

For thousands of years, the Great Ouse Valley has been a place where people have lived, died, and worshipped. These three elements were all evident in the prehistoric landscape identified by Albion Archaeology near Margetts Farm, Buckden, Cambridgeshire during a series of archaeological excavations in 1999–2004. The valley's Neolithic and early Bronze Age inhabitants used the land here for primarily ceremonial and funerary purposes: a henge was revealed by the excavations, as well as other monuments associated with burials and other rituals.

The later Bronze Age landscape took on a more agricultural aspect, and a people first began to settle here in the early Iron Age. Settlement was never intensive, but the presence of enclosures, roundhouses and other buildings attests to periodic occupation throughout the Iron Age. The Romans also used this area for agriculture, possible growing grapes, but no further traces of settlement were found between the Iron Age and the construction of Margetts Farm itself.



MARGETTS FARM, BUCKDEN, CAMBRIDGESHIRE

REMAINS OF A PREHISTORIC LANDSCAPE IN THE GREAT OUSE VALLEY



BY DAVID INGHAM AND JEREMY OETGEN



Margetts Farm, Buckden, Cambridgeshire: Remains of a Prehistoric Landscape in the Great Ouse Valley

by David Ingham and Jeremy Oetgen

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Cover illustrations

Front: Reconstruction of the henge on Site C

Back: Excavation and recording of a roundhouse on Site B

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List of Abbreviations

ASW:	Average sherd weight
BCAS:	Bedfordshire County Archaeology Service
CUCAP:	Cambridge University Collection of Aerial Photographs
LAL:	Lafarge Aggregates Limited
NMR:	National Monuments Records
ROMPP:	Review of Old Minerals Planning Permissions

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Summary

A series of archaeological excavations by Albion Archaeology took place between 1999 and 2004 in advance of gravel extraction on the floodplain of the River Great Ouse near Margetts Farm, Buckden, Cambridgeshire. Three main excavations took place, at Sites A–C: these revealed the remains of a prehistoric landscape with elements dating from the late Neolithic to the late Iron Age, as well as evidence for Roman viticulture.

Sites A and B contained remains dating primarily to the middle to late Iron Age. The settlement revealed there was initially unenclosed in character, albeit associated with a linear ditched boundary, but three enclosures were created during the latter half of the Iron Age. Two of these are likely to have been for livestock, served by three large water pits located nearby, while the third may have had a ritual function. Three four- and six-post structures and up to three roundhouses were also identified.

Iron Age pits and a possible roundhouse were also revealed on Site C, but the features excavated there primarily represent the outlying remnants of an extensive Neolithic and Bronze Age landscape that had elsewhere been quarried away decades earlier. The principal feature was a heavily plough-truncated henge, which acted as a focus for much of the Iron Age activity on Site C. A ring of post-holes survived around the interior of the henge ditch, while the monument appears to have been focused on a large tree growing within its interior. A second large tree was a focus for a semi-circle of pits and a cremation burial, while a possible third monument that was only partially revealed within the excavated area lay to the north. A three-sided enclosure to the south of the henge is likely to have been contemporary with it, but the other ditches in this area represent the remains of a later prehistoric field system. The ditches at the southern end of Site C were associated with Roman viticulture, but the pits within the area that they occupied were earlier, with some dating as far back as the late Neolithic.

This volume presents the results of these excavations and provides an interpretation of what they revealed. Although fragmentary and heavily truncated by ploughing, the excavated remains are the only ones within the Buckden Quarry landscape to have been examined in modern times and to have been published, and it is hoped that they will offer some insight into the much more extensive prehistoric landscape that once existed there.

Chapter 1

Introduction

PROJECT BACKGROUND

Archaeological fieldwork was carried out between 1999 and 2004 by Albion Archaeology (formerly Bedfordshire County Archaeology Service – BCAS) at Buckden Quarry, Cambridgeshire. The work was undertaken on behalf of LAL (formerly Lafarge Redland Aggregates Ltd) and was initiated under Planning Policy Guidance Note 16 and the Review of Old Minerals Planning Permissions (ROMPP), in accordance with the requirements of the Minerals Planning Authority, Cambridgeshire County Council. The main foci of investigation were located at Sites A–C on land around Margetts Farm (Fig. 1), and this report describes what was revealed by the excavation of these three sites.

LOCATION, TOPOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY

Margetts Farm is a 19th-century farmstead. It lies east of the village of Buckden and south of Mill Road, which runs between Buckden and Offord Cluny (Fig. 1). The farmstead itself is centred at grid reference TL 2079 6694.

Since the 1940s, almost all of the available sand and gravel to the north and east of Buckden has been extracted and the quarry pits have now either been reinstated for farming or turned into permanent lakes, one of which now forms Buckden Marina. Quarry company records demonstrate that prior to extraction, the land around Margetts Farm land was flat but for a slight fall from a height of *c.* 14.5m OD in the west to *c.* 11.6m OD in the east (Redland Aggregates Ltd 1989).

The land is situated on the lower reaches of the Great Ouse Valley. At this point the valley is *c.* 2km wide and the present main river channel is *c.* 800m east of the farmstead. However, numerous broad palaeochannels apparent in aerial photographs indicate the extent to which drainage patterns have shifted across the floodplain (Fig. 2; Appendix 10). The Diddington Brook, which passes within 175m of the farmstead, is one of several minor tributaries that join the main river from the west.

According to the Soil Survey of England and Wales (Hodge *et al.* 1983), soils on the site generally were typical argillic brown sands (Efford 1 soil association), but typical calcareous pelosols (Hanslope soil association) on chalky till were present on the slopes to the west of the site, and pelo-alluvial gley soils (Fladbury 1 soil association) along the course of the river. Superficial deposits over most of the site comprised First and Second Terrace Gravels, with till along the western edge of the valley. Third Terrace deposits survive at Buckden, but these are well outside the present study area. Alluvium was only present east of the Diddington Brook. The Terrace Gravels have accumulated in a wide channel eroded into the Oxford Clay bedrock (British Geological Survey 1977 and 1979; Green 2000).

ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Dawson's edited volume of collected papers, published in 2000, highlights the wealth of archaeological evidence emerging from the Great Ouse Valley in the 1990s, largely resulting from development-related research carried out within the framework of the planning system. The well drained soils of the valley are often highly conducive to the formation of crop-marks over buried archaeological features, allowing numerous sites to be discovered by aerial reconnaissance, while the high volume of development in the region has given rise to frequent episodes of archaeological fieldwork. The fertile land and varied habitats of river margins may also have attracted human settlement in the valley more than on the hinterland — although work carried out since the Margetts Farm excavations has also seen a rise in the discovery and investigation of prehistoric and Roman settlements on the 'heavier' boulder clays on the periphery of the Great Ouse Valley, for example in the area between St Neots and Cambridge (Abrams and Ingham 2008; Hinman forthcoming).

Previous archaeological fieldwork in the Buckden area is largely unpublished, particularly that done in the 1940s by Clayton and in the 1950s and 1960s by C.F. Tebbutt, G.T. Rudd and P. Addyman, although the results of more recent developer-funded investigations are now finding their way into publication. Most notable of these is the work at Little Paxton Quarry, to the south of Margetts Farm, where an extensive programme of investigation since 1992 (Jones 2011) has revealed evidence from the Mesolithic to Roman period.

Aerial photographs for the Buckden area that are held in the CUCAP and NMR collections were comprehensively studied in the 1980s, and archaeological features were plotted on Ordnance Survey base maps. Aerial photographic evidence for the Margetts Farm area has been reviewed and replotted for this volume (see below and Appendix 10).

Palaeolithic and Mesolithic

Although no evidence of this date was found at Margetts Farm, the collection of various Palaeolithic artefacts and mammal bones that are held in St Ives Museum suggests that human exploitation of the Great Ouse Valley was fairly widespread during this period. Scatters of Mesolithic flints were recovered from Little Paxton Quarry, mainly from systematic field-walking and test-pit excavation (Jones 2011).

Neolithic and Bronze Age

The numerous ring ditches that have been spotted on the gravels near Buckden as crop-marks (Fig. 2) — for instance at TL 209 677 (SMR ref. 1790) — have been quarried away over the years. Limited fieldwork has suggested that these were probably Neolithic or early Bronze Age ritual monuments: a Bronze Age ritual site

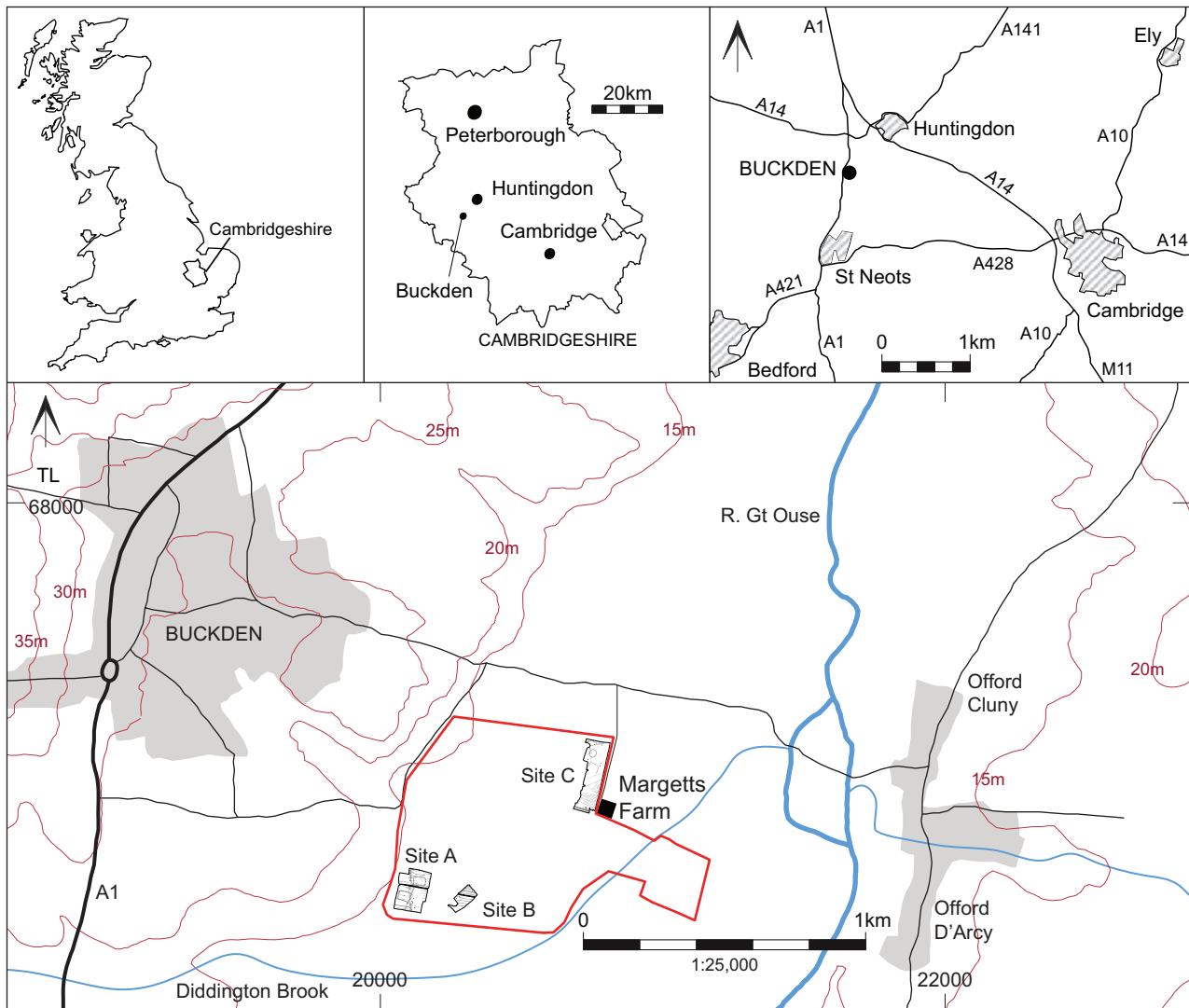


Figure 1: Site location

with an inhumation and a cremation burial was recorded at TL 208 671 (NMR UID 871835); and salvage excavation of one of a line of ring ditches in Diddington Quarry was undertaken in 1986 (Evans 1997). A crop-mark of another possible ring ditch was recorded at TL 210 674 (SMR ref. 8158), while quarrying to the north-east of Margetts Farm revealed two ring ditches — one (TL 209 672) was 30m in diameter, the other (TL 210 672) 34m.

Numerous small Bronze Age flints were recovered during gravel extraction c. 500m to the west of Margetts Farm (Clayton 1947; SMR ref. 2484a), and further Neolithic and Bronze Age flints and Beaker pottery from the Buckden area are held in St Ives Museum's collections. To the south, investigations at Little Paxton Quarry revealed a number of small pits and other features of Neolithic to Bronze Age date (Jones 2011, 15–22).

A possible cursus crop-mark at TL 212 664 (Cambridgeshire SMR ref. 8222) is probably spurious and the feature has not been identified by the latest survey (Fig. 2). A linear crop-mark that crossed Margetts Farm Site A was also previously identified as a possible cursus (NMR UID 1336403: TL26 NW 41).

Iron Age

Remains of Iron Age settlement were uncovered to the north-east of Buckden (TL 201 680) as a result of

quarrying, investigated by Tebbutt, Rudd and Addyman (unpublished; SMR ref. 861a–e). St Ives Museum holds Iron Age pottery collected from nearby, at TL 207 679 (SMR ref. 859), TL 209 678 (SMR ref. 2060), and from the site of the present lake north of Buckden Marina at TL 212 678 (SMR ref. 2508). Further settlement sites dating from the middle Iron Age to the late Iron Age / early Roman period were identified during investigations in Little Paxton Quarry (Jones 2011).

Roman

An excavation carried out in 1941 during gravel extraction c. 500m to the west of Margetts Farm (Clayton 1947) revealed a small Roman settlement dating to the 2nd–3rd centuries (SMR ref. 2484, TL 200 668). Crop-marks to the east of this area (at TL 205 669) are also listed as being probably Roman in date (SMR ref. 2484b), though at the time of writing, the SMR entry includes the crop-marks at Margetts Farm Site A, which are now believed to be earlier in date.

Unpublished excavations led by Peter Addyman in the mid-1950s revealed a Roman settlement to the north-east of Buckden. Further evidence of Roman settlement was found c. 1km to the north-east, near the Buckden parish boundary (SMR ref. 2498a–c), while excavations at Little Paxton revealed the remains of Roman field

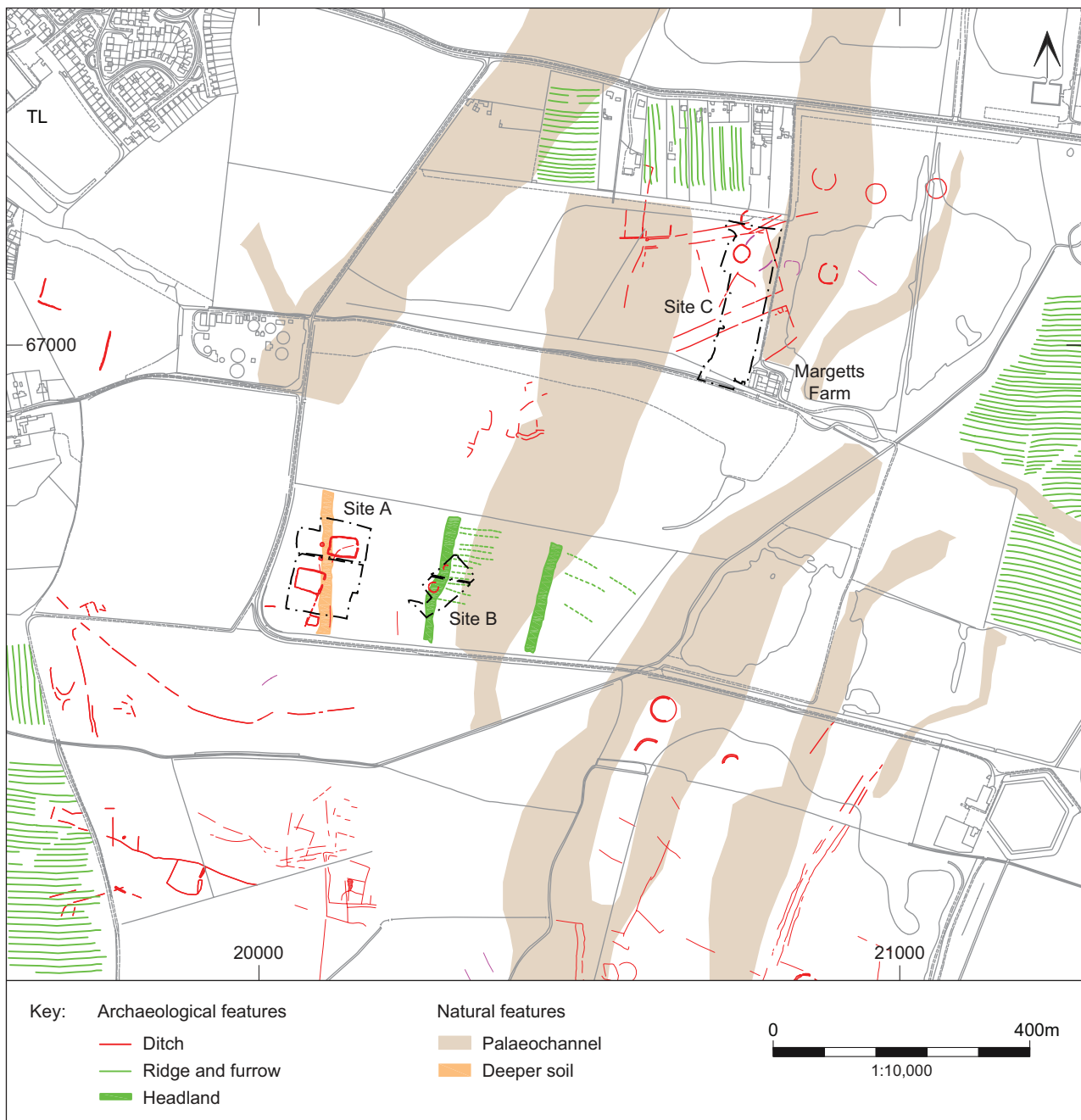


Figure 2: Plan of crop-marks overlaid on excavated features

systems and settlement (Jones 2011), and an evaluation at Brampton Road, Buckden found ditches of a Roman field system (Burrow and Foard-Colby 2006). The SMR also records finds of Roman flue tile and pottery at TL 213 688 (SMR ref. 950) and TL 207 679 (SMR ref. 859), and a Roman bronze pin at TL 203 675 (SMR ref. 860).

Post-Roman

Evidence for Anglo Saxon settlement was found by Addyman during the 1950s excavations north-east of Buckden, while Tebbutt and Rudd also uncovered an Anglo Saxon settlement close to the Buckden parish boundary at TL 210 689 (SMR ref. 2498a–c). Medieval field strip systems are visible on aerial photographs across several areas of the parish (SMR refs 861a–e, 3004, 4329A, 11343, 11351, 05738A and possibly 09971).

AREAS OF INVESTIGATION

Sites A and B

In December 1994, Redland Aggregates Ltd obtained planning permission from Cambridgeshire County Council to expand their sand and gravel extraction at Buckden Quarry into land to the south-west of Margetts Farm. Archaeological studies undertaken in support of the application (Hedges 1992; Palmer 1992b; Coxah 1992) indicated that the land was archaeologically sensitive. Planning permission was granted, but a further programme of archaeological evaluation was requested by the County Archaeology Office, followed where appropriate by excavation and recording. These works were not implemented until June 1999 when the new company, Lafarge Redland Aggregates Ltd, commissioned BCAS to undertake them.

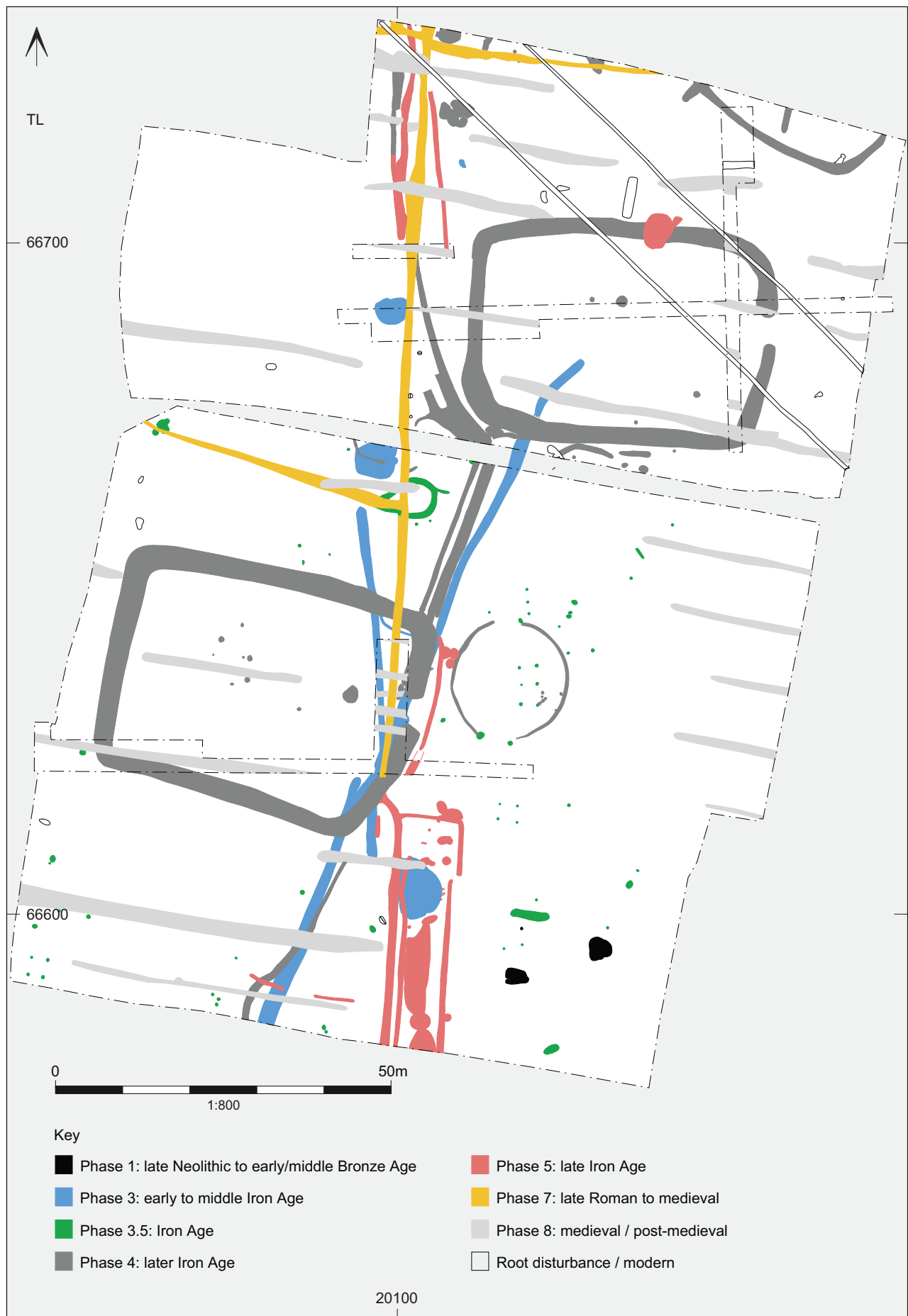


Figure 3: Phased all-features plan — Site A

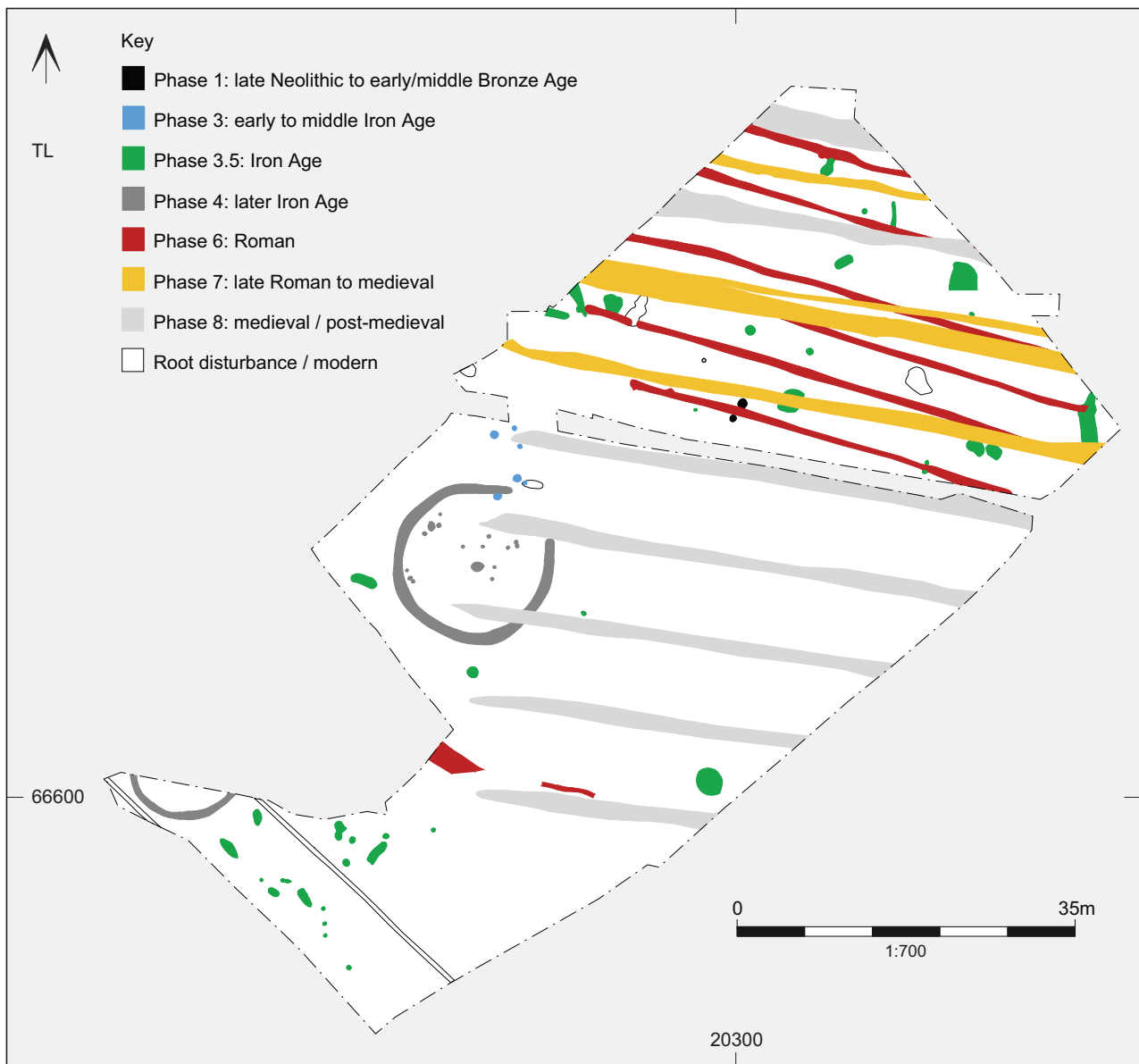


Figure 4: Phased all-features plan — Site B

Based on the conclusions of the evaluation (Coxah 1992), two discrete Areas of Archaeological Significance were identified *c.* 1km to the south-west of Margetts Farm (Fig. 1: Sites A and B). These were investigated by BCAS / Albion Archaeology between 1999 and 2002, beginning with a field-walking survey over an area of 12 hectares (BCAS 1999) and followed by three seasons of open-area excavation.

Topsoil and subsoil within the specified excavation area was mechanically stripped under archaeological supervision. Site A covered an area of *c.* 1.5 hectares, but there was a minor loss of part of the specified area between the 2000 and 2001 seasons of excavation as a result of unexpectedly severe erosion of the quarry face, which explains the narrow gap in the plan (Fig. 3). Site B was *c.* 0.4 hectares in size, and part of this area was also lost to erosion (Fig. 4).

Site C

In November 2001, the existing planning permissions for Buckden Quarry were reviewed under the provisions

of the Environment Act 1995 (Review of Old Minerals Planning Permissions (ROMPP)). A revised condition required archaeological investigations to be undertaken on two remaining unworked areas within the quarry. The first was land beneath a soil bund to the north-west of Margetts Farm (Fig. 1: Site C), which the County Archaeology Office advised was archaeologically sensitive on the evidence of crop-marks (SMR ref. 2484c). Albion Archaeology was commissioned to procure the accurate mapping of the crop-marks (see below and Appendix 10) and to undertake an archaeological excavation, which took place in two stages between June and November 2003 (Fig. 5).

The bulk of the storage bund was removed without close archaeological supervision, but the bottom metre or so was closely monitored as if it had been undisturbed. It soon became clear that the area had already had topsoil removed prior to construction of the bund, which may mean that Site C suffered a greater degree of truncation than would normally have been expected on arable land as a result of standard agricultural operations.



Figure 5: Phased all-features plan — Site C

Land east of Lodge Farm, Buckden

The second area to be examined under ROMPP was a triangle of land to the east of Lodge Farm, at TL 2155 6844. There were no known archaeological remains in this area, so the required archaeological programme comprised a desk-based assessment (Albion Archaeology 2004a) and field evaluation. It quickly became apparent during fieldwork, however, that the only remains of archaeological interest were undated pits that would not be affected by quarrying, so the programme of archaeological work in this area was cancelled at that point.

Land east of Diddington Brook, Buckden

In 2000, Lafarge Redland Aggregates Ltd commissioned a desk-based assessment for land east of Diddington Brook (BCAS 2000). Subsequently, planning permission was sought to extract sand and gravel from this land. The County Archaeology Office requested a programme of trial-trench evaluation over an area of c. 5.8ha that lay c. 150m south-east of Margetts Farm. Trenching was completed by Albion Archaeology in January 2004. Few archaeological features were identified, suggesting that only a very low level of human activity took place in this area, probably between episodes of flooding that were indicated by extensive alluvial deposits. On the evidence of a few sherds of pottery, which were the only finds recovered, this activity probably took place during the Roman period (Albion Archaeology 2004b). The land was judged to have little archaeological potential, and no further investigation was required.

FEATURES MAPPED FROM AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHS

Aerial photographs for the Buckden area taken between the late 1940s and the 1970s provide an invaluable record of the landscape before large-scale quarrying took place. As well as the comprehensive study undertaken in the 1980s, five photographic assessments were undertaken of land around Margetts Farm between 1992 and 2003 (Palmer 1992a, 1992b, 1992c and 2003; Palmer and Bacilieri 2001). Prior to the excavations reported in the present volume, two of the Margetts Farm sites had been recorded as crop-mark sites:

SITE A Rectangular enclosure, trackway and ring ditch (SMR ref. 2484c). A postulated cursus, Buckden, TL 201 665 (NMR UID 1336403)

SITE C Ring ditch, trackway and boundaries at TL 208 671 (SMR ref. 8159)

The aerial photographs have been re-examined and mapped afresh as part of this project (see Appendix 10 and Fig. 2). The key archaeological features consist of:

- Ring ditches, thought to relate to Neolithic and Bronze Age ritual or ceremonial sites. There is a cluster of these north of Margetts Farm;
- Linear boundaries and enclosures which are fairly sinuous in nature, generally lying parallel with the River Great Ouse or at right angles to it. There are a number of these in the Margetts Farm area and they are probably late Iron Age or Roman;
- A distinct group of linear boundaries north-west of Margetts Farm that seem to be unique in the area. They are straighter and are on a different alignment from the more common, sinuous boundaries;
- Ridge and furrow cultivation and associated headlands, which are faintly visible over much of the area and were still visible as earthworks in the mid-20th century;
- A series of possible palaeochannels that probably indicate former courses of the Great Ouse. The dates at which these channels were active water-courses are currently unknown but they appear likely to predate any of the archaeological activities identified on aerial photographs;
- A singular crop-mark that appears to represent deeper soil but is distinct from the headlands associated with ridge and furrow cultivation.

DATE OF TEXT PRODUCTION

The text in this report was substantially completed by December 2011, and no systematic attempt has been made to update it.

Chapter 2

Results of the Excavations

This chapter provides a period-based interpretation of the archaeological evidence from Margetts Farm, drawing together the information recorded during excavation and the results of the various specialist studies presented in the appendices to this volume. A broader, thematic discussion of the evidence is contained in Chapter 3.

Three main periods are represented: late Neolithic to middle Bronze Age (Phase 1: *c.* 2600–1400BC), middle Bronze Age to early Iron Age (Phase 2: *c.* 1400–500BC), and middle to late Iron Age (Phases 3–5: *c.* 400–25BC). There was also limited evidence of agricultural activities in the Roman, medieval and post-medieval periods (Phases 6–8).

For ease of reference, individual context numbers recorded on site have been amalgamated into Groups (indicated by a 'G' prefix). The correlation between these Group numbers and the original context numbers is listed in the site archive, which can be accessed at Cambridgeshire County Council's Archaeological Archive.

PHASE 1: LATE NEOLITHIC TO MIDDLE BRONZE AGE (*c.* 2600–1400BC; ALL SITES)

The excavation of Site C revealed part of an extensive prehistoric landscape dating back at least as far as the late Neolithic, although most of the features that were assigned to Phase 1 belonged to the early Bronze Age. They included ceremonial and/or funerary monuments, as well as a partially enclosed area and a concentration of pits (Fig. 6). The ritual focus at the northern end of the site was part of a much more extensive monument complex (Fig. 2) that had otherwise previously been destroyed by quarrying.

A cremation burial on Site A — probably associated with two tree-throws but otherwise apparently isolated — and a pair of pits on Site B were the only features identified on those sites as belonging to this period, yet the bulk of the contemporary flint assemblage derives from Sites A and B. The assemblage is generally in good condition and is therefore unlikely to have 'travelled' far from its place of primary deposition, suggesting that the area around Sites A and B may well have been used in the late Neolithic and early Bronze Age for activities that had negligible impact below ground level, such as temporary encampments. The *c.* 1kg of flint recovered during field-walking (BCAS 1999) also dates from the late Neolithic and Bronze Age, with a small concentration to the east of Site B (this unstratified material has not been subjected to detailed analysis).

Dating evidence

The assignment of features to Phase 1 was carried out with a varying level of confidence. Artefact typologies and radiocarbon dating were used where possible, although potential for the latter was limited by a general dearth of

suitable material from stratigraphically secure samples. However, dating of cremated human bone was possible in three instances (G4, G26 and G84), while wood charcoal and nutshell were dated from, respectively, henge ditch G1 and pits G15 (Table 1). The radiocarbon date for burial G4 corroborates the date suggested by its burial within a Collared Urn, while pits G15 contained eighty-one sherds of Beaker pottery. Although small, the flint assemblage from the henge ditch is concordant with a late Neolithic to early Bronze Age date, and includes a probable early Bronze Age barbed and tanged arrowhead.

None of the other Phase 1 features produced large quantities of pottery or other datable material, although the absence of Iron Age pottery supports an early date. Evidence for the date of these other features is consequently more circumstantial, relying on spatial relationships and similarities of appearance, such as the fact that deposits filling these features were generally much paler in colour than those of later phases. The dating evidence for each set of features is considered in more detail below.

Ritual foci (Sites A and C)

The clearest evidence for ritual and mortuary practices in Phase 1 comes from the northern half of Site C, where two cremation burials (G4 and G26) were found, the latter within a ring-ditch monument interpreted as a henge (Fig. 7: G1). The ring ditch defined a sub-circular area measuring 26m north–south by 23m east–west (Pl. 1); the ditch itself was 1.8–2.5m wide by 0.5–0.7m deep, with a 'U'-shaped profile (Fig. 7: d–e) and a degree of angularity in its circuit. The sequence of deposits in the ditch gave no clue to the location of its corresponding embankment (Pl. 2), although the presence of post-holes around the inner circuit of the ditch perhaps makes an external bank more likely.

It was clear during excavation that the ditch had been remodelled on its eastern side, but the precise nature and sequence of this remodelling could not be determined with confidence. The most plausible interpretation is that there was originally a *c.* 4–5m wide causeway through the ditch, which was later blocked off. One or more shallow pits may have been dug in the entrance before the blocking ditch was created: they were no deeper than the ditch, and a hint of their presence was only suggested by slight bulges in the sides of the ditch. Changes in the width (and alignment) of the ditch elsewhere are perhaps an indicator that different groups of people dug separate lengths of the ditch. Whether the pits were part of the blocking process or related to earlier activity is unclear; a pit was used to close the northern entrance of the henge-form monument at Eynesbury, St Neots, but that pit was significantly larger (Ellis 2004, 8). The lower fill of the blocking ditch contained sporadic darker deposits that may represent material redeposited from the pits, or perhaps discrete deposits placed directly in the ditch, whereas the upper fill was similarly light and sterile to

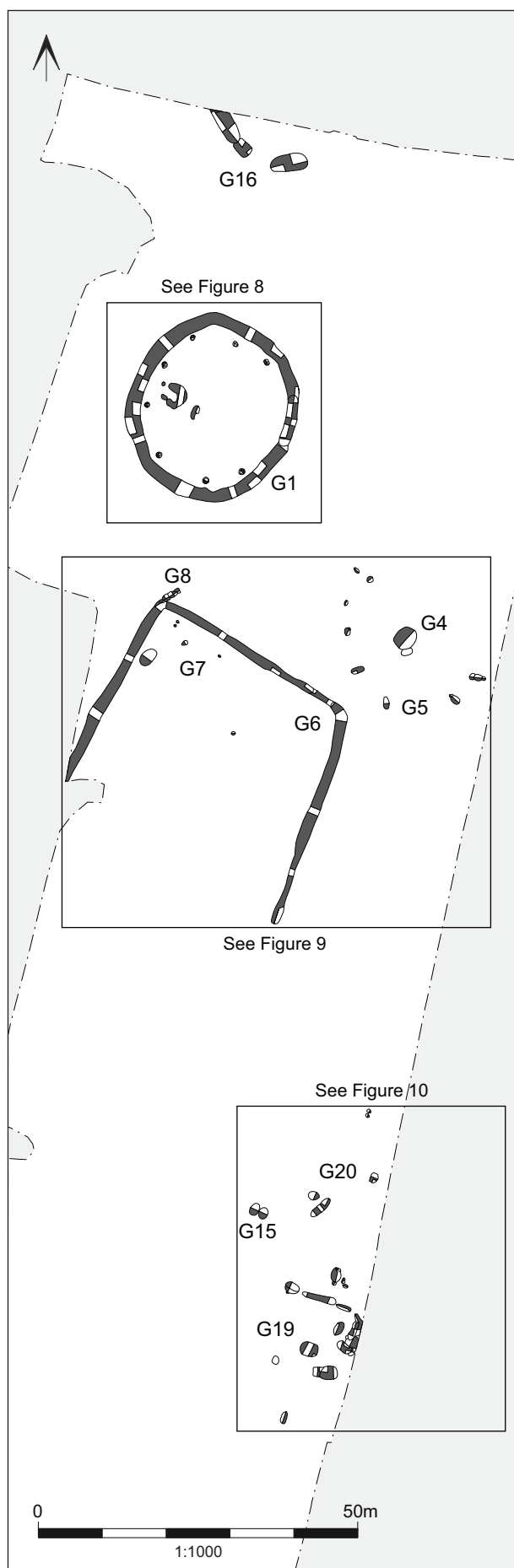


Figure 6: Phase 1 – plan of late Neolithic to early Bronze Age features on Site C

that of the rest of the henge ditch, and was characteristic of gradual silting. A small piece of oak heartwood charcoal recovered from the upper fill of the presumed blocking ditch gave a radiocarbon date of 2200–1970 cal. BC; a date from oak heartwood should be treated with caution, as the tree from which it came may already have been centuries old when it was felled, but it is useful nonetheless in the absence of other dating evidence.

Few finds were recovered from the original henge ditch, while soil samples that were taken to garner environmental evidence produced only negligible results. The non-ceramic assemblage is restricted to six worked flints: an end scraper and a horseshoe scraper (types commonly occurring on late Neolithic and early Bronze Age sites); two broken blades; a utilised flake; and a broken barbed and tanged arrowhead, considered to be of early Bronze Age date (Appendix 1). All but the end scraper were recovered from a single segment on the southern side of the henge ditch (Fig. 7: d), suggesting that focused deposition was taking place in this part of the henge. Most of the pottery assemblage was also recovered from a single segment, the northern terminal of the original ditch: this produced six of the seven sherds of Beaker, and a scrap of unidentifiable earlier Bronze Age pottery (Appendix 2).

An absence of Grooved Ware from the henge was noted — this pottery is often associated with timber circles and henges (Gibson 2005a, 66), but none was found at Site C, and the one sherd recovered at Margetts Farm came from Site B, more than 650m south-west of the henge. Garwood (1999, 152) suggests that the floruit of Grooved Ware occurred between *c.* 3,000BC and 2,000BC: its absence here is perhaps therefore an indication that the origin of the henge is more associated with the Beaker period, *i.e.* 2500–1700BC (Needham 2005, 171). The ditch also contained four sherds of earlier Iron Age pottery, contemporary with the material recovered from Phase 2 pits (G9) that surrounded the henge, and 172 sherds of later Iron Age pottery. The presence of these Iron Age fragments within the upper fills of the ditch suggests that the henge continued to be a focus of activity in the 1st millennium BC — indeed, if the surrounding landscape was pastoral then the gradual silting up of the ditch may have taken place over many centuries. A fragment of cattle skull was the only animal bone recovered from the ditch.

Eight post-holes (G2 / G26) were located around the inner circuit of ditch G1. They were spaced at intervals ranging from 5.6m to 8.6m between their centres and formed an incomplete ring, with a gap corresponding to the presumed entrance on the eastern side. When excavated, slightly darker, less stony deposits were visible in section; these most probably denote the extent of the posts before they either decayed or were removed, and indicate that the posts were substantial, measuring *c.* 0.5m in diameter (Fig. 7: a–c). The only artefacts recovered from the seven post-holes in G2 were two very small sherds of grog-tempered earlier Bronze Age pottery and a third of similar size that could not be identified (Appendix 2). All three sherds came from the post-hole south-west of the entrance (Fig. 7: a). It has been suggested on other sites that sherds were placed in post-holes to mark particular cardinal points, most likely after the posts themselves had been removed (Gibson 2005a, 106), but the three sherds from G2 are too small to be interpreted as representing deliberate deposition. Soil samples were taken

Group	Group Description	Lab no.	Sample Type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{‰}}$ VPDB	^{14}C age BP	2 σ cal. (95.4% probability)
1	Henge ditch	Ua-40867	Charcoal: oak heartwood	-25.8	3,694 $\pm$ 33	2200–1970BC
4	Urned cremation burial and tree-throw south-east of henge G1	Ua-40870	Calcined bone	-24.1	3,628 $\pm$ 53	2150–1870BC
9	35 pits and post-holes around henge G1, some intercutting	Ua-40868	Charcoal: Pomoideae	-28.1	2,453 $\pm$ 33	760–680BC (24.6%) or 670–410BC (70.8%)
		Ua-40869	Charcoal: <i>Prunus</i>	-27.3	2,447 $\pm$ 31	760–680BC (23.9%) or 670–610BC (11.9%) or 600–400BC (59.6%)
15	Two adjacent pits	Ua-40873	Charcoal: <i>Prunus</i>	-28.0	812 $\pm$ 30	AD1170–1270
		Ua-40874	Charcoal: <i>Corylus</i>	-25.9	3,698 $\pm$ 34	2200–2010BC (91.2%) or 2000–1970BC (4.2%)
19	Cluster of 23 pits of various shapes and sizes, many of them intercutting	Ua-40871	Nutshell: <i>Corylus</i>	-25.4	3,914 $\pm$ 34	2490–2290BC
26	Cremation burial contained in one of 8 post-holes round inner circuit of henge ditch G1	Ua-40872	Charcoal: Pomoideae	-25.3	3,987 $\pm$ 35	2620–2450BC
		Ua-40865	Calcined bone	-23.4	3,553 $\pm$ 33	2020–1990BC (2.3%) or 1980–1770BC (93.1%)
		Ua-40866	Calcined bone	-26.0	3,565 $\pm$ 33	2030–1860BC (81.2%) or 1850–1770BC (14.2%)
84	Cremation burial	Ua-40875	Calcined bone	-23.4	3,189 $\pm$ 40	1540–1390BC

Table 1: Summary of radiocarbon dates

from all seven post-holes, but these provided little additional information (Appendix 7).

Post-hole G26 was different because it contained an un-urned cremation burial (Appendix 4), which radiocarbon dating indicates was deposited in the early Bronze Age (Table 1). The cremated bone was found in both the outer ‘packing’ and the fill of the inner post ‘pipe’, but it is almost certain that they are from a single individual. The bone is likely to have been placed in the packing, before being partially redeposited when the post was removed or decayed. Charcoal recovered from this post-hole and two of those in G2 appears to consist entirely of oak (*Quercus*) heartwood, while that recovered from the henge ditch was predominantly also oak (Appendix 8). On the assumption that the charcoal originated from activities associated with the cremation burial rather than from residual charred remains of wooden structures, there appears to have been a strong bias towards the preferential use of oak for funerary pyres. The available evidence is insufficient to verify this, but evidence of single species selection, usually oak, has been recorded from Bronze Age cremation deposits in various parts of England (Smith 2002). Three early Bronze Age cremation burials excavated at Eynesbury, St Neots, a multi-period site on the River Great Ouse just a few miles south of Margetts Farm, also indicated a strong link between the ritual and practical use of oak (Gale 2004).

A thin, black mineral pan was recorded across much of the henge’s interior (Fig. 7). The phenomenon was restricted solely to this part of the site. It was not analysed, but deposits of a black manganese mineral have been found on other sites and interpreted as evidence of the former presence of an overlying earth mound. The classic example from the Great Ouse gravels is that from Roxton (Keeley and Allen 1985). It is thought that manganese minerals are reduced and become mobile in an anaerobic environment, before they become oxidised and are deposited when the water level drops and the environment reverts to being aerobic. Such conditions may have occurred here beneath a mound or embankment, although they may possibly have been caused by compaction from intensive trampling or tracking of machinery (Helen Keeley pers. comm.). It is possible that at some stage in its evolution the ‘henge’ was actually a barrow, but no evidence of mound material was observed

during excavation of the site. However, conditions were hardly conducive to the recognition of such deposits, given that the land had been under the plough and was then partially stripped by the quarry operator several years before the excavation took place. The fact that the ring ditch had an entrance causeway demonstrates that the interior was originally intended to be accessible and is consequently more likely to have comprised a level open space contained by a ditch and posts. One could speculate that embankment, presumably using imported material, could have been a final phase of modification: this sort of process was clearly demonstrated at the much larger henge complex at Maxey (Pryor *et al.* 1985, 233–7), though it remains entirely conjectural here.

Directly opposite the entrance to the henge and just inside the ring of posts was a cluster of amorphous features (G3) interpreted as a tree-throw. Strictly speaking, this feature is undated and its position within the henge may have been coincidental; however, the two other cremation burials recovered from Margetts Farm (G4 and G84) were also buried in close proximity to large tree-throws, very few of which were recorded overall within the excavations (see below). The features in G3 did not quite conform to the classic D-shape indicative of wind-throw, so they are perhaps more likely to represent voids caused by the decay *in situ* of one or two fairly large trees (*cf.* Moore and Jennings 1992, 13 and fig. 6). Larger trees would have required a greater effort to fell, especially using stone tools (D. Goodburn pers. comm.), and for purely practical reasons may well have survived early woodland clearance to become isolated specimens in a largely treeless landscape.

Burial G4, located 50m south-east from the centre of the henge (Fig. 8), was contained within a Collared Urn that had been placed in a pit on the edge of a large tree-throw (Appendix 2). Radiocarbon dating indicates that it was broadly contemporary with the henge and cremation G26 (Table 1), and this date fits within the period of currency of Collared Urns (c. 2100–1400BC) as suggested by Needham (2005, fig. 13). This type of placement is unusual, but a possible parallel was found at New Farm, Weston Way, Baldock, where a large, decorated Collared Urn containing a cremation burial was also buried in a small pit that had been dug into the top of a tree-throw (Albion Archaeology 2005).

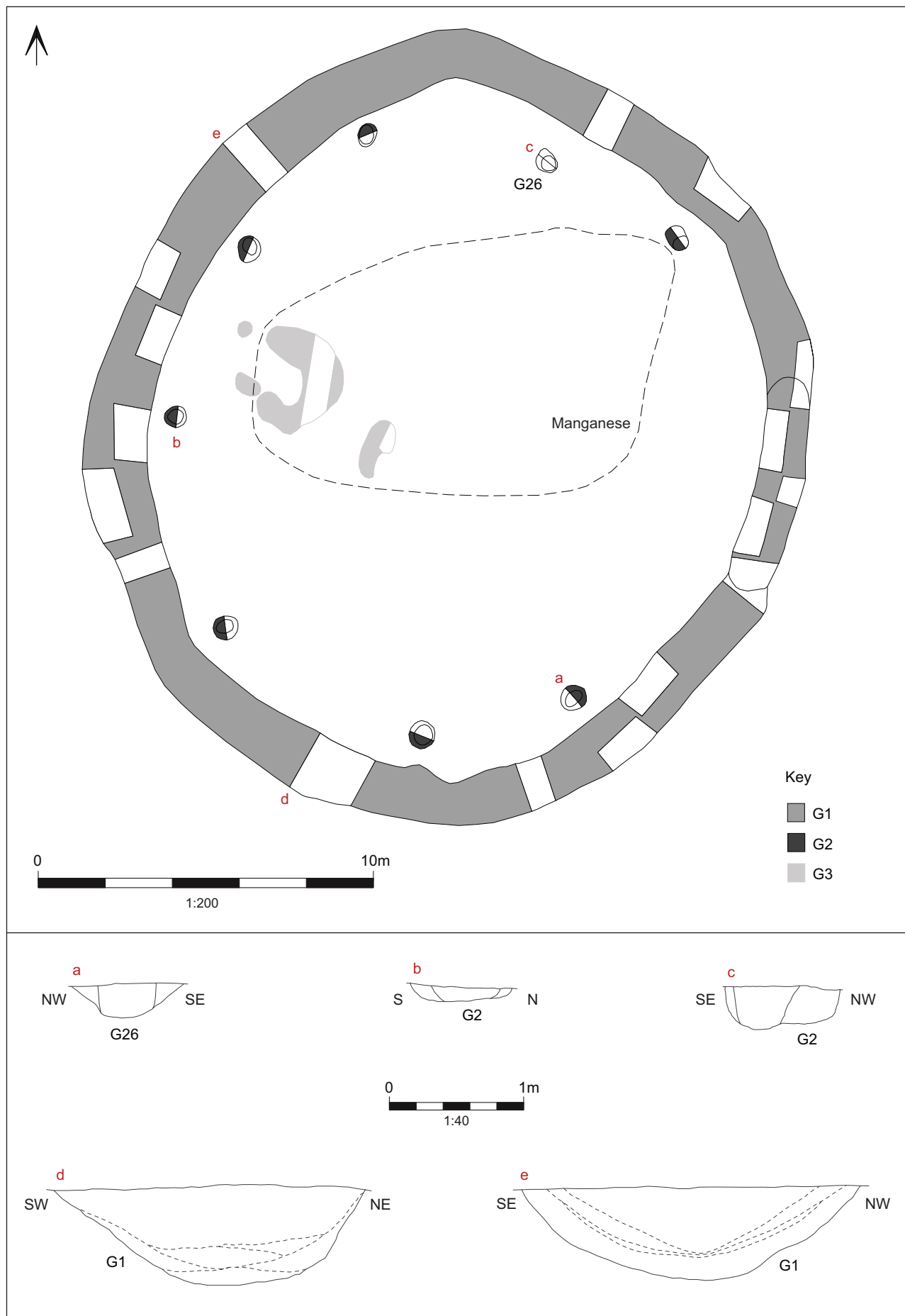


Figure 7: Plan and selected sections of Phase 1 henge G1



Plate 1: General view of henge G1, looking west. Scale 2m



Plate 2: Western side of henge ditch G1, looking north. Scale 1m

Tree-throw and cremation burial G4 were surrounded by a semicircle of twelve small pits G5, some of them intercutting. Only those east of the central tree-throw were more than 0.15m deep (Fig. 8: d), which may be due to differing levels of preservation — centuries of cultivation had undoubtedly flattened out any slight undulations in the prehistoric ground surface. No dating evidence was recovered from these pits, and their assignment to Phase 1 is based solely on their spatial association with G4. They formed a fairly regular semicircle around the tree-throw, and it may be significant that the diameter of the semicircle matches that of the ring of posts lining the interior of the henge.

No pits accompanied urned cremation burial G84 on Site C, but it did have two large tree-throws associated with it (Fig. 3). The eighteen sherds of pottery recovered from G84 are extremely abraded and are not closely datable, but the burial's middle Bronze Age radiocarbon date indicates that it was several hundred years later than henge G1 and cremation burial G4 (Table 1), and

the absence of accompanying pits may be a sign that it belonged to a different ritual culture.

A further ritual focus may have existed at the northern edge of Site C (Fig. 6). Crop-mark evidence suggests the presence of a semicircular feature with a similar diameter to that of henge G1 (Fig. 2); only the southern tip of this was revealed within the excavated area (G16), but it appears to have been formed by either an interrupted ditch or a series of large pits, rather than a continuous ditch. This may be similar to what was observed of the early Neolithic hengi-form monument at Eynesbury, which is thought to have originally been defined by a series of elongated pits that were subsequently converted into a continuous ditch. (Ellis 2004, 8). The pits and/or ditch of G16 were 2–2.7m wide but only 0.3m deep, with a flat base and shallow sides. The only firm dating evidence for G16 comes from its stratigraphical relationship with Phase 2 ditches G12, showing that it at least predated the Iron Age.

Three-sided enclosure and pits (Site C)

Enclosure G6 was 35m wide and appears roughly square in plan (Fig. 8), although crop-marks suggest that the north-west arm of the ditch continued quite a way beyond the excavated area (Fig. 2). The enclosure was defined on three sides by a ditch that varied considerably in width, depth and profile (Fig. 8: a and c), though without any evidence of re-cutting; the variations were perhaps due in part to differing levels of plough truncation. No sign of a ditched boundary was visible to the south-west. Firm dating evidence for G6 is limited to its stratigraphical relationship with Phase 2 ditch G13, since no finds were recovered from it, although its spatial relationship with the henge and pits G5, along with the similarity between its pale, sterile fill and that of the henge ditch, suggests a broadly contemporaneous date.

Two pit clusters G7 and G8 are likely to have been associated with the enclosure. The former occurred within the enclosure, mostly in its northern corner; there were six features in all, the smallest of which may have been post-holes rather than pits. One of the six was substantially larger than the rest (Fig. 8: b), but there was no indication of what its function may have been, and no finds

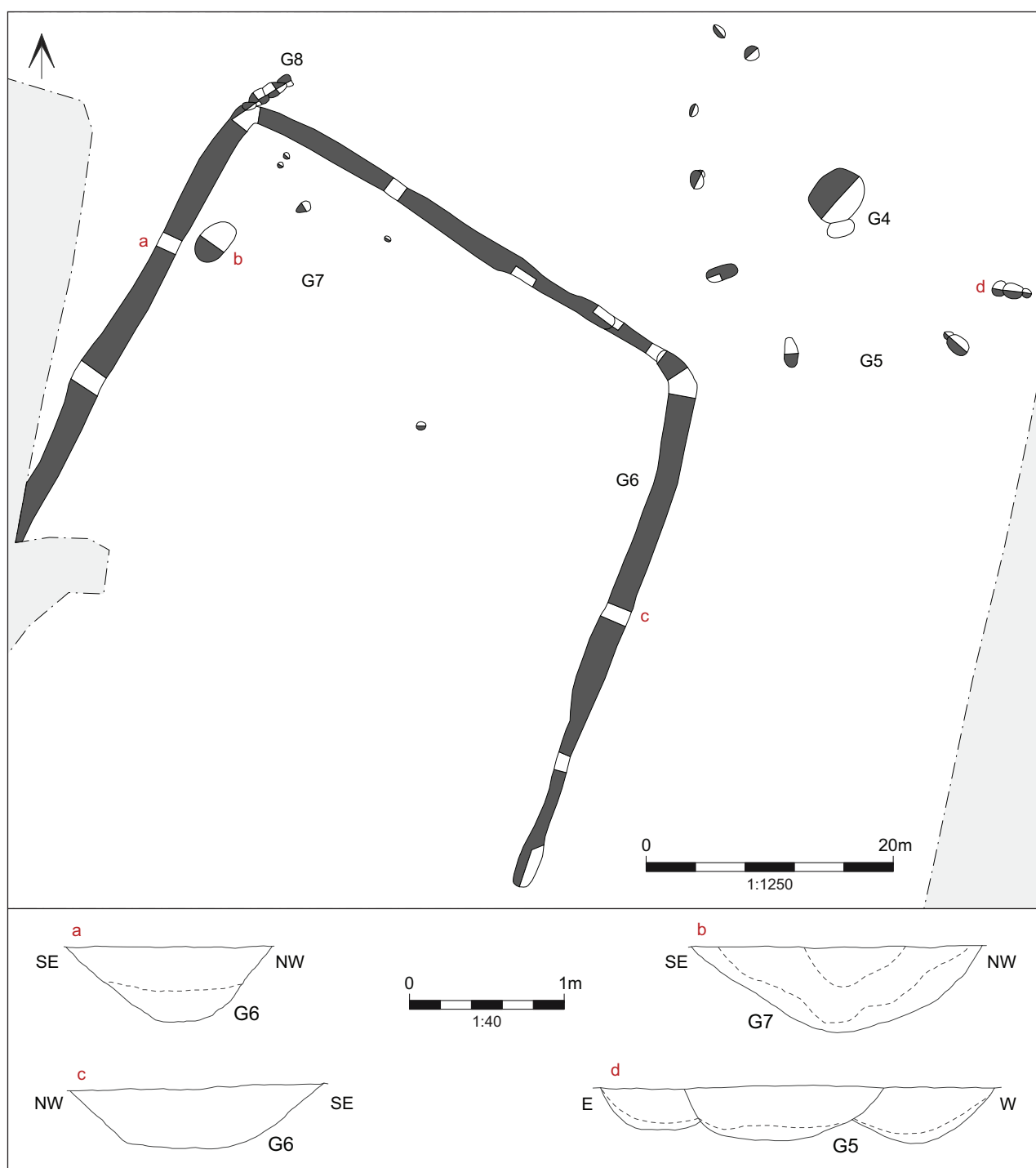


Figure 8: Plan and selected sections of Phase 1 enclosure G6, cremation burial G4 and associated pits on Site C

were recovered from any of the six. G8 comprised a line of four shallow, intercutting pits immediately outside the northern corner of the enclosure. One of these contained three sherds of fine Beaker, two of which have incised decoration forming a floating lattice-filled lozenge motif (Appendix 2), plus a further five small sherds of undiagnostic earlier Bronze Age pottery. Beaker currency spans the period 2500–1700BC (Needham 2005, 171), with floating lozenge decoration and fingertip impressions, typical of Case's B series, current from around the end of the 3rd millennium BC (Case 1993, 257). Eight amorphous fragments of fired clay were also recovered from the same pit, along with a fairly large amount of charcoal. Much of the charcoal was too comminuted

for identification, but the apparent predominance of oak echoes that observed in the henge material.

Paired pits and pit clusters of uncertain function (Sites B and C)

The remaining features assigned to Phase 1 comprise four pit clusters, three of which (G15, G19 and G20) were located on Site C to the south of enclosure G6 (Fig. 9), while the fourth (G107) was on Site B (Fig. 10). The only one of these that can be securely dated is G15 on Site C, which can be reliably assigned to the early Bronze Age, both by radiocarbon dating (Table 1) and by the presence of eighty-one sherds of Beaker pottery. The two pits in G15 were similar in size and seem to have

been a discrete pair (Fig. 9: e). A similar pair of pits on Site B (G107) produced a single sherd of late Neolithic / early Bronze Age Grooved Ware, which came from the southern pit (Fig. 10: a). Garrow notes that Grooved Ware is commonly found in isolated or paired pits, an example of which was found c. 18km to the east at Over (Garrow 2006).

Although little can be said about the single sherd of pottery from G107, the larger assemblage from the eastern pit in G15 can be seen to represent at least nine vessels. Seven of these have a well fired, dense fabric

and delicately executed decoration of Beaker 'fine ware', while the remainder are chunky, fingertip-rusticated 'heavy-duty wares'. They are typical of domestic Beaker, and the presence of burnt food residues on some sherds confirms that they had been used for cooking at some point in their lifecycle. A relatively wide range of woody species is represented in the charcoal recovered from G15 (Appendix 8), which, in addition to oak, included blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), and probably birch (*Betula* sp.), as well as a charred hazelnut shell.

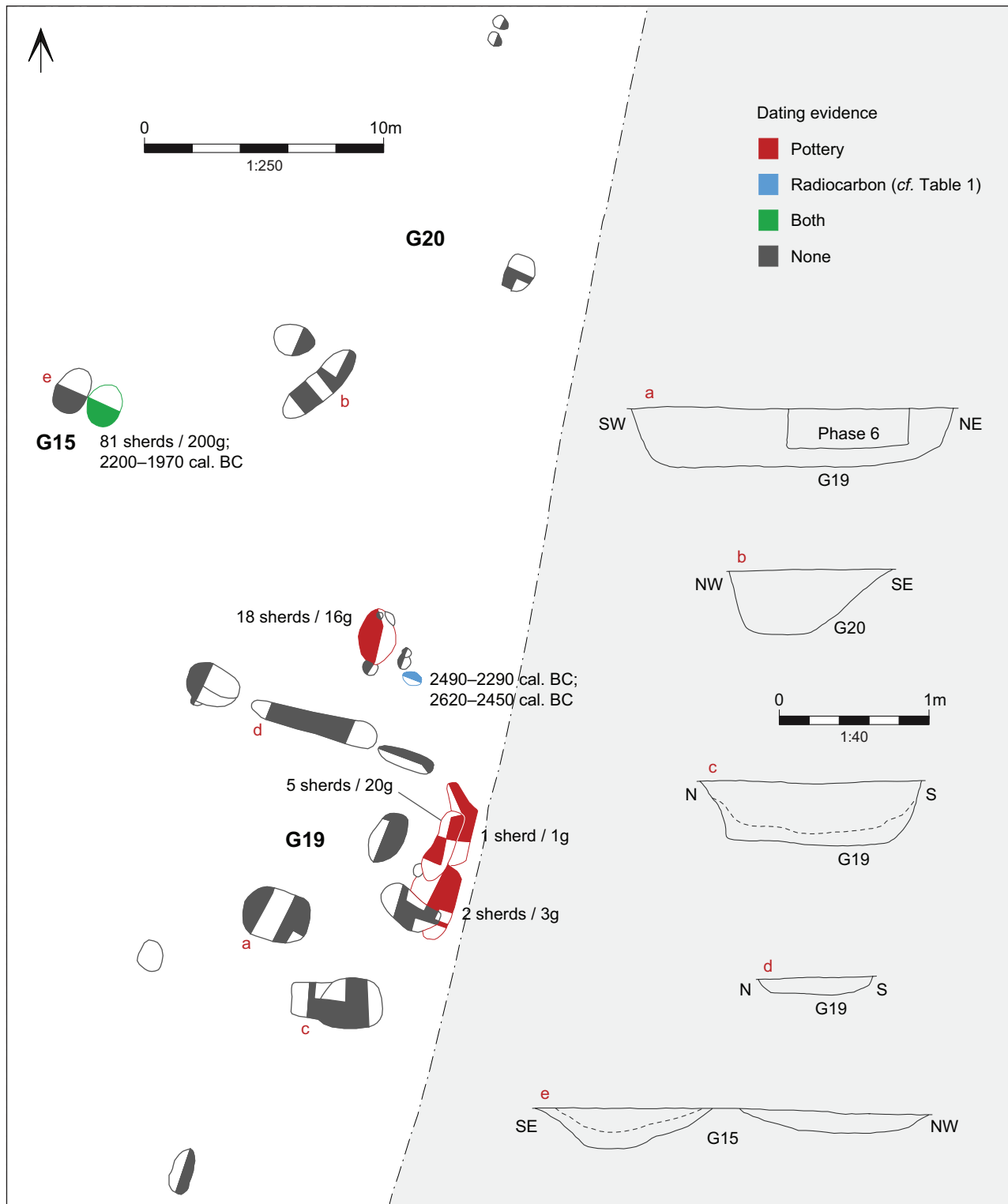


Figure 9: Plan and selected sections of Phase 1 pits G15, G19 and G20

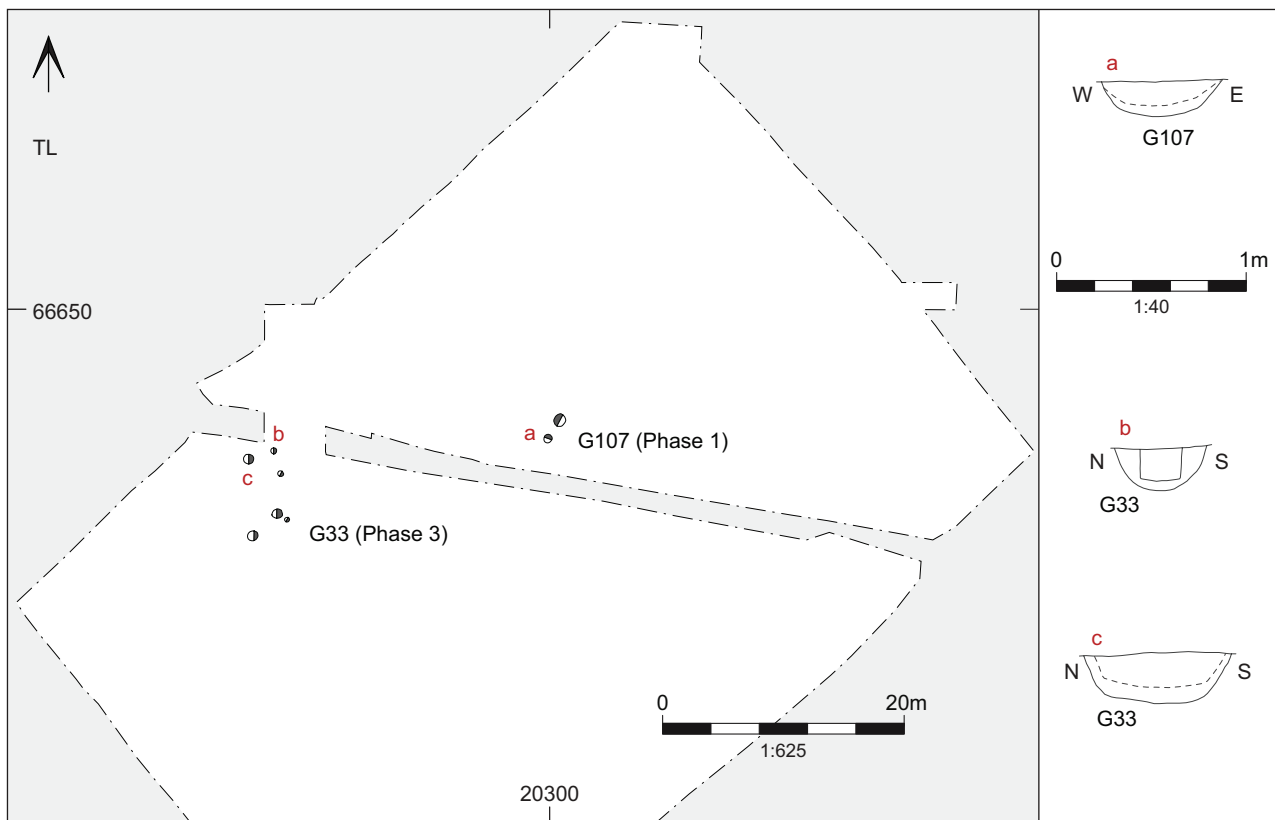


Figure 10: Plan and selected sections of Phase 1 and 3 features on Site B

This may indicate a domestic area, or a different kind of ritual focus, but the evidence is too slight to enable a definite conclusion.

The pits in G19 and G20 varied considerably in size and profile, with many of them intercutting (Fig. 9). They were located at the eastern edge of Site C, and it is possible that more still survive beyond the excavated area. One of the pits in G19 produced a late Neolithic / early Bronze Age radiocarbon date (Table 1) — the earliest of all those obtained — while another contained eighteen very small sherds of late Neolithic / early Bronze Age pottery, but the other twenty-one in G19 contained either no finds, or pottery which could only be dated as either early Iron Age or possibly early Neolithic (Appendix 1). One of the pits contained a retouched fragment of flint blade (Fig. 9: c), but this is not closely datable. Some of the pits were even recorded on site as post-dating the Phase 6 Roman bedding trenches, but the stratigraphical relationships in this part of the site are not secure due to the homogeneity of the pale, sterile fills, and an earlier date is considered to be more likely. Some of the pits in G19 may have been Iron Age in date, as the pottery tentatively suggests — early Iron Age activity was recorded not far to the south in Phase 2 (Fig. 11) — but the pottery in question comprises just eight small sherds from three separate features, all of which had been disturbed by the Roman bedding trenches. The five pits in G20 produced no finds at all, and have been assigned a late Neolithic / early Bronze Age date solely on their proximity to G19.

The function of the pits in G19 and G20 is unclear. Their concentrated nature suggests an association with settlement, yet very few finds were recovered from them. This was not solely the result of truncation: though some were very shallow, others were up to 0.8m deep. The pit or large post-hole that produced the earliest radiocarbon

date (Fig. 9) contained charcoal whose character suggests that it almost certainly derived from domestic fuel debris (Appendix 8), yet this could have come from a single cooking fire resulting from a temporary camp. Intriguingly, a large tree-throw in the area between G19 and G20 (Fig. 5) possibly indicates that these pits related to a further late Neolithic ritual focus; it was recorded as post-dating one of the Roman bedding trenches (Phase 6), but an earlier date is plausible for the reasons outlined above.

PHASE 2: MIDDLE BRONZE AGE TO EARLY IRON AGE (c. 1400–500BC; SITE C)

Whereas Site C occupied an open landscape that was dominated by ritual monuments in the late Neolithic and early Bronze Age, it became more enclosed in later prehistory, perhaps indicating a shift towards agriculture. A number of ditches were revealed (Fig. 11) that corresponded with the crop-marks of a rectilinear field system (Appendix 10), with broad drove-ways between the fields. The field system respected the earlier landscape, but only partially: the Phase 1 henge was contained entirely within one of the fields (G13) and appears to have remained a focus of activity, but the field boundaries cut across the possible northern monument (G16) and the three-sided enclosure (G6).

A total of seventy-four pits were recorded within these fields that have been assigned to the early Iron Age, although only a few of these produced any dating evidence — the remainder are assumed to have been contemporaneous based on their geographical proximity to the pits that did contain datable artefacts. Most of the pits were located in one of three areas: clustered

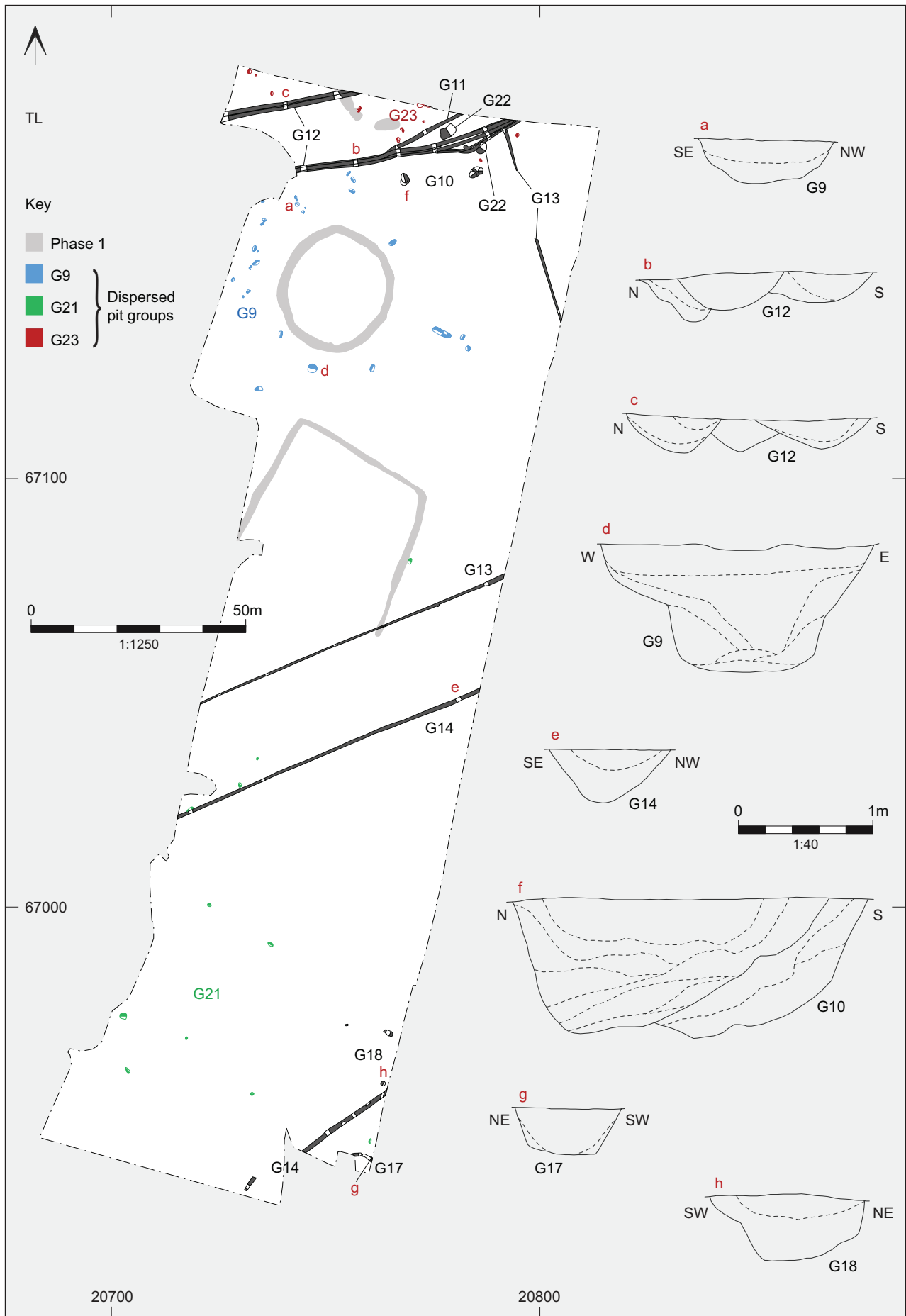


Figure 11: Phase 2 – all-features plan and selected sections

around the Phase 1 henge; aligned along northern drove-way G12; or spread more widely across the southern part of the excavated area, some of which may have been associated with a possible roundhouse.

The date at which the field system was established is uncertain — the finds assemblage from it is negligible, and the ditches contained no material that was suitable for radiocarbon dating. Their limited stratigraphical relationships with other features do at least demonstrate that the field system was later than Phase 1 enclosure G6, and earlier than the Roman bedding trenches in the southern half of Site C. The distribution of the pits suggests that they were dug once the field system had already been established, implying a late Iron Age *terminus ante quem*, and it is possible that they date back as far as the middle Bronze Age — similar field systems of that date have been excavated in the Biddenham Loop to the west of Bedford (Luke 2016).

Field system

The excavation of Site C partially revealed the boundary ditches of two large fields (G13 and G14) whose extent beyond the excavated area has been traced from crop-marks (Appendix 10). These lay on either side of a wide drove-way, with a second drove-way G12 to the north (Fig. 11). The northern field G13 was the larger, revealed by crop-marks to have been roughly square, measuring c. 110m across. The southern field was narrower, but seems to have been longer. No internal divisions were apparent. The ditches defining G13 and G14 were remarkably straight and regular, whereas some reworking or reinstatement of the northern drove-way G12 was evident (Fig. 11: b–c); ditch G11 may have been related to the original layout. The southern drove-way was particularly wide, at 21m; G12 was only two-thirds as broad.

The ditch on the southern side of drove-way G12 may originally have been dug to support a wooden palisade, since there were slight depressions in its base. If so, this may have served to screen the secular area to the north from the religious or ceremonial area to the south, where the digging of a large number of pits round the Phase 1 henge suggests that this monument retained an element of ritual significance.

It is unclear how long the field system remained in use, but the re-cutting of drove-way ditches G12, together with the recovery of a sherd of possibly later Iron pottery from one of them, might indicate that this northern thoroughfare had a longer lifespan and was more frequently used than that to the south. Stratigraphical relationships with the Roman bedding trenches in the southern part of Area C (Phase C), as well as their different alignment, at least suggest that the field system was no longer a feature of the landscape by the Roman period.

Northern pits

A group of thirty-six pits (G9) was identified around the Phase 1 henge (Fig. 11). A deep and particularly steep-sided pit south of the henge may have been dug in order to allow people to draw water from it (Fig. 11: d), but there is no indication of how the other pits in G9 were used. Apart from the probable water pit and a sub-rectangular pit to the east of the henge, they were all small: some to the north-west of the henge may even have been post-holes, but none was sufficiently well preserved to be certain about this, and they did not form any regular patterns that might suggest a structural function. It is

unclear how closely contemporaneous they were, since only one pit contained significant dating evidence (Fig. 11: a): the remainder of their pottery assemblage comprises just three abraded late Neolithic to early Bronze Age scraps and a small sherd of early Iron Age date. This could suggest either a mixture of dates for the pits or a degree of residuality among the finds — although the presence of intercutting pits does at least indicate that not all of the pits were in use at the same time.

The one pit in G9 (Fig. 11: a) that did provide good dating evidence contained 283 sherds of early Iron Age pottery from about twenty vessels. The sherds are mostly quite small, but the presence of rejoining fragments from the same vessel (Fig. 25: P12 and P20) indicates that the sherds were deposited reasonably soon after breakage (Brudenell and Hill 2009, 191), almost certainly as a single deliberate deposit of pottery placed into the pit relatively soon after use (Appendix 2). A corroborative radiocarbon date from the pit (Table 1) confirms that this occurred in the early Iron Age. Deposition of pottery in pits was extremely common on earlier Iron Age sites, but the distribution of pottery between them is typically uneven, so that while many pits may be present on any given site, only very few contain substantial pottery assemblages. The pit also yielded a small assemblage of struck flint, fired clay and animal bone, as well as a relatively large volume of charcoal. This comprised the widest range of taxa of all the samples examined: predominantly oak heartwood, but also field maple (*Acer campestre*), hazel, ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group, blackthorn, and birch, which demonstrates an apparent lack of discrimination between species in the selection of firewood.

The distribution of the pits in G9 around the henge suggests that they were associated with activities relating to continued ritual usage of the henge, or at least that the henge was a focal point for general activities in this area, although this apparent distribution might admittedly be skewed by having no record of whether it continued beyond the western edge of Site C. The dearth of artefacts from all but one of the pits in G9 and from the surrounding field and drove-way ditches (G12–14) does, however, make it unlikely that the pits were associated with settlement activity, as a higher background level of cultural material would have been expected. In contrast, the 172 sherds of later Iron Age pottery that were recovered from the henge ditch (Appendix 2) make it likely that the monument did remain as a focus for surrounding activity in the Iron Age.

G10, located to the north-east of G9 (Fig. 11) represents either two clusters of intercutting pits or two single pits that were subsequently re-cut. Their size and depth (cf. Fig. 11: f) make it likely that they were water pits, possibly to provide water for people and/or animals travelling along the drove-way to the north, although an association with the apparently ritual activity represented by G9 cannot be ruled out. In contrast with the contemporary pottery from G9, however, the vessels recovered from G10 have no direct parallels with the earlier Iron Age pottery from the Wyman Abbott assemblage at Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945); instead, the assemblage contains incised bowls more typical of assemblages of the Darmsden–Linton Group (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:13). The differences between the assemblages from G9 and G10 may be chronological, with the G10 pots being slightly later, yet the dissimilarities could equally represent

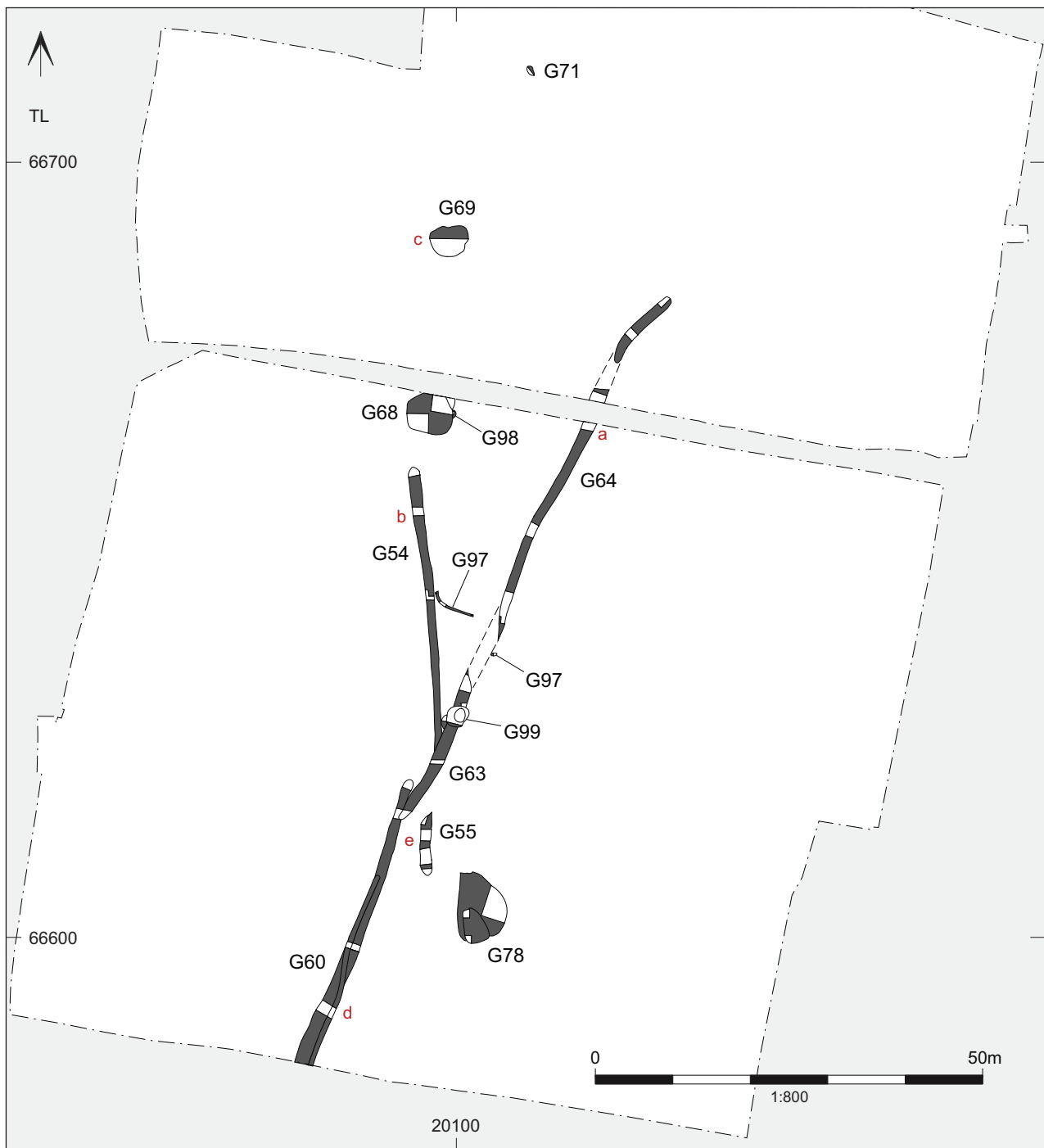


Figure 12: Phase 3 all-features plan of Site A

functional differences. No joining sherds were found between the G10 pit assemblages, perhaps indicating that the pottery had been stored for longer before eventual deposition. The pits in G10 produced a slightly larger faunal assemblage than those from G9, with the head elements of cattle and pig, as well as fragments of cattle upper and lower leg, which are areas of prime and good meat-bearing quality. A worn, slightly polished piece of fine-grained sandstone was also recovered, which may have functioned as a secondary hone.

A number of other pits at the northern end of Site C produced no dating evidence, and have been assigned to Phase 2 based solely on their spatial relationship with drove-way G12. The largest of these (G22) may have been associated with the pits of G10: the eastern

pit was 0.7m deep and may have been a further water pit, although the western one was much shallower, with quite an unusual shape, and its function is unknown. The remaining scatter of eighteen pits and/or post-holes (G23) that were recorded in close proximity to the northern drove-way were smaller, and were more similar in character to the pits of G9.

Southern pits, post-holes and possible roundhouse

G18 and G21 in the southern half of Site C represent two clusters of pits and/or post-holes that are believed to be early Iron Age in date. G18 comprised four features, two of which were definitely pits, while the other two are the best candidates from this phase for post-holes — one contained partially mineralised charcoal, including

a small quantity of oak heartwood, which may represent the charred remains of the post. The southernmost pit in G18 (Fig. 11: h) produced forty-one extremely abraded sherds of earlier Iron Age pottery (Appendix 2), and may have been associated with possible roundhouse G17, from which it was only 16m distant. The formal traits of the sherds suggest that they are of the Darmsden–Linton Group, similar to those from G10. The poor condition and high degree of fragmentation, plus the presence of burnt sherds, suggests that this material spent a considerable time on the surface following discard and prior to deposition. A small group of animal bones derived entirely from infant pig, possibly from the same animal, also came from this pit, as well as an unfinished transverse arrowhead of possible chisel type, considered to be of late Neolithic date.

G21 represents a thin scatter of twelve small pits that produced no dating evidence. These are the most tentative inclusions in this phase. They mostly lay either within or along the outer edge of the southern field G14, but this may be coincidental.

Gully G17 (Fig. 11: g) was the most plausible structural feature of this phase, but only a small part of it was revealed at the very southern end of Site C. It may have been the gully of a roundhouse, but too little of its potential circuit was seen to be certain. Its apparent north-facing entrance would also be unusual — although Phase 4 ring gullies G44 on Site A and G29 on Site B, which were probably associated with roundhouses, had northern or north-eastern entrances — and it may have been associated with a lesser structure such as a cattle pen.

PHASE 3: MIDDLE IRON AGE (c. 500–250BC; SITES A AND B)

The earliest evidence of settlement on Site A took the form of a possible open settlement positioned along a linear

boundary (Fig. 12). The original line of the boundary coincides with a crop-mark that was interpreted as representing a deeper area of soil (Fig. 2), which may mark the eastern edge of a broad palaeochannel. A possible structure G33 on Site B (Fig. 10) is also believed to date to this period.

Phase 3 comprises those features that can most confidently be assigned to the first phase of Iron Age occupation on Sites A and B on the basis of their stratigraphical relationships and ceramic dating evidence. It is possible that some of the features assigned to Phase 3.5 (essentially undated, but probably Iron Age) might also date from this period. The ceramic dating sequence for early and later Iron Age pottery from this region is not sufficiently refined to determine the precise chronological extent of Phase 3; there may have been an overlap with the Phase 2 remains on Site C, although the Phase 2 assemblage appears broadly a little earlier. At the other end of its lifespan, there is no indication of a significant break in activity prior to the creation of the Phase 4 later Iron Age enclosures: indeed, the enclosures were created on the alignment of the later Phase 3 linear boundary, and the pottery recovered from the water pits suggests that they remained in use until the later Iron Age.

Linear boundary

A ditched boundary was first established on Site A by G54 (Fig. 12). The southern end of the ditch was truncated by the insertion of the Phase 4 enclosure ditch, but ditch G55 may represent its southward continuation — the two shared the same alignment, though they were less similar in profile (Fig. 13: b and e). This first boundary was replaced on a different alignment by a longer boundary formed by G63 and G64, which were similar in profile to their predecessor (Fig. 13: a and d). These may also have been segments of a single ditch that was interrupted by the Phase 4 enclosure ditch. G60 to the south

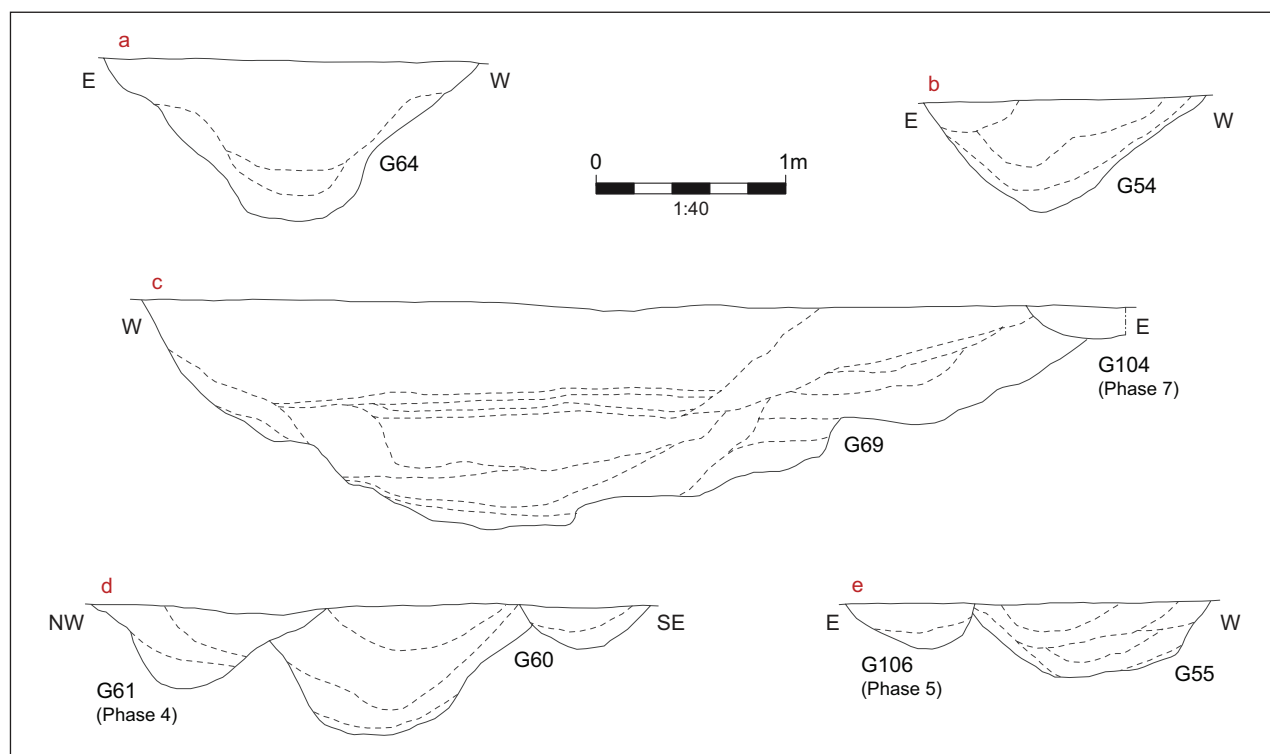


Figure 13: Phase 3 – selected sections

was probably also part of this later boundary, although it was clearly a separate ditch to G63/64: the boundary was perhaps either dug in segments or extended.

Few finds were recovered from any of these boundary ditches, although the mixed pottery assemblage from G60 suggests that it remained open in the later Iron Age. G55 contained several cattle bones and a sheep/goat metatarsal (hind-foot), mostly of moderate to prime meat-bearing quality, but lower numbers were recovered from the other ditches. Several pieces of worked flint were recovered (Appendix 1), but none of these particularly displays any of the characteristics considered indicative of Iron Age flint-working (Young and Humphrey 1999; Butler 2005), and all are likely to be residual or at least curated. Gully G55 also contained a sizeable fragment of a possible grain rubber in fine-grained micaceous sandstone. This general dearth of cultural material from the ditches contrasts with that from the other features in Phase 3, which produced assemblages more indicative of settlement activity. It is possible that this occurred after the boundary ditches had largely silted up, or that selective patterns of deposition pertained.

Open settlement

The presence of some form of occupation is inferred from a relatively small number of discrete features scattered across Site A (Fig. 12) and the finds assemblages that they produced, in particular from pits G71 and G99 and water pits G69 and G78. Very few features can confidently be recognised as part of this putative first phase of Iron Age settlement, however, suggesting that it was fairly ephemeral and unenclosed. Despite the anaerobic preservation conditions found in the three water pits, the information they yielded was not exceptional. Obfuscation by later features and the lack of direct stratigraphical or structural relationships also make it hard to understand how the identified components of this landscape fitted together. The settlement may have been a single, short-lived episode of occupation, but the time span of the pottery assemblage from earlier to later Iron Age suggests that the site was revisited on a periodic or seasonal basis.

Water pits

Water pits G68, G69 and G78 were all sub-circular in plan and broadly similar in size, measuring *c.* 4–7 m in diameter and 1.1–1.6 m deep (Figs 12 and 13: c). Their steep sides would not have allowed animals to drink from them directly (Pl. 3), so the water must have been drawn by hand using a suitable vessel. The final form of G68 represents the enlargement of an earlier, smaller water pit, whereas G78 was not as large after it was re-dug; this latter event may have happened during a later phase of the site, but insufficient dating evidence was recovered to determine this conclusively. The general topographical location of the water pits may have been determined by geological or palaeofluvial factors that gave rise to the zone of deeper soil observed from aerial photographs (Appendix 10). Nevertheless, the spatial arrangement of the water pits also suggests that their construction may have respected the alignment of the boundary G54/55, since they were located just beyond either end of the ditch on its eastern side. It is even possible that these three water pits constituted part of the boundary marker: a pit alignment at Kilvington, Nottinghamshire has been interpreted as marking the boundary of summer water meadows (Rylatt and Bevan 2007, 226).



Plate 3: Quadrant of water pit G68, looking north.
Scale 1m

The pottery from the water pits is predominantly of later Iron Age date, but the repeated cleaning-out of the pits while they remained in use may have been responsible for removing traces of earlier material, with only pottery from their latter stages of use surviving. This repeated cleaning out is also likely to have accounted for the extremely fragmented and chronologically mixed assemblage from water pit G68 (Appendix 2), which produced a substantially smaller assemblage than G69 and G78 did. The only pottery recovered from G68 comprises sixteen small, largely undatable body sherds; two flint-tempered sherds may be earlier Iron Age, while a further three sandy and shell-tempered examples may be later Iron Age.

In contrast, water pit G69 produced a large and well preserved assemblage comprising 180 sherds of later Iron Age date (400/350–100BC), from at least twenty-six vessels. The assemblage has a total weight of 2,350g, giving a relatively large average sherd weight of 13g. Many of the vessels within the pit are represented by rim or base sherds plus numerous joining body sherds, which, combined with the large sherd size and good preservation, suggests that the pottery was deliberately deposited within the water pit, perhaps soon after use. The lack of significant fragmentation within the assemblage indicates that the pottery was deposited during the well's final episode of infilling, probably contemporary with the Phase 4 activity. An assemblage in similar condition to that from G69 was recovered from G78, comprising fifty-three later Iron Age sherds weighing 692g. This is also likely to have been deposited when the water pit was silting up for the final time.

Large collections of animal bone were recovered from G69 and G78, whereas only a dozen cattle or cattle-sized bones and a sheep/goat mandible came from G68 (Appendix 5). Cattle was also dominant in G69 and G78, with sheep/goat, pig and horse present to a significantly lesser extent. Nearly all of the diagnostic bones came from adult animals, though infant sheep/goat and juvenile cattle and pig were represented in G69, and a single bone from a juvenile sheep-sized animal came from G78. The only other species represented in any of the three water pits are dog, with a single maxilla (upper jaw) from G78, and bear (probably brown bear *Ursus arctos*). The bear femur shows superficial knife cuts at the proximal mid-shaft, suggesting disarticulation of the hind-leg from the hip with probable shallow 'defleshing' cuts, with

slight evidence of canine gnawing towards the distal end. Although indigenous to the British Isles and occasionally recovered from southern English archaeological sites of all periods, archaeological evidence suggests that it became increasingly rare throughout the Neolithic period and was probably extinct after Roman times (see Appendix 5).

A charred fragment of animal bone from G69 was a sheep radius that also has a highly polished shaft and a series of transverse wear marks and grooves along one side, which suggest that the item was used as a tool for weaving (Appendix 1). This water pit also yielded a chalk or phosphate rock object which may have functioned as either a spindle whorl or amulet, while G78 yielded two joining fragments from an undecorated antler weaving-comb with a rounded terminal.

Thirty-one samples of waterlogged wood were recovered from G69 (Appendix 8). Twenty-three of these were oak (*Quercus*), mostly heartwood, with both worked and unworked fragments. Tool-marks were recorded on three of the samples; two of these plus two of the other samples were lathe-like pieces, whereas another could have been the base of a stake. Three short lengths of roundwood came from the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae), one of which had been cut by slashing. Some of these samples may have originated from structural elements such as posts or stakes associated with the water pit, which subsequently collapsed into the feature, although some natural or incidental accumulations of wood probably also occurred. In view of the paucity of local woodland (as indicated by pollen frequencies from water pit G78), it seems unlikely that potential firewood would have been dumped in the feature. The mix of both worked and unworked wood, including a possible woodchip, could imply that this was a working area, perhaps involving the conversion of timber and/or carpentry.

Waterlogged archaeobotanical remains from G68 and G78 demonstrate the presence within the water pits of aquatic plants more characteristic of ponds than wells (Appendix 6). This perhaps indicates a period of disuse prior to backfilling when pond plants were able to become established in undisturbed standing water. The water pits also contained numerous water beetles, especially from the genus *Helophorus*, and aquatic larvae of chironomid midges. A major component of the seeds in both assemblages was from the various disturbed-ground habitats which commonly occur on settlements, while water pit G78 contained many seeds of henbane (*Hyoscyamus niger*), a plant which was once common on middens and in dung-enriched soil in farmyards. Other parts of the site were perhaps almost bare ground with a sparse scattering of low plants of sheep's sorrel (*Rumex acetosella* agg.), which was well represented by seeds in G78. In the more immediate vicinity of the water pits, seeds of silverweed (*Potentilla anserina*), water mint (*Mentha* sp.) and sedge (*Carex* sp.) suggest that there could have been an area of marshy pasture in the splash/trample zone alongside G78.

The insect remains, which would have been derived from a larger catchment than the macroscopic plant remains, suggested that the water pits were situated in a largely open landscape (Appendix 6). There was only a single individual belonging to a species dependent on wood or trees — the beetle *Melanotus erythropus*, which occurs in rotten wood — although there was consistently evidence for the development of mixed scrub on the site.

The highest proportion of remains of woody plants was found in water pit G68, which contained some acorns; these quite possibly came from an oak tree growing next to the pit, but were also potentially collected for food. Scarabaeoid dung beetles were particularly abundant, comprising 30% of the terrestrial Coleoptera in water pit G78; such high proportions of these beetles, which feed on the droppings of domestic animals on pasture, imply that there were concentrations of stock nearby. There were relatively few seeds of grassland plants, however, perhaps because pasture was a more distant habitat.

Other features

Pit G71, near the northern end of Site A (Fig. 12), produced a large assemblage of later Iron Age pottery, including three large, scored, shell-tempered storage jars and a coarse, plain jar. The presence of a number of storage vessels in the same feature may suggest that the deposit represents functional zoning within the site, or perhaps deliberate selection of similar vessels for deposition. The pit also contained a fragment of flint core with opposing platforms, and a small group of cattle bones, including a mandible from a juvenile animal and one from an adult that had been charred black from heating, probably on a cooking fire.

The remaining features on Site A that were assigned to Phase 3 include a small pit G98 that was truncated by water pit G68; pit G99 that had been dug through linear boundary G63; and a small pit and gully G97 that were both heavily truncated by later features. Pit G99 produced a moderate amount of later Iron Age pottery, supporting the stratigraphical indication that the pit was dug near the end of Phase 3; it also contained a small assemblage of animal bones — dominated by cattle but with sheep/goat and pig also represented — plus the majority (nearly 7kg) of the fired clay recovered from Phase 3 features. Many of the fragments in this assemblage of fired clay are characterised by undulating or gently curving, finger-smoothed surfaces with an irregular underside, suggesting that they represent a lining or structural fragments associated with an oven, or some similar form of structure that was subjected to a degree of heating or firing (Appendix 3). The assemblage also includes portions of two handmade slabs or bricks that are 30–40mm thick and have regular, finger-smoothed surfaces and edges, perhaps representing prefabricated furniture from simple ovens of domestic or agricultural use. Although these three features provide only a fragmentary picture of the Phase 3 settlement, their presence does lend further support to the possibility of an occupation focus north of water pit G78.

The only features from Site B that may belong to this phase were a line of three post-holes plus three large post-holes or small pits G33 (Fig. 10), perhaps forming a crude building or shelter. They represent a further focus of settlement-related activity, but one which was probably more isolated and short-lived than that on Site A, unless additional remains existed beyond the western limit of excavation. Pottery was only recovered from one of the features (Fig. 10: c), comprising a moderate assemblage of thirty-six sherds from at least two coarse storage or cooking jars. These sherds belong within the later Iron Age assemblage (400/350–100BC), but probably date the dismantlement of the structure and may have been debris from occupation of the adjacent Phase 4 roundhouse G29. Several fragments of daub were also

recovered that retain impressions of circular wattles, which may conceivably derive from the superstructure of G33 (Appendix 1).

PHASE 3.5: INDETERMINATE IRON AGE (c. 500–1BC; SITES A AND B)

A number of features were excavated on Sites A and B at Margetts Farm that could not be closely located within the site's overall chronological framework (Figs 14–15). They produced only a negligible amount of ceramic

dating evidence (Appendix 2), and their spatial distribution was such that they could not be dated by association with other features because they either existed in relative isolation, or were close to features of more than one phase. In view of the predominance of Iron Age features on Sites A and B, however, there is a strong likelihood that these features, although essentially undated, were contemporary with the remains in one of the three identifiably Iron Age phases 3, 4 or 5. The presence of a number of two and three-post structures may push the dating back into the early–middle Iron Age, by analogy

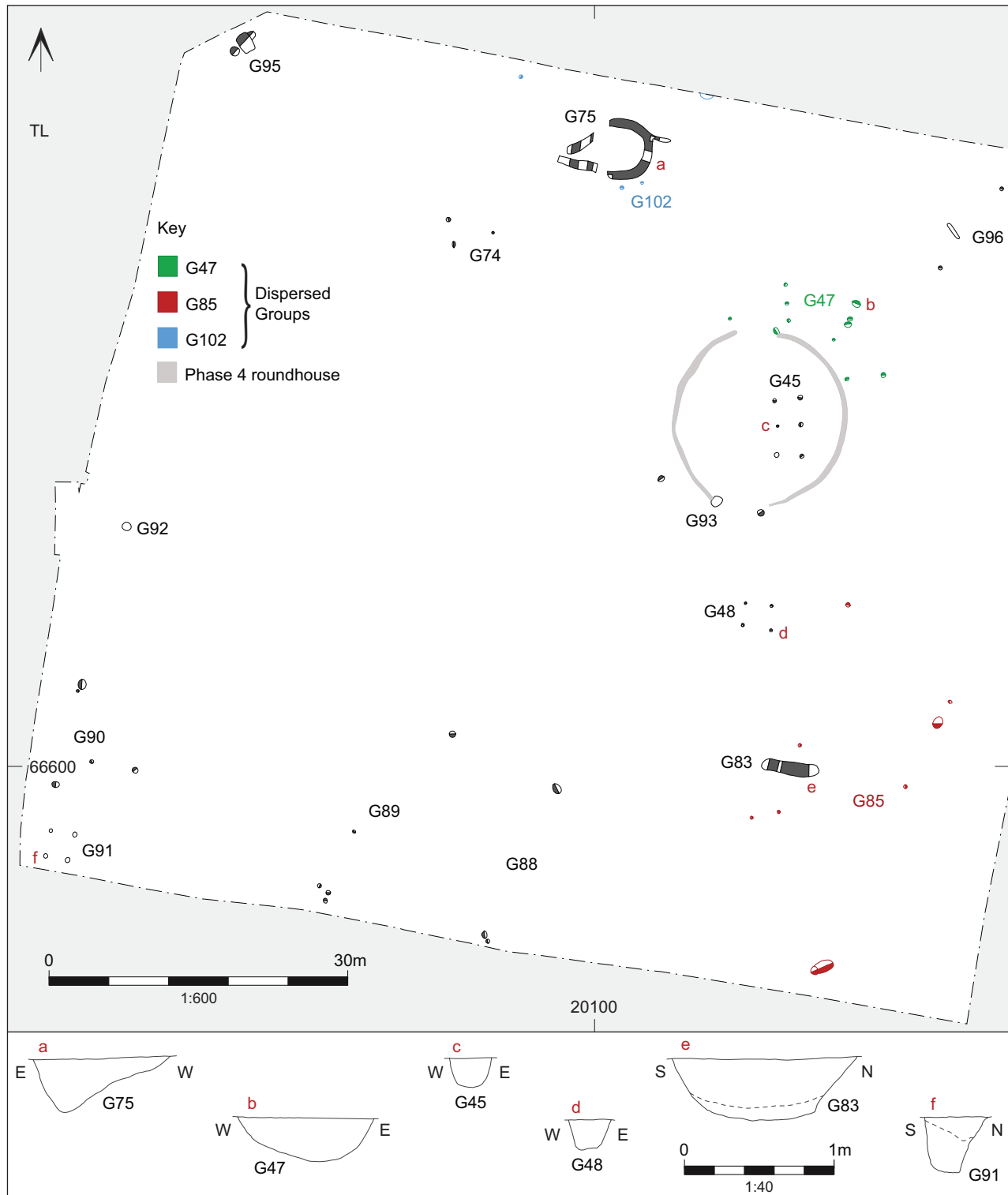


Figure 14: Phase 3.5 – plan and selected sections of indeterminate Iron Age features on Site A

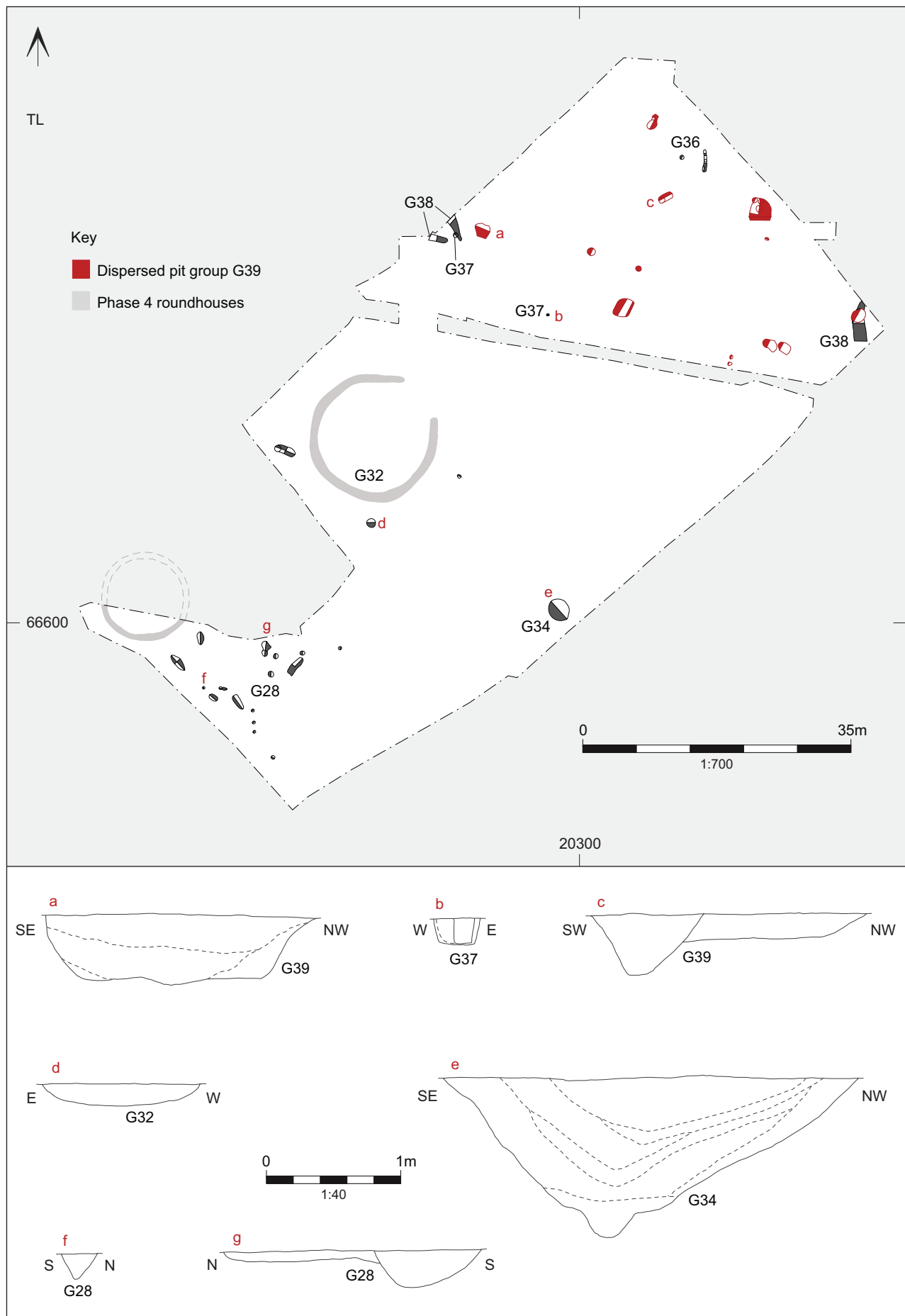


Figure 15: Phase 3.5 – plan and selected sections of indeterminate Iron Age features on Site B

with other sites, but there is nothing to corroborate this date for the Margetts Farm examples.

Buildings and other possible structures

Three square or rectangular buildings were identified: G48 and G91, defined by four post-holes (Fig. 14: d and f); and G45, a six-post structure (Fig. 14: c). The post-holes were spaced at intervals of 2.5–2.6m between their centres, except for the southern post-holes of G45 that were 3m distant from the central ones. G45 was located within the Phase 4 ring gully G44, which is presumed to have been a roundhouse but could potentially represent an enclosure; however, it lay off-centre of the ring gully and the juxtaposition may have been purely coincidental. The cluster of eleven post-holes G47 round the outer circuit of the ring gully may also have been linked to the six-post structure and/or the ring gully.

Similar post-built structures are commonly found on early–middle Iron Age sites, *e.g.* Biddenham Loop (Luke 2008, 36–7) and Salford (Dawson 2005, 41–3), both sites in Bedfordshire. Although traditionally interpreted exclusively as granaries, it is better to see them more broadly as storehouses of some sort (Cunliffe and Poole 1991a, 115). The examples at Margetts Farm may in fact have been used to store grain, however: carbonised plant remains recovered from one of the post-holes in G45 contained sufficient hulled barley (six-row hulled variety of *Hordeum vulgare*) and spelt wheat (*Triticum spelta*) to suggest that they were grown as crops (Appendix 6), while pit G83 to the south also contained evidence of cereal crops (see below).

Two possible further structures are G75 on Site A (Fig. 14: a) and G36 on Site B (Fig. 15). The latter comprised a 2.7m-long beam slot with a post-hole within it, plus a post-hole 3m to the west, and perhaps represents the remains of a small pen or shelter. G75 resembled a small, elongated roundhouse gully, the area defined by which measured 4.3m north–south. The gully perhaps encircled a small structure such as a haystack or storage hut, or may simply have functioned as an animal pen. An isolated hearth G92 was also recorded near the western edge of Area A, which suggests the presence nearby of a further building that did not survive in the archaeological record.

Other features

Sites A and B each contained several groups of pits and post-holes that could not be closely dated, either in clusters or dispersed over a wider area. The post-holes were all isolated and not obviously part of any structure or alignment, with the possible exception of the south-western pair in G85 (Fig. 14), whose spacing was similar to that of the four- and six-post structures described above. Again, two-post structures have also been identified elsewhere from early–middle Iron Age contexts (Luke 2008, 36–7; Moore and Jennings 1992, 39; Cunliffe and Poole 1991a, 45–7 and 113). The post-holes in G96 were associated with a possible 1.8m-long beam slot, but no sense of their function could be determined from their spatial arrangement. Two post-holes G37 were recorded on Site B, each with evidence of a post-pipe representing where their posts had been (Fig. 15: b), but both existed in apparent isolation from any other structural remains.

Most of the pits on Site A were quite small and lacked any distinctive characteristics; G83 was the main exception, comprising an elongated pit that was 5.8m long and 0.45m deep (Fig. 14: e). A small amount of charred grain

was recovered from this feature (Appendix 6), while the presence of a single nutshell fragment of hazel (*Corylus avellana*) demonstrates at least limited evidence for the gathering of wild food resources. The three pits in G93 may have been associated with the Phase 4 ring gully G44, particularly the two near its southern entrance, but there is nothing other than their spatial proximity to suggest this. As well as two small sherds of pottery, the middle pit in G93 also contained a sheep/goat premaxilla, sheep-size rib and pig premaxilla, plus fourteen poorly fired, amorphous fragments of fired clay. Charcoal from the pit included blackthorn, the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group and oak, and is likely to have originated from discarded domestic fuel debris; indeed, the entire fill of this pit is indicative of domestic debris, and its position at one of the terminals of gully G44 may suggest deliberate deposition.

The pits on Site B were slightly larger on average, but similarly little can be deduced about their function in most cases. G34 was the clearest exception, whose profile and depth of 1.2m (Fig. 15: e) suggest that it was a water pit. The fifteen pits in G39 (Fig. 15: a and c) and the four in G32 (Fig. 15: d) may have been associated with Phase 4 roundhouse gully G29, yet they may equally have been contemporary with the Phase 3 cluster of pits G33. The pits and/or post-holes in G28 (Fig. 15: f and g) may equally have been related to the use of Phase 4 roundhouse G27, but too little of the surrounding area was excavated to determine whether their geographical proximity was more than coincidental. A few short lengths of ditch, or possibly elongated pits (G38) were also recorded in the northern half of Site B, but their position on the edge of the excavated area precludes any coherent interpretation of what they represent.

PHASE 4: LATER IRON AGE (c. 250–100BC; SITES A AND B)

Settlement at Margetts Farm reached its peak during the later Iron Age, at which point its character apparently changed from essentially open to primarily enclosed. The boundary established in the latter part of Phase 3 was retained and reworked, with two large enclosures appended to it (Fig. 16). Crop-mark evidence suggests that they were part of a wider field system (Fig. 2), but some of the crop-marks may correspond with post-Roman ditches related to the Phase 7 ones that were excavated. Three penannular gullies — one on Site A (Fig. 17) and two on Site B (Fig. 18) — probably represent roundhouse gullies, one of which produced good evidence for domestic occupation.

A larger pottery assemblage was recovered from this phase than from any of the others, which, along with stratigraphical evidence, helps to make its dating fairly secure. The pottery is mostly later Iron Age in date; the presence of earlier material might be due to residuality, or may simply reflect the lack of precision in ceramic dating for the Iron Age in Cambridgeshire. Many of the Phase 3.5 features were probably contemporary with this later Iron Age phase of activity, but the ceramic and stratigraphical evidence is insufficient to confirm or deny this.

Enclosures and boundaries

The two most prominent features on Site A were enclosures G49 and G51 (Fig. 16; Pl. 4), which were almost

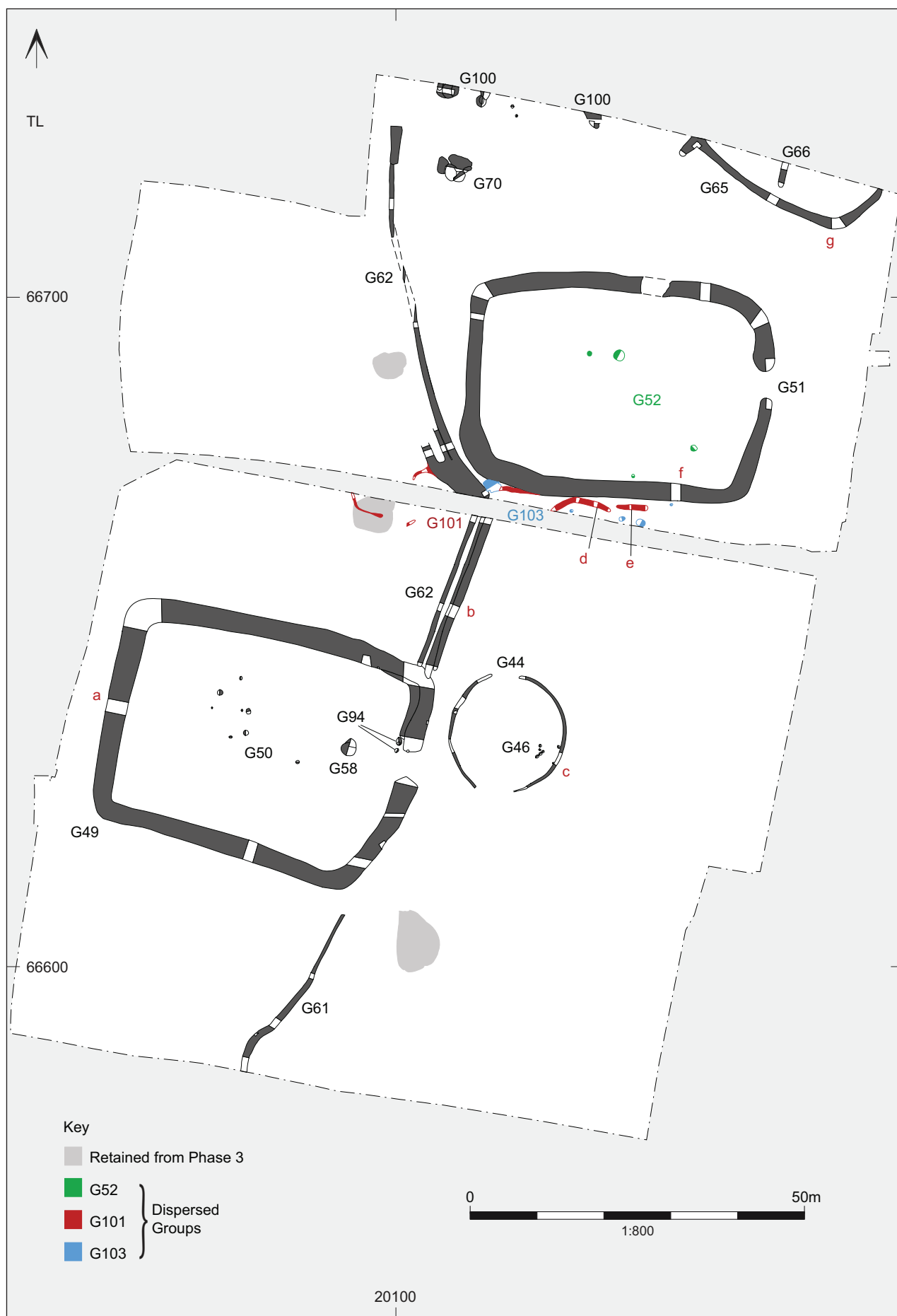


Figure 16: Phase 4 all-features plan of Site A

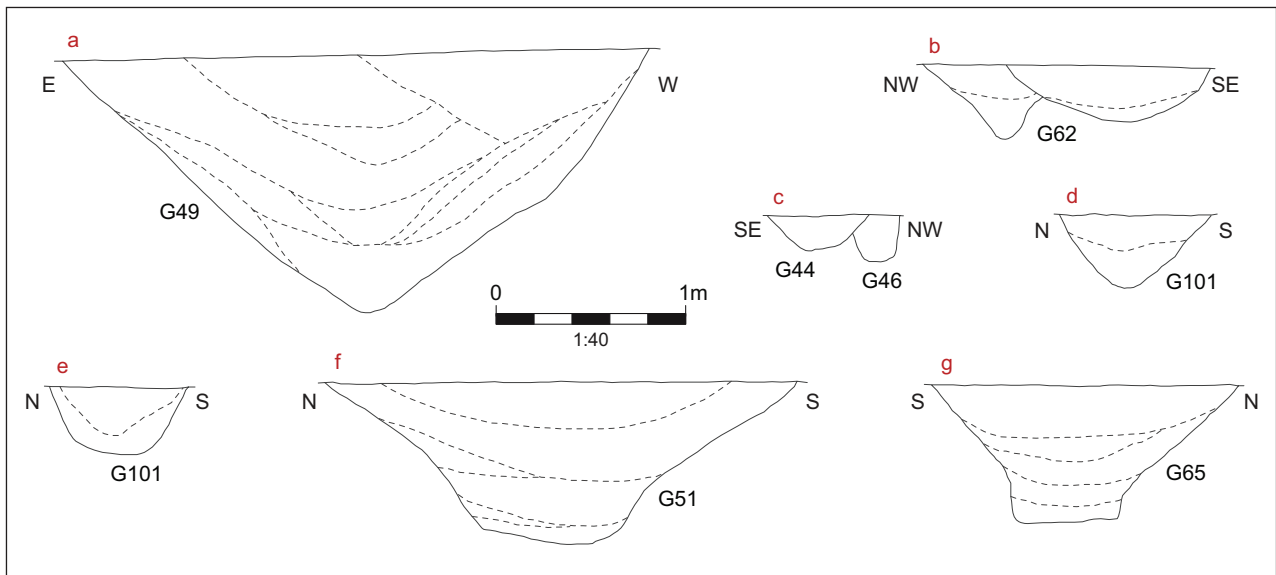


Figure 17: Selected sections of Phase 4 features on Site A

identical in size, and also shared a similar alignment and an east-facing entrance. Both were defined by large, 'V'-shaped ditches: the southern ditch G49 was larger and slightly more regular, measuring 2.6–3.3m wide and up to 1.35m deep (Fig. 17: a; Pl. 5), whereas the northern ditch G51 was mostly 2.2–2.6m wide and no more than 0.85m deep (Fig. 17: f). Ditch G49 may have been made more regular when it was re-cut — it appears that the original ditch was enlarged, removing all trace of it except near the entrance. The presence of later Iron Age pottery in the fills of G49 suggests that it remained in use for longer, a possibility which is strengthened by the enclosure's spatial arrangement with the remains of Phase 5.

Neither enclosure contained many internal features. Eight small pits or post-holes G50 were recorded near the centre of the southern enclosure, with two further small pits G94 and two slightly larger, intercutting pits G58 towards the entrance. The northern enclosure contained only four small pits (G52). It is therefore unclear how the enclosures were used, though a possible difference in form is suggested by the depositional pattern of their fills: the southern enclosure G49 seems to have had an external bank, with material slumping into the ditch from the outside, whereas G51 had an internal one (Fig. 17: a and f).

Although the two enclosures were similar in size and shape and appear to have been contemporary, differences exist between their finds assemblages that may be significant. Much more material was recovered from the southern enclosure G49, including the only three fragments of red deer from the excavations (Appendix 5); the ditch produced a large faunal assemblage which accounts for half of the bones from Margetts Farm that exhibit modification through either butchery or gnawing (Table 18), and which also includes an infant sheep/goat, a juvenile dog, and a very young pig in the first six months of life. Much less animal bone was recovered from G51, although this is due in part to the slightly smaller percentage of the ditch that was excavated; the only bone from a young animal was a single puppy femur, though an infant calf bone was recovered from one of the pits inside the enclosure. Cattle dominates again in both ditch



Plate 4: Excavation of north-west corner of enclosure ditch G49, looking west



Plate 5: North-west corner of enclosure ditch G51, looking south. Scale 1m

assemblages, though by a slightly lesser extent than in Phase 3.

The pottery assemblage was also substantially larger from G49: 244 later Iron Age sherds were recovered, whereas only sixty-three came from G51. Despite chronological similarity, the assemblage suggests that some functional zoning was taking place: whereas a range of forms was recovered from G49, including large, coarse storage jars, only medium cooking and serving vessels came from G51. The G49 pots include four with sherds that were burnt post-firing, and which often join with unburnt sherds from the same vessel. The condition of the pottery from G49 indicates that it was deposited into the ditch some considerable time after use, although the relatively large sherd size plus the presence of joining sherds from several individual vessels suggests that the pottery was deposited together and was not significantly disturbed by re-cutting or cleaning-out of the ditch. This perhaps indicates the presence of middens that were subsequently emptied into the ditch, a theory which is supported by the waterlogged plant remains recovered from G49 (see below).

Non-ceramic artefacts from the two enclosures include a small assemblage of worked flint (Appendix 1). Although none of the flints bear the hallmark characteristics of Iron-Age flint-working, it may be significant that thirteen of the fifteen from Phase 4 came from enclosures G49/G51 and their internal pits, perhaps suggesting that use of the flints was contemporary with the enclosures. Several other items were also recovered from G49: nine pieces of dense, vesicular ferrous smithing slag; a sub-triangular fragment of whetstone made from claystone or mudstone, with mica and calcareous quartzite inclusions; a lamb metatarsal (hind-foot) that is likely to represent a weaving implement, with drilled perforations and polishing on one side; and a small assemblage of fired

clay (Appendix 3). Ditch G51 produced a similar assemblage of fired clay, but no non-ceramic artefacts.

A fragment of human bone was found in enclosure ditch G49, comprising the mid and distal shaft of a human right humerus from a robust adult (Appendix 4). When examined under magnification, numerous fine, parallel cut marks could be seen to run in a transverse direction on the anterior surface and medial border, where they were more distinct. The cuts were a maximum of c. 8mm long and were deepest in the area of attachment for the deltoid muscle on the medial border. This suggests that more force was required in this location due to the need to cut through the tendons, and supports the theory that the cut marks are the result of the disarticulation and defleshing of a corpse, presumably prior to excarnation. No other human remains were found in this Phase, but a skull fragment was recovered from Phase 5 deposits within a nearby rectangular enclosure (see below).

Waterlogged plant remains from the deep north-east corner of ditch G49 (Pl. 6) were similar in character to those recovered from the Phase 3 water pits (Appendix 6), and indicate that the ditch held standing water in which aquatic plants grew. Seeds of *Lemna* sp. (duckweed) were particularly numerous, suggesting that this minute floating-leaved plant carpeted the water in the ditch. Most of the seeds from G49 came from the various disturbed-ground habitats which commonly occur on settlements; many were from *Hyoscyamus niger* (henbane), a plant which was formerly common on middens and in dung-enriched soil in farmyards.

The best pollen preservation at Margetts Farm was also found in enclosure ditch G49 (Appendix 9). Such good pollen preservation, together with a very high proportion of grassland pollen types (88% of the count), are strongly indicative of the presence of dung or stabling-waste within the ditch (*cf.* Macphail *et al.* 2004).



Plate 6: North-east corner of enclosure ditch G49, looking south-east. Scale 2m

This is consistent with the recovery of scarabaeoid dung beetles, which were particularly abundant in ditch G49, comprising 20% of the terrestrial Coleoptera; such high proportions of these beetles, which feed on the droppings of domestic animals on pasture, further suggests that there were concentrations of stock either within the enclosure or nearby.

Enclosures G49 and G51 lay on opposing sides of the line of Phase 3 boundary, which was redefined in Phase 4 by ditches G61 and G62. Ditch G62 was re-cut on two occasions where it ran between the two enclosures (Fig. 17: b); its course further north was more difficult to trace, perhaps because of greater plough truncation, but it is at least clear that its line respected the northern enclosure, leaving a narrow gap between the two. One of its incarnations also left a narrow causeway between itself and the southern enclosure, whereas the other two all ran into the enclosure ditch. Ditch G61 left a wider causeway between itself and enclosure G49. Few finds were recovered from it, although the presence of sherds from a distinctive vessel also found in Phase 3 ditch G60 suggests that the fill of the re-cut incorporated material from the original ditch. The small amount of pottery from ditch G62 is mostly abraded or very abraded, which is consistent with reworking of the assemblage during re-cutting of the ditch. A fragment of calcined bone was found in ditch G62, but this is more likely to have been heated in a cooking fire than on a cremation pyre (Appendix 5).

A possible third enclosure G65 was partially revealed at the northern edge of Site A, though its form is less

certain because it extended beyond the excavation area. Its alignment differs from that of G49 and G51, and the ditch that defined it was much less substantial — 1.65m wide and 0.7 deep at its maximum (Fig. 17: g), but mostly much smaller. The enclosure could not be traced as a crop-mark (Fig. 2). Ditch G66 was located within the enclosure, while a south-eastward protrusion from G65 was recorded at its western end; both of these may represent partitions or other intricacies to the layout of the enclosure, yet they may equally have been unrelated. Nine small sherds of later Iron Age pottery were found in G65 (Appendix 2), including a rim sherd from a globular cup with an impressed double row of dots (Fig. 26: P30). Four large fragments of fired clay were also recovered, as well as a small group of animal bones, one of which has been charred black, presumably on a cooking fire. Just one scrap of possibly Iron Age pottery was recovered from G66, and its contemporaneity with G65 consequently remains in doubt.

Roundhouses

The three ring gullies on Sites A and B were probably associated with roundhouses, although it is perhaps possible that gully G44 represents an enclosure round six-post structure G45 (Phase 3.5; Fig. 14). G44 encircled the largest area, measuring 16.5m in diameter (Figs 16 and 17: c); the interior of G29 measured 14.5m across (Fig. 18: b), while the diameter of G27 was approximately 10m (Fig. 18: c; Pl. 7). Two of the gullies (G44 and G29) had entrances in the northern half of their circuit, while G44 also had an entrance to the south. G27

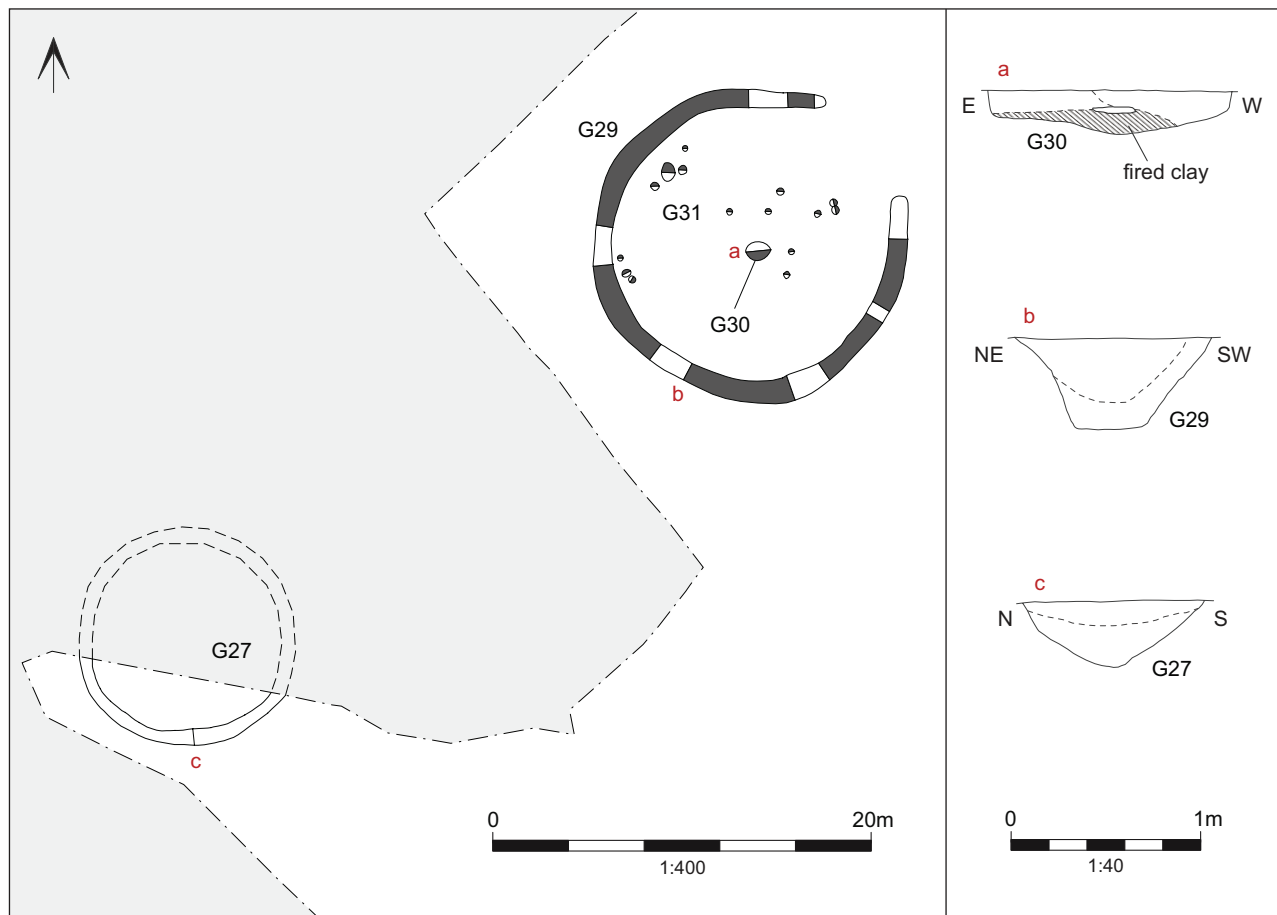


Figure 18: Plan and selected sections of Phase 4 features on Site B



Plate 7: Round-house G27, looking north-east. Scale 2m

may also have had an entrance to the north, but less than half of its circumference survived.

Numerous features were revealed inside roundhouses G29 and G44, but it is unclear how many of them were contemporaneous. Hearth G30 almost certainly was, lying exactly in the centre of G29 (Fig. 18: a; Pl. 8); the fifteen small pits and/or post-holes G31 within the same roundhouse were probably also contemporary, but no dating evidence was recovered from any of them. Post-holes G46 are thought to be related to the presumed roundhouse within G44, though there is again a lack of

dating evidence — two scraps of early Iron Age pottery were recovered, which are thought to be residual — while some of the small pits and/or post-holes in G47 and G93 (Phase 3.5) around the outside of G44 may also have been related to it. No features were recorded within the circuit of G27, but less than a third of its interior was revealed.

Although similar volumes of soil were excavated from ring gullies G27 and G29, the former produced just two horse teeth and a sherd of pottery, probably from a large later Iron Age storage jar, whereas the latter yielded an assemblage of ninety small sherds of pottery (Appendix 2), several pieces of animal bone, and 118 fragments of fired clay. In contrast with the assemblage from Phase 3, the fired clay is poorly preserved and fragmentary. Ring gully G44 contained twenty-six later Iron Age body sherds that weigh just 89g, with more than half of them recovered from soil samples.

Unenclosed domestic foci

Two areas of activity were observed outside the enclosures and roundhouses: G70 and G100 at the northern end of Site A; and G101 and G103 to the south of enclosure G51 (Fig. 16). Neither is well understood, the northern area in particular, since both occurred on the edge of the excavation area. Both produced relatively substantial assemblages of pottery, however, as well as lesser quantities of animal bone, suggesting that they were foci of domestic activity.

The northern focus (G70) comprised a cluster of five intercutting pits that were all fairly large in area but no more than 0.25m deep. G100 also contained a spread of pits, as well as two post-holes, but these were mostly deeper (up to 0.8m) and may have been small water pits.



Plate 8: General view of round house G29 with G30 in centre, looking south

In the southern focus, there were six short gullies (G101) and five small pits or post-holes (G103). No function is obvious for any of these, and it is possible that some were not contemporary, since nearly all of the ceramic evidence came from just one of the gullies (Fig. 17: d).

A moderate assemblage of pottery was recovered from the pits in G70, with at least four vessels represented, though the sherds are mostly abraded (Appendix 2). The seventy-five sherds from G100 are also poorly preserved, but include rim sherds from a small cup with a slashed rim, three medium jars, and a storage jar in a mix of sandy and shell-tempered fabrics. Two medium sandy jars (Fig. 26: P26) and body sherds from a large shell-tempered storage jar came from G101; the pottery is again in poor condition, and the high average sherd weight of 39g reflects the presence of the chunky sherds of storage jar. Nine of the ten sherds from G103 came from one pit.

PHASE 5: LATE IRON AGE (c. 100–1BC; SITES A AND B)

The layout of the Phase 4 Iron Age settlement on Site A is likely to have mostly remained in use into the late Iron Age, although Site B appears not to have been settled at this point. Enclosures G49 and G51 almost certainly still existed, together with some element of the linear boundary on which they were arranged: this can be seen from the character of the new features created in the late Iron Age, which mostly represent adaptations to an existing layout (Fig. 19). The only substantive new element was a narrow rectangular enclosure at the southern end of Site A (Fig. 20), which may have been a focus for ritual activity.

Dating evidence for this phase of activity is limited to small quantities of later Iron Age pottery and the features' stratigraphical relationships with the Phase 4 settlement. A few sherds of Roman pottery were recovered from the newly created rectangular enclosure, but there is no other evidence that the settlement might have continued into the Roman period.

Rectangular enclosure

This long, narrow enclosure extended south from Phase 4 enclosure G49 (Fig. 19) and continued beyond the excavation area. Its western side was defined by ditch G56 and its eastern and northern sides by G59 (Fig. 20: a, d and g); a slight offset in the latter formed a narrow entrance. The flat base of G59 might be an indicator that it was a structural slot rather than just a ditch, designed to hold a ground beam. An internal ditch G57 (Fig. 20: e) was mostly parallel with the western side of the enclosure at a distance of only 0.9m; it might represent a re-cut of G56, though it is perhaps more likely that the two were contemporary, forming a narrow passage that may have acted as a 'race' for channelling the movement of animals in single file. Few finds were recovered from any of these ditches other than nine small sherds of Roman pottery from G59, all from a single vessel, the presence of which might be a sign that the enclosure continued in use into the Roman period.

The function of the rectangular enclosure is unclear, but it seems to have been a point of relatively intense activity. It contained numerous pits and/or post-holes (G86 and G87) and a water pit (G76), with what appears to have been an extensive area of eroded, trampled ground

(G77) on either side. The trampled area is unlikely to have been the result of animals drinking at the water pit, since the steepness of its sides suggest that it would not have allowed direct access for them (Fig. 20: f). Lamination on some of the six sherds of pottery that came from water pit G76 confirms the presence of waterlogged conditions, which allowed the recovery of pollen from the pit (Appendix 9).

The salient find from G76 was a largely complete left parietal of an adult human (Appendix 4). The smoothing of its sutures and in particular faceting on the lambdoid suture did not have the polished appearance of perimortem blade cuts, but were smooth, and it appears that a whetstone or similar tool was used to create an even finish. A series of extremely fine cut marks could be seen when the three central fragments were examined under magnification, which could only have been made by a sharp and fine blade and are suggestive of scalping or skinning. The significance of this piece of human skull is unclear, but its presence, along with the unusual shape of the enclosure and its focus around the earlier water pit, may indicate that this area had a ritual or religious function. As well as the human bone, there was a small collection of animal bones, derived almost entirely from cattle.

A smaller pit G81 to the south of G76 had been dug through the trampled area and had a particularly steep, regular profile that was unlike that of any other pit excavated at Margetts Farm (Fig. 20: h). It contained eight sherds of pottery and two fragments of animal bone, one of which had been charred. The precise function of this pit is unclear, but it may have been a large post-pit, either to hold a gatepost or as part of a structure that lay otherwise beyond the excavation area.

Twelve pits G86 (Fig. 20: b), some of them intercutting, were clustered in the northern end of the enclosure and along its exterior, while nine post-holes or small pits G87 were also present in the northern half. Despite the number of pits in G86, some of which were relatively large, just four sherds of pottery, a small group of animal bones and a small assemblage of fired clay were recovered. The pits and/or post-holes in G86 and G87 may have been centred on Phase 3 water pit G78 — it had clearly silted up to a large extent, since ditch G57 was dug through its western edge, but enough of it may have survived to act as a continued focus. Two small gullies (G80) were recorded to the west of, and perpendicular to, the enclosure; these may represent the partial remains of the southern boundary to a field, but too little evidence remained to be certain. A short length of gully G106 was dug in the north-east corner of this putative field, partially re-cutting Phase 3 gully G55; its purpose is unclear, but it may have had a structural function, perhaps holding a ground beam or a fence line.

Modifications to the Phase 4 settlement

Although much of the Phase 4 settlement on Site A is thought to have remained in use in the late Iron Age, the intensity of occupation is likely to have diminished, with few alterations made to the settlement's layout. The linear boundary was redefined once more at the northern end of the site by G72 (Fig. 19: a). The significance of the eastern ditch is unclear; it could represent either a realignment of the boundary or perhaps the beginning of a trackway. A water pit G53 was dug through the ditch of Phase 4 enclosure G51; other than worked

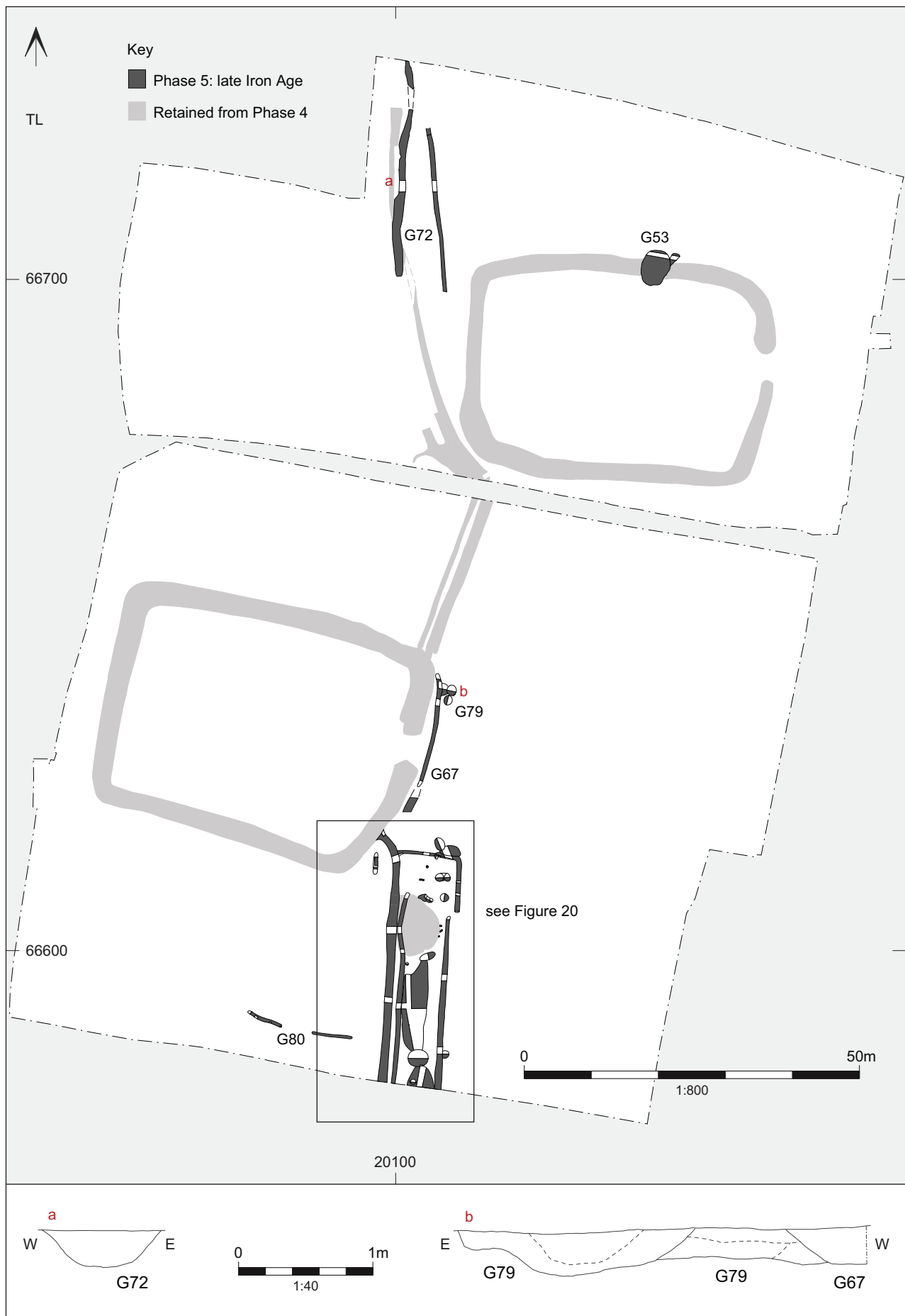


Figure 19: Phase 5 – all-features plan

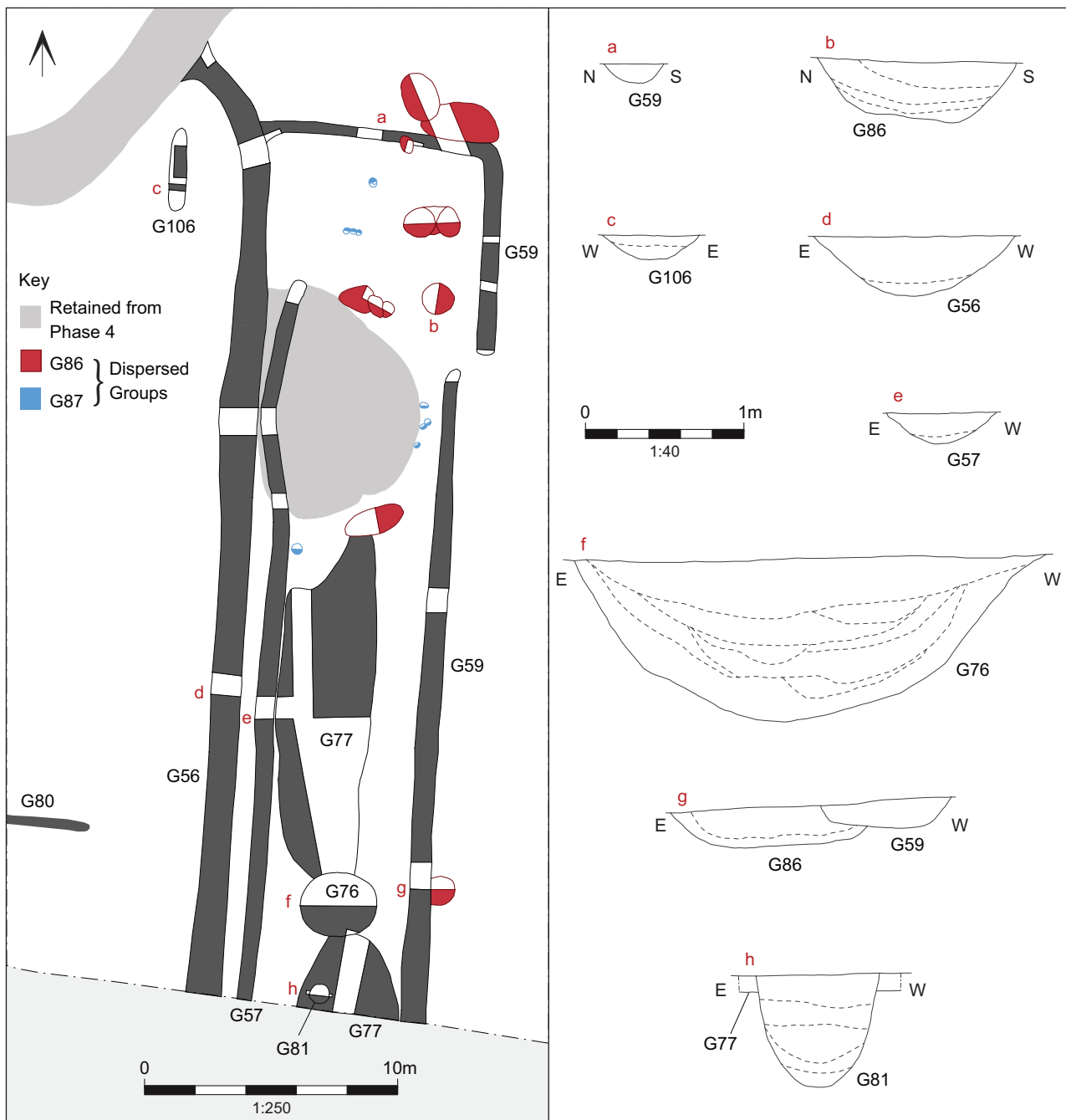


Figure 20: Phase 5 activity focus at southern end of Site A – plan and selected sections

wood (Appendix 8) there was a lack of artefacts from this feature, suggesting that any contemporary settlement lay some distance away. Three small pits G79 were dug near the entrance to the southern Phase 4 enclosure (Fig. 19: b), while a small ditch G67 was also dug across its entrance, presumably to control access. Small assemblages of pottery were recovered from G67 and G79, but the sherds are all small and abraded.

PHASES 6–8: ROMAN TO MEDIEVAL

Settled activity at Margetts Farm appears to have largely ended in the late Iron Age. A few sherds of Roman pottery recovered from Phase 5 enclosure G59 might indicate that it continued in use into the Roman period, or may simply reflect the presence of nearby activity. No other evidence was found that Site A was used in the Roman

period, except possibly for a field system G73 / G104 that may have been late Roman (Fig. 23), though it could equally have been later than that. However, twenty-five bedding trenches were recorded across Sites B and C (Figs 21–22); these are believed to be Roman in date, though only a handful of small, abraded sherds of Bronze Age and Iron Age were recovered from them. Viticulture has been suggested as the function of similar features of Roman date on numerous other sites, notably Wollaston (Brown and Meadows 2000; Brown *et al.* 2001), but conditions at Margetts farm were not conducive to the preservation of the botanical evidence that would support this interpretation.

Very little dating evidence was recovered from any of these post-Iron Age features, and their phasing relies primarily on their morphological characteristics and their stratigraphical relationships with the other remains.

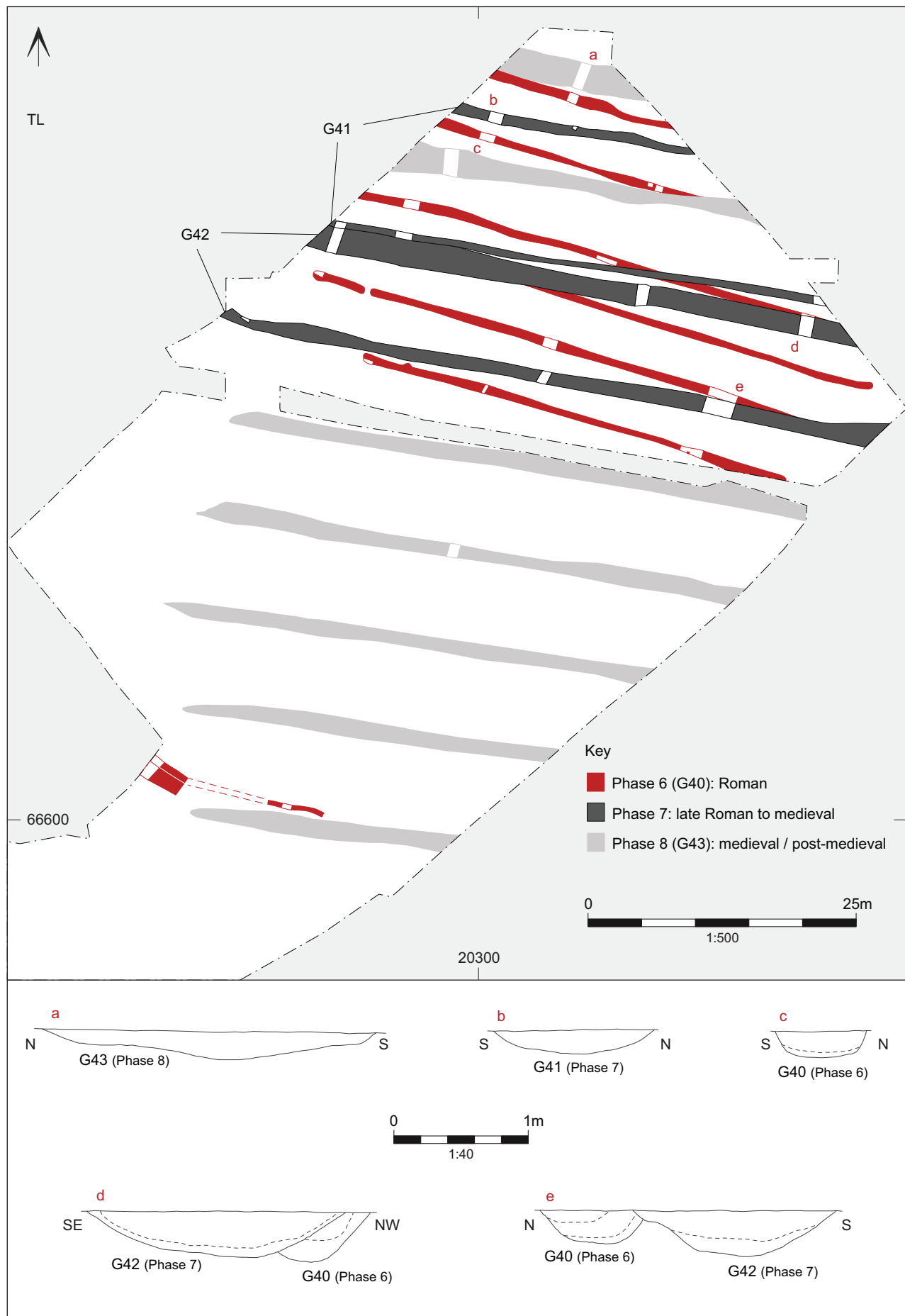


Figure 21: Plan and selected sections of all Phase 6–8 features on Site B

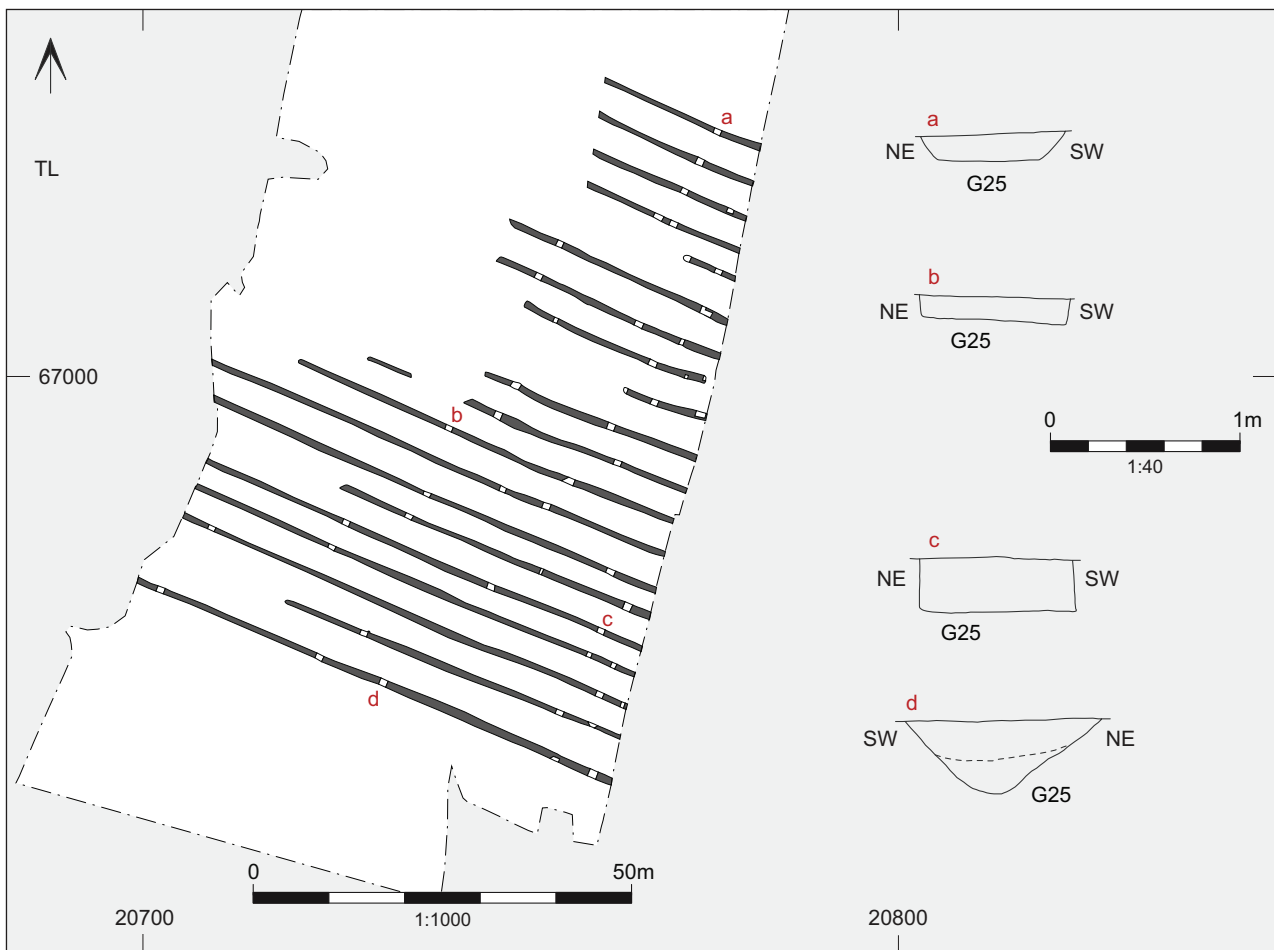


Figure 22: Plan and selected sections of all Phase 6 features on Site C

Phase 6: Roman

Nineteen bedding trenches G25 were recorded on Site C. They were spaced at intervals of 3.5–5m between their centres and were all similar in size, with vertical sides and flat bases (Fig. 22: a–c; Pl. 9). They were bounded by a ‘V’-shaped ditch to the south (Fig. 22: d), but no such limit was observed to the north. The western ends of the bedding trenches seem to have been truncated either by later cultivation or as a result of soil stripping by the quarry operator, although the survival of the Phase 2

ditches in this area (Fig. 5) suggests that any such truncation was not especially severe.

Six similar features (G40) were recorded at the northern end of Site B, though at less regular intervals of 4–8m (Fig. 21: c–e). They predated the medieval furrows (Phase 8). The partial remains of a further ditch G35 were observed to the south, which may have had a similar role to the southern boundary ditch on Site C, though its association with G40 is based solely on its alignment.



Plate 9: Bedding trench G25, looking south-east.
Scale 1m

Phase 7: late Roman to medieval

Ditches G73 / G104, which are thought to represent the remains of a field system, were recorded on Site A (Fig. 23: a–c). These may relate to some of the crop-marks recorded beyond the excavated areas (Fig. 2). The ditches post-dated the Iron Age features and predated the establishment of ridge and furrow cultivation, but it is not possible to define the date of the field system more closely than this. A similarly dated drove-way G41 was recorded on Site B (Fig. 21: b), which was 12m wide. The balance of probability suggests that the drove-way and field system were Roman, since activity from that period is already known from Margetts Farm; two large sherds of Roman pottery were recovered from the field system, and the two sherds of post-medieval pottery that were recovered both came from contexts that may have been disturbed.

A possible trackway G42 was also recorded on Site B, with a width of 7.5m (Fig. 21: d–e). It was on exactly the



Figure 23: Plan and selected sections of all Phase 7–8 features on Site A

same alignment as the Phase 8 ridge and furrow cultivation, but the features in G42 were sufficiently deep to suggest that they were ditches rather than furrows. It post-dated drove-way G41, but it is unclear whether it was contemporary with the medieval ridge and furrow cultivation, or whether it represents an earlier, long-lived trackway that established the alignment for the medieval fields.

Phase 8: medieval / post-medieval

Furrows G105 and G32 were recorded extensively across Sites A and B respectively (Fig. 23; Fig. 21: a), though only one (G24) was observed at the very northern end of Site C (Fig. 5), possibly due to the level of truncation in this area as a result of soil stripping. There was no evidence of contemporary activity within the excavated areas, which appear to have been open fields at this time.

Chapter 3

Discussion

Aerial photographs have recorded numerous crop-marks of archaeological origin in the Great Ouse Valley, which demonstrate the extent and intensity of historic and prehistoric human activity on the relatively low-lying ground that has largely been open countryside since the Middle Ages. At Buckden, most of the river terrace gravels in the east and north-east of the parish have now been quarried to provide aggregates for the construction industry, mostly before the inculcation of archaeological evaluation and mitigation strategies into the planning process. Some of the crop-mark sites within the parish have been investigated by archaeologists prior to — or during — gravel extraction (primarily the work of Clayton, Tebbutt, Rudd and Addyman in the 1940s to 1960s), but little of this work has been analysed or published. Except for what was recovered by these unpublished investigations, the majority of the archaeological record in the areas where this extraction has taken place must therefore be considered lost. In this context, the excavations at Margetts Farm represented a ‘last bite of the cherry’, even though they were fairly limited in extent and had to contend with mostly poor levels of preservation.

The excavations primarily revealed evidence of an early Bronze Age ritual landscape, and a middle to late Iron Age settlement which, unusually, does not appear to have continued into the Roman period. The discussion below incorporates the work of the various contributors to this volume, and explores some of the key themes suggested by the remains that were encountered at Margetts Farm.

SETTLEMENT MORPHOLOGY AND CHRONOLOGY

Evidence of prehistoric settlement at Margetts Farm is restricted primarily to Sites A and B, where the excavated remains showed signs of occupation throughout the majority of the Iron Age, albeit at a fairly ephemeral level and probably with an element of discontinuity. The evidence from Site C is less clear: a certain level of late Neolithic / early Bronze Age settlement can be adduced, but its full extent and date are hard to define.

Late Neolithic / early Bronze Age

Extensive excavations in the Great Ouse Valley have produced widespread evidence for late Neolithic and early Bronze Age monumental landscapes (*cf.* Jones 2011; Luke 2016), but settlement remains have been far less forthcoming. This may be an indication that the Great Ouse floodplain was a space set aside by Neolithic and Bronze Age communities for the expression of their spiritual and cultural identity, yet it could equally reflect a tendency for these communities not to construct settlements composed of the type of structural elements that survive well in the archaeological record. Domestic Beaker pottery, for example, is more commonly found

in surface accumulations on East Anglian fen-edge sites than within cut features (Healy 1996, 181), and artefacts of this period are more usually found occurring residually in later features or in the topsoil.

Determining to what extent the landscape around Margetts Farm was settled during this period is hindered by the paucity of the finds assemblage, although that in itself suggests that any settlement was either short-lived or episodic, and occurred at a low density. The only potential evidence of settlement at this time comes from Site C, where a pair of pits (G15) containing Beaker pottery produced a radiocarbon date of 2200–1970 cal. BC, and one of the pits in G19 produced radiocarbon dates of 2490–2290 cal. BC and 2620–2450 cal. BC (Table 1). Twenty-five further pits were recorded in close proximity to these (Fig. 9), but dating evidence from them is restricted to a few scraps of largely indeterminate pottery, and it is clear from the radiocarbon dates mentioned above that not all of the pits in G15, G19 and G20 were closely contemporary with each other. Three additional Beaker sherds came from pits G8 on the corner of three-sided enclosure G6 (Fig. 6), itself rather imprecisely dated to this period, but the proximity of these pits to the henge less than 15m to the north makes it likely that they were associated more with ritual activity than with settlement.

The almost rectangular arrangement of the pits in G19 is reminiscent of that at Kilverstone, Norfolk (Garrow *et al.* 2005), where 236 pits were revealed. The location of G19 at the edge of the excavated area makes it probable that more existed at Margetts Farm, though how many more is a matter of speculation. The general shape of the pits at the two sites is similar, although several at Margetts Farm were substantially deeper (up to 0.85m) than those at Kilverstone (up to 0.45m). However, whereas the pits at Kilverstone were closely dated to the mid-4th century BC and produced a rich finds assemblage, it is unclear whether all those at Margetts Farm were broadly contemporary, and few finds at all were recovered from them. The radiocarbon dates from them suggest an origin in the mid-3rd century BC (Table 1), yet the few scraps of pottery suggest either an early Iron Age or an early Neolithic date. The presence of confirmed Iron Age features to the south may indicate that at least some of the pits in G19 and G20 also dated from the early Iron Age, yet an early Neolithic date for the pottery would correspond with the resemblance in layout to the pits at Kilverstone. Whether early Neolithic, late Neolithic / early Bronze Age or early Iron Age, however, little more can be said about these pits due to the general sterility of their infill.

Iron Age

Iron Age ceramic typologies are notoriously difficult to date, and those in Cambridgeshire are no exception. Relative rather than absolute chronologies often have to be used, since styles often remained unchanged for long

periods, potentially making sites appear to be older than they in fact are. Radiocarbon dates from one of the G9 pits surrounding the henge at least provide corroboration that the pottery found alongside the dated material is likely to have been deposited between 760BC and 400BC (Table 1); this material is stylistically either contemporary with, or perhaps a little earlier than the earliest Iron Age pottery from Site A, giving an admittedly rather broad *terminus post quem* for the settlement on Sites A and B.

It is unclear quite what the Phase 2 features on Site C represent. Most were concentrated round the henge, and as such could have been either the remains of a settlement located within the surrounding field system, or, perhaps more likely, evidence of continued ritual activity focusing on the earlier monument. The field system itself may be slightly older: comparable field systems in the Biddenham Loop at Bedford have been dated to the middle Bronze Age (Luke 2016). The gully at the very southern edge of Site C might represent the remains of a roundhouse, which would confirm the presence of settlement, but too little of the gully's circuit was exposed to prove this interpretation.

Although the settlement on Sites A and B was fairly extensive (Figs 16 and 18), the intensity of occupation at any one time was low. This was reflected in an absence of synanthropic insects such as the woodworm beetle that are commonly found on settlements, although one pest of grain or farinaceous products was found (Appendix 6). The low density of occupation perhaps accounts for the high degree of continuity in the settlement's layout, even though several hundred years are likely to have passed between the creation of the Phase 3 boundary on which the settlement was aligned, and the final disuse of the Phase 4 enclosures. A maximum of three roundhouses were present, and only one of these definitely represented a domestic structure: too little was revealed of G27 on Site B to be certain of its function, while it is possible that ring gully G44 on Site A represented an enclosure or ritual monument rather than the gully of a roundhouse. It is impossible to tell whether or not these were contemporary, while the date of the three four- or six-post structures that were revealed cannot be refined beyond the probability that they were Iron Age.

In common with the economic and environmental evidence (see below), the layout of the enclosed settlement on Site A is strongly suggestive of pastoral agriculture. G49 and G51 are likely to represent stock enclosures, with a water supply continuing to be provided by the Phase 3 watering holes; their shape and size are comparable with contemporary enclosures excavated at Broom, Bedfordshire (Cooper and Edmonds 2007) and Little Paxton (Jones 2011). Their location on the edge of the floodplain may indicate that they functioned as holding pens for livestock being moved to and from seasonal pastures. What remains unclear, however, is whether the settlement (or perhaps settlements) on Sites A and B formed a distinct unit, or whether it was an integral part of a much wider settlement landscape. Excavations to the south at Little Paxton (Jones 2011) have revealed extensive Iron Age remains, where a much higher level of reworking and organic growth suggests a significantly greater density of occupation — was the Margetts Farm Iron Age settlement, for some of its history at least, a pastoral outlier to the main site at Little Paxton?

FUNERARY AND RITUAL PRACTICES

Late Neolithic to middle Bronze Age

Ritual activity in the late Neolithic to middle Bronze Age at Margetts Farm was largely focused around circular monuments. Numerous examples in the form of ring ditches have been identified from aerial photographs (Fig. 2), all of which have now been destroyed by quarrying. The two circular monuments revealed within Site C appear to have incorporated trees as an integral part, or at least to have been focused on them: burial G4 was placed in a pit that had been dug into a large tree-throw, at the centre of a semicircle of pits, while another large tree-throw was identified within henge G1 (Fig. 6). A further link with tree-throws can be seen from the two that were present on Site A adjacent to burial G84 (Fig. 3). The contemporaneity of the henge and its internal tree-throw is open to debate, but the tree-throw's position opposite the entrance, combined with the general absence of tree-throws elsewhere other than in association with funerary or ritual monuments, makes their physical correlation seem more than coincidental. The semicircle of pits G5 around burial and tree-throw G4 (Fig. 8) contained no artefactual remnants of ritual activity, but the radius of the semicircle matches that of the ring of posts lining the interior of the henge, and it is perhaps possible that the pits and burial represent a proto-henge that did not develop as fully as henge G1.

Material recovered from the henge ditch and post-holes gives little indication of how the henge was used. The only evidence of contemporary ritual or structured deposition other than cremation burial G26 was the accumulation of flint artefacts in a cluster on the southern side of the ditch. Radiocarbon dates tentatively suggest that the ring of posts was added after the ditch was already in existence (Table 1); however, the radiocarbon date from the henge ditch may be falsely old as it came from oak heartwood, while the date from G26 may conversely be falsely recent, as it came from the cremation burial within the post-hole rather than from the post itself. A later date for the ring of posts is perhaps supported by the northernmost 'corner' of the ditch, which would presumably have been less angular if the posts had already been there to act as a guide. The addition of the ring of posts may represent the conversion of a simple ring-ditch monument into a henge, although our understanding of these monuments is probably insufficient to properly define a clear distinction between the two.

To the south of the henge, the placement of Beaker pottery in pits G15 can also be seen as a ritual act. Domestic Beaker pottery that has been buried in pits seems to comprise material taken from surface accumulations sometime after the vessels had been used and broken (Garrow 2006, 120), perhaps as part of the rites associated with a site's end of use (Pollard 2006, 64), or as part of those associated with crop fertility (Gibson 2005b, 11).

Evidence for human burial practices is undeniably limited, beyond their apparent association with tree-throws in the early to middle Bronze Age. Three cremation burials of this date were recovered, one from a post-hole along the inner circuit of the henge, the other two from urned burials. Little can be said about the few sherds of pottery from G84, but the Collared Urn in burial G4 belongs to Longworth's secondary series and is similar to an undecorated example found locally at

Hermitage Farm, Haddenham (Longworth 1984; Pollard 2006, fig. 2.27: 9), while further local examples of small, plain Collared Urns are known from Ely, Somersham, Linton, and south Cambridgeshire (Longworth 1984, pl. 230: f; pl. 228: f; pl. 229: e and i). Dating of undecorated urns is uncertain, but Needham suggests that general Collared Urns were in use from c. 2100BC to c. 1400BC (Needham 2005, fig. 13). The semicircle of twelve small pits G5 which surrounded G4 contained nothing to suggest a ritual function, but, as discussed above, they may have formed part of a proto-henge.

The osteological evidence demonstrates that each of the three cremated individuals, two of whom were adult, had been efficiently cremated at a high temperature (Appendix 4). There is no evidence that objects or foodstuffs were placed on the pyre with them, though this does not exclude organic materials, which would have been consumed by the fire or reduced to charcoal. There also appears not to have been any preferential selection of particular areas of the body for burial. There is, however, tentative evidence of a strong bias towards the preferential use of oak for ritual purposes, assuming that the charcoal originated from activities associated with the cremation burial, rather than from residual charred remains of oak posts inserted into the post-hole in the case of G26. Single-species selection, usually oak, has been recorded from Bronze Age cremation deposits in various parts of England (Smith 2002), many of which are thought to be burials of some significance. Three early Bronze Age cremation burials excavated at Barford Road, Eynesbury, St Neots, a multi-period site on the River Great Ouse just a few miles south of Margetts Farm, also indicated a strong link between the ritual and practical use of oak (Gale 2004).

It is intriguing that the levels of fragmentation vary between the burials. Burial G84 may have been protected by its urn from damage resulting from taphonomic factors and post-depositional breakage, but the same was not the case for G4, which was both the most fragmented yet the most complete of the burials. The funerary context of this vessel was somewhat different, having been placed within a large pit, and it is possible that other aspects of the funerary ritual also differed, leading to increased fragmentation of the burnt bone. There are similarities in fragment size with early and middle Bronze Age burials from the Biddenham Loop, Bedford (Powers forthcoming), suggesting that funerary rituals (the collection and 'processing' of the burnt bone) and taphonomic influences were similar.

Late Iron Age

The disarticulated human bone from Iron Age deposits is intriguing, all the more so in the absence of any evidence for articulated burial on the site at this date. The location of the modified cranial fragment is interesting: pit G76, from which it came, was situated within a long, narrow enclosure that was positioned around an earlier water pit (Fig. 20), on a different alignment to the earlier phases of the site. The function of this enclosure is unclear, not least because only part of it was revealed within the excavation area, but the entrance near the north-east corner seems designed more to provide human access than to allow animals to be funnelled in or out. This is supported by the concentration of post-holes and pits at the northern end of the enclosure and immediately to its north, which indicate that this was a focus of activity on the site in the

late Iron Age, possibly centred on the earlier water pit. The unusual shape of the enclosure would have made it inconveniently narrow for domestic occupation; was it therefore a 'holy' place, perhaps a mortuary enclosure? Did flat-bottomed ditch G59 hold a timber structure designed to screen off the interior of the enclosure from the outside? The possible 'race' between ditches G56 and G57 for channelling the movement of animals in single file might be an indication that animals were being led into the enclosure, perhaps destined for ritual killing — yet if so, why would human remains have played a part in such a ritual?

Fragmentary human remains and isolated bones are commonly found in Iron Age deposits (Redfern 2008, 281), almost always alongside animal bone and often artefacts (Madgwick 2010, 67 and 76; Walker 1984, 443). Examples from other sites are given in Appendix 4, but of greatest significance to the discoveries at Margetts Farm are two modified cranial fragments from Harston Mill, Cambridgeshire (O'Brien, forthcoming). A number of early-middle Iron Age pits contained human and animal remains, together with significant artefacts such as complete pots. Amongst the fragmentary human remains, cranial fragments were most common, followed by elements of the humerus. An adult right parietal had been worked to form a rough rectangle and is interpreted as a possible amulet. A fragment of adult frontal bone was found in the vicinity of another Iron Age pit, though located within an undated context; this piece was primarily of the left frontal and was roughly triangular, with one edge formed by the coronal suture. Notably, the edges of the suture had been worked, a direct parallel to the modification in the Margetts Farm example. Linear decoration was present, and a drilled hole and signs of wear suggest that this 'amulet' had been suspended on a thong to enable it to be worn (Phillips and O'Brien, forthcoming).

What process or cultural practice could have created the features seen in the remains studied here? Fine cuts marks on the humerus are indicative of defleshing by scraping a blade along the shaft, and together with the fracturing at the distal end of the bone (so-called 'dry' fractures), this lends support to the theory of excarnation before curation or burial (Carr and Knüsel 1997). However, there is no evidence of gnawing or weathering, and although surface exposure could occur without these features (Madgwick 2010, 67; Lyman 1994, 364), the burnished surface of the remains suggests repeated handling and either retention in a protected location (such as a domestic structure) or relatively rapid deposition subsequent to modification. The cranial fragment was found within a pit which was surrounded by a trampled area. However, if the bone had itself been subject to trampling, this would have resulted in characteristic irregular scratches (Madgwick 2010, 68–69), none of which were seen, which suggests that the remains were not just casually discarded before making their way into the pit as an accidental or expedient disposal.

A preponderance of heads or cranial fragments is often reported (Armit and Ginn 2007, 127). Whilst it is tempting to interpret such finds as trophies taken from slain enemies, ethnographic parallels show that post-mortem modification may be a mark of respect and inclusion. Worked remains could represent the 'treasuring of ancestral relics' (Armit and Ginn 2007, 128), or the retention of amulets to bring good luck (Cunliffe 2005,

553). In this instance, such a carefully worked piece of bone would surely have been intended to be retained for some time, and the 'polished' surface of the bones would support the suggestion that this was the case.

Although the motives for the defleshing and modification of the human bone may remain a mystery, as does the meaning of the context in which it was disposed, it seems likely that the cranial fragment was of particular significance to the people who modified and curated it. That the closest parallels to the type of working seen are also from Cambridgeshire may hint at a regional variation in Iron Age funerary practice.

AGRICULTURE AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Although large-scale bulk sampling was undertaken at Margetts Farm, the archaeobotanical results achieved were generally poor, with productive samples confined to those taken from Iron Age deposits on Site A (Appendix 6). The faunal evidence has similar limitations (Appendix 5), and the discussion below therefore concentrates on what can be learnt about the environment and agricultural practices at Margetts Farm in the Iron Age, alongside a consideration of the structural evidence for Roman agriculture, or possibly viticulture.

Iron Age

The river gravels along the Great Ouse were largely deforested by the late Neolithic (French and Wait 1988). Low frequencies of arboreal pollen from Iron Age features indicate that, by that time, the nearest woodland to Margetts Farm was located some distance away (Appendix 9), although the waterlogged plant macrofossils indicate that there were a few oak trees nearby — the acorns present in water pit G68 may have fallen in directly from an overhanging oak (Appendix 6). The strong bias shown towards oak by charcoal from late Neolithic deposits associated with the henge may also attest to the presence of no more than occasional oak trees, possibly even those that generated the tree-throws within the henge and next to burial G4.

Interestingly, pollen samples from the Iron Age features also give few indications of scrub or small copses and hedgerows, which is in contrast to the macrofossil evidence for scrub development and charcoal of *Pomoideae* species. These differences in the various botanical records further suggest that open woodland, copse or hedgerow resources were largely absent from the pollen catchment area of the site itself, but would have been exploited further afield and imported onto the site. Evidence from charcoal deposits at the comparable sites of Little Paxton and Barford Road, Eynesbury, located on the river gravels to the south of Margetts Farm, identified a similar range of taxa, with the addition of willow and/or poplar, alder, and purging buckthorn at Barfield Road (Gale 1999; Gale 2004). The pollen data from Margetts Farm indicates that more locally, the terrace was dominated by herb-rich grassy communities. Both *Pteridium* spores and bracken fronds were recovered, together suggesting the probability that bracken would have been locally present on the freely-draining terrace soils.

In common with other excavated examples of Iron Age settlements along the Great Ouse Valley, Margetts Farm appears to have been set amidst a primarily pastoral landscape. Despite the good suitability of the Great

Ouse's gravel terraces for cereal cultivation, there is a general absence of evidence for major crop-processing activity. Large-scale sampling for carbonised remains on a settlement of similar age in the Biddenham Loop, Bedford likewise gave sparse results (Pelling 2008): most of the cereal remains were spelt wheat, with just a little six-row barley also present, whereas the two crops were present in roughly equal (albeit low) numbers at Margetts Farm (Appendix 6). It is possible that these settlements were primarily pastoral and that grain was only grown (or brought in) for use by the relatively few occupants; the pollen evidence suggests that no arable farming or cereal-processing occurred within the catchment area of the sampled features, even though cereals and/or straw were clearly used.

No significant change in the landscape between Phases 3 and 4 was evident from the waterlogged plant macrofossils, though this may be in part due to the longevity of the Phase 3 water pits, which are likely still to have been in use throughout Phase 4. The water pits were pond-like features rather than well-like in their flora, and were probably used to water stock. There are indications of areas of nutrient enrichment such as dung or stock-trampling around the water pits, as suggested by *Chenopodiaceae*, *Polygonum* t. and *Urtica* pollen, but these areas were not as extensive as might have occurred if major dung heaps had been present, and it is probable that there was a more extensive form of stock-management such as free-range grazing.

The faunal assemblage suggests that cattle were the main animals kept on site; sheep/goat also had a significant presence, though this decreased in the later Iron Age during Phase 4 (Appendix 5). However, the chronological narrative indicates very clearly that virtually all the faunal evidence derives from human preparation, disposal and post-consumption waste, with a negligible component for true environmental indication. Such 'indicator' evidence usually derives from invertebrates, amphibians, birds and small mammals; the fact that there was no recovery of these suggests that the features were probably not completely sheer-sided, thereby failing to create a 'pit-fall trap' effect, and did not contain permanent standing water.

There was no recovery of wild 'game' birds, and the wild mammal assemblage includes only very sparse recovery of two edible species, brown bear and red deer. Both species prefer woodland as an ideal habitat, although they are able to survive in a range of environments (Appendix 5); their recovery again suggests that woodland was available for 'game' exploitation within reasonable range of the site, though the absence of game birds perhaps suggests that the woodland was not close enough to make them economically viable.

Roman

Several Roman bedding trenches were recorded on Site B (Fig. 21), with a more extensive spread identified on Site C (Fig. 22). Roman bedding trenches of this type are now well attested from numerous sites in central and eastern England, notably Wollaston (Brown and Meadows 2000; Brown *et al.* 2001), Caldecote (Kenney 2001), Love's Farm, St Neots (Mark Hinman forthcoming), and Kempston, Bedford (Luke 2016), where they have been interpreted as evidence of viticulture. The interpretation at Wollaston was supported by the recovery of vine pollen, and at Love's Farm by grape pips. Although no

such evidence survived at Margetts Farm, the apparent scale of the undertaking suggests that it would have far exceeded the requirements of the people growing it. The production of grapes for wine or vinegar is perhaps, therefore, the most likely use of these bedding trenches, since these are commodities that are known to have been traded long distances in Roman times on the basis of the proxy evidence of amphorae.

CRAFT ACTIVITY, TRADE AND CULTURAL LINKS

Late Neolithic to early Bronze Age

Links between the late Neolithic / early Bronze Age occupants of Margetts Farm and the wider community are demonstrated by the pottery assemblage that was recovered. The earliest material is Grooved Ware, most likely associated with domestic activity dating to c. 3,000–2,000BC (Garwood 1999, 152). This has been found in varying quantities at a number of other sites along the Great Ouse Valley (Appendix 2), while also being used by people living further afield across the south of England. Grooved Ware is considered to be concerned with the household (Thomas 2010) and it is likely that all the sites where it has been found experienced a degree of domestic occupation, perhaps by transient communities travelling along the river valley (Evans and Hodder 2006, 38). The late Neolithic population was much less sedentary than the Iron Age one is likely to have been, and the sharing of ideas and traditions would have been a natural part of their way of life.

Beaker pottery also has a wide distribution map, spanning the period 2500–1700BC (Needham 2005, 171), and the Margetts Farm assemblage is typical of domestic pit assemblages from across East Anglia (Garrow 2006, 138). The Beaker-rich pit in G15 (Fig. 7: e) contained deliberately redeposited occupation debris similar to assemblages recovered within the Great Ouse Valley from Haddenham, HADVII (Pollard 2006, 52: pit F.368), Eynesbury (Mephram 2004, 39: pit 4150), and from a series of pits at Fenstanton (Gibson 2005b). The undecorated Collared Urn from burial G4 also has a parallel at Haddenham, with a similar example discovered at Hermitage Farm (Pollard 2006, fig. 2.27: 9).

It is unknown whether the people who deposited this pottery at Margetts Farm had made it themselves or had acquired it through trade, and the only direct evidence of their craft skills that can reasonably be attributed to them is the small assemblage of flint from the henge ditch. The six worked flints were all carefully struck from good quality, gravel-derived flint, probably with the use of a hard hammer.

Iron Age

Links with the wider East Anglian community are apparent through the earlier Iron Age pottery assemblage, which has many stylistic traits in common with pottery from the Fengate area, while further similarities with pottery from Haddenham are evident amongst the later Iron Age assemblage (Appendix 2). A lower proportion of Scored Wares was recovered than at Haddenham, however, which is likely to reflect their differing locations within the Great Ouse Valley: Haddenham V lies in the north-eastern reaches of the valley within the area of Scored-Ware influence, whilst the very mixed assemblage at Margetts Farm reflects the location of the site on

the boundaries of two different pottery traditions, with shell-tempered Scored Wares prevalent to the north and west and sandy plain wares to the south and east (Hill and Braddock 2006, 191; Abrams and Ingham 2008, fig. 2.11). Scored vessels are typical of later Iron Age pottery in the East Midlands (Elsdon 1993, Knight 2002, fig. 12.4), with its distribution extending at its southernmost limits to the middle reaches of the Great Ouse and along the southern and eastern fen edge (Elsdon 1993 fig. 2).

The presence at Margetts Farm, Little Paxton (Hancocks 2003, 87) and Loves Farm, St Neots (Percival forthcoming b) of scored decoration, shell-tempering and tub-shaped vessels, which are all most commonly found on sites in the southern fens and Lincolnshire (Pryor 1984, fig. 75: 10; Chowne 1986, fig. 9: 45), suggests at least some links between the communities living along the middle reaches of the Great Ouse Valley with those from the more northerly areas, with the river system perhaps providing the link. It is of interest that within both the earlier and later Iron assemblages from Margetts Farm, there are notable similarities in form and decoration with the pottery from Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945; Pryor 1984; Brudenell and Hill 2009), perhaps indicating longstanding links between the two areas. However, it seems that these northerly influences do not completely dominate the pottery choices of the Margetts Farm community, which were assimilated alongside traditions more prevalent in the south and east of the region, where the use of sandy plain wares predominated (Percival 2008, fig. 2.11).

Varying degrees of craft activity at Margetts Farm are evident from the other finds assemblages. The animal bone collection, for example, gives clear evidence of butchery, yet there is only very sparse and scattered evidence of manufacture, insufficient to indicate core assemblages of waste from any concentrated industrial activity (Appendix 5). Only two fragments of bone show tool-mark evidence for bone-working: a fragment of sheep/goat radius from Phase 3 water pit G69 which has been polished and shows grooves worn into the medial side of the mid-shaft; and a sheep metatarsal from Phase 4 enclosure ditch G49 which probably represents a partially-completed whistle. Evidence for the preliminary removal of cattle horn from the horn cores is present but not extensive, whereas the fragment of red deer antler from G49 shows no tool marks. There are also no tool marks indicative of skinning or hide-preparation on any of the bones.

The fired clay assemblage provides limited evidence of construction techniques (Appendix 3). Fragments of daub found near roundhouse G29 retain impressions of circular wattles and may conceivably derive from its superstructure, but the wattle impressions are too few to ascertain whether they were interwoven to form a basketry structure. In addition, early Iron Age pit G99 produced a large, though entirely redeposited assemblage that is likely to have come from an oven.

Evidence for craft activities in the Iron Age from the non-ceramic artefacts comes largely from the flint assemblage (Appendix 1), although the probable residuality of much of this material makes it questionable whether it was used for activities that were actually carried out during the Iron Age. The assemblage does not particularly display any of the characteristics considered indicative of Iron Age flint-working (Young and Humphrey 1999; Butler 2005). However, the minor concentration of flints

recovered from Phase 4 enclosures G49 and G51 might indicate that use of the flints was contemporary with the enclosures, while the quality of the flint used was not as good as that found in Phase 1 contexts, which suggests it is not residual late Neolithic / early Bronze Age material. Craft activities are further represented by a chalk or phosphate rock object from water pit G69, which may have functioned as either a spindle whorl or perhaps an amulet; an undecorated antler weaving-comb from water pit G78; and a fragment of whetstone from enclosure ditch G49, whose presence implies that the Iron Age inhabitants of Site A possessed metal cutting tools.

Evidence of woodworking was apparent from the waterlogged wood recovered from Phase 3 water pit G69, most of which was oak (Appendix 8). Tool-marks were recorded on four of the thirty-one samples, some of which displayed lathe-like qualities. Samples from the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group could represent coppice growth, for example from hurdles or basketry, but there was insufficient evidence to substantiate this suggestion. The mix of both worked and unworked wood, including a possible woodchip, could imply that this was a working area, perhaps involving the conversion of timber and/or carpentry.

DIET

Too little animal bone was recovered from Site C to comment on what people may have been eating in the late Neolithic and early Bronze Age. However, all phases of the Iron Age faunal assemblage from Sites A and B indicate a meat diet predominantly derived from beef, mutton and pork, with at most only very minor contributions of wild mammal 'game', *i.e.* brown bear and red deer (Appendix 5). The absence of fish, poultry, wild 'game' birds and smaller species of game mammal may reflect genuine dietary bias — perhaps through feasting on prized reared animals rather than foraged game — or merely that generally severe fragmentation and rather poor preservation have limited the survival of more fragile bones. The latter explanation is supported by the substantial component of unidentifiable broken cattle- and sheep-sized fragments of long bones that are present throughout the assemblage.

The recovered faunal assemblage does seem to relate primarily to butchery and consumption waste, as suggested by the negligible recovery of horn cores and phalanges from the main domesticates. Although small, phalanges are extremely robust, and the virtual absence of phalanges and horn cores from the assemblage may suggest a real absence of these elements, perhaps indicating that waste associated with horn-preparation and -working, skinning, and hide-preparation was deposited elsewhere.

The faunal assemblage derives almost entirely from adults and juveniles, with adult bones tending to predominate. No foetal or neonate animals were recovered, and only a few examples of infant sheep/goat and calf were identified. In general, dental evidence indicates that cattle and sheep/goat were represented by a range of age-groups including animals in at least the fourth year, with fewer examples in the first, second and third year. This suggests that the consumption of animals generally took place after they had fulfilled a primary function, *e.g.* dairying or wool production, although the bias towards robust bones from fully adult and even old animals may

also be a factor of the assemblage's fragmentation and poor preservation.

Evidence for the inhabitants' non-meat diet is extremely limited. Spelt wheat and six-row hulled barley were certainly being processed at the site — part of a possible grain rubber was recovered from gully G55 — but the main emphasis seems to have been on the raising of domestic animals rather than crop production. The four- and six-post structures in Phase 3.5 may have been granaries, but may equally have been used for other storage. The presence of wood and charcoal from hedgerow species indicates the availability of wild fruits, but there is no evidence other than the occasional recovery of charred hazelnut shells to indicate what types or to what extent these were consumed. Acorns found in Phase 3 water pit G68 perhaps suggest the presence of an overhanging oak tree, and it is possible that these were gathered to supplement the diet if supplies of cultivated crops were scarce.

SUMMARY

The evidence from Margetts Farm contributes to the understanding of how past communities have used the middle reaches of the Great Ouse Valley from the late Neolithic onwards. In isolation, the evidence is relatively modest and incomplete, but it adds to the greater body of information available from the wider area, particularly that recovered from the adjacent land at Little Paxton and Diddington to the south (*e.g.* Jones 2011). The project is also significant because it comprises the only fully analysed archaeological investigation of the extensive crop-mark sites recorded within Buckden Quarry. Previous work by Clayton in the 1940s and by Tebbutt, Rudd and Addyman in the 1950s remains unpublished, and it is questionable what information could ever usefully be retrieved from the archives that were generated. The data presented in this volume adds to the continually growing body of archaeological evidence from more extensive investigations in the locality, providing further evidence for the comparatively under-recorded earlier Iron Age and for the frequency and diversity of form of late Neolithic and early Bronze Age ritual monuments present on the floodplain.

At Buckden, as in other parts of the Great Ouse Valley, archaeological evidence from the floodplain for late Neolithic and early Bronze Age activity relates primarily to ritual use — although this may be due to the insubstantial below-ground impact of contemporary settlement, particularly if it were temporary and seasonal in nature. The ritual landscape revealed on Site C at Margetts Farm consisted of circular monuments defined by ring ditches, and by rings or partial rings of pits or posts. The presence of cremation burials indicates a funerary element to their function in the early Bronze Age, while a cremation burial from Site A indicates that the disposal of the dead on the floodplain continued into the latter half of the 2nd millennium BC. These monuments were set in an environment which had already been largely cleared of trees and presumably kept clear by grazing of livestock, but the excavated evidence appears to suggest that this ritual activity was focused on isolated large trees surviving within the open landscape, preserved within the archaeological record as large tree-throws.

The open, pastoral environment largely continued into the Iron Age, although it began to be broken up into

fields and enclosures. The most substantial evidence of settlement dates from the middle to late Iron Age and was focused within Sites A and B. It was relatively marginal in terms of intensity and size, possibly because of its location within an area that was prone to flooding: it seems to have sat on the dryer ground between a number of small north–south river channels, which predate the recorded activities (Fig. 2; Appendix 10). Water pits associated with the settlement seem to have been dug along the borders of one of these channels, with linear ditched boundaries also dug on similar alignments. The later Iron Age settlement included at least two rectangular enclosures, possibly used for livestock, while still retaining a partially unenclosed character. Two deposits within the settlement produced

fragmentary human remains, one from within an enclosure that may have had a ritual function, and these add to the growing evidence for the regional Iron Age practices of excarnation and the curation of skulls.

The Iron Age settlement appears to have ceased shortly before the start of the Roman period, during which there is little evidence for how the landscape was used. There are indications, however, that a potentially extensive area of land was given over to viticulture, adding to a growing body of evidence from the South Midlands and East Anglia that large-scale horticulture was introduced by the Romans. The land was once again given over to arable cultivation in the medieval period, as attested by the furrows recorded during excavation.

Appendix 1

Non-ceramic Artefacts

Jackie Wells

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

The non-ceramic assemblage comprises worked flint and stone artefacts, an antler weaving comb, two pieces of worked animal bone, and a small quantity of ferrous slag. Objects have been quantified by number and/or weight, and date ranges have been allocated when possible.

The assemblage is discussed below by Phase. Although the majority of the assemblage derived from features dating to the Iron Age, the typologically datable pieces are all Neolithic or Bronze Age, suggesting that much of the assemblage is residual. Items recovered from post-Iron Age phases (a flint flake, a small fragment of quernstone and an unidentified iron object), the topsoil (a flint core) and areas of root or animal disturbance (two flint flakes, a flint core, a flint cutting blade, a fragment of glass vessel and a lead offcut) have not been considered.

DISCUSSION BY PHASE

Phase 1

Six worked flints (32g) were recovered from henge ditch G1. All have been carefully struck from good quality, gravel-derived flint. Where surviving, striking platforms are thick and have pronounced bulbs of percussion, which is likely to indicate the use of a hard hammer. The assemblage comprises an end scraper and a horseshoe scraper (types commonly occurring on late Neolithic and early Bronze Age sites), two broken blades, a utilised flake, and a broken barbed and tanged arrowhead, the latter considered to be of early Bronze Age date. All but the end scraper were recovered from a single segment on the southern side of the henge ditch (Fig. 7: d), suggesting that focused deposition was taking place in this part of the henge. A retouched fragment of flint blade struck from good quality flint derived from a pit in G19.

Phase 2

Phase 2 features yielded six worked flints (48g). An unfinished transverse arrowhead of possible chisel type, considered to be of late Neolithic date, was recovered as a residual find from a pit in G18. One of the pits in G9 (Fig. 10: a) yielded four secondary flakes, one of which is heat-affected. Most of the flints are fresh and sharp, and none are patinated.

Phase 3

Flint

Nine worked flints (97g) were recovered from water pits G69 and G78, boundary ditch G63, gully G55, and pit G71. Most are made from mottled dark brown-grey flint, and comprise five hard-hammer-struck flakes (primary and secondary types), an end scraper, an incomplete blade, a possible rejuvenation flake, and a core fragment, the last with opposing platforms. With the

exception of the scraper, all survive in relatively sharp, fresh condition. The end scraper is made from a broad, hard-hammer-struck flake, suggesting a late Neolithic / early Bronze Age date. The raw material is poor-quality, toffee-coloured flint. Cortex remaining on the dorsal surface may be deliberate, possibly to facilitate handling. Unmodified heat-affected flint weighing 27g derived from pit G99.

Although recovered from features containing Iron Age pottery, the assemblage does not particularly display any of the characteristics considered indicative of Iron Age flint-working (Young and Humphrey 1999; Butler 2005), and it seems probable that the flints are residual. However, the quality of the flint used was not as good as that found in Phase 1 contexts, which conversely suggests that it is not residual late Neolithic / early Bronze Age material. The assemblage is probably too small to usefully contribute to the debate either way.

Other artefacts

Water pit G69 produced a chalk or phosphate rock object which may have functioned as either a spindle whorl or amulet. The object has an oval profile, and an off-centre perforation with a diameter of 10.8mm. Pit clusters G10 contained a worn, slightly polished piece of fine-grained sandstone (189g) which may have functioned as a secondary hone. A broken and charred fragment of sheep/goat radius from Phase 3 water pit G69 has been polished, and shows grooves worn into the medial side of the mid-shaft. The grooves were themselves polished and worn and do not indicate tool marks associated with butchery or working, perhaps suggesting instead that the item was used as a tool for weaving.

Water pit G78 yielded two joining fragments from an undecorated antler weaving-comb with a rounded terminal (*cf.* Danebury, Hampshire: Cunliffe and Poole 1991b, 354, figs 7.27 and 7.28). Locally, a comparable example is known from Groveland Way, Stotfold, Bedfordshire (Albion Archaeology forthcoming). Gully G55 contained a sizeable fragment (407g) of a possible grain rubber in fine-grained micaceous sandstone. The object has a lenticular profile and is heat-affected; reuse is suggested by its recovery in association with other burnt or heat-affected stones.

Phase 4

Flint

Fifteen worked flints (28g) were recovered from enclosure ditches G49 and G51 and pits G50, G52, G70 and G100. It may be significant that thirteen of these came from enclosures G49/G51 and their internal pits, perhaps suggesting that the flints were contemporary with the enclosures. Made from variable, mottled brown-grey flint, they comprise nine hard-hammer-struck flakes (secondary and tertiary types) and an incomplete bladelet. All survive in relatively sharp, fresh condition. The assemblage includes a rejuvenation flake and a

possible crested blade in grey-black flint, both with post-depositional damage, and a core fragment or core-testing piece. The latter has cloudy surfaces with blue-white patination. Cortex remains on one face, and bi-directional flake removals are evident.

Other artefacts

Nine pieces of dense, vesicular ferrous smithing slag (144g) were recovered from enclosure G49, which also produced a sub-triangular fragment of whetstone made from claystone or mudstone, with mica and calcareous quartzite inclusions. The object is highly worn; two sides are smoothed and slightly dished, and one surface is partially laminated. A sheep metatarsal from Phase 4

enclosure ditch G49 has been partially shaped by knife-point drilling and scraping, probably representing a partially completed whistle.

Phase 5

Worked flints are represented by a complete secondary flake, three broken tertiary flakes (12g) and a crudely fashioned end-and-side scraper (13g). The latter was made from a broad, hard-hammer-struck flake, suggesting a late Neolithic / early Bronze Age date. All are fashioned from mottled grey-brown flint and are abraded, although unpatinated. They are considered to be residual finds (though see the discussion above for Phase 3), occurring in pits G76 and G86, ditch G56, and trampled area G77.

Appendix 2

Pottery

Sarah Percival

INTRODUCTION

In total, 2,128 sherds of prehistoric pottery were recovered, weighing 19,442g. The earliest material that could be conclusively identified is late Neolithic to early Bronze Age, while the majority — 88.1% of the total assemblage (17,114g) — is Iron Age. A small number of sherds, around 1.14% (221g), are prehistoric but are otherwise not closely datable; it is possible that some of these date back as far as the early Neolithic. The pottery is in variable condition; the bulk of the Iron Age sherds are moderately well preserved, with an average sherd weight (ASW) of 12g, whereas the earlier prehistoric pot is in worse condition with an ASW of just 6g. The nineteen sherds of Roman pottery and the few medieval/post-medieval sherds that were recovered from features assigned to Phases 6–8 are excluded from this report, as they did not warrant detailed analysis (Albion Archaeology 2010).

METHODOLOGY

The assemblage was analysed and catalogued in accordance with recommended guidelines (PCRG 2010). The sherds were examined using a binocular microscope (×10 magnification) and were divided into fabric groups defined on the basis of inclusion types. Fabric codes were prefixed by a letter-code representing the main inclusion type (F representing flint, G grog, S shell and Q quartz). Vessel form was recorded, with R representing rim sherds, B base sherds, D decorated sherds, PP partial profile, CP complete profile, and U undecorated body sherds. The sherds were counted and weighed to the nearest whole gram. Decoration, surface treatment, residues and abrasion were also noted.

LATE NEOLITHIC TO EARLY BRONZE AGE

Grooved Ware

A single sherd of Grooved Ware weighing just 5g was found within the southern pit of the pair that constitutes G107. The rounded rim has incised herringbone decoration to the exterior, and the much-abraded vestiges of several horizontal incised bands on the interior (Fig. 24: P1). The soft, poorly fired fabric contains moderate, rounded grog pieces and sparse angular flint (fabric G2). Grooved Ware in similar grog-tempered fabric has been found at Snow Farm Barrow, Haddenham (Pollard 2006, 54). The small size of the sherd prohibits exact identification, but the complex incised decoration to the exterior and internal incised bands beneath the rim suggest that it is of the Durrington Walls sub-style (Longworth 1971, 242). Garrow notes that Grooved Ware is commonly found in isolated or paired pits, an examples of which was found c. 18km to the east at Over (Garrow 2006).

Beaker

Ninety-one Beaker sherds weighing 237g were collected from four Phase 1 features. The assemblage contains the remains of thirteen vessels, each highly fragmentary and represented only by small numbers of sherds. Around 90% of the sherds came from the eastern pit of the pair in G15, which contained the remains of perhaps nine vessels.

Fabric

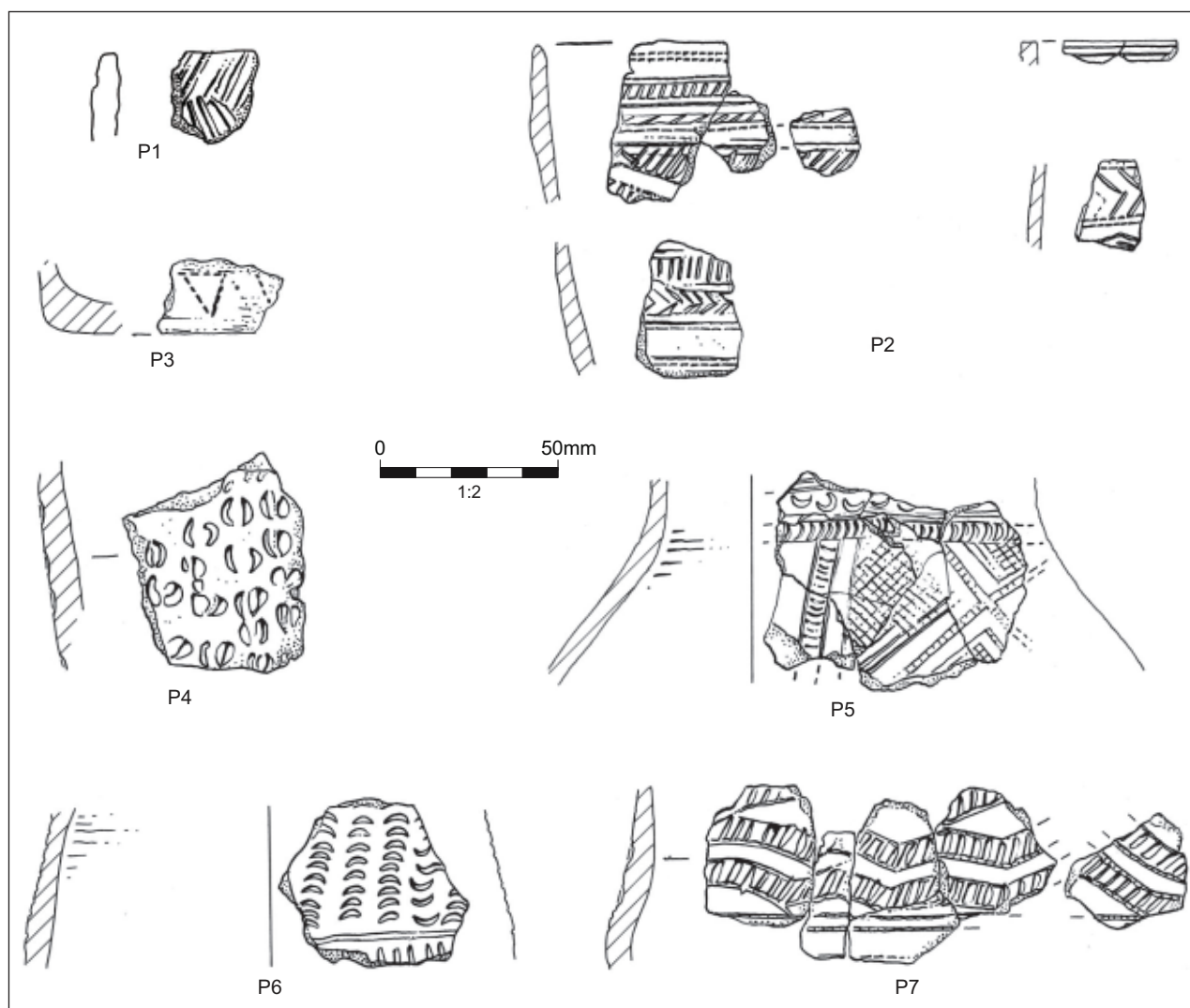
Three fabrics were identified, all containing varying quantities of sub-rounded grog. Grog was present either alone (fabric G3) or in combination with quartz sand (fabric G1) or with sparse flint inclusions (fabric G2). Grog-with-flint fabrics — usually associated with thick-walled, heavy-duty vessels — are the least common, whilst the grog and grog-and-sand fabrics associated with ‘fine’ wares are more abundant. The fabrics compare well with those from Beaker found locally at Haddenham Hermitage Barrow, Haddenham, HAD VII (Pollard 2006, 62–4), Eynesbury (Mephram 2004, 40) and Fenstanton (Gibson 2005b).

Form

The assemblage comprises a mix of ‘fine’ and robust forms typical of fen-edge domestic assemblages (Gibson 1982; Bamford 1982; Healy 1996, 102). Hard-fired, delicately decorated fine wares are the most abundant, representing eleven of the thirteen vessels and reflected in the predominance of grogged and sandy fabrics. The remaining two vessels are thick-walled rusticated Beakers which are made of grog-with-flint fabrics. As with many domestic Beaker assemblages, the sherds are small and in this case a little over half are abraded or very abraded (57%, 137g), hampering reconstruction of form. Rims from three vessels were recovered, of which two are pointed (Fig. 24: P2; Healy 1996, fig. 96: P294) and the other has a beaded rim (Healy 1996, fig. 99: P333). The single base sherd is simple (Fig. 24: P3).

Rusticated, incised and impressed decorative techniques are each represented within the assemblage. Paired fingertip-rustication forming pinched ‘crow’s feet’ all over the body is present on one chunky globular vessel (Fig. 24: P4), and fingernail impressions occur in bands or all over the body of a second vessel (Fig. 24: P6). Comb-impressions form motifs of floating lattice-filled lozenges, sometimes combined with crescent-shaped impressions (Fig. 24: P5; Pollard 2006, fig. 3.2: 5). Incised vessels have deep horizontal lines forming raised bands in between (Bamford 1982, fig. 12: P63.004 and 69.008), or filled triangles (Fig. 24: P2), lozenges (Healy 1996, fig. 91: P225) or filled bands (Fig. 24: P7).

The combed and incised vessels with zoned decoration have long upright necks, sinuous or slightly angular shoulders and rounded lower bodies typical of Clarke’s Southern tradition (Clarke 1970) or Case’s Group B (East Anglia) (Case 1993, fig. 13; Case 1995). The rusticated



P1: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Grooved Ware, Fabric G2, Phase 1, G107

P2: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G3, Phase 1, G15

P3: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G1, Phase 1, G15

P4: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G2, Phase 1, G15

P5: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G1, Phase 1, G15

P6: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G2, Phase 1, G15

P7: Late Neolithic to Earlier Bronze Age Beaker, Fabric G3, Phase 1, G15

Figure 24: Late Neolithic/early Bronze Age pottery

vessels are typical of fen-edge domestic assemblages and again fall within Case's East Anglian Group B.

Collared Urn and non-diagnostic urn

A fragmentary Collared Urn was found accompanying a cremation burial, within a pit that had been dug into a tree-throw (G4). Eight sherds of undiagnostic urn weighing 12g were recovered from other Phase 1 features and a further thirty grog-tempered scraps are also early Bronze Age in date. These undiagnostic sherds, which are mostly from Roman bedding trenches, weigh 37g with an ASW of just 1.5g, and are too fragmentary to be further characterised.

Fabric

The Collared Urn is made of blocky, grog-tempered fabric with common sub-angular grog pieces up to 5mm and sparse flint. The fabric is lightly fired and poorly mixed and the surfaces are finished with wet-hand wiping.

Form

The undecorated urn has a moulded collar and tapered body, but the fragmentary condition does not preserve other formal characteristics.

Discussion

Grooved Ware

Grooved Ware has been found in varying quantities at several sites clustered along the river terraces of the Great Ouse Valley (Evans and Hodder 2006, 37). These include Huntingdon Racecourse, 10km to the north of Margetts Farm (Longworth and Cleal 1999, 180); Eynesbury and St Neots, which lie 10km to the south (Mephram 2004, 30; Longworth and Cleal 1999, 180); Fenstanton, 13km to the east (Gibson 2005b); Over, 21km east (Longworth and Cleal 1999, 180; Garrow 2006, 102); and Snow Farm Barrow, Haddenham, 30km to the east (Pollard, 2006, 35). Various styles of Grooved Ware are represented at these sites: Over (site 3) and Eynesbury produced sherds

of the Clacton sub-style, mostly in shell-tempered fabric, whilst at Margetts Farm, Over (site 4), Hermitage Farm and St Neots, pottery was found in the Durrington Walls sub-style, mostly in grog-tempered fabrics. The meaning of the 'multiple contemporary styles' is uncertain, but the cultural significance of Grooved Ware is considered to be concerned with the household (Thomas 2010) and it is likely that all these sites represent domestic occupation, perhaps by transient communities travelling along the river valley (Evans and Hodder 2006, 38).

Grooved Ware is often associated with timber circles and henges, where it is found in contexts from the closing phases of the monuments' use, for example in material sealing former post-holes in a timber circle (Gibson 2005a, 66). However, no Grooved Ware was found at Margetts Farm directly associated with the henge ditch or timber structure; indeed, the single sherd that was recovered came from Site B, more than 650m south-west of the henge.

The Grooved Ware represents the earliest pottery found at the site and is most likely associated with domestic activity dating to *c.* 3000–2000BC (Garwood 1999, 152).

Beaker

The highly fragmentary Beaker assemblage contains a large number of vessels each represented by only a small number of sherds, many of which are abraded or in poor condition, and as such is typical of domestic pit assemblages from East Anglia (Garrow 2006, 138). The Beaker-rich pit in G15 (Fig. 7: e) contained deliberately redeposited occupation debris similar to assemblages recovered within the Great Ouse Valley from Haddenham, HADVII (Pollard 2006, 52: pit F.368), Eynesbury (Mephram 2004, 39: pit 4150), and from a series of pits at Fenstanton (Gibson 2005b). Domestic Beaker is perhaps more numerous elsewhere in East Anglia, especially on the south-eastern fen edge, although there deposition is more common in surface accumulations (Healy 1996, 181). The burying in pits of samples taken from these accumulations appears to have occurred sometime after the vessels had been used and broken (Garrow 2006 120), and may have taken place as part of rites associated with the end of use of the site (Pollard 2006, 64), or perhaps with crop fertility (Gibson 2005b, 11).

Beaker currency spans the period 2500–1700BC (Needham 2005, 171), with floating lozenge decoration and fingertip impressions, typical of Case's B series, current from around the end of the 3rd millennium BC (Case 1993, 257). The combined radiocarbon date for the Beaker pits at Fenstanton is *c.* 2300–2000 cal. BC (Gibson 2005b, 11), which closely corresponds with a date of 2200–1970 cal. BC for the present examples.

Collared Urn and non-diagnostic urn

The Collared Urn found buried in tree-throw G4 belongs to Longworth's secondary series and is similar to an undecorated example found locally at Hermitage Farm, Haddenham, which is suggested to have been accompanying a secondary cremation burial in the barrow there (Longworth 1984; Pollard 2006, fig. 2.27: 9). Longworth lists further local examples of small, plain Collared Urns from Ely, Somersham, Linton and south Cambridgeshire (1984, pl. 230: f; pl. 228: f; pl. 229: e and i). Dating of undecorated urns is uncertain; however, Needham suggests that general Collared Urns were in use from *c.* 2100BC to *c.* 1400BC (Needham 2005, fig. 13).

The undiagnostic urn and anonymous early Bronze Age pottery was recovered from a variety of contexts, and was largely redeposited or residual within later features.

EARLIER IRON AGE (*c.* 800BC TO 600/500BC)

The earlier Iron Age assemblage comprises 407 sherds weighing 3,241g, and includes diagnostic sherds from a minimum of thirty-two vessels. Full fabric and form descriptions are available at the end of this appendix.

Fabric

The earlier Iron Age assemblage is predominantly flint-tempered, with flint-rich fabrics making up over 43% of the assemblage (1,389g). Quartz sand-tempered sherds account for *c.* 40% (1,291g) and the remaining 17% contain fossil shell (561g). Twelve fabrics were identified (Table 2), with an unusually diverse range similar to that present within the earlier Iron Age assemblage from Eynesbury (Mephram 2004). Flint is the ubiquitous inclusion for earlier Iron Age assemblages in northern East Anglia (Percival 2004), whereas shell-tempering occurs principally around the fen basin and western Cambridgeshire, where fossil-rich clays form the local geology (Brudenell and Hill 2009, 189). Outside these areas, shell-tempering occurs in smaller quantities along the valleys of the Cam and Granta (M. Brudenell pers. comm.) and around St Neots at sites such as Lingwood Wells, Cottenham (Hill 1999, 23). The greater diversity at Margetts Farm and Eynesbury may reflect the location of both these sites on the Great Ouse, which forms a border between eastern and western Cambridgeshire: both are characterised by different fabric traditions at least partly reflecting the differing underlying geology.

The mix of fabrics seen on many of these sites has been suggested as indicating trade of vessels between regional groups in the earlier Iron Age. Regional trade in fine-ware vessels has been postulated within the contemporary assemblage from Langwade Road, Fordham (Braddock and Hill undated) and other assemblages from western Cambridgeshire (Hill 1999).

Form

Vessel form was recorded using a system of classification based on that devised by Barrett (1980). This separates the assemblage into coarse and fine wares on the basis of fabric, finish and decoration, and further subdivides the vessels into jars, bowls and cups. The assemblage contains rims and distinctive body sherds from a minimum of thirty-four vessels, of which twenty-eight are classifiable to form. Thirteen vessels (46%) are coarse wares and fifteen (54%) are fine. The assemblage contains both decorated and undecorated body sherds, suggesting that it is of Barrett's decorated-ware tradition (Barrett 1980). Of the classifiable vessels, the most common types present are medium coarse-ware jars of Barrett's Class I (Fig. 29; Table 3). Within the fine-ware element, Class V cups are most frequently represented, followed by Class IV bowls, then Class II jars.

The vessel types are very similar to those seen within the earlier Iron Age assemblage from Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945; Brudenell and Hill 2009). The recently excavated assemblage from The Tower Works, Fengate West has many forms in common with Margetts Farm, particularly the medium coarse-ware jars (Brudenell

and Hill 2009, fig. 5.5). However, the Tower Works assemblage lacks the incised fine-ware element seen in the Wyman Abbot assemblages and used by Cunliffe to define the style group. The abundance of fine wares within the Wyman Abbott and Margetts Farm assemblages is an unusual element and is not noted at other earlier Iron Age sites, where fine-ware serving-vessels occur in much smaller quantities.

The highly fragmentary nature of the assemblage limits the possibilities for vessel reconstruction; however, eighteen vessels could be assigned a vessel type based on a combination of rim type, length of neck and the shape of the shoulder (Table 3). The most common form of vessel found at the site has a flat rim, medium upright or everted neck and angular shoulder (Type 2, Fig. 25: P8). The vessels sometimes have flattened rims with internal lip (Fig. 25: P21) or can be decorated with impressions or slashes around the rim top (Fig. 25: P9–11) and/or shoulder (Fig. 25: P12–14). These coarse tripartite jars are highly characteristic of earlier Iron Age assemblages, and examples have been found in Cambridgeshire at Wandlebury (Hartley 1957, fig. 8: 49) and within the assemblages from Fordham Bypass (Percival forthcoming a) and Langwade Road, Fordham (Braddock and Hill undated). The jars also form a significant component of the earlier Iron Age assemblage from Fengate, Peterborough (Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 3: C3 and fig. 4: I, 1 and 2). Variations on

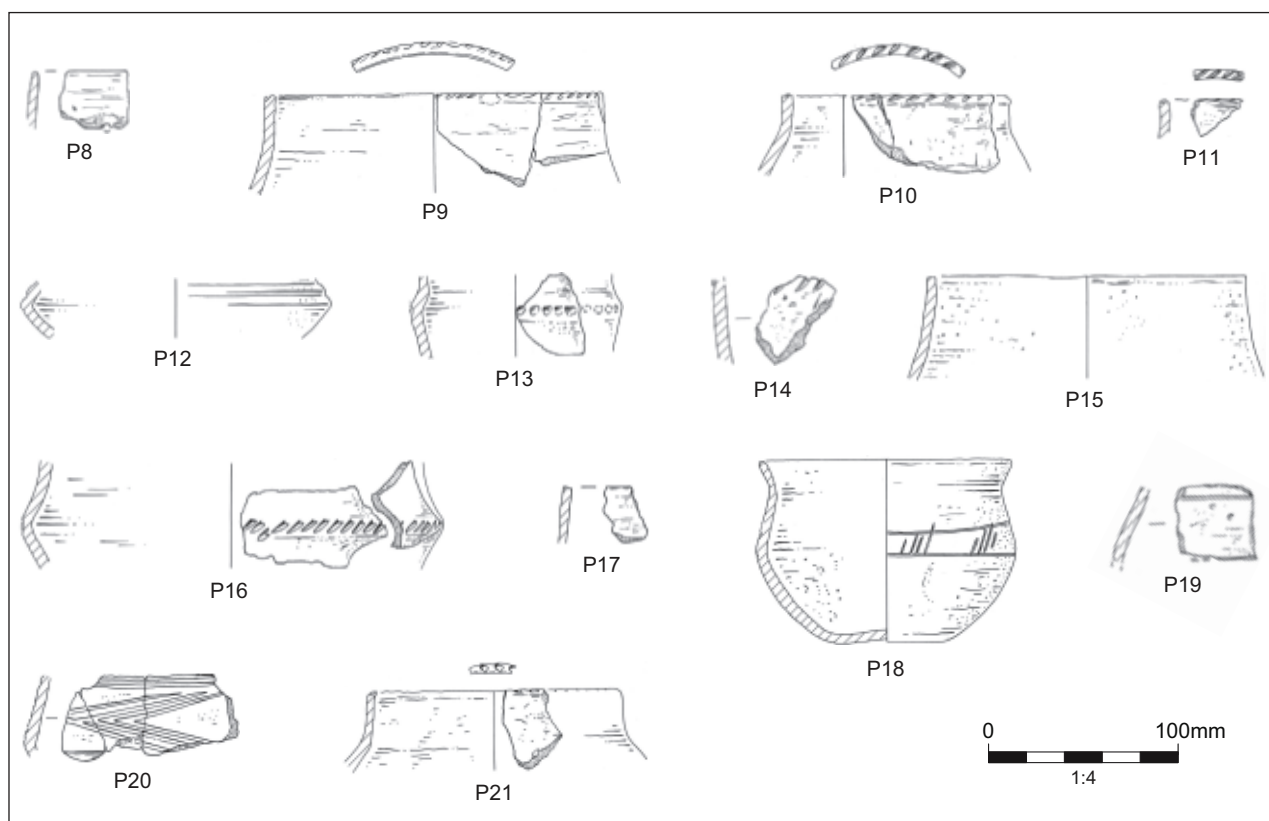
this vessel type include a jar with flattened rim and long neck (Type 1, Fig. 25: P15).

The fine-ware bowl component has an everted or upright neck, sharp angular shoulder and rounded rim; is always burnished; and is often decorated with incised bands on the neck above the shoulder (Type 6, Fig. 25: P16–17; Martin 1992, fig. 20: 36). Such bowls fall within Barrett's Class IV and are ubiquitous within contemporary assemblages from southern East Anglia (M Brudenell pers. comm.). Examples have been found at Fordham Bypass (Percival forthcoming a), Lofts Farm (Brown 1988, fig. 16: 61), and Darmsden and Linton, where the bowls define the Darmsden–Linton type form (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:13).

Five vessels were identified as being cups. These include bipartite and tripartite forms, which are miniature versions of standard bowl forms 1 and 2, made in sandy and fine flint fabrics. All have flattened rims. Four of the cups are burnished and one has incised decoration.

Base forms from six vessels were found, of which five are coarse wares with simple flat bases and one is fine with a dimpled or omphalos base. Many of the coarse base sherds have an excess of flint grits adhering to the exterior, a characteristic found at early sites which may have been the result of gritting the surface on which the base was formed to prevent sticking during manufacture.

Decoration occurs on c. 20% of the sherds (662g) and is principally incised, forming either bands or geometric



P8: Early Iron Age cup, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P9: Early Iron Age, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P10: Early Iron Age, long necked bowl, Fabric Q6, Phase 2, G9

P11: Early Iron Age, small jar, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P12: Early Iron Age, angular bowl, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P13: Early Iron Age, Fabric S7, Phase 2, G9

P14: Early Iron Age, Fabric S4, Phase 2, G9

P15: Early Iron Age, long necked bowl, Fabric F1, Phase 2, G9

P16: Early Iron Age, angular bowl, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P17: Early Iron Age, cup, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

P18: Early Iron Age, long necked bowl, Fabric Q4, Phase 2, G9

P19: Early Iron Age, Fabric QM, Phase 2, G9

P20: Early Iron Age, Fabric QM, Phase 2, G9

P21: Early Iron Age, small jar, Fabric Q1, Phase 2, G9

Figure 25: The early Iron Age pottery

motifs (Table 4). Six vessels have decorated rims (16%). Burnished sherds account for 27% of the assemblage. Broad, shallow incised bands are most commonly found on fine bowls and are present in Wyman Abbott's Fengate assemblage (Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 5). A semi-complete bowl has an incised band on the shoulder and geometric decoration on the neck, similar to examples from Wandlebury (Fig. 25: P18; Hartley 1957, fig. 7: 6; Class IV) and Fordham Bypass (Percival forthcoming a). One vessel has a combination of incised lines and dots also found at Fengate (Fig. 25: P19; Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 6: P1 and M2) and one sherd has incised geometric motif (Fig. 25: P20). Thin, incised geometric decoration of this type is also found at Eynesbury (Mephram 2004, fig. 22: 3) and at Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 7). One vessel has fingernail-impressed decoration on the shoulder (Fig. 25: P14). No vessels with definite fingertip-impressed decoration were found, although one jar has tooled impressions on the shoulder which give a similar effect (Fig. 25: P13), and a second has a similar design on the rim top (Fig. 25: P21). Five vessels have slashes decorating the flattened rim top (Fig. 25: P9) and four have slashes to the shoulder (Fig. 25: P12).

Discussion

The assemblage comprises a mix of plain and decorated tripartite bowls and jars, both coarse and finely burnished, and falls within Barrett's decorated tradition (Barrett 1980). The fine bowls with incised geometric decoration are characteristic of the earlier Iron Age style-group from West Harling-Fengate (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:5), whilst the angular bowls with incised bands are found in Cambridgeshire at Linton (Fell 1953), one of the type sites for Cunliffe's Darmsden-Linton group (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:13).

The assemblage has many stylistic traits in common with the pottery from Wyman Abbott's Fengate assemblage, one of the type sites for the West Harling-Fengate style group (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:5), including the coarse jars with upright necks and flattened rims with internal lip (Fig. 25: P21; Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 8). The slashes and fingernail-impressed decoration on the rim top and shoulder are common within both the Fengate and the West Harling assemblages (Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 8; Clarke and Fell 1953). The bowl with incised geometric decoration and omphalos-base again finds parallel with vessels from Fengate (Fig. 25: P18; Hawkes and Fell 1945, fig. 7). The angular bowls with horizontal incised bands are, however, more characteristic of the earlier Iron Age Darmsden-Linton style group, dated by Cunliffe to the 5th–3rd centuries BC (Cunliffe 2005, 624). This admixing of styles has been noted on many local earlier Iron Age sites (Hill 1999, Mephram 2004, 42; Percival forthcoming b). Stylistically mixed assemblages are increasingly considered to result from poor readings of, and/or inconsistencies within Cunliffe's overly broad style zones, and are currently under review (M. Brudenell pers. comm.).

The chronology of the pottery is of interest. Recent archaeological work in the Fengate environs has supplemented the pottery produced by the 19th- and previous 20th-century excavations and has provided radiocarbon dates (Evans 2009). The earlier Iron Age pottery from the Wyman Abbott excavations has been suggested by Cunliffe as dating to the 8th–6th centuries BC. Formal traits within the assemblage from Tower Works, Fengate

West include omphalos bases, a chronological indicator suggesting that it was in use between 800 and 600BC, contemporary with West Harling and Phase 2 at Lofts Farm (Brudenell and Hill 2009, 192). Radiocarbon dates confirm the chronology suggested by the pottery typology as being 760–390 cal. BC from a charred seed from Tower Works (2 σ Beta 229355; Evans and Hodder 2006, 234) and 730–260 cal. BC on burnt residue from pottery at West Harling (2 σ Beta 286573). The Tower Works assemblage is similar to the Wyman Abbott pottery, although it lacks the fine bowls with incised geometric decoration which characterise Cunliffe's style group. The Margetts Farm pottery combines formal traits from both assemblages, including both the geometrically incised bowls and coarse decorated and plain jars. As all the assemblages are broadly contemporary, the dissimilarities between the assemblage constituents perhaps represent locational, functional or contextual differences between the sites.

The origin of the Margetts Farm assemblage appears, like most of its contemporaries, to be utilitarian, as evidenced by limescale deposits and soot marks present on many sherds. One drilled hole, indicative of repair and common within later Bronze Age and earlier Iron Age assemblages, was identified (Fig. 25: P15). This suggests that the pots continued to be patched-up and used even after they had been cracked during firing or damaged through use, and again indicates that the vessels may have been employed in a domestic setting. The high proportion of fine wares is unusual, and this, along with the relatively small size of the early assemblage and its restricted distribution within only a small number of features, perhaps suggests that it represents a short-lived occupation or depositional event.

LATER IRON AGE (c. 400/350 TO 100BC)

A total of 1,244 sherds weighing 13,607g are of later Iron Age date. Full fabric and form descriptions are available at the end of this appendix.

Fabric

As with the earlier Iron Age assemblage, fabric types within the later Iron Age pottery are very mixed. Three main fabric groups were identified (Table 5; Fig. 31), of which sandy fabrics are slightly more common, representing 46% of the assemblage (6,297g). The sandy fabrics contain a range of secondary inclusions consisting of small quantities of organic material, iron oxide grains, calcareous inclusions, and flint pieces. Sand-with-shell fabrics which contain plate-like shell voids represent 10% of the assemblage (1,399g), with exclusively shell-tempered fabrics making up the remaining 44% (5,911g). The sandy fabrics are characterised by the presence of sparse to abundant quantities of quartz sand, and are usually harder and denser than those with shell temper (Hill and Braddock 1999). It is noticeable that although flint is found as a component within a sandy fabric, extensive flint-tempering had fallen out of use by the later Iron Age. No grog-tempered fabrics are present within the assemblage, suggesting that the settlement did not continue into the latest Iron Age or Roman period.

Contemporary sites with predominantly sandy fabrics include the later Iron Age component from Loves Farm, which lies some 10km south of Margetts Farm within the Great Ouse Valley. Fabric preferences varied throughout

the Iron Age at Loves Farm, with shell-tempered fabrics most frequent in the earlier period, although by the later Iron Age, perhaps around 300BC, sandy fabrics had become the dominant group (Percival forthcoming b). When earlier Iron Age flint-tempered sherds are excluded from the Eynesbury assemblage, also within the Great Ouse Valley, 48% of the remainder is sandy, 48% shell-tempered and 4% calcareous (Mephams 2004, table 11). Predominantly sandy assemblages were also found at later Iron Age sites along the A428 corridor west of Cambridge (Percival 2008) and are common on contemporary sites around Ely, such as Wardy Hill (Hill and Horne 2003), Hurst Lane (Percival 2007), Watson's Lane, Little Thetford (Hill and Braddock 1998) and West Fen Road (Percival 2005). In contrast, a large shell-tempered Iron Age assemblage has been found at Bob's Wood, Hinchingsbrooke Park (Percival forthcoming c), suggesting that shell-tempered wares were chosen by some Iron Age communities where these were available.

Fabrics containing sand with elongated voids, indicating the presence of deliberately added organic-tempering within the clay, form 2.2% of the assemblage (299g). Vegetable-tempered pottery is a slight component on many later Iron Age sites in western Cambridgeshire, including Loves Farm (Percival forthcoming b), Haddenham V (Hill and Braddock 2006, table 5.9), Wardy Hill (Hill and Horne 2003, 168) and Bob's Wood, Hinchingsbrooke (Percival forthcoming c). Relatively large numbers of organic-tempered pots are found on some 3rd–1st-century BC sites around the southern Fens and at West Stow (West 1990, 60; Hill and Braddock 1999), perhaps suggesting that the organic vessels found here represent imports to the site.

Chalky fabrics represent less than 1% of the assemblage (31g) and also form small components of the later Iron Age assemblage from Loves Farm (Percival forthcoming b). The calcareous inclusions may have been collected from localised outcrops of chalk-rich boulder clay along the river valley, although it is also possible that they derive from the chalk-rich clays of the Chiltern Hills to the east and south-east of Cambridge (Hill and Braddock 1999).

Form

The vessels were recorded using the form series developed for later Iron Age pottery from Cambridgeshire by Hill (Hill and Horne 2003, 174; Hill and Braddock 2006, 155). A full list of forms is presented in Table 6. All the forms are handmade, and no wheel-made vessels, seen at sites such as Wardy Hill (Hill and Horne 2003), were found.

Only a small number of vessels have forms which can be confidently reconstructed (Table 7). The most common form within this group is the slack-shouldered jar with upright or slightly everted neck (Type A: Fig. 26: P22–23). Slack-shouldered jars with flared necks are also common (Type D: Fig. 26: P24–26), as well as those with high-rounded shoulders (Type E: Fig. 26: P27). The jars are medium-sized with a diameter at the rim of 100–160mm. Such vessels are ubiquitous within middle to later Iron Age assemblages in Cambridgeshire and represent the basic utilitarian cooking jar (Hill and Horne 2003, 174).

The remainder of the assemblage is composed of ovoid and globular forms. Round-bodied vessels include high-shouldered jars with an angular profile and straight,

flaring rims (Type H: Fig. 26: P28), a series of tub and barrel-shaped neckless and sometimes rimless vessels (Types K (Fig. 26: P29), F and T), and globular jars (Types L and M: Fig. 26: P30). These vessels tend to be smaller, with a diameter at the rim of 60 to c. 100mm. Tub-shaped vessels have been found at nearby Little Paxton (Hancocks 2003, 89), at Haddenham V (Hill and Braddock 2006, 158) and on the A428 (Percival 2008), and are also present in quantity at Bob's Wood, Hinchingsbrooke (Percival forthcoming c). Further to the north, similar vessels are found at Fengate (Pryor 1984) and Werrington, Peterborough (Mackreth 1998), and at Wakerley (Jackson and Ambrose 1978) and Weekley in Northamptonshire (Jackson and Dix 1987).

Thick-walled, chunky versions of the standard vessel forms represent the large storage jars (Type B: Fig. 26: P36), often with scored decoration and fingertip-impressed decoration, and are most often found in shell-tempered fabrics with coarse, fingertip-impressed decoration to the rim top (Fig. 26: P28; Fig. 32). The preference for coarser shelly fabrics for larger storage vessels and for some cooking jars was also observed at Loves Farm (Percival forthcoming b), Little Paxton (Hancocks 2003, 76), Haddenham V (Hill and Braddock 2006) and Bob's Wood, Hinchingsbrooke (Percival forthcoming c).

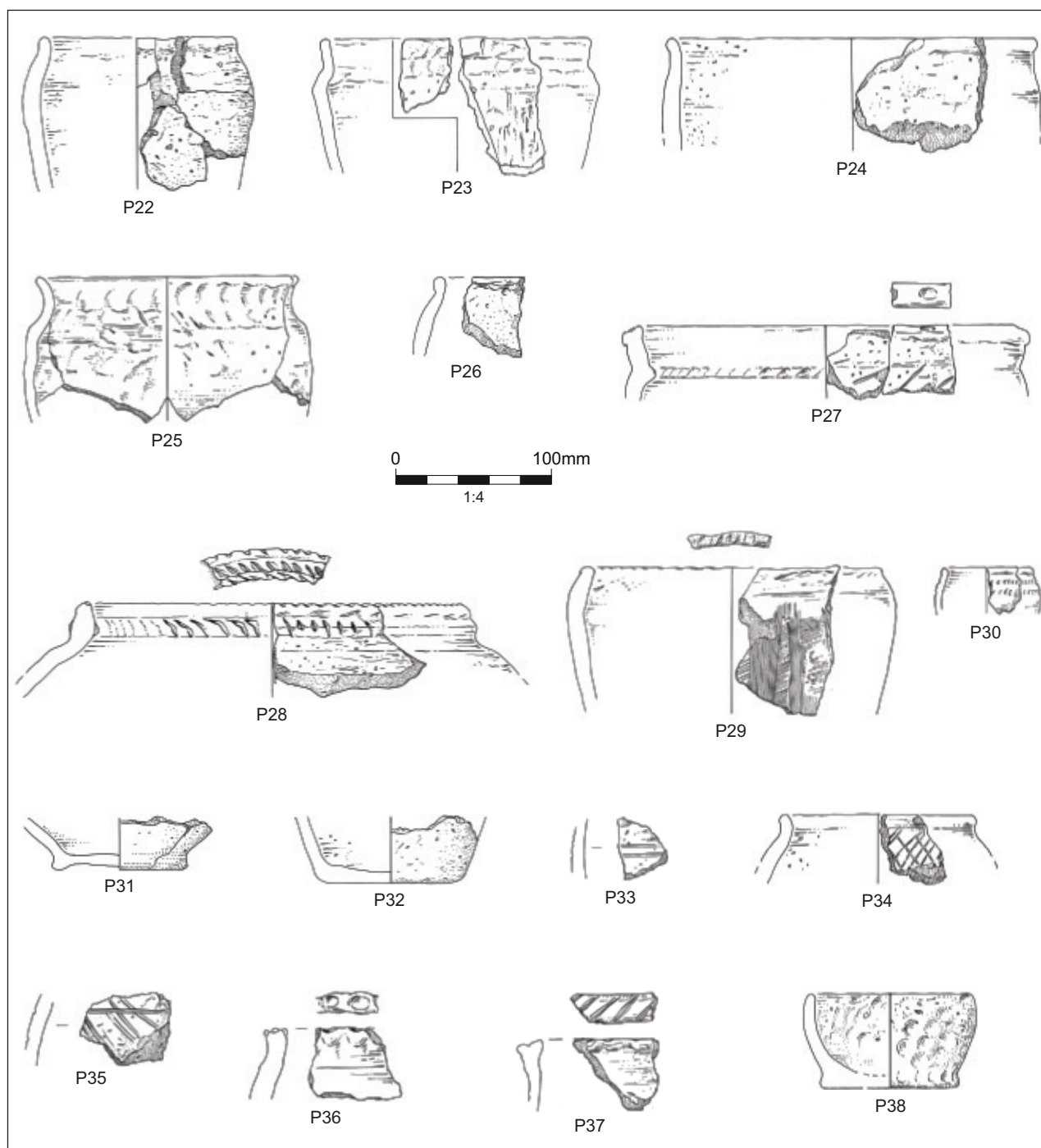
Two basic base forms are present: foot-ring bases (Fig. 26: P31), and more commonly simple base angles (Fig. 26: P32). The average diameter of the measurable bases is 100mm, with sizes varying between 80mm and 110mm.

Decoration is found on 20% of the assemblage (2,639g), and sherds with burnished or closed surfaces make up around 35% of the assemblage. Around 13% of the decorated sherds have scoring to the body of the vessel. A variety of scoring techniques are represented, from sharply incised lines using a thin pointed tool to form random or lattice motifs (Fig. 26: P34–35), to rough wiping of the surface with grass or twigs (Fig. 26: P29). Scoring to the vessel body is often accompanied with incised slashes or fingertip impressions on the rim top (Fig. 26: P27, 29 and 37).

Discussion

Identifiable forms within the Margetts Farm assemblage find close parallel with those from Haddenham V, where a similar range of vessels was dated by a series of radiocarbon determinations to c. 300–50BC (Hill and Braddock 2006, 190). However, some significant differences are worth noting between the two assemblages. The Margetts Farm pottery is characterised by the presence of a moderate number of vessels with scored or incised decoration, representing around 13% of the assemblage, alongside plain vessels, and by an almost equal mix of sandy and shell-tempered fabrics. In contrast, around 26% of the assemblage at Haddenham V is scored, while c. 54% of the sherds are shell-tempered as opposed to 44% at Margetts Farm.

The differences in proportions of both scored sherds and shell-tempering reflect the sites' differing locations within the Great Ouse Valley. Haddenham V lies in the north-eastern reaches of the valley within the area of Scored-Ware influence, whilst the very mixed assemblage at Margetts Farm reflects the location of the site on the boundaries of two different pottery traditions, with shell-tempered Scored Wares prevalent to the north and west and sandy plain wares to the south and east (Hill



P22: Later Iron Age, form A2, Fabric Q3, Phase 4, G51
 P23: Later Iron Age, form A2, Fabric Q3, Phase 3, G78
 P24: Later Iron Age, form D1, Fabric S5, Phase 4, G51
 P25: Later Iron Age, form D4, Fabric Q2, Phase 4, G49
 P26: Later Iron Age, form D9, Fabric Q2, Phase 4, G101
 P27: Later Iron Age, form D, Fabric S5, Phase 3, G71
 P28: Later Iron Age, form H2, Fabric S5, Phase 4, G49
 P29: Later Iron Age, form K4, Fabric Q3, Phase 3, G33
 P30: Later Iron Age, form M9, Fabric Q6, Phase 4, G65

P31: Later Iron Age, foot-ring base, Fabric Q6, Phase 3, G69
 P32: Later Iron Age, simple base, Fabric Q3, Phase 3, G69
 P33: Later Iron Age, scored surface treatment, Fabric Q2, Phase 3, G69
 P34: Later Iron Age, form D4, Fabric S5, Phase 4, G49
 P35: Later Iron Age, incised scored surface treatment, Fabric Q3, Phase 3, G69
 P36: Later Iron Age, form B4, Fabric S5, Phase 4, G49
 P37: Later Iron Age, scored rim, Fabric S5, Phase 3, G71
 P38: Later Iron Age, form K2, Fabric Q3, Phase 3, G69

Figure 26: Later Iron Age pottery

and Braddock 2006, 191; Abrams and Ingham 2008, fig. 2.11).

Scored vessels are typical of later Iron Age pottery in the East Midlands (Elsdon 1993; Knight 2002, fig. 12.4) and form the basis of Cunliffe's Breedon-Ancaster group (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:24). Elsdon notes that the distribution of East Midlands Scored Wares extends

at its southernmost limits to the middle reaches of the Great Ouse and along the southern and eastern fen edge (Elsdon 1993, fig. 2), with examples found in quantity at sites such as Fengate, which lies 43km to the north of Margetts Farm (Pryor 1984). Within the lower Great Ouse area, assemblages with shell-tempered scored vessels making up around 25% of the later Iron Age

pottery have been found at Haddenham V (Hill and Braddock 2006) and Bob's Wood, Hinchingsbrooke (Percival forthcoming c). However, the quantity of both shell-tempered wares and scored decoration decreases in contemporary sites located further south. The percentage of scored vessels found at these sites falls markedly to around 10% at Margetts Farm and Loves Farm (Percival forthcoming b), 5% at Little Paxton (Hancocks 2003, 87) and 3% at Broom, Bedfordshire (Brudenell 2007, 263). The presence at Margetts Farm, Little Paxton and Loves Farm of scored decoration, shell-tempering and tub-shaped vessels, which are all most common on sites in the southern fens and Lincolnshire (Pryor 1984, fig. 75: 10; Chowne 1986, fig. 9: 45), suggests at least some links between the communities living along the middle reaches of the Great Ouse Valley with those from the more northerly areas, with the river system perhaps providing the link. It is of interest that within both the earlier and later Iron Age assemblages from Margetts Farm, there are notable similarities in form and decoration with the pottery from Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945; Pryor 1984; Brudenell and Hill 2009), perhaps indicating longstanding links between the two areas. However, it seems that these northerly influences do not completely dominate the pottery choices of the Margetts Farm community, which were assimilated alongside traditions more prevalent in the south and east of the region where the use of sandy plain wares predominated (Percival 2008, fig. 2.11).

DEPOSITION AND DISCUSSION OF POTTERY BY PHASE AND GROUP

Phase 1

G1

A small assemblage of pottery was recovered from henge ditch G1, most of which came from the blocking ditch across the entrance to the henge (Fig. 7). The assemblage includes seven sherds of Beaker weighing 18g and a scrap of unidentifiable earlier Bronze Age pottery. A single sherd of Beaker is decorated with fingertip impressions, one is comb-impressed, and the remainder are incised. The sherds are all small and abraded, reflecting both the redeposited context and the method of recovery. The origin of the sherds is likely to be domestic, similar to those in the pot-rich eastern pit in G15. Beaker has been found in the ditch of Arminghall henge, Norfolk, and was recovered from under the bank at Woodhenge, Wiltshire, suggesting that the henge banks at these features were built after the period when Beaker came into use, and were later than the timber circles which they enclosed (Gibson 2005a, 67). It is likely that the Beaker in the blocking ditch of the Margetts Farm henge became incorporated into the fill during the weathering of surface deposits.

Four sherds of earlier Iron Age pottery weighing 24g were also retrieved from the blocking ditch. The pottery is contemporary with the assemblage from pit group G9 and includes rim sherds from two vessels, as well as one sherd decorated with an incised band. The northern terminus of the blocking ditch also produced 172 sherds of later Iron Age pottery weighing 323g, including base sherds from two vessels and undecorated body sherds in both sandy and shell-tempered fabrics. Again, it is likely that the sherds weathered into the ditch from surface deposits. The average sherd weight of the Beaker pottery

found in the ditch is 3g, for the earlier Iron Age sherds 6g, and for the later Iron Age <2g. The small sherd weights reflect the method of recovery and the redeposited context of their deposition.

G2

Two very small sherds of grog-tempered earlier Bronze Age pottery and a third undiagnostic scrap were collected from these post-holes. Two of the three sherds from this group came from soil samples, and all are small and extremely abraded, as a consequence of which they are not closely datable and cannot be identified to a particular form. A number of timber circles have produced pottery sherds seemingly placed in the post-holes to mark particular cardinal points, most likely after the posts themselves had been removed (Gibson 2005a, 106). It is possible that these small sherds also became incorporated in the post-holes subsequent to the removal of the posts, but they are too small to be interpreted as representing deliberate deposition.

G4

A highly fragmentary but semi-complete Collared Urn containing a cremation burial was found in a pit that had been dug into a tree-throw. This type of placement is unusual, but a possible parallel was found at New Farm, Weston Way, Baldock, where a large, decorated Collared Urn containing a cremation burial was also buried in a small pit that had been dug into the top of a tree-throw (Albion Archaeology 2005).

G8

Three sherds of fine Beaker weighing 19g were found in one of the pits in G8. Two heavily abraded sherds have incised decoration forming a floating lattice-filled lozenge motif. An undecorated and less abraded base in the same fabric is probably from the same vessel. The presence in the pit of three non-joining sherds from the same vessel in different states of preservation may suggest deliberate selection of material from a surface midden or similar (Garrow 2006, 138; Pollard 2006, 64). A further five sherds of undiagnostic earlier Bronze Age pottery weighing 9g were also recovered.

G15

The eastern pit of the pair that formed G15 contained the largest single assemblage of Beaker from the site. Eighty-one sherds were recovered, weighing 200g and representing at least nine vessels. Seven of the vessels have a well fired, dense fabric and delicately executed decoration of Beaker 'fine ware', while the remainder are chunky, fingertip-rusticated 'heavy-duty wares'. Twenty-one of the sherds, weighing 126g, are abraded or heavily abraded. The sherds are typical of domestic Beaker, and the presence of burnt food residues on some sherds confirms a utilitarian origin. Garrow comments that Beaker pits often contain sherds which have been curated for some time between use and eventual burial, and are characterised by large numbers of vessels each represented by a few sherds (Garrow 2006, 138). The pottery from G15 thus seems typical of Beaker pit assemblages and is similar to Beaker from a pit excavated at Haddenham HADVII, suggested by Pollard as having contained a mix of curated and fresh pottery and perhaps representing deliberate selection and burial (Pollard 2006, 64).

G19

Four of the twenty-three pits that formed G19 contained small flint-tempered sherds. The six small, plain body sherds weighing 18g are not especially diagnostic; they have been tentatively dated to the earlier Iron Age but could just as easily be earlier Neolithic.

One of the other pits contained eighteen small, grog-tempered sherds. Again, these sherds are not easily identifiable, but have been dated to the earlier Bronze Age on the basis of their grog-rich fabric. The small size and poor condition of the sherds indicate that the pottery was fragmentary when it entered the pit, and probably represents accidental incorporation derived from a surface deposit.

G84

Eighteen sherds weighing 38g in a sandy fabric were recovered from cremation burial G84. The sherds are extremely abraded and are not closely datable.

G107

A single sherd of Grooved Ware was recovered from the southern pit of the pair that constitutes G107. This suggests that the sherd had been incorporated from surface deposits during backfilling of the pit.

Phase 2**G9**

Only three of the pits in G9 produced pottery. One contained three abraded grog-tempered scraps of late Neolithic to early Bronze Age date, while the remaining two contained earlier Iron Age pottery (800–600BC). Of the two earlier Iron Age pit assemblages, one comprised a small, undecorated sandy sherd, while the second (Fig. 11: a) accounted for the bulk of the earlier Iron Age pottery found at the site, including all of the sherds with formal and decorative traits similar to those from the Wyman Abbott assemblage from Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945). This large assemblage totals 283 sherds, weighing 2,503g; rim and base sherds from a total of about twenty vessels are present, with one semi-complete bowl (Fig. 25: P18) and a mix of fine jars, bowls, cups and coarse wares. The sherds are moderately well preserved and have an average weight of 8g.

All of the vessels were in a fragmentary condition before they were placed in the pit. However, the numerous small to medium-sized sherds, often rejoining fragments from the same vessel (Fig. 25: P12 and 20), indicate that the sherds were deposited reasonably soon after breakage (Brudenell and Hill 2009, 191). Deposition of pottery in pits is extremely common on earlier Iron Age sites, but the distribution of pottery between the pits is typically uneven, so that while many pits may be present, only very few contain significant pottery assemblages. At Tower Works, Fengate West, for example, a single pit contained 200 sherds representing seven vessels. There, many of the sherds showed evidence of secondary burning or re-firing prior to deposition, whilst other sherds from the same vessel were fresh (Brudenell and Hill 2009, 191). No re-fired sherds are present within the Margetts Farm assemblage, indicating that the sherds had not spent enough time in surface accumulations to have become burnt prior to deposition. The assemblage almost certainly represents a single deliberate deposit of pottery placed into the pit relatively soon after use.

G10

Sixty-three sherds weighing 455g were recovered from these two clusters of intercutting, or possibly re-cut pits. The assemblage is of earlier Iron Age date (800–600BC) and contains rim sherds from a single vessel, along with distinctive decorated sherds representing a minimum of seven vessels. The assemblage includes both coarse and fine jars and bowls, but has fewer fine wares and no cups. In contrast with the contemporary pottery from G9, none of the vessels have direct parallels with the earlier Iron Age pottery from the Wyman Abbott assemblage at Fengate (Hawkes and Fell 1945); instead, the assemblage contains incised bowls more typical of assemblages of the Darmsden–Linton group (Cunliffe 2005, fig. A:13). The differences between the assemblages from G9 and G10 may be chronological, with the G10 pots being slightly later, yet the dissimilarities could equally represent functional differences. The average weight of the sherds is slightly smaller than those from G9, being 7g, suggesting that the pots were more fragmented when they entered the ground. No joining sherds were found between the pit assemblages, again perhaps indicating that the pottery had been stored for longer in a prehistoric-pit context before eventual deposition.

G12

A single sandy body sherd of possible later Iron Age date was found in the northern drove-way ditch.

G18

Just one pit in G18 (Fig. 10: h) contained pottery. Forty-one extremely abraded sherds of earlier Iron Age pottery (800–600BC) were found, weighing 169g and with an average sherd weight of just 4g. Six sherds are burnt. The assemblage includes sherds from one fine burnished bowl with double incised-band decoration. The formal traits of the sherds suggest that they are of the Darmsden–Linton group, similar to those from G10. The poor condition and high degree of fragmentation, plus the presence of burnt sherds, suggests that this material spent a considerable time on the surface following discard and prior to deposition.

Phase 3**G33**

Just one of the six features in G33 contained pottery, producing a moderate assemblage of thirty-six sherds weighing 246g. The assemblage includes rim and body sherds from a scored vessel with fingertip-impressed rim (Fig. 26: P24), and shell-tempered body sherds from a second vessel, both of which are coarse storage/cooking jars. The pottery belongs within the later Iron Age assemblage (400/350–100BC) and is almost certainly contemporary with the use of the nearby roundhouse.

G55

A single shell-tempered body sherd was found within the fill of G55. The sherd is later Iron Age (400/350–100BC) but is not closely datable.

G60

Boundary ditch G60 produced a small assemblage of mixed Iron Age pottery. The sherds are likely to have accumulated in the ditch by gradual and accidental incorporation during weathering. One distinctive later Iron Age wiped body sherd in sandy fabric Q4 comes from

the same vessel as a sherd found in G61, the re-cut of the ditch.

G68

Water pit G68 yielded a small assemblage of sixteen body sherds, all in very poor condition. The sherds have a total weight of 37g, giving an average weight of only 2g. They are largely undatable, though two flint-tempered sherds may be earlier Iron Age and a further three sandy and shell-tempered examples may be later Iron Age. The poor condition of the sherds results from the frequent re-cutting or cleaning-out of the feature, which has produced an extremely fragmented and chronologically mixed assemblage.

G69

In contrast to the small, undiagnostic sherds from water pit G68, water pit G69 produced a large and well preserved assemblage comprising 180 sherds of later Iron Age date (400/350–100BC). The assemblage contains rims from twenty-six vessels as well as the complete profile of a small ovoid jar (Fig. 26: P38). Bases were recovered from four vessels, including both simple (Fig. 26: P32) and foot-ring bases (Fig. 26: P31). Scoring or wiping was present on four sherds (Fig. 26: P34–35). The assemblage has a total weight of 2,350g, giving a relatively large average sherd weight of 13g. Many of the vessels within the pit are represented by rim or base sherds plus numerous joining body sherds; this, combined with the large sherd size and good preservation, suggests that the pottery was deliberately deposited within the water pit, perhaps soon after use. The lack of significant fragmentation within the assemblage indicates that the pottery was deposited late in the use of the feature, as it had not been subject to significant fragmentation or attrition from re-cutting.

G71

G71 produced a later Iron Age assemblage comprising the substantial remains of four vessels, including three large, scored, shell-tempered storage jars and a coarse, plain jar. The presence of a number of storage vessels in the same feature may suggest that the deposit represents functional zoning within the site, or perhaps deliberate selection of similar vessels for deposition.

G78

Water pit G78 contained fifty-three later Iron Age sherds weighing 692g. Rim sherds representing the fragmentary remains of three small and two medium slack-shouldered jars (Fig. 26: P23) were recovered, along with base sherds from five vessels. One vessel has significant burnt food residue consistent with the function of the jars for cooking. The assemblage is in a similar condition to that from water pit G69, with large and well preserved sherds, and the same average sherd weight of 13g suggests that the pottery was deposited after the water pit went out of use and was no longer being re-cut.

G97

Four shell-tempered sherds were found in pit G68, including a fragment of rim from a small, plain jar. The sherds are later Iron Age (400/350–100BC) in date. This pit was cut through by water pit G68, yet although shell-tempered sherds were found in both features, no especial ceramic link is noted between them.

G99

Pottery was found in two of the three pits forming G99. The assemblage comprises sandy and shell-tempered body sherds and includes a simple base sherd from one vessel. Thirty-seven sherds weighing 204g were recovered in total, all of later Iron Age date (400/350–100BC).

Phase 3.5

G34

Two small sandy sherds weighing 6g were found in pit G34. The sherds are not closely datable.

G39

A single scrap of sandy pottery was found in G39. The sherd may be Iron Age but is otherwise not closely datable.

G74

Ten extremely abraded shell-tempered sherds weighing 43g were recovered from one of the features in G74. The sherds are not closely datable.

G83

Seven sherds in two sandy fabrics were found in elongated pit G83. The sherds, which weigh just 17g, are in poor condition and are not closely datable.

G90

Nine later Iron Age sherds weighing 21g were found dispersed through the fills of three of the features which formed G90. The small undecorated body sherds are in a range of sandy and shell-tempered fabrics and may be later Iron Age (400/350–100BC).

G91

A single abraded sherd of sandy pottery weighing 6g was recovered from four-post structure G91. The sherd is perhaps later Iron Age.

G93

Two small, sandy body sherds were recovered from one of the three pits in G93. The sherds are perhaps later Iron Age (400/350–100BC).

Phase 4

G27

A shell-tempered base sherd weighing 12g was retrieved from the gully of roundhouse G27. The sherd is probably from a large storage jar and is of later Iron Age date.

G29

Roundhouse gully G29 produced a modest assemblage of ninety sherds weighing 333g. The assemblage comprises a mix of mostly plain sandy and shell-tempered body sherds, along with rim sherds from two medium slack-shouldered jars. One shell-tempered sherd has a roughly wiped surface. The small size of the sherds, with an average weight of just 3g, perhaps suggests that they became incorporated within the fill of the ditch by weathering from surface deposits.

G44

Twenty-six later Iron Age body sherds weighing 89g were collected from ring gully G44. Fifteen of the sherds, weighing 30g, were recovered from soil samples and are

especially small and poorly preserved. The undecorated body sherds are of later Iron Age date and appear to represent material weathered from neighbouring surface deposits.

G46

Two sherds weighing just 4g were collected from G46. The flint-tempered sherds are probably earlier Iron Age but may equally be earlier prehistoric, and are probably residual.

G49

Enclosure ditch G49 produced a substantial assemblage of 244 later Iron Age sherds, weighing 3,334g. The assemblage includes the remains of nineteen vessels: four are storage jars (Fig. 26: P28 and 36); thirteen are medium, slack-shouldered jars (Fig. 26: P25), some with scored surfaces (Fig. 26: P34); and two are small jars. The sherds are fairly large, with an average weight of 13g, yet their condition is variable, with 49% of the sherds (1,656g) showing a moderate to high degree of abrasion. Sherds from four vessels have been burnt post-firing and these often join with unburnt sherds from the same vessel. The condition of the pottery indicates that it was deposited into the ditch some considerable time after use, during which time some of the sherds had been subject to attrition and re-firing, whilst others had remained in fresh condition. The relatively large sherd size plus the presence of joining sherds from several individual vessels suggests that the pottery was deposited together and was not significantly disturbed by re-cutting of the ditch.

G50

Two of the pits in G50 produced eighteen sherds of pottery weighing 88g. Two sherds, weighing 34g, are flint-tempered and may be earlier Iron Age, while the remaining pottery comprises undecorated body sherds in shell-tempered fabrics which may be later Iron Age. The pottery is in poor condition and may represent material weathered into the pits.

G51

Enclosure ditch G51 produced sixty-three sherds weighing 956g. Four vessels — three medium slack-shouldered jars (Fig. 26: P22) and one tub-shaped vessel (Fig. 26: P24) — are represented within the assemblage, which is contemporary with that from enclosure ditch G49. Despite the chronological similarity, however, there are noticeable differences between the pottery forms found in these two assemblages. Whereas G49 contained a range of forms including large, coarse storage jars, G51 contained only medium cooking and serving vessels. These differences again suggest that some functional zoning was taking place and that this was reflected in the pottery deposition.

G52

Two small base sherds in sandy fabric were recovered from G52. The sherds are probably later Iron Age.

G61

Fourteen sherds of Iron Age pottery, weighing 73g, were recovered from re-cut boundary ditch G61. The assemblage contains sherds from a distinctive vessel also found in G60.

G62

Boundary ditch G62 contained a small and highly fragmentary assemblage of sandy and shell-tempered later Iron Age body sherds. Over 71% of the sherds (49g) are abraded or very abraded. This high degree of attrition is consistent with reworking of the assemblage during re-cutting of the ditch.

G65

Nine small sherds of later Iron Age pottery, weighing 36g, were found in enclosure ditch G65. The assemblage includes one rim sherd from a globular cup with an impressed double row of dots (Fig. 26: P30). The vessel is of similar form to a larger example from Haddenham HADV (Fig. 26: P30; Hill and Braddock 2006, fig. 5.66, 48).

G66

A scrap of sandy pottery from ditch G66 is perhaps Iron Age but is otherwise not closely datable.

G70

The assemblage, found in two of the five intercutting pits within G70, includes rims from three slack-shouldered jars and a base from a fourth vessel. The sherds have an average weight of 10g but are in poor condition: over 88% of them are abraded (360g).

G94

G94 produced two small sherds weighing 9g from two sand-tempered vessels. The sherds, which include a base angle, are in poor condition.

G100

Seventy-five sherds were recovered from the poorly defined features forming G100, including rims from a small cup with slashed rim, three medium jars, and a storage jar, in a mix of sandy and shell-tempered fabrics. The sherds are poorly preserved and have an average weight of 8g. The poor condition of the sherds suggests that a considerable period elapsed between the last use of the pots and the eventual deposition of the curated sherds.

G101

The small assemblage from G101 includes rims from two medium sandy jars (Fig. 26: P26) and body sherds from a large shell-tempered storage jar. The pottery is in poor condition but has a sizable average sherd weight of 39g, reflecting the presence of the chunky sherds of storage jar.

G103

One pit in G103 produced nine later Iron Age sherds, including a rim from a medium jar, while a second contained a single flint-tempered sherd which may be earlier Iron Age or earlier prehistoric.

Phase 5

G56

Ditch G56 contained a single abraded, shell-tempered body sherd which is probably later Iron Age.

G57

Ditch G57 produced one later Iron Age shell-tempered body sherd weighing 9g.

G59

The only pottery recovered from this ditch comprised nine early Roman body sherds weighing 35g. They occur in an oxidised sand-tempered fabric from a single undiagnostic vessel, and are believed to be fundamentally intrusive.

G67

Eight sherds weighing 23g were recovered from ditch G67. The sandy and shell-tempered later Iron Age body sherds are in poor condition, with an average weight of 2g, and represent material weathered into the ditch.

G76

Pit G76 produced a small assemblage of six sherds weighing 155g. The sherds include a rim from a slack-shouldered jar, and base angles from two further vessels. The sherds are in poor condition, with some of them laminated, suggesting that they have been subjected to waterlogging.

G79

Eleven undecorated later Iron Age body sherds weighing 62g were recovered from two of the three pits in G79. The sherds are small and abraded and are found in a mix of sandy and shell-tempered fabrics.

G80

Gullies G80 produced six extremely abraded sandy body sherds weighing 8g. The pottery is likely to represent material weathered into the features from surface deposits.

G81

Pit G81 contained eight sherds weighing 89g. The assemblage includes rim and body sherds from a small shell-tempered jar, and smoothed sandy sherds from a second vessel.

G86

Four small body sherds weighing 11g were recovered from two pits in cluster G86. The size and poor condition of the sherds suggests that they are residual or were weathered into the pits from surface deposits.

G106

G106 produced four body sherds weighing 20g. All are shell-tempered and heavily abraded, and are likely to have been weathered into the feature from neighbouring surface deposits. They are perhaps later Iron Age.

Phase 6**G25**

Twenty-two residual prehistoric sherds weighing 63g were recovered from Roman bedding trenches G25. The assemblage includes eight sherds (15g) of grog-tempered early Bronze Age pottery, two flint-tempered earlier Iron Age sherds, and five later Iron Age sherds including one sherd of sandy proto-grey ware seen in late Iron Age assemblages such as Wardy Hill (Hill and Lucas 2003).

G40

Two small later Iron Age body sherds weighing 7g were recovered from bedding trenches G40. The sherds were residual within the Roman features.

Phase 7**G42**

Two extremely abraded scraps of pottery weighing just 1g were recovered from trackway ditches G42.

G104

Two extremely abraded sherds weighing 13g and including a base angle were recovered from ditches G103.

Phase 8**G43**

Furrows G43 produced four residual later Iron Age body sherds in sandy fabric, weighing 17g.

Unphased

A small assemblage of eighteen sherds weighing 99g was recovered from unphased features. The assemblage, which was largely derived from nondescript areas of bioturbation, includes undiagnostic body sherds plus rims from two medium scored jars of later Iron Age date.

EARLIER IRON AGE POTTERY: FABRIC DESCRIPTIONS, FORMS AND DECORATION

Fabric	Description	Quantity	% quantity	Weight (g)	% weight
F1	Common, small angular flint (2–5mm), moderate rounded sand	62	15.2%	522	16.1%
F2	Common, medium angular flint (5–8mm), moderate rounded sand	1	0.2%	6	0.2%
Q1	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains	119	29.2%	1,150	35.5%
Q4	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate flint pieces	114	28.0%	861	26.6%
Q5	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate elongated voids	8	2.0%	41	1.3%
Q6	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, occasional fine shell	13	3.2%	94	2.9%
Q9	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate plate-like voids (shell)	19	4.7%	116	3.6%
QM	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate mica shreds	13	3.2%	100	3.1%
S3	Common medium to large fossil shell voids (>3mm), occasional small rounded quartz grains	13	3.2%	82	2.5%
S4	Common medium to large fossil shell voids (>5mm)	16	3.9%	76	2.3%
S5	Dense, common fine shell (>2mm)	11	2.7%	85	2.6%
S7	Common medium to large fossil shell voids (>3mm), occasional small angular flint.	18	4.5%	108	3.3%
Total		407	100.0%	3,241	100.0%

Table 2: Earlier Iron Age pottery by fabric

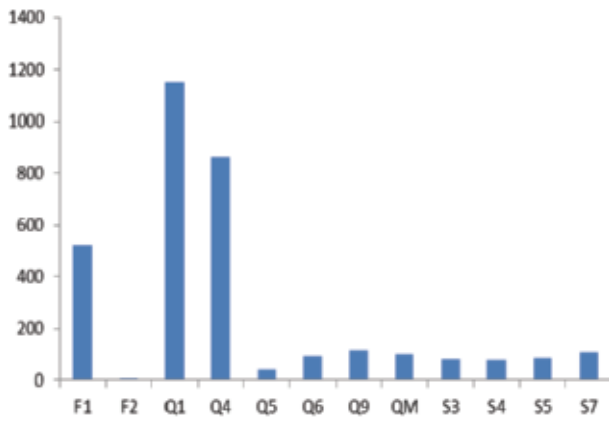


Figure 27: Weight of earlier Iron Age pottery in grams by fabric type

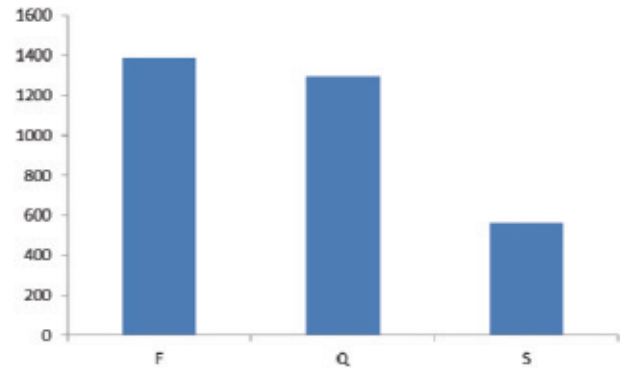


Figure 28: Weight of earlier Iron Age pottery in grams by fabric group

Type	Class	Form	Description	Total no. vessels
Coarse	I jar	2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	2
		1	Flat rim, long neck, angular shoulder	3
	III bowl	2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	1
Fine	II jar	2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	1
		1	Flat rim, long neck, angular shoulder	2
	IV bowl	2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	1
		6	Rounded rim, long neck, angular shoulder	1
		2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	4
	V cup	2	Flat rim, medium upright neck, angular shoulder	1
		5	Pointed rim, short upright neck, slack shoulder	16
Total				16

Table 3: Earlier Iron Age pottery by vessel class and form

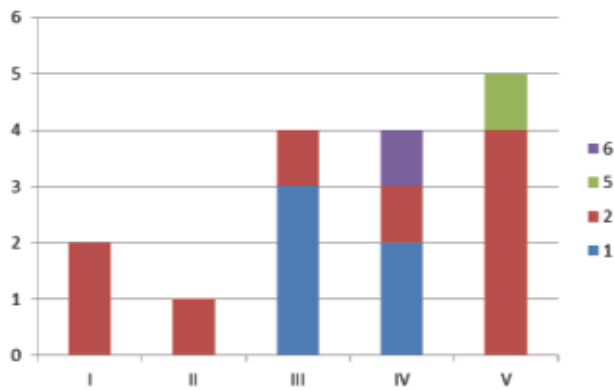


Figure 29: Number of earlier Iron Age vessels by class (I-V) and form (1-6)

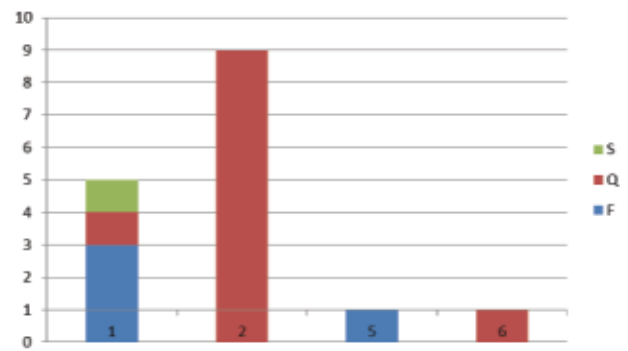


Figure 30: Number of earlier Iron Age vessels by form (1-6) and fabric group

Decoration type	Quantity	Weight (g)	No. vessels
Impressed on shoulder	1	10	1
Incised	10	65	
Incised band	7	38	4
Incised band on shoulder	27	263	2
Incised geometric	5	43	2
Shoulder cordon	4	19	1
Slashed on shoulder	11	135	4
Slashed on rim top	6	53	3
Total	71	626	16

Table 4: Quantity and weight of earlier Iron Age pottery by decorative technique

LATER IRON AGE POTTERY: FABRIC DESCRIPTIONS, FORMS AND DECORATION

Fabric	Description	Quantity	% quantity	Weight (g)	% weight
C2	Moderate to common sub-rounded chalk up to 3mm	1	0.1%	30	0.2%
Q	Sandy undiagnostic	3	0.3%	2	0.0%
Q1	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains	92	8.6%	557	4.2%
Q10	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains; sparse fine shell; sparse elongated voids (organic)	4	0.4%	92	0.7%
Q2	Sparse shell pieces, sparse sub-rounded quartz; sparse mica shreds; reduced	195	18.3%	2,476	18.7%
Q3	Common, fine sandy with sparse sub-rounded chalk, reduced	192	18.0%	2,524	19.0%
Q4	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate flint pieces	17	1.6%	125	0.9%
Q5	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate elongated voids	19	1.8%	299	2.3%
Q6	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, occasional fine shell	111	10.4%	1,238	9.3%
Q7	Common fine chalk, moderate fine sand, reduced	2	0.2%	11	0.1%
Q8	Coarse sandy (pimply) with rare large shell	5	0.5%	30	0.2%
Q9	Common evenly sized small rounded quartz grains, moderate plate-like voids (shell)	9	0.8%	120	0.9%
S1	Common shell pieces up to 8mm orange	142	13.3%	2,958	22.3%
S2	Sparse fine shell, soapy orange	26	2.4%	161	1.2%
S3	Common medium to large fossil shell voids (>3mm), occasional small rounded quartz grains	44	4.1%	98	0.7%
S4	Common medium to large fossil shell voids (>5mm)	13	1.2%	194	1.5%
S5	Dense, common fine shell (>2mm)	193	18.1%	2,345	17.7%
Total		1,068	100.0%	13,260	100.0%

Table 5: Later Iron Age pottery by fabric

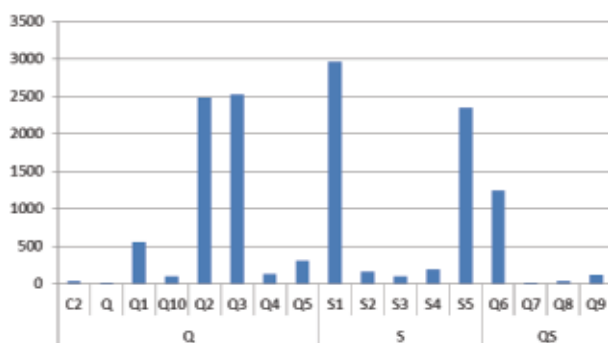


Figure 31: Weight (g) of later Iron Age pottery by fabric and main inclusion type

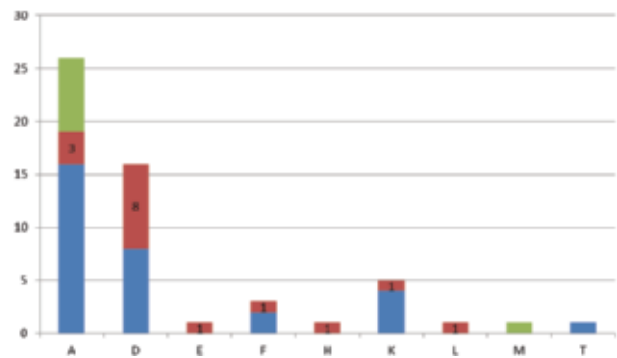


Figure 32: Number of later Iron Age vessels by form type and fabric group

Vessel form	Description	No. vessels
A	Slack shouldered jar with upright neck	26
D	Outward flared rim, slack shoulder	16
E	Jar with high rounded shouldered upright neck	1
F	Round bodied vessel with short everted rim	3
H	High shouldered round bodied vessel with distinct angular profile neck straight outward flaring rim	2
K	Ovoid or rounded slack shouldered vessel, no distinct rim	5
L	Globular ovoid vessel with slight change in wall profile to create a distinct rim	1
M	Round globular vessel, no neck	1
T	Tall, straight-sided vessel with narrow but open mouths and no neck	1
Total		56

Table 6: Number of later Iron Age vessels by form type (typology following Hill 2003)

Form type code	Decoration	No. vessels
A	Fingertip-impressed	3
	Slashed on rim top	4
	Undecorated	19
D	Incised, scored	1
	Undecorated	15
E	Undecorated	1
F	Undecorated	3
H	Slashed on rim top	1
	Undecorated	1
K	Fingertip-impressed	2
	Slashed on rim top	1
	Undecorated	2
L	Undecorated	1
M	Impressed	1
T	Fingertip-impressed	1
Total		56

Table 7: Number of Later Iron Age vessels by vessel form and decorative technique

Decoration type	Quantity	Weight (g)	No. vessels
Fingertip-impressed	26	515	7
Impressed	1	4	1
Incised	3	35	1
Incised scored	8	180	1
Rough wiped	79	1,592	1
Slashed on rim top	12	313	10
Total	129	2,639	21

Table 8: Number of Later Iron Age vessels by decorative technique

Appendix 3

Structural Fired Clay

Jackie Wells

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

Structural fired clay was recovered from most phases, though the bulk of the assemblage came from middle to later Iron Age Phases 3 and 4. The material was examined by context and quantified by fragment count and weight, and a record of diagnostic characteristics (extant edges, surfaces, curvature, impressions *etc.*) compiled to assist in determining survival, function and technology. Fabric types were established using a binocular microscope at $\times 20$ magnification, and are detailed at the end of this appendix. Material recovered from sieved soil samples accounts for *c.* 2% of the total assemblage (by weight), and derives mainly from features assigned to Phase 4.

The following text discusses the fired clay by phase, in terms of fabric, form and distribution/deposition across the three sites.

DISCUSSION BY PHASE

Phases 1–2

Eight amorphous fragments of fired clay (23g) in a friable sand-tempered fabric derived from Phase 1 pits G8. A further two fragments (1g) in the same fabric were recovered from henge ditch G1, and a single piece (13g) from Phase 2 pits G9. All are redeposited and are of little significance.

Phase 3

Phase 3 features yielded 300 fragments of fired clay weighing 7.8kg, the majority deriving from pit G99 and its re-cut (Table 9). The material represents secondary deposition of occupation material and cannot be directly associated with the use of the features from which it was collected. Over 85% of the assemblage (by weight) comprises fragments in an oxidised calcareous and sand-tempered fabric, while pieces in a purely sand-tempered fabric constitute the remainder. A number of the latter may represent degraded pottery sherds. The calcareous fabric is similar to that used for the manufacture

Group	Description	No.	Wt (g)
33	Pit/post-hole cluster at north edge of roundhouse G29	10	16
60	Boundary ditch	1	1
63	Boundary ditch	5	48
68	Water pit	6	39
69	Water pit	30	380
71	Pit	10	92
78	Water pit	6	236
99	Pit and re-cut	231	6,932
103	Pit cluster at south edge of enclosure G51	1	11
Total		300	7,755

Table 9: Phase 3 quantification of fired clay

of pottery (fabric Q7), and may derive from the same source. The material is well fired and reasonably robust, with an average fragment weight of 26g.

Diagnostic elements include several fragments of daub that retain impressions of roundwood wattles, ranging in diameter from 10mm to 30mm. Most derive from pit / post-hole cluster G33, located at the northern edge of roundhouse G29, and may conceivably derive from the superstructure. The wattle impressions are too few to ascertain whether they were interwoven to form a basketry structure. The bulk of the assemblage, deriving from G99, comprises calcareous pieces ranging in thickness from 30mm to 50mm. Many are characterised by undulating or gently curving, finger-smoothed surfaces with an irregular underside, suggesting that they represent a lining or structural fragments associated with an oven — or some similar form of structure retaining an element of permanent or portable superstructure, which was subjected to a degree of heating or firing.

Pit G99 also contained portions of two handmade slabs or bricks, made from an oxidised calcareous and sand-tempered fabric. They range in thickness from 30mm to 40mm and have regular, finger-smoothed surfaces and edges. Neither of the fragments is large enough to provide any other indication of size. They may represent prefabricated furniture from simple ovens of domestic or agricultural use.

Phase 3.5

Fourteen poorly fired, amorphous fragments of fired clay (31g) were recovered from pits G93, located at the southern edge of Phase 4 ring gully G44. The pieces occur in an oxidised calcareous and sand-tempered fabric, and are generally abraded, with an average fragment weight of 2g.

Phase 4

Phase 4 features produced 172 fragments of fired clay weighing 1.3kg, with the greatest concentrations (by weight) deriving from roundhouse ring ditch G29 and enclosure ditch G66 (Table 10). In contrast with the assemblage from Phase 3, the material is poorly preserved

Group	Description	No.	Wt (g)
29	Roundhouse gully	118	556
30	Hearth in centre of gully G29	5	4
44	Ring-ditch	4	2
49	Enclosure ditch	10	75
50	Post-hole / pit cluster in enclosure G49	4	1
51	Enclosure ditch	9	89
61	Re-cut boundary ditch G60	3	23
65	Ditch	2	16
66	Enclosure ditch	4	504
70	Pit cluster	6	22
100	Pits / post holes at north limit of excavation	7	27
Total		172	1,319

Table 10: Phase 4 quantification of fired clay

and fragmentary. An average fragment weight of only 7g reflects the recovery of much of the assemblage from soil samples, and effectively precludes further identification. Pieces are mostly amorphous, and occur in an oxidised calcareous and sand-tempered fabric. As with the Phase 3 assemblage, the material is entirely redeposited and cannot be directly associated with the use of the features from which it was collected.

Phase 5

Twenty-four poorly fired, amorphous fragments of fired clay weighing 141g were recovered, the majority (98g) deriving from pits G86. The pieces occur in an oxidised calcareous and sand-tempered fabric, and are generally abraded, with an average fragment weight of 5g. Negligible assemblages, each weighing less than 20g, were collected from ditches G56 and G72, pits G76 and G79, and gullies G80.

Phases 6–8

A negligible fired clay assemblage was recovered from features post-dating the Iron Age. Nine amorphous fragments (42g) derived from Phase 6 bedding trenches G40, Phase 7 ditches G42 and G73 and Phase 8 furrows G105. All are made in a friable, oxidised sand-tempered fabric, and may represent degraded brick or tile fragments.

TYPE SERIES

FC 1 Sand and calcareous: hard-fired, mid-dark orange fabric throughout. Characterised by abundant sub-rounded and sub-angular calcareous inclusions *c.* 1–2mm, some ranging up to 5mm. Also frequent sub-angular quartz *c.* 0.2–0.6mm, and occasional red iron ore *c.* 0.3mm. Some larger pieces contain sub-angular or angular flints measuring 8–15mm in size.

FC 2 Sand: friable mid-dark orange-red fabric with variable dark grey-black patches where reduced. Inclusions are abundant sub-rounded and sub-angular quartz *c.* 0.5–0.9mm and occasional red iron ore *c.* 0.5mm.

Appendix 4

Human Bone

Natasha Powers

INTRODUCTION

Burnt human bone was recovered on Site C from G26, one of a group of eight post-holes arranged around the inner circuit of henge ditch G1 (Fig. 7: a). Radiocarbon dating suggests that the burial was early Bronze Age (2020–1770 cal. BC). The post-hole (F672) was recorded as having a post-pipe (F670), representing the extent of the decayed or removed post used. Burnt bone was recovered from the fill of both; however, the bone is thought to have come from a single burial that was incorporated in the packing material round the post, which was partially disturbed when the post either was removed or decayed. An urned cremation burial of similar, though perhaps slightly earlier date (2150–1870 cal. BC) was discovered in a pit that had been dug into a tree-throw (G4) to the south-east of the henge.

A further urned cremation burial was identified on Site A in pit G84, which has been radiocarbon dated to the middle Bronze Age (1540–1390 cal. BC). This burial was initially considered to be the only indication of an early ritual focus in this part of the quarry. However, disarticulated bone with evidence of peri-mortem modification was recovered from enclosure ditch G49 and from G76 at the southern edge of the site. Ceramic dating places both these features in the later Iron Age, with G49 slightly predating G76.

METHODS

The burnt human bone was wet-sieved, sorted and examined following the methods of McKinley and Roberts (1993) and McKinley (2004). The weight in grams of each sample and the associated residue was established. Colour was described with reference to Holden *et al.* (1995a and 1995b) and McKinley (2004). Fragmentation was examined by measurement of the maximum dimension (in millimetres) of the largest fragment present, estimation of the average fragment size, and by passing the remains over a series of graded sieves to produce fractions of >10mm, >4mm and >2mm. Identifiable bone was separated into, axial, upper limb or lower limb, and fragments identified to a specific element were weighed and catalogued separately. An estimate of the percentage composition of each residue was made. Where preservation and completeness permitted, age was estimated using observations of dental development and fusion of the epiphyses (Gustafson and Koch 1974; Scheuer and Black 2000).

The isolated bone elements were recorded to the Museum of London Oracle database, following Connell and Rauxloh (2003) and the Museum of London method statement (Powers 2008). The remains were catalogued and metric data obtained where possible. The recording of pathological and taphonomic data was supported by detailed written and graphical descriptions.

LATE NEOLITHIC TO MIDDLE BRONZE AGE: CREMATED HUMAN BONE

Preservation and disturbance

The burnt bone was well preserved, with both cortical and spongy bone present in most samples. The features were all truncated: post-hole G26 was 0.31m deep, pit G4 was 0.18m deep, and the urn within G84 was truncated to a depth of less than 0.17m. Cremation burials G4 and G84 had both been exposed by machine-stripping of the site, which had significantly disturbed the latter.

Demography, health and disease

The absence of repeated skeletal elements indicated that each feature contained the remains of one individual. The right and left mandibular condyle and petrous temporal of the individuals from G26 were found within separate samples, confirming that the remains of a single adult had been distributed throughout the post-hole. The completion of epiphyseal fusion and presence of permanent teeth established that G4 and G26 contained the remains of adults. It was not possible to estimate the age of G84, and the absence of the sexually dimorphic areas of the skull and pelvis prevented the estimation of sex for all the burials, although the orbital margin of the individual from G26 was sharp, a typically female trait (Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994).

No pathological changes were noted in the skeletal or dental remains.

Pyre technology and ritual

Total weight of bone

In total, 3,516.3g of burnt bone and 3,217.7g of inorganic residue were examined (Table 11). The cremation of an adult has been shown to result in 1,600–3,600g of bone (McKinley 1989); G4 and G26 may therefore be considered to contain substantially complete remains, whilst truncation may account for the loss of bone from G84 (see above).

Oxidation and dehydration

Cremation of the human body requires a minimum temperature of 400°C (McKinley 1994a), and the colour of the burnt remains can provide an indication of the peak temperatures and duration of burning. The bone from F670 (G26) was off-white in colour, and this colour predominated in F672 (G26), G4 and G84, where a small proportion of the bone was light blue-grey. This indicates

Phase	Group	Feature	Total weight (g)	Residue (g)
1	26	670	31.8	0.0
1	26	672	1,135.9	2,749.0
1	4	2071	2,147.5	348.1
1	84	3422	201.1	120.6

Table 11: Summary of burnt human bone

Phase	Group	Feature	Largest fragment (mm)	Mean fragment size (mm)	>10mm (g)	>4mm (g)	>2mm (g)	% burnt bone <4mm residue
1	26	670	29	20	12.2	15.8	3.8	
1	26	672	57	25	623.5	486.6	25.8	5–20
1	4	2071	40	25	543.8	810.7	793	60
1	84	3422	36	10	49.9	113.9	37.3	20

Table 12: Maximum and mean fragment size and weight of bone by sieved fraction

almost complete oxidation and temperatures in excess of 600°C (Holden *et al.* 1995a and 1995b). Darker colouration was noted in a mid-hand phalanx from G26, which may have lain at the limits of the pyre and consequently have been subject to lower temperatures.

Fragmentation and identifiable bone

Longitudinal, spiral and transverse fragmentation was noted in all burials and is consistent with the cremation of complete (fleshed) bodies (Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994, 96). The level of fragmentation as reflected in maximum fragment size was relatively high (Table 12). McKinley (1994b, 339) noted that pieces of bone up to 250mm in length remained immediately after cremation in modern crematoria. However, any movement of the hot bone during cremation or subsequent pyre-clearance would result in further fragmentation, and post-depositional influences (particularly fluctuations in moisture level) would also reduce fragment size.

Examination of the proportion of bone (by weight) within each fraction demonstrated that more than 50% of the burnt bone from F672 (G26) was >10mm in size, and only a small proportion fell in the smallest fraction. The majority of bone in burials F670 (G26) and G84 was >4mm in size, whilst despite containing the greatest overall weight of bone, nearly 40% of the bone within burial G4 was 4–10mm in size, and the <4mm residue contained an extremely large proportion of burnt bone (Table 12; Fig. 33).

Identifiable bone and patterns of deposition

Evidence for the preferential selection of certain areas of the body for burial was examined by comparing the proportion of identifiable bone within each body area to the known percentage weights of the intact skeleton. The weight of identifiable bone from the two samples taken from G26 was pooled, as it is believed to have originated from the same burial. The features showed an over-representation of skull and a lower than expected percentage of axial bone. In G84, the upper limbs were over-represented at the expense of the lower limbs (Fig. 34). Full details of the identified bone can be found in Table 13.

Pyre debris

No ecofacts or artefacts were found within the samples of burnt bone. Green staining, typical of prolonged contact with a copper alloy object, was noted in G4, but no such artefact remained in the burial. The residue from the samples which comprised G26 contained up to 25% burnt stone (an accidental inclusion from beneath the pyre) and 10% fuel slag. Charcoal flecks and a small proportion of fuel slag and burnt clay (*c.* 10%) were noted in G4, and 40% of the residue from G84 was also fuel slag. Temperatures in excess of 1,000°C are required to create fuel slag, and thus the presence of this material in all the burials indicates that pyre temperatures were extremely high (McKinley 1994a).

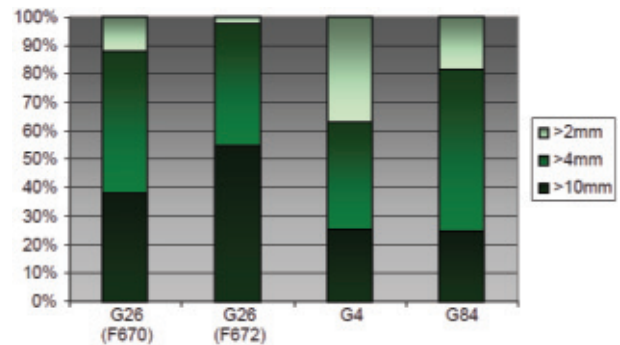


Figure 33: Percentage of burnt bone in each sieved fraction

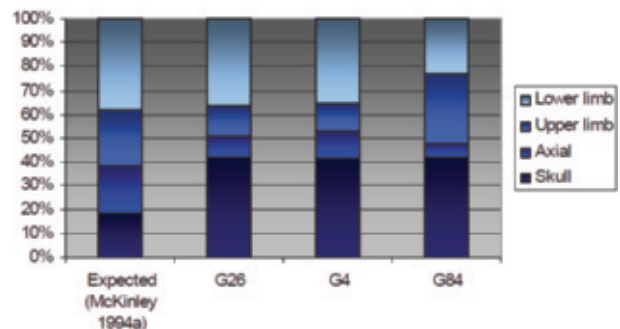


Figure 34: Identifiable bone by body area as a percentage of all identifiable bone

IRON AGE: HUMAN REMAINS FROM NON-BURIAL FEATURES

Two human bones were recovered from later Iron Age features. Both originated from adults of undetermined age and sex, with a minimum of one individual represented.

The mid and distal shaft of a right humerus were found within enclosure ditch G49. The element was from a robust adult and the proximal end showed evidence of recent damage. The cortex was well preserved, with some polishing to the posterior surface. The distal end was broken above the epicondyles (elbow) and two areas of breakage showed characteristics typical of perimortem (dry) fracturing; the broken surface of the bone was also discoloured to a similar degree as the intact surface. When examined under magnification, numerous fine, parallel cut marks could be seen to run in a transverse direction on the anterior surface and medial border, where they were more distinct. The cuts were a maximum of *c.* 8mm long and were deepest in the area of attachment for the deltoid muscle on the medial border. This suggests that more force was required in this location due to the need to cut through the tendons, and supports the theory that the cut marks are the result of the disarticulation and defleshing of a corpse.

Group	Sample	Total weight (g)	Total ID (g)	%	Skull		Axial		Upper limb		Lower limb					
					g	% of ID of bone	g	% of ID of bone	g	% of ID of bone	g	% of ID of bone				
G26 (F670)	15	31.8	13.3	41.8	9.1	68.4	Cranial vault 9.1g, anterior tooth root 0.3g	1.4	10.5	Rib fragments 1.1g, vertebral fragment 0.3g	0	0	n/a	2.8	21.1	Femoral shaft 2.8g
	16	213.2	82.9	38.9	30	36.2	Cranial vault 29.0g, teeth 1.0g (mandibular M3 and molar root)	7.3	8.8	Vertebral fragments 5.0g, ribs 2.3g	9.4	11.3	Humeral shaft 5.1g, ulna shaft 3.5g, 2× proximal phalanges 0.8g	36.2	43.7	Tibial shaft 8.5g, femoral shaft 15.7g, fibula shaft 4.6g, tarsal fragments 8.4g
G26 (F672)	19	44.2	16.6	37.6	6.4	38.6	Cranial vault, 6.1g, mandibular canine root 0.3g	1.8	10.8	Odontoid peg 1.0g, rib fragment 0.8g	0	0	n/a	8.4	50.6	Femoral shaft 1.2g, tibial shaft 7.2g
	17	381.5	181.1	47.5	78.2	43.2	Cranial vault 72.0g, anterior tooth fragments 0.4g, right mandibular condyle 0.8g (pair with 740), right coronoid process 0.5g, left petrous temporal (pair with 739) 4.5g	16.2	8.9	Vertebral fragments 6.4g (inc. C3), ribs 3.7g (inc. right and left first ribs), clavicle 1.3g, sternum 0.3g	34.7	19.2	Humeral shaft 18.9g, radial shaft 12.8g, radial head 1.4g, metacarpal shaft 0.9g, ?mid phalanges ×2 0.7g	52	28.7	Femoral shaft 27.1g, tibial shaft 17.1g, fibula shaft 3.3g, tarsal fragments 4.2g, distal phalanx 0.3g
18		146.6	69	47.1	22.8	33	Cranial vault (inc. left frontal with orbital margin) 21.3g, teeth 1.5g (inc. maxillary molar, mandibular molar, mandibular incisor, maxillary canine/pre-molar roots)	2.6	3.8	Rib 0.7g, vertebrae 1.9g	5.6	8.1	Radial shaft and head 4.4g, phalanx fragments 1.2g	38	55.1	Femoral shaft 14.1g, tibial shaft 20.9g, fibula shaft 1.8g, first metatarsal head 1.1g, distal phalanx 0.1g
20		30.8	16.6	53.9	10.1	60.8	Cranial vault 9.8g, premolar root 0.2g	2.4	14.5	Rib fragments	4.1	24.7	Humeral shaft	0	0	n/a
21		164	69.3	42.3	33.1	47.8	Cranial vault 26.4g, right petrous temporal 6.0g (pair with 688), teeth (premolar and maxillary molar roots) 0.7g	9	13	Rib fragments 4.0g, vertebral fragments (inc. anterior atlas) 5.0g	4.3	6.2	2× mid phalanges 0.1g, radius/ulna shaft 4.2g	22.9	33	Tibial shaft 18.9g, femoral shaft 2.0g, patella 1.9g
22		155.6	55.9	35.9	22.5	40.3	Cranial vault 21.7g, 2× anterior tooth roots 0.3g, left mandibular condyle 1.5g (pair with 688)	6	10.7	Rib fragments 1.9g, vertebral fragments 4.1g	5	8.9	Phalanges 1.7g (1 proximal, 2 mid, 1 distal), metacarpal shaft 0.8g, radial shaft 1.5g	22.4	40.1	Femoral/tibial shaft 20.0g, patella 2.4g
G4	45	2,147.5	509.4	23.7	212.4	41.7	Teeth 4.7g (inc. 18, 23, 38.4 anterior tooth roots, 3 molar tooth roots), vault fragments 200g, mandibular condyles 1.2g	59.5	11.7	Rib fragments 17.0g, acetabular fragments 8.2g, vertebral fragments 34.2g, sternal fragment 0.1g	57	11.2	Forearm (radius/ulna) shaft 40.3g, humeral shaft and 3× small humeral head fragments 8.2g, metacarpal fragments 2.1g, carpal fragments 1.8g (inc. right lunate, pisiform), phalanx fragments 4.6g (inc. 1 proximal, 5 mid, 2 distal)	180.5	35.4	Femoral fragments 57.5g, tibial shaft 90.2g, fibula shaft 5.9g, tarsal fragments 22.3g, metatarsal fragments 4.6g (inc. distal first),
G84	n/a	176.3	25.5	14.5	10.8	42.4	Cranial vault 10.7g, anterior tooth root 0.1g	1.6	6.3	Vertebral fragments 0.7g, ribs 0.6g	6.6	25.9	n/a	6.5	25.5	Femoral shaft
285		13.4	0.1	0.7	0.1	100	Cranial vault	0	0	n/a	0	0	n/a	0	0	n/a
n/a		11.4	2.8	24.6	1.1	39.3	Cranial vault	0	0	n/a	1.7	60.7	Humeral shaft	0	0	n/a

Table 13: Full details of identified cremated human bone

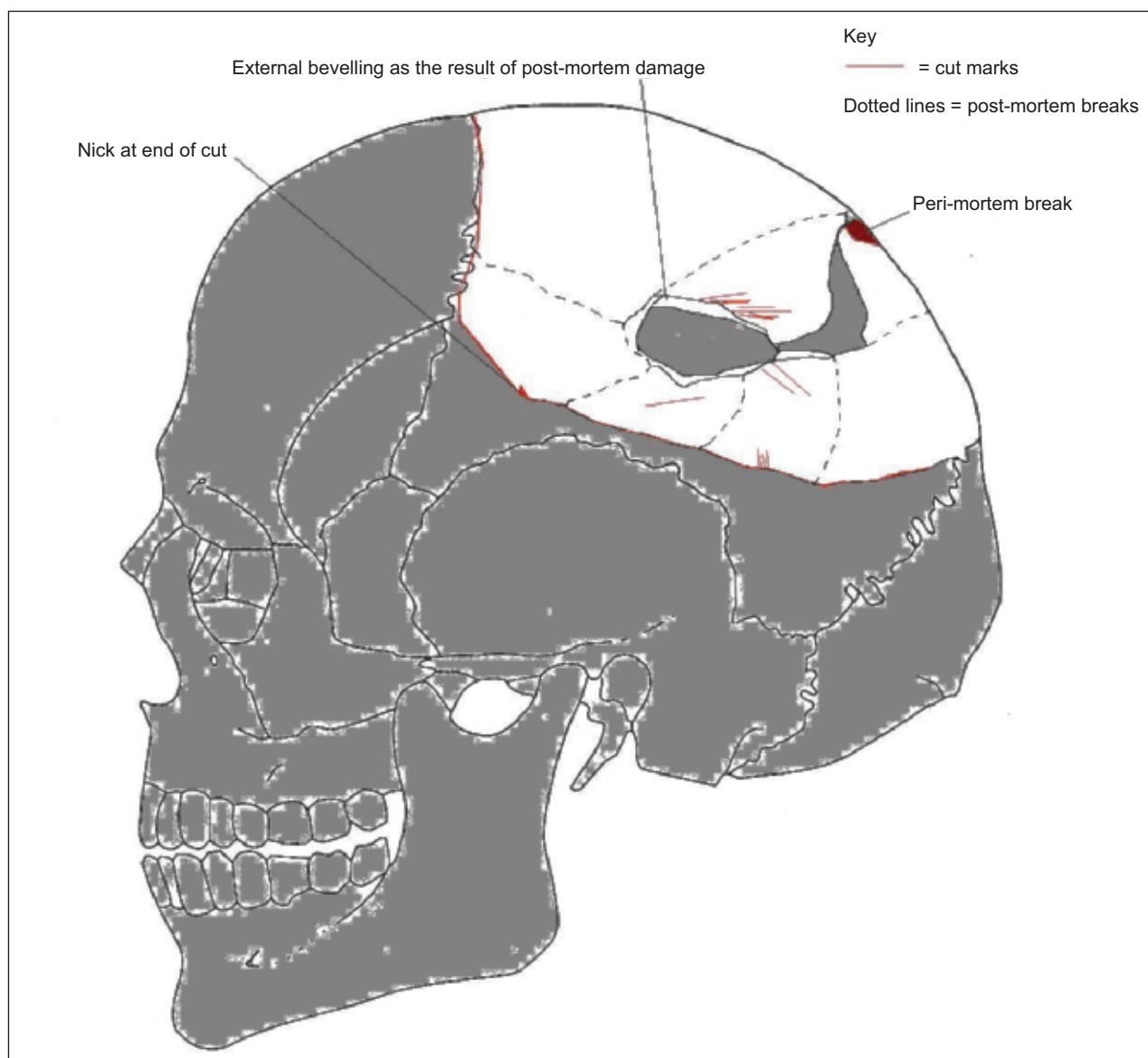


Figure 35: Adult left parietal with evidence of peri-mortem modification from pit G76

The largely complete left parietal of an adult was found within pit G76 (Fig. 35). A maximum of 128mm (A–P) × 96mm (M–L), it had been recently broken into seven pieces, and a sub-rectangular piece of bone c. 25mm in diameter was absent from the centre as the result of this damage. The bone was otherwise well-preserved, with noticeable polishing on the endo- and ecto-cranial surfaces, particularly on the anterior portion towards the sagittal suture. A small (12 × 8mm) area of bevelling indicative of peri-mortem fracture (or possibly weapon/tool use) was present 85mm posterior to bregma on the sagittal suture. No other damage to the convolutions of the suture was visible, but this bevelling suggests that the left element may have been deliberately detached from the right element. The coronal suture ran in a straight line for 41mm and had been straightened using a sharp blade and a paring or chopping action. From bregma, the edge of the bone continued in a symmetrical arc round to lambda, where a 28mm section of the lambdoid suture had also been worked. In places, the blade could be seen to have chopped in a downward direction, the outer table sliced through cleanly, the inner table fractured. The longest blade cut present was c. 18mm. The smoothing

of the sutures and in particular faceting on the lambdoid suture did not have the polished appearance of peri-mortem blade cuts but were smooth, and it appears that a whetstone or similar tool was used to create an even finish. When examined under magnification, a series of extremely fine cut marks could be seen on the three central fragments. These cuts were closely grouped and ran from anterior to posterior, mostly in parallel but with occasional variation. A second group of two or three cuts up to 20mm long was present behind this central area, and a small cluster of multiple, short (c. 4mm) cuts led to the posterior worked edge of the fragment. These cut marks could only have been made by a sharp and fine blade and are suggestive of scalping or skinning.

DISCUSSION

Burial evidence is undeniably limited for the early and middle Bronze Age, presenting no opportunity for population study, but activity appears to have been focused on ritual monuments. The osteological evidence demonstrates that the bodies of three individuals, two of whom were adult, had been efficiently cremated at a high

temperature. There is no evidence that objects or food-stuffs were placed on the pyre with them, though this does not exclude organic materials, which would have been consumed by the fire or reduced to charcoal.

McKinley (2000, 415) noted that one author has suggested that bone fragments under 50mm in length suggest deliberate breakage. Though taphonomic factors and post-depositional breakage are the most likely cause in this instance, it is intriguing that the levels of fragmentation vary between the burials. The urn containing G84 may have afforded the bone physical protection from damage, and it is surprising that the same was not the case for G4, which was both the most fragmented and the most complete of the burials. The funerary context of this vessel was somewhat different, having been placed within a large pit, and it is possible that other aspects of the funerary ritual also differed, leading to increased fragmentation of the burnt bone. The average maximum fragment size (40.5mm) is similar to that seen in middle Bronze Age burials from the Biddenham Loop, at 37mm, and fits within the range of 37–133mm seen in the early Bronze Age burials from the same site (Powers forthcoming). At the Biddenham Loop, 30–60% of the bone from early Bronze Age burials was >10mm in size compared to a similar 25–55% at Margetts Farm. The similarities suggest that funerary rituals (the collection and ‘processing’ of the burnt bone) and taphonomic influences were similar.

There is no evidence of the preferential selection of particular areas of the body for burial. The over-representation of the cranial vault is a common finding and can be explained by the ease of identification both for the original collector and during analysis, while the weight of two of the burials is sufficient to indicate that, prior to truncation, they contained complete individuals.

The disarticulated bone from Iron Age contexts is intriguing, all the more so in the absence of any evidence for articulated burial on the site at this date. Fragmentary human remains and isolated bones are commonly found in deposits of this date (Redfern 2008, 281), almost always alongside animal bone and often artefacts (Madgwick 2010, 67 and 76; Walker 1984, 443). Gnawing, weathering and ‘dry’ bone fractures are cited as evidence of exposure, but the cultural modification of human bone is far rarer and evidence is often equivocal.

Redfern (2008) reported dry fractures, cut marks and gnawing in disarticulated Iron Age material from Dorset (including an adult right humeral shaft with a peri-mortem ‘chop’ mark to the anterior shaft), but evidence of deliberate modification was limited to a series of enigmatic puncture-marks in the proximal femur of an adult from Gussage All Saints — a feature reportedly also seen in the animal bone assemblage — and a bored hole c. 13mm in diameter in a fragment of adult right parietal from Maiden castle (Redfern 2008, 188 and 293). Eight skulls or cranial fragments were reported to have been separately deposited at Danebury; many of the disarticulated bones from the site were thought to have been broken whilst still ‘wet’, and there was evidence of gnawing in six long bones and one skull fragment (Walker 1984, 452 and 454). Walker also reported that bones from Ham Hill, Somerset and Lidbury, Wiltshire contained bored holes and had been worn smooth by handling (Walker 1984, 454). Four cranial fragments from All Cannings Cross, Wiltshire are reported to have been deliberately shaped, whilst one was also perforated (Cunliffe 2005, 552). A

small number of modified bones are also known from Scottish Iron Age sites. At Hillhead, Caithness a fragment of cranial vault with three drilled holes arranged in an evenly-spaced triangle has been suggested to indicate suspension, while a cranial fragment from Cnip, Lewis displayed one drill hole, and another had been modified into a scraper. Three femoral heads from Icegarth, Orkney were made into whorls or buttons (Armit and Ginn 2007, 125).

Of greatest significance to the discoveries at Margetts Farm are two modified cranial fragments from Harston Mill, Cambridgeshire. Although the burial landscape there appears to differ in character — numerous complete and partial burials were present, many within storage pits and including three interpreted as the deposition of curated body-bundles — a number of early–middle Iron Age pits contained human and animal remains, together with significant artefacts such as complete pots. Secondary burials and human remains deposited with animal groups were found close to the settlement. Amongst the (almost exclusively adult) fragmentary human remains, cranial fragments were most common, followed by elements of the humerus. An adult right parietal had been worked to form a rough rectangle and is interpreted as a possible amulet (O’Brien, forthcoming). A fragment of adult frontal bone was found in the vicinity of another Iron Age pit, though located within an unstratified (and undated) context. This piece was primarily of the left frontal and was roughly triangular, with one edge formed by the coronal suture. Notably, the edges of the suture had been worked, a direct parallel to the modification in the Margetts Farm example. Linear decoration was present, and a drilled hole and signs of wear suggested that this ‘amulet’ had been suspended on a thong to enable it to be worn (Phillips and O’Brien, forthcoming).

The faunal assemblages from enclosure ditch G49 and pit G76 do not present any outstanding characteristics, being comprised of the expected domestic species, predominantly cattle (Appendix 5). This would lend weight to the interpretation of the disposal of the human remains as casual, even accidental. ‘Structured’ deposits containing human remains have a reported association with boundaries (Redfern 2008, 282). However, the definition of a structured deposit is highly problematic and some have suggested that indeed, all deposits have deliberate thought behind their construction (Madgwick 2010, 67). In his study of remains from Winnal Down and Danebury, Hampshire, Madgwick (2010, 71 and 75) concluded that human and faunal remains (and within the latter, different species) were subjected to entirely different pre-depositional processes, a feature also noted elsewhere (Armit and Ginn 2007, 127). Dissimilarity between human and animal bone from the same features therefore does not mean that they were not associated prior to burial. Madgwick further stated that the far lower levels of exposure indicated in the human remains does not support the assertion that human remains were disposed of arbitrarily (Madgwick 2010, 75). These results suggest that the ‘special’ nature of a deposit cannot necessarily be determined from the treatment of the faunal remains.

What process or cultural practice could have created the features seen in the remains studied here? Fine cuts marks on the humerus are indicative of defleshing by scraping a blade along the shaft, and together with the fracturing at the distal end of the bone (so-called ‘dry’

fractures), this lends support to the theory of excarnation before curation or burial (Carr and Knüsel 1997). However, there is no evidence of gnawing or weathering, and although surface exposure could occur without these features (Madgwick 2010, 67; Lyman 1994, 364), the burnished surface of the remains suggests repeated handling and either retention in a protected location (such as a domestic structure) or relatively rapid deposition subsequent to modification. The cranial fragment was found within a pit which was surrounded by a trampled area. However, if the bone had itself been subject to trampling, this would have resulted in characteristic irregular scratches (Madgwick 2010, 68–69), none of which were seen, which argues that the remains were not casually discarded before making their way into the pit as an accidental or expedient disposal.

A preponderance of heads or cranial fragments is reported in the literature (Armit and Ginn 2007, 127).

Whilst it is tempting to interpret such finds as trophies taken from slain enemies, ethnographic parallels show that post-mortem modification may be a mark of respect and inclusion. Worked remains could represent the ‘treasuring of ancestral relics’ (Armit and Ginn 2007, 128), or the retention of amulets to bring good luck (Cunliffe 2005, 553). In this instance, such a carefully worked piece of bone would surely have been intended to be retained for some time, and the ‘polished’ surface of the bones would support the suggestion that this was the case.

Although the motives for the defleshing and modification of the human bone may remain a mystery, as does the meaning of the context in which it was disposed, it seems clear that the cranial fragment was of particular significance to the people who made and curated it. That the closest parallels to the type of working seen are also from Cambridgeshire may hint at a regional variation in Iron Age funerary practice.

Appendix 5

Animal Bone

Alan Pipe

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

Post-assessment analysis focused on the c. 30kg of animal bone recovered from Sites A and B. The small assemblage (c. 0.5kg) from Site C was not recorded at post-assessment level, but the chronological narrative and thematic text in this report consider the assessment-level data, which allows comparison of the recovered groups in terms of species-composition, skeletal representation, age and modification (Albion Archaeology 2010). The total animal bone assemblage is quantified in Table 14.

The bones from each context group were described and recorded on the Museum of London Archaeology (MOLA) animal bone post-assessment Oracle database, and interpreted with reference to stratigraphical data. Whenever possible, each fragment was recorded in terms of species, skeletal element, body side, age, sex, fragmentation, and modification. Evidence for age at death was derived from surface texture, epiphyseal fusion and tooth eruption and wear stages, as appropriate. Interpretations of age at death were made using data cited by Amorosi 1989, Bull and Payne 1982, Grant 1982, and Payne 1973. Pathological modifications were identified, described and interpreted using Baker and Brothwell 1980. Species and skeletal element were determined using the MOLA animal bone reference collection, together with Schmid 1972. Fragmentation was described using the numerical zone method devised at MOLA. Similarly, butchery, working, burning and gnawing were described using standard codes and conventions in use by MOLA Osteology. All fully fused, skeletally adult and well preserved bones were measured using the techniques of von den Driesch 1976.

Where possible, each bone fragment was assigned to species and skeletal element and recorded as an individual database entry; when this was impracticable due to extreme fragmentation and/or erosion, fragments were recorded at an approximate level of identification, particularly ‘cattle-sized mammal’, ‘sheep-sized mammal’, ‘sheep/goat’ and ‘long bone’. Fragments too damaged to be identified to at least these approximate levels were not recorded. In general, ‘cattle-sized’ and ‘sheep-sized’ long-bone and vertebra fragments were

only recorded when showing evidence of modification, particularly burning, tool marks, gnawing or pathological change. The chronological narrative, thematic text and tables refer to identifiable bones and only include cattle-sized and sheep-sized fragments when there is evidence of burning, gnawing or tool marks.

The chronological narrative gives a description of each context in terms of species and skeletal recovery, age-at-death, burning, gnawing, working, pathological change and stature. Where Group and context sample size is sufficient to allow further comment, faunal composition, diet, industrial activity and habitat implications are also discussed in the thematic text sections.

PRESERVATION AND QUANTIFICATION

Bone fragments from Sites A and B are generally in poor or moderate surface condition, with little difficulty experienced (unless due to fragmentation) in the identification of species, skeletal element, body side, modification, ageing evidence or measurement points. Fragmentation is extensive, with a considerable component derived from unidentifiable fragments of cattle- and sheep-sized long bones which were not recorded. A total of 599 fragments were recorded on the post-assessment database (Table 15).

Assessment-level study quantified the small assemblage from Site C as approximately 153 fragments (0.496 kg) of large mammal bone derived from Phases 1 and 2 (Albion Archaeology 2010). Preservation is generally poor or moderate, with sufficient surface damage to prevent identification of fusion state and modification. Fragmentation is extensive, with a considerable component derived from unidentifiable fragments of sheep-sized bone which were not recorded.

FAUNAL COMPOSITION

Sites A and B

The bulk of the fragment count was provided for each phase by the major mammalian domesticates, with cattle

Site	Recovery method	Weight (g)	No. fragments
Sites A and B	hand-collected	29,015	1,693
	wet-sieved	866	295
	Subtotal	29,881	1,988
Site C	hand-collected	496	153
	wet-sieved	0	0
	Subtotal	496	153
Total		30,377	2,141

Table 14: Size of faunal assemblage

Common name	Taxonomic name	Phase				Total
		3	3.5	4	5	
Ox (cattle)	<i>Bos taurus</i>	132		147	32	311
Cattle-sized		27		36	1	64
Sheep	<i>Ovis aries</i>	4		2		6
Sheep/goat	<i>Ovis aries/Capra hircus</i>	42	1	46	1	90
Sheep-sized		13	1	3		17
Pig	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	7	1	21		29
Dog	<i>Canis lupus familiaris</i>	2		4		6
Horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	25		46	1	72
Deer, red	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>			3		3
Bear, brown	<i>Ursus arctos</i>	1				1
Total		253	3	308	35	599

Table 15: Animal bone from Phases 3–5 by fragment count

Common name	Taxonomic name	Phase			
		3	3.5	4	5
Ox (cattle)	<i>Bos taurus</i>	52.2		47.7	91.3
Cattle-sized		10.7		11.7	2.9
Sheep	<i>Ovis aries</i>	1.7		0.6	
Sheep/goat	<i>Ovis aries/Capra hircus</i>	16.7	33.3	14.9	2.9
Sheep-sized		5.1	33.3	1.0	
Pig	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	2.8	33.3	6.8	
Dog	<i>Canis lupus familiaris</i>	0.8		1.3	
Horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	9.9		14.9	2.9
Deer, red	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>			1.0	
Bear, brown	<i>Ursus arctos</i>	0.4			
Total		100	100	100	100

Table 16: Faunal composition of Phases 3–5 by percentage of fragment count

dominating Tables 15 and 16). The assemblage includes ox (cattle), sheep, sheep/goat, pig, horse, and dog, with no definite identification of goat. No fish, amphibians, poultry, scavengers or commensal species were recovered. Evidence of game/wild mammals is limited to one fragment of bear (probably brown bear) from water pit G69 (Phase 3) and three fragments of red deer (mandible, scapula and antler) from enclosure G49 (Phase 4).

Brown bear is mainly a forest species today, although its primary habitat may have been different in the Iron Age, and even now can extend to open tundra in the north and to open pastures above the tree-line in mountainous areas. Although indigenous to the British Isles and occasionally recovered from southern English archaeological sites of all periods, archaeological evidence suggests that it became increasingly rare throughout the Neolithic and was probably extinct after the Roman period. Red deer is the largest indigenous deer species in the British Isles, originally living in open deciduous woodland, although they have now spread to open moorland and mountains (Corbet and Ovenden 1980, 202; Arnold 1993, 128–9). They are commonly recovered from southern British archaeological sites of all periods and are still of major importance as a 'game' and trophy species and as a source of antler and skin for use as raw materials.

Site C

The identifiable component of this small and poorly-preserved assemblage derives from cattle and pig, with a substantial group of unidentifiable sheep-sized bone fragments from drove-way G12 (Phase 2).

DIET

For each phase, the fragment counts indicate a meat diet predominantly derived from beef, mutton and pork, with at most only very minor contributions of wild mammal 'game', *i.e.* brown bear and red deer. The absence of fish, poultry, wild 'game' birds and smaller species of game mammal may reflect genuine dietary bias — perhaps through feasting on prized reared animals rather than foraged game — or merely that generally severe fragmentation and rather poor preservation have limited the survival of more fragile bones. This is also implied by the substantial 'background noise' component of unidentifiable broken cattle- and sheep-sized fragments of long bones that are present in most context assemblages. Comparison of the relative recovery of skeletal areas for cattle, sheep/goat and pig from Phases 3, 4 and 5 shows little variation between phase and species.

The Phase 3 water pits show a marked emphasis on the recovery of cattle, with relatively minor representation of sheep/goat and pig. Although the majority of the skeleton is represented within the cattle group, much of the emphasis is on mandible, upper and lower foreleg and hind leg, and metapodial (foot), with comparatively much smaller numbers of skull, maxilla and horn core, and hardly any phalanges (toe joints). Sheep/goat bones show definite bias towards the head and upper and lower leg, and pig largely towards the head and upper limb. Ditch fills from Phase 3 show a far smaller assemblage, with recovery largely of cattle head, vertebra, upper and lower hind leg, and hind foot, plus sheep/goat upper and lower hind leg. The larger Phase 4 assemblage derived almost entirely from ditch fills, with marked emphasis on cattle mandible, upper foreleg and hind leg, and metapodial; sheep/goat mandible and lower foreleg and hind leg; and pig mandible and upper foreleg. The much smaller assemblage from the Phase 4 pits mainly comprises cattle mandible, upper and lower foreleg and hind leg, and foot. Finally, the small Phase 5 group consists mainly of cattle mandible and upper and lower leg, in particular from pits G76 and G86.

For all phases and feature types, there was a marked bias in skeletal recovery towards the mandibles, upper and lower forelegs and hind-legs, and feet. The areas range in meat-bearing quality from excellent to moderate and poor, but all show a bias towards skeletal components of the greatest robustness. Recovery of horn core was extremely sparse, if not negligible for both cattle and sheep/goat, while recovery of phalanges was negligible for cattle, sheep/goat and pig from all deposits. Although small, phalanges are extremely robust, and their virtual absence from the assemblage of major domesticates, together with the negligible recovery of horn cores, may suggest a real absence of these elements from the deposits. This perhaps suggests that waste associated with horn-preparation and -working, skinning, and hide-preparation was deposited elsewhere, and that these sampled features received butchery and consumption waste, in addition to smaller but occasionally significant groups of non-consumed domesticates.

The assemblage for each phase also derives almost entirely from adults and juveniles, with adult bones tending to predominate (Tables 17 and 18). No foetal or neonate animals were recovered, and the only examples of infants are infant sheep/goat from Phase 3 water pit G69 and Phase 4 enclosure ditch G49, and infant calf from Phase 4 pit G52, as indicated by epiphyseal fusion. Dental eruption and wear also indicate a very young pig in the first six months of life from G49. In general, dental evidence indicates that cattle and sheep/goat were represented by a range of age-groups including animals in at least the fourth year, with fewer examples in the first, second and third year. This suggests that the consumption of animals generally took place after they had fulfilled a primary function, *e.g.* dairying or wool production. Again, it should be stressed that the general lack of recovery of more fragile bones — probably a function of fragmentation and poor preservation — may be at least partially responsible for an apparent bias towards fully adult and even old animals.

There are seven instances of burning (Table 18). Five fragments are charred black, indicating combustion at a temperature of 400–700 degrees Celsius (Lyman 1994,

Phase	Group	Taxon	Bone	Wear stages (Grant 1982)	Wear stages (Payne 1973)	Age estimate (yrs)
3	69	cattle	mandible	M2/14; M3/9		3.0–4.0
		cattle	mandible	M3/12		>3.0
		cattle	mandible	PM4/11; M1/15; M2/15; M3/12		>3.0
		cattle	mandible ×2	PM4/12		>4.0
		cattle	mandible	PM4/12; M3/7		3.0–4.0
		cattle	mandible	dpm4/11; M1/5		0.5–1.0
		pig	mandible	M1/14; M2/13; M3/11		>3.0
		cattle	mandible	dpm4/16		2.0–3.0
		sheep/goat	mandible	PM4/10; M1/12	PM4/10; M1/13	3.0–4.0
		dog	maxilla	M3/6		
4	99	cattle	mandible	dpm4/14; M1/9; M2/2		1.0–2.0
		sheep/goat	mandible	M3/8	M3/8	2.0–3.0
	29	cattle	mandible	PM4/12; M1/16; M2/15; M3/15		3.0–4.0
		cattle	mandible	M1/16; M2/15; M3/14		>4.0
	49	cattle	mandible	PM4/11; M1/15; M2/14; M3/12		3.0–4.0
		sheep	mandible	dpm4/11; M1/11	dpm4/10; M1/12	0.5–2.0
		pig	mandible	M1/5		0.0–0.5
		pig	maxilla	M3/10		2.5–3.0
	51	cattle	mandible	M3/8		3.0–4.0
		cattle	mandible	M3/10		3.0–4.0
		pig	maxilla	M3/8		2.5–3.0
		dog	mandible	M1/6		
	52	cattle	mandible	PM3/3		1.5–2.0
		pig	mandible	M1/10; M2/6; M3/2		1.5–2.0
	62	cattle	mandible	dpm4/14		2.0–3.0
	70	cattle	mandible	PM4/12; M1/15; M2/16		>4.0
		pig	maxilla	M3/7		2.0–2.5
	100	pig	maxilla	M3/8		2.5–3.0
5	76	cattle	mandible	PM4/11; M1/15; M2/14		>4.0
	81	cattle	mandible	M3/15		>4.0

Table 17: Dental eruption, wear evidence and age estimates (after Bull and Payne 1982; Payne 1973; and Grant 1982)

Phase	Group	Taxon	Bone	Modification	Description
3	68	cattle	humerus	butchery	chopped mid-shaft
		cattle-size	long bone	burning	calcined
	69	cattle	scapula	butchery	chopped transverse
		cattle	radius ×2	butchery	split midline
		horse	innominate	pathology	?abscess posterior margin
		sheep/goat	radius	burning	charred black
		sheep/goat	radius	working	polished/groove medial mid-shaft
		bear, brown	femur	butchery	knife-cut mid-shaft
		bear, brown	femur	gnawing	canine/slight
		cattle	mandible	burning	charred black
4	71	cattle	tibia	butchery	chopped distal
	78	cattle	horn core	working	chopped proximal
	99	cattle	innominate	butchery	chopped acetabulum
		cattle	innominate	butchery	chopped transverse
		cattle	metacarpal	butchery	split midline
		cattle	mandible	butchery	chopped proximal
		cattle	metacarpal ×2	gnawing	canine/severe
		cattle	metatarsal	gnawing	canine/moderate
		cattle	radius	gnawing	canine/severe
		cattle	humerus	gnawing	canine/moderate
		cattle	humerus	gnawing	canine/severe
		cattle	mandible	pathology	premolar 2 not erupted
		cattle-size	rib	gnawing	canine/moderate
		sheep	metatarsal	working	?whistle
		sheep/goat	vertebra, axis	butchery	chopped anterior
		sheep/goat	vertebra, cervical	butchery	chopped posterior
		sheep/goat	scapula	burning	charred black
		sheep/goat	tibia	pathology	partially-healed break mid-shaft
	51	pig	mandible	butchery	chopped posterior
5	62	sheep/goat	astragalus	burning	calcined white/grey
	65	sheep-size	long bone	burning	charred black
	76	cattle	horn core	working	chopped proximal
	81	cattle	sesamoid	burning	charred black

Table 18: Modifications to faunal assemblage

386), but two are calcined and may have been heated at higher temperatures. One fragment (Phase 3 water pit G68) indicated a minimum combustion temperature of at least 700 degrees Celsius; the other (Phase 4 ditch G62) had been calcined grey and white, indicating a combustion temperature of at least 650 degrees Celsius. Such temperatures are at the upper end of the range attainable on a cooking fire.

NON-CONSUMED DOMESTICATES

Non-consumed mammalian domesticates — dog and, particularly, horse — are present throughout the Iron Age assemblages. These two species together provide 10.7%, 16.2% and 2.9% of the respective fragment counts for Phases 3, 4 and 5, generally greater than the counts for pig and, in the case of Phase 4, sheep/goat. Scavenger, pest and commensal species are absent from the whole assemblage, with no recovery of mice or rats. In all cases, horse and dog are represented only by individual bones or small groups, predominantly from elements of the head and foot, with no recovery of complete limbs or complete skeletons. Neither species displays tool-mark evidence indicative of butchery, bone-working or skinning.

CRAFT ACTIVITY

Apart from clear evidence of butchery, there is only very sparse and scattered evidence of manufacture, insufficient to indicate core assemblages of waste from any concentrated industrial activity.

Only two fragments of bone show tool-mark evidence for bone-working. A broken and charred fragment of sheep/goat radius from Phase 3 water pit G69 has been polished and shows grooves worn into the medial side of the mid-shaft. The grooves were themselves polished and worn and do not indicate tool marks associated with butchery or working. A sheep metatarsal from Phase 4 enclosure ditch G49 has been partially shaped by knife-point drilling and scraping, probably representing a partially completed whistle.

Evidence for the preliminary removal of cattle horn from the horn cores is present but not extensive. Tool-mark evidence indicates the use of heavy knife or cleaver blades to cut around the bases of single horn cores from Phase 3 pit G99 and Phase 5 pit G76, to allow the removal of the horn sheaths for further manufacture.

The fragment of red deer antler from Phase 4 ditch G49 shows no tool marks. There are no tool marks indicative of skinning or hide-preparation on any of the bones.

PATHOLOGICAL CHANGES

Recovery of evidence for pathological change was extremely sparse from all periods. Sites B and C produced no evidence for pathological change, and Site A produced only three examples. A horse innominate from Phase 3 water pit G69 shows a small area of pathological change on the dorsal surface of the ischium, perhaps resulting from a soft-tissue infection or an abscess associated with a sore due to load bearing. A cattle mandible from Phase 4 enclosure ditch G49 shows a non-pathological variation, with no development of the second premolar tooth, and a sheep/goat tibia from the same feature shows an incompletely healed break at the mid-shaft.

Phase	Group	Common name	Bone	Greatest length (mm)	Withers height (m)
3	71	cattle	astragalus	56.8	0.569
		cattle	astragalus	64.5	
		sheep	radius	141.5	
4	49	cattle	horn core	125	1.082
		cattle	astragalus	62.5	
		cattle	metacarpal	176	
		cattle	astragalus	58.8	

Table 19: Greatest lengths and stature estimates for faunal assemblage

STATURE ESTIMATES AND METRICAL DATA FOR THE MAJOR DOMESTICATES

Table 19 gives the greatest lengths for all complete, well preserved long-bones from all species, plus selected lateral lengths for complete and well preserved horse long-bones. These data can then be used to calculate estimated statures as withers (shoulder) heights. For horn cores which are fully-developed and sufficiently complete to allow measurement, the length of the outside curvature is given as 'greatest length' in Table 19.

Measurement of a complete, fully fused sheep radius from Phase 3 water pit G78 allowed calculation of an estimated withers height of 0.569 metres. A complete, fully fused cattle metacarpal from Phase 4 enclosure ditch G49 gives an estimated withers height of 1.082 metres, comparable to 1st- and 2nd-century AD examples from the City of London (K. Rielly pers. comm.). Measurement of a complete cattle horn-core, 125.0mm on the outside curvature, from the same Phase 4 ditch indicates a small shorthorn animal (Armitage 1982, 43).

LOCAL HABITATS AND EXPLOITATION OF WILD SPECIES

The chronological narrative indicates very clearly that virtually all the faunal bone evidence derives from human preparation, disposal and post-consumption waste, with a negligible component for true environmental indication. Such 'indicator' evidence usually derives from invertebrates, amphibians, birds and small mammals, particularly, although not entirely, those wet-sieved from steep-sided, open features showing a 'pit-fall trap' effect. It should also be stressed that the ecological requirements of the wild 'game' species recovered from the hand-collected and wet-sieved assemblages can have implications for the interpretation of local, or at least accessible, exploited habitats. The fact that there was no recovery of freshwater fish, amphibians or small mammals suggests that the features were probably not completely sheer-sided and did not contain permanent standing water. No pests or other commensal or scavenger species were recovered, which may suggest that there was very limited exposure of carrion and domestic refuse to potential scavenger activity, rather than eventual controlled disposal, with or without canine gnawing, into covered or otherwise inaccessible features.

There was no recovery of wild 'game' birds, and the wild mammal assemblage includes only very sparse recovery of two edible species, brown bear and red deer. Although these were highly valued wild game species,

they occur in such small numbers that it is likely that they were very occasional dietary inclusions. Indeed, the majority of the deer bones derive from the head and feet, perhaps an indication that this species was present as partially prepared hides rather than as meat. Both species prefer woodland as an ideal habitat, and their recovery again suggests that woodland was available for 'game' exploitation within economic range of the site.

In summary, the wild vertebrate fauna provides an extremely limited idea of the character of the local habitats. It suggests that there was negligible exposure of refuse that would have allowed exploitation by bird and mammal scavengers — note the absence of gnawing by rodents — and also that local habitats made minimal input both qualitatively and quantitatively to diet and the resultant faunal assemblage.

Appendix 6

Macroscopic Plant and Invertebrate Remains from Site A

Mark Robinson

INTRODUCTION

Large-scale bulk sampling was undertaken on Sites A and B at Margetts Farm for macroscopic plant and invertebrate remains. Assessment of these samples (Robinson and Pelling 2010) showed that the concentrations of carbonised plant remains (excluding charcoal) were very low or absent from all but two Iron Age samples from Site A. These two samples were subsequently analysed in detail. Waterlogged organic remains were found in some of the deeper ditches and in the water pits on Site A. Three deposits with good preservation were selected for the analysis of waterlogged macroscopic plant remains, and two of these deposits also had sufficiently high concentrations of Coleoptera to be selected for the analysis of insect remains.

METHODS AND RESULTS

Ninety samples, each of 5–10 litres of sediment, were floated onto a 0.5mm mesh and dried. The flots were scanned at up to $\times 25$ magnification under a binocular microscope. The only two samples to contain more than three of these items, from G45 and G83, were sorted in full. The waterlogged flots selected for analysis were sorted and the remains identified under a binocular microscope at up to $\times 50$ magnification. The results are given in Tables 20–24, the nomenclature following Clapham *et al.* (1987) for plants and Kloet and Hincks (1977) for Coleoptera. Drying of the waterlogged material in the flots had caused some damage to the remains, and the use of a 0.5mm sieve to catch the flots had resulted in the loss of the smallest seeds, for example *Juncus* spp. (rushes). However, it was possible to identify informative assemblages of remains. The sample from water pit G78 contained a single left elytron of the scarabaeid dung beetle *Aphodius varians* with the colour pattern of the variety *fabricii*, a large red mark on an otherwise black background. This beetle is now extinct in Britain (Allen 1967, 222–3). The seeds of *Quercus* sp. (oak) from water pit G68 were immature acorns and some had their capsules present.

INTERPRETATION

Carbonised plant remains (excluding charcoal)

The results from elongated pit G83 and one of the post-holes in structure G45, both of probable but uncertain Iron Age date (Phase 3.5), showed that cereals played a part in the economy of Margetts Farm. Both hulled *Hordeum vulgare* (six-row hulled barley) and *Triticum spelta* (spelt wheat) were sufficiently well represented in G45 to suggest that they were crops. *T. dicoccum* (emmer wheat) was not identified with certainty, and even if present, need have been no more than a volunteer

growing in one of the other cereal crops. Grain predominated in the two assemblages, but the proportion of wheat chaff was more than would be expected in a crop which had yet to have its glumes removed, let alone a fully dehusked crop. In an unthreshed crop of *T. spelta*, the ratio of glumes to grains ranges from about 1:1 to about 1 glume to 1.5 grains. However, in these samples the ratio was 1 spelt-type glume to 0.8 spelt-type grains, even though chaff is very much more vulnerable to complete combustion in a fire than cereal grain. The only weed seeds identified were a very few seeds from wild grasses that are almost grain-sized and readily escape seed-cleaning. It is therefore suggested that the assemblage resulted from the accidental burning of grain plus chaff of crops that were being heated to dehusk them. The absence of many weed seeds suggested that the crop had already been sieved after harvest. A single nutshell fragment of *Corylus avellana* (hazel) from G83 showed there was at least limited gathering of wild food resources.

With the exception of G45 and G83, carbonised plant remains (other than charcoal) were unusually sparse for a settlement. Eight other samples from Sites A and B contained very low quantities of material similar to that from the two rich samples, but there was not the background scatter of weathered cereal grains in the samples as commonly occurs on settlement sites. There was certainly no evidence for regular large-scale cereal-processing.

		Group	83	45
Grain				
Triticum cf. dicoccum Schüb.	emmer wheat			3
T. spelta L.	spelt wheat	2	12	
T. dicoccum Schüb. or spelta L.	emmer or spelt	6	55	
Hordeum sp. – hulled lateral	six-row hulled barley		7	
Hordeum sp. – hulled median	hulled barley		6	
Hordeum sp. – hulled	hulled barley		69	
Hordeum sp.	barley		6	
cereal indet.		15	352	
Total cereal grain		23	510	
Chaff				
Triticum spelta L. – glume	spelt wheat	2	33	
T. dicoccum Schüb. or spelta L. – glume	emmer or spelt	4	54	
Hordeum sp. – rachis node	barley		5	
Total cereal chaff		6	92	
Nuts				
Corylus avellana L.	Hazel nutshell	1		
Weed Seeds				
Bromus cf. secalinus L.	brome grass	2		
Avena sp.	(wild) oats		1	
weed seed indet.		1		
Total weed seeds		3	1	

Table 20: Carbonised plant remains from selected Phase 3.5 samples

		Phase Group	3 78	3 68	4 49
Ranunculus cf. repens L.	creeping buttercup		6	2	
R. parviflorus L.	small-flowered buttercup			3	2
R. S. Batrachium sp.	water crowfoot		102	54	92
Papaver rhoeas tp.	field poppy		1	3	6
P. argemone L.	long prickly-headed poppy			1	
Brassica rapa L. ssp. campestris (L.) Jan.	wild turnip				1
Capsella bursa-pastoris (L.) Med.	shepherd's purse				5
Rorippa palustris (L.) Bes.	marsh yellow-cress		8		
Viola S. Viola sp.	violet			1	
V. S. Melanium sp.	pansy		3		
Hypericum sp.	St John's wort		2		
Silene latifolia Poir.	white campion				2
Cerastium cf. fontanum Baum.	mouse-ear chickweed		1		
Stellaria media gp.	chickweed		11	13	67
S. graminea L.	stitchwort		1	1	
Sagina sp.	pearlwort			1	
Moehringia trinervia (L.) Clairv.	three-nerved sandwort		3		
Arenaria sp.	sandwort				1
Montia fontana L. chondrosperma (Fenz.) Walt.	blinks		5	1	2
Chenopodium polyspermum L.	allseed				1
C. album L.	fat hen		56	25	52
C. rubrum L.	red goosefoot		1		
Atriplex sp.	orache		1	3	17
Malva sylvestris L.	common mallow				1
Rubus fruticosus agg.	blackberry		17	5	15
Potentilla anserina L.	silverweed		4		1
P. cf. reptans L.	creeping cinquefoil		4		
Aphanes arvensis L.	parsley-piert		1	2	
A. microcarpa (B. & L.) Roth	slender parsley-piert		5	1	
Prunus spinosa L.	sloe			2	
Cornus sanguinea L.	dogwood			8	
Anthriscus caucalis Bieb.	bur chervil				17
Apium nodiflorum (L.) Lag.	fool's watercress		23		5
Pastinaca sativa L.	wild parsnip				1
Torilis sp.	hedge parsley			1	
Daucus carota L.	wild carrot			1	
Polygonum aviculare agg.	knotgrass			5	3
P. persicaria L.	red shank		27		16
P. lapathifolium L.	pale persicaria				1
Rumex acetosella agg.	sheep's sorrel		29	6	3
R. cf. conglomeratus Murr.	sharp dock		4	4	
Rumex sp.	dock		25	8	
Urtica urens L.	small nettle		5	1	
Urtica dioica L.	stinging nettle		131	23	2,939
Corylus avellana L.	hazel		1		
Quercus sp.	oak			7	
Hyoscyamus niger L.	henbane		23		26
Solanum nigrum L.	black nightshade		2		
Mentha sp.	mint		14		5
Prunella vulgaris L.	self-heal		1	1	3
Ballota nigra L.	black horehound		1		9
Lamium sp.	dead-nettle		1	3	
Galeopsis tetrahit agg.	hemp-nettle		1		
Glechoma hederacea L.	ground ivy			1	
Ajuga reptans L.	bugle		2		
Galium aparine L.	goosegrass				1
Sambucus nigra L.	elder		5	2	7
Valerianella sp.	cornsalad				1
Arctium sp.	burdock			1	1
Carduus sp.	thistle			3	133
Lapsana communis L.	nipplewort			2	3
Leontodon sp.	hawkbit				1
Picris echinoides L.	bristly ox-tongue			1	1
Sonchus oleraceus L.	sow-thistle			2	55
S. asper (L.) Hill	sow-thistle			1	16
Alisma sp.	water plantain			2	
Lemna sp.	duckweed		5	4	681
Luzula sp.	woodrush			1	
Carex sp.	sedge		31	2	1
Glyceria sp.	flote-grass		2	1	
Total			565	209	4,194

Table 21: Waterlogged seeds

		Phase Group	3 78	3 68	4 49
Bud			1	12	
Bud scale			6	25	13
Crataegus or Prunus sp.	hawthorn or sloe		2		11
Deciduous leaf fragment					2
Leaf abscission pad			1		
Rosa sp.	rose: prickles			2	
Rubus sp.	blackberry: prickles				2
Triticum spelta L.	spelt wheat: glume		1		3

Table 22: Other waterlogged plant remains

The Waterlogged Remains

Waterlogged remains were analysed from Phase 3 (middle Iron Age) water pits G68 and G78, and from the deep north-east corner of Phase 4 (later Iron Age) enclosure ditch G49. Their assemblages showed many similarities. All the features held standing water in which aquatic plants grew; indeed, the water pits had more the character of ponds rather than wells. Seeds of *Ranunculus* S. *Batrachium* sp. (water crowfoot) were abundant in all the samples. Seeds of *Lemna* sp. (duckweed) were found in all three but were particularly numerous in G49, suggesting that this minute floating-leaved plant carpeted the water of the ditch. The weevil *Tanysphyrus lemnae*, which feeds on duckweed, was the most abundant beetle from the ditch. The water pits also contained many water beetles, especially from the genus *Helophorus*, and aquatic larvae of chironomid midges.

The terrestrial components of the waterlogged assemblages were derived from many different sources. Some had apparently fallen in or been blown in from the immediate surrounds, including individual seeds from plants of wet, somewhat disturbed mud, such as *Rorippa palustris* (marsh yellow-cress) and *Polygonum persicaria* (red shank). There were also beetles from the mud that was presumably at the edge of the stagnant water, including *Georissus crenulatus* and *Platystethus cornutus* gp. Seeds of *Potentilla anserina* (silverweed), *Mentha* sp. (water mint) and *Carex* sp. (sedge) suggest that there could have been an area of marshy pasture in the splash/trample zone alongside water pit G78.

The majority of seeds from ditch G49 and a major component of the seeds in the other two assemblages were from the various disturbed-ground habitats which commonly occur on settlements. Nutrient-rich ground that had been disturbed relatively frequently was suggested by seeds of *Stellaria media* gp. (chickweed) and *Chenopodium album* (fat hen) in all three samples. Nutrient-rich ruderal habitats which had been less frequently disturbed were suggested by seeds of *Urtica dioica* (stinging nettle), which were exceptionally abundant in the enclosure ditch. Extensive stands of nettles in the vicinity of this ditch were also suggested by the occurrence of the nettle-feeding beetles *Brachypterus urticae*, *Apion urticae* and *Cidnorhinus quadrimaculatus* in this sample. Both G49 and water pit G78 contained many seeds of *Hyoscyamus niger* (henbane), a plant which is now rare in Britain but was formerly common, growing on middens and in dung-enriched soil in farmyards. Other parts of the site were perhaps almost bare ground with a sparse scattering of low plants of *Rumex acetosella* agg. (sheep's sorrel), which was well represented by seeds in G78. The Carabidae (ground beetles) from the samples included several such as *Nebria brevicollis*,

		Phase Group	3 78	4 49	Species group
Carabus sp.				1	
Nebria brevicollis (F.)			1		
Notiophilus sp.				1	
Bembidion lampros (Hbst.) or properans Step.				1	
B. genei Küst.				1	
B. obtusum Serv.			1	1	
B. guttula (F.)			1	1	
Bembidion sp.			1		
Pterostichus melanarius (Ill.)			1	1	
Calathus fuscipes (Gz.)			1	2	
Amara sp.			2	2	
Harpalus rufipes (Deg.)			1		6a
H. affinis (Schr.)			1		
Haliplus sp.				1	1
Agabus bipustulatus (L.)			1		1
Georissus crenulatus (Rossi)				1	
Helophorus aquaticus (L.)			5	1	1
Helophorus sp. (brevipalpis size)			11	3	1
Cercyon haemorrhoidalis (F.)			1		7
Cercyon sp.				1	7
Megasternum obscurum (Marsh.)			1	2	7
Hydrobium fuscipes (L.)			1	2	1
Kissister minimus (Aub.)				1	
Hister bissexstriatus F.			1	2	
Ochthebius minimus (F.)				1	1
Ochthebius sp.			1	2	1
Choleva or Catops sp.			1	1	
Silpha obscura L.			1	1	
Lesteva sp.				1	
Platystethus cornutus gp.			1	2	
P. nitens (Sahl.)				1	
Anotylus rugulosus (F.)			1		7
A. sculpturatus gp.				1	7
Stenus sp.			1	2	
Gyrohypnus atratus (Heer)			1		
Xantholinus linearis (Ol.) or longiventris Heer			3	1	
Philonthus sp.			2	1	
Tachyporus sp.				1	
Aleocharinae indet.			3	2	
Geotrupes sp.			1	1	2
Aphodius contaminatus (Hbst.)			1	2	2
A. cf. foetidus (Hbst.)				1	2
A. granarius (L.)			5	5	2
A. luridus (Ol.)			1		2
A. porcus (F.)			1		2
A. pusillus (Hbst.)			2		2
A. putridus (Fouc.)				1	2
A. rufipes (L.)			1	1	2
A. varians Duft.			1		2
Aphodius sp.			2	3	2
Onthophagus ovatus (L.)			1	1	2
Phyllopertha horticola (L.)			1		11
Agrypnus murinus (L.)			1	1	11
Melanotus erythropus (L.)			1		4
Agriotes sp.			1		11
Cantharis sp.				2	
Stegobium paniceum (L.)			1		9a
Brachypterus urticae (F.)				2	
Atomaria sp.			1	1	
Psylliodes sp.				1	
Chaetocnema concinna (Marsh.)				1	
Apion aeneum (F.)				1	
A. urticarium (Hbst.)				2	
Apion sp. (not above)			1	1	3
Sitona sp.			1		3
Alophus triguttatus (F.)			2		
Tanysphyrus lemnae (Pk.)				8	5
Cidnorhinus quadrimaculatus (L.)			1	2	
Ceutorhynchus cf. atomus Boh.				2	
C. erysimi (F.)				1	
Tychius sp.				1	
Mecinus pyraister (Hbst.)				1	
Total			73	84	

Table 23: Coleoptera

	Phase Group	3 78	4 49
Forficula auricularia L.		1	1
Heterogaster urticae (F.)		1	
Lygaeidae indet.			1
Hymenoptera indet.		1	3
Chironomidae indet. — larva		+	+
Diptera indet. — puparium		1	1

+ present

Table 24: Other insects

Pterostichus melanarius and *Harpalus rufipes*, which readily occur on weedy disturbed-ground habitats, while the weevil *Apion aeneum* from G49 confirms the presence of *Malva sylvestris* (common mallow), which was only represented by a single seed in this sample.

The insect remains, which would have been derived from a larger catchment than the macroscopic plant remains, suggested that the site was situated in a largely open landscape. There was only a single individual belonging to Species Group 4 (wood and tree-dependent Coleoptera): the beetle *Melanotus erythropus*, which occurs in rotten wood. All the samples, however, gave some evidence for the development of mixed scrub on the site, including thorny twigs of *Crataegus* or *Prunus* sp. (hawthorn or sloe), prickles of *Rosa* sp. (rose) *Rubus fruticosus* agg. (blackberry), and bud scales, along with seeds of *R. fruticosus* agg., *Prunus spinosa* (sloe), *Cornus sanguinea* (dogwood) and *Sambucus nigra* (elder). It is possible that some blackberry and elder had become established on the most neglected areas of the site. However, given the enclosure ditches on the site, it seems very likely that some of the boundaries were reinforced with hedges. The highest proportion of remains of woody plants was found in water pit G68. This sample contained some acorns, which quite possibly came from an oak tree growing next to the pit.

The scarabaeoid dung beetles of Species Group 2 — including *Aphodius contaminatus*, *A. granarius* and *A. rufipes* — were particularly abundant, comprising 30% of the terrestrial Coleoptera in water pit G78 and 20% of the terrestrial Coleoptera in ditch G49. Such high proportions of these beetles, which feed on the droppings of domestic animals on pasture, imply there were concentrations of stock either around the perimeter of the settlement, or perhaps sometimes herded into the enclosures. The Coleoptera included some grassland species, e.g. the members of Species Group 11 such as *Agrypnus murinus*, which have larvae that feed on the roots of grassland plants. Ditch G49 also contained an example of the weevil *Mecinus pyraeter*, which feeds on *Plantago lanceolata* (ribwort plantain). However, there were relatively few seeds of grassland plants, perhaps because pasture was a more distant habitat.

While there was strong evidence for the proximity of domestic animals to the waterlogged deposits, there was much less evidence from the waterlogged biological remains for the settlement itself. Woodworm beetles of Species Group 10, which readily attack structural timbers, were absent. The Lathridiidae of Species Group 8, which flourish in damp thatch and old hay and animal bedding, were also absent. However, there was a single example of *Stegobium paniceum* (bread beetle) in water pit G78, a stored-products pest of Species Group 9a. Beetles such as *Megasternum obscurum* and *Anotylus sculpuratus* gp. (Species Group 7) which occur in a wide

range of decaying organic material, including middens on settlement but also animal dung on pasture, comprised over 5% of the terrestrial Coleoptera in both samples. Although they were relatively abundant in the settlement, they need not imply accumulations of foul organic material there, since the high proportion of scarabaeoid dung beetles implied that there were many animal droppings left by domestic animals.

The waterlogged macroscopic plant-remains gave slight further evidence for crop processing at the settlement, with a few glumes of *Triticum spelta* being found in water pit G78 and ditch G49. The nutshell fragments of *Corylus avellana* in the former, however, need not even have been food waste.

DISCUSSION

The results suggest that the middle Iron Age settlement was set amidst a largely pastoral landscape, although the settlement itself had expanses of disturbed ground covered with weeds, particularly nettles. Some scrub was present, perhaps in the form of mixed hedges, and there were also a few oak trees. Although the settlement was extensive, the intensity of occupation at any one time was low. This was reflected in an absence of synanthropic insects such as the woodworm beetle that are commonly found on settlements, although one pest of grain or farinaceous products was found. Spelt wheat and six-row hulled barley were certainly being processed at the site, although the main emphasis seems to have been on the raising of domestic animals. The water pits were pond-like features in their flora and were probably used to water stock.

The samples did not give any certain evidence of significant change between Phases 3 and 4, though this may be in part due to the longevity of the Phase 3 water pits, which are likely still to have been in use when the Phase 4 enclosure was created. Differences amongst the waterlogged macroscopic plant remains were more likely to have been a reflection of the varied disturbed-ground vegetation of the settlement. For example, the assemblage from the assessment sample taken from the southern terminus of enclosure ditch G49 was dominated by seeds of *Chenopodium polyspermum* (allseed) (Albion Archaeology 2010), whereas there was only a single seed of it in the samples analysed in detail.

One characteristic that Margetts Farm shares with other middle Iron Age settlements further up the Great Ouse Valley is an absence of evidence for major crop-processing activity, despite the good suitability of the Great Ouse's gravel terraces for cereal cultivation. Large-scale sampling for carbonised remains on a settlement of similar age on the Great Ouse gravels at the Biddenham Loop likewise gave sparse results (Pelling 2008). Most of the cereal remains from the Biddenham Loop were spelt wheat but a little six-row barley was also present. It is possible that these settlements were primarily pastoral and that grain was only grown for use by the relatively few occupants.

There are other Iron Age records of the extinct dung beetle *Aphodius varians*. It was found in the Upper Thames Valley at Mingies Ditch (Allen and Robinson 1993, 138) and the remains of ten individuals were found at North Furzton, Milton Keynes, in what bizarrely appears to have been the gut contents of a toad (Robinson, unpublished report).

Appendix 7

Charred Plant Remains from Site C

Gemma Martin and D. James Rackham

INTRODUCTION AND METHODS

A total of fifty-six soil samples were processed by Jez Dubber and Alison Foster in the following manner. Sample volume and weight were measured prior to processing. The samples were washed in a 'Siraf' tank using a flotation sieve with a 0.5mm mesh and an internal wet sieve of 1mm mesh for the residue. Both residue and flot were dried, and the residues subsequently re-floated to ensure the efficient recovery of charred material. The dry volume of the flots was measured and the volume and weight of the residue recorded. In total, 575 litres of soil were processed in this way.

The residue was sorted by eye, and environmental and archaeological finds picked out, noted on the assessment sheet and bagged independently. The flot of each sample

was studied using ×10 magnifications, and the presence, abundance and species diversity of environmental finds was noted. The individual components of the samples were then preliminarily identified, and the results are summarised below in Table 25.

RESULTS

In general, the soil samples proved to be sparse in terms of environmental remains, and were not subjected to post-assessment analysis. Thirty-six of the fifty-six samples contained charred plant remains (excluding charcoal). Preservation of these remains was fair, although the cereal grain was generally corroded and distorted, which impeded identification. The cereals present included wheat and barley, and the wild species identified included *Polygonum* sp. (knotgrass), *Rumex* sp. (dock), large, indeterminate Gramineae (grasses), and *Carex* sp. (sedges).

Phase	Group	Sample no.	Sample vol. (l)	Flot vol. (ml)	Charred grain *	Cereal chaff *	Charred seed *	Comment
1	2	17	9	<1	1			Indet. cereal grain
	2	18	5	<1	1			Indet. cereal grain
	2	23	8.5	3	1		1	Wheat, barley, plum?
	2	28	10	3	1		1	Wheat, legume
	2	33	9	1	1		1	Indet. cereal grain, legume?
	2	34	7.5	6	1			Indet. cereal fragment
	2	36	12.5	1	1			Wheat
	2	39	12	<1			1	Legume
	2	40	9.5	12.5				Some 'grass-sized' culm bases and culm nodes present
	8	14	22	15.5	1		1	Barley?, hazelnut
	15	47	40	15.5	1		3	Indet. cereal grain, hazelnut shell
	19	46	10	12.5	1		2	Indet. cereal grain, hazelnut, legume
	20	52	10	1	1		1	Wheat/barley?, hazelnut
	2	9	25	205	2		1	Wheat, barley, hazelnut
		13	56	7	1		1	Legume
		14	48	8	1.5		1	Common chickweed, indet. seed/fruit
		14	50	9.5	1	1		Wheat
		17	42	20	1.5		1	Hazelnut
	18	44	8	15	1	1		Indet. cereal grain, free-threshing wheat chaff
	18	49	10	18	1	1	1	Indet. grain and chaff fragments, legume frag?
	6	25	1	9.5	1		1	Knotgrass
		25	2	10	1.5	1	1	Wheat, dock
		25	3	10	1.5	1		Barley
		25	4	9	<1		1	Legume
		25	5	10	<1	1		Wheat, barley?
		25	6	9.5	<1	1		Wheat
		25	7	9.5	1	1		Barley?
		25	8	10	1	1	1	Wheat, legume, sedge
		25	9	10	1.5	1		Barley?
		25	10	9	1	1	1	Indet. cereal grain, legume
		25	11	9	1.5	1		Wheat
		25	12	9.5	1.5	1	1	Wheat, large indet. Grass
		25	13	6	1		1	Large indet. Grass
		25	43	10	1	1		Cereal frag
		25	51	8	1.5	1	1	Indet. cereal frags, goosefoot/orache, capsule
	25	55	7	1.5	1	1		(?Raphanus sp.), leguminous seed, grass
	25	57	20	3	2		2	Indet. cereal frags, wheat chaff
								Wheat, barley, sheep's sorrel, hazelnut, legume frags?, grass

* frequency: 1=1–10; 2=11–50

Table 25: Charred plant remains from Site C

Other, edible species, which were potentially exploited as food resources, include small legumes, together with shell fragments of *Prunus* sp. (plum type) stone and *Corylus avellana* L. (hazel) nuts.

Three species of wheat were represented: *Triticum* cf. *dicoccum* (emmer type); *Triticum* cf. *spelta* (spelt type); and *Triticum* cf. *aestivum-compactum* (bread type). The identifiable barley is hulled, but no diagnostic chaff or grains were recovered which would indicate whether the barley was a two-row or six-row species. The only chaff present consisted of a free-threshing wheat rachis internode, confirming the presence of bread-type wheat; a single wheat glume base; a wheat spikelet base; and an unidentifiable chaff fragment.

Phase 1: late Neolithic to early Bronze Age

Most samples associated with Phase 1 are particularly sparse in terms of archaeobotanical remains. There is very little evidence associated with the initial construction episodes of henge G1. The infill of the internal post-holes of the monument (G2) contained a small quantity of cereal grain, including barley, emmer and bread-type wheat, as well as several small legumes and single fragments of hazelnut shell and plum stone. This material was not concentrated in any of the post-holes. Only two indeterminate cereal grains were recovered from post-hole G26.

A single sample from a pit (G8) associated with three-sided enclosure G6 produced one barley grain, several fragments of indeterminate grain and fragments of hazelnut shell. Sample 47, from a pit in G15 that was radiocarbon dated to the early Bronze Age, was one of the most productive, containing considerable quantities of grain and chaff fragments as well as numerous fragments of hazelnut shell. The samples from pits G19 and G20 also yielded fragments of hazelnut shell, and a small legume.

Phase 2: early Iron Age

Sample 25 from a pit within G9 yielded the highest concentrations of grain of all the samples. Wheat is the

dominant cultigen (with spelt type present) over barley. Two samples taken from a group of pits G18 were also some of the most archaeobotanically productive from Site C, containing grain and chaff fragments as well as numerous fragments of hazelnut shell.

Phase 6: Roman

The samples taken from bedding trenches G25 contained low densities of archaeobotanical remains. However, the greatest range of weed species on Site C was identified, albeit based on single seeds only. Wheat, primarily spelt and bread type, continues to dominate the cereal assemblages, with hulled barley occurring occasionally. Small legumes, knot grass, dock, large grasses and sedge were identified, which could easily be found in cultivated land, but are not particularly habitat-specific. This, together with the low numbers, prevents further interpretation of the archaeobotanical assemblage.

CONCLUSIONS

The evidence suggests that wheat was the dominant cultigen throughout the successive phases of activity on Site C, in particular spelt and bread type. The frequent occurrence of hulled barley also suggests that it was an important crop. However, it should be noted that in most instances only single grains represent the cereals as well as the weed species, making inferences regarding arable husbandry regimes and the detection of crop-processing activities unfeasible.

Densities from samples associated with the henge were particularly low, with only a third of the samples producing identifiable charred plant items. This may be a reflection of the function and/or location of the feature, whereby it was situated away from contemporary settlement areas and was not associated with domestic activities. The contemporary cremation deposits also contained few charred plant items. The only possible indication from Site C of nearby domestic activity comes from Phase 2: sample 25 from a pit within G9 contained a relative abundance of charred cereal grain.

Appendix 8

Charcoal and Waterlogged Wood

Rowena Gale

INTRODUCTION

Charcoal was collected by hand and also from the flotation and sieving of bulk soil samples. The hand-collected material included five fragments measuring about 10mm³. Intact segments of narrow roundwood were not present. Charcoal fragments measuring >2mm in radial cross-section were prepared for species identification. Thirty-one samples of waterlogged wood from Phase 3 water pit G69 were also submitted for species identification, the largest of which was examined by the dendrology unit in Sheffield; seventy rings were present, but the growth pattern failed to match calibrated records.

METHODOLOGY

Preservation of the charcoal was poor and, in general, the samples consisted of small, degraded fragments which were difficult to examine. The waterlogged wood included roundwood and branch/trunk wood, some of which retained bark. Although soft and degraded, the wood structure retained sufficient diagnostic information to enable identification. The outer surfaces of samples without bark were mostly abraded.

The samples were prepared using standard methods (Gale and Cutler 2000). Anatomical structures were examined using transmitted light on a Nikon Labophot-2 compound microscope at magnifications up to ×400, and were matched to prepared reference slides of modern wood. When possible, the maturity of the wood was assessed (*i.e.* heartwood/sapwood), and stem diameters were recorded for the wood samples.

RESULTS

Classification follows that of *Flora Europaea* (Tutin *et al.* 1964–80). Since anatomical differences between related

genera in the Pomoideae (*Crataegus*, *Malus*, *Pyrus* and *Sorbus*) are too slight to allow secure identification to genus level, these are grouped together.

Charcoal

The taxa identified are presented in Table 26. When a genus is represented by a single species in the British flora, it is named as the most likely origin of the wood, given the provenance and period, but it should be noted that it is rarely possible to name individual species from wood features, and exotic species of trees and shrubs were introduced to Britain from an early period (Godwin 1956; Mitchell 1974). The anatomical structure of the charcoal was consistent with the following taxa or groups of taxa:

Aceraceae. *Acer campestre* L., field maple

Betulaceae. *Betula* sp., birch

Corylaceae. *Corylus avellana* L., hazel

Fagaceae. *Quercus* sp., oak

Oleaceae. *Fraxinus excelsior* L., ash

Rosaceae. Subfamilies:

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

Prunoideae. *Prunus spinosa* L., blackthorn.

Waterlogged wood

The taxa identified and descriptions of the fragments are presented in Table 27. The following taxa or groups of taxa were named:

Fagaceae. *Quercus* sp., oak

Rosaceae. Subfamily Pomoideae, which includes *Crataegus* sp., hawthorn; *Malus* sp., apple; *Pyrus* sp., pear; *Sorbus* sp., rowan, service tree and whitebeam. These taxa are anatomically similar; one or more taxa may be represented.

Sample	Phase	Group	Provenance	<i>Acer</i>	<i>Betula</i>	<i>Corylus</i>	<i>Fraxinus</i>	Pomoideae	<i>Prunus</i>	<i>Quercus</i>
41	1	1	Backfill of henge ditch			1				24h
Hand-collected	1	1	Pits 'closing' entrance to henge							9h
23	1	2	Pit group within henge							11h
34	1	2	Pit group within henge							27h
14	1	8	Feature in corner of 3-sided enclosure			2			2	55h, 1s, 1u
47	1	15	Possible domestic focus		cf 3	2		6	8	11h, 2s
46	1	19	Possible domestic focus			5	2s	2	2	21h
16	1	26	Cremation [672], from within henge							1h, 4u
25	2	9	Possible domestic focus	19	1	14	4h, 1r, 1s	12	2	49h, 1s
44	2	18	Possible domestic focus							7h
209	3.5	93	Pit at roundhouse entrance					5	14	2h, 1s
203	4	50	Features within enclosure			2	1	24	1	21h, 1s

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

Table 26: No. of charcoal fragments identified

Context	Sample	Species	Comments
<i>Quadrant [617]</i>			
618	100	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Three fragments originating single piece, forming lathe-like sample, axially slightly wedge-shaped; length 70mm, width 25mm. Fast grown wood.
620	101	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Lathe-like fragment, axially slightly wedge-shaped. Length 65mm, max width 25mm. Moderate growth rate. Surfaces abraded.
	113	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Narrow lathe-like fragment with oblique tool-mark on one end. Length 70mm, widths 15 × 5mm. Moderate growth rate.
	114	Hawthorn/ <i>Sorbus</i> group (Pomoideae)	Roundwood. Length 35mm, diameter 13mm, tapering with long oblique tool-mark. About 8 growth rings. Bark present. ?End of rod
621	102	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Roundwood. Length 85mm, diameter 20mm, tapering slightly at one end. 12 growth rings. Bark absent, wood surface abraded
	112	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. 2 fragments from single piece, slightly wedge-shaped. Total length 120mm, widths 20 × 5mm
622	103	Hawthorn/ <i>Sorbus</i> group (Pomoideae)	Roundwood (in 2 pieces). Total length 90mm, diameter 10mm, c. 7 growth rings, some bark present
	111	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Fragment with oblique tool mark at one end – ?wood-working chip. Length 45mm, width 15mm. Probably from roundwood
623	117	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Sapwood retaining small fragment of bark. Very degraded and soft, surfaces abraded. Length 60mm, widths 40 × 15mm
	118	Unidentified bark	Irregular-shaped fragment. Length 65mm, widths 35 × 10mm
625	104	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Length 60mm, width 25mm, probably from fairly mature trunk/branch
1001	115	Hawthorn/ <i>Sorbus</i> group (Pomoideae)	Roundwood. Length 90mm, diameter 12mm including bark. 9 growth rings
<i>Quadrant [658]</i>			
637	105	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Large lump of bark with small amount of wood attached. Length 140mm, radial width 20mm, thickness 65mm. From mature trunk/branch
638	106	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Large unworked fragment of irregular shape, longest axis 110mm. Bark absent
639	107	cf. Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	3 fragments probably from single piece. Very degraded, surfaces abraded. Max length 150mm
640	108	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Unworked knotty wood of irregular shape, length: 130mm. Bark absent
641	109	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Wood fragment roughly oblong, 80 × 40 × 10mm. Bark absent, wood surface abraded but possibly part of thin plank/lathe, split tangentially. Moderate growth rate
645	119	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Twiggy piece with bases of lateral buds, length 85mm, diameter 5mm. Bark absent. 3 growth rings
	120	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Sapwood/heartwood, possibly including bark/wood interface. Length 50mm, widths 65 × 25mm. Probably from incomplete radial segment of fairly wide roundwood. 16 growth rings included, outer 12 very narrow (each <1mm)
	121	Unidentified bark	Flat chunk of bark. Length 270mm, width 100mm, thickness 10mm. From mature branch/trunk wood
646	122	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Wedge-shaped piece, length 120mm, width 30mm, thickness 15mm. Moderate growth rate. Surfaces abraded
655	123	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Length 110mm, widths 30 × 15mm. Surfaces abraded. Moderate growth rate
662	126	Unidentified bark	Length 130mm, width 45mm, thickness 20mm. From fairly mature trunk/branch
	127	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	?Sapwood. Length 90mm, width 35mm, thickness 15mm. Extremely soft and degraded
667	124	Unidentified bark	Rough outer surface. Length 75mm, width 40mm, thickness 10mm. Wood absent
	125	Unidentified bark	Length 120mm, width 25mm, max thickness 20mm. Irregular abraded surfaces. From fairly mature branch/trunk wood
683	131	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Length 120mm, width 45mm, max thickness 25mm. Probably from fairly mature wood. Growth rate slow/moderate. Surfaces abraded
1000	110	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Sapwood and heartwood. Incomplete radial segment from substantial trunk/branch. Length 60mm, radial width 190, max tangential width 80mm. c. 63 growth rings (total estimate 70–90)
	130	–	Sample sent for dendrochronology prior to id
1002	116	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Probably the base of a stake, length 55mm, max width 20mm
1003	128	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Oblong lathe-like piece with ?oblique tool-mark at one end. Length 90mm, width 25mm, thickness 10mm. Slow-moderate growth rate
1004	129	Oak (<i>Quercus</i> sp.)	Heartwood. Oblong fragment, length 65mm, widths 25 × 20mm. The morphology suggests worked wood but the wood surfaces are too abraded to show tool-marks

Table 27: Waterlogged wood from Phase 5 water pit G53

DISCUSSION

Charcoal

Phase 1: late Neolithic to early Bronze Age

Charcoal was examined from three of the post-holes (G2) located along the inner circuit of henge G1, including the one containing a cremation burial (G26). Although some charcoal was too fragmented to identify, each of these samples appeared to consist entirely of oak (*Quercus*) heartwood. Charred seeds and nutshells were also recorded from one of the G2 post-holes. Sample 41 from the henge ditch was predominantly oak, although hazel (*Corylus avellana*) was also present, while larger fragments of oak heartwood, probably originally from a single piece of charred wood, were hand-collected

from the ditch. On the assumption that the charcoal originated from activities associated with the cremation burial rather than from residual charred remains of oak posts inserted into the post-holes, there appears to have been a strong bias towards the preferential use of oak for ritual purposes. The available evidence is, however, insufficient to verify this suggestion.

Evidence of single species selection, usually oak, has been recorded from Bronze Age cremation deposits in various parts of England (Smith 2002). In many instances these are thought to be burials of some significance (perhaps related to age, gender or status) and often occur as primary burials in round barrows, as for example at Brackmills, Northamptonshire (Gale 2003), Westhampnett, West Sussex (Gale 2008), Gayhurst,

Buckinghamshire (Gale 2007) and Coton, Warwickshire (Gale 2000). In a more local context, three early Bronze Age cremation burials excavated at Barford Road, Eynesbury, St Neots, a multi-period site on the River Great Ouse just a few miles south of Margetts Farm, also indicated a strong link between the ritual and practical use of oak (Gale 2004).

Sample 14, a larger deposit of charcoal, was recovered from one of the four intercutting pits G8 at the corner of three-sided enclosure ditch G6, located just south of the henge. Although fairly abundant, much of the charcoal was too comminuted for identification. Identified material mostly consisted of oak (*Quercus*) heartwood, although hazel (*Corylus avellana*) and blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*) were also present. The origin of this charcoal is not clear, but its similarity in character to deposits from the henge may be significant.

Sample 47 was collected from one of the pair of pits G15. These pits are thought to relate to domestic occupation, a suggestion supported by the comparatively broad range of taxa identified from the charcoal deposits: oak (*Quercus*); blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*); the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae); hazel (*Corylus avellana*); and probably birch (*Betula* sp.). Charred hazelnut shell was also recovered.

Sample 46, from a pit or large post-hole in G19, included oak (*Quercus*), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae) and blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*). The character of the charcoal suggests that it almost certainly derived from domestic fuel debris; other domestic waste included charred grain, seed and nutshell. Two radiocarbon dates from this feature suggests that it dates to the late Neolithic / early Bronze Age.

Phase 2: early Iron Age

Sample 25, from one of the pits in G9 surrounding the henge (Fig. 10: a), was relatively large and produced the widest range of taxa of all the samples examined: predominantly oak (*Quercus*) heartwood, but also field maple (*Acer campestre*); hazel (*Corylus avellana*); ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*); the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae); blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*); and birch (*Betula*). Charred hazelnut shell was also present.

Partially mineralised charcoal in sample 44, from a post-hole in G18, included a small quantity of oak (*Quercus*) heartwood. The origin of the charcoal is unknown, but may represent charred remains of the post.

Phase 3.5: indeterminate Iron Age

Sample 209 was taken from one of the three pits (G93) near the southern opening in ring gully G44, which was probably associated with a roundhouse. The charcoal included blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae) and oak (*Quercus*). It is probable that the charcoal originates from discarded domestic fuel debris.

Phase 4: later Iron Age

Sample 203, taken from one of the pits (G50) within enclosure G49, comprised degraded charcoal with reddish inclusions. The charcoal mainly consisted of oak (*Quercus*) heartwood and the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae) but also included small amounts of blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*) and hazel (*Corylus avellana*). Charred hazelnut shell

was also recovered. The presence of charred seeds and nutshell implies a domestic origin for the sample.

Waterlogged wood

Twenty-three of the thirty-one samples from Phase 3 water pit G69 were named as oak (*Quercus*), mostly heartwood, comprising both worked and unworked fragments. Some of these pieces may have given rise to the five bark samples. The unworked fragments were mainly irregular in shape; some pieces of roundwood retained bark. Wood surfaces of the remaining oak samples were generally abraded; tool-marks were recorded on samples 111 (?woodchip), 113 and 128 (the last two both lathe-like pieces). Samples 100 and 101 were also lathe-like, whereas sample 116 could have been the base of a stake.

Samples 103, 114 and 115 included short lengths of roundwood, 10–13mm in diameter (seven to nine growth rings), from the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae). A long, oblique tool-mark at one end of sample 114 demonstrated that it had been cut by slashing. While these samples could represent coppice growth, for example from hurdles or basketry, there was insufficient evidence to substantiate this suggestion.

It is possible that some of these samples originated from structural elements such as posts or stakes associated with the water pit, which subsequently collapsed into the feature. Some natural or incidental accumulations of wood probably also occurred. In view of the paucity of local woodland (see below), it seems less likely that potential firewood would have been dumped in the feature. The mix of both worked and unworked wood, including a possible woodchip, could imply that this was a working area, perhaps involving the conversion of timber and/or carpentry.

Environmental evidence — charcoal and waterlogged wood

The excavated areas at Margetts Farm are located on river gravel terraces close to the River Great Ouse. During occupation of the site, the land surface was generally flat, probably lying mostly at 12–15m OD. In a natural environment such as this, one could anticipate the presence of damp-loving species on the lower ground, such as willow (*Salix*), poplar (*Populus*), alder (*Alnus glutinosa*), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*) and elm (*Ulmus*), with taxa preferring well drained soils on the higher ground. Evidence from the charcoal analysis suggests that established woodland communities such as this may have flourished in the earlier phases, if somewhat sparsely. A study of the river gravels along the River Great Ouse, however, suggests that deforestation of the region in favour of agriculture was more or less complete by the late Neolithic (French and Wait 1988).

Charcoal samples from the late Neolithic to early Bronze Age (Phase 1) were mostly collected from deposits associated with henge G1 on Site C. The selection of wood fuel for ritual purposes, probably including the pyre structure, appears to have been strongly biased in favour of oak (*Quercus*). Although the samples examined demonstrate that this material was obtained from relatively mature oak woodland, they fail to provide a true picture of the character of woodland composition extant in the area. However, deposits from contemporary domestic features such as pits G15 produced evidence for a wider range of species, thus providing a more accurate measure of woodland taxa in the locality. In

addition to oak, these included hazel (*Corylus avellana*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae), blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*) and probably birch (*Betula*). Similar taxa were recovered from domestic features dating to the early Iron Age (Phase 2), with the addition of field maple (*Acer campestre*) and the confirmation of birch (*Betula*).

The wood deposits from Phase 3 (middle Iron Age) water pit G69 on Site A suggest that both oak (*Quercus*) and the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae) grew in the close vicinity. Charcoal from features assigned to Phases 3.5 (indeterminate Iron Age) and 4 (later Iron Age) indicates access to taxa including oak (*Quercus*), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), the hawthorn/*Sorbus* group (Pomoideae) and blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa*). This charcoal probably originated from domestic debris, although the pollen evidence (Appendix 9) suggests that the wood may have been imported from

where it was growing at some distance from the site. Evidence from charcoal deposits at the comparable sites of Little Paxton and Barford Road, Eynesbury, located on the river gravels to the south of Margetts Farm, identified a similar range of taxa, with the addition of willow (*Salix*) and/or poplar (*Populus*), alder (*Alnus glutinosa*), and purging buckthorn (*Rhamnus cathartica*) at Barford Road (Gale 1999; Gale 2004).

As indicated above, several of the wood samples recovered from water pit G69 may have been associated with woodworking activities or carpentry waste and, if so, demonstrate a preference for oak wood for economic purposes. Although there was no direct evidence from either the charcoal (which was too fragmented) or wood samples to implicate woodland management, it is probable that woodland resources, especially materials for construction, firewood and charcoal-production, were sustained through coppicing and/or pollarding.

Appendix 9

Pollen

Gill Cruise

INTRODUCTION

Three cores were obtained from waterlogged, organic layers in a middle Iron Age water pit G78 (Phase 3), the northern terminal of later Iron Age enclosure ditch G49 (Phase 4) and a late Iron Age water pit G76 (Phase 5). A palynological assessment on one sub-sample from each core found good pollen preservation in all of the samples (Albion Archaeology 2010).

METHODS

The cores were opened, examined, described and sub-sampled. Samples were selected from the deposits that appeared to be the most organic, least disturbed and lacking in stony or sandy inclusions. Pollen preparations were carried out at University of Wales, Lampeter and University College, London, where they were prepared following the methods described in Moore *et al.* (1991). Estimates of pollen concentrations and pollen preservation characteristics are based on the methods and criteria outlined in the published literature (Delcourt and Delcourt 1980; Stockmarr 1971). Pollen identifications are based on Moore *et al.* (1991) and modern reference material. Pollen counts are a minimum of 300 pollen and spores. Some pollen grains were too badly deteriorated for identification, so were recorded as unidentifiable. The slides were also scanned for pollen types which may have been missed during routine counting, and these were recorded as single occurrences. Pollen nomenclature is based upon Moore *et al.* (1991), Stace (1991) and Bennett *et al.* (1994).

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Pollen percentage, concentration and preservation data are shown in Table 28. The taxa are organised in very general groupings of trees and tall shrubs; taxa mainly indicative of grassland environments; taxa mainly indicative of cultivated or disturbed soils; ferns; obligate aquatics and taxa usually associated with moist soils; and a small number of unknown taxa. The results contain very low arboreal percentages in general, with each of the pollen spectra being overwhelmingly dominated by herbaceous taxa usually (although not exclusively) associated with grassland, especially grasses (Poaceae), Lactuceae (dandelion family) and a range of other grassland taxa such as *Centaurea nigra* t., *Plantago lanceolata*, Fabaceae (*Trifolium* t., *Vicia* t.), *Ranunculus* t., and *Rumex*. Cereal-type pollen is present in all samples at low frequencies, along with a very small number of pollen types that may be associated with disturbed soils.

The highest arboreal frequencies occur in the large water pit G78, with 4% *Quercus robur* t. (oak) and 2% *Corylus* t. (hazel). It is known that there is a direct

relationship between the size of a feature and its pollen catchment area (*e.g.* Jacobson and Bradshaw 1981), thus it is to be expected that a large water pit would contain a slightly higher proportion of extra-local and regional pollen than a smaller water pit, for example. For this reason, the slightly higher tree frequencies recorded in this sample are not considered to be significant in terms of the immediate environment of the settlement. Overall, the pollen frequencies indicate little local woodland. Similarly, the large water-pit sample also contains the highest percentage of cereal-type pollen (3% of the count). As this record is not associated with a higher proportion of pollen types of arable weeds, it is unlikely to relate to cultivation or crop processing close to the pit. Instead, it is more likely to have been introduced to the pond sediments by livestock, either in dung or by being trampled in.

The best pollen preservation is found in the sample from enclosure ditch G49, where pollen concentrations in particular are around five times richer than in either of the water-pit samples (Table 28). Such good pollen-preservation, together with a very high proportion of grassland pollen types (88% of the count) — including not only grasses and Lactuceae but also *Plantago lanceolata* t., *Lotus* t. and *Centaurea nigra* t. — is strongly indicative of the presence of dung/stabling-waste within the ditch (*cf.* Macphail *et al.* 2004). This is consistent with the recovery of dung beetles from the ditch (Appendix 6).

Pollen preservation is far more variable in the sample from water pit G76, with pollen grains that are highly deteriorated occurring alongside others that are in pristine condition. This variability of preservation suggests a variety of provenances for the pollen grains, including silting-in of the pit and re-working of older pollen grains, dumping, and wind-blown or dung-deposited pollen. In this sample, there are slightly more bracken (*Pteridium*) spores than in the other samples (7%). These spores are well preserved and do not suggest re-working or dumping. A large amount of microscopic charcoal was also observed on the slide from this sample; the association of bracken spores with a large amount of charcoal may be coincidental but may also be interesting, as it is known that *Pteridium* colonises burnt ground (Page 1976).

DISCUSSION

The Iron Age Environment

Low frequencies of arboreal pollen indicate that the immediate vicinity of the terrace had been deforested before the Iron Age settlement was established. The pollen percentages are indicative of woodland at some distance from the site and at the regional scale, where there would have been mixed oak-hazel (*Quercus-Corylus* t.) woods, with alder (*Alnus*) and willow (*Salix*) in low-lying areas and *Fraxinus* on base-rich soils.

Interestingly, there are few indications of scrub or small copses and hedgerows. The occurrence of only one

Samples	G78	G49	G76
Trees and tall shrubs			
<i>Acer</i>			+
<i>Alnus</i>	1		1
<i>Betula</i>		+	
<i>Corylus</i> t.	2	+	+
<i>Crataegus</i> t.		+	
<i>Fraxinus</i>	+		+
<i>Pinus</i>	+		1
<i>Quercus robur</i> t.	4		1
<i>Salix</i>		1	
<i>Solanum dulcamara</i> t.		+	
Total trees and shrubs	8	2	5
Taxa mainly of grassland			
Apiaceae		+	+
Asteraceae (<i>Achillea</i> t.)	1	1	1
Caryophyllaceae (<i>Lychnis viscaria</i> t)	1		+
Caryophyllaceae undiff.		+	+
<i>Centaurea nigra</i> t.		1	+
<i>Fabaceae</i> undiff.	+		
Lactuceae	8	22	27
<i>Linum catharticum</i> t.			+
<i>Lobelia/Digitalis</i> t.		+	
<i>Lotus</i> t.		1	+
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i> t.	4	21	4
<i>Plantago major</i> t.		+	
<i>Plantago</i> undiff.		+	
Poaceae	57	35	36
<i>Ranunculus</i> t.	2	1	2
<i>Rumex acetosa</i> t.	2	+	+
<i>Rumex oxyria</i> t.			+
<i>Trifolium</i> t.	+	1	
<i>Veronica</i> t.	+		+
<i>Vicia</i> t.	+	+	+
Total grassland taxa	78	88	74
Taxa mainly of cultivated/disturbed soils			
Cereal t.	3	1	1
Chenopodiaceae	+	1	1
<i>Hornungia</i> t.	+		
<i>Polygonum</i> t.	1	1	4
<i>Sinapis</i> t.	+	+	+
<i>Urtica</i> t.		+	
Total disturbed soil taxa	5	4	7
Ferns			
<i>Ophioglossum</i> t.	+		
<i>Pteridium</i>	3	1	7
<i>Pteropsida</i> (mon.) indet.	+	+	+
Sphagnum			+
Aquatics and taxa mainly of moist soils			
<i>Apium inundatum</i> t.	+		
Cyperaceae	2	2	4
<i>Filipendula</i>		+	+
<i>Lemna</i>	1	+	1
<i>cf. Nymphaea</i>	+		
Unknowns	+	+	+
Total pollen and spores counted	302	324	325
Pollen and spore concentrations per cm³			
	105,213	588,928	108,697
Pollen preservation (% of the count)			
Normal	47	57	45
Crumpled	10	5	5
Corroded	3	1	1
Degraded	35	33	45
Split	5	4	4

+ = <1%

record each for *Crataegus* t. and *Solanum dulcamara* t. in ditch G49 and two for *Acer* in water pit G76 suggests very few isolated hedgerows/copses or distant open wood edges. This is in contrast to the macrofossil evidence for scrub development and charcoal of Pomoidaeae species (Appendix 8). These differences in the various botanical records are normally interpreted as evidence that such open woodland, copse or hedgerow resources were largely absent from the pollen catchment area of the site itself, but would have been exploited further afield and imported onto the site. Instead, the pollen data indicate that more locally, the terrace was dominated by herb-rich grassy communities (Poaceae, Lactuceae, *Plantago lanceolata* t., Fabaceae, *Centaurea nigra* t. etc.) possibly akin to some of the mesotrophic grasslands described as being typical of lowland Britain (e.g. Rodwell, 1992). Moist clay soils and low-lying areas close to the edges of water pits may have included *Ophioglossum*, *Apium inundatum* t. Cyperaceae and *Filipendula*. Bracken (*Pteridium*) and *Linum catharticum* t. are suggestive of freely-draining grassland on a mosaic of acid and calcareous soils. Both *Pteridium* spores and bracken fronds have been recovered (Robinson and Pelling 2010), together suggesting the probability that bracken would have been locally present on the freely draining terrace soils.

There are indications of areas of nutrient enrichment such as dung or stock trampling around the water pits, as suggested by Chenopodiaceae, *Polygonum* t. and *Urtica*.

Iron Age economy

A preponderance of grassland pollen types is consistent with a predominantly pastoral economy. There is a probability that the settlement was well located with regard to exploiting a range of grassland types ranging from the free-draining terrace soils to more moist, clay-rich and lower-lying valley soils. This may have allowed the seasonal exploitation of summer, wetter pastures as well as the harvesting of hay for winter feed.

Given the small number of pollen samples, it is not possible to specify whether or not the association of *Pteridium* with a large number of microscopic charcoal fragments on the slide from water pit G76 is significant. It could be coincidental, but does raise the question of some form of possible pasture-management by burning during the later phases of Iron Age occupation.

The existence of arable farming is evidenced by records of cereal-type pollen, but the occurrences of accompanying pollen types of arable weeds are too few to be consistent with cereal- or straw-processing within the vicinity of the three sampling positions. Areas of nutrient enrichment such as dung or stock-trampling around watering holes are suggested by Chenopodiaceae, *Polygonum* t. and *Urtica*. While such taxa are present, however, they are relatively infrequent, which might suggest an absence of major dung heaps as might be associated with a system of intensive stable/byre-management. A more extensive system of animal management is more likely.

CONCLUSIONS

By the Iron Age, deforestation was complete: it was an open grassland landscape with woodland located at some distance away. Resources associated with woodland edge and scrub communities would not have been locally

Table 28: Pollen percentage, concentration and preservation data

available and would have had to have been imported to the site from outside. There was, however, the possibility of exploiting a variety of grassland types including mesotrophic, free-draining acid, and calcareous grassland, as well as clay and lower-lying grassland communities. There were some areas of nutrient enrichment, but these were not as extensive as might have occurred if major

dung heaps had been present. Instead, it is probable that there was a more extensive form of stock-management such as free-range grazing.

Arable farming and cereal-processing does not appear to have occurred within the catchment area of the three sampled features, although it is clear that cereals and/or straw were used.

Appendix 10

Aerial Photographs

Rog Palmer and Lucie Culikova

INTRODUCTION

Five aerial photographic assessments were undertaken of parts of the study area between 1992 and 2003 (Palmer 1992a, 1992b, 1992c and 2003; Palmer and Bacilieri 2001). This summary draws them together and they have been checked and revised for those areas investigated on the ground by Albion Archaeology and in modern fields previously unmapped. The opportunity has also been taken to reconsider the aerial photographic evidence for palaeochannels that may have influenced past settlement location and the recent survival and visibility of remains.

Aerial photographs do not always show sub-surface archaeological and non-archaeological features, as is demonstrated by the fragmentary nature of the recorded evidence within the study area. The soils in this area are gravel-based, being a mixture of marine and river deposits (soil associations 571s and 571u: SSEW 1983) and are well drained. At appropriate times of the year and with favourable weather conditions, suitable crops on these soils should indicate sub-surface variations, such as ditch-defined archaeological features, through variations in growth.

SOURCES OF PHOTOGRAPHS

The aerial photographic assessments used photographs from the Cambridge University Collection of Aerial Photographs (CUCAP) and the National Monuments Record (NMR), plus any taken and held by AirPhoto Services. For the areas excavated at Margetts Farm, those photographs were re-examined during the compilation of the area map, as were additional photographs that had been added to the NMR collection since the original assessments. Images available on Google Earth in November 2011 were also examined. All photographs examined are listed in the original reports, and the most informative of those that the excavation areas are listed at the end of this appendix.

PHOTO INTERPRETATION AND MAPPING

The available photographic prints were examined by eye and under slight (2×) magnification, viewing them as stereoscopic pairs when possible. Use of a stereoscope recreates the dimension of height and adds confidence to any interpretation. This has been standard practice for all the assessments in this area. Other methods have improved with time, and since the first aerial photographic assessment was completed in 1992, there have been changes in computer software transformation methods and also in the ways in which the NMR allows members of the public to handle and examine their photographic prints. Revision of aerial photographs for this report was carried out by Lucie Culikova as part of her advanced training supported by the Culture 2007–2013 Programme of the European Union. Final compilation and checking was by Rog Palmer.

The method used for the five assessments was that interpretations were marked on overlays to individual prints, following procedures described by Palmer and Cox (1993). These overlays were then scanned and transformed to match the 1:2500 base map using Irwin Scollar's AirPhoto program (Scollar 2011).

The NMR no longer permits the use of overlays but does allow the use of hand-held cameras to photograph prints in their collection, and this was done for the recent revision of the study area. These provided immediate digital copies of photographs, but they are slightly inferior in quality to the original prints and to scans made from them. Photographs from CUCAP were obtained as scans from prints. All photographs were examined and a selection made of those that offered new information or whose reinterpretation seemed worthwhile using the technology now available. These were transformed as images using AirPhoto and imported into the combined map in AutoCAD Map, where they were overdrawn using standard conventions while making reference to the original photographs. The resulting Figure 2 provides a level of context for the excavated sites, although it shows only a small area of past settlement and land-use in the Great Ouse Valley.

ACCURACY

In all cases the scale of the base maps was 1:2500, allowing interpretation to be made at an accuracy and with a level of detail suitable for this scale (Palmer and Cox 1993; Palmer 2011, 287). When control information was adequate this produced matches in the region of ± 1.5 to 2 metres, except for the small group of features between Sites A and C (Fig. 2), which may be inaccurately positioned by some 15–20 metres. Photographs transformed for this revision all returned matches of control points of less than ± 1.5 m.

COMPARISON OF AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHIC PLAN WITH THAT FROM EXCAVATION

Layers in the digital data held by Albion Archaeology enable comparison of the location of features as obtained after transformation of aerial photographs and as recorded on the ground. In all three excavated areas there were small but fairly consistent shifts in one direction that make it likely either that the differences are due to not using the same fixed points as a base or, more probably, that they show mismatches in the 'absolute' positions as mapped at some date in the past by the Ordnance Survey and as measured using Differential GPS during the excavations. Unless control points are surveyed using modern satellite technology, transformation of aerial photographs is usually matched to points identified on large-scale (1:2500) Ordnance Survey plans on which absolute location is based on earlier manual triangulation and measured survey.

Other causes of slight misplacement of features result from using highly oblique aerial photographs on which archaeological features are seen as differences on the surface of crops. After transformation, these will be given a ground location that is away from the camera position and relative to the height of the crop and the tangent of the angle of obliquity. Differences of this kind may be observed when using two or more photographs that have been taken from different directions, which may result in a site's being transformed in two slightly different but overlapping locations. At Margetts Farm, measured differences in location ranged from an almost-perfect match with ground-planned features to just under 3m at the ring gully in Site B.

BIAS IN AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHS

In general terms, aerial photographs record windows in a past landscape whose transparency is dependent on modern farming practices, the date of photography and, in the case of hand-held photographs, the perception and interests of the airborne observer (Brophy and Cowley 2005). The Great Ouse Valley has been a focus of attention for local observers since the late 1940s, but that does not mean that our archaeological knowledge from the air is complete. In addition to the previously mentioned biases, other 'blank' zones can be caused by deposits of alluvium that cover earlier archaeological features and whose depth does not enable crops to respond over, for example, buried ditches. Such deposits are also a handicap to geophysical surveys. The original reports for the study area showed local pockets of 'deeper soil', as it is valuable to the field investigator to know where aerial photographs are unable to record archaeological information. These have been omitted from the overview figure because their partial nature is unhelpful when trying to comprehend the greater picture of past land-use.

FEATURES MAPPED

Archaeological

Based on the aerial photographic evidence, changes in past uses of the landscape may be described in the following general terms.

Ring ditches in this part of the Great Ouse Valley show evidence of Neolithic and Bronze Age ritual or ceremonial activity, as is common elsewhere in similar riverside locations in this part of England, for example at Maxey-Etton near Peterborough where such features were located within 200m of contemporary watercourses (French *et al.* 1992). Circular ditches identified at Sites B and C were interpreted respectively through excavation as an Iron Age roundhouse (Phase 4) and a henge (Phase 1). A further probable roundhouse excavated at Site A and a second on Site B were not visible as crop-marks.

Later prehistoric and Roman activity can be identified within much of the study area as a series of ditched divisions and tracks. In the southern part of the area these are fairly sinuous and thus may be pre-Roman. The overall trend of land division seen in these fragments of ditches is terrain-following, as they were dug either parallel to the River Great Ouse or at right angles to it. The two enclosures excavated at Site A may have been part of this greater system of land division.

In the northern part of the study area, in and adjacent to Site C, the ditches are straighter and imply a more

rigorously-planned landscape of fields and unusually broad drove-ways. Parts of these ditches were excavated within Site C, and the excavated evidence suggests a pre-Roman date for the establishment of this field system (see Phase 2).

Some photographs hint at the presence of ridge and furrow over much of the study area, which was confirmed by excavation. The fact that evidence for medieval cultivation is so degraded suggests that the ridges and furrows on this gravel subsoil were fairly insubstantial, and/or that post-medieval cultivation has been sufficiently abrasive to remove all but the lower parts of the furrows. Most of what was mapped survived in earthwork form on post-war aerial photographs, but there is little evidence for it on later photographs.

Natural

The radar surface map available at Cambridgeshire County Council shows the Great Ouse Valley to be a major depression some 1.5 km wide in the area of Margetts Farm. The drop in height from adjacent clay edges is some 20m, and the study area is in this low-lying valley. Vertical photographs taken on 25th March 1947, as floods were subsiding, show the valley to include a number of smaller channels, aligned roughly north-south, that are likely to indicate former courses of the Great Ouse. On those photographs, these channels appear darker in tone and may thus be damper than the surrounding land. No difference in height was apparent when examining them stereoscopically, although minor differences may be detectable on the ground. The channels have been included on Figure 2 as they provide one level of context for the archaeological features, although its meaning is uncertain. Some archaeological features appear to be located in, or on, the channels (*e.g.* many features adjacent to Site C), while others — such as the ring ditch at TL20636643 — may have been located specifically to exploit changes in micro-topography created by the channels. The dates at which these channels were active watercourses are currently unknown, but they appear likely to predate any of the archaeological activities identified on aerial photographs.

The feature shown as deeper soil within Site A site appears as a dark band in crops on aerial photographs taken on dates when darker crops indicated deeper sub-surface features. No continuation of this feature has been identified in fields immediately north or south, but the inclusion of the major palaeochannels on the map leads to the suggestion that this narrow band may have been the eastern edge of the larger channel recorded north of Site A. Within this band it is almost impossible to see any archaeological features, such as those detected by excavation, as their effect on crops merges with that indicating the dark band.

MOST INFORMATIVE PHOTOGRAPHS

Sites A and B

CUCAP: BXX46A

NMRC: TL2066/5

Site C

CUCAP: VR 8, YW 58, BIX 27, BIX29, BJB 94, BXX 48

Study-area palaeochannels

NMRC: RAF/CPE/UK/1952: 4287

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ABBREVIATIONS

BAR:	British Archaeological Reports
BCAS:	Bedfordshire County Archaeology Service
CBA:	Council for British Archaeology
CCCAFU:	Cambridgeshire County Council Archaeological Field Unit
EAA:	East Anglian Archaeology
PCAS:	Proceedings of the Cambridge Antiquarian Society
PPS:	Proceedings of the Prehistoric Society

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For thousands of years, the Great Ouse Valley has been a place where people have lived, died, and worshipped. These three elements were all evident in the prehistoric landscape identified by Albion Archaeology near Margetts Farm, Buckden, Cambridgeshire during a series of archaeological excavations in 1999–2004. The valley's Neolithic and early Bronze Age inhabitants used the land here for primarily ceremonial and funerary purposes: a henge was revealed by the excavations, as well as other monuments associated with burials and other rituals.

The later Bronze Age landscape took on a more agricultural aspect, and a people first began to settle here in the early Iron Age. Settlement was never intensive, but the presence of enclosures, roundhouses and other buildings attests to periodic occupation throughout the Iron Age. The Romans also used this area for agriculture, possible growing grapes, but no further traces of settlement were found between the Iron Age and the construction of Margetts Farm itself.



MARGETTS FARM, BUCKDEN, CAMBRIDGESHIRE

REMAINS OF A PREHISTORIC LANDSCAPE IN THE GREAT OUSE VALLEY



BY DAVID INGHAM AND JEREMY OETGEN

