

The Excavation of Iron Age Ditches and a Medieval Farmstead at Allcourt Farm, Little London, Lechlade, 1999

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INTRODUCTION

Location, Topography and Geology

Following an evaluation in 1998, excavation in advance of property development at Little London, Lechlade, was carried out by Oxford Archaeology (OA) between May and November 1999 on behalf of Beechcroft Developments Ltd. The excavation was secured as a condition of planning permission granted by Cotswold District Council. The development area comprised a parcel of land of *c.*1.6 ha located to the west of the historic centre of Lechlade (OS Nat. Grid SU 2110 9950). The site is bounded to the south by the High Street, to the west by The Loders and by a number of properties to the north and north-east (Fig. 1). It lies *c.*150 m north of the Thames and the ground slopes gently from north to south, dropping from 76 m OD to 72.5 m OD. The British Geological Survey sheet 252 shows the site lying on the boundary of the second gravel terrace of the River Thames. The gravel is overlain toward the south of the site by river drift alluvium.

Archaeological and Historical Background (Fig. 1)

There have been a considerable number of archaeological investigations around Lechlade, largely as a result of gravel extraction, and (more recently) in advance of housing development around the town.

Prehistoric

North of Lechlade is a Neolithic cursus (Barclay *et al.* 2003), which became the focus of a complex of early prehistoric monuments, including a linear barrow cemetery (Boyle *et al.* 1998, 2–3). Late Neolithic pits were found at The Loders (Darvill *et al.* 1986), only 50 m west of Little London.

In the late Bronze Age/early Iron Age the land between the Rivers Leach and Thames appears to have been divided by two NE–SW major ditched boundaries (Jennings, in Boyle *et al.* 1998, fig. 2.9).

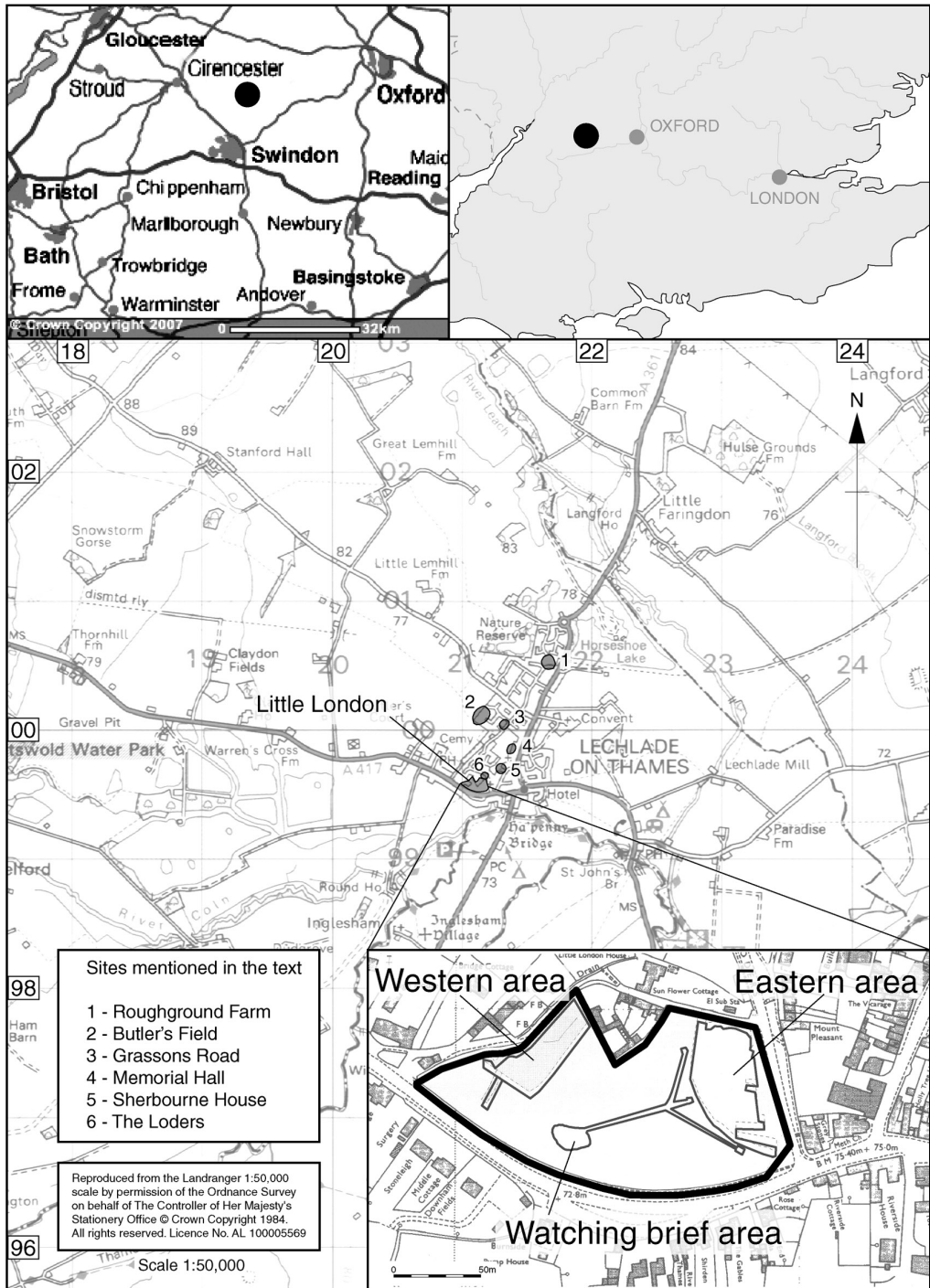


Fig. 1. Site location.

A southern continuation of the more easterly ditch was found at Sherborne House (*pace* Bateman *et al.* 2003, figs 6 and 8) and here the recutting of the ditch was dated to the Middle Iron Age.

Subdivisions occur in the form of ditches (continuous and interrupted), pit alignments and posthole rows, and dispersed and small-scale settlement is common, the closest to Little London being at The Loders (Darvill *et al.* 1986). In the Middle Iron Age activity is less widespread, but the Sherborne House excavations revealed a dense cluster of pits and two roundhouse gullies, perhaps indicating some settlement nucleation. The Middle Iron Age also sees the start of the shifting occupation of the lower-lying first gravel terrace islands in the Cotswold Water Park to the south-west, which intensifies in the Late Iron Age (Jennings *et al.* 2004; Miles *et al.* 2007).

Close to Little London a large amount of unstratified Roman pottery dating from the late 1st–3rd century AD was found both at the Loders and at Sherborne House, although no features were identified. This was possibly derived from manuring from the large Roman enclosure known from cropmarks south-west of Gassons Road (Boyle *et al.* 1998, fig. 1.3). There was also extensive Roman settlement to the south-west at Claydon Pike (Miles *et al.* 2007) and Thornhill Farm (Jennings *et al.* 2004) and a villa at Roughground Farm to the north (Allen *et al.* 1993).

Anglo-Saxon

The principal evidence of Saxon activity in the area is represented by the extensive cemetery at Butler's Field, some 300 m north of the study area (Boyle *et al.* 1998), and by excavation of land to the rear of Sherborne House, *c.*150 m to the north of the development area, which revealed the remains of six sunken-featured buildings, a post-built structure and associated pits and ditches (Bateman *et al.* 2003). This indicates a significant focus of early Saxon settlement. Air photographs also show rectangular features that may represent further sunken-featured buildings to the east of the cemetery and north of Sherborne House. Saxon pottery has been retrieved just to the south of these cropmarks. South of Sherborne House the excavations at The Loders produced a quantity of early Saxon pottery, although no contemporary features were identified.

Medieval

The earliest documentary reference to Lechlade is in 1066, when the 15-hide manor of Lechlade was held by Siward, probably Siward Barn, a great nephew of Edward the Confessor (VCH VII, 111). At the time of the Domesday Survey of 1086 the manor was held by Henry de Ferrers and three mills, a fishery of 175 eels and 53 inhabitants are mentioned. The earliest mention of 'Lechlade' is when a market was granted in 1210. The mention of a borough court in 1235 indicates that Lechlade's development was very rapid in the early 13th century, the borough becoming a staging post for goods and passenger traffic. It was located at the head of the Thames and St John's Bridge, built in 1228 *c.*1 km east of the town, carried the main road from much of Gloucestershire to London. The bridge provided a crossing of the Thames near its confluence with the Leach, within a piece of land known as the Lade in 1246; this probably gave the parish its name (VCH VII, 106 and Leech 1981, 49). An indicator of its wealth is suggested by the Poll Tax returns of 1381, which recorded *c.*138 individuals including 44 tradesmen (VCH VII, 110).

The development site lies just to the west of the known area of the medieval town and just to the south of the possible line of the medieval road from Cirencester to Lechlade. The development site has been identified as the possible location of the capital messuage (large house) of All Court, which is recorded as being a two-hide estate formerly belonging to Peter atte Hall, but by 1326 was divided among a large number of owners (VCH VII, 114). Originally the Cirencester road entered the town from the west side by way of the hamlet of Little London, skirting north of

the All Court estate. The continuous property boundary at the back of the burgage plots on the north side of the High Street east of the site may represent the course of the road as it continued eastward to join St John's Street before leaving the town to the east towards the river bridge. The present High Street may have been created as the borough was founded, causing the main road, having passed Little London, to veer southwards to meet it. Not until 1774 was the road line straightened to run along the south side of the study area (VCH VII, 107).

Post-Medieval

In the post-medieval period trade (particularly in cheese, coal and corn) continued to play an important part in the life of the town (Leech 1981, 49). The Tithe Apportionment of 1838 refers to the development area as 'Parker's Close and All Court', land owned and occupied by William Gearing Esq, and used as pasture. The small group of buildings to the north of the field are listed in the Apportionment as 'cottages and gardens', and 'yard and pasture', owned and occupied by various individuals (GDR, T 1/113).

Excavation Methodology (Fig. 2)

The site was initially evaluated by eight evaluation trenches (OAU 1998), which did not reveal the full density or complexity of the site. Area excavation was undertaken on two areas within the

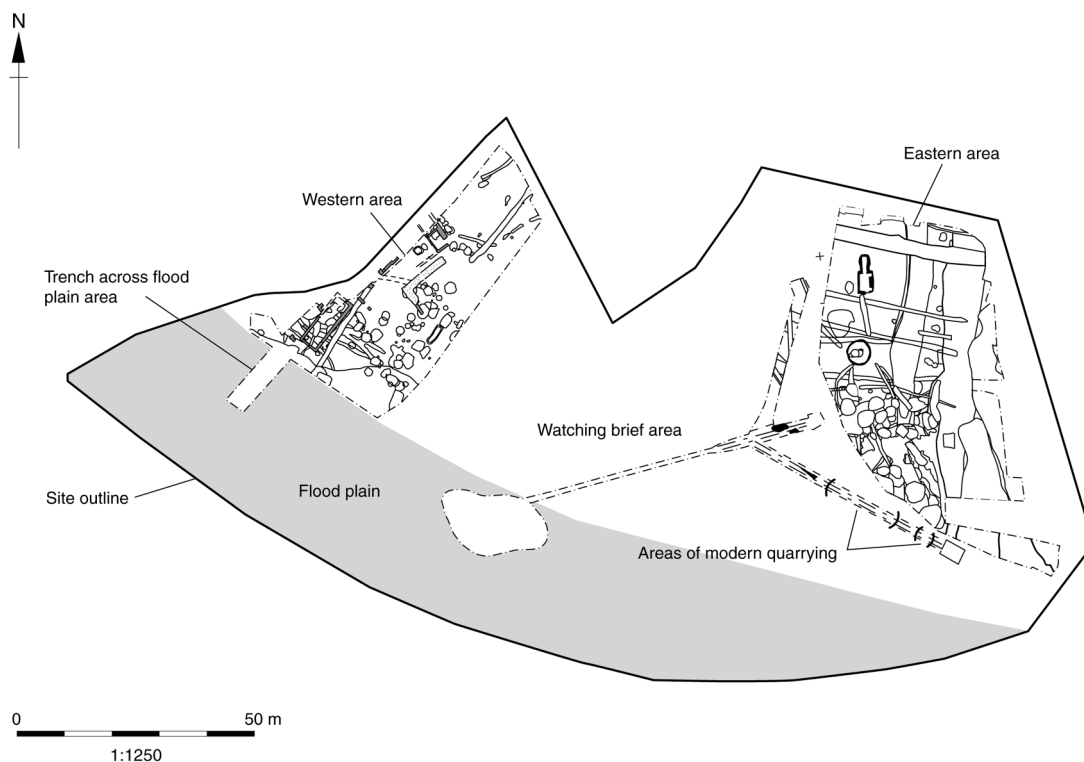


Fig. 2. Combined watching brief and excavation areas (western area buildings not shown).

development site. The eastern area measured $c.61 \times 36$ m and the western area 59×35 m at their maximum extents. A watching brief was maintained on the construction of drain runs linking the two excavations. All recording followed standard OA procedure (Wilkinson 1992).

Due to the unexpected density of archaeological features, and the consequent costs to the developer, the scope of excavation in the western area was limited to the impact depth of the proposed foundation trenches. This meant that the bottoms of the deeper pits of the earliest phase and the low-lying area at the south end were not fully excavated.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

General Results

The horizon into which the archaeological features were cut comprised sandy gravel. The features themselves were represented by ditches, pits and partially robbed footings for stone-built structures with associated make-up, floor layers and stone surfaces. Where stone buildings and spreads were revealed, only the overburden was removed by machine; elsewhere the gravel terrace was exposed, into which the archaeological features were cut.

Six phases of archaeological activity were revealed, determined by a combination of stratigraphy, artefactual and scientific dating, and spatial relationships (Table 1). The first four phases of these were present only in the eastern area, with the western area revealing only medieval and post-medieval activity assigned to the final three phases. The watching brief revealed activity considered to be restricted to Phases 5 and 6.

Table 1: Site Phasing

Phase and chronological span	Excavation area
Phase 1 early Iron Age (mid 8th–mid 4th C BC)	East
Phase 2 middle Iron Age (mid 4th–mid 1st C BC)	East
Phase 3 Roman (mid 1st–early 5th C)	East
Phase 4 Saxon (mid 5th–late 11th C)	East
Phase 5 medieval (late 11th–late 13th C)	East, West, Watching Brief
Phase 6 medieval (late 13th–15th C plus)	East, West, Watching Brief
Phase 7 late medieval–post-medieval (late 15th– $c.17$ th C)	West

The Eastern Area

Phase 1: Early Iron Age (mid 8th–mid 4th century BC) (Fig. 3)

The early Iron Age evidence comprised a substantial ditch (1238) orientated NE–SW running down the eastern side of the site, which judging from its size must have defined a substantial land boundary. It was exposed for a distance of $c.65$ m, measuring 6–7 m wide and 1.25 m deep with up to nine fills of silty clay with moderate to frequent inclusions of gravel. To the west of ditch 1238 was a line of seven pits, comprising 1026, 1120, 1121, 1197, 1200, 1203 and 1583; the pits were generally sub-circular in plan and averaged 1.21 m in diameter by 0.39 m in depth. Their fills largely comprised sandy silts with frequent inclusions of gravel, although the fill of pit 1026 was largely made up of gravel with a small amount of sandy silt. Abutting ditch 1238, on its western side, was a smaller ditch at right angles (1223), perhaps a field or enclosure boundary. It was

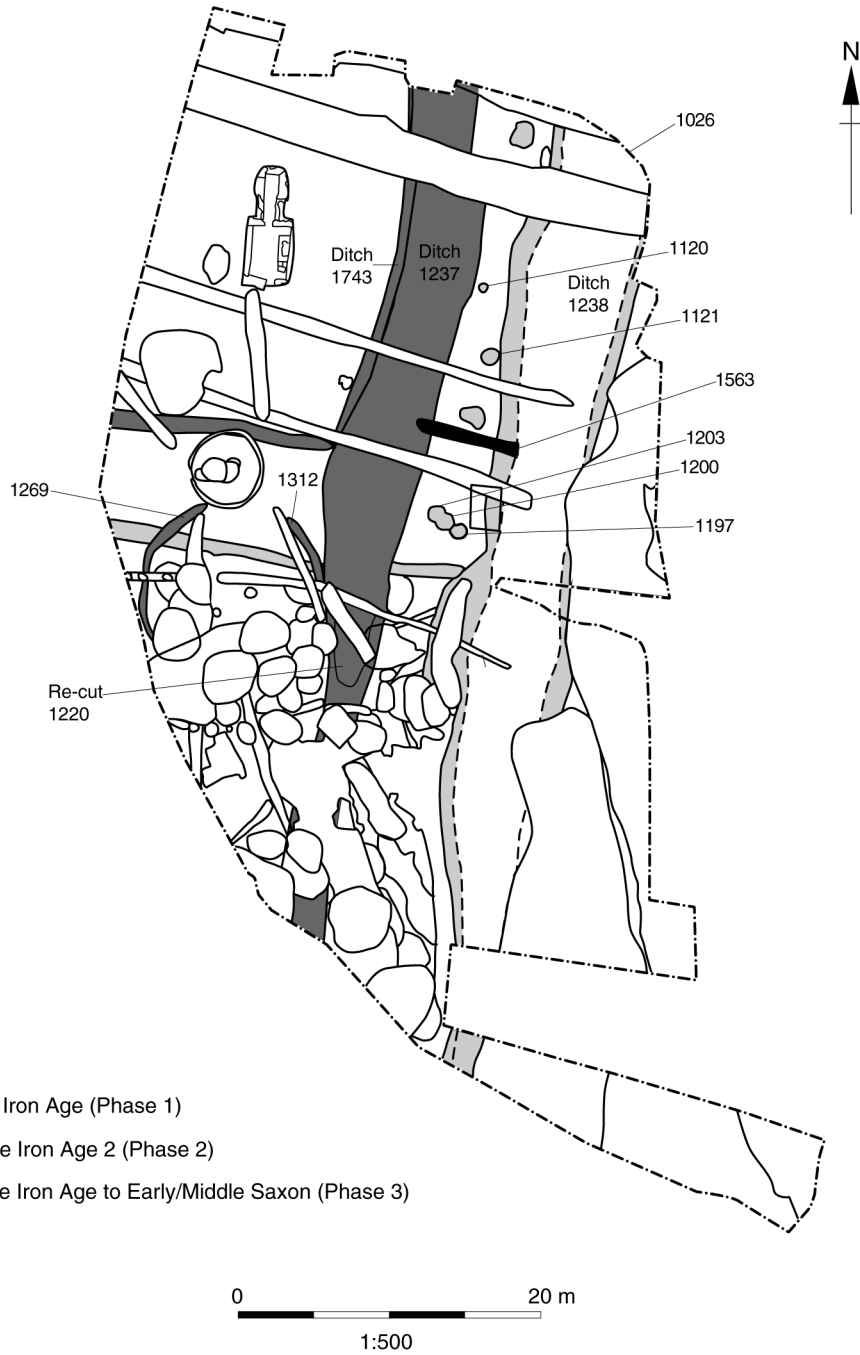


Fig. 3. The eastern area – prehistoric activity.

exposed for *c.*24.5 m, averaging 0.95 m in width by 0.32 m in depth, and was filled by a clayey silt with frequent inclusions of gravel.

Phase 2: Middle Iron Age (mid 4th–mid 1st century BC) (Fig. 3)

By the middle Iron Age ditch 1238 had largely silted up, although it is clear that a shallow earthwork survived until at least the 6th century AD, as Roman and Saxon pottery from the upper fills shows that the silting process was ongoing throughout these periods. Ditch 1238 was replaced by a parallel and even larger ditch (1237) to its west. Ditch 1237 was exposed for a length of *c.*58 m with a maximum width of 6 m and a depth of 1.8 m. Its fills largely comprised gravel and sandy gravel interspersed with layers of sandy silt. A single recut (1220) was visible for a distance of 2.5 m at its southern end, though this was only 0.50 m deep. Generally the ditch was filled by thinly-banded gravel slump layers interspersed with gradual silt accumulations. The fills contained middle Iron Age pottery and fired clay. On the west side of ditch 1237 was a shallow gully on the same orientation (1743). This was exposed for a distance of 23 m and measured 0.8 m wide by 0.25 m deep. The fills comprised sandy silt with frequent inclusions of gravel. Another gully (1075) ran at right angles to ditch 1237 from the southern end of ditch 1743 to the east and beyond the edge of excavation to the west, suggesting the presence of an enclosure against the west of ditch 1237. No stratigraphic relationship between ditch 1237 and ditches 1743 and 1075 was observed during excavation, but it is probable that this enclosure was aligned on the boundary defined by ditch 1237.

To the south of ditch 1075 and the west of ditch 1237 was a substantial ring gully (1269/1312). It measured 12 m in diameter by 0.71 m wide and 0.28 m deep, with a 5 m-wide gap for an entrance to the north defined by two termini. The ring gully was filled by a clayey silt with frequent inclusions of gravel and large concentrations of middle Iron Age pottery, particularly in the north-eastern terminal. A radiocarbon date was sought from the animal bone from the primary fill of this terminal, but the determination failed. A single short stretch of ditch (1563), orientated east–west and measuring 7 m long by 0.80 m wide and 0.60 m deep, filled by a sandy silt with frequent inclusions of gravel cut middle Iron Age ditch 1237 and early Iron Age ditch 1238, but was overlain by the upper Roman and Saxon fills of ditch 1238. On stratigraphic grounds this feature is likely to have dated to the middle or late Iron Age, but its fill produced only a few sherds of residual early Iron Age pottery and two sherds of possible Saxon (and therefore intrusive) pottery.

Phase 3: Roman (mid 1st–early 5th century)

No features were assigned to the Roman period, but Roman pottery accumulated in the upper fills of ditch 1238, suggesting that this feature must have survived as a hollow in this period.

Phase 4: Saxon (early 5th–late 11th century)

The upper (silty clay) fills of early Iron Age ditch 1238 produced pottery and part of an annular loomweight dating to the early/middle Saxon period, but there is no evidence of any Saxon features on the site. It seems likely that, as the ditch silted up, Saxon material was incorporated into the upper fills from a nearby settlement, conceivably that at Sherborne House.

Phase 5: Medieval (late 11th–late 13th century) (Fig. 4)*Ditches*

The earliest medieval features comprised a group of four ditches (1016, 1032, 1021 and 1096) that ran across the eastern area from north-west to south-east. Ditch 1016 averaged 2.5 m wide by 0.9 m deep and was filled by sequences of silty clay with frequent inclusions of gravel. Partly-revealed ditch 1032 may have been of similar size, both features possibly representing roadside drainage ditches. The two shallower ditches to the south (1021 and 1096) may have been subsidiary divisions of the contemporary area.

Palisade trench 1768

To the south of ditch 1096 was palisade trench 1768, which ran 26 m from the western edge of the excavation, ending part way across boundary ditch 1238 and cutting the latest (Saxon) fills. The trench averaged 0.80 m wide and was up to 1.3 m deep. A gap defined by two rounded terminals was identified 5.5 m from the western limit of the excavation area, forming an entrance 1 m wide. Excavation of the palisade trench revealed a flat base, sharp vertical sides and a line of post-pipes 0.40 m in diameter set at *c.*0.50 m intervals centre to centre, which had been packed around with gravel. No pottery or other artefacts were found. Two samples of animal bone from this feature were submitted for radiocarbon dating, but the dates of 310–200 cal. BC and 380–200 cal. BC (95% confidence) respectively show that the bones were both residual.

Structure 1067 (Figs 4 and 5, Plate 1)

Structure 1067 was located in the north-west corner of the eastern area, just to the north of gully 1057. The structure was built within a flat-bottomed pit (1542) cut into the gravel terrace and consisted of a square oven, a flue and a rake-out chamber that together measured 8.0 m long by 3.4 m wide. The stone-lined oven had three walls (1732, 1735, and 1736) with sides battered at an angle of 70–80°, measuring 2 m square and surviving 0.94 m high, and was served on the south side by a stone-walled flue (1733, 1734) measuring 1.90 m long by 0.80 m wide and 0.80 m high. The uppermost surviving courses were corbelled inwards, indicating that the original flue structure was probably barrel-vaulted. The flue led to a rectangular undercroft (1612) defined by walls (1676, 1677, 1737, and 1738) and measuring 4.5 m long by 3.4 m wide and 0.70 m deep. The northern part of this structure acted as a rake-out area. A stair of three stone steps (1676) against the eastern wall (1740) provided access down to the floor, and there was a gap in the line of the southern wall with a vertical slot down the surviving eastern side (1739), which may have held the jamb for an opening.

The building materials used in the construction comprised roughly-dressed limestone blocks bonded with a silt and gravel mixture. Overlying the natural in the base of the flue was a surface (1614) comprising limestone cobbles. No built surfaces were found within the rest of the structure. Burnt deposits representing the use of the structure were, however, found overlying the base of all three structural elements. These deposits contained the charred remains of multiple species of arable crops, along with common arable weeds in varying proportions. A sequence of samples was recovered, enabling a CPR profile of the entire structure to be reconstructed, illustrating the drying processes taking place (see Smith, below). A radiocarbon determination on some of this material gave a date range of 1180–1275 cal. AD (Table 2, below).

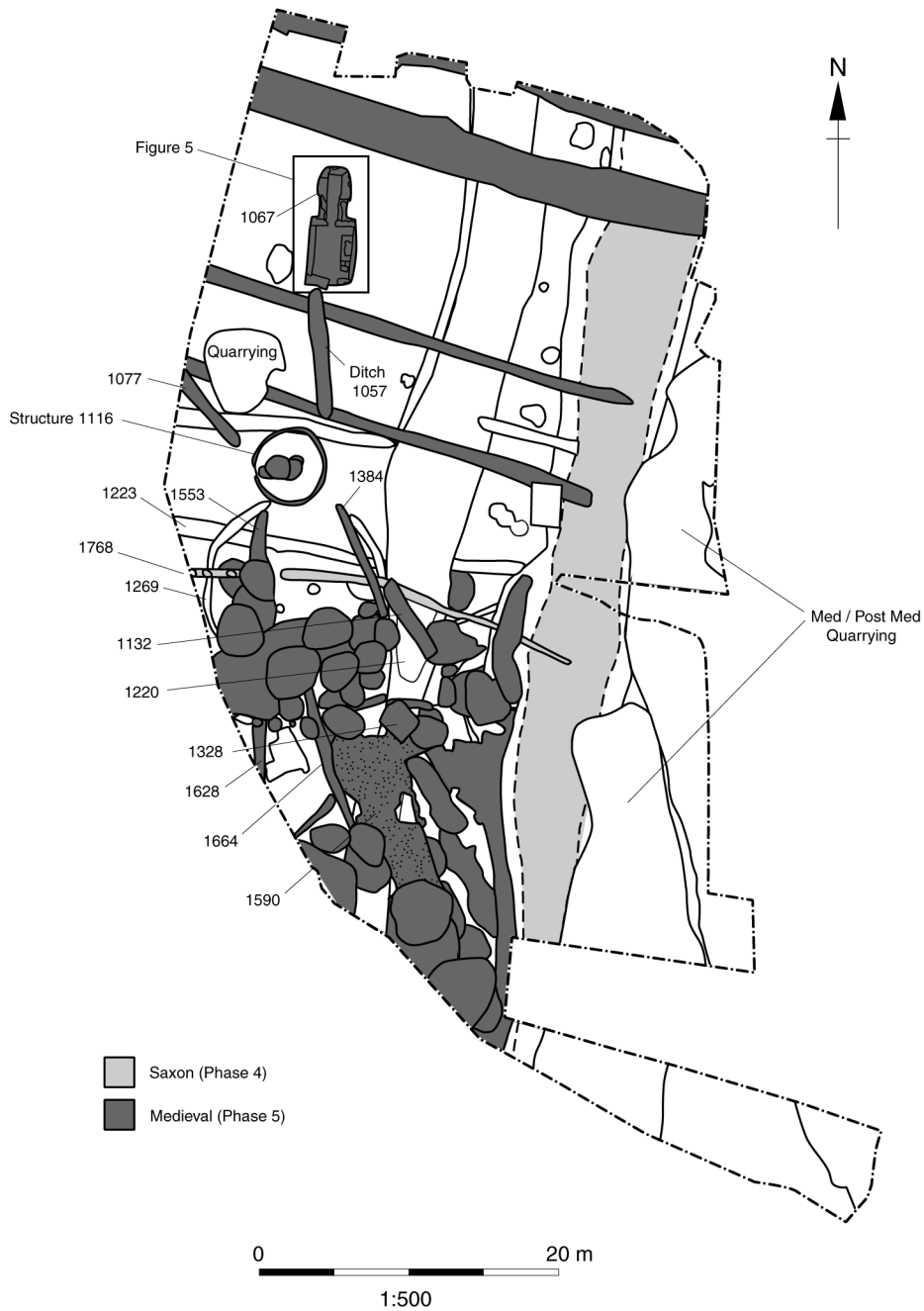


Fig. 4. The eastern area – Saxon and medieval activity.

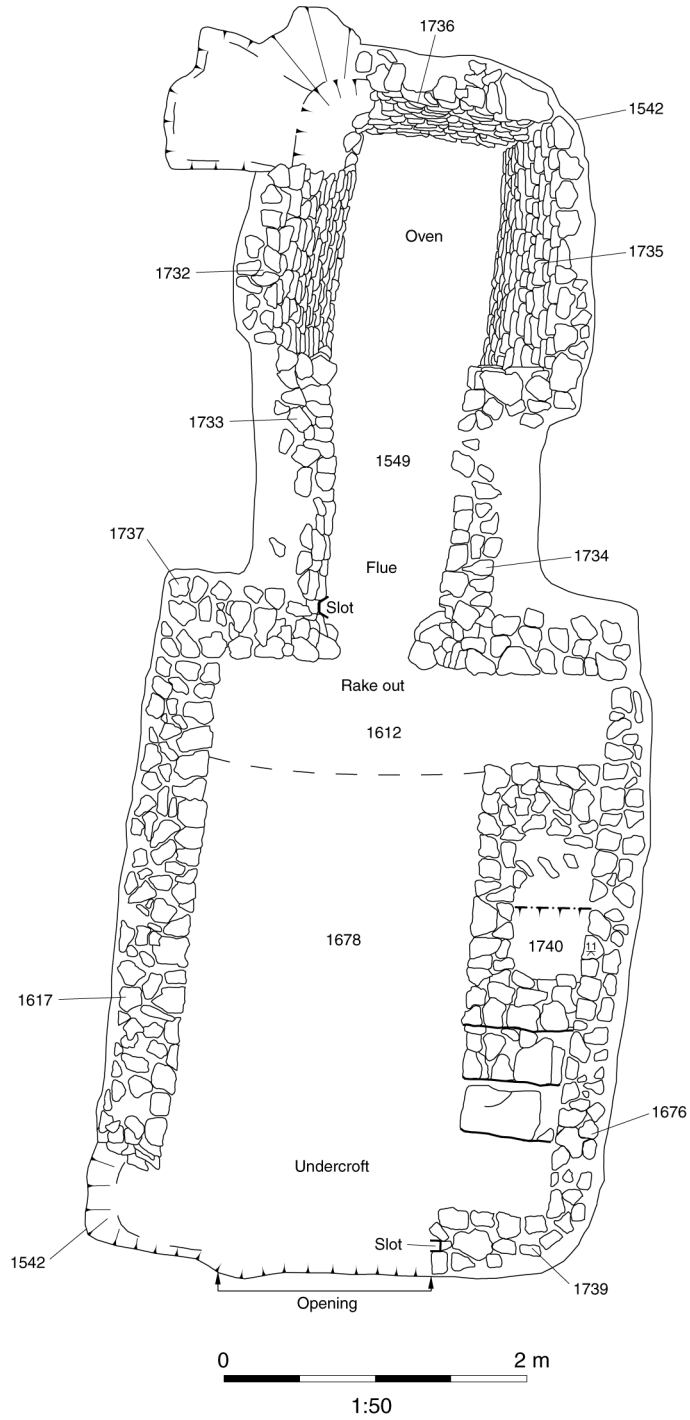


Fig. 5. Corn drier.



Plate 1. Corn drier

Demolition of structures 1067 and 1116 in the eastern area

Structure 1116, being relatively insubstantial, may have been left to disintegrate naturally, but the drying kiln 1067 displayed clear evidence of deliberate demolition of its superstructure. Throughout the structure the backfill consisted of a high percentage of limestone rubble, which overlay relatively undisturbed layers of burnt material, supporting the idea of a sudden cessation of activity.

The medieval structures, pits and ditches from the eastern area generally produced late 11th to 13th-century pottery, making them broadly contemporary with the Phase 5 features from the western area. However, it is also possible that the use of these features overlapped with the construction and use of the western area Phase 6 buildings in the early 13th century.

Phases 6 and 7: Late Medieval and Post-Medieval (late 13th–18th century) (Fig. 4)

Quarry pits in the south-west part of the eastern area

The south-west part of the eastern area was dominated by a dense group of intercutting pits, which cut earlier gullies (1057, 1077, 1132, 1384, 1553, 1628 and 1664) and surface 1590 and were probably dug as quarry pits for gravel. The pits were generally sub-circular in plan, averaging 2.5 m in diameter by 0.4 m in depth, and were largely filled with clay silts or silty sands. All the fills had frequent inclusions of gravel. The pits contained late 11th- to 13th-century pottery

and one of them (1255) produced part of an articulated dog skeleton. The date of the pottery is contemporary with the use of the oven (dated by radiocarbon to the late 12th–late 13th century), the dovecote and the associated ditches. As the pits are stratigraphically later than these features, it is reasonable to accept that their finds assemblages must be largely residual. The lack of later medieval pottery from the quarry pits – contemporary with their excavation – is a result of the absence of domestic activity in the eastern area once structures 1067 and 1116 had gone out of use.

Some evidence of relatively modern quarrying was noted, particularly on the eastern side of the site, against the eastern side of ditch 1238, but no features or finds were recovered to suggest any occupation of the site in the late medieval/post-medieval period. It is reasonable to conclude that, once the area was quarried, it reverted to agricultural land, most probably pasture. This possibility is supported by the evidence of a stone-lined cistern (1382), the latest structure in the eastern area, which cut one of the backfilled quarry pits (1380). The structure measured 2 m square by 0.60 m deep and comprised a square, almost vertical cut lined with limestone slabs. The fill comprised clay and fragments of rough-hewn limestone and contained 53 sherds of pottery of 11th- to early 13th-century date.

The Western Area

Phases 1–4: Mid 8th century BC–late 11th century AD

No features or deposits definitely associated with these phases were recovered from this area, although redeposited early Iron Age and 1st- to 4th-century AD pottery was recovered from medieval features.

Phase 5: Late 11th–early 13th century (Fig. 6)

Ditches 2628 and 2498

Ditches 2498 and 2628 were aligned NE–SW and possibly marked parallel boundaries of a similar date, pre-dating the establishment of the boundary marked by ditch 2500 and its associated pit alignment (see below). Ditch 2498 was 8.50 m long by 0.75 m wide and 0.12 m deep and filled with a sandy silt with frequent inclusions of gravel. Ditch 2628 was exposed for a distance of 3 m, but ran beyond the limit of excavation to the south-west. It measured 0.9 m wide by 0.12 m deep and was filled with a silty sand with occasional inclusions of gravel. Ditch 2498 may have been associated with three unexcavated ditch segments to its north-east and an unexcavated ditch in the north-west corner of the site, which ran parallel to them. Stratigraphically these two ditches predate all the medieval features in the complex, but they contained pottery dating between the late 11th and early 13th centuries.

Ditch group 2623

Ditch group 2623 comprised a series of intercutting, broadly linear ditches on an east–west alignment running across the southern part of the site. These ditches were exposed for a distance of *c.*21 m and averaged 0.9 m wide by 0.37 m deep. The ditch fills comprised sandy clay with frequent inclusions of gravel. This ditch group appeared to define the southerly extent of the drier terrace.

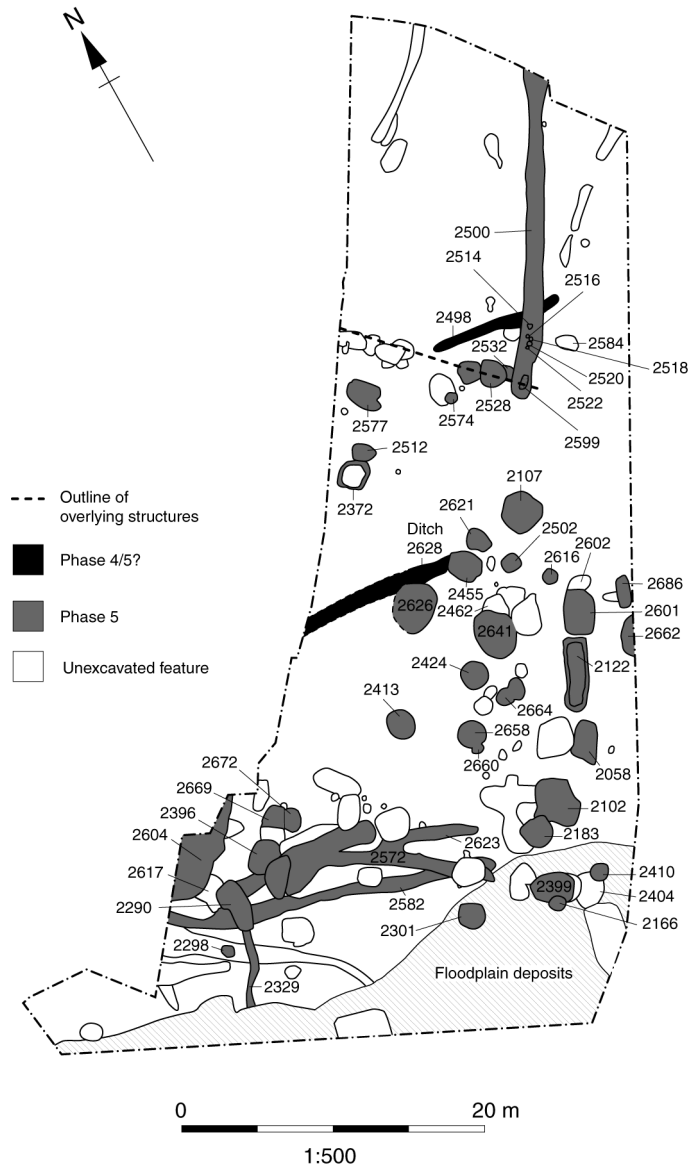


Fig. 6. The western area – phase 5.

Pits associated with ditch group 2623

Ditch group 2623 was associated with a number of sub-circular pits, which were grouped around (and in some cases cut by) the ditch group. They were generally sub-circular in plan, averaging 2.21 m in diameter by 0.48 m deep, and were filled with silty clay with occasional gravel inclusions. Several of these pits continued the line of the ditch group further east and may have represented a continuation of the boundary. Pit 2025 contained a complete jar in south-west Oxfordshire ware.

The floodplain deposits south of the buildings

A trench 27.5 m long by 3.6 m wide and 0.70 m deep was cut into the accumulated layers of alluvium lying to the south of the excavated features (Fig. 2). The trench exposed a sequence of alluvial silts representing accumulated flooding deposits (2008, 2005, 2004, 2003 and 2002) lying in natural hollows at the edge of the floodplain. The edge of these deposits was exposed in the excavated area and was very irregular, suggesting periodic flooding events. A shallow ditch (2007), which was not seen in plan, cut the earliest layer in the sequence (2008) and was filled by an alluvial silt (2006); this was overlain in turn by layers 2004, 2003 and 2002. Fill 2006 produced four sherds of 11th-century pottery, while layers 2004 and 2003 produced six and four sherds of 12th-century pottery respectively, and layer 2002 produced eight sherds of 16th-century pottery. The correspondence of the chronological progression of this pottery with the stratigraphy suggests that the deposits may have accumulated between the 11th and 16th centuries, perhaps through seasonal flooding events.

Pit group in the centre of the western area

The central area of the western site contained a group of pits containing pottery of late 11th- to early 13th-century date. The pits were generally sub-circular in plan, although certain of them, including 2058, 2122 and 2601, were rectangular. They averaged 1.95 m in diameter by 0.72 m deep and were filled with silty clay with occasional inclusions of gravel. Some of these pits (2058, 2122, 2502, 2601, 2616, 2621, 2626, 2664 and 2662) contained similar pottery assemblages to ditch group 2623 and may have loosely defined the edge of activity associated with the boundary of a property to their west. Pottery from other pits (2107, a recut of 2372, 2424, 2455, 2641, 2658 and 2686) had a more restricted date range (early 12th–early 13th century) and these may therefore be slightly later than the initial laying out of the property. Several of these pits (2626, 2372, 2455, 2641, 2642, 2512 and 2577) underlay later medieval buildings and are clearly earlier, but others (2107, 2424, 2658 and 2686) did not and may therefore be contemporary with the use of the buildings. The possibility of the redeposition of pottery distorting the dating of the pits cannot be ignored, although the average sherd size from the pit assemblages is relatively high, suggesting the likelihood of direct deposition of rubbish into the pits and, therefore, a lower probability of redeposition.

Ditch 2500 and associated pits

Ditch 2500 ran for *c.*17.5 m from the north-eastern edge of the excavation on a SW–NE alignment, averaging 1.30 m wide by 0.40 m deep, and was filled by a sandy silt with frequent gravel inclusions. A series of postholes cut into the base of the ditch may suggest that it functioned as a palisade trench, or that it replaced an earlier fence line on the same axis. The ditch terminated at a point parallel with a pit alignment, which included pits 2458, 2528 and 2532, along with several other pits, which were not excavated and ran on a NW–SE alignment from the western edge of the excavation. The pits were generally sub-circular in plan, averaging 1.4 m in diameter by 0.49 m deep, and were filled with a mixture of clay silts and silty sands with occasional inclusions of gravel. The pit alignment ran parallel to the northern wall of later building 2094 (see below) and, along with the ditch, may have been an early manifestation of a property boundary, which later came to be defined by the edge of the building complex. Four pits to the south of the alignment (2372, 2512, 2574 and 2577) contained pottery with a late 11th- to early 13th-century date range and may have been contemporary with it. They averaged 1.51 m in diameter by 0.74 m deep and were filled with silty clay with occasional inclusions of gravel. The upper fills of some of these pits contained burnt material, suggesting that they may have been deliberately backfilled.

Phase 6: Medieval (early 13th–15th century) (Figs 7 and 8)

Overlying the Phase 5 pits and ditches on the western side of the western area was a complex of buildings dating from the early 13th century onwards.

Building 2094

Building 2094 was a rectangular stone-built structure orientated NW–SE and measuring *c.*7.20 m long by 3.7 m wide. The footings of the building were constructed of limestone rubble with a silt and gravel matrix and survived to a maximum of 0.20 m in height. Pottery of a 12th- to

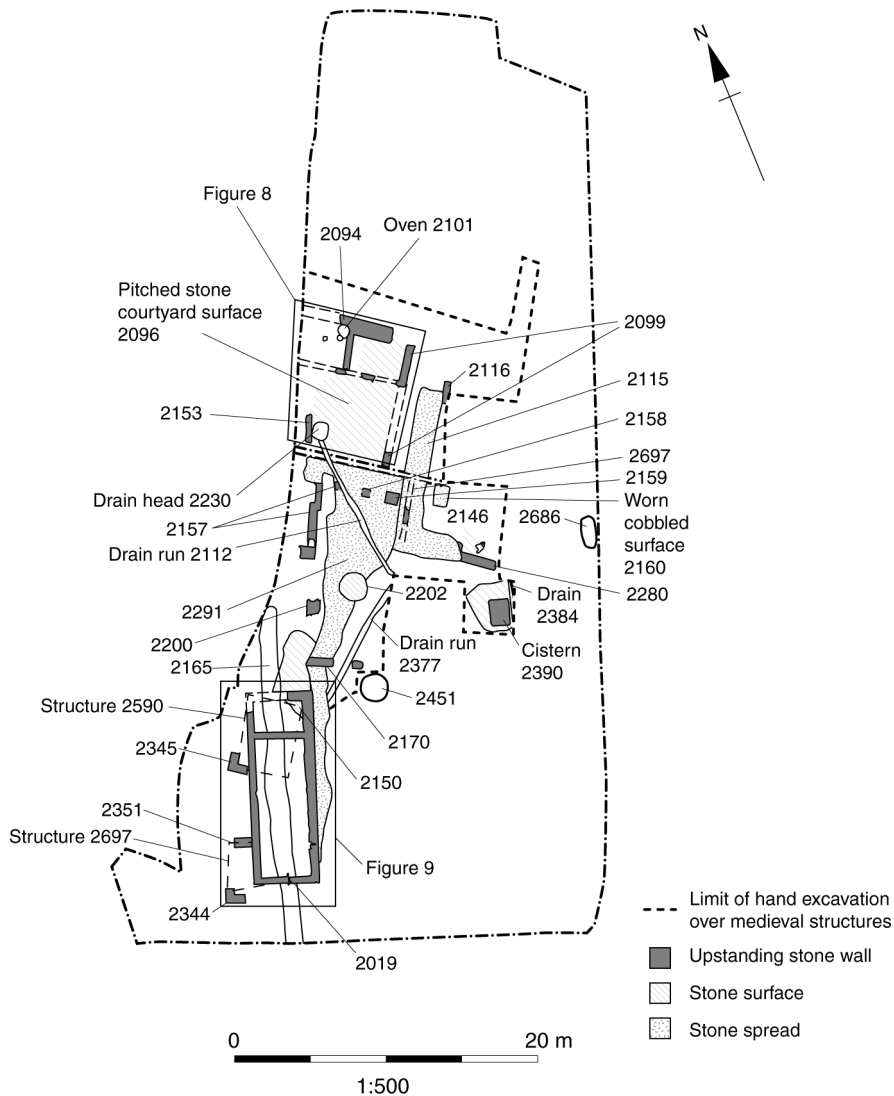


Fig. 7. The western area – stone structures, phases 6 and 7.

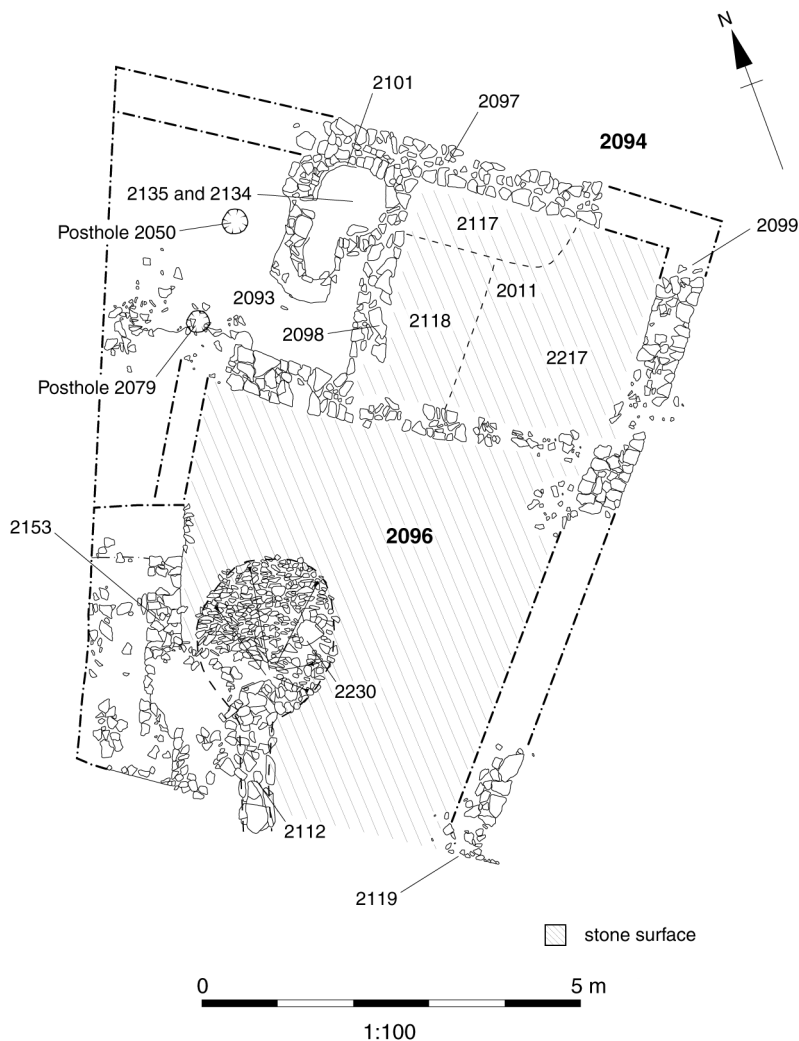


Fig. 8. Building 2094 and yard 2096.

13th-century date was recovered from the fabric of the walls. They were cut into a buried soil (2011) of medieval date, probably representing a ground surface contemporary with the Phase 5 pits. The walls measured 0.49–0.52 m wide and had been completely robbed out at both the west and east ends of the building. The building comprised a ‘back’ wall (2097) and a parallel ‘front’ wall (2100) that faced onto yard 2096. The structure was subdivided by a cross wall (2098) of similar construction to the rest of the building. There is no evidence that this cross wall was constructed later than ‘front’ wall 2100. To the east of cross wall 2098 an area of limestone rubble (2117) 2.58 m long by 0.50 m wide, abutting and running parallel to wall 2097, may have formed a platform for an internal bench or work surface.

The interior of the building was filled with a levelling deposit (2093) of silty gravel, which was overlain by a layer of compact sandy gravel and silt (2217), which may itself have formed a floor, or possibly served as a bedding layer for flagstones. A layer of limestone rubble (2218), possibly forming a surface, abutted wall 2098 on its eastern side and overlay layer 2217. Built into cross wall 2098 on its western side was a circular oven (2101) built of roughly-dressed limestone, similar to that used in the construction of the building, with a stokehole facing south-west, the base of which comprised a large limestone slab. The floor of the oven consisted of a layer of burnt silty clay (2135) overlain by a charcoal deposit (2134), which was sampled (S.90) and produced charred grain and weeds. Two structural postholes (2050, 2079) lay west of the oven. A wall (2099) orientated NE-SW lay to the east of the building on a slightly oblique angle to it. This was also constructed of roughly-dressed limestone and measured 8.10 m long. The angle of this wall suggests that it was not constructed as part of building 2094, but it may have been an earlier wall incorporated into the structure. Unfortunately walls 2097 and 2100 were badly robbed at their eastern ends and so no direct evidence of the relationship between walls 2097, 2100 and 2099 survived.

The cobbled yard south of building 2094 and associated structures

Lying to the south-west of structure 2094 and to the west of wall 2099/2119, and overlying ploughsoil 2111, was a surface of pitched limestone (2096), measuring 4.30×4.60 m at its maximum extent. This was bounded to the north-east by building 2094 and to the south-east by wall 2099. To the north-west the surface was defined by wall 2153, constructed of limestone rubble, with roughly-dressed facing stones. Wall 2153 was robbed out in places, but survived to a length of 2.32 m. The surface itself, together with the walls, formed a courtyard associated with building 2094, which sloped towards a drain-head (2230) in the south-west corner (see below).

Building 2291

Lying to the south of surface 2096 and to the north of building 2019 was an area of fragmented stone walls, which may represent the remains of a third rectangular building. The orientation of the surviving wall lines appears to suggest a NE-SW building alignment that would have been similar but not precisely the same as the building complex 2094. The form of this structure must remain largely speculative as it was heavily disturbed, although, if complete, the structure would have measured *c.* 11.25 m long by 4.90 m wide. No traces of robber trenches were revealed during the excavation, but the foundations were either set in shallow trenches or directly onto the ground surface and would have been easy to remove without extensive digging. Wall 2178 seems to have represented the foundations of the south-west wall of the structure, while walls 2157 and 2200 represented the north-western wall. Wall 2157 returned to the south-east, *c.* 3 m to the south of surface 2096, thus forming the north-eastern corner of the building and part of the north-eastern wall. Walls 2158 and 2159 may have formed a northern wall to the structure. Where surviving, the wall cores were of limestone rubble, while the facing stones were roughly-dressed limestone blocks with a silt and gravel bond. Little remained in the way of floor surfaces or make-up layers within building 2291, although layer 2202, a sandy deposit containing limestone rubble, situated in the south-western corner of the building, may have been the remains of such a floor levelling deposit. Lying to the north-west of building 2291 was a surface of pitched limestone rubble (2160), rectangular in shape and measuring *c.* 1.82×1.30 m. This surface was edged with vertically-set limestone slabs and may have formed a threshold for the building.

Building/yard 2146

Further fragmentary stretches of wall to the south-east of building 2094 may represent an ancillary structure or fourth building. A stretch of wall (2280) 2.95 m long by 0.40 m wide, on a NW–SE alignment, may have represented a fragment of the south-western wall, returning to the north-east at its north-western end. Wall 2697, measuring 2.50 m long by 0.38 m wide, may have represented a fragment of the north-western wall. Alternatively, these fragments of wall may have defined a yard, partially open to the north and east. The building or yard would have had a NW–SE alignment and measured *c.* 7.5 m long by 4 m wide. The construction of the walls was identical to that seen in the buildings described above.

Building 2291 and building/yard 2146: associated structures

Building/yard 2146 was associated with a number of ancillary structures. An isolated fragment of wall (2116) on a NE–SW alignment lay to the north of building/yard 2146, defining the edge of a surface of limestone cobbles (2115) to its west, which also abutted wall 2099. The construction of this wall fragment was identical to those described above and it had been heavily robbed out, suggesting that a further yard or building originally lay to the north of building/yard 2146.

The drainage complex

The entire building complex was serviced by three stone-lined drain runs, which fed into a stone-lined cistern (2390). Drain (2112) was lined and capped with limestone slabs and was *c.* 10 m long by 0.50 m wide and 0.35 m deep. It ran NW–SE from drain-head 2230 into cistern 2390 (see below) and was cut into an underlying ploughsoil (2111). Drain-head 2230 comprised a sub-circular sump, measuring 1 m in diameter by 0.18 m deep, lined with limestone slabs. Drain 2377 ran NE–SW from building 2019, feeding into drain 2112 and thence into cistern 2390. This drain was constructed of vertically-set limestone slabs with limestone capstones and was *c.* 7.40 m long by 0.30–0.40 m wide and 0.15–0.25 m deep. It cut the underlying river terrace gravel (2009). Drain 2384 ran north–south down the eastern side of the building complex before feeding into the cistern and survived to a length of 2.62 m, having been cut away at both ends. The drain was lined with vertically-set limestone slabs and capped with limestone slabs; it measured between 0.42 and 0.57 m wide and 0.16 m deep and was cut into the river terrace gravel (2009). Abutting drain 2384 on its eastern side was cistern 2390, orientated east–west, measuring 1.80 m long by 1.20 m wide and lined with limestone slabs.

Miscellaneous features

A scatter of features, mostly sub-circular pits (2107, 2122, 2424, 2451, 2597 and 2686), was identified in the eastern part of the western area. Chronologically they are considered to be within Phase 6, although they are essentially a continuation of the sequence of pit-digging in Phase 5.

Structure 2590 (Figs 7–9)

A group of features in the southern part of the western site may define a building or structure that was related to the northern building group (see above) and on the same NE–SW alignment. No finds were recovered from any of the features, although their position in the stratigraphic sequence is clear. A steep-sided gully (2570) orientated approximately NW–SE, measuring

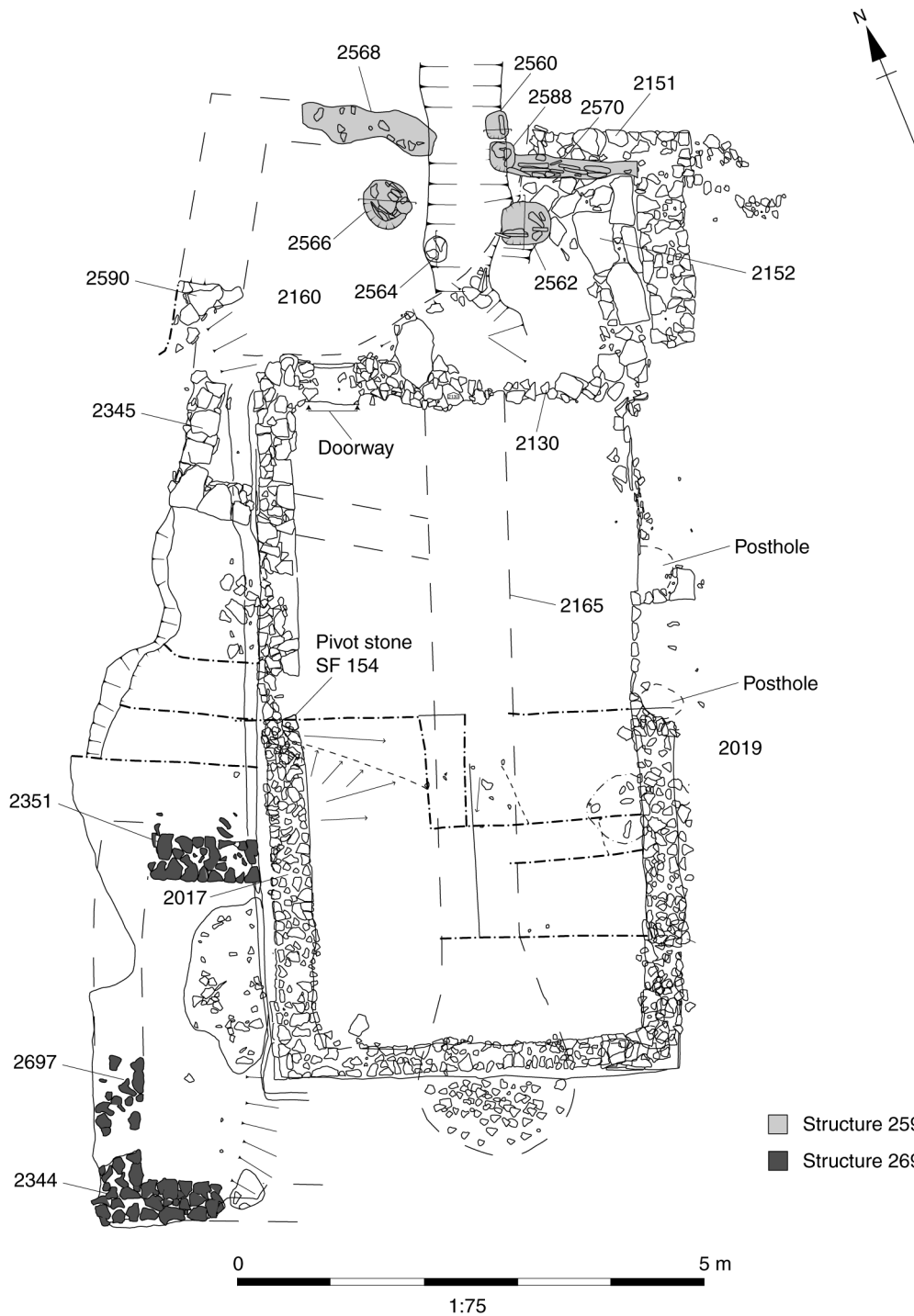


Fig. 9. Structure 2019 and 2345.

1.4 m long by 0.20 m wide and containing limestone slabs on edge, linked two postholes (2591 to the east and 2588 to the west). Another possible gully extended south from posthole 2591 for a distance of 0.5 m before being truncated by later activity. Immediately north of posthole 2588 was another posthole 2560: both contained stone packing. Both the postholes were recorded as being cut by north–south ditch 2165 (see Phase 7 below). To the west of ditch 2165 at this point was a vestigial linear feature (2568), heavily truncated by modern disturbance and measuring 1.4 m long by 0.3 m wide and 0.11 m deep. This may originally have been a structural element similar to gully 2570. To the south of these features were two large stone-packed postholes (2562 and 2566) and a single smaller one (2564) also containing stone packing. To the south-west of these features was a short length of stone footing (2345) truncated by the west wall of building 2019 (see Phase 7 below) and orientated NW–SE with a right-angled return to the north-east.

All of these features pre-date ditch 2165 and building 2019; wall 2345 clearly shares the same alignment as building 2094 further north and possibly the group of postholes and beamslots does too. Together they may represent a single building, possibly comprising a mix of timber and stone walls. Its function is unclear; an animal byre is one interpretation, although the possibly linked drain 2377 may suggest a more domestic function.

Building 2697 (Figs 7 and 9)

Building 2697 was a possible rectangular structure, which survived in the form of two short stretches of limestone wall (2344 and 2351). The building measured 4.10 m from its north-east wall to its south-west wall and an unknown distance from north-west to south-east. The walls averaged 0.45 m in width by 0.45 m in depth and were constructed of roughly-dressed limestone in a silt and gravel matrix. Wall 2344 was 1.40 m in length and orientated NW–SE, returning to the north-east at its north-western end. Wall 2351 was 1.06 m in length and orientated NW–SE. No floor surfaces or make-up layers survived at the time of excavation. It was built on a similar orientation to building 2019 and could therefore be a contemporary addition to it, or conceivably part of an earlier version of it.

Phase 7: Late Medieval and Post-Medieval (late 15th–17th century)

This phase was assigned to the latest structural activity on the western site, as determined by the stratigraphy. No secure artefactual dating was associated with the features, although the general dating of the finds from the western area suggests a time span between the late medieval period and the 16th or 17th centuries.

Ditch 2165

Ditch 2165 ran for a distance of 11 m from the south-western edge of excavation on a NE–SW alignment before ending in a rounded terminus. It averaged 1.3 m wide by 0.60 m deep and was filled with a sandy silt with frequent inclusions of gravel. With the exception of one clearly residual Roman sherd, all of the pottery fits within an 11th–13th century time frame. As the ditch cuts through pits of this date, however, there is a significant potential for the medieval pottery to be redeposited from disturbed Phase 5 and 6 deposits and, therefore, the date of the ditch is very likely to be substantially later than the finds suggest. It appears to represent a boundary, significantly on a different alignment to the Phase 6 structures. The ditch cuts structure 2590 and is overlain by building 2019.

Building 2019 (Figs 7–9)

Building 2019 was a rectangular stone-built structure measuring 10 m long by 4.5 m wide and orientated NE–SW. It straddles the backfilled ditch 2165 and, by virtue of the dumped rubble consolidation in the southern terminus of the ditch, it seems likely that there would not have been a long interval between the suppression of the ditch and the construction of the building. The footings of the building were constructed of roughly-dressed limestone blocks with a silt and gravel matrix. A doorway *c.*1.10 m wide and defined by large postholes was situated in the eastern wall. The footings survived to a height of 0.45 m and were on average 0.40 m wide. They were cut into the underlying natural (2029), a friable silty sand. Overlying this, but confined within the building, was a make-up layer of sandy mortar 0.04 m deep (2020).

Evidence for the date of construction of building 2019 is contradictory. On the one hand, a complete pottery vessel dated to the late 12th century was found in a pit cutting a make-up spread for the building. On the other hand, fragments of limestone mortars, heavily worn by use, were found in a stone make-up spread within the building. A review of medieval mortars (Biddle and Smith 1990) has suggested that they do not come into use until the 13th century, suggesting a later 13th-century date for the construction of the building at the earliest (see also Shaffrey below). It is possible that the pot, which may have been a foundation deposit, was a curated heirloom; a 13th-century tripod pitcher was found upside down below a 14th-century building at Dean Court Farm in Oxfordshire (Allen 1994, 248–50). Alternatively, the mortars, made of local limestone, may have worn very quickly. Given that building 2019 also cut through two other stone structures, a later date for its construction has been preferred in this report. At some point after its initial construction the building was extended to the north-east by the addition of wall 2151, which was identical in construction to the earlier walls. At this stage a doorway 0.80 m wide was inserted in the western end of the northern-eastern wall (2130), which had become an internal cross wall dividing off the northern quarter of the building. A floor (2152) comprising limestone slabs survived in the north-eastern corner of this extension, with a layer of burnt material containing charred plant remains (2150) overlying it. A radiocarbon date of 1730–1960 cal. AD (95% confidence) was recovered from a sample of this deposit. Even if this deposit was contemporary with the later use of the building, it appears that it must have suffered some contamination from more recent disturbance.

Archaeology Revealed During the Watching Brief in the Central Area

Several features were recorded during the watching brief on the excavation of three service trenches in the central part of the development area, between the two excavation areas (Fig. 2). As the observations were made within trenches 0.8 m and 1.8 m wide and up to 3 m deep, it proved difficult to interpret features observed within these narrow trenches with any confidence, especially as no dating evidence was found. The majority of the observed features, particularly to the south-west of the eastern excavation area, appeared to result from quarrying activity similar to that found in the eastern excavation. Eight linear features on various alignments were seen (mainly in a 1.8 m-wide trench close to the western edge of the eastern area excavation), three of which may be continuations of medieval ditches 1077, 1096 and 1223 respectively. Four lengths of wall were recorded, indicating further stone structures to the south-west of the eastern area excavation, although their orientation was not clearly defined.

With the lack of artefactual evidence the phasing of these features is uncertain. The best that can be said is that the pitting could be contemporary with the Phase 5 quarrying on the eastern site. The walls clearly suggest the presence of buildings in the area, but whether they are of Phase 5 or 6 is uncertain, as is how they relate to the structure groups in either area.

Radiocarbon Determinations

A total of five deposits were tested to recover radiocarbon dates, selected on the basis of their stratigraphic importance and their apparent security. One of the samples, animal bone from the Iron Age ring gully (1269/1312), failed to produce a date. The successful determinations are listed below (Table 2).

Table 2: Radiocarbon determinations

Lab No.	Context	Radiocarbon Age BP	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	Material	Context Type	Calibrated date range 95% confidence
OxA-16866	1399	2269±30	-20.0	Bone sheep/goat	Palisade trench (1768) fill	310–200 cal BC
OxA-16867	1518	2219±29	-20.4	Bone cattle	Palisade trench (1768) fill	380–200 cal BC
OxA-16893	1549	802±28	-21.5	Hordeum	Layer of burnt grain within crop drier 1067	1180–1275 cal AD
OxA-16894	2150	31±28	-23.2	Hordeum	Occupation layer within building 2019	1730–1960 cal AD

THE FINDS

Later Prehistoric and Roman Pottery by Jane Timby

A total of 1,396 sherds of later prehistoric and Roman pottery, weighing 17,474 g, were recovered. The material largely comprises sherds of early and middle Iron Age date, along with a smaller quantity of Roman material (Table 3).

The material was recovered from a total of 200 contexts, the vast majority from the eastern site. All of the material from the western site was redeposited in medieval contexts. Overall the majority of the context assemblages are quite small, 83% of the contexts having ten or fewer sherds. Only three contexts yielded in excess of 50 sherds. The overall average sherd weight at 12 g is relatively high for handmade, less robust later prehistoric material. There are no complete vessels and few apparent joins within contexts. Surface preservation is generally quite good and surface finishes could be identified on many sherds. The sherd preservation is typical of non-primary rubbish deposits and the juxtaposition of material of different periods in some contexts suggests a considerable amount of redeposition or disturbance of underlying deposits, perhaps indicating the deposition of midden material into pits and ditches.

Description of Fabrics and Associated Forms

Prehistoric

- H2: a brown or grey ware with a grey core and a soapy texture. The fabric contains a moderate frequency of shell 3–4 mm in size and some voids.
- L3: a moderately hard ware with red/brown/orange surfaces. The fabric contains a moderate frequency of fine oolitic limestone, a sparse scatter of faceted quartz and occasional ferruginous grains.

Table 3: Quantification of Prehistoric and Roman pottery

Period	Fabric	Description	No	No %	Wt	Wt %
PREH	PREHGR	earlier prehistoric grog-tempered	3	0.2	19	0.1
Iron Age	L2	mixed oolitic limestone, calcite, fossil shell, bryozoa	825	63.3	11985	73.1
	L3	sandy with fine oolitic limestone	22	1.7	162	1.0
	LFE	Limestone with ferruginous pellets	1	0.1	4	0.0
	L00	miscellaneous limestone	16	1.2	50	0.3
	F1	fine flint-tempered	1	0.1	3	0.0
	H2	moderate-common frequency fossil shell > 3-4 mm	45	3.5	432	2.6
	S00	miscellaneous sandy	15	1.2	96	0.6
	S1	fine micaceous sandy	173	13.3	1111	6.8
	S1h	fine micaceous sandy, haematite slip	18	1.4	112	0.7
	S2	sandy with sparse iron	55	4.2	745	4.5
	S2/L	sandy with sparse limestone	3	0.2	23	0.1
	S2h	fabric S2 with haematite slip	1	0.1	5	0.0
	S3	medium sandy ware	9	0.7	68	0.4
	S4	sandy ware	1	0.1	6	0.0
	S4h	S4 with haematite slip	1	0.1	3	0.0
	SL1	As fabric S1 with sparse fossil matter	56	4.3	548	3.3
	SL2	coarser iron stained quartz sand, sparse limestone	43	3.3	615	3.7
	SL2h	as SL2 with haematite slip	1	0.1	17	0.1
	SL3	sandy fabric with sparse oolites	11	0.8	375	2.3
	IA?	miscellaneous, possibly Iron Age	3	0.2	26	0.2
<i>sub-total</i>			1303	100.0	16405	100.0
Roman	DORBB1	Dorset black burnished ware	3	3.2	11	1.0
	GREY	miscellaneous Roman grey wares	47	50.5	391	36.6
	GROG	light grey grog-tempered ware ?Wiltshire	9	9.7	124	11.6
	GS	hm sandy grog-tempered storage jar	1	1.1	88	8.2
	MORT?	probable mortaria	1	1.1	20	1.9
	OXFRC	Oxfordshire colour-coated ware	3	3.2	16	1.5
	OXFWH	Oxfordshire white ware	1	1.1	5	0.5
	OXFWSM	Oxfordshire white-slipped mortaria	1	1.1	10	0.9
	OXID	miscellaneous oxidized ware	5	5.4	35	3.3
	PNKGT	pink grog-tempered storage jar	1	1.1	172	16.1
	SAMCG	Central Gaulish samian	6	6.5	29	2.7
	SAVGT	Savernake ware	2	2.2	88	8.2
	SVWOX	Severn Valley ware	1	1.1	4	0.4
	WILRE	Wiltshire reduced ware	9	9.7	59	5.5
	R00	miscellaneous Roman	3	3.2	17	1.6
<i>sub-total</i>			93	100.0	1069	100.0
TOTAL			1396		17474	

- SL1: a black to dark brown ware with a fine sandy texture. The fabric contains a sparse frequency of shell, mica and fossil detritus such as bryozoa.
- SL2: a black to dark brown ware with a sandy texture. The fabric contains a common frequency of well-sorted iron-stained quartz, ferruginous grains, shell, sparse mica and rare flint.
- SL3: a black to dark brown ware with a sandy texture. The fabric contains a common frequency of well-sorted iron-stained quartz, ferruginous grains, shell, oolites and rare flint.
- S1: a black to dark brown ware with a fine sandy texture. The fabric contains a sparse frequency of mica.
- S2: a black to dark brown ware with a sandy texture. The fabric contains a scatter of ferruginous grains and sparse, fine well-sorted quartz.
- S3: a black to dark brown ware with a medium to fine sandy texture. The fabric contains a scatter of ferruginous grains and sparse, fine well-sorted quartz.
- L2: a black to dark brown ware with a sandy texture. The fabric contains a sparse frequency of mixed oolites, limestone, calcite, shell and bryozoa.
- F1: a black to dark brown ware. The fabric contains a sparse frequency of fine flint.

Roman

- GROG1: a very light grey to white ware with a fine texture. The fabric contains sparse to moderate dark grey angular grog.
- GROG2: a very light grey to white ware, with a light grey core and a fine texture. The fabric contains frequent inclusions of dark grey angular grog.

Early Prehistoric

Just four sherds of very abraded grog-tempered ware were found redeposited in later contexts. Grog-tempered wares have been identified in both Grooved Ware and Beaker contexts in Lechlade. In particular, Beaker examples occurred at Roughground Farm (Darvill 1993, 15–17) and grog-tempered Grooved Ware amongst the Gasson's Road assemblage (Darvill 1998, 275) although normally this occurs in calcareous-type fabrics. A background scatter of such material is therefore, not surprising.

Late Bronze Age/early Iron Age

Approximately 35% by count of the assemblage dates to the late Bronze Age/early Iron Age, augmenting collections of pottery of similar date already recovered from The Lodgers, Roughground Farm, Gasson's Road and Sherborne House. The assemblage mainly comprises two fabrics: calcareous fabrics (limestone/fossil shell; SL1–3) and sandy wares (S1–3). The calcareous fabrics were generally used for larger, coarseware vessels. Decoration is limited to fingernail and finger depressions usually on the rim top, just below the rim or on a body carination. Approximately 12 contexts contained sherds exhibiting such decoration. In addition one vessel has a fingertip-impressed cordon and one vessel has a small round applied boss. The sandy fabrics were mainly used for fineware (carinated bowls), many of which are slipped, burnished or decorated. At least 21 haematite slipped sherds were recorded, one of which also had incised decoration. Decoration includes incised lines and combinations of incised lines with stabs and impressed motifs. One sherd has a white inlay surviving in the incised line. It has been observed elsewhere (Hingley 1986, 42) that the Lechlade early Iron Age pottery is slightly unusual in having such a large proportion of finewares. This new group of material appears to display the same characteristic.

Middle Iron Age

A slightly greater proportion of the assemblage (some 42% by count) appears to date to the middle Iron Age. This figure is crudely based on the sherd count from the middle Iron Age contexts and will inevitably include some redeposited early Iron Age material.

There is little perceptible difference in the limestone range of fabrics from the earlier groups, but the finer sandy wares disappear. Vessel forms are more rounded and globular and decoration is no longer a feature. Many of the vessels exhibit leaching on the inner surfaces through holding liquids. A small number of sherds are sooted or contain carbonized residue.

Roman

Some 16 sherds have been broadly dated to the later Iron Age/early Roman period with a further 92 sherds of Roman proper. Most of the later Iron Age/early Roman sherds come from a handmade grog-tempered everted-rim jar in the upper (Roman/Saxon) fill of ditch 1238. The Roman wares proper comprise mainly unfeatured grey sandy wares. There are no large associated groups of material, many of the sherds being single occurrences. Diagnostic wares include Oxfordshire colour-coated ware, Oxfordshire white-slipped mortaria, Dorset black-burnished ware and Midlands pink-grogged ware, all later 3rd- to 4th-century types. A single Severn Valley ware tankard sherd also came from the upper fills of ditch 1238. Potentially slightly earlier in date were seven sherds of Central Gaulish samian along with some Oxfordshire white ware, Wiltshire Savernake ware and various grey and oxidized wares from the North Wiltshire industry, perhaps hinting at some activity in the area from the 2nd century onwards. Overall, a date range from the 2nd to late 3rd/early 4th century would fit the range of wares recovered. A single base sherd, also from the upper fills of ditch 1238, has a grey paint-like residue on the interior.

Discussion

Lechlade has now produced a number of assemblages of pottery dating to the later prehistoric, Roman, Saxon and later periods highlighting its unusually long history of occupation. The middle Iron Age assemblage compares well with that from the settlement at Claydon Pike to the west, where the pottery largely comprised globular barrel-shaped jars in sandy and limestone-tempered fabrics (Jones 2007, 43–6). The Roman material also reflects the assemblages from the Roman settlement complexes at Claydon Pike (Booth 2007, 79 and 132). Although in certain respects the pottery recovered from Little London, Lechlade provides no surprises, it is a particularly useful addition to the material already studied. It reinforces some of the tentative conclusions previously reached in terms of the unusual composition of the Lechlade group compared with contemporary local assemblages, for example that from the hillfort at Crickley Hill. The decorated and other featured wares compliment and extend the repertoire already documented. The Roman presence suggests non-intensive activity perhaps partly reflecting field manuring or an area fairly peripheral to settlement.

Post-Roman Pottery by Paul Blinkhorn

The pottery assemblage comprised 9,017 sherds with a total weight of 115,228 g. The estimated vessel equivalent (EVE), by summation of surviving rimsherd circumference, was 26.84. Of these, 589 sherds (5,916 g) were of Roman or Iron Age date. A total of 21 sherds (278 g) of early or middle Saxon types were stratified in contemporary deposits, with a further 29 sherds (249 g)

noted in later contexts. The majority of the material was early medieval or later, with 3,713 sherds (49,761 g, EVE = 26.84) stratified in groups dating to between the 11th and 15th centuries, and 4,741 sherds (59,589 g) in deposits of 16th- to 19th-century date.

The assemblage is most notable for the early and middle Saxon pottery. The former contains pottery which could date to the very earliest years of the Anglo-Saxon period and appears to be related to the settlement focus identified at Sherborne House (Bateman *et al.* 2003) to the east. The middle Saxon assemblage includes seven sherds of Ipswich ware, one of the most westerly finds of this important pottery type in England.

Pottery Types

The following types were noted:

- F1, F2: early/middle Saxon wares. Undecorated handmade wares in two main fabrics, one of which has a dense chaff temper, and the other dense quartz. A third fabric, with few visible inclusions, appears to have been used for the manufacture of decorated sherds. 42 sherds, 374 g, EVE = 0.
- F95: Ipswich ware (Hurst 1976; Blinkhorn 1999). Middle Saxon, slow-wheel made ware, manufactured exclusively in the eponymous Suffolk wic. The material probably had a currency of 725×740, but until the mid 9th century at sites outside East Anglia. There are two main fabric types, although individual vessels which do not conform to these groups also occur. 8 sherds, 153 g, EVE = 0.
- F205: Stamford ware: c.900–1200 (Kilmurry 1980). 7 sherds, 17 g, EVE = 0.13.
- F100: St Neots ware, type T1(2): c.1000–1200 (Denham 1985). 6 sherds, 68 g, EVE = 0.3.
- F200: Cotswolds-type ware: c.late 9th–early 14th century (Mellor 1994). 2,443 sherds, 30,975 g, EVE = 15.72.
- F102: South-West Oxfordshire ware: c.1075–early 13th century (Mellor 1994, 52–4). 181 sherds, 1,753 g, EVE = 0.19.
- F300: Oxford ware: late 11th–14th century (Mellor 1994). Only jars and no glazed vessels from this site, despite them being common elsewhere. 9 sherds, 128 g, EVE = 0.14.
- F330: Shelly coarseware: 1100–1400 (McCarthy 1979). 1 sherd, 4 g, EVE = 0.
- F202: East Wiltshire ware: early 12th–early 15th century (Mellor 1994, 100–6). 1,394 sherds, 15,820 g, EVE = 5.46.
- F355: Minety-type ware: early 12th–15th century (Mellor 1994). 521 sherds, 7,760 g, EVE = 4.32.
- F352: Brill/Boarstall ware: c.1200–?1600 (Mellor 1994). 239 sherds, 1,935 g, EVE = 1.30.
- F371: Laverstock ware: 13th–14th century (McCarthy and Brooks 1988, 337). 9 sherds, 382 g, EVE = 0.36.
- F408: Overfired Brill/Boarstall ware: c.1280–1600 (Mellor 1994). 15th century. 15 sherds, 190 g, EVE = 0.
- F403: Tudor Green wares: c.1380–1500 (McCarthy and Brooks 1988, 450). 3 sherds, 7 g, EVE = 0.
- F404: Cistercian ware: c.1470–1700 (McCarthy and Brooks 1988). 148 sherds, 941 g.
- F405: German stonewares: 1480+ (Gaimster 1997). 23 sherds, 245 g.
- F417: Tin-glazed earthenwares: c.1600–1700 (Orton 1988). 3 sherds, 9 g.
- F446: Staffordshire slipware: 1680–1750 (Barker 1999). 7 sherds, 49 g.
- F425: Red earthenwares: 16th–19th century (McCarthy and Brooks 1988). 3,092 sherds, 46,958 g.
- F451: Border wares (Pearce 1992). 3 sherds, 127 g.
- F445: Nottingham stonewares: c.1690–1800. 1 sherd, 39 g.
- F414: Staffordshire manganese wares: c.1700–1800. 30 sherds, 590 g.
- F418: Creamware: c.1740–1880 (Jennings 1981, 227). 53 sherds, 160 g.
- F443: Staffordshire white salt-glazed stonewares: c.1730–1800 (Barker 1999). 32 sherds, 108 g.
- F447: Pearlwares: 1775–19th century (Barker 1999). 17 sherds, 83 g.
- F1000: miscellaneous 19th- and 20th-century wares. Mass-produced white earthenwares, late English stonewares etc. 141 sherds, 437g.

The range of fabric types is fairly typical for sites in the region and comprises a mixture of local wares and well-attested regional imports.

Chronology

The range of pottery types present at this site indicates that there were phases of post-Roman activity from the early to middle Saxon periods, then from the 11th century onwards. It is possible to construct a series of ceramic phases, based on the chronology of the major wares, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Medieval ceramic phasing scheme

Ceramic phase	Date	Defining Wares
CP1	11th–E12th C	Cotswolds ware, South-west Oxfordshire ware
CP2	E12th–E13th C	East Wiltshire ware, Minety ware
CP3	E13th–L14th C	Brill/Boarstall ware*
CP4	L14th–L15th C	Tudor Green wares, Brill/Boarstall ware *
CP5	L15th–mid 16th C	Cistercian wares, Brill/Boarstall ware *
CP6	Mid-16th 17th C	Red Earthenwares, Border Ware
CP7	17th C	Tin-Glazed Earthenwares, Staffordshire Slipware
CP8	18th C	Manganese Ware, English Stonewares, Creamware, Pearlware
CP9	19th C	White Earthenwares, Late Stonewares

* defined by vessel and fabric sub-types

The pottery occurrence per phase is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Pottery occurrence by number and weight (in g) of sherds and EVE, Anglo-Saxon and medieval contexts

Phase	No	Wt	EVE	Mean wt
Early/Middle Saxon	7	106	0	15.1 g
Middle Saxon	14	172	0	12.3 g
CP1	567	9142	3.81	16.1 g
CP2	2072	30353	14.56	14.6 g
CP3	1327	12854	8.37	9.7 g
CP4	25	223	0.02	8.9 g
CP5	10	48	0	4.8 g
CP6	2155	30275	–	14.0 g
CP7	115	1218	–	10.6 g
CP8	1249	14513	–	11.6 g
CP9	1222	13583	–	11.1 g

The Early/Middle Saxon Assemblages

The early/middle Saxon assemblage from this site, particularly the Ipswich ware, is particularly important for a number of reasons. Anglo-Saxon hand-built pottery is a rare find in the region and the sherds of Ipswich ware represent only the second find of the type in Gloucestershire. It is the

most westerly find of the material in the Thames valley and one of the most westerly in England. It suggests that there was a site of some importance here during the middle Saxon period.

Finds of early/middle Saxon hand-built pottery in the area appear mainly limited to the Thames Valley and its hinterland and the range of fabrics at this site appears typical of those noted previously at Lechlade and other nearby sites: for example, Vince (1984) notes that a large sequence of such pottery of 5/6th- to 8th-century date occurred at Swindon (Wilts.), some 15 km to the south of this site, and similar wares were noted during the construction of the Cirencester bypass (Vince 1984). At Cricklade (Wilts.) hand-built pottery was noted in pre-*burh* levels and, to the north, an assemblage of early/middle Saxon pottery was excavated at Lower Slaughter (Bradley and Gaimster 2000, 263).

Lechlade has produced other groups of hand-built Anglo-Saxon pottery, such as at The Lodgers (Darvill *et al.* 1986). Excavations at Sherborne House (Bateman *et al.* 2003), immediately to the east of this site, revealed a series of ditches containing pottery of the 6th to the 9th centuries. To the west of Lechlade an assemblage of 72 sherds of early/middle Saxon pottery, mainly from a single large vessel, occurred at Somerford Keynes (Blinkhorn, in archive).

In terms of chronology, just four sherds of the hand-built pottery from this site have any sort of diagnostic features, but all suggest that the assemblage dates to the very earliest part of the early Anglo-Saxon period. Three of the sherds are from sharply carinated vessels (Figs 10.1–3) and the fourth, from the neck of a closed vessel, has broad, incised burnished lines (Fig. 10.4). The three carinated sherds all appear to be from a type of bowl which Myres (1977) classified as *Schalenurnen*, and which are amongst the earliest Anglo-Saxon pottery types known from England, and can be dated to the mid 5th century. A few examples have been found elsewhere in England in 6th-century contexts (e.g. Myres 1977, 18), but most appear to be very early. At Mucking (Essex) by far the highest proportion of carinated and biconical vessels occurred in 5th-century contexts, leading the analyst to conclude that they were predominately of 5th-century date, and that the later examples at that site were considerably rarer and perhaps were heirlooms rather than contemporary pottery (Hamerow 1993, 42). Anglo-Saxon vessels such as these are generally extremely rare; the fact that fragments of three are known from this site, and that there is no decorated pottery of the late 5th or 6th centuries, which is generally much more common than carinated bowls, suggests very strongly that these sherds are early in date.

The fourth decorated sherd, with the incised lines on the neck, is also likely to be early in date, although such pottery is more difficult to date with confidence. The curvature of the sherd suggests that it is from a vessel with a hollow neck, and possibly of biconical form. Myres (1977, 17) saw hollow-necked and biconical vessels with linear decoration as being very early in date. Overall, the pottery from this site suggests that there was Anglo-Saxon activity at this site sometime around the middle of the 5th century. This also ties in with the evidence from the cemetery at Butler's Field, Lechlade, and the settlement immediately to the east of this site at Sherborne House in Lechlade, which both produced evidence of mid-late 5th-century activity (Timby in Bateman *et al.* 2003, 60–1).

The rest of the hand-built pottery from the site comprises plain bodysherds, which are impossible to date, other than within the broad early–middle Saxon period (c.450–850). Most are redeposited in later contexts, although seven sherds (total weight 107 g) occurred in features which did not produce any later pottery. They were all chaff-tempered fabrics. In addition 11 sherds (93 g), again all chaff-tempered, occurred in a context (1782) which also produced two fairly large sherds of Ipswich ware, giving it a middle Saxon date. It is entirely possible therefore that at least some of the chaff-tempered pottery is middle Saxon. Such pottery is known from middle Saxon contexts at a number of sites in the Thames valley. Certainly, it is one of the most common middle Saxon types at the *wic* of London (Blackmore 1988; 1989) and was also noted in

contexts of a similar date at Lake End Road, Maidenhead (Blinkhorn 2002). Mellor (1994, 36) has suggested that, based on evidence from sites such as The Lodgers, Lechlade, again very near this site, it may even have continued in use until the introduction of the various late Saxon pottery traditions. Here, just two sherds occurred in a possible late Saxon context (1547), with the only other pottery from that deposit being two sherds of Cotswolds-type ware.

The Ipswich ware assemblage is only the second find of the material in Gloucestershire, with the other being a single sherd from the probably monastic site at Winchcombe (A Vince, pers. comm.). Finds of the material generally are scarce in the region, with all those known coming from sites in the Thames valley, to the east of Lechlade. In Oxfordshire, Ipswich ware has been noted at Yarnton (Blinkhorn 2004), Eynsham (Blinkhorn 2003) and the city of Oxford, at the Sackler Library site (Blinkhorn 2001). The Oxford assemblage was the only one of the three that did not produce hand-built pottery in association with the Ipswich ware.

The Ipswich ware provides definite evidence of middle Saxon activity (725–850) at the site, and also that it was involved in the burgeoning trade network of the period. Ipswich ware, which appears to have been made exclusively in the eponymous Suffolk town, has by far the widest distribution of any native pottery type of the period, occurring in eastern England in an area from Yorkshire to Kent, with the river valleys of the south and east midlands showing the greatest penetration of the ware inland. The Thames valley appears to be the southernmost limit of its distribution, apart from a few finds in northern Kent and a single sherd from *Hamwic*, middle Saxon Southampton. The material invariably occurs at high-status sites within its distribution, but cannot alone be taken as an indicator of high status, although the further the find-spot from the production centre, the more likely that the site was once of high status.

All the sherds from this site are bodysherds and most are quite small, just three of the seven sherds occurring in non-residual contexts. Most of the sherds are quite thick and this, along with the curvature of the sherds, suggests they are mainly from large vessels. This appears to be the case with most Ipswich ware assemblages from sites outside the kingdom of East Anglia. Large jars and pitchers are relatively common and small jars rare, whereas the reverse is true nearer to the production centre (Blinkhorn 2012). The only sherd from this group with any sort of features is from a small vessel (Fig. 10.5) with finger-grooved shoulders.

The presence of Ipswich ware has implications for the site status in the middle Saxon period. As noted, when found outside East Anglia, it is often at sites of greater than normal status, and this appears to become more common with distance. This certainly appears to be the case at the known extremes of its distribution. In the north, it occurs at the *wic* at York, at Beverley and Pontefract, which had ecclesiastical centres of some importance, and Flixborough and Wharram Percy, which are likely to have been elite settlements. The only other find from Gloucestershire is from Winchcombe, which is likely to have been a monastic site of some importance, and in the Thames valley, other than at the *wic* of London, it is known from Oxford, Reading, Maidenhead, Yarnton, Eynsham and Old Windsor. At Reading and Eynsham there were ecclesiastical sites, Old Windsor was a royal settlement and Oxford and Maidenhead have also produced continental imported wares, which are also very rare finds at sites outside the *wics* and suggest that the sites could well have been seasonal trading centres. Only Yarnton has no obvious claims to high status from the range of artefact types noted, but is a settlement type which is unusual in terms of its physical nature.

The most likely scenario is that middle Saxon Lechlade was an inland port. Nowadays, it is just about the furthest navigable point upstream on the Thames, and is also located on a major north–south road running from the salt production centre at Droitwich (Worcs.) to the south coast. The route, the Salt Way, was referred to as ‘salt street’ in an Anglo-Saxon charter of 969 (Witts 1882). It is entirely possible that Lechlade was the loading point for brine and agricultural produce from

the Cotswolds, destined for middle Saxon London; certainly, the bishop of Worcester is known to have had several salt furnaces in the *wic* at that time (Hodges 1982, 128), and it is generally agreed that the *wics* imported most of their food and raw materials from outside.

Catalogue of Illustrated Objects

Note: the illustrated items are all from late medieval contexts

Fig. 10.1: context 1379: early Saxon hand-built ware. Smooth black fabric with few visible inclusions. Sherd from the waist of a carinated bowl with incised decoration. Outer surface lightly and evenly burnished.

Fig. 10.2: context 1379: early Saxon hand-built ware. Smooth dark grey fabric with few visible inclusions. Sherd from the waist of a carinated bowl with incised decoration. Outer surface lightly and evenly burnished.

Fig. 10.3: context 1045: early Saxon hand-built ware. Smooth dark grey fabric with few visible inclusions other than very rare flecks of silver mica. Sherd from the waist of a carinated bowl. Outer surface lightly and evenly burnished.

Fig. 10.4: context 1059: early Saxon hand-built ware. Sherd from the upper body of a ?hollow-necked jar with incised decoration. Light grey fabric with darker surfaces. Both surfaces smoothed, outer lightly and evenly burnished.

Fig. 10.5: context 1216: Ipswich wares. Light grey fabric with orange margins and grey surfaces. Outer surface smoothed and finger-grooved.

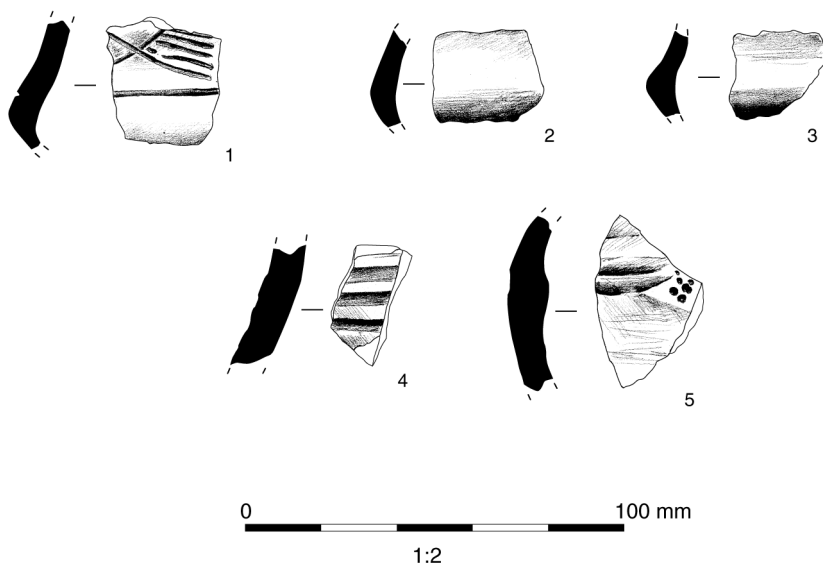


Fig. 10. Saxon pottery.

Roman Coins by Paul Booth

Eleven Roman coins were recovered, all but one (redeposited in a medieval context) unstratified and recovered by metal detector sweeps of the spoilheaps. With the exception of a very worn *sestertius*, probably of 1st–2nd-century date, all the coins are of the 4th century. The 4th-century pieces comprise seven of the House of Constantine to *c.*341, one of the period 353–60 and two

of the House of Valentinian (364–78). The majority of the coins are in relatively poor condition and only two could be closely identified with a reasonable degree of confidence. The coins are intrinsically unremarkable, but presumably reflect the presence of at least late Roman settlement in the vicinity.

Catalogue in approximate chronological order of issue:

1. *Sestertius*. Worn flat. ?1st–2nd century. U/S, SF64.
2. AE2. *Soli Invicto Comiti*. Obv:]CONST[?Constantine I. Rev: SOLI INVICTO COMITI. c.313–17. U/S, SF82.
3. AE2. *Providentiae Augg*. Obv: CONSTAN TINVS AVG. Rev: PROVIDEN TIAE AVGG. Only P survives at the beginning of the mint mark. 324–8. Context 2261*, SF134.
4. AE3. *Constantinopolis*. Obv: helmeted head left, legend lost. Rev: Victory on prow. 330–5. U/S, SF83.
5. AE3. *Gloria Exercitus*. Obv: CON]STANTIUS [. Rev: Two soldiers, 1 standard. ?Lyons (cf LRBCI, 242), 337–41. U/S, SF84.
6. AE3. *Gloria Exercitus*. Obv: head r. Rev: Two soldiers, 1 standard. 335–41. U/S, SF66.
7. AE4. *Gloria Exercitus*. Obv: head r. Rev: Two soldiers, 1 standard. 335–41. U/S, SF65.
8. AE3. ??*Pietas Romana*. Obv: head r. Rev: ?standing figure with children. ?337–41. U/S, SF81.
9. AE3. *Fel Temp Reparatio*. Obv: DN CONSTANTIUS PF AUG. Rev: FEL TEMP REPARATIO (fallen horseman). Lyons, LRBCII, 253 or 256. 353–60. U/S, SF80.
10. AE3. *Securitas Reipublicae*. Obv: ? DN VALEN [S PF AUG. Rev: Victory. 364–78. U/S, SFA.
11. AE3. *Gloria Romanorum*. Obv: head r. Rev: Emperor and captive. 364–78. U/S, SFB.

Metalwork, Worked Bone and Antler by Leigh Allen

Metalwork

With the exception of a single Saxon pin the datable metalwork belongs to the medieval to post-medieval period. Many of the objects represent long-lived functional items and are therefore not closely dated. The assemblage includes knives, scissors, items of horsegear (including horseshoes, spurs, harness and buckles), lock furniture and structural objects. There are small numbers of personal items but, apart from finger rings, there are no items of fine jewellery, only buckles, buttons and mounts. Domestic items are also not well represented.

In total 722 metal objects were recovered from the site including 386 nails and miscellaneous fragments and 187 fragments of sheet and strip, which are not reported on further (a full list can be found in the archive). The remaining 149 identifiable objects comprise 42 copper alloy objects, 90 iron objects and 17 lead objects. The general condition of the copper alloy assemblage is good but the ironwork is very corroded.

Early Iron Age

The upper fill of early Iron Age ditch 1238 produced a fragment from a saw blade with slanted, worn teeth. The fill (1680) contained Roman and Saxon pottery, so the object could be later in date.

Saxon

A copper alloy Saxon pin with a decorated head (Fig. 11.1) was recovered from the topsoil by metal detector. The head is polyhedral and decorated with ring and dot design; there is an incised

cross in the flattened top and a collar below the head. An identical example was recovered from excavations in Thetford (Rogerson and Dallas 1984, 69, fig. 112, no 46) and is of mid to late Saxon date.

Medieval

Some 30 objects in the assemblage date to the medieval period. Only seven of these objects were recovered from contexts that have been dated stratigraphically to the medieval period.

The personal items of copper alloy include a distinctive mid 14th- to early 15th-century oval buckle frame with an integral forked spacer (U/S, Fig. 11.2). Separate plates would originally have been attached to the back and front of the spacer by means of solder (Egan and Pritchard 1991, 78–82, fig. 49, nos 325 and 330). A finger ring (SF6, Fig. 11.3) came from an unstratified context and comprised a simple cast hoop with a raised ridge of beading running around the centre. In London an identical example was recovered from an early 15th-century context (Egan and Pritchard 1991, 331–2, fig. 217, no 1627).

A small and rather damaged lead ampulla was recovered from an unstratified context (Fig. 11.4). The lower half of the vessel is decorated with a chequered design with a four-petal flower motif in each square. Ampullae were made to contain a small amount of holy water and were dispensed as relics from shrines and holy wells to be worn suspended by lugs around the neck. Miracles and cures of all kinds were attributed to them. Their fairly common occurrence in rural areas has led to the belief that the contents of some may have been scattered on the fields to ensure good crops, after which the container would be discarded (Mitchiner 1986, 138).

The only domestic items of a medieval date were two drape rings, one incorporating a hook (SF72, Fig. 11.5). Both have flattened sub-hexagonal sections and coarse filing marks. They would probably have been used to suspend wall hangings or curtains. Simple rings on iron bars are known in Italy from at least the 14th century. The rings could have been sewn directly on to the textile, whereas the hooks, which appear to be earlier than the rings, could have been attached to rings. The plain rings continued in use into the post-medieval period; the drape hooks did not (Egan 1998, 62–4, fig. 43, nos 135–7).

Only one item of lock furniture was recovered; a cast copper alloy key (SF21, Fig. 11.6) came from a demolition layer overlying structure 1116. The key has a circular bow with a collar below, and the shank is solid and the bit is symmetrical. It was probably designed for use on a casket (Egan 1998, 111–12, fig. 86, no 300).

The small assemblage of domestic items (all lead) include two pan weights (both unstratified), two fishing weights, one spherical and the other cylindrical (also unstratified) and three decorated lead discs that are either small pan weights or crude tokens. The pan weights are both circular; one has a raised ridge running around the circumference and the initials ID crudely inscribed twice into the upper surface (Egan 2005, 163, fig. 160, no 838); the other, smaller, weight is decorated with raised ridges radiating from the centre. These initials and crude forms of decoration are owner's marks (Egan 1998, 308). The three discs or tokens also bear owner's marks: one has a lattice work of incised grooves on one side and the initials R and I on the reverse, the second has a cast integral privy mark on one side and the initials EC on the reverse and the third has a very crude depiction of a dog on one side. Also recovered was a possible cloth seal (unstratified) which is circular with a slight lip; there are faint initials on both sides, but they are illegible.

Iron objects included knives and horseshoes. A whittle tang knife (SF191) had a tang placed towards the top of the blade; the cutting edge and the flat back run parallel before both taper to the tip. This form of knife is found from the 10th century, or possibly earlier, but continues in use into the late medieval period.

The remains of two sets of spurs were recovered from Phase 7 demolition deposits. SF108 (Fig. 12.1) is a near complete rowel spur with offset figure of eight-shaped terminals at the end of the arms. The neck is short and the arms have only a slight curve; the rowel has 12 points. Spurs with short necks and gently curving arms tend to be late medieval to post-medieval in date (Ellis 1990, 1038, fig. 331, no 3872). The second example is very fragmentary, comprising only an arm with a centrally-placed figure-of-eight terminal.

The majority of the horseshoes and horseshoe nails recovered from the site are of medieval date. The earliest type of shoe represented had a lobate profile and circular holes in rectangular countersunk slots. This type of shoe is not known before the Conquest, but is common thereafter (Clarke 1995, 96). Four examples of 'fiddle key' horseshoe nails designed for use with this type of shoe were recovered. Later medieval horseshoes, which have plain outlines and square or rectangular holes, were recovered in greater numbers. Examples were recovered from ditch group 2623. In London this type of shoe was introduced in the 13th century and had become universal by the 15th century (Clarke 1995, 96–7). Five nails designed to be used with this type of shoe were recovered. They have a trapezoidal or rectangular-shaped head that would have stood proud of the shoe.

Medieval/post-medieval

A number of objects have forms that originate in the medieval period but continue in use into the post-medieval period. They include personal items, horsegear and lock furniture. Four objects came from structure 2019 or contexts associated with it, including a rectangular buckle frame with sheet metal rollers, a barrel padlock case (SF152) with part of the shackle present and two padlock bolts, each with two spines set at 90 degrees to each other and with two leaves on each spine. The only tool (other than knives and scissors) was an awl with a slender point and a pyramidal-shaped tang from a layer of silt and gravel overlying drain 2384. A small number of structural items that could date from the medieval or post-medieval period were recovered from Phase 6 contexts and a number of items of lock furniture were recovered. The assemblage includes a hasp from courtyard surface 2096.

Definitely datable post-medieval finds included buckle and strap components and buttons, predominantly dating to the 18th or 19th centuries. Several domestic items were found, including seven scale tang knives and five pairs of knives and scissors. All these items were from Phase 7 demolition deposits or the topsoil. In contrast to the medieval assemblage, only a single horseshoe was recovered, a large example with a plain outline but with a keyhole-shaped inner profile dating to the 17th or 18th century (Goodall 1990, 1056).

Worked Bone and Antler

A total of seven worked bone objects and one worked antler object were recovered from the site. The earliest object is a polished fragment from a late Saxon single-sided composite antler comb (SF101). It was redeposited in pit 2107 near to building/yard 2146. A second early medieval comb fragment (SF204) – from a different comb – came from pit 2672, underlying building 2019. It is a rectangular connecting plate with two iron rivets still *in situ* and the remains of the perforation for a third. The upper surface of the plate is highly polished. The plate, from a double-sided composite comb, is relatively short (90 mm) and is probably early medieval in date (Pritchard 1991, 199–201, fig. 3.81, no 222).

Two of the remaining objects (both post-medieval in date) are worth mentioning. An apple corer or cheese scoop (SF93, Fig. 12.2) was made from a sheep metapodial with the proximal end

and much of the posterior surface cut away to form a gouge. The exposed end was shaped into a rounded cutting edge. A second gouge (SF23, Fig.12.3), recovered from an unstratified context, is of an unusual form. The gouge end is long, flat and hipped, and the shank has been cut down to produce a shape that resembles that of a socketed arrowhead. The shank flares towards the upper end and the remains of a circular perforation can be seen in the broken edge. This object was polished from use throughout its length.

Discussion

Only a small number of objects were recovered from the eastern excavation area. The saw blade fragment from the backfill of the Iron Age boundary ditch could date to the Iron Age but, as the design of such functional objects changes little over time, it could easily date to the Saxon period or later. The only other notable object from this part of the site is a small casket key of medieval date, somewhat out of place on a site that is predominately agricultural. The remaining finds, which comprise an early medieval horseshoe and late medieval/post-medieval buttons and lace tags, are unremarkable in this context.

The western area produced the bulk of the finds, but the vast majority were recovered from either unstratified contexts or from demolition layers which do not necessarily indicate the date or the function of the structures, only the time of their abandonment. It is just possible that the material used for infilling could have come from outside the site, along with the finds, although this is less likely in a rural context than it might be in a town.

Personal objects are few; from the medieval period there are just two buckles, two finger rings and three dress pins. No items of fine jewellery were recovered from the site. The general impression is of a low-status site that has been well cleared prior to demolition leaving very little evidence of habitation. One category of find that is reasonably well represented is horsegear; horseshoes, horseshoe nails, snaffle bits, buckles for harness, strap loops, mounts and spurs ranging in date from the medieval to the post-medieval period were recovered from across the site, mostly from demolition layers. Their presence indicates that horses were kept on site, but their distribution does not specifically identify a stable building.

Comparable rural medieval excavations from the region are few. Two excavations from Oxfordshire, one of the deserted village of Seacourt (Biddle 1961–2) and one at Dean Court Farm, Cumnor (Allen 1994), recovered assemblages that were both much larger and more varied than that recovered from Little London. The number of items of horsegear, knives, agricultural implements and tools were greater and more domestic objects and personal items including fine jewellery were also found. This is probably partly due to the more limited scale of excavation at Little London, but also probably reflects the low status of the buildings and settlement areas that were investigated.

Catalogue of Illustrated Objects

Fig. 11.1: a copper alloy pin with a polyhedral head. The head is decorated with ring and dot motif and has an incised cross on the flattened top. There is a single collar below the head. The lower half of the shank is missing. SF0, ctx 0, L: 41 mm.

Fig. 11.2: a copper alloy oval buckle frame with an integral forked spacer. SF0, ctx 2055, L: 62.5 mm.

Fig. 11.3: a copper alloy finger ring with a raised ridge of beading running around the centre. SF6, ctx 0, D: 25 mm.

Fig. 11.4: a damaged lead ampulla. The lower half of the vessel is decorated with a four-petal flower motif set within a geometric border. Above this there are tendrils of another plant visible on the surviving fragments. SF8, ctx 0, L: 35 mm.

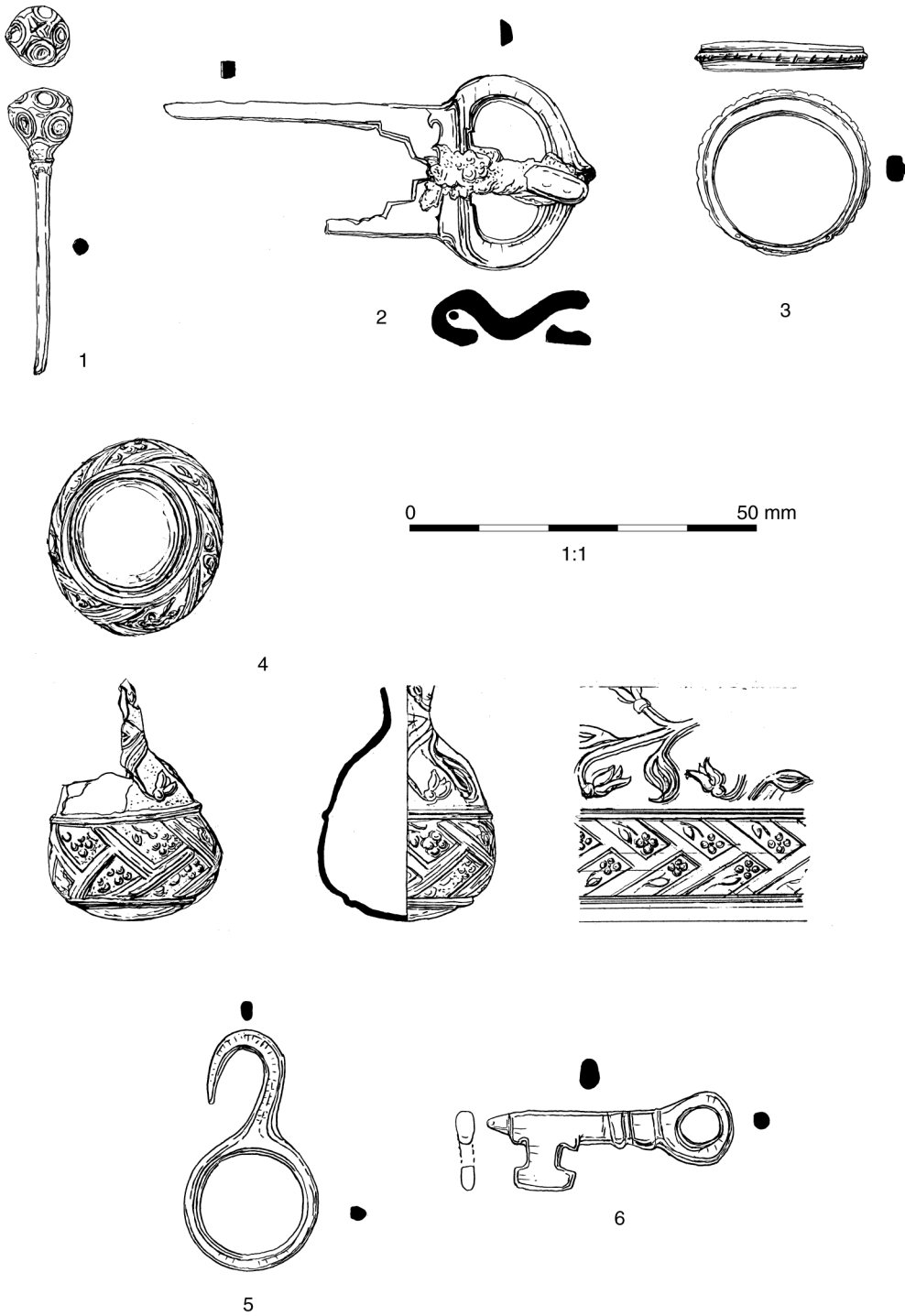


Fig. 11. Metalwork.

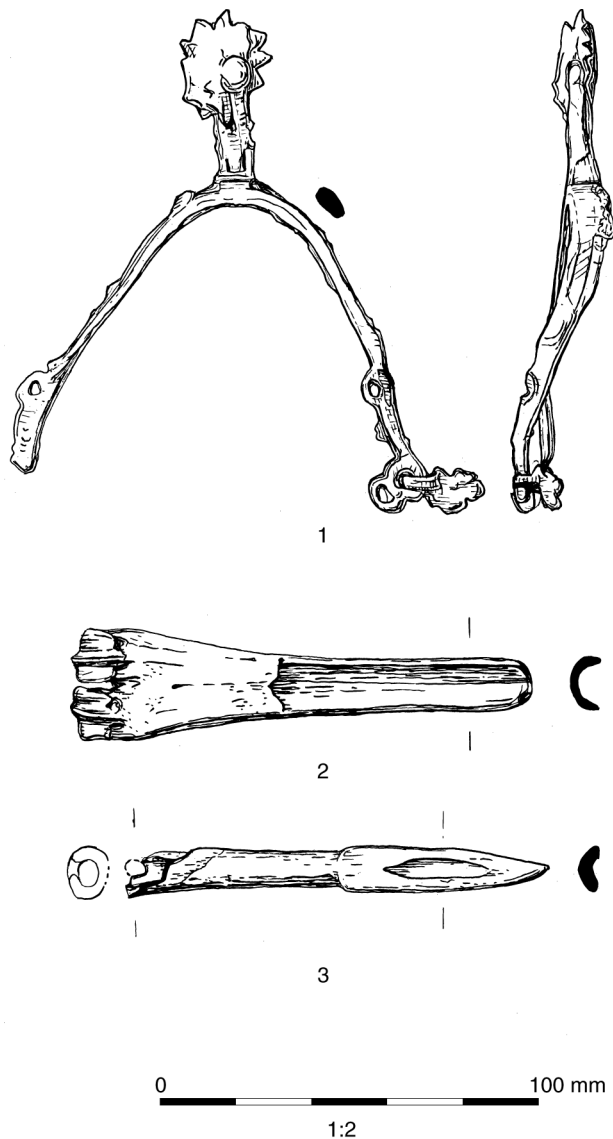


Fig. 12. Metalwork and worked bone.

Fig. 11.5: a copper alloy drape ring with a hook. The ring has a flattened hexagonal section and coarse filing marks visible on the surface. SF72, ctx 0, L: 34.5 mm.

Fig. 11.6: a copper alloy casket key with a circular bow, moulded collar and symmetrical bit. SF21, ctx 1140, L: 36 mm.

Fig. 12.1: a near complete set of rowel spurs with offset figure-of-eight-shaped terminal at the end of one arm (the other arm is incomplete). The neck is short and the arms are practically straight. The rowel has 12 points. SF108, ctx 2030, L: 135 mm.

Fig. 12.2: a bone apple corer or cheese scoop made from a sheep metapodial. SF93, ctx 2014, L: 122 mm.

Fig.12.3: a bone gouge with a hipped shank and a triangular shaped gouge end. The shank flares towards the upper edge where the remains of a circular perforation are visible in the broken edge. SF23, ctx 0, L: 112 mm.

Worked Stone by Ruth Shaffrey

Description

The worked stone assemblage consists of examples of mortars, whetstones, roof-stones, querns and a pivot stone. These are summarized in Table 6 and a full catalogue is included in the archive.

Table 6: Worked stone types by phase

Type	Ph. 2	Ph. 4/5	Ph. 5	Ph. 6	Ph. 6/7	Mod	Unstrat.	Grand Total
Mortar (actual items)				3	1			4
Other	1		1	1	1			4
Quern					3		1	4
Roof-stone		1	2		1			4
Whetstone			1	1	6	1		9
Grand Total	1	1	4	5	12	1	1	25

Up to four mortars are represented in the assemblage. Mortars A (159, 161, 162) and B (SF160 and ctx 2172) comprise three fragments each, while mortar C is in two fragments (176, 163) and there is a further fragment which may join to it (2047: SF99). Most of the mortars were deposited in Phase 7 floor make-up 2202 within building 2019 (except a fragment each from contexts 2047 and 2172) and all were heavily weathered before being deposited as rubble. The sides of mortar B are detached from the base and the inside is undercut through extensive use (for grinding rather than pounding).

Mortar A (Fig. 13.1) is a straight-sided vessel of roughly average internal diameter (*c.*170 mm). It has two unusually shaped ribs formed of a horizontal rectangular lug joining to a vertical rib, together forming a T shape. The rib is faceted at the base. A combined total of 111 mortars from the most substantial published excavations in Kings Lynn, Winchester, Poole and Southampton and a further 13 recent finds from the latter include no parallel for this form of rib (Dunning 1977; Biddle and Smith 1990; Horsey 1992; West *et al.* 1975). Only a single Purbeck marble example from Exeter (out of an assemblage of 17) has a rib of similar form (Allan 1984, fig. 166. 15). Although mortars are generally well published and illustrated, numbers of different material types remain relatively small. This, in conjunction with the often residual nature of the contexts from which they are recovered, has made it difficult to establish a chronological development (if there was one) of typological forms. The early 13th-century date of this example places it at the beginning of mortar usage (Biddle and Smith 1990, 891) and, although the late date of the Purbeck marble example from Exeter (1300) may be the result of residuality, the current evidence is insufficient to place this design specifically at the start of mortar typology. The existence of this form in two material types suggests that it was not exclusive to a single producer but more exhaustive interpretation will depend upon further finds of similar design.

Fragments of four querns were recovered, including one saddle and one rotary quern fragment of Old Red sandstone and two rotary quern fragments of lava, one with a surviving handle slot

(SF104, 2013). All were from post-medieval contexts and not unexpected. Fragments of several limestone roof-stones were recovered from medieval contexts associated with the dovecote (1116) and reused in a dry stone wall (1473). They indicate that limestone was used for roofing on the site. Of nine whetstones recovered from both medieval and post-medieval contexts, the majority appear to have made use of either roof or floor stones of Pennant sandstone. Given the thickness of the fragments used for whetting and the lack of definite evidence for Pennant sandstone roofing, it seems most likely that these originated as flooring. In addition there are two examples of primary whetstones designed for that purpose (2034 and 2035) and one natural whetstone, which simply utilized a crude lump of unworked stone (2261). Another item (2170, Fig 13.2) is triangular-shaped and heavily grooved on all sides. The stone and the grooves appear to be systematically carved: it may have served as a whetstone, but also seems likely to have been of a high personal value.

A single pivot stone was found at the northern end of wall 2017, apparently *in situ* and basin side up (SF154, Fig. 14.1), although the wear is consistent with the stone having also been used the reverse way up. The stone was either reused in this wall but not as a pivot stone, or was used as a pivot stone but with an additional internal fitting (possibly wooden) which has not survived. The stone appears to have been originally round with three sides subsequently made square, giving the impression that it was at first intended to be made into a circular object, perhaps a mortar, but for some reason it was never completed.

A small piece of oolitic limestone was also recovered from a large medieval pit (2604); it is pierced and, with no obvious function, seems most likely to have been worn as a pendant.

Catalogue of Worked Stone, Mortars and Fragments

Fig. 13.1: mortar. Three adjoining fragments of mortar with the remains of two ribs and one lug survive.

Very thick smooth slightly concave internal base which is undercut at the sides. Internal diameter rim 170 mm. Shelly oolitic limestone. Ctx 2202. SF159, 161, 162. Phase 6.

Fig. 13.2: incised fragment. Triangular fragment covered on all sides with grooves consistent with point sharpening and giving the item a decorated appearance. Grooves added after the piece was shaped. 40×40×18 mm. Ctx 2170. Phase 5.

Fig. 14.1: pivot stone. Oolitic limestone. Large stone, originally rounded with one curved side and three straight ones all with tool marks. The perforation is worn smooth inside. One side of the stone is shaped, slightly rounded and worn around the hole. The opposite side has a circular flat-bottomed basin showing no signs of wear inside; this side of the stone is also more crudely finished suggesting it was not meant to be seen. 170×230×135 mm high. Ctx 2017. SF154. Phase 6.

Mortar. Not illustrated. Three adjoining fragments with half of one lug surviving. Burnt. Flat rim but moulded underneath. Internal diameter 150 mm, internal depth 76 mm. 30 mm thick on rim. Oolitic limestone. Ctx 2202 (SF160) and 2172. Phase 6.

Mortar. Not illustrated. Two adjoining rim fragments. One with surviving lug (and spout) and the other with the top of a rib. This is very weathered. The spout is 32 mm wide on top of the lug. Burnt. Diameter *c.*250 mm, rim thickness 35 mm. Very shelly and oolitic limestone. Ctx 2202, SF176/163.

Mortar. Not illustrated. Rim fragment with what appears to be part of a surviving rib (though it might be a lug). The rib has a triangular profile. The mortar is moulded around the rim and it is smooth but very uneven inside. Might join with SF176/163. Internal diameter 240 mm, rim thickness 34 mm. Shelly oolitic limestone. Ctx 2047, SF99. Phase 6/7.

Discussion

The worked stone assemblage is indicative of the agricultural nature of activities occurring on the site. Most of the items utilized locally available stone: the only imported stone is the Pennant

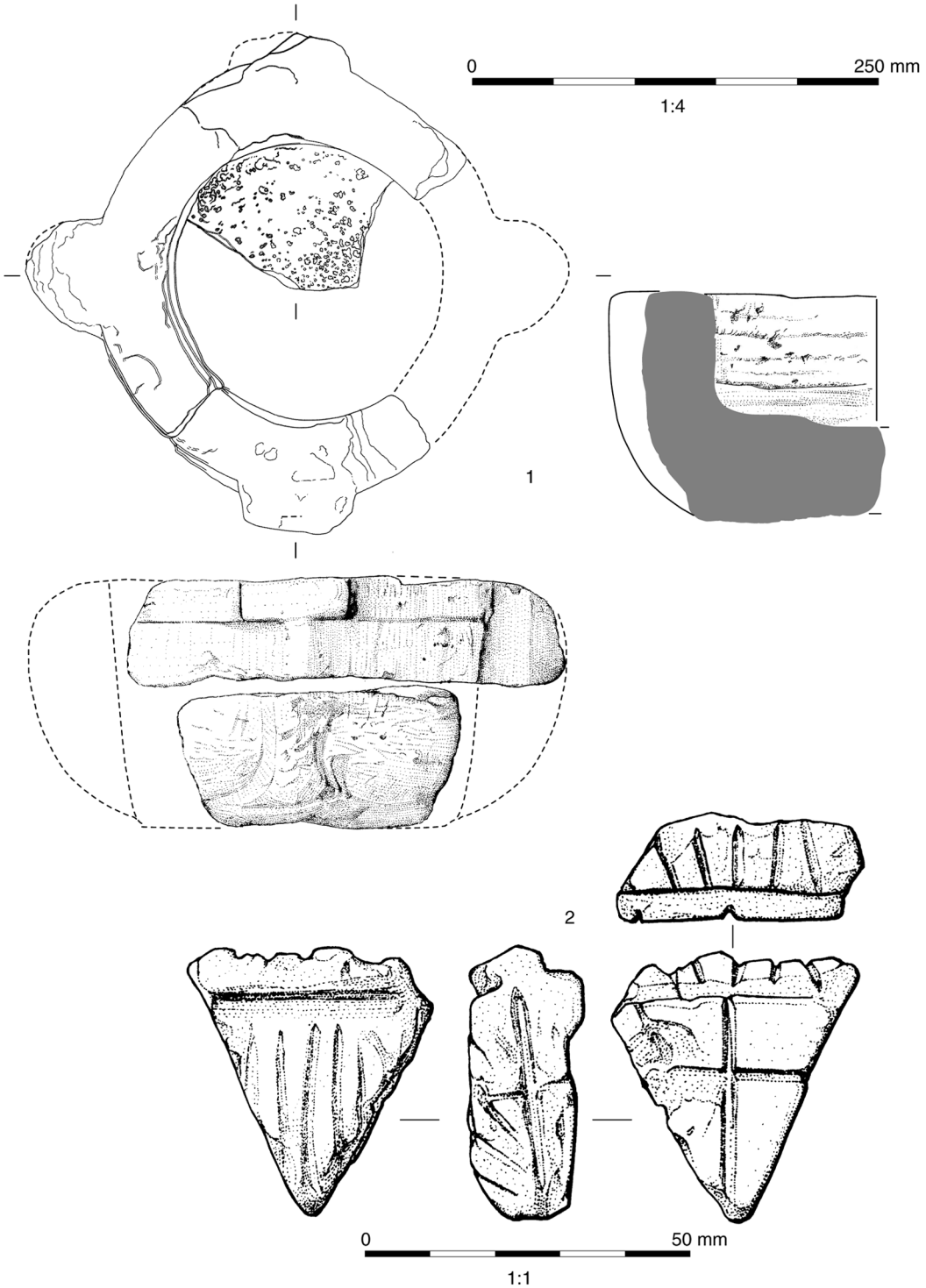


Fig. 13. Worked stone.

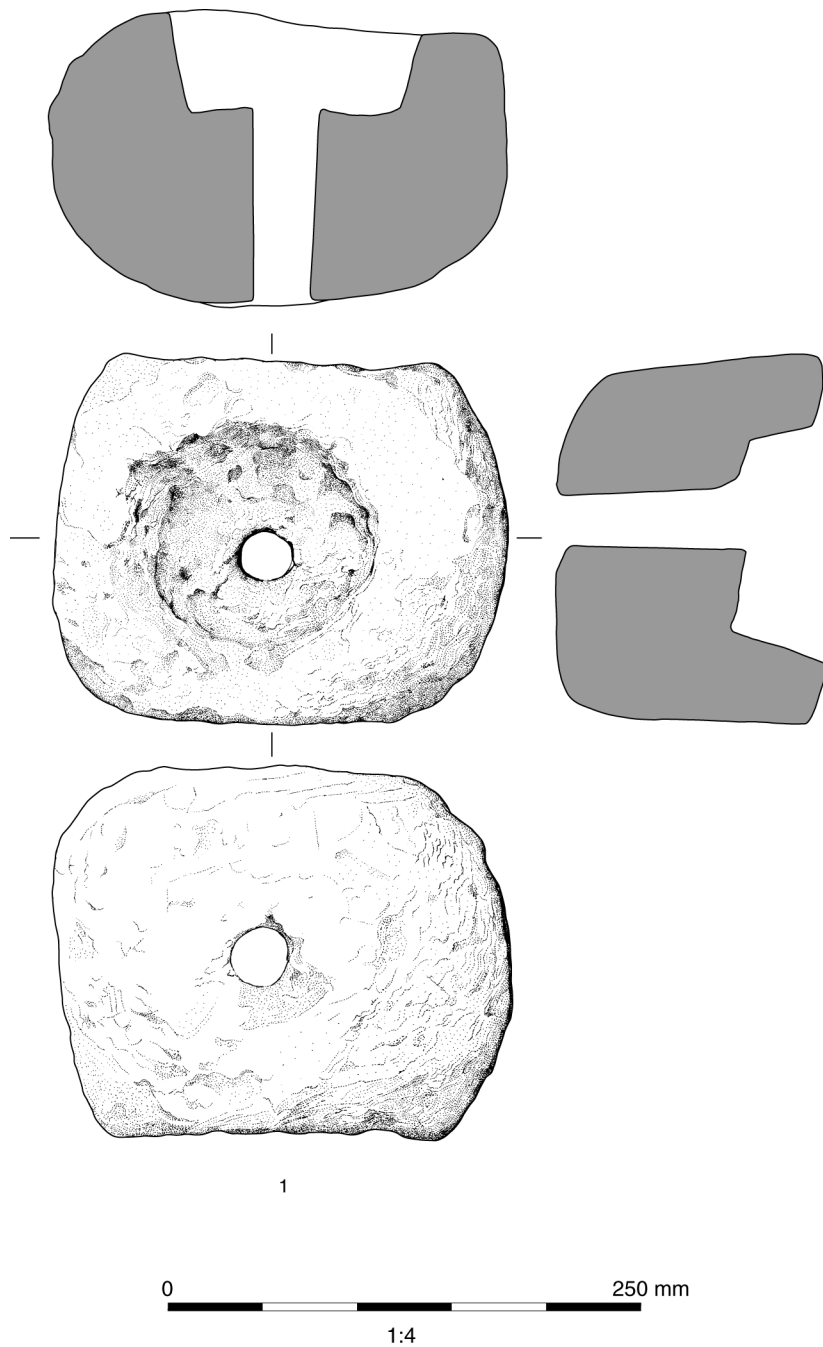


Fig. 14. Pivot stone.

sandstone and this has only been transported about 40 km. The pivot stone is also made from the same hard and shelly oolitic limestone, the source for which seems most likely to be from one of the local outcrops within the Great Oolite, perhaps at nearby Bibury. Mortars of local types of limestone are not, on the whole, very common, with other materials, notably Purbeck marble, being much preferred (Biddle and Smith 1990). There may be a link between the importing of building stone and its subsequent use for mortars, however, as appears to have been the case at Eynsham abbey some 20 km away, where Purbeck marble was used for building and favoured for mortars (Roe 2003, 291–2). At Little London the connection appears to be between the use of local limestone for building and thus for mortars, in place of imported items. This could suggest that the inhabitants were not very wealthy.

Glass by Hugh Willmott

A small assemblage of glass, consisting of 218 fragments, was recovered, entirely post-medieval in date. A brief summary of the glass is presented here; a more extensive report is contained in the site archive.

A total of 15 diagnostic fragments from 12 different vessels were recovered. The earliest are from two separate pedestal beakers. G1 is the basal push-in from the foot of an apparently plain example, whilst G2 is a small portion of side decorated with optic-blown honeycombing. Both are made in a potash-rich glass and date from the first half of the 17th century. Of a similar date is a soda-rich capstan stem goblet, G3. The fragment comes from the central merese, joining an everted bowl to the foot. A slightly later vessel, G4, is also made in a soda-rich glass, although with a heavy grey tint. It comes from a basal push-in, and although the precise form of the vessel is uncertain, it is probably a late 17th-century tumbler.

The remaining tablewares are all slightly later. G5 is a section of upper solid lead glass handle, either from a jug or more probably given its size a tankard. Hard to date precisely, the quality of glass suggests an 18th-century origin. G6 is portion of thick lead glass base from a plain tumbler. As with the handle G5, this is hard to date precisely but is 18th-century in character. The final two tablewares are 19th-century in date. The first, G7, is the base and lower portion of a solid handle from a tankard. The second, G8, is a wine glass with a solid rod stem, attached to a surviving portion of lower bowl.

The remaining vessel fragments are phials. The most interesting of these is G9. It originally came from the upper basal push-in from a broad phial, although after it broke, it has been further modified for a secondary (unknown) function, as evidenced by the grozing present in the area of the break. G10 is also a small fragment of basal push-in from a broad phial of similar date, although this example shows no later modification. The final two phials are of a narrower variety. G11 is only a partial base, but G12 is complete, and both date from the early 18th century.

A total of 137 fragments of wine bottle glass were recovered and it is possible to identify examples of all the major forms used from the mid 17th to early 19th century, although these have not been individually numbered. There is a single fragment of base from a shaft and globe bottle produced between 1650 and 1680. There are quite a few fragments that come from onion forms dating from the late 17th or early 18th century. Slightly later are fragments of squat cylindrical bottle and fragments from mid 18th-century moulded octagonal wine bottles. The final type of wine bottle is the tall cylindrical bottle dating from the late 18th or early 19th century.

THE ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

Animal Bone by Lena Strid

All phases of activity produced animal bone, but the vast majority of bones derived from medieval contexts. Over 5,000 fragments were recovered, of which 1,867 (35.9%) could be determined to species. While most of the identified fragments were retrieved by hand, some bones were recovered by wet sieving to 0.5 mm. This report provides a summary of the major findings; the full report, which includes a detailed methodology and a full record of the assemblage, is available in the site archive.

Animal Bones from Phases 1–4 (Iron Age–Saxon)

The modest assemblage is in fair condition; only 6% of the bones were burnt, and 20% gnawed, the latter indicating a significant degree of scavenging, typical for rural sites. Cattle and sheep/goat are the most frequent species in the early and middle Iron Age assemblages (Table 7), but the late Iron Age/Roman assemblage contained too few bones to carry out any form of animal husbandry interpretation and the number of identified bones is insufficient for an analysis of slaughter age for the three main domesticates (cattle, sheep/goat and pig). In general, it is evident that juvenile cattle and sheep were present, but the majority of the animals seem to have been sub-adults and adults.

Horse and dog were also present in smaller numbers. Of the wild mammals, red deer was found in Phase 1, and badger and polecat in Phase 2. Deer bones are rare on Iron Age sites and venison seems to have been a very minor part of the diet (Grant 1981, 206–7). Badger and polecat were utilized for their fur. As upper limb bones from both species were retrieved, it is likely that they were brought intact to the settlement and skinned there.

In the small Phase 4 assemblage cattle and sheep/goat bones were present in almost equal numbers. Due to the small number of identified bones it was not possible to discern any slaughter age pattern for cattle, sheep/goat and pig.

Animal Bones from Phases 5–6 (Medieval)

The great majority of hand-collected as well as sieved bones were from medieval contexts and, probably as a result of this, a range of taxa were identified, including a number of wild and domestic mammals and birds. The assemblage was well preserved. Traces of burning and gnawing were found on 16.5% and 5.5% respectively. This low percentage of gnawed bones suggests a rather rapid covering of waste and is unusual for a rural assemblage, particularly one where dogs were clearly kept. The greater numbers of sheep may reflect the importance of wool production in the Cotswold area (cf. Hurst 2005). However, considering the larger weight of cattle, it is likely that beef was more commonly consumed than mutton.

It is difficult to discern a clear pattern in the cattle mortality; most age ranges were represented, including calves, which is typical for medieval sites and indicates the range of functions which cattle performed. Adult cattle were used for ploughing and probably also for milk, while younger animals were slaughtered for meat. This pattern is fairly typical for rural medieval sites (Grant 1988). Surplus younger cattle may also have been sold on the hoof to urban markets in the region (see below).

The sheep were mainly slaughtered at 2–6 years of age, with a slight peak at 2–4 years, which suggests that, while sheep were important as meat providers, by the time animals were killed

Table 7: The animal bone assemblage, by phase and species

	Iron Age			Saxo- Norman	Medieval		TOTAL
	Early Iron Age	Mid Iron Age	Late Iron Age/Roman		Medieval (phase 5)	Medieval (phase 6)	
Cattle (<i>Bos taurus</i>)	16 (2)	47 (2)	6 (1)	22 (2)	227 (9)	67 (4)	385
Sheep/goat (<i>Ovis aries</i> / <i>Capra hircus</i>)	14 (2)	48 (6)	9 (2)	9 (1)	164 (14)	79 (6)	323
Sheep (<i>Ovis aries</i>)					2 (2)		2
Goat (<i>Capra hircus</i>)				1 (1)			1
Pig (<i>Sus domesticus</i>)	10 (1)	10 (1)		1 (1)	52 (4)	36 (3)	107
Horse (<i>Equus caballus</i>)	1 (1)	8 (1)	3 (1)	5 (1)	39 (2)	15 (2)	71
Dog (<i>Canis familiaris</i>)	2 (1)	2 (1)		2 (1)	169* (2)		175
Cat (<i>Felis catus</i>)					2 (1)	3 (1)	5
Red deer (<i>Cervus elaphus</i>)	3 (1)						3
Roe deer (<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>)					1 (1)		1
Badger (<i>Meles meles</i>)		4 (1)					4
Polecat (<i>Mustela putoris</i>)		1 (1)					1
Rat (<i>Rattus</i> sp.)					1		1
Mouse sp.					5		5
Bank vole (<i>Clethrionomys glareolus</i>)					2		2
Field vole (<i>Microtus Agrestis</i>)					1		1
Vole sp.					2		2
Domestic fowl (<i>Gallus gallus</i>)					36 (2)	6 (1)	42
Goose (<i>Anser anser</i> / <i>Anser domesticus</i>)					6 (1)	2 (1)	8
Duck (Anatidae)					8 (2)		8
Teal (<i>Anas crecca</i>)					1 (1)		1
Pigeon (<i>Columba</i> sp.)					11 (2)		11
Crow (<i>Corvus corone</i>)					4 (2)		4
Rook (<i>Corvus frugilegus</i>)					1 (1)		1
Corvid					6		6
Lapwing (<i>Vanellus vanellus</i>)					1 (1)		1
Passerine					4		4
Bird	4	1			134	6	145
Frog					271	1	272
Toad					49		49
Amphibian	1				233	19	253
Microfauna					4		4
Micromammal					31		31
Small mammal					4		4
Medium mammal	2	17	1		81	41	142
Large mammal	6	30	6	6	237	27	312
Unidentified	76	510	9	83	1623	505	2806
TOTAL	135	678	34	129	3414	805	5195
		847				4219	

MNI within parenthesis

* 168 bones from one articulated skeleton

they are also likely to have provided several clips of wool. Sheep in Phase 6 were on average slaughtered somewhat later than the ones in the earlier Phase 5, which is likely to be connected to the substantial medieval woollen industry, which promoted the slaughter of older sheep (Albarella 1997, 23–4).

The pigs in the assemblage were mainly sub-adult or adult, possibly suggesting a trade in younger live pigs for the market. There are six mandibular canines from sows in the assemblage and three from boars. Most canines were found loose and it is therefore impossible to discern if they belonged to adult pigs used for breeding. One of the sow canines is rather large and it is possible that it derives from a wild boar rather than a domestic pig.

The horse bones all derive from adult horses. It is likely that the horse remains mainly represent working horses that had reached the end of their useful life. Two of the bones displayed chop marks from dismemberment. After the ruling by Pope Gregory III in 793 against the eating of horse meat, it is generally considered that horses were not usually used as food; however, post-medieval sources mention the use of horse meat for dog and cat food (Gordon 1893, 187; Thomas and Locock 2000, 89–90). Another two bones were chopped through, possibly to extract marrow or to boil the foot bones for glue. One horse in Phase 6 was afflicted by spavin in its tarsal joint; another had one lateral metacarpal fused to the main metacarpal. This pathology has been linked to strain of traction and defective shoeing (Siegel 1975, 38).

The dog remains consist of articulated bones from one adult dog and a disarticulated neonatal mandible. The articulated dog had a withers' height of *c.*554 mm. This is similar in height to a modern day Labrador. Both femurs displayed eburnation on the distal joint, a sign of degenerative joint disease (Baker and Brothwell 1980, 115). The assemblage also contained some disarticulated sub-adult and adult cat bones. A tibia and an unidentified long bone in Phase 5 (1229) may derive from a small mustelid, such as polecat, stoat or pine marten. If this is a correct identification, it would suggest local hunting of fur animals. A single roe deer antler tip may have derived from a shed antler or from an intact skull and may have been a waste fragment from antler working. However, the larger red deer antlers were preferred for antler working and few examples of roe deer artefacts have been found (cf. Riddler 1988, 125).

Domestic fowl is much more common than goose in both phases, which is consistent with other medieval assemblages (Serjeantson 2006, 135–6). Other possibly domestic birds include duck and pigeon. The majority of the pigeon bones were found in the rubble fill of dovecote 1116, strongly suggesting that these were domestic doves. The wild birds in the assemblage (teal, crow, rook, lapwing and passerines) may also have been eaten, although the corvids may have been scavengers at the site.

There is little difference in the bone assemblage between the two medieval phases. A greater number of species was represented in Phase 5, but this may be a reflection of larger assemblage size, as well as the larger number of sieved contexts from this phase. The only difference found in slaughter patterns concerns sheep/goat, which were killed somewhat later in Phase 6. However, as the number of ageable mandibles is low, this is a tentative observation.

When compared to the assemblage from Dean Court Farm (Jones 1994) and assemblages from medieval Oxford (Wilson *et al.* 1989), Little London stands out in having more cattle and fewer sheep/goats. It is unclear whether this reflects actual differences in the livestock population, or whether the difference is caused by a relatively larger trade in sheep/goats, thus decreasing the quantity of sheep bones in the assemblage. Figures from the Domesday Book suggest that the latter case may be the most realistic scenario, as sheep far outnumber cattle (Albarella 1999, 868).

The slaughter pattern at Little London is consistent with the slaughter pattern for Dean Court Farm and other contemporary rural sites (Sykes 2006, 60–1). It would seem as if the surplus calves and younger cattle were sold on the hoof to urban markets in the region. Most of the adult cattle

were herded to the towns for slaughter when they were past their prime as breeding cows, milking cows and draught oxen. Some of the adult cattle, however, were slaughtered locally. For sheep the pattern is similar: older sheep seem to have been slaughtered locally. Comparing pig slaughter age patterns at the three sites is somewhat difficult as different ageing methods were used. However, as is typical, most pigs were slaughtered at immature and sub-adult ages (Wilson *et al.* 1989, microfiche M V D8).

Fish Remains by Rebecca Nicholson

A small quantity of fish remains was recovered, all from the sieved soil samples. All residues that produced bones were sorted down to 2 mm.

The Assemblage

With the exception of sample 12, a fossilized shark tooth from early Iron Age ditch context 1223 (see archive), all the fish remains derived from deposits dated to the medieval periods (Phases 5 and 6). A total of 41 fish bones were considered identifiable, representing a range of fish, most of them freshwater or migratory taxa.

Table 8: Fish remains by context

Taxa	Context									
	1223	1384	2459	2508	2578	2594	2603	2670	2673	2674
Shark	1									
Eel			6		1			3		1
Clupeidae		1	1				1		1	
Tench								1		
Cyprinidae		1	1	1				1	5	
Gadidae					1					1
Perch									1	
Pike			3			1	1		2	
Unidentified			3		1				1	
Grand Total	1	2	14	1	3	1	2	5	10	2

Medieval samples

Of the identified bones, those from the *Clupeidae*, probably all herring (*Clupea harengus*) represent the only marine fish certainly identified. Freshwater fish were represented by several cyprinid (carp family) bones, all from small fish. Of these, a single pharyngeal bone could be more specifically identified to tench (*Tinca tinca*), while a quadrate was consistent with roach (*Rutilus rutilus*). All the cyprinid bones were from fish of less than *c.*0.2 m in length. A tiny burnt cyprinid vertebra in sample 97 and charred eel vertebra in sample 95 implies the deliberate burning of fish remains, probably a means of rubbish disposal. Pike was identified in several samples. In all instances the bones were from fish of under 0.3 m and most were from fish of 0.2 m or less, known in medieval times as pickerel. Eels were identified in four samples. A single cleithrum from a small gadid (cod family) fish was most similar to the freshwater burbot (*Lota lota*) (comparison fish F703, EAU reference collection, University of York). Burbot is the only freshwater gadid and is now

almost certainly extinct in Britain. Before its extinction in the middle of the last century, burbot were found in rivers in eastern England, from Durham to Suffolk, and several centuries ago were common fish in these areas (Phillips and Rix 1985, 118). Burbot may also have been found in the Thames (Muus and Dahlström 1967, 155), but a record from Lechlade would push the former distribution of this species further west than has been previously established. However, cleithra are not the most easily speciated gadid skeletal elements, so the record must remain provisional.

Discussion

This small assemblage is atypical for medieval sites in that it consists predominately of small fish caught in freshwater. While eels can be captured at sea and in the mouths of estuaries, the fact that in 1086 the manor held by Henry de Ferrers included a fishery of 175 eels suggests that the eels were probably obtained locally. The small size of the cyprinids and pike is indicative of small-scale fishing in local rivers or ponds. While it is likely that some preserved fish were purchased in the local markets, it appears that the wide range of fish recovered from inland medieval towns, including Oxford, were not commonly sold in rural markets such as Lechlade, at least during the earlier medieval centuries.

Charred Plant Remains by Wendy Smith

In total, 72 deposits dating from the Iron Age through to the medieval periods were sampled for archaeobotanical remains. None of the pre-medieval deposits was suitably rich for full analysis (Pelling 2001). A suite of 39 samples were from deposits within a 12th- to 13th-century crop drier. All of these samples were recommended for further analysis in the assessment by Pelling (2001); of these, eight samples (specifically targeted for the range of taxa present and their location within the kiln) were selected for analysis here. A further five medieval samples (one pit from the eastern area and a pit, a ditch, an oven and a floor layer from the western area of excavations), which could be securely dated, were also selected for further analysis.

The following represents a summary of the results: the full archaeobotanical report, including detailed methodology, quantification and analysis, is available in the site archive. Nomenclature for the plant remains follows Stace (1997) for indigenous species and Zohary and Hopf (2000) for cultivated species. The traditional binomial system for the cereals is maintained here, following Zohary and Hopf (2000, 28, table 3, 65, table 5).

The 12th/13th-Century Crop Drier

A substantial, stone-built crop drier was intensively sampled for the recovery of charred plant remains in order to ascertain what crop processing activities were taking place within this feature and what fuels were in use. A grid system of 0.2 m squares was imposed for sampling, which ran along the entire length of the feature and also included four samples across the breadth of the oven and three samples at intervals along each side of the undercroft/rake-out area. In total, 39 samples were collected from this oven feature, but the eight most diverse samples were selected for analysis here. Radiocarbon dating of charred hulled barley (*Hordeum* sp.) grains from sample 24, an unstudied sample located within the flue of the drier, produced a date of 1180–1275 cal. AD (OxA-16893 – 95.4%). The drier was believed to have been rapidly backfilled with rubble after abandonment and, therefore, deposits within the crop drier are considered primary in nature.

The full archaeobotanical results from the drier are presented in the archive report; in this summary, the relative proportions of plant remains recovered are presented in Figure 15. There is

a strong correlation between the relative proportions of cereal grain to cereal chaff to weed seeds and the specific locations of samples in the drier. The samples collected from within the oven (samples 18 and 19) are dominated by large quantities of cereal chaff (primarily free-threshing wheat (*Triticum* sp.) rachis nodes and indeterminate barley/rye (*Hordeum* sp./*Secale cereale* L.) rachis nodes). Small quantities of cereal grain and weed seeds are also present. Notably the large-seeded vetch/garden pea (*Vicia* spp./*Pisum sativum*) finds were most frequent in the oven, with smaller quantities recovered in the flue. It is likely that plant remains from the base of the oven trickled down into it from above and reflect those crops parched or malted within the oven.

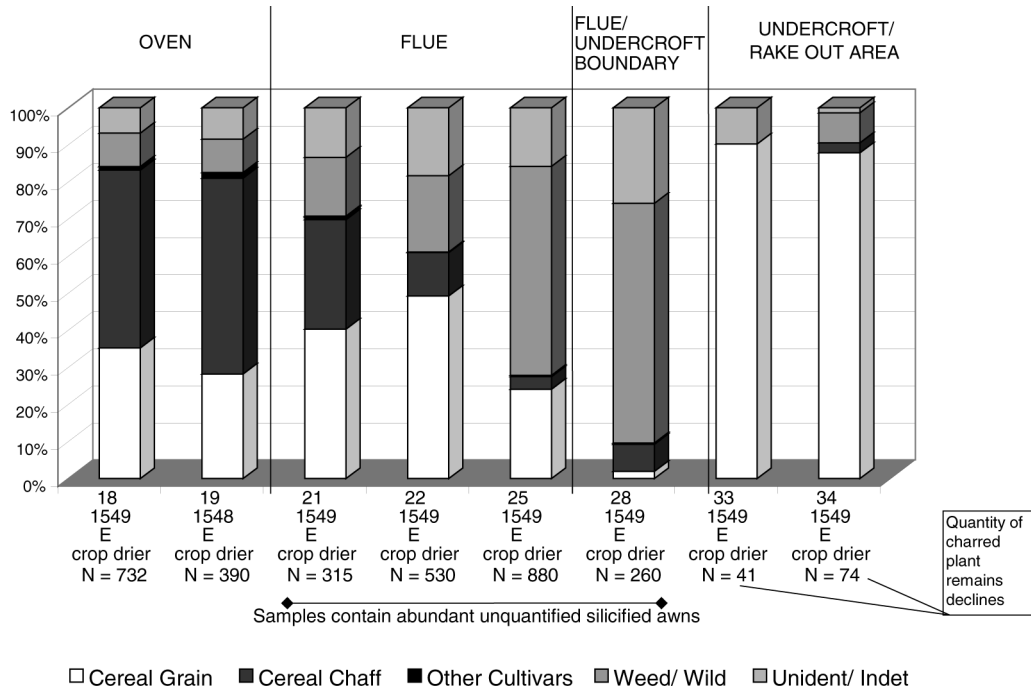


Fig. 15. Relative proportions of plant remains recovered from the corn drier.

Within the flue (samples 21, 22, 25) and at the boundary between the flue and undercroft (sample 28 – the area likely used to fire the kiln or rake out spent fuel) the amount of quantified chaff declines sharply as the location of samples moves further from the oven; however, there are large quantities of unquantified awn (wheat/rye type) recovered in these samples. The relative proportion of cereal grain slightly increases in the flue and flue/undercroft boundary samples; however, the actual quantity is in fact very similar to the oven samples. A marked difference, however, is the increase in weed seeds, especially smaller-sized seeds such as melilot/medick/clover (*Melilotus* spp./*Medicago* spp./*Trifolium* spp.), eyebright/barstia (*Euphrasia* spp./*Odontites* spp.) and rush (*Juncus* spp.). The recovery of small, light remains within the flue and at the boundary between the end of the flue and the undercroft/rake-out area is consistent with the presumed air flow within the drier during operation, such that hot air would be drawn away from the fire, most likely located at the boundary between the flue and undercroft, along the flue and into the oven.

Such an air flow pattern is a likely explanation for the recovery of small-sized awn fragments and weed seeds arriving in this area of the kiln on convection currents.

Both samples (samples 33 and 34) from the undercroft or rake-out area were dominated by cereal grain remains; however, these were smaller-sized assemblages (Fig. 15) with only 37 cereal grains identified in sample 33 and 65 in sample 34. The limited recovery of charred plant remains from this area reflects the fact that the undercroft would most likely have been kept fairly clear of debris during operation of the drier.

The imposition of a grid system for sampling this feature has yielded clear patterns in the archaeobotanical data which are internally consistent with the structure of the kiln (Fig. 15). Heavier fragments of cereal chaff dominate the oven samples and most likely reflect items parched or malted in the oven itself, which have trickled down onto the oven floor. Light chaff and weed seeds dominate the flue deposits, most likely because they are carried by the heated convection currents along the flue. The undercroft samples produced much smaller assemblages, largely comprised of cereal grain, which may relate to the use of this area to rake out the oven. While such a structure may have been used for drying grain as part of the malting process, there was no direct evidence for malting (i.e. the recovery of charred sprouted grain or detached sprouts) within the samples.

Other Medieval Samples (Pit, Ditch, Oven and Floor Layer Deposits)

Archaeobotanical results from the other medieval deposits sampled are fully reported in the archive report, but are summarized here in Figure 16. All of the samples were made up of a

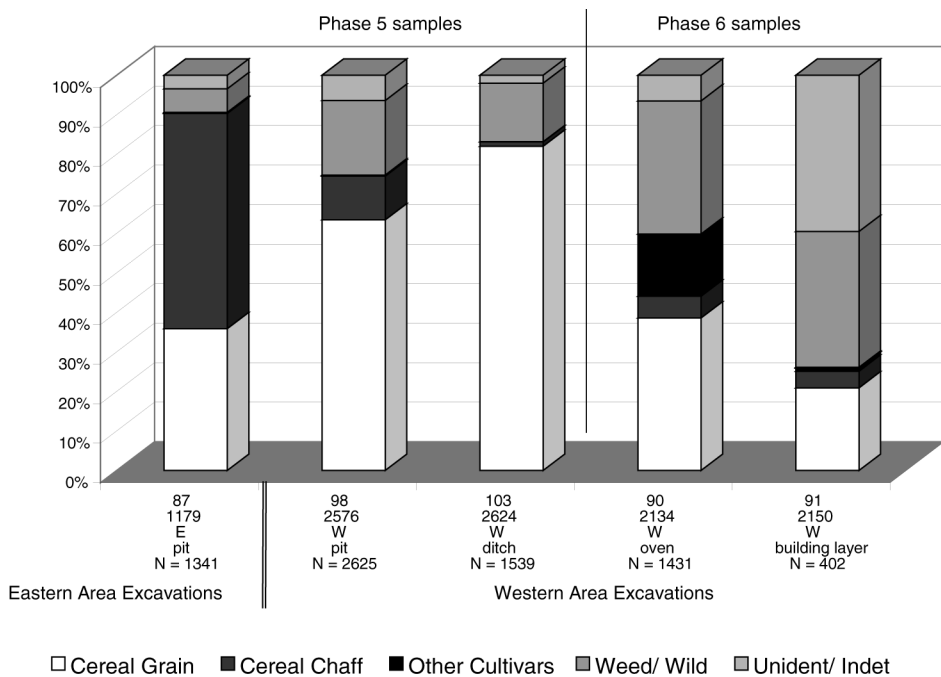


Fig. 16. Summary of archaeobotanical results from medieval samples.

mixture of cereal grain, cereal chaff and weed/wild taxa. Cereal grain recovered was primarily mixtures of hulled barley (*Hordeum* sp.) and free-threshing wheat (*Triticum* sp.). The majority of free-threshing wheat rachis nodes could not be identified to species, but a few were identified as rivet wheat type (*Triticum durum* Desf./*turgidum* L.). Notably, the oven sample (sample 90, context 2194, western area) produced 203 vetch/garden pea (*Vicia* sp./*Pisum sativum* L.) pulse identifications, which will be discussed further below. Although debris from some form of food processing (i.e. parching/malting) is the most likely explanation for the oven deposit, this is also likely for the secondary pit, ditch and floor layer deposits. However, burning of rubbish such as spoiled crops, domestic litter or old thatch cannot be entirely ruled out.

Evidence for Cultivation Conditions

The weed/wild plants recovered provide some information on the range of cultivation conditions. Many of the taxa recovered are typical weeds of arable crops. In addition, many of the weed/wild taxa are typical of open or waste ground. It is likely that such taxa could occur in the margins of arable fields, and certainly many of these taxa are frequently recovered with cereal grain or chaff at archaeological sites. Stinking chamomile (*Anthemis cotula*) can occur on heavy soils, but is not restricted to them and can occur on medium textured soil at poorly drained sites (Kay 1971, 625). Finally, there are several taxa that suggest that some of the areas cultivated were damp or possibly subjected to seasonal flooding.

Comparison of the Results with Other Sites in Southern England

Table 9 presents a comparison of the Little London results with 13 other sites in southern England. With the exception of Lydford (Devon), where samples were collected from primary grain storage deposits, all of the material from the other sites in the region is from secondary contexts (middens, pits, cess pits and ditches). In most cases only small assemblages (typically less than 1,000 identifications in total) have been studied from these sites and the majority are dominated by cereal crops.

Six other sites in the region – Bleadon (North Somerset), Eckweek (Bath and North East Somerset), Dean Court Farm in Cumnor, Middleton Stoney (both Oxon.), Shapwick House Moat (Somerset) and Sherborne Old Castle (Dorset) – have assemblages dominated by free-threshing type wheat (*Triticum* sp.) grain (Carruthers 1995; Moffett 1995; Robinson 1984; Smith 2001; Smith 2003; Smith and Campbell forthcoming). There is no 'typical' cereal crop(s) for this period in southern England; instead, it seems likely that a wide range of cereal crops was cultivated and in regular use, as food products and/or animal fodder.

Very few sites in the region have produced remains of cultivated pulses. Horse bean (*Vicia faba* var. *minor*) has only been recovered from four other sites in the region – Bleadon (Smith 2003), Dean Court Farm in Cumnor (Moffett 1995), Lydford (Green 1980) and Shapwick (Smith and Campbell forthcoming). However, horse bean has been identified by Julie Jones (pers. comm., unpublished data) recently at Redcliffe Backs and 98–103 Redcliffe in Bristol. Garden pea (*Pisum sativum*) also is not frequently recovered in the region. Only two other sites have secure identifications of garden pea – Bleadon (Smith 2003) and East Street, Wareham, Dorset (Green 1978). The trend for the limited recovery of pulses in medieval charred plant assemblages from southern England may result from the types of deposits currently encountered, which primarily appear to be the remains of cereal crop processing debris or accidentally charred cereal crops in storage.

Table 9: Comparison of charred plants recovered from Little London, Lechlade with other charred plant remains from medieval sites in the region

	13	3	7	5	16	7	75	1	1	17	5	3	23	5	n/a	COMMON NAME
Number of samples studied	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
LATIN BINOMIAL																
Cereal Grain																
<i>Hordeum</i> sp. – hulled grain	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	hulled barley
<i>Hordeum</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	barley
<i>Secale cereale</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	rye
cf. <i>Secale cereale</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible rye
cf. <i>Triticum dicoccum</i> Schübl./ <i>T. spelta</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible emmer / spelt
<i>Triticum spelta</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	spelt
<i>Triticum</i> sp. – free-threshing, compact type	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	free-threshing wheat
<i>Triticum</i> sp. – free-threshing type	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	indeterminate wheat
<i>Triticum</i> sp. – indeterminate	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	oat
<i>Avena sativa</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	cereal/wild grass detached embryo
Cereal/ POACEAE – detached embryo	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Cereal Chaff																
<i>Hordeum distichum</i> L. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	two-row barley
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> L. – six-row rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	six-row hulled barley
<i>Hordeum</i> sp. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	barley rachis internode
cf. <i>Hordeum</i> sp. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible barley rachis internode
<i>Secale cereale</i> L. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	rye rachis internode
<i>Triticum dicoccum</i> Schübl./ <i>T. spelta</i> L. – glume base	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	emmer/ spelt glume
<i>Triticum turgidum</i> L./ <i>durum</i> Desf. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	river/ hard wheat
<i>Triticum</i> cf. <i>turgidum</i> L./ <i>T.</i> cf. <i>durum</i> Desf. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible rivet wheat/ hard wheat
<i>Triticum aestivum</i> L./ <i>T. compactum</i> Host. – rachis node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	bread wheat/ club wheat

<i>Triticum</i> sp. – free-threshing rachis internode	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	free-threshing wheat rachis internode
Cereal/ POACEAE – culm node	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	cereal/ wild grass culm node
Cereal/ POACEAE – culm base	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	cereal/ wild grass culm base
Other cultivated plants						
<i>Prunus domestica</i> L. agg. – fragment of stone	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	bullace/ greengage/ plum
<i>Lens culinaris</i> Medik. subsp. <i>microsperma</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	lentil
cf. <i>Lens culinaris</i> Medik.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible lentil
<i>Vicia faba</i> L. var. <i>minor</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	Celtic/ broad bean
<i>Vicia</i> sp./ <i>Pisum</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	vetch/ pea
<i>Pisum sativum</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	garden pea
cf. <i>Pisum sativum</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible garden pea
<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	grape
<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L. – capsule fragment	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	linseed/ flax
cf. <i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible linseed/ flax
cf. <i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L. – capsule fragment	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible linseed/ flax – capsule
Wild plants						
<i>Pteridium</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	bracken
<i>Ranunculus acris</i> L./ <i>reprens</i> L./ <i>bulbosus</i> L. type	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	meadow/ creeping/ bulbous buttercup
<i>Ranunculus flammula</i> L. type	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	lesser spearwort
cf. <i>Ranunculus</i> sp. – internal structure	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible internal structure of buttercup
<i>Papaver</i> cf. <i>rhoeas</i> L./ cf. <i>dubium</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible common/ long-headed poppy
<i>Papaver</i> cf. <i>dubium</i> L./ cf. <i>hybridum</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	poss. long-headed poppy/ rough poppy
<i>Papaver</i> cf. <i>argemone</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible prickly poppy
<i>Corylus avellana</i> L. – shell fragments	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	hazelnut
<i>Chenopodium murale</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	nettle-leaved goosefoot
<i>Chenopodium album</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	fat hen
<i>Chenopodium</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	goosefoot
<i>Chenopodium</i> sp./ <i>Atriplex</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	goosefoot/ orache
<i>Atriplex prostrata</i> Boucher ex DC./ <i>A. patula</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	spear-leaved orache/ common orache
<i>Atriplex</i> sp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	orache
cf. <i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	possible beet
<i>Montia fontana</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	blink
<i>Stellaria media</i> (L.) Vill. s.l.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	common chickweed
<i>Stellaria graminea</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	lesser stitchwort
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	corn cockle
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L. – calyx fragment	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	corn cockle calyx fragment
<i>Spergula arvensis</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	corn spurrey
<i>Silene</i> cf. <i>vulgaris</i> Garcke	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	bladder campion
<i>Silene</i> cf. <i>latifolia</i> Poir.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	white campion
<i>Silene</i> cf. <i>dioica</i> (L.) Clairv.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	red campion
<i>Silene</i> spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	campion
<i>Persicaria maculosa</i> Gray	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	redshank
<i>Polygonum aviculare</i> L.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	knotgrass

<i>Alchemilla</i> sp.	✓		lady's mantle
<i>Aphanes arvensis</i> s.l.	✓		parsley-piert
<i>Prunus spinosa</i> L.		✓	sloe/ blackthorn
<i>Prunus</i> sp.	✓		cherry/ bullace/ sloe/ plum
<i>Crataegus monogyna</i> Jacq.		✓	hawthorn
cf. <i>Pimpinella</i> sp.		✓	possible burnet-saxifrage
<i>Bupleurum rotundifolium</i> L.		✓	thorow-wax
<i>Vicia hirsuta</i> (L.) Gray		✓	hairy tare
<i>Vicia</i> cf. <i>hirsuta</i> (L.) Gray		✓	possible hairy tare
<i>Vicia sativa</i> L.		✓	common vetch
<i>Vicia</i> cf. <i>sativa</i> L.		✓	possible common vetch
<i>Vicia</i> sp./ <i>Lathyrus</i> sp.		✓	vetch/ vetchling
cf. <i>Lathyrus aphaca</i> L.		✓	possible yellow vetchling
<i>Melilotus</i> sp./ <i>Medicago</i> sp./ <i>Trifolium</i> sp.		✓	mellilot/ medick/ clover
cf. <i>Melilotus</i> sp./ <i>Medicago</i> sp./ <i>Trifolium</i> sp.		✓	possible mellilot/ medick/ clover
<i>Medicago lupulina</i> L.		✓	black medick
<i>Trifolium</i> sp.		✓	clover
cf. <i>Trifolium</i> sp.		✓	possible clover
FABACEAE – unidentified <i>Genista</i> type		✓	pea family – gorse type
FABACEAE – unidentified		✓	pea family – unidentified
FABACEAE – indeterminate detached hilum		✓	pea family – indet. detached hilum
cf. FABACEAE - unidentified		✓	possible pea family - unidentified
cf. <i>Chaerophyllum</i> sp.		✓	possible chervil
<i>Scandix pecten-veneris</i> L.		✓	shepherd's needle
cf. <i>Scandix pecten-veneris</i> L.		✓	possible shepherd's needle
<i>Conium maculatum</i> L.		✓	hemlock
cf. <i>Angelica</i> sp.		✓	possible Angelica
<i>Daucus carota</i> L.		✓	carrot
APIACEAE - unidentified		✓	carrot family
<i>Solanum nigrum</i> L.		✓	black nightshade
<i>Lithospermum arvense</i> L.		✓	field gromwell
<i>Verberna officinalis</i> L.		✓	vervain
<i>Verberna</i> sp.		✓	vervain
cf. <i>Stachys</i> sp.		✓	possible woundwort
cf. <i>Prunella vulgaris</i> L.		✓	possible selfheal
LAMIACEAE – unidentified		✓	mint family
<i>Plantago major</i> L.		✓	greater plantain
<i>Plantago media</i> L./ <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.		✓	hoary/ ribwort plantain
<i>Plantago</i> cf. <i>media</i> L./ <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.		✓	possible plantain
cf. <i>Plantago</i> sp.		✓	possible plantain
<i>Vernonia heterifolia</i> L.		✓	ivy-leaved speedwell
<i>Euphrasia</i> sp./ <i>Odonites</i> sp.		✓	eyebright/ bartisia
<i>Odonites vernus</i> (Bellard) Dumort.		✓	red bartisia
<i>Rhinanthus minor</i> L.		✓	yellow rattle
<i>Galium palustre</i> L.		✓	common marsh-bedstraw

Table 9: *Continued*

	Number of samples studied													COMMON NAME			
LATIN BINOMIAL Wild plants (continued)	13	3	7	5	16	7	7	5	1	1	17	5	3		23	5	n/a
<i>Little London, Teclade, Glos.</i>	✓																
<i>Bleadon, North Somerset</i>	✓	✓															
<i>Dean Court, Cummor, Oxfordshire</i>	✓	✓	✓														
<i>East Street, Wareham, Dorset</i>	✓			✓													
<i>Eckweck, Bath & NE Somerset</i>	✓			✓													
<i>Howard's Lane, Wareham, Dorset</i>	✓																
<i>Lydford, Devon</i>	✓																
<i>Middleton Stoney, Oxfordshire†</i>	✓																
<i>Okhampton Castle, Devon</i>	✓																
<i>Over Farm, Dorset</i>	✓																
<i>Priory Barn, Taunton, Somerset</i>	✓																
<i>Shapwick House Moat, Somerset †</i>	✓																
<i>Sherborne Old Castle, Dorset</i>	✓																
<i>Street Farm, Wiltshire</i>	✓																
<i>Wareham 1974-5, Dorset</i>	✓																
<i>Galium spp.</i>	✓																
<i>Sambucus nigra L.</i>	✓																
<i>Valerianella dentata (L.) Pollich</i>	✓																
<i>Knautia arvensis (L.) Coult.</i>	✓																
<i>Carduus sp./ Cirsium sp.</i>	✓																
<i>Centaurea scabiosa L.</i>	✓																
<i>Centaurea cyanus L.</i>	✓																
<i>Centaurea nigra L.</i>	✓																
<i>Centaurea sp.</i>	✓																
<i>Lapsana communis L.</i>	✓																
cf. <i>Lapsana communis L.</i>	✓																
<i>Picris sp. - type</i>	✓																
cf. <i>Bellis perennis L.</i>	✓																
<i>Anthemis cotula L.</i>	✓																
cf. <i>Anthemis cotula L.</i>	✓																
<i>Anthemis spp./ Chrysanthemum spp. - intern'l strict.</i>	✓																
<i>Chrysanthemum segetum L.</i>	✓																
cf. <i>Chrysanthemum segetum L.</i>	✓																
<i>Tripleurospermum maritimum (L.) W.D.J. Koch</i>	✓																
ASTERACEAE - unidentified	✓																
<i>Juncus cf. inflexus L. - capsule & seed</i>	✓																
<i>Juncus spp.</i>	✓																
<i>Luzula spp.</i>	✓																

cleaver
bedstraw
elder
narrow-fruited cornsalad
field scabious
thistle
greater knapweed
cornflower
common knapweed
thistle
nipplewort
possible nipplewort
ox tongue type
possible daisy
stinking chamomile
possible stinking chamomile
chamomile/ crown daisy
corn marigold
possible corn marigold
sea mayweed
thistle family - unidentified
possible hard rush
rush
wood-rush

<i>Eleocharis palustris</i> (L.) Roem. & Schult. s.l.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	spike-rush
<i>Eleocharis</i> sp.	✓	✓				spike-rush
<i>Bolboschoenus</i> sp./ <i>Schoenoplectus</i> sp.	✓	✓				sea club-rush/ club-rush wood club-rush
<i>Scirpus</i> spp.	✓	✓				club-rush
<i>Isolëpis</i> sp.			✓			great fen-sedge
<i>Cladium mariscus</i> (L.) Pohl		✓				hairy sedge
<i>Carex cf. birta</i> L.		✓				large yellow-sedge type
<i>Carex</i> cf. <i>flacca</i> L. gp.	✓	✓	✓			sedge – 2-sided
<i>Carex</i> spp. – 2-sided	✓	✓				sedge – 3-sided
<i>Carex</i> spp. – 3-sided	✓	✓	✓			sedge family - unidentified
CYPERACEAE - unidentified	✓	✓				darnel
<i>Lolium temulentum</i> L.			✓			rye-grass
<i>Lolium</i> sp. - type	✓	✓				crested dog's tail
<i>Cynosurus cristatus</i> L.	✓	✓				meadow-grass type
<i>Poa</i> sp. - type	✓	✓	✓			wild or cultivated oat
<i>Avena</i> spp. – caryopsis	✓	✓	✓			wild or cultivated oat
<i>Avena</i> spp. – rachilla	✓	✓	✓			wild or cultivated oat
<i>Avena</i> spp. – glume	✓	✓	✓			wild or cultivated oat
<i>Avena</i> spp. – awn	✓	✓	✓			wild or cultivated oat
cf. <i>Avena</i> spp. – caryopsis		✓				possible wild/ cultivated oat caryopsis
cf. <i>Avena</i> spp. – rachilla	✓	✓				possible wild/ cultivated oat rachilla
<i>Avena</i> sp./ <i>Bromus</i> sp. – type caryopsis	✓	✓	✓			oat/ brome
<i>Phalaris</i> sp.						canary-grass
<i>Phleum</i> sp. – type	✓	✓				cat's tail type
cf. <i>Phleum</i> sp. – type	✓	✓				possible cat's tail type
<i>Bromus</i> spp.	✓	✓	✓			brome
<i>Elytrigia repens</i> s.l. - rhizome			✓			common couch-grass
<i>Danthonia decumbens</i> (L.) DC	✓	✓				heath-grass
POACEAE – unidentified small grass	✓	✓				grass family – small grass
POACEAE – unidentified medium grass	✓	✓				grass family – medium grass
POACEAE – unidentified large grass	✓	✓				grass family – large grass
POACEAE – indeterminate (size not specified)	✓	✓	✓			grass family
POACEAE – culm node	✓	✓				wild grass – culm node
POACEAE – awn	✓	✓				wild grass – awn
POACEAE – rachis/ rachilla	✓	✓				wild grass – rachis/ rachilla
cf. POACEAE – caryopsis						possible grass caryopsis
<i>Sparganium</i> sp.	✓	✓				bur-reed

Key: ✓ = present and = dominant cereal † = Only the charred plant remains are listed

See overleaf for Sources.

Sources of data: context(s) (total number of seeds identified)

Bleadon – (Smith 2003) 3 ditch samples (N = 4937).

Dean Court Farm, Cummor – (Moffett 1995) 3 ditches, 2 layers in buildings and 2 pits (N = 3168).

East Street, Wareham – (Green 1978): various contexts, not specified (number of seeds identified not provided, no mention of which type of cereal grain was dominant).

Eckweek North Somerset (Avon) – (Carruthers 1995): various contexts, not specified/ phases 5 & 6 (N = 2491).

Howard's Lane, Wareham – (Carruthers 1991a): 4 pits and 1 ditch (N = 610).

Lydford – (Green 1980): granary deposits (not completely quantified, N >5000).

Middleton Stoney – (Robinson 1984): cess pit (N = 155).

Okehampton Castle – (Colledge 1982): pit (N = 27).

Ower Farm – (Carruthers 1991b): midden (N = 807).

Priory Barn, Taunton – (Greig and Osborne 1984): 4 pits and 1 ditch (N = 133).

Shapwick House Moat – (Smith and Campbell forthcoming): 3 moat deposits (N = 688).

Sherborne Old Castle – (Smith 2001): 21 midden deposits and 1 pit (N = 3012).

Street Farm, Wiltshire – (Pelling 1999): 4 samples from deposits within a kitchen building and one oven (N = 2045).

Wareham 1974-5 – (Monk 1980): various contexts, not specified (number of seeds identified not provided).

Discussion

Most charred plant assemblages from this period in southern England are dominated by cereal grain remains (see Table 9). In addition, the dominance of free-threshing type wheat (*Triticum* sp.) grain, as seen at Little London Lechlade, also occurs at several sites in this region. The limited recovery of non-cereal crops most likely reflects a repeated pattern of charring events at Little London, Lechlade, which primarily involved cereal grain. To date only a few sites in the region have produced remains of edible pulses and, therefore, the recovery of small quantities of horse bean (*Vicia faba* var. *minor*) and garden pea (*Pisum sativum*) at Little London, Lechlade is significant. The weed/wild flora identified is dominated by weeds of arable crops or open ground, and also includes some taxa which are indicative of heavier soils and damp to wet conditions.

DISCUSSION**Overview***Phases 1 and 2: Early to middle Iron Age activity (early 8th–mid 1st century BC)*

Evidence for early to middle Iron Age activity was restricted to the eastern excavation area, where boundary ditches and pits ran down the length of the excavated area, the later (middle Iron Age) ditch being associated with settlement activity. As is clear from Figure 17, these ditches are a continuation of the major land boundary first found at Roughground Farm (Allen *et al.* 1993, 46, fig. 110) and then subsequently at the Memorial Hall (Thomas and Holbrook 1998) and Sherborne House (Bateman *et al.* 2003). Evidence for long Iron Age ditched boundaries is becoming more common in the Thames valley; there are, for instance, several later Iron Age ditches at Claydon Pike to the south-west of Lechlade, and in the Upper Severn and north Avon valleys pit alignments served a similar purpose (Moore 2006, 65). Major boundaries on the scale of those at Little London, however, possibly akin to the 'ranch boundaries' of the later Bronze Age, remain rare: (for a recent summary of the evidence from the Upper and Middle Thames valley, see Lambrick and Robinson forthcoming).

This boundary was previously interpreted as one of two contemporary land-divisions (Allen 1993; Jennings in Boyle *et al.* 1998, fig. 2.9). However, the recutting of the eastern boundary in the middle Iron Age at Little London and Sherborne House (undated at the Memorial Hall), in

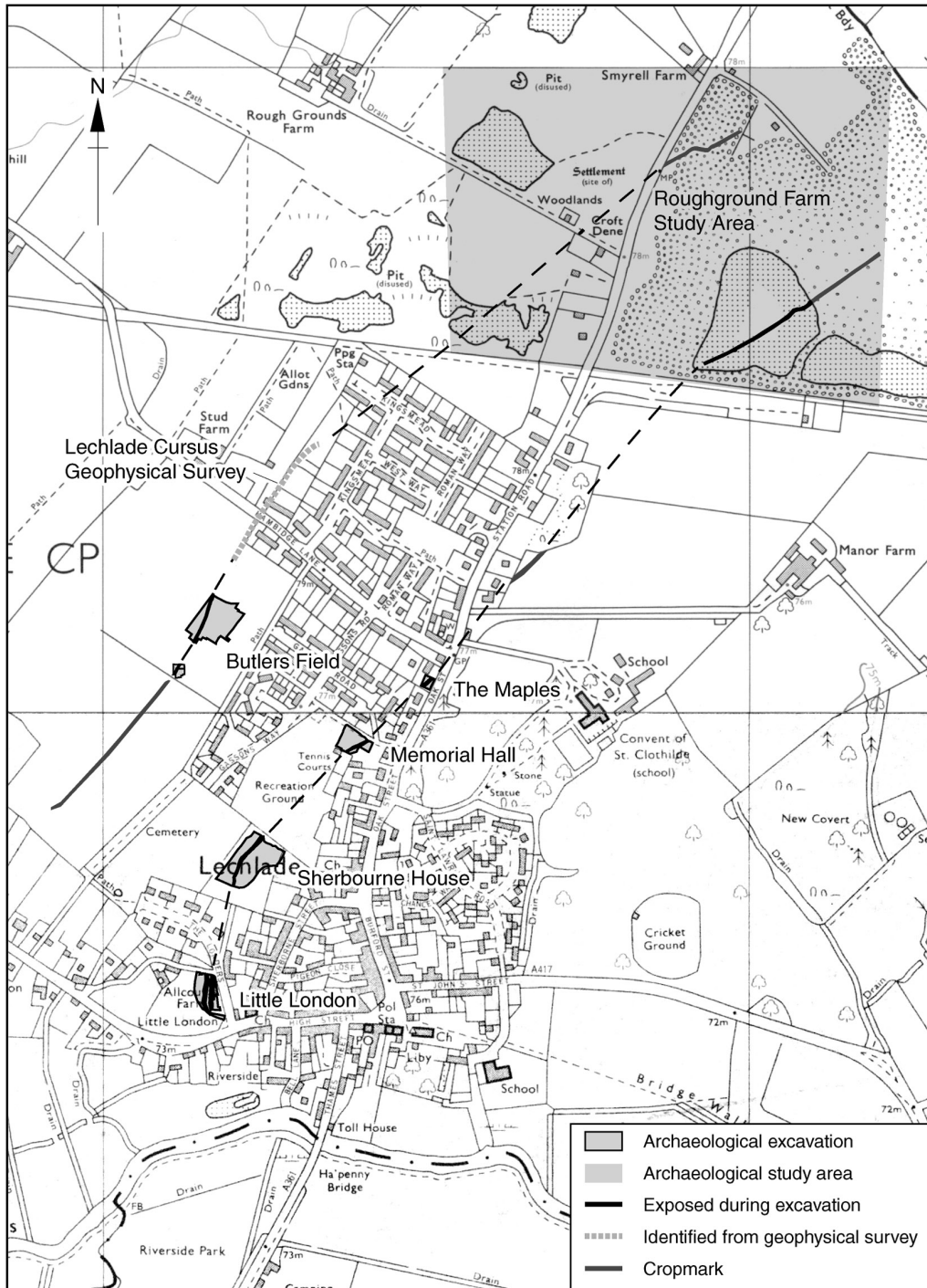


Fig. 17. The Iron Age boundary ditches in their local context.

contrast to any evidence for middle Iron Age activity so far associated with the western boundary, may mean that only the eastern ditch continued in use in the middle Iron Age. Alternatively, given the length of time spanned by the early Iron Age, they may have been successive definitions of a single boundary. No subdivisions have yet been identified that clearly link the two boundaries and, with hindsight, the discovery of a tightly-crouched inhumation of middle Iron Age date at the bottom of the eastern boundary at Roughground Farm (Allen 1993, 45) probably indicates that this ditch was not dug until the latter part of the early Iron Age.

The two ditches at Little London raise further questions about the nature of the eastern boundary. The early Iron Age cut 1238 probably had a bank on the east, as a subsidiary ditch ran off from the west side and a line of pits ran close to the west edge of the boundary ditch. Ditch 1238 clearly remained open into the Roman and Saxon periods and the fact that the later palisade trench and two of the clearly medieval ditches end part way across it suggests that this eastern bank may have persisted into the medieval period. The original ditch at Sherborne House had a blank band between it and the broadly contemporary roundhouses on the east and, except at the north end, was recut on the western side, which would also suggest a bank on the eastern side. To the north the recut crossed the original ditch to the eastern side, but in the Memorial Hall excavation there were again pit alignments west of the ditch and a largely blank area on the east, suggesting that the bank lay on the east.

For those who believe that such ditches formalize the boundaries between communities and serve to define territories (e.g. Moore 2006, 65), particularly in contested landscapes (Hey 2007, 170), the side on which the bank lay may indicate who dug the ditch. Although substantial, however, only at Little London were these ditches sufficiently substantial to have had any defensive potential and generally these boundaries must have been largely symbolic (although sufficient, particularly if planted with hedges, to deter animals). If this was also one of the roles of long pit alignments, it was presumably the resulting spoil (possibly a continuous bank) that constituted the visible physical barrier. Pit alignments in particular may indicate that the creation of such boundaries was a communal and shared activity, rather than a defensive measure.

Given that the early Iron Age boundary 1238 was still partly open in the middle Iron Age, it seems surprising that a second ditch 1237, and one of greater proportions, was dug just a few metres to the west, rather than cleaning out or recutting the earlier ditch, as occurred at Sherborne House. The recut at the very south edge of that excavation did lie alongside, rather than over, the initial cut, but their proximity was such that at original ground level they would have overlapped, whereas the gap at Little London was 2.5 m at the least, and generally 5 m or more. There was no bank on the west side of ditch 1237, as ring gully 1312 and enclosure 1743 lay right against the very edge of the ditch. The upcast may have been thrown out on the east side, sealing the row of pits west of earlier ditch 1238, but there was no clear trace of this material in the earlier ditch, and there is no suggestion that the later ditch, or its bank, survived beyond the Iron Age. It is just possible that ditch 1237 here belonged to a separate structure such as an enclosure beside the boundary, rather than being another phase of it. Alternatively, it may have been the isolated position of the earlier ditch between two banks that allowed it to remain open for so long, unlike the rest of the boundary further north.

Due to disturbance from later medieval activity, little of the ring gully survived. There was however sufficient to establish that its diameter was between 12 and 13 m, very similar to that of the two early–middle Iron Age roundhouse gullies at Sherborne House, and larger than most at Claydon Pike. On the west side the circuit had distinct corners, suggesting that the ditch may have been dug in short stretches between posts, or perhaps mirrored a building constructed of posts with wattle panels in between. Similar gullies have been suggested at Watkins Farm in Oxfordshire (Allen 1990, 7). The northern entrance of this roundhouse gully is unusual, most

having their entrances between north-east and south-east, but the orientation may have been dictated by the proximity of the adjacent boundary ditch.

The pottery from the ring gully provided a middle Iron Age date for its use and this is corroborated by the radiocarbon dates obtained on animal bones from the palisade trench that cut across the ring gully. Although not from Iron Age contexts, these residual Iron Age bones almost certainly derive from the roundhouse, giving a date of 350–200 cal. BC for its use.

Phase 3: Late Iron Age to Roman activity (1st century BC–4th century AD)

The presence of Roman pottery in the upper fills of ditch 1238 also suggests activity on or near the eastern excavation area during the Roman period. However, no evidence for Roman settlement has so far been recovered from the immediate vicinity. Probably the Roman material derives from manuring scatters, from the enclosure 300 m to the north-west, preserved in a depression created by the Iron Age ditch.

Phase 4: Saxon activity (mid 5th–mid 9th century)

Although no features of certain Saxon date were discovered during the excavations, the presence of early to middle Saxon pottery from the upper fills of early Iron Age ditch 1238, and the unstratified find of a decorated metal pin (Fig. 11.1), indicates activity from the mid to late 5th century to the mid 9th century. The pottery includes Ipswich ware imported from East Anglia, making this one of the most westerly occurrences of this ware, and, together with the decorated pin, hinting at high-status activity in the vicinity. The palisade trench (1768) stratigraphically postdates the Iron Age features and predates the medieval activity and its eastern terminal seems to overlie the earlier infills of ditch 1238, but to respect the later Saxon line, so it could belong to the later Saxon period. Unfortunately, animal bone recovered from the fill of the trench produced middle Iron Age dates ranging between 380 and 200 BC, indicating that the bones must be residual, and the palisade remains undated. There was no trace of Saxon activity north of the palisade and the curve perhaps indicated that whatever it enclosed lay to the south, but this area was very heavily disturbed by quarrying. The early and middle Saxon pottery may instead relate to a settlement off-site, probably to the north and east, and signalled by the evidence from the excavations to the rear of Sherborne House (Bateman *et al.* 2003).

Phases 5 and 6: Medieval activity (late 11th–14th century)

By the late 11th century the area later known as Little London was part of a manor held by Henry de Ferrers (VCH VII, 111). The archaeological remains dating to the following two centuries are consistent with the site being close to the core of a substantial manorial or sub-manorial farm, occupying the southerly margin of the gravel terrace, between the original Lechlade to Cirencester road to the north and the pasture and flood meadows to the south. The domestic focus of this estate (the dwelling itself) was not identified; it is possible that the present cluster of 18th-century buildings at the northern edge of the area may occupy the site of the medieval domestic focus. An alternative site may be that of the property on the northern side of the road (Little London House).

While the excavations cannot prove beyond doubt that the study area was a single property during this period, as the central part was not intensively investigated, there is nothing to suggest otherwise until later in the medieval period, when the structures in the eastern area were demolished and an extensive sequence of gravel pits was excavated. The dating of these pits is

uncertain due to the high potential of pottery redeposition, but the fact that there was very little late 14th- and 15th-century pottery recovered from the site (ceramic phases 4 and 5) clearly points to an absence of routine domestic rubbish disposal and it appears that it reverted to pasture and open ground. In contrast, the building complex in the western area survived and continued to develop through into the post-medieval period. This divergence could be seen as evidence of the break-up of the single estate into smaller separately-owned units, and it is tempting to link this rupture to the historical evidence that in the early 14th century the capital messuage of Peter atte Halle was broken up and sold (VCH VII, 114).

Character and Status

During the 12th and 13th century the functional aspects of the farm were evident in the buildings and other features revealed, particularly the two structures in the eastern area.

The drier was a sophisticated and well-built structure and, from the charred plant assemblage, most probably used for corn drying. The reasonable quantities of barley from the sampled deposits suggest malting may also have taken place, but this does not seem to have been the drier's primary role. The samples taken from the entrance to the flue point to the use of a variety of straw, crop residue, weeds or dry brushwood as fuel.

Medieval crop driers or malting kilns occur fairly frequently in the archaeological record. The battered-sided square oven and flue are the essential elements. The drying or malting of grain required only a modest heat (*c.*60° C for perhaps two or three days for malting). The oven superstructure would probably have been a dome, made of stone or fired clay, with an inbuilt vent or chimney. The radiocarbon date (from the burnt deposits in the rake-out area) of 1180–1275 cal. AD is entirely consistent with this type of drier. Very similar examples of the battered square oven base have been found, for example at Brixworth in Northamptonshire (Wilson and Hurst 1970, 206–7, fig. 71) and, more recently, at Irthlingborough in the same county (Chapman *et al.* 2003, 81–6). Both were dated to the 13th century and both were clearly elements within a substantial manorial or sub-manorial complex. While the shape of the oven base seems determined by operating efficiency and heat retention, there is variation in the associated structures: at Little London the oven was linked through a flue to a large semi-basement. The fire would have been set just within the outer end of the flue and periodically raked out into the north end of the basement room. The slight burning on the walls and the burnt deposits on the floor at that end support this contention. A vestigial vertical slot was noted in the western flue wall (1733) just inside the flue's southern end. This may have housed some sort of removable shutter or screen, designed to maintain the heat in the oven itself for as long as possible. Interestingly, the Brixworth oven displayed two square niches at the entrance of the flue, which may have served a similar role, although they were interpreted differently at the time of excavation.

The rest of the semi-basement probably served as storage for fuel. A stone staircase gave access on the eastern side and a timber-framed opening was suggested by the jamb slot in the south end wall. This opening could have provided access for fuel, or more probably may have housed some form of screen or shutter to control the airflow when the fire was lit, and hence the amount of heat being drawn through the flue and up through the grain in the oven. In contrast to this neat and self-contained structure, the kiln at Brixworth contained no evident superstructure at all. At Irthlingborough the kiln was set at one end of a long rectangular building – effectively a larger version of the Little London example and presumably serving the same function. The authors concluded that the evident scale of the Irthlingborough kiln suggested that it may have operated on a commercial basis as well as for the demesne farm of the manor (Chapman *et al.* 2003, 101).

In most aspects the evidence points to structure 1116 being a dovecote. Its shape and diameter

are typical and the concentration of pigeon bones within the rubble infill of the structure lends further support. The circular shape of the medieval dovecote was best suited to the installation and use of the potence, the pivoting frame by which all the nesting boxes would be accessible (Hansell and Hansell 1988, 83). The Little London example displayed a central pit, which could have been the setting for the potence shaft. The principal doubt about this identification is the narrowness of the surviving circular wall (c.0.25 m). This would only be sufficient as a plinth for a timber-framed structure. Typically the wall of a medieval stone-built dovecote was around 1 m thick or more, allowing nesting boxes to be accommodated within the wall thickness. A good example of the solidity of the foundations was uncovered at Dean Court Farm (Allen 1994, figs 65–6). However, it is possible that the Little London example incorporated a wooden internal frame containing the nest boxes. No parallels for this arrangement exist in the contemporary archaeological record, although that may not be surprising given their insubstantial nature.

The right to build a dovecote was generally restricted to manors and religious houses, although in the later medieval period the rising class of yeomen farmers could also aspire to the privilege (Hansell and Hansell 1988, 84). Dovecotes were usually positioned slightly apart from the house, where there was likely to be little human traffic (pigeons being nervous birds), and often on the edge of the farm precinct (McCann 1991, 125). Typically (and presumably for reasons of security) the entrance to the dovecote was in plain view of the main house. At Little London the entrance on the west side would have been visible from the assumed site of the domestic buildings to the west and north-west.

The dovecote may also be seen as an early component of garden design, and in this respect the associated features in the form of cobbled surfaces and short gullies, radiating to the north-west and south-east from structure 1116, are worth considering. The development of gardens as decorative areas and the first glimmers of garden ‘design’ are seen in the 14th century. A part of the manorial precinct at Harding’s Field, Chalgrove (Oxon.) was set aside in the early 14th century as a pleasure garden (Page *et al.* 2005, 168). The arrangement at Little London may be an early example of the same aestheticism, with the dovecote playing a focal role.

The earliest phase of activity in the western area consisted of pits and probable boundary ditches. The pits include some with fair quantities of domestic rubbish of unexceptional character, suggesting that buildings may have existed close by, perhaps just outside the excavations to the west. At this time, buildings are likely to have been of timber or cob, hence it is not surprising that little stone or building material was found. Only by the 13th century did structural development on the site itself begin in earnest, with the associated kitchen/bakehouse range along one side of a stone yard, itself bordered by other buildings and incorporating a stone-lined drainage system. The complex is all likely to have been part of a single property, because the drains run right across. The construction of stone or stone-footed buildings, which is dated on this site to the mid 13th century, fits a more general change from timber to stone buildings on rural sites (Allen 1995, 421).

Material Culture and Environmental Evidence

Overall, the finds assemblage through Phases 5 and 6 is not directly indicative of high-status consumption, although there are inferences of a comfortable lifestyle for at least some of the occupants. The 11th- to late 13th-century pottery assemblage largely comprises jars, with very few vessels that could be described as table wares, supporting the contention that the excavated areas were peripheral to the domestic focus. The several horseshoes, spurs and other associated items imply a significant degree of horse riding and possibly indicate that at least one of the buildings in the western area may have been a stable.

The economy of the settlement, as suggested by the finds and environmental evidence, was diverse and suggests that the farm's prosperity was the result a number of sources of income. Apart from the varied crop remains, there are some indications of trade and commerce from the pan weights and possible cloth seal. Animal husbandry almost certainly played a role in the farm's economy, although the evidence from the bone assemblage is slightly ambiguous. As Strid says (above), the relative scarcity of sheep bones does not necessarily mean the scarcity of sheep in the farm's economy, but actually suggests the opposite; that sheep are being retained for their secondary uses (wool) and not consumed on site. The presence of disarticulated cat bones and a longbone from a mustilid (polecat, stoat or pine marten) suggests there may also have been some involvement in the fur trade. The variety of fish represented were mostly freshwater species, and mostly small individuals, suggesting that, with the exception of the eels, which may have come from the fishery of Henry de Ferrers, they were probably caught locally.

Both the history and the archaeology indicate a fundamental change of course for the site in the 14th century. Very little post-13th-century pottery was recovered from the eastern area, which, after the demolition of the crop drier and the possible dovecote, was subjected to a fairly thorough exploitation of its primary resource, the natural gravel.

The continuation of pottery deposition into the 16th century and beyond in the western area, and in particular from the general demolition layers overlying the building footprints, strongly suggests that most, if not all, represents dumping from elsewhere, presumably the still-occupied dwellings to the north. Similarly, all but one of the 218 fragments of glass (all 17th-century or later) came from the demolition deposits in the western area. This is not to say, however, that none of the buildings was still standing by end of the medieval period. The presence of well-worn fragments of 13th-century mortars incorporated into the floor make-up for building 2019 supports the contention that this building was stratigraphically the latest in the area and could well have been standing into the post-medieval period.

Regional Context

Excavations of medieval rural settlements in Gloucestershire have been few and little work has been done on the smaller towns, including Lechlade (Bowden 2006, 170–3). However, the evidence for agricultural buildings and ancillary structures discovered at Little London fits into a wider pattern of manorial and sub-manorial settlements. A parallel may be suggested at Dean Court Farm, Cumnor (Oxon.), where in the 14th and 15th centuries a monastic grange centre, including a hall and solar and a dovecote, was surrounded by a series of smaller agricultural structures and peasant dwellings. The layout of ancillary buildings around the grange centre is reminiscent of the relationship of the structures excavated at Little London to Allcourt Farm. Excavations at Cogges Manor Farm, Witney (Oxon.) produced evidence of ancillary farm buildings surrounding the extant remains of the manor house and including a cistern and oven similar to those found at Little London (Rowley 1996).

The broad trend of mixed medieval rural settlement was summarized by Dyer (2002), describing a dynamic social pattern, with villages and larger settlements practising a mix of arable and pastoral farming, growing for the two centuries to around 1300, then contracting and changing their form under the influence of the socio-economic problems of the 14th century. The fundamental changes evident to English rural settlement in the 14th and 15th centuries have long been seen to owe their stimulus to several converging trends and recent work has tended to focus on the way these effects played out in the arrangement of settlements. Dyer (1997, 65) has considered that the abandonment or transfer of property in rural settlements did not necessarily lead to immediate use of the new acquisition. The land and the buildings may have stood empty for some time and their

subsequent use was often very different from their previous roles. Two trends are evident: one was the ‘engrossing’ of several small properties into a single holding (Dyer 1997, 70). According to Dyer, most ‘engrossers’ tended to use their acquired land parcels for pasture, a practice relatively low in labour costs and high in financial returns (Dyer 1997, 67). The other trend was the splitting up of large demesnes into smaller, separately-owned parcels; the evidence suggests this may have been the case at Little London, where the eastern area was initially exploited for its easily extracted and useful resource of gravel, and then turned over to pasture. In the context of the prosperity of Lechlade in the late medieval period, the presence of domestic rubbish, but the absence of a domestic focus, should probably be seen as a reorganization of the activity in that part of the site and perhaps a shift in focus of habitation to the north, not to any fundamental decline.

ARCHIVE

The project archive is currently held by Oxford Archaeology. In due course it will be deposited with the Corinium Museum, Cirencester. Site code: LELIL 99.

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