EXCAVATION OF A ROMANO-BRITISH FARMSTEAD AT RNAS YEOVILTON

JULIE LOVELL

WITH CONTRIBUTIONS BY

MICHAEL J. ALLEN, PHIL ANDREWS, ALAN CLAPHAM, BRENDA DICKINSON, RACHEL EVERY, ROWENA GALE, ELLEN HAMBLETON, JACQUELINE I. MCKINLEY, J. M. MILLS, RUTH PELLING, MARK ROBINSON, RACHAEL SEAGER SMITH AND NICHOLAS A. WELLS

SUMMARY

Recent excavations at RNAS Yeovilton confirmed the presence of Iron Age and Romano-British settlement and agricultural activity. The site is located to the south-east of land at Podimore, which had previously been identified by aerial photography as a probable settlement. The site, probably one of many along the Yeo valley, appears to have been a small rural farmstead. The ceramic evidence suggests occupation from the Middle/Late Iron Age through to late Roman periods, although the structural evidence for the later periods is strongest. The excavations also demonstrated Middle/Late Bronze Age and Early Iron Age activity on the site.

INTRODUCTION

Proposals for new buildings put forward by the Royal Naval Air Station (RNAS) Yeovilton led to a programme of archaeological works, comprising geophysical survey, evaluation, watching brief and excavation, on an area of sports field on the north side of the B3151 main Ilchester to Sparkford road (NGR ST354900 124300 (Fig. 1). Geophysical survey (Barker and Mercer 1999) and evaluation (Wessex Archaeology 2000) revealed the presence of field systems, trackways and enclosures as well as pits and graves consistent with activity near the edge of a Romano-British settlement and led to the excavation of approximately 1ha, with a watching brief on a further 2ha.

RNAS Yeovilton lies in the Yeo Valley, approximately 2.5km to the north-east of Ilchester. The development area occupied a level playing field approximately 20m above Ordnance Datum (aOD). The underlying geology is mapped as river terrace deposits overlying undifferentiated clay with some limestone (OS Geological Survey Sheet 296). Soils in the area are mapped as South Petherton series, being deep, predominantly well drained, stoneless silty soils that typically contain much fine sand and about 10% clay (Soil Survey 1984, 280–3). Although pasture is prevalent, under arable cultivation these soils are prone to erosion and the development of pans leading to waterlogging. At RNAS Yeovilton the water table lay very close to ground level.

The site lies between the rivers Cary and Yeo, on the edge of the upland area fringing the Somerset Levels to the north. There is to date a paucity of evidence for Neolithic and Bronze Age activity in the river valley, which may be partly a result of modern land-use, with widespread pasture restricting opportunities for chance finds, but which may also reflect past soil erosion. The extensive alluviation of low-lying areas around the River Yeo (Leach 1994) may also conceal earlier sites.

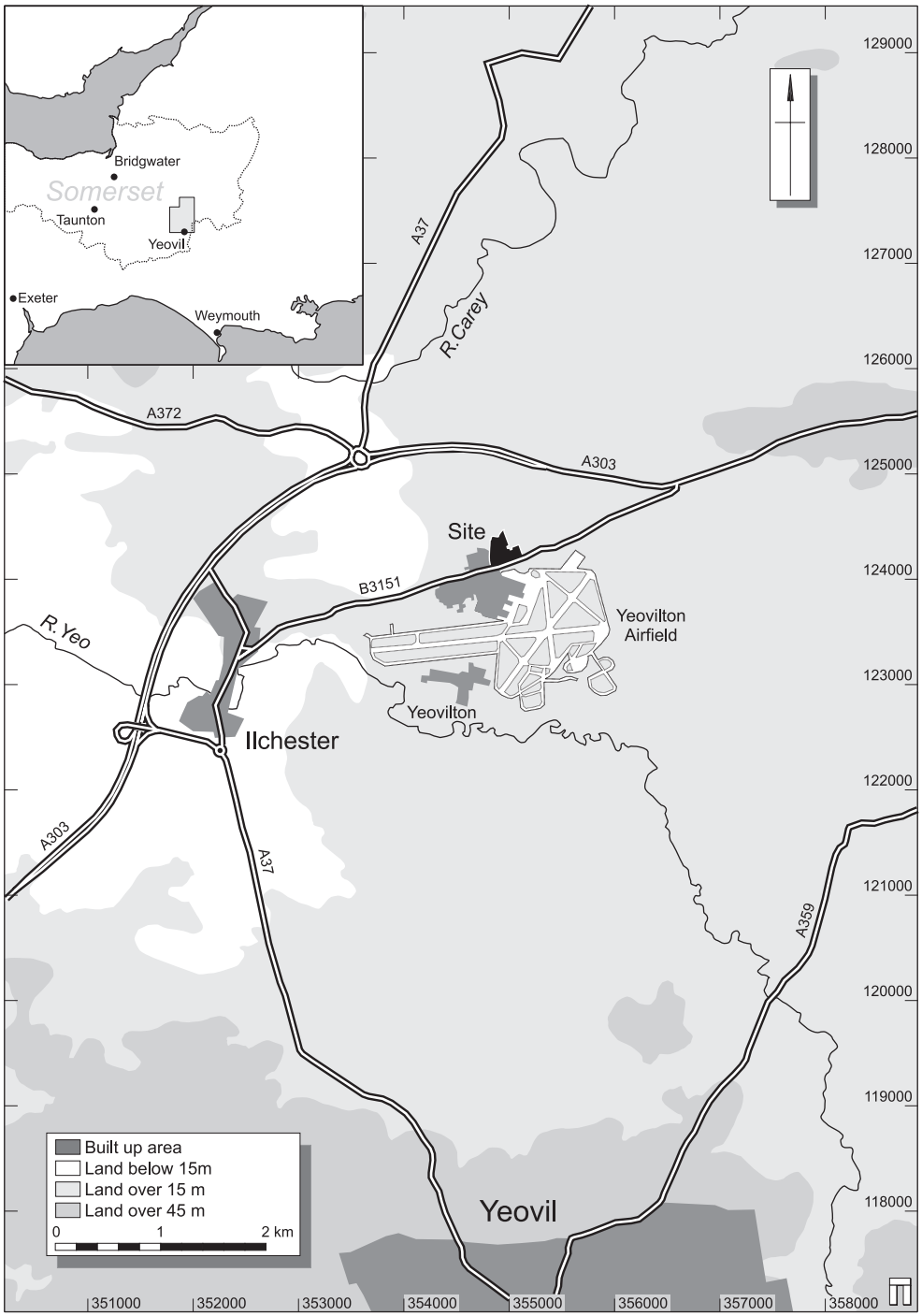

Fig. 1 Site location. Reproduced by permission on behalf of HMSO © Crown copyright 2006, all rights reserved. OS Licence no. 100028190

Settlement and field systems identified (largely on morphological grounds) as having Iron Age elements lie immediately to the north-west of the site. In 1949 and 1970, extensive cropmarks were observed at Podimore, centred on NGR ST354900 124600 and ST354400 124600. These included a major trackway, and 'several enclosures'. Pottery recovered from small excavations in 1911 and 1973 dated the features from the Middle Iron Age (300–100BC) through to the 4th century AD (Leech 1975). Probable Romano-British elements were also identified as paddocks. Aerial photographs taken in 1990 and 1997 showed further cropmarks of field systems and enclosures, centred on NGR ST356300 124400 and ST355400 124500, to the north-east of the present site.

At the time of the Roman Conquest, Somerset was inhabited by the Durotriges, with the environs of Ilchester possibly functioning as a sub-kingdom. The early Roman military presence at Ilchester, 3km to the south-west, stimulated civil settlement and urbanisation. From the end of the 1st century AD, the town expanded to cover an area of *c*. 20ha, encompassing the junction between the road to Dorchester and the Fosse Way, and the crossing of the River Yeo. The site lies within the suggested *territorium* of the town (though see now Davey 2005), which had a radius of *c*. 6.5km. There are six identified 1st–2nd century villas within a 5km radius of Ilchester (Leech 1982). The nearest known villa to the site is at Ilchester Mead, to the south of the town (NGR ST351730 121550).

By the 3rd–4th centuries, Ilchester may have become the main centre of the local tribal area or *civitas* of the Lindinieses. During this period the town underwent a programme of rebuilding and expansion. Until its decline by the end of the 5th century, Ilchester's prime importance lay not only in its elevated political status but also in its role as a regional marketing centre. The wealthy and densely populated region was served by a network of roads, with several, including the Fosse Way, passing through the town. It has been suggested that the modern B3151 follows the line of a Roman road (Leach 1994, fig. 2).

Excavation revealed a mass of features (Fig. 2), of which by far the majority were ditches and gullies belonging to several phases of activity. Amongst this palimpsest, however, was evidence for buildings as well as pits, wells, cobbled surfaces and other settlement features. Phasing proved problematic because of a scarcity of datable finds and the generally undiagnostic nature of the pottery assemblage, so that details of the Roman sequence are largely unclear.

EXCAVATION RESULTS

Middle–Late Bronze Age

Several curvilinear gullies of Middle to Late Bronze Age date may indicate the presence of a small settlement or, at least, enclosures (Fig. 3). The remains of two large curving gullies, 3034 and 3035, were found in the south sector of the development area during the watching brief. Gully 3034 was the most extensive, with 25m clearly visible describing a U-shape plan open to the north-north-west. It may have formed part of a roughly oval enclosure with a projected diameter of *c.* 20m. Smaller fragments of gullies, 3035 and 3036, both gently curving from south-west to north-east, were also recorded. The relationship between ring-gullies 3034 and 3035 was not determined but the intercutting does suggest at least two phases of activity. A narrow curvilinear ditch or gully, 3411, within the south-east corner of the excavation area, measured 0.65m wide and 0.21m deep, and possibly continued further east as ditch 2176. A stretch of an irregular ditch, 2457, just to the west of 3411, produced the base of a Bronze Age pot.

There is no coherent pattern to these features and their function is uncertain. On the basis of its size, gully 3034 may represent a small enclosure. Its projected diameter is far too large for a roundhouse and its orientation is also at odds with most Middle Bronze Age examples (Brück's (1999) study of 64 Middle Bronze Age roundhouses demonstrated that 78% of them had south or south-east facing entrances). Although enigmatic, these features are nevertheless significant for the low-lying areas around the River Yeo.

Some level of activity dating to the latest part of the Bronze Age or the Early Iron Age (900–400 BC) was suggested by the presence of a few distinctive sherds of Late Bronze Age/Early Iron Age pottery redeposited in later Iron Age and Romano-British features, but it was not possible to assign specific features to this phase.

Middle–Late Iron Age

Evidence for possible structures, ditches and enclosures, mostly clustering in the eastern part of the excavated area, indicate the presence of a

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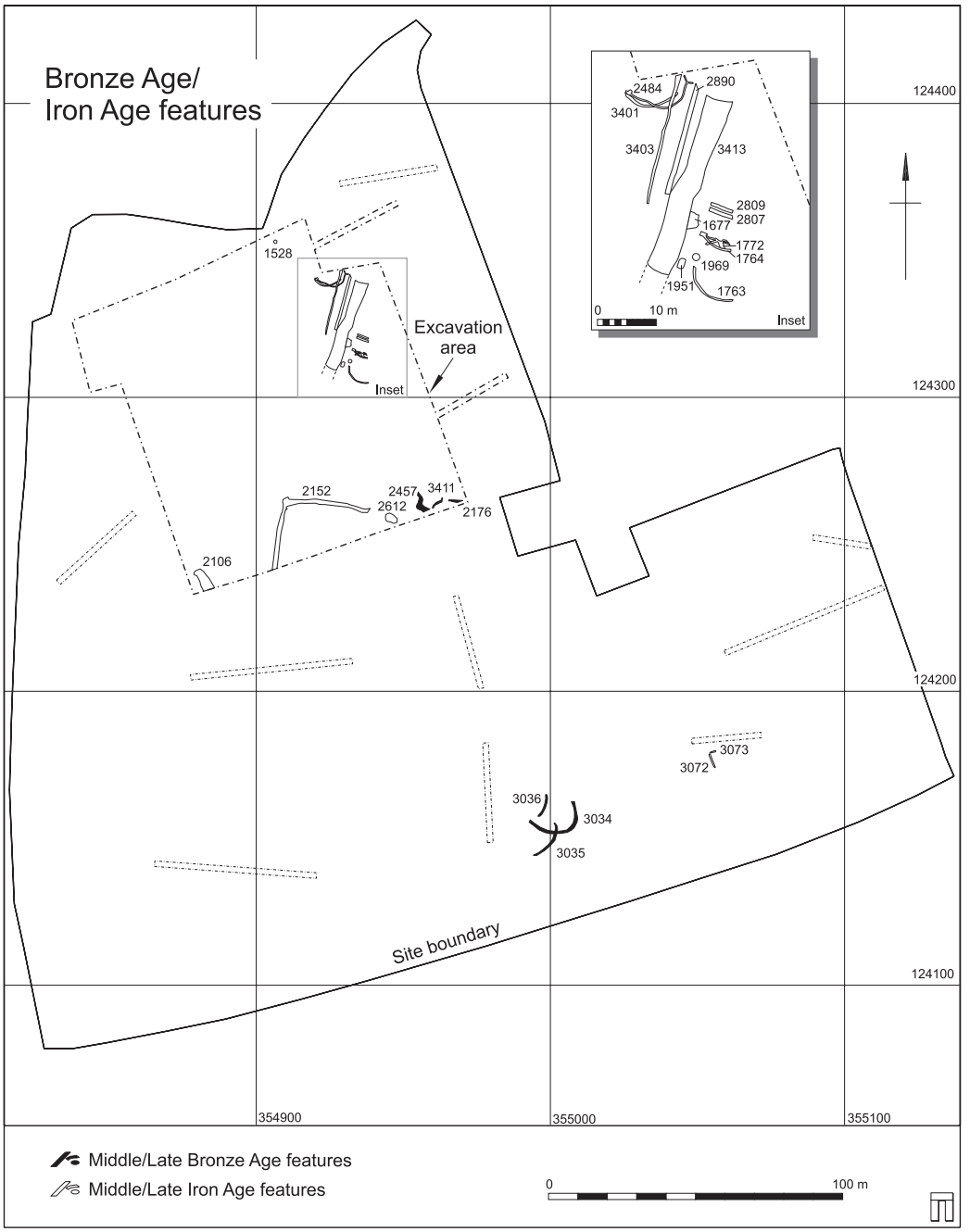

Fig. 3 Middle/Late Bronze Age and Middle/Late Iron Age features. Reproduced by permission on behalf of HMSO © Crown copyright 2006, all rights reserved. OS Licence no. 100028190

Middle–Late Iron Age (*c*. 300–100 BC) settlement (Fig. 3). Probably one of the earliest features was a length of curvilinear gully, 1763, measuring 0.3m wide and up to 0.21m deep. A short length of ditch to the north-east appeared to continue the line of the gully. The two features may represent the remains of a roundhouse *c.* 10m in diameter with a north-west facing entrance.

A second curvilinear gully,1764, lay to the north of 1763 and cut its north-eastern extension. Its diameter was similar and the feature may also represent a roundhouse, perhaps a replacement of the first. Two small pits, one sub-rectangular (1951) and one sub-circular (1969) were excavated on the western edge of 1763. Both had vertical sides and flat bases and their maximum dimensions were 1.8m by 1.2m wide and 0.45m deep. Fragments of wattle and daub were recovered from the base of pit 1969, though these may be intrusive as the pit was cut by a later, Roman, building foundation. A third possible structure was represented by curvilinear gully 3401, which was of similar dimensions to 1763 but produced no dating evidence, and may have been replaced by another structure, 2484, a slightly more substantial gully on the same alignment.

The area between the possible roundhouses was dominated by a large north-east to south-west aligned ditch, 3413, measuring up to 4.4m wide and *c*.1m deep. The quantity and diversity of finds from its fills suggest that this ditch formed an important boundary from the Middle Iron Age into the Roman period although it was not possible to tell whether it was contemporary with the possible structures. Its full extent in either direction could not be determined during excavation. It is possible that a short length of north-west to south-east aligned ditch, 1677, may have formed a return running perpendicular to 3413. The two ditches were similar in date but no stratigraphic relationship was determined.

Parallel and to the west of ditch 3413 were two narrow ditches, 2890 and 3403. These appeared to form part of a ditched trackway *c.* 8m wide which clearly postdated ring-gully 2484. A third length of ditch, 2895, running parallel to 2890, may represent an earlier or later version of the track boundary. The alignment, but not the precise position, of this trackway was reflected in the later layout of structures and field boundaries during the Romano-British period.

Several ditches were identified in the south of the excavated area, including the north-west corner of a ditched enclosure, 2152. This feature had been recut on several occasions and the only dated finds were two heavily abraded, presumably residual, sherds of Bronze Age pottery. Its Middle/Late Iron Age phasing was, therefore, based on its stratigraphic relationship to other ditches. A partially excavated feature, 2106, which was 2.9m wide and of uncertain depth was explored in the south-west corner of the excavation. This was probably the terminal of a ditch but may have been a large pit of irregular shape. The feature produced Early and Middle Iron Age pottery along with fragments of a human long bone.

Two ditches, 3072 and 3073, recorded in the south-east of the development area during the watching brief (Fig. 3) may have formed the north-west corner of an enclosure belonging to this period but they produced no clear dating evidence.

Late Iron Age–early Romano-British

The pottery assemblage from Yeovilton suggests that occupation on or close to the site spanned the Roman period. There is, however, little structural evidence for Late Iron Age or early Romano-British activity on the site, with most features occurring in the south and east of the excavated area (Fig. 4) and limited evidence in the south-east corner of the watching brief area.

Two lengths of curvilinear gully, 2174 and1603, and an adjacent posthole,1600, were situated in the extreme south-east corner of the excavated area, and may represent structures belonging to this period. Immediately to the north of the gullies was a short length of east–west aligned ditch, 3412, which may relate to this complex of features. A sub-rectangular pit, 3407, measuring *c.* 1.60m by1.45m and 0.27m deep, and containing a small quantity of pottery of the appropriate date, was located 50m to the north of this complex.

Pottery dating to the 1st century BC/AD this period was also recovered from several ditches, including 1611 and 3432, most of which were on the same alignment as later Roman features.

Late Romano-British

The nature and density of late Romano-British features reflect a much greater intensity of occupation and land-use than in previous periods (Fig. 5). Structures were again concentrated in the eastern part of the site with paddocks and fields and associated droveways and trackways to the south and west. Several burials were recovered and it is assumed that all belong to this broad period (see below).

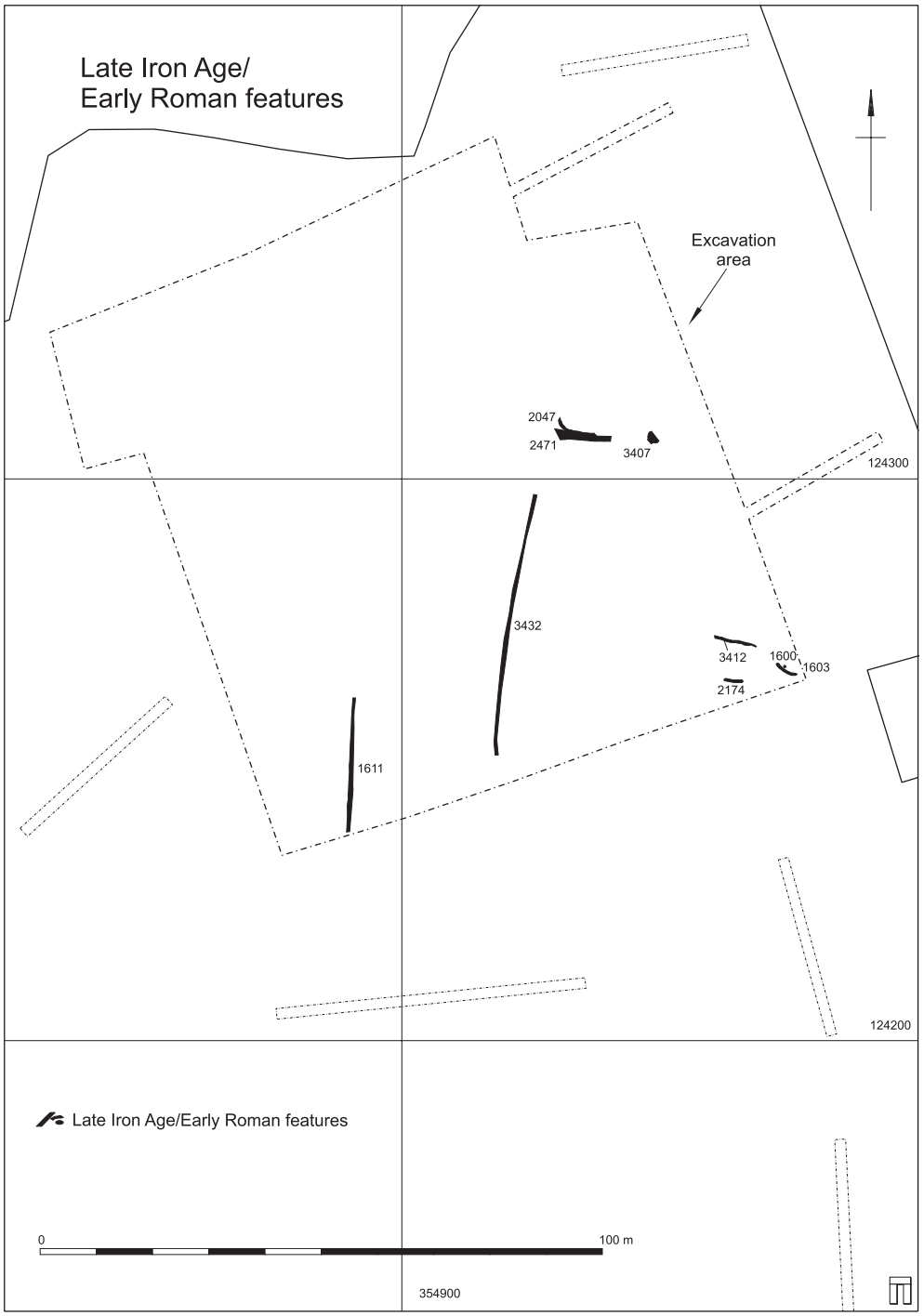

Fig. 4 Late Iron Age/Early Romano-British features. Reproduced by permission on behalf of HMSO

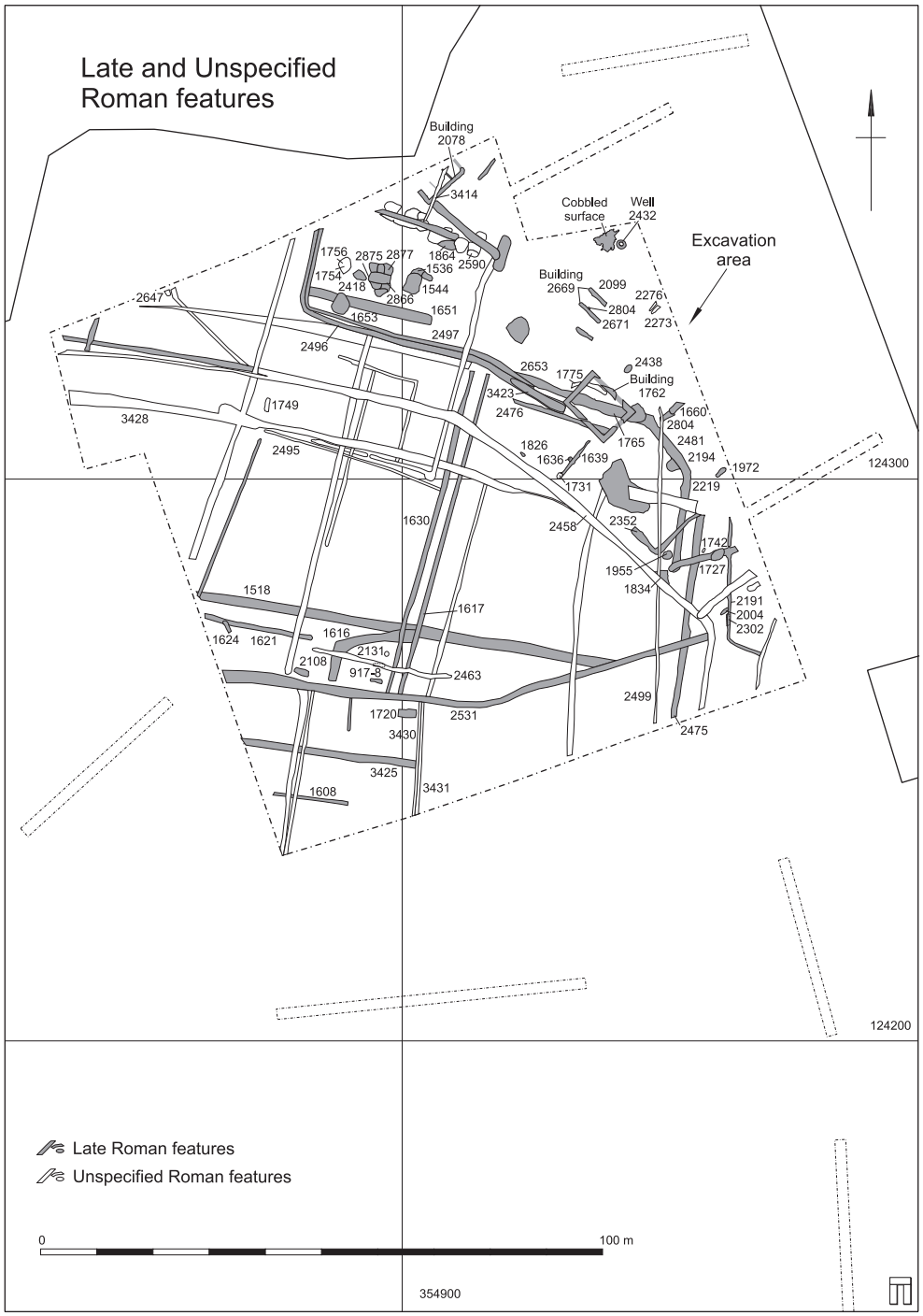

Fig. 5 Late Romano-British and unspecified Romano-British features. Reproduced by permission on behalf of HMSO © Crown copyright 2006, all rights reserved. OS Licence no. 100028190

At least two simple rectangular buildings, 1762 and 2078, interpreted as dwellings, were constructed during this period. Another structure, 2669, perhaps best interpreted as an open-ended barn for animal shelter or storage, was also identified. The stone structures were partially or totally robbed after their abandonment. Layers of black clayey silt containing charcoal and other domestic refuse covered much of the occupation area in the northern and eastern sector of the site. These refuse spreads, which may be dispersed midden material, provided the upper fill of several features in this area. An infant burial had been placed within this spread and a second inserted into similar material filling the top of pit 1727.

Building 1762 (Fig. 6) overlay earlier ring-gullies 1763 and 1764. It measured approximately 6 x 8m internally and had wall foundations of local lias 1m wide. Although no floor survived in situ a roughly square slab of worked lias stone measuring 0.27m by 0.25m found in the upper fill of an adjacent ditch may be representative of the flooring material used. The corner of a second lias slab was recovered from the backfilled debris of the robber cut of the building itself. No entrance was identified.

Building 2078 (Fig. 7) was situated at the northern edge of the site and probably about half of the full extent was excavated. It was slightly less substantial than building 1762, with an internal length of 7.5m and foundations 0.6–0.75m thick. The maximum surviving internal width of the building was 3m and it was divided into two, or possibly three, rooms. No foundation stones remained in situ, but it is assumed that local lias stone was used, although fragments of ferruginous sandstone were also recovered from features in the vicinity of the building. A floor surface of carefully laid re-used lias roof slabs was partially preserved in the larger (or possibly middle) room. Lias forms in plates and can be split like slate. Here it had been cut into rhomboid-shaped pieces roughly 0.25 x 0.27m, and 20mm thick with a small hole in one corner to hold a nail by which to attach it to a wooden roof support. Levelling material below the floor contained a 2nd-century coin but also a small fragment of Oxfordshire red-slipped ware, dating the construction of this phase of flooring to the mid 3rd century or later. In common with building 1762, the foundations were constructed on disturbed ground and the building may have been hastily erected with ill-prepared foundations, leading to subsidence into earlier features.

The date of the original construction of the building was uncertain as there was little datable material associated with the original structural features. The building had, however, been enlarged at some point during its occupation. Excavation beneath the floor revealed the foundations (recorded in section) of a north-east to south-west wall situated parallel to the south wall of the building, suggesting that the structure had been extended by approximately 3m. The use of roof slabs as flooring material for this structure suggests either the existence of an earlier structure in the vicinity or a phase of rebuilding, including re-roofing, of 2078. Either interpretation would allow for a structural phase preceding the 3rd century or later modification which could accommodate the 1st and 2nd-century pottery recovered from the site.

The third, smaller building, 2669 (Fig. 5), lay about 10m to the north-east of building 1762. Two shallow north-west to south-east aligned robber trenches, 2099 and 2671, marked the extent of the structure, which may have been open-ended, although the possibility of end walls constructed on timber sill beams cannot be ruled out. No evidence of a floor surface survived. It is possible that this building was used as a shelter for agricultural materials or livestock.

The precise phasing of these structures is problematic and it is unclear whether they were contemporaneous, although their relative positions would allow for that possibility. Structural elements of the buildings (foundation trenches, wall structure, floor surfaces) produced few or no datable artefacts – the 2nd-century coin from 2078 being a rare exception. The destruction phase of the buildings was, however, clearly dated to the 3rd to 4th centuries by the abundance of red-slipped and colour-coated pottery from the major late Roman industries. Based on the occurrence of equally large quantities of 2nd-century wares, especially samian, it is possible that the buildings were constructed in the 2nd century and continued in use, with modifications, into the late 3rd to 4th centuries

A complex of intercutting pits of varying size and shape were located approximately 15m south-west of building 2078 (Fig. 5). The smallest pit, 2866, was circular with a diameter of 0.65m, and the largest, sub-rectangular pit 2875, measured 2.5m long and 2.2m wide. The pits were generally shallow, less than 0.6m deep, with irregular concave sides and flat bases. Some may represent small quarry hollows and the contents indicate the disposal of domestic rubbish including animal bone, ceramic building material, glass fragments, iron, pottery, charred plant remains and charcoal. The pits were

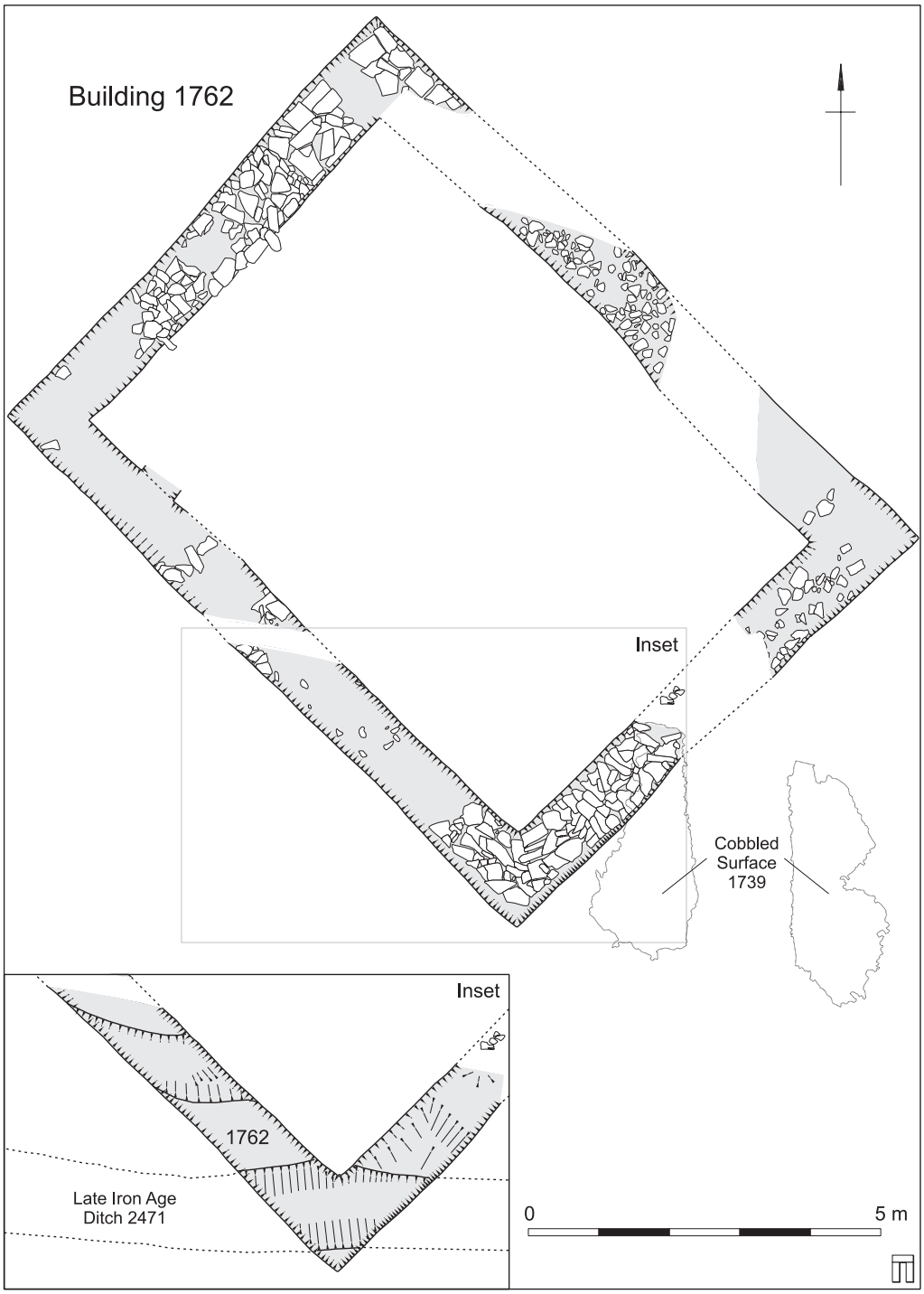

Fig. 6 Building 1762

Fig. 7 Building 2078

sealed by a layer of black silty clay, 0.18m thick, which was also rich in domestic debris.

Another group of three pits, each roughly oval in plan, was excavated to the east of the intercutting group. Their contents lacked the characteristic dark, finds-rich deposits of the other group, although the upper fill of the largest pit, 1544, contained some pottery. Finds included a triangular limestone weight (object 208) from pit 1536. Several other pits were investigated along the eastern edge of the site and to the south of building 1762. Pit 1727 cut the upper fill of ditch 1745. The pit was filled with a variety of domestic waste including a fragment of a bone pin. The neonate burial (skeleton 1744) mentioned above was inserted in the top fill.

A stone and clay-lined well, 2432, was found in the north-east corner of the site (Fig. 8**)**. It was remarkably well-preserved and was excavated to its full depth of 2.6m. The base and lower part of the well were lined with puddled clay, which formed a hard, watertight seal. The upper 1.7m was constructed of small blocks of local white and blue lias stone and occasional blocks of cornbrash. The diameter of the well was 0.77m narrowing to 0.58m at its base. Three separate deposits were identified within it, all of which suggest that it went out of use in the 3rd–4th century AD. Analysis of plant and insect remains suggest that crop-processing waste may have been dumped into the well with evidence for the disposal of old hay, straw, or thatch (see below). A variety of animal bones was recovered, including the remains of at least six dogs, a cat and a domestic fowl (see below).

A second well, 3076 was recorded in the south-east of the development area during the watching brief (Fig. 9). Its outer diameter was *c.* 1.5m and internal diameter 0.63m. At least 13 courses of lias stone blocks were recorded above the water level, which settled at 0.44m below the current ground surface. A large piece of timber was secured into the south side of the construction, *c.* 1m below the surface of the well. Fragments of twisted iron rods within the rubble backfill suggested backfilling within the last 50–100 years. It was not possible to date this well, as it was not fully excavated.

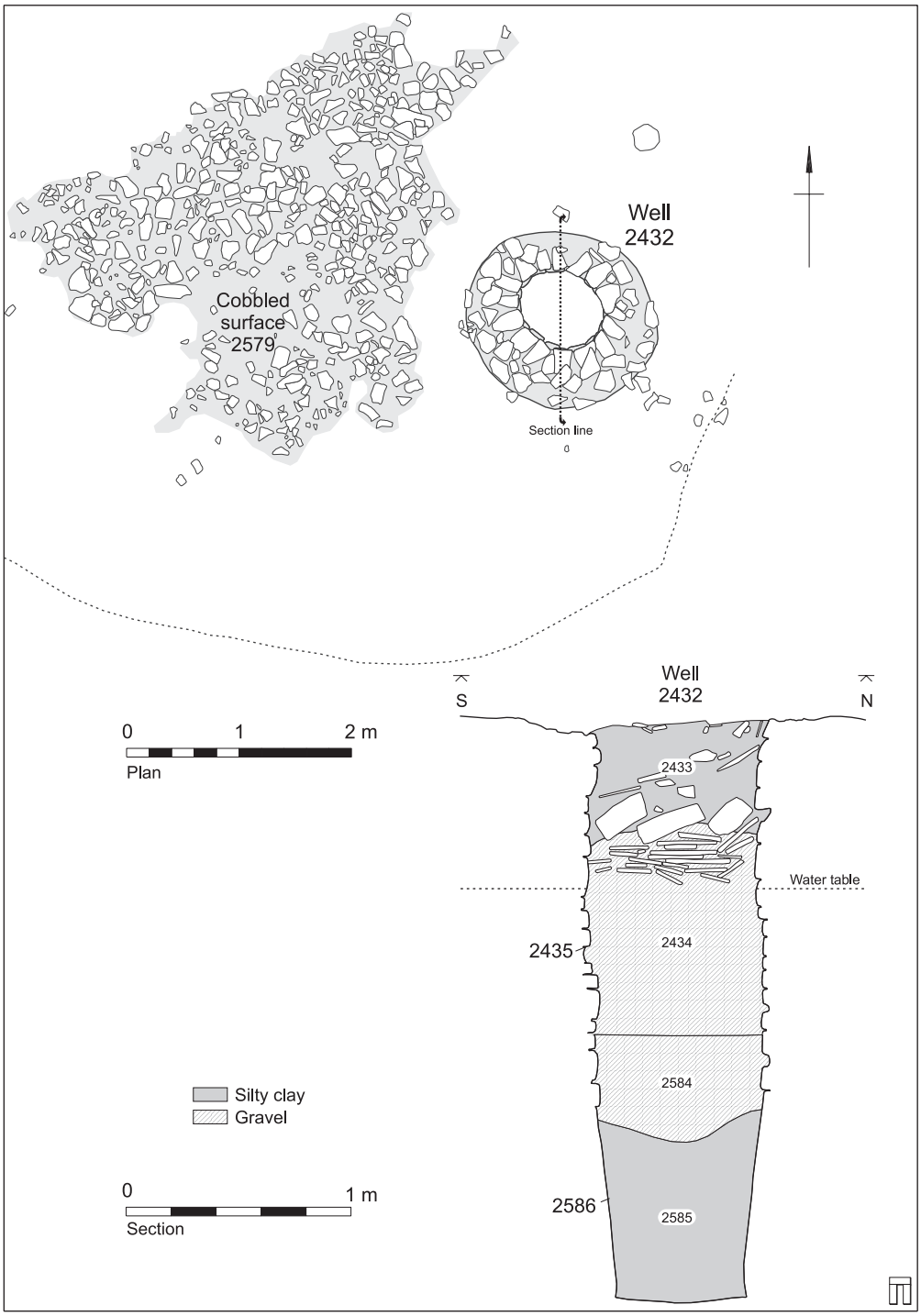

Fig. 8 Well 2432

Compacted laid stone surfaces, representing yards or hard standing, had been constructed in two areas of the site, presumably to consolidate areas prone to dampness or flooding. One was located around well 2432, where a remnant of roughly laid hard standing, 2579, comprising irregular lias stone fragments, was exposed (Fig. 8). A carefully laid second surface, 1739, also using local lias stone partly sealed the footings of the south wall of building 1762 (Fig. 6). There were no obvious contemporary buildings or structures within the vicinity of this surface. It may have been laid at the entrance to a field (see below) to prevent the ground from becoming churned up. A layer of late Roman domestic waste sealed the surface.

Twelve graves (Fig. 5) containing inhumation burials were recorded, including six with coffins (Table 6). A minimum of 14 individuals was represented, including redeposited remains from ditches and pits. Grave 1660, located at the eastern edge of the excavation, could not be excavated due to waterlogging and was preserved in situ beneath the proposed road. Grave-goods were rare, but included an early 4th-century coin. Hobnails around the feet indicated the presence of leather footwear. The graves were not concentrated in a single location, or even clustered in groups. Rather, they were distributed across the excavated area, mostly occurring in or near ditches. This is a common feature on Romano-British sites (see below) and has been noted in the local area at Little Spittle and Townsend Close near Ilchester (Leach 1982). A possible 'empty grave' (2352) was recorded containing seven coffin nails and a late 4th-century coin.

Feature 1826, to the north of ditch 2458, contained a pyre deposit (1827). This roughly oval-shaped scoop *c*. 1.0 x 0.5m and 0.09m deep contained black unconsolidated silt, fragments of cremated bone and charcoal derived from ash poles. A radiocarbon determination obtained from carbonised sapwood associated with the pyre provided a date of AD 240–420, suggesting that the cremation was contemporary with the inhumation burials.

An extensive network of ditches defined a complex of rectangular field systems (Fig. 5). The general lack of dating evidence prevented a detailed understanding of the development of the field systems but clear stratigraphic relationships indicated several phases of laying out and remodelling.

Stratigraphically, the earliest ditch from this period was a large curvilinear enclosure ditch 2481. The ditch terminated to the south immediately to the north of boundary ditch 2458 and curved to the north-west. The ditch profile varied along its length, reaching its widest point at the junction with pit 2194. Following primary silting, the ditch appears to have been rapidly backfilled with domestic waste. There was no evidence of recutting.

Ditch 1765 resembled ditch 2481 in size and profile and may represent its extension, forming a boundary across the north-east corner of the site. The north-western part of the ditch was obscured by a later spread and it is unclear whether it terminated or reappeared to the west as ditch 2497. The ditch was steep-sided with a rounded base and an expanded south-east terminal. A single recut, 2653, was observed, suggesting that the ditch was maintained over a period of time, although as with many of the other late Roman features, it was rapidly backfilled towards the end of its useful life. A small quantity of burnt ferruginous sandstone, iron slag and charcoal included in this backfill may represent waste material cleared from nearby ironworking.

The ditches follow a north-west to south-east and north-east to south-west pattern reflecting the alignment of earlier features. The most striking pattern of ditch boundaries comprised four roughly parallel ditches, 2458, 3428, 1518 and 2531, which appeared to form a major boundary complex in the Roman period. No evidence for recutting was found in the ditches, suggesting that they were in use for a relatively short period.

Several short lengths of ditch, 1621, 1608, 2463 and 3425 ran parallel to the north and south of ditch 2531. These may be part of boundary markers for small fields or, particularly in the case of 1621, acted as the edge of a track or droveway bordering on a larger boundary ditch.

Two parallel ditches of similar size and shape, 1617 and 1630, ran at right angles northwards from ditch 2531. These may represent a possible trackway allowing access to the fields from the main settlement area in the north-east corner of the site. As such, the trackway follows precisely the alignment as, but does not join, the Iron Age stretch of trackway located about 10m distant in the north-east corner of the site (Fig. 3). Presuming the wide north-east to south-west aligned Iron Age ditch, 3413, was still in use or visible as a landscape feature during this period, the north end of the trackway and the south end of the ditch both terminated at the crucial boundary line dividing the settlement and the agricultural sectors of the site.

Sections were excavated across the terminals and the corner of an 'L'-shaped enclosure ditch, 1616,

Fig. 9 Post-medieval/modern and undated features. Reproduced by permission on behalf of HMSO
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located towards the south of the excavation. Redeposited fragments of human bone were recovered from the 'elbow' of the ditch and its eastern terminal. The position of the ditch suggests that it may have enclosed two parallel north-west to south-east aligned late Roman burials, 916 and 920. These are discussed in detail below.

Two other 'L'-shaped gullies, 2191 and 2352, were located in the south-east corner of the trench. Both were shallow features with single fills and may have been open for only a short period before being allowed to fill. Two inhumation graves were cut through the fill of ditch 2191 after it went out of use. Burial 2302 was aligned within the north-east segment of the ditch and burial 2004 intersected it at an angle a short distance away.

Two short parallel linear features, 2273 and 2276, cut through natural near the eastern edge of the site may represent the bases of ovens. They were aligned roughly east–west and, although their precise dimensions were unclear as their eastern terminals ran below a baulk, they were *c.* 2.5m long, 0.5m wide and between 0.2m and 0.35m deep. A heavily burnt soil lens preserved on the southern rim and sides of 2273 is a typical feature of Roman domestic ovens (Cunliffe and Poole 2000a, 128). A relatively large quantity of charcoal fragments, interpreted as firewood, was recovered from the terminal of 2273. The sample included the remains of ash, hawthorn, oak, purging buckthorn and intact hazel stems, including one piece bearing an oblique tool mark. Further to the north, a cluster of irregular, shallow pits or scoops were located immediately to the south-west of building 2078. These were less well-defined than the late Roman rubbish pits and their function was not determined.

A number of late and undated Roman ditches, including two possible trackways – ditches 3067/3068 and 3065/3066 – were recorded in the south-east of the development area during the watching brief.

Post-medieval and modern

There is very little evidence for anything other than agricultural use of the site after the late Roman period. Few later finds were recovered during the stripping of topsoil and subsoil from the site and the only obvious features were the remains of ridge and furrow seen as broad linear stripes across the site, and a narrower grid-like pattern of lines representing modern land drains. Three phases of land drains were identified (Fig. 9).

MATERIAL EVIDENCE

Coins *by Nicholas A. Wells*

Forty-one coins were recovered, ranging in date from the mid 1st century BC to the 18th century AD. All are copper alloy and many are worn and corroded, some exceptionally so. It was possible to identify 38 coins fully and two at a basic level. Only one is too corroded to confidently assign to any period. The assemblage consists of one Iron Age coin, 38 Roman, one post-medieval and one coin of uncertain date. Details of individual coins are given in Table 1**.** Full descriptions are in archive.

The 41 coins were recovered either by metal detector or during excavation. In addition to problems of long circulation of Roman issues, the intercutting nature and shallow depth of many of the features meant that few contexts could be securely dated on the basis of any included coins. One exception is an Æ 2 *nummus* of Constantine I, issued between AD 310 and 318 (Cat No. 11) found in the right hand of inhumation burial 916. Coins were often placed within graves as an offering to Charon – the ferryman who carried the souls of the dead across the river Styx. The early 4th century saw a marked increase in the number of inhumation burials with coin offerings (Philpott 1991), most located in or near the mouth/head, but some in the area of the hands/hips (ibid., 212, table 44, 214). Given the cyclical reforms of coinage throughout the 4th century, it is likely that this coin was deposited within 30 years of its issue (ibid., 211), ie between AD 310 and 348, thereby dating the burial relatively closely.

All but three of the coins are Roman and, of these, 36 are closely dated. This total is inadequate to attempt statistical analysis or comparison with other sites. However, the peak periods of coin loss (and hence coin use), the late 3rd century AD (17% of the Roman total), AD 330–348 (27%) and AD 364–378 (36%), do correlate to those established in studies of larger assemblages.

Two of the coins merit special mention. The first is the south-western British struck bronze unit dating from the mid 1st century BC to the early 1st century AD (Cat No.1). These coins are not unusual in assemblages in the region and this site has produced evidence of possible Late Iron Age structures. It is possible, however, that the coin circulated – and was lost – well into the Roman period. Although it seems that the minting of British coinage stopped soon after the Roman invasion (Haselgrove 1996, 82), it is clear

TABLE 1: COINS

Issuer	Denomination	Issue Period	Reference	Context	SF.No	Cat no
South-western British	Struck bronze unit	mid C1 BC to early C1 AD	Van Ardsell 1290, Hobbs 2790–2859	2673	136	1
Hadrian	Sestertius	117–138		–	100	2
Antoninus Pius	Sestertius	138–161		2073	157	3
Uncertain	Antoninianus	260–293		2485	38	4
Claudius II	Antoninianus	268–270	RIC V Claudius II 33	2072	199	5
** Claudius II**	Antoninianus	270–286		2082	219	6
Tetricus I	Antoninianus	270–286	Copy of RIC V Tetricus I 82	2024	78	7
***Uncertain* **	Antoninianus	270–286		2258	190	8
***Uncertain* **	Antoninianus	270–286		U/S	225	9
Carausius	Aurelianus	286–293	RIC V Carausius 80	2332	79	10
Constantine I	Æ 2 Nummus	310–318		915	3	11
Licinius I	Æ 3 Nummus	321–324	RIC VII Nicomedia 44	2085	198	12
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	330–335		2575	196	13
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	330–364		2858	214	14
Constantine II (as Caesar)	Æ 3 Nummus	330–335	RIC VII Trier 520	2591	213	15
Constantius II (as Caesar)	Æ 3 Nummus	330–335	RIC VII Trier 540	2332	84	16
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	330–335		2332	81	17
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	335–364		–	43	18
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	335–364		1535	208	19
House of Constantine	Æ 3 Nummus	335–364		1762	226	20
Constans	Æ 3 Nummus	341–348	RIC VIII Trier 196	1304	2	21
Constans	Æ 3 Nummus	341–348	RIC VIII Trier 185	–	47	22
Constans	Æ 2 Nummus	348–350		2213	147	23
Valens	Æ 3 Nummus	364-378	RIC IX Arles 7a	1108	1	24
Valens	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		–	92	25
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		–	41	26
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2350	120	27
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2673	137	28
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2482	166	29
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2570	170	30
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2072	197	31
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		–	45	32
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		–	91	33
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		1762	151	34
House of Valentinian	Æ 3 Nummus	364–378		2572	191	35
Gratian	Æ 3 Nummus	367–375		2570	168	36
House of Theodosius	Æ 4 Nummus	378–402		2569	169	37
Uncertain	Æ 3 Nummus	mid to late C4		–	90	38
Uncertain	Æ 4 Nummus	mid to late C4		–	98	39
George III	Half penny	1772		1767	163	40
Uncertain				–	93	41

from sites such as Hayling Island (Cowell *et al*. 1987, 10) that south-western units were being deposited well into the post-Conquest period.

The second coin, a 12½ *denarius nummus* of Licinius I (AD 308–324; Cat No. 12) is a curiosity. The reverse field has the notation for 12½ – one of the few valuation marks found on Roman Imperial coins indicating a value of 12½ *denarii.* This mark actually indicated a halving of the face value of the *nummus* by Licinius I, possibly in AD 321, and this denomination was meant to circulate only in the eastern half of the Roman empire. Constantine I (the western emperor) did not issue a similar coin and demonetised the issue when he reunified the empire

in AD 324. This coin is not generally believed to have circulated in the western empire (Harl 1996, 165) but its presence at Yeovilton contradicts this theory. Examination of site assemblages in Britain shows that this coin is, however, exceptionally rare. Only two assemblages, from Richborough, Kent (Allen *et al*. 1968, 195) and from the sacred spring at Bath (Walker 1988, 330) are known to have included this issue. Both of these assemblages are very large (Richborough: 18,081 coins; Bath: 12,595) which makes it all the more surprising that this small assemblage from Yeovilton should contain this rare issue. Its presence defies explanation.

Metalwork *by Rachel Every*

Twenty-six copper-alloy objects were recovered, mostly from late Romano-British contexts. Most are of 3rd–4th century AD date with a small number of earlier objects including one Late Iron Age brooch of filiform type, belonging to Feugère's type 2b from the surface of pit 1969 (Fig. 10.2). It is likely to date to the second half of the 2nd century or first half of the 1st century BC (Feugère 1985; Haselgrove 1997, 56; Montague 1997, 93–5). It is broken just above the catchplate, which is missing. The spring has four coils and an external chord.

A bow brooch of Colchester B type, dated AD 50–70 (Crummy 1983, fig. 6, 50), was recovered from a late-Roman cleaning layer. The spring and pin are missing and the catchplate is broken; the bow and axial bar have faint marginal grooves (Fig. 10, 1).

Six armlets or possible armlets were recovered. Two are made from twisted copper-alloy wire (Fig. 10, 3). Similar examples have been found in Colchester, dated to the 3rd–4th centuries AD (ibid., fig. 41, 1613, 1628). A third armlet comprises a thin strip with a decorated outer edge (Fig. 9, 4), and is comparable to an example from Catsgore, Somerset, dated AD 120–80 (Leech 1982, fig. 79, 11). Three additional fragments may have belonged to armlets. Two are decorated strips (Fig. 10, 5, 6). One has an incised, almost serrated outer edge and a fitting at one end, comparable to an example from Exeter, Devon (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, fig. 112, 70). Two curved lengths of cylindrical wire are also possibly part of an armlet.

One silver ring was recovered (Fig. 10, 7), and one possible copper-alloy ring, from inhumation grave 2004; the latter comprises thin curved wire fragments. Similar rings from Colchester are dated to the 3rd or 4th centuries AD (Crummy 1983, fig. 50, 1744).

The remaining objects are a late-Roman copper-alloy pin with a bulbar head and broken shank (Fig. 10, 8) similar to an example from Greyhound Yard, Dorchester (Woodward *et al.* 1993, fig. 59, 11); fragments of three sets of tweezers; and an unusual oval ring with a ring-and-dot motif on one face (Fig. 10, 9) which could be a belt fitting, although no direct parallels have been found. Domestic items include a possible spoon bowl fragment, a needle fragment, and two square-shanked nails and well as three unidentified wire objects and some copper alloy fragments.

The ironwork assemblage is relatively large (716 objects), but consists mainly of nails and other structural objects together with a few knives and other tools. The three knives recovered (Fig. 10, 10, 11), are all of Manning's type 18b, with a sinuous outline and a slightly curved back, a type found in early Roman contexts but more commonly in the later Roman period (Manning 1985, 117, plate 55, Q57). A solid cylindrical object, tapering to a point at one end, may be a stylus (Fig. 10, 13). An implement with the remains of a crescent-shaped blade and a socketed handle (Fig. 10, 12), recovered from well 2432, has been tentatively identified as a turf cutter, although it is smaller than published examples (Rees 1979, 331, figs 132–5). Turf cutters are not common, but are known from both military and civilian sites across Britain in contexts spanning the Roman period. A solid cylindrical object tapering to a point at one end, with four thin bands of copper alloy encircling its wider end, and a further band nearer the point (Fig. 10, 14) may be an awl (Manning 1985, pl. 15, E6). Other objects include a few cleats; several staples of 'joiner's dog' form; an ox-shoe fragment; miscellaneous strips and bars and various objects of unknown function, including a tapering strip with at least two perforations, recovered from a post-medieval furrow (Fig. 10, 15).

Most of the 676 nails are of Manning's type 1b, which have flat, sub-rectangular or rounded heads with square shafts (1985, fig.32). Examples are ubiquitous on Romano-British sites. In addition to their function in timber and masonry construction, the nails from Yeovilton were also apparently used as coffin nails – examples were recovered from six of the inhumation burials. The nail assemblage also includes tacks and hobnails, the latter probably deriving from footwear, some associated with the inhumation burials (Table 6). With the exception of those from grave 918, the hobnails exhibit some degree of wear.

Of 16 lead objects recovered, all but two are waste fragments or offcuts. The two objects are a flat disc and a pointed object, both of uncertain function.

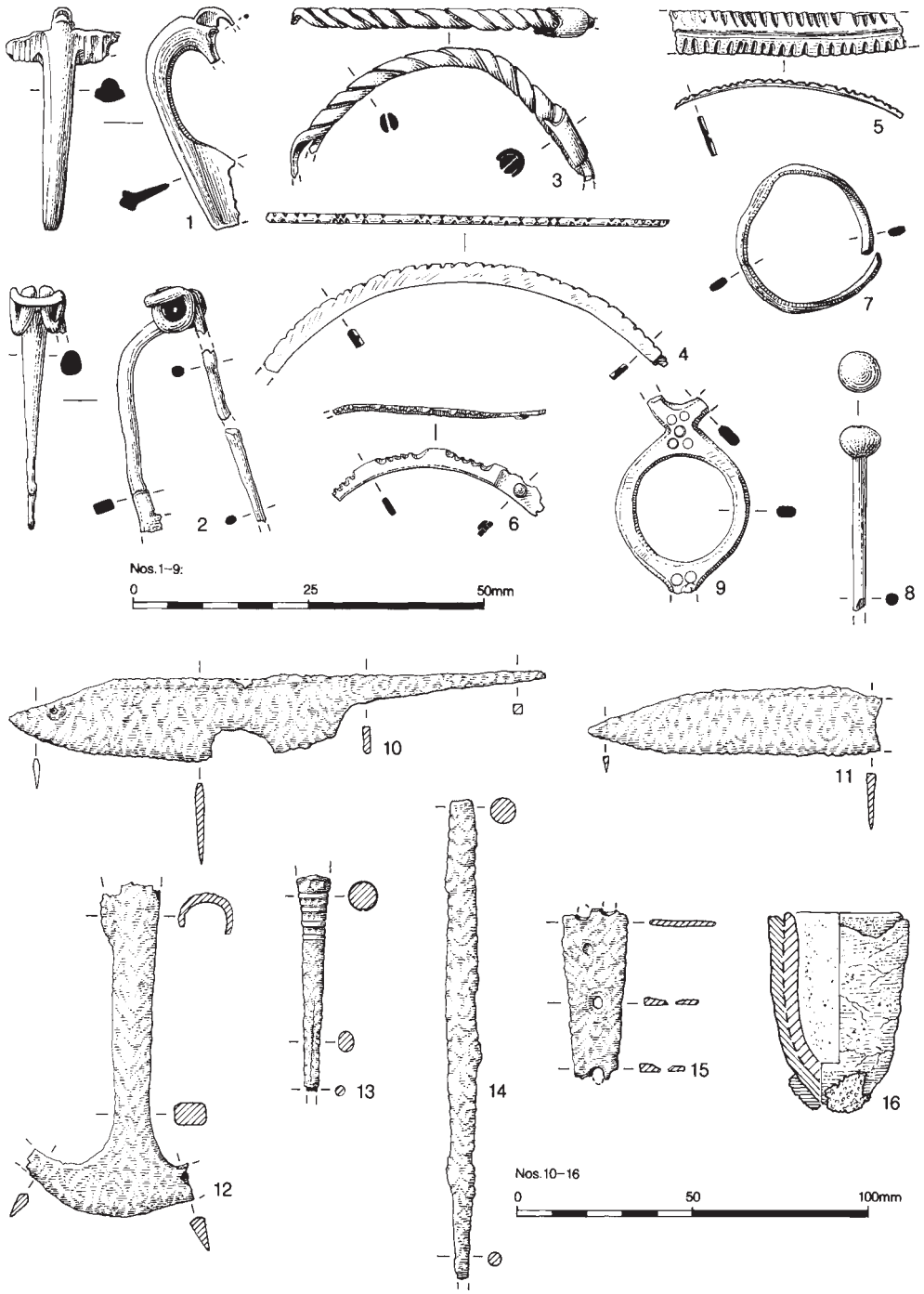

Fig. 10 Metalwork and crucible

Metalworking debris *by Phil Andrews and Rachel Every*

A small quantity of slag was recovered (2392g). This seems to represent iron smithing slag, and includes at least two hearth bottoms, although it is worth noting the presence of unusually light, vesicular fragments from several contexts. The fragments were recovered in small quantities from contexts across the site but most were late Romano-British deposits concentrated in the northern part of the site. Two Middle–Late Iron Age features (pit 1969, ditch 3413), and a few post-medieval/modern features, however, also produced slag.

Four crucible fragments were recovered from four separate late Romano-British contexts. All fragments are in sandy fabrics and all have the reduced fabric and slightly powdery texture of highly fired ceramics, suggesting that these vessels were used, although no residues are visible on either the internal or external surfaces. The most complete example is a small, narrow-mouthed form, 570mm in height (Fig. 10, 16).

Pottery *by Rachael Seager Smith, with contributions by J.M. Mills and Brenda Dickinson*

The pottery assemblage ranges in date from the Bronze Age to post-medieval, although the majority is of Romano-British date, with emphasis on the later Roman period (late 3rd–4th centuries). In all, 5595 sherds, weighing 77,123g were recovered from stratified contexts.

In general, the condition of the assemblage is poor with many small, abraded sherds. Overall, the mean sherd weight is 14g, but, of the total assemblage, 68% (3804 sherds, 28106g) of the sherds are plain bodies with a mean weight of just 7g. Many of the fabrics are unexpectedly soft and the majority of sherds are very worn and without surfaces, although some edge definition generally survives. While chemical erosion in the acidic soils may be largely responsible for this, it is also likely that considerable periods of time elapsed between initial discard and the incorporation of sherds in their final positions, a view consistent with the large quantity of residual material, especially in late-Roman contexts.

The pottery was analysed using the Wessex Archaeology guidelines for the analysis of pottery (Morris 1994). The samian, Black Burnished wares, New Forest and Oxfordshire wares were recorded using the standard published corpora (Seager Smith and Davies 1993; Fulford 2000; Young 2000). A site-specific fabric and vessel form series was compiled to encompass all sherds not belonging to these groups; a summary is presented here and fabric and vessel types are summarised in the Appendix. The poor condition of the assemblage, especially the absence of surfaces, hampered the precise identification of, and discrimination between, fabrics and consequently broad fabric groups containing the products of more than one source were used.

Pottery fabric totals for each phase are shown in Table 2. An estimate of the maximum number of vessels present was made for each fabric using rim forms alone (Tables 3 and 5). Pottery from unstratified and cleaning contexts was not examined or quantified in detail but any elements not present among the stratified assemblage were noted and brief comments on these are included here.

PREHISTORIC POTTERY

The prehistoric pottery, (387 sherds, weighing 2582g), spans the period from the Middle Bronze Age to the Early to Middle Iron Age, possibly extending into the Late Iron Age. The majority of sherds were relatively unabraded but the friable nature of the fabrics has resulted in a high degree of fragmentation (mean sherd weight is only 6.7g). Relatively few featured sherds were identified and consequently many of the sherds could only be tentatively dated on fabric grounds alone.

Twelve sherds, 135g, were assigned to the Middle Bronze Age. All occurred in a coarse grog-tempered fabric (G1; see Appendix). Most are plain body sherds from relatively thick-walled jar forms. Two sherds from a thick flat base were identified and traces of incised parallel lines were noted on four fairly thin-walled sherds probably from a single vessel. As so little of this material is chronologically diagnostic, the identification of these sherds remains tentative, but grog-tempered fabrics are a characteristic feature of Trevisker style assemblages from Somerset (eg Woodward 1990; Woodward 1989) and east Devon (eg Laidlaw and Mepham 1999). Locally, however, at Ham Hill (Morris 1987, 35) and Ilchester (Ellison 1982, 125) for example, grog-tempered wares are very rare, although here too they have been assigned earlier 1st millennium BC dates. Most of these sherds derived from contexts associated with the Middle–Late Bronze Age ditches 2457, 3034, 3035 and gully 3411 in the south-east corner of the site.

The remainder of the prehistoric assemblage is considered to be of Iron Age date and derived mostly from the Middle–Late Iron Age ditches and possible

TABLE 2: PREHISTORIC AND ROMANO-BRITISH POTTERY FABRIC TOTALS

Fabric	Code	MBA	M-LIA	LIA/ ERB	Late RB	RB	Post-Roman	Total
		No/Wt	No/Wt	No/Wt	No/Wt	No/Wt	No/Wt	No/Wt
Middle Bronze Age:								
Grog-tempered	G1	12/135	2/12	–	–	2/36	–	16/183
Iron Age:								
Calcareous wares	C1	1/10	239/1547	3/3	44/226	32/224	7/27	326/2037
Beef calcite temp.	C2	–	1/56	–	–	–	–	1/56
Oolitic limestone	C3	–	3/13	–	–	–	–	3/13
Calc. And organic	C4	–	9/37	–	–	–	–	9/37
Flint-gritted	F1	–	–	–	–	–	1/11	1/11
Sandy fabrics	Q1	–	11/90	–	14/119	3/9	1/3	29/221
Igneous rock temp.	R1	–	–	–	1/16	–	1/8	2/24
Roman imports:								
Samian	E300	–	–	–	85/1087	6/29	2/15	93/1131
CG black slipped	E122	–	–	–	4/18	–	–	4/18
Dressel 20 amph.	E256	–	–	–	2/63	–	–	2/63
Gallic amph.	E259	–	–	–	2/63	–	2/268	4/331
N. African amph.	E260	–	–	–	8/87	–	1/13	9/100
British finewares:								
NF red slipped	E161	–	–	–	4/29	–	–	4/29
NF colour-coated	E162	–	–	–	93/908	1/1	–	94/909
Oxf red/brown slip	E170	–	–	–	172/1749	–	5/18	177/1767
Misc. colour-coats	Q106	–	–	–	11/72	–	–	11/72
Mortaria:								
Oxf white mortaria	E209	–	–	–	6/123	–	1/1	7/124
Oxf c-c mortaria	E211	–	–	–	13/129	–	–	13/129
NF parchment mort	E212	–	–	–	2/314	–	–	2/314
South Wales mort	M100	–	–	–	1/73	–	–	1/73
Oxidised coarsewares:								
NF parchment ware	E160	–	–	–	2/51	–	–	2/51
Oxf parchment ware	E172	–	–	–	2/6	–	–	2/6
Misc oxidised wares	Q102	–	–	11/95	59/449	5/41	4/60	79/645
Fine, brick red	Q104	–	–	–	20/183	–	–	20/183
Coarse sandy	Q105	–	–	–	13/159	2/3	–	15/162
Grey coarsewares:								
SE Dorset BB1	E101	–	2/16	46/474	2390/23107	367/2776	82/452	2887/26825
SW'ern BB1	E102	–	–	36/139	26/224	2/6	–	64/369
Shelly ware	C100	–	–	–	7/33	1/4	–	8/37
Grog-tempered	G100	–	–	–	6/310	4/190	–	10/500
Sandy greywares	Q100	–	–	26/157	750/7546	136/835	7/18	919/8556
South-western A	Q101	–	–	–	728/31251	10/320	6/114	744/31685
South-western B	Q103	–	–	–	21/299	4/9	–	25/308
Post-Roman sherds:								
Med + P-med fabrics		–	–	–	2/9	–	10/145	12/154
Overall totals		13/145	267/1771	122/868	4488/68703	575/4483	130/1153	5595/77123

roundhouses in the north-east corner of the site. The fabrics have been divided into four groups (calcareous (C), flint-gritted (F), sandy (Q) and rock tempered (R) wares) although two of the seven fabric types identified must be considered 'catch-all' groups.

Five vessel forms were represented among the 25 rims recorded, but only ten of these preserved more than 5% of the rim diameter (see Appendix). A breakdown of the vessel forms by fabric and phase is shown in Table 3.

The calcareous wares (Table 2) dominate the assemblage. The majority of these contain crushed limestone and/or fossil shell (fabric C1) probably from Upper Lias (Jurassic) deposits that outcrop to the south of the site around Ham Hill. Nine sherds,

TABLE 3: PREHISTORIC POTTERY, VESSEL FORMS PRESENT IN EACH FABRIC TYPE AND PHASE

Code	Form	M-LBA	M-LIA	LIA/ERB	LRB	RB unspec	P-med/mod
R1	weak shouldered jars,		4 x C1		–	2 x C1	–
	simple rims		1 x C4		–	–	–
R2	slightly shouldered jars,	No forms	3 x C1	No forms	5 x C1	–	–
	rounded, upright or everted rims	present	1 x Q1	present	–	–	–
R3	thickened, out-turned rims		1 x C1		–	–	–
R4	proto-bead rim jars		1 x C1		1 x C1	2 x C1	2 x C1
R5	carinated bowls		1 x C1		–	–	–
			1 x C4				

all from the Middle–Late Iron Age ditch 2106, contained additional organic material (fabric C4), and may also derive from this area. Similar calcareous fabrics dominate the Iron Age pottery assemblages from South Cadbury (Alcock 1980), Ham Hill (Ellison and Pearson 1977, 98; Morris 1987, 30, table 1; Morris 1999, 93, table 2) and Cannard's Grave (Mepham 2002) but are less frequent at Ilchester (Ellison 1982, 125) where flint and sand-tempered wares predominate. Only one flint-gritted sherd was recognised here, a residual occurrence in a modern land drain, although potential sources of flint are locally available from the clay-with-flints and flint gravels of the Head deposits on the sides of the River Yeo valley.

Diagnostic sherds were relatively scarce. Some, especially those in fabrics towards the coarser end of the spectrum, could be of Late Bronze Age/Early Iron Age date. The weak-shouldered jars with flat-topped rims (Fig. 11, 1 and 2) are typical of this period in Somerset (cf. Alcock 1980, figs 12 and 14; Ellison 1982, figs 61a and b) and beyond. At least one of these vessels, residual within Romano-British ditch 1671, is decorated with incised diagonal slashes on the rim (Fig. 11, 1) while two shoulder sherds with finger-tipped decoration may also belong to this period (*c*. 900–400 BC). All other forms (Fig. 11, 3–8) have closer links with the Middle Iron Age ceramic traditions of the area as seen at Ham Hill (Morris 1987; 1999), Ilchester (Ellison 1982), Norton Fitzwarren (Woodward 1989), Cadbury (Alcock 1980) and Cannard's Grave, Shepton Mallet (Mepham 2002). Jar forms predominate and decoration is limited to two sherds from carinated bowls (Fig. 11, 9). These vessels from the Middle–Late Iron Age ditch 2106, are characteristic of the Dorset and Somerset variants of the All Canning's Cross/Meon Hill group, dating from the 5th–3rd centuries BC (Cunliffe 1991, fig.A.7).

More distant sources are likely for the beef calcite (fabric C2), oolitic limestone (fabric C3) and igneous rock (fabric R1) tempered fabrics. The closest deposits of Inferior Oolite occur around Sherborne and Crewkerne to the south while the beef calcite tempered ware is probably imported from the Dorset coast, where the 'Chief Beef Beds' form part of the Purbeck Beds. At Maiden Castle, vessels made in a beef calcite tempered fabric (fabric H2) were predominantly early types with a coarse finish and were most numerous in phases 6E and F, dated to the 3rd–2nd centuries BC (Brown 1991, 194, table 66). A similar Dorset coast source is likely for at least some of the sandy wares; at least three sherds, including a weakly shouldered jar rim (Fig. 11, 4), occur in a fabric very similar to that of the later Durotrigian and Black Burnished wares from the Wareham/Poole Harbour region. Others are probably from more local sources, comparable with those from Ilchester (Ellison 1982, 125) and Ham Hill (Morris 1987, 35–6) and in the absence of more diagnostic material a tentatively Middle/Late Iron Age date has been assigned to these sherds. The igneous rock tempered fabric can be paralleled at Ham Hill (Morris 1987, 33) and a source located on the granitic deposits of Devon and Cornwall is the most likely. One sherd has Glastonbury ware style decoration (Fig. 11, 10), indicating that activity may have extended into the Late Iron Age (2nd–1st centuries BC).

ROMANO-BRITISH POTTERY

Finewares, with contributions on the samian by J.M. Mills and Brenda Dickinson

The Romano-British pottery assemblage consists of 5196 sherds (74,387g). The assemblage spans the entire Roman period although few contexts could be definitely dated to the earlier part of this period (pre-3rd century AD). Coarsewares, particularly the Wareham/Poole Harbour Black Burnished wares, predominate, with a very restricted range of finewares, amphora and mortaria.

Imported wares represent 2% of the total number of Romano-British sherds but most of this material

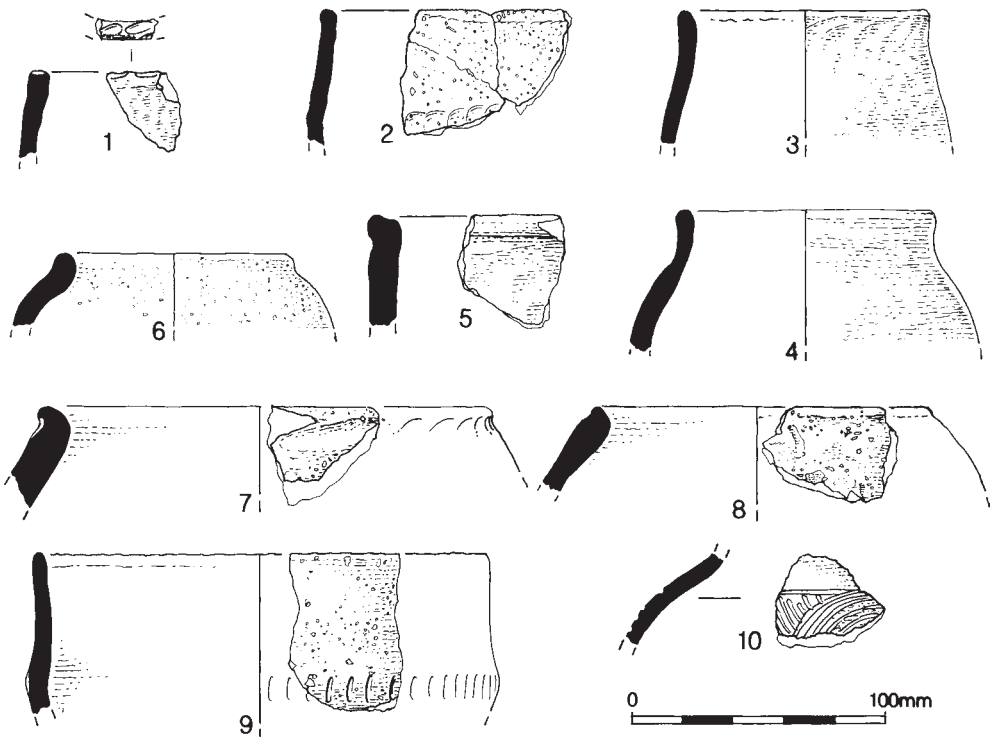

Fig. 11 Prehistoric pottery; for catalogue see pp. 69–70

was residual in later contexts. Sherds from some 72 samian vessels were recovered (127 sherds weighing 1268g, including unstratified sherds not shown on Table 2). Most were in poor condition, having been deposited in aggressive acid sandy soils, and many sherds have little or no surface remaining. This made identification difficult and excessive or unusual wear patterns could not be assessed. A catalogue of decorated sherds and potters' stamps (identified by Brenda Dickinson) appears in the Appendix.

The range of vessels by production centre (Table 4) demonstrates that the assemblage is dominated by bowls of the 18/31 series (28 examples); cups are rare with only nine examples identified of which seven are definitely form 33. Of the eight Central Gaulish form 37 bowls, five have sufficient decoration to describe and date (Cat Nos 1–5) but the South Gaulish decorated forms were too small to describe. Potters' stamps were noted on three vessels (see below). Evidence for use and repair was limited to a single bowl with an X-shaped rivet hole from the late Roman ditch 2261. A large base fragment, possibly from a decorated bowl, from South Gaul appears to have been trimmed or worn around the external face of the footring.

Two distinct groups can be recognised. The smaller group comprises only four vessels from South Gaul, which probably date to the Flavian period. The bulk of the assemblage, consisting of 68 vessels from Central and Eastern Gaulish centres, is of late 2nd-century date, probably postdating AD 150 or perhaps even AD 160. With the exception of a single vessel from Les Martres-de-Veyre that dates to the mid-2nd century, it is probable that all of these vessels came from Lezoux. A solitary form 37 bowl, probably the earliest 2nd-century vessel here and produced in the standard Lezoux fabric, is decorated with a basal wreath of the type used on bowls made at Les Martres-de-Veyre at the beginning of the 2nd century. It is probable that this bowl is Hadrianic in date and demonstrates the trade in moulds and the movement of potters between centres. The Eastern Gaulish wares are mostly from Rheinzabern, with a single stamped form 31 bowl from Trier (stamp cat. 2). These date from the latter part of the 2nd century into the 3rd century AD.

TABLE 4: SAMIAN VESSEL FORMS BY PRODUCTION CENTRE (FABRIC)

Vessel form	SG	CG 1	CG2	EG	Total
18	1	–	–	–	1
18/31 - 31	–	1	–	–	1
18/31 or 18/31R	–	–	1	–	1
18/31R	–	1	–	1	–
18/31 series	–	–	5	1	6
18/31R or 31R	–	–	4	1	5
31	–	–	1	2 + 1*	4
31R	–	–	7	2	9
31 or 31R	–	–		1	1
33	–	–	6	1	7
29	1	–	–	–	1
30	1	–	–	–	1
37	–	–	8	–	8
36	–	–	1	–	1
45	–	–	1	–	1
38	–	–	2	–	2
Walters 79	–	–	2	–	2
Curle 21	–	–	2	–	2
Bowl	1**	–	5	–	6
Cup	–	2	–	2	–
N/A (inc chips)	–	–	10	–	10
Total	4	1	58	9	72

CG1 – Les Martres
CG2 – probably all Lezoux
EG – mostly Rheinzabern
* – Trier
** – ?decorated form

Overall, the majority of the samian is likely to be later 2nd century. A single bowl in the style of Cinnamus (Cat no. 2) is dated AD 135–70 with the remaining decorated bowls dated to AD 165–200 (Cat nos. 3–5) and a stamped bowl (stamp cat. 1) dating to *c.* AD 160–200. The other stamped bowl (stamp cat. 2) is late 2nd or early 3rd century. The range of forms also indicates a later 2nd-century date for the group, as several of those present only appear after about AD 160, (eg forms 31R, 79 and Curle 21). The presence of form 33 cups and the complete absence of the other popular cup, form 27, are also noteworthy as it is thought that production of form 27s ceased around AD 160. This date is also suggested by the ratio of form 18/31 to form 31 bowls.

The only comparable small village settlement in the region is Catsgore, north of Ilchester (Dannell 1982, 149–52) where the samian assemblage displays similar characteristics to that from Yeovilton. Although no quantification is presented, the Catsgore assemblage is clearly larger than that from Yeovilton, but was also dominated by later 2nd and early 3rd-century products from Central and Eastern Gaul with very little Southern Gaulish (1st century AD) material and only a small number of Hadrianic sherds. A similar range of forms was present. One major difference, however, lies in the proportion of Trajanic samian from Les Martres-de-Veyre. At Catsgore, this included several decorated bowls although the apparent absence of similar material at Yeovilton could be accounted for by the limited size of the assemblage.

Central Gaulish black-slipped wares were also made at Lezoux (Tomber and Dore 1998, 50) and a variety of lesser workshops from *c*. AD 150–200 continuing into the 3rd century AD (Tyers 1996, 138). All four Yeovilton sherds are from beakers, three of them from narrowly folded forms with rouletted decoration. Small quantities of these wares have also been noted at Shepton Mallet (Evans 2001, 143; Laidlaw 2002) and Ilchester (Leach 1982 fig. 67, 43–8).

Amphorae are poorly represented. Two sherds are from Dressel 20 vessels, the most common and widely distributed olive oil amphorae from southern Spain. These arrived in Britain from the Late Iron Age into the 3rd century AD (Peacock and Williams 1986, 136–40) and, once empty, were traded in their own right as containers, probably until the end of the Roman period. Four other sherds are from the flat-bottomed wine amphora form Pelichet 47/ Gauloise 4 predominantly made in southern France from mid 1st to the 3rd/early 4th centuries AD (ibid., 142–3). The remaining sherds, also rather abraded, have been tentatively identified as being from North African forms, probably of later 3rd–4th centuries date.

Other finewares represented are the red-slipped and colour-coated finewares produced by the major late Roman industries located in the New Forest and Oxfordshire regions. In addition, a small group of often very abraded but probably originally colour-coated finewares (fabric Q106) were also identified. These wares represent approximately 5% of all the Romano-British sherds recovered.

Although the Oxfordshire finewares appear to be far more common than the New Forest fabrics (Table 2), the figure is distorted by the 60 conjoining sherds from a single beaker (Fig. 13, 25) found in well 2432. The pattern of supply from these centres conforms to the general trends noted on sites in Wessex (Swan 1973; Fulford and Hodder 1975) and the West Country (Leach 1982, 140–1; Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 81–3; Evans 2001, 140), with Oxfordshire

supplying most of the bowls and the New Forest supplying the closed forms. All the vessel forms present (Fulford 2000, types 27 and 63; Young 2000, types C22, C23, C45 and C55) are relatively common types and were mostly made throughout the life of the respective industries. Two forms, however, are exclusively 4th-century types (Fulford 2000, 58, type 50 dated *c*. AD 320–350; Young 2000, 164, C75, dated *c*. AD 325–400).

The miscellaneous colour-coated wares (fabric Q106) are not described in detail but are likely to be from relatively local sources comparable with the range of wares identified at Ilchester (Leach 1982, 138–40, fabrics CCii, CCiv and CCv). No rims were present but a beaker base and a body sherd with applied scale decoration, probably from a long-necked globular bodied beaker, were noted.

Mortaria too are poorly represented in this assemblage, accounting for only a fraction of 1% of the total number of sherds. Again, products of the Oxfordshire and New Forest (Young 2000, 173, type C97 and 72, types M17 and M18) regions are most common (Fulford 2000, 76, types 103 and 104). One other mortarium (Fig. 12,5) in a soft, pale orange, micaceous fabric with large white quartz trituration grits, was found in layer 2250. This sherd is very abraded and no traces of the original surfaces survive but it is certainly a British product, probably of 2nd–early 3rd century date, perhaps from Shepton Mallet (Hartley 2001, 130–1) or more probably from Caerleon in South Wales (Hartley 1993; Seager Smith 2000, 266).

In addition, one sherd of an imported mortarium fabric was recognised amongst the unstratified sherds. This belongs to a group of distinctive vessel types (Bushe-Fox 26–30, Hartley groups I and II (Gillam 238), Gillam 255 and some Gillam 272) made in Northern Gaul from *c*. AD 50–150, possibly continuing into the 3rd century AD (Hartley 1991, 204).

Coarsewares

These wares dominate the Romano-British assemblage, providing vessels of all types from coarse, utilitarian food preparation and storage vessels to intermediate quality wares used at table. Two main groups can be identified, the oxidised and grey coarseware fabrics; these are considered individually below. The site type series is presented in the Appendix.

In addition to a small number of New Forest (fabric E160) and Oxfordshire (fabric E172) parchment ware sherds, a range of oxidised coarseware fabrics, probably from fairly local sources, was recognised. Although these were comparatively well made and probably provided a range of intermediate quality wares between the true tablewares and the utilitarian kitchen vessels, the fabrics have been especially vulnerable to abrasion. Their poor condition has hampered precise fabric identification and attribution to specific sources and consequently the majority of these sherds have been assigned to a 'catch-all' group (fabric Q102) encompassing all white, orange and buff-firing wares. These range from moderately coarse sandy fabrics, to finer wares containing sand and mica. No definite examples of Severn Valley ware were noted although it is possible that a few sherds from this region, such as the possible tankard (Fig. 12, 20), are present in this group. Two of the more distinctive fabrics (fabrics Q104 and 105), each represented by slightly larger numbers of sherds, are considered separately although these, too, remain unprovenanced. The fabrics are listed in the Appendix.

No vessel forms were recognised among the Oxfordshire fabrics. Most of the rims in the remaining oxidised wares belong to bowl forms (Table 5; Fig. 12,4 and Fig. 13,8, 14 and 15) although two flagon rims (Fig. 13,15 and 22) were also noted and the majority of body sherds appeared to be from closed forms. As a group, the oxidised coarsewares represent approximately 2% of the total number of Romano-British sherds.

The greyware group overwhelmingly dominates the assemblage, comprising 90% of the Roman sherds. Seven fabric types were identified. These are described in the Appendix.

Black Burnished wares dominate this group. Most of these derive from the Wareham/Poole Harbour region of south-east Dorset (fabric E101) which alone represents 55% of the Roman assemblage as a whole and 62% of all grey coarseware sherds. A smaller range of south-western Black Burnished ware fabrics (fabric E102; Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 114, 135 fabrics 40 and 60; Seager Smith and Davies 1993, 249, fabric 1b) were also recognised. The relative scarcity of these fabrics is partially due to the chronology of this assemblage which largely postdates the currency of these wares (1st–early 3rd centuries AD) but the numbers may also be underestimated because the characteristic thick, black slip is often missing as a result of surface abrasion. It is also difficult to gauge the relative frequency of these variant Black Burnished wares in other assemblages from the area as no separate

TABLE 5: COARSEWARE VESSEL FORMS BY FABRIC (NO. OF EXAMPLES SHOWN)

		Oxidised coarsewares		BB wares		Greywares sandy	Greywares SW		Grog temper	
Form	**Date range**	**Q102**	**Q104**	**E101**	**E102**	**Q100**	**Q101**	**Q103**	**G100**	**Total**
Round-bodied bowls:										
R126	C1–early C2	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
WA15/R125	C1–early C2	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	2
WA16	C1–early C2	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
R113	C2+	2	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	5
WA75	late C3–C4	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
R104	Roman	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
R119	Roman	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
R121	Roman	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
Straight-sided bowls and dishes:										
WA22/R105	C2	–	–	1	–	4	–	–	–	5
WA23	C2	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
WA24	C2	–	–	5	–	–	–	–	–	5
WA20/R124	C2+	–	–	72	–	1	–	–	–	73
WA25/R120	late C3–C4	–	–	67	–	1	–	–	–	68
Jars:										
WA1/R111	C1–early C2	–	–	6	3	2	–	–	–	11
WA6	C1–early C2	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
WA7/R106	C1–early C2	–	–	21	3	5	–	–	–	29
WA8	C1–early C2	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1
WA2	C2	–	–	15	1	–	–	–	–	16
R102	late C3–C4	–	–	–	–	4	–	–	–	4
R117	late C3–C4	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
R118	late C3–C4	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
WA11	late C3–C4	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
WA3/R110	late C3–C4	–	–	39	–	14	–	–	–	53
R112	Roman	–	–	–	–	5	–	–	–	5
R115	Roman	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
R116	Roman	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	3
R122	Roman	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
R123	Roman	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
Storage jars:										
R101	C2+	–	–	–	–	–	21	–	–	21
R127	C2+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1
Miscellaneous forms:										
R128	C1–early C2	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
WA10	C2+	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
R129	Roman	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
R103	Roman	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1
R114	Roman	–	–	–	–	6	–	1	–	7
WA26	Roman	–	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	3
TOTALS		6	4	236	8	53	21	1	1	330

quantification is provided for the Ilchester (Leach 1982, 142), Catsgore (Leech 1982, 153) or Shepton Mallet (Evans 2001; Laidlaw 2002) material.

Vessel forms belonging to each of the four major groups (Seager Smith and Davies 1993, 231–40) and spanning the entire Roman period were present:

Jars: WA types 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8 and 11
Open bowls: WA types 15 and 16
Straight-sided bowls/dishes: WA types 20, 22–25
Miscellaneous beaker (WA type 10) and lid (WA type 26) forms.

All of these forms are characteristic elements of the Black Burnished ware industry but one unusual type, a flanged bowl with a chamfered base (Fig. 13, 23), made in the south-east Dorset fabric, was found in ditch 2069. This vessel probably represents

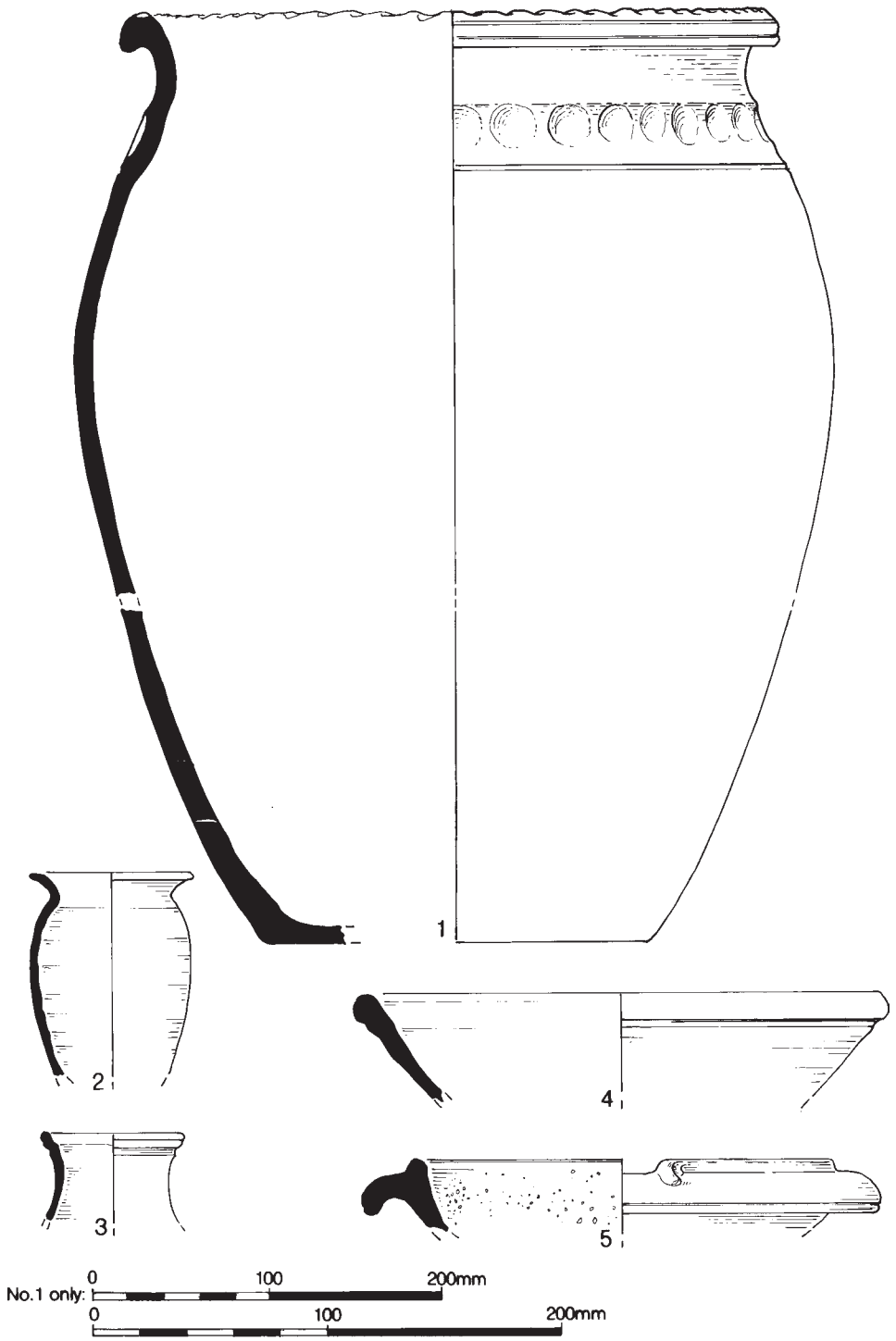

Fig. 12 Romano-British pottery, 1–5; for catalogue see p. 70

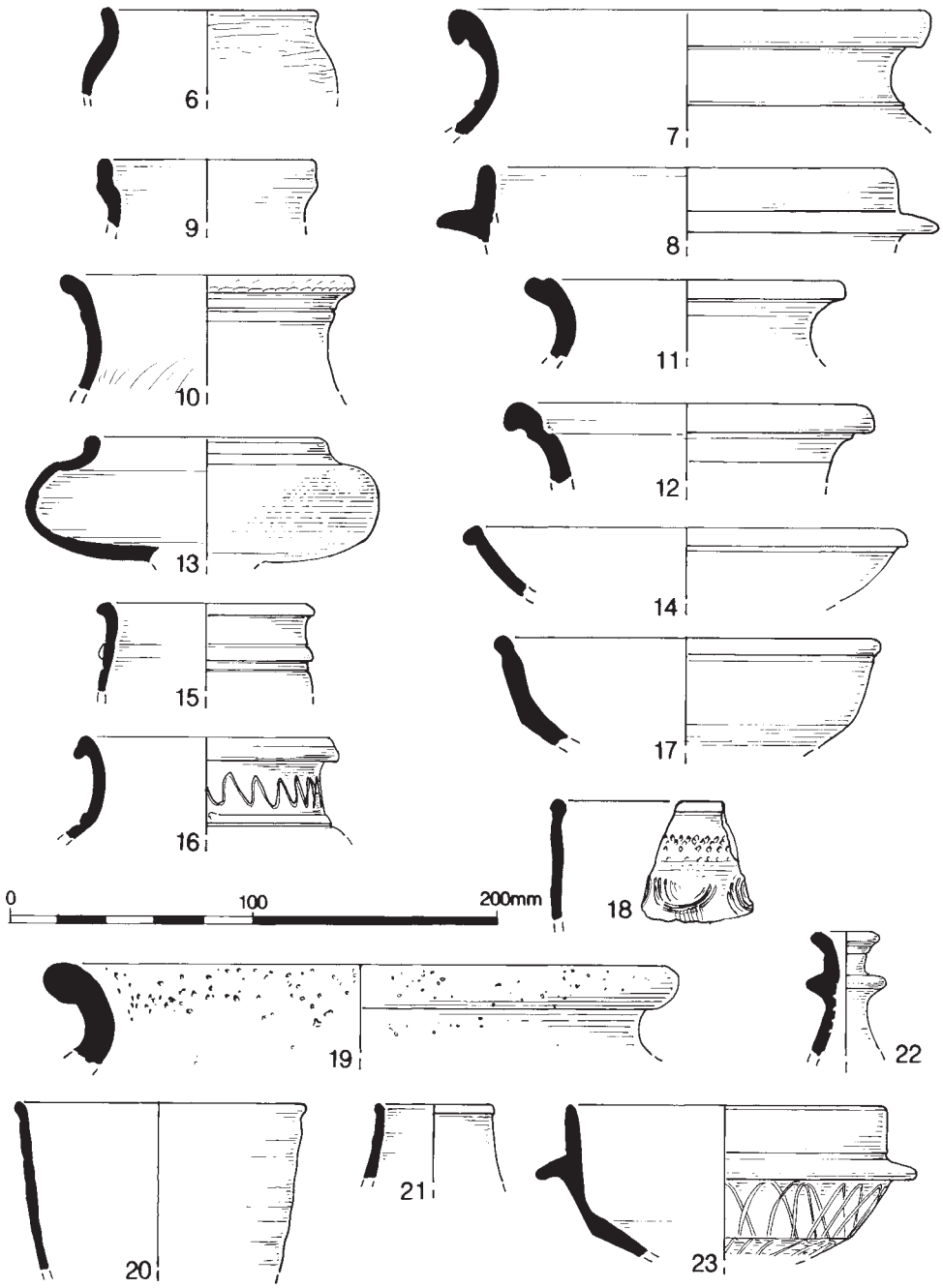

Fig. 13 Romano-British pottery, 6–23; for catalogue see p. 70

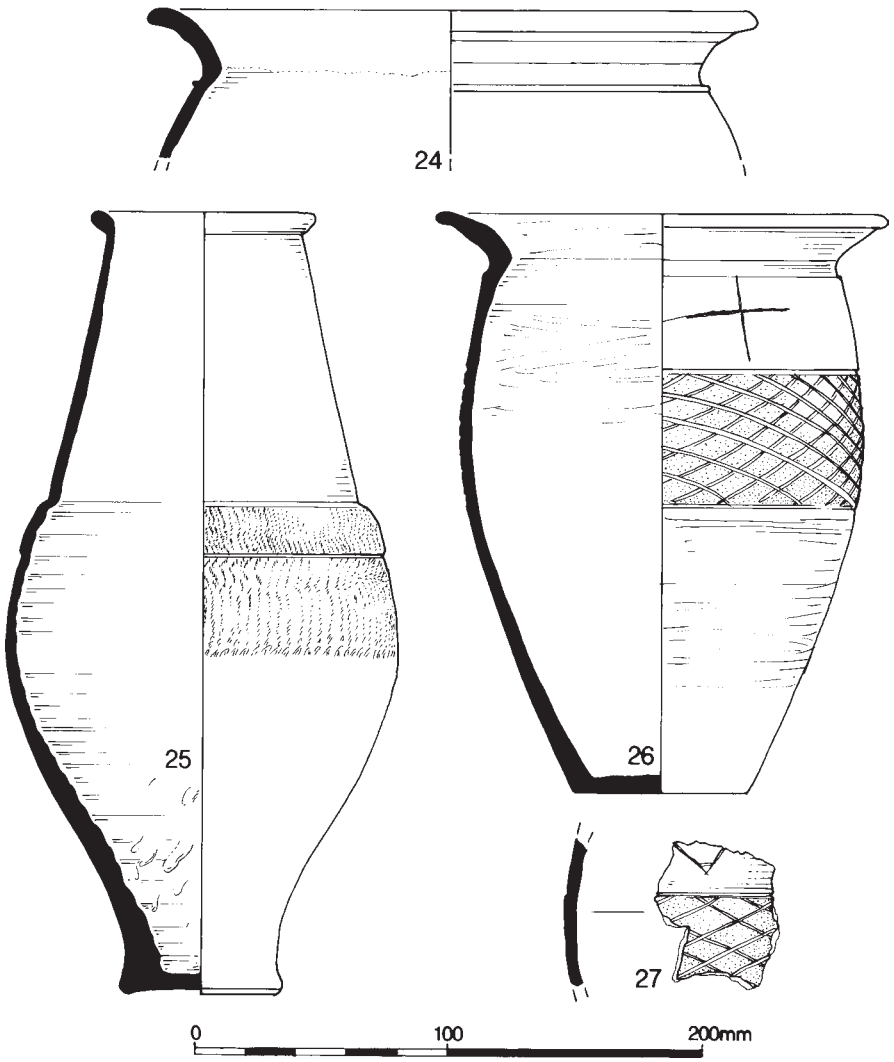

Fig. 14 Romano-British pottery, 24–7; for catalogue see p. 70

a hybrid form based on samian form 38, which typically belongs to the second half of the 2nd century, and the flat-flanged bowls/dishes with chamfered bases (type 23), also made during the 2nd century. A broadly similar vessel was noted at County Hall, Dorchester, its context and associated sherds suggesting a late 3rd or 4th century AD date (Seager Smith 1993, 52, fig. 25, 69). Unfortunately the Yeovilton example occurred only with undiagnostic body sherds. Based on the date range of its prototypes, however, this vessel is highly unlikely to predate *c.* AD 150 and the weight of evidence from this site suggests that a later Roman date is much more likely.

The miscellaneous greywares (fabric Q100) represent 18% of the Romano-British assemblage. The bulk of this group consists of non-distinctive moderately coarse sandy greyware fabrics. The problems of defining slight differences between sandy greyware fabrics are well-known and given that so much of this assemblage comprised small, undiagnostic fragments (711 or 77% of all the fabric Q100 sherds were plain bodies with a mean weight of 6.2g), it was not considered worthwhile to further

subdivide this group. A small range of finer, micaceous fabrics was also included. Similar fabrics occurred at all other Romano-British sites in the region (Bidwell 1979; Leach 1982; Holbrook and Bidwell 1991). Although this group contains the products of more than one source, all are likely to be relatively local (within a radius of 30km). Potential sources would include Shepton Mallet (Swan 1984, Mf5.594; Evans 2001, 111), Congresbury (Swan 1984, Mf4.584–5), the Huntspill Cut area of the Brue valley (Leech 1982, 153), the Yeo valley and possibly even Ilchester (Leach 1982, 141–2).

The greyware fabrics were largely used to produce a range of utilitarian vessels, in which jar forms predominate, although one flagon of 1st–2nd century AD date occurred in the finer micaceous wares. Other forms of this date include bead rim jars and bowls (Fig. 13,17) and the upright necked jars (Fig. 13,6) but again, later 3rd–4th century forms were more numerous.

The South-western greywares (fabrics Q101 and Q103) were made by a series of related industries producing coarsewares for local markets in Somerset and east Devon between the 2nd and 4th centuries (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 19). The distinctive soft, flaky silver or pink speckled inclusions present in the type A wares suggest that it may have been made in the area of Norton Fitzwarren, near Taunton (Timby 1989, 54, fabrics 1 and 2, fig. 22, 1–4). This fabric accounts for 14% of all the Romano-British sherds, although approximately half the sherds in this fabric are from a single vessel (Fig. 12, 1), found in layer 1539. The South-western greyware B fabric is far less common at this site and its source remains uncertain. Storage jars, often with impressed decoration on their rims and shoulders, predominate in both fabrics. The forms can be paralleled in Devon (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, fig. 68; Seager Smith 1999, fig. 155), and more locally (Leach 1982, fig. 73, 271–90 and fig. 74, 91–3; Leech 1981, fig. 23, 111 and fig. 25, 177), although at these sites the fabrics are described as being grog-tempered. Only one other vessel form was recognised in these wares, a narrow-necked jug form with a slightly cupped collared rim (type R114) from segment 2219 of ditch 2481.

Although only present in small amounts, the grog-tempered wares were mainly thick-walled sherds from storage jar forms. Only one rim sherd was identified (Fig. 13, 19). Like the South-western greyware storage jars, the grog-tempered wares are presumed to date from the late-Antonine period onwards, large thick-walled jar forms being absent from south-western assemblages prior to this time (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 175). No forms were recognised amongst the few calcareous ware sherds. In general, calcareous wares are rare in Somerset during the Roman period, occurring locally in only very small quantities (Leech 1981, 238; 1982, 153; 1986, 291; Leach 1982, 143; Evans 2001, 141) but, by analogy with sites in counties to the north and east, they are usually considered to be of 4th century date.

Discussion

The range of fabrics and forms present at Yeovilton demonstrates the relatively wide trading links and ceramic influences on this settlement and is broadly comparable with other sites in the region. Traded wares include samian, Central Gaulish black slipped ware, amphora and mortaria from the continent as well as finewares and mortaria from Oxfordshire, the New Forest and possibly south Wales. The proportion of Black Burnished ware in the assemblage compares well with that at Lamyatt Beacon (60%; Leech 1986, 285) and Ilchester (50–60%; Leach 1982, 142), which, as *civitas* capital of the area, may have acted as a distribution centre for these wares. The low proportion of oxidised wares also reflects the pattern recognised elsewhere in Somerset (Evans 2001, 159). Identifiable Severn Valley wares were particularly scarce, despite the location of a 1st–2nd century kiln in Shepton Mallet (Swan 1984, Mf5.584). The reason for this may be chronological, the Yeovilton assemblage being predominantly later Roman, but it may also indicate that the main ceramic influences in this area came from within the Durotrigian territory to the south. Trade and contact with areas to the west is also evidenced by the presence of the South-western grey ware fabrics made at a number of centres in east Devon and Somerset.

Although the assemblage contains the entire range of forms from utilitarian vessels to fine tablewares, vessels associated with food preparation and storage (jars in a wide range of sizes and bowls/dishes probably used as casseroles) are overwhelmingly predominant. The proportion of table wares, however, represented by the range of beaker, cup, open bowl and flagon forms in samian and other imported fabrics, the New Forest and Oxfordshire wares, is quite high for what appears to be a relatively small-scale, agriculturally-based settlement. This implies a fair degree of prosperity, not readily apparent from the excavated

features. Unfortunately, few large feature groups were recovered, and of the 20 or so features and layers containing more than 50 sherds, most were located towards the northern edge of the excavated area, emphasising an 'edge of settlement location'.

The small number of large feature groups and the relatively high degree of residuality, especially in the late Roman groups, hamper the dating of activity at this site. There is clearly a small amount of 1st century AD material within the assemblage, represented by the bead rim jars and bowls, jars with countersunk handles in Black Burnished wares and the small quantity of Southern Gaulish samian of Flavian date. Although all the Black Burnished ware forms have a long lifespan, ceramically there is very little to suggest that the Late Iron Age/early Roman activity need extend beyond the end of the 1st century AD. Indeed, the absence of Trajanic and paucity of Hadrianic samian may suggest a hiatus in activity during the first two or three decades of the 2nd century. However, reoccupation of the settlement, or at least disposal within the excavated area, certainly took place from around the middle of the 2nd century, evidenced by the Central Gaulish samian, other imports and flanged bowls in Black Burnished ware and other coarseware fabrics, residual in later features.

Although most of the assemblage belongs within the late 3rd–4th century, even here, there are relatively few well-sealed, consistently dated groups. Well 2432 is, however, an exception. This feature contained 135 sherds weighing 1653g, although the majority derived from two vessels (Fig. 14, 25 and 26), possibly deliberately deposited and both of later 3rd or 4th-century date. Individual sherds from three other south-east Dorset Black Burnished ware everted rim jars and a dropped flange bowl as well as a single sherd from a South-western storage jar and a few pieces of oxidised and grey coarseware fabrics were also found in this feature. All these are common, widely traded types, although one slightly more unusual type, a wide-mouthed jar with an everted rim (Fig. 14, 24) in a sandy grey ware fabric, was also identified. This may be a relatively local form and can be paralleled amongst the material from the 1950s excavations at Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986, fig. 21, 27). All these pieces are likely to represent casual losses.

POST-ROMAN POTTERY

Only a very small quantity of post-Roman material was recovered, comprising one medieval sherd in a fine flint and sand-tempered coarseware and eleven post-medieval sherds. These consist of red earthenwares, four pieces of industrial ware ('china') and two pieces of Westerwald stoneware. All of these sherds probably derive from the practice of manuring the fields with domestic rubbish from the nearby settlements.

Miscellaneous finds *by Rachel Every*

A total of 280 fragments (17,414g) of ceramic building material were recovered, all of Romano-British date. The assemblage includes diagnostic *tegula* and *imbrex* roof tiles, and a larger number of undiagnostic fragments. The fragments are in sandy, oxidised fabrics containing sparse flint and/or sparse to moderate calcareous inclusions. A small percentage of fragments have reduced cores. The ceramic building material was concentrated in features in the north of the site, and is likely to have derived from the Roman stone buildings (1762, 2078) located in this part of the site.

The fired clay assemblage amounts to a total of 634 fragments (3113g), and was recovered from contexts largely dated to the Romano-British period. Two possible ceramic objects were recovered, both of uncertain function. The first, with two obliquely angled surfaces, and comprising two conjoining fragments with an oxidised exterior and reduced core, came from a late Roman robber trench within building 1762. The second fragment, from a post-medieval ditch, has two parallel surfaces and is in an oxidised fabric with calcareous and ferruginous pellet inclusions. In addition, a ceramic disc made from a reused pottery sherd came from a late Roman ditch (1617). It may have been used as a counter.

The majority of the assemblage, however, consists of featureless fragments, in a sandy oxidised fabric with sparse calcareous inclusions. The fired clay was found in small quantities in a number of contexts across the site. Slight concentrations were recovered from Romano-British features, including a building in the north of the site. A small amount was also recovered from a Middle–Late Iron Age ring-gully in the same area.

A small quantity of fired clay was heavily burnt, including fragments from three late Roman features (pit 1834, posthole 2424 and enclosure ditch 2481). These correspond to the distribution of metalworking slag (see above), and may represent hearth lining relating to this industrial activity. Undiagnostic clay lining fragments were also recovered from a possible hearth feature (2131) in the south-west of the site.

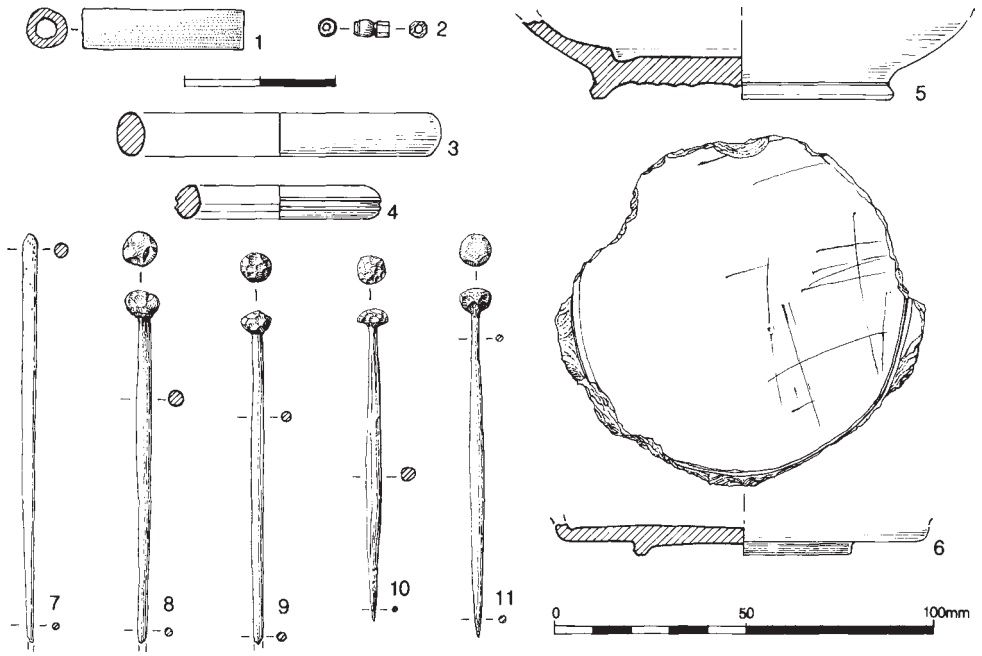

Fig. 15 Glass, shale and bone objects

Several fragments have wattle impressions. Most were recovered from Romano-British features across the site, but a Middle–Late Iron Age pit (1969) also produced a few pieces.

Twenty fragments (28g) of glass were recovered. There are 16 vessel fragments, of which nine are pale blue, two pale green, four clear and one bright blue. Most fragments are undiagnostic, but it is possible to suggest certain forms based on the colour and thickness of several pieces. There are at least two cylindrical or prismatic bottles, both from late Roman contexts. These are thick-walled vessels in a translucent pale blue/green colour, and can be dated between the last quarter of the 1st century and the end of the 2nd centuries AD (Price and Cottam 1998). Other fragments of thin clear glass are probably from finer drinking vessels such as cups and bowls, although precise forms cannot be identified or dated. A small fragment of bright blue glass from ditch 2241 in the far north-west of the site is likely to be of early Romano-British date, when strongly coloured glass of this type was common.

There are three beads, two green drawn cylindrical forms, respectively from a late Roman layer overlying building 2669, and well 2584 (Fig. 15, 1); and one small opaque turquoise bead of irregular form, from ditch 2241. There is also a fragment of glass from late Roman enclosure ditch 2481, possibly waste material that has been subjected to a high temperature. The fragment suggests that there may have been glassworking in the area.

The stone recovered, totalling 113 fragments (64420g), includes both building stone (mainly roofing slabs) and portable objects. There are at least two stone types represented, limestone and ferruginous sandstone. The largest examples of the limestone slabs indicate that their original shape was rhomboid or hexagonal, while the sandstone slabs survive only as small fragments. A number of limestone slabs have complete or partial nail holes and one retains its iron nail. Some were reused as flooring in building 2078, and other examples were found in and around building 1762. The majority of the building stone was recovered from features in the north of the site, in association with other building materials such as fired clay and ceramic building material (see above).

Most of the portable stone objects were recovered from Romano-British features in the north part of the site. One, however, was found in a Middle–Late Iron Age ditch, and another, probably of Romano-British date, had been redeposited in a post-medieval

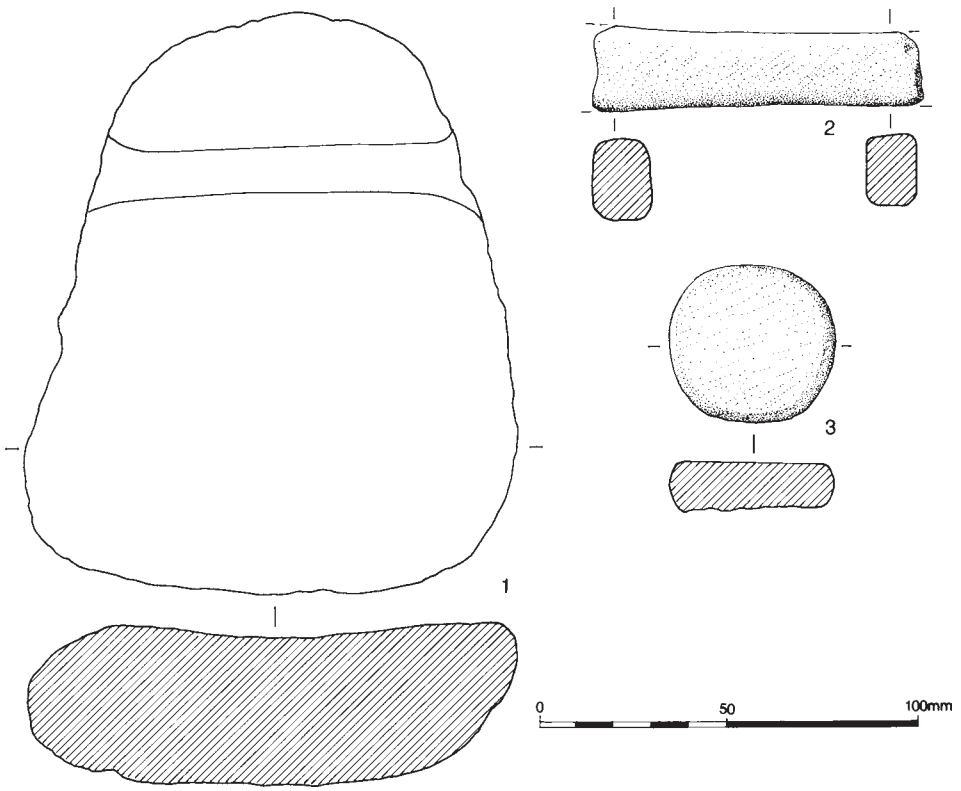

Fig. 16 Portable objects (worked stone)

feature. A worked limestone object from late Roman enclosure ditch 2481 has a concave, smoothed internal surface. It exhibits signs of use that suggest it was a mortar or rubbing stone. A second rubbing stone in the same material was recovered from the wall foundation for building 1762.

A limestone rotary quern fragment was recovered from a post-medieval land drain, but is likely to be of Romano-British date. Several other quern fragments, also in limestone, were recovered from late Roman well 2432.

Additional stone objects include a shelly limestone triangular loom or thatch weight with a horizontal perforation (Fig. 16,1); two broken whetstones in micaceous sandstone (Fig. 16, 2); a flat limestone disc from a late Roman posthole (Fig. 16, 3), possibly used as a counter (cf. Ilchester; Leach 1982, fig. 104, 26); and, from Middle–Late Iron Age ditch 2815, an incomplete limestone object with worked surfaces, comprising a flat, possible base and a curved outer edge.

Nine fragments (216g) of high quality lathe-turned shale objects, but no waste material, were recovered, suggesting that the shale was brought onto the site as finished objects. Three fragments of bracelet/armlet were recovered, two of them lathe-turned (Fig. 15, 4). Both of these have common parallels amongst assemblages from Purbeck, Dorset (eg Woodward 1987, fig 58, 270, 275). The third armlet is possibly handmade (Fig. 15, 2). A cylindrical shale bead (Fig. 15, 1) with a central perforation and groove around the middle came from a late Roman recut of ditch 1765. Two vessel base fragments were recovered (Fig. 15, 5 and 6); both have footrings. The more complete example is similar to one recovered from Ower, Dorset, dating to late 2nd–early 3rd century AD (Woodward 1987, fig 58, 278). Two other shale fragments also derive from vessels, but of unknown form. A spindle whorl with an intact central perforation was recovered from building foundation 1762.

Eighteen worked bone objects were found, comprising 17 pins and a possible handle fragment,

all of Romano-British date. The surviving pin heads are globular, lenticular or hemispherical and diagnostic examples include Crummy's types 3A–D (Fig. 15, 8–11), of 3rd-century date (Crummy 1983) and a type 1 (Fig. 15, 7), a type whose currency spanned the Romano-British period (ibid., fig. 17, 122). One pin head is perforated and one has a plain, pointed end. One shank fragment has been burnt. These pins were probably utilised in a variety of ways, as hairpins or to fasten garments. The pins were mostly hand carved and the range of skill in carving suggests that they were manufactured both in the home and in workshops (Crummy 1983, 19). Most pins, with the exception of the pig fibula pins, are made from the sides of limb bones of large ungulates, mostly horses and cattle (MacGregor 1985, 115). A burnt fragment of worked bone with incised decoration around one end, from a late Roman layer, could be a fragment of a handle.

BIOLOGICAL EVIDENCE

Human bone *by Jacqueline I. McKinley*

Human bone from 19 contexts was received for analysis. Ten of these deposits comprised the remains of late Romano-British inhumation burials, six of which were coffined, with one other inhumation burial of unspecified (probably late) Romano-British date (Table 6). Redeposited fragments of unburnt human bone were recovered from six other late Romano-British deposits of various types. Fragments of redeposited bone were also found in one Mid–Late Iron Age primary ditch fill (2115). Cremated human bone was recovered from a deposit of pyre debris radiocarbon dated to the late Roman period (feature 1826, deposit 1827).

The burials and other deposits were dispersed across the western and eastern sides of the excavated area, the graves occurring either in pairs or individually and up to 40m distant from their nearest neighbours (Fig. 5). The deposit of pyre debris was made in a feature towards the centre of the site, and no other cremation-related deposits were excavated.

The minimum number count amongst the disarticulated fragmentary bone was based on the most frequently recovered skeletal element in association with the assessed age of the individuals represented. Analysis of the cremated bone followed the writer's standard procedure (McKinley 1994, 5–21; 2000a).

Age was assessed from the stage of skeletal and tooth development (Beek 1983; McMinn and Hutchings 1985), the length of immature diaphyses (Bass 1987), and the patterns and degree of age-related changes to the bone (Brothwell 1972; Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994). Sex was ascertained from the sexually dimorphic traits of the skeleton (Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994). Stature was estimated where possible in accordance with Trotter and Gleser 1952; 1958), and cranial index was calculated according with Brothwell (1972, 88). Platymeric (degree of anterior-posterior flattening of the proximal femur) and platycnemic (meso-lateral flattening of the tibia) indices were calculated according to Bass (1987). A record of morphological variations was made following Berry and Berry (1967) and Finnegan (1978). Full details are held in the archive.

A summary of the results from the analysis of the unburnt human remains is presented in Table 6. In addition, 32.5g of cremated bone, representing remains from an unsexed adult >40 yr., was recovered from the pyre debris deposit 1827. (Note that the author could not examine the sieving residue and it is possible more could have been recovered.)

TAPHONOMY

Many of the graves had survived to only a shallow depth, averaging *c*. 0.15m, with a minimum of *c*. 0.05m (burials 1854 and 2301) and a maximum of *c*. 0.5m (burial 1722). Burial 2085 was made deeper (0.43m) than most other graves and was waterlogged. Several burials had been disturbed by later features, including 916 and 920 which were cut by a modern land drain, demonstrating the wet conditions prevailing over much of the site. There was limited machine damage to some burials as a result of the shallow depth of the deposits.

Most of the unburnt bone was in poor condition, being moderately to heavily eroded, heavily fragmented (mostly old breaks) and with little or no trabecular bone surviving. The poor condition is reflected in the low percentage skeletal recovery (Table 6), with a range of *c*. 0.15–96%, less than 50% surviving in the majority of cases; the minimum and maximum percentages represent the remains from one of the shallowest and deepest graves respectively. The exceptions to the general poor bone condition included burial 2805 in the deep, waterlogged grave, which had a 'fresh' appearance very distinctive from the others, presumably as a result of the waterlogging; the neonatal bone from

1744 and 1802 and the adult male from 1971. These deposits were all in close proximity on the central eastern margins of the site, suggesting a variation in the burial microenvironment in this region from that prevailing elsewhere; the excavator had noted a spread of occupation debris across this area. The percentage of surviving skeletal remains from the coffined burials is generally higher (*c*. 30–84%) than for those without a container (*c*. 15%–75%) though the survival rates do not consistently reflect the presence or absence of a coffin. The cremated bone is in good condition.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

The redeposited remains from the Mid–Late Iron Age ditch represent those of a single adult, as do the late Romano-British cremated remains. A minimum of eleven individuals was identified from the late Romano-British inhumation burials, with a further two neonates being represented amongst the redeposited material and a probable minimum of one other adult. The fragments of the latter do not duplicate those present in the extant burials, but it is unlikely that the redeposited fragments originate from any of the excavated burials. This conclusion is based on the considerable distances from those burials where the relevant skeletal elements are absent and the evidence for bone loss occurring as a result of poor bone survival or recent disturbance.

Of the 14 unburnt late Romano-British individuals identified, three (21%) were neonatal (<1month post-natal) and the rest adult, the latter being equally divided between the sexes (five females and five males, one unsexed). Only one adult could confidently be aged to less that 30 years; the majority (seven) were more than 30 years, and four were over 40 years. Although three of the latter were female, there is no conclusive evidence for any consistent variation in age at death between the sexes.

It is clear from the dispersed distribution of the excavated inhumation burials and their location towards the margins of the site, that further burials pertaining to the same 'population' may exist outside the excavated area. One grave observed on the eastern margins (1660) was not excavated. The recovery of redeposited pyre debris suggests that a related formal burial should have existed within the vicinity. It is not uncommon in the Late Iron Age and Romano-British periods for cremation burials to have been made in ditch fills, and as only a relatively small percentage (*c.* 10%) of the latter were subject to excavation, it is possible that burials were missed. Consequently, the currently available data must pertain to only part of the overall late Romano-British 'cemetery population', an unknown proportion remaining undiscovered. This places constraints on the interpretation of the demographic data presented in this report.

The presence of neonatal remains suggests an actively fertile population (Larsen 1999, 338), the absence of any older immature individuals implying either their burial elsewhere or that the group predominantly represented 'young families' and those with adult children.

SKELETAL INDICES

It was possible to calculate the cranial indices for only three adults (two females and one male); the platymeric index for eight individuals (three male and five female) and the platycnemic index for six individuals (two males and one female). The indices for the females suggest a good degree of homogeneity within the group, whereas there appears to have been slightly less amongst the males. As with other observations however, the apparent significance of the data must be tempered by the small size of the group.

Stature was estimated for only two adults, one female (1.57m, *c.* 5' 2") and one male (1.70m, *c.* 5' 7"). The female height is lower than the female mean of 1.61m from Poundbury, but that for the male is slightly higher than the male mean of 1.66m from the same site (Molleson 1993, 167–8). The small numbers involved however, preclude any further comment.

PATHOLOGICAL LESIONS

A summary of the observed lesions is presented in Table 6. Some lesions were observed in the remains of most individuals, but the poor recovery of trabecular bone (see above) will have reduced the amount of evidence for joint disease.

A total of 159 teeth and 131 tooth positions were recorded from nine (erupted permanent) dentitions, four female and five male. Dental attrition was moderate, but may have been affected in some cases by the high levels of caries and abscess lesions causing pain and moderating mastication. Calculus deposits (tartar) were noted in the cervical region of four of the seven dentitions, deposits being slight to moderate, with equal distribution between males and females, and some indications of an increase in severity with age. Slight periodontal disease (gum

TABLE 6: SUMMARY OF GRAVE FEATURES AND RESULTS FROM UNBURNT HUMAN BONE

human remains	feature	phase	deposit type	burial details	Accessories	% skel./ no. frags.	age & sex	pathology summary
916	917	LRB	coffined burial	Extended, supine W-E	Coin, Cat. no. 11 14 coffin nails at least one hobnail (worn)	*c*. 30%	adult *c*. 18–30 yr male	pd; calculus; hypercementosis; periosteal new bone – right clavicle, left radius; ?hyperostosis – left tibia; mv – mandibular M3 absent
920	918	LRB	coffined burial	Extended, supine W-E	10 coffin nails and at least 20 hobnails (not worn)	*c*. 48%	adult >40 yr male	amtl; caries; hypercementosis; *cribra orbitalia*; oa – left sacro-iliac, 3C, C2; ddd – C2; ?osteomylitis – tibia; mv – wormian bones
1614	1615	LRB	redep.			3 (u.)	subadult-adult > 15 yr.	
1722	1720	RB	coffined burial	Extended, supine. Very large grave coffin E-W	Coffin nails Mineralised wood on 10 of the nails a possible worn hobnail	*c*. 57%	adult *c*. 30–40 yr male	amtl; caries; abscess; peri-apical infection; *cribra orbitalia*; Schmorl's node – 2L; pitting – acetabulum, 1T; mv – fusion 2C
1744	1742	RB	inh. burial			*c*. 75%	neonate	periosteal new bone – right femur shaft
1751	1749	?RB	coffined burial	Extended, supine NNE-SSW		*c*. 39%	adult >40 yr female	amtl; caries; abscess; op – 1T articular process; mv – pronounced overbite
1802	1831	LRB	redep.			5 (u.l.)	neonate	
1815	1814	LRB	redep.			1 (u.)	adult >18 yr.	
1854	2647	?RB	inh. burial	Extended, recorded as prone may have slumped from side. N-S		*c*. 30%	adult >40 yr. ?female	pd; caries; hypercementosis; *cribra orbitalia*; mv – mandibular M3 absent, wormian bone, rotation left mandibular canine
1971	1972	LRB	coffined burial	Extended, Supine. Possibly shrouded E-W	1 coffin nail	*c*. 84%	adult *c*. 35–50 yr male	amtl; pd; calculus; caries; abscesses; fracture – 2 right ribs; Schmorl's node – T8, T11; ddd – C3-7, T10-11; op – glenoid fossae, acetabulae, sacro-iliac joints, T9-11 bsm, L3-4 articular processes; pitting – acromio-clavicular joints, right lunate, right sterno-clavicular, acetabulae, sacro-iliac joints, 10-12th costo-vertebral joints, right costo-vertebral joint; exostoses – femur shafts, left patella, left calcaneum; mv – wormian bones
2003	2004	LRB	inh. burial	Extended ,supine E-W	Possible cu alloy ring Worn hobnails from feet area of skeleton	*c*. 16%	adult >35 yr ?male	caries
2109	2108	LRB	inh. burial	Extended, supine.	5 coffin nails, Worn hobnails from left and right foot of skeleton	*c*. 22%	adult >40 yr ?female	caries; calculus; hypercementosis; *cribra orbitalia*; ddd – C2; exostoses – femur
2115	2106	M/LIA	redep.			3 (l.)	adult >18 yr	
2216	2219	LRB	redep.			1 (u.)	neonate	
2301	2302	LRB	inh. burial	Extended, supine		*c*. 15%	adult *c*. 18-45 yr female	
2404	2403	LRB	redep.	Extremely badly abraded fragments only	One worn hobnail	1 (?u.) 1	?subadult/adult ?neonate	
2489	2438	LRB	redep.		?animal bone in 2436	4 (s.)	neonate	
2579	cobbles nr well	LRB	redep.			1 (l.)	neonate	
2805	2804	LRB	coffined burial	Extended, supine E-W waterlogged	12 coffin nails mineralised wood on 3 nails	*c*. 96%	adult *c*. 25-35 yr female	caries; abscess; pd; calculus; hypoplasia; op – acetabulae, right sacro-iliac; pitting – right sacro-iliac; mv – maxillary left M3 absent, maxillary I2 shovelled, squatting facets, ossicles in lambdoid & at bregma, suture through right mastoid process.
*	1660	LRB	coffined burial	Top of skull observed at NE end waterlogged	6 coffin nails recovered			
	2352	LRB	'Empty grave' ?	Not fully excavated	Coin Cat. No. 27 7 coffin nails recovered			

KEY: s. – skull; u. - upper limb; l. – lower limb; amtl - *ante mortem* tooth loss; pd - periodontal disease; oa – osteoarthritis; op – osteophytes; ddd - degenerative disc disease;
C – cervical; T – thoracic; L – lumbar; M – molar; I - incisor
* Not removed due to waterlogging

disease) was also observed in four dentitions (three with calculus), slight to moderate and with equal division between the sexes, but no consistent link between severity and age. Although several of the individuals with calculus and periodontal disease did exhibit other dental lesions, there was no consistent link between conditions.

Ante mortem tooth loss was observed in four dentitions, three male and one female, with an overall rate of 14.5%, 14.7% for the females and 14.3% for the males. Carious lesions (lesions from caries) were recorded in eight dentitions, four male and three female, including all those exhibiting *ante mortem* tooth loss. The overall rate was 13.2%, 14.5% for females and 24% for males (details in archive). There does appear to be some link between increased age and the number and severity of carious lesions but it is not fully consistent. Dental abscesses were seen in four dentitions, two male and two female, all showing carious lesions and *ante mortem* tooth loss. The overall rate was 13.7%, 14.7% in females and 12.8% in males.

Slight dental hypoplasia (1–2 faint lines) was observed in the anterior crowns from one female dentition; such developmental defects in the tooth enamel form in response to growth arrest in the immature individual, the predominant causes of which are believed to include periods of illness or nutritional stress (Hillson 1979).

Hypercementosis is a harmless condition involving the excessive formation of secondary cementation which may be triggered by advancing age, periapical inflammation, mechanical stimulation or trauma. Four dentitions showed slight to extensive hypercementosis, predominantly affecting the distal teeth, the most extensive involvement being amongst the two older females.

The overall rate of caries is similar to that of 15.8% from Poundbury, Dorset, which Molleson (1993) judged to be high, quoting a general rate of 9.3% for Romano-British groups; both are well above the rates from Cirencester, Gloucestershire (Wells 1982) and Allington Avenue, Dorset (Waldron 2001) at 5.1% and 2.3% respectively. The abscess rates from Yeovilton are also high compared with those from contemporaneous sites, 1% from Allington Avenue (ibid.), 1.2% from Cirencester (Wells 1982) and 9% from Boscombe Down, Wiltshire (McKinley 1996). *Ante mortem* tooth loss also appears relatively high but is similar to that of 13% from Allington Avenue (Waldron 2001), but below the 17% from Boscombe Down (McKinley 1996), all being much higher than the 8.5% from Cirencester (Wells 1982). The high rates of dental disease, which are similar for both sexes with the exception of higher rates of caries amongst the males, indicates a poor quality diet largely dependant on carbohydrates and low in meat protein (Molleson 1993, 182–4; Hillson 1990, 283). Dental attrition was not particularly high, which suggests the diet did not include a large proportion of coarse food, possibly mostly comprising cereal based gruels etc.

DEFICIENCY DISEASES

Cribra orbitalia, manifest as pitting in the roof of one or both orbits, is believed to result from a metabolic disorder connected with childhood iron deficiency anaemia, although Molleson (1993) argues that vitamin C deficiency and intestinal parasites – leading to iron loss – may also have played a contributory role. There is no consistent link between low protein, cereal-rich diets and high prevalence of *cribra orbitalia* (Robledo *et al.* 1995). The overall rate of occurrence was 42%, with a higher rate for males (50%) than females (33%). The majority of lesions were not extensive (Robeldo *et al.* 1995, fig. 1). The rate is higher than that of 28% noted at Poundbury (Molleson 1993) and the 37% from Boscombe Down (McKinley 1996).

INFECTIONS

Infection of the periosteal membrane covering bone may lead to the formation of periosteal new bone. Infection may be introduced directly to the bone as a result of trauma, develop in response to some adjacent soft tissue infection, or spread via the blood stream from foci elsewhere in the body. Slight lesions were observed in remains from two individuals (Table 6), with no supportive evidence as to the aetiology in either case.

The left tibia from 920 (adult male) has a slight disruption in the profile of the anterior-lateral surface of the shaft towards the distal end of the bone, 48 x 21mm, *c*. 1.4mm high; the radiograph was unclear but suggested some rarification of the cortical bone in the area, possibly indicative of osteomylitis.

TRAUMA

One individual showed evidence of well-healed fractures in two lower right ribs (the poor condition of the bone and poor skeletal recovery render reliable calculation of prevalence rates difficult in this instance). Ribs generally form the most common

fracture site in archaeological assemblages. Most will have resulted from direct injury (Adams 1987) such as a fall against a hard object, and although painful will have tended to heal well.

JOINT DISEASE

The poor condition of the bone has severely limited the number of surviving joint surfaces, in many cases the spine was represented by only the dorsal portions.

Lesions indicative of osteoarthritis (Rogers *et al.* 1987; Rogers and Waldron 1995) were recorded in the remains of one adult male (920, Table 6) and degenerative disc disease – a condition resulting from the breakdown of the intervertebral disc largely related to age and reflecting 'wear-and-tear' (Rogers and Waldron 1995) – was observed in the remains of two individuals, one male and one female. All lesions were in the cervical vertebrae. Schmorl's nodes – destructive lesions in the vertebral body indicative of disc damage – most frequently occur in the vertebrae subject to greatest mechanical stress at points in the normal curvature of the spine (Manchester 1983). Lesions were observed in two male spines; the lower thoracic and lumbar vertebrae were affected. Osteophytes (irregular growths of new bone along joint margins) and pitting may form in response to a number of conditions and it is not always possible to ascertain the specific cause of individual lesions (Rogers and Waldron 1995). Lone lesions were observed in the remains of four individuals, osteophytes affecting nine non-spinal and six spinal joints with pitting in 15 non-spinal joints. There was extensive distribution of lesions in the adult male 1971 affecting *c*. 11% of the joint surfaces in this individual.

MISCELLANEOUS CONDITIONS

It is not always possible to be conclusive with respect to the aetiology of exostoses, bony growths which may develop at tendon and ligament insertions on the bone. Causative factors include advancing age, traumatic stress, or various diseases.

MORPHOLOGICAL VARIATION

Variations in the skeletal morphology may, with other predisposing factors, indicate genetic relationships within a 'population' (Berry and Berry 1967). Some traits are argued to reflect developmental abnormalities, for instance, wormian bones (Brothwell 1972, 95–8), which were observed in three lambdoid sutures (43%). Absence of one or more third molar was observed in three dentitions. The adult female 1571 showed a pronounced overbite which had affected the pattern of tooth wear in the anterior teeth. The fusion of two cervical vertebrae from the adult male 1722 via the body surfaces is likely to have been congenital.

Despite the poor condition of the bone and poor levels of survival, some information reflective of the health and economic status of the individuals buried at Yeovilton may be deduced from their remains. Although there are indications that their diet was not of a highly nutritious nature – largely comprising high carbohydrate, probably cereal-based foods – there is other evidence to suggest they were not malnourished. The lack of distinction between males and females in the prevalence of dental disease indicates a lack of nutritional preference towards one or other sex, any bias possibly being in favour of the females. Both males and females had relatively large, robust muscle attachments within the humerus (particularly that for the *deltoid*) and femur (particularly *gluteus maximus*), which together with the sparse pathological evidence suggests a relatively strenuous physical lifestyle involving bending, lifting and carrying of loads, the work being shared by both sexes.

REDEPOSITED PYRE DEBRIS

The absence of in situ burning within the clay-based natural below the pyre debris deposit 1827 indicates that the material was redeposited rather than being in situ. The pyre site itself is, however, likely to have been in close proximity, but if the pyre had been constructed on the flat ground surface all traces of it may have been lost due to subsequent disturbance (McKinley 2000b). Only a proportion of the bone was available for examination which affects conclusions regarding the quantity of bone and skeletal elements present within the assemblage. The 32.5g examined clearly represents an unknown proportion of the total amount of bone which would have remained within the deposit. The levels of oxidation were highly variable, with bone fragments from different skeletal areas ranging from brown (unburnt), through black (charred), hues of blue and grey (incompletely oxidised) to white (fully oxidised; Holden *et al.* 1995a; 1995b). Such variations in oxidation suggest a general shortage of fuel or time for complete cremation to be achieved. The identified fragments were limited to skull and upper limb, but the possible significance of this observation cannot

be judged due to the absence of the full assemblage for examination.

In the absence of associated cultural evidence to assist in dating the deposit the fuel ash was subject to radiocarbon analysis and provided a calibrated date of AD 240–420. This demonstrates that both inhumation and cremation were being practised in the late Roman period on the site. There are relatively few known late Romano-British cremation-related deposits from Britain, most being concentrated in the northern frontier zone (Cool 2004) with rare occurrences in some of the larger urban centres (McWhirr *et al.* 1982), though a substantial minority of those from the East London cemeteries have been shown to be late (McKinley 2000c, table 68). The singularity of this one cremation-related deposit amongst the predominant use of the inhumation rite is interesting. Why was this one individual cremated? What made them different? Cremation continued to form the major mortuary rite amongst the northern Germanic peoples of the Roman Empire at this late date (Todd 1980, 147–51; Topal 1981, 75); was this individual an incomer who had brought their rites with them? It may be significant that this deposit was set apart from the others. It may also be significant that only the deposit of pyre debris was found – several of the deposits from the frontier fort site at Brougham, Cumbria appeared to form 'cenotaphs' or 'memorials' inclusive of pyre debris but with no formal burial, and it was postulated that the burials were made away from the site/cemetery (McKinley 2004, 306–7).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The location of the graves is dispersed and on the margins of the excavated area, and the apparent pairing of some burials are points of interest. The location of burials has long been recognised as of symbolic importance both throughout prehistory and in subsequent phases. Discussion of the distribution of remains within rural Romano-British cemeteries has considered theories of reintegration of the dead within the landscape and land-use (Esmonde Cleary 2000), possibly representing a continuation of a similar theme from the Iron Age (eg Parker Pearson 1996; Cunliffe 2000), and the use of boundaries to separate the dead from the living (Esmonde Cleary 2000). The latter theme may also reflect the community laying claim to the land, the boundaries protecting the living from the dead, but the dead in turn protecting the claims of the living to the land.

Two of the neonates were found in association with occupational debris. Whilst this could be purely fortuitous in this instance, it may also reflect a continuation of an earlier prehistoric tradition for the association of the dead with midden material, itself a symbol of transformation, renewal and fertility (Brück 1995; Parker Pearson 1986).

The significance of what appears to be pairing of burials is difficult to decipher since no two pairs are alike. One comprised two adult males, one an adult male and an adult female, and the third a female and an infant (burial 1802 was redeposited, but probably from a disturbed grave in the immediate vicinity). In each case there may have been a direct relationship between the individuals warranting an extension of their closeness in life.

The presence of the late Romano-British cremation-related deposit is unusual and intriguing. It is possible that the apparent rarity of the mortuary rite at this date is just that – apparent. If the radiocarbon date had not been made, this deposit would have been assumed to be early Roman or possibly even prehistoric.

Animal bone *by Ellen Hambleton*

A moderate sized bone assemblage (*c*. 6400 fragments) was recovered from the site. Analysis was restricted to the material from the Late Iron Age and Roman phases, with the aim of investigating the nature of the animal economy, husbandry strategies and disposal practices across the site (Table 7).

All bones and teeth were examined and, where possible, were identified to species and skeletal element. Where appropriate, the following information was recorded for each fragment: context; element; anatomical zone; % completeness; fragmentation; surface condition; gnawing; fusion data; porosity; tooth ageing data; butchery marks; metrical data; other comments such as pathologies or association/articulation with other recorded fragments. The information was recorded on a relational database and cross-referenced with relevant contextual information such as date and feature type.

The overall condition of the assemblage can be described as moderate to good. The surface condition and other taphonomic indicators were recorded for all identified bone fragments and these also reflect the generally good state of preservation. Overall the levels of fragmentation in the identified assemblage were fairly high. This report will consider only the hand-recovered assemblage.

TABLE 7: NUMBER OF FRAGMENTS COUNT FOR LATE IRON AGE– LATE ROMAN ANIMAL BONE ASSEMBLAGE

Species	Definition	Total	LIA/ ERB	Late RB	RB u/d	%	No. frags**	%
S/G	sheep/goat	877	316	456	105	38.87	783	50.58
DOG	dog	643	470	9	164	28.50	109	7.04
COW	cattle	372	55	233	84	16.49	331	21.38
F/T	frog/toad indet.	91	81	9	1	4.03	91	5.88
PIG	pig	86	25	54	7	3.81	86	5.56
HOR	horse	64	10	47	7	2.84	64	4.13
FRG	frog (based on femur & tibia)	34	27	4	3	1.51	34	2.20
BFO	domestic fowl	25	22	3	–	1.11	5	0.32
CAT	cat	19	19	–	–	0.84	–	0.00
TOD	toad (based on femur & tibia)	12	10	2	–	0.53	12	0.78
BCV	corvid*	9	7	2	–	0.40	9	0.58
SMO	mole (Talpa europaea)	7	7	–	–	0.31	7	0.45
BTD	thrush size (turdidae)	6	1	5	–	0.27	6	0.39
RED	red deer	3	–	2	1	0.13	3	0.19
BMD	mallard	2	–	2	–	0.09	2	0.13
BPA	passerine (smaller than thrushes)	2	2	–	–	0.09	2	0.13
BRV	raven	1	–	1	–	0.04	1	0.06
BTL	teal	1	–	–	–	0.04	1	0.06
SFV	field vole (Microtus agrestis)	1	–	1	–	0.04	1	0.06
SUM	mouse (species indet.)	1	–	1	–	0.04	1	0.06
	total	2256	–	–	–	100	1548	100
UFS	unid. fish	3	–	1	2			
USM	unid. small mammal (rodent sized)	27	4	21	2			
UUB	unid. Bird	13	10	3	–			
UUM	unid. mammal	1553	610	772	171			

* size noted in comments rook/crow/jackdaw etc)
** excluding associated bone groups

The number of fragments recorded for each species and their relative abundance are given in Table 7. The minimum number of individuals (MNI) counts (including associated bone groups) show sheep/goat (27 individuals), cattle (10), dog (9), horse (4) and pig (3).

SHEEP/GOAT

Two varieties of sheep (horned and hornless) are represented. All areas of the body are represented suggesting that at least some complete carcasses were present. The predominance of cranial and distal limb bones is particularly apparent in well 2432 and may represent a concentration of primary butchery waste or discard associated with hide processing.

Three age groups were identified, representing individuals of around one year old, *c*. two years and a large quantity of a broader age spread of adults between three and eight years. The tight age groups represented in toothwear data from the well support the notion of a single depositional event.

Butchery marks were recorded on 9% (65 fragments) of sheep/goat bones. Horizontal knife cuts indicating the disarticulation of the hock joint are particularly prevalent. Almost half the butchered sheep/goat bone came from a single context (2213), part of a spread of domestic refuse filling the top of ditch 2481, and represent processed remains from at least three individuals. In addition to the butchered hock joints, context 2213 also contained an almost complete spine, sternum and ten left ribs from a single individual. All butchery marks are consistent with the disarticulation and dismemberment of carcasses, and are similar to patterns of butchery observed in other rural assemblages from Roman Britain.

With the exception of the two infected mandibles the sheep/goat assemblage reflects a generally healthy population.

CATTLE

All areas of the skeleton are represented in the cattle assemblage, attesting to the presence of complete individuals killed on the site or nearby. Although some upper limb bones and vertebrae are present,

the assemblage from well 2432 is dominated by bones of head (skull and mandible) and feet (1st and 2nd phalanx) and probably represents the deposition of primary butchery or skinning waste. In contrast, the pit deposits contained a greater abundance of the meat-bearing limb bones and thoracic vertebrae and many fewer 'waste' elements from head and feet. The ditch deposits exhibit a more even distribution of elements from all areas of the skeleton, although mandibles are a little more abundant, probably as a result of the ease with which fragmentary remains of this element may be identified.

The sample consists of three very young individuals less than six months old, one individual *c*. 2½ years old, and four older adults. Very few young calves are represented and the high proportion of fused epiphyses in all groups confirms that those individuals not killed at a very young age survive well into adulthood. The lack of prime beef aged juveniles and young adults of between two to four years old and the predominance of older adult individuals might suggest an emphasis on the exploitation of cattle for secondary products such as milk. This is a pattern more commonly seen on urban Romano-British sites rather than rural sites where there tend to be higher incidence of juveniles and young adults. However, the sample sizes involved are small and therefore any conclusions drawn concerning age exploitation of cattle should be treated with caution.

Butchery marks were recorded on 16% (52 fragments) of all cattle bones. The butchery marks observed include a mixture of knife cuts and heavier blade and chop marks consistent with native/rural butchery practices. Generally the butchery mark cuts are consistent with the disarticulation of elements, or the division and dismemberment of the carcass. Saw marks were noted on one horn core and on a worked cattle metatarsal.

Pathological and congenital abnormalities were observed on seven fragments of cattle bone. The low number of pathologies suggest a generally healthy population.

DOG

Dog remains (643 fragments) were particularly abundant in the assemblage, primarily due to the disposal and preservation of several complete individuals. Most (96%) were recovered from the well 2432. The fusion data is consistent with an assemblage comprised mainly of adults, although the very porous bones of at least two partial neonatal or foetal skeletons were also recovered. A small number of later fusing ephiphyses suggest the presence of at least two young adults. There are no incidences of healed trauma and the dogs generally appear to have been healthy individuals.

The contents of well 2432 contain the remains of at least six adult and young adult individuals. There is no evidence of any butchery. Fragments of baculum (*os penis*) in the assemblage indicate that at least two of the adults were male. The adult skeletons all appear to be of broadly similar size and shape and are probably all of the same type or possibly even breed. Several small and very porous bones were recovered representing two neonatal or possibly foetal individuals of similar size, probably from the same litter. It is likely that these deposits represent a single depositional event or disposal over a very short time period.

PIG

Only 86 fragments of pig were recovered, suggesting that the species was of little economic importance. The incidence of pig in the well is very low but pigs are slightly better represented in the pit and ditch fills. Ageing data is scarce but the general impression is that most individuals were juvenile and none survived to adulthood, which is consistent with typical exploitation of pigs for meat. Seven fragments of bone bore evidence of butchery. Marks were predominantly chops rather than knife cuts and include horizontal chopping of the humerus shaft and distal end, and axial chops through the mandibular symphysis. Little can be concluded from the small pig assemblage other than to say they were exploited in small numbers for meat.

HORSE

A total of 64 bones were identified as horse. There is no evidence of very young infant or neonatal remains, so it is unlikely that horses were bred on the site. The limited amount of available ageing data suggests that most horses died having reached adulthood but some were killed while still immature. Some horse butchery is indicated by the presence of a chopped astragalus and a carpal bone with knife cuts. This suggests that some horses may have been processed for meat or skins. The relatively high percentage of horse in the sample is typical of rural as opposed to urban Romano-British assemblages (Maltby 1994).

OTHER ANIMALS

Nineteen bones from a single juvenile cat skeleton deposited in the secondary fill of well 2432 provide the only evidence for this species in the Yeovilton assemblage. Elements represented are from all areas of the body including head, spine, upper and lower fore and hind limbs.

Twenty-five fragments of domestic fowl were recovered. Two fragments are represented in the pit assemblage but the majority of these remains come from a single adult individual deposited in the well. All main areas of the skeleton were represented, including head, spine, wings and legs. Medullary bone observed in the broken shafts of femur and tibiae indicates that the bird was a female in lay.

Red deer are the only large wild mammal species represented in the assemblage and occur in only very small numbers. Two antler fragments (one worked) were recovered along with one centroquartal bone.

Amphibian remains (137 fragments) are most abundant among the wild taxa represented at the site. Most of these frog/toad remains come from well 2432, reflecting the waterlogged environment. Small mammals were present in small numbers and include mole, field vole and mouse. Wild bird species include corvids (nine fragments of jackdaw size and one raven), turdids (six thrush-sized fragments), two fragments of small passerine and two fragments of mallard, (which may or may not be domestic). Fish were represented by only three unidentified bone fragments.

DISCUSSION

Domestic species dominate the assemblage and there is very little evidence for the exploitation of wild species. Sheep appear to have been the most commonly exploited species, although given their larger size, cattle would probably have contributed more to the meat diet. These species proportions are comparable with those seen on other Romano-British rural sites. Small sample sizes prevented detailed study of animal exploitation relating to ageing information, but the initial impression is that neither cattle nor sheep age profiles are typical for rural assemblages of this date. There is some variation in relative species abundance among the main feature types, and unusually sheep/goat are more prevalent in ditches than pit fills.

One of the most noticeable features of the assemblage is the abundance of associated bone groups representing complete and partial skeletons, many of which had been processed. The presence of cut and chop marks on many of the Yeovilton bone groups confirm that they do indeed represent the residues of butchery and carcass processing but additional interpretations may also be valid.

The assemblage from well 2432 may be compared with Romano-British deposits in the wells at nearby Ilchester (Leach 1982) and Oakridge, Hampshire (Maltby 1993). Both wells contain dog skeletons as well as complete and partial skeletons of other species. The Ilchester well deposit has been interpreted as being of ritual nature as it coincides with a change in function from domestic activity to human burial in that area of the site. The Oakridge dogs on the other hand have not been interpreted as ritual; rather it is suggested that these were animals killed in order to control population numbers. At Yeovilton, the deposition of seven dogs of similar size together (or over a short period of time) indicates the deliberate removal of possibly related individuals from the population. Reasons for this are unclear but in addition to ritual activity, explanations such as population control, disease or other factors should not be ruled out. As well as the multiple dog remains, the abundance of heads and feet of sheep in the Yeovilton well also finds parallels in the Oakridge assemblage where it has been interpreted as the deposition of hide-processing debris, or possibly primary butchery waste. In addition, the evidence in both assemblages points to a fairly rapid period of deposition. Although on a much smaller scale, the assemblage from the Yeovilton well appears to have more features in common with the Oakridge assemblage than the Ilchester assemblage and a similar interpretation is favoured.

PALAEOENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

Introduction

A series of 45 bulk 10 litre samples, taken from a range of dated features, was processed. Following assessment a small number of samples from appropriate and dated contexts were selected for analysis (16 charred plants, 1 waterlogged plants, 7 charcoal, 1 insects, 9 snails).

Charcoal *by Rowena Gale*

Charcoal from seven samples, principally from Iron Age and Romano-British contexts, was selected for

TABLE 8: CHARCOAL FROM IRON AGE AND ROMAN CONTEXTS

Feature	Context	Sample	*Acer*	*Corylus*	*Fraxinus*	Pomoideae	*Prunus*	*Quercus*	*Rhamnus*	Sambucus
Iron Age										
Pit 1528	1527	169	16	4	3	35	27	5s, 23h+u	-	-
Late Roman (3rd/4th century) or 'Roman'										
Pit 2418	2419	117	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-
Pit 2877	2879	166	-	-	15	2	4r	2s	-	-
Ditch 1765	2259	154	-	-	2	-	-	5s, 27h+u	-	6r
Feature 2273	2271	158	-	15r	11s	2	-	5r	8	-
Feature 2608	2609	94	-	-	-	1 Pomoideae/ *Prunus*		2	-	-
Cremation pyre 1826	1827	99A	-	-	103s	-	-	-	-	-

Key. h+u = heartwood and unknown maturity; r = roundwood (diameter <20mm); s = sapwood
The number of fragments identified is indicated.

analysis to indicate the type of woodland economy and supply of resources for, especially, domestic fuel and pyres.

Charcoal fragments measuring >2mm in cross section recovered from the flots and residues from the processed samples were considered for species identification. The condition of the charcoal was generally good and intact radial segments of roundwood were identified in sample from Iron Age ditch 2273. Samples were prepared for examination using standard methods (Gale and Cutler 2000). The fragments were supported in washed sand and examined using a Nikon Labophot-2 microscope at magnifications up to x400. The anatomical structures were matched to prepared reference slides. When possible, the maturity of the wood was assessed (ie heartwood/ sapwood), and stem diameters and the number of growth rings recorded. It should be noted that measurements from charred material may be up to 40% less than the living wood.

The results are summarised in Table 8. Classification follows that of *Flora Europaea* (Tutin and Heywood *et al* 1964–80). The species list for the project is as follows:

Aceraceae. *Acer campestre* L., field maple

Caprifoliaceae. *Sambucus nigra* L., elder

Corylaceae. *Corylus avellana* L., hazel

Fagaceae. *Quercus* spp., oak

Oleaceae. *Fraxinus excelsior* L., ash

Rhamnaceae. *Rhamnus cathartica* L., purging buckthorn

Rosaceae: Pomoideae: *Crataegus* spp., hawthorn; *Malus* sp., apple; *Pyrus* sp., pear; *Sorbus* spp., rowan, service tree and whitebeam. These taxa are anatomically similar; one or more taxa may be represented in the charcoal.

Prunoideae which includes *P. avium* (L.) L., cherry; *P. padus* L., bird cherry, and *P. spinosa* L., blackthorn. In this instance the broad heterocellular rays suggest P. *spinosa* as the more likely.

MIDDLE/LATE IRON AGE

Charcoal was abundant in the lower half of pit 1528. The taxa identified included maple, hazel, ash, hawthorn/*Sorbus* group, blackthorn and oak consistent with fuel debris.

LATE ROMANO-BRITISH, 3RD/4TH CENTURY

The charcoal sample from pit 2877 revealed a variety of species including ash, the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group, blackthorn and oak. In contrast, adjacent pit 2418 contained only very small charcoal fragments comprising entirely blackthorn. Charcoal from ditch terminal 1765 was also relatively sparse. Fragments up to 10^3 mm of ash, oak and narrow elder stems were among the identified species present.

Charcoal was examined from one of two parallel features (possible ovens) 2273. Fragments up to 30mm in length and 10mm thick included hazel, ash, the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group, oak and purging buckthorn. The ash probably derived from fairly wide roundwood, whereas the oak and hazel were from narrow roundwood. Intact hazel stems measured 10mm and 15mm in diameter and included a 5 year old stem felled in late spring, bearing an oblique tool mark at one end

An irregular shallow feature of uncertain function, 2608, cut into the natural and measuring approximately 5m long by 1.6m wide, contained friable and sparse charcoal including either hawthorn/*Sorbus* group or blackthorn, and oak.

PROBABLY ROMANO-BRITISH

Redeposited pyre debris deposit 1827 contained abundant, well-preserved, firm charcoal identified as ash sapwood. The wood appeared to derive from stems or poles >20mm in diameter. The exclusive use of a single type of wood for the pyre is particularly interesting, especially given the wide choice that was clearly available.

DISCUSSION

Associated remains in the pits, ditches and ovens inferred domestic fuel debris as the origin of the charcoal, although ironworking slag in ditch 1765 could also implicate industrial fuel. With the exception of the sample from pit 2418, domestic fuel was obtained from a range of trees and shrubs. The use of a single species (blackthorn in pit 2418) could reflect the clearance of scrub or the removal or pruning of hedges during the modification of field boundaries. Evidence for coppicing was inconclusive.

Fuel would have been gathered from the nearest convenient source, most likely managed woodland, although the regular pruning of hedges would have provided a useful source of fuel and may account for the relatively frequent occurrence of blackthorn and hawthorn in the charcoal deposits. Evidence suggests that the pyre, 1827, was constructed from poles of ash wood of no great age. Ash wood provides an excellent fuel and burns well when green (Edlin 1949).

The range of trees and shrubs identified were characteristic of deciduous oak/ash/maple woodland, and would have been typical of the lower slopes of the river valley. The selection of preferred species for firewood was indicated by the absence of species anticipated to have been common (and therefore readily available) in the valley environment. Although the charcoal was very comminuted, it is probable that by the 3rd and 4th centuries, if not earlier, domestic and industrial fuels and timber would have been taken from coppiced/pollarded woods, although some fuel was procured from hedges, prunings and scrub.

Charred plant remains *by Ruth Pelling*

Bulk samples of up to 10 litres were processed by standard flotation methods. Flots were collected on a 0.5mm mesh and residues retained on 1mm mesh. Seeds and chaff were sorted from the flots, 1mm and 2mm factions, and were identified by morphological characteristics and by comparison with modern reference material held at the University Museum, Oxford. Quantification is based on seed, nutlet, *etc.* unless otherwise stated. Nomenclature and taxonomic order follow Clapham *et al.* (1989).

MIDDLE TO LATE IRON AGE

Samples were examined from pit 1528, ditch terminal 2106 and roundhouse gully1764 (Table 9). Charred seeds and chaff were few in number. Cereal remains consisted of probably emmer wheat (*Triticum* cf. *dicoccum*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) with one possible free-threshing wheat (*Triticum* sp.) grain. Weed seeds were very rare and included a hawthorn (*Crataegus monogyna*) seed which may have derived from fire wood, docks (*Rumex* sp.) and small seeded grasses including *rye-grass* (*Lolium perenne*).

LATER ROMANO-BRITISH/UNSPECIFIED ROMANO-BRITISH

Samples from a range of features including pits and ditches were examined (Fig. 17; Table 9). Pit 1727 and ditch 203 produced modest amounts of seeds and chaff, while possible oven 2273 produced a more substantial deposit. Cereal remains included spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*) and barley with occasional emmer wheat. Most notable among the weed assemblage are legumes including vetch/tare (*Vicia/Lathyrus*) and medick/clover/trefoil (*Medicago/Trifolium/Lotus* sp.), docks and other sedges (Polygonaceae, *Carex* spp.), common spikerush (*Eleocharis palustris*) and small seeded grasses including rye-grass type.

Two features in particular produced large quantities of remains, pit 2877 and layer 2091. Cereal species represented include spelt wheat, emmer wheat, occasional possible free-threshing wheat and barley. A significant number of large seeded, possibly cultivated, legumes were recovered from pit 2877, with occasional legumes in layer 2091 and layer 1654 of pit 1653. While these could not be identified to species, lacking the hila and testa necessary for identification, it is clear they include individuals of sufficient size for Celtic bean (*Vicia faba*).

Pit 2418 produced weeds that included vetch/tare, medick/clover/trefoil, docks and grass seeds. Other species included *Raphanus raphanistrum* (wild raddish) and *Odontites verna/Euphrasia* sp. Large

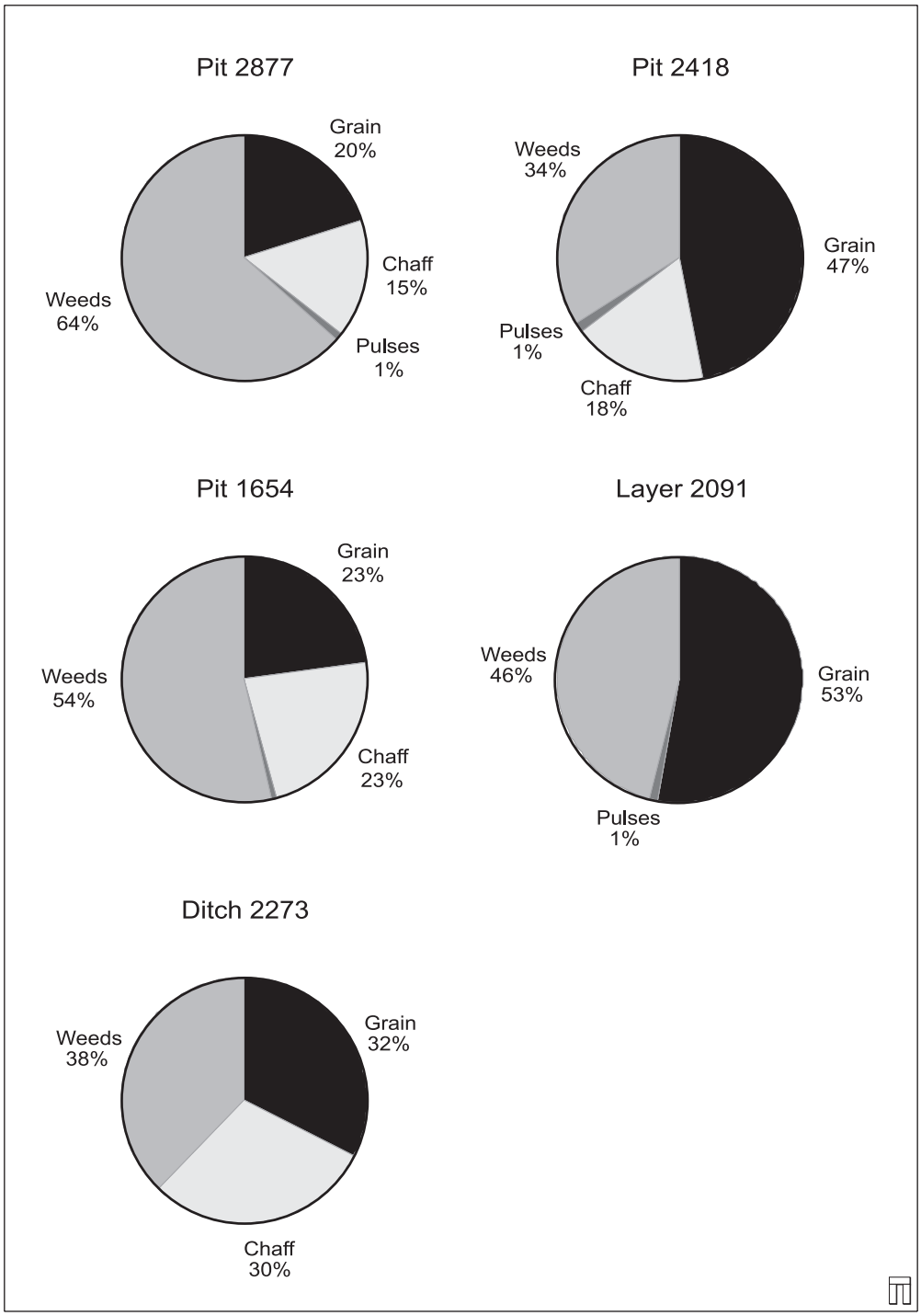

Fig. 17 Charred plant remains from selected features

numbers of weed seeds were recovered from pits 2877 and 1653 and layer 2091. Seeds of medick/clover/trefoil, docks, sedges and common spikerush and small seeded grasses were most numerous. Additional species of note included buttercup (*Ranunculus acris/reprens/bulbosus*), *Odontites verna/Euphrasia* sp., Compositae including cf. rough hawks-beard (*Crepis biennis*) and *Centaurea* sp., and large seeded grasses including brome grass (*Bromus* subsect *Eubromus*) and oats (*Avena* sp.). Grass seeds, both large and small sized, were particularly numerous in pit 2877.

Well 2431 produced both charred and waterlogged remains. The charred remains were limited but were particularly well preserved as is often the case in waterlogged deposits. Dried waterlogged seeds were dominated by ruderal species, but were not examined in detail. Some nutshell fragments of hazel (*Corylus avellana*) were noted and may have been collected. The waterlogged remains from the well are discussed by Clapham below (see p. 54).

The sample from a probable late Roman cremation deposit 1826, produced modest amounts of seeds and chaff including cereals and weeds seeds.

PLANT PARTS REPRESENTED

Seeds were most commonly recorded in the samples, including cereal grain. The chaff tends to be dominated by glume bases of both spelt and emmer wheat. This is often the case for hulled wheats which require additional stages of processing that usually take place within settlements and produce waste likely to be deposited on domestic fires (see Hillman 1981; 1984 for processing stages). Very occasional grains showed signs of having germinated and detached and sprouted embryos. The low numbers are consistent with occasional spoilt grain rather than deliberately germinated grain for malting. In addition some straw lengths, culm nodes and rhizomes were recovered particularly in pit 2877. These may have derived from any wild grass, but could include cereal remains.

WEED SEEDS

Very few primarily arable weeds are present in the samples. Wild raddish (*Raphanus raphanistrum*), fat hen (*Chenopodium album*), orache (*Atriplex* sp.), knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare*), black bindweed (*Fallopia convolvulus*), docks, goosegrass (*Galium aparine*) and red bartsia (*Odontites verna*), may all be arable weeds, although they will also occur in disturbed habitats. Wild raddish is particularly troublesome in non-calcareous soils. Goosegrass and red bartsia tend to be characteristic of heavy clay soils. Goosegrass is characteristic of autumn sown crops, but will also occur in spring sown crops. Black bindweed tends to be particularly problematic in spring-sown barley.

Grassland species are present throughout. They include evidence for wet grassland or marshy soils and include common spike rush and *Carex* spp. and possibly buttercup. The grasses themselves are particularly numerous, notably rye grass type seeds and small seeds of indeterminate species. Rye grass is a grass of waste ground, but has been planted as fodder crops in recent times (Clapham *et al.* 1989). Larger seeded grasses are also represented, such as brome grass, and wild oat (*Avena fatua*). Species of dry grassland included self heal (*Prunella vulgaris*), plantain (*Plantago media/lanceolata*) and possible hawks-beard (*Crepis* sp.). While most of these species could have occurred within arable fields, the large numbers, particularly in pit 2877, layer 2091 and pit 1653, suggests they may represent deliberately collected flora.

Occasional items cannot have derived from cultivated fields. These include hawthorn stones and elder (*Sambucus nigra*) as well as the indeterminate thorns and tree leaf buds. Such items may be derived from firewood, but equally could have come from trees, shrubs and hedges growing around the settlement.

COMPOSITION

In pits 2877 and 1653 weed seeds form over 50% of the sample and chaff and grain are present in approximately equal proportions. The chaff in pit 2877 includes many stem fragments and culm nodes, a much smaller quantity of which is also present in pit 1653. The stem and culm nodes could be derived from cereal straw, but they might also be from other grasses, particularly as the weeds in these samples contain a large number of wild grasses. It is suggested that these samples contain the remains of spikelets of hulled wheats and deliberately collected grassland flora cut low on the stem, possibly hay.

The sample from well 2341 is dominated by cereal chaff forming 78% and some weeds (19%) while grain forms only 3%. While the assemblage is quite small and the proportions may be misleading, the assemblage does appear to represent cereal processing waste. Both spelt and emmer wheat are represented, possibly a mixed crop of the two wheats,

TABLE 9: THE IRON AGE AND ROMANO-BRITISH CHARRED PLANT REMAINS

		Sample no.	31	146	169	125	117	214	154	166	3	70	112	141	78	99	2	158
Cereal grain																		
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Triticum cf. *spelta*	cf. Spelt wheat, germinated grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Triticum cf. *spelta*	cf. Spelt wheat grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum dicoccum	Emmer wheat grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum cf. *dicoccum*	cf Emmer wheat grain		-	2	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelta/Emmer wheat grain		-	-	-	1	1	-	2	8	2	-	2	2	-	-	-	3
Triticum sp.	Wheat, cf. free-threshing grain		-	1	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp.	Wheat grain		-	-	1	7	21	1	15	123	22	3	57	13	-	1	4	25
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, hulled straight grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, hulled grain		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain		-	1	4	-	4	-	-	10	-	-	3	-	12	-	2	-
Cerealia indet	Indeterminate grain		-	6	17	15	38	2	23	178	30	2	155	31	4	1	6	49
	Total Grain		*0*	*10*	*22*	*23*	*64*	*3*	*42*	*335*	*54*	*5*	*217*	*46*	*24*	*4*	*12*	*78*
Cereal chaff																		
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat glume base		-	-	-	-	8	15	1	35	2	-	-	9	-	-	-	19
Triticum cf. *spelta*	cf. Spelt wheat glume base		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat rachis		-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp. hexaploid	hexaploid wheat rachis internode		-	-	-	-	-	3	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Triticum dicoccum	Emmer wheat glume base		-	-	-	-	5	3	-	12	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2
Triticum cf. *dicoccum*	cf. Emmer wheat glume base		-	2	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	3
Triticum spelta/dicoccum	Spelt/Emmer wheat glume base		-	8	2	-	10	8	1	110	-	2	1	31	-	-	3	46
Triticum spelta	Spelta wheat, basal rachis		-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp.	Wheat, rachis node		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Triticum sp.	Wheat, rachis internode fragment		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Triticum sp.	Wheat, awn fragment		-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hordeum vulgare	Barley, six-row dense eared rachis		-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cereal size	Culm node		-	-	-	-	-	2	-	14	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Cereal size	Straw fragment		-	-	-	-	1	-	-	70	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
Cerealia indet	Detached embryo		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cerealia indet	Sprouted embryo		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
			0	*10*	*2*	*0*	*24*	*36*	*2*	*258*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*47*	*0*	*0*	*3*	*72*
Pulses																		
Vicia/Pisum sp.	Vetch/Bean/Pea		-	1	-	-	2	-	-	17	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-
Weeds																		
Raphanus raphanistrum	Wild Raddish		-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ranunculus acris/repens/bulbosus	Buttercup		-	-	-	1	-	1	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Chenopodium album	Fat hen		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Atriplex sp.	Orache		-	-	-	2	1	1	1	3	2	-	1	2	-	1	-	6
Chenopodiaeae			-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	Vetch/Vetchling/Tare		-	-	-	19	1	2	15	11	2	1	51	5	-	1	5	7
Medicago/Trifolium/Lotus sp.	Medick/Clover/Trefoil		-	-	-	-	6	6	5	235	-	1	71	12	-	2	1	18
Crataegus monogyna	Hawthorn		1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Umbelliferae			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Polygonum aviculare	Knotgrass		-	-	-	1	1	-	-	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed		-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rumex sp.	Docks		1	-	-	1	10	2	6	59	2	-	34	9	-	-	1	11
Polygonaceae			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	1
Anagalis type	Pimpernel		-	-	-	-	-	1	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Odontites verna/Euphrasia sp.	Red Barstua/Eyebright		-	-	-	-	1	-	3	6	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	2
Labiateae			1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Prunella vulgaris	Selfheal		-	-	-		-	-	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
Plantago media/lanceolata	Plantain		-	-	-	-	1	-	2	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Galium aparine	Goosegrass		-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	7	1	-	-	2	-
Sambucus nigra	Elder		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Centaurea sp.	Knapweed/Cornflower		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cf. *Crepis* sp.	Haawks-beard		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Compositae	Small seeded composite		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eleocharis palustris	Common Spikerush		-	-	-	4	4	1	3	26	3	1	3	20	-	-	-	2
Carex spp.	Sedges		-	-	-	2	-	-	-	25	-	-	-	2	-	-	2	2
Lolium perenne type	Rye-grass		-	1	-	-	11	1	-	164	-	1	-	18	-	-	-	17
Bromus sterilis	Barren Brome		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Bromus subsect *Eubromus*	Brome grass		-	-	-	-	-	1	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Avena fatua	Wild Oat floret base		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
Avena sp.	Oats		-	-	-	-	-	-	1	22	-	-	-	9	-	-	-	-
Setaria type	Bristle grass		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Gramineae	Grass, small seeded		-	1	-	-	2	-	10	390	-	-	1	9	-	-	-	10
Gramineae	Grass, large seeded		-	-	-	-	1	-	-	17	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-
Indet	Indeterminate seed		-	2	-	1	5	-	-	44	1	1	10	12	-	3	-	11
Indet	Indeterminate seed capsule		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indet	Indeterminate thorn		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indet	Indeterminate tree bud		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indet	Indeterminate rhyizome/tuber		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
	Total		*3*	*15*	*24*	*57*	*112*	*21*	*89*	*141*	*68*	*10*	*409*	*157*	*24*	*12*	*23*	*169*
Waterlogged remains																		
Ruderal seeds								++										
Corylus avellana	Hazel nut-shell							+										
Amphibian bones								++										

or a crop of spelt in which emmer persists as a weed. The processing waste represented is likely to be that derived from the third, or fine sievings (Hillmans stage 12, 1981; 1984) at which the prime grain is separated from the smaller weeds and chaff.

Charred remains were also noted in the single waterlogged sample from the late Romano-British well. Alan Clapham reported (see p. 54) that spelt wheat, a single articulated rachis internode of bread wheat and a single glume base of emmer wheat were identified. The few wild taxa identified were black-bindweed, and the vetch/tare, probably representative of the crop weeds. Medick (*Medicago* sp.), clover (*Trifolium* sp.), selfheal (*Prunella vulgaris*), fescue (*Festuca* sp.) and rye-grass (*Lolium* sp.) may be associated with field edges or found as cornfield weeds.

DISCUSSION

The evidence for agricultural activity in the Iron Age period of the site at Yeovilton is slight. Emmer and free-threshing wheat may have been cultivated alongside spelt and barley. Spelt was the major cereal cultivated form the late Iron Age and Roman period onwards with some emmer and hulled barley. It is not until the late Romano-British period (3rd/4th centuries AD) that the evidence suggests large scale cereal production and processing. Pulses also seem to have been cultivated by this period, possibly as a garden crop.

Both emmer wheat and free-threshing wheat were recorded locally from Roman Ilchester (Murphy 1982) and Fosse Lane, Shepton Mallet (Straker 2001). Spelt wheat dominated the assemblages at both these sites and also at Catsgore near Somerton (Hillman 1982) as well as at Yeovilton. This occurrence pattern is typical of southern Britain at this time (Greig 1991). Emmer may be present as a persistent weed of the spelt. In the Roman period it does seem to have been cultivated as a crop in its own right in several areas of southern Britain, including Oxford (Pelling 2000) and Kent (Pelling unpubl). There is limited evidence of the soil types cultivated beyond the presence of heavy soils, and an indication of both spring and autumn-sown crops.

Few other cultivated crops are evident from Yeovilton, with the exception of occasional legumes; eg Celtic bean (*Vicia faba*) and pea (*Pisum sativum*), which are known to have been widely cultivated by the Late Iron Age and Roman periods.

There is evidence of cereal processing activities, although apparently not on a significant scale until the expansion of occupation during the 3rd/4th centuries. The remains at Yeovilton appear to be scattered in several refuse pits or ditches, suggesting that the cereal processing was on a piecemeal scale rather than large processing in restricted areas. The majority of assemblages represent secondary deposits discarded as waste in the features.

Only one sample can be regarded as characteristic of cereal processing waste (from well 2431) in which cereal chaff and weeds dominate. Most samples contain a mixture suggesting that the deposits became mixed on the fires or at the point of deposition. Pit 2877 and possibly 1653 may contain deposits of hay, which seem to have been discarded as burnt waste in pits. Three samples may represent in situ deposits on archaeological grounds, one from a hearth, one from a pyre deposit and one from a layer. Those from the hearth and pyre are likely to be no more than fuel or kindling. Material from layer 2091 could represent accidentally burnt stored product with associated weeds.

Two local sites seem to have also been involved in cereal processing or production, Ilchester (Murphy 1982) and Catsgore (Hillman 1982). Both sites produced the same range of species as Yeovilton. The charred botanical evidence is consistent with Romano-British settlement sites across southern Britain. Spelt wheat appears to have formed the basis of the cereal economy while barley, emmer wheat and free-threshing wheat may have been present as secondary crops. The later stages of cereal processing, and probably also local cereal production took place within the settlement. There appears to have been an expansion in production in the late Roman period associated with the expansion of occupation at this time.

TABLE 9

Key to sample nos

31=ditch 2106; 146=gully 1764; 169=pit 1528; 125=pit 1727; 117=pit 2418; 214=well 2432; 154=ditch1765; 166=pit 2877; 3=hollow 107; 70=ditch 1616; 112=layer 2091; 141=pit 1653; 78=hearth 2131; 99=pyre 1826; 2=ditch 203; 158=ditch 2273

Waterlogged plant remains *by Alan Clapham*

A single waterlogged sample from the basal deposit (2585) of late Romano-British well 2432 was analysed for plant remains. The results are summarised below. The unsorted flot and residue was sieved through a series of granulometric sieves and the waterlogged and charred plant remains were extracted under a low-power stereomicroscope. The nomenclature of wild plants accords with Stace (1997).

A total of 77 waterlogged plant taxa, including both cultivated and wild species (Tables 10 and 11) and 13 charred plant taxa (archive) were recovered from the sample. The crop species recovered, in both waterlogged and charred form, were mainly of cereals and in the majority of cases consisted of chaff remains – glume bases, spikelet forks and rachis internodes, although a single grain of spelt wheat was also identified. The sample was dominated by wild plant taxa representing a variety of habitats.

Fewer crop remains were waterlogged than charred. The waterlogged remains (Table 10) mainly consisted of chaff fragments of spelt wheat (glume bases) and indeterminate wheat (glume bases and spikelet forks). The culm nodes recovered may represent the remains of straw. The wild plants (Table 11) were the most common remains in the sample and represent a variety of habitats. In general, there are two main divisions, those species which can be considered weeds, and those that represent wetland/aquatic habitats.

WEED TAXA

These include arable/cornfield weeds, ruderals, ie wayside plants, and grassland species which can sometimes be found in arable situations. The arable weeds were the most common category.

ARABLE/CORNFIELD WEEDS

Species of arable and cornfields may also occupy waysides and other waste places, which are either open or constantly disturbed. The commonest species were the nettles (common nettle (*Urtica dioica*) and small nettle (*Urtica urens*)) and red bartsia (*Odontites vernus*). Other common weeds are chickweed (*Stellaria media*), knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare*), docks (*Rumex* sp.), hedge parsley (*Sisymbrium officinale*), and shepherd's purse (*Capsella bursa-pastoris*). These probably represent

TABLE 10: WATERLOGGED PLANT REMAINS – CROPS FROM BASAL FILL (2585) OF LATE ROMANO-BRITISH WELL 2432 (1LTR SAMPLE)

	Common Name	*Score*	*Habitats*
Triticum dicoccum glume bases	Emmer wheat	1	crop
Triticum spelta grain	Spelt wheat	1	crop
Triticum spelta glume bases	Spelt wheat	7+6f	
Triticum spelta rachis fragments		6	
Triticum aestivum rachis fragment- articulated	Bread wheat	1	crop
Triticum sp. spikelet forks	Wheat	1	crop
Triticum sp. glume bases	Wheat	2	crop
Avena sp. grain	Oats	1	crop/weed
Cerealia indet		4f	
Embryo		1	
Culm nodes	straw/hay	2	crop/wild
Culm internodes	straw/hay	30f	crop/wild
Culm bases	straw/hay	1	crop/wild
Awn fragments		4	
Fallopia convolvulus	Black-bindweed	1f	waste and arable ground
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	Vetch/Tare	2	waste, arable and other open ground
Medicago sp.	Medick	2	grassy places, rough ground
Trifolium sp.	Clover	1	grassy palces, rough ground
Prunella vulgaris	Selfheal	1	grassland, wood clearings, rough ground
Festuca sp.	Fescue	1	grassy places
Lolium sp.	Rye-grass	1	grassy places, waste and rough ground
Small Poaceae	Grasses	1	all sorts of habitats
Charcoal		43f	

the remains of crop processing which have been dumped into the well although some may have been growing around the edge.

Species which can be considered as obligate cornfield weeds include prickly poppy (*Papaver argemone*), black-bindweed (*Fallopia convolvulus*), shepherd's needle (*Scandex pecten-veneris*), spreading hedge-parsley (*Torilis arvensis*), corn marigold (*Chrysanthemum segetum*) and scentless mayweed (*Tripleurospermum inodorum*).

RUDERALS (WAYSIDE PLANTS)

These species can be found growing in several different habitats. The commonest taxa represented were greater plantain (*Plantago major*) and swine-cress (*Coronopus squamatus*). Damp ditches and similar habitats may be represented by the cinquefoils (*Potentilla* sp.) and hemlock (*Conium maculatum*). Nutrient-rich areas such as manure heaps may have included henbane (*Hyoscyamus niger*), elder (*Sambucus nigra)* and the common nettle. Field edges, grasslands and woodland clearings are common places to find common ragwort (*Senecio jacobea)* and greater burdock (*Arctium lappa*),

GRASSLANDS

The commonest taxa were grasses (Poaceae indet), black medick (*Medicago lupulina*), clover (*Trifolium* sp.) and selfheal (*Prunella vulgaris*). Black medick was represented by the remains of pod fragments and clover by the remains of flowers. This may suggest that these remains, including the large numbers of small grass seeds, represent hay. The fact that the nutlets of selfheal looked as though they had been partially digested suggests that the hay was fodder and had been eaten.

WETLAND/AQUATIC

The taxa which can be considered as aquatics include water-crowfoot (*Ranunculus* subgenus *Batrachium*), tasteless water-pepper (*Persicaria mitis*), fool's-water-cress (*Apium nodiflorum*), mare's tail (*Hippuris vulgaris*), and fen pondweed (*Potamogeton coloratus*).

Common meadow-rue (*Thalictrum flavum*) and wild angelica (*Angelica sylvestris*) are often found in fenland environments. Their occurrence in a sample may indicate the presence of a waterbody or pond. The water-plantains (*Balldellia ranunculoides* and *Alisma plantago-aquatica*), common spike-rush (*Eleocharis palustris*), reedmace (*Typha latifolia/angustifolia*) and yellow iris (*Iris pseudoacorus*) are often found in ponds or slow moving rivers.

Depth of water in the well may be indicated by fen pondweed, a species which thrives in shallow, calcareous water, usually less than 1m deep. It grows in pools, runnels and damp moss carpets in calcareous fens, in drainage ditches, at the margins of lakes, in ponds and streams (Preston 1995). The presence of large numbers of moss fragments, which also includes capsules and capsule teeth, may suggest that it was growing on the sides of the well. As the well was 2.6m deep, most of the remains represent dumping of material gathered from elsewhere.

WOODLAND

The presence of woodland or scrubland in the vicinity of the well may be represented by the presence of bracken remains (*Pteridium aquilinum*), bramble (*Rubus* Sect 2 *Glandulosus*) and ground ivy (*Glechoma hederacea*).

DISCUSSION

The plant assemblage preserved within this well appears to come from several sources. The presence of the cereal chaff and the cornfield weeds suggests that crop processing waste was dumped into the well. The other species, which are considered to be of a more ruderal origin, could have been growing in the vicinity of the well, and some may have been introduced by bird droppings. The presence of the wetland/aquatic species along with the grassland species suggests that a damper environment may have been exploited by the cutting of hay. The other possibility for the introduction of the aquatic/wetland species may have been by the dumping of manure or soiled stabling from animals feeding close to water bodies such as the field ditches on the site. The plant assemblage recovered from here appears to be remarkably similar to the species recorded from six wells in the English Midlands recorded by Greig (Greig 1988).

Insect remains *by Mark Robinson*

A single sample of sediment from the base of well 2432 was analysed for insect remains. The insects

TABLE 11: WATERLOGGED PLANT REMAINS – WILD PLANTS FROM BASAL FILL (2585) OF WELL 2432 (1LTR SAMPLE)

	Common name	*Score*	*Habitats*
Musci	Mosses	v common	
Pteridium aquilinum rachis	Bracken	1f	woods,heaths,moors
Ranunculus a/r/b	Buttercups	4+5f	grassland, arable
Ranunculus parviflorus	Small-flowered Buttercup	1	open ground
Ranunculus subgenus *Batrachium*	Water-crowfoots	1	aquatic
Thalictrum flavum	Common Meadow-rue	2	fens, streamsides and wet meadows
Papaver argemone	Prickly Poppy	1	arable and waste places on light soils
Fumaria officinalis	Common Fumitory	1f	cultivated and waste ground
Urtica dioica	Common Nettle	101	woodlands, fens, cultivated ground especially where animals defeacate
Urtica urens	Small Nettle	30	cultivated and waste ground
Chenopodium hybridum	Maple-leaved Goosefoot	5	waste and arable ground
Atriplex patula	Common Orache	12+4f	disturbed and waste ground
Stellaria media	Common Chickweed	28+5f	ubiquitous weed of cultivation and waste ground
Cerastium cf *fontanum*	Common Mouse-ear	10	grassland, open, waste and cultivated ground
Persicaria mitis	Tasteless Water-pepper	1	damp places and shallow water
Polygonum aviculare	Knotgrass	23+9f	all sorts of open ground
Fallopia convolvulus	Black-bindweed	1	waste and arable ground
Rumex crispus	Curled Dock	1	waste, rough cultivated and marshy ground
Rumex conglomeratus	Clustered Dock	22+5 tepals	damp places, grassy or bare ground by ponds and rivers
Rumex sp.	Docks	20+3f	waste, rough cultivated and marshy ground
Rumex sp. tepals		5	
Rumex sp. tubercles		1	
Rumex sp. fruit attachments/stems		3	
Malva sp.	Mallows	1	waste and rough ground
Salix sp.	Willows	1	wet ground
Sisymbrium officinale	Hedge Mustard	17	waste places, rough and cultivated ground, hedges and roadsides
Capsella bursa-pastoris	Shepherd's-purse	20	cultivated and other open ground
Thlaspi arvense	Field Penny-cress	2+2f	weed of waste and arable ground
Coronopus squamatus fruit	Swine-cress	11+12valves	waste ground
Coronopus squamatus		4+5f	
Brassica nigra	Black Mustard	7+4f	sea-cliffs, river banks, rough ground and waste places
Brassicaceae stems/attachments		2	
Sinapis arvensis capsule	Charlock	1	arable and waste ground
Sinapis arvensis		1	
Anagallis arvensis	Scarlet Pimpernell	1	arable, waste land and open ground
Filipendula ulmaria	Meadowsweet	4	all sorts of wet and damp places
Rubus Sect 2 *Glandulosus*	Bramble	1+1f	all sorts of habitats
Potentilla sp.	Cinquefoils	4	grassy and waste ground
Rosaceae prickle		5	
Medicago lupulina pods	Black Medick	18	grassy places and rough ground
cf Trifolium sp.petals	Clovers	28f	grassy places and rough ground
cf Trifolium sp. calices		10	
cf Trifolium sp. anthers		12	
Euphorbia peplus	Petty Spurge	1	cultivated and waste ground
Linum catharticum	Fairy Flax	7	dry calcareous or sandy soils
Linum catharticum capsule fragments		1	
Anthriscus sylvestris	Cow Parsley	2	grassy places, hedgerows, and wood margins
Scandex pecten-veneris	Shepherd's Needle	1f	weed of arable land and waste places
Aethusa cynapium	Fool's Parsley	2	cultivated and waste ground
Conium maculatum	Hemlock	2+2f	damp ground, roadsides, ditches, waste ground
Apium nodiflorum	Fool's-water-cress	4	ditches, marshes by lakes and rivers
Angelica sylvestris	Wild Angelica	2	damp grassy places, fens, marshes, by streams, ditches, and ponds, in damp open wood
Torilis arvensis	Spreading Hedge-parsley	1	weed of arable land
Hyoscyamus niger	Henbane	2+1f	rough and waste ground, especially manured by rabbits and cattle
Solanum nigrum	Black Nightshade	3+1f	waste and cultivated ground
Stachys palustris	Marsh Woundwort	2	damp places, by rivers and ponds on rough ground
Lamium sp.	Dead-nettles	6	cultivated and waste ground
Glechoma hederacea	Ground Ivy	2	woods, hedgerows, rough ground often on heavy soils
Prunella vulgaris	Selfheal	22+2f	grassland, wood clearings, rough ground
Hippuris vulgaris	Mare's-tail	2	in ponds and slow flowing rivers
Plantago major	Greater Plantain	21	open and rough ground, either cultivated or grassy
Scrophularia auriculata	Water figwort	1	damp, open and shady placesand in hedgerows
Veronica cf officinalis	Heath Speedwell	4	banks, open woods, grassland and heathland on well-drained soils
Odontites vernus	Red Bartsia	40	grassy places, arable and waste ground
Sambucus nigra	Elder	1	hedges, woods,waste and rough ground especially on manured soils
Arctium lappa	Greater Burdock	1	waysides,field-borders, wood clearings, waste places
Cirsium palustre	Marsh Thistle	1	marshes, damp grassland, open woods, ditchsides
Cirsium arvense	Creeping Thistle	1+1 pappus	grassland, arable, hedgerows, waste and rough ground
Cirsium sp.	Thistles	1	all sorts of habitats
Leontodon sp.	Hawkbit	11f	grassy places
Sonchus oleraceus	Smooth Sow-thistle	2	waste and cultivated ground
Sonchus asper	prickly Sow-thistle	6	waste and cultivated ground
Chrysanthemum segetum ray achene	Corn Marigold	1	arable fields, waste places and waysides
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed	1	waste, rough and cultivated land
Senecio jacobea	Common Ragwort	7	grassland, waysides, waste ground
Senecio vulgaris	Groundsel	4	open and rough ground
Asteraceae indet		1f	
Baldellia ranunculoides	Lesser Water-plantain	83	wet places or shallow water, in ditches, stramsides and pondsides
Alisma plantago-aquatica	Water-plantain	14	in or by ponds, ditches and slow rivers
Alisma sp. embryos		13	
Potamogeton coloratus	Fen Pondweed	2	ponds and pools on base-rich peat
Juncus sp.	Rushes	1	all sorts of damp and wet places
Eleocharis palustris	Common Spike-rush	6	in or by ponds, marshes, ditches, riversides
Carex sp.	Sedges	2	all sorts of damp and wet places
Carex sp. utricle		1	
Lolium perenne rachis fragment	Perennial Rye-grass	1	grassy places, waste and rough ground
Danthonia decumbens	Heath-grass	1	sandy or peaty often damp soils, heaths, moors and mountains
Small Poaceae indet.	Grasses	100+	all sorts of habitats
Typha latifolia/angustifolia	Reedmace/Bulrush	1	reed-swamps, lakes, ponds slow rivers, ditches
Iris pseudoacorus	Yellow Iris	1f	wet meadows, fens and ditches, by lakes and rivers
Leaf fragments		6	
Bone mostly fish		common	

were extracted by paraffin flotation onto a 0.2mm sieve. The flot was then washed and sorted for insect fragments using a binocular microscope. The insect remains were identified and are listed in Tables 12–13**,** nomenclature for Coleoptera following Kloet and Hincks (1977).

A small number of aquatic insects were identified in the sample. These included the larval head capsuals of midges (Chironomidae) and the remains of the small water beetles *Helophorus* cf. *brevipalpis* and *Ochthebius bicolon,* which probably inhabited the well. Other insects, such as the synanthropic species and the Lathridiidae, were perhaps amongst plant refuse which had been dumped in the well. The remaining insects probably flew in or fell in from the surrounding landscape. The relatively high proportion of larger Carabidae (ground beetles) such as *Pterostichus melanarius* and Staphylinidae (rove beetles) including *Staphylinus olens* suggested that the well was exerting a strong pitfall trapping effect.

The majority of the insects analysed were outdoor species from a very open landscape. There was only a single wood or tree-dependent beetle of Species Group 4, the leaf beetle *Chalcoides* sp., which feeds on willow and poplar. Species of ground beetles *Agonum dorsale* and *Harpalus rufipes* (Species Group 6a) were well represented.

The majority of the Carabidae species occur in well-drained habitats, although a few such as *Bembidion*, *Pterostichus* and *Chlaenius nigricornis* occur on damp or marshy ground and probably lived in a splash zone around the well. One species of Carabidae, *Zabrus tenebrioides*, identified in the analysis is of particular interest. It is a pest of cultivated fields and meadows and it is now very rare in Britain.

Several species of beetles, which feed on Malvaceae (mallows), and vetches or clovers, as well as grass-feeding bugs such as *Aphrodes bicinctus* and *A. fuscofasciatus* were also present in the sample. A small quantity of nettle-feeding insects such as *Heterogaster urticae* and a single specimen of the weevil *Cidnorhinus quadrimaculatus* suggest that *Urtica dioica* (stinging nettle) were present although probably not very abundant.

There is very little evidence for insect species which feed on the roots of grassland plants (Group 11) and those that feed on or live in dung and foul organic material (Groups 2 and 7), which suggests that domestic animals were not grazed in the vicinity of the well. There was however, a strong presence of beetles, which are characteristic of old damp hay, straw, thatch and other plant material, often with white moulds. These included the Lathridiidae of Species Group 8 (*Lathridius minutus* gp., *Corticaria punctulata* and Corticariinae). *Tipnus unicolor* and *Ptinus fur*, which feed on a wide range of partly dried plant or animal matter were quite well represented. These beetles most usually occur inside buildings in Britain and belong to the general synanthropic beetles of Species Group 9a. Other beetles likely to have occurred amongst organic material from a building included *Xylodromus concinnus* and some of the species of *Atomaria*. There was a single example of *Sitophilus granarius* (grain weevil) from the deposit, the only serious pest of stored grain (Species Group 9b) that was found.

The insect remains strongly suggested that the remnants of an old haystack or a pile of old thatch had been dumped in the well. Although a grain beetle was present, rather more would have been expected if the debris had been from an infested granary. Muscid fly puparia would have been expected if the debris had been from a stable. *Anobium punctatum* (woodworm beetle), although not particularly abundant, is known to readily infest structural timbers and is much less frequently found in naturally-occurring dead wood. A single worker of *Apis mellifera* (honey bee) was identified in the sample.

The results suggest that the well was situated amidst disturbed ground with bare weedy patches. An agricultural building was probably located nearby but there was evidence neither that the building was used to house domestic animals nor that domestic animals were grazed nearby. However, plant debris such as old hay was present. It is possible that there were arable fields close to the site but any evidence for them would have been obscured by the evidence from the weedy ground of the settlement itself.

The record of the grain weevil *Sitophilus granarius* is of interest. It is a Roman introduction to Britain, which was spread by the Roman army and had reached the West of England before the end of the 1st century AD (Robinson 1999). It tends to be restricted to military and urban sites, although it has been found in Somerset from the Romano-British village at Catsgore (Girling 1984).

The occurrence of a honeybee raises the possibility that bees were kept in the vicinity of the site. There is emerging evidence from rural Roman settlements for the presence of honey bees. Beekeeping was probably widespread in at least the southern half of Roman Britain.

TABLE 12: COLEOPTERA FROM BASAL FILL (2585) OF WELL 2432 (5LTR SAMPLE)

	Min. No. Indiv	*Species Group*
Leistus fulvibarbis Dej.	1	
L. spinibarbis (F.)	1	
Nebria brevicollis (F.)	3	
Notiophilus sp.	1	
Loricera pilicornis (F.)	1	
Clivina collaris (Hbst.) or *fossor* (L.)	2	
Trechus obtusus Er. or *quadristriatus* (Schr.)	11	
T. micros (Hbst.)	1	
Bembidion properans Step.	2	
B. obtusum Serv.	1	
B. biguttatum (F.)	3	
B. guttula (F.)	3	
Pterostichus cf. *anthracinus* (Pz.)	1	
P. diligens (Sturm)	1	
P. gracilis (Dej.)	1	
P. melanarius (Ill.)	6	
Calathus fuscipes (Gz.)	4	
C. melanocephalus (L.)	1	
Olisthopus rotundatus (Pk.)	1	
Agonum dorsale (Pont.)	2	6a
Amara apricaria (Pk.)	1	6b
A. aulica (Pz.)	1	
Amara spp.	8	
Zabrus tenebrioides (Gz.)	1	
Harpalus rufipes (Deg.)	6	6a
Harpalus S. *Ophonus* sp.	1	
Harpalus affinis (Schr.)	2	
Acupalpus cf. *consputus* (Duft.)	1	
Chlaenius nigricornis (F.)	1	
Dromius linearis (Ol.)	2	
Metabletus obscuroguttatus (Duft.)	1	
Hydroporus sp.	1	1
Helophorus grandis Ill.	3	1
H. nubilus F.	2	
Helophorus sp. (*brevipalpis* size)	5	1
Sphaeridium bipustulatum F.	1	
Cercyon haemorrhoidalis (F.)	4	7
C. quisquilius (L.)	1	7
Megasternum obscurum (Marsh.)	2	7
Cryptopleurum crenatum (Kug.)	1	7
Hydrobius fuscipes (L.)	1	1
Ochthebius bicolon Germ.	1	1
O. cf. *bicolon* Germ.	5	1
Hydraena testacea Curt.	2	
Choleva or *Catops* sp.	3	
Metopsia retusa (Step.)	1	
Lesteva longoelytrata (Gz.)	3	
Omalium sp.	2	
Xylodromus concinnus (Marsh.)	2	
Platystethus arenarius (Fouc.)	2	7
P. cornutus gp.	2	
P. nodifrons (Man.)	3	
Anotylus nitidulus (Grav.)	2	
A. rugosus (F.)	1	7
A. sculpturatus gp.	6	7
Stenus sp.	1	
Lathrobium longulum Grav.	1	
Lathrobium sp. (not *longulum*)	1	
Gyrohypnus fracticornis (Müll.) or *punctulatus* (Pk.)	2	
Xantholinus glabratus (Grav.)	3	
X. jarrigei (Coif.)	1	
X. linearis (Ol.)	8	
X. linearis (Ol.) or *longiventris* Heer	2	
Philonthus spp.	3	
Gabrius sp.	2	
Staphylinus ater Grav.	1	
S. aeneocephalus Deg. or *fortunatarum* (Wol.)	1	
S. globulifer Fouc.	1	
S. olens Müll.	1	
Tachyporus spp.	2	
Tachinus sp.	3	
Aleocharinae indet.	14	
Geotrupes sp.	1	2
Aphodius granarius (L.)	3	2
A. prodromus (Brahm)	1	2
A. rufipes (L.)	1	2
Oxyomus sylvestris (Scop.)	3	
cf. *Cyphon* sp.	1	
Byrrhus sp.	1	
Athous hirtus (Hbst.)	1	11
Agriotes lineatus (L.)	1	11
A. obscurus (L.)	1	11
Adrastus pallens (F.)	1	
Anobium punctatum (Deg.)	3	10
Tipnus unicolor (P. & M.)	10	9a
Ptinus fur (L.)	5	9a
Meligethes sp.	2	
Omosita discoidea (F.)	1	
Cryptophagidae indet. (not *Atomaria*)	6	
Atomaria sp.	16	
Coccidula rufa (Hbst.)	1	
Coccinella septempunctata L.	1	
Lathridius minutus gp.	22	8
Corticaria punctulata Marsh.	4	8
Corticariinae indet.	5	8
Anthicus antherinus (L.)	2	
Typhaea stercorea (L.)	2	9a
Prasocuris phellandrii (L.)	1	5
Phyllotreta atra (F.)	5	
P. nigripes (F.)	15	
P. nemorum (L.) or *undulata* Kuts.	2	
Longitarsus spp.	6	
Chalcoides spp.	1	4
Epitrix pubescens (Koch)	1	
Podagrica fuscicornis (L.)	1	
Chaetocnema concinna (Marsh.)	2	
Psylliodes sp.	3	
Apion rufirostre (F.)	3	
A. aeneum (F.)	1	
A. radiolus (Marsh.)	1	
Apion spp. (not above)	7	3
Barypeithes araneiformis (Schr.)	1	
Sitona cf. *hispidulus* (F.)	2	3
S. cf. *lineatus* (L.)	1	3
S. puncticollis Step.	1	3
Hypera sp. (not *punctata*)	1	
Sitophilus granarius (L.)	1	9b
Orthochaetes setiger (Beck)	1	
Cidnorhinus quadrimaculatus (L.)	1	
Ceutorhynchus erysimi (F.)	2	
Ceuthorhynchinae indet.	2	
Total	332	

TABLE 13: OTHER INSECTS FROM BASAL FILL (2585) OF WELL 2432 (5LTR SAMPLE)

	Min. No. Indiv	*Species Group*
Labia minor (L.)	1	
Forficula auricularia L.	8	
Sehirus bicolor (L.)	1	
Heterogaster urticae (F.)	2	
Scolopostethus sp.	1	
Saldula S. *Saldula* sp.	1	
Philaenus or *Neophilaenus* sp.	1	
Aphrodes bicinctus (Schr.)	2	
A. fuscofasciatus (Gz.)	2	
Aphrodes sp.	1	
Myrmica rubra (L.) or *ruginodis* Nyl.	- worker	1
Lasius fuliginosus (Lat.)	- worker	2
L. niger gp.	- worker	3
Lasius sp.	- male	1
Apis mellifera L.	- worker	1
Hymenoptera indet. (not Formicidae)	12	
Chironomidae indet.	- larva	+
Diptera indet.	- adult	7
	+ present	

Molluscan remains *by Michael J. Allen*

Shells were generally not well preserved across the site. Two sequences were sampled from ditches specifically for the recovery of land snails and only one (ditch 1918) contained significant numbers of shells. These samples were processed following standard methods (Evans 1972). However, several bulk samples processed specifically for the recovery of charred plant and charcoal remains were noted to contain shells and five of these were selected and fully extracted. The samples, however, did not contain the fine fraction (>0.5mm) residue, and thus there is some inherent bias in these assemblages; probably an under-representation of the smaller and less robust shells. Nevertheless, as the aim is to examine the general environment, especially in relation to flooding, these assemblages are adequate.

The sequence of four contiguous samples from the stone-free basal silty clays in Middle to Late Bronze Age ditch 2457 (section 1918) indicate that open country conditions prevailed (Table 14). The lack of shade-loving and xerophilous species (cf. Evans 1984) tends to indicate open grassland that has not been intensively grazed or trampled. The presence of *Vallonia pulchella* and *Oxyloma pfeifferi* suggest damp grassland or pasture. Significant in these assemblages is the presence of aquatic and amphibious species. Although the most common species in this group is *Anisus leucostoma,* which is amphibious (Robinson 1988) and can often be found on floodplains subject to winter flooding, other species, especially the *Pisiduim* spp., are truly aquatic. As such, they indicate either exploitation of local riverine resources (reeds, alluvial mud, water), or are the result of flooding. The consistent presence of these and the high quantities of *A. leucostoma* might indicate that the ditch contained water (rain and floodwater) in the winter and was subject to drying-out in the summer months. Numbers are too low to detect any significant change in this short (0.23m) sequence, except that aquatic species become dominant at the top of this short sequence indicating the establishment of temporary standing water in the ditch.

Samples from Iron Age to Romano-British contexts produced similar assemblages with damp grassland indicated by the prevalence of the terrestrial species *Vallonia pulchella* over other *Vallonia* species (Table 14). Aquatic species are present in all three samples, especially the slum species *Lymnaea truncatula*. This is a slum and amphibious species as well as being the host of the liverfluke that preys on sheep. The assemblages here tend to suggest continued moist grassland, but less prevalence of local standing water.

The late Romano-British samples show distinct changes in the local environment (Table 14). A contradiction is apparent within the terrestrial assemblages. Although none of the slum *Oxyloma/ Succinea* species are present and the moist-loving

TABLE 14: MOLLUSC DATA

	Column								
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**
LAND									
Carychium minimum Müller	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Carychium tridentatum (Risso)	1	-	2	1	-	1	1	-	-
Oxyloma cf. *pfeifferi* (Rossmässler)	2	-	1	3	-	2	-	-	-
Oxyloma/Succinea spp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Cochlicopa lubrica (Müller)	-	1	-	-	1	3	3	-	-
Cochlicopa spp.	-	-	4	-	3	1	6	-	-
Vertigo antivertigo (Draparnaud)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4
Vertigo pygmaea (Draparnaud)	-	-	3	1	4	3	-	2	18
Vertigo moulinsiana (Dupuy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3
Vertigo spp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Pupilla muscorum (Linnaeus)	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	2	1
Vallonia costata (Müller)	-	-	-	4	-	8	2	-	1
Vallonia pulchella (Müller)	-	-	5	3	-	31	2	-	4
Vallonia cf. *pulchella* (Müller)	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vallonia pulchella/excentrica	-	-	-	-	11	29	30	-	-
Vallonia excentrica Sterki	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	7	13
Vallonia spp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Punctum pygmaeum (Draparnaud)	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	-	-
Discus rotundatus (Müller)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vitrina pellucida (Müller)	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vitrea crystallina (Müller)	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vitrea contracta (Westerlund)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	3
Nesovitrea hammonis (Ström)	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Aegopinella nitidula (Draparnaud)	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
Oxychilus cellarius (Müller)	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	2
Limacidae	6	6	1	17	2	7	3	11	2
Ceciloides acicula (Müller)	1	2	8	3	105	28	46	73	42
Candidula intersecta (Poiret)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Candidula/Cernuella spp.	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Helicella itala (Linnaeus)	-	-	-	-	1	4	2	1	3
Trichia hispida (Linnaeus)	4	8	15	16	8	24	8	3	8
Helicigona lapicida (Linnaeus)	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cepaea spp.	+	1	1	+	1	-	-	-	+
Helix aspersa (Müller)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
FRESH-WATER									
Bythnia tentactulata op (Linnaeus)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Aplexa hypnorum (Linnaeus)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Lymnaea truncatula (Müller)	-	2	2	12	-	51	9	+	14
Lymnaea peregra (Müller)	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	1	4
Anisus leucostoma (Millet)	10	57	96	116	1	5	2	2	14
Pisidium casertanum (Poli)	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Pisidium nitidum Jeyns	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MARINE									
Turritella spp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Terrestrial Taxa	7	6	9	10	9	11	13	9	14
Aquatic Taxa	1	4	2	3	1	3	2	2	5
Tererestrial Total	16	19	33	50	34	116	63	40	67
Aquatic Total	10	61	98	129	1	59	11	3	37
TOTAL	26	80	131	179	35	175	74	43	104

Key to columns

A MBA/LBA ditch 2457; context 1918; depth (cm) 68–83; wt 1632g
B ditto; depth 63–8; wt 1640g
C ditto; depth 57–63; wt 1328g
D ditto; depth 50–74; wt 1124g
E Late RB; feature 1764; context 2252; E–I 10L
F ditto; feature 1727; context 1730
G ditto; feature 2877; context 2879
H ditto; feature 2091; context 2037
I ditto; feature 1765; context 2259

Vallonia species (*V. pulchella*) gives way to the xerophile *Vallonia excentrica,* which tends to indicate drier or shorter grassland, both *Vertigo antivertigo* and *V. moulinsiana,* which are common in marshes and on sedges (eg *Carex* sp. or *Glyceria maxima*) in fen environments, are present. The aquatic assemblages include *Aplexa hypnorum* and an operculum of *Bythinia tentactula* as well as *Lymnaea* and *Anisus.* These assemblages are not as easy to interpret, but indicate higher incidence or relevance of riverine (aquatic species) and river edge (marsh species) conditions. Whether this represents change in flooding regimes or of exploitation of these resources is unclear.

In summary, from the Bronze Age to Romano-British periods the site itself existed in an open grassland or pasture. There is no evidence of woodland in the immediate vicinity, or of intensive grazing or arable fields. The main changes over time relate to groundwater conditions through time. Generally lower groundwater tables are hinted at in the Iron Age and early Romano-British phase, while subtle changes in both groundwater and any winter flooding regimes are recorded in the late Romano-British phases.

DISCUSSION

The excavation demonstrated the existence of a number of periods of rural settlement with associated field systems (Figs 3, 4 and 5). Precise phasing was, to some extent, hampered by the combination of multiple intercutting features, generalised modern disturbance, and an overall dearth of closely datable finds associated with significant structural and related settlement features. The majority of the dated features in the excavation area were, however, demonstrated to be of Roman date, and evidence of intensive Roman agricultural use of the landscape was observed. Several field boundaries were recut and general alignments adhered to over several phases. This repeated activity across the settlement area would have truncated or removed much of the evidence of Bronze Age and Iron Age occupation. Given the overall degree of preservation, however, it was possible to draw some comparisons between the pattern of excavated features with those previously recognised during an earlier programme of geophysical survey within the development area (Barker and Mercer 1999) (Figs 18, 19) and also with the known evidence for the wider area (Leech 1975) (Fig. 20).

A number of circular enclosures were dated to a Bronze Age date on the basis of stratigraphic relationships and the recovery of small quantities of pottery of the appropriate date. The features were not visible on the geophysical survey and proved, during excavation, to be truncated and discontinuous. No firm evidence for associated field systems was recovered, possibly due to later recutting and general disturbance. Environmental evidence for the period was limited but mollusc samples indicated that the Bronze Age settlement existed in open grassland or pasture, exploiting local riverine resources, and was apparently prone to winter flooding.

The evidence recovered for Middle/Late Iron Age field systems and settlement indicated that the pattern and alignment of ditches and trackways established during the later prehistoric period continued in use into the Late Roman period. Occupation was concentrated in the eastern sector of the site, apparently continuing the pattern of Bronze Age settlement. A number of intercutting ring-gullies located in this area suggested several phases of roundhouse construction. Although a quantity of Early Iron Age pottery recovered from the partially excavated pit or ditch terminal, 2106, indicated that there had been occupation of that date in the near vicinity, the ceramic evidence points to an increase in activity in the Middle and Late Iron Age. A composite outline of a part of the land-use pattern for the period was constructed on the basis of the 1999 survey evidence together with the small number of relevant features explored during the watching brief and excavation. These included enclosure ditch 2152, the wide linear ditch 3413, the adjacent trackway and structural features (Fig. 19).

Environmental evidence for the Iron Age period indicated that the groundwater table was somewhat lower than it had been during the Bronze Age. The local landscape still included areas of moist grassland but with less prevalence of standing water than during the previous period. The major cereal crop cultivated during the Late Iron Age and continuing into the Roman period was spelt, but some emmer and free-threshing wheat grains were also present in samples taken for analysis.

The Roman pottery assemblage spanned the period from 1st to 4th centuries AD. Although settlement evidence for the Late Iron Age/early Roman period was relatively scant within the excavated area, the presence of earlier Roman pottery (particularly imported finewares) and the reuse of building material such as roof slabs demonstrated that there

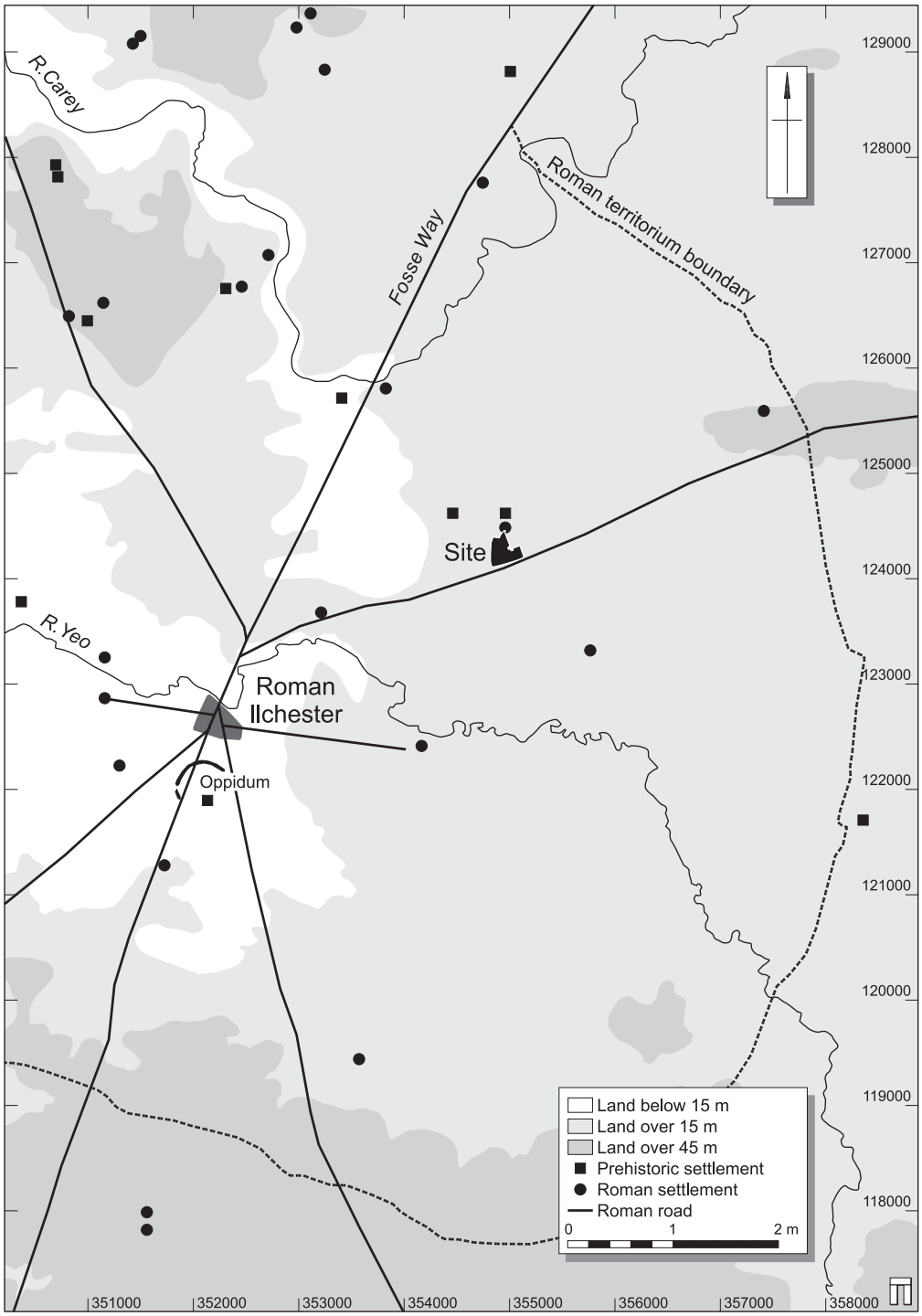

Fig. 18 The site in its Romano-British setting

Fig. 19 The Iron Age and the earlier Roman field systems; from excavated evidence (see Figs 3–5) extended by reference to the geophysical survey results

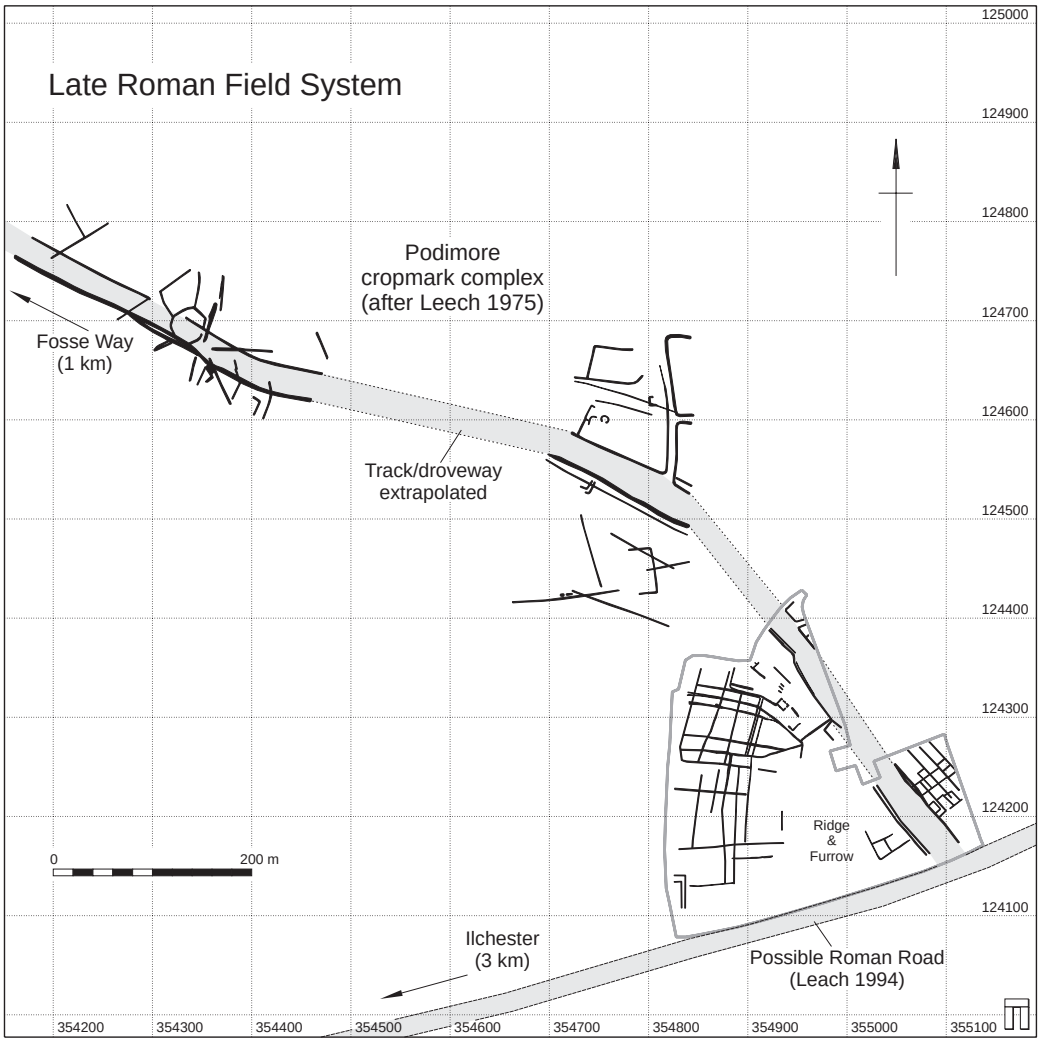

Fig. 20 The later Roman field system in its wider landscape, from excavated evidence (see Figs 3 and 4) extended by reference to the geophysical survey results and to previous work

were well-constructed and well-appointed buildings in the vicinity. Alternatively, as the evidence for modifications to building 2078 suggests, the structures which went out of use during the late 3rd or 4th centuries may have had early Roman antecedents.

The late Roman settlement appears to have been a small farm with outbuildings and ancillary structures such as wells and, possibly, ovens. Three buildings, 1762, 2078 and 2669, were set out on a north-west to south-east alignment and their relative positions suggested their use may, at some stage, have been contemporary. The precise date of the establishment of this complex is uncertain, but the remodelling of at least one building, 2078, demonstrated some degree of longevity. Evidence relating to the final occupation and destruction phases of the buildings was recovered and their robbed out remains were sealed by deposits containing late 3rd or 4th-century artefacts.

The Roman field system consisted of at least two phases of similarly aligned ditch complexes. The earlier alignment (Fig. 19) could not be dated, but is likely to be associated with the Late Iron Age/early Roman activity defined by the pottery assemblage. The later field system (Fig. 20) shows a general

alignment running from the north-west to south-east of the development area. The major elements of the alignment exposed during excavation were some 30–40m apart. The continuation of the field system to the south largely adheres to the major elements of the early Roman alignment, demonstrating continuity within this agricultural complex. The excavated ditch system was clearly part of a more extensive pattern.

Research undertaken in association with the South Cadbury Environs Project (Davey 2004; 2005) has suggested that the long-lived layout of fields at Yeovilton, dating from the Iron Age to the late-Roman period, can be seen in a wider context. Similar alignments of fields have been recorded from Pilton in the north to Yeovil in the south. These field systems share, apart from their alignments, relationships with the major river valleys – to which they are laid out at right angles, origins in the prehistoric period, and more intensive use in the Romano-British period, including an economic upsurge in the 3rd century. These co-axial fields have parallels elsewhere (Williamson 2003, 37–43).

The focus of the settlement in the later Roman period probably shifted or expanded across earlier Roman fields and it is possible that a previous settlement focus (from which the high-quality pottery and reused roof slabs derived), was further to the north, outside the development area. A correlation was noted between the alignment of the structures and specific elements of the later field alignments and also with a track or droveway highlighted during landscape studies in the area (Leach 1994). It is possible that the shift of focus of the settlement across earlier fields altered the function of those fields – particularly in the areas immediately adjacent to the buildings. Some, possibly used as paddocks, were subsequently used for the burial of the dead from the settlement. Several of the inhumation burials were interred within partially silted or deliberately filled ditches at the edges or corners of the fields.

Leach (1994) indicates that the present B3151 road, defining the southern boundary of the site, may follow the route of a Roman road to Ilchester. A major track or droveway from Podimore extends from the north-west to the south-east (Leech 1975). A continuation of this alignment would cross the site. To the north and east of the excavation area, the geophysical survey highlighted large parallel linear features. The presence of these features was confirmed during the evaluation and they appear to conform in size and form to the track or droveway identified by Leech. This track would have connected settlements at Podimore and the present site to the road to Ilchester (now the B3151) and to the Fosse Way north of Ilchester (Fig. 20). Geophysical survey of the area to the east of the excavation and watching brief produced images of 'enclosures or similar' apparently aligned on the eastern edge of the droveway and following the same general alignment as the excavated structures.

The walled town of Ilchester (Fig. 18) was surrounded by 'one of the largest concentrations of villas in the country' (Rivet 1964, 154), although no villa has been shown to be associated with the settlements at Podimore and the present site. It seems likely that any excess produce from the Yeovilton farm would have been sold through the markets of Ilchester. The town lay well within the 7 to 10km often found to be the furthest distance rural peasants travel to obtain and exchange agricultural and manufactured goods at local markets (Hingley 1989, 114). Environmental evidence from Yeovilton demonstrated that by the late Roman period the site was engaged in large-scale cereal production and processing, sowing both spring and autumn crops and exploiting damp open environments for hay production. Domestic animals were raised for meat, dairy products, leather and wool. Managed woodland and hedgerows provided fuel for domestic activities and perhaps small-scale industrial ironworking. Samples taken from the late Roman backfill of a well within the settlement produced evidence for the exploitation of wetland/aquatic environments, perhaps for reeds and alluvial mud as well as water. Ancillary activities such as beekeeping were suggested by insect remains and a grain weevil provided evidence for storage of grain or flour. The deposition of six adult dogs and two possible canine neonates or foetuses could suggest either attempts at population control or ritual activity.

The settlement site appears to have been abandoned towards the end of the Roman period and the buildings robbed of stone. The well was filled in with structural, agricultural and butchery waste. The site was subsequently given over entirely to agricultural use before its more recent redevelopment as a sports field. Continuity of ditch alignments throughout the Roman period was reflected in the post-medieval ridge and furrow, some of which appeared to have removed the evidence for earlier archaeological features. Drainage and water management appear to have been recurring problems during all periods with a number of different forms of land drains employed throughout the post-medieval and modern periods.

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APPENDIX: POTTERY FABRICS AND VESSEL FORMS, CATALOGUES

Fabrics

Middle Bronze Age

G1 Moderately hard fabric containing sparse grog usually <3mm but occasionally up to 9mm across, in a very fine sandy matrix (quartz <0.125mm across). Oxidised (reddish-orange) exterior surface and margin but otherwise unoxidised (dark grey).

Iron Age

C1 Range of fabrics containing variable quantities of crushed limestone and/or fossil shell inclusions (<5mm across) in a fine-grained sandy matrix, (quartz <0.125mm across). Colour varies from orange to dark grey-brown. E-MIA.

C2 Beef calcite tempered ware; moderately fine-grained fabric containing common to abundant beef calcite fragments <6mm across in a sandy matrix (quartz <0.25mm across). Reddish-brown in colour with a slightly less oxidised core. Surfaces unfinished. E–MIA.

C3 Oolitic limestone tempered ware. Moderately hard fabric containing very common oolitic limestone fragments up to 1mm across. Smooth, well-finished surfaces. Unoxidised, dark brown in colour.

C4 Organic and calcareous tempered ware; soft, fine grained fabric containing rare crushed limestone <4mm across, rare to sparse organic material and rare red and black iron oxides <1mm across in a very fine sandy matrix (quartz <0.125mm across). Oxidised (reddish-orange) exterior surface, unoxidised (grey-brown) core and interior.

F1 Hard fabric containing moderate to common crushed calcined flint fragments <4mm across. Unoxidised (dark grey-brown) throughout.

Q1 Range of moderately coarse quartz (<0.5mm across) tempered fabrics, probably from a variety of sources including the Wareham/Poole Harbour region of Dorset as well as more local ones. M–LIA

R1 Hard, moderately coarse fabric containing abundant, well-sorted igneous rock fragments <2mm across. Unoxidised (dark grey-brown) and well finished. Glastonbury style; LIA

Romano-British coarsewares

Q104 Moderately hard, fine-grained fabric containing abundant well-sorted quartz and moderate red/black iron oxides up to 0.25mm across. A dense-textured fabric, brick red surfaces and margins with a brownish-grey core. Wheelmade.

Q105 Coarse sandy oxidised ware with a self-coloured slip. Hard, open-textured fabric containing moderate to common, poorly-sorted subrounded quartz and rare black iron oxides and soft, white, non-calcareous particles all up to 0.5mm across. Surfaces, possibly with a self-coloured slip, and margins vary from pale orange to red brown in colour fading into a grey core. Wheelmade.

C100 Calcareous wares. Soft, slightly soapy fabric tempered with moderate to common poorly sorted crushed fossil shell up to 5mm across. Buff to grey-black in colour.

E101 Black Burnished ware from the Wareham/Poole Harbour region of Dorset (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 106, fabric 31; Seager Smith and Davies 1993, 249, fabric 1).

E102 South-western Black Burnished ware (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, 114 and 135 fabrics 40 and 60; Seager Smith and Davies 1993, 249, fabric 1b).

G100 Grog-tempered wares. Moderately hard, rather lumpy fabric containing moderate, poorly sorted grog fragments in a slightly sandy matrix (sparse to moderate quartz up to 1mm across). Handmade.

Q100 Miscellaneous greywares; 'catch-all' group for all unoxidised fabrics, mostly moderately coarse (inclusions <0.5mm) sandy wares but also includes a few sherds of finer (inclusions <0.25mm) sandy/micaceous fabrics.

Q101 South-western grey ware A (Seager Smith 1999, 310, fabrics Q103 and 123).

Q103 South-western grey ware B (Seager Smith 1999, 311, fabrics Q121 and 122).

Vessel Forms

Iron Age vessel forms

R1 Weakly shouldered jars with simple rims, sometimes flat-topped (cf. Alcock 1980, fig.12 and 14; Ellison 1982, fig. 61 a and b; Morris 1987, fig.3, 11–19;Woodward 1989, fig. 20, 38–44).

R2 Weakly shouldered jars with short vertical necks and simple rounded rims (cf. Alcock 1980, fig.11, KXO 59/2 and fig.15, D522/1; Ellison 1982, fig. 61b 54, 55, 59, 61, 62, 64; Morris 1987, fig.3, 20, 24 and 26).

R3 Thick-walled bowl with a flat-topped, slightly out-turned rim (cf. Morris 1987, fig.4, 1–5; Wainwright 1979, fig.54, 595, fig.55, 607 and fig.57, 665 and 667; Ellison 1982, fig.61a, 17).

R4 'Proto-bead rim' jars with a slack profile and a simple, rounded rim (cf. Ellison 1982, fig.61b, 63; Woodward 1989, fig.21, 50, 51 and 54; Morris 1987, fig.3, 27–30; Mepham

2001 fig.16, 5, 13, fig.17, 22).

R5 Carinated bowls with long, straight necks, and parallel incised slashes decorating the carination (cf. Cunliffe 1991, fig.A7).

Romano-British site-specific type series

R101 Large storage jar rims – details vary (originally recorded as R101, R108 and R109 but later amalgamated for clarity) but generally with upright necks and hooked or rolled over terminals, sometimes moulded. Incised or stabbed decoration on rims and thumb-impressions on shoulder are common. Late Antonine to 4th century (Holbrook and Bidwell 1991, fig.68; Seager Smith 1999, fig.155, Leach 1982, fig.73, 271–90 and fig. 74, 91–3; Leech 1981, fig. 23, 111 and fig. 25, 177; 1982, fig. 98, 28–30, fig. 106, 320; 1986, fig. 22, 78–81; Evans 2001, fig. 40, J14.41).

R102 Small, everted rim jars; probably late Roman.

R103 Flagon/jug with flared neck and out-turned rim

R104 Bowl with slightly D-shaped rim; copy of samian forms 18/31 series

R105 Straight-sided, flat flanged bowl/dish; 2nd century; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R106 Bead rim jars; 1st century BC until at least the early 2nd century AD; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R107 Mortaria with a square bead above a curving down-turned flange; probably 2nd – early 3rd century AD; ?South Wales type

R110 Everted rim jar; 3rd to 4th century AD; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R111 Upright necked jar; 1st – 2nd century AD; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R112 Everted rim jar with D-shaped rim.

R113 Flanged bowl imitating samian form 38; second half of the 2nd century AD onwards.

R114 Narrow-necked flagon/jugs with collared rims. Paralleled at Ilchester (Leach 1982, fig.71, 217) and Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986, fig. 21, 45–8).

R115 Jars with relatively long, constricted necks and slightly everted rims.

R116 Narrow-necked jars with upright, lid-seated rims.

R117 Wide-mouthed jar with an everted rim and a distinct cordon at the neck/shoulder junction. Paralleled at Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986, fig. 21, 27).

R118 Closed form with an everted, lid-seated rim. Paralleled at Lamyatt Beacon (Leech 1986, fig. 21, 32).

R119 High-shouldered bead rim bowl.

R120 Straight-sided bowls/dishes with dropped flanged rims; late 3rd–4th century AD; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R121 Round-bodied open bowl with a bead rim.

R122 Flagon or jug with an upright, collared rim

R123 Narrow-necked jar with a collared, lid-seated rim; wavy line on outer surface of neck.

R124 Shallow, straight-sided bowls and dishes with plain rims; 'dog-dishes'; 2nd century AD plus but becomes increasingly common in the late Roman period; paralleled in a variety of fabrics in all local assemblages.

R125 Carinated, bead-rimmed bowl; imitation Black Burnished ware form; 1st–2nd century AD.

R126 Carinated bowl with beaded rim and inscribed decoration; probably a local copy of the late 1st to early 2nd century London ware vessels (Marsh and Tyers 1978, fig. 6.21, 48.1). Comparable forms known locally (ie Leach 1982, fig. 72, 244; Evans 2001, fig. 36, B20.21).

R127 Large, thick, upright necked jar.

R128 Straight, vertically sided bowl or possibly a Severn Valley ware style tankard (mid–late 1st century AD) with a beaded rim (cf. Evans 2001, fig. 38, T1.13 and T1.14)

R129 Slightly beaded beaker rim.

Samian: catalogue of decorated sherds

Abbreviations used in this report are: S&S – Stansfield and Simpson 1990, and Rogers – Rogers 1974.

1 Basal wreath bounded by bead rows, form 37. The wreath is formed from trifid motif Rogers G24 and was used at Les Martres on moulds of potter X-13 (S&S 1990, fig. 44, 513). However, the bowl seems to have been made at Lezoux and is probably Hadrianic in date. (Thanks are due to Brenda Dickinson for confirming the identification of this vessel). Layer 2250, late Roman.

2 Body sherd Dr 37 with Cinnamus' ovolo Rogers B143 or 144 with bead row below. A fragment only of the panelled decoration remains with figure O.3 to right of vertical bead row and ?plain bordered medallion to left. *c*. AD 135–70. Layer 2250, late Roman.

3 Body sherd, form 37, decoration very faint comprising ovolo Rogers B107 with bead row below and fragment of double-bordered medallion below. Probably Paternus II. *c*. AD 160–195. Unstratified.

4 Body sherd from panel-decorated form 37 bowl. Motifs include Rogers U293 with bead row above, and almond U161 both attributed to Doeccvs. Doeccvs alone is known to have used the former. Other elements include a vertical bead row and a ?bud with wavy stem. Not same vessel as Cat no 5. below. *c*. AD 165–200. Segment 2071 of ditch 2494 (context 2070), late Roman.

5 Body sherd from panel-decorated form 37 bowl stamped Doeccvs. The design is comparable with that on a bowl from Silchester (S&S 1990, pl. 147, 3), having the vine leaf with a double-bordered medallion, two of the three vertical bead rows are extant with rams horn terminal; the stamp placed between the beads and the medallion. *c*. AD 165–200. Pit 1653 (context 1655), late Roman.

The Samian Potters' Stamps *by Brenda Dickinson*

Underlining indicates ligatured letters.

1 Form 31R, Central Gaulish, stamped [ATI]LIANO: Attilianus I of Lezoux, Die 2b (Dickinson 1986, 187, 3.15). The form of this vessel indicates a later 2nd-century date, as does the potters' use of his stamp on forms 79 and 80. A few stamps from other dies occur on Hadrians Wall and in the group of late-Antonine samian from Pudding Pan Rock wreck (Kent). *c*. AD 160–200. Pit 1653 (context 1655), late Roman.

2 Form 31, slightly burnt, East Gaulish, stamped]IV retr. or T[retr. The fabric suggests origin at Trier. Late 2nd or first half of the 3rd century. Layer 2040, late Roman.

List of illustrated sherds

Fig. 11

1 Weakly shouldered jar with flat-topped rim decorated with incised slashes (R1); fabric C1; PRN 203, context 1672, unspecified Roman ditch 1671.

2 Weakly shouldered jar with simple pointed rim (R1); fabric C1; PRN 361, context 2115, M/LIA ditch 2106.

3 Weakly shouldered jar with short vertical neck (R2); fabric C1; PRN 209, context 1678, M/LIA ditch 1677.
4 Weakly shouldered jar with short vertical neck (R2); burnished exterior surface; fabric Q1; PRN 292, context 1958, M–LIA pit 1969.
5 Thick-walled bowl (R3); fabric C1; PRN 295, context 1958, M–LIA pit 1969.
6 'Proto-bead rim' jar (R4); fabric C1; PRN 245, context 1773, unspecified Roman ditch 1772.
7 'Proto-bead rim' jar (R4); fabric C1; PRN 210, context 1678, M–LIA ditch 1677.
8 'Proto-bead rim' jar (R4); fabric C1; PRN 1045, context 2816, late Roman ditch segment 2815, ditch 3413.
9 Carinated bowl decorated with parallel incised slashes (R5); fabric C1; PRN 360, context 2115, M/LIA ditch 2106.
10 Glastonbury ware-style sherd, fabric R1, PRN 63, Late Roman layer 2044.

Fig. 12

*1 Large s*torage jar (R101); south-western grey ware (Q101); PRN 15, late Roman layer 1539.
2 Small everted rim jar (R102); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 14, late Roman layer 1539.
3 Narrow-necked flagon/jug (R103); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 12, late Roman layer 1539.
4 Bowl with D-shaped rim, probably a copy of the samian form 18/31 series (R104); brick red oxidised sandy ware (Q104); PRN 67, late Roman layer 2195.
5 Mortaria with square bead and down-turned flange (R107), fine micaceous oxidised ware (M100); PRN 91, late Roman layer 2250.

Fig. 13

6 Upright necked jar (R111); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 147, context 1519, Late Iron Age/early Roman ditch 1520.
7 Slightly everted rim jar with D-shaped rim (R112); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 1337, context 108, natural feature 107.
8 Flanged bowl imitating samian form 38 (R113); brick red oxidised sandy ware (Q104); PRN 215 and 227, contexts 1728 and 1729, late Roman pit 1727.
9 Narrow-mouthed flagon/jug with a collared rim (R114); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 438, context 2332, late Roman ditch 2334.
10 Jar with a long constricted neck (R115); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 440, context 2332, late Roman ditch 2334.
11 Narrow-necked jar with an upright, lid-seated rim (R116); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 448, context 2350, late Roman grave 2352.
12 Closed form with an everted, lid-seated rim, (R118); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN542, context 2826, unspecified Roman ditch 2832.
13 High-shouldered bead-rim bowl (R119); oxidised sandy ware (Q102); PRN 696, context 1786, segment 1779 of late Roman ditch 1765.
14 Round-bodied bowl with a bead rim (R121); oxidised sandy ware (Q102); PRN 836, late Roman layer 1975.
15 Flagon/jug with collared rim (R122); oxidised sandy ware (Q102); PRN 837, late Roman layer 1975.
16 Narrow-necked jar with a collared, lid-seated rim (R123); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 842, late Roman layer 1975.
17 Carinated bead rim bowl (R125); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 1208, context 3072, unexcavated ditch fill, Late Iron Age/early Roman.
18 London ware style bowl with inscribed decoration (R126); miscellaneous (fine) greyware (Q100); PRN 1361, context 204, unspecified Roman ditch 203.
19 Thick, upright-necked jar (R127); grog-tempered ware (G100); PRN 1358, context 204, unspecified Roman ditch 203.
20 Straight, vertically sided bowl or possibly a tankard with a bead rim (R128); fine oxidised ware (Q102); PRN 1359, context 204, unspecified Roman ditch 203.
21 Bead rim from a beaker form (R129); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 1382, context 915, late Roman grave 917.
22 Flagon with an everted nozzle and a handle attached to a flange in the middle of the neck; oxidised sandy ware Q102, cleaning layer 1831.
23 Flanged bowl with a chamfered base (WA 75); South-east Dorset Black Burnished ware (E101); PRN 982, context 2067, segment 2069 of unspecified Roman ditch 2495.

Fig. 14

24 Wide-mouthed jar with an everted rim (R117); miscellaneous grey ware (Q100); PRN 494, context 2585, late Roman well 2432.
25 Long-necked beaker (Young 2000, type C23); Oxfordshire brown colour-coated ware (E170); PRN 493, context 2584, Late Roman well 2432.
26 Everted rim jar (WA 3) with graffiti above decorative band; South-east Dorset Black Burnished ware (E101); PRN 498, context 2585, Late Roman well 2432.
27 Decorated body sherd with (?incomplete) graffiti above decorative band; South-east Dorset Black Burnished ware (E101); PRN 1055, context 2816, segment 2815 of Late Roman ditch 3413.