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MANOR FARM, MONK SHERBORNE, HAMPSHIRE: ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS IN 1996

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ABSTRACT

Archaeological work prior to chalk extraction at Manor Farm, Monk Sherborne, recorded a number of late prehistoric ditches and other features, and also identified an area in which there were the remains of Roman buildings. Excavations revealed a typical Roman winged corridor house. The N. wing of the building had been remodelled and a channelled hypocaust inserted into one room. There was no direct dating evidence, but finds from two adjacent pits suggest the building was in use from the second half of the 3rd century. Close by were traces of a second, aisled building, constructed using substantial rubble-packed post-pads. Within it was a well-preserved T-shaped channelled corn-dryer, which went out of use in the later 4th century. A third masonry-built structure of Roman date was briefly recorded during chalk extraction works.

The most remarkable objects from the site were an intricately decorated Anglo-Saxon iron wire-inlaid belt buckle and a square belt fitting of the 7th century AD found together near the top of a Roman pit. A post-built timber structure nearby is likely to have been contemporary.

INTRODUCTION

The site and its setting

The site is centred on NGR SU 6077 5566 within Manor Farm, to the south of Monk Sherborne, some 1.6 km to the north-west of Basingstoke (Figs. 1 & 2). Prior to chalk extraction, the site was arable land comprising two fields and a total area of 3.2 ha. It occupies upland on a slight spur of the Upper Chalk, which slopes gently away from around 110 m OD towards the north-east and the Reading Beds of the Thames basin. Here, the area is intermittently wooded and characterised by a series of small brooks meandering eastwards to the river Loddon, some 6 km distant.

The area around the site has produced much evidence for later prehistoric and Roman human habitation of the kind that is typical of the Wessex chalklands. The Roman road linking Silchester (*Calleva Atrebatum*), situated 7 km to the north-east, with Winchester (*Venta Belgarum*), lies some 930 m to the W. of the site (Margary 1973, Route 42a). A second road linking Silchester to Old Sarum (*Soruiodunum*) is situated 4.4 km to the north-west (Margary 1973, Route 4b).

There appears to have been an Iron Age and Romano-British settlement at the Park Prewett Hospital, to the south of Monk Sherborne (Ellaway & Willis 1922–4, 287; Winbolt & Winbolt 1941–3, 242; Applebaum 1952–4, 137). Roman sites within the parish of Wootton St. Lawrence, including a settlement abutting the Roman road to Winchester and a villa are located within 2.7 km of the site (Ellaway *et al.* 1922–4, 386; PHFC 1935–7, 294; Winbolt 1941–3, 246; Winbolt & Winbolt 1941–3, 243; Applebaum 1952–4, 134; Willis 1952–4, 61). Other Roman buildings are known in Sherborne St. John at Meadow House (Winbolt & Winbolt 1941–3, 242) and Elm Bottom (Applebaum 1952–4, 136). Chalk extraction carried out prior to World War 2 immediately to the south of the site revealed finds of tiles, tesserae and wall-plaster, indicating the presence of a building of some substance (Winbolt & Winbolt 1941–3, 243; Applebaum 1952–4, 137; Scott 1993, 85). Its location is shown in Fig. 2.

The present settlement at Monk Sherborne has existed from the Norman Conquest at least, since

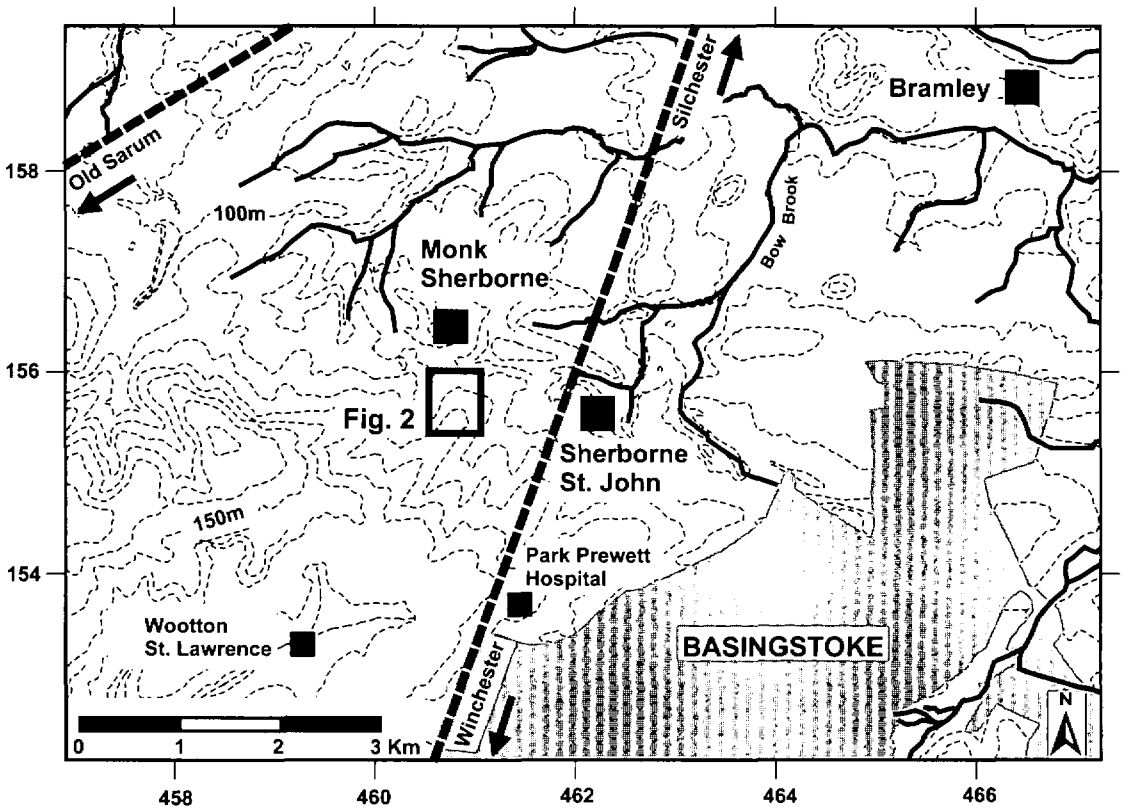


Fig. 1 The site and its setting

it was mentioned in the Domesday Book (23, 57; folio 46b) as Sireborne. The existing church, All Saints, is of early Norman date and has an aisle-less nave and north door with chevron decoration (Pevsner & Lloyd 1967, 339). The church seems to define the southerly extent of the existing village and borders the grounds of Manor Farm (Fig. 2).

Circumstances of excavation

The site was an extension of a chalk quarry, planning permission for which pre-dated PPG 16, and had an access condition placed upon it. The archaeological work, carried out by Winchester Museums Service, was undertaken in two stages.

The watching brief

In February 1996, a watching brief was maintained during the initial topsoil clearance prior to the chalk extraction. Although archaeological recording was confined to the north of the site, the whole area of the field was stripped of its topsoil revealing the underlying natural chalk, using a 2 m wide digger bucket. Approximately 50 mm of the chalk was then removed from the northern area of the field in order to elucidate the extent of any archaeological features that were cut into it.

No general hand cleaning of the area was attempted, although the chalk was sufficiently clean to enable the plotting of features at 1:100 over the majority of the area. Box sections were

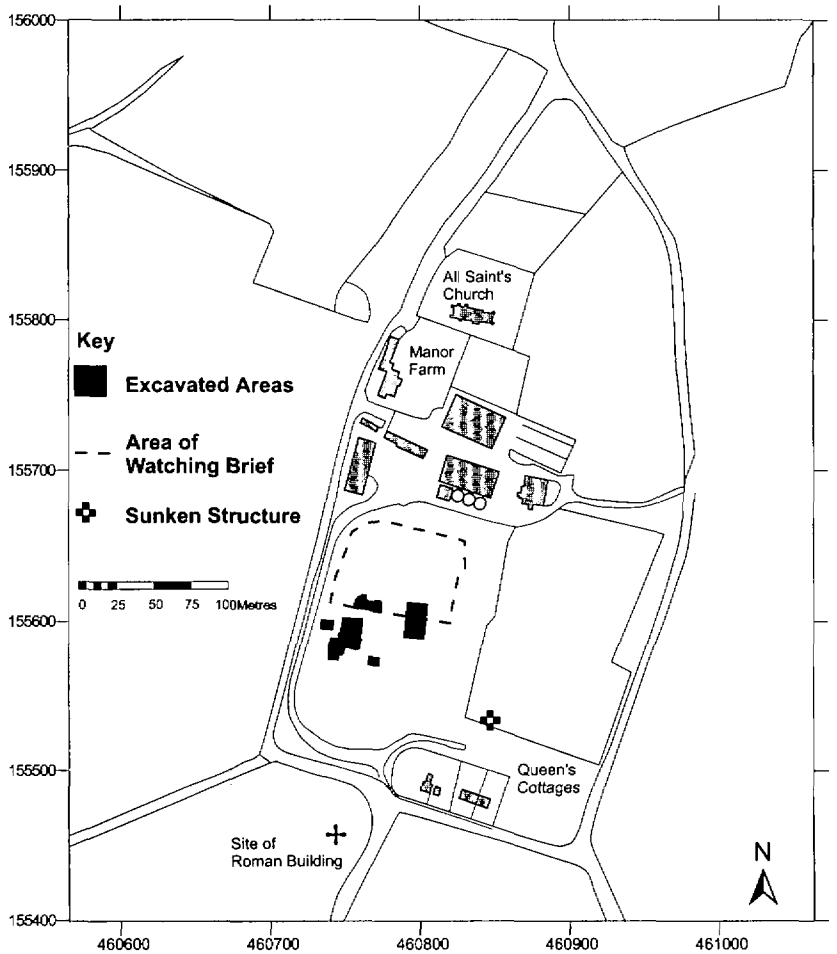


Fig. 2 Trench location

excavated across certain features with the mechanical digger bucket, in an attempt to clarify their form and function. A small quantity of finds was retrieved from several of the features. During this work significant Roman structural remains were identified within the southern half of the proposed area for chalk extraction.

The excavated areas (Fig. 3)

In July archaeological excavations within the southern half of the site took place. The aim was to salvage as much as possible, but this was constrained by the nature of the project and the threat to the site. In response to a brief issued by Hampshire County Council, Area 1 targeted a Roman building identified during the watching brief. Area 2 focused upon an area of burnt flint and two pits nearby. Areas 3 and 4 were designed to elucidate the line of a ditch that cut through the Roman building and area 5 was cleaned in order to investigate a group of rubble filled features. With the exception of F137 (shown in Fig. 12), no excavation of features took place in Area 5.

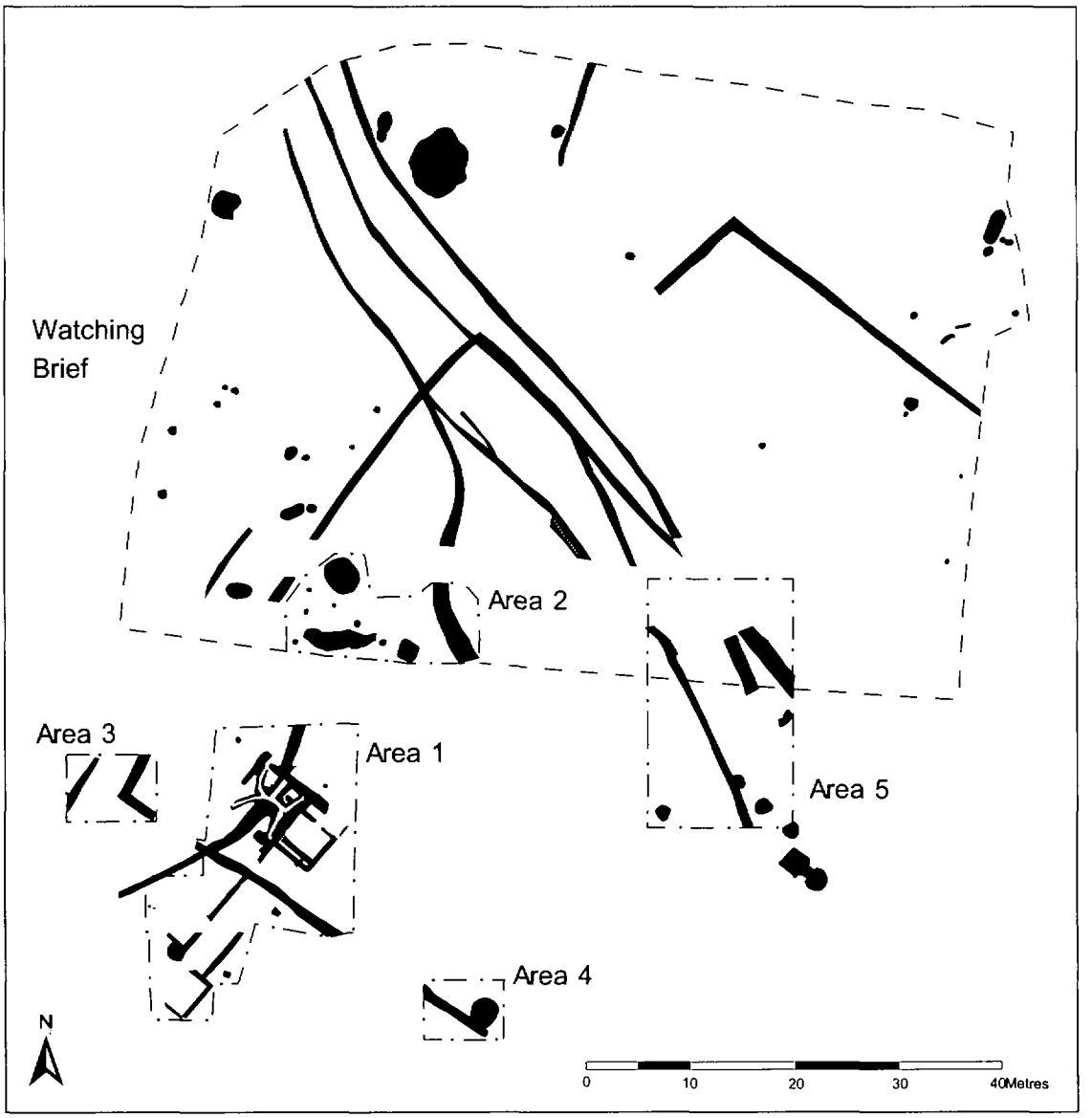


Fig. 3 Detailed trench location and all-feature plan

PREHISTORIC FEATURES AND FINDS

A small scatter of very abraded pottery suggested some activity in the vicinity during the early- and late Bronze Age periods. The earliest features were of the Iron Age, and comprised three pits and part of a system of enclosures defined by V-profiled curvilinear ditches (Fig. 4).

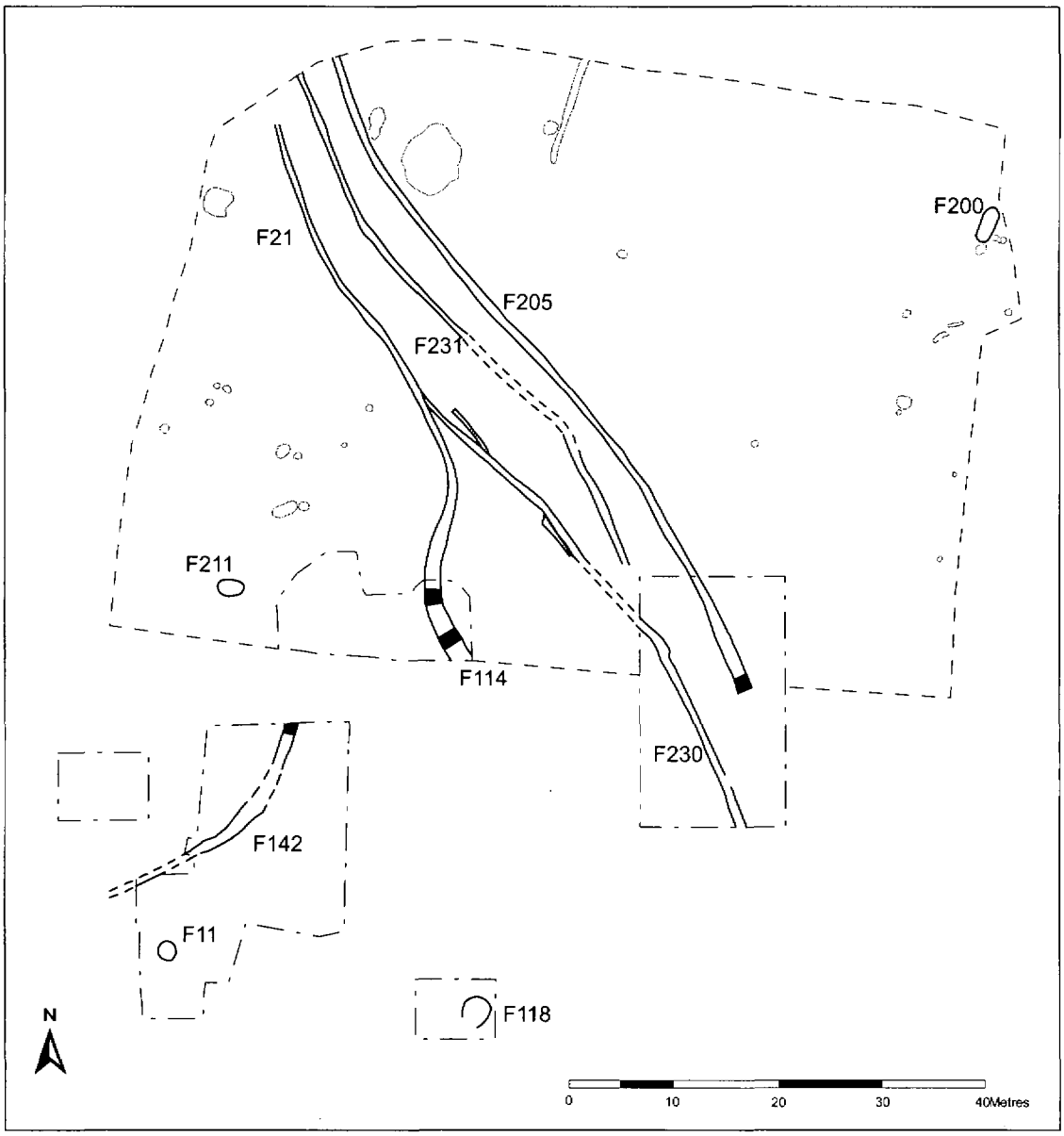


Fig. 4 Plan of prehistoric features

Pits

Two pits (F118 and F119) near the southern boundary of the site were excavated. Pit F119 was cut by the chalk footings of Roman Building 1 (below). Allowing for some truncation, its profile

is of typical beehive shape. The fill comprised deliberate dumps of clay, soil and burnt flint (0.3 kg) above chalk eroded from the sides and below clean silty clay. Pit F118, cut by the ditch F115 (below) was similar, having concave sides and a flat base, and being filled by several episodes of deliberate dumping of chalk rubble, clay and burnt flint (1.3 kg) over loose degraded chalk. A third pit (F211), mechanically sectioned during the watching brief, also showed the characteristic beehive profile on one side and contained a quantity of burnt flint in the second of its three fills.

Enclosure system

Two curvilinear ditches fell within the confines of the excavated areas. F114 was first plotted during the watching brief as F219 and ran approximately NW-SE for a distance of at least 54 m. Two excavated sections across it revealed a V-shaped profile, up to 1.8 m across and 1.0 m in depth with a narrow slot at the base and three distinct episodes of infilling. To the north, within the area of the watching brief, the ditch narrowed to 0.5 m in width and appeared to terminate. Ditch F142 was overlain by Roman Building 1 (below) and ran approximately NE-SW for at least 21 m. It may have terminated to the north or turned off sharply, since no evidence for it was found within the area of the watching brief. A section excavated across it revealed a single episode of filling, although no record was made of its profile and depth.

Within the watching brief area were three parallel and slightly curvilinear ditches (F205, F230 and F231), which appear to relate spatially to ditches F114 and F114/219. These were between 0.5 m and 0.9 m in width and a machine excavated trench dug across the line of ditch F205 revealed a V-shaped profile, a depth of 0.54 m and three infills, as F114.

Dating evidence

The dating evidence was poor, as pottery assemblages were few, small, very badly abraded and mainly confined to the uppermost fills of features (*see* Prehistoric pottery, below). Pit F119 may have been filled in the middle Iron Age, but the presence of grog-tempered ware in pit F118 and ditch F114 suggests that these two features went out of use in the late Iron Age period (*cf.* Rees 1995a, 36; Timby 2000, 307). The pit F211 in the watching brief area is probably Iron Age on account of its beehive profile and the burnt flint from its fill. No finds were recovered from the ditches in the watching brief area, but the absence of Roman building materials from their fills as recorded in the field suggests a prehistoric date.

Table 1 Summary of prehistoric pottery

	fabric	*no*	*wt*	*eve*
briquetage	BRQ1	5	13	
	BRQ2	2	9	
flint tempered	F1	65	912	0.13
	F2	8	57	
grog tempered	G1	23	206	0.08
sandy	Q1	54	272	0.1
	Q2	27	304	0.13
	Q3	3	62	
Totals		187	1835	0.43

Prehistoric pottery by Helen Rees with Peter Fairclough

A minor amount of pottery (Table 1) was of prehistoric date. Although this material is fully characterised and quantified here, the sample is rather small. In addition, the proportion of the total that it represents according to differing methods of quantification (15% by sherd count, 9% by weight and only 2% by EVE) demonstrates its poor condition.

Only 89 sherds (591 gr) were stratified in prehistoric contexts, the rest occurring residually in Roman and later features. There was perhaps, a small scatter of unstratified Bronze Age pottery but the identification is tentative due to the very poor and abraded condition of the sherds (*see*

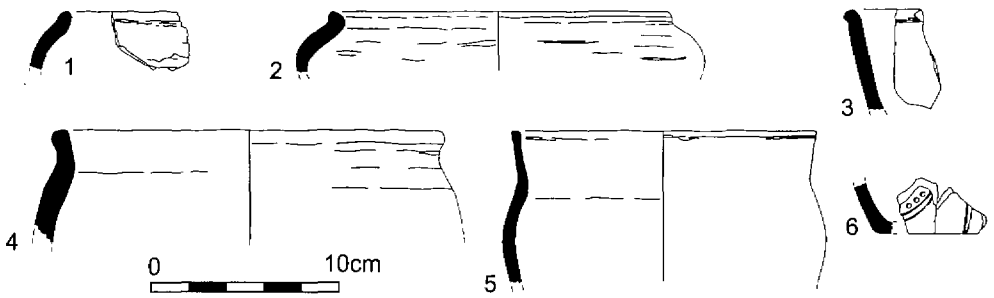


Fig. 5 Prehistoric pottery. Scale 1:4 (PEC & HR)

fabrics F1 and F2, below). The remainder of the material was of middle- and late Iron Age date.

Four fabric groups were present- flint tempered wares, sandy wares, grog tempered ware and briquetage salt containers (*cf.* Morris 1985; Rees 1995b). Raw materials for the manufacture of the flint tempered and grog tempered wares are either universally available or found close to the site. These are therefore possibly, though not necessarily, locally made.

The presence of glauconite/limonite in the sandy fabrics Q1/2 and Q3 (below) is difficult to confirm, as most of the sherds were predominantly reduced (brown, dark grey or black), a situation in which this mineral becomes virtually invisible in hand specimen (*cf.* Morris 1995, 241). Should larger and better preserved samples become available from the site, petrological analysis would be advantageous. In any event, it would be possible to manufacture glauconitic sandy wares using material from the Reading Beds, which outcrop less than 1 km from the site (Ordnance Survey 1904; *cf.* Smith 1977, 89). If, however, the Upper Greensand were the source of such material, specialist production and exchange on a wider scale might be envisaged (*cf.* Morris 1995, 242–3).

The source of the briquetage is presumably coastal, but further study of these fabrics is needed in order to identify which particular coastal areas were involved (*cf.* Timby & Williams 2000, 288).

There was one further handmade fabric that was difficult to parallel amongst local prehistoric wares and this material has been tentatively assigned to the Saxon period (*see* fabric F3, below).

Flint-tempered wares

Fabric F1. A handmade, fairly hard, usually evenly fired reduced (dark grey) fabric, hackly in fracture and containing common to abundant, well sorted, mainly medium-sized (around 1 mm), angular fragments of flint. Tiny fragments probably from a saucepan pot (Cunliffe 1991, 568, nos. 1–3 & 5–7) were present, along with sherds from rounded jars with plain or slightly thickened rims (Fig. 5, 1) and a sherd from a bead rim jar (Fig. 5, 2). Surfaces were often burnished, either all over or in vertical lines. Similar types, in the St Catharine's Hill/Worthy Down style (Cunliffe 1991, 81) are found throughout Hampshire in the middle and late Iron Age periods. However, the presence of a base sherd with flint adhering to the surface on its underside suggests that some late Bronze Age pottery may have been incorporated in this group (Bradley *et al.* 1980, 234). Such material would have been difficult to recognise due to the poor and abraded condition of the sherds.

Fabric F2. A handmade, soft, fairly evenly fired, oxidised (orange) fabric with a soapy texture, laminated fracture and poorly mixed clayey matrix. It contains sparse very large (up to around 8 mm), angular flint inclusions. One sherd was decorated with a horizontal row of light finger- or thumbnail impressions just above the base angle. This may be from an early Bronze Age domestic beaker or urn (*cf.* Ellison 1989, 88–9), but the much abraded condition of the sherd and its small size makes such identification tentative.

Sandy wares

Fabric Q1/2. A handmade, soft, fairly evenly fired fabric with sandy texture and slightly laminated

fracture containing abundant, well sorted inclusions of fine to medium (less than 1 mm), subangular and subrounded quartz and occasional organic material appearing as burnt linear vesicles. The fabric may be reduced (black) or partially oxidised (reddish brown) and (barely) visible in oxidised examples are subrounded brown inclusions- ?glauconite/limonite (*cf.* Smith 1977, 89, Group 3; Morris 1995). This fabric occurred in saucepan pot (Fig. 5, 3) and various jar forms (Fig. 5, 4 and 5). One sherd was decorated above the base angle with tooled pendant arcs defining stabbed dots (Fig. 5, 6). The outer surface was often burnished overall. Variant Q1 has slightly finer sand than variant Q2.

Fabric Q3. A handmade, fairly hard, variably fired fabric with sandy texture and smooth fracture, containing abundant, well sorted inclusions of fine to medium (less than 1 mm), subangular and subrounded quartz and sparse large (up to around 4 mm) sub-rounded flint. Like fabric Q1/2, brown inclusions are visible in oxidised examples. One sherd in this fabric was burnished on the inner surface.

Grog-tempered ware

Fabric G1. A wheel-turned, soft, variably fired but predominantly oxidised fabric with soapy texture and fairly smooth fracture, containing moderate to abundant, well sorted inclusions of medium (up to 1 mm) grog/clay pellets and sparse to moderate flecks of iron. Two out-turned rims, one with a slight cordon were present, but surviving profiles were too short to determine their form fully. One sherd was from a platter with internal cordon and another was decorated with burnished vertical lines.

Briquetage

Fabric BRQ1. A handmade, soft fabric with oxidised surfaces and external margin, reduced core and internal margin. It contains abundant, well-sorted, organic inclusions appearing as burnt out linear vesicles and occasional medium to large (1–5 mm) chalk/limestone. The texture is soapy and the fracture laminated. No featured sherds were present.

Fabric BRQ2. As fabric BRQ1, but with no chalk/limestone.

Catalogue of illustrated prehistoric pottery (Fig. 5)

1 Rounded jar with thickened rim and all-over external burnishing in fabric F1. From the fill of later Roman pit F117 (*570*).

2 Bead rim jar in fabric F1. From the fill of later Roman pit F117 (*577*).

3 Saucepan pot in fabric Q2 with all-over external burnishing. From the uppermost fill of the Iron Age enclosure ditch F114 (*543*).

4 Necked jar with outturned rim in fabric Q1. From post hole F125 in Saxon Building 3 (*586*).

5 Rounded jar with outturned rim and neck and all-over external burnishing in fabric Q2. From the secondary fill of Iron Age pit F119 (*564*).

6 Base sherd with all-over external burnishing and tooled pendant arc and dot decoration in fabric Q2. From the uppermost fill of the Iron Age enclosure ditch F114 (*543*).

ROMAN FEATURES

In Area 1, what survived of a winged corridor house (Building 1) was recorded. To the NE, in Area 2, were two large pits (F117 and F121), whilst a building constructed from substantial post pads (Building 2) and containing a corn-dryer occupied part of Area 5 (Fig. 6). A further very substantial structure located some 85 m SE of Area 4 (Fig. 2) was rapidly salvage recorded.

Building 1

The building had been extensively damaged, presumably as a result of later plough action. All that survived, often discontinuously, was the base of its shallow wall foundations, and towards the SW even this had been completely destroyed. Where foundations still existed, it was often difficult to ascertain their extent against the surrounding natural chalk, as they mainly comprised rammed chalk (Fig. 7).

Phase 1

The building was a typical twin-winged Roman house, with the protruding wings on its SE side. What survives suggests a symmetrical arrangement, a corridor linking the two wings and flanked by at least four rooms on the west. The building measured a total of 23 m across and was 10.7 m in width, if the symmetry on its north wing is repeated on the south wing. The area of

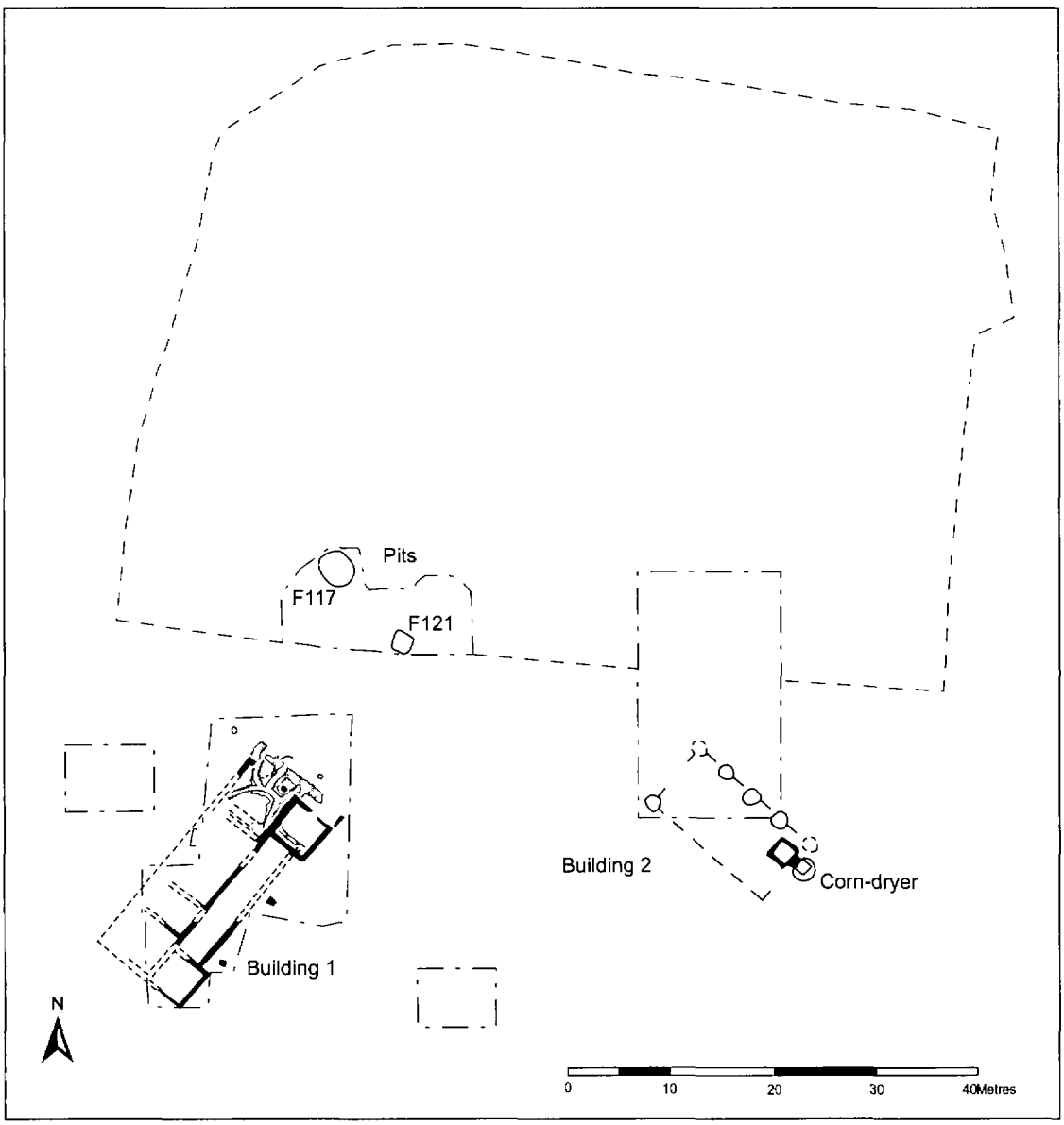


Fig. 6 Roman features, general plan

the room within the north wing measured close to 3.7 m², a dimension apparently mirrored in the south wing, on the opposite end of the 2.5 m wide corridor. There is less certainty about the dimensions of the rooms flanking the west side of the corridor, although the north room may have measured 5.6 m by 5.2 m.

Each wall foundation measured between

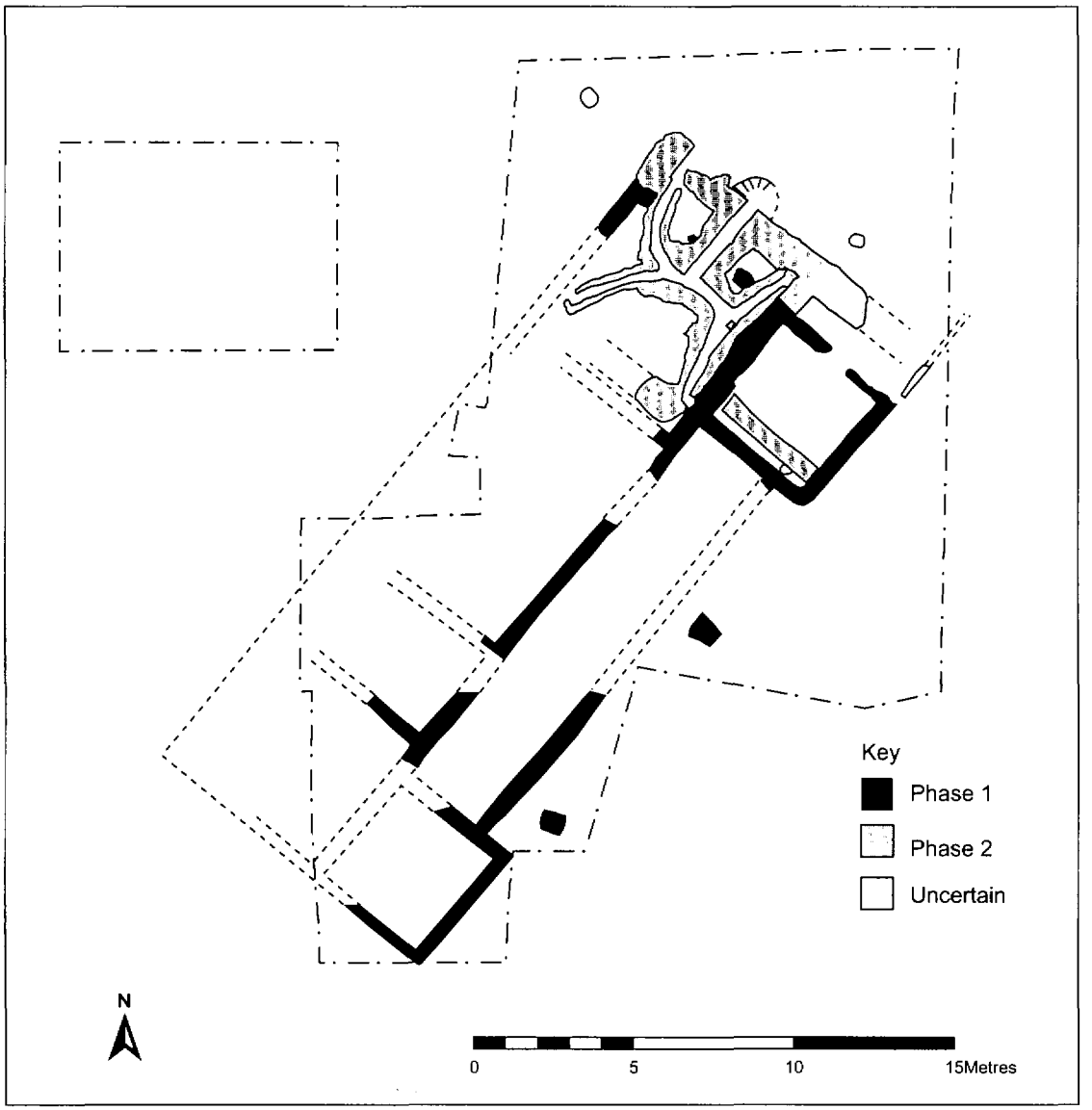


Fig. 7 Plan of Building 1

0.45–0.5 m in width and comprised compacted chalk, surviving in a shallow trench. Where these walls crossed Iron Age pit F119, this trench survived to a depth of 0.2 m. Elsewhere its surviving depth was much shallower and in many places diminished to almost nothing. At the extreme northern end of the building, the chalk footing was overlain by a thin spread of mortar (*612–616* in Fig. 8) which may represent what survived of a spread that bonded the chalk foundation with the overlying wall fabric.

Horizontal levels survived in the east room of

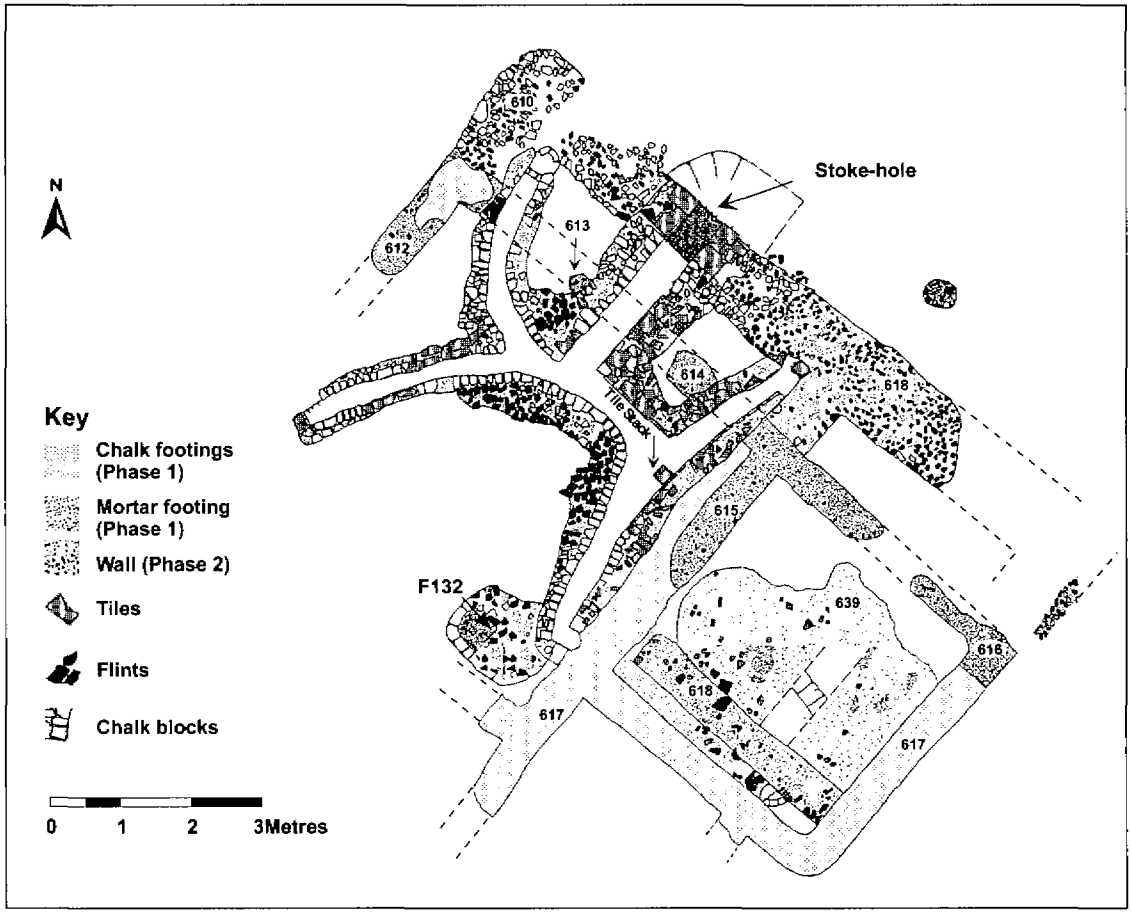


Fig. 8 Detailed plan of the N. wing of Building 1

the north wing only and consisted of a thin spread of very compacted building rubble (*639* in Fig. 8). The rather mixed nature of this deposit (*opus signinum*, tile and mortar rubble) suggests that it should be interpreted as construction debris rather than flooring material, although it could have acted as a floor base. This deposit predates the construction of wall *618* (*see* Phase 2, below).

Two (unexcavated) masonry pads were situated outside the house 1.1 m to the east of the corridor. Each was roughly rectangular in plan, 0.6–0.7 m across and filled with mortared flint rubble. These features may have supported columns or posts forming a verandah linking the two wings of the building (Fig. 7).

Phase 2

The north wing of the building was substantially modified. The wing maintained its two-room layout and in the west room a channelled hypocaust was added. No internal deposits or other associated features survived in the east room.

The north wall of the wing was entirely rebuilt some 0.7–0.8 m to the north. The new wall footings (*610* and *618* in Fig. 8) mainly survived

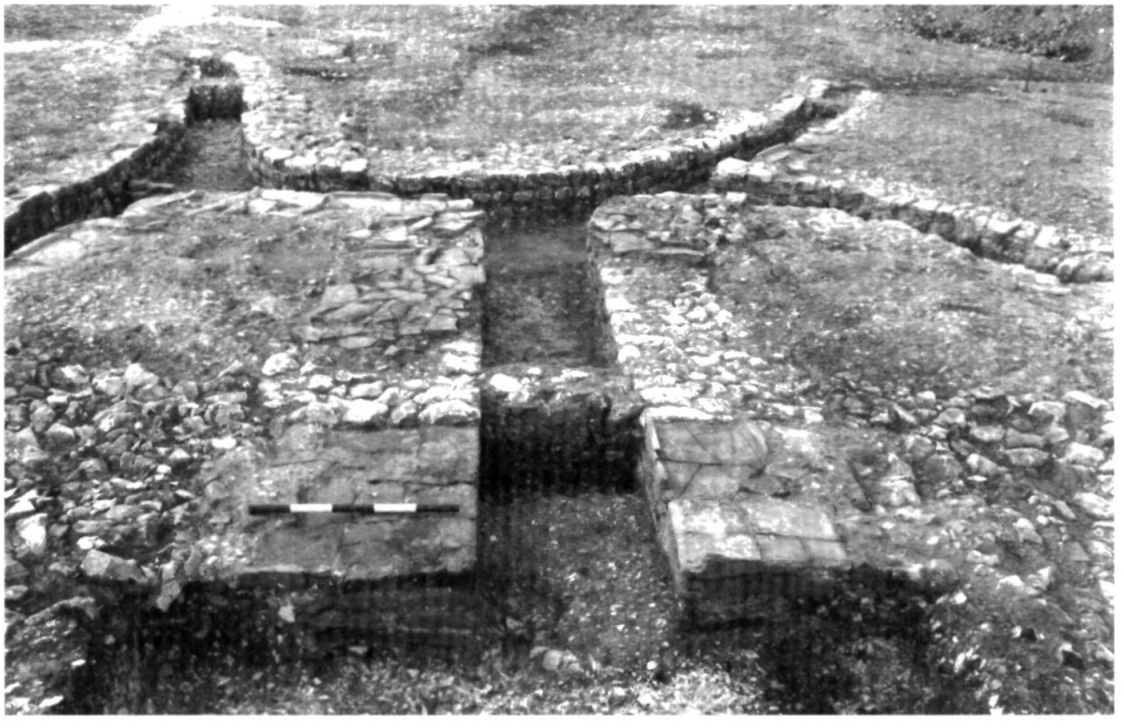


Fig. 9 Detail of the hypocaust in Building 1, looking S., showing the stokehole

at a very shallow depth on the previously exterior ground. The wall was of a single build, constructed with chalky mortar, bonding flint and chalk rubble with occasional fragments of tile. Only the very base of its footing survived. In places this measured around 1.1 m in width, although the internal wall joining the two rooms was narrower at 0.78 m.

A deeper-founded stub of masonry located at the SE corner of the west room (F132 in Fig. 8) may have formed part of its south wall. The south wall of the east room survived better than the other walls of the later building. The ends butted up to the inner edges of the earlier east and west walls, giving a room dimension of 4 m by 3.5 m. Although this wall was not fully recorded, it was 0.55 m in width and apparently built free-standing, with mainly mortared flint rubble. Elsewhere the footings of the earlier walls seem to have been used; the west and east walls of the west room mirrored the earlier wall; similarly, the west and east walls of the east room appeared to have corresponded with those of the earlier building

To judge from the outlet positions of the hypocaust channels, the hypocausted room measured 5 m^2 in area. The hypocaust consisted of an inlet channel that ran through the north wall to an approximate central point, from which it branched out to meet each corner of the room. The channels were constructed with mortared chalk and flint rubble containing tile fragments, and faced with squared off chalk blocks. There was a brick stringer course on the third of the surviving four courses. These achieved a height of 0.25 m in places. The inlet channel was wider than the other channels, at 0.46 m and 0.2–0.3 m respectively. There was no surviving indication that the terminals of the four branches met rising box flue tiles at the corners of the walls, although their positions were implied by the open ends of

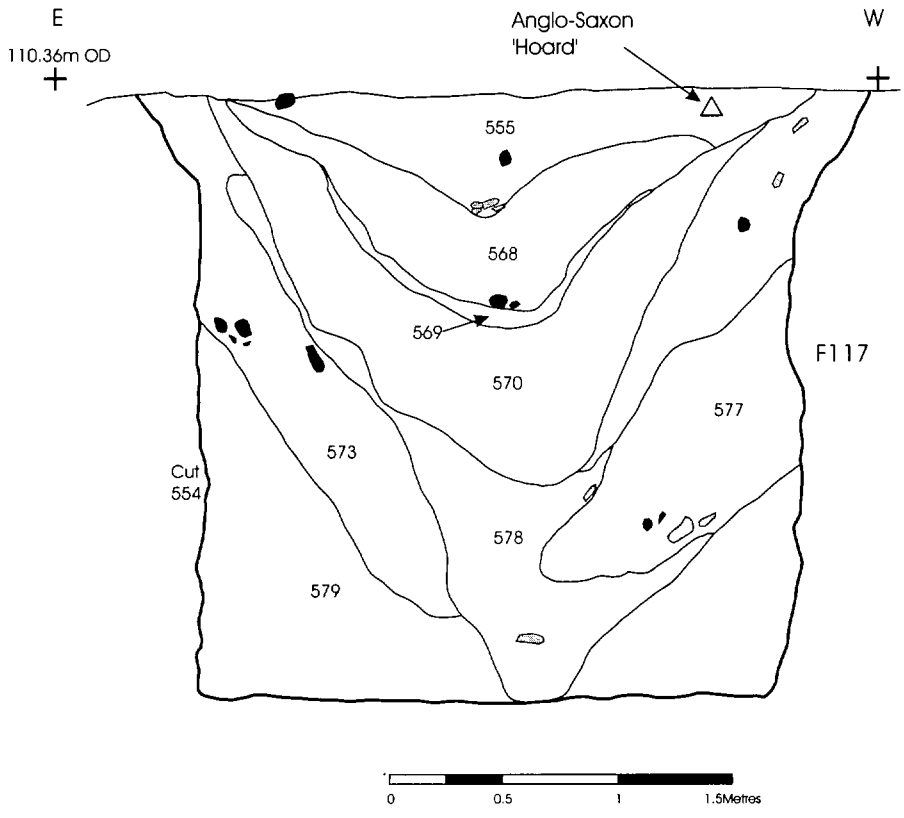


Fig. 10 Section through pit F117

the channels. Where the inlet channel passed through the north wall of the room, its walls were constructed entirely of stacked and mortared re-used bricks and *tegula* tiles. A single stack of mortared tiles located close to the outer wall of the west channel may have functioned as additional support for the overlying floor.

There was no indication of any scorching on the channel walls or any charred debris within the channels. A small gently sloping pit arced around the entrance of the inlet channel, seemingly a stoking pit (Fig. 9), similarly showed no evidence for use. The channels and the stoking pit were all filled with a homogeneous and compacted grey chalky loam that contained only occasional flecks of charcoal.

Pits

Two pits were located some 15–16 m to the NE of Building 1. F117 was sub-rectangular in plan, measuring 3.5 by 3.1 m and 2.65 m in depth. The thick deposit of dirty chalk rubble (*579* in Fig. 10) that had weathered from the sides to form the basal fill suggests that the pit was allowed to remain open for an appreciable period of time. The other fills appear to result from episodes of deliberate infilling interspersed with natural silting. The soil sample taken from the clean silt (*578* in Fig. 10) produced a quantity of cess (*see* Other Environmental Evidence, below). Some, if not all, of the latest stage of infilling may have derived from the dishing of horizontal

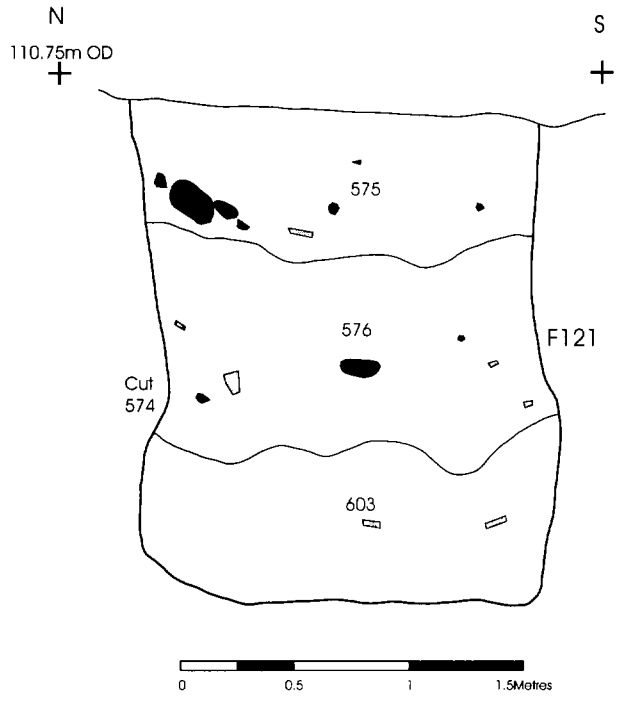


Fig. 11 Section through pit F121

deposits that would have originally overlain the pit.

The smaller pit, F121, was sub-square in plan and measured 1.8 m across and 2.16 m in depth, with near vertical sides to a flat base. Its basal fill (*603* in Fig. 11) consisted of a thick homogenous deposit of silt, up to 0.75 m in depth, which contained a high level of cess (*see* Other Environmental Evidence, below). The later fills represent backfilling.

Building 2

About 30 m to the east of Building 1 were a series of regularly spaced pits appearing to form part of a substantial rectangular timber building (Fig. 12). Four of these pits lay within the recorded area, although a fifth is clearly discernible from a photograph of the corn-dryer (Fig. 13 and below). Each pit was approximately circular in plan, measuring 1.4–1.6 m across and was filled with closely packed flint and chalk rubble and occasional tile fragments. Only one pit was sectioned and found to be 0.55 m in depth. The feature had a rounded base and no evident post-pipe. A reconstruction of the configuration of the building suggests that there were at least 5 pairs of pits spaced equally at 3.5 m, forming two lines 7 m apart. If what is recorded/reconstructed represents the full extent of the building, it would have been 14 m long.

The compact nature of the infill of the pits and lack of post-pipes suggests that they functioned as pads supporting substantial upright timber posts or columns located internally to an aisled building. No evidence of outer walls was found within the investigated area. However, as the paired pads would have borne the roof load, the outer walls might have been of less substantial sill-beam construction and failed to survive in the archaeological record.

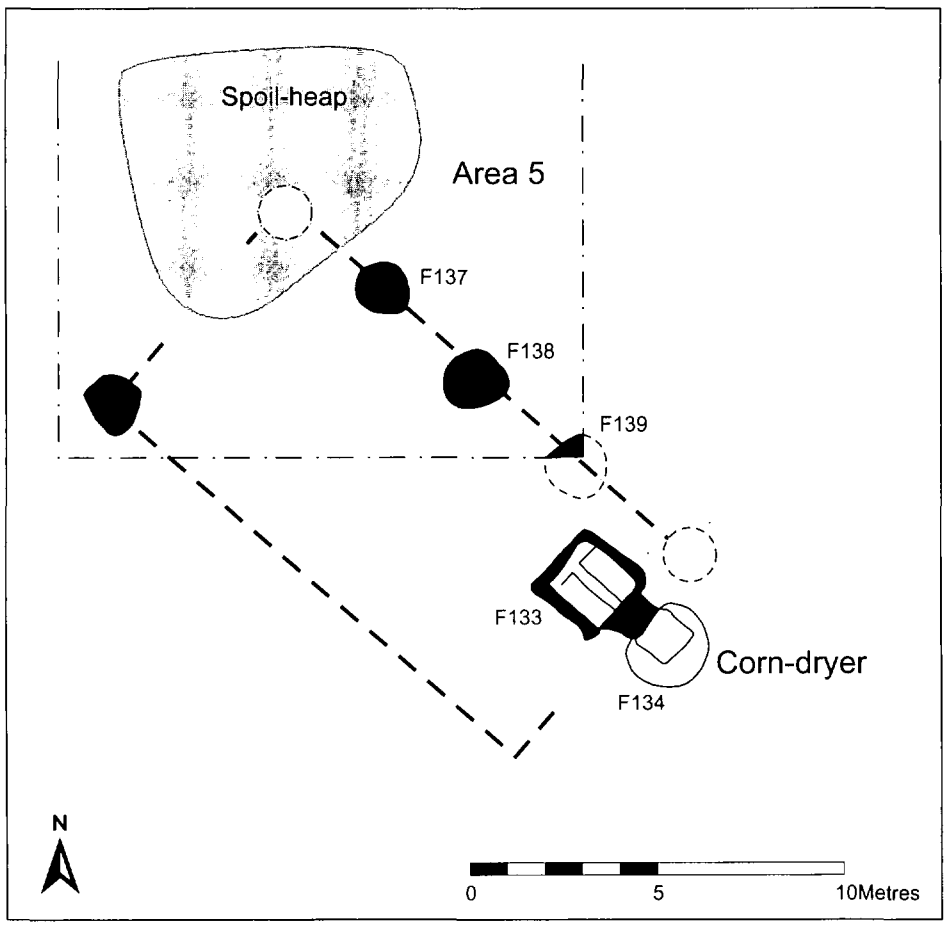


Fig. 12 Plan of Building 2

The corn-dryer

A masonry built corn-dryer was situated within Building 2 at its SE end. This structure comprised two elements, a stone-lined pit (or main chamber), and an adjoining stoking pit. An arched masonry lined chamber, or channel, forming a typical T-shape linked these (Fig. 14).

Main chamber (F133)

The pit for construction of the main chamber was almost square in plan and measured a maximum of 2.25 m across and was 0.52 m in depth. The trench for construction of the channel measured about 1.1 m across and was cut to a depth of 0.65 m into the base of the pit.

The sides of the pit were lined with four regular courses of large roughly squared chalk blocks and flint nodules 0.35–0.4 m in width and bonded with brown clay (*658* in Fig. 15). On the west side (flue), the lining continued down to the base of the channel, and here it was composed entirely of chalk, with up to 12 well-defined courses. Overlying the west wall of the chamber was a single course of tiles that partially covered the flue. Some

Fig. 13 The corndryer looking N.W., showing the rubble-filled post pads of Building 2

of these were found to have slumped down the outer face.

The walls of the channel comprised four regular courses of roughly shaped chalk blocks and occasional large flints, bonded by mid/light brown clay (*657* in Fig. 15). The second course was a string-course of horizontal tiles. The bottom course had been scorched towards the stoke hole. Re-used *tegula* tiles formed a capping on the main channel. This capping had slumped and fractured along its length, from the weight of the later filling of the chamber above it. The tiles were bonded to the walls of the channel by hard brown clay. Similar clay (*626* in Fig. 15) to that bonding the tiles also covered the top of the tiles.

The main channel had been completely filled in three distinct episodes. The earliest (*644* in Fig. 15) was a thin discontinuous charcoal deposit that became thicker towards the stoke hole, derived from firing of the stoking chamber. Overlying was a loose orange-brown clay and mortar rubble (*643* in Fig. 15) representing the erosion of the channel walls after the corn-dryer had ceased to function. The latest fill (*642* in Fig. 15), was a homogeneous well-wormed loose dark grey-brown loam containing no coarse components. The main chamber was deliberately infilled immediately after disuse with a homogeneous dark grey soil (*624* in Fig. 15) that contained many large flint nodules and chalk fragments.

The stoking pit (F134) – Fig. 16

The stoking pit was oval in plan measuring 2.4 m by 1.8 m and 1.2 m in depth. Its sides sloped in at an angle of approximately 45 degrees and had a possible step or foothold on its far side, away from the chamber. The stoking chamber on its NW side was constructed with large horizontal *tegula* and brick fragments forming an arch bonded into the main fabric of the channel construction. The exposed face of the tiles and their bonding of hard clay had been scorched and blackened by heat.

The basal fill of the stoking pit was a thick deposit of charcoal rich, although otherwise clean, dark brown silty loam that had completely clogged the entrance of the chamber. The charcoal content of the soil increased markedly towards and within the entrance of the chamber, clearly indicating that it was derived from the firing of the pit. Overlying this deposit and completely filling the pit was deliberate backfilling.

The sunken structure

During chalk extraction within the field to the east of the excavated area, a large feature was observed cutting into the chalk on the south face of the quarry, opposite Queen's cottages (NGR SU 6085 5553 – Fig. 2). This feature was cleaned and rapidly salvage-recorded.

It was cut approximately 1.55 m into the chalk and measured at least 4.7 m across. When observed, it had been largely destroyed by the quarry. On its east side it was lined with a wall that was visible to a height of four courses (?constructed with chalk blocks). Its south face was lined with mortared chalk rubble (*633* in Fig. 17) apparently representing the masonry core for the lining of the south side of the pit. There was no

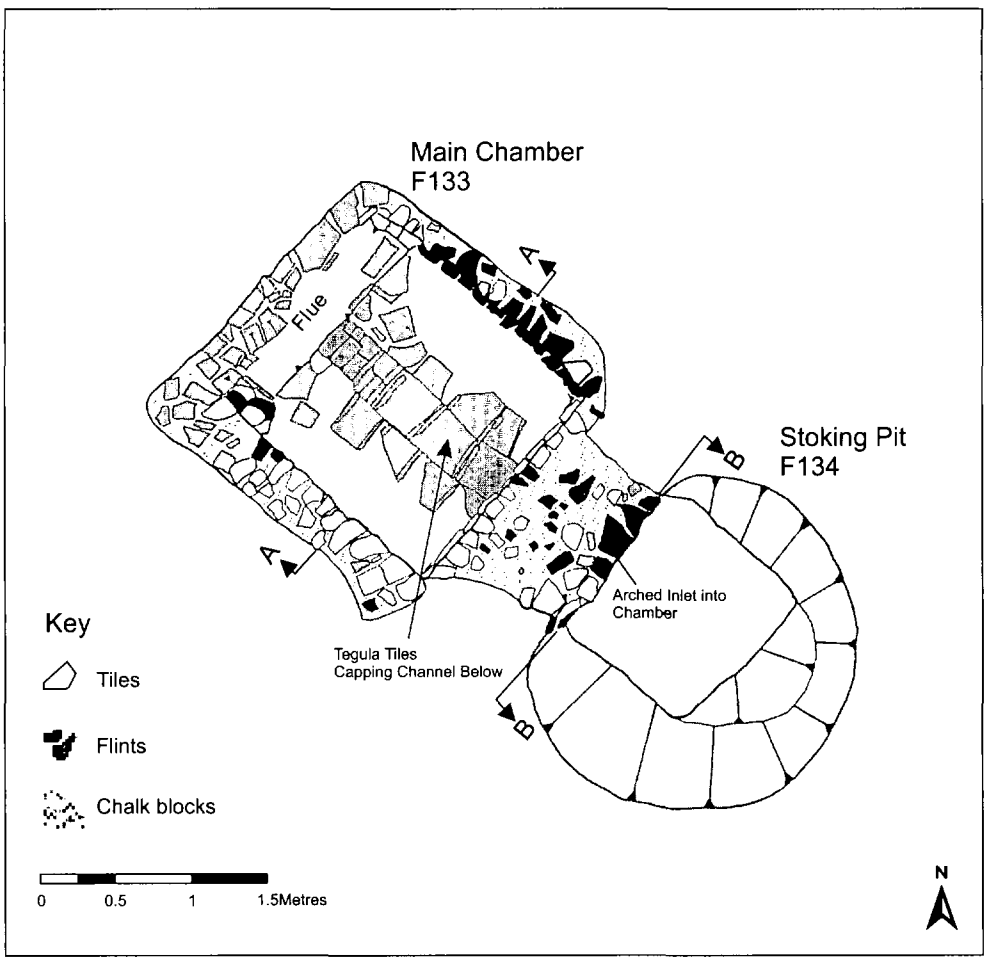


Fig. 14 Detailed plan of the corndryer F133/134

indication for any facing, although this could have been removed by the quarry or by earlier robbing.

At the base of the pit, and apparently abutting the sides of the masonry lining, was a thick deposit of charcoal rich silt (*634*) that had become compacted towards its base (*635* in Fig. 17). The large amount of charcoal present and the scorched nature of the underlying chalk suggest that the structure had been subject to heat and burning. Overlying were deposits (*631/632* in Fig. 17) marking the structure's disuse. Subsequently a small pit or ditch (F136) was cut through this infill.

Dating evidence

Pits F117 and F121 both produced large and well preserved assemblages of late 3rd to early 4th century pottery and coins of 260–9 and 321–2 respectively. Within the stratigraphy of F117, ceramic phasing between the earlier fills and the

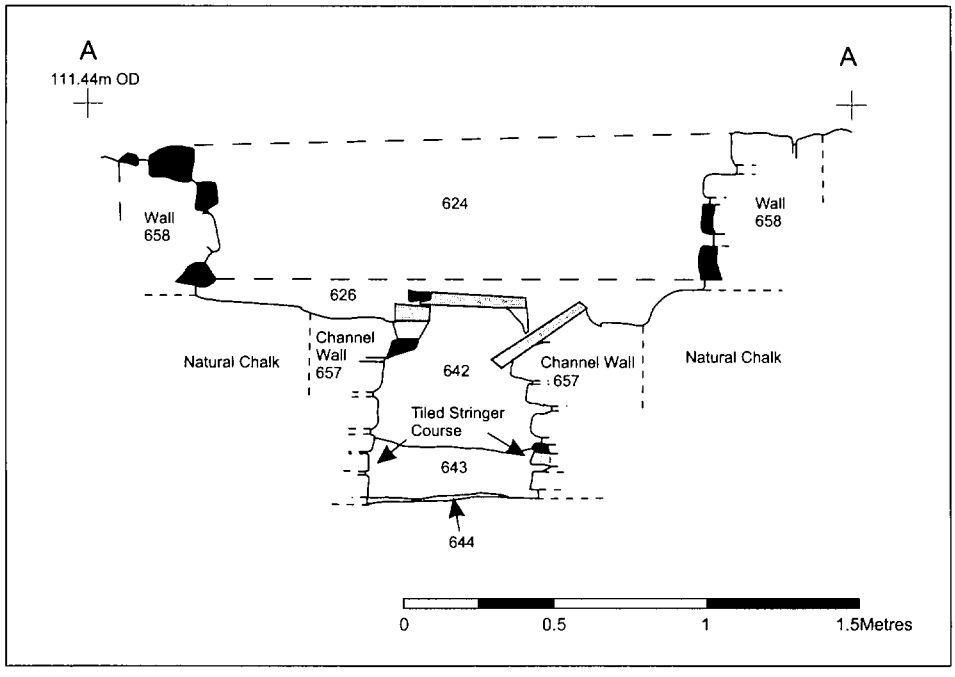


Fig. 15 Profile of the corndryer main chamber F133 (AA in Figure 14), showing method of construction and later in-filling

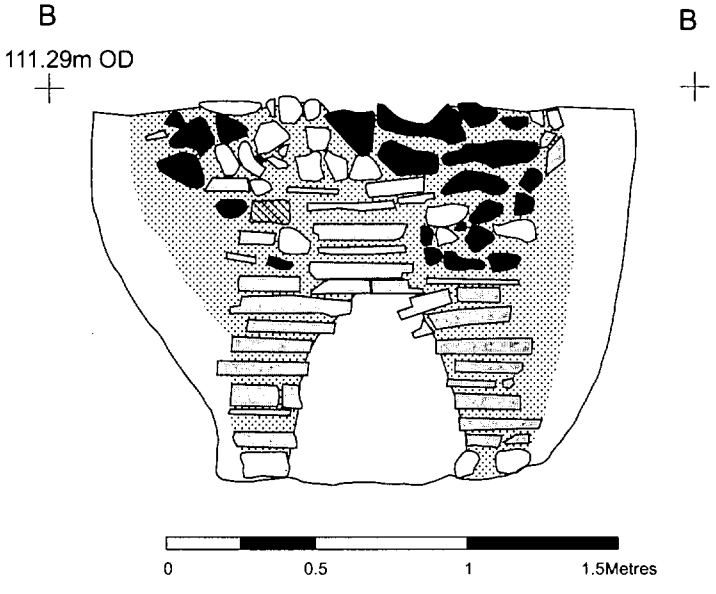


Fig. 16 Corndryer stokehole F134, elevation (BB in Figure 14)

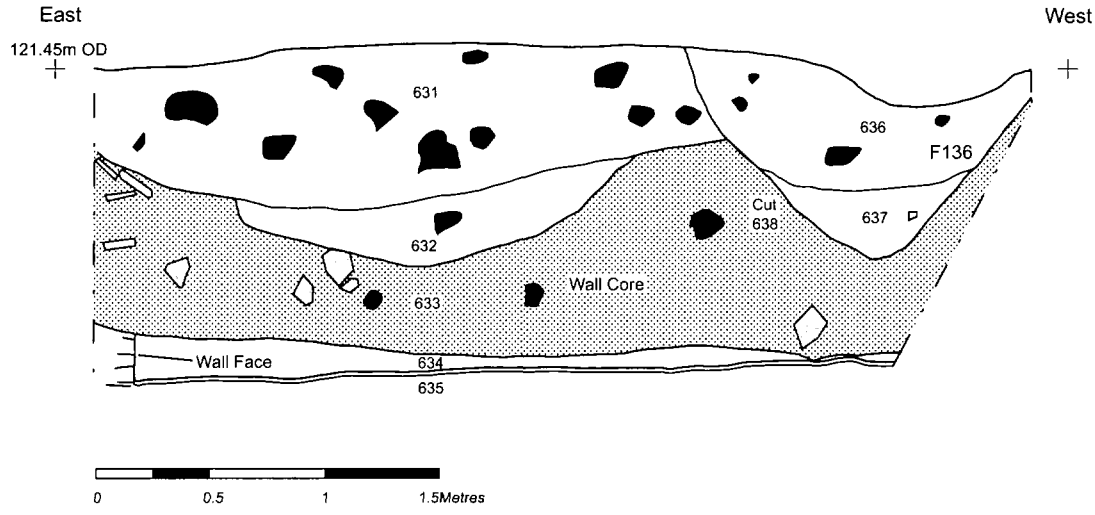


Fig. 17 Section through the sunken structure F135

latest two (*568* and *555* in Fig. 10) was apparent. The sherds from *568* and *555* (whence also came the coin) were smaller on average than those from earlier fills, suggesting a higher degree of residuality (*see* Roman Pottery below). Apart from the remarkable find of an Anglo-Saxon buckle and a belt plate (below) from near the top, there was no other hint of an Anglo-Saxon date for *555*; iron objects from that context were either Roman or undiagnostic. The fills of both the stoking pit and the main chamber of the corn-dryer included pottery of the later 4th century. The sunken structure also produced a very small 4th century assemblage. No dating evidence was recovered from Buildings 1 and 2.

ROMAN FINDS

For the Roman material, Crummy's (1983) functional categories have been used, adding pottery and glass vessels to household items and coins to objects associated with weighing and measuring (hence commerce and coins). The smaller reports and catalogue entries are by Sandy Mounsey- iron objects (SM) or Helen Rees- nonferrous objects (HR) unless otherwise stated. The vast bulk of the material came from the pits F117 and F121 and the backfill of the corn-dryer F133/134, a situation that reflects the truncated nature of the site.

The position of iron finds from *555* F117 in relation to the Anglo-Saxon buckle and fitting was not noted at the time of excavation. All of the 12 nails and 8 objects (with the exception of one of the boot plates) were incomplete fragments. They are probably Roman in date and are therefore catalogued here. It is possible that some or all were part of a founder's hoard, but this cannot be demonstrated (SM).

Personal adornment and dress (Category 1)

Finger ring

Fig. 18, 1, sf52. Copper alloy finger ring of circular section flattened to rectangular at the shoulders to form the bezel. Incised line decoration on either side of the shoulders, with white metal plating on the bezel. Diameter 20 mm (internal), height 1.5 mm, bezel broken across in the centre. From the fill of the corn-dryer F133 (*624*). HR.

Hairpin

Fig. 18, 2, sf36. Bone hairpin with a reel shaped head, of Crummy's (1983, 25, no. 420) Type 6, dated to the

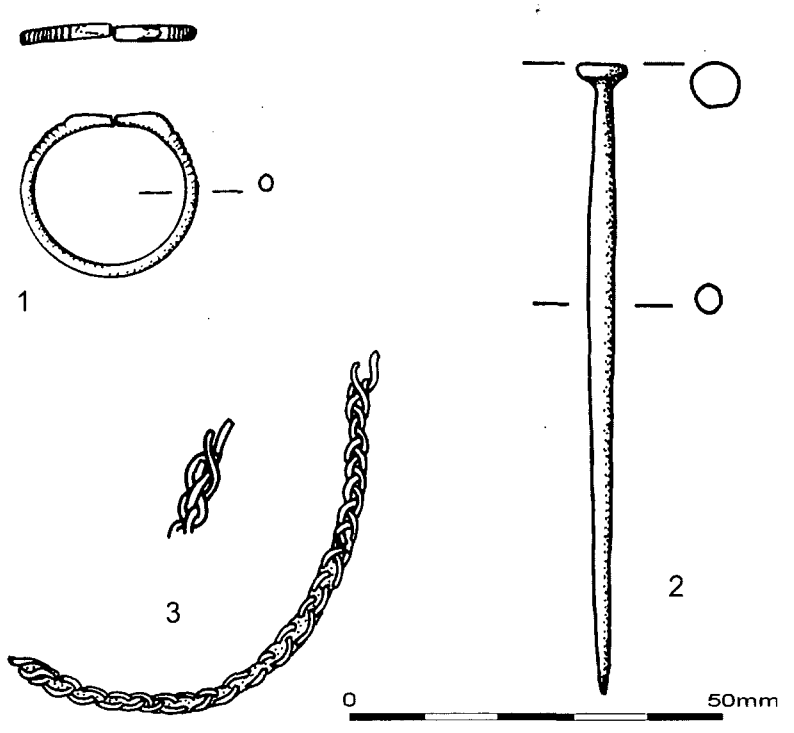


Fig. 18 Roman finds of copper alloy and bone. Scale 1:1 (PEC)

third and 4th centuries. Length 82 mm. From pit F121 (*603*). HR.

Shoe or boot plates (SM)

Three oval shoe or boot plates of iron were recovered, all from pit F117. They may have belonged to the same shoes to which the hobnails were attached (below) or to a different type of footwear.

Fig. 26, 1, sf70. Complete oval boot or shoe plate. One arm bent slightly outwards. Plate length 39.5 mm, width 12 mm. Arm length 22.5 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

sf59 (not illustrated). Oval boot or shoe plate. Both arms incomplete. Traces of mineral preserved organic, probably leather, attached to the external face. Plate length 27 mm, width 9 mm. From one of the lower fills of pit F117 (*578*).

sf21 (not illustrated). Oval boot or shoe plate. Both arms incomplete. Plate length 30.5 mm, width 10 mm, thickness 4 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

Hobnails (SM)

A quantity (71) of iron hobnails were recovered. Of these, 38 were found in the lower layers of pit F117 and a group of 16 came from *568* in the same feature. Another group of 16 were recovered from the stoking pit F134 (Fig. 26, 2). It was not possible to reconstruct the pattern of the hobnails (although a small number from F117 were held together in their original position by means of mineral-preserved leather in one row of three hobnails and another of two), nor to be certain how many shoes are represented: at the Lankhills cemetery (Winchester), the number of hobnails present in a grave ranged from less than 10 to more than 200 (Clarke 1979, 322). It is possible though that the two groups of 16 hobnails each represent a single shoe. The length of the hobnails from F117 and F134 ranged from 12–16.5 mm and the head diameter from 8.5–12 mm. The majority have conical heads. The single hobnail from *539* was 18 mm long with a head diameter of 11.5 mm.

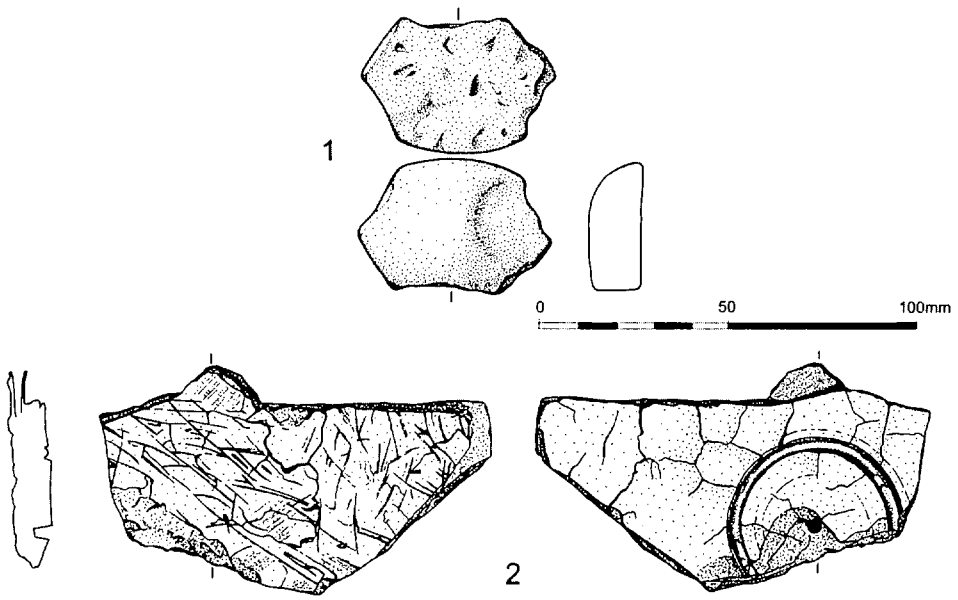


Fig. 19 Roman finds of stone and shale. Scale 1:4 (PEC)

Household (Category 4)

Querns and rubbing stones (HR)

Fig. 19, 1, sf86. Fragment from a sarsen ?rubbing stone with one unbroken edge. Upper surface very smooth, almost polished, underside retaining faint chisel marks from the manufacturing process. Maximum thickness 29 mm. Just possibly Iron Age in date (*cf.* Wooders 2000, 386–7) but from a Roman context, the basal fill of the stokehole to the corn-dryer F134 (*629*).

sf87 (not illustrated). Four fragments from a quernstone of Niedermendig basalt. Both surfaces (and the breaks) worn to complete featurelessness. Diameter of hopper hole ?about 190 mm, maximum thickness 30 mm. Although the quern is very worn, it is discernibly of Röder's Roman types 5 or 6 rather than flat like early medieval type 7 (Crawford 1955, 69–70). From a Roman or later pit F213 (*537*).

Shale furniture by Geoff Denford

A full description of the types produced from the bed of oil-shale known as the Blackstone, part of the Kimmeridge Clay formation of the Upper Jurassic near Kimmeridge on the Isle of Purbeck can be found in Denford (1995). The fissile nature of the material, the facility with which it could be split into flat slabs, recommended itself for the production of certain forms, such as platters, trays and tabletops, as here.

The fragment is possibly from a tray. These were produced in rectangular and circular forms though the circular decorative motif might suggest that it came from the latter. Any peripheral decoration (*see* for example Lawson, 1975, Fig. 12 no 90) has been lost. Rectangular trays tend to have a rectangular decorative scheme (for example, Biddle, 1967, 233–4, Fig. 6).

The context from which the fragment came suggests a late 3rd to early 4th century date for the item. This conflicts with the distribution of dates for known examples of trays, which tends to the 1st and 2nd centuries. The distribution of dates for circular tabletops tends to the third and 4th centuries. It is therefore possible that the fragment derives from a tabletop.

Fig. 19, 2, sf121. The fragment retains both of its original surfaces. The top surface is decorated with two

deeply incised concentric circles with radii of 40 mm and 44 mm. The underside shows evidence of its being dressed to an even surface with signs of cross-scoring and numerous chisel marks. It is possible, perhaps, to identify the use of chisels of at least two blade widths, of some 19 mm and 32 mm. The top, decorated, surface would have been finished with an abrasive that has removed all signs of working. The thickness of the piece now averages 12 mm. From the fill of pit F121 (*576*).

Glass vessels (HR)

Six fragments of Roman glass were recovered, of which three appeared to be from the same vessel. Late Roman green glass was represented by one fragment, whilst the remainder were blue/green in colour. One featureless blue/green fragment from the uppermost fill of pit F117 (*555*) has been omitted from the catalogue below. Nomenclature in the catalogue is after Cool & Price (1995).

Blue/green

sf93 (not illustrated). Base fragment. Concave base with high central kick and trailed base ring, perhaps from a flask or jug. Diameter 85 mm, EVE 0.19. From the fill of the corn-dryer F133 (*624*).
sf18/19 (not illustrated). Fragment from the handle and part of the shoulder of a prismatic or cylindrical bottle. Reeded handle with simple attachment, section incomplete and not measurable. Two tiny fragments (sf 18) are from the same vessel, to judge from their condition and colour. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*568*).

Late Roman green

sf20 (not illustrated). Base fragment of jug or bowl. Dark green. Outsplayed pushed in footring with hollow tube at end. Concave base with central kick and pontil scar. Diameter 55 mm. EVE 0.425. Diameter of pontil scar 15 mm. From the fill of the sunken structure F135 (*634*).

Roman pottery by Helen Rees with Peter Fairclough and a contribution by Brenda Dickinson

The excavation produced just over 18.5 kg (some 1,000 sherds, just under 20 EVEs: Orton 1980, 164–7) of Roman pottery.

Key groups

The pits F117 and F121 and the corn-dryer F133/134 produced assemblages of pottery in good condition and including a number of complete profiles and whole or near-whole pots and these have been treated here as key groups (Tables 2–4 and Figs. 20–21). Although the EVEs reveal that the sample for each group is relatively small (especially in F121 at only just over 3), quantified information has been presented here assemblage by assemblage, as it reveals possible (if not proven) trends in the pottery supply through time (*cf.* Orton *et al.* 1993, 175).

Overall, the most common Roman fabrics were South East Dorset Black Burnished Ware category 1 (Gillam 1976, Williams 1977), Wessex grog tempered wares (*cf.* Fulford 1975a, Tomber & Dore 1998, 139) and grey wares. Amongst the fine- to medium grained grey wares, the vast bulk appeared to be in what Millett (1986, 76) has termed Alice Holt/Farnham Main Fabric (b): although it is possible that the nearly identical New Forest grey wares (Fulford 1975b, 85) were also present in small quantities (*cf.* Lyne and Jefferies 1979, 56). In addition, one or two vessels may be of neither origin and from sources unknown.

There was also a somewhat smaller amount in Millett's (1986, 76) Tilford Fabric (c) (for the purposes of this report the buff version of this fabric has been recorded separately- *see* Portchester D below). Also present amongst the coarse wares were very small amounts of Oxfordshire burnt white ware (Young 1977, 113).

A further fine sandy fabric with the addition of sparse large flint was reserved for storage jar forms. Variations in the main grog tempered fabric(s) included two other storage jar types- a grog tempered ware with some sand, and one similar in appearance to Savernake grog tempered ware (Swan 1975; *cf.* Tomber & Dore 1998, 191). Millett's (1986, 76) Alice Holt/Farnham Early Fabric (a) and a single fine grey ware sherd with black slip and barbotine dots represented the earlier Roman period residually.

Fine wares were relatively rare and included Oxfordshire slipped tableware, both red (Young 1977, 123) and white (Young 1977, 117), Oxfordshire parchment ware (Young 1977, 81)

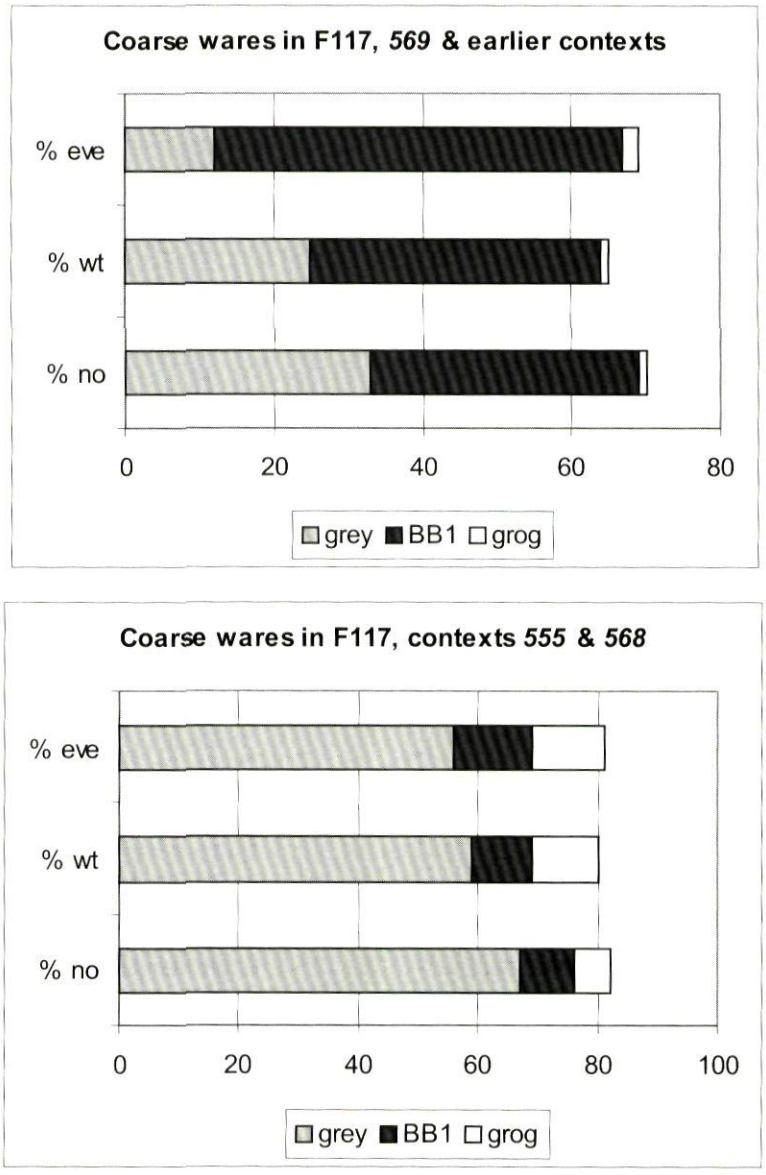


Fig. 20 Comparison of Roman pottery from earlier and later fills in F117

New Forest colour coated wares (Fulford 1975b, 25, fabrics 1a & 1b), East Gaulish black colour coated ware- 'Moselkeramik' (Symonds 1992) and *céramique à l'éponge* (Fulford 1977, 45–6). Also present, again presumably residually, were central Gaulish samian ware and one white ware base sherd perhaps from a ring and dot beaker (*cf.* Davies *et al.* 1994, 142–5).

Both the red slipped (Young 1977, 123) and white (Young 1977, 56) Oxfordshire mortarium

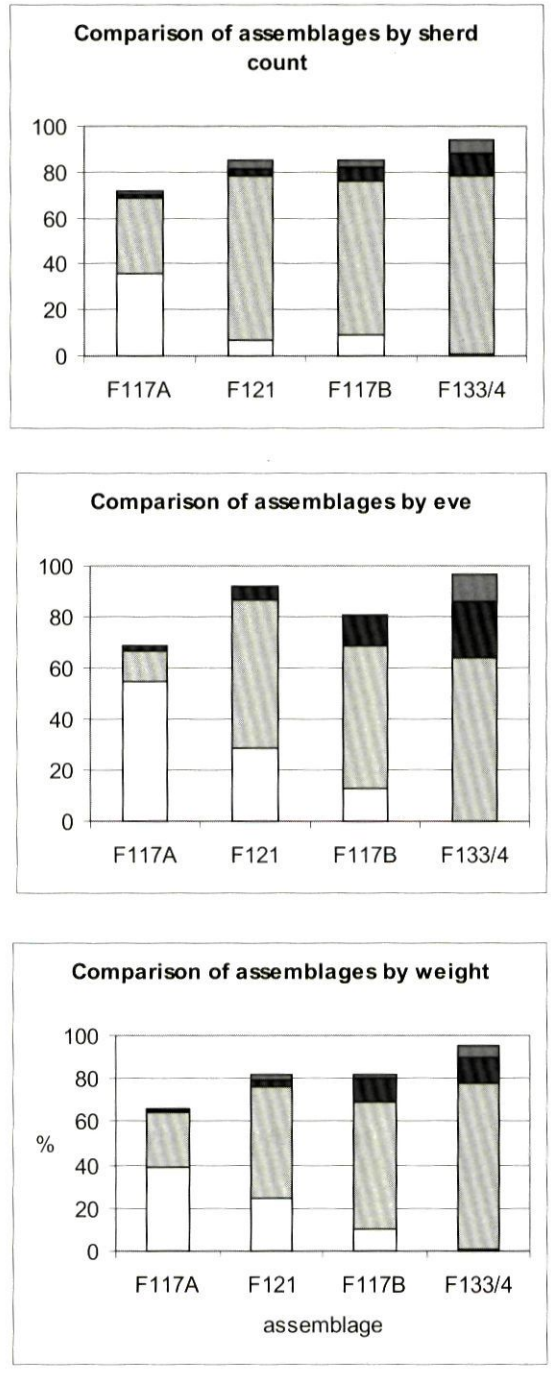


Fig. 21 Roman coarse wares from the key groups

Table 2 Summary of pottery from pit F117

	contexts earlier than 569						*contexts 555 & 568*					
	no	*wt*	*eve*	*% no*	*% wt*	*% eve*	*no*	*wt*	*eve*	*% no*	*% wt*	*% eve*
fine wares												
Moselkeramik	18	90	0.85	5	1	16						
Central Gaulish samian ware	4	74		1	1							
New Forest colour coat	8	105	0.1	2	2	2	6	51	0.33	3	2	8
Oxford red colour coat	4	142	0.1	1	2	2	3	24		1	1	
Oxford parchment ware							3	38	0.1	1	1	3
Oxford white colour coat							1	2		0	0	
mortaria												
Oxford colour coat	1	7		0	0		1	20	0.06	0	1	1
Oxford white	1	44	0.1	0	1	2	1	56		0	2	
New Forest white							1	66	0.1	0	2	3
amphorae												
Gauloise 4	1	121		0	2							
storage jar fabrics												
sandy/ grog	4	288	0.08	1	4	2						
sandy/ flint	2	473	0.32	1	7	6						
Savernake type	2	58		1	1		1	168	0.13	0	6	3
coarse wares												
BB1	130	2649	2.92	36	39	55	22	280	0.47	9	10	13
grey ware	121	1678	0.63	33	25	12	161	1699	2.07	67	59	56
Alice Holt Early Fabric	1	35		0	1		3	16		1	1	
Alice Holt Tilford Fabric	7	82		2	1		7	58		3	2	
grog tempered	5	61	0.11	1	1	2	15	302	0.45	6	11	12
Oxford burnt white ware							1	2		0	0	
Iron Age	53	850	0.08	15	13	1	14	93		6	3	
Totals	362	6757	5.29				240	2875	3.69			

Table 3 Summary of pottery from pit F121

	no	*wt*	*eve*	*% no*	*% wt*	*% eve*
fine wares						
Céramique à l'éponge	4	23		3	1	
Central Gaulish samian ware	2	25		2	1	
New Forest colour coat	1	40		1	1	
Oxford colour coat	3	138	0.15	2	5	5
ring and dot beaker fabric	1	12		1	0	
storage jar fabrics						
Savernake type	2	152	0.1	2	5	3
coarse wares						
BB1	9	718	0.92	7	25	29
grey ware	94	1430	1.86	71	51	58
Alice Holt Tilford Fabric	5	97		4	3	
grog tempered	4	98	0.16	3	3	5
Oxford burnt white ware	2	54		2	2	
other grey ware (barbotine dot)	1	5		1	0	
Iron Age	5	28		4	1	
Totals	133	2820	3.18			

fabrics were present, along with New Forest white mortarium (Fulford 1975b, 26, fabric 2a). There was only one amphora sherd – of Gauloise 4 type (Peacock & Williams 1986, 142–3).

The quantity of BB1 (at around 13%, 18% and 25% by number, weight and EVE respectively) is at first sight surprising; despite forming up to 25% by weight of the late 3rd and 4th century assemblage from Portchester (Fulford 1975a, Fig. 158) the type is relatively rare on inland sites in Hampshire. It rarely achieves more than about 10% (by number and weight) in Winchester (Holmes *et al.* in archive.) and drops to around 1% at the small town of Neatham (Millett 1986, Table 20). However, Allen and Fulford (1996, 244) have identified a possible context for the high percentages from Monk Sherborne. This they term the 'Portway Corridor' – a zone producing enhanced quantities of BB1 and marking the overland route from the production site at Poole to Silchester and London.

A surge in the supply of BB1 to *civitas* capitals in southern England during the mid- to late 3rd century has also been noted. In Winchester percentages of 26% and 32% (EVE) were recorded in two assemblages from the Brooks site, dating from the third and fourth quarters of the 3rd century (Lyne in archive). Thereafter, the ware declines in quantity in favour of New Forest grey wares during the first half of the 4th century and grog tempered and Alice Holt/Farnham wares during the second half. A similar decline is also observed in London (*cf.* Allen & Fulford 1996, 244).

Table 4 Summary of pottery from corndryer F133/ 134

	no	*wt*	*eve*	*% no*	*% wt*	*% eve*
fine wares						
Céramique à l'éponge	2	9		1	0	
New Forest colour coat	1	5		0	0	
Oxford colour coat	2	49		1	1	
Oxford parchment ware	2	52	0.08	1	1	1
mortaria						
Oxford colour coat	4	56	0.08	1	1	1
coarse wares						
BB1	4	43		1	1	
grey ware	233	4534	4	77	77	64
Alice Holt Early Fabric	1	46	0.05	0	1	1
Alice Holt Tilford Fabric	17	318	0.67	6	5	11
grog tempered	31	698	1.35	10	12	22
Iron Age	4	61		1	1	
Totals	301	5871	6.23			

The internal stratigraphy of F117 provides a comparable example. Fig. 20 (see also Table 2) contrasts the percentages of BB1, fine-medium grained grey wares and grog tempered wares from the main fill of the feature- contexts predating *568* (Fig. 10) – with the same from the latest fills (*555* and *568*). This shows a decline in BB1 against grey- and grog tempered wares through time. The recovery of a coin of AD 321–2 from the latest fill (*555*) seems to be in keeping: the suggestion is that the main fill of the feature is of mid- to late 3rd century date, whilst the later fills are of the first half of the fourth. It is clear, however, that the feature still existed as a hollow in the ground in the Saxon period, when the 7th century metalwork was deposited near the top of *555*. The decline in the mean sherd weights between the main and latest fills (18.6 gr to 12 gr) may be an additional indication that infill materials came from differing sources on the site and that these sources were more diverse in the later fills.

Fig. 21 (*see* also Tables 2–4) shows all four assemblages arranged according to the seriation suggested by the stratigraphy in F117, with the addition of Alice Holt/Farnham Tilford Fabric (c). It suggests that the fill of F121 is broadly contemporary with the main fill of F117. The composition of the assemblage from the corndryer F133/134 is quite different, as grey- and grog tempered wares account for almost the entirety. Although many of the grey ware sherds were rather small and abraded, the overall mean sherd weight is a respectable 19.5 gr and the EVE reasonably large (Table 4). It seems fairly certain, then, that this is the latest of the key groups.

The paucity of New Forest and Oxfordshire wares is also rather surprising (Tables 2–4). It may be that the material was deposited in the main fill of F117 and in F121 before these industries had reached *floruit*, whilst the material from F133/134 is very late, representing a time of decline. To judge from the greater range of

products from Oxfordshire, there was a slight preference for this source of manufacture. An inclination towards beakers from the New Forest as opposed to bowls and mortaria from Oxfordshire is also implied (Tables 2- 4 and catalogue, below), although the sample is of untrustworthy size. Such indications of complementary distribution according to function have also been observed at Neatham (Millett 1986, 90), at Winchester (Holmes *et al.* in archive) and in the West Country (Gerrard 2002).

The presence one of the other fine ware types, *céramique à l'éponge* is also suggestive of the influence of the Portway Corridor as a means of distribution to and from London; the fabric is rare in much larger samples from Winchester (Holmes *et al.* in archive), whereas *céramique à l'éponge* has been found at East Anton (Hampshire) to the W. of Winchester and Monk Sherborne (*cf.* Fulford 1977, 46–7). The other fine ware, the East Gaulish black colour coated vessel is of an uncommon type- a carafe rather than the more usual necked beaker.

Catalogue of key groups

As most forms are fairly easily paralleled, selection for illustration has been biased towards the better-preserved profiles and complete or nearly complete vessels. Forms that have not been illustrated are listed at the end of the catalogue for each assemblage.

Late Roman pottery from pit F117 (Fig. 22)

Main fills (Table 2)

1 Near complete everted jar in BB1 with oversailing rim and obtuse lattice decoration (*578*).
2 Near complete everted jar in BB1 with rim smaller in diameter than body and obtuse lattice decoration (*577*).
3 Near complete flanged bowl in BB1 with intersecting arc decoration (*570*).
4 Near complete flanged bowl in BB1 with intersecting arc decoration, and a graffito notched and scratched on the flange and body after firing (578).
5 Carafe in East Gaulish black colour coated ware with rouletted decoration (Symonds 1992, 55–9, Type 49, Fig. 38, nos. 690–3) (*578*).
6 Lid in grog tempered ware with internally burnished lines (*570*).
7 Strainer in grey ware (*570*).
8 Plain rim dish in grey ware with graffito scratched on base after firing (*570*).
9 Storage jar in flint tempered ware with fine sand (*578*).

Not illustrated

Fragment of an everted jar in BB1, plain rim dish in BB1 and handle in BB1 (*cf.* Seager Smith & Davies 1993, 240, Type 202).
Plain rim dish in grog tempered ware.
Grey ware flat rim jar, everted jars (at least two vessels), large cable rim vessel, large storage jar, flanged bowls (at least two vessels) and plain rim dish, with an additional bodysherd from a storage jar.
Storage jar in grog tempered ware with some sand.
New Forest ware beaker of Type 45 (Fulford 1975b, 58) and bodysherd from a further beaker.
Oxfordshire colour coated bowl of Type C44 (Young 1977, 158), mortarium of Type C97 (Young 1977, 173) and body- and base sherds from (a) further bowl(s).
Bodysherd from a Gauloise 4 amphora (Peacock & Williams 1986, 142–3).
Oxfordshire white ware mortarium (Young 1977, 72, 76, Type M18).

Late fills (Table 2)

10 Everted jar in BB1 with oversailing rim (*555*).
11 Flanged bowl in BB1 with intersecting arc decoration (*555*).
12 Everted jar in grog tempered ware (*555*).
13 Flanged bowl in grog tempered ware (*555*).
14 Cordoned jar in grey ware (*555*).
15 Flagon in grey ware (*568*).

Not illustrated

Plain rim dish in BB1.
Grog tempered ware flanged bowls (up to two examples), plain rim dish and lid.
Grey ware flat rim jar, flat rim bowl, flanged bowls (up to four examples), strainers (body- and base sherds), plain rim dish (at least two examples), and hook rim jar (Tilford fabric).
Savernake-type ware large necked jar.
New Forest colour coated beaker Type 41 (Fulford 1975b, 56) and sherds from at least two other beakers of uncertain form.

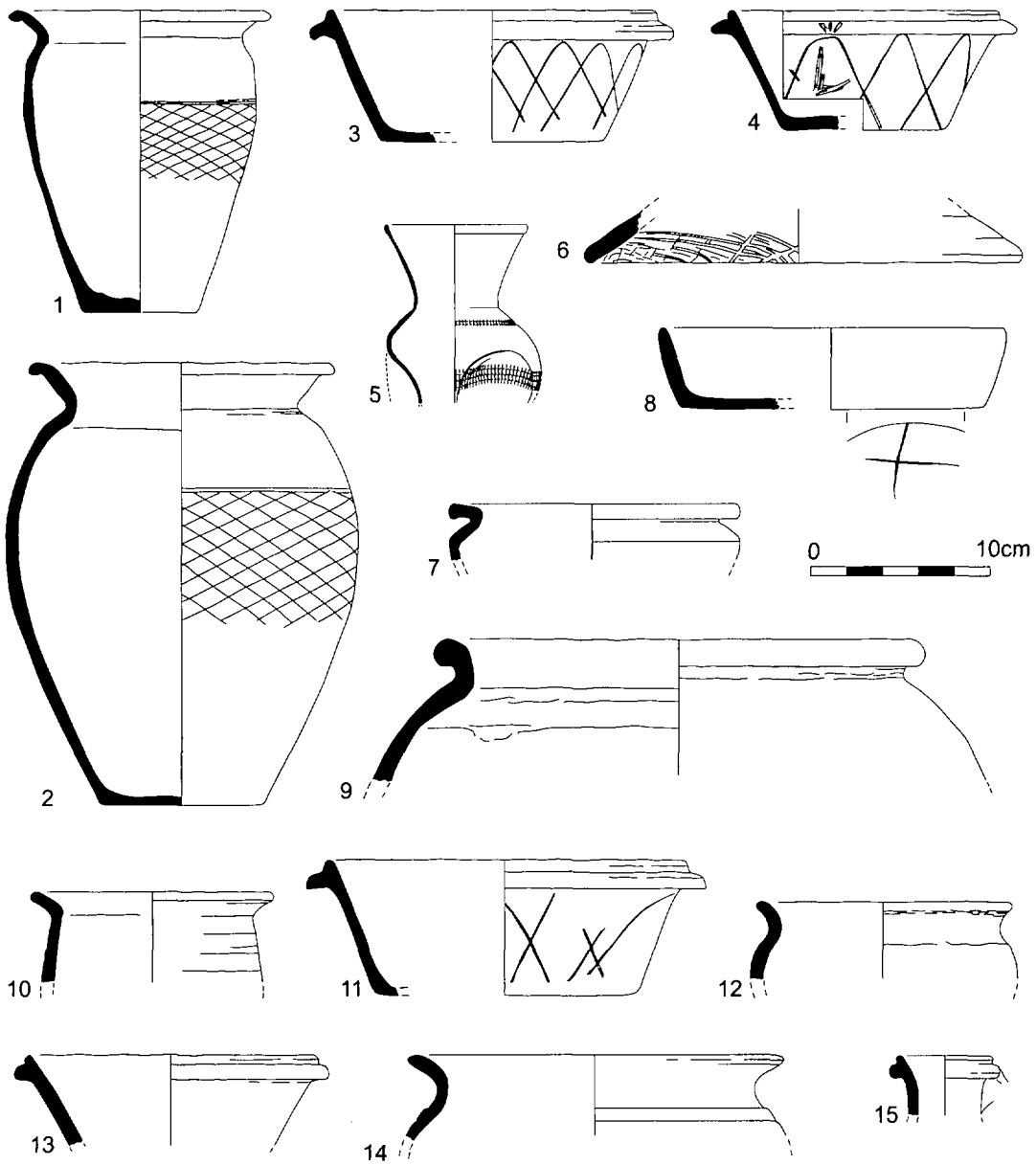


Fig. 22 Late Roman pottery from F117. Scale 1:4 (PEC & HR)

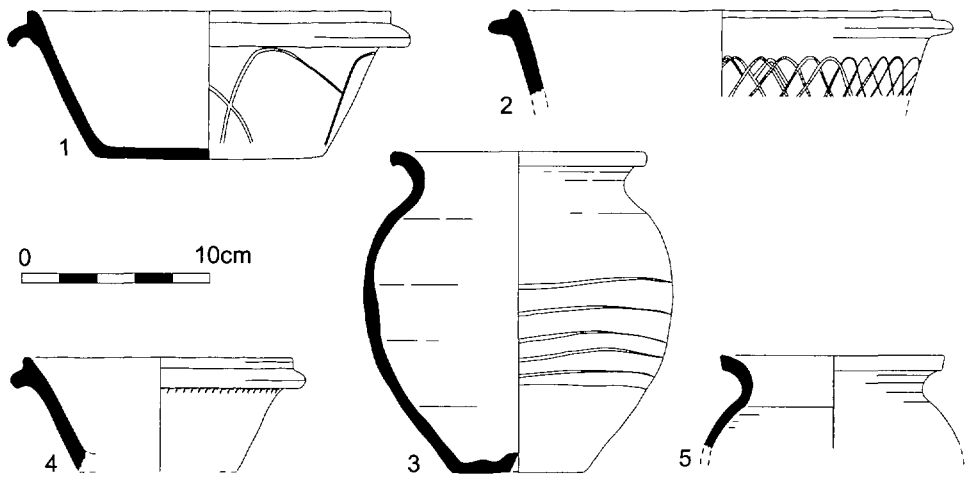


Fig. 23 Late Roman pottery from F121. Scale 1:4 (PEC & HR)

New Forest white mortarium Type 104 (Fulford 1975b, 76).
Oxford colour coated mortarium of Type C97 (Young 1977, 173) and one other colour coated sherd from a beaker.
Oxford parchment ware bowl of Type P24 (Young 1977, 87).
Oxford burnt white ware bodysherd, probably from a jar of Type WC3 (Young 1977, 120).

Late Roman pottery from pit F121 (Table 3; Fig. 23)

1 Near complete flanged bowl in BB1 with intersecting arc decoration (*603*).
2 Flanged bowl in grog tempered ware with intersecting arc decoration (*576*).
3 Everted jar in grey ware with horizontally burnished decoration (*576/603*).
4 Flanged bowl in grey ware with notched decoration (*575*).
5 Hook rim jar in Alice Holt/Farnham Tilford fabric (*575*).

Not illustrated

BB1 flanged bowl.
Grey ware flat rim jar, everted jar, hook rim jar, plain rim dish, lid and bodysherds from storage jars.
New Forest colour coated beaker of Type 27 (Fulford 1975b, 50, 52).
Oxford colour coated bowl of Type C51 (Young 1977, 160) and sherds from a beaker of uncertain form.

Late Roman pottery from corn-dryer F133/134 (Table 4; Fig. 24)

1 Everted jar in grog tempered ware (F134- backfill *628*).
2 Flanged bowl in grog tempered ware (F133- *643*).
3 Flanged bowl in grog tempered ware with internal horizontal burnishing (F134- basal fill *629*).
4 Plain rim dish in grog tempered ware with horizontally burnished lines (F134- basal fill *629*).
5 Cordoned and necked jar in grey ware (F134- backfill *628*).
6 Large cordoned storage jar in grey ware (F134- basal fill *629*).
7 Everted jar in grey ware (F133- *624*).
8 Flanged bowl in grey ware (F133- *643*).
9 Near complete flanged bowl in grey ware, badly burnt (F133- *624*).
10 Flanged bowl in grey ware (F134- basal fill *629*).
11 Hook rim jar in grey ware (Tilford fabric) (F133–*624*).

Not illustrated

Grog tempered ware everted jars (up to two vessels).
Grey ware flat rim jar (Alice Holt early fabric), everted jar (three examples, one in the Tilford fabric),

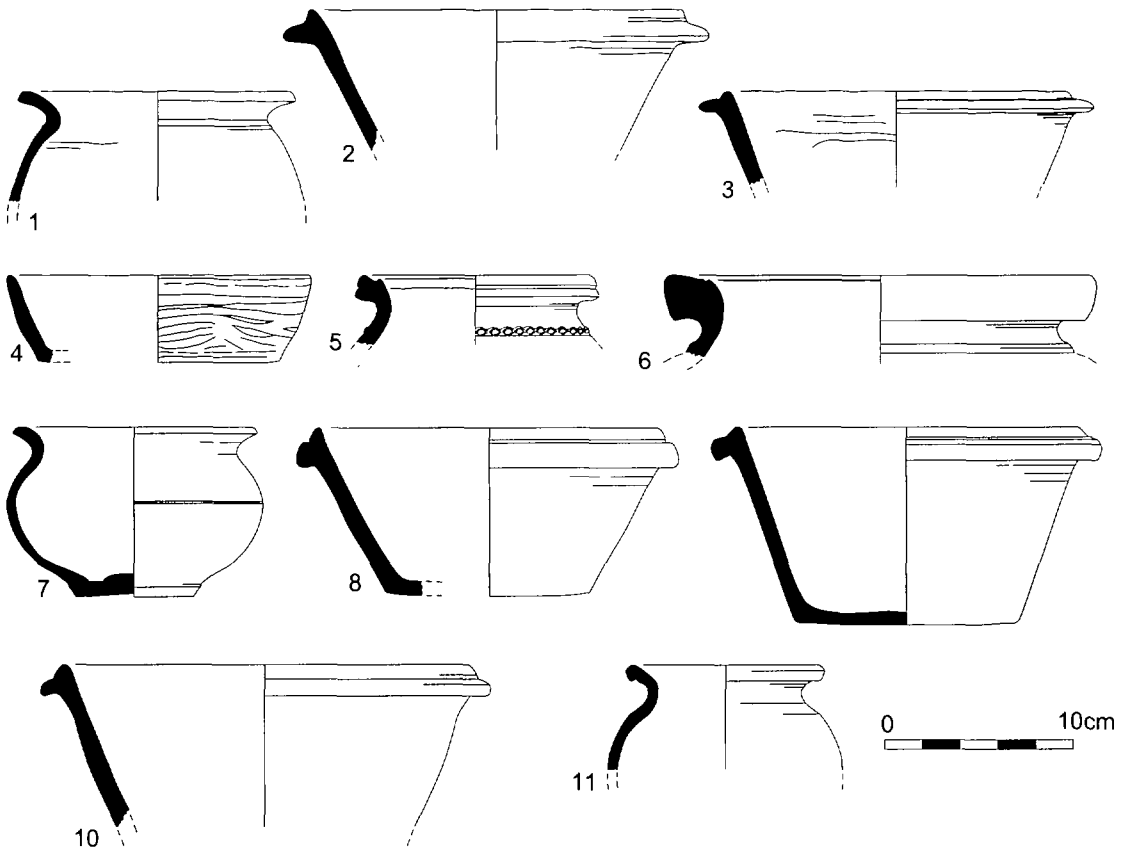


Fig. 24 Late Roman pottery from F133/134. Scale 1:4 (PEC & HR)

hook rim jar (in the Tilford fabric), flanged bowl, plain rim dish and body- or base sherd from a strainer.

Oxfordshire colour-coated bowl of type C71 (Young 1977, 164).

Oxfordshire colour coated mortarium of Type C97 (Young 1977, 173) and two further sherds possibly from the same vessel.

Oxfordshire parchment ware bowl of Type P24 (Young 1977, 87) and two further sherds possibly from the same vessel.

The other Roman pottery

Similar but smaller and less well-preserved assemblages were recovered from the fill of the hypocaust in Building 1 (only 2 undiagnostic sherds) and the sunken structure F135, and occurred residually in the Saxon ditch F115, in Building 3, and in the topsoil over Building 1. There was also a little Roman pottery from the watching brief.

The presence of the buff Alice Holt/Farnham type, otherwise known as Portchester D (Fulford 1975a, 299) from the sunken structure is worth noting. There was also one sherd of stamped samian ware from the topsoil over Building 1, upon which Brenda Dickinson reports as follows: Form 27, stamped DOMI[ ], retrograde: Domius, die 1a'. This stamp is from a broken die which originally gave DOMIV, retrograde, a reading recorded from both les Martres-de-Veyre, in central Gaul, and the

South Gaulish pottery of Banassac. However, the site evidence so far is overwhelmingly biased in favour of Les Martres, and this piece was certainly made there, as was a cup with the same stamp in Period IIA (c. AD 75–110) at Verulamium (Hartley 1972, 232, S35). *c.* AD 100–110.

Weighing, measuring and commerce (Category 6)

Coins by Jodi McCrohan

Victorinus Radiate, 269–271 AD

sf 23 Obv. [I]MP [VICT]ORINVS AVG. Radiate bust right, cuirassed.Rev. SALVS AVG. Salus standing facing feeding a snake held in her arms. Diameter 19.31mm. Thickness 1.63mm. Weight 2.21g. (Fair). From the fill of pit F121 (*575*).

Tetricus I Radiate, 271–274 AD

sf 24 Obv. [TETR]ICVS A[VG]. Radiate bust right. Rev. [FID]ES MILITV[M]. Fides standing facing, heavily worn. Diameter 20.27mm. Thickness 1.35mm. Weight 1.5g. (Poor). Unstratified.

Crispus Nummus, 321–322 AD, Mint of London.

sf 5 Obv. CRISP[...] NOBIL[...]. Helmeted bust left, cuirassed, with shield. Rev. [BEATA TRAN QVI]LLI[T]AS PLO[N]. Altar inscribed VOT/IS/XX with a globe on top. Diameter 18.41mm. Thickness 2.27mm. Weight 3.18g. (Poor). From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

Buildings and services (Category 9)

Ceramic building material by Rachael Seager Smith

A total of 571 pieces, 225.604 kg, of ceramic building material from the excavations was retained, all of Roman date. This retained sample does not include any of the brick/tile found *in situ*, built into structures such as the hypocaust in Building 1 and the corn-dryer in Building 2 (although the tiles forming its floor were kept). Most of the common forms of ceramic building material were represented, namely *tegulae*, *imbrices* and bricks, in addition to two more unusual types – 'springer' voussoirs and hexagonal paving tiles.

No fabric analysis was undertaken but a few general comments about the range of fabrics present are based on observations made at the time of recording. All the ceramic building material was orange-red in colour, and most of the fabrics contained greater or lesser quantities of quartz sand. Coarse, angular crushed flint fragments were also noted in a handful of fragments from pits F117 and F119. Sand and sometimes clay pellets had been used to prevent the bricks and tiles sticking to their moulds and formers. As at the Brooks, Winchester (Foot, in archive), it is probable that the principal sources of ceramic building material were located on the varied Tertiary clay deposits of the southern Hampshire Basin. Products of the London-Sussex brick kilns, those made in the Gault clay areas of the Surrey/Hampshire borders also occurred in small quantities at the Brooks, although none of the calcareous fabrics identified here were present in the Monk Sherborne assemblage.

Of the identifiable brick and tile types, *tegulae* were the most common (Table 5). Pieces from at least 17 different *tegulae*, mostly broken longitudinally, were retained from the floor of corn-dryer F133 while the assemblages from pits F117 and F121 were much more fragmentary. Measurable pieces were also found in the wall core (*633* in Fig. 17) of the sunken structure and amongst the unstratified material. Two *tegulae* were more or less complete; one was 380 mm long, 300 mm at the lower, narrower end and 320 mm wide at the broader upper end while the other was 390 mm long, and 280 mm and 320 mm wide. Overall, 11 complete lengths and widths could be measured. Of these, one *tegula* was 370 mm long, seven were 380–390 mm long and three were 394–397 mm long, while six widths were between 275 mm and 300 mm and five were between 305 mm and 325 mm. These dimensions are broadly comparable with the 4th century Period III and IV fabric group 2 *tegulae* from the Brooks in Winchester and considerably smaller than the early Roman examples from this site (Foot, in archive). The majority were between 20 mm and 28 mm thick.

No details of flange and cut-away morphology were recorded for this assemblage, although the majority of *tegulae* had double finger grooves parallel with the flange. Finger-smeared signatures were noted on 24 fragments, all taking the form of the concentric semi-circles ('rainbows') typically found on *tegulae* (Brodribb 1987, 99), although there is some variability

Table 5 Quantification of the ceramic building material by feature

	Tegulae		*Imbrices*		*Bricks*		*'Springers'*		*Hexagonal paving*		*Flat fragments*		*Featureless fragments*		*Totals*	
	No	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*
Iron Age:																
Ditch F114	4	174	1	55	1	168					2	316	12	169	20	882
Pit F119	1	740	1	283	1	630					6	580			9	2233
Roman:																
Building 1 hypocaust	1	259			1	2420	4	718			1	408			7	3805
Pit F117	31	14644	23	3746	13	4194	6	802			40	6810	28	512	141	30708
Pit F121	18	10113	6	4178	3	1528	12	3350			18	2705	21	330	78	22204
Corn-dryer F133/ 134	29	49053	6	10484	2	1616	18	14821			2	420			57	36462
Sunken structure F135	2	2962			2	12000			17	21500					21	36462
Post- Roman and undated	52	18113	20	2932	27	20714	2	530			46	1058	91	2569	238	52916
Totals	138	96058	57	21678	50	43270	42	20221	17	21500	115	19297	152	3580	571	225604

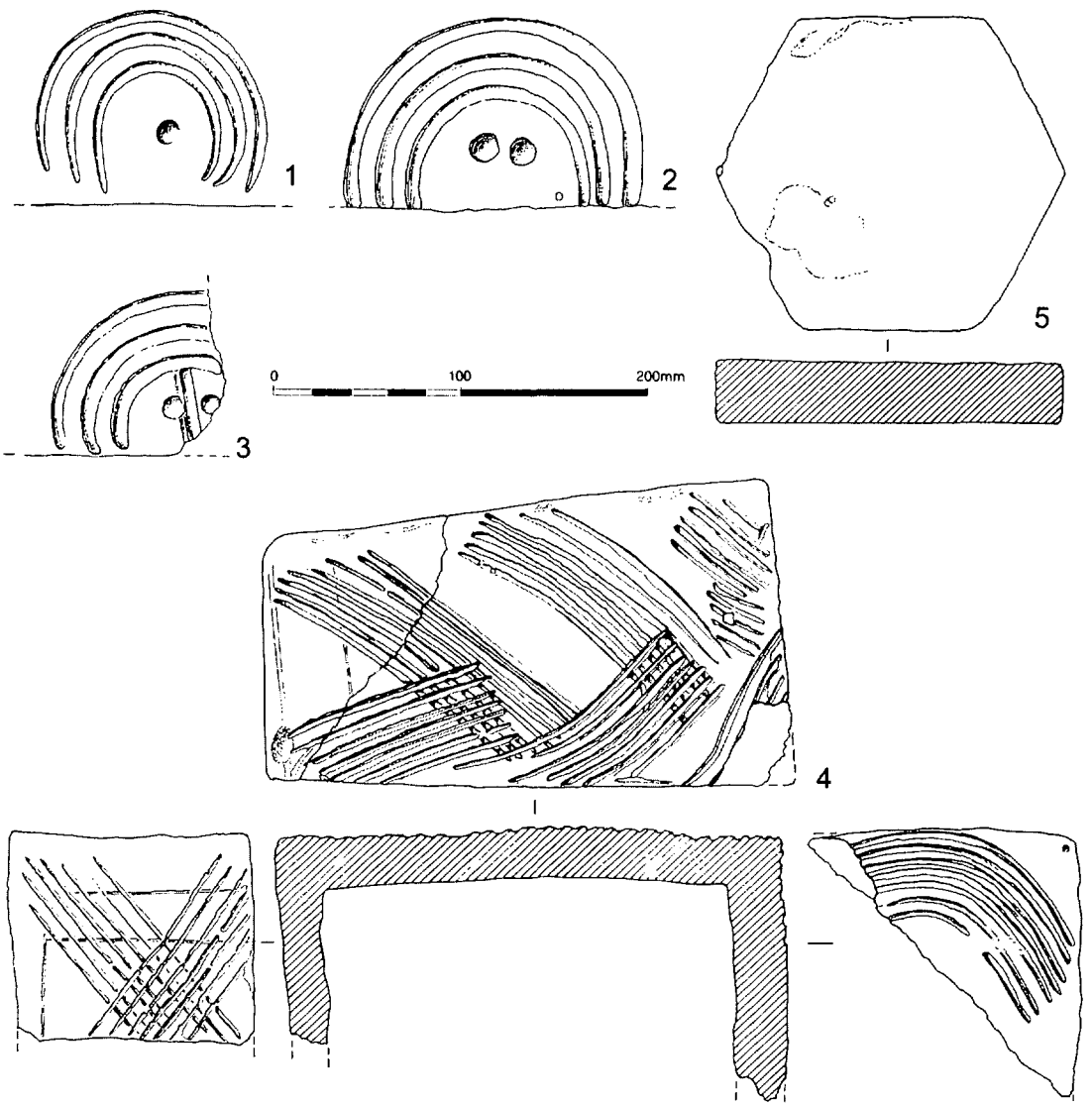


Fig. 25 Ceramic building material. Scale 1:4 (SEJ)

in the number of fingers used (five, 15 and three examples of two, three and four finger semi-circles respectively; one was incomplete). Five of the *tegulae* from the floor of corn-dryer F133 also had a fingertip impression placed centrally within the innermost loop (Fig. 25, 1) and in one instance, two fingertip impressions were placed side by side (Fig. 25, 2). One other variation in the form of a short vertical smear between two fingertip impressions inside a triple rainbow was noted on a *tegula* from an undated pit (Fig. 25, 3).

Seven of the *tegulae* from the corn-dryer display evidence of holes presumably designed for nails used to

fix them to a roof. All were made in the wet clay before firing and were positioned in the centre of the wider end, opposite the finger signature, approximately 50 mm from the edge. Evidence from the Brooks in Winchester suggests that nail holes were more common on *tegulae* of the late Roman period, perhaps as a result of their smaller size (Foot, in archive).

As always, smaller quantities of *imbrices* were recovered. Most of these pieces were between 17 mm and 20 mm thick. Three complete examples, all of typical tapering shape, were of very consistent length, (384–385 mm) although of variable width (130/205 mm, 150/220 mm and 135/195 mm respectively). All are smaller than the average figures given by Brodribb (1987, 26). One was found in pit F121, while the others were from corn-dryer F133. One occurred within the tile floor of the flue while the other was found in the fill of the flue itself (*643* in Fig. 15). Two other fragments from this context appear to have been deliberately trimmed to 310 mm long. One was otherwise complete; its narrower end had been trimmed away, the wider measured 195 mm, the same as the complete *imbrex* from this context. The other was broken in half longitudinally. These pieces too may originally have formed part of the floor or part of an associated venting system carrying hot air into the drying chamber and may have fallen at an early stage in the decay of this structure. No markings were noted on any of the *imbrices* found.

'Brick' was used to describe all types of Roman building brick. Complete dimensions and thickness were recorded in an attempt to identify the range of types present. In general, pieces with 2 parallel surfaces, 31 mm or more thick were defined as bricks. One small, relatively complete, square brick (205 mm^2 × 33 mm thick) found in the fill of the channels and stoking pit of the hypocaust falls within the size range of *bessales* (Brodribb 1987, 34). These were mainly used to create the *pilae* supporting the suspended floor of a hypocaust, but also in flooring, archways and bonding. The three other more or less complete bricks represent *lydion*, most suitable for bonding or lacing courses in walls but also used for floors or the capping of *pilae* (*ibid*, 37). One of these, from undated pit, measured 405 mm × 315 mm × 39 mm, while the two others, from the rubble wall core (*633* in Fig. 17) of the sunken structure, were slightly smaller (384 mm × 291 mm × 35 mm and 390 mm × 295 mm × 38 mm). All were made in the same pinkish-orange, coarse sandy fabric and probably derive from the same source.

The majority of the more fragmentary bricks were between 35 mm and 40 mm thick. Although the thickness of Roman bricks varies considerable even within a single type, most of these probably belong to the smaller types (*bessalis*, *lydion* and possibly *pedalis*), rather than the larger and therefore thicker bricks (*sesquipedalis* and *bipedalis*) which Brodribb describes as having average thicknesses of 52 mm and 60 mm respectively. None of the bricks carried signatures, tally-marks, paw-prints or other markings.

Forty-two fragments of hollow 'box-tile' were also noted amongst the assemblage, mostly associated with corn-dryer F133 and pits F117 and F121. Although the majority of these were fragmentary, it was readily apparent that the sides of these tiles were open, rather than the top and bottom as is the case for box-flue tiles (*tubulus*). One of the more complete pieces, from the fill (*624* in Fig. 15) of the main chamber of corn-dryer F133, clearly showed that only two corners of its long side were at right-angles, leaving a taper on one edge (that is, one of its short ends was higher than the other: Fig. 25,4). Brodribb (1987, 83) describes these blocks as the foot-piece or springer set at the base of a curved arch, or possibly used to change the angle of a line of box flue tiles. Careful examination of the rest of these fragments identified at least eight other pieces from springers and it is probable that all the other fragments in this group derive from these or ordinary voussoir (splayed on both sides) blocks. All the pieces were considerably thicker (20–31 mm, with over half more than 25 mm thick) than *tubuli* (which, in the author's experience, are generally less than 20 mm thick) and where they survived, keying occurred on adjacent faces, a feature more typical of voussoirs than box-flues. Interestingly, no examples of ordinary box-flue tiles were identified in this assemblage, despite the presence of the hypocaust in Building 1.

The most complete springer measured 280 mm long and was at least 144 mm wide, its height ranging from 130 mm to 165 mm. Other measurable fragments indicated that the width of these blocks could vary from 135 mm to 204 mm, and their height from 130 mm to 170 mm. The keying generally took the form of multiple (commonly 5, 6 or 7) combed grooves, with saltire or 'plaited' diamond lattice patterns, often using slightly curving lines, being the most common (fig. 25, 4). Traces of mortar and *opus signinum* noted in the keying grooves indicated that they had been used. Unfortunately, it is not clear whether they formed part of the collapsed, vaulted superstructure of the corn-dryer, were reused in this building in some other way or are redeposited, originally belonging within an entirely different structure in this complex. The presence of springer voussoir fragments in other features across the site (Table 5) may argue against their use in the superstructure of the corn-dryer. While noting the difficulty of identifying fragmentary ex-

amples, Brodribb (1987, 83) lists only eight sites where springers have been found (Clausentum, Chilgrove, Winchester, Minety, Great Weldon, Colchester and Canterbury). Examples are also known from Third Period (c. AD 100–280) contexts at Fishbourne (Cunliffe 1971, 45, Fig. 24, 17, 20 and 21). Indeed, the rarity of these tiles may also suggest that they are unlikely to have been used for their original purpose in an agricultural structure like a corn-dryer. Even if reused or redeposited, their presence serves to highlight the potential for a structure of considerable style and sophistication existing within the immediate vicinity.

The 17 hexagonal tiles (Fig. 25, 5) found in the wall core (*633* in Fig. 17) of the sunken structure were, with one exception, complete. With minor variations, mostly caused by wear and tear, these tiles measured 185 mm across and were 38 mm thick; they appear to have been mould made rather than cut to shape. Most had thick deposits of *opus signinum* adhering to their base and sides, indicating that they had originally been laid horizontally to form a floor, with joints 7–8 mm wide between each tile, and are redeposited in this context. Their upper surfaces were moderately worn. Geometric flooring appears to have been relatively rare in Roman Britain although examples are known from Caersws Fort, Monmouth, Fingringhoe, Essex and, closer to home, from Silchester (Brodribb 1987, 53). While it is conceivable that these tiles derive from Silchester itself (the Roman road linking Winchester to Silchester, lies approximately 930 m to the W. of the site), it is more probable that they were originally used in the more immediate vicinity, in Building 1 perhaps, or the substantial structure identified to the S. of the site.

'Flat fragments' were defined as broken pieces with two parallel surfaces surviving. These ranged from 15 mm to 33 mm thick with the majority between 20 mm and 30 mm; most probably derive from *tegulae*. Eleven had 'rainbow' finger-smeared signatures, while seven others had pre-firing perforations which probably served as nail holes, adjacent to simple edges. Both these features are most commonly found on *tegulae*.

The 'featureless fragments' consisted of all the very broken pieces with only one surviving surface, two surfaces at right angles to each other or internal fragments without surfaces. This is reflected by the very low mean fragment weight of this group (23.5 gr).

Six examples of tiles with small dog and cat paw prints were also noted, indicating the presence of these animals at the tilery and that marked tiles were considered acceptable for use. Three occurred on *tegulae* (two from the floor of the corn-dryer and one from pit F117) while the others were on flat fragments although these too are likely to derive from *tegulae*, one also having a prefiring perforation and another a rainbow signature. In all cases, the impressions were relatively faint, indicating that the tiles were fairly hard when walked over. Human fingerprints were also noted on another *tegula* from pit F117.

Other building materials (HR)

None of the other building materials was recovered *in situ* and most were from the lower fills of pit F117 (mainly *570*, *573* and *578* in Fig. 10).

Several fragments of opus signinum and three rather irregularly fashioned tile tesserae represented flooring materials. From walls came eleven fragments of plaster, amongst which four colours, white, pink, reddish brown and green were present. There were four designs: self-coloured, thin non-parallel stripes (green on white), a thicker stripe (reddish brown/white) and a geometric pattern (square, lozenge or triangle- reddish brown/white). Altogether the fragments represented just under 0.8 m² of wall surface. There were also two pieces of micaceous sandstone, conceivably wall veneer. There were also several fragments of mortar, one of which perhaps represented a quarter moulding.

None of this gives any more than the vaguest impression of the original appearance of the Roman buildings. The presence of 56 fragments of Purbeck roofing tile, albeit in rather poor condition, might indicate that at least part(s) of structure(s) were roofed in this way at some point during the Roman occupation of the site.

Fasteners and fittings (Category 11)

All are of iron.

Hinge pivot

sf72 (not illustrated). Fragmentary hinge pivot. Length of surviving shank 57 mm. Backfill of the stoking pit F134 of the corn-dryer (*628*). SM.

Nails (SM)

Sixty-one of the 158 nails and fragments had surviving heads, the majority of which were round and flat. Four nails had roughly oval heads and 3 were irregular. There were 40 measurable nails with lengths ranging from 35 mm to 92 mm. 70% were over 50 mm long and 25% were over 60 mm

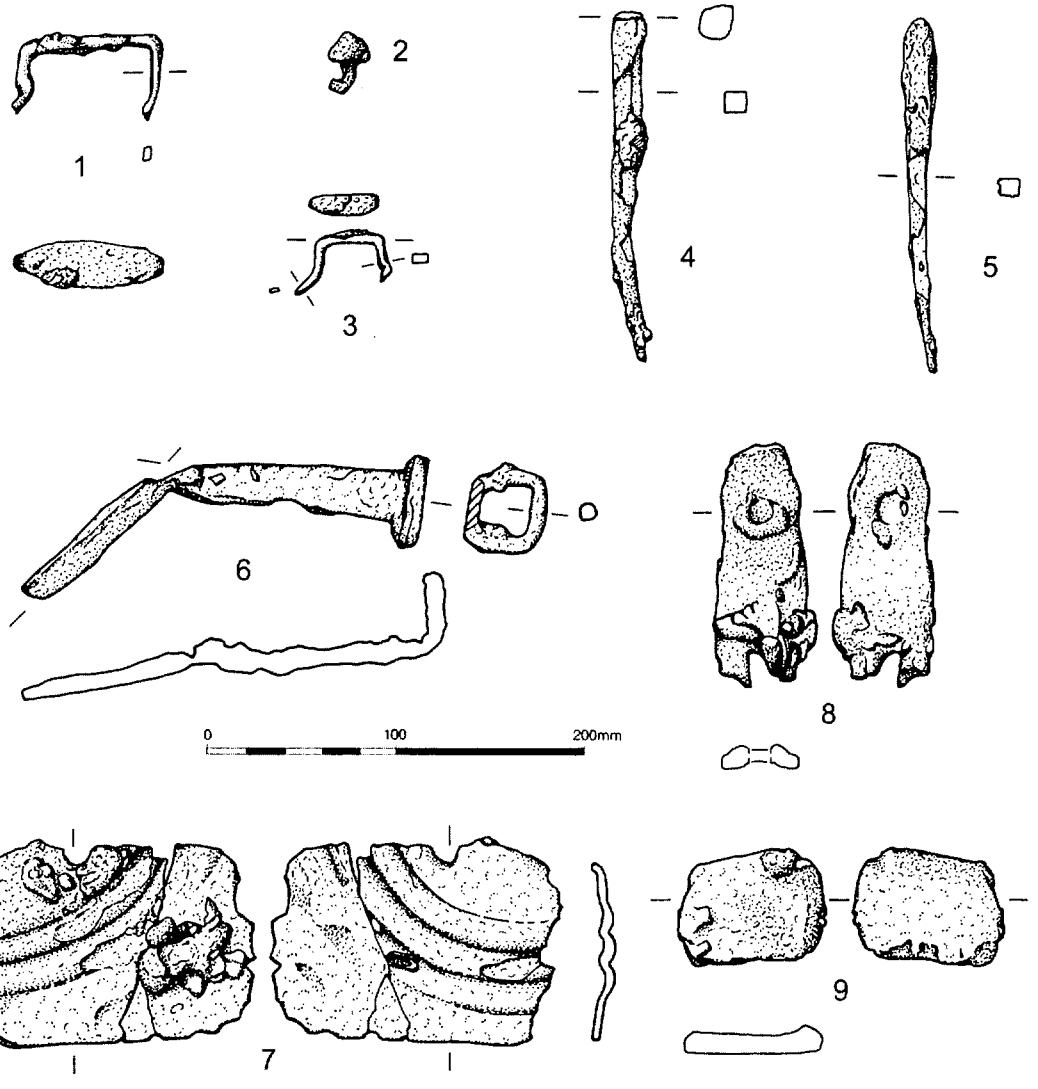


Fig. 26 Roman finds of iron. Scale 1:2 (PEC)

long. Head diameter where measurable ranged from 9–19 mm with 70% falling in the range 11–16 mm. Details are given in the site archive, less run-of-the-mill items are catalogued below.

Fig. 26, 4, sf96. Near complete long nail with a small, irregular head. Slightly curved towards the tip. The shank has a square section. Similar in form to the teeth that occur in the type of woolcomb introduced into Britain in the early Anglo-Saxon period (Ottaway 1992, 538–541). However the presence in another layer in the same pit of a nail of similar form to SF96 (though lacking its head) which has mineral preserved wood attached to the shank (*see* SF95, below) suggests that both are nails rather

than woolcomb teeth. A fragment of mineral-preserved wood (probably oak) attached to SF 96 is likely to have originated in the fill of the pit. Length 92 mm. Fill of pit F121 (*575*).

Fig. 26, 5, sf95. Long nail, head missing. Square section. Slightly curved towards the tip. Mineral preserved wood fragments are orientated along the shank for a distance of 35 mm from the head end and almost certainly represent wood that the nail was driven into rather than being random plant material from the cess fill. Surviving length 93 mm. Fill of pit F121 (*603*).

Key

Although sf76 was recovered from an undated ditch, it is likely to be Roman. Barrel padlocks with similar keys do continue in use in the Anglo-Saxon period and beyond but later keys are generally expanded towards the head rather than the bit (Ottaway 1992, 676; Goodall 1990, Fig. 323).

Fig. 26, 6, sf76. Key for a barb-spring barrel padlock. The stem tapers slightly away from the roughly square bit which is set at right angles to it. The other end of the stem is missing but would probably have been rolled over into a loop. The bit has a single broad T-shaped hole (see Manning 1984 no.93 for a similar key though with two holes in the bit.) Length of stem 112 mm, width 7.75–12 mm, thickness 3–4 mm, width of bit 22 mm. From an undated pit (F104 – *513*). SM.

Staple

Fig. 26, 3, sf8. Small rectangular staple. One arm is complete and bent outwards. Possibly a box fitting. Length 17.75 mm, width 5.5 mm, thickness 3.5 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*). SM.

Pierced fittings (SM)

Pierced strips would have had a variety of functions, for example as binding on boxes and other wooden objects or they may represent fragments of strap hinges for use on doors or chests.

Fig. 26, 7, sf6. Two fitting pieces of plate embossed with concentric lines forming three ridges. Parts of two original edges survive. One of the pieces was pierced by one circular and one square hole, the remains of which survive along a broken edge. The square hole was punched through one of the ridges. The ridges are probably part of a pattern of concentric circles although they are slightly distorted and would not have formed perfect circles. If extended, the outer ridge would produce a rough circle with a diameter of 200 mm. Possibly a box fitting like the copper alloy lid-plates for wooden boxes found at Verulamium (Waugh and Goodburn 1972, Figs. 47 and 48.). Maximum dimensions 77 by 53 mm, thickness 2.5 mm. A third irregular piece of plate pierced by a square hole (also sf6) may be part of the same object. Maximum dimensions 62 by 31 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

Fig. 26, 8, sf10. Tapering strip pierced by two large roughly punched holes. One end has been beaten out to form a rounded terminal, the other is broken. Bent towards the tapered end and possibly part of a strap hinge from a chest. Surviving length 61 mm, width 15.5–23 mm, thickness 3–5 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

sf9 (not illustrated). Strip fragment, broken at one end, slightly rounded at the other. Off-centre, roughly circular hole 19 mm from the rounded end. Surviving length 31.5 mm, width 21.5 mm, thickness 1.75 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*).

Metalworking (Category 15)

Smithing waste (HR)

A small sample of smithing waste (1.85 kg) was recovered from the lower fills of F117 (*570*, *573* and *578*), the backfill of the stoking pit of the corn-dryer F134 and the layer of compacted building rubble *639* in Building 1. It comprised smithing slag, fuel ash slag and two measurable hearth bottoms, about 110 and 120 mm in diameter. Given the small size of the sample and the context of the waste from *639*, it is uncertain whether the material represents smithing on the site, or whether it was merely brought in from elsewhere for use as aggregate. No hammerscale was recovered in the soil samples taken from Roman contexts.

Unknown or uncertain function (Category 18)

Unidentified objects warranting illustration are catalogued fully below. There were a few additional

iron strips and plates probably originally fittings for boxes, chests or doors, and a possible long nail similar to Fig. 26, 4. Other non-ferrous objects comprised a copper alloy ferrule and a fragment from a bone hairpin or needle (the swelling in the shaft might suggest the former).

Chain

Fig. 18, 3, sf1. Length of copper alloy chain, possibly from an armlet, but if so the method of manufacture (loop in loop rather than twisted) is unusual. From the topsoil over Building 1 (*539*). HR.

Strip

Fig. 26, 9, sf7. Strip fragment of iron with one rounded end. The other end is broken. Surviving length 35.5 mm, width 25 mm, thickness 3.5 mm. From one of the upper fills of pit F117 (*555*). SM

ROMAN ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

Faunal remains by Claire Ingrem, with a contribution by Kate Clark

Introduction

Romano-British deposits produced a total of 1,250 identifiable fragments of animal bone. The majority was recovered from the two pits (F117 and F121) adjacent to the winged-corridor house and small quantities came from the corn-dryer (F133), and associated stoking pit (F134).

Most of the animal bone was retrieved by hand, although a small number of fragments (n = 67) came from the sieved samples. Species representation in the sieved samples is given in Table 6. Analysis was undertaken with the aim of investigating to what extent the animal bone conforms to the typical pattern found at rural sites in southern England, and the origin of several skeletons and skulls which were recovered from pits.

The animal bones were identified and recorded at the Centre for Human Ecology and Environment (CHEE), Department of Archaeology, University of Southampton following standard methodologies. Mandibles and limb bones were recorded using the zonal method developed by Serjeantson (1996) to allow the calculation of the minimum number of individuals (MNI). In addition, all bone fragments over 10 mm in the hand recovered material were recorded to species or size category to produce a basic fragment count of the number of identified specimens (NISP).

Measurements taken on the major limb bones of mammals and bird are listed in archive. Where possible the mammal bones have been compared with those taken on animals from contemporary sites and held on the Animal Bone Metrical Archive Project (ABMAP) at CHEE. Elements identified to dog were analysed and reported on by Dr. Kate Clark.

Taphonomy

Nearly 20 per cent of the assemblage displayed evidence of gnawing by canids and a human probably gnawed one bone belonging to domestic fowl. Cattle, pig and horse bones had relatively high frequencies compared to those belonging to sheep/goat (Table 7). Overall the material recovered from the corn-dryer displays the highest incidence of gnawing and that from the pits the least. However this may reflect the variation in sample size. The percentage of identified bones which show traces of gnawing is typical for rural settlements

Cut and chop marks were seen on several bones. Cattle displayed the highest frequency (11%) whilst sheep/goat and pig both had a much smaller proportion (Table 8). Cut and chop marks were seen in fairly equal numbers on the cattle bones and several bones from the pits displayed both. The highest incidence of butchery was seen on material recovered from the corn-dryer whilst, again, that from the pits possessed the least. No evidence for butchery was seen on the bones of horse or dog.

Few bones displayed evidence for burning, the majority (n = 6) came from the pits adjacent to the winged-corridor house and just two from the stoking pit.

Species

Major domesticates

The assemblage is dominated by the remains of cattle and sheep/goat. Associated bones of cattle

Table 6 Species representation in sieved samples (NISP)

	Pit 117	*Pit 121*	*Corn-dryer*	*Total*
Sheep/goat		1		1
Pig		1		1
Rodent	2		3	5
Amphibian		34	6	40
Passeridae sp.	1			1
Bird		2		2
Clupidae sp.	1			1
Cyprinidae sp.		1		1
Common eel	3	2		5
Fish	8	2		10
Total	15	43	9	67

Table 7 Incidence of gnawing according to feature (NISP)

	Pits	*Stoking Pit F134*	*Corn-Dryer F133*	*%*
Cattle	46	3		17
Sheep/goat	12	5	2	8
Pig	7			18
Horse	10			20
Galliform	1			3
Lge.mammal	12	2	1	4
Med.mammal	2		1	2
Sm.mammal	1			4
Total	92	10	4	
%	8	12	15	

comprised a matching pair of astragali and another astragalus with articulating tibia from F117, and three and two cattle skulls were recovered from pits F117 and F121 respectively. Associated bones of sheep included a partial skeleton from F121 belonging to a neonatal lamb/kid.

Cattle, which represents 42% of the identifiable fragments, are the most numerous species according to NISP (Table 9). However, when the

Table 8 Incidence of butchery according to feature (NISP)

	Pits			*Stoking Pit F134*		*Corn-Dryer F133*			%
	Cut	*Chop*	*Cut/Chop*	*Cut*	*Chop*	*Cut*	*Chop*	*Cut/chop*	
Cattle	12	10	6	1		1	1		11
Sheep/goat	2	4		1	1				3
Pig			1						3
Lge.mam	6	5	1			1		1	3
Med.mam	2	2			1	1	1		5
Total	22	21	8	2	2	3	2	1	
%	4			6		22			

Table 9 Species representation in hand collected material (NISP & MNI, excluding dog)

	Pits	*Stoking Pit F134*	*Corn-dryer F133*	*Sunken Structure*	*Total*	*% of identified*	*MNI*
Cattle	26 (45)	18	4	3 (2)	294	42	11
Sheep	17	1			18	3	19
Sheep/goat	210 (12)	11	3		224	32	
Pig	32 (3)	2	2	2	38	5	2
Horse	33	17			50	7	2
Cat	17 (17)				17	2	1
Roe deer	2				2	<1	1
Red deer		1	1		2	<1	**
Galliform	34 (17)				34	5	6
Raven	3					<1	1
Bird	11				12	2	
Lge.mammal	386 (24)	22	8		416		
Med.mammal	131	7	9		147		
Sm.mammal	26 (21?)				26		
Total	1183	84	27	5	1280		

*excluding skeletons
** antler only
( ) number of fragments belonging to partial skeletons/skulls

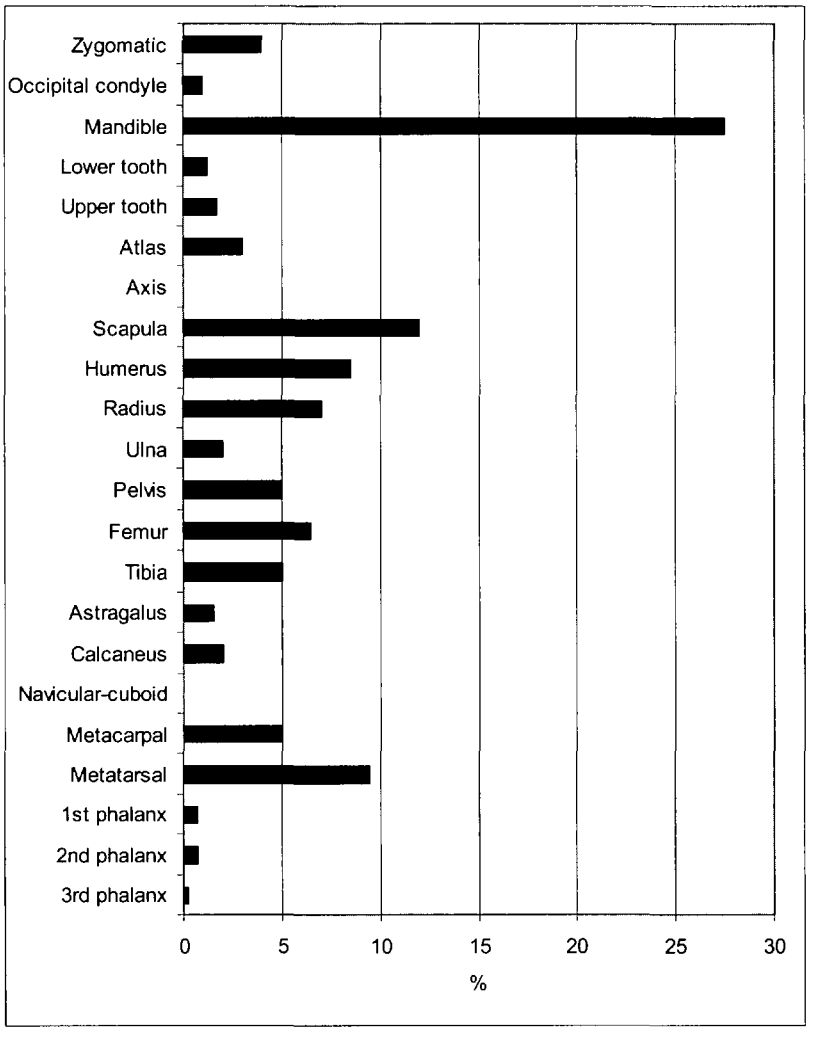


Fig. 27 Cattle body part representation (NISP)

number of fragments which belong to partial skeletons or skulls are excluded the two species become more equally represented, and when MNI is considered sheep/goat become dominant.

The anatomical representation according to NISP is given in Table 10. For cattle and sheep/goat this is displayed graphically to take account of the number of times that an element occurs in the body (Figs. 27–8). A similar pattern is visible for both cattle and sheep/goat: the mandible is clearly the most numerous element and formed the basis for the calculation of MNI. Major limb bones are fairly well represented with the scapula the second most frequent cattle bone, whereas for sheep/goat the tibia is the second most numerous element. Cranial elements, carpals, tarsals and phalanges are noticeably under-represented. Vertebrae and ribs belonging

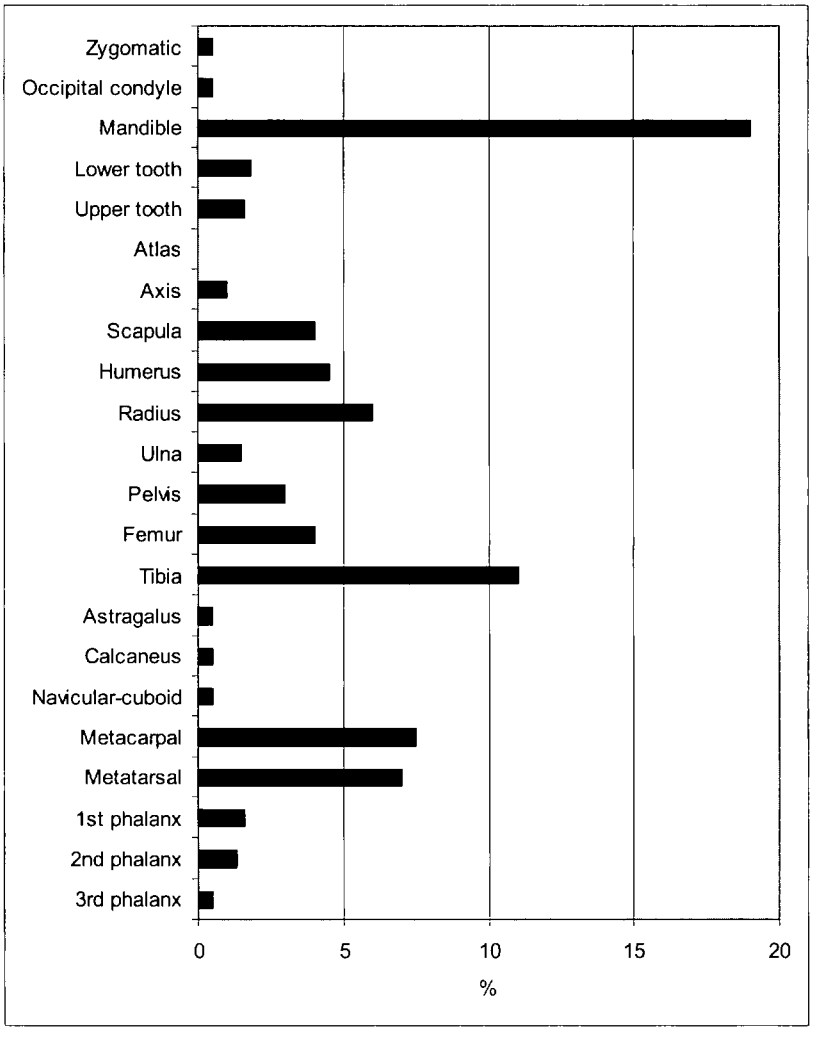


Fig. 28 Sheep/ goat body part representation (NISP)

to large and medium size mammals are present but are relatively under-represented compared to other cattle/horse and sheep/goat elements.

Ageing data, although based on fairly small samples does provide an indication of the mortality profiles of cattle and sheep/goat. Epiphyseal fusion suggests that few cattle were slaughtered below the age of 3 years but the majority (66%) died before reaching 4 years of age (Table 11). However tooth eruption and wear data suggests that approximately a third of cattle were culled before reaching 3 years of age but that the largest proportion (44%) were between 6 and 8 years of age at the time of death (Table 12). The absence of evidence in the bone fusion data for the youngest cattle can most likely be accounted for by the fact that immature bones are more prone to destruction than teeth.

The epiphyseal fusion data for sheep/goat suggests that a small proportion were culled each year up until the age of three and a half years when almost half of the population had been slaughtered (Table 13). Tooth eruption and wear data generally supports the bone data but suggests that immature animals were slaughtered at a younger age with almost half slaughtered in their first or second years; the remainder survived into adulthood (Table 14).

In general, the measurements fall within the range seen at other Romano-British sites although the proximal depth of one cattle metatarsal is slightly larger (by 2 mm) as is the length of the glenoid cavity belonging to a sheep/goat scapula (by 0.3 mm). Metacarpals belonging to sheep/goat provided withers height estimates of 0.54 m, 0.57 m and 0.63 m, and metatarsals of 0.61 m and 0.64 m according to the formula of Teichert (1975). This suggests the average withers height for sheep/goat was 0.6 m.

Two bones displayed evidence for pathology. Grooving was visible on the medial condyle of a cattle metatarsal although there was no other evidence to suggest the animal suffered from osteoarthritis. The sheep/goat mandible (above) displayed swelling in the region of the first and second molars which may have been caused by low grade inflammation of the tooth roots (Baker & Brothwell 1980, 148).

Other domesticates constitute a small proportion of the total identifiable remains (16%) with horse more numerous than pig. Articulating second and third phalanges and two lumbar vertebrae possessing fused transverse processes of horse were recovered as associated bones from F117, and several bones from F121 may have been from the same individual. Horse is represented by elements from all parts of the body although the only cranial elements are the mandible and loose teeth. The crown height of maxillary molar indicates that at least one horse was aged between 11 and 14 years at the time of death. The presence of a deciduous fourth premolar indicates that another animal was immature. The withers height for horse calculated using the formula of Kiesewalter (von den Driesch & Boessneck 1974) for three radii indicate that they all belong to animals which stood approximately 1.3 m at the shoulder.

Associated bones of pig took the form of two matching femora of neonatal pig from F117. Although the pig assemblage is small, it appears to follow a similar pattern to the sheep/ goat and cattle; the mandible is the most numerous element followed by the femur and other major limb bones are relatively well represented (Table 10). Ageing data for pigs is scarce but the majority of bones with intact epiphyses were unfused suggesting that few animals reached adulthood (Table 15). This is supported by dental data: of the four mandibles which could provide ageing data, three were classified as immature and one as subadult (Table 16).

The dog assemblage (KC)

The pit F117 (*578*) produced the near complete skeleton of an adult male dog resembling a modern Jack Russell terrier in stature, and, represented by a skull from *573*, at least one other individual of similar dimensions. Small dogs, although very rare in the Iron Age record, become increasingly more frequent during the Romano-British period and indeed achieve a majority during the 4th and 5th centuries AD (Clark 1995). Also present were a number of bones from immature individuals, including the near-complete skeleton of a neonatal puppy. Dog was also represented in pit F121, by a pelvis.

F117

578 contained the skeleton of an adult male dog, complete except for the absence of two hind and one forepaw. The dog has an estimated shoulder height of approximately 290 mm, calculated from the lengths of the limb bones (Harcourt 1974). The skull is domed with a high cephalic index of 69, a feature which is not seen prior to the Romano-British period, and the snout is relatively short and narrow (snout index 47, snout width index 45). In stature the dog resembles a modern Jack Russell terrier; however the skull is more domed than in this modern counterpart. The mandibles are gracile. The first and fourth premolars, and a maxillary first premolar, have been lost and the alveoli fully filled, but the limited wear on the remaining teeth suggests that this was not an elderly dog.

Table 10 Anatomical representation (NISP)

	Cattle	*Sheep*	*Sheep/goat*	*Pig*	*Horse*	*Cat*	*Roe deer*	*Red deer*	*Galli-form*	*Lge. mam*	*Med. mam*	*Sm. mam*
Horn core	4		1									
Antler								2				
Zygomatic	8		1									
Occipital condyle	2		1									
Frontal	4		2	1								
Skull frag.	25					1			2	46	7	
Maxilla	6		4	3								
Premaxilla			2									
Mandible	55	3	35	9	4	2				14	3	
Lower Tooth	21	2	31	3	10		1					
Upper tooth	20		19	1	7							
Hyoid			1									
Atlas	3					1						
Axis			1		1							
Scapula	24		8	2		1			3	7		
Humerus	17	1	8	4	3	1			2	11		
Radius	13	1	11	2	6							
Ulna	3		3	1	1				4			
Radius & Ulna	1				1							
Coracoid									1			
Furcula									2			
Pelvis	10		6		4				1	5		
Femur	13		8	7	2				3	6	3	
Tibia	10		22	2	1				2	5	2	1
Fibula											1	
Astragalus	3	1										
Calcaneus	4	1			1							
Navicular-cuboid			1									

Table 10 (cont.) Anatomical representation (NISP)

	Cattle	*Sheep*	*Sheep/goat*	*Pig*	*Horse*	*Cat*	*Roe deer*	*Red deer*	*Galli-form*	*Lge. mam*	*Med. mam*	*Sm. mam*
Carpal	3		1									
Metacarpal	10	4	11		1		1		2			
Metatarsal	19	2	12		2				8	1		
Metapodial		3	2	1	1							
1st phalanx	6		13		2							
2nd phalanx	6		10		2							
3rd phalanx	2		4		1							
Cervical vert.						5			2	1	2	
Thoracic vert.						4				7	11	
Lumbar vert.						2				4	3	
Sacrum									1			
Rib										16	21	20
Sternum									1			
Tooth frag.	2		4	2						2		
Long Bone Frag.			2							17	21	
Vert.frag										25	10	
Rib Frag.										90	42	5
Total	294	18	224	38	50	17	2	2	34	416	147	26

Table 11 Cattle: estimated age according to epiphyseal fusion

		Fused	*Unfused*	*% unfused*
7-10 months	Scapula	7		
	Pelvis	1		
Subtotal <1yr		8		0
12-15 months	Radius,p	5		
15-18 months	Phalanx II	6		
15-20 months	Humerus,d	7		
20-24 months	Phalanx I	5		
Subtotal <2yrs		23		0
24-30 months	Tibia,d	3		
	Metacarpal	4	1	
	Metatarsal	6		
Subtotal <3yrs		13	1	7
36 months	Calcaneus	1	2	
36-42 months	Femur,p			
42-48 months	Humerus,p		3	
	Radius,d	1	2	
	Ulna,p			
	Femur,d	2	1	
	Tibia,p			
Subtotal <4yrs		4	8	66

Table 12 Cattle: estimated age according to tooth eruption and wear

P4	*M1*	*M2*	*M3*	*Estimated age*	*P4*	*M1*	*M2*	*M3*	*Estimated age*
(1/2)				0-1 month	e	k	j	j	6-8 years
(a)				0-1 month				j	6-8 years
(f)				1-6 months				k	6-8 years
(k)				15-26 months	f	m	k	k	6-8 years
	k	j	f	26-36 months	h	o	l	k	6-8 years
			g	2-6 years		l	k		6-8 years
			g	2-6 years				l	6-8 years
			g	2-6 years		n			8-10 years

Table 13 Sheep/goat: estimated age according to epiphyseal fusion

		Fused	*Unfused*	*% unfused*
3-4 months	Humerus,d	12	4	
	Radius,p	12		
5 months	Scapula	10	4	
	Pelvis	3		
5-7 months	Phalanx II	17	1	
7-10 months	Phalanx I	14	3	
Subtotal <1yr		68	12	15
15-20 months	Tibia,d	7	4	
20-24 months	Metacarpal	10	3	
	Metatarsal	15	5	
Subtotal <2yrs		32	12	27
36 months	Calcaneus	2	3	
Subtotal <3yrs		2	3	60
36-42 months	Femur,p	2	3	
42 months	Humerus,p	1	3	
	Radius,d	6	4	
	Ulna,p	3	1	
	Femur,d	5	6	
	Tibia,p	4		
Subtotal <3.5yrs		21	17	45

Table 14 Sheep/goat: estimated age according to tooth eruption and wear

P4	*M1*	*M2*	*M3*	*Estimated age*	*P4*	*M1*	*M2*	*M3*	*Estimated age*
(f)				2–6 months	f	g			4–6 years
(g)	E			2–12 months	g	g	f	c	4–6 years
(g)				6–12 months	h	g	g		4–6 years
	f	d		12–24 months	h	j	g	g	6–8 years
(h)	g			12–24 months		k	h	g	6–8 years
(j)				12–24 months			h	g	6–8 years
(l)	g			12–24 months				g	6–8 years

Table 15 Pig: estimated age according to epiphyseal fusion

		Fused	*Unfused*	*% unfused*
12 months	Scapula			
	Humerus,d		2	
	Radius,p			
	Pelvis			
	Phalanx II			
Subtotal <1yr			2	100
24 months	Tibia,d	1		
	Metapodial			
	Phalanx I			
Subtotal <2yrs		1		0
24-30 months	Calcaneus			
Subtotal <3yrs				
36-42 months	Ulna,p		1	
	Femur,p	1	2	
42 months	Humerus,p		2	
	Radius,d			
	Femur,d		2	
	Tibia,p			
Subtotal <3.5yrs		1	7	88

Table 16 Pig: estimated age according to tooth eruption and wear

P4	*M1*	*M2*	*M3*	*Estimated age*
(g)	c	E		Immature
(l)	e	E		Immature
	f	c		Immature
	k	d	E	Subadult

All elements are fused and so the dog was at least 10 months old. The limb bones are straight and slender. The lack of early joint degeneration in the vertebrae also indicates an animal in early to mid adulthood.

There are two visible infective lesions. The left radius has an area of periostitis on the lateral edge of the ulna scar, and there is some bony proliferation at the caudal end of the baculum suggesting a possible urinary tract infection.

Traumatic lesions are confined to the skull and neck. The left wing of the atlas has suffered a fracture which has partially healed, and there is also a partially healed fracture at the zygo-maxillary suture which has caused some displacement.

578 also yielded a pair of mandibles and the left maxilla of a puppy, and a puppy scapula.

The fragmented skull from *573* produced a series of measurements which indicate an animal of similar cranial dimensions to that in *578* but with a longer snout. The mandible and pelvis from this context again suggest a dog of similar size to a small modern terrier. The pair of unfused humeri and the single unfused ulna from this context indicate that at least one dog was less than 8 months of age.

The unfused femur, tibia, calcaneum and the puppy fibula from *570* are from an animal under the age of 8 months. The left tibia of an older animal, is from a dog of very similar limb size to the skeleton in *578*. This context also produced an almost complete appendicular skeleton of a neonate puppy.

577 contained the left hindpaw of a puppy less than 6 months of age.

F121

The only evidence for dog in this feature is a pelvis from *576*, measurements of which suggest an animal slightly larger than those in pit F117 but still within the range of modern terrier dimensions.

Other species

Cat was represented solely by a partial skeleton comprising cranial elements, forelimbs and vertebrae from F121. The presence of an erupting fourth mandibular premolar indicates that this animal was immature. A femur and tibia recovered by hand, and most of the identified sieved remains belonged to amphibian. A few sieved fragments were of rodent. These are likely to represent pit-fall victims.

There are 34 bones belonging to galliform (probably domestic fowl), half of which belong to two partial skeletons from F117. Domestic fowl was represented by all parts of the body including crania and axial elements. Of the 8 tarsometatarsi of domestic fowl, 2 had spurs, so are probably from adult cocks. No medullary bone – present in hens in lay – was seen in any of the fowl bones.

Three other fragments of bird were present in the sieved assemblage, including one belonging to sparrow (*Passeridae* sp). In addition, F121 produced tibiotarsus, carpometacarpal and tarsometatarsus of raven. There is other evidence for wild species in the form of a metacarpal and lower tooth belonging to roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*) and two fragments of red deer (*Cervus elaphas*) antler.

The sieved assemblage included fragments belonging to *Clupidae* sp., eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) and *Cyprinidae* sp. (probably chub). All of the fish bones identifiable to family or species are vertebrae with the exception of a lower pharyngeal belonging to the cyprinid. Apart from one very small eel vertebra comparable to fish with a total length less than 150 mm, all of the bones belong to small fish between 150 and 300 mm.

Discussion

As the majority of animal bone was recovered from just two pits it is possible that the assemblage does not truly reflect species and/or body part representation at the settlement as a whole. Maltby (1994, 88–94) has shown that in urban areas concentrations of cattle bones were dumped after large-scale processing whilst sheep bones have a better chance of ending up in centrally located pits as the meat is often cooked on the bone.

A considerable proportion of the animal bones display evidence for canid gnawing. Although sheep/goat possess the least evidence, rather than indicating that dogs preferentially selected the bones of large animals, this is more likely to reflect the ease with which the bones of smaller animals are completely destroyed. In addition, the bones of juveniles are porous and therefore also less likely to survive the effects of gnawing and other forms of density-mediated destruction (Lyman 1994). For these reasons it is likely that small and medium size animals, juvenile individuals and small/fragile bones are generally under-represented. In addition, normal hand retrieval is likely to have biased the sample against the smaller bones.

Domesticated animals and birds

Whichever method of quantification is used to calculate species representation, it is clear that cattle and sheep/goat dominate the assemblage and were therefore probably the animals kept in the greatest numbers. Elements from all parts of the cattle and sheep/goat skeleton are present, albeit in differing proportions, which suggests that at least some whole carcasses of cattle and

sheep/goat were originally present. The under-representation of small and/or more fragile elements such as ribs, vertebrae and phalanges may result from differential destruction, differential disposal or retrieval bias (above).

The presence of neonatal lamb/kid indicates that some animals were being bred at or close to the site. The mortality profiles for cattle and sheep/goat suggest that a large proportion survived into adulthood and implies that secondary products such as milk, wool and manure were important to the economy; it is likely that many beasts were raised for traction and haulage. There is no evidence that a large proportion of juvenile calves were slaughtered.

Pigs appear to have played a relatively minor role in the economy: their remains are less numerous than those of horse, although the greater size and robustness of horse bones suggests this may partly reflect density-related survival. The presence of dogs is attested both by their bones and evidence for gnawing although whether they were deliberately kept as pets, as hunting dogs, for pest control or existed simply as semi-feral strays taking advantage of the easy pickings found on human habitation sites is uncertain. Similarly, cats may also have been kept to control vermin, valued for fur, or existed as strays. In addition to providing meat, domestic fowl were probably kept to provide eggs and feathers.

The presence of neonatal pig and immature horse, dog and cat suggest that minor domesticates may also have been bred at or close to the site. The absence of adult pigs is unsurprising, given that pigs are kept solely to provide meat and bristles and are therefore generally slaughtered before reaching skeletal maturity.

Wild animals and birds

Wild animal remains were few, although the presence of a roe deer metacarpal indicates that some hunting probably occurred. As scavengers, raven would have been attracted to human occupation sites and their remains could represent natural casualty. Alternatively, they may have been encouraged as a source of black feather or for the symbolic meaning they hold in some of the pagan Roman religions (for example, Green 1976, 34). The single passerine bone may well be present as a result of a natural fatality although the possibility that these small birds were eaten cannot be discounted.

Fish

The remains of clupeid, eel and cyprinid from pit deposits almost certainly have an anthropogenic origin; eel and cyprinid inhabit freshwater and may represent local catches. However clupeids are marine fish and therefore must have been transported to the site. Given their small size and recovery from layers of cess in F117 and F121 the fish recovered from the site are likely to have passed through the gut.

The Romans are well known for producing *garum*, a sauce made from decomposed fish, usually clupeids (Wheeler & Locker, 1985; Bateman & Locker, 1982). Evidence for provincial sauce production has been recovered from London (Bateman & Locker, 1982) and York (Jones, 1988), whilst it has been suggested that concentrations of sand eels and small clupeids in late Roman contexts at Lincoln may be evidence for local production (Dobney et al., 1996: 54–55).

At Silchester, the remains of small clupeid, cyprinid and eel were amongst the fish bones recovered from late Romano-British cess-pits on *Insula* IX, prompting the suggestion that a type of fish sauce composed of both freshwater and marine species was imported inland (Ingrem forthcoming). Although the identification of *garum* in the archaeological record is usually associated with large quantities of fish bones and the amphorae used for storage, it is quite possible that a meal or meals containing some type of fish sauce were consumed at Monk Sherborne.

Regional patterns

The relative proportions of domestic animals found at Romano-British sites is believed to reflect the degree of romanisation, and at many villa and urban sites the proportions of cattle and pig appear to increase at the expense of sheep/goat (King 1978; 1991). Hamshaw-Thomas (2000) suggests that the shift from sheep to cattle reflects a general economic intensification, further evi-

denced by a general change in slaughter strategy: cattle and sheep both attained older ages, perhaps indicating an increased use of secondary products. The evidence from contemporary sites in the region is difficult to interpret, as different methods of quantification produce results that may be ambiguous when compared, and cannot take into consideration empirically the actual meat weight consumed.

At Portchester (Grant 1975), Winchester (Maltby 1994 & forthcoming) and Dorchester Greyhound Yard (Maltby 1994), it is clear that cattle provided the bulk of the meat in later Roman times, with pig very strongly represented at Portchester. In contrast, at rural sites such as Owslebury and Balksbury, (Maltby 1987; 1994; 1995) sheep/ goat appears to be the most important component of later Roman assemblages. For all of these sites the predominance of older animals has been interpreted as a reflection of the importance of cows for traction, milk and breeding. Maltby (1994, 96), notes that at both Owslebury and Winchester most sheep/goat were probably over 3 years old at the time of slaughter and suggests that wool production may have been of some importance.

Here at Monk Sherborne, sheep/goat may have been kept in greater numbers than cattle but the latter would have provided the bulk of the meat. The cattle and sheep/goat appear to conform to a regional pattern whereby increasing emphasis was placed on the slaughter of older animals, although certainty is limited by the smallness of the sample size.

Special deposits: ritual or rubbish

The recovery of neonate remains, cattle skulls, partial skeletons, articulated bones and less common species such as cat and raven from the two pits adjacent to the house is worth noting. Similar faunal deposits at Iron Age Danebury have been argued as having a ritual or ceremonial explanation (Grant 1991), a hypothesis subsequently expanded to include whole assemblages (Cunliffe 1995, 72–88; Poole 1995).

During the Romano-British period a distinction appears to exist between deposits which simply result from the burial of ordinary animal casualties and rubbish disposal and those which possess some form of extraordinary significance associated with ritual practices. This latter group appears to be clearly recognisable by their peculiar content and association with particular features such as wells and foundations (Esmonde Cleary 2000).

At Monk Sherborne, although the pits contain interesting animal bone deposits, there are no other lines of evidence to suggest that they represent anything other than the disposal of natural casualties and butchery waste. However, the possibility that we are seeing a depositional practice in which the traditions from the Iron Age have been maintained through three centuries of Roman rule, must also be considered (*see* Discussion, below).

Other environmental evidence by Pete Higgins

The environmental sampling programme was not extensive, being severely restricted by the nature of the project. Soil samples removed from pit F117, pit F121, from the stoke hole (F134) and fill of the corn-dryer (F133) and from the sunken structure F135 are considered here.

Methodology

The samples were processed by wet sieving. Flots and residues were then dried, bagged and stored. They were fully sorted under low magnification, and all identifiable artefacts and ecofacts removed and placed in separate categories. Identification within the categories was taken as far as reasonably possible. Nomenclature of botanical taxa follows Clapham *et al.* 1962. Nomenclature of molluscan taxa follows Kerney and Cameron 1979. However, with the exception of *Punctum pygmaeum* (a woodland dweller) and *Carychium* cf. tridentatum (a moisture lover), most of the molluscs recovered were of catholic (*Oxychilus* spp, *Discus rotundatus*, *Aegopinella* sp.) or burrowing (*Ceciloides acicula*) species, and little can be inferred from the results.

General results

In both of the pits, F117 (*578*) and F121 (*603*), the organics derived from cess (224 gr and 18 gr respectively), and were mainly preserved by min-

Table 17 Plant remains from pit F117 (5l sample)

Category	*Taxa*	*Common Name*	*Count*	*Wt*	*Comments*
Non-cereal seed	*Ranunculus* sp.	Buttercup/ crowfoot	13	–	
	Vicia sativa	Common vetch	4	–	
	Vicia sp.	Vetch	7	–	
	Rubus fruticosus	Blackberry	17	–	
	Rosa sp.		4	–	
	Prunus spinosa	Blackthorn/ Sloe	39	–	
	Prunus sp.	Prob. Blackthorn/ Sloe	48	–	
	Gallium aparine	Bedstraw	2	–	
	Luzula luzuloides	White wood-rush	1	–	
	Luzula sp.	Wood-rush	10	–	
	cf. *Cynosurus* sp.	Dogstail	1	–	
Cereal	*Triticum* sp.	Wheat	1	–	grains
Other	–	Wood	*c.* 300	6	All very small and undiagnostic

eralisation. In the basal fill of stoke hole to the corn-dryer, F134 (*629*), two types of preservation were present: mineralisation (small quantities of *Lathyrus* seeds and small fragments of cess- 1 gr), and charring (small quantities of cereals: Table 20).

The assemblages from F117 and F121 were in general typical of cess pit fill and the arthropod assemblage from F117 (five centipede, one wood-louse and three fly larvae) is characteristic. By contrast, the assemblage from F134 suggests a change of use from a corn-dryer to a rubbish or cess pit. The low frequency of mineralised remains may indicate that rubbish or cess disposal took place in the short term or less intensively compared to the primary use of the feature.

There is other evidence from F134 for burning, in the form of burnt flint, and magnetised stone and soil (20 gr), The fuel may have included roundwood, preserved here in the form of charcoal (5 gr) and fine-sieved residues from cereal processing (below and Table 20). In the main fill of the corn-dryer F133 (*644*), the charcoal (4 gr) was all lumpwood. A moderate amount (10 gr) of magnetised soil and stone from the sunken structure F135 (*634*) is also evidence of burning, though the absence of large fragments of burnt clay or burnt flint suggests the burning event occurred elsewhere, rather than in situ.

Plant remains

The main interest centres on the cereal remains, which were all carbonised. The green moss growing tips from F134 (Table 20) may have grown either on the exposed surface following stripping of the site, or in the sample bags following sample gathering. If the former, this may indicate a degree of contamination of the samples. However, the absence any other obviously modern material means any contamination is slight.

The list of taxa from the pits F117 (Table 17) and F121 (Table 18) includes many hedgerow or ditch-side species, which may have grown in or near the pits. The assemblage is dominated by mineralised *Prunus*, specifically *P. spinosa* and *P. avium*. These are respectively Blackthorn or Sloe,

Table 18 Plant remains from pit F 121 (5l sample)

Category	*Taxa*	*Common Name*	*Count*	*Wt*	*Comments*
Non-cereal seed	*Prunus* cf. *avium*	Wild cherry	53	2	
	cf. *Sonchus* sp.	Thistle	1	–	
	Sp. indet.		1	–	
Other	–	Mineralised grass fragments	227	3	Mainly flowering stems, with nodes; a few leaf blades

Table 19 Plant remains from the corndryer main chamber F133 (less than 1l sample)

Category	*Taxa*	*Common Name*	*Count*	*Wt*	*Comments*
Non-cereal seed	*Ranunculus* sp.	Buttercup/ crowfoot	2	–	
	Hypericum cf. perfoliatum	Perforated St Johns Wort	1	–	
	Agrostemma githago	Corn cockle	2	–	
	Chenopodium sp.	Goosefoot	2	–	
	Pisum sativum	Pea	2	–	
	Polygonum sp.	Knotgrass	1	–	
	Plantago lanceolata	Ribwort	5	–	
	Anthemis cf. cotula	Chamomile	4	–	
	Scirpus sp.	Club-rush	4	–	
	Lolium sp.	Rye-grass	25	–	
	Sp. indet.		2	–	
Cereal	*Triticum spelta*	Spelt wheat	711	–	Glume bases
	cf. *Triticum* sp.	Wheat	301	–	Glume base frags
	Hordeum vulgare	Barley	32	–	Glume bases
	Hordeum sp.	Barley	14	–	Glume base frags
	Sp. indet.		370	–	Glume base frags
	cf. *Triticum spelta*	Spelt wheat	132	–	grains, 4 'sprouted'
	cf. *Triticum* sp.	Wheat	12	–	grains
	Hordeum vulgare	Barley	26	–	grains
	cf. *Hordeum vulgare*	Barley	26	–	grains, 10 'sprouted'
	cf. *Avena sativa*	Oat	2	–	grains

Table 20 Plant remains from the corndryer stokehole F134 (5l sample)

Category	*Taxa*	*Common Name*	*Count*	*Wt*	*Comments*
Non-cereal seed	Lotus sp.	Birdsfoot-trefoil	2	–	
	Lathyrus sp.	Vetchling	12	–	
	Polygonum sp.	Knotgrass	2	–	
	Sp. indet.		4	–	
Cereal	cf. Hordeum vulgare	Barley	2	–	grains
	Sp. indet.		1	–	grain fragment
Other	-	Moss growing tips	4	–	

Table 21 Plant remains from the sunken structure F135 (less than 2.5l sample)

Category	*Taxa*	*Common Name*	*Count*	*Wt*	*Comments*
Non-cereal seed	cf. Silene sp.	Campion	1	–	
	Corylus avellana	Hazel nut	10	–	frags
	cf. Poa sp.	Meadow-grass	1	–	
	Sp. indet.		2	–	
Cereal	Sp. indet.		7	–	Glume base frags
	cf. Triticum spelta	Spelt wheat	5	–	grains
	cf. Triticum sp.	Wheat	4	–	grains
	cf. Hordeum vulgare	Barley	8	–	grains, 3 'sprouted'
	cf. Hordeum sp.	Barley	19	–	grains
	cf. Avena sp	Oat	1	–	grain
	Sp. indet.		7	–	
Other	-	Mineralised grass fragment	1	–	Leaf blade

and Wild Plum, both of which may be found in hedges. The large amount of mineralised grass fragments in the cess pit F121 may have had sanitary function, although this has not been formally demonstrated. The high proportion of stem fragments, which are hard, to leaf fragments, which are soft, is assumed to be the result of differential preservation.

With the exception of *Pisum* (Pea), all the non-cereal seeds from the corn-dryer F133/134 (Tables 19 & 20) and the sunken structure F135 (Table 21) may be regarded as weeds of arable

land, probably both cropped and fallow fields which were certainly rather damp in places. The *Corylus avellana* (Hazel) fragments may all derive from a single nut.

The cereal remains vary widely between the samples. The stokehole (F134) of the corn-dryer contains few grains and no chaff, whereas the base of the channel (F133) contained significant amounts of both. Van der Veen (1989) reviews the evidence of charred cereal remains from 21 reports of excavations of Roman-period grain dryers. The ratio of wheat grain to glume fragments (around 1:7) is consistent with the use of fine-sieved residues (Hillman 1981) as fuel, or at least tinder.

The ratio of barley grain to glume fragments (around 1:1) is more consistent with drying of barley spikelets to facilitate winnowing. In both cereals and barley a small proportion of grains were sprouted; in all cases the germination had not proceeded far enough to be classified as malting, and the proportion of sprouted grains is small. The sprouting may therefore best be viewed as evidence of a partly spoiled crop. Although the barley assemblage is too small to allow certainty that the two cereals were processed differently, this does support the notion of corn-dryers being used for more than one purpose.

The cereal remains from the sunken structure F135 are fewer, and the frequency of barley is greater than that of wheat. However, the proportion of grain to glume fragments (around 1:5 for all cereals combined) is also consistent with the use of fine-sieved residues as fuel.

POST-ROMAN FEATURES AND FINDS

The remnants of a timber building (Building 3) surrounded by an enclosure system on the same alignment as, but cutting through the Roman building (Building 1), have been tentatively dated to the Saxon period (Fig. 29).

Building 3 (Fig. 30)

Situated some 12 m to the NE of Building 1 was a group of postholes perhaps forming part of a rectangular timber structure. These enclosed a small pocket of natural periglacial clay overlying the chalk, which may have been used as a floor. A straight line of four equally spaced post holes (F122–4, F126) defined the north wall of this structure, giving it a length of at least 8.7 m. This line ran perpendicular to the east side of enclosure ditch F115/212 (below), and the absence of postholes adjacent to its west side suggests that the ditch may have also delimited its extent. A further post hole (F128) may have defined the southern extent, suggesting that the building was 4.9 m wide. A sixth post-hole (F125) could have been internal to the structure. The postholes varied between 0.45 and 0.7 m in diameter and between 0.06 and 0.2 m in depth. Only posthole F123 showed evidence of a post pipe, large flints placed around its edge.

Overlying the periglacial clay was a spread of heavily burnt flints and charcoal up to 0.8 m in depth. The flints had probably been burnt *in situ* since the surface of the underlying clay had been fired red. As fragments of slag were recovered from this context and from the post holes, it is possible that the burning represents metalworking activity.

Enclosure ditch (F115/212)

Cutting across the central part of Building 1 was a ditch forming part of a rectangular enclosure measuring 54.5 m by at least 45 m. Three sides of the enclosure lay within the recorded area and the ditch terminated at the east end of the south side. It is unclear whether this marked an entrance, or whether the enclosure was open-ended on its east side.

Within the excavated areas, the ditch was sectioned in six places including the terminal and on the SW corner of the enclosure. Within the watching brief area, machine excavated sections were recorded on the north and west sides of the enclosure. The profile was U-shaped with steep regular sides varying in width from 0.8 m to 1.1 m, and in depth from 0.42–0.69 m. There were appreciable quantities of Roman building material in the fills of the ditch, not confined to the area where it had cut through the Roman building.

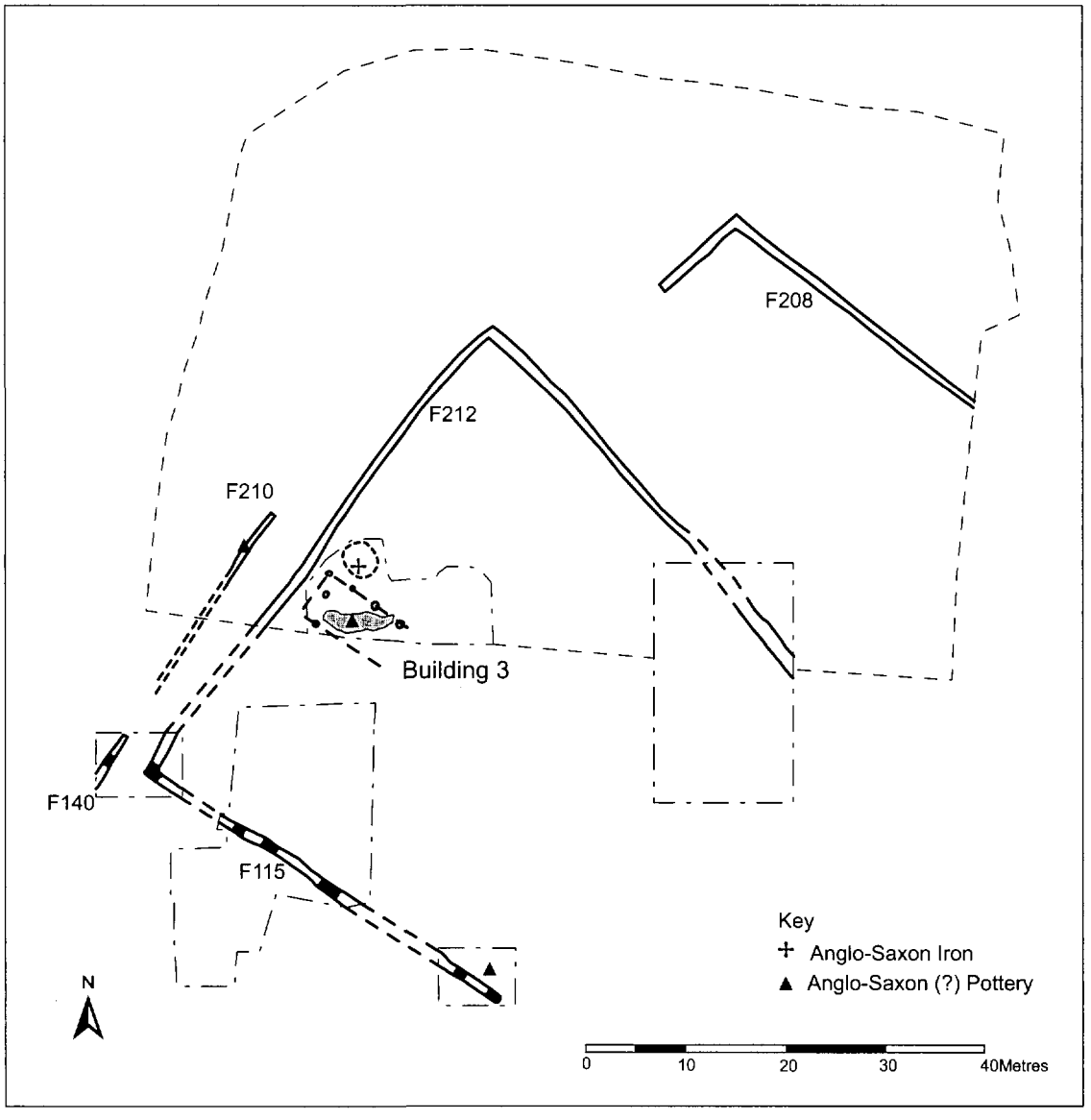


Fig. 29 Plan of post-Roman features

Other features

Two other features on the site took their alignment from the Roman building (Building 1) and the post-Roman ditch (F115/212) which cut it. Ditch F208 seems to have formed part a second enclosure, immediately NE of enclosure F115/212. Machine excavated sections revealed that it had a similar profile, measuring some 0.87 m across and 0.33 m in depth. Appreciable quanti-

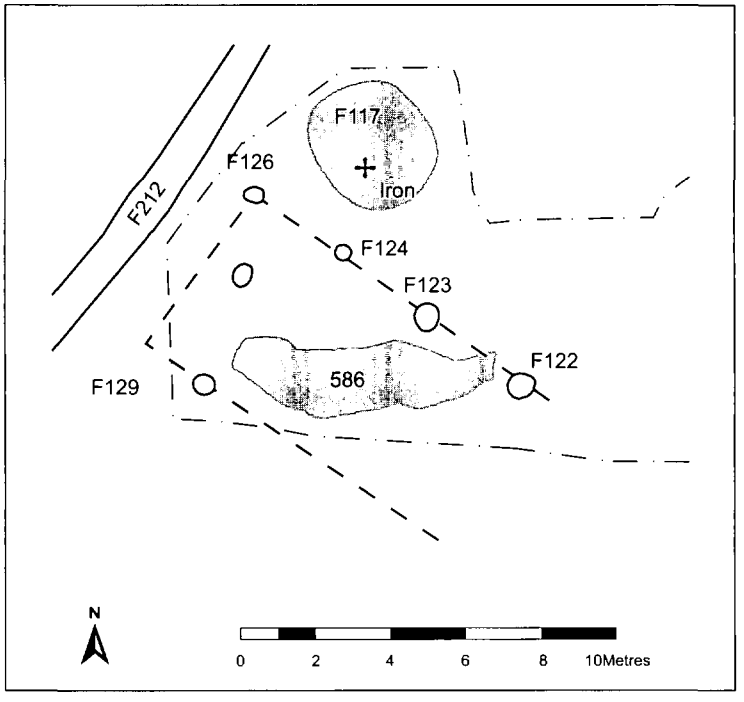


Fig. 30 Plan of Building 3

ties of Roman tile fragments were also noted within its fill. A further, discontinuous ditch (F140/210) ran approximately parallel to the W. of enclosure F115/212.

Dating evidence

An iron wire-inlaid belt buckle and a square belt fitting, rare examples of Anglo-Saxon metalwork dated to the 7th century (below) were retrieved quite close (0.2–0.3 m) to the top of the latest fill of the Roman pit F117 (*555* on Fig. 10). The differences in workmanship and design of the two objects suggest that they were not made as a matching suite. The evidence of burning and possibly of iron smithing in Building 3 and the association of two objects of diverse origins may suggest that they represent finds brought to the site for repair. Another possibility, that they were part of a founder's hoard remains unproven, as other metal objects from the same context, like the pottery, were either Roman in date or undiagnostic (*see* Roman Finds, above). In any event, it seems unlikely that two such remarkable objects were merely thrown away.

Post-Roman finds

Wire-inlaid buckle and belt fitting by Sonja Marzinzik

The wire-inlaid belt buckle and square belt fitting from the upper fill of pit F117 (*555*) both deserve special attention, not only because of the rarity of such metalwork from Anglo-Saxon England, but also for their intricate decoration.

Although a fitting of this form would originally have accompanied the buckle, these two pieces were not made as a matching suite. The only inlay-motif they both have in common are the T-shaped cells. The broad ladder-bands of the interlace on the buckle do not compare well with the more ribbon-like spotted interlace on the fitting. Additionally, its quality of workmanship is

not as high as that of the buckle. Close examination showed that on the fitting the wires sometimes overlap and that the width of the wires is less even than it is on the buckle. Lastly, the rivets on both pieces are not only made from different materials, but also follow different constructive principles. It is not possible any more to determine the exact relationship in which the buckle and fitting were deposited in the ground and we can therefore not be sure that they were not used as a suite, anyway. Despite some parallels found in Kent, both buckle and fitting were most likely not produced in Anglo-Saxon England, but imported from the other side of the Channel, probably from Francia.

Buckle

Buckles of such a shape were rare in Anglo-Saxon England and usually made from copper alloy (Avent 1972; Avent 1976). Wire inlaid buckles with plate, dating to the later 6th and 7th centuries are generally scarce and so far seem to be mostly restricted to Kent. Examples from Finglesham, Updown/Eastry III (Hawkes 1981) and St. Peter's Tip, Broadstairs can be quoted. Decoration normally consist of geometric inlay, which often imitates garnet cloisonné (Hawkes 1981, 56). Zoomorphic interlace, such as on the Monk Sherborne buckle, is not unknown elsewhere, however, as it also appears on a triangular iron buckle plate with two inlaid, intertwined snakes from St. Peter's Tip grave 42 and engraved on the copper alloy buckle from Eccles (Speake 1980, 58–9). The motif of the beaked snake also decorates Continental belt fittings, grave stones and even coffins. The interpretation of its meaning ranges from purely decorative to apotropaic and from protective to harmful (Krause 1991, 146, note 16, Figs. 86b, 88; Hawkes 1997, 323–6).

Several varieties of buckles with round plates and monochrome wire-inlay became fashionable widely on the Continent in the late 6th century and lasted through the first half of the seventh (Koch 1967, maps 13 and 14; Giesler 1983, 524–5; Nieveler & Siegmund 1999, 6). They could be combined with a counterplate and a small back plate to a three-piece suite or just be worn with a back plate in a two-piece set (Ament 1976, 102). No good parallels to the ornament on our buckle can be cited. It seems, however, that it is closest to Frankish and Burgundian examples, as the honey-comb inlay on the loop is a motif neither current on similar Alamanic nor Rhenish suites (Martin 1991, 101; Nieveler & Siegmund 1999, 6). The copper alloy rivets can be paralleled at Finglesham Gr. 25 (Hawkes 1981, 53, Fig. 3.4–1,2,3,4) and also in northern France and Belgium, to name but a few examples, on buckles from Nouvion-en-Ponthieu, Dép. Somme, Gr. 26 (Piton 1985), Surice and Wancennes (Trenteseau 1966, 111 no. 207, 119 no. 234).

A date in the first half of the 7th century is appropriate for this buckle. Its decoration is dominated by interlace rather than geometric motifs and the characteristic early 7th-century mushroom-shaped cells are completely absent (*cf.* Giesler 1983, 524). The dome-headed rivets with notched flanges are similar to the filigree collars frequently found on Continental and Anglo-Saxon metalwork of the 7th century. Examples for these are the buckles from Ford, Laverstock, Wiltshire (Musty 1969), Dover Buckland Gr. 8 (Evison 1987) and Tostock, Suffolk (West 1998, Fig. 128.10). Closely comparable to the rivets on the Monk Sherborne buckle are the crimped rivet flanges from Finglesham Gr. 25 and Updown/Eastry III Gr. 24 (Hawkes 1981, Figs. 3.2- 1,2,4, 3.4–2). Additionally, the honey-comb cells on the loop are a pattern that also occurs on two composite garnet brooches from Faversham, Kent, and Milton North Field, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, which have been dated to the late third decade of the 7th century (Avent 1975, 63, Pls. 73, 74).

Figs. 31–2, sf13. Attached to the oval, iron loop is a sub-circular iron plate with originally three rivets. The tongue has a curved tip and an approximately round shield. Loop, tongue and plate are decorated with inlaid silver wires and areas of silver plating. The plate is attached to the loop by two protruding iron strips bent over the hinge bar. Due to corrosion, it is not now possible to tell whether there ever was an underplate, or whether the strips were directly attached to the belt. The two preserved dome-headed rivets consist of a copper-zinc alloy (brass) cap with a lead metal rather than lead solder filling (Maclean 1999). On the back of the plate remains of the iron rivet-stumps are still visible.

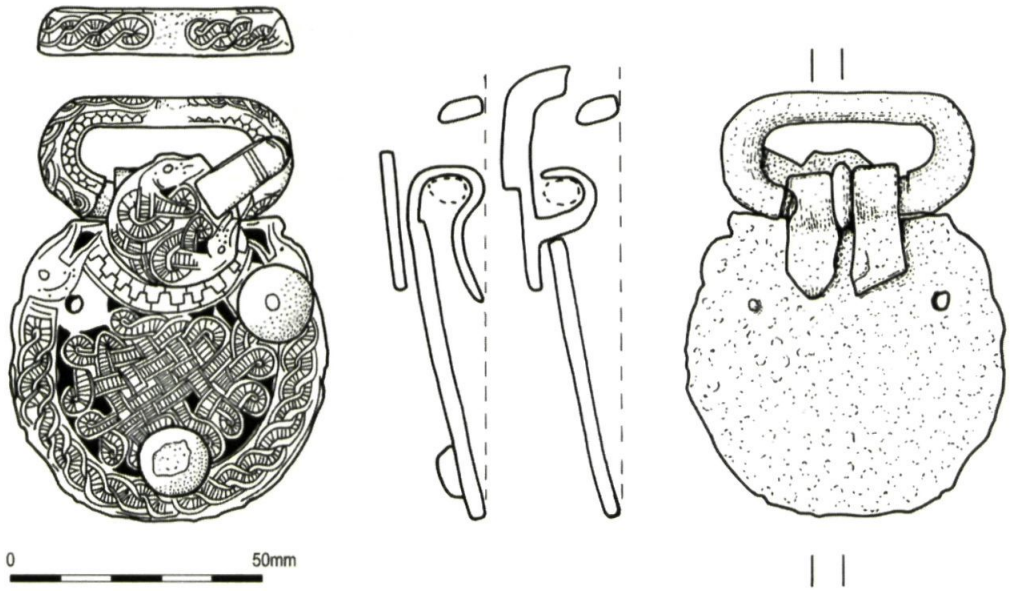


Fig. 31 The Anglo-Saxon buckle. Scale 2:3 (PEC)

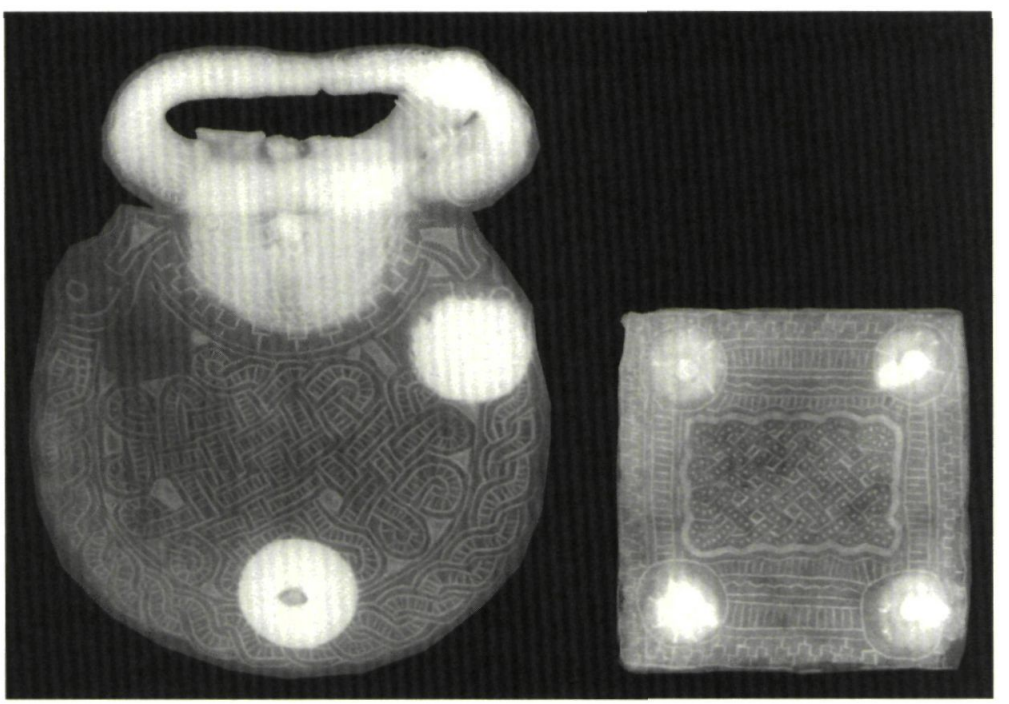


Fig. 32 X radiographs of the Anglo-Saxon buckle and belt fitting (Scale 1:1)

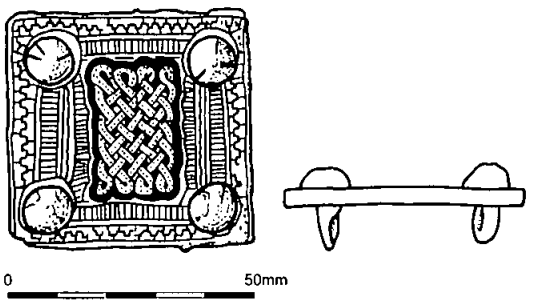


Fig. 33 The Anglo-Saxon belt fitting. Scale 2:3 (PEC)

The decorative scheme combines geometric motifs with zoomorphic and non-zoomorphic interlace. Around the outer face of the buckle loop run two sets of non-zoomorphic two-strand interlace, whereas the upper face carries a honey-comb pattern. The tongue is inlaid with transverse wires and a frieze of T-shaped cells on the plate forms a frame for the tongue shield. Two beaked snake-like animals, each of which is intertwined with itself, decorate the latter. This contrasts with the interlace strand which runs along the edge of the plate and which has a beaked snake head at either end. One of the latter snake's heads is still largely covered by one of the rivets. The central field of the plate contains a complex interlace pattern, which is also partly concealed by one of the rivets. Close examination showed that at a least some of the wires are ribbon twisted (*cf.* Hawkes 1981, Fig. 3.2). Apart from the empty space, where the third rivet would have sat, remaining free areas have been filled with silver sheeting cut to shape.

Width of loop 56 mm, length 26 mm, Width of plate 69 mm, length 73 mm, Thickness of plate *c.* 2.5 mm. Total height of rivets and plate *c.* 9.5 mm. Total weight of buckle and plate 139.96 gr.

Fitting

The back plate from Finglesham grave 25 is similar to this fitting, as it also contains a central panel of spotted interlace. The framing borders and rivets are rather different, however. The interlace on a buckle from the Rhineland is even closer, as it also runs in four strands and is bounded by a scalloped line and hachuring inside a zig-zag line. It is not possible to trace the context from which this piece came, but due to well-dated parallels, it belongs to the end of the sixth or first quarter of the 7th centuries (Gottschalk 1991, 243–4). Other corresponding pieces are known from Switzerland (Windler 1994, Abb. 80a, 80b).

Figs. 32–3, sf43. An almost square iron fitting with four rivets and silver wire inlay. An outer border of T-shaped cells is followed by an inner hachured band and an irregular wavy line. A framed panel of narrow ribbon-interlace filled with dots takes up the middle of the design. The dome-headed iron rivets are inlaid with wire strips running downwards from the top. A maximum of three strips can be determined now on any one rivet, but their layout and further wire traces suggest that originally there were more of them. The rivets have looped iron shanks, three of which are still extant.

Width 47.5 mm, length 49 mm, thickness 3 mm. Total height of rivets, rivet shanks and plate *c.* 15.5 mm, weight 51.22 gr.

Possible Saxon pottery by Helen Rees

The ditch F140/210, in addition to fragments from a BB1 flanged bowl produced the handmade pot illustrated in Fig. 34. Whilst the flint-tempered fabric might find parallel amongst the late Iron Age pottery of the Basingstoke area, the form, a carinated bowl or jar, is rather unusual (*cf.* Timby 2000, 239–44 and Figs. 126–128). Similarly, however, early and middle Saxon pottery from Hampshire is most commonly abundantly organic tempered, and the neck of this vessel seems a little too short to assign it with confidence to Myres's (1977, 5–6) sub-biconical wide mouth types.

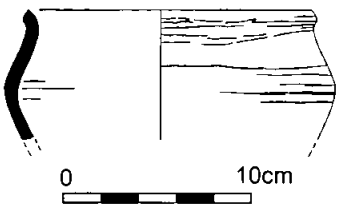


Fig. 34 Possible Anglo-Saxon pottery. Scale 1:4 (PEC & HR)

A further sherd in this fabric was recovered from a posthole in Building 3, but tiny fragments also came from the uppermost fill of Iron Age pit F118. It remains possible therefore that the material is prehistoric in date and residual in the Saxon features.

Fabric F3. A handmade, fairly soft, fairly evenly fired reduced (dark grey) fabric, quite smooth in texture but hackly in fracture, containing abundant ill sorted angular flint of all sizes up to 3mm and sparse organic material appearing as burnt linear vesicles.
Fig. 34. Carinated bowl or jar in fabric F3 (*526*- F210).

Smithing waste by Helen Rees

1.22 kg of smithing waste was recovered from Building 3, and from the top fill of pit F117, *555*. It comprised smithing- and fuel ash slag and part of a hearth bottom, which was too fragmentary to measure. A further 2.44 kg came from Iron Age features F114, F118 and F119, including a hearth bottom measuring around 150 mm in diameter, and it seems possible that this material had found its way into the tops of these features after they had been mostly filled up. The presence also of Roman building material in these contexts (*see* Ceramic Building Material, above) might corroborate this suggestion.

Given the small quantity and the ambiguous distribution of the smithing waste, it is uncertain whether it should be interpreted as evidence that smithing was carried out on the site in the Saxon period. The association with burnt deposits in Building 3 and the ironwork in *555* (above) is suggestive. Unfortunately, due to the limited scope of the excavation, no samples were taken for hammerscale.

DISCUSSION

The Bronze Age period marked the beginning of the extensive use of land, in the form of settlements, enclosures and field systems, particularly on the downland, river valleys and coastal plains of southern Britain. Although no features of Bronze Age date were positively identified at Monk Sherborne, there was a small scatter of Bronze Age pottery; it is possible that some of the unexcavated features within the watching brief area are of this period, or that parts of the prehistoric enclosure system were laid out then.

By the middle Iron Age there was certainly some form of agricultural settlement on site, as testified by the presence of the beehive pits, normally interpreted as grain storage pits. Although badly truncated, this settlement appears to be typical of those found on the chalklands of NE. Hampshire (*cf.* Coe *et al.* 1995). The pottery used at Monk Sherborne compares with that used in the 'middle', 'late' and 'latest' phases at Danebury (Cunliffe 1995, 18), dated from 310 BC to AD 50, although, as only grog tempered late Iron Age ware was present, it is possible that this phase was over before the Roman conquest (*cf.* Timby 2000, 307).

The virtual absence of pottery dating from the conquest period to the later 3rd century AD may reflect a purely a local situation, especially given the small and piecemeal nature of the excavations. What is clear is that the buildings recorded on the site had begun to be erected by the second half of the 3rd century. It is conceivable, from their arrangement, that the house (Building 1) and the timber building (Building 2) enclosed a central courtyard (see Fig. 35 for the suggested arrangement of the buildings); a narrow stub surviving immediately to the NE of the north wing of Building 1 (Fig. 8) may be the remnant of the courtyard wall. In this, the villa would have been similar to other courtyard villas in the region, notably at Sparsholt near Winchester (Johnston 1978, Fig. 25). Feasibly, given its position, the sunken structure flanked the SE side of the complex, although this would have made the courtyard more than 100 m across.

In its original phase, Building 1 is a typical,

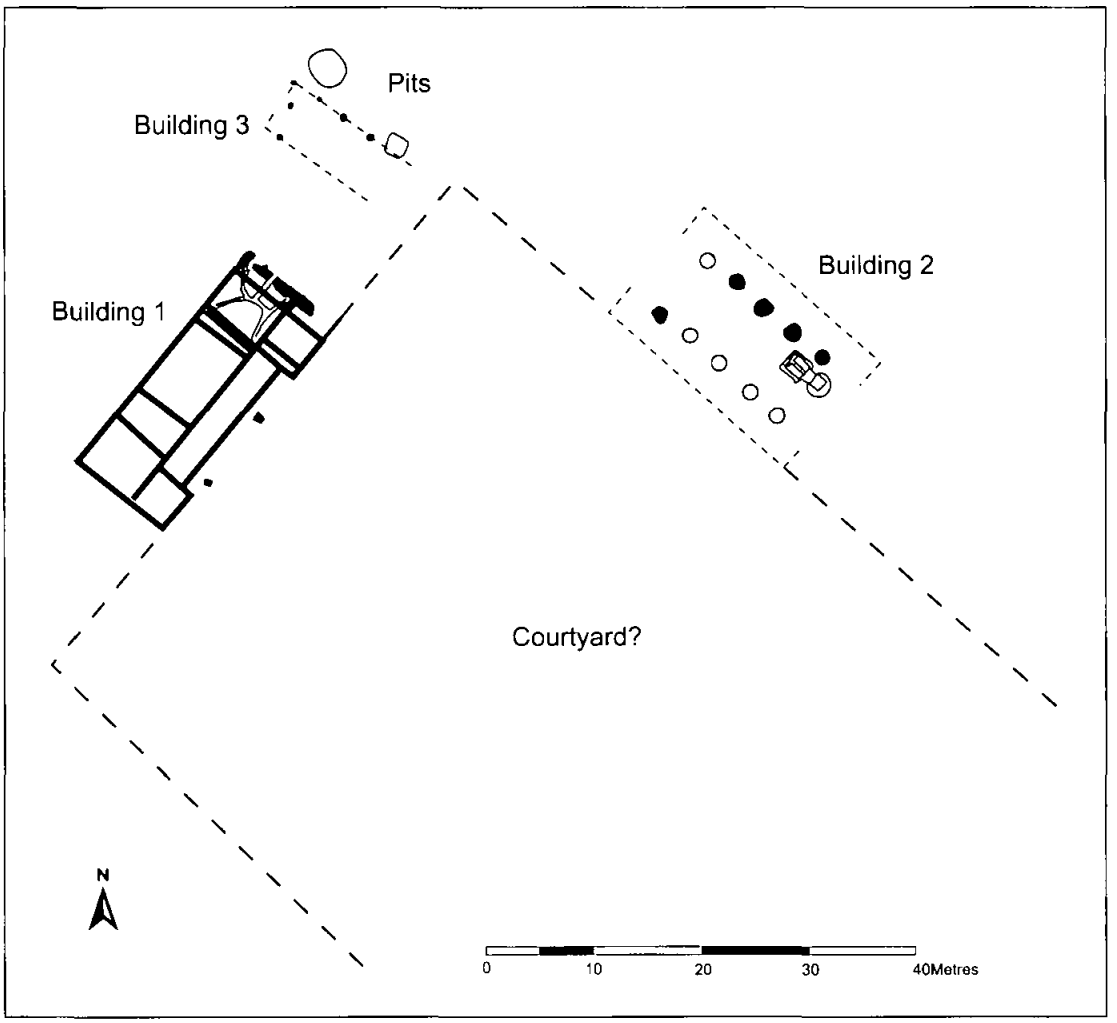


Fig. 35 Suggested arrangement of the buildings

albeit rather small winged corridor house, but poor survival renders any reconstruction of the internal layout and fittings of the building impossible. At least it can be said that the earlier-phase building was not furnished with such luxuries as under floor heating or a bath suite. The similarities in plan and size with the villa building at Sparsholt are again worth noting, although there is a closer resemblance with an early 4th century town house excavated at The Brooks in Winchester (Zant 1993, Fig. 85). However, the Winchester building was much more substantial, its rammed chalk wall footings being more than 2.2 m wide and suggesting a wholly masonry-built structure (Zant 1993, 105). The much narrower and shallower wall footings of the Monk Sherborne house are unlikely to have supported anything more than a half-timbered structure or simply to have acted as sleeper or dwarf walls.

In the remodelling of the north wing of

Building 1, parallels to the Winchester town house can again be cited, notably in the design of the channelled hypocausts. As at Monk Sherborne, the Winchester example has four channel arms radiating from the centre towards the corners of the room, although there the stokehole was also located on one corner. In order to prevent fire damage to the building, the walls of the Monk Sherborne hypocausted room would have had to have been wholly masonry-built and this is reflected in the appreciably more substantial nature of their foundations. It is uncertain whether this remodelling was ever completed; there was no evidence that the hypocaust was fired up, as the stokehole was free of all signs of burning. The compact and consolidated character of the channels' filling may suggest that the hypocaust was abandoned and floored over.

The Monk Sherborne corn-dryer is of the simple T-shaped furnace type (Morris 1979), and is uncommonly well preserved. In particular, it is closely paralleled at the settlements at Durrington (Wiltshire) and Rockborne Down (Hampshire). The typical corn-dryer contains a stoking area, a fireplace, flues, and a drying floor. These essential components are clearly discernible at Monk Sherborne, although there is less certainty about the configuration of the drying floor. Two ways in which floors can be reconstructed are discussed by Morris (1979, 12–15). As there is evidence from the Monk Sherborne dryer that the cross flue was at least partially covered, it is likely that here there was a floor over the main flue with hot air being deflected from the back of the cross flue into the main chamber. The hard clay (*626* in Fig. 15) bonding and sealing the capping tiles for the main channel probably acted as the floor and would have retained much of the of the heat, distributing it in a controlled way and preventing the grain on the floor above from being roasted. The lack of charcoal and scorching within the main channel away from the stoking pit suggests that the temperature within the main chamber was kept at a moderate level. It seems (The Other Environmental Evidence, above) that fine sieved residues from cereal processing were amongst the materials used to fire the corn-dryer, and that it was used to dry at least barley, if not cereal grains. There was little evidence to suggest that malting was involved in the use of the dryer, but, of course, what has been analysed may not be representative.

It is probable that most corn-dryers were within structures such as houses, barns or purpose-built (Morris 1979, 9) and the Monk Sherborne dryer was no exception. Roman aisled buildings in Britain are especially prevalent in the east Midlands and Hampshire and the remains recorded here represent a structure of some substance. The width of the nave is 7.0 m, which is within the range of 5–7 m for the majority of known examples. Its length of 14 m is exactly double the width, again within the range of 2:3 and 2:5 for 74% of known examples (Morris 1979, 64). The exact function of Building 2 is uncertain. Such buildings seem often to have been used for agricultural purposes, such as for stock, storage, drying and possibly threshing, and they may have also served as living quarters for agricultural workers.

It has been suggested (McCulloch 1996) on account of the thick deposit of charcoal from its floor, that the sunken structure formed part of a second corn-dryer. If so it was clearly constructed differently from, and on a much larger scale than the corn-dryer excavated in Building 2. However, at least 1.55 m deep, the feature might plausibly be interpreted as part of a masonry-lined cellar or even a bath. Since nothing of this structure survived in plan, further comment is futile.

Two pits, at least one, probably both of which were used as latrines were located outside the courtyard enclosure and a short distance down wind from the winged corridor house. It seems reasonable to suppose that the debris from these features (apart from the Anglo-Saxon metalwork) derived from its occupation. A similar range of finds (albeit later in date) was recovered from the fill of the corn-dryer, but the higher proportion of butchered animal bone from there perhaps reflects the differing function of Building 2. These features and, to a lesser extent, the sunken structure accounted for most of the finds and environmental material.

Percival (1986, 5) says of villas that an agricul-

tural surplus that is not wholly swallowed up by taxation 'is available for exchange, for the purchase of such equipment as cannot be manufactured on the villa itself, for the construction of new and improved buildings, or for the acquisition of amenities or even luxuries for the owner'. The place of the Monk Sherborne villa in the operation of Percival's 'outside with which it is connected- more specifically, markets, craftsmen and a pattern of exchange' could be assessed through the finds and environmental assemblages. This is hampered by the relatively small size of the sample, but it is felt that some interpretation should be offered, if only in the hope that such questions will be addressed again in the light of new excavation and information.

Loose building materials add a little to what has been recorded *in situ*. Somewhere on the site were walls adorned with painted plaster, or otherwise, veneered. At least part of at least one roof was made of Purbeck limestone tiles. Hardly surprisingly, *opus signinum* was used. Evidence for tessellated surfaces is scarce, and for mosaics, non-existent, but this may be affected by sample bias. The ceramic springer voussoirs and the hexagonal ceramic tiles paint a somewhat different picture, suggesting that a building or buildings of high status, or at least, unusual construction stood on the site. These need not have been any of the recorded structures, however.

Amongst the smaller artefacts, household objects predominate, with personal possessions reasonably well-represented. Given the sample size, the presence of relatively unusual items such as the glass vessels and the shale furniture is worth noting. The East Gaulish pottery carafe is also quite uncommon: they are moderately rare, even on the Continent (Symonds 1992, 47, 56). There is also some suggestion that not everyone had equal access to black burnished pottery of the quality made in south-east Dorset and found in quantity at Monk Sherborne (Allen & Fulford 1996, 265–71).

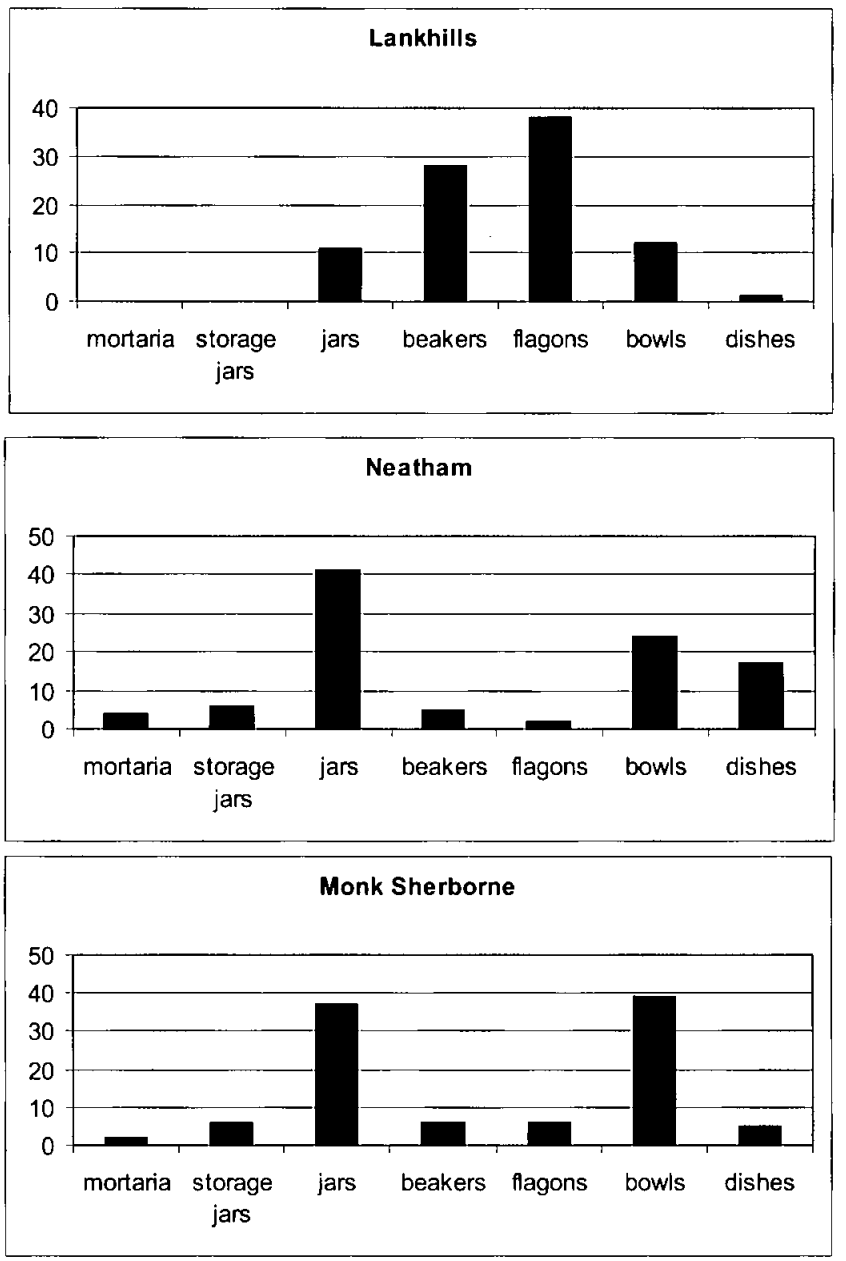
Nevertheless, comparison with the small town at Neatham, about 20 km from Monk Sherborne on the Winchester – London road (Millett & Graham 1986) militates against a claim of great wealth and status for the users of the excavated part of the villa. Neatham also produced East Gaulish wares, both Moselkeramik and samian, as well as glass and shale, and its lack of black burnished pottery from Dorset may simply be due to the proximity to the site of the Alice Holt/ Farnham kilns (Millett 1986, 90).

There is little evidence for fancy foodstuffs from Monk Sherborne. Grant (2000, 481) relates the strong representation of pig at the Silchester basilica to the presumed high status of that site, whilst the proportion of pig from Monk Sherborne is low. The fish remains suggest contact with the coast, perhaps, it may be implied (*see* Faunal Remains, above) *via* redistribution from the *civitas* capital. However, this probably merely means that the occupants of the villa ate fish pickle with their meals.

Animal husbandry seems to have been mainly founded on the raising of cattle and sheep/goat, with meat predominant, and perhaps milk, wool and power (traction) as the most important secondary products. There was no evidence for the specialist butchery of cattle like that found in the nearby Roman towns of Winchester (Maltby 1989 & forthcoming) and Silchester (Grant 2000, 481). Evidence for other crafts was also scarce. The small quantity of slag might suggest that smithing took place nearby: this need only to have been for the manufacture of fittings such as nails and the repair of essential tools rather than a specialist industry.

For the main part, the evidence from the buildings, the loose building materials, the artefacts and bones suggests a measure of Romanised comfort rather than a vastly superior and luxurious lifestyle. Contact with the 'outside' is perceived to be a normal rather than exceptional part of the pattern, except perhaps for the unusual types of ceramic tile. The details are unclear, however: for now, Allen and Fulford's (1996, 244) Portway Corridor (*see* Roman Pottery, above) is the obvious source of black burnished pottery, shale and Purbeck roofing tile, but perhaps other corridors will be identified through systematic work of this kind in the future.

The possibility that some of the bone assemblages are special deposits has been raised (*see* Faunal Remains, above) and it has been suggested that the other finds from the site could be assessed in the same light. In Fig. 36, pottery forms from



Lankhills, after Fulford 1979, % no. of vessels
Neatham, after Millett 1986, 90–2, Fig 69
Monk Sherborne, % EVE in F117, F121 & F133/ 134

Fig. 36 Comparison of pottery forms

Monk Sherborne (F117, F121 and F133/134) have been compared with those from the 4th century cemetery at Lankhills, Winchester, a place with known special deposits; and with assemblages dating after *c.* 270 from Neatham, a site assumed to be associated mainly with domestic use of pottery. The functional balance at Monk Sherborne compares better with Neatham than with Lankhills, as at Lankhills beakers and flagons far outweigh jars, bowls and dishes, whereas at Neatham and Monk Sherborne the reverse is true. Further, storage jars and mortaria are present in small quantities at Neatham and Monk Sherborne, but totally absent from Lankhills. This suggests that the pottery from Monk Sherborne is a typical domestic assemblage.

However, it could be noted that the evidence for special animal and bird deposits from the later Roman phase of the Silchester basilica (Grant 2000, 474–9) is not matched in the functional balance of the pottery, which compares well with Neatham and Monk Sherborne (*cf.* Timby 2000, 301, table 43). Further comparative work of this kind might serve to differentiate between kinds of special deposit.

The recovery of the Frankish belt fittings demonstrates an Anglo-Saxon presence on the site. Although these do not provide direct dating for Building 3, the closeness of the find spot is suggestive. Another strand in the dating evidence is the fact that the enclosure ditch F115/212 respected the alignment of Building 3, but must have been dug after Building 1 had been completely levelled. Building 3 was positioned perpendicular to, and apparently against and respecting the line of the courtyard wall of the villa (Fig. 35). This implies that the courtyard, if not some of the structures arranged around it were still standing when Building 3 was constructed.

If the enclosure ditch is viewed as a late feature of the Anglo-Saxon landscape (the stratigraphic evidence would allow this), it is possible to postulate direct continuity of settlement between the 4th century and the Anglo-Saxon period, focused on the area of Building 3 at Monk Sherborne. Such a scenario has been documented elsewhere, for example at Orton Hall Farm, Peterborough (Mackreth 1978). There, a 5th or 6th century structure, of similar dimensions to the building found at Monk Sherborne and other Anglo-Saxon features were arranged around, and respected the buildings and courtyard of a Roman farmstead or villa. This has been suggested to represent a planned settlement of barbarian groups within a fully developed Roman landscape.

However, as there is nothing datable that fills the gap between the later 4th and the 7th centuries at Monk Sherborne, it is equally plausible that the entire villa complex stood deserted and partially in ruins at the time of the construction of Building 3. This poverty of dating evidence has been noted for Orton Hall Farm and other sites for which continuity has been claimed (Millett 1990, 223–4). The implication is that where a gap in time can neither be proved nor disproved, it impossible to say whether 'Anglo-Saxon' occupation is genuinely by a new group of people, by the acculturated descendants of the old, or by any and all shades in between.

The Anglo-Saxon site at Monk Sherborne is situated only 4 km to the NW of the contemporary settlement at Cowdery's Down (Millett 1983). It has been argued that this settlement was of high status, on account of the large size and architectural pretension of its buildings. As few contemporary sites are known in the area, the hypothesis is difficult to test (Millett 1983, 247–8). However, the Anglo-Saxon belt fittings and evidence for metalworking from Monk Sherborne could represent a different function in the settlement hierarchy: a place used by craftsmen rather than the upper echelons of society, and a spatial separation of the élite from those that provided ancilliary services.

The known area of Building 3 at Monk Sherborne, at 42.63 m^2 is certainly quite small compared with Cowdery's Down (Millett 1983, 248, table 7), but it may be that its full extent lay beyond the limit of the excavation (Figs. 29–30). Similarly, there was little indication that very substantial foundations supported the structure, but such evidence may have been lost to the plough. There is a hint that the building was reliant on the support of the courtyard wall of the Roman villa at its NE end, which might in turn suggest that its construction was rather ramshackle, but this is also open to speculation. In any case, the structure

could well have been an outbuilding or lean-to, rather than permanently inhabited.

As Cowdery's Down was fully excavated and much better preserved than what survived at Monk Sherborne such comparisons are probably invidious. In any event, the full story of why the metalwork was buried, and why its burier subsequently failed to reclaim it is one that the archaeological record alone cannot tell.

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