F). The epiphyseal fusion data suggests a slightly different mortality pattern, most notably a higher mortality rate amongst Iron Age lambs, followed by a steady rate of mortality across older age groups, whilst the late Romano-British curve is more abrupt and shows a steep rate of mortality amongst older animals.

In her survey of Iron Age assemblages, Hambleton (1999, 70–3) suggested that sheep mortality profiles (based on mandibles) for the Wessex and central southern England region, can be divided into two main groups, one with a high (65–80%) survival rate beyond 6–12 months (stage C) and one with a low (40–55%) survival rate beyond this age group. These groups are thought to represent different husbandry strategies, with low survival rates taken to indicate the deliberate and intense culling of yearlings. The High Post mortality pattern, with its high (63–70% depending on method) survival rate beyond 6–12 months, reflects a less intensive regime in which older animals were exploited for meat. Both strategies, however, fit with the general idea that sheep husbandry in Iron Age Britain was closely associated with extensive arable cultivation (*ibid.*, 70). The late Romano-British sheep mortality pattern suggests that older sheep were exploited and this fits with general trends noted from other sites (King 1984, 198; 1991, 17; Thomas and Stallibrass 2008, 11).

Age information for pigs is relatively scarce; the Iron Age assemblage includes both newborn piglets (0–2 months; stage A) and young adults (21–27 months; stage E), which seems to suggest local breeding and rearing. Most of the horse bones from the site are from adults; however, both adult and immature animals are present in the Early/Middle Iron Age assemblage, including a very young foal aged less than 3–6 months. The presence of foals and immature horse is usually an indication that they were being bred and reared on site, probably for traction but also as a source of meat.

Size and conformation

The biometric data indicates that the Iron Age cattle from High Post were all small and short horned breeds (see Sykes and Symmons 2007, 515), that they were probably not a genetically isolated population and that a general improvement in their size took place between the Iron Age and the late Romano-British period. Analysis of the sheep biometric data indicates that there was little overall improvement in size between periods (see Thomas 2008, 44) and that all of the sheep skulls are from horned breeds, of a similar stature to unimproved Shetland ewes but with more slender limbs (see Davis 1996, 596).

For horses, withers height estimates indicate a range of sizes, from small ponies of *c.* 11 hands to large horses of *c.* 15.3 hands. Most Iron Age horses are 10–13 hands at the withers (Maltby 1996, 23); however, animals of 14–15 hands have been recorded from some sites including, for example, Danebury (Grant 1991, 476).

Butchery

Butchery marks were most evident on cattle bones (N = 338, 17% of the total). The Early/Middle Iron Age and late Romano-British phases have the highest proportion of butchered cattle bones (27% and 17% of the total by phase). The comparatively low frequency (13% of the total) of butchery marks on cattle bones from the Early Iron Age deposit (2536) indicates that the beef carcasses from this deposit were not intensively butchered, which is unsurprising given that the deposit largely comprises articulated groups.

Cut marks are the most common type of butchery evidence in all phases; the proportion of cut marks is highest in the two Iron Age phases, 89–97% of the total by phase, compared to just 58% in the late Romano-British period. Cleavers were occasionally used, particularly in the late Romano-British phase and this trend that has been noted at other sites (Maltby 1985, 20; Seetah 2006, 112). The use of saws appears to have been restricted to horn-working (see Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 90).

The majority of butchery marks on cattle bones from the Early Iron Age deposit (2536) result from three processes, skinning (32%), disarticulation (22%), and filleting (43%). Marks made during the skinning process were most evident on skulls, mandibles, and phalanges, the areas with the thinnest covering of soft tissue. The relatively high frequency of marks attributable to filleting indicates that at least some of the placed joints, notably the portions of thoracic vertebrae and ribs, were stripped of their meat. However, the evidence is fairly minimal given the overall size of the cattle bone assemblage from this deposit.

Much of the butchery evidence on cattle bones from the other two phases results from disarticulation and filleting, whilst evidence for skinning is largely restricted to skulls (mostly ABGs) from Early/Middle Iron Age pits. One scapula from Early/Middle Iron Age pit 1953 has damage to the blade that is consistent with the insertion of a butchers hook. This particular joint was probably hung for storage, or some other process such as curing.

Butchery marks were recorded on only 57 sheep bones in the entire assemblage (4.5% of the total), the evidence indicates that knives were predominantly used to disarticulate and fillet mutton carcasses. Butchered horse bones (27% of the total) are more numerous and the pattern of cut marks, notably those observed on the humerus and pelvis, are identical to those seen on cattle bones. This indicates that horse carcasses were systematically butchered for meat and similar evidence has been recorded at a number of sites; regional examples include Groundwell Farm (Coy 1982) and Battlesbury (Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 90) in Wiltshire.

Other Species

Dog

Dog bones are slightly more numerous than horse bones; they account for 5.3% NISP and most (93%) are from Early/Middle Iron Age pits (Table 16). The bones are from a minimum of nine individuals and all age classes, from foetal/neonate to adult, are represented. Eight ABGs were noted, including four separate animals (no ABG numbers allocated) from pit 1022 and single ABGs (75, 79, and 211) from pits 1302, 1349, and 1948. The four animals from pit 1022 include two adults and two foetuses, one of the adult skeletons is semi-complete and the rest are partial skeletons. The more complete of the adult dog skeletons shows signs of age degenerative arthritis and has several healed fractures on different areas of the body, including a depressed fracture on the skull (near the snout) caused by blunt force trauma.

The other ABGs are all partial skeletons; the dogs from pits 1302 (ABG 75) and 1349 (ABG 211) are both adults and butchery marks in the form of fine knife cuts, were noted on several of their bones. The marks are virtually identical on both skeletons and it is likely that these animals were processed for their skins and meat given the evidence for both skinning and disarticulation. Butchered dog bones have been recorded at a number of other sites, for example Potterne (Locker 2000, 106) and Battlesbury (Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 91), but the evidence is generally insufficient to suggest that dogs were systematically processed for meat or skins; indeed, in the western hemisphere in the more recent past dogs are generally only eaten as a last resort (Murphy 2001; Campana and Crabtree 2006). The ABG (79) from pit 1349 is that of a juvenile dog aged *c.* 5–6 months. All of the dogs from Iron Age contexts are small–medium sized animals, which is consistent with the data from other Iron Age sites (Harcourt 1974, 163; Clark 2000).

Cat, deer, and hare

These species are extremely rare in the assemblage (0.3% total NISP). Most of the red deer remains are fragments of antler from late Romano-British contexts and these appear to have been collected from shed material rather than removed from carcasses. Of note are two large pieces of antler from possible post-Romano-British demolition (2604, see Mepham, below) and backfill deposits (2458) associated with corn drying oven 2600. The antlers do not appear to have been used as tools (eg, rakes) therefore their deposition probably had special significance since they represent a considerable loss of valuable raw material that could otherwise have been used to manufacture objects. The presence of hare indicates that wild mammals were occasional trapped and probably processed for their meat and fur.

Birds

The assemblage includes a small number of bird bones (0.2% total NISP). Two domestic fowl bones were identified from the late Romano-British phase; both are adult birds, one a female. Red kite and corvids (ie, raven and crow/rook) were probably attracted to the site by the opportunity to scavenge (see Mulkeen and O'Connor 1997) although it is worth noting that corvids were important in Iron Age ritual and religious practices and their presence in the pit assemblages could be deliberate (Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 87; Serjeantson and Morris 2011; Serjeantson 1991, 481; 2009, 360). The other birds are all members of the Turdidae family (eg, blackbirds, thrushes, etc) and probably represent incidental inclusions.

Rodents and frogs

A large number of rodent and frog bones were recovered from Early/Middle Iron Age pits. The vast majority (90%) are from the secondary fill (1099) of pit 1017, which also included a large number of ABGs. The deposit includes the remains of at least 20 water voles, a field vole, a mouse, and a large number of frogs, all of which probably represent pitfall victims (Piper and O'Connor 2001). This last point is significant to the interpretation of the ABGs from this context since it supports the idea that the pit was left open for a period with its carefully placed contents visible. Similar evidence has been noted at other sites, for example Battlesbury in Wiltshire (Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 87) and Bleadon, Somerset (Higbee 2008, 50).

All the late Romano-British rodent and frog bones are from corn drying oven 2600. They include at least nine pigmy shrews, a field vole, and a number of frogs. All these animals are likely to have found refuge within the structure or in crevasses created as the structure deteriorated.

The presence of this small range of species gives some indication of environmental conditions local to the site. The rodent species suggest a mosaic of open countryside and arable fields broken up by hedgerows, while the frog remains indicate the presence of stagnant water nearby.

Bone Deposit 2536 and other associated bone groups

Deposits of this type have received a significant amount of attention by archaeologists (Grant 1984; 1991; Hill 1995; Morris 2008a; 2008b; 2010; Wilson 1999) and generally have heavily loaded terms such as 'sacrificial' and 'ritual' applied to them. Such interpretative descriptions are largely unhelpful since they gloss over differences in the human actions that lead to the creation of individual deposits and, consequently, their meaning (Morris 2010, 20–1). In order to overcome this, the High Post ABGs are described and interpreted in terms of their composition, stratigraphic position, and similarity with other ABGs or assemblages.

Early Iron Age Bone Deposit 2536

The bone deposit includes 1436 fragments from a minimum of 32 animals: 25 cattle, 5 sheep, a pig, and a horse. It has been possible to define 155 separate ABGs from the spread of material. Together the 32 animals represent *c.* 7450 kg of meat which, assuming a ration of *c.* 1 kg per person, is enough to feed nearly 7500 for one day. This is of course just an estimate, but it does provide some indication of the scale and significance of the activities that generated this deposit.

Despite the obvious bias towards cattle, there is little overall structure to the deposit in terms of the spatial distribution of carcass parts or their orientation. However, the material appears to have been carefully placed and certain body parts, such as the skull, thoracic, lumbar, and sacral/pelvic regions are more common than others, which suggests that these areas were preferentially selected for inclusion and might, therefore, have had special significance attached to them. In prehistoric Britain, as elsewhere, cattle were an important economic asset and, as the High Post mortality profiles suggest, were managed for a range of commodities including milk, manure, and meat, as well as being useful traction animals. Their economic importance is also reflected in their use in ceremonies and other significant social events to symbolise strength, wealth, and status. It is no coincidence, therefore, that the majority of the animals from the deposit are male.

The bones are largely confined within a long shallow cut and sealed by up-cast from the enclosure ditch. The deposit therefore pre-dates the enclosure and could potentially be interpreted as a 'foundation deposit' since its alignment appears to define the eventual course of the ditch in this part of the site and to underlie the suggested internal bank. It is easy to see how the construction of the enclosure would require a large workforce, all needing to be fed, and how the culmination of this collective effort might have been celebrated with a feast. Large 'midden' deposits generated by the coming together of significant numbers of people are known from other sites, for example the extensive Late Bronze Age/Early Iron Age deposits at Potterne in Wiltshire (Lawson 2000, 266–72) and, therefore, the notion of collective feasting to promote social cohesion is a distinct possibility. It is also perhaps worth noting that the deposit might have once been more extensive and only survives in part because it has been protected by the bank.

Recut of Early Iron Age pit 1236

The recut of the pit contained the semi-complete skeleton of a piglet (ABG 61) which had been placed centrally together with a quernstone and a quantity of burnt flint. It produced a radiocarbon date in the Middle Iron Age of 400–280 BC (2240±30 BP, SUERC-32313; Table 1). The animal appears to have died of natural causes although there was clearly some symbolism attached to its burial. Grant (1989; 1991, 482) recorded similar groups from Danebury and noted that most of the artefacts deposited with ABGs usually had a domestic function.

Early/Middle Iron Age pits

Thirty-three ABGs were identified from 12 Early/Middle Iron Age pits. The majority (55%) are cattle body parts, in particular skulls (30%); the emphasis placed on this species and area of the body is therefore similar to the Early Iron Age spread. Ten of the cattle skulls have numerous fine cut marks across their surfaces; these marks probably result from skinning, although similar marks seen on cattle skulls from Battlesbury have been interpreted as indicating that skulls were carefully cleaned for the purpose of display (Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 91–2). Evidence in support of this interpretation includes the loss of anterior teeth due to exposure and the absence of certain parts of the skull (eg, the occipital region) that were removed in order to facilitate hanging for display. A skull (ABG 6) from pit 1043 fits this pattern, but the lack of similar evidence on the other skulls suggests that this practice was uncommon at High Post. This does not however mean that cleaned skulls were concealed but that they more subtly displayed in pits

The assemblage from 1017 is a good case in point. This feature contained 17 carefully placed ABGs and a large number of pitfall victims (ie, rodents and frogs), clear evidence that the pit was left open for a period with the contents on view. The material on display included two cattle, two horse, and two sheep skulls, as well as articulated sections of vertebrae and rib and several articulated limbs. It is likely that most of the post-cranial bones belong to the same six animals as represented by the skulls, if this is the case then the fact that their carcasses were butchered and divided, but their remains collected up and deposited into the same pit reinforces the deliberate and structured nature of this deposit (Hill 1995). Deposits comprising processed carcasses that have been gathered together and carefully placed within pits have been noted at other Iron Age sites (Grant 1991, 482; Hambleton and Maltby 2008, 92).

The other ABGs are mostly (21%) dogs which were deposited as semi-complete or partial skeletons. The significance of the four dogs from pit 1022 is unclear, they could merely represent individuals that were culled in an attempt to control population numbers, as has been suggested for similar deposits from later periods at other sites (Hambleton 2006, 47). Alternatively, the inclusion of foetal remains could be taken as a symbol of fertility and rebirth. In the absence of information relating to their positioning within the pit, it is impossible to know what actions lead to the creation of this deposit. Interpretations for some of the other dog ABGs are a little easier, for example the partial skeletons (ABGs 75 and 211) from pits 1302 and 1349 had both been butchered but the remains were largely deposited together. These groups are therefore similar to the processed carcasses from pit 1017 and can be seen as deliberate and structured acts. Horse and sheep ABGs are comparatively rare and most are part of the large group of processed carcass parts from pit 1017.

Conclusions

Analysis of the High Post animal bone assemblage has shown that there was very little difference in the exploitation of livestock species between the Iron Age and late Romano-British period. The most noticeable differences were a general improvement in the size of cattle and a slight increase in the age at which sheep were slaughtered. In general, species proportions and slaughter patterns are similar to contemporary assemblages from other sites.

The assemblages from the two Iron Age phases include many distinctive groups, most notably the bone spread (2536) and the material from pit 1017. The bone spread has been interpreted as the remains of a communal feast associated with the foundation and construction of the enclosure. Whilst the pit assemblage has been interpreted as a deliberate and structured deposit of processed carcass parts, the significance of this is unclear. Both of these deposits represent short-term depositional events resulting from refuse disposal. Overall these deposits emphasis the close association between food consumption and ritual/symbolic acts, the precise meaning of which we may never fully understand.

Chapter 7
Environmental Evidence and Radiocarbon Dating

Charred Plant Remains

by Ruth Pelling

Seventy-one bulk samples, from features of Iron Age and Romano-British date, were taken for the extraction of charred plant remains. The samples from Iron Age features derive largely from pits, including storage pits, but also from gullies, post-holes, and ditches. The samples of Romano-British date include those from the large burnt spread (2076), and the corn drying oven (2600) cut into the Iron Age enclosure ditch. Following a rapid assessment of all flots, seven samples were examined in more detail from Iron Age deposits and five from Romano-British deposits. The Iron Age deposits all derive from pits or storage pits, while the Romano-British deposits came from the burnt spread and corn drying oven.

The bulk samples were processed by flotation in a modified Siraf-type machine with flots collected on a 0.5 mm mesh. The residues were fractionated onto 10 mm, 4 mm, 2 mm, and 0.5 mm mesh sizes, dried, and the 10 mm and 4 mm residues sorted by eye. Flots were scanned quickly under a binocular microscope at x10–x40 magnification at the assessment stage and the approximate abundance of grain, chaff, weed seeds, and charcoal recorded. Samples selected for more detailed examination were sorted to 1 mm. Given time constraints and the inherent difficulties in identification of cereal grains, wheat grains (*Triticum* sp.) were counted without any attempt to identify them to species. Glume bases extracted from the 1 mm flot were identified to species where preservation was sufficient. The 0.5 mm flots were sorted for weeds and chaff other than wheat, while hulled wheat glume bases were counted in the flot without extraction. One >1 mm flot was so rich in wheat chaff that the first 646 glume bases extracted were identified after which no further attempt to extract them was made. The estimated total number of glume bases is in excess of 5000. Similarly the number of weed seeds in the 0.5 mm flot from the stoke-hole of the corn drying oven (context 2616) was so high that they were not extracted. Seeds were counted and the range of species present was recorded. Nomenclature and taxonomic order of wild species follows Stace (1997). The majority of samples not examined in more detail produced only few plant remains indicative of background scatters of charred waste. Samples which contained more useful quantities of remains but which were not examined in detail are included in the tables (Tables 17 and 18). While charcoal was noted in a number of samples, it was only ever present in small quantities and is likely to have been reworked and consequently of limited interpretive value, particularly where it occurred in pits. Charcoal from the stoke-hole of the corn drying oven (context 2616) is likely to be derived from fuel. Time constraints prevented detailed identification of the taxa and analysis was therefore limited to careful scanning and the identification of oak or non-oak taxa.

Iron Age

Storage and other pits

A total of 47 samples were examined, of which 11 produced good quantities of charred remains with in excess of 50 grain, chaff or weed items, with eight producing in excess of 100 items. The samples with fewer than 50 items can be regarded as containing background deposits of charred remains, much of which is likely to have been reworked and subject to mixing and disturbance. Of the seven samples selected for detailed analysis, five contained in excess of 100 items (from pits 1185, 1286, 1317, 1609, and two samples from 1706; Table 17). An additional sample from 1317 was examined to provide a more detailed study of the pit. The seventh sample, from pit 1609, produced few charred seeds but did contain a large number of silica chaff items (awn fragments, glume fragments, and glume tips).

Of the richer samples all produced cereal grain, chaff, and weed seeds in varying proportions. Numerous silica chaff skeletons were present in samples from pits 1286 and 1609. The pits examined have been dated on the basis of pottery to the Early Iron Age (pit 1185), the Early/Middle Iron Age (pit 1286) and the Middle Iron Age (pits 1317, 1609, and 1706). The remaining pits not examined in detail, but which contained useful quantities of material, were all of Middle Iron Age date. There is insufficient evidence to trace any significant temporal shifts from the Early to Middle Iron Age in terms of crops cultivated or arable methods and it is likely that agricultural practice remained relatively constant through this period.

Table 17 Charred plant remains from Iron Age pits

	Pit	1185	1286	1317		1609	1706		
	Context	*1187*	*1437*	*1318*	*1319*	*1615*	*1713*		*1707*
	Sample	*5*	*20*	*24*	*25*	*36*	*40*		*41*
	Size (l)	*10*	*18*	*10*	*20*	*2*	*10*	*10*	*10*
	Flot size (ml)	*12*	*18*	*10*	*30*	*2*	*35*	*35*	*5*
	Charcoal	*<1*	*7*	*20a*	*2b*	*-*	*8c*	*8c*	*<1*
	Mesh size (mm)	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*
Cereals									
Triticum sp. hexaploid	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat glume base	1	59	–	1	–	3	17	7
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat spikelet fork	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer glume base	13	153	2	12	2	9	–	77
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer spikelet fork	–	45	2	3	–	5	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat grain	16	35	–	19	–	38	–	2
Triticum sp.	Wheat, grain, germinated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, rachis internode	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, free threshing type rachis node	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, awn fragments, silica	–	500+	–	–	100+	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, glume fragments, silica	–	–	–	–	20+	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, glume tips, silica	–	–	–	–	10+	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain	40	80	–	38	–	2	–	5
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain, germinated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare 6-row	rachis	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare	rachis	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	1
Cerealia indet	grain	56	59	10	127	21	47	–	5
Cerealia indet	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	basal culm node/rhizome	–	8	–	–	–	6	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	culm node	–	5	–	–	–	11	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	detached embryo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	coleoptile	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Weeds/wild species									
Ranunculus acris/repens/bulbosus	Buttercups	–	1	–	–	–	17	–	–
Papaver rhoeas/dubium	Common/Longheaded Poppy	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Fumaria officinalis	Common Fumitory	3	5	–	1	–	2	–	1
Urtica dioica	Common Nettle	–	5	–	–	–	–	–	–
Urtica urens	Small Nettle	–	48	–	–	–	–	–	–
Corylus avellana	Hazel nutshell fragment	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Atriplex sp.	Orache	–	250+	–	–	–	1	1	1
Montia fontana subsp. *Chondrosperma*	Blinks	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Stellaria media	Common Chickweed	–	13	–	1	–	–	–	–
Silene sp.	Campions	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–
Polygonum aviculare agg	Knotgrass	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed	–	19	–	1	–	2	–	1
cf. *Fallopia convolvulus*	cf. Black Bindweed, internal cotyledon	–	11	–	–	–	–	–	–
Rumex sp.	Docks	–	7	–	3	–	12	2	1
Polygonaceae		2	6	–	–	–	2	–	–
Brassicaceae		–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–
Calluna vulgaris	Heather, immature seed capsules	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	–
cf. *Calluna vulgaris*	cf. Heather, empty capsule base	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Aphanes arvensis	Parsley-Piert	1	5	–	1	–	–	–	–
Vicia/Lathyrus >2 mm	Vetch/Tare/Vetchling etc	1	10	–	1	–	–	–	–
Medicago lupulina	Black Medick	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Medicago/Trifolium type	Medick/Clover/Trefoil type	–	264	–	2	–	–	–	–
Linum catharticum	Fairy Flax	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Apiaceae, indet	Small seeded	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Apiaceae, indet	Large seeded	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Lithospermum arvense	Field Gromwell	–	12	–	–	–	–	–	–
Plantago lanceolata		–	8	–	–	–	–	–	–
Odontites vernus	Red Bartsia	–	12	–	5	–	–	1	1
Sherardia arvensis	Field Madder	1	29	–	–	–	–	–	–
Galium aparine	Goosegrass/ Cleavers	–	64	–	3	–	29	1	2
Galium sp.	Small seeded	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited cornsalad	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed	1	101	–	8	–	–	1	–
Carex sp.	Sedge, 2-sided	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poa annua/Phleum sp. Type		–	6	–	1	1	–	–	–
Lolium/Festuca sp.	Rye grass/Fescue type	–	7	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bromus sp.	Brome Grass	3	14	–	–	–	–	–	–
Anisantha sterilis	Barren Brome	–	–	–	–	–	2	1	–
Arrhenatherum elatius	False oat grass, tuber	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Poaceae	Grass, small seeded	–	29	1	–	1	–	3	1
Poaceae	Grass, large seeded	–	10	–	–	–	1	–	1
indet seeds		1	50	–	6	–	–	–	2
Total weeds		13	695	2	37	2	70	18	13
Mineral globules		–	++	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ashy lumps		–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Charred stem fragments	heather type stem	–	–	–	–	–	+++	–	–
Molluscs, burnt		–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–

Two cultivated species were identified: spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*), identified on the basis of chaff, and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), identified by both grain and chaff. It is probable that the majority of wheat grain is derived from spelt wheat. A number of short rounded grains could be of a free-threshing wheat species although short grained spelt is frequently recorded on Iron Age and Romano-British sites. No emmer wheat or free-threshing wheat was positively identified. The barley appears to be a hulled six-row variety on the basis of typical hulled grain and diagnostic rachis segments.

Sample composition

The proportions of grain, chaff, and weed seeds are variable in the samples. Grain outnumbers chaff in samples from pits 1185, 1317, and 1706 (fill 1713). Given the differential survival rates of grain and chaff during charring (Boardman and Jones 1990) it is possible that these samples include spikelets of spelt wheat and barley grain burnt during storage, in roasting accidents or deliberately destroyed. Chaff, particularly glume bases and spikelet forks of hulled wheat, is more numerous in pit 1286 and fill 1707 from pit 1706. Pit 1286 also contains a large number of silica skeletons of awn fragments as well as a particularly substantial weed assemblage. Silica chaff was also present in pit 1609, suggesting this fill also originally contained husking waste. The presence of small quantities of chaff preserved as silica or opal skeletons hints that the chaff preserved by charring is only a small fraction of that which was originally present prior to burning (Robinson and Straker 1991). More detailed descriptions are provided for selected pits.

Pit 1286

The examination of the deposit from pit 1286 (fill 1437) suggested that the pit contained the dehusking by-product of spelt wheat (glume bases and many weed seeds) as well as barley grain which most probably represent occasional losses incorporated with chaff and weed seeds during processing. A large number of silica skeletons of awn fragments suggests that the original proportion of wheat chaff was much greater. This deposit contained a far greater quantity of chaff than any other Iron Age sample. This may be, in part, the product of preservation conditions within the pit but may also reflect the waste discarded in it. Also present were a large number of weed seeds (in excess of 1000 seeds) of both small seeded species (chickweed, red bartsia, parsley-piert), large seeded species (black bindweed, goosegrass, corn gromwell), as well as those which are retained in the seed head. Large seeded weeds may remain with the crop until the late stages of processing. Small seeded weeds may be removed following harvest prior to storage, or routinely during the year following storage, possibly if labour is scarce at harvest and pre-storage processing is kept to a minimum (Stevens 2006). However, such a substantial weed assemblage as represented here suggests that they derive either from an early stage of processing or that they include material from another source. The range of species present is typical of arable fields and contains some species particularly closely associated with cereal crops, such as corn gromwell and field madder. The presence of a small number of culm nodes and basal nodes/rhizomes of cereal type supports the interpretation of weeds and other waste removed at an early stage of processing. The presence of both early and late stages of processing suggests some general mixing of processing waste from different stages. A number of mineralised globules were also present. While no mineralisation of the seeds had occurred it is possible that some mineralisation was taking place in the pit, as would be consistent with stored manure.

Bell-shaped pit 1317

Two samples were examined from this deep pit. Fill 1318 produced only limited remains which may derive from the denser fill below (1319) or represent background scatters of material present in the backfill. Fill 1319 produced a grain-rich deposit in which barley outnumbered wheat although the majority of the grain was poorly preserved and of indeterminate genus. A small number of chaff items, including spelt wheat glume bases, confirms the presence of this species. A modest quantity of weed seeds included common arable weeds or ruderal species of disturbed habitats and cultivated plots, such as fumitory (*Fumaria officinalis*), poppy (*Papaver rhoeas/dubium*), chickweed, bindweed, docks, medicks/clovers, red bartsia, and scentless mayweed. A fragment of hazelnut shell (*Corylus avellana*) may derive from food waste or burnt fuel. Assuming the level of chaff in this feature is under-represented it is likely that these deposits consist of spikelets and grain lost in routine burning events following processing of cereals prior to use.

Pit 1706

Fill 1713 produced an interesting assemblage with a number of woody stem fragments which were not identified but which are typical of heather. This sample produced seven immature seed capsules of heather (*Calluna vulgaris*) and a further empty capsule more tentatively identified as such. Heather is typical of acidic heathland but could also occur on pockets of clay with flints. Small areas of chalk-heath vegetation occur on the chalk supporting a mixture of chalk-loving plants as well as plants more typical of acid soils. Heather may have been collected for fuel use or possibly for bedding or thatching material although it is unlikely that this would be a regular practice if it was not abundant locally. This sample contained more grain than chaff although, given their differential survival, it is likely that the original ratio was more equal. Spikelets of spelt wheat may, therefore, be represented. Barley grain was limited, consisting of two grains; a number of culm nodes and basal nodes/rhizomes of cereals or grasses suggest that crops may have been harvested by uprooting or cutting low on the straw (this inevitably results in some uprooting of rhizomes). The weed assemblage in this deposit consisted of relatively large numbers of seeds but from few species, including 29 seeds of goosegrass and frequent docks and buttercups (*Ranunculus acris/repens/bulbosus*). While most of the weeds may derive from arable fields, the presence of buttercups is more indicative of grassland habitats. Fill 1707 produced a more notable number of glume bases probably deriving from cereal processing waste, as well as occasional grain and weed seeds.

The Iron Age arable regime

Along with the wheat and barley that were cultivated in the area a useful number of non-arable taxa were identified in the samples, with a particularly notable weed assemblage in pit 1286. Many of the taxa identified are typical of arable or disturbed habitats on lighter chalky or base rich soils as found in the vicinity of the site and there is no indication of the cultivation of heavy clay soils. A number of species such as fairy flax, false oat grass, knapweed, and hawkweed are typical of grassland and field margins on the chalky soils of the region. Occasional seeds of damper ground, such as buttercups, blinks, and sedges, suggest some utilisation of wetter ground in the valley bottoms. Cleavers, field madder, and corn gromwell tend to be interpreted as typically autumn germinating (Reynolds 1981; Jones 1981; 1988; Grime *et al.* 1988), suitable for both spelt wheat and barley. Barley may also be spring sown.

The presence of low-growing as well as twining and scrambling species, and occasional basal nodes or rhizomes suggest that crops were harvested by cutting low on the straw or by uprooting, as has been interpreted for a number of Iron Age sites in the region (Jones 1981; de Moulins 1995; Ede 2001; Campbell 2000b; Clapham and Stevens 2008). Hillman, however, argues that uprooting would only introduce seeds of twining species (Hillman 1981; 1984) whereas, at many of these sites including High Post, species of upright habit are also common. In practice it is likely that harvesting by sickle low on the straw would inevitably result in the uprooting of some cereals and the harvesting of both twining and low-growing upright species.

It is not possible to make confident statements about cereal processing beyond suggesting that the pits have received the processing by-product of dehusking spelt wheat and possible spikelets and grain burnt in storage or during roasting. Stevens (2003) has argued that while large weed seeds will remain with the spelt crop until removed by hand immediately prior to milling, the presence of small seeded weeds is dependent on the degree of processing which takes place prior to the storage of spikelets. The majority of samples from High Post contain some grain, possibly spikelets, or chaff with large-seeded weeds. The presence of a large number of weed seeds, including from small-seeded varieties, not removed prior to storage, may indicate that the assemblage contains waste from earlier processing stages, and hence possibly that the crop was stored in a less processed state. However, it is equally possible that many of the weeds in this sample were sieved out while still in their seed heads or clusters. It is difficult to disentangle the origins of a single pit deposit and it is possible that more than one episode of processing is represented in pit 1286.

Romano-British

All five Romano-British samples examined were exceptionally rich in terms of the numbers of chaff, grain and in some cases weed seeds (Table 18).

Layer 2076

The sample from this large organic-rich spread across the infilled Iron Age enclosure ditch contained in excess of 5000 glume bases, as well as several hundred cereal grain and a small number of weed seeds. The sample was clearly derived from the dehusking waste of a spelt wheat crop, with some barley, possibly from ears, also present. Such a large number of glume bases must derive from a large-scale processing event or several repeated events rather than the smaller-scale, possibly piecemeal, processing events represented in the Iron Age features. The occasional grains are likely to have been lost accidentally. The very small number of weed seeds (112 seeds) indicates that the majority of weeds were removed from the processed spelt wheat prior to the dehusking event and, presumably, prior to storage. The weed seeds present were dominated by the seeds of brome grass which, being of similar size to the cereal grain, is likely to have remained with the grain until a late stage of processing, possibly picked out by hand at the same time as dehusking took place. Also common were seeds of stinking mayweed (*Anthemis cotula*), an annual member of the Asteraceae or daisy family which forms seed heads and is also difficult to remove from the grain, often being removed at the later stages of processing prior to milling. Given the proximity of this spread to the corn drying oven it is possible that the material derives from dehusking waste generated by the oven subsequently used as fuel.

Corn drying oven 2600

Unless a corn drying oven is burnt down during use, resulting in the burning and preservation of its

Table 18 Charred plant remains from Romano-British contexts

				Corn drying oven 2600									
	Feature/deposit	*Spread 2523*		*Stokehole*		*Flue*							
	Context	*2076*		*2616*		*2618*							
	Sample	*116*		*151*		*152*		*153*		*154*			
	Size (l)	*20*		*8*		*4*		*8*		*6*			
	Flot size (ml)	*100*		*60*		*75*		*160*		*50*			
	Charcoal	*<1*		*25a*		*2*		*2*		*2*			
	Mesh size (mm)	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*		
Cereals													
Triticum sp. hexaploid	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat glume base	286d	200+	61	–	20	–	32	–	8	–		
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat spikelet fork	1d	–	–	–	2	–	1	–	2	–		
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer glume base	340d	500+	97	515	12	65	35	507	10	67		
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer spikelet fork	19d	–	7	–	2	–	26	–	6	–		
Triticum sp.	Wheat grain	269	–	152e	–	133	–	344	–	102	–		
Triticum sp.	Wheat, grain, germinated	17	–	11e	–	5	–	13	–	5	–		
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain	92	–	135	–	62	–	123	–	61	–		
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain, germinated	1	–	12	–	1	–	2	–	–	–		
Hordeum vulgare 6-row	rachis	26	–	1	–	–	–	5	3	–	2		
Hordeum vulgare	rachis	1	8	–	4	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Cerealia indet	grain	446	–	47	–	138 g	–	494	–	140 g	–		
Poaceae, cereal sized	basal culm node/rhizome	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Poaceae, cereal sized	culm node	1	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Poaceae, cereal sized	detached embryo	–	–	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	10		
Poaceae, cereal sized	coleoptile	4	–	–	1	4	3	2	–	1	1		
Weed/wild species													
Papaver rhoeas/dubium	Common/Longheaded poppy	–	5	–	200+	–	1	–	1	–	–		
Urtica dioica.	Common Nettle	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Urtica urens	Small Nettle	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Chenopodium album	Fat Hen	1	2	–	+	–	1	–	–	–	–		
Atriplex sp.	Orache	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–		
Chenopodiaceae		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Agrostemma githago	Corncockle	–	–	6	–	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Silene sp.	Campions	7	7	3	+	–	4	5	4	–	–		
Caryophyllaceae		–	2	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
cf. Caryophyllaceae	seed capsule tip	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Polygonum aviculare agg	Knotgrass	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed	3	–	1	–	1	–	–	1	–	–		
Rumex sp.	Docks	7	1	53	+	–	–	4	–	1	–		
Polygonaceae		3	1	15	–	–	–	2	1	–	–		
Malva sp.		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Brassicaceae		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Sambucus nigra	Elder	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.>2 mm	Vetch/Tare/Vetchling etc	1	–	–	–	1	–	3	–	1	–		
Medicago/Trifolium type	Medick/Clover/Trefoil type	2	2	2	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Linum catharticum	Fairy Flax	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Apiaceae, indet	Small seeded	–	1	6	+	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Apiaceae, indet	Large seeded	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Solonaceae		1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Lithospermum arvense	Field Gromwell	1	–	2	–	8	–	3	–	2	–		
Stachys/Salvia sp.		–	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Plantago lanceolata		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	1	–	–		
Odontites vernus	Red Bartsia	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Sherardia arvensis	Field Madder	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Galium aparine		1	–	5	–	–	–	2	–	–	–		
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited cornsalad	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Centaurea sp.		2	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Anthemis cotula	Stinking Mayweed	7	32	–	200+	–	3	–	8	–	3		
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed	–	1	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Leontodon autumnalis	Autumn Hawkbit	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–		
Asteraceae	Large seeded	–	–	8	–	–	–	–	2	–	–		
Carex sp.	Sedge, 2sided	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–		
Poa annua/Phleum sp. type		8	82	–	+	–	2	–	9	–	2		
Lolium/Festuca sp.	Rye grass/Fescue type	2	2	2	+	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Bromus sp.	Brome Grass	62	–	43	–	5	–	21	–	3	–		
Anisantha sterilis	Barren Brome	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–		
Poaceae	Grass, small seeded	–	–	1	+	–	–	–	11	–	–		
Poaceae	Grass, large seeded	–	–	5	–	–	–	7	–	–	–		
indet seeds		–	4	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Total weeds		112	142	166	719f	16	11	51	40	7	5		
Large fruit/nut	Indet	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Molluscs	Volume >2 mm	15	–	5	–	55	–	110	–	40	–		
Mammal bone	Small	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Insect pupa, charred		–	–	3	1	–	–	1	1	–	–		

a – charcoal mostly oak; b – clinkered conglomerated mass; c – includes stem material, probably heather; d – in excess of 500 glumes present so small number counted then stopped; e – grain well preserved, in contrast to flue, and included larger numbers of spelt; f – weeds counted but not individual species; g – frequent non-quantifiable grain fragments; h – glume bases counted but not extracted from 0.5 mm flot contents, the fills can be assumed to represent post-use backfill. The basal fills, however, frequently appear to be related to the function of the structure, derived from the final use, from spent fuel, a deposit of burnt contents lost during the final episode or use, or possibly accumulated over a period of time if not completely cleaned out. The examination of the basal fills, particularly when sampled spatially, can provide some clues as to the function of the structure and possibly fuel use. Separate samples were taken from the stoke-hole and flue of the corn drier enabling a comparison of its fuel and contents. The flue was sampled in three locations – the main flue and each side of the cross flue. All four samples were dominated by cereal grain with frequent chaff. Given the differential survival of chaff and grain it is likely that the grain derived from spikelets of spelt wheat and possibly ears of barley. Small numbers of grains had germinated. Weeds were infrequent in the flue samples suggesting some degree of sieving had taken place to remove the weeds from the spikelets/ears. The preservation of grain in the flues was very poor, reflected in the high number of indeterminate grain. The grain was pitted and honeycombed suggesting a large degree of weathering as well as being subjected to high levels of heat within a fairly well oxygenated environment. It is possible that much of this material represents grain or spikelets which fell through a raised floor in the structure and became charred in the heat of the oven over time, representing several episodes of use. Alternatively it may simply be that the waste or the fuel from the final episode of use was thrown into the flue as refuse, or that small quantities of spent fuel were routinely pushed into the flues while the stoke-hole was cleared out.

The stoke-hole sample contained a large number of grains and glume bases as well as barley grain and rachis. However, the composition of the sample and preservation of the grain was very different to that of the flue samples. Glume bases outnumbered grains in the stoke-hole suggesting that a greater percentage of cereal processing by-product was included, although grains of both barley and wheat were still present in large numbers suggesting spikelets or ears of grain were present. More strikingly the preservation of the grain in the stoke-hole was significantly better than in the flue samples, many grain still retaining their epidermis. Possibly this is a reflection of burning conditions, particularly if the stoke-hole was enclosed therefore reducing the amount of oxygen. Alternatively it may simply reflect the speed of accumulation of the material, particularly if the flue samples were composed of material which had fallen through a raised floor and become charred in the heat of the oven over time. In addition, this sample contained a large number of weed seeds, particularly of poppy, stinking mayweed, docks, and brome grass. The common weeds in this sample may derive from single seed heads, especially the poppy and stinking mayweed. Seed heads may be removed from spikelets or ears which are about to be roasted, dried, or malted, and then thrown back into the stoke-hole or added to chaff intended for fuel, or left in a spikelet or grain deposit which was damaged in some way and therefore burnt as fuel. It is interesting to note the presence of charred insect pupa in the sample from the stoke-hole, possibly indicating that the grain was being burnt as fuel due to an insect infestation.

A review of the botanical evidence derived from corn driers by van der Veen (1989) suggested that they may have been multi-functional structures used for drying or parching grain (or spikelets) as well as for malting. More recent examples generally support this. Examples examined from sites in the Danebury Environs Project for example confirm they were used for either dehusking spelt wheat or drying malted spelt wheat grain, with evidence for the processing (malting) of barley recovered from a single site only (Campbell 2008). Corn dryers at Beach's Barn and Chisenbury Warren on Salisbury Plain appear to have been used in part for malting and contained both spelt wheat and barley (Stevens 2006). A few grains in the High Post corn drying oven had sprouted, although an insufficient number to imply confidently that malting was taking place (Table 18). It must be considered, however, that the charred material recovered from the structure consists of the grain which did not go on to be used for malt and therefore we would not expect large percentages to have germinated perfectly. It is possible that either malting, or drying or roasting prior to dehusking was taking place. The presence of barley and spelt wheat suggests either that the two crops were processed together, in which case this is more likely for malting purposes, or that the material is derived from several episodes of use. Assuming the dark spread (2076) is related to the use of the oven, then it appears that the chaff-rich assemblage derived from the chaff removed following processing in the oven.

The material in the stoke-hole was presumably derived from fuel. A greater quantity of charcoal was present in the stoke-hole than the flue samples although still not in particularly large quantities. Most of the charcoal appears to have been oak with only one or two fragments of other taxa. The fuel used in the oven appears to consist of cereal processing waste (chaff and weeds) and possibly spoilt grain as well as some wood fuel. It is possible that the spoilt grain was used as fuel in the final episode of use of the structure while cereal processing waste was the more usual fuel. The spent fuel (mostly chaff) then appears to have been thrown onto the filled enclosure ditch to the south-east of the oven, resulting in a large accumulation of material over time. The use of processing waste (chaff and weeds) as fuel in corn dryers is well attested (van der Veen 1989; Stevens 2006; Pelling 1999; Campbell 2008). A large corn dryer at Fullerton, Hampshire, produced evidence for a range of fuel including mixed wood fuel, principally ash, with smaller amounts of birch, oak, and field maple and traces of hazel and sloe/plum type, as well as cereal chaff, possible stable waste, and general rubbish (Campbell 2008, 71). This mixture of fuel was interpreted as being derived from episodes of general burning in the corn dryer including possible structural timbers when the building fell into disuse. The use of chaff including straw and weed seeds appears to be the more usual fuel. This would affect the taste of the grain less strongly than the use of wood fuel, and would furthermore be generated regularly through roasting/parching/drying or malting episodes.

The Romano-British arable regime

The crops cultivated in the Romano-British period remained unchanged from the proceeding Iron Age with both spelt wheat and barley represented. The quantity of cereal grains and chaff was significantly greater in the later period, however, which must be largely the result of a more industrial scale of cereal processing and the use of corn dryers. Samples from only late Romano-British contents were examined and it is possible that this increase in the scale of cereal processing did not occur until late into the period. In addition there is a change in weed species associated with the cereals. Two new species occur: stinking mayweed and corncockle (*Agrostemma githago*). Both species are annual weeds closely associated with autumn sown wheat and ubiquitous in cereal assemblages in the Saxon and medieval periods. Corncockle is not native to the British Isles and is generally regarded as a Roman introduction which spread relatively quickly with the transportation of grain. Stinking mayweed, conversely, is a native species particularly associated with the cultivation of heavy clay, and therefore probably not incorporated into the weed repertoire until expansion of agriculture on to clay soils. While occasional finds of stinking mayweed date from the Middle–Late Iron Age at sites on the Wessex chalklands, such as Easton Lane (Carruthers 1989) and Suddern Farm (Campbell 2000b) in Hampshire, it has been suggested by Stevens (2006) that it rarely occurs in any quantity prior to the 3rd century AD. Where it does occur in high numbers it is mainly on southern British sites and often associated with corn dryers. It appears that at High Post cultivation occurred on the lighter soils during the Iron Age with expansion on to heavier clays in the late Romano-British period in association with an increased scale of crop processing and the use of corn dryers.

Conclusions

Evidence for both continuation and changes in arable regime has been identified. In both the Iron Age and the Romano-British period the principal crops cultivated were spelt wheat and barley. Cultivation of lighter soils is suggested by the Iron Age weed assemblage, while expansion onto heavy clay is indicated during the late Romano-British period, associated with an increase in the scale of crop processing and the use of corn dryers.

The Iron Age pits generally contained charred spikelets of spelt wheat and grain of barley, possibly burnt in small-scale processing episodes prior to milling and consumption. One exceptional sample, from storage pit 1286, produced evidence for cereal processing waste including both spelt wheat glume bases and a large number of weed seeds. The Iron Age pit samples generally consist of burnt cereal and cereal processing waste discarded in the pits as refuse. It is not possible to link the pit samples to the original function of the features. The presence of silica chaff in two samples suggests the proportion of chaff may be under-represented in some samples. There is evidence for the collection and use of heather in the Iron Age which may have come from chalk heath or areas of clay-with-flints. In contrast, samples from the Romano-British period provide some indication of the function of the corn drying oven from which they were recovered. Much more abundant cereal remains were recovered from the Romano-British samples, with both grain and chaff common as well as weeds in a sample from the stoke-hole of the oven. Large quantities of chaff appear to have been burnt as fuel and discarded close to the oven. The presence of insect pupa in a grain deposit in the stoke-hole suggest grain infested with storage pests may have been used as fuel.

Molluscs

by Sarah F. Wyles

Forty-three mollusc samples were taken through the Iron Age enclosure ditch (1838, slot 1090; Fig. 5) to provide information on the local landscape and vegetational history. Standard analytical methods were employed, namely the identification of apical and diagnostic mollusc fragments following the nomenclature of Kerney (1999) using a x10–x40 stereo-binocular microscope. The sediments of sampled contexts in ditch slot 1090 are described in Table 19 and the results of the analysis are shown in Appendix 2. Details of the ecological preferences of the species follow Evans (1972), Kerney (1999), and Davies (2008). Detailed analyses of the assemblages from each context are in the archive.

Table 19 Sediment descriptions for contexts sampled for molluscs

Context	*Depth (m)*	*Pottery date*	*Description*
1091	0.00–0.24	Late Romano-British	mid-reddish brown silty clay; moderate chalk flecks, sparse sub-angular flint (0.03–0.08 m). Tertiary fill
1092	0.24–0.54	Late Romano-British (?4th century)	mid-/dark greyish brown silty clay; moderate/common chalk flecks, moderate/sparse sub-angular flint (0.03–0.06 m). Tertiary fill
1251	0.54–0.66	–	mid-brown silty clay loam; rare/sparse chalk flecks, rare sub-angular flint (0.03–0.08 m). Stabilisation layer
1252	0.66–0.74	–	mid-/dark brownish grey silty clay; moderate chalk flecks, sparse sub-angular flint (0.02–0.09 m). Secondary fill with material from erosion of ditch edge & ?int. bank
1253	0.74–0.85	–	mid-reddish brown silty clay; sparse/moderate chalk flecks, rare sub-angular flint (0.02–0.09 m). Stabilisation layer
1254	0.85–1.40	Romano-British	mid-greyish brown silty clay; common chalk flecks/lumps (0.02–0.09 m), common sub-angular flint (0.05–0.15 m). Secondary fill with material from erosion of ditch edge & ?int. bank
1258	1.40–1.53	–	mid-reddish brown silty clay; rare/sparse chalk pieces (0.02–0.06 m). Stabilisation layer
1259	1.53–1.66	Romano-British	mid-yellowish white silty clay; 90% sub-angular chalk pieces. Slump of chalk – edge & ?int. bank erosion
1262	1.66–1.93	Romano-British *c.* AD 120	mid-greyish brown silty clay; 60% sub-angular chalk pieces, rare flint. Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1257	1.93–2.27	–	mid-/light reddish brown silty clay; 80% sub-angular chalk pieces, rare flint. Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1261	2.27–2.55	–	mid-/dark greyish brown silty clay; 80% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.02–0.10 m). Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1576	2.55–3.03	–	mid-greyish brown silty clay, 80% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.02–0.10 m), rare sub-angular flint (0.02–0.07 m). Slump of chalk – edge collapse
1577	3.03–3.15	Early Iron Age	mid-/light greyish brown silty clay; 40% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.01–0.05 m). Initial silting

The snail numbers in the ditch samples fluctuated, with those from contexts 1254, 1253, and 1252 being particularly low and the highest from the upper fills 1092 and 1091. With the exception of those contexts where shell numbers are too low to make comment, the assemblages are all dominated by the open country species, reflecting a well established local open grassland environment, probably with a fluctuating intensity of grazing, from the Early Iron Age through to the late Romano-British period.

The grassland may have become rougher during part of the later period as reflected in the assemblages recovered from context 1259. Varying extents of areas of longer grass may have existed near the edge of the ditch throughout its history and then within the ditch itself. There is only a small indication of the possible presence of arable activity in the vicinity, and this is during the Romano-British period. However, it must be borne in mind how localised an environment is reflected by the mollusc assemblages and it does not rule out the possibility of arable fields not far away (see above).

The presence of a long period of open grazed grassland was also observed nearby, at Earl's Farm Down in the Avon Valley during the later prehistoric to Romano-British periods (Allen and Wyles 2004). At the Iron Age hillfort at Vespasian's Camp (Allen 1999) and the Iron Age enclosure at Scotland Lodge (Wyles 2008), the molluscan assemblages reflected periods both of open grazed grassland and of arable fields.

Radiocarbon Dating

by Alistair J. Barclay and Chris J. Stevens

Fourteen samples were submitted from selected Iron Age and Romano-British features to try and address a number of research aims regarding the site. A single date was obtained during the assessment work from Rafter, GNS Science, New Zealand and a further thirteen dates (one failed) were submitted to the Scottish Environmental Research Centre (SUERC), East Kilbride, Glasgow, Scotland (Table 22).

Sample Selection

Where possible, samples were selected from articulated bone, charred residue adhering to featured pottery, and from deposits containing single identified charred grains/seeds. Where no articulated or articulating bone was available, great care was taken to select bone in fresh condition (ie, from freshly killed or dead animals).

Results and Calibration

The sample dated by Rafter was prepared and measured as described at http://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Services/Laboratories-Facilities/Rafter-Radiocarbon-Laboratory. The samples dated by SUERC pretreated as described by Stenhouse and Baxter (1983), graphitised using methods described by Vandeputte

Table 20 Radiocarbon measurements

Lab ref.	*Feature*	*Context*	*Material*	*δ¹³C ‰*	*Date BP*	*Calibrated (2 sig. 95.4%)*	*Model 1 95.4%*	*Model 2 95.4%*
SUERC-32312	Pit 1059	1089 ABG18	Charred internal pottery residue; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-27.2	2165±30	370–110 cal BC	*390–300 cal BC*	*370–160 cal BC*
SUERC-32313	Pit 1236 top fill	1237 ABG 61	Pig femur (left) from an articulated burial	-21.6	2240±30	390–200 cal BC	*400–280 cal BC*	*400–200 cal BC*
SUERC-32314	Pit 1236 primary fill	1347	Cattle metatarsal (right), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.5	2345±30	520–370 cal BC	*480–370 cal BC*	*520–370 cal BC*
NZA-31064	Animal bone spread 2536	1373 ABG 275	Cattle long bone fragment from an articulated limb	-21.2	2420±35	720–390 cal BC	*500–390 cal BC*	*550–390 cal BC*
SUERC-32315	as above	1373 ABG 379	Cattle cranium fragment	-21.2	2355±30	520–380 cal BC	*490–390 cal BC*	*510–380 cal BC*
SUERC-32316	as above	1373 ABG 269	Cattle thoracic vertebra from a group of articulated bones	-21.3	2380±30	720–390 cal BC	*490–390 cal BC*	*520–390 cal BC*
SUERC-32317	Enclosure ditch 1838 slot 1625	1626	Cattle distal femur (left), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.6	2330±30	510–260 cal BC	*410–370 cal BC*	*510–360 cal BC*
SUERC-32318	Enclosure ditch 1838 slot 1635	2137	Cattle metatarsal (left), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.4	2310±30	410–230 cal BC	*410–350 cal BC*	*410–230 cal BC*
SUERC-32322	Corn drying oven 2600	2618	Charred grain *Triticum* cf. *spelta*	-21.4	1645±25	cal AD 335–535	–	–
SUERC-35359	As above	2621	Human skull fragment	-20.4	1710±30	cal AD 250–410	–	–
SUERC-35358	Burial within bone spread	2371a	Human right femur	-20.5	1730±30		–	–
SUERC-35885	as above	2371c	as above	-20.0	1745±30	Combined as cal AD230–350	–	–
SUERC-35884	as above	2371b	Human right humerus	-19.9	1770±30		–	–

et al. (1996), and dated by AMS as described by Xu *et al.* (2004) and Freeman *et al.* (2007).

The full radiocarbon results (summarised in Table 1 above) are given in Table 20 and are quoted in accordance with the international standard (Stuiver and Kra 1986). They are conventional radiocarbon ages (Stuiver and Polach 1977) and all have been calculated using the calibration curve of Reimer *et al.* (2009) and OxCal (v4.1) (Bronk Ramsey 1995; 1998; 2001; 2009). The calibrated date ranges are those for 95% confidence, quoted in the form recommended by Mook (1986) with the end points rounded outwards to 10 years for errors >25 years and five years for errors ≤25 years. The ranges in plain type in Table 20 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; Bayliss *et al.* 2007). Although the simple calibrated dates are accurate estimates of the dates of the samples, it is the dates of the archaeological events, which are represented by those samples, which are of interest. In the case of this site, it is the chronology of the enclosure and the associated activity that is under consideration, not the dates of individual samples. The dates of this activity can be estimated not only using the absolute dating information from the radiocarbon measurements, but also by using the stratigraphic relationships between samples. The OxCal programme provides the methodology to combine these different types of information explicitly, to produce realistic estimates of the dates of interest. However, the *posterior density estimates* produced by this modelling are not absolute. They are interpretative *estimates*, which can and will change as further data become available and as other researchers choose to model the existing data from different perspectives.

The technique used is a form of Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling, and has been applied using the program OxCal v4.1 (http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/). Details of the algorithms employed by this program are available from the on-line manual or in Bronk Ramsey (1995; 1998; 2001; 2009). The algorithm used in the model described below can be derived from the structures shown in Figures 34–5.

The three results on human bone from a burial (same individual) within the animal bone spread 2536, can be combined to give a calibrated date range of AD 230–350 (95.4%: results are statistically consistent). They confirm the date of the burial as Late Roman and indicate that the burial is much later, over 600 years younger than the bone spread (modelled at 420–390 cal BC 68%).

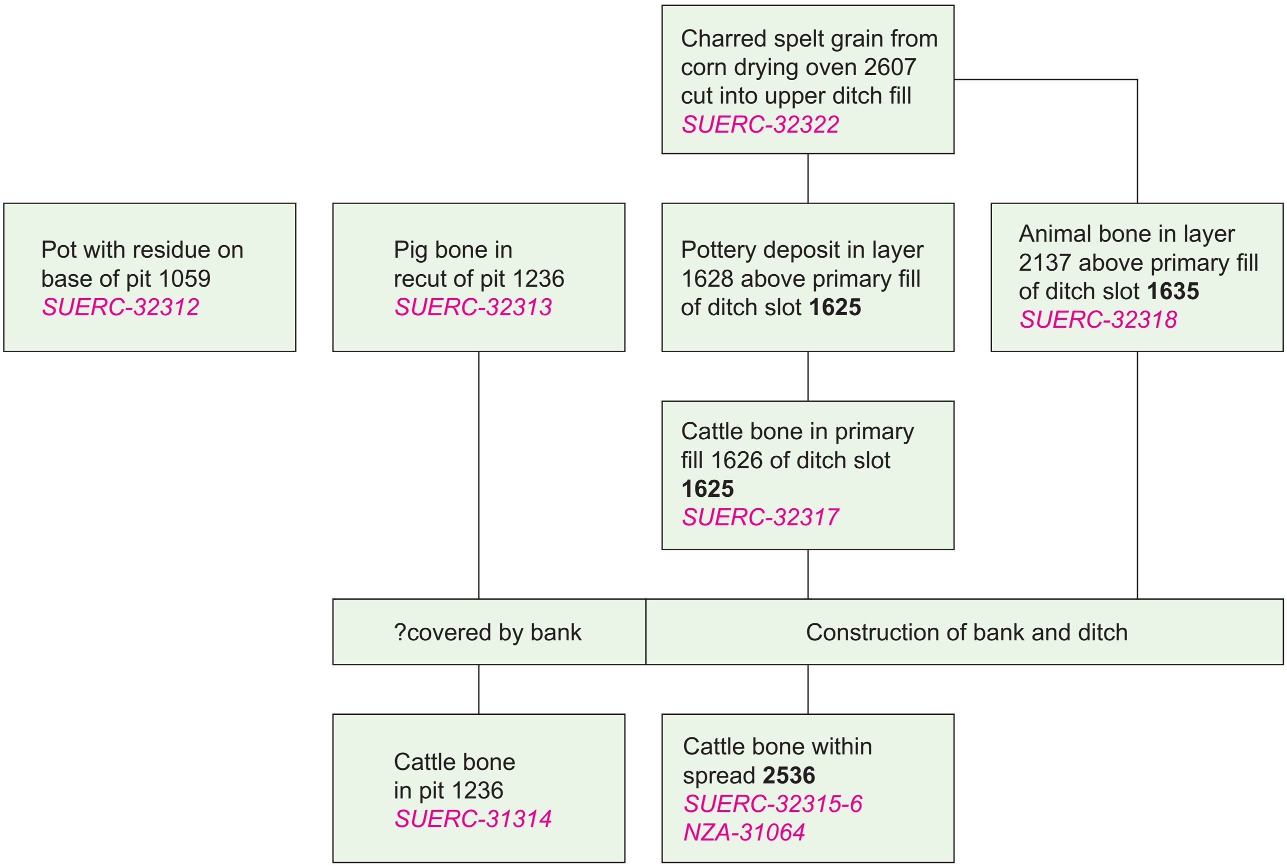

Figure 34 Summary outline of the stratigraphy used to construct radiocarbon Models 1 and 2

Aims

The radiocarbon dating programme was designed to answer the following questions:

- What date is the Early Iron Age activity on the site and does this pre-date the enclosure?
- What is the date of the pre-bank animal bone foundation or 'feasting' deposit and the associated human burial?
- When was the enclosure constructed?
- What is the likely date of the pottery dump above the primary ditch fill?
- What is the date of pit 1059?
- What date is the final use of corn drying oven 2600?

The site sequence described above (Chapters 1 and 2) is summarised below and in Figure 34.

Pre-enclosure open settlement

Two samples of animal bone were associated with Early Iron Age pit 1236 (see Figs 10 and 13). The pit is interpreted as possibly belonging to a pre-earthwork settlement and it may have been sealed by the tail of the enclosure bank (Chapter 2). However, the stratigraphic evidence is inconclusive and this uncertainty is reflected in the two radiocarbon models; the pit is treated as an isolated feature in its own phase and not grouped in sequence with the animal bone spread or the enclosure earthwork (Fig. 4).

The upper part of the pit was recut and used for the burial of a complete pig (sample taken from a left femur SUERC-32313 1237). A cattle metatarsal noted to be in fresh condition (SUERC-32314) was dated from the lower fill (1347). The good condition of the metatarsal indicated that it was unlikely to be reworked. Pottery from the pit included both Early Iron Age and Middle Iron Age types with a diagnostic scratch cordoned bowl sherd recovered from the primary fill. Jones (Chapter 4) states a generally accepted date range of 470–360 BC for such material, but notes the possibility of earlier origins (after 750 BC) based on a recently radiocarbon dated assemblage from Barton Stacey, Hampshire (De'Athe forthcoming). The pottery analysis certainly fits with the above interpretation of pit 1236.

In Model 1 it is considered that the cattle bone was recently dead and therefore of approximately the same age as the digging of the pit. However, in Model 2 the approach is more cautious, the age

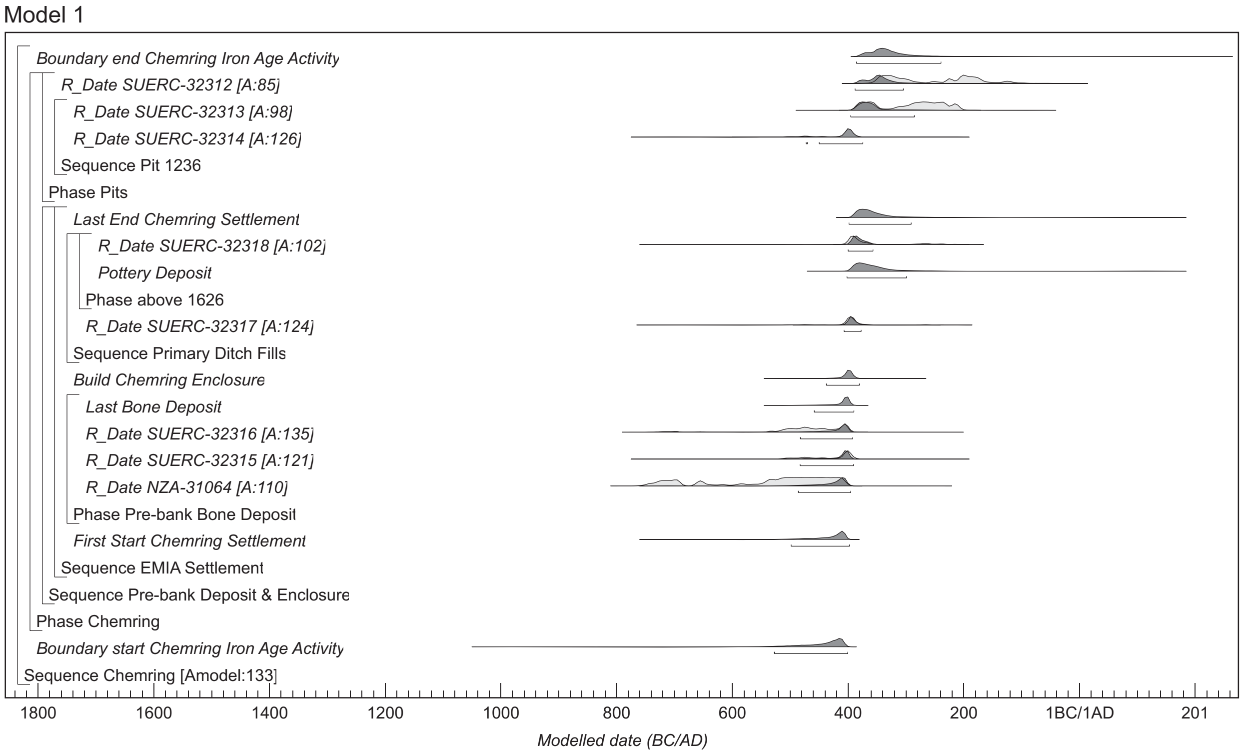

Figure 35 Probability distributions of dates relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. The structure and key words are shown on the left. For each date two distributions are plotted: one in outline, which is the simple radiocarbon distribution, and a solid one, based on the modelled data. Other distributions refer to aspects of the model

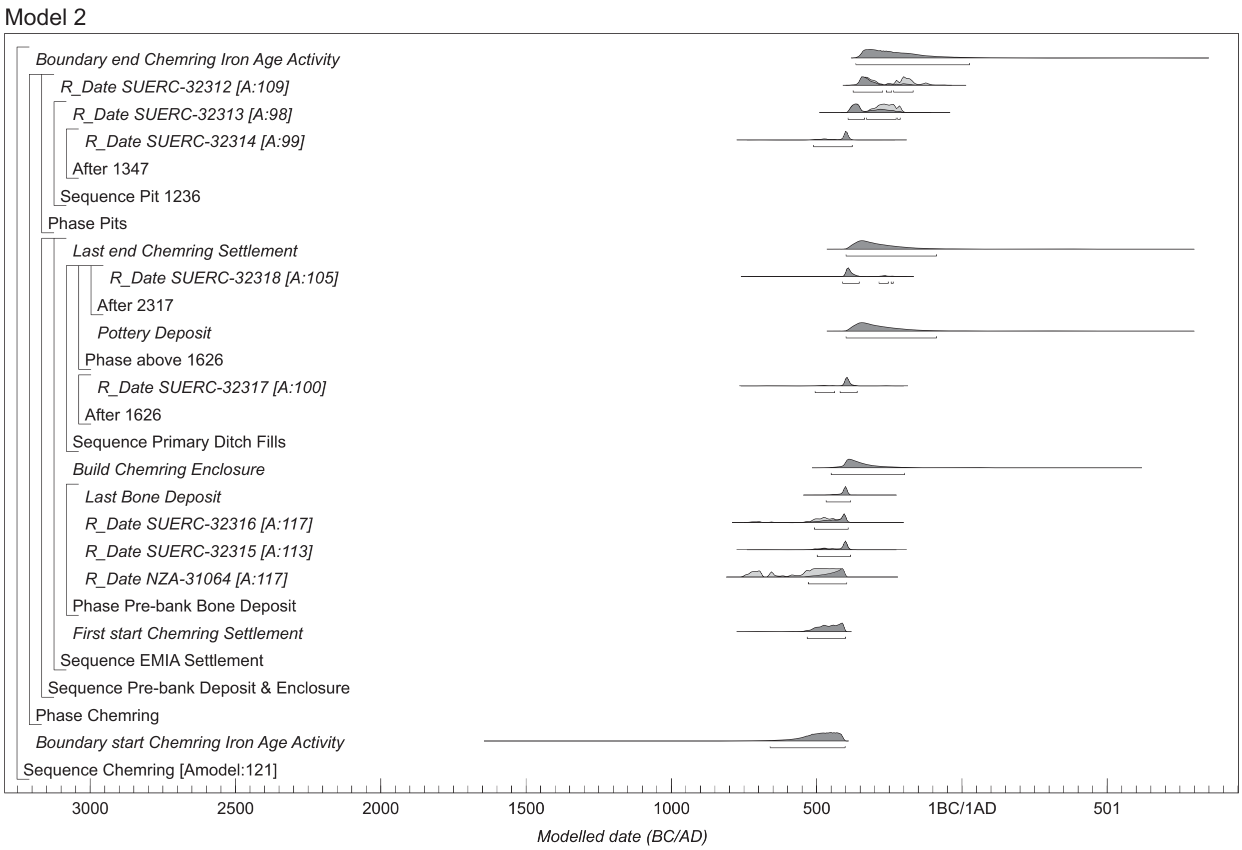

Figure 36 Probability distributions of dates relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 2. The structure and key words are shown on the left. For each date two distributions are plotted: one in outline, which is the simple radiocarbon distribution, and a solid one, based on the modelled data. Other distributions refer to aspects of the model. The keyword 'After' indicates that the radiocarbon date has been treated as a tpq

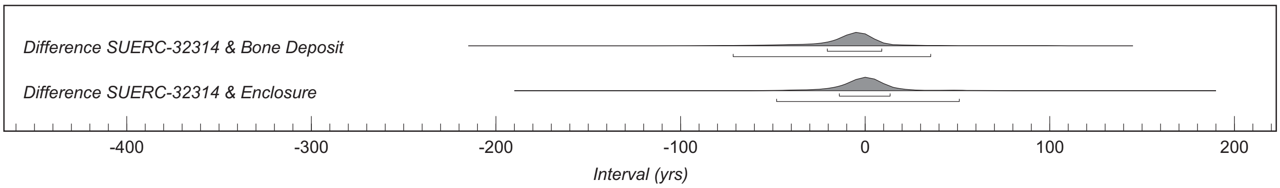

Figure 37 Probability distributions of the intervals (denoted by 'Difference') between dates and aspects of the model relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. Negative values indicate the probability that the sequence of events could be inverted

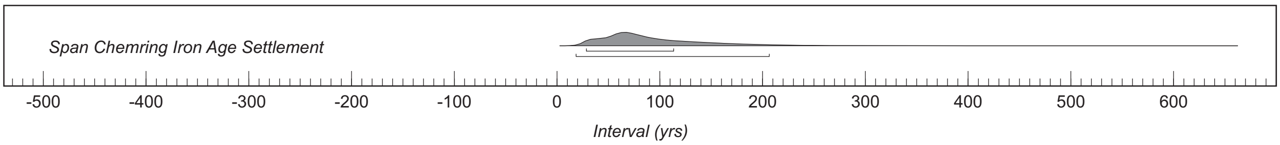

Figure 38 Probability distributions of dates and aspects of the model relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. Span is the probable duration in years for a phase of activity

difference between the older bone and the primary use of the pit is treated as unknown and therefore the result is modelled as a *terminus post quem* (*tpq*).

Animal bone deposit, earthwork and primary ditch deposits

Three samples were submitted from the cattle bone spread 2536 (1373) that lay under the line of the bank of the enclosure ditch (Pls 1–4). The two bone deposits (1373 and 2602) would almost certainly have not survived unless they were protected in some way by an overlying earthwork and their interpretation as a foundation/'feasting' deposit is plausible. However, no direct stratigraphic evidence for the surviving bank or a relationship with the adjacent ditch survived, having been removed by the later erosion of the ditch edge.

One sample was from a cranium, ABG 379 (SUERC-32315), and the other two, ABG 269 (SUERC-32316) and ABG 275 (NZA-31064), were from articulated bone groups (see Fig. 7). The samples were chosen to provide both a date for the bone deposit as well as a *tpq* for the construction of the enclosure ditch and bank. The condition of the bone indicated that little time had elapsed between deposition of the animal remains and its burial. A chi^2 test indicates that the three dates are consistent and likely to be part of the same event (ie, the cranium is likely to be of a similar date to the two deposits of articulated bone: df=2 T=2.0 5% 6.0).

Two samples were taken from disarticulated cattle bone recovered from the primary fill of the enclosure ditch. One (SUERC-32317) was from near the base of the ditch and within the lowest fill (1626) and *c.* 0.20 m beneath a dump of pottery (1628, see Jones above, and Fig. 5a) and the other was from the layer (2137) above the primary fill, albeit within a different excavated slot. Both sampled bones were in fresh condition (recently butchered bone) with no signs of having been redeposited, reworked or damaged by canids. They are modelled here as being of similar date to the first silting of the ditch. A more cautious approach would see both samples as *tpqs*.

Middle Iron Age pit

A single sample (SUERC-32312) was taken from internal charred residue recorded from a Middle Iron Age pot (ON 18, see Jones above) from the base of pit 1059 (Fig. 4; Pl. 7). The pot, one of three that were freshly broken and deposited on the base of pit albeit in an incomplete state. Jones suggests a late 5th and 4th century BC date range for the assemblage. It is suggested that the difference in time between the last use of the vessel as a cooking pot, its breakage and deposition within the pit is likely to be quite short (possibly months rather than years). However, this interval is unknown and it is possible that a longer period had elapsed. In Model 1 it is treated as contemporary with its context, and in Model 2 it is treated as a *tpq*.

Romano-British corn drying oven

Two samples were of charred grain associated with the flue and stoke-hole of corn drying oven 2600. One (SUERC-32322) was of probable spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*) from the flue (2618). The other of charred barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) was from the stoke-hole (2616), but had insufficient carbon for a radiocarbon measurement. A third sample (SUERC-35359) was from a human skull (2614).

Burial within bone spread 2536

Three samples were submitted from the human remains (same individual) found within the bone spread – two samples from the right femur (SUERC-35358 and 35885) and the third from the right

Table 21 Modelled parameters based on Model 1 calculated to address the listed aims

	95%	*68%*
Start of Iron Age activity	540–400 cal BC	–
Placing of animal bone deposit beneath bank	470–390 cal BC	420–390 cal BC
Construction of earthwork	450–380 cal BC	–
Pottery deposit within ditch	410–290 cal BC	400–340 cal BC
Date of pit 1236	480–370 cal BC	–
Date of pit 1059	390–300 cal BC	–
End of Iron Age activity	390–230 cal BC	–

humerus (SUERC-35884). As the samples are on bone from the same individual they have been combined to give a single calibrated date (the results are all statistically consistent).

Overall Model

The following summary stratigraphic matrix (Fig. 34) is used as a basis for Model 1 and Model 2 and reflects the interpretation of the site that is given above. The stratigraphy also has good concordance with the pottery analysis (Chapter 4). Figure 35 is made up of three stratigraphically independent strands of information: pit 2536, pit 1236 and the sequence associated with the earthwork.

Results and Interpretation

Models 1 and 2 are in good agreement. In Model 1 (Fig. 35) the animal bone from the primary fill of pit 1236 and the enclosure ditch are treated as contemporary with these features, and in Model 2 (Fig. 36) the same samples are treated as *tpqs*. Model 1 is preferred here over 2 and is considered to fit well with the principal author's interpretation of the site, although the results for the latter are given in Table 20 for comparative purposes only. The following is based on Model 1, although it can be noted that the difference between the two is one of precision with the use of *tpqs* resulting in wider date estimates for particular phases.

The modelled results (Model 1 and Fig. 35) indicate that Iron Age activity at High Post could have started between *540–400 cal BC* (95%) and have lasted until some time during *390–230 cal BC* (95%). The animal bone deposit could have been placed during *470–390 cal BC* (95%) or *420–390 cal BC* (68%)(Model 1, last bone), with the earthwork probably constructed between *450–380 cal BC* (95%). The pottery deposit within the ditch fill could have been placed between *410–290 cal BC* (95%) or *400–340* (68%) (Table 21).

In attempting to use the Model to phase the sequence between pit 1236 and the construction of the enclosure or the placing of the bone deposit, it can be noted that using the OxCal Difference function was inconclusive, with the result that either could be earlier or later (see Fig. 38: ranges are -80 to 40 years and -50 to 60 years). However, the Oxcal Order function can also be used to examine the sequence of age probabilities between the date from the pit, the bone deposit and the construction of the earthwork. The results indicate that there is only a 27% probability that the pit is earlier than the bone deposit and only a 49% probability that it is earlier than the construction of the earthwork. The conclusion then is that the bone deposit is earlier than the pit deposit, while the pit and construction of the earthwork are probably of a similar date.

The span of activity based on the radiocarbon dates indicates that Iron Age activity probably lasted for between 20 to 215 years (see Fig. 38).

Romano-British corn drying ovens are much more common within the late Romano-British period from the 3rd to 4th century (see Millet 1990) and the date is in keeping with this, although there is a possibility that the use of the oven, and with it the cultivation of spelt wheat, may have continued into the early 5th century.

Chapter 8
Feasting, Farming, and Symbolic Offerings

The High Post site lies within a landscape densely occupied during the Iron Age and Romano-British period (Figs 1–2). It was a long-established agricultural landscape, with the chalk downland of Salisbury Plain to the north and the valleys which cut through it witnessing a wide range of settlement types from open farmsteads to villa estates, from small defended enclosures to large strategic hillforts, and from extensive downland villages to the Roman town of *Sorviodunum* (Old Sarum).

Apart from two Late Iron Age sherds from the enclosure ditch, there is no evidence for any continuity of settlement at High Post between the Early–Middle Iron Age enclosure and the late Romano-British edge of settlement activity, although the downland landscape that the site occupies, overlooking the Avon valley to the west, may have seen a largely uninterrupted regime of mixed agricultural production over the near millennium that the site spans. There would have been, however, profound social and political changes during that time, evident first in the construction of a defensive enclosure, then its subsequent abandonment, possibly associated with the coalescing of tribal power at larger and more widely dispersed hillforts such as the nearby Ogbury Camp. Following the Roman Conquest, the hillforts in turn became largely obsolete, or were found new uses, and the Romano-British landscape eventually witnessed a period of political stability and economic affluence. However, by the end of the site's occupation, perhaps at the very start of the post-Romano-British period, the site would have seen the return of uncertainty and change.

Community and Construction in the Iron Age

The construction of the High Post enclosure is likely to have been one response to the widespread changes evident across the region during the Early Iron Age. The Late Bronze Age on Salisbury Plain had seen the large-scale reorganisation of the landscape, with the laying out of Wessex Linear ditches across earlier co-axial field systems incorporating small dispersed settlements (Bowen 1978; McOmish *et al.* 2002). In places these ditches were associated with rectangular enclosures, possibly for the maintenance of stock rather for than human occupation, with settlements now including larger, open, nucleated sites (Bradley *et al.* 1994). The economic importance of cattle husbandry and the extensive nature of the social networks it involved are indicated by the large midden sites such as East Chisenbury (McOmish *et al.* 2010) *c.* 15 km to the north of the site, and Potterne on the northern edge of the Plain (Lawson 2000), where the main accumulations of material date from the 8th and 7th centuries BC, ceasing abruptly in the early 6th century.

In the Early Iron Age, while there were still open farmsteads and larger unenclosed settlements, such as the 'village' at Boscombe Down West, 5 km to the north-east (Richardson 1951), a certain status of settlement was being enclosed, so distinguishing themselves from contemporary open farmsteads. This was typified by the digging of a ditch around a previously open settlement at Little Woodbury, *c.* 10 km south of High Post (Bersu 1940). The settlement, with one large round-house and numerous storage pits, continued in occupation after the construction of the ditch. On Salisbury Plain, to the north, there were localised proliferations of similar enclosures, such as on Coombe Down where there appears to have been at least seven within an area *c.* 1.5 km across (Fulford *et al.* 2006, fig. 3.5). In addition to the sub-rectangular enclosure to the immediate north of the High Post enclosure, the Wiltshire SMR records numerous enclosures, of known or possible Iron Age date, identified from aerial photographs, in the landscape around High Post, some in close pairs comparable to the two High Post enclosures (Fig. 1).

The relationship between the two enclosures at High Post, separated by less than 40 m, is at present unknown. The northern enclosure covered approximately 1 ha, but neither the geophysical survey nor the examination of cropmarks has revealed the position of an entrance. Its ditch, as exposed during the evaluation, was *c.* 5.6 m wide at the top, comparable to the estimated original width of the southern enclosure but significantly less than most of its final, eroded form. It was not fully excavated but augering suggested it was *c.* 1.3 m deep with a U-shaped profile (Wessex Archaeology 2008b, 5), a far less substantial boundary, therefore, than the southern enclosure ditch. While it is possible that one enclosure replaced the other, it is also possible that they had (or developed) different functions, although the northern enclosure also appears to have contained numerous pits.

Plate 21 The excavation team

While enclosures such as that excavated at High Post are frequently treated as a class of monument distinct from hillforts this may be due, in part, simply to the non-survival of their defences. However, its possible size, its hilltop location, and the scale of its defences seem to easily qualify it as a small hillfort (McOmish 2002, 74). As described above, the extent of the enclosure could range from a minimum of *c.* 1.2 ha up to the *c.* 4.7 ha suggested in the Wiltshire SMR (SMR no. SU13NW201). Even the minimum area would be comparable to Alfred's Castle, Oxfordshire which, like High Post, was constructed in the Early Iron Age and bounded by a single 3 m deep V-shaped ditch (Payne *et al.* 2006, 81–9). High Post could be classed, therefore, either among a group of small (mostly under 3 ha), strongly defended, and intensively occupied Early Iron Age enclosures which, as well as Alfred's Castle, include, in Wiltshire, Lidbury and Oliver's Castle, or among the larger group of early hillforts, averaging 5 ha, which were largely out of use by the Middle Iron Age (Cunliffe 2006, 156–8).

Whatever its size, however, it is clear that the High Post enclosure was not constructed simply for livestock control. Even if its external form involved a significant element of intimidatory display, the ditch and bank were ultimately intended as an effective defence against attack. It appears, therefore, that the essentially cooperative, large-scale and long distance social networks that had created the extensive organisation of the Late Bronze Age landscape, and which found communal expression at the large midden sites, were becoming increasingly fragmented and competitive during the course of the Early Iron Age, leading to potential stress and conflict. It is within this context that we can view the construction of the High Post enclosure towards the end of this period. The proximity of one round-house to the enclosure ditch has raised the possibility that an open settlement pre-dated the defences, but this could not be established for certain.

Whether originally open or not, it is easy to imagine the time and effort needed to dig the ditches and build the banks of such enclosures. However, rarely do we get insights into the means of cooperation and/or coercion that might have been mobilised to those ends. The enclosure's eventual occupants could not have built its defences on their own. Instead, kith and kin would have been mobilised, debts and favours called in, rewards offered, pressure exerted and possibly threats made (Pl. 21), and it was probably this range of social relationships which ultimately defined the community at the centre of which the enclosure was to stand.

Many questions remain about the Early Iron Age animal bone spread at High Post, and there are likely to be as many dimensions to any full understanding of its formation, function, and meaning. Perhaps the most comprehensible interpretation of the deposit, from a modern standpoint, is that it represents the aftermath of an extravagant communal feast, held either to motivate or celebrate the construction of the enclosure, either before the ground was broken or before the final section of the defences was completed. It should be noted that there was no other evidence for such an event, such as large hearths or obvious feasting waste.

Far more animals than could be consumed, however, were slaughtered – at least 25 cattle, five sheep and pig, and a horse – and much of the meat was left on the bone. Such conspicuous munificence would serve to impress, but it would also have been costly, involving the loss of valuable economic resources. This would be especially the case if they were your own animals. However, if the building of the enclosure was a response to the increasing manifestation of economic competition as overt conflict, then the slaughter of someone else's livestock might have been an eloquent statement of one's power. Such a possibility would resonate with Julius Caesar's (admittedly later) observation about the Britons, that when they are victorious in battle 'they sacrifice the captured animals' (*Gallic Wars* vi, 17.3).

However, wherever the animals came from, the series of events undertaken on the site, comprising their slaughter/sacrifice, their likely partial consumption, and the laying down of selected parts of their carcasses as a foundation deposit below the enclosure's defensive bank, clearly represents more than just a feast. The deposition of articulated animal bones, including either whole or partial animal skeletons, is a common feature on Iron Age sites, frequently being recorded as placed deposits within reused storage pits (Pl. 22; Hill 1995).

The 'burial' of harvested cereal grain in storage pits and the seed grain's recovery in the following spring for sowing to produce the next harvest, is a potent metaphor for wider beliefs about death and regeneration (Williams 2003). This may help explain the subsequent use of such pits for special deposits (Bradley 2005, 205) which, in contrast to the deposition of metalwork in the Late Bronze Age, now appear to be closely related to the agricultural basis of the economy (Barrett 1989). Not only are animal and human remains placed in the pits, but so were agricultural implements, such as the quern fragments above the pig skeleton in pit 1236, or the complete quern in pit 1706. The same may also apply to what might otherwise be seen as deposits of domestic, agricultural processing or industrial waste, such as the contrasting and carefully levelled layers in pits 1188 and 1479. The formalised deposition of such everyday materials would imbue them with added significance (Bradley 2005, 35), reflecting perhaps the importance of their roles in the economic life of the settlement. As discussed above, the juxtaposition of different materials, such as the pig skeleton and quern fragments in the recut of pit 1236, and their possibly ritualised mode of deposition, suggest complex symbolic associations and meanings.

It is quite reasonable, therefore, to see the High Post animal bone deposit below the enclosure bank as a variant, although at a much larger scale, of this more general practice, acting as some kind of votive or propitiatory deposit, perhaps to ensure the effectiveness of the defences of this communal agricultural and social enterprise.

While the possession of livestock was a primary expression of wealth and status in the Iron Age, it was

Plate 22 Deposit of cattle skull (upside down), ribs and vertebrae in pit 1841

also, and more importantly, one of the foundations of the mixed farming economy. Animals provided not only food (meat and dairy products) and materials for practical and personal objects (hide, wool, horn, and bone) but also support for the arable economy in the form of manure and (from the cattle) traction. Finally, it is clear that animals had ritual/sacrificial uses, either individually or occasionally, as at High Post, in large numbers.

The High Post community's livestock was dominated by its flocks of sheep, accounting for almost two-thirds of the animals, although the smaller numbers of cattle would have provided considerably more of the meat. Pigs were present but of less economic significance, probably reflecting the open, largely unwooded landscape around the site. This pattern of the pastoral economy is typical of contemporary settlement in Wessex.

The ages of the animals suggests that their 'secondary' products, rather than the actual meat yield, may have been viewed as providing the primary economic value to these animals. If so, the possible large-scale consumption of meat associated with the animal bone spread could have further marked out the special nature of this event in the life of the community. The possible evidence for the curing of meat, in the form of a cattle scapula with a hole possibly from a butcher's hook, is likely to reflect the more normal pattern of processing, preservation, and long-term consumption.

While the animal remains from the site have high visibility within the archaeological record, the large number of storage pits within the enclosure reflects the complementary importance of cereal production to the Iron Age community, and it may have been as much for the protection of stored seed grain as the ultimate guarantee of security of food supply that the enclosure was built, and for which members of the wider community were prepared to invest their time and energy. Two crops, spelt wheat and barley (probably a hulled six-row variety), appear to have been cultivated not only on the upland chalk soils but also along the valley floor below the site. While field systems have been identified from cropmarks in the surrounding landscape, it has not been established whether these were of Iron Age date. The crops were harvested by cutting low on the straw or by uprooting, stored in pits inside the enclosure (possibly also in above-ground granaries although no four-post structures were identified), then processed within the settlement and ground on saddle or rotary querns for consumption.

As well as food processing, there is likely to have been a wide range of craft and industrial activities needed to sustain the settlement undertaken on the site, although only some of these are hinted at by the finds. The presence of smithing and smelting slag, including hearth bottoms, within dumps of mixed domestic debris in pits indicates probably small-scale, on-site metalworking. The presence of whetstones suggests the maintenance of metal and bone tools, while the fired clay loomweights and spindle-whorls indicate weaving and the manufacture of fabrics.

Items that could not be made on site, or in the local area, would have been traded or exchanged over longer distances. Much of the pottery, for example, may have been of local manufacture, utilising the brickearth of the Avon valley or, slightly further afield, the glauconitic clays of the Nadder Valley; the latter area may also have been the source for some sandstone querns and rub-stones. Other pottery vessels, however, such as those in calcareous fabrics, would have had more distant sources, such as the Bradford-on-Avon/Budbury area or along the Jurassic Ridge. The presence of briquetage, used in the manufacture and transport of sea-salt, indicates links with the south-coast saltworks, such as at Efford in Hampshire (Powell 2009).

The modelling of the radiocarbon dates (above) suggests that the enclosure may have been occupied for a relatively short period, from the later part of the Early Iron Age through the early part of the Middle Iron Age – perhaps just a couple of centuries. Ultimately, however, the enclosure's sustainability appears to have been overtaken by wider social forces, as power became even more centralised in a series of larger hillforts (many of which would have been intervisible). In addition to Ogbury Camp to the immediate north, Vespasian's Camp at Amesbury and Old Sarum Hill to the south were both situated on the east side of the Avon valley, while Figsbury Ring to the south-east occupies a similar location overlooking the River Bourne. Yet, apart from being called on again to dig even deeper and longer ditches, such changes may have had little overall impact on the daily agricultural life of the Iron Age population, the majority of whom appear to have continued to live within the surrounding landscape.

Edge of Settlement Activity in the Romano-British period

Even under their new political masters following the Roman Conquest, many of the routines of agricultural and social life may have changed little for the general population, and many Iron Age settlements saw continuity of occupation into the Romano-British period. In time, however, improvements to agricultural production driven by increased demand saw the expansion of cultivation into new areas, and in places (particularly on Salisbury Plain) the pattern of dispersed settlement was largely replaced by open downland villages (McOmish *et al.* 2002; Fulford *et al.* 2006). However, the increasing romanisation, particularly of the social elites, would have seen the adoption of new goods, new fashions, and new building forms, and access to a new urban-based market economy. The site at High Post would have been in an advantageous economic location, not only within the immediate hinterland of the small town of *Sorviodunum* (Old Sarum) which, at the junction of at least five major roads, would have been a significant market and trading centre (James 2010), but also immediately adjacent to the road running to *Cunetio* (Mildenhall, near Marlborough).

Continuity of settlement from the Iron Age through the Romano-British period was recorded at Boscombe Down West (Richardson 1951). However, at High Post, while the stratigraphically earliest sherds of Romano-British pottery, from the lower middle fills of the Iron Age enclosure ditch, could only be assigned a general Romano-British date, and could potentially be early, there is no other evidence, either from the pottery or from the coins, to indicate that the site saw anything other than agricultural activity until the late 3rd century. Even then, the nature of the High Post settlement is unclear, since, despite the significant quantities of pottery, no domestic structures were identified. This is a pattern repeated at many other nearby settlement sites, such as Butterfield Down (Rawlings and Fitzpatrick 1996), and may simply reflect the manner of construction, perhaps comprising timber-framed buildings resting on sill-beams. The generally utilitarian nature of the pottery, however, suggests a relatively low status settlement and only a few objects, such as the copper alloy finger ring and the gaming counter, offer a view of life that was not wholly focused on practical economic and agricultural activities. Even the objects deposited, apparently ritually, within the pits in the oval structure were (or at least had been) functional objects – a saw, parts of a steelyard, and bucket handles.

The features discovered at High Post are likely to be associated with a masonry structure discovered in 1956 *c.* 170 m to the south-south-west (Musty 1959). This came to light when workmen digging a water tank discovered what they described as a 'wheel-shaped stone' which proved to be part of a Romano-British rotary quern. Musty exposed part of a flint wall and further deposits of wall tumble and, although he did not characterise the structure, it is referred to in the Wiltshire SMR as a 'corn drier' (SMR no. SU13NW300). Other finds, including Romano-British pottery (covering the whole of the period, but predominantly late), vessel glass, a possible copper alloy bracelet terminal, iron nails, part of a decorated worked bone object, greensand rotary quern fragments, and a coin of the House of Constantine dated 337–341) are consistent with those found in the High Post excavation.

Musty also found part of a hypocaust tile, perhaps indicating the presence of a substantial building close to the site and raising the possibility that what was revealed at High Post was activity on the edge of a higher status settlement. A similar suggestion has been made for the Romano-British settlement at Suddern Farm, Middle Wallop, Hampshire, also lying within an Iron Age enclosure. There, too, the quality of the finds suggested a low status settlement that could represent peripheral activity associated with a villa (Cunliffe and Poole 2000b, 202).

It was early argued that Salisbury Plain was a Roman imperial estate organising downland production under direct military control (Collingwood and Myers 1937) but a number of villas have since been identified in the Avon valley, including two at Netheravon, probably representing the development of private estates (McOmish *et al.* 2002). Other possible villa sites along the Avon valley have been suggested (James 2010, 157), including at Netheravon Road, Salisbury; Camp Hill, South Newton; Countess Services, Amesbury; Figheldean; as well as at High Post ('Coffee Farm') itself, although in cases such as High Post there is clearly insufficient evidence at present to make that identification.

It is evident, however, that the number of settlements increased during the Romano-British period, often on Iron Age sites, reaching their peak in the late 3rd and early 4th century (James 2010). These are located both on the downs and along the valleys, such as at Figheldean further north in the Avon valley (Graham and Newman 1993). Research has suggested that settlements on the more fertile soils to the east of the valley tended to develop into large farmsteads/small hamlets and villas, in contrast the larger 'village' settlements to the west of the valley (Taylor 2007, 81–6). However, with the extensive late Romano-British settlement, covering at least 6 ha, on Butterfield Down *c.* 11 km to the north of the site, at which a corn drying oven, timber buildings, and a possible rural shrine were recorded (Rawlings and Fitzpatrick 1996), it is evident that there was a wide range of Romano-British settlement types within the landscape around *Sorviodunum*, from villas all the way down to lower status farmsteads.

The precise location of the settlement focus at High Post is unknown although there are no reasons to assume that it was not established within the boundary of the Iron Age enclosure. This would still have been a highly visible feature in the landscape at the start of the Romano-British period although the ditch, which had not silted up to any great depth during the Iron Age, now appears to have been subject to more rapid and perhaps deliberate infilling. The intensification of arable cultivation in the immediately surrounding area appears to have led to episodes of inwash of ploughsoil interspersed with stabilisation horizons, and it seems to have been during this period that the burial was made in what remained of the bank. In time, the remnants of the bank itself, and then the ditch, were ploughed over.

Nonetheless, while no longer defensive, the ditch may have continued to mark a significant boundary during the Romano-British period and may have provided a suitable location for a number of 'industrial' activities which it was desirable to keep away from the domestic focus. While the substantial quantities of pottery from the area just outside the ditch might indicate the proximity of the settlement focus, the high levels of abrasion displayed could indicate that it derived from midden material deposited at a distance from domestic buildings and subsequently reworked by cultivation.

The most prominent feature along this boundary was the masonry oven, which was adaptable to a number of functions, including the drying of corn and malting of grain for brewing. In the same way that there was considerable continuity in the pattern of livestock farming, the crops grown in the Romano-British period – spelt wheat and barley – remained the same as in the Iron Age. However, their cultivation appears to have intensified, perhaps reflected in the field systems visible as cropmarks in the surrounding landscape, as well as expanding onto heavier clay soils. Their processing was now undertaken on a more industrial scale, as evident in the many corn drying ovens known in the area, feeding into a market serving nearby and more distant urban and military centres. The finding of part of a steelyard balance, probably used for the weighing of agricultural produce for the market and/or for tax purposes, gives an indication of the efficiency of organisation of this market economy; the two bucket handles may also have be related to the measuring of produce.

In addition to their economic importance, however, the context of deposition of those finds is also noteworthy, being associated with other distinctive objects, such as the saw, placed in a pit bounded by an oval gully, itself inside the relict Iron Age enclosure. Another possible placed object, the bowl sitting upright on the base of feature 2288 (Pl. 13), also lay inside the enclosure, in contrast to the majority of Romano-British features which lay beyond its boundary. The choice of this boundary as the location for a grave, cut through the surviving bank (and possibly in the knowledge of the strange bone deposit below), may be viewed in this context. It may be, therefore, that the enclosure interior had by this time acquired some new significance which made it the appropriate location for a ritual/religious structure and acts of formalised deposition. A number of Iron Age hillforts subsequently contained Romano-British temples or shrines, including possibly Old Sarum (Corney 2001) and Casterley Camp further up the Avon valley.

Although rare, the steelyard balance, the bucket handles, and the saw in pit 2042 are eminently practical and functional objects, in contrast to the sorts of overtly symbolic, votive objects which might be expected in a shrine. Although the adjacent pit (1929) also contained a number of distinctive objects, including the only shale from the site (part of a spindle-whorl), a piece of combed flue tile and a possible Neolithic discoidal flint core (these also unparalleled on the site), much of the material deposited in these pits is comparable to the domestic 'waste' found in the Iron Age pits. It is possible, therefore, to view the acts of Romano-British deposition as a continuation of, or at least broadly comparable in nature to, the symbolically charged deposition of everyday domestic and economic materials, such as querns or pottery, in the Iron Age pits.

A Saxon Epilogue

The recovery, from the ashy rake-out material in the stoke-hole of the late Romano-British corn drying oven, of pottery whose use may have extended beyond the middle of the 5th century, as well as one distinctly Early Saxon sherd, suggests that the High Post settlement remained occupied in some form, and the oven continued in use, into the immediate post-Romano-British period. This seems to be supported by the radiocarbon date of AD 335–535 (1645±25 BP, SUERC-32322) from charred wheat grain representing its final (or near-final) firing.

Without the urban and military markets to sustain the previous levels of agricultural production, the oven is likely to have quickly become obsolete and its physical collapse reflects the economic collapse which, for a time, saw food production revert to local subsistence farming. Contemporary evidence that might provide a context for this activity is, however, rare in the area. Two 5th century adult inhumation graves were exposed in a pipeline immediately north of Old Sarum (SMR no. SU13SW400), with grave goods including two applied brooches, a glass bead, iron and bronze objects, and an ivory ring. A possible Early/Middle Saxon settlement is indicated by four sunken-featured buildings recorded at Countess East, Amesbury (Wessex Archaeology 2003; 2004).

Whether the two red deer antlers recovered from the demolition rubble in the corn drying oven had some function in its operation or some symbolic (or perhaps decorative) role, or were even used in its demolition, cannot be determined. Similarly, it is unclear whether the placing of a human skull (probably taken from a late Romano-British grave) in the back of the oven's flue after its final firing had some significance relating directly to the closure of the oven; or did it derive some meaning from the oven's economic and agricultural function, comparable to acts of deposition in both the Iron Age and the Romano-British period, as a votive offering perhaps made in the face of economic decline? It is notable that a few other pieces of human bone, including fragments from at least one other skull, were recovered from contexts associated also with the oven's use and with its demolition; in neither of these instances could it be determined from where the material had derived, or whether the charring it displayed had occurred within the oven.

Whatever the significance of the placed skull, it is with a curious symmetry that a millennium of agricultural developments in the High Post landscape is bracketed by two ritual acts, both on the boundary of the Iron Age enclosure, both very different in character but both involving symbols of death as well as of economic and agricultural wealth. At the start, the laying down of the butchered carcasses of 32 slaughtered farm animals would have been a public occasion marking the start of an important communal enterprise; at the end, a single human skull was placed, perhaps hidden, in the deepest recess of the corn drying oven – a symbol of Romano-British agricultural productivity – at the end of its life. These may seem like unique events, but we should not draw too sharp a distinction between them and the seemingly more mundane routines of daily rural life which also found symbolic expression through the formalised deposition in pits of everyday objects and materials.

Appendix 1
Iron Age pottery, fabric descriptions, and quantification

Fabric descriptions

Fabric code	*Description*
C1	Soft, slightly soapy; common oolites, <2 mm, most 1 mm, v. well rounded, well sorted; slightly sandy matrix, poss.some glauconite
C99	Leached calcareous
F1	Smooth, rough; common (20%) flint, <2 mm, poorly sorted; sparse (7%) red iron oxides, rounded, <1 mm, well sorted; matrix of abundant fine quartz
F2	Soft, rough; common (20–25%) flint, angular, <3 mm, poorly sorted; fine, sandy clay matrix
F3	Soft, silty; sparse (5–7%) flint, angular, <1.5 mm, moderately sorted; v. fine sandy/silty clay matrix
F4	Soft, sandy; common (20–25%) flint, angular, <1.5 mm, poorly sorted; silty clay matrix
F99	Flint-tempered (basic level of recording)
G99	Grog-tempered; too small/abraded to ascertain fabric type or basic level of recording
I1	Soft, silty; sparse (7%) red iron oxides, rounded, <1 mm, well sorted; fine silty clay matrix
Q1	Soft, silty; abundant (40%) fine grained quartz, well sorted, also occas. coarse grains; rare (1%) argillaceous inclusions, rounded, 1 mm, rare detrital flint frags, <10 mm
Q2	Soft, sandy; common (25%) coarse-grained quartz, sub-angular, poorly sorted; rare (1%) detrital flint, <11 mm
Q3	Quite hard, sandy; abundant (40%) sub-angular–sub-rounded quartz, fine–coarse-grained, poorly sorted; rare (2%) red iron oxides, <2 mm, rounded. LIA
Q4	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) quartz, fine–coarse-grained, poorly sorted
Q5	Soft, silty; abundant (40%) quartz, sub-angular–angular, fine–coarse-grained, poorly sorted; sparse (7%) red iron oxides, sub-rounded, 1 mm, well sorted; sparse (5—7%) white sub-angular inclusions, calcareous, <1 mm, well sorted; sparse (3%) rounded argillaceous inclusions, <5 mm
Q6	Soft, silty; v. common (30%) quartz, sub-angular, fine–coarse-grained, poorly sorted; sparse– moderate (7%) red iron oxides, <1.5 mm, rounded, well sorted
Q7	Soft, sandy; abundant (50%) quartz, sub-rounded, coarse, well-sorted
Q8	Soft, sandy; v. common (30%) quartz, sub-angular coarse–v. coarse, poorly sorted; sparse (5–7%) sub-angular–sub-rounded black inclusions, medium–coarse-grained, well sorted
Q9	Fine, silty clay matrix; rare (1–2%) sub-angular coarse-sized quartz grains
Q10	Soft, sandy; common (20–25%) quartz, fine–coarse-grained, sub-angular, poorly sorted (poss. some glauconite); sparse (7%) calcareous inclusions (inc. shell) <4 mm
Q11	Soft, silty; v. common quartz (30%), sub-angular, medium–coarse-grained, moderately sorted, occasional larger, rounded grains; sparse (3–5%) flint, <2 mm, angular; rare (1%) rounded argillaceous inclusions, <3 mm
Q12	Soft, silty fabric, matrix of very fine quartz, with rare coarse-sized sub-rounded grains and rare argillaceous inclusions, <1 mm
Q13	Soft, silty; v. common fine sized quartz
Q14	Soft silty, clean; no visible inclusions at x20
Q15	Coarse, sandy; abundant (40%) coarse-grained, sub-angular, well-sorted; rare (2%) shell, <6 mm

Fabric descriptions (continued)

Fabric code	*Description*
Q16	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) fine–coarse-grained quartz, sub-rounded, poorly sorted
Q17	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) quartz & glauconite, medium–coarse-grained, sub-angular, moderately sorted; rare (1%) ferric inclusions, <2 mm, sub-angular
Q18	Soft, sandy; v. common (30%) coarse-grained sand, v. well sorted, angular
Q19	Soft, silty; abundant (40%) fine–medium-grained quartz (too small to ascertain shape), well sorted
Q20	Soft, sandy; v. common (30%) sub-angular–sub-rounded quartz & rounded glauconite, well sorted; sparse (3%) flint, angular, <2 mm (similar to Q17 but less sandy)
Q21	Soft, silty; rare (2%) flint, <8 mm; silty clay matrix
Q22	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) quartz, fine–v. coarse-grained, sub-angular–sub-rounded, poorly sorted; rare (1%) shell, <3 mm
Q23	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) quartz, mostly medium–coarse-grained, some finer inclusions, rounded, well- sorted. Fully oxidised
Q24	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) quartz & glauconite, rounded & sub-rounded, medium & coarse-grained, well sorted; sparse (7%) shell, <3 mm
Q25	Quite hard, sandy; common (20%) quartzite, <2 mm, angular, fine–coarse-grained sub-angular– angular quartz, poorly sorted
Q26	Soft, silty; dominated by rare (2%) but large (9 mm) red/brown argillaceous inclusions in glauconitic sandy clay matrix with frequent organic inclusions & minor ferric component
Q27	Hard, sandy; abundant (40%) medium–v. coarse-grained quartz with glauconitic component, sub-rounded, well- sorted, hackly fracture
Q28	Soft, sandy; abundant fine–medium-grained quartz & glauconite, rounded, well sorted
Q29	Soft, sandy; abundant (40%) medium–coarse grained quartz & glauconite, rounded; moderate (15%) crushed shell, <5 mm. Same base as Q28 but with additonal shell
Q99	Sandy; too small/abraded to ascertain type, or sandy fabrics recorded at basic level
R1	Soft, rough; common (20%) sandstone frags, prob. greensand, <7 mm, sub-rounded, poorly sorted; fine– medium-grained sandy clay matrix
S1	Soft, silty; moderate (15%) shell, platy, <4 mm, poorly sorted; v. fine sandy/silty clay matrix
S2	Soft, soapy; abundant (40%) crushed shell, <3 mm, poorly sorted
S3	Soft, silty; common (20–25%) shell frags & rounded limestone, <7 mm; fine–medium-grained sandy clay matrix
S99	Leached shelly ware, basic level of recording
V1	Soft, silty; common (20%) linear voids, prob. from organic inclusions, <5 mm, moderately sorted
V2	Soft, silty; moderate (10–15%) voids, prob. from organic inclusions; v. fine/silty clay matrix
V3	Soft, silty; moderate (10%) voids from organic material; fine sandy clay matrix
V4	Soft, soapy; common (20–25%) linear voids from organic inclusions; sparse (7%) rounded clay pellets with occasional v. fine rounded dark grains, prob. glauconite, <1 mm. Rare (1%) detrital flint frags, angular, <5 mm
V99	Silty/sandy; voids, either too small to be assigned to fabric class or basic level of recording

Quantification of Iron Age pottery by fabric

Fabric	*Dominant inclusion*																	
	Calcareous or shell		*Flint*		*Grog*		*Iron*		*Organic*		*Rock*		*Quartz & glauconite*		*Quartz*		*Total*	
	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g	No.	g
C1	12	153	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	12	153
C99	7	16	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	16
F1	–	–	26	388	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	26	388
F2	–	–	21	185	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	21	185
F3	–	–	65	582	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	65	582
F4	–	–	17	440	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	17	440
F99	–	–	18	109	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	18	109
G99	–	–	–	–	3	19	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	19
I1	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	32	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	32
Q1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	213	5050	213	5050
Q10	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	71	893	71	893
Q11	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	34	306	34	306
Q12	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	45	8	45
Q13	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	189	2404	189	2404
Q14	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	47	1124	47	1124
Q15	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	42	486	42	486
Q16	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	224	1957	224	1957
Q17	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	155	1524	–	–	155	1524
Q18	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	6	236	6	236
Q19	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	351	7	351
Q2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	59	836	59	836
Q20	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	7	–	–	1	7
Q21	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	86	4	86
Q22	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	24	134	24	134
Q23	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	10	43	10	43
Q24	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	5	138	–	–	5	138
Q25	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	39	4	39
Q26	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	9	–	–	2	9
Q27	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	26	375	–	–	26	375
Q28	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	108	1066	–	–	108	1066
Q29	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	19	196	–	–	19	196
Q3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	99	3	99
Q4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1010	12433	1010	12433
Q5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	59	491	59	491
Q6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	28	394	28	394
Q7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	114	937	114	937
Q8	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	50	370	50	370
Q9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	23	73	23	73
Q99	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	895	8638	895	8638
R1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	124	–	–	–	–	8	124
S1	128	816	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	128	816
S2	70	788	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	70	788
S3	18	324	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	18	324
S99	16	136	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	16	136
V1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	14	156	–	–	–	–	–	–	14	156
V2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	81	1908	–	–	–	–	–	–	81	1908
V3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	21	213	–	–	–	–	–	–	21	213
V4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	39	351	–	–	–	–	–	–	39	351
V99	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	13	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	13
Totals	251	2233	147	1704	3	19	7	32	157	2641	8	124	316	3315	3124	37425	4013	47493

Appendix 2
Mollusc assemblage tables

Mollusc assemblages from enclosure ditch 1838, slot 1090 – pre-Romano-British contexts

Context no.	*1577: EIA*		*1576*						*1261*				*1257*			
Sample no.	61	*62*	*63*	*64*	*65*	*66*	*67*	*68*	*69*	*70*	*71*	*72*	*73*	*74*	*75*	*76*
Depth (m)	3.10–3.15	*3.03–3.10*	*3.00–3.03*	*2.90–3.00*	*2.80–2.90*	*2.70–2.80*	*2.60–2.70*	*2.55–2.60*	*2.50–2.55*	*2.40–2.50*	*2.30–2.40*	*2.27–2.30*	*2.20–2.27*	*2.10–2.20*	*2.00–2.10*	*1.93–2.00*
Weight (g)	1100	*1500*	*700*	*1500*	*1520*	*1500*	*1500*	*1500*	*1400*	*1500*	*1500*	*800*	*1200*	*1500*	*1500*	*1200*
Carychium tridentatum (Risso)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cochlicopa spp.	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vertigo pygmaea (Draparnaud)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vertigo spp.	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pupilla muscorum (Draparnaud)	5	12	2	2	2	1	1	–	5	–	11	1	2	5	13	7
Vallonia costata (Müller)	44	29	3	6	15	17	10	23	40	48	68	14	20	21	29	24
Vallonia excentrica Sterki	16	24	6	8	1	5	2	4	6	6	7	3	3	3	9	5
Vallonia spp.	3	11	5	3	–	–	1	3	6	3	5	1	2	2	4	3
Acanthinula aculeata (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Punctum pygmaeum (Draparnaud)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Discus rotundatus (Müller)	–	1	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vitrina pellucida (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vitrea spp.	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Nesovitrea hammonis (Ström)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella pura (Alder)	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella nitidula (Draparnaud)	2	–	–	–	1	1	2	–	4	2	1	–	1	1	3	3
Oxychilus cellarius (Müller)	–	–	–	4	1	2	2	3	11	3	2	–	3	5	7	6
Limacidae	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cecilioides acicula (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	1	1	1	2	–	–
Helicella itala (Müller)	8	14	3	3	2	2	–	–	1	2	5	1	–	3	3	3
Trichia hispida (Linnaeus)	8	5	2	1	4	3	–	2	1	12	28	5	–	5	4	6
Cepaea hortensis (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–
Cepaea/Arianta spp	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	–	–	–	1	–
Totals (excluding C. acicula)	86	98	22	27	26	31	18	35	75	77	129	25	31	45	73	57
Open country %	88.4	91.8	86.4	81.5	76.9	80.6	77.8	85.7	77.3	76.6	74.4	80	87.1	75.6	79.4	73.7
Intermediate %	9.3	6.1	9.1	3.7	15.4	9.7	0	5.7	1.3	16.9	23.3	20	0	11.1	6.8	10.5
Shade-loving %	2.3	2	4.5	14.8	7.7	9.7	22.2	8.6	21.3	6.5	2.3	0	12.9	13.3	13.7	15.8

Mollusc assemblages from enclosure ditch 1838, section 1090 – Romano-British contexts

Context	*1252*		*1251*		*1092: ?4th century*				*1091: late*		
Sample no.	*49*	*50*	*51*	*52*	*53*	*54*	*55*	*56*	*57*	*58*	*59*
Depth (m)	*0.70–0.74*	*0.66–0.70*	*0.60–0.66*	*0.54–0.60*	*0.50–0.54*	*0.40–0.50*	*0.30–0.40*	*0.24–0.30*	*0.20–0.24*	*0.10–0.20*	*0.00–0.10*
Weight (g)	*1000*	*1000*	*1200*	*1200*	*800*	*1300*	*1400*	*1250*	*800*	*1450*	*1400*
Carychium tridentatum (Risso)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cochlicopa spp.	–	–	–	–	2	1	–	–	–	–	–
Vertigo pygmaea (Draparnaud)	–	–	1	–	1	7	10	2	2	6	–
Vertigo spp.	–	–	–	–	2	7	4	2	1	–	–
Pupilla muscorum (Draparnaud)	–	–	1	3	–	6	3	2	2	5	5
Vallonia costata (Müller)	–	2	4	4	6	40	89	114	71	136	96
Vallonia excentrica Sterki	–	1	3	2	6	25	59	63	53	95	75
Vallonia spp.	–	1	–	2	3	7	6	8	16	24	14
Acanthinula aculeata (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Punctum pygmaeum (Draparnaud)	–	–	–	–	–	1	9	3	2	2	3
Discus rotundatus (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vitrina pellucida (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	4	–	–	–
Vitrea spp.	–	–	–	1	1	–	1	2	–	1	–
Nesovitrea hammonis (Ström)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella pura (Alder)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella nitidula (Draparnaud)	–	1	–	–	2	3	1	–	–	–	1
Oxychilus cellarius (Müller)	–	–	–	1	1	2	–	–	–	–	1
Limacidae	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Cecilioides acicula (Müller)	3	7	31	14	24	18	30	43	34	65	46
Helicella itala (Müller)	–	1	3	1	3	13	13	12	9	12	10
Trichia hispida (Linnaeus)	–	–	3	6	3	14	51	52	33	65	25
Cepaea hortensis (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cepaea/Arianta spp	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–
Totals (excluding C. acicula)	0	6	15	20	30	126	248	265	189	347	230
Open country %	0	83.3	80	60	70	83.3	74.2	76.6	81.5	80.1	87
Intermediate %	0	0	20	30	16.7	12.7	25	22.6	18.5	19.6	12.2
Shade-loving %	0	16.7	0	10	13.3	4	0.8	0.8	0	0.3	0.9

Mollusc assemblages from enclosure ditch 1838, slot 1090 – Romano-British contexts

Context	1262: c. AD 120				1259		1258		1254						1253	
Sample no.	*77*	*78*	*79*	*80*	*81*	*82*	*83*	*84*	*85*	*86*	*43*	*44*	*45*	*46*	*47*	*48*
Depth (m)	*1.90–1.93*	*1.80–1.90*	*1.70–1.80*	*1.66–1.70*	*1.60–1.66*	*1.53–1.60*	*1.50–1.53*	*1.40–1.50*	*1.30–1.40*	*1.20–1.30*	*1.10–1.20*	*1.00–1.10*	*0.90–1.00*	*0.85–0.90*	*0.80–0.85*	*0.74–0.80*
Weight (g)	*700*	*1500*	*1500*	*1420*	*1450*	*1500*	*900*	*1500*	*1500*	*1500*	*1500*	*1500*	*1500*	*1100*	*900*	*600*
Carychium tridentatum (Risso)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cochlicopa spp.	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vertigo pygmaea (Draparnaud)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vertigo spp.	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Pupilla muscorum (Draparnaud)	3	–	2	–	2	6	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–
Vallonia costata (Müller)	9	17	25	19	17	26	9	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vallonia excentrica Sterki	2	6	3	4	5	10	3	19	–	1	–	1	1	–	–	–
Vallonia spp.	–	3	2	2	2	1	1	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Acanthinula aculeata (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Punctum pygmaeum (Draparnaud)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Discus rotundatus (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vitrina pellucida (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vitrea spp.	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Nesovitrea hammonis (Ström)	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella pura (Alder)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Aegopinella nitidula (Draparnaud)	–	4	1	–	–	1	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Oxychilus cellarius (Müller)	4	8	2	–	2	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Limacidae	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cecilioides acicula (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	1	6	–	–	–	2	1	5	5	2	3
Helicella itala (Müller)	–	1	–	1	3	15	1	9	–	–	+	–	1	–	–	–
Trichia hispida (Linnaeus)	–	4	2	15	21	24	2	8	1	–	–	–	1	–	1	–
Cepaea hortensis (Müller)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cepaea/Arianta spp	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Totals (excluding C. acicula)	18	43	37	41	53	84	18	51	1	1	0	1	3	0	2	0
Open country %	77.8	62.8	86.5	63.4	54.7	69	88.9	70.6	0	100	0	100	66.7	0	50	0
Intermediate %	0	9.3	5.4	36.6	41.5	29.8	11.1	19.6	100	0	0	0	33.3	0	50	0
Shade-loving %	22.2	27.9	8.1	0	3.8	1.2	0	9.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Chapter 7
Environmental Evidence and Radiocarbon Dating

Charred Plant Remains

by Ruth Pelling

Seventy-one bulk samples, from features of Iron Age and Romano-British date, were taken for the extraction of charred plant remains. The samples from Iron Age features derive largely from pits, including storage pits, but also from gullies, post-holes, and ditches. The samples of Romano-British date include those from the large burnt spread (2076), and the corn drying oven (2600) cut into the Iron Age enclosure ditch. Following a rapid assessment of all flots, seven samples were examined in more detail from Iron Age deposits and five from Romano-British deposits. The Iron Age deposits all derive from pits or storage pits, while the Romano-British deposits came from the burnt spread and corn drying oven.

The bulk samples were processed by flotation in a modified Siraf-type machine with flots collected on a 0.5 mm mesh. The residues were fractionated onto 10 mm, 4 mm, 2 mm, and 0.5 mm mesh sizes, dried, and the 10 mm and 4 mm residues sorted by eye. Flots were scanned quickly under a binocular microscope at x10–x40 magnification at the assessment stage and the approximate abundance of grain, chaff, weed seeds, and charcoal recorded. Samples selected for more detailed examination were sorted to 1 mm. Given time constraints and the inherent difficulties in identification of cereal grains, wheat grains (*Triticum* sp.) were counted without any attempt to identify them to species. Glume bases extracted from the 1 mm flot were identified to species where preservation was sufficient. The 0.5 mm flots were sorted for weeds and chaff other than wheat, while hulled wheat glume bases were counted in the flot without extraction. One >1 mm flot was so rich in wheat chaff that the first 646 glume bases extracted were identified after which no further attempt to extract them was made. The estimated total number of glume bases is in excess of 5000. Similarly the number of weed seeds in the 0.5 mm flot from the stoke-hole of the corn drying oven (context 2616) was so high that they were not extracted. Seeds were counted and the range of species present was recorded. Nomenclature and taxonomic order of wild species follows Stace (1997). The majority of samples not examined in more detail produced only few plant remains indicative of background scatters of charred waste. Samples which contained more useful quantities of remains but which were not examined in detail are included in the tables (Tables 17 and 18). While charcoal was noted in a number of samples, it was only ever present in small quantities and is likely to have been reworked and consequently of limited interpretive value, particularly where it occurred in pits. Charcoal from the stoke-hole of the corn drying oven (context 2616) is likely to be derived from fuel. Time constraints prevented detailed identification of the taxa and analysis was therefore limited to careful scanning and the identification of oak or non-oak taxa.

Iron Age

Storage and other pits

A total of 47 samples were examined, of which 11 produced good quantities of charred remains with in excess of 50 grain, chaff or weed items, with eight producing in excess of 100 items. The samples with fewer than 50 items can be regarded as containing background deposits of charred remains, much of which is likely to have been reworked and subject to mixing and disturbance. Of the seven samples selected for detailed analysis, five contained in excess of 100 items (from pits 1185, 1286, 1317, 1609, and two samples from 1706; Table 17). An additional sample from 1317 was examined to provide a more detailed study of the pit. The seventh sample, from pit 1609, produced few charred seeds but did contain a large number of silica chaff items (awn fragments, glume fragments, and glume tips).

Of the richer samples all produced cereal grain, chaff, and weed seeds in varying proportions. Numerous silica chaff skeletons were present in samples from pits 1286 and 1609. The pits examined have been dated on the basis of pottery to the Early Iron Age (pit 1185), the Early/Middle Iron Age (pit 1286) and the Middle Iron Age (pits 1317, 1609, and 1706). The remaining pits not examined in detail, but which contained useful quantities of material, were all of Middle Iron Age date. There is insufficient evidence to trace any significant temporal shifts from the Early to Middle Iron Age in terms of crops cultivated or arable methods and it is likely that agricultural practice remained relatively constant through this period.

Table 17 Charred plant remains from Iron Age pits

	Pit	*1185*	*1286*	*1317*		*1609*	*1706*		
	Context	*1187*	*1437*	*1318*	*1319*	*1615*	*1713*		*1707*
	Sample	*5*	*20*	*24*	*25*	*36*	*40*		*41*
	Size (l)	*10*	*18*	*10*	*20*	*2*	*10*	*10*	*10*
	Flot size (ml)	*12*	*18*	*10*	*30*	*2*	*35*	*35*	*5*
	Charcoal	*<1*	*7*	*20a*	*2b*	*-*	*8c*	*8c*	*<1*
	Mesh size (mm)	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*
Cereals									
Triticum sp. hexaploid	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat glume base	1	59	–	1	–	3	17	7
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat spikelet fork	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer glume base	13	153	2	12	2	9	–	77
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer spikelet fork	–	45	2	3	–	5	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat grain	16	35	–	19	–	38	–	2
Triticum sp.	Wheat, grain, germinated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, rachis internode	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, free threshing type rachis node	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, awn fragments, silica	–	500+	–	–	100+	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, glume fragments, silica	–	–	–	–	20+	–	–	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, glume tips, silica	–	–	–	–	10+	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain	40	80	–	38	–	2	–	5
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain, germinated	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare 6-row	rachis	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare	rachis	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	1
Cerealia indet	grain	56	59	10	127	21	47	–	5
Cerealia indet	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	basal culm node/rhizome	–	8	–	–	–	6	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	culm node	–	5	–	–	–	11	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	detached embryo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	coleoptile	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Weeds/wild species									
Ranunculus acris/repens/bulbosus	Buttercups	–	1	–	–	–	17	–	–
Papaver rhoeas/dubium	Common/Longheaded Poppy	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Fumaria officinalis	Common Fumitory	3	5	–	1	–	2	–	1
Urtica dioica	Common Nettle	–	5	–	–	–	–	–	–
Urtica urens	Small Nettle	–	48	–	–	–	–	–	–
Corylus avellana	Hazel nutshell fragment	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Atriplex sp.	Orache	–	250+	–	–	–	1	1	1
Montia fontana subsp. *Chondrosperma*	Blinks	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
Stellaria media	Common Chickweed	–	13	–	1	–	–	–	–
Silene sp.	Campions	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–
Polygonum aviculare agg	Knotgrass	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed	–	19	–	1	–	2	–	1
cf. *Fallopia convolvulus*	cf. Black Bindweed, internal cotyledon	–	11	–	–	–	–	–	–
Rumex sp.	Docks	–	7	–	3	–	12	2	1
Polygonaceae		2	6	–	–	–	2	–	–
Brassicaceae		–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–
Calluna vulgaris	Heather, immature seed capsules	–	–	–	–	–	–	7	–
cf. *Calluna vulgaris*	cf. Heather, empty capsule base	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Aphanes arvensis	Parsley-Piert	1	5	–	1	–	–	–	–
Vicia/Lathyrus >2 mm	Vetch/Tare/Vetchling etc	1	10	–	1	–	–	–	–
Medicago lupulina	Black Medick	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Medicago/Trifolium type	Medick/Clover/Trefoil type	–	264	–	2	–	–	–	–
Linum catharticum	Fairy Flax	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Apiaceae, indet	Small seeded	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–
Apiaceae, indet	Large seeded	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Lithospermum arvense	Field Gromwell	–	12	–	–	–	–	–	–
Plantago lanceolata		–	8	–	–	–	–	–	–
Odontites vernus	Red Bartsia	–	12	–	5	–	–	1	1
Sherardia arvensis	Field Madder	1	29	–	–	–	–	–	–
Galium aparine	Goosegrass/ Cleavers	–	64	–	3	–	29	1	2
Galium sp.	Small seeded	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited cornsalad	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed	1	101	–	8	–	–	1	–
Carex sp.	Sedge, 2-sided	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poa annua/Phleum sp. Type		–	6	–	1	1	–	–	–
Lolium/Festuca sp.	Rye grass/Fescue type	–	7	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bromus sp.	Brome Grass	3	14	–	–	–	–	–	–
Anisantha sterilis	Barren Brome	–	–	–	–	–	2	1	–
Arrhenatherum elatius	False oat grass, tuber	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–
Poaceae	Grass, small seeded	–	29	1	–	1	–	3	1
Poaceae	Grass, large seeded	–	10	–	–	–	1	–	1
indet seeds		1	50	–	6	–	–	–	2
Total weeds		13	695	2	37	2	70	18	13
Mineral globules		–	++	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ashy lumps		–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Charred stem fragments	heather type stem	–	–	–	–	–	+++	–	–
Molluscs, burnt		–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–

Two cultivated species were identified: spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*), identified on the basis of chaff, and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), identified by both grain and chaff. It is probable that the majority of wheat grain is derived from spelt wheat. A number of short rounded grains could be of a free-threshing wheat species although short grained spelt is frequently recorded on Iron Age and Romano-British sites. No emmer wheat or free-threshing wheat was positively identified. The barley appears to be a hulled six-row variety on the basis of typical hulled grain and diagnostic rachis segments.

Sample composition

The proportions of grain, chaff, and weed seeds are variable in the samples. Grain outnumbers chaff in samples from pits 1185, 1317, and 1706 (fill 1713). Given the differential survival rates of grain and chaff during charring (Boardman and Jones 1990) it is possible that these samples include spikelets of spelt wheat and barley grain burnt during storage, in roasting accidents or deliberately destroyed. Chaff, particularly glume bases and spikelet forks of hulled wheat, is more numerous in pit 1286 and fill 1707 from pit 1706. Pit 1286 also contains a large number of silica skeletons of awn fragments as well as a particularly substantial weed assemblage. Silica chaff was also present in pit 1609, suggesting this fill also originally contained husking waste. The presence of small quantities of chaff preserved as silica or opal skeletons hints that the chaff preserved by charring is only a small fraction of that which was originally present prior to burning (Robinson and Straker 1991). More detailed descriptions are provided for selected pits.

Pit 1286

The examination of the deposit from pit 1286 (fill 1437) suggested that the pit contained the dehusking by-product of spelt wheat (glume bases and many weed seeds) as well as barley grain which most probably represent occasional losses incorporated with chaff and weed seeds during processing. A large number of silica skeletons of awn fragments suggests that the original proportion of wheat chaff was much greater. This deposit contained a far greater quantity of chaff than any other Iron Age sample. This may be, in part, the product of preservation conditions within the pit but may also reflect the waste discarded in it. Also present were a large number of weed seeds (in excess of 1000 seeds) of both small seeded species (chickweed, red bartsia, parsley-piert), large seeded species (black bindweed, goosegrass, corn gromwell), as well as those which are retained in the seed head. Large seeded weeds may remain with the crop until the late stages of processing. Small seeded weeds may be removed following harvest prior to storage, or routinely during the year following storage, possibly if labour is scarce at harvest and pre-storage processing is kept to a minimum (Stevens 2006). However, such a substantial weed assemblage as represented here suggests that they derive either from an early stage of processing or that they include material from another source. The range of species present is typical of arable fields and contains some species particularly closely associated with cereal crops, such as corn gromwell and field madder. The presence of a small number of culm nodes and basal nodes/rhizomes of cereal type supports the interpretation of weeds and other waste removed at an early stage of processing. The presence of both early and late stages of processing suggests some general mixing of processing waste from different stages. A number of mineralised globules were also present. While no mineralisation of the seeds had occurred it is possible that some mineralisation was taking place in the pit, as would be consistent with stored manure.

Bell-shaped pit 1317

Two samples were examined from this deep pit. Fill 1318 produced only limited remains which may derive from the denser fill below (1319) or represent background scatters of material present in the backfill. Fill 1319 produced a grain-rich deposit in which barley outnumbered wheat although the majority of the grain was poorly preserved and of indeterminate genus. A small number of chaff items, including spelt wheat glume bases, confirms the presence of this species. A modest quantity of weed seeds included common arable weeds or ruderal species of disturbed habitats and cultivated plots, such as fumitory (*Fumaria officinalis*), poppy (*Papaver rhoeas/dubium*), chickweed, bindweed, docks, medicks/clovers, red bartsia, and scentless mayweed. A fragment of hazelnut shell (*Corylus avellana*) may derive from food waste or burnt fuel. Assuming the level of chaff in this feature is under-represented it is likely that these deposits consist of spikelets and grain lost in routine burning events following processing of cereals prior to use.

Pit 1706

Fill 1713 produced an interesting assemblage with a number of woody stem fragments which were not identified but which are typical of heather. This sample produced seven immature seed capsules of heather (*Calluna vulgaris*) and a further empty capsule more tentatively identified as such. Heather is typical of acidic heathland but could also occur on pockets of clay with flints. Small areas of chalk-heath vegetation occur on the chalk supporting a mixture of chalk-loving plants as well as plants more typical of acid soils. Heather may have been collected for fuel use or possibly for bedding or thatching material although it is unlikely that this would be a regular practice if it was not abundant locally. This sample contained more grain than chaff although, given their differential survival, it is likely that the original ratio was more equal. Spikelets of spelt wheat may, therefore, be represented. Barley grain was limited, consisting of two grains; a number of culm nodes and basal nodes/rhizomes of cereals or grasses suggest that crops may have been harvested by uprooting or cutting low on the straw (this inevitably results in some uprooting of rhizomes). The weed assemblage in this deposit consisted of relatively large numbers of seeds but from few species, including 29 seeds of goosegrass and frequent docks and buttercups (*Ranunculus acris/repens/bulbosus*). While most of the weeds may derive from arable fields, the presence of buttercups is more indicative of grassland habitats. Fill 1707 produced a more notable number of glume bases probably deriving from cereal processing waste, as well as occasional grain and weed seeds.

The Iron Age arable regime

Along with the wheat and barley that were cultivated in the area a useful number of non-arable taxa were identified in the samples, with a particularly notable weed assemblage in pit 1286. Many of the taxa identified are typical of arable or disturbed habitats on lighter chalky or base rich soils as found in the vicinity of the site and there is no indication of the cultivation of heavy clay soils. A number of species such as fairy flax, false oat grass, knapweed, and hawkweed are typical of grassland and field margins on the chalky soils of the region. Occasional seeds of damper ground, such as buttercups, blinks, and sedges, suggest some utilisation of wetter ground in the valley bottoms. Cleavers, field madder, and corn gromwell tend to be interpreted as typically autumn germinating (Reynolds 1981; Jones 1981; 1988; Grime *et al.* 1988), suitable for both spelt wheat and barley. Barley may also be spring sown.

The presence of low-growing as well as twining and scrambling species, and occasional basal nodes or rhizomes suggest that crops were harvested by cutting low on the straw or by uprooting, as has been interpreted for a number of Iron Age sites in the region (Jones 1981; de Moulins 1995; Ede 2001; Campbell 2000b; Clapham and Stevens 2008). Hillman, however, argues that uprooting would only introduce seeds of twining species (Hillman 1981; 1984) whereas, at many of these sites including High Post, species of upright habit are also common. In practice it is likely that harvesting by sickle low on the straw would inevitably result in the uprooting of some cereals and the harvesting of both twining and low-growing upright species.

It is not possible to make confident statements about cereal processing beyond suggesting that the pits have received the processing by-product of dehusking spelt wheat and possible spikelets and grain burnt in storage or during roasting. Stevens (2003) has argued that while large weed seeds will remain with the spelt crop until removed by hand immediately prior to milling, the presence of small seeded weeds is dependent on the degree of processing which takes place prior to the storage of spikelets. The majority of samples from High Post contain some grain, possibly spikelets, or chaff with large-seeded weeds. The presence of a large number of weed seeds, including from small-seeded varieties, not removed prior to storage, may indicate that the assemblage contains waste from earlier processing stages, and hence possibly that the crop was stored in a less processed state. However, it is equally possible that many of the weeds in this sample were sieved out while still in their seed heads or clusters. It is difficult to disentangle the origins of a single pit deposit and it is possible that more than one episode of processing is represented in pit 1286.

Romano-British

All five Romano-British samples examined were exceptionally rich in terms of the numbers of chaff, grain and in some cases weed seeds (Table 18).

Layer 2076

The sample from this large organic-rich spread across the infilled Iron Age enclosure ditch contained in excess of 5000 glume bases, as well as several hundred cereal grain and a small number of weed seeds. The sample was clearly derived from the dehusking waste of a spelt wheat crop, with some barley, possibly from ears, also present. Such a large number of glume bases must derive from a large-scale processing event or several repeated events rather than the smaller-scale, possibly piecemeal, processing events represented in the Iron Age features. The occasional grains are likely to have been lost accidentally. The very small number of weed seeds (112 seeds) indicates that the majority of weeds were removed from the processed spelt wheat prior to the dehusking event and, presumably, prior to storage. The weed seeds present were dominated by the seeds of brome grass which, being of similar size to the cereal grain, is likely to have remained with the grain until a late stage of processing, possibly picked out by hand at the same time as dehusking took place. Also common were seeds of stinking mayweed (*Anthemis cotula*), an annual member of the Asteraceae or daisy family which forms seed heads and is also difficult to remove from the grain, often being removed at the later stages of processing prior to milling. Given the proximity of this spread to the corn drying oven it is possible that the material derives from dehusking waste generated by the oven subsequently used as fuel.

Corn drying oven 2600

Unless a corn drying oven is burnt down during use, resulting in the burning and preservation of its

Table 18 Charred plant remains from Romano-British contexts

				Corn drying oven 2600							
	Feature/deposit	*Spread 2523*		*Stokehole*		*Flue*					
	Context	*2076*		*2616*		*2618*					
	Sample	*116*		*151*		*152*		*153*		*154*	
	Size (l)	*20*		*8*		*4*		*8*		*6*	
	Flot size (ml)	*100*		*60*		*75*		*160*		*50*	
	Charcoal	*<1*		*25a*		*2*		*2*		*2*	
	Mesh size (mm)	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*	*>1*	*0.5h*
Cereals											
Triticum sp. hexaploid	rachis internode	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat glume base	286d	200+	61	–	20	–	32	–	8	–
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat spikelet fork	1d	–	–	–	2	–	1	–	2	–
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer glume base	340d	500+	97	515	12	65	35	507	10	67
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer spikelet fork	19d	–	7	–	2	–	26	–	6	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat grain	269	–	152e	–	133	–	344	–	102	–
Triticum sp.	Wheat, grain, germinated	17	–	11e	–	5	–	13	–	5	–
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain	92	–	135	–	62	–	123	–	61	–
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain, germinated	1	–	12	–	1	–	2	–	–	–
Hordeum vulgare 6-row	rachis	26	–	1	–	–	–	5	3	–	2
Hordeum vulgare	rachis	1	8	–	4	–	–	1	–	–	–
Cerealia indet	grain	446	–	47	–	138 g	–	494	–	140 g	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	basal culm node/rhizome	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	culm node	1	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Poaceae, cereal sized	detached embryo	–	–	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	10
Poaceae, cereal sized	coleoptile	4	–	–	1	4	3	2	–	1	1
Weed/wild species											
Papaver rhoeas/dubium	Common/Longheaded poppy	–	5	–	200+	–	1	–	1	–	–
Urtica dioica.	Common Nettle	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Urtica urens	Small Nettle	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Chenopodium album	Fat Hen	1	2	–	+	–	1	–	–	–	–
Atriplex sp.	Orache	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Chenopodiaceae		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Agrostemma githago	Corncockle	–	–	6	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Silene sp.	Campions	7	7	3	+	–	4	5	4	–	–
Caryophyllaceae		–	2	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
cf. Caryophyllaceae	seed capsule tip	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Polygonum aviculare agg	Knotgrass	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed	3	–	1	–	1	–	–	1	–	–
Rumex sp.	Docks	7	1	53	+	–	–	4	–	1	–
Polygonaceae		3	1	15	–	–	–	2	1	–	–
Malva sp.		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Brassicaceae		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Sambucus nigra	Elder	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.>2 mm	Vetch/Tare/Vetchling etc	1	–	–	–	1	–	3	–	1	–
Medicago/Trifolium type	Medick/Clover/Trefoil type	2	2	2	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Linum catharticum	Fairy Flax	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Apiaceae, indet	Small seeded	–	1	6	+	–	–	1	–	–	–
Apiaceae, indet	Large seeded	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Solonaceae		1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Lithospermum arvense	Field Gromwell	1	–	2	–	8	–	3	–	2	–
Stachys/Salvia sp.		–	–	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Plantago lanceolata		–	–	–	+	–	–	–	1	–	–
Odontites vernus	Red Bartsia	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Sherardia arvensis	Field Madder	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Galium aparine		1	–	5	–	–	–	2	–	–	–
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited cornsalad	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Centaurea sp.		2	–	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Anthemis cotula	Stinking Mayweed	7	32	–	200+	–	3	–	8	–	3
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed	–	1	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Leontodon autumnalis	Autumn Hawkbit	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–
Asteraceae	Large seeded	–	–	8	–	–	–	–	2	–	–
Carex sp.	Sedge, 2sided	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–
Poa annua/Phleum sp. type		8	82	–	+	–	2	–	9	–	2
Lolium/Festuca sp.	Rye grass/Fescue type	2	2	2	+	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bromus sp.	Brome Grass	62	–	43	–	5	–	21	–	3	–
Anisantha sterilis	Barren Brome	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–
Poaceae	Grass, small seeded	–	–	1	+	–	–	–	11	–	–
Poaceae	Grass, large seeded	–	–	5	–	–	–	7	–	–	–
indet seeds		–	4	4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Total weeds		112	142	166	719f	16	11	51	40	7	5
Large fruit/nut	Indet	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Molluscs	Volume >2 mm	15	–	5	–	55	–	110	–	40	–
Mammal bone	Small	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Insect pupa, charred		–	–	3	1	–	–	1	1	–	–

a – charcoal mostly oak; b – clinkered conglomerated mass; c – includes stem material, probably heather; d – in excess of 500 glumes present so small number counted then stopped; e – grain well preserved, in contrast to flue, and included larger numbers of spelt; f – weeds counted but not individual species; g – frequent non-quantifiable grain fragments; h – glume bases counted but not extracted from 0.5 mm flot contents, the fills can be assumed to represent post-use backfill. The basal fills, however, frequently appear to be related to the function of the structure, derived from the final use, from spent fuel, a deposit of burnt contents lost during the final episode or use, or possibly accumulated over a period of time if not completely cleaned out. The examination of the basal fills, particularly when sampled spatially, can provide some clues as to the function of the structure and possibly fuel use. Separate samples were taken from the stoke-hole and flue of the corn drier enabling a comparison of its fuel and contents. The flue was sampled in three locations – the main flue and each side of the cross flue. All four samples were dominated by cereal grain with frequent chaff. Given the differential survival of chaff and grain it is likely that the grain derived from spikelets of spelt wheat and possibly ears of barley. Small numbers of grains had germinated. Weeds were infrequent in the flue samples suggesting some degree of sieving had taken place to remove the weeds from the spikelets/ears. The preservation of grain in the flues was very poor, reflected in the high number of indeterminate grain. The grain was pitted and honeycombed suggesting a large degree of weathering as well as being subjected to high levels of heat within a fairly well oxygenated environment. It is possible that much of this material represents grain or spikelets which fell through a raised floor in the structure and became charred in the heat of the oven over time, representing several episodes of use. Alternatively it may simply be that the waste or the fuel from the final episode of use was thrown into the flue as refuse, or that small quantities of spent fuel were routinely pushed into the flues while the stoke-hole was cleared out.

The stoke-hole sample contained a large number of grains and glume bases as well as barley grain and rachis. However, the composition of the sample and preservation of the grain was very different to that of the flue samples. Glume bases outnumbered grains in the stoke-hole suggesting that a greater percentage of cereal processing by-product was included, although grains of both barley and wheat were still present in large numbers suggesting spikelets or ears of grain were present. More strikingly the preservation of the grain in the stoke-hole was significantly better than in the flue samples, many grain still retaining their epidermis. Possibly this is a reflection of burning conditions, particularly if the stoke-hole was enclosed therefore reducing the amount of oxygen. Alternatively it may simply reflect the speed of accumulation of the material, particularly if the flue samples were composed of material which had fallen through a raised floor and become charred in the heat of the oven over time. In addition, this sample contained a large number of weed seeds, particularly of poppy, stinking mayweed, docks, and brome grass. The common weeds in this sample may derive from single seed heads, especially the poppy and stinking mayweed. Seed heads may be removed from spikelets or ears which are about to be roasted, dried, or malted, and then thrown back into the stoke-hole or added to chaff intended for fuel, or left in a spikelet or grain deposit which was damaged in some way and therefore burnt as fuel. It is interesting to note the presence of charred insect pupa in the sample from the stoke-hole, possibly indicating that the grain was being burnt as fuel due to an insect infestation.

A review of the botanical evidence derived from corn driers by van der Veen (1989) suggested that they may have been multi-functional structures used for drying or parching grain (or spikelets) as well as for malting. More recent examples generally support this. Examples examined from sites in the Danebury Environs Project for example confirm they were used for either dehusking spelt wheat or drying malted spelt wheat grain, with evidence for the processing (malting) of barley recovered from a single site only (Campbell 2008). Corn dryers at Beach's Barn and Chisenbury Warren on Salisbury Plain appear to have been used in part for malting and contained both spelt wheat and barley (Stevens 2006). A few grains in the High Post corn drying oven had sprouted, although an insufficient number to imply confidently that malting was taking place (Table 18). It must be considered, however, that the charred material recovered from the structure consists of the grain which did not go on to be used for malt and therefore we would not expect large percentages to have germinated perfectly. It is possible that either malting, or drying or roasting prior to dehusking was taking place. The presence of barley and spelt wheat suggests either that the two crops were processed together, in which case this is more likely for malting purposes, or that the material is derived from several episodes of use. Assuming the dark spread (2076) is related to the use of the oven, then it appears that the chaff-rich assemblage derived from the chaff removed following processing in the oven.

The material in the stoke-hole was presumably derived from fuel. A greater quantity of charcoal was present in the stoke-hole than the flue samples although still not in particularly large quantities. Most of the charcoal appears to have been oak with only one or two fragments of other taxa. The fuel used in the oven appears to consist of cereal processing waste (chaff and weeds) and possibly spoilt grain as well as some wood fuel. It is possible that the spoilt grain was used as fuel in the final episode of use of the structure while cereal processing waste was the more usual fuel. The spent fuel (mostly chaff) then appears to have been thrown onto the filled enclosure ditch to the south-east of the oven, resulting in a large accumulation of material over time. The use of processing waste (chaff and weeds) as fuel in corn dryers is well attested (van der Veen 1989; Stevens 2006; Pelling 1999; Campbell 2008). A large corn dryer at Fullerton, Hampshire, produced evidence for a range of fuel including mixed wood fuel, principally ash, with smaller amounts of birch, oak, and field maple and traces of hazel and sloe/plum type, as well as cereal chaff, possible stable waste, and general rubbish (Campbell 2008, 71). This mixture of fuel was interpreted as being derived from episodes of general burning in the corn dryer including possible structural timbers when the building fell into disuse. The use of chaff including straw and weed seeds appears to be the more usual fuel. This would affect the taste of the grain less strongly than the use of wood fuel, and would furthermore be generated regularly through roasting/parching/drying or malting episodes.

The Romano-British arable regime

The crops cultivated in the Romano-British period remained unchanged from the proceeding Iron Age with both spelt wheat and barley represented. The quantity of cereal grains and chaff was significantly greater in the later period, however, which must be largely the result of a more industrial scale of cereal processing and the use of corn dryers. Samples from only late Romano-British contents were examined and it is possible that this increase in the scale of cereal processing did not occur until late into the period. In addition there is a change in weed species associated with the cereals. Two new species occur: stinking mayweed and corncockle (*Agrostemma githago*). Both species are annual weeds closely associated with autumn sown wheat and ubiquitous in cereal assemblages in the Saxon and medieval periods. Corncockle is not native to the British Isles and is generally regarded as a Roman introduction which spread relatively quickly with the transportation of grain. Stinking mayweed, conversely, is a native species particularly associated with the cultivation of heavy clay, and therefore probably not incorporated into the weed repertoire until expansion of agriculture on to clay soils. While occasional finds of stinking mayweed date from the Middle–Late Iron Age at sites on the Wessex chalklands, such as Easton Lane (Carruthers 1989) and Suddern Farm (Campbell 2000b) in Hampshire, it has been suggested by Stevens (2006) that it rarely occurs in any quantity prior to the 3rd century AD. Where it does occur in high numbers it is mainly on southern British sites and often associated with corn dryers. It appears that at High Post cultivation occurred on the lighter soils during the Iron Age with expansion on to heavier clays in the late Romano-British period in association with an increased scale of crop processing and the use of corn dryers.

Conclusions

Evidence for both continuation and changes in arable regime has been identified. In both the Iron Age and the Romano-British period the principal crops cultivated were spelt wheat and barley. Cultivation of lighter soils is suggested by the Iron Age weed assemblage, while expansion onto heavy clay is indicated during the late Romano-British period, associated with an increase in the scale of crop processing and the use of corn dryers.

The Iron Age pits generally contained charred spikelets of spelt wheat and grain of barley, possibly burnt in small-scale processing episodes prior to milling and consumption. One exceptional sample, from storage pit 1286, produced evidence for cereal processing waste including both spelt wheat glume bases and a large number of weed seeds. The Iron Age pit samples generally consist of burnt cereal and cereal processing waste discarded in the pits as refuse. It is not possible to link the pit samples to the original function of the features. The presence of silica chaff in two samples suggests the proportion of chaff may be under-represented in some samples. There is evidence for the collection and use of heather in the Iron Age which may have come from chalk heath or areas of clay-with-flints. In contrast, samples from the Romano-British period provide some indication of the function of the corn drying oven from which they were recovered. Much more abundant cereal remains were recovered from the Romano-British samples, with both grain and chaff common as well as weeds in a sample from the stoke-hole of the oven. Large quantities of chaff appear to have been burnt as fuel and discarded close to the oven. The presence of insect pupa in a grain deposit in the stoke-hole suggest grain infested with storage pests may have been used as fuel.

Molluscs

by Sarah F. Wyles

Forty-three mollusc samples were taken through the Iron Age enclosure ditch (1838, slot 1090; Fig. 5) to provide information on the local landscape and vegetational history. Standard analytical methods were employed, namely the identification of apical and diagnostic mollusc fragments following the nomenclature of Kerney (1999) using a x10–x40 stereo-binocular microscope. The sediments of sampled contexts in ditch slot 1090 are described in Table 19 and the results of the analysis are shown in Appendix 2. Details of the ecological preferences of the species follow Evans (1972), Kerney (1999), and Davies (2008). Detailed analyses of the assemblages from each context are in the archive.

Table 19 Sediment descriptions for contexts sampled for molluscs

Context	*Depth (m)*	*Pottery date*	*Description*
1091	0.00–0.24	Late Romano-British	mid-reddish brown silty clay; moderate chalk flecks, sparse sub-angular flint (0.03–0.08 m). Tertiary fill
1092	0.24–0.54	Late Romano-British (?4th century)	mid-/dark greyish brown silty clay; moderate/common chalk flecks, moderate/sparse sub-angular flint (0.03–0.06 m). Tertiary fill
1251	0.54–0.66	–	mid-brown silty clay loam; rare/sparse chalk flecks, rare sub-angular flint (0.03–0.08 m). Stabilisation layer
1252	0.66–0.74	–	mid-/dark brownish grey silty clay; moderate chalk flecks, sparse sub-angular flint (0.02–0.09 m). Secondary fill with material from erosion of ditch edge & ?int. bank
1253	0.74–0.85	–	mid-reddish brown silty clay; sparse/moderate chalk flecks, rare sub-angular flint (0.02–0.09 m). Stabilisation layer
1254	0.85–1.40	Romano-British	mid-greyish brown silty clay; common chalk flecks/lumps (0.02–0.09 m), common sub-angular flint (0.05–0.15 m). Secondary fill with material from erosion of ditch edge & ?int. bank
1258	1.40–1.53	–	mid-reddish brown silty clay; rare/sparse chalk pieces (0.02–0.06 m). Stabilisation layer
1259	1.53–1.66	Romano-British	mid-yellowish white silty clay; 90% sub-angular chalk pieces. Slump of chalk – edge & ?int. bank erosion
1262	1.66–1.93	Romano-British *c.* AD 120	mid-greyish brown silty clay; 60% sub-angular chalk pieces, rare flint. Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1257	1.93–2.27	–	mid-/light reddish brown silty clay; 80% sub-angular chalk pieces, rare flint. Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1261	2.27–2.55	–	mid-/dark greyish brown silty clay; 80% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.02–0.10 m). Slump of chalk – edge erosion
1576	2.55–3.03	–	mid-greyish brown silty clay, 80% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.02–0.10 m), rare sub-angular flint (0.02–0.07 m). Slump of chalk – edge collapse
1577	3.03–3.15	Early Iron Age	mid-/light greyish brown silty clay; 40% sub-angular chalk pieces (0.01–0.05 m). Initial silting

The snail numbers in the ditch samples fluctuated, with those from contexts 1254, 1253, and 1252 being particularly low and the highest from the upper fills 1092 and 1091. With the exception of those contexts where shell numbers are too low to make comment, the assemblages are all dominated by the open country species, reflecting a well established local open grassland environment, probably with a fluctuating intensity of grazing, from the Early Iron Age through to the late Romano-British period.

The grassland may have become rougher during part of the later period as reflected in the assemblages recovered from context 1259. Varying extents of areas of longer grass may have existed near the edge of the ditch throughout its history and then within the ditch itself. There is only a small indication of the possible presence of arable activity in the vicinity, and this is during the Romano-British period. However, it must be borne in mind how localised an environment is reflected by the mollusc assemblages and it does not rule out the possibility of arable fields not far away (see above).

The presence of a long period of open grazed grassland was also observed nearby, at Earl's Farm Down in the Avon Valley during the later prehistoric to Romano-British periods (Allen and Wyles 2004). At the Iron Age hillfort at Vespasian's Camp (Allen 1999) and the Iron Age enclosure at Scotland Lodge (Wyles 2008), the molluscan assemblages reflected periods both of open grazed grassland and of arable fields.

Radiocarbon Dating

by Alistair J. Barclay and Chris J. Stevens

Fourteen samples were submitted from selected Iron Age and Romano-British features to try and address a number of research aims regarding the site. A single date was obtained during the assessment work from Rafter, GNS Science, New Zealand and a further thirteen dates (one failed) were submitted to the Scottish Environmental Research Centre (SUERC), East Kilbride, Glasgow, Scotland (Table 22).

Sample Selection

Where possible, samples were selected from articulated bone, charred residue adhering to featured pottery, and from deposits containing single identified charred grains/seeds. Where no articulated or articulating bone was available, great care was taken to select bone in fresh condition (ie, from freshly killed or dead animals).

Results and Calibration

The sample dated by Rafter was prepared and measured as described at http://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Services/Laboratories-Facilities/Rafter-Radiocarbon-Laboratory. The samples dated by SUERC pretreated as described by Stenhouse and Baxter (1983), graphitised using methods described by Vandeputte

Table 20 Radiocarbon measurements

Lab ref.	*Feature*	*Context*	*Material*	*δ¹³C ‰*	*Date BP*	*Calibrated (2 sig. 95.4%)*	*Model 1 95.4%*	*Model 2 95.4%*
SUERC-32312	Pit 1059	1089 ABG18	Charred internal pottery residue; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-27.2	2165±30	370–110 cal BC	*390–300 cal BC*	*370–160 cal BC*
SUERC-32313	Pit 1236 top fill	1237 ABG 61	Pig femur (left) from an articulated burial	-21.6	2240±30	390–200 cal BC	*400–280 cal BC*	*400–200 cal BC*
SUERC-32314	Pit 1236 primary fill	1347	Cattle metatarsal (right), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.5	2345±30	520–370 cal BC	*480–370 cal BC*	*520–370 cal BC*
NZA-31064	Animal bone spread 2536	1373 ABG 275	Cattle long bone fragment from an articulated limb	-21.2	2420±35	720–390 cal BC	*500–390 cal BC*	*550–390 cal BC*
SUERC-32315	as above	1373 ABG 379	Cattle cranium fragment	-21.2	2355±30	520–380 cal BC	*490–390 cal BC*	*510–380 cal BC*
SUERC-32316	as above	1373 ABG 269	Cattle thoracic vertebra from a group of articulated bones	-21.3	2380±30	720–390 cal BC	*490–390 cal BC*	*520–390 cal BC*
SUERC-32317	Enclosure ditch 1838 slot 1625	1626	Cattle distal femur (left), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.6	2330±30	510–260 cal BC	*410–370 cal BC*	*510–360 cal BC*
SUERC-32318	Enclosure ditch 1838 slot 1635	2137	Cattle metatarsal (left), disarticulated bone in a fresh condition; treated as a tpq in Model 2	-21.4	2310±30	410–230 cal BC	*410–350 cal BC*	*410–230 cal BC*
SUERC-32322	Corn drying oven 2600	2618	Charred grain *Triticum* cf. *spelta*	-21.4	1645±25	cal AD 335–535	–	–
SUERC-35359	As above	2621	Human skull fragment	-20.4	1710±30	cal AD 250–410	–	–
SUERC-35358	Burial within bone spread	2371a	Human right femur	-20.5	1730±30		–	–
SUERC-35885	as above	2371c	as above	-20.0	1745±30	Combined as cal AD230–350	–	–
SUERC-35884	as above	2371b	Human right humerus	-19.9	1770±30		–	–

et al. (1996), and dated by AMS as described by Xu *et al.* (2004) and Freeman *et al.* (2007).

The full radiocarbon results (summarised in Table 1 above) are given in Table 20 and are quoted in accordance with the international standard (Stuiver and Kra 1986). They are conventional radiocarbon ages (Stuiver and Polach 1977) and all have been calculated using the calibration curve of Reimer *et al.* (2009) and OxCal (v4.1) (Bronk Ramsey 1995; 1998; 2001; 2009). The calibrated date ranges are those for 95% confidence, quoted in the form recommended by Mook (1986) with the end points rounded outwards to 10 years for errors >25 years and five years for errors ≤25 years. The ranges in plain type in Table 20 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; Bayliss *et al.* 2007). Although the simple calibrated dates are accurate estimates of the dates of the samples, it is the dates of the archaeological events, which are represented by those samples, which are of interest. In the case of this site, it is the chronology of the enclosure and the associated activity that is under consideration, not the dates of individual samples. The dates of this activity can be estimated not only using the absolute dating information from the radiocarbon measurements, but also by using the stratigraphic relationships between samples. The OxCal programme provides the methodology to combine these different types of information explicitly, to produce realistic estimates of the dates of interest. However, the *posterior density estimates* produced by this modelling are not absolute. They are interpretative *estimates*, which can and will change as further data become available and as other researchers choose to model the existing data from different perspectives.

The technique used is a form of Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling, and has been applied using the program OxCal v4.1 (http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/). Details of the algorithms employed by this program are available from the on-line manual or in Bronk Ramsey (1995; 1998; 2001; 2009). The algorithm used in the model described below can be derived from the structures shown in Figures 34–5.

The three results on human bone from a burial (same individual) within the animal bone spread 2536, can be combined to give a calibrated date range of AD 230–350 (95.4%: results are statistically consistent). They confirm the date of the burial as Late Roman and indicate that the burial is much later, over 600 years younger than the bone spread (modelled at 420–390 cal BC 68%).

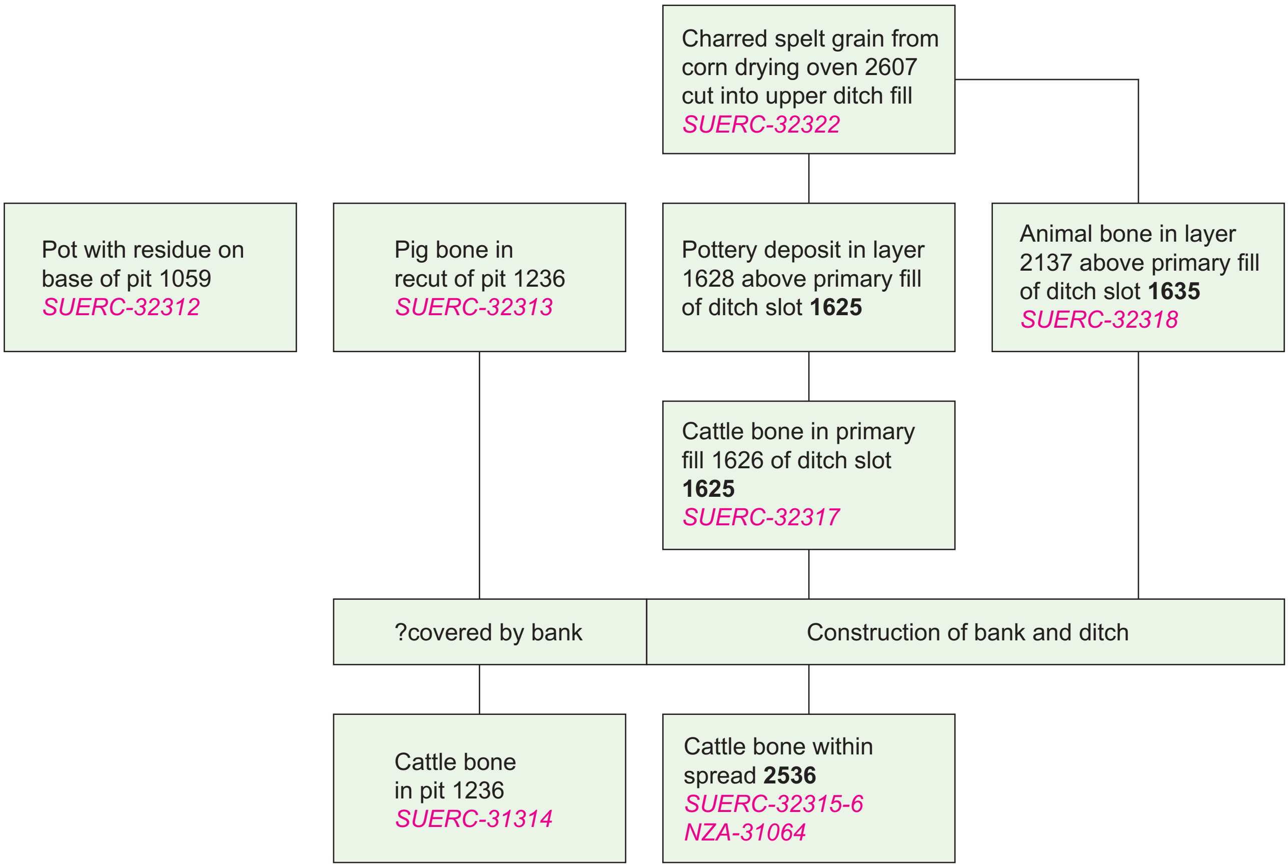

Figure 34 Summary outline of the stratigraphy used to construct radiocarbon Models 1 and 2

Aims

The radiocarbon dating programme was designed to answer the following questions:

- What date is the Early Iron Age activity on the site and does this pre-date the enclosure?
- What is the date of the pre-bank animal bone foundation or 'feasting' deposit and the associated human burial?
- When was the enclosure constructed?
- What is the likely date of the pottery dump above the primary ditch fill?
- What is the date of pit 1059?
- What date is the final use of corn drying oven 2600?

The site sequence described above (Chapters 1 and 2) is summarised below and in Figure 34.

Pre-enclosure open settlement

Two samples of animal bone were associated with Early Iron Age pit 1236 (see Figs 10 and 13). The pit is interpreted as possibly belonging to a pre-earthwork settlement and it may have been sealed by the tail of the enclosure bank (Chapter 2). However, the stratigraphic evidence is inconclusive and this uncertainty is reflected in the two radiocarbon models; the pit is treated as an isolated feature in its own phase and not grouped in sequence with the animal bone spread or the enclosure earthwork (Fig. 4).

The upper part of the pit was recut and used for the burial of a complete pig (sample taken from a left femur SUERC-32313 1237). A cattle metatarsal noted to be in fresh condition (SUERC-32314) was dated from the lower fill (1347). The good condition of the metatarsal indicated that it was unlikely to be reworked. Pottery from the pit included both Early Iron Age and Middle Iron Age types with a diagnostic scratch cordoned bowl sherd recovered from the primary fill. Jones (Chapter 4) states a generally accepted date range of 470–360 BC for such material, but notes the possibility of earlier origins (after 750 BC) based on a recently radiocarbon dated assemblage from Barton Stacey, Hampshire (De'Athe forthcoming). The pottery analysis certainly fits with the above interpretation of pit 1236.

In Model 1 it is considered that the cattle bone was recently dead and therefore of approximately the same age as the digging of the pit. However, in Model 2 the approach is more cautious, the age

Model 1

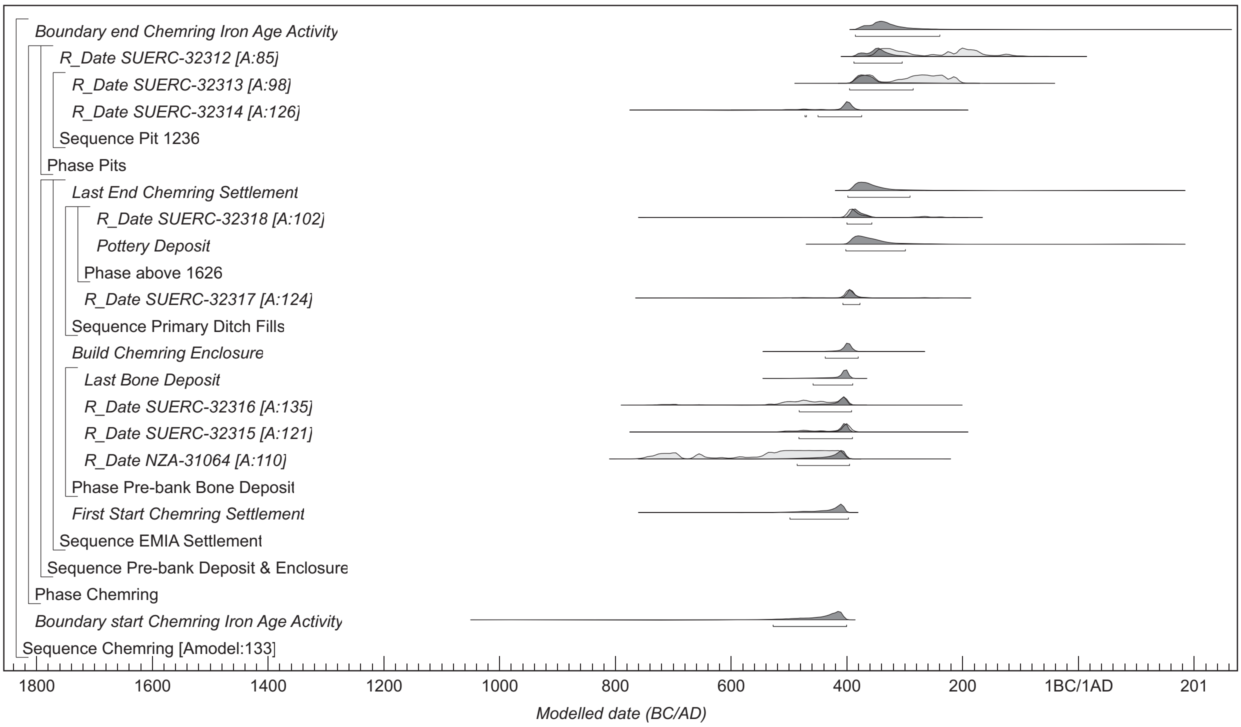

Figure 35 Probability distributions of dates relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. The structure and key words are shown on the left. For each date two distributions are plotted: one in outline, which is the simple radiocarbon distribution, and a solid one, based on the modelled data. Other distributions refer to aspects of the model

Model 2

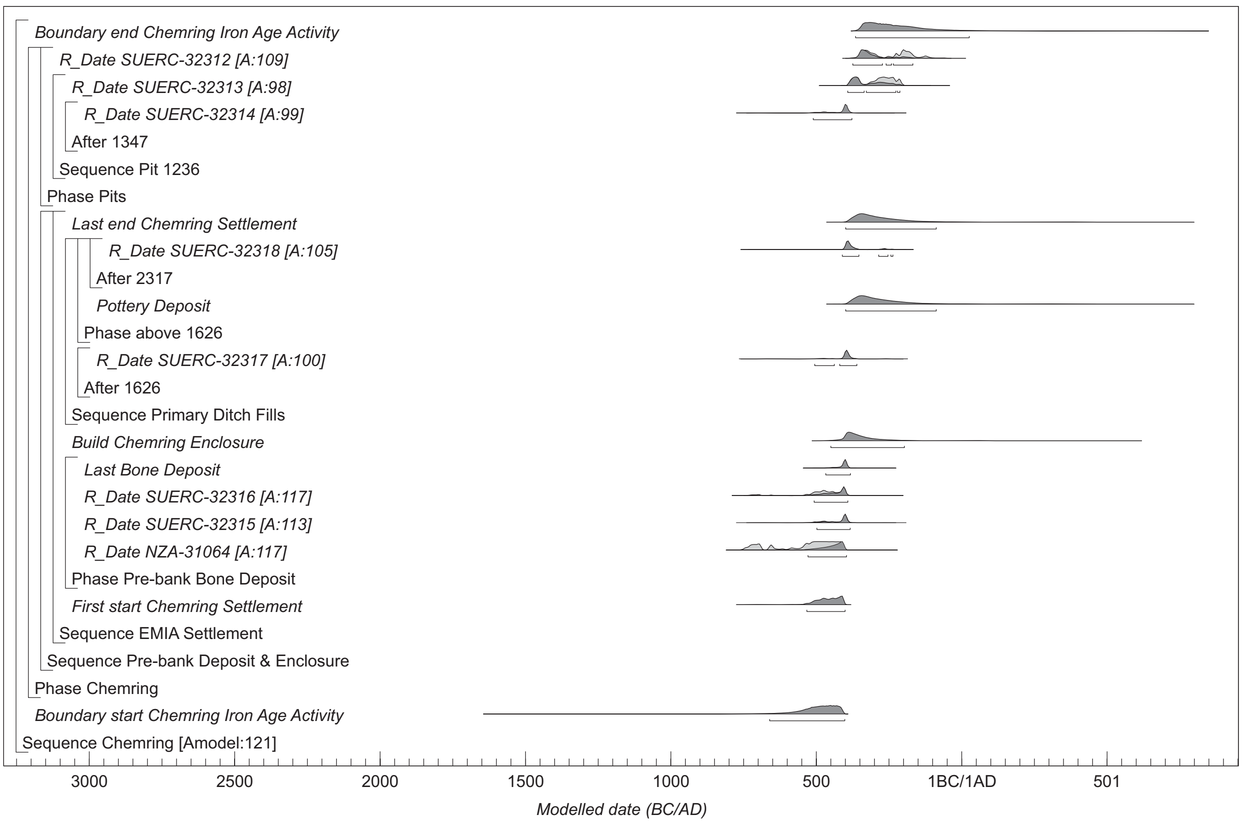

Figure 36 Probability distributions of dates relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 2. The structure and key words are shown on the left. For each date two distributions are plotted: one in outline, which is the simple radiocarbon distribution, and a solid one, based on the modelled data. Other distributions refer to aspects of the model. The keyword 'After' indicates that the radiocarbon date has been treated as a tpq

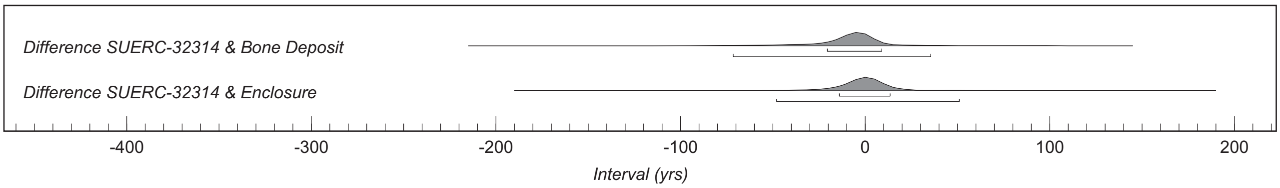

Figure 37 Probability distributions of the intervals (denoted by 'Difference') between dates and aspects of the model relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. Negative values indicate the probability that the sequence of events could be inverted

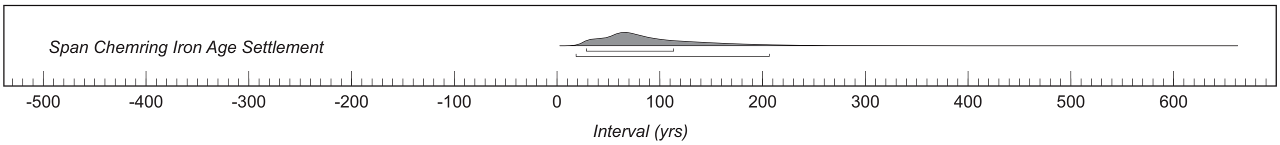

Figure 38 Probability distributions of dates and aspects of the model relating to Iron Age activity based on Model 1. Span is the probable duration in years for a phase of activity

difference between the older bone and the primary use of the pit is treated as unknown and therefore the result is modelled as a *terminus post quem* (*tpq*).

Animal bone deposit, earthwork and primary ditch deposits

Three samples were submitted from the cattle bone spread 2536 (1373) that lay under the line of the bank of the enclosure ditch (Pls 1–4). The two bone deposits (1373 and 2602) would almost certainly have not survived unless they were protected in some way by an overlying earthwork and their interpretation as a foundation/'feasting' deposit is plausible. However, no direct stratigraphic evidence for the surviving bank or a relationship with the adjacent ditch survived, having been removed by the later erosion of the ditch edge.

One sample was from a cranium, ABG 379 (SUERC-32315), and the other two, ABG 269 (SUERC-32316) and ABG 275 (NZA-31064), were from articulated bone groups (see Fig. 7). The samples were chosen to provide both a date for the bone deposit as well as a *tpq* for the construction of the enclosure ditch and bank. The condition of the bone indicated that little time had elapsed between deposition of the animal remains and its burial. A chi^2 test indicates that the three dates are consistent and likely to be part of the same event (ie, the cranium is likely to be of a similar date to the two deposits of articulated bone: df=2 T=2.0 5% 6.0).

Two samples were taken from disarticulated cattle bone recovered from the primary fill of the enclosure ditch. One (SUERC-32317) was from near the base of the ditch and within the lowest fill (1626) and *c.* 0.20 m beneath a dump of pottery (1628, see Jones above, and Fig. 5a) and the other was from the layer (2137) above the primary fill, albeit within a different excavated slot. Both sampled bones were in fresh condition (recently butchered bone) with no signs of having been redeposited, reworked or damaged by canids. They are modelled here as being of similar date to the first silting of the ditch. A more cautious approach would see both samples as *tpqs*.

Middle Iron Age pit

A single sample (SUERC-32312) was taken from internal charred residue recorded from a Middle Iron Age pot (ON 18, see Jones above) from the base of pit 1059 (Fig. 4; Pl. 7). The pot, one of three that were freshly broken and deposited on the base of pit albeit in an incomplete state. Jones suggests a late 5th and 4th century BC date range for the assemblage. It is suggested that the difference in time between the last use of the vessel as a cooking pot, its breakage and deposition within the pit is likely to be quite short (possibly months rather than years). However, this interval is unknown and it is possible that a longer period had elapsed. In Model 1 it is treated as contemporary with its context, and in Model 2 it is treated as a *tpq*.

Romano-British corn drying oven

Two samples were of charred grain associated with the flue and stoke-hole of corn drying oven 2600. One (SUERC-32322) was of probable spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*) from the flue (2618). The other of charred barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) was from the stoke-hole (2616), but had insufficient carbon for a radiocarbon measurement. A third sample (SUERC-35359) was from a human skull (2614).

Burial within bone spread 2536

Three samples were submitted from the human remains (same individual) found within the bone spread – two samples from the right femur (SUERC-35358 and 35885) and the third from the right

Table 21 Modelled parameters based on Model 1 calculated to address the listed aims

	95%	*68%*
Start of Iron Age activity	540–400 cal BC	–
Placing of animal bone deposit beneath bank	470–390 cal BC	420–390 cal BC
Construction of earthwork	450–380 cal BC	–
Pottery deposit within ditch	410–290 cal BC	400–340 cal BC
Date of pit 1236	480–370 cal BC	–
Date of pit 1059	390–300 cal BC	–
End of Iron Age activity	390–230 cal BC	–

humerus (SUERC-35884). As the samples are on bone from the same individual they have been combined to give a single calibrated date (the results are all statistically consistent).

Overall Model

The following summary stratigraphic matrix (Fig. 34) is used as a basis for Model 1 and Model 2 and reflects the interpretation of the site that is given above. The stratigraphy also has good concordance with the pottery analysis (Chapter 4). Figure 35 is made up of three stratigraphically independent strands of information: pit 2536, pit 1236 and the sequence associated with the earthwork.

Results and Interpretation

Models 1 and 2 are in good agreement. In Model 1 (Fig. 35) the animal bone from the primary fill of pit 1236 and the enclosure ditch are treated as contemporary with these features, and in Model 2 (Fig. 36) the same samples are treated as *tpqs*. Model 1 is preferred here over 2 and is considered to fit well with the principal author's interpretation of the site, although the results for the latter are given in Table 20 for comparative purposes only. The following is based on Model 1, although it can be noted that the difference between the two is one of precision with the use of *tpqs* resulting in wider date estimates for particular phases.

The modelled results (Model 1 and Fig. 35) indicate that Iron Age activity at High Post could have started between *540–400 cal BC* (95%) and have lasted until some time during *390–230 cal BC* (95%). The animal bone deposit could have been placed during *470–390 cal BC* (95%) or *420–390 cal BC* (68%)(Model 1, last bone), with the earthwork probably constructed between *450–380 cal BC* (95%). The pottery deposit within the ditch fill could have been placed between *410–290 cal BC* (95%) or *400–340* (68%) (Table 21).

In attempting to use the Model to phase the sequence between pit 1236 and the construction of the enclosure or the placing of the bone deposit, it can be noted that using the OxCal Difference function was inconclusive, with the result that either could be earlier or later (see Fig. 38: ranges are -80 to 40 years and -50 to 60 years). However, the Oxcal Order function can also be used to examine the sequence of age probabilities between the date from the pit, the bone deposit and the construction of the earthwork. The results indicate that there is only a 27% probability that the pit is earlier than the bone deposit and only a 49% probability that it is earlier than the construction of the earthwork. The conclusion then is that the bone deposit is earlier than the pit deposit, while the pit and construction of the earthwork are probably of a similar date.

The span of activity based on the radiocarbon dates indicates that Iron Age activity probably lasted for between 20 to 215 years (see Fig. 38).

Romano-British corn drying ovens are much more common within the late Romano-British period from the 3rd to 4th century (see Millet 1990) and the date is in keeping with this, although there is a possibility that the use of the oven, and with it the cultivation of spelt wheat, may have continued into the early 5th century.

The three results on human bone from a burial (same individual) within the animal bone spread 2536, can be combined to give a calibrated date range of AD 230–350 (95.4%: results are statistically consistent). They confirm the date of the burial as late Romano-British and indicate that the burial is much later, over 600 years younger than the bone spread (*modelled at 420–390 cal BC 68%*).

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Archaeological works at High Post near Salisbury have confirmed the presence of an Iron Age hilltop enclosure on the southern margins of Salisbury Plain.

The enclosure was bounded by a deep V-shaped ditch in association with a wide zone suggestive of an internal bank. More significantly, lying beneath the line of the bank was a large spread of mostly articulated animal bone, dating to the Early Iron Age.

The Iron Age occupation of the enclosure was represented by round-houses, pits and post-holes containing evidence of domestic waste.

The enclosure was abandoned during the Middle Iron Age and remained unoccupied until the late Romano-British period. Pits, hearths and post-holes of this period were recorded both within and outside the enclosure. Other features related to this period included a possible shrine and a corn drying oven which appeared to have been utilised into the start of the post Romano-British period.

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