Chapter 6
The Late Roman Villa Complex (Phase 4)

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INTRODUCTION

At some point during the early 4th century, a modest masonry-footed villa and associated building were constructed, which seemed to form the centre of a small estate probably operating a mixed agricultural economy (Fig. 6.1). It appears that the primary domestic focus at this time was confined to the area of Trench 13, although a small cemetery was sited *c* 100 m to the west (Trench 30) and a circular shrine *c* 70 m to the east (Trench 27). It is likely that the main trackways into the site continued in use, and at least part of the field system to the north in Warrens Field seems to belong to the late Roman period (see Chapter 5). The main villa building was later enclosed by two successive ditched enclosures, and the small finds indicated a greater emphasis on security during this phase.

Four structural sub-phases were identified, based mainly upon changes to the villa building, although the chronological horizons of each sub-phase are quite broad (Figs 6.2-6.3). There is no definite Phase 4 activity within Trenches 17 and 29, but the pottery suggests some activity of a very limited nature. The features in these trenches were probably part of an agricultural field system surrounding the late Roman villa, although it is possible some limited industrial activity continued in Trench 17. The western cemetery, although presumed to be late Roman, could not be assigned to any specific sub-phase.

THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SEQUENCE

The following is a summary account of the archaeological sequence of Phase 4 (Figs 6.2 and 6.3). Full stratigraphic descriptions can be found in Digital section 2.3.

Trench 13 – The late Roman villa (Fig. 6.4)

Phase 4a (early 4th century AD) (Fig. 6.2)

During the early 4th century AD, Building 7 appears to have been at least partially demolished and replaced by a masonry-footed building (B 8), which may well be described as a modest 'cottage style' villa (see Discussion below). A further building to the south (B 9) comprised two rooms, the smaller of which contained a hypocaust. Dating evidence suggests that these two structures were contemporary, and formed part of a small residential complex. It is possible that Aisled Building 3 was still standing at this time, although its condition and function is uncertain.

Building 8: The late Roman 'cottage villa' (Fig. 6.5, Pl. 6.1)

The successor to Building 7 was rectangular with stone foundations, originally measuring 13.5 x 9 m in Phase 4a. It was aligned NNE-SSW, and the entrance is likely to have been situated in the middle of the eastern side, leading into Room 5/6, which was partitioned in a later phase. This entrance room/corridor was flanked by two larger rooms (4 and 7; both *c* 5 x 4.5 m) and led towards a range of three smaller rooms at the rear (1, 2 and 3). The structure partially overlay Building 7, seeming to utilise some of the existing walls in its structure, but extended further north. Footings, where they were best preserved, ranged from between 0.6 to 0.7 m wide and were of a mortared random rubble construction made up of small (0.1 m) pieces of limestone. They were of variable depth, deepest on the west side (719/1556) where they ran along the top of Phase 2 ditch 2502. The north and south sides had the shallowest footings, the former just resting on the gravel surface, and the latter largely untraceable, except for a fragment on the south-west corner (1591).

Extant walling survived only on the western side, apart from a surviving fragment of wall 2107 reused from Building 7. The wall was of coursed and faced limestone blocks with a more random mixed rubble infill. The stone was mortared. All the walls had been robbed down to the old ground surface, but some lengths had been completely removed, including the foundations, notably a large section of one of the internal walls between Rooms 4 and 5/6. The foundations of the eastern wall (880) survived along much of its length.

Post-demolition activity on site (from the late 4th/5th century to well into the medieval period) had further taken its toll on the surviving structure (see Chapter 7). A series of pits in the northern rooms (1 and 7) removed nearly all contemporary and earlier levels. A fragment of wall of a later structure (undated) caused disturbance on the southern side and particularly at the south-eastern corner. A series of burials cut the eastern wall and caused destruction in Room 8.

Surviving demolition debris over and around the building gave indications of its character and

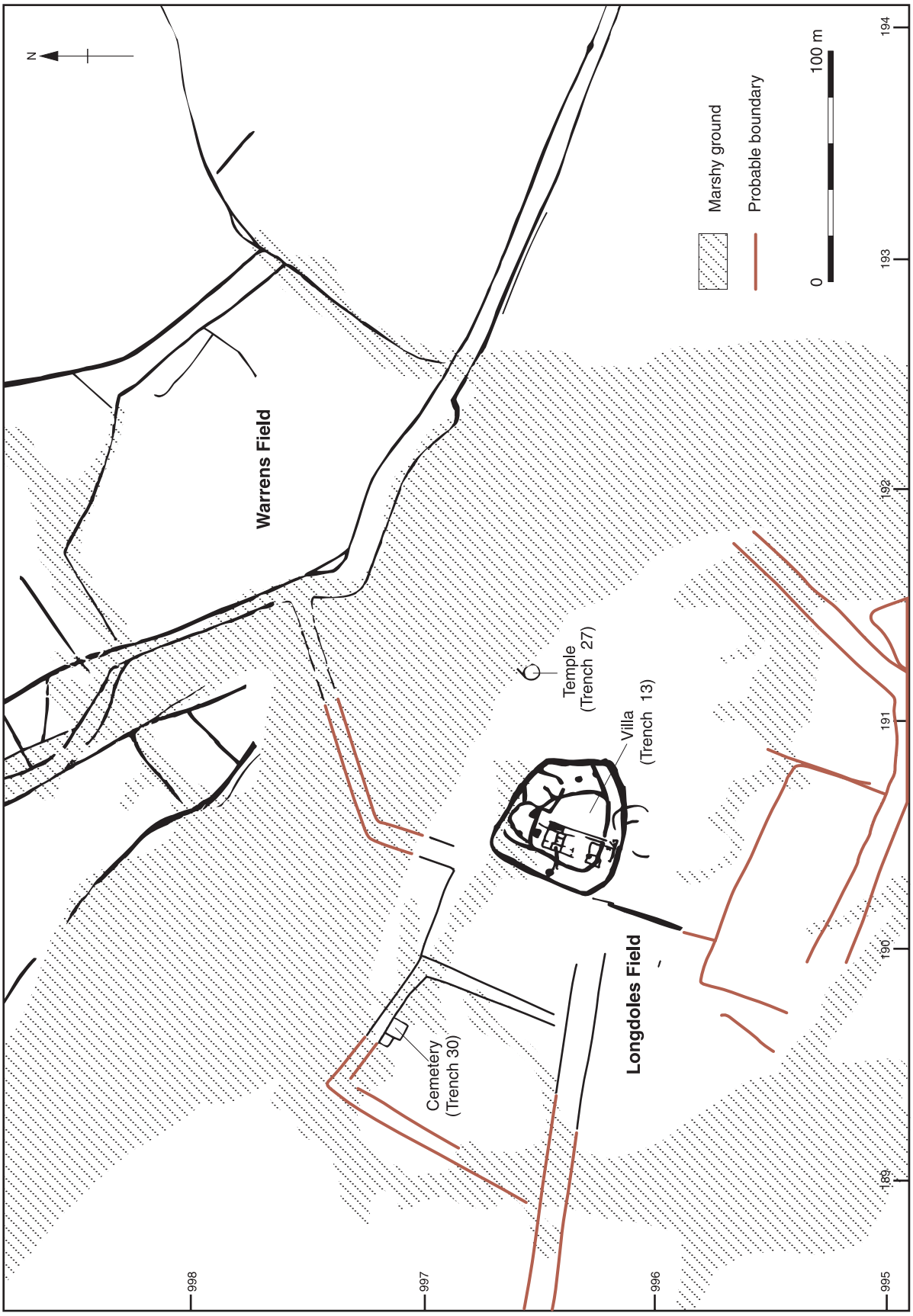


Fig. 6.1 The late Roman villa complex

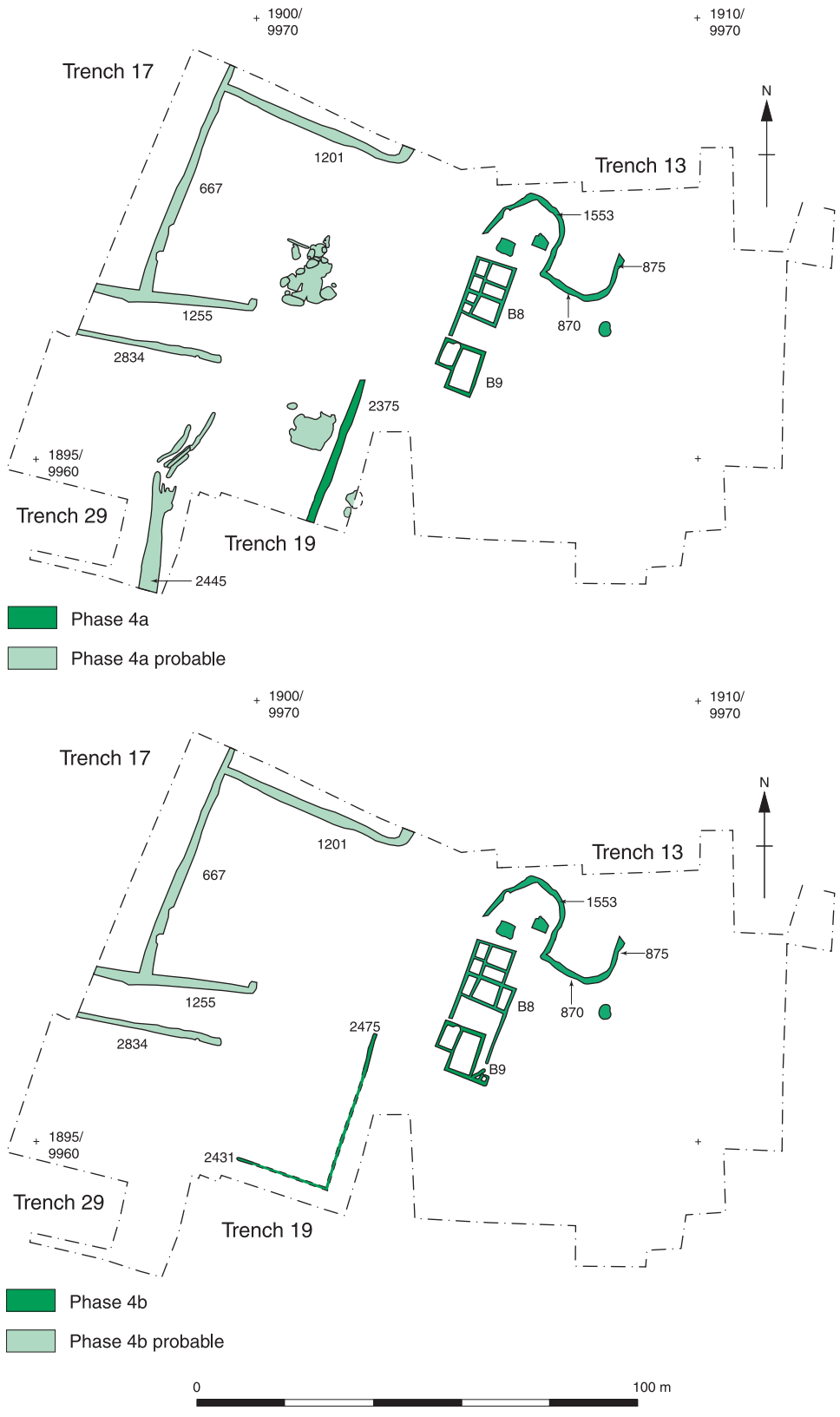


Fig. 6.2 Phase 4 sub-phases a and b

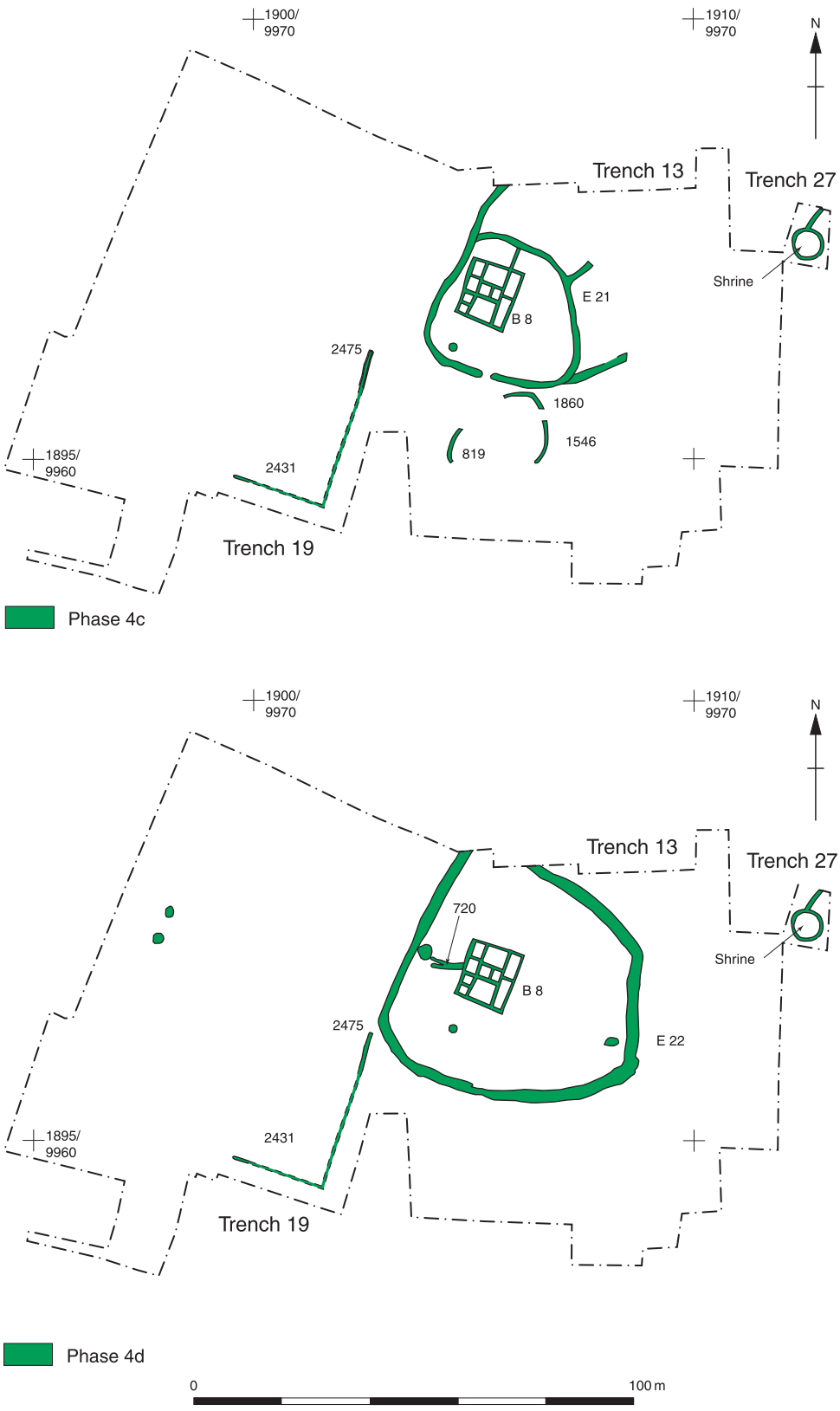


Fig. 6.3 Phase 4 sub-phases c and d

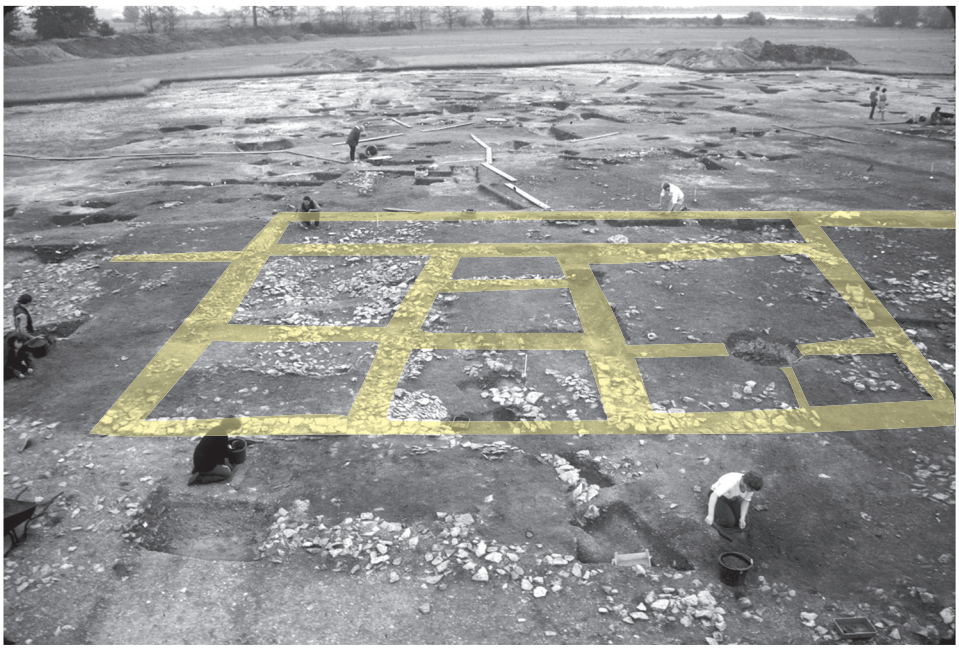


Plate 6.1 Late Roman villa (B 8) looking east

status. Some fragments of wall plaster were recovered, but only covered with a whitewash. Other mortar/plaster was recovered which may have come from flooring. Large amounts of roof tile debris were present (see below) and whilst this cannot definitely be associated with this structure it seems highly likely that is was, probably reused from the earlier aisled building (B 1). Small quantities of stone slates also indicate some roofing – perhaps the late extension on the north-east side – was in stone. Several fragments of late Roman window glass are also likely to derive from this structure. Although layers contemporary with this building were excavated, none could be unequivocally interpreted as floors. They were all of similar character: uncompacted brown sandy loams with little occupation debris, perhaps forming a bedding for either mortar or beaten earth surfaces. The ploughsoil invariably came straight on to these layers with only a small scatter of rubble (693) forming an interface.

In general only small quantities of pottery and animal bone were recovered from the rooms of Building 8, although the disturbed surface of contained two 4th-century coins (AD 335-60) along with a copper alloy finger ring, two bracelets, a copper alloy earring (Fig. 6.16, no.22), late Roman window glass, a number of limestone roofing tiles (Fig. 6.21, no. 1), and an iron knife. A reasonable quantity of pottery (2.33 kg) was also recovered, which included 4th-century Oxford colour-coated and New Forest wares. Over 100 animal bone fragments came from the layers within this room, including pig and domestic fowl. The only other room with any significant finds was Room 3, which contained two quern fragments, a coin dated AD 364-78, possible wall plaster, window glass and part of a late Roman glass vessel. About 1.3 kg of pottery and 35 animal bone fragments were also recovered from this room, most from disturbed layers. Six amphora fragments (Dressel 20) were found amongst the wall rubble scattered between Rooms 1 and 2.

Building 9: The hypocaust building (Fig. 6.5)

Building 9 was situated several metres south of Building 8 on the same alignment. On pottery evidence it belonged to Phase 4a-b (early-mid 4th century), making it contemporary with the 'cottage' villa. It formed an L-shape in plan, dimensions east-west and north-south both being 10 m. Two rooms were formed, Room 1 (5 x 3.4 m) and Room 2 (9 x 5.3 m).

Although of late Roman construction, the building was badly disturbed, with later Roman and medieval features cutting through it (see Chapter 7). Enclosure ditch 700 (E 21) cut east-west through the middle and wells 696 and 697 removed the northern part of Room 1. To the south of ditch 700 preservation was poor. There was no indication of the west wall and the east wall survived only as a slight robber trench. The south wall seems to have been formed by part of the 'inner gate' structure (2348), although stratigraphic relationships here are uncertain due to the disturbed and ephemeral nature of the features. Walls and footings, where they survived (principally to the north), were of similar construction, ranging from 0.5 to 0.7 m wide, with pitched stone foundations, and laid and coursed masonry above. The footings were of a similar character to those of the later additions to Building 8, although not as neatly laid.

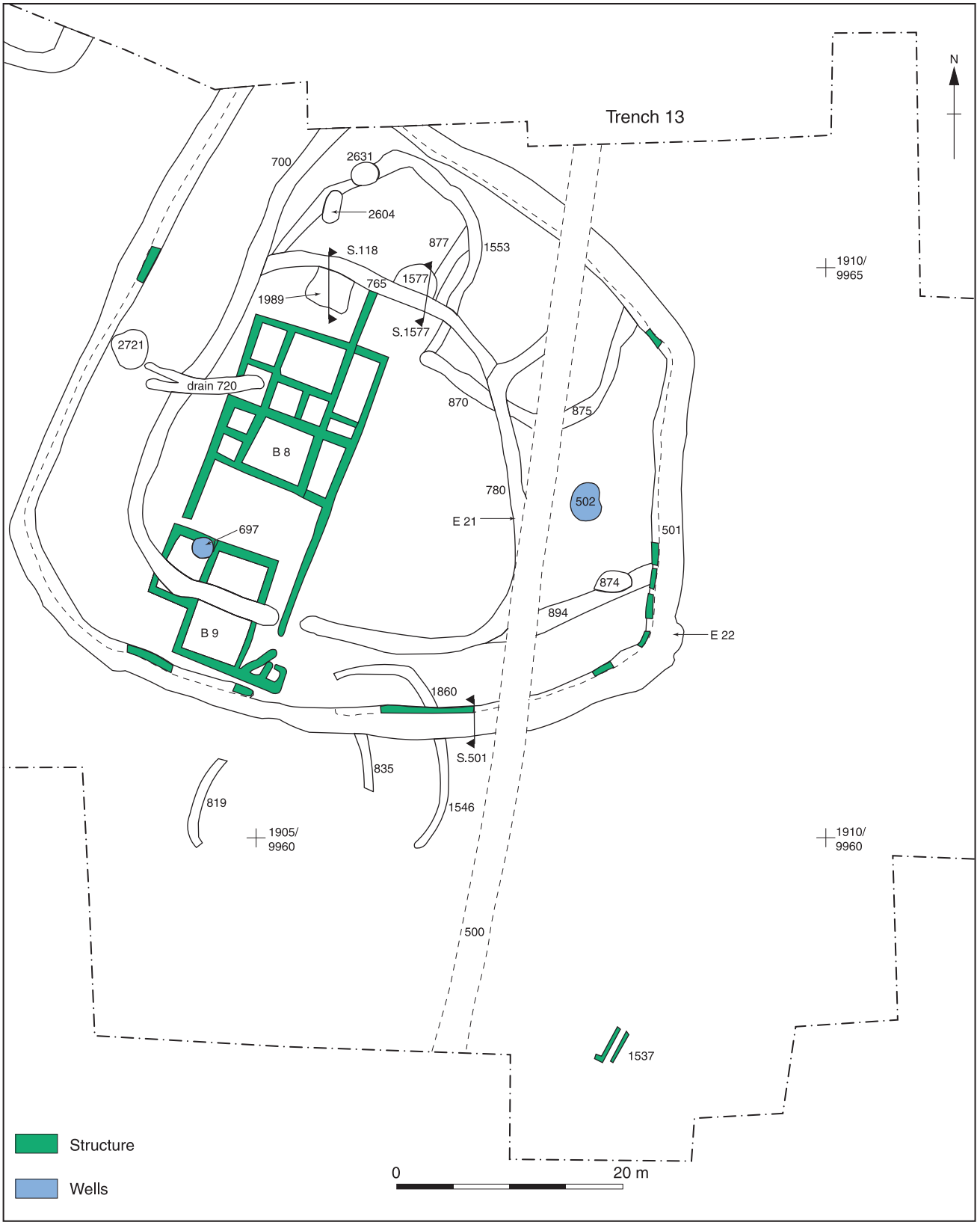


Fig. 6.4 Trench 13 phase 4 composite plan

Debris overlying Building 9 was similar to that of Building 8, with particular concentrations of tile, although quantities of debris from mortar flooring also seemed to concentrate around the building and in the later ditch 700 (E 21).

Stratigraphically this building post-dated Building 7; its robber trench 1578 cut north-south gully 2114 which in turn had cut across the south side of Building 7 (see Fig. 5.11). The building must have been demolished around the mid 4th century to make way for the inner enclosure ditch E 21. It therefore ceased to exist prior to the end of Roman occupation on the site.

Despite the disturbances caused by the wells and ditch 700, floor surfaces in Building 9 were generally in a better state of preservation than in Building 8, with the northern part of Room 2 having the best surviving floor levels on the site. A series of stone hearths and pits were located within this floor surface, along with a stoke hole (2134) adjacent to the line of the western wall (Fig. 6.5). This feature was undoubtedly connected with a hypocaust that seems to have existed in Room 1. This room contained a large quantity of tile, much of which would have derived from the hypocaust, along with a substantial layer of rubble and mortar which was set into the underlying gravel (see Allen and Morgan below). The rubble took on a reddish burnt hue adjacent to the stokehole in Room 2. Most of the tile was of plain type, although a small amount of box flue tile was recovered. However, the largest amount of box flue tile came from ditch 2375 in Trench 19, and probably represents the destruction debris from B 9 which was subsequently dumped there.

Overall, finds from Building 9 were relatively few. No personal items, either toiletry or jewellery, were recovered which might suggest a domestic use, although a single glass bead was recovered from a pit in Room 2 nor were large quantities of pottery stratified within the building. The pot that was recovered ranged in date from the 1st to the 4th centuries, and included small quantities of Oxford colour-coated and black-burnished ware. Two coins stratified in the top of robber trench 1578 suggest a *terminus post quem* for the robbing of the wall at the end of the 4th century. A total of 223 animal bone fragments were recovered from the building, less than one fifth of the assemblage size from Building 8.

Ditches (Figs 6.23 and 6.4)

To the north and east of B 8 were a series of ditches which are assigned to Phase 4 a/b on the basis of stratigraphy or pottery dating. The features would not all have been directly contemporary, and are presented in composite. The most substantial feature was a sub-enclosure ditch (1553) to the north of B 8, 16 x 12 m in size, with a broad shallow U-shaped profile up to *c* 2 m wide and 0.5 m deep. A large slab of architectural masonry (Fig. 6.21, no.7) was recovered from the ditch, along with a quantity of fired clay daub, and over 5 kg of pottery, which included 4th-century Oxford colour-coated and late shell-tempered wares. A total of 280 animal bone fragments were also recovered from the different sections of this feature. The sub-enclosure cut Phase 3/4 ditch 877, and was cut by the terminal of NW-SE ditch 870, which had a broad and flat-bottomed profile *c* 1 m wide and 0.4 m deep. To the east this ditch was cut by ditch 765 (E 21), and then continued as far as post-Roman ditch 500 where it was truncated, and could not be positively traced further east. In plan it lined up well with ditch 875 but they were of clearly contrasting profiles. Over 4.5 kg of pottery from 870 indicated a broad 3rd- or 4th-century date, and two 4th-century coins were also recovered. Other finds included vessel glass, an iron horse fitting, numerous iron nails and 286 animal bone fragments.

Pits (Figs 6.4, 6.6-6.7)

Situated to the north and north-east of B 8 (Fig. 6.4) were two large pits (1577 and 1989) filled with rubble and domestic debris. Pit 1577, was oval in shape, 4 x 2.5 m across and a little over 0.8 m deep (see section, Fig. 6.6). Its southern side was truncated by enclosure ditch 765. A large quantity of finds was retrieved, including 8.2 kg of pottery dating from the late 3rd century onwards, a mid 3rd-century coin, an iron latch-lifter and lever-lock key (Fig. 6.18, nos 32, 34), a copper alloy box mount (Fig. 6.18, no.39), bone pins and vessel glass fragments. Almost 400 animal bone fragments were also recovered from this feature. Most finds came from the upper layers. Further to the west, pit 1989 was far more regular, square in shape, measuring *c* 4 m across and 1.10 m deep, which took it below the Roman water table (see section, Fig. 6.7). The sides were vertical over the lower half but had eroded back at the top. Its similarity to the deeper sunken chamber within B 8 (1969) should be noted (see below). Preserved at the bottom, predating the infill, were the remains of a wicker basket, possibly a fish trap, and another fragment of wood. Environmental samples have suggested that the original purpose of this pit was for the temporary storage of live fish (see Robinson below). It was deliberately infilled with a quantity of limestone rubble, mixed silt and gravel, and the large quantity of finds from the infill probably derived from redeposited midden material. This included building debris, a loomweight, quernstone, bone pins and a massive quantity of animal bone (1617 fragments) of a composition that stood out markedly from most other features on site (see Sykes below). Over 11.5 kg of pottery was recovered, most of which seems to have been deposited towards the middle of the 4th century. The final filling took place in the second half of the 4th century, though perhaps not too far beyond AD 350, and predated the late Roman enclosure ditch 765 (E 21). A coin from the surface was dated AD 393-5. The pit had also been partially overlain by a cobbled surface (1916), from which disturbed fragments of human bone were recovered.

Phase 4b (early to mid 4th century AD) (Fig. 6.2)

Building 8 (Fig. 6.5)

During the early to mid 4th century, probably not long after the original villa building was constructed, an extension was added to the south-east corner, creating a room (8) measuring 2 m by 5 m internally. The interior of this room contained fragments of mortar, probably from a floor, along with over 1.3 kg of pottery, a copper alloy finger ring, a small amount of vessel and window glass and 38 animal bone fragments. No trace survived of the southern wall, but the robber trench of the eastern wall (1579) continued southwards for a further *c* 13 m before stopping 1.4 m from a 'gateway' structure attached to B 9. This would have architecturally unified the two buildings, creating a central 'courtyard' area (*c* 10 x 6.5 m) between them, and it is likely that an entrance was now placed in the southern wall of B 8, facing onto

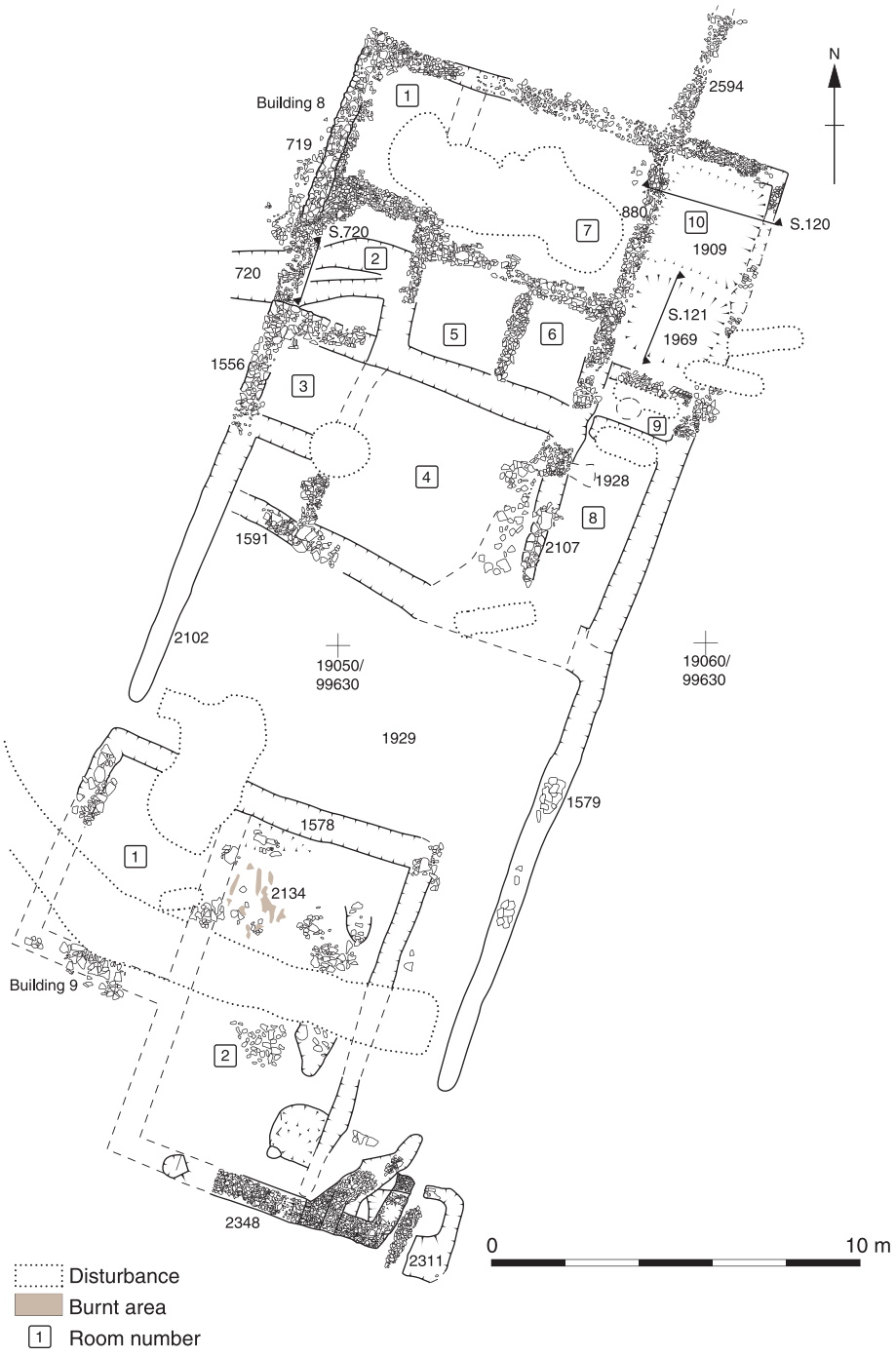


Fig. 6.5 Trench 13 late Roman villa (B 8 and B 9)

this area. The central 'courtyard' was covered by two layers of black soil (1929). Both layers respected the northern, eastern and southern boundaries, while to the west, only the lower layer respected robber trench 2102. This suggests that the western wall of the courtyard was removed prior to the demolition of the southern building (B 9) in Phase 4c. Reasonable amounts (*c* 3 kg) of pottery along with vessel glass and iron nails were recovered from these layers. In contrast to the main building, no animal bones were recovered.

Building 9: 'gateway' structure (Fig. 6.5)

Situated on the southern side of Trench 13, running parallel to but cutting into the top of Phase 3 ditch 547, was an arrangement of walling, of which at least part appears to have formed a structure distinct from the rest of Building 9. It was formed by an east-west wall (2348), 7 m long, of small compact limestone rubble, which turned north for 2 to 3 m at the eastern end. A further arm came off at an angle to join this north-south section at the north end, and a corner of wall was thus formed with a diagonal supporting wall. A further angle of wall (2311) nearly all robbed and apparently not tied in to 2348, enclosed a small area *c* 1.25 m^2 against this eastern angle. The chamber so formed would have provided sufficient space for a person. It is thought that this eastern 'chamber' was not part of the original design. The function and chronology of these features are not clear. It is possible that the western part of 2348 was integral with the original construction of B 9, with the eastern angled extension being a later addition, perhaps contemporary with the construction of the eastern wall leading from B 9, with which it is aligned. Although quite tentative, this interpretation would therefore place the structure in Phase 4b. The effect would have created a probable gated entrance (1.4 m wide) leading through towards the inner courtyard. This entrance structure went out of use during the mid to later 4th century when B 9 was demolished and enclosure E 21 was dug. Finds from the robber trenches included just over 0.9 kg of pottery along with iron nails, vessel and window glass, a bone pin and a copper alloy finger ring.

Phase 4c (mid – late 4th century AD) (Fig. 6.3)

Building 8/9 (Fig. 6.5)

At some point not long after the middle of the 4th century AD, the villa complex underwent drastic alteration, with the southern building (B 9) and eastern boundary wall being demolished, and the remaining building (B 8) being enclosed by a substantial ditch (E 21). Modifications were also made to B 8, comprising the addition of a block to the north-eastern corner, which returned the building to a simple rectangular plan, measuring 14 x 12 m. Wall 2594 abutted the original north-east corner of B 8 and extended north for *c* 10 m, to end at the edge of ditch 700 (E 21), suggesting contemporaneity. The additions to the north-eastern corner of Building 8 resulted in the creation of two new rooms (9, 10) and the re-sizing of Room 8. The northern wall of Room 8 was moved 1 m further north, and a pitched stone wall (1928) was built 2.5 m to the south of this, thus creating Room 9, measuring *c* 2 x 2.5 m. Room 10 in the north-east corner measured 5.5 m by *c* 2.25 m and was taken up by two large sunken chambers, 1909 and 1969

Plate 6.2 Sunken chambers in B 8

(see Pl. 6.2). Chamber 1909 was the most northerly and largest in area, 2.5 m square and 0.8 m deep (see section 120, Fig. 6.8). The north-east and west sides were all near vertical, cutting down on the inside edge of the structural walls. The south side was more uneven with a tongue of gravel extending into the centre of the chamber, perhaps marking the position of steps down. Traces of clay were found on the floor, suggesting a clay lining. The fill suggested a rapid process of infilling, but gave no clear indication of function or duration of use. No evidence for the revetting of the gravel sides was forthcoming. Finds were few and appeared to be mainly building debris. Two coins dated AD 330-5 and AD 350-400 were recovered from the top fill and over 2.5 kg of pottery was found spread throughout the layers, providing a general 4th-century date. Other finds included 1.6 kg of tile, building stone, nails, a bone gaming piece/veneer (Fig. 6.17, no. 24), vessel glass, a whetstone and 145 animal bone fragments. The character of the infill and the lack of any deep later silting over the top may suggest the chamber was infilled prior to the abandonment of the building.

Separated from 1909 by a small gravel causeway was the smaller but deeper chamber 1969 (see section 121, Fig. 6.9). This measured 2.5 x 2 m and was 1.5 m deep, a depth comparable to some of the waterholes elsewhere on site. Like 1909, it was vertical sided and flat bottomed, although there was no indication of steps. The fill contrasted to 1909, in that the lower 0.5 m appeared to have silted during use. It consisted of a series of layers and lenses of clay, silt and gravel but with no organic matter in evidence. Finds included two Roman coins, from the lower part of the infilling, dated to AD 335-41, and AD 345-53. Other finds included large numbers of iron nails throughout the layers, vessel glass and stone roofing slate. The latter came from the upper layer and may have derived from the roof over this extension. Over 5.7 kg of pottery and 232 animal bone fragments were recovered from this feature. The lack of demolition rubble and later silting suggests that 1969 was infilled prior to the building's destruction. The function of the two pits is unclear, although it is possible that they were used for the temporary storage of fish, as has been suggested for similar pit 1989 to the north (see Discussion below).

The inner late Roman enclosure (E 21) (Fig. 6.4)

During the latter part of the 4th century a sub-rectangular enclosure (E 21), 32 m across, enclosed much of the central area in Trench 13, with Building 8 situated in the north-west corner. A small 2 m wide causeway lay on the south side where it cut through Building 9. The enclosure showed signs of having had at least two major phases. The earliest was defined by ditch 765 (0.8 m wide, *c* 0.5 m deep), located on the north side. It is unclear whether this feature continued round the whole circuit as the later phase (700, 780) had removed all traces on the west, east and south sides. This later phase of E 21 comprised two separate sections (Fig. 6.4). The western arm (700) was traced WNW for *c* 15 m before turning NNE for *c* 40 m, and continuing beyond the northern trench edge. The eastern arm (780) formed an S-shape in plan, with the northern terminal being cut by post-medieval ditch 500. The southern terminal lay just short of ditch 700, thus forming the entrance. Ditch profiles and size were all consistently *c* 1.2 m wide and *c* 1 m deep. The enclosure may have been open to the north, unless ditch 765 remained in use at this time.

Plate 6.3 Wells 697 and 696

Ditch 894 (*c* 1.1 m wide, 1 m deep) to the south-east may also have been part of this enclosure arrangement, with two cuts appearing to relate to the two phases of enclosure (Fig. 6.4). It may have been one of a number of ditches which defined two enclosures branching off from E 21 to the north-east. The exact extent of these enclosures remains unknown. Three sections of a possible southern enclosure (1860, 1546, 819) were also revealed, but not physically connected with E 21.

The south and west sides of E 21 were deliberately infilled with limestone rubble, while the

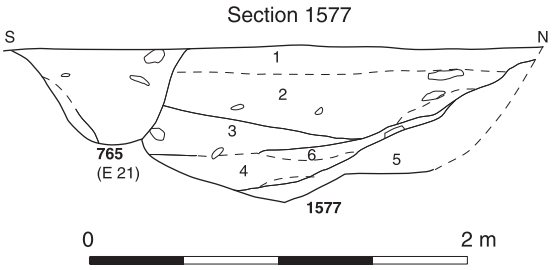


Fig. 6.6 Section through pit 1577

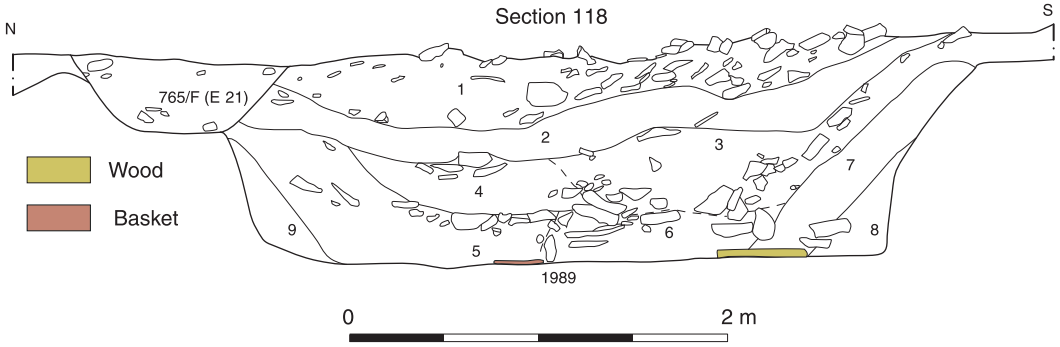


Fig. 6.7 Section 118 through pit 1989

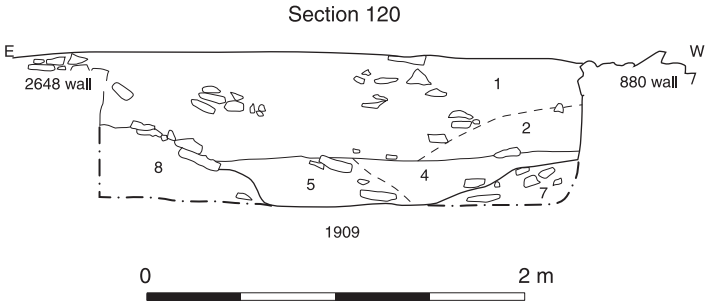


Fig. 6.8 Section 120 through pit 1909

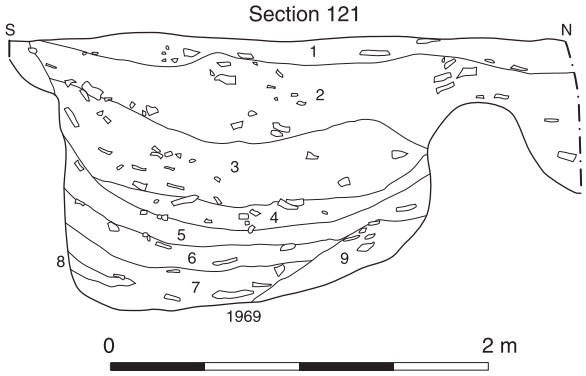


Fig. 6.9 Section 121 through pit 1969

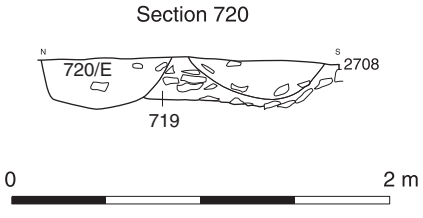


Fig. 6.10 Section through drain 720

eastern side also showed signs of deliberate infill. Over 33 kg of pottery was recovered from E 21 in total, mostly dating from the 4th century, but too mixed to provide a more accurate chronology. Other finds included three coins, dating from the later 3rd to later 4th century, vessel glass, ceramic tile (*c* 23 kg), rotary quern fragments (Fig. 6.20, no. 2), spindlewhorls, a horse fitting (Fig. 6.17, no.26) and a small quantity of personal ornamentation (brooch, pins, etc). A total of 1966 animal bone fragments, largely unidentifiable but including cattle, sheep, a little pig and horse, was also recovered.

Well 697 (Fig. 6.4, Pl. 6.3)

Although well 697 was the latest Roman well on site it was the worst preserved. It cut through the heated floor of Building 9 (Room 1) in the later 4th century, but had been much disturbed by the construction of well 696 during the medieval period (see Pl. 6.3). It was slightly smaller (0.6 m in diameter and 1.7 m deep) than well 502, but of similar stone-lined construction (see Chapter 5). Five coins were recovered from the lower fill with a date range of AD 260-341, all of which would seem to predate its construction. How long it was in use cannot be determined but its position must have been an influencing factor for the siting of the adjacent medieval well 696. Organic material was recovered from the surviving levels including part of a small wooden bowl. Over 2.7 kg of pottery and 245 animal bone fragments were recovered from this feature.

Phase 4d (later 4th century AD) (Fig. 6.3)

Building 8 (Fig. 6.5)

At a stage post-dating the addition of the sunken chambers on the north-eastern corner, a drain (720) was cut through the west wall (719) of B 8 into Room 2 (see section, Fig. 6.10), and an area of hard-standing laid down in the northern part of this room. The drain was orientated west cutting across the top of the later Roman Enclosure ditch E 21. A later cut (2708) ran into the large sump 2721 to the west (Fig. 6.4). It is possible that these drains were partially stone-lined, and were both *c* 0.6 m wide and 0.2-0.3 m deep. Stratigraphically this modifica-

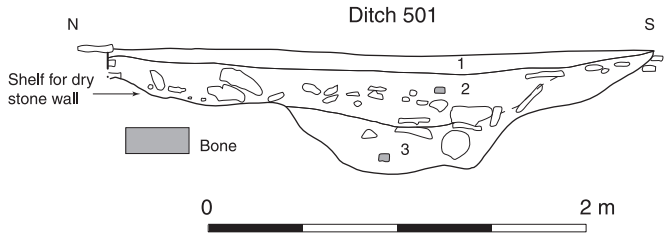


Fig. 6.11 Section through ditch 501 (E 22)

Plate 6.4 Enclosure E 22 looking north

tion is the latest change to Building 8, and may have involved some major rebuilding since the surviving walls either side of this drain are of different widths (see Fig. 6.5). Many finds were recovered from the various cuts of the drain and the sump including over 9 kg of pottery, 3 kg of ceramic tile, 700 animal bone fragments, iron nails, mortar and plaster, stone roofing slates, three 4th-century coins (latest issue AD 388-402), two glass beads (Fig. 6.16, no. 13-14), a quernstone and part of a limestone column (Fig. 6.21, no.5). This material is likely to have derived from the demolition of the building.

The outer late Roman enclosure (E 22) (Figs 6.4 and 6.11, Pl. 6.4)

The latest Roman phase is marked by a large sub-rectangular enclosure ditch E 22 (501), clearly visible on aerial photographs, which was roughly concentric with the inner enclosure E 21, but covered a much wider area (*c* 50 m across). The ditch on average was between 1.5 and 3 m across and 0.6 to 1.2 m deep and the inner edge was marked by a shallow shelf (see section, Fig. 6.11). On parts of the southern and western sides of this shelf a narrow dry stone wall survived up to three courses (see Pl. 6.4). There was an apparent gap in the wall of *c* 5 m on the southern side, on the same line as the entrance to the inner enclosure. The wall was faced only on its outer edge, the inner face being left ragged, and had an approximate width of *c* 0.4 m. The upper fill of ditch 501 was distinctive, being an alluvial deposit up to 0.3 m in depth. Finds from within this layer included sherds of 13th-century pottery and a coin dated 1205-15. Roman finds from the lower levels ranged from a small number of domestic items (bone pin, copper alloy thimble and pendant (Fig. 6.18, no. 41), brooch, querns and vessel glass) to building debris. Just 16 kg of pottery and 5 kg of ceramic tile were recovered from all of the enclosure sections, along with over 2000 animal bone fragments, largely unidentifiable fragments but including sheep, cattle, horse and a little pig.

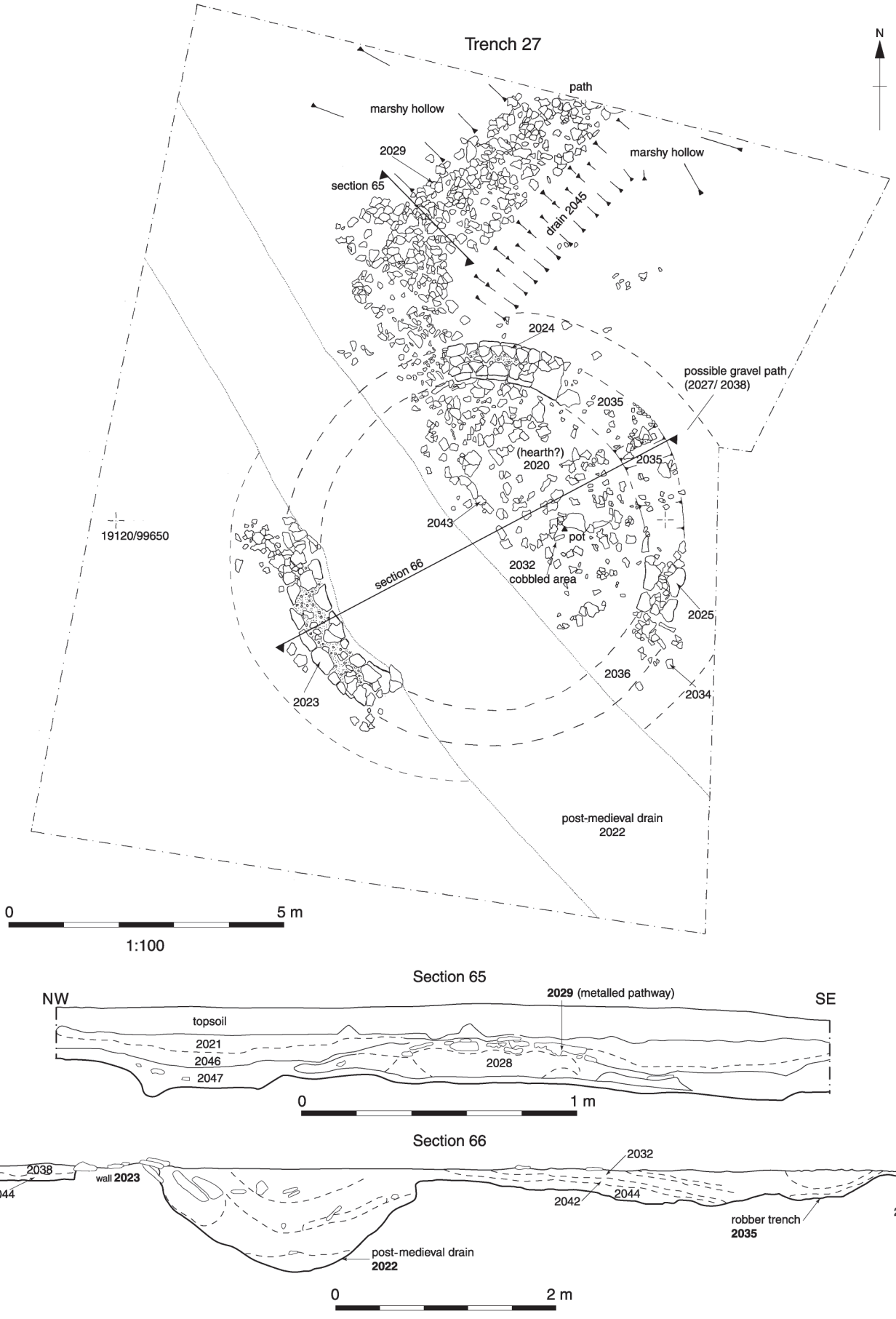
Trench 27 – The late Roman shrine (Fig. 6.12, Pl. 6.5)

A roughly rectangular area (*c* 180 m^2) was excavated just off the north-east corner of Trench 13 (see Fig. 6.3), which exposed a circular masonry building interpreted as a shrine, along with an associated cobbled path (Fig. 6.12). The shrine was sited on an island of silts and clays, which fell away to the north into the palaeochannel. The structure comprised three wall arcs (2023, 2024, 2025) and stretches of robber trenches (2035, 2036) outlining a circular building with an internal diameter of approximately 6 m. The wall foundations were an average of 0.7 m in width where preserved, and were two courses deep, of flat limestone slabs with shaped faces to give smoothly curved inner and outer foundation faces. The core of the foundations was of solidly mortared rubble. The wall footings laid on this foundation were preserved only on wall arc 2024, the northern wall, and a very short section on the east end of wall arc 2023, forming the south wall of the building. These wall footings were 0.55 m wide and also two courses thick, made up of slabs smaller than those used for the foundation, but also with inner and outer wall faces shaped. The core of the wall was again of mortared rubble. The walls and foundations were set into shallow trenches about 0.45 m deep (from modern ground level) and varying from 0.8 to 1 m wide where preserved between wall arcs 2024 and 2025 along the north-east line of the building (section 66, Fig. 6.12). The limestone slabs for the foundations and wall footings are of Cotswold limestone, while all the rest of the stone and cobbles are local material.

A post-medieval field drainage ditch (2022) running from north-west to south-east cut through the south-west half of the building, removing two sections of the wall and destroying almost exactly half of the interior (Fig. 6.12). No positive evidence for an entrance was preserved, though a doorway could have been positioned to the north-west, associated with the cobbled pathway which approached from the north-east. Alternatively, there may have been a gravel pathway leading around the exterior of the building (contexts 2027, 2038) to an area of cobbling (2034) outside of an entrance facing south-east (see Discussion).

The interior of the shrine was stratified beneath two layers of alluvial deposits, the lower of which was found only inside the building. Below these

Plate 6.5 The late Roman shrine looking south-west and with gravel workings in the distance


Trench 27
N
path
marshy hollow
2029
marshy hollow
section 65
drain 2045
2024
possible gravel path
(2027/ 2038)
2035
(hearth?)
2020
2035
19120/99650
2043
pot
2032
cobbled area
section 66
2025
2036
2034
2023
post-medieval drain
2022
0
5 m
1:100
Section 65
NW
2029 (metalled pathway)
SE
topsoil
2021
2046
2047
2028
0
1 m
Section 66
SW
2038
wall 2023
2044
2032
NE
2042
2044
2027
robber trench
2035
post-medieval drain
2022
0
2 m

alluvial levels was an eroded cobbled surface (2032) which was increasingly worn or eroded towards the south-east, perhaps as a result of increased human activity in the area of the possible entranceway (see section 66, Fig. 6.12). Many well stratified coins (27) and animal bones (154 fragments), along with pottery (1.1 kg) were associated with this surface, including a small complete pot which was placed in a hollow between three large cobbles in the eastern half of the building (Pl. 6.6). An isolated layer of burnt material was located over cobbled surface 2032 in the northern part of the interior, and could possibly represent a hearth. To the south-west of this was an L-shaped setting of stones (2043), a single course deep, the function of which is unclear.

The cobbled pathway

The most prominent external feature was a cobbled pathway (2029) curving from south-west to north-east, and intercepting the shrine at a tangent in the north-west quadrant of the building (Fig. 6.12). This pathway was metalled with unshaped flat limestone slabs laid to form an uneven but solid surface about 1.5 m wide (section 65, Fig. 6.12). Flanking this to the east, and contemporary with it was a ditch (2045) approximately 0.6 m wide and 0.6 m deep. As this ditch paralleled the path to the north, its eastern edge (away from the path) became indistinct and was lost in the silts and peats of the palaeochannel. These marsh deposits were also visible to the west of the pathway where there was a rounded terminal of a wider, shallower marshy hollow or pool. Both ditches are presumed to have served to drain the cobbled path surface. The cobbles were packed onto the top of a foundation of gravelly clay (2028; see section 65, Fig. 6.12). This foundation appears to create a raised causeway across the marshy area; it produced no artefacts and could be either a natural finger of clay or a deliberate construction. The cobbled surface produced only a few fragments of pot, 79 animal bone fragments, an iron nail and three mid-late 4th-century coins.

Chronology

The chronology of the shrine is based upon the ceramic and coin assemblages, the last of which was very substantial given the overall size of the excavated area. Just over 3.5 kg of pottery came from the trench, and about 60 % of this was directly associated with the shrine (ie not from topsoil or external features). A substantial amount (20%) of this comprised Oxford colour-coated wares, indicating a probable 4th-century date, contemporary with the late Roman villa/farmstead in Trench 13. Over 33% (248) of all coins from Claydon Pike came from

Plate 6.6 Miniature pot within shrine

Trench 27, and over 90% of these were 4th-century in date. The number of coins from the years 364 to 378 was particularly high (43.5%), suggesting that the main period of activity lay in the later 4th century (although see King below). The majority of coins from the trench were from unstratified contexts, although of the remaining 56, 48% were from the cobbled layer (2032) within the shrine, and a further 35% from the junction between this layer and the brown gravelly clay beneath (2042; see section 66, Fig. 6.12). Two coins, dated AD 364-78, came from the lowest silt layer (2044) thought to predate the shrine, and if this was the case, then the building looks to have been one of the latest Roman structures on the site. However, the coins came from the top of this layer and it is quite possible that they were intrusive. A small number of coins of Arcadius (AD 388-402) were found across the trench, which suggests that activity continued at least until the end of the 4th century and possibly into the early 5th, although no further building phases were noted.

The finds assemblage

The finds assemblage from the area of the circular shrine is unusual within the site for both its size and its character. Perhaps the most striking aspect is the large quantity of coins, many of which were located within and beneath of the cobbled floor surface, with apparent evidence for specific depositional

Facing page: Fig. 6.12 Trench 27 late Roman shrine

'zoning'. Over 170 sherds of pottery were also recovered from these 'floor' contexts, and a complete small pot (Fig. 6.12, Pl. 6.6) was deliberately buried within the cobbles. Aside from coins, other small finds were scarce, but they did include a 1st-century brooch from just under the cobbled surface, and a bone pin from the cobbled path leading from the probable south-east entrance. An iron chisel and joiner's dog also came from the internal cobbled layer, and a small copper alloy votive axe was recovered from the vicinity of the shrine. A number of animal bone fragments (417) were recorded from Trench 27, although only 10% could be identified to species, and their spatial patterning is unknown. No articulated deposits were recorded. The general character and context of this finds assemblage indicates a religious interpretation (see Discussion).

Trench 30 – the late Roman cemetery (Fig. 6.13, Pl. 6.7)

Trench 30 (*c* 924 m^2) lay *c* 100 m north-west of the late Roman villa and revealed part of a small inhumation cemetery and a section of the doubled-ditched 'trackway' boundary (2739, 2740) surrounding the large western enclosure (Fig. 6.1; see Witkin below). A total of ten burials was revealed, eight of which were clearly associated with two successive enclosure ditches (2737, 2738). The remaining two (2743, 2745) were located 20 m to the east of the main group (Fig. 6.13). All of the burials were of adults, and of the six that could be sexed, four were male and two female. Five of the graves in the core area were oriented NW-SE and the earliest of these was arguably 2741, which was surrounded on three or four sides by enclosure ditch 2737 (6.5 x 5 m). Grave 2773 to the immediate west lay within a similar but smaller (*c* 3 x 4 m) enclosure ditch (2783) and was clearly later since it cut the already silted ditch of its neighbour. The common orientation of graves 2766, 2748 and 2765 suggest these to be broadly contemporary. The outlying graves 2743 and 2745 have an apparently similar orientation but the bodies were inhumed SE-NW; this and their distance makes contemporaneity less certain. Three further graves provide a clear second phase in the core area since they were orientated NE-SW and all cut earlier burials. Their close spatial relationship with earlier features is however suggestive of continuity: 2759 reuses enclosure 2738 while 2760 and 2775 to the immediate west, which themselves intercut, both cut 2766. Two of the burials (2776 and 2744) were decapitation burials.

Few finds were recovered from the trench area, and these included a single late 3rd-century coin, along with a very small amount of pottery (0.7 kg), three iron nails, a 4th-century copper alloy bracelet and just over 300 animal bone fragments. More details of the human remains and a discussion of the cemetery are set out by Witkin below.

Late Roman activity in Trench 19 (Figs 6.2-3)

By the end of Phase 3, it appears that the rectangular enclosure had gone out of use, with dumps of redeposited material spread across parts of the site. In Phase 4a/b a north-south ditch (2375) was dug through parts of the earlier enclosure, with two separate cuts on average *c* 1 m wide and *c* 0.5 m deep (Fig. 6.2). Comparatively large quantities of

Plate 6.7 Late Roman cemetery looking south-east

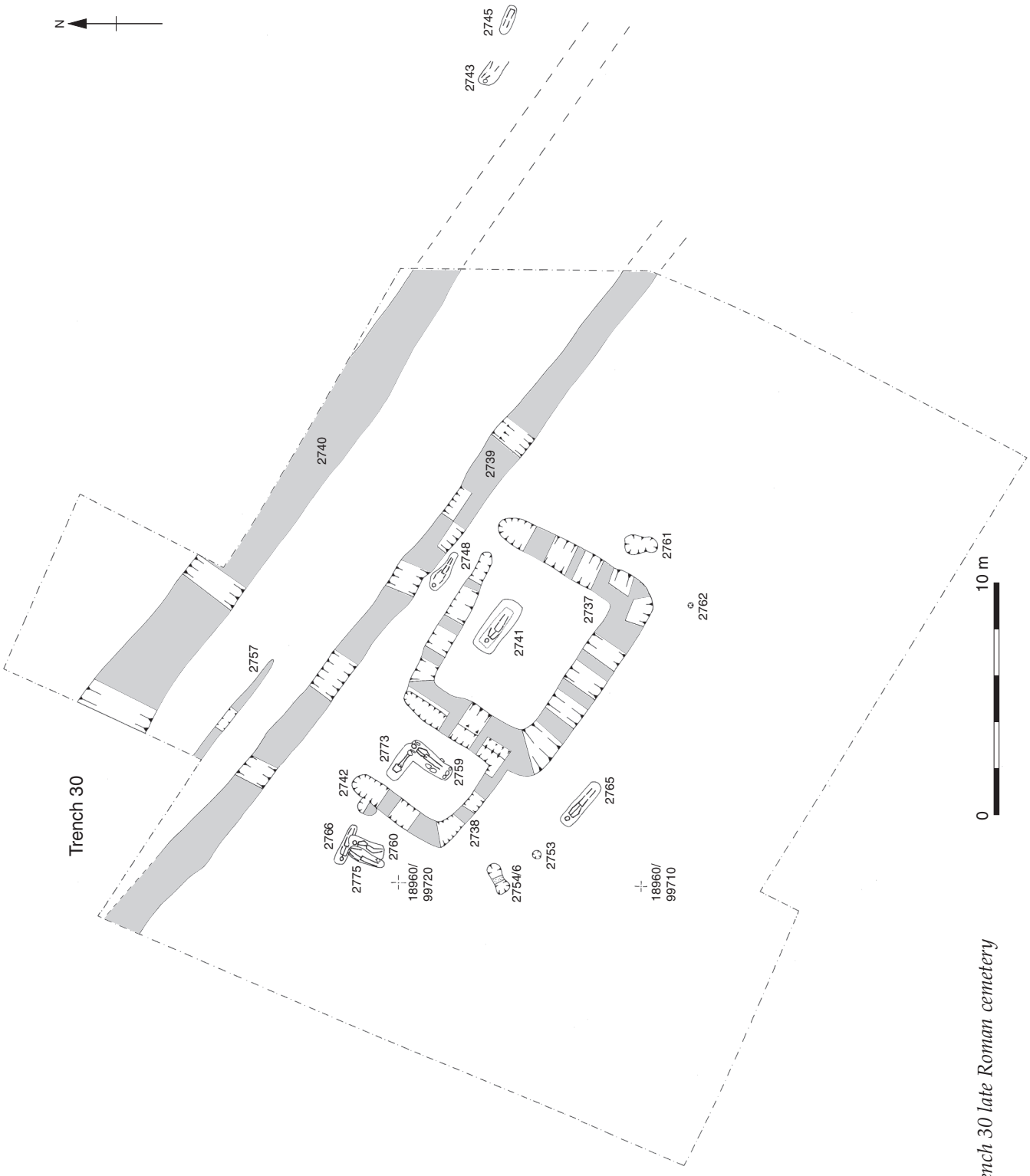


Fig. 6.13 Trench 30 late Roman cemetery

pottery (*c* 20 kg) were recovered from the fills, with a date range indicating activity in the early to mid 4th century (Phase 4a-b). Much of the debris, which included smithing slag, animal bone (1367 fragments), ceramic tile (12 kg), quernstones, vessel glass, stone rubble, a jet bead (Fig. 6.15, no. 8), a bone hairpin (Fig. 6.16, no. 19) and many items of metalwork, was concentrated around the northern terminal. It may in part have come from the destruction of B 9 (see above).

The only feature that can be ascribed to the mid/late 4th century is masonry wall 2475, which formed the latest of the north south boundaries (2162, 2161, 2375) on the eastern side of the enclosure area (Figs 6.2-6.3). The southern extent of the wall in unclear, as actual structural trace of it disappears after *c* 10 metres, although ditch 2375 contained its likely collapse in its upper layers. The wall's construction, where it survived, is reminiscent of the latest Roman extension to Building 8 on Trench 13 (Phase 4b), consisting of a pitched stone foundation with horizontal courses on top. Up to three courses of this pitched foundation survived where it overlay the edge of ditch 2375. It was *c* 0.75 m wide, with a possible length of *c* 35 m. Running perpendicular to wall 2475 in the south-west corner of the enclosure area lay wall 2431. Only a short length of this survived – *c* 6 m – but it was of similar width to 2475, and its eastward continuation would have joined the line of wall 2475 at the point where the rubble infill of ditch 2375 stopped. It seems likely therefore, that the two are contemporary forming a later Roman 'enclosure' (open to the west and north) over the Phase 3 enclosure (Fig. 6.2). It is uncertain for how long this feature was in use, although there does not appear to have been a distinctive late 4th-century pottery assemblage in the trench as a whole, and only 5% of the coins can be dated after AD 350, compared to 21% from Trench 13. This suggests that activity in the area greatly declined after the mid 4th century.

THE FINDS

Large quantities of finds came from Phase 4 contexts, especially considering that the scale of occupation appears to have been much less than the previous settlement, with activity being mostly confined to the villa in Trench 13 and the shrine in Trench 27. Full finds reports from Phase 4 occupation at Claydon Pike can be found in Digital section 3.

Pottery (Fig. 6.14) *by Paul Booth*

A total of just under 212 kg of pottery came from Phase 4 contexts, of which 89 kg (42%) was recorded in detail. A further 133 kg came from Phase 3/4, of which 67 kg (50%) was examined in detail (Tables 6.1 and 6.2). The general Phase 4 assemblage showed a slight but significant increase in fine and specialist ware quantities in comparison with Phase 3 and indeed with the composite Phase 3/4 assemblage. This rise was only slight in Trench 13, and in Trench 19 there was an overall decline in fine and specialist wares, marking a retreat from the high point potentially indicated by abnormal Phase 3 values with a specific functional association. Meanwhile, activity in Trench 17 appears to have ceased by this time. The fine and specialist wares were dominated at this time by Oxford products – colour-coated ware and mortaria in particular. Other components will have included residual material but it is notable that the Trench 27 assemblage, assigned entirely to Phase 4 and thus with no obvious source for residual material, includes 4.5% of samian ware and it is likely that at least some of this material will have been in contemporary use in the 4th century. Equally, in Trench 13 in Phase 4, while the 1st-century 'E' wares were at about one eighth of their Phase 2 level, and thus clearly residual, samian ware was better represented than in Phase 2 and at about two-thirds of the level seen in Phase 3. While some of this material must have been residual it is unlikely that all of it was.

The principal components of the Phase 4 assemblage were still reduced coarse wares and black-burnished ware. The latter generally occurred at a similar level to Phase 3, though an increase from a fairly typical 23.9% of sherds in Phase 3 to 35% in the composite Phase 3/4 group was noted in Trench 17 and is not readily explained. Reduced ware levels also increased slightly from Phase 3 to 4 in Trenches 13 and 29, but declined in Trench 19, a decline corresponding to a sharp rise in the representation of fabric O43 in this trench. This development appears anomalous and is probably not representative of the general trend.

Identification of specific ceramic elements (rather than arguments based on general changes, for example in fabric proportions) which support the mid 4th century and later dating of the latest stages of activity at the site remains slightly problematic. They include Oxford colour-coated ware types such as C70 and C75 (dated after AD 325), C78 (after AD 340) and C13 (?after AD 350, but see Booth *et al.* 1993, 161-3 for a possible earlier date). A wider range of Oxford types with a *terminus post quem* of AD 300 (eg C68, C81 and C83) or only assigned the broad AD 240-400 date bracket, will have included examples dating after *c* AD 350, but these cannot be distinguished on present evidence. An increase in the representation of fabric C11 (late Harrold type shell-tempered ware) was certainly chronologically significant, and characteristic rilled jar and bowl forms were present, particularly in Trench 13.

Two distinct areas not yet mentioned are the circular shrine (Trench 27) and the cemetery (Trench 30). Both were in use for only a limited period and can be relatively closely dated. Only a very small amount of pottery was recovered from both areas. The centre of the circular shrine contained a complete, albeit somewhat lopsided, miniature

Table 6.1: Quantity of major fabric groups in Phase 3/4 and Phase 4

Major fabric group	*Phase 3/4 sherd no.*	*% of Phase 3/4*	*Phase 4 sherd no.*	*% of Phase 4*
Samian (S)	119	2.2	310	3.1
Fine wares (F)	401	7.4	1011	10.1
Amphorae (A)	49	0.9	140	1.4
Mortaria (M)	60	1.1	150	1.5
White Firing Wares (W)*	103	1.9	150	1.5
White slipped wares (Q)*	157	2.9	210	2.1
Early 'Belgic type' wares (E)	54	1	190	1.9
Oxidised 'coarse' wares (O)	282	5.2	881	8.8
Reduced coarse wares (R)	2410	44.5	4294	42.9
Black-burnished wares (B)	1630	30.1	2242	22.4
Calcareous tempered wares (C)	135	2.5	400	4
Unclassified	16	0.3	30	0.3
Total	5415	100	10010	100

* except mortaria

Table 6.2: Major vessel types in Phase 3/4 and Phase 4 (RE)

	Phase 3/4 Rim equivalents (RE)	*% of Phase 3/4*	*Phase 4 Rim equivalents (RE)*	*% of Phase 4*
Amphorae (A)	0.00	0	0.48	0.4
Flagons (B)	0.39	0.7	6.04	5
Jars (C)	37.49	67.5	74.24	61.5
Jars/bowls (D)	0.06	0.1	0.12	0.1
Beakers (E)	2.55	4.6	5.79	4.8
Cups (F)	0.61	1.1	1.93	1.6
Tankards (G)	0.50	0.9	0.97	0.8
Bowls (H)	6.55	11.8	17.26	14.3
Bowls/dishes (I)	0.00	0	0.12	0.1
Dishes (J)	3.78	6.8	5.55	4.6
Mortaria (K)	1.83	3.3	4.22	3.5
Lids (L)	0.61	1.1	2.05	1.7
'Castor box' (MI)	0.17	0.3	0.36	0.3
Unknown (Z)	1.00	1.8	1.57	1.3
Total	55.54	100	120.71	100

colour-coated (fabric F63) beaker – perhaps a product of the North Wiltshire kilns (Pl. 6.6). There are no precise parallels for this vessel from the region as far as is known but similar small bulbous beakers were produced by the Oxford pottery industry and dated to the 4th century (Young 1977, 74, fig 66, C102). It may be significant that at least two of these miniature Oxford vessels from sites in Somerset were found "containing hoards or in association with hoards" (Young 1977, 127), but a funerary association is also indicated at sites in Oxfordshire such as Barrow Hills, Radley (cf Booth 2001, 35). Apart from this vessel the pottery from the area of the shrine (approximately 3.5 kilos in total) consists primarily of equal quantities of reduced coarse wares (almost entirely the North Wiltshire fabric R35) and black-burnished ware. The small size of the assemblage makes qualitative assessment difficult, but the proportions of the ware groups, including the high representation of Oxford colour-coated ware, do not suggest that a large proportion of the assemblage was residual, for example having perhaps been redeposited from elsewhere.

Only stray sherds of pottery came from the area of the late Roman cemetery – there were no vessels associated with the burials.

Figure 6.14 presents a selected group of Phase 4 pottery from Trench 13 pit 1989. A full catalogue of illustrated sherds can be found in Digital section 3.2.

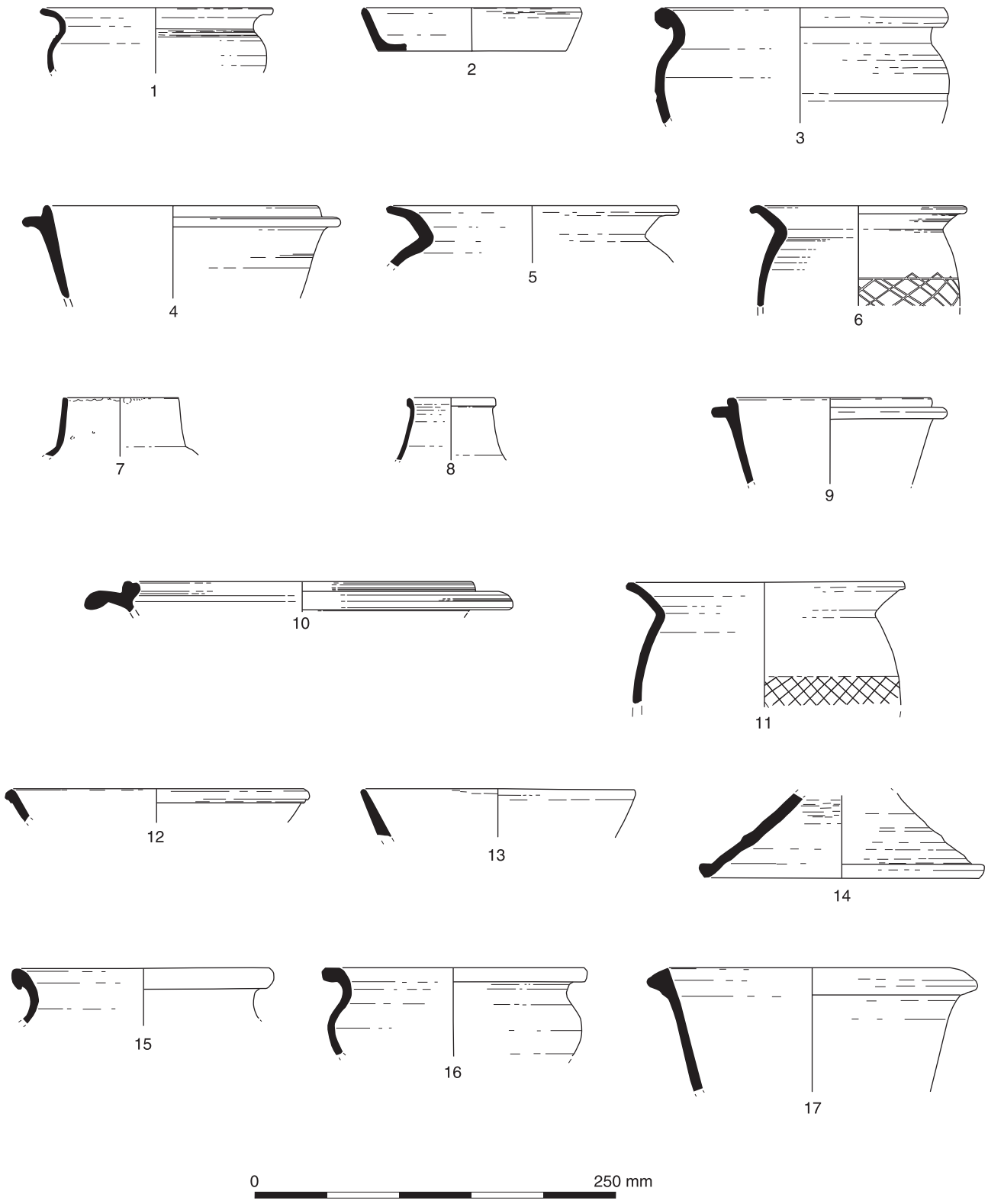


Fig. 6.14 Group 3 pottery from Phase 4a/b Pit 1989

Illustrated catalogue: group 3 pottery from Phase 4a/b pit 1989 (Fig. 6.14)

In stratigraphic sequence:
1. R30, CM (?Young type R38). 1989/A/6
2. B11, JA. 1989/A/6
3. R30, CM (?Young type R38). 1989/A/5
4. B11, JA. 1989/A/5
5. B11, CK. 1989/B/3-4
6. B11, CK. 1989/B/3-4
7. F52, E. 1989/B/3-4
8. F52, E. 1989/B/3-4
9. B11, JA. 19898/B/3-4
10. M22, KD (Young type M22). 1989/A/3
11. B11, CK. 1989/A/2
12. F51, HC (Young type C45). 1989/A/2
13. B11, JA. 1989/A/2
14. R30, L. 1989/A/2
15. C11, CK. 1989/A/1
16. R30, CM (Young type R38). 1989/A/1
17. C11, HB. 1989/A/1

Table 6.3: Late Roman coins from Claydon Pike

Date	*Total no.*	*% from site*
295-317	19	2.6
317-330	21	2.9
330-348	171	23.3
348-360	71	9.7
364-378	157	21.4
378-388	1	0.1
388-402	21	2.9
Illegible 4th century	42	5.7
Total	503	68.8

Coins *by Cathy King*

A total of 104 coins came from definite Phase 4 contexts with a further 32 from Phase 3/4. However, of the total coin assemblage, 68.8% (503 coins) were 4th-century in date, and therefore probably relate to Phase 4 occupation (Table 6.3). The largest single concentration, a total of 248 coins, came from Trench 27 in the area of the circular shrine, although of these only 23% came from stratified contexts (Table 6.4).

As reiterated in Chapter 5, the concentration of the coinage in the later 3rd and 4th centuries was within the periods of peak coin loss established by Reece (1991; 1993) and others for Britain as a whole, and is compatible with the rural nature of the settle-

Table 6.4: Coins from Trench 27 – the late Roman shrine

		Genuine		*Imitations*		*Total*	
		no.	*%*	*no.*	*%*	*no.*	*%*
Roman republic		-	-	-	-	-	-
1st century		1	100	-	-	1	0.4
2nd century		2	100	-	-	2	0.8
1st / 2nd century to 193		4	100	-	-	4	1.6
193-253		-	-	1	100	1	0.4
253-296		6	60	4	40	10	4
	Central empire	3	100	-	-		
	Gallic empire	3	42.8	4	57.1		
	British empire	-	-	-	-		
	Illegible	-	-	-	-		
295-317		3	100	-	-	3	1.2
317-330		3	100	-	-	3	1.2
330-348		43	91.5	4	8.5	47	18.9
	330-335	19	86.4	3	13.6		
	335-341	5	100	-	-		
	341-348	17	94.4	1	5.6		
	Illegible	2	100	-	-		
348-360		1	31.4	24	68.6	35	14.1
	Central empire	8	26.7	22	73.3		
	Mag. and Dec.	2	50	2	50		
	Illegible	1	100	-	-		
364-378		108	100	-	-	108	43.5
378-388		-	-	-	-	-	-
388-402		10	100	-	-	10	4
Illegible 4th century		19	100	-	-	19	7.7
Illegible 3rd / 4th century		5	100	-	-	5	2
Totals		215	86.7	33	13.3	248	99.8

ment and the presence of the villa and the shrine. Although the number of coins found in the shrine datable to AD 260-96 is low (10 coins, 4%) the major periods in the 4th century are better represented: AD 330-48, 18.9% (47 coins); AD 348-60, 14.1% (85 coins); AD 364-78, 43.5% (108 coins), AD 388-402, 4% (10 coins). (Table 6.4) Thus 210 coins (84.6%) out of the total of 248 pieces belong in these years of which 200 (80.6%) were minted between AD 330 and AD 402. The number of coins from the shrine that can be dated to AD 364 to AD 378 is unusually high at 43%. The possible shrine at Lowbury also had an exceptionally high proportion (33.5%) of coins from the years AD 364-78 (Davies 1985, 1-13). By comparison the mausoleum from the Bancroft Villa site (Williams and Zeepvat 1994) had 22.5% of coins from this period which is paralleled by the 25% from the temple at Nettleton (Wedlake 1982). Both totals are significantly lower than that at Claydon Pike.

The possibility that the coins from the shrine contain a dispersed hoard of coins largely composed of pieces minted between AD 364 and AD 378 must be considered since it might explain the abnormally high number of coins from this period. All of the coins datable between AD 364 and AD 378 occurred within a five-metre radius and most were clustered in a corner of the shrine. This evidence seems to support the supposition that the pattern of coin loss within the shrine may have been distorted by the intrusion of a hoard. However, 4th-century temples and villas do tend to have high numbers of coins from the 4th century AD, which can peak in the years AD 364 to 378, and therefore this may argue against the coins in the Claydon Pike shrine being a hoard.

Metal and glass small finds (Figs 6.15-19; Table 6.5)
by Hilary Cool

The later 3rd- and 4th-century material from Claydon Pike is quite widely distributed across the main excavated area, even in areas such as Trench 17 where it is not believed there was any formal Phase 4 occupation. Later 4th- or early 5th-century activity is clearly indicated in Trenches 5, 13 and 19 but it should be noted that it only takes the form of a handful of items of personal ornament (notably glass beads) and so the degree of activity or occupation is unknown, and it might just reflect casual loss.

If the building material is excluded, and if allowance is made for the smaller number of contexts belonging to Phase 4, this final Roman phase can be seen as the most productive in terms of the density of finds. In Phase 3, finds occur within 533 contexts at a ratio of 0.6 finds per context. In Phase 4 there are 206 finds-producing contexts, and a ratio of 1.1 finds per context. Again Trench 13 provides the greatest range of finds categories, and again the character of the occupation is decidedly domestic with the tool category still dominated by knives and blade fragments (see Fig. 6.17, nos 29-31). As would be expected of a late Roman context, bracelets dominate the items of personal ornament (Table 6.6), and are quite unusual in that nearly all of the decorated examples are of a single style (dotted), which might hint at a preferred design by a local workshop (Fig 6.15). The hairpins of late Roman form were all of bone (Fig. 6.16), unlike the earlier metal examples, which may suggest that the women at Claydon Pike during Phase 4 had less resources available to spend on their jewellery.

An interesting feature of the Phase 4 finds assemblage is that the inhabitants appeared to exhibit a much greater concern for security than they had in Phase 3 (Fig. 6.18). This is shown by the much higher number of tumbler and lever locks and padlocks from this phase, whereas the low level security latch-lifter was more a feature of Phase 3. A final item worth mentioning is the single copper

Table 6.5: Distribution of small finds by trench from Phase 4 contexts (excluding building material, miscellaneous items and residual material)

	Trench					
Function	*13*	*19*	*27*	*29*	*30*	*Total*
Personal	31	6	-	2	22	61
Tools	6	1	1	1	-	9
Fasteners	16	3	1	-	-	20
Transport	2	1	-	-	-	3
Household	5	-	-	-	-	5
Textile	1	-	-	-	-	1
Toilet	1	-	-	-	-	1
Weighing	1	-	-	-	-	1
Agriculture	1	-	-	-	-	1
Bone working	1	-	-	-	-	1
Metal working	1	-	-	-	-	1
Total	35	11	2	3	22	73

Table 6.6: Personal ornaments and clothes accessories from Phase 4

Simple Name	*No.*
Brooch	9*
Bracelet	12
Finger ring	1
Necklace	-
Bead	7
Pendant	-
Hair pin	8
Ear-ring	1
Belt fittings	-
Dress pin	-
Shoe cleat	2
Hobnail	26
Total	66

* Entry includes 1 item whose identification is not secure

alloy miniature axe, which came from the area of the circular shrine, and was undoubtedly related to the religious use of this building (Fig, 6.19, no. 44). A similar axe was found at Somerford Keynes (see Digital section 5.3).

The overall assemblage of vessel glass included a substantial quantity of late Roman material, especially drinking vessels. The most common drinking vessels were hemispherical cups and conical beakers with cracked off rims, which were types in use throughout the 4th century. Other 4th-century vessels include jugs, two Frontinus bottles and an example of the rare hexagonal dolphin-handled bottle. For the 4th century the dominance of drinking cups is normal on all types of sites while the good showing of the closed forms in the shape of jugs and bottles seems characteristic of rural sites (Cool and Baxter 1999, 89). The villa thus has the sort of assemblage that is to be expected. The indented truncated conical bowls indicate vessel use in to second half of the 4th century, but there is no evidence of use at the end of the century.

Figures 6.15-19 present a selected group of small finds either from Phase 4 contexts or else dating to this period. A full illustrated catalogue can be found in Digital section 3.4.

Illustrated catalogue: Bracelets associated with Phase 4 (Fig. 6.15)

1. *2430 SF 2861. Cable twist bracelet.* Copper alloy. C4. Diameter 47 x 33 mm, section 3 mm. Trench 19
2. *2851 SF 3037. Torc-twisted bracelet.* Copper alloy. C3-C4. Present length 44 mm, section 3.5 x 1.5 mm. Trench 29, Phase 3
3. *U/S SF 3041. Light Bangle.* Copper alloy. C4. Diameter *c* 62 mm, section 3 x 1.5 mm
4. *1234 SF 889. Light bangle.* Copper alloy. C4. Present diameter 64 mm, section 3 x 1 mm. Trench 13
5. *687 SF 415. Light bangle.* Copper alloy. C4. Diameter 52 mm, section 3 x 1.5 mm. Trench 13, Phase 3
6. *U/S SF 1283. Light bangle.* Copper alloy. C4. Present length 61 mm, section 4 x 1 mm. Trench 27
7. *668 SF 1957. Bracelet.* Copper alloy. See (Swift 2000, 163). In Britain the form has a SW bias. Present length 25 mm, section 13 x 1 mm. Trench 17, Phase 3/4
8. *2407 SF 2131. Bracelet bead.* Jet. Section 22 x 10 mm, length 9.5 mm. Trench 19, Phase 4
9. *2408 SF 1820. Bracelet.* Jet. Band of elongated diamonds carved out on each side. Outer diameter 85 mm, *c* 28% of circumference present; section 15.5 x 6 mm. Trench 19, Phase 3/4

Other ornamentation associated with Phase 4 (Fig. 6.16)

10. *797 SF 654. Finger ring.* Silver. Pronged bezel finger ring. Cool Group XIX (see also Allason-Jones 1989, type 2a). Diameter 21 x 21 mm, section 1.5 mm. Trench 13
11. *U/S SF 2627. Finger ring.* Copper alloy. Obscured by corrosion products. Diameter 23.5 mm., section 3 x 2 mm
12. *U/S SF 2684. Finger ring.* Copper alloy. Diameter 22 mm
13. *720 SF 972. Bead.* Glass. Disc cylindrical. Opaque green. Diameter 5 mm, Length 3.5 mm, Perforation diameter 3 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
14. *728 SF 553. Bead.* Glass. Very roughly wound ovoid bead. Translucent blue/green. One end broken. Diameter 7.5 mm, Length 10 mm, Perforation diameter 1.5-2 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
15. *2401 SF 1803. Bead.* Glass. Long rectangular-sectioned cylindrical. Translucent blue/green. Diameter 5 x 4 mm, Length 18 mm, Perforation diameter 2 mm. Trench 19, Phase 3/4
16. *U/S SF 2473. Bead.* Glass. Segmented. Blue/green appearing opaque. 3 segments. Wound and crimped. Diameter 4 x 3.5 mm, Length 8 mm, Perforation diameter 3 x 1.5 mm
17. *2317 SF 1843. Bead.* Jet. Cylindrical with faint transverse ribbing. In two joining fragments. Length 20 mm, section 3.5 m. Trench 13
18. *577 SF 876. Hairpin.* Bone. Biconical knob head with cordon below. Present length 47 mm, head section 6 mm, shank section 3.5 mm. Trench 13, Phase 2
19. *2407 SF 1996. Hairpin.* Bone. Oval-sectioned knob head with conical terminal. Present length 49 mm, head section 7.5 x 5 mm, shank section 4.5 x 4 mm. Trench 19, Phase 4
20. *2616 SF 2584. Hairpin.* Bone. Flat-headed knob head. In two joining pieces. Present length 50 mm, head section 7 mm, shank section 3.5 mm. Trench 13
21. *2800 SF 2965. Hairpin.* Bone. Oval knob head with conical knob terminal and cordon below. Present length 46 mm, head diameter 9 mm, shank section 4 mm. Trench 29, Phase 3/4
22. *1919 SF 1205. Earring.* Copper alloy. Diameter *c* 22 mm, section 3 x 1.5 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4

Household, weighing, transport and tools associated with Phase 4 (Fig. 6.17)

23. *1764 SF 1046. Veneer.* Bone. Asymmetrical diamond-shape; unfinished back. Length 32.5 mm, width 14 mm, thickness 5 mm, Trench 13, Phase 3/4
24. *1909 SF 1191. Veneer.* Bone. Square block with unfinished back; 5 ring-and-dots on front face Dimensions 20.5 x 19 mm, thickness 6 mm. Trench 13. Phase 4
25. *693 SF 462. Plumb bob.* Iron. Length 50 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
26. *1766 SF 1047. Bridle fitting.* Bar with broken ring at one end. This would be consistent with being part of a snaffle bit, though the bow appears narrow. Present length 41 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
27. *2441 SF 2084. Cooper's croze.* Iron. Present length 116 mm, handle section 14.5 mm, bar length 45 mm. Trench 29
28. *2833 SF 3293. Cooper's croze.* Iron. Present length 178 mm, handle section 17.5 x 5 mm, width blade 41 mm. Trench 29, Phase 3/4
29. *693 SF 844. Knife.* Iron. Straight back in same line as tang with loop handle; deep blade edge curved up to tip. Deeper blade than normal. Length 115 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
30. *667 SF 710. Knife.* Iron. Straight back with blade edge and front of back curving to tip; stepped shoulders; slightly angled tang. Length 112 mm. Trench 17, Phase 3/4
31. *2803 SF 2968. Knife.* Iron. Triangular blade with slightly curved back dropping down from tang to broken tip; straight edge and back. Length 143 mm. Trench 29, Phase 3/4

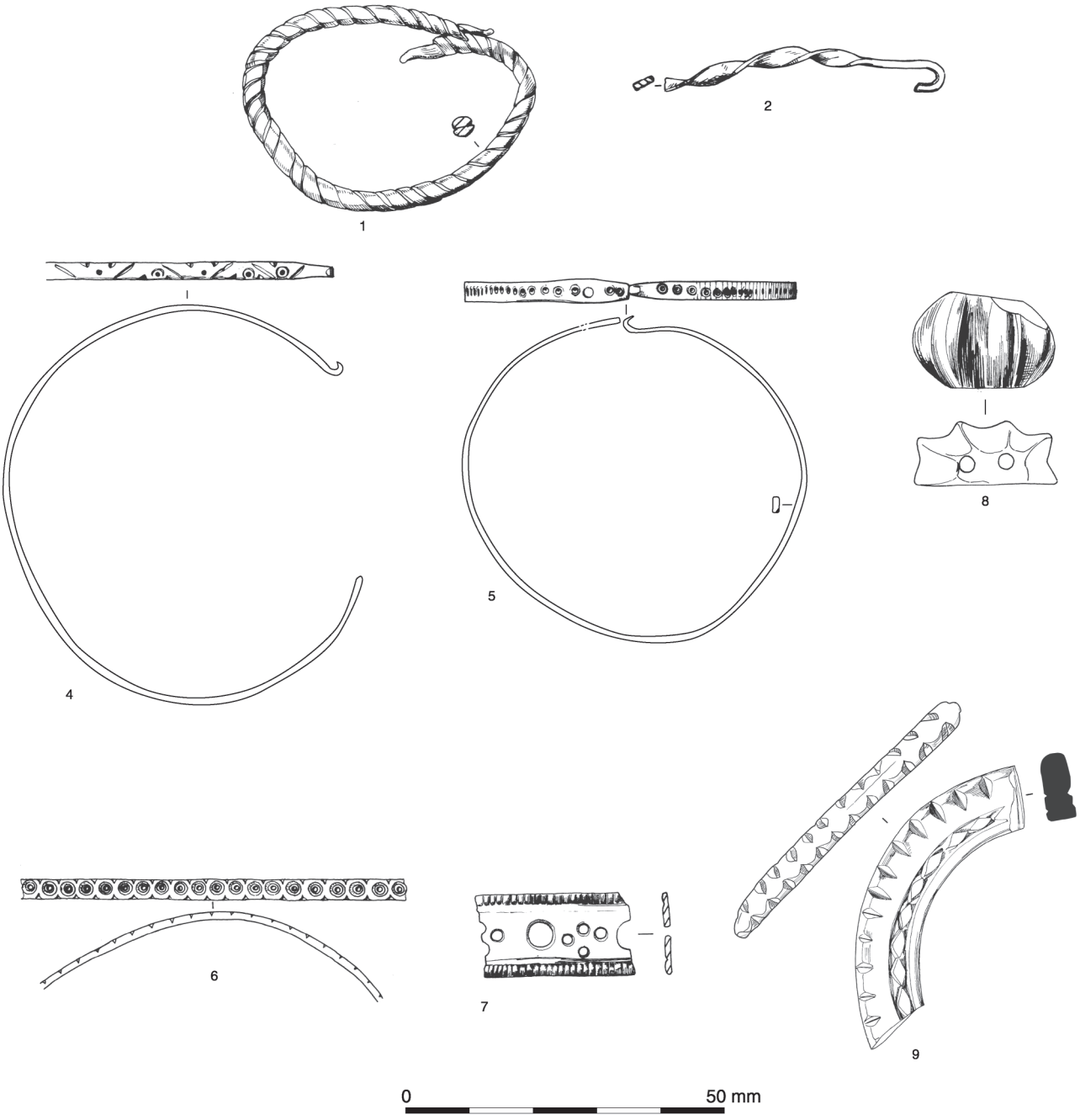


Fig. 6.15 Bracelets associated with Phase 4

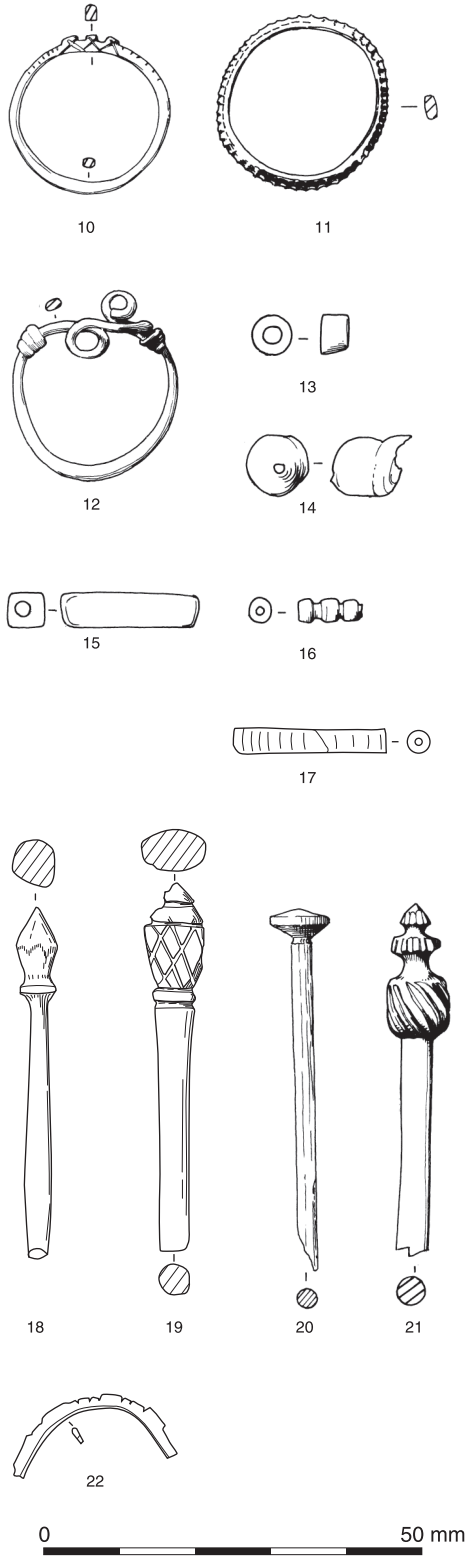


Fig. 6.16 Other ornamentation associated with Phase 4

Security and fittings associated with Phase 4 (Fig. 6.18)

32. *878 SF 1146. Latch-lifter.* Iron. See Manning (1985, 88). Length 331 mm, handle section 16 x 6 mm, lifter section *c* 7 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
33. *693 SF 827. Slide key.* Iron. This seems to be a hybrid between an L-shaped lift key and a slide key (see Manning 1985, 90-92). Length 105 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
34. *1577 SF 965. Lever-lock key.* Iron. See Manning (1985, 94). Length 28.5 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
35. *541 SF 112. L-shaped lift key.* Iron. Length 110 mm. See Manning (1985, 88). Trench 13
36. *504 SF 72. Padlock bolt.* Iron. Length 82 mm. Trench 13
37. *U/S SF 495. Lock bolt.* Copper alloy. Length 36 mm., section 13.5 x 5 mm. Trench 13
38. *2430 SF 2752. L-shaped lift key.* Iron. Manning 1985, 88. Length 176 mm. Trench 19
39. *1577 SF 2796. Mount.* Copper alloy sheet with iron shank and large boss on front obscured by iron corrosion products, consisting of lead alloy judged by X-ray. Possibly a box mount cf examples on a casket used in a mid to late 2nd-century burial at Skeleton Green (Borrill 1981, 305), and composite studs were also used in 4th-century caskets (Crummy 1983, 85, nos 2179-82). Dimensions of plate 68 x 47 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
40. *693 SF 487. Mount.* Iron. Diameter 36 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
41. *501 SF 1132. Pendant.* Copper alloy. Diameter of cup 16 x 11 mm, depth 18 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4

Agricultural, military and religious objects associated with Phase 4 (Fig. 6.19)

42. *693 SF 585. Pruning hook.* Iron. Length 350 mm, blade depth 17 mm. Trench 13, Phase 4
43. *687 SF 450. Buckle.* Copper alloy. This would appear to be an example of a Simpson (1976) Group I buckle. Buckles of this sort are rarely found in Britain (see for example Swift 2000, fig 234) though an example was recovered from the Lankhills School cemetery in Winchester (Clarke 1979, 270, fig 34 no 70). Later C4. Length 38 mm, width 17 mm. Trench 13, Phase 3
44. *U/S SF 2814. Miniature axe.* Copper alloy. Upper part of handle square-sectioned, lower circular; one face with grooved decoration. For a discussion of these see Green (1985). Length 32.5 mm, max width 23 mm, handle section 4 mm. Trench 27

Worked stone (Fig. 6.20) *by Fiona Roe*

A total of 18 objects of worked stone came from Phase 4 contexts, not including building stone (Table 6.7). Four definite rotary quern fragments were recovered, three of which were of Upper Old Red Sandstone (ORS) from the Forest of Dean (Fig. 6.20, nos 1-2), the same as most of the Phase 3 examples (see Roe, Chapter 5 for full discussion). All of the three millstones and a quern/millstone were also of Upper ORS. Unlike Phase 3, none of the Phase 4 querns were of Millstone Grit, although a fragments of Niedermendig lava quern/millstone was recovered. The final quern was of Cotswold limestone, which may have

served as a stand-by if supplies of imported quernstone failed to arrive when needed. Only six whetstones/point sharpeners came from Phase 4 contexts, compared to 23 from Phases 3 and 3/4, suggesting that activities such as haymaking were of lesser importance. Four of the six whetstone/sharpeners were of lower ORS from the Forest of Dean (Fig. 6.20, no. 3), probably traded along with the quernstones from this region. The two remaining objects were of Jurassic Sandstone from the Cotswolds.

Other worked stone objects from Phase 4 comprised a well made dish made from a shelly variety of the Great Oolite from the Cotswolds (Fig. 6.20, no. 4), which may have come from around Coln St. Aldwyns in Gloucestershire, along with limestone roofing tiles. Pieces of chalk from two Phase 4 contexts, one of them shaped (SF 3205) are of unknown use, but may have been brought to the site for craftwork.

Illustrated catalogue: Worked stone objects from Phase 4 (Fig. 6.20)

1. 756 SF 592 Segment from rotary quern, upper stone, grinding surface worn smooth round edge, rim pecked into shape, underside uneven; diam *c* 340 mm, max thickness 50 mm, 2.250 kg. Upper Old Red Sandstone quartz conglomerate
2. 700 SF 870 Two fitting segments from rotary quern, lower stone, fully pierced by narrow hole, grinding surface prepared by pecking, coarser pecking on underside and rim; diam *c* 410 mm, max thickness 72 mm, 3.485 kg. Upper Old Red Sandstone quartz conglomerate
3. 693 SF 474 Fragment of roofing tile reused as whetstone and point sharpener with 3 narrow grooves; 95.5 x 57 x 15 mm, 150 g. Lower Old Red Sandstone Brownstones
4. 693 SF 1624 Part of wide, shallow dish with flat rim; diam *c* 360 mm, depth at rim 76.5 mm, 869 g. Jurassic limestone, coarse-grained and shelly

Building materials

Ceramic building materials *by Leigh Allen*

A total of just under 116 kg (27% of total) of ceramic tile came from Phase 4 contexts, 85% of which came from Trench 13, and much of it directly associated with the villa buildings (Table 6.8). Most of the tile fragments (65%) were plain or unidentifiable, with 24% being definite roofing material. The single largest quantity of tile in Phase 4 came from Room 1 of Building 9, within which there is presumed to have been a hypocaust. This material was nearly all plain or unidentifiable and is likely to have derived from the *pilae* of the hypocaust system. A total of 7.6 kg of box tile was recovered from Phase 4 contexts, most of which was obviously redeposited material from the area of Trench 19, with particular concentrations in the top of ditch 2375. This was probably derived from the hypocaust in B 9, which was dismantled when Enclosure 21 was dug, probably in the mid 4th century. The overall quantity of ceramic material does suggest that at least part of the late Roman villa (B 8), and probably the hypocaust building (B 9) had tiled roofs, and most if not all of this tile was probably derived from the earlier Aisled Building (B 1). A total of 25 kg of

Table 6.8: Quantity of tile by type in Phase 4 contexts

Tile type	*Wt (g)*	*% of Phase 4*
Box tiles	7660	6.61
Imbrices	18370	15.84
Large tiles and bricks	5600	4.83
Plain tile	51485	44.40
Tegulae	9250	7.98
Unidentified	23585	20.34
Total	115950	100

Table 6.7: Worked stone from Phase 4 contexts (not including building stone)

	Imported					*Cotswold*			
Identification	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*Total*
Rotary quern	3					1			4
Quern or millstone	1	1							2
Millstone	3								3
Whetstone				2					2
Whetstone/point sharpener				2				1	3
Point sharpener								1	1
Dish							1		1
Fragments					2				2
Total									18

Key:
1. Upper Old Red Sandstone 2. Niedermendig lava 3. Kentish Rag 4. Lower Old Red Sandstone 5. Chalk 6. Cotswold Limestone 7. Shelly Great Oolite Limestone 8. Jurassic Sandstone

stone slate was also recovered from Trench 13 (only complete tiles were retained and recorded), all of which were concentrated in the northern part of B 8, which suggests that the latest extensions of this building may have had a stone slate roof. As only a minimal amount of ceramic roofing tile and no slate was found in Trench 27, the roof of the circular shrine was probably of the conical thatch type well known in such rural contexts.

Mortar and plaster *by Graham Morgan*

A fair amount of mortar and plaster came from Phase 4 contexts, although there was none of the fine painted plaster (Group 1) found in Phase 3 and presumed to have come from the Aisled Building (see Chapter 5). Three samples were recovered of coarse wall plaster, one of which contained white *intonaco*. One of these samples came from the

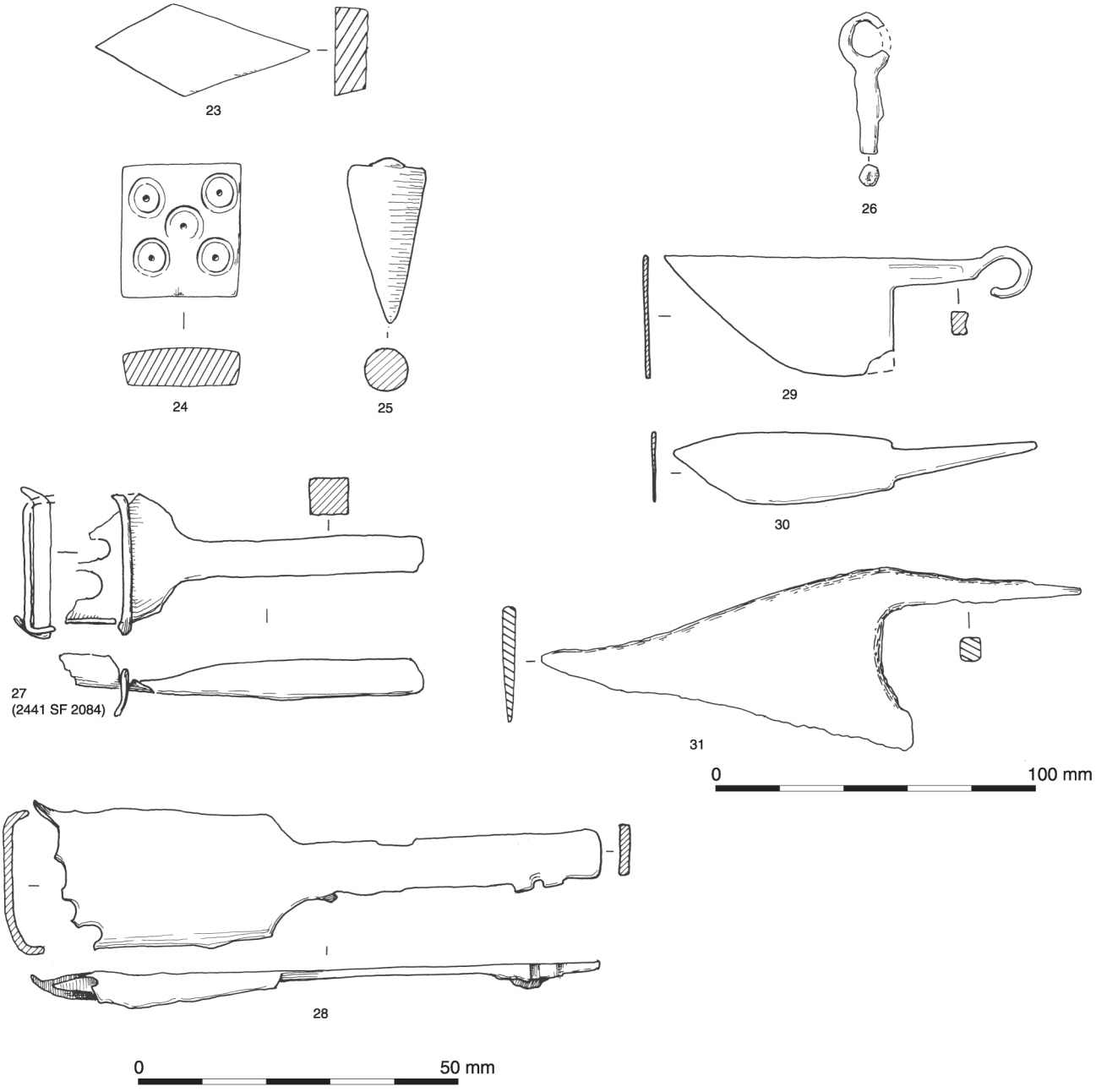


Fig. 6.17 Household, weighing, transport and tools associated with Phase 4

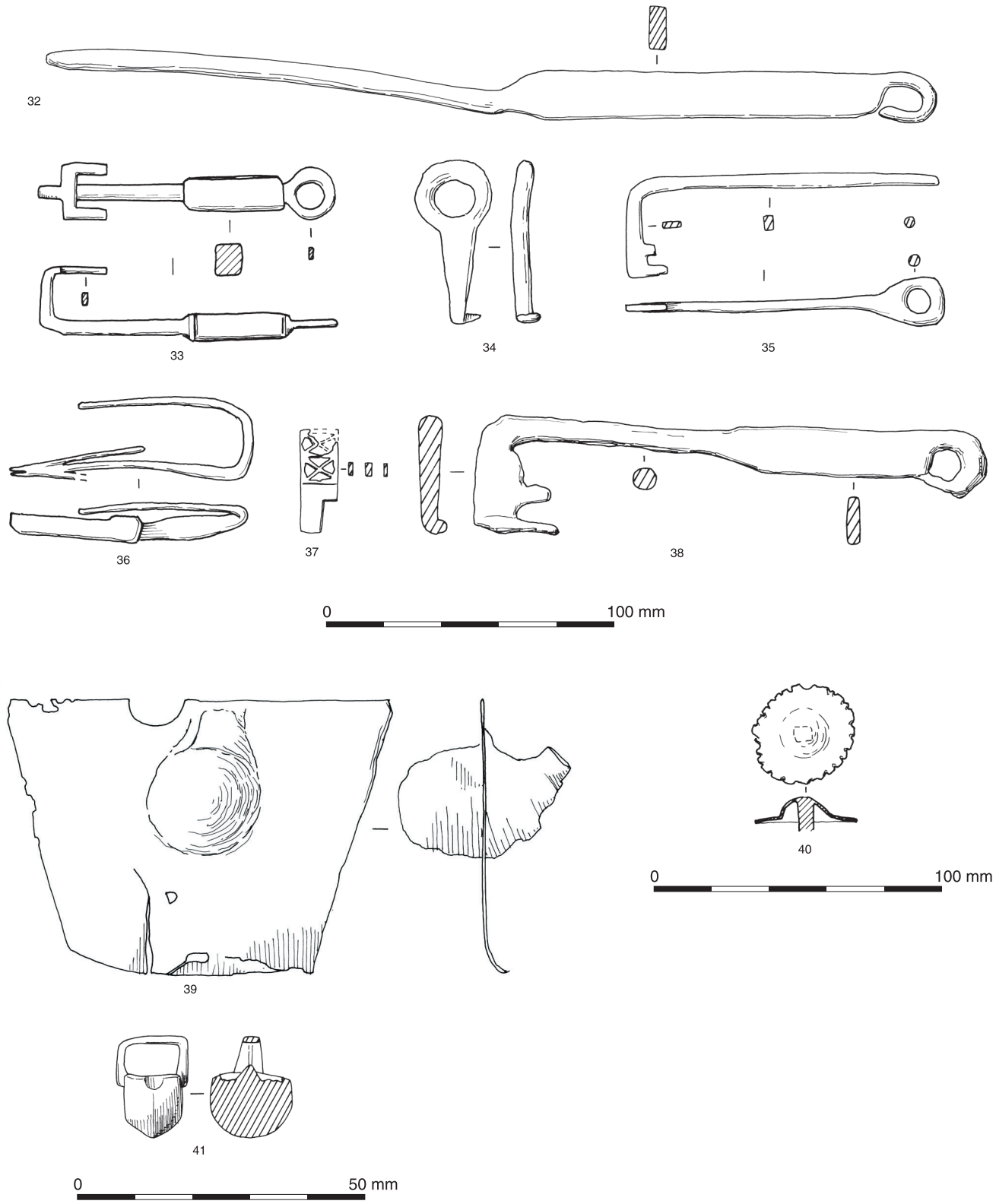


Fig. 6.18 Security and fittings associated with Phase 4

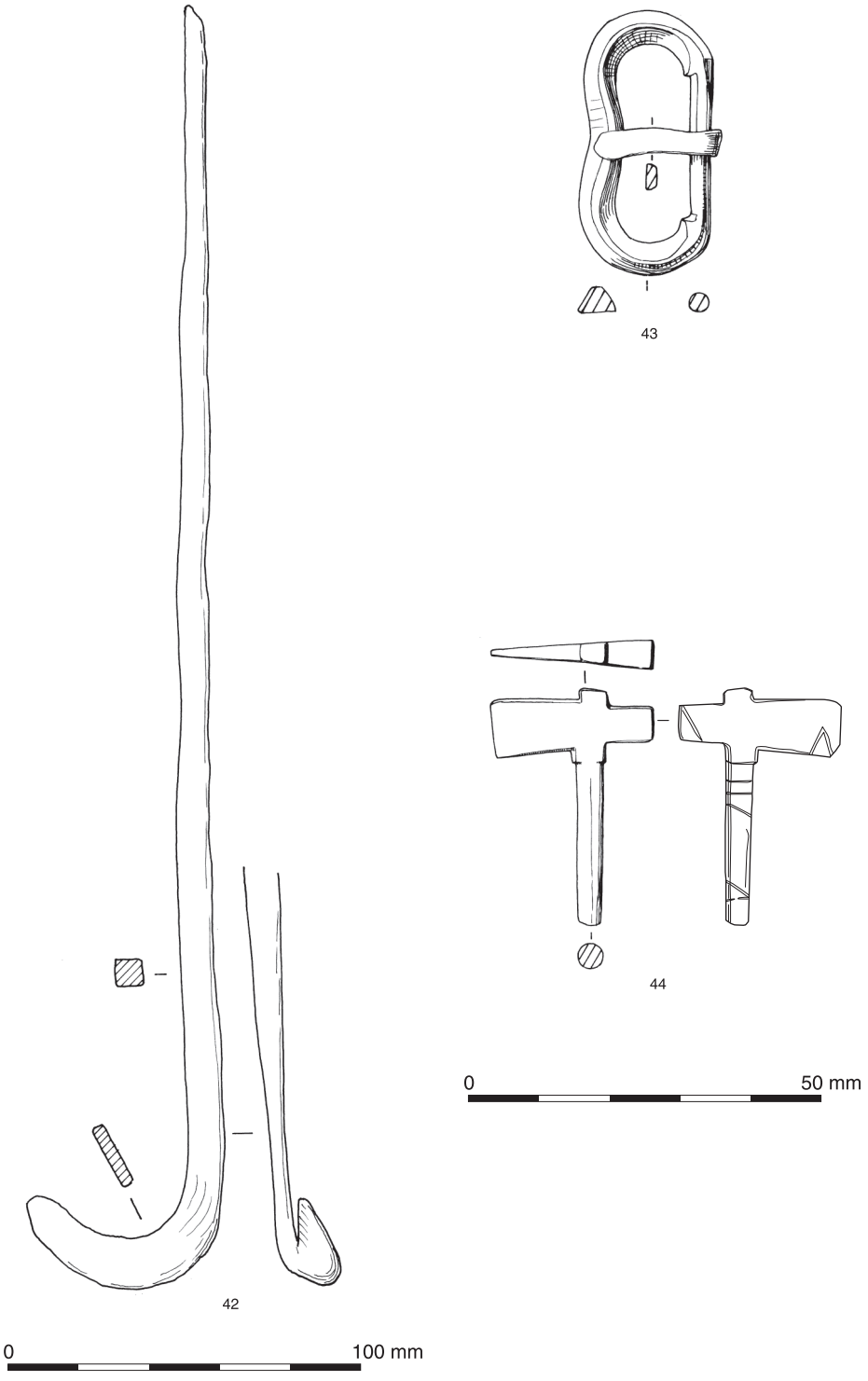


Fig. 6.19 Agricultural, military and religious objects associated with Phase 4

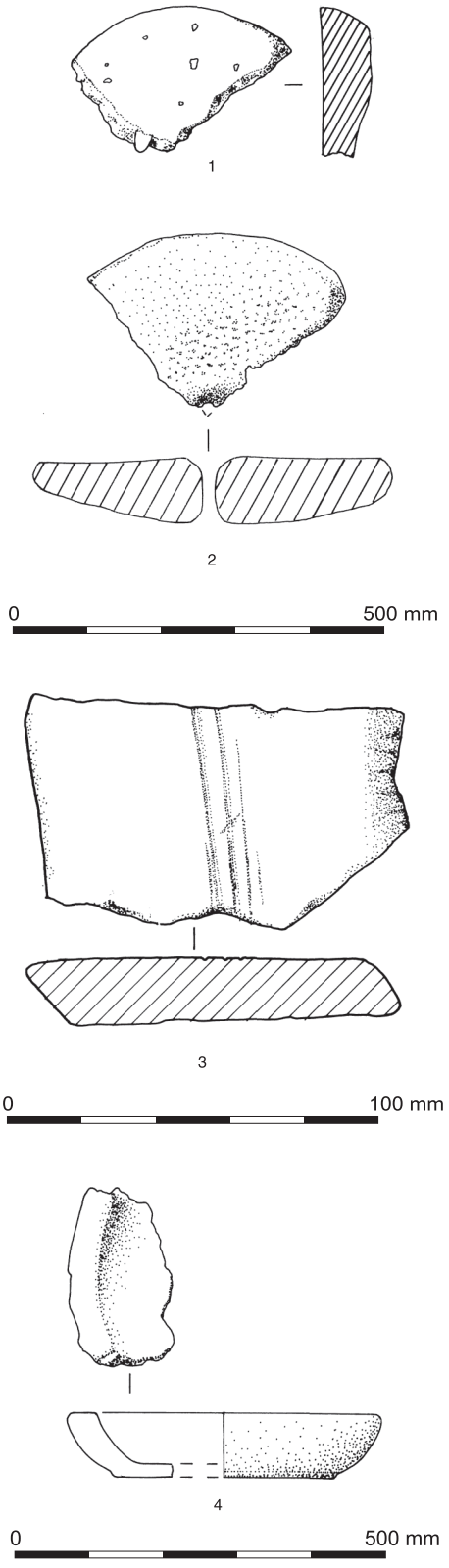


Fig. 6.20 Worked stone objects from Phase 4

hypocaust room in Building 9, along with three samples of *opus signinum.* All of this suggests that Buildings 8 and 9 may have had mortared walls, but that they were of relatively modest appearance. Only a small amount of structural mortar came from the circular shrine.

Building stone (Fig. 6.21) *by Fiona Roe*

Over half of all building stone from the site came from Phase 4 contexts (34 pieces), and this comprised 18 roofing tiles, 8 pieces of architectural stone (including column parts), and 8 samples of building stone. A further eight objects of worked stone came from Phase 3/4 contexts.

Nearly half of the overall quantity of building stone from the site consists of pieces of limestone roofing tile, although there were just a couple of complete examples (eg Fig. 6.21, no. 1). Despite limestone roofing tiles being found in small quantities within Phase 3 contexts (see Chapter 5), by far the greatest concentration was in Phase 4, associated with the late Roman villa. The fragments from earlier contexts may well have been intrusive. Nearly all the fragments that were kept are diagnostic pieces with holes in them, and one of these, found unstratified, still has the iron nail in place (SF 5847). All the stone roofing tiles were made from shelly varieties of the Great Oolite, probably the Forest Marble (Sumbler *et al.* 2000, 68). The shell fragments, lying parallel to one another, would have caused the limestone to divide easily into usable slabs, which however were often relatively thick, so that the roofing tiles were weighty. One not quite complete roofing tile (SF 5831) weighs 3 kg, and another complete hexagonal tile (SF 5842) weighs 2.375 kg. The limestone is variable in character, ranging from a fine-grained variety consisting of many small shell fragments to coarse-grained varieties which may contain large pieces of fossil shell (eg SF 5842). It should have been possible to obtain the full range of tilestone in one quarry. It is not possible to say exactly where this may have been, but such bulky items would not have been transported any further than was necessary. Comparable limestone roofing tiles were quarried in more recent times around Coln St Aldwyns, Gloucestershire (Richardson 1933, 106). Two Roman sites are known here, on either side of the River Coln where it is crossed by Akeman Street (RCHM(E) 1976, 37, 97), and the river could have been used to transport the tilestone towards Claydon Pike. However, the distance involved is not great, amounting to around 7.8 km (4 or 5 miles), so that a journey by country road should have been no great problem.

The architectural stone from the Longdoles Field site at Claydon Pike amounts to parts of four columns (Fig. 6.21, nos 2-4), along with two column bases (Fig. 6.21, nos 5-6). Two of these came from the Phase 3/4 pits with Trench 17, while another three

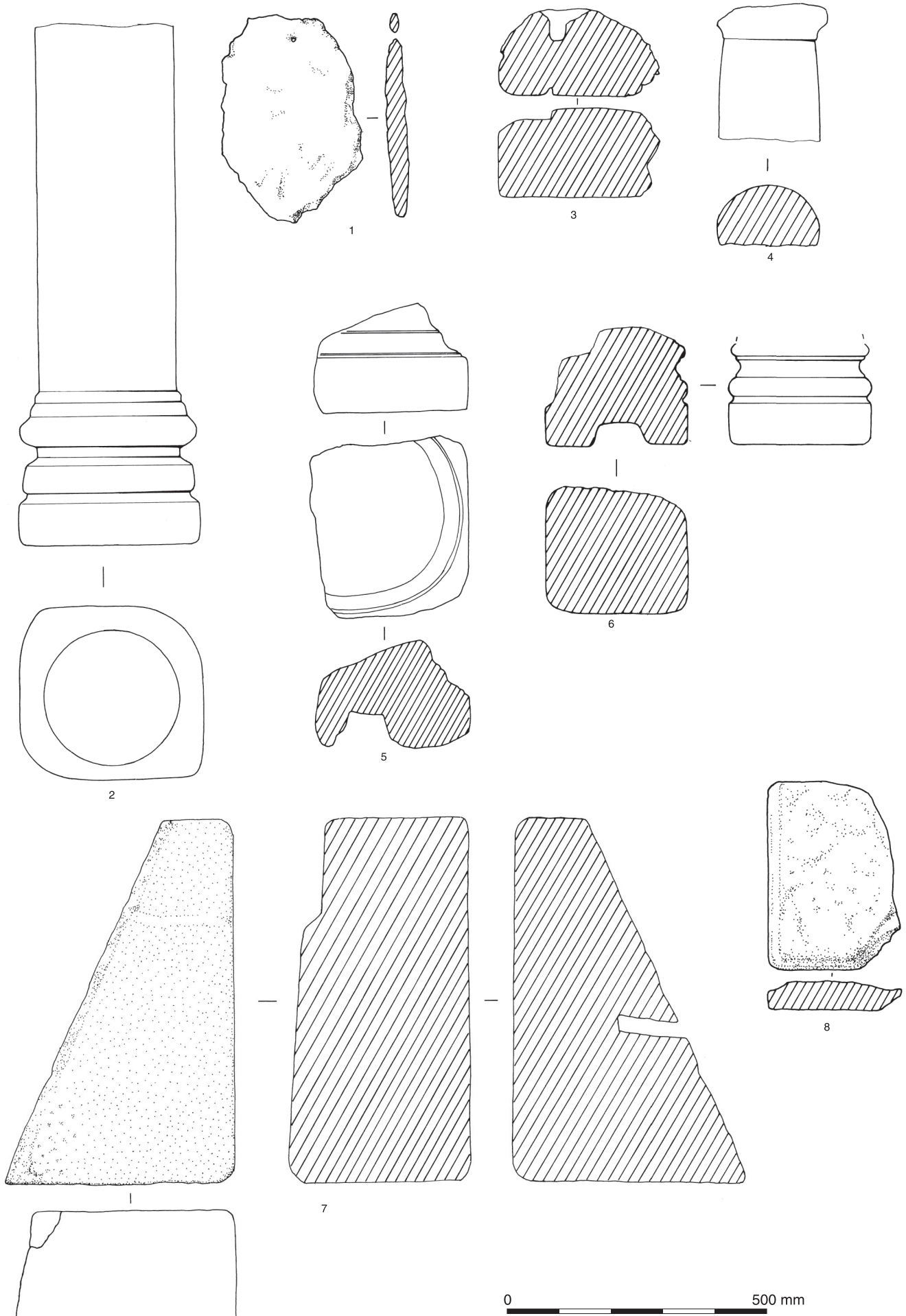


Fig. 6.21 Building stone from Phases 3/4 and 4

came from a Phase 4 rubble layer (2356) in the east of Trench 19. One of the column bases was recovered from the drain to the west of the villa. There are also four pieces of shaped masonry from Phase 3/4 and 4 contexts (Fig. 6.21, nos 7-8), all but one of which came from Trench 13.

A good quality limestone would have been needed for shaping into columns and masonry, and this was available in the Corinium quarries 17.5 km (11 miles) to the west of the site. This limestone has proved difficult to place within the local Jurassic sequence (Richardson 1933, 49), but appears to belong near the top of the White Limestone, or the lower part of the Forest Marble (Sumbler *et al.* 2000, 67). It is both oolitic and shelly, pale coloured when weathered, but a creamy shade when fresh. Some small fragments occurred in four Phase 3 contexts, but the main use of this quarried stone must have been for the Phase 4 villa. Although this villa was modest in size, it was still apparently adorned with columns, and not all plain ones, since some had carefully moulded bases (Fig. 6.21, nos 2 and 6). Two columns could be measured (471, 472) and were found to have diameters of 188 and 200 mm, which fall within the size range suggested by Blagg as suitable for domestic buildings (2002, 189). A column more slender than these two (Fig. 6.21, no. 4) could have been part of a colonnade or veranda, while those slightly larger in size (eg Fig. 6.21, nos 2 and 6) could have belonged to a porch or entranceway. The corridor wall that was built during Phase 4 to join Buildings 8 and 9 seems the most likely candidate for the positioning of a colonnade.

The samples of building stone suggest that anything suitable may have been collected in the general local area and used for the stone structures at the Longdoles Field site, whether for walls of random rubble construction, or for mixed rubble infill. Pieces of Jurassic limestone appear to have been the main component. Some Jurassic sandstone was also used, and this probably came from the Kellaways Beds, which are known to contain sandstone doggers at South Cerney (Torrens 1982, 77). Three fragments of Lower Old Red Sandstone with slight wear traces may have belonged to paving stones. However there was no evidence for paved flooring from the villa, and these pieces from Phase 4 contexts (3555, 3563, 3574) may have been intended to be used for whetting.

Roman building stone was in general selected on very much a local basis, so that wide comparisons with other sites cannot be expected. The vast Roman quarries at Cirencester must have been employed mainly to provide building stone for Corinium. A plain column very similar to one from Claydon Pike (471) was noted from The Avenue, Cirencester (Corinium Museum). Ready made pieces such as this may have been exported from Corinium, and no doubt both the stonework and the transport for them were costly. Although the villa at Claydon Pike was modest in size, money was evidently found for some architectural features that would proclaim the importance of those living there. The villa (or farmstead?) at Barnsley Park is only 7 km (4.4 miles) from Corinium, and yet here they obtained no such domestic adornments. However, pieces of this quarried limestone were also found at the nearby sites of Roughground Farm (Allen *et al.* 1993, 161 and Ashmolean Museum) and Kempsford Multi-Agg Quarry (Digital section 8.4), while at Somerford Keynes some of the same stone had been utilised for carved monumental stone (Chapter 9). At Wanborough too there were two pieces of shaped masonry (Blagg 2001, 153 and Swindon Museum), which could have come from the same source. At none of these other sites were limestone columns recorded, but stone from the Corinium quarries seems to have been available for other purposes, for those willing and able to pay for it.

Limestone roofing tiles comparable to those from Claydon Pike are also limited very much to a local distribution. Further examples were found at Roughground Farm (Allen *et al.* 1993, 161 and Ashmolean Museum) and at Kempsford Multi-Agg Quarry (Digital section 8).

Figure 6.21 presents a selection of building stone from Phase 3/4 and Phase 4 contexts.

Illustrated catalogue: Building stone from Phases 3/4 and 4 (Fig. 6.21)

1. *1558 SF 5840* Complete small hexagonal roofing tile; 310 x 217 x 28 mm, 2.25 kg Great Oolite, shelly and oolitic limestone, Trench 13, Phase 4
2. *713 SF 472* Lower part of column with moulded base; diam of column 260 mm, max diam 350 mm, height now 1000 mm. Oolitic limestone with some shell fragments, probably from the Corinium quarries. Trench 17, Phase 3/4
3. *2356 SF 2015* Part of slender column, not freestanding, weathered, part of large block; column diam *c* 90 mm, thickness now 134 mm, length 237 mm, 5 kg. Shelly and oolitic limestone, weathered to a pale colour, rather coarse-grained, possibly from Corinium quarries. Trench 19, Phase 4
4. *2356 SF 2016* Column. Oolitic and shelly limestone. Trench 19, Phase 4
5. *720 SF 2928* Unevenly shaped slab with central cone-shaped sockets either side, probably column *base*; 272 x 223 x 77 mm, 7 kg. Fairly fine-grained oolitic limestone with scattered shells, probably from Corinium quarries. Trench 13, Phase 4
6. *2356 SF 2014* base of a small column, square base, square socket cut in underside; 225 x 173 x 171 mm, 8 kg. Oolitic and shelly limestone, probably from Corinium quarries. Trench 19, Phase 4
7. *2608 SF 2585* Shaped masonry. Forest Marble. Trench 13, Phase 4
8. *2829 SF 3061* Shaped masonry, slab of stone with straight edges, also chamfered, underside uneven; 304 x 201 x 58 mm, 5.250 kg. Great Oolite. shelly and oolitic limestone, probably from Corinium quarries. Trench 29, Phase 4

Fired Clay *by Alex Smith*

A total of 111 fragments of fired clay came from Phase 4 contexts with a further 91 from Phase 3/4, with most of the latter from the redeposited material within the pit groups in Trenches 19 and 17 (see above). The small number of identifiable fragments from both phases comprised daub and oven fragments, along with two spindlewhorls.

THE ENVIRONMENT

Full environmental reports from this phase of Claydon Pike can be found in Digital section 4.

Human remains (Fig. 6.22) *by Annsofie Witkin*

Eight burials were located within or surrounding two small enclosures adjacent to the northern double boundary ditch of a large enclosure, while another two, skeletons 2744 and 2746, were situated about 20 m east of the main cemetery on the other side of the double ditches (see above; Figs 6.13 and 6.22). The condition of the bones is similar amongst the individuals, with all skeletons being in poor condition. The bones are generally extremely fragmented and the outer surfaces were badly eroded, cracked and chalky. The completeness ranged from fair, with the survival of most major skeletal elements, to almost entirely destroyed. Hands, feet, ribs and vertebrae are generally absent. The pelvic elements are also largely missing. All crania are considerably fragmented and comprised largely vaults. Skeletons 2746 and 2777 are missing skulls. All that survived of skeleton 2746 was small fragments of leg bones. The vast majority of the teeth present were loose.

All the burials were of adults, with the youngest being no older than 18 years and the oldest over 40 years of age. Of the six that could be sexed, four are male and two female (Table 6.9). All but two, skeletons 2746 and 2769, had at least some of the dentition present, and the dental diseases present on some of the teeth would have been generally caused by poor oral hygiene and periods of childhood diseases, weaning and malnutrition. Few pathological lesions were present on the Claydon Pike individuals, which may indicate that this group of people were relatively healthy and suffered from few complaints, either at the time of death or earlier on in their lives. However, the poor preservation and completeness of the remains is the most likely reason for the low rate of pathological lesions.

There does not appear to be any coherent burial practice amongst the Roman inhumation burials at Claydon Pike, and the distinctive features are summarised in Table 6.10. Two of the burials were decapitations (2777 and 2744) (see Discussion below). Aside from skeleton 2777, which was accompanied by hobnailed footwear, none of the graves contained any furnishings. Grave furniture is not commonly associated with decapitated individuals, although this may reflect the general decline of grave goods in the late 4th century. The majority of burials with footwear are found in south central England and are almost exclusively associated with rural villas and other minor settlements (Philpott 1991, 167). Only one of the burials had coffin nails present (skeleton 2768) in the grave, and it was therefore clear that this individual had been buried in a wooden coffin. In this instance there is also evidence for a stone slate lining within the grave. Two other individuals (2770, 2771) may also

Table 6.9: Sex and Age-at-Death of late Roman burials

No.	*Sex*	*Age-at-Death (yrs)*	*Age-at-Death Category*
2744	Unknown	18-24	Young Adult
2746	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
2767	Male?	Over 40	Mature Adult
2768	Female	Over 18	Adult
2772	Male?	18-24	Young Adult
2769	Male?	31-49	Mature Adult
2770	Unknown	17-18	Young Adult
2771	Female?	35-45	Prime Adult
2776	Male	32-43	Prime Adult
2777	Unknown	Over 40	Mature Adult

Table 6.10: Summary of the burial practices

No.	*Orientation*	*Body position*	*Grave furnishing*	*Burial container*
2767	NW-SE	Supine	None	Coffin
2768	NE-SW	Supine	None	Stone lined and a coffin
2769	NW-SE	Supine	None	None
2770	NE-SW	Prone	None	Coffin
2771	NW-SE	Supine	None	Coffin
2772	NW-SE	Supine	None	None
2776	NW-SE	Decapitated, supine	None	None
2777	NW-SE	Supine	Footwear	None
2744	SE-NW	Decapitated, supine	None	None
2746	SE-NW	Supine	None	None

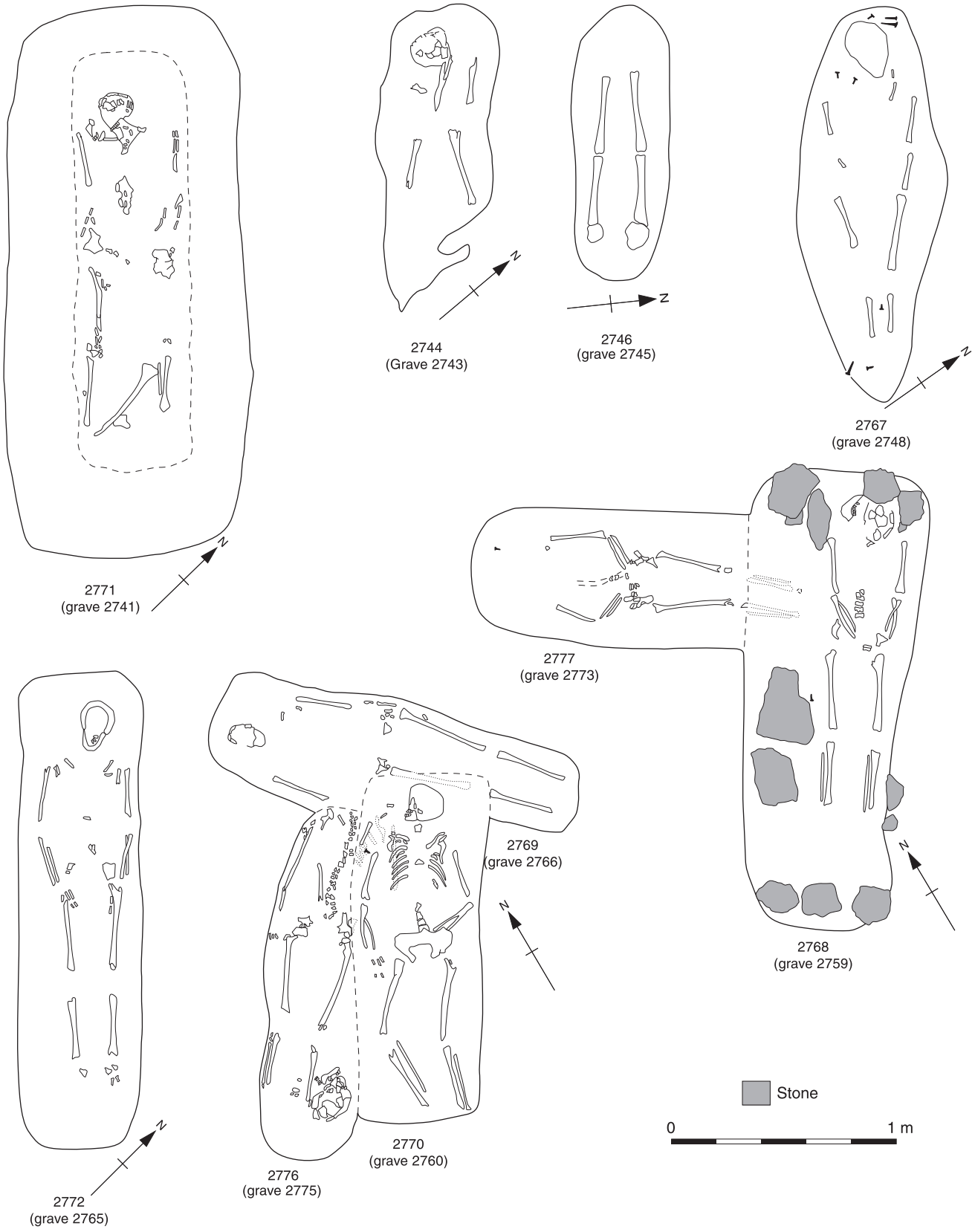


Fig. 6.22 Human remains from the late Roman cemetery

have been buried in wooden coffins, and is it is clear that evidence for the use of coffins was widespread within the region (Booth 2001, 25).

Radiocarbon dating was attempted on a number of skeletons from the cemetery, but unfortunately this produced no results, unlike those burials cutting through the villa (see Bayliss, Chapter 7).

Animal bone *by Naomi Sykes*

Animal bones were recovered from Phase 4 features in five of the seven trenches (Table 6.11). Again, most of the material (10,046 fragments) derived from Trench 13, with smaller quantities coming from Trench 19 (1367) and Trench 29 (400). Both Trench 27 and Trench 30 produced several hundred bone fragments but very few (40 and 24 fragments respectively) were identifiable, thus reducing the significance of these assemblages.

Construction of the villa seems to have had no bearing on patterns of animal exploitation and, in most respects, the Phase 4 material is little different to that from Phase 3: animal size and the relative frequencies of the main domesticates (cattle 50%, caprines 34%, horse 8% and pig 8%) remains almost static, body part patterns are largely unaltered, and ageing data suggest that on-site husbandry continued into the later phase. The only inter-period changes seem to be an intensification of the trends started in the earlier periods. For instance, the assemblage from Trench 13 indicates a continued broadening of the taxa spectrum, with an increase in both the frequency and species range of birds. Cattle and caprine cull-patterns indicate a further rise in the average age of animal slaughter (55% of cattle survived past 2-3 years and 80% of sheep/goat lived beyond 1-2 years), suggesting a sustained concentration on secondary products.

Table 6.11: Composition of the Phase 4 assemblage by trench, according to the NISP (MNI given in parentheses)

Trench	*13*	*19*	*27*	*29*	*30*	*Total*
Cattle	1518 (18)	114 (2)	26 (1)	42 (1)	15 (1)	1715
Sheep/goat	1063 (25)	109 (1)	14 (1)	62 (2)	5 (1)	1253
Pig	241 (7)	34 (1)		5 (1)		280
Horse	259	4		19	4 (1)	286
Donkey	1					1
Dog	22	3				25
Cat	10					10
Red deer	1					1
Roe deer	1					1
Badger		1				1
Fox	1					1
Wild cat	1					1
Field vole	4					4
Water vole	2					2
Mole	2					2
Rodent	2					2
Frog	7					7
Toad	1					1
Domestic fowl	76	4				80
Goose	32					32
Domestic duck	13					13
Duck	2					2
Teal	1					1
Swan	1					1
Crane	3					3
Dunlin	1					1
Snipe	2					2
Pigeon	2					2
Blackbird	1					1
Song thrush	1					1
Green finch	1					1
Magpie	1					1
Unidentifiable mammal	6676	1095	377	272	279	8699
Unidentifiable bird	95	3				98
Total NISP	10046	1367	417	381	303	12514

This, combined with the continued shift towards the maintenance of male cattle (70% of the adult herd were oxen/bulls) suggests that the agricultural economy and rural-urban provisioning systems became more even defined during the later period.

Perhaps the most notable changes are those exhibited by the equid assemblage. Ageing data indicate that, for the first time, foetal animals are represented, providing clear evidence that horses were being raised on-site. A number of sub-adult remains were also recovered, which may suggest that some young animals were slaughtered for their meat, although few remains exhibited butchery marks to support this contention. Indeed, the find of an articulating hind limb, which appears to have been buried without being stripped of flesh, would imply that consumption of horse meat was subject to a cultural prohibition. Simoons (1994) has demonstrated that taboo animals are often incorporated into religious doctorine. On this basis, it seems possible that the hindlimb represents a ritual deposit, especially since similar examples have been found on several contemporary sites (Noddle 1979; Wilson and Allison 1990). Furthermore body-part evidence for the Longdole's Field horses, which shows an over-representation of hind-limb bones, suggests that deposition of back legs may have been common practice.

Anatomical representation data for cattle are also of interest. As in the previous phase, scapulae are over-represented but, in this case, the majority of the shoulder blades came from a single context, pit 1989. Many of the scapulae exhibited butchery marks indicative of meat preservation through smoking or brining. That they were found in such high density within a single context suggests specialist activity and it seems possible that salted beef was produced on the site: certainly salt was being imported into Claydon Pike during this period (Miles and Palmer 1983; see Discussion below).

Charred plant remains *by Vanessa Straker, Martin Jones and Ann Perry*

Seventeen samples were analysed from Phase 4 contexts, which comprised five ditches, two pits, one layer, one oven and one hearth (Table 6.12). Spelt and emmer wheats were still consumed at this time as was barley, but there was no barley chaff or the tough rachis internodes of a free threshing wheat. Bread type wheat may still have been a minor component of the cereal fields but there is certainly no evidence from Claydon Pike to show that it was increasing in importance. Free threshing wheats were the dominant form in the Saxon and later periods, but when and where they came to prominence is still largely unknown.

Plants of damp ground such as sedges and spike-rushes in particular are rather more commonly found in Phases 3D/4A and 4 than elsewhere. These may relate to a variety of sources, and as Robinson (see below) has shown, damp grassland was a major feature of the local environment. However, the association of seeds of plants which are today associated with damp and wet ground with crop and arable weed communities has been noted for a number of Iron Age and Roman sites in the Thames Valley (eg Ashville, Jones 1978, and Barton Court Farm, Jones 1986) as well as being noted among cereals on the continent (Groenman van Waateringe and Pals 1983). It has been suggested (eg Jones 1988) that the frequent finding of the seeds of these types of plants charred with arable weed seeds provides evidence that fields were being cultivated in areas that became increasingly subjected to flooding. This may be the case for the fields of the villa estate, alongside the possibility of other taphonomic routes from neighbouring grassland.

Waterlogged plant and invertebrate remains
by Mark Robinson

Five waterlogged samples were successfully investigated from features within the late Roman (Phase 4) villa enclosure in the Longdoles Field site at Claydon Pike, all of which seem to have held standing water with the usual fauna of small water-beetles. The majority of the remains in the waterlogged deposits seem to have entered them through various natural agencies although a small quantity of agricultural debris was present in some of them. Most of the macroscopic plant remains probably had their origins within the villa enclosure, but pollen and insects came from a larger catchment.

The evidence of the pollen and Coleoptera suggests that grassland continued as a major aspect of the landscape at Claydon Pike into the late Roman period, although it is uncertain whether much of it remained as hay meadow. In large part, the late Roman villa seems to have been concerned with the grazing of domestic animals. Although parts of the floodplain were probably experiencing flooding, there was no evidence from the molluscan samples for flooding extending onto the edge of the villa site during the Roman period. Grazing on the floodplain seems to have been sufficiently well managed not to have resulted in damage to the sward in the wet areas around the edge of the platform. There was no evidence for any arable fields in the vicinity of the site although there were a few waterlogged crop remains from the villa and cultivation would have been possible on top of the gravel islands. It is therefore uncertain to what degree the site was involved in arable agriculture. At one extreme it is possible that crops were imported from elsewhere for consumption at the site. However, it is also possible that the villa estate included some higher ground that was used for arable.

The insect remains suggest two other economic activities which could have taken place at the villa. A total of three heads of worker honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) were identified from samples 502/7 and

Table 6.12 Phase 4 Charred plant taxon presence in x samples (no. of items)

		Phases	*4*	*4B*	*4A/B*	*4C*	*4D*
		No. of samples	*2*	*5*	*1*	*1*	*8*
Crops							
Triticum cf *dicoccum* Schübl.	emmer type	Grain	1 (7)	2 (9)	1 (5)	0	0
Triticum dicoccum	emmer wheat	Glume bases	0	1 (1)	1 (2)	0	0
Triticum cf *spelta* L.	spelt type	Grain	0	1 (4)	1 (1)	1 (1)	
Triticum spelta L.	spelt wheat	Glume bases	0	2 (12)	1 (17)	0	1 (5)
Triticum cf *dicoccum/spelta*	emmer/spelt	Spikelet forks	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Triticum cf. *Aestivum*	bread wheat type	Grain	1 (1)	1 (1)	0	0	1(2)
Triticum sp.	wheat	Grain	2 (36)	3 (62)	1 (23)	1 (2)	4 (23)
Triticum sp.	wheat	Sprouted grain	0	0	0	0	0
Triticum sp.	hulled wheat	Glume bases	2 (5)	2 (42)	1 (54)	1 (1)	4 (65)
Triticum sp.	hulled wheat	Spikelet forks	0	0	1 (4)	0	0
Triticum/Hordeum sp.	wheat/barley	Grain	1 (5)	4 (38)	0	0	0
Hordeum sp.	barley	Straight grain	0	2 (4)	0	0	0
Hordeum sp.	barley	Twisted grain	0	3 (3)	0	0	0
Hordeum sp.	barley	Indeterminate grain	2 (12)	5 (39)	1 (22)	1 (1)	3 (9)
cf *Avena* sp.	cf oats	Grain	0	0	1 (1	0	0
Avena sp.	oats	Grain	0	2 (2)	0	0	0
Avena/Bromus sp.	oats/brome	Grain	0	0	0	0	1 (1)
Cereal sp.	cereal indet.	Grain	1 (9)	0	1 (23)	0	5 (30)
Cereal sp.	cereal indet.	Rachis fragments	0	0	1 (6)	0	3 (3)
Cereal sp.	cereal indet.	Plumule	1 (1)	0	0	0	0
Wild species		**Habitat range**					
Agrostemma githago L.	corn cockle	Da	0	0	1 (1)	0	0
Chenopodiaceae/ Caryophyllaceae			0	0	0	1 (1)	0
Chenopodiaceae	goosefoot family		0	0	1 92)	0	2 (3)
Chenopodium rubrum L.	red goosefoot	D Da	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Leguminosae	clover, pea family	V	1 (6)	1 (1)	1 (3)	0	1 (1)
Lathyrus/Pisum	vetch, pea	Da, G C	0	0	1 (1)	0	0
Medicago cf *lupulina* L.	cf black medick	G	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Trifolium sp.	clover	V	1 (1)	1 (6)	0	0	0
Roseaceae	rose family		1 (1)	0	0	0	0
Fragaria vesca L.	wild strawberry	W S	1 (1)	0	0	0	0
Umbelliferae	parsley family	V	1 (1)	0	0	0	0
Polygonum sp.	bistort	V	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Fallopia convolvulus (A.) Löve	black bindweed	Da	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Rumex sp.	sorrel, dock	Da G M S W	0	0	1 (1)	0	1 (1)
Rumex acetosella agg.	sheep's sorrel	Da G	1 (4)	2 (8)	1 (1)	0	0
Lithospermum arvense L.	corn gromwell	Da	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Euphrasia sp./*Odontites verna*	eyebright, red bartsia	Da G	1 (2)	2 (2)	1 (2)	0	0
Rhinanthus sp.	yellow rattle	G	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Prunella vulgaris L.	self heal	G	1 (1)	0	0	0	0
Plantago sp.	plantain	Da G	0	0	0	0	1 (1)
Plantago media L.	hoary plantain	G	1 (3)	0	0	0	0
Plantago lanceolata L.	ribwort plantain	Da G	1 (1)	0	0	0	1 (1)
Sherardia arvensis L.	field madder	D Da	1 (1)	1 (1)	0	0	4 (8)
Galium sp.	bedstraw	Da M G S W	1 (1)	2 (3)	0	0	1 (1)
Galium cf. *Palustre* L.	marsh bedstraw	M	1 (5)	0	0	0	0
Anthemis cotula L.	stinking chamomile	Da esp base rich	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (5)	0	1 (1)
Tripleurospermum maritimum (L.) Koch	scentless mayweed	Da	0	0	1 (2)	0	0
Chrysanthemum leucanthemum L.	ox-eye daisy	D, Da G	1 (2)	0	0	0	0
Cyperaceae	sedge family	A M G	0	2 (5)	0	0	0
Eleocharis sp.	spike rush	A M G	0	1 (1)	0	0	0
Eleocharis palustris/uniglumis	spike-rush	A M G	1 (1)	3 (4)	0	0	0
Eleocharis quinqueflora (F.X.Hartm) Schwartz	few-flowered spike-rush	A M G	0	0	0	0	1 (1)
Carex sp.	sedge	V (mainly wet)	1 (1)	1 (6)	0	0	0
Carex spp.	sedges	V (mainly wet)	1 (1)	3 (38)	1 (9)	0	0
Gramineae	grass family		1 (12)	2 (5)	1 (2)	1 (1)	5 (18)

1989/B. This suggests a nest of honey bees in the vicinity of the site and raises the possibility of beekeeping. Sample 1989/B contained a total of six Elmidae belonging to the species *Elmis aenea, Esolus parallelepipedus* and *Limnius volckmari*. They live in clean flowing water, clinging to stones and aquatic plants. They do not occur in stagnant water, ditches or slowly flowing rivers. At present in the Upper Thames system they are mostly restricted to clean, fast-flowing tributary streams as is, for example, *Esolus parallelepipedus* (Walker 1911, 8). Elmidae were absent from all other waterlogged samples from the site and feature 1989, a rectangular pit cut below the water table, would have provided no more suitable a habitat for them than any of the other features on the site. The other water beetles from sample 1989/B, such as *Helophorus brevipalpis* gp., *Ochthebius* sp. and *Limnebius nitidus*, can live in stagnant water. One of the snails from the sample, however, *Planorbarius corneus*, which was absent from the other samples from the site, is a species of permanent bodies of water which flourishes in ornamental ponds. The Elmidae could have been transported by floodwater, but there was no evidence for flooding and feature 1989 was on a high part of the platform. A more satisfactory explanation is that feature 1989 was a tank used for the temporary live storage of fish, and the Elmidae were accidentally introduced with them. One of the items discovered in pit 1989 was an open wicker-work basket, scoop or fish trap. (Unfortunately this could not be found for re-examination and reporting.) Elmids would certainly crawl onto a fish trap or keep basket, if it were put into one of the small rivers near the site and would not readily let go if it were lifted out of the water. If the trap or basket were brought back and put into the tank, this would provide a ready means for the introduction of the beetles.

As to the immediate environment of the villa in Trench 13, the evidence from the Coleoptera is suggestive of manure heaps and foul vegetable material, along with the presence of timber buildings. There were probably a few ash trees within the villa enclosure or growing along its boundary, and it seems that box hedges or bushes were cultivated on site during this phase. There were seeds from horticultural crops which could have been grown within the villa enclosure. The only tree fruit was *Prunus domestica* cf. ssp. *insititia* (bullace or damson), although there was also a seed from another fruit, *Fragaria vesca* (wild strawberry), which could have been cultivated or grown wild. The herb and vegetable seeds included *Coriandrum sativum* (coriander) and *Apium graveolens* (celery) with *Papaver somniferum* (opium poppy) and *Daucus carota* (carrot) as either cultivars or weeds. There was also a single seed of *Foeniculum vulgare* (fennel). Although there are other records of fennel from Roman Britain (eg Willcox 1977), its seeds are not nearly as frequently found as are, for example, coriander seeds, and this is the first record for the Upper Thames Valley. Overall, the evidence for horticultural crops is what might be expected for a villa.

DISCUSSION *by Alex Smith*

The radical changes in the internal settlement organisation at Claydon Pike during the late 3rd to early 4th century AD (see Chapter 5) culminated in the construction of a modest masonry-footed villa which seems to have been the centre of a small estate operating a more varied agricultural economy. The villa complex underwent many changes during the 4th century, although the chronological parameters are not always that clear and it is difficult to define a date of abandonment with any certainty. An artists' reconstruction of the final main Phase (4 c/d) of this villa is presented in Plate 6.8. Some activity may have continued until the early 5th century, although it is highly likely that the villa building itself would have been in a ruinous state by this point. The finds and environmental evidence indicate both levels of continuity and change from the previous regime at the site but on the whole it is thought unlikely that there was any major disruption of population.

Settlement organisation and development

As with Phase 2, occupation in Phase 4 was more or less confined to Trench 13, which would have afforded most protection from potential flooding. The trackways and field systems may still have been in use (see Fig. 6.1), but there is little evidence for any domestic activity beyond the immediate confines of the villa area.

The villa buildings

Building 7 was replaced after a short period of time by a small masonry-footed building containing six rooms (Fig. 6.5). It lay upon exactly the same alignment as both of the previous two buildings in this area and was clearly the principal – if not the only – domestic residence within the settlement. It is uncertain whether the building's masonry footings and lower wall courses supported a plastered timber superstructure, or else full masonry walls. The lack of deep foundations in certain parts of the structure together with the general scarcity of building stone in the immediate area suggests that the former is more likely, and it has been preferred for the reconstruction as shown in Plate 6.8. The large number of nails, quantity of fired clay and certain Coleoptera (see above) also suggest a timber superstructure. Plastered walls are indicated but were probably only painted with a whitewash, unlike the brightly coloured walls of the earlier aisled building. The roof was most likely made up of a combination of reused roofing tiles, and limestone slate. Due to the modest nature of this building, its definition as a villa could be debated,

although the masonry foundations, plastered walls, multiplicity of rooms and intimate association with the hypocaust room in B 9, does seem enough to place the structure in this category. It would thus belong to the most modest 'cottage' style villas, as defined by Collingwood and Richmond (1969), and with examples at Park Street, Herts (O'Neil 1945) and Alfred's Castle on the Berkshire Downs, Oxon (Gosden and Lock 2003; see Chapter 16). Building 9 to the south lay upon the same alignment and was clearly part of the same household property. Perring (2002, 213) has noted that in several instances, such as the villa at Beadlam (Neal 1996), two adjacent buildings could have functioned as two wings of a single property incorporating different functions, despite the fact that they were not physically connected. The two buildings at Claydon Pike were in fact architecturally unified in the subsequent phase (early/mid 4th century), with what appears to have been a central open courtyard between them (see below).

Ascertaining room function at Claydon Pike is very difficult due to the disturbed and truncated nature of the interior, and additionally it is very likely that at least some of the rooms may have changed function during the course of the building's occupation. The initial villa building is likely to have had its entrance facing south-east, with Room 5/6 acting as an entrance vestibule, connecting the two larger northern and southern rooms and a range of three smaller rooms to the west (Fig. 6.5). The overall finds evidence from the building is certainly enough to indicate general domestic activity, but individual room function remains largely unknown. A possible exception is Room 3 to the south-west which contained a number of quern fragments and so may at some stage have been associated with food preparation. No ovens or hearths could be associated with the use of Building 8, which may in part be due to the disturbed nature of the interior. The interior floor of Room 2 in Building 9 was among the best preserved on site, and this produced a series of stone hearths and pits. There was also a stokehole (2134) leading through the wall towards Room 1 which seems to have contained a hypocaust – one of the few indications of luxurious living within the building complex (Fig. 6.5). The room could have functioned as a winter dining area, as Cosh (2001, 219) has recently stated that '*a heated room was an absolute necessity if the owners were to entertain guests at any time other than the summer*'. However, as he reiterates (2001, 232), such rooms could have had a variety of functions, with Pliny (*Epistulae* 2.17,43) categorising one type of room as either as a large bedroom or small dining room. It also remains possible that at a later date this part of the building may have been used to cure/smoke meat and/or fish products (see Site economy below). The ovens and pits within Room 2 mark this as a probable working area, although it is unsure whether they were original features. Whilst the ceramic assemblage is not very large, it is of quite a different character to that in B 8, with a much higher proportion of jar forms and much lower percentages of bowls and dishes. This could suggest that this area was used in part for storage and food preparation.

Later developments in the villa structure considerably altered the patterns of internal human dynamics. The addition of Room 8 to the south-eastern section of the main building and the continuation of its outer wall down towards B 9 effectively unified the two buildings in an architectural sense, creating what would appear to be an open 'courtyard' between them (Fig. 6.5). A possible gateway and corridor restricted access into this central space, from which there was presumably access into both of the buildings. It is possible that this was connected with a greater need for security and

Plate 6.8 Reconstruction of late Roman villa

privacy, as has been suggested by the small finds (see Cool above). It is uncertain if the main eastern entrance to the building continued in use at this stage, but at some point after the mid 4th century AD (Phase 4c) further rooms were added to the north-east, effectively blocking this area. This structural addition contained the very unusual sunken rooms, the function of which remains unclear (see Pl. 6.2). The southern (1969) chamber was dug well below the Roman water table and therefore must have held a body of water, while the shallower northern feature appears to have been clay lined, and so may also have been designed to hold water. Large quantities of iron nails came from these features and it is possible that there was a wooden floor above them. Their function may have been similar to that suggested for pit 1989 to the north of the building (Fig. 6.4), used for the temporary storage of river fish (see Site economy below).

At around the same time as this extension was added, the southern building was demolished, a well dug through part of the hypocaust room, and an enclosure dug around the whole area (see below). If this had not already happened in Phase 4b, the main entrance into the building is now likely to have moved to the south facing side, with Room 4 probably becoming the new entrance chamber (as shown on reconstruction Plate 6.8). The final structural modification of the villa building (4d) involved the insertion of a substantial drain into Room 2, which necessitated extensive rebuilding work. This may have been due to an increased flood risk during the latter half of the 4th century, although the environmental evidence does not provide any positive evidence for flooding in this area at this time. Alternatively it could relate to activity within the building which involved the use of substantial quantities of water. Either way, it does point to resources still being available for building work at this late date. The final abandonment of the villa building is unknown, although the evidence from coins suggests activity of some kind continued until the very end of the 4th century or the start of the 5th century AD.

The enclosures

At some point after the mid 4th century AD, there was a need to reorganise the settlement with the southern building being demolished and an extensive enclosure system (E 21) being dug around the remaining part of the villa (Fig. 6.4). The ditch was quite substantial in places (up to 1 m deep), with a 2 m wide entrance to the south along the line of the earlier entrance into the Phase 3 complex. Along with the position of the villa building itself, this shows further spatial continuity with the previous settlement. A masonry wall ran north from the villa building to the edge of E 21, clearly dividing the two halves of the enclosure at this point (Fig. 6.4). It is possible that it provided differentiation between public and private space, as was postulated for Phase 3 (see Chapter 5). The ash trees, box hedges, and horticultural crops of the earlier settlement were still in existence, and may have continued to be largely concentrated in the 'private' space to the west of the main domestic residence.

The social significance of enclosure boundaries is well known (see below), and in this case a defensive function is also likely, with the more luxurious aspect of the villa (ie the hypocaust) being removed at its expense. At least two further enclosures were attached to the north-east, possibly used as paddocks for livestock (Fig. 6.4). The finds from the enclosure ditches comprised very mixed material, with most probably deriving from deliberate infilling relating to the final major reorganisation of the site in the latter half of the 4th century. This comprised the creation of a much more substantial enclosure (E 22), encompassing almost three times the area of the earlier boundary, which was supplemented by a faced masonry wall running along its inside edge (see Plate 6.4). Given the scale of the ditch and wall arrangement, it would seem that increased security was clearly a greater consideration at this stage. The environmental evidence suggests that animals were kept in the compound, probably in some numbers (see below), possibly in order to provide increased protection for what would have been an important economic resource.

The shrine

The location, structural form and associated material culture, all strongly suggest that the circular masonry building in Trench 27 was a late Roman shrine (Fig. 6.12, Pl. 6.5). It was probably built in the latter half of the 4th century AD (360-70s?) on a slightly raised area, *c* 70 m east of the late Roman villa. A raised cobbled pathway led from the shrine, not towards the villa site, but away to the north, across a marshy area towards a known Roman road located *c* 100 m distant (Fig. 6.1).

As to the building's superstructure, the small amount of rubble found on site and the level surface of the top of the wall footings may indicate that the walls were probably of timber framing built on top of masonry foundations and wall footings. It is architecturally possible that the building could have had a two storey tower-like structure, but it is more likely to have been single-storey. As only minimal ceramic roofing tile and no slate was found, the roof was probably of the conical thatch type well known in such rural contexts (Perring 2002). Although no definite entrance was located (see above), an easterly orientation is more usual for religious structures in Britain, occurring in over 90% of those structures where an entrance has been located (Smith 2001, 153). The metalled pathway surrounding the exterior of the Claydon Pike shrine also has parallels in the temples at Woodeaton (Goodchild and Kirk 1954, 25) and Frilford (Bradford and Goodchild 1939) in Oxfordshire (see Chapter 16 for general discussion of religious sites

in the Upper Thames Valley). Internally there is no evidence for any cult focus, although a possible hearth in the northern area can be paralleled within a number of temples in Britain (Smith 2001, 152).

The Claydon Pike shrine has a number of parallels within southern Britain, with perhaps the closest in form, character and chronology being at Bancroft in Buckinghamshire, *c* 60 km to the north-east (Williams and Zeepvat 1994). Here, a small (5.7 m internal diameter) masonry-footed circular shrine was located on elevated ground, *c* 300 m north of a villa complex. It was dated to mid – late 4th century, and contained 23 coins, an iron spear tip and a large amount of late 4th-century pottery. Most of this was buried within a large pit within the centre of the shrine, which also included an articulated pig burial (Williams and Zeepvat 1994, 109). Additional circular masonry buildings in central southern Britain with an unequivocally religious function include Brigstock (Greenfield 1963) and Collyweston (Knocker 1965) in Northamptonshire, and Frilford (Bradford and Goodchild 1939) in Oxfordshire. Another possible example lies near to the villa at Chedworth in Gloucestershire (RCHM(E) 1976, 28). Claydon Pike, with an internal diameter of some 6 m, is slightly smaller than this series of buildings with diameters averaging some 10 m. Otherwise, details of both wall and flooring are closely comparable, especially at Brigstock, which also had a large quantity of finds (including many coins) deposited in specific zones on and within the floor surface (Smith 2001, 76).

The relatively small size of the Claydon Pike shrine, as well as its proximity to the villa/farmhouse, marks a close connection to another 'class' of circular masonry building found across central southern Britain, including Redlands Farm, Stanwick, Northants, and Ditchley and Shakenoak in Oxfordshire (Keevill and Booth 1997). Many such examples were located very close to – or were an integral part of – villa sites, and have been assigned a variety of different functions, from domestic to agricultural and industrial (Keevill and Booth 1997, 38). Some have been suggested as household religious structures (eg Darenth, Tring, Petersfield and Stroud: Rodwell 1980), although there are generally very few finds to aid in the interpretation, probably due to the nature of the rituals practised. A well-constructed octagonal building within the villa complex at Bancroft – despite having no directly associated finds – was suggested as a family shrine during the late Roman period (Williams and Zeepvat 1994, 110). It would therefore have been contemporary with the more rustic circular shrine to the north, which was probably of a public nature, patronised by the villa retainers and perhaps the local population. The shrine at Claydon Pike can perhaps be seen as fulfilling a similar 'semi-public' role, an idea strengthened by the presence of a trackway leading across the marsh to the main Roman road, rather than directly to the villa. However, there is no reason to suppose that the villa's occupants – who must surely have been responsible for the shrine's construction – were not also its patrons.

The cemetery *by Annsofie Witkin*

The pattern of the small late Roman cemetery at Claydon Pike, with its discrete cluster of burials within enclosures near to boundary ditches, is quite typical of small rural settlements and villas (Esmonde Cleary 2000), although the intercutting of graves is fairly unusual within the region (Booth 2001, 22; see Chapter 17 for a discussion of burial rites in the wider region). The burials were situated within activity areas demarcated by the field boundaries, suggesting that the disposal of the dead was integrated with other landuses and activities rather than set apart in a separate domain (Esmonde Cleary 2000, 132). The small enclosures indicate that for some of the burials, land was ritually set aside. The physical differentiation of the dead may indeed be a way to control the powerful dead from inflicting harm onto the living. It is likely that the north-south and east-west trackways of Phase 3 continued into Phase 4, and converged at the site of the late Roman villa. The small cemetery is equidistantly situated about 65 m away from the trackways and about 100 m west of the settlement (Fig. 6.1). The chosen location for burial is a clear indication that the cemetery was intended to be seen from the villa as well as from both of the trackways leading to the villa. The location may have been chosen to 'maintain them in the mental map of the inhabitants and passers-by' (Esmonde Cleary 2000, 137).

There does not appear to have been any coherent burial practice amongst the Roman inhumation burials at Claydon Pike, with up to four graves showing evidence for a coffin, one with evidence for hobnail shoes and two decapitations (see above). Such a variety of burial rites appears to have been quite common practice in late Roman cemeteries across the region (Booth 2001, 24). Most decapitation burials have been found in small rural cemeteries associated with farms, villas and minor settlements, with very few located in the larger well-organised urban cemeteries (Booth 2001). Chronologically, decapitation burials date from the 1st to the late 4th century AD, although the rite becomes more common in the 3rd century AD and most examples date to the 4th century. All of the dated Roman decapitation burials from the local region belong to the late Roman period.

Of those skeletons with cut marks present, it is clear the act of decapitation was performed from the front at or after the time of death. Four out of seven decapitation inhumations from Lankhills had cut marks present (Watt 1979, 342). These indicated that the neck was severed between the 3rd and the 4th vertebrae (the middle of the neck). Cut marks were present on the anterior surfaces of these vertebrae on all individuals with minimal bone damage. This

indicates skill and precision on part of the persons performing the severing of the heads. Moreover, the lack of bone damage strongly suggests that the individual was dead prior to the severing of the head. The surgical accuracy would have been extremely difficult to achieve if the individual had been alive (Philpott 1991, 80). Various theories as to the significance of this ritual have been put forward (Philpott 1991), with the most plausible revolving around the Roman and Celtic belief that the head was the seat of the life force and therefore a powerful totem. Through the ritual killing of a dead individual the supernatural life force was shifted to a beneficiary in this world.

The lack of grave furniture at Claydon Pike, aside from hobnails, is in accordance with the situation across most late Roman cemeteries in the region (Booth 2001, 33). Local variations do however occur, with the tradition persisting to the end of the Roman period. When artefacts are present, these have consisted of pottery and glass vessels, coins, equipment, personal ornaments and footwear.

Other zones within the settlement

It is likely that the major trackways into the site continued into the late Roman period (Fig. 6.1). There is no evidence for occupation outside the villa area, although it is possible that some small-scale industrial activity continued in the area of Trench 17, where two late Roman waterholes were found. The two probable corn-drying ovens to the north (1364) and south-east (1537) of the villa discussed in Chapter 5, may also have actually been of Phase 4 date. Activity of some kind continued in Trench 19, although its nature remains uncertain. Many of the finds from ditch 2375 (Fig. 6.2) probably derived from the demolition of the hypocaust building, as they included the highest percentage of box tile fragments on site. The pottery assemblage showed a distinct decline in fine and specialist wares compared to Phase 3, although it did include a high percentage of flagons, possibly also derived from Building 9. There is no positive evidence for continued religious activity in this area, although the late Roman wall (Fig. 6.2) did run along the same alignment as the earlier enclosures.

Economy and material culture

The economic character of the settlement appears to have changed in the late Roman period, and it is quite doubtful whether any of the surrounding grassland was still managed for hay meadows at this time. On the whole, the environmental evidence suggests that the late Roman villa was concerned with the well-managed grazing of domestic animals on the floodplain and 1st terrace, with dung heaps inside the compound indicating that animals were probably kept close to the villa building at certain times of the year. The animal bone assemblage itself appears to have exhibited little change from the Phase 3 settlement, with the exception of an intensification of the earlier trends. These include an increase in the species range, and an increase in the percentage of mature cattle and sheep, suggesting a greater reliance upon secondary products. Of particular note was the concentration of butchered cattle scapulae in pit 1989, which may well indicate the production of cured and/or salted beef on site. Horses were clearly being bred at the settlement, although whether this was for anything other than maintaining the population of working animals is unknown.

There is still little evidence for the growing of arable crops in the immediate vicinity, although such cultivation was certainly possible on top of some of the nearby gravel islands. However, these areas may still have been prone to occasional flooding as the charred grain seeds at Claydon Pike were frequently found in conjunction with specific types of arable weed seeds which suggests this was the case (see Straker *et al.* above). If the two corn-driers at the site belong to this phase, then they may suggest some arable activity on the estate. Horticultural crops such as coriander and celery were clearly still grown, but as with Phase 3, were probably only to serve the culinary needs of the resident population. Other possible economic activities that occurred at the villa complex include bee keeping and fishing, with the large 'tanks' that may well have been associated with the latter implying that this could even have been on a commercial basis. It is possible that at some stage the hypocaust room in B 9 was utilised for the curing of both fish and meat products.

Social structure and identity

The inhabitants of the late Roman villa appear to have presided over a moderately prosperous mixed agricultural estate, although not nearly in the same league as the grand Cotswold villas such as Woodchester, or even nearby Roughground Farm (see Chapter 17). The villa building itself, with its tiled roof and white-washed plastered walls, and the hypocaust in B 9 in particular, all suggest a family group with relatively high social pretensions within the context of the local area. The size of the resident population is difficult to estimate, although it would not appear to have been at the same level as in Phase 3. It has been estimated that the number of inhabitants within a villa may roughly correspond to the number of rooms (Perring 2002, 201), and so in this case a 'nuclear family' group of five to eight may be postulated. Any additional workers that had been attached to the estate – if they existed – may have resided outside of the excavated area.

The drastic structural changes that occurred around the middle of the 4th century AD – with the dismantling of the hypocaust building and enclosure of the villa – suggest that the display of social status was now more closely linked with the need

for greater security. Such an emphasis on higher levels of security has already been shown to be a notable feature of the late Roman finds assemblage (see Cool above). This grows even more apparent with the latest ditch and wall arrangement around the site, the construction of which was a significant undertaking and probably designed not only for defensive purposes, but also to impress those approaching the complex. The construction of a substantial circular shrine to the east may also have been in part a measure to maintain and/or increase social standing in the locality.

It was observed in the Phase 3 settlement (see Chapter 5) that the consumption of food and drink may have been a significant factor in developing social relations within and outside of the community. On the whole the late Roman assemblage of pottery and glassware vessels is quite typical of rural villa sites during this period, and implies that Roman style culinary habits continued. However, there is nothing either in the vessel form or spatial patterning to indicate that specific public acts of consumption may have been regular and/or important social events. As far as personal appearance is concerned, the small finds exhibit quite a typical range for this period, with a preponderance of bracelets that may all have come from a single local source (see Cool above and Chapter 13). This, together with the fact that all of the hair pins were made of bone, may imply that less resources were available for personal adornment than had previously been the case.