Archaeological investigations at Jennett’s Park, Bracknell, Berkshire, revealed episodes of occupation spanning several thousand years. The earliest activity was a small, temporary camp, which belonged to a band of middle Bronze Age features of the date comprised three burial mounds, two waterholes, two trough-like pits and a possible cremation burial.

Jennett’s Park was first used for permanent settlement during the middle Iron Age, when a small farmstead was established. The settlement was associated with the late Iron Age, but was abandoned and replaced by an early medieval field system continued in use into the Roman period until the early 2nd century AD.

Evidence was found at the northern end of the investigations for a 1st–2nd century curvilinear stock enclosure, which was overstepped by a 3rd-century farmstead. Unusual finds include a possible cremation, a possible cremation, and a possible cremation. The site may have supplied lime for the construction of the first Easthamstead Park House.
Archaeology in the Park

Excavations at Jennett’s Park, Bracknell, Berkshire

by Andrew Simmonds, Sharon Cook, Edward Biddulph and David Score

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Edited by Edward Biddulph and Paul Booth

Front cover:
The Iron Age settlement at Jennett’s Park. Drawing by Mark Gridley.

Back cover:
Roman field boundary ditch 504173 at the western edge of Area 9 during excavation

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In 2006 and 2007 Oxford Archaeology undertook a programme of archaeological investigations in advance of construction of the urban village of Jennett’s Park in an area of former farmland belonging to Peacock Farm, Bracknell, Berkshire. These investigations revealed that the site had been witness to a series of contrasting episodes of occupation and activity over a period of several thousand years.

The earliest occupation comprised the small, temporary camp of a band of Mesolithic hunter-gatherers at the top of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill, most likely taking advantage of the elevated position of this knoll overlooking an area of wetland to the south-west. The remains of the camp consisted of a concentration of worked flint recovered from a buried topsoil, and the range of tools present indicated that a variety of activities were carried out here including the processing of hides. The view may have been enhanced by deliberate clearance of trees, the resulting erosion of soil leading to the formation of a colluvial deposit that buried the ancient soil.

After a hiatus of activity during the Neolithic period, when the site appears to have been little visited, activity recommenced in the middle Bronze Age. Features of this date comprised three burnt mounds, two waterholes, two trough-like pits and a possible cremation burial or deliberately-placed pot, as well as a number of small pits or postholes buried beneath two of the burnt mounds. Calibrated radiocarbon dates of 1630–1490 BC/1480–1450 BC and 1420–1260 BC were obtained for two of the burnt mounds.

Jennett’s Park was first used for permanent settlement during the middle Iron Age, when a small farmstead was established. The settlement was occupied into the late Iron Age but was abandoned before the start of the Roman period. An agricultural landscape defined by a complex of field boundary ditches was established towards the end of the late Iron Age, but it is not certain whether this was associated with the final phase of the settlement or replaced it. The field system continued in use into the Roman period, when the boundaries were reorganised and new ditches dug before being abandoned, apparently during the early 2nd century.

Evidence was found at the northern end of the investigations for two definite and one possible curvilinear stock enclosures dating from the late 11th-late 12th centuries, which were superseded by a system of fields and enclosures that were in use until the mid 14th century. These features may be associated with a posited settlement beyond the limits of the excavation, and their abandonment may have been associated with the enclosure of part of the area during the creation of Easthampstead Park. A post-medieval kiln, probably for limeburning, was excavated. This may have supplied lime for the construction during the 17th century of the first Easthampstead Park House, which has since been demolished and replaced at a different location.
The archaeological investigation was instructed and funded by the Jennett’s Park Consortium, which comprises Persimmon Homes Ltd and Redrow Homes (Southern) Ltd. David Thomason, then of Berkshire Archaeology, the archaeological advisor to Bracknell Forest Borough Council, also played an important role in ensuring that the project proceeded smoothly. The fieldwork was directed by Katrina Anker and was managed initially by Melanie Pomeroy-Kellinger, then by David Score. The post-excavation work was managed by Edward Biddulph. Support was provided by Leigh Allen (finds management), Paul Backhouse (graphics management), Matt Bradley (geomatics management), Rebecca Nicholson (environmental management) and Nicola Scott (archives management). Mark Littlewood digitised the site plans, Julia Moxham drafted the site figures and sections, Ros Lorimer prepared the drawings of the pottery, Sarah Lucas drew the worked flint, and Magdalena Wachnik produced the photographs and cross-sections of the triangular oven bricks/loomweights. The reconstruction of the Iron Age settlement was drawn by Mark Gridley. Elizabeth Huckerby would like to thank the geography department of Lancaster University for the use of its laboratories. The radiocarbon determinations were provided by Philip Naysmith of the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC). Oxford Archaeology would like to thank the following for their significant contribution to the project during and after fieldwork: R Bailey, R Bashford, A Brown, R Brown, I Cook, J Ford, P Gane, M Gibson, J Haigh, N Lambert, A Langlands, P Leader, F Mazzilli, B McAndrew, J Mcleish, D McNicol, S Oates, L Offord, R Peacock, L Philpott, D Reay, I Sparkes-Santos, S Thomson, A Tizzard, S Weaver, and H Webb. The report was edited for publication by Paul Booth and Edward Biddulph.
INTRODUCTION

Project background (Fig. 1)

This report describes and analyses the results of a programme of archaeological excavation carried out by Oxford Archaeology in May 2006 and from April to July 2007 at Jennett’s Park (formerly Peacock Farm), Bracknell, Berkshire (NGR 4850 1680; Fig. 1). These investigations were designed to mitigate the effects of the construction of Jennett’s Park, an ‘urban village’ comprising 1300-1500 homes, a business park, recreational facilities and a park-and-ride facility. The development encompassed a total area of 116 hectares on an area of former grassland belonging to Peacock Farm. The Listed farm buildings have been retained and converted into a bar and restaurant. The investigations comprised a total of 10 discrete areas of ‘strip, map and sample excavation’, targeted on areas of archaeological potential identified by a previous geophysical survey and trench evaluation of the entire development area. The work was commissioned by the Jennett’s Park Consortium in accordance with a condition attached to the planning permission for the development by Bracknell Forest Borough Council.

Location, topography and geology

Bracknell is located in East Berkshire, to the south of a northern loop of the River Thames between Reading and Windsor. Jennett’s Park lies west of the town, south of the Bracknell to Wokingham railway line and immediately to the east of the boundary between the parishes of Bracknell and Wokingham Without (Fig. 1). It originally lay within the northernmost part of Easthampstead Park, but prior to the excavation was agricultural land belonging to Peacock Farm. The most notable feature of the landscape is Jennett’s Hill, a knoll located in the south-eastern part of the area under development that rises to a maximum height of c 80 m above Ordnance Datum (OD). From this point, the terrain slopes gently down to the north and west and somewhat more steeply to the south to more level ground. The lowest lying part of the site is situated to the south-west, with a level of c 67 m OD.

Geologically, East Berkshire lies at the northern edge of the western part of the London Basin. This is a vast, roughly triangular concavity in the underlying chalk between the Chilterns and Marlborough Downs to the north and the North Downs to the south, which extends as far west as Newbury and is in-filled with later deposits of sand and clay. The chalk outcrops to the north, within the loop of the Thames between Reading and Windsor, where most of the area to the south composed of London Clay. The site lay predominantly on London Clay, with the exception of Jennett’s Hill, which is composed of the gravelly sand of the Bagshot Beds. The clay areas of the site were poorly drained, and the south-western part, between Jennett’s Hill and Easthampstead Park College, was observed during the excavation to be prone to flooding and standing water and is likely to have been marshland prior to modern drainage. Evidence from the excavation also indicated that colluviation had occurred on the lower part of the southern slope of the hill. Prior to the excavation the area had a mixed usage comprising arable cultivation and grassland, and contained an area of woodland, Tarman’s Copse, to the north of Jennett’s Hill.

Archaeological background

The archaeological background of the site was the subject of a desk-based assessment (OAU 1993) undertaken as an initial phase of the archaeological mitigation of the development. A summary of the results of the assessment is presented here.

Evidence for archaeological remains earlier than the medieval period was little known until the publication of the East Berkshire archaeological survey (Ford 1987a), which documented a programme of extensive fieldwalking carried out in 1987. The survey recorded limited evidence for prehistoric activity within the area of development in the form of a number of low density surface flint scatters. These contained both flint tools and waste flakes indicative of on-site flint manufacture and perhaps associated occupation. The earliest activity was represented by a significant scatter of Mesolithic tools immediately to the west of the present development area. These finds are significant within the general context of East Berkshire as the majority of Mesolithic remains in this area come from river valley gravels, and it is rare to find such material on London Clay. A background scatter of small quantities of worked flint of Neolithic or Bronze Age date was also recorded.

Other prehistoric activity in the vicinity is represented by a bowl barrow located approximately 1 km south-east of the site and by Caesar’s Camp, the only known Iron Age hillfort in East Berkshire, which is located c 2.5 km to the south-east of the site.

The settlement pattern in Berkshire during the Roman period was dominated by the civitas capital of Calleva Atrebatum at Silchester (in Hampshire), south of Reading. Jennett’s Park is situated c 21 km east of Silchester, and 3 km north of the Roman road linking the town with the provincial capital at London. No evidence for Roman activity had been identified within the site itself prior to the evaluation, although the East Berkshire survey recorded two scatters of pottery 1 km to the west. As with remains of the prehistoric period, Roman sites are poorly-represented on areas of London Clay and Bagshot Beds in East Berkshire. Despite the low levels of pottery recovered, these scatters may be significant indicators for the presence of settlement activity, since investigations undertaken at Binfield in 1989 and 1990 revealed a Roman settlement that was represented on the surface by only a small handful of sherds of pottery (Roberts 1995, 123).
Figure 1  Site location
During the medieval period the area now occupied by Jennett’s Park formed part of the royal hunting lodge of Easthampstead Park. Scatters of medieval pottery have been recorded within the area of the investigation, one of which coincided with an area of ridge and furrow identified from cropmarks on aerial photographs taken during 1961.

**Previous archaeological investigations**

Archaeological watching briefs were carried out within the area of the development by Oxford Archaeology during November 2003 and August 2005. The former investigation was undertaken during the excavation of a telecommunications trench that crossed the hollow-way of Burnthouse Ride. A section through the deposits forming the hollow-way was recorded, but no artefacts were recovered that might have confirmed its presumed medieval origin. The second watching brief was undertaken during the digging of a total of 115 geotechnical test pits distributed across the development area. No archaeological features were identified, although fragments of Saxon or early medieval pottery were retrieved from the subsoil in one trench.

**The fieldwork**

**The evaluation**

**Geophysical investigation**

The site was subject to a programme of geophysical investigation comprising a combination of extensive magnetic susceptibility survey conducted over much of the development area, followed by selective detailed magnetometry survey of areas that produced significant readings (Bartlett 1998). An area at the centre of the site designated for open space was excluded from the survey along with an area to the north of Peacock Lane which at the time was unavailable for survey.

The results of the magnetic susceptibility survey identified fourteen areas that showed increased levels of magnetic enhancement potentially indicative of significant archaeological activity. A detailed magnetometry survey was undertaken in all fourteen areas in order to more fully determine the potential presence/absence of below-ground archaeological features. A number of minor high readings indicated by the initial survey proved to be devoid of obvious features when scanned in detail, and several areas of probable modern disturbance were also identified. Areas with the highest potential for significant archaeological deposits included areas on either side of Burnthouse Ride, Jennett’s Hill, and the site of a possible post-medieval building to the south-west of Tarman’s Copse. Overall, however, the detailed survey only identified a small number of probable features with significant archaeological potential.

**Evaluation trenching** (Fig. 2)

Evaluation of the development area took place in two phases between January and March 2006 (OA 2006a and 2006b). The trenching strategy was based around the combined results of the geophysical survey and the fieldwalking undertaken as part of the East Berkshire archaeological survey (Ford 1987a), while also achieving a representative coverage of trenches across the entire development area. A total of 358 trenches were excavated, providing a 6% sample of areas indicated to have a high archaeological potential and a 4% sample of the remainder of the site (Fig. 2). Two areas of the site, one located on Jennett’s Hill and the other in the central western part of the development, were not evaluated as they were to be retained as public open spaces and so would not be subject to any impact from the development. The evaluation revealed a concentration of field and possible settlement enclosure ditches and associated features of late Iron Age and Roman date to the west of Jennett’s Hill and a complex of field boundary ditches of uncertain date on either side of Burnthouse Ride and beside Peacock Lane. In addition to this, a group of Iron Age pits containing metalworking debris was recorded in Trench 156, and a post-medieval limekiln in Trench 76. A possible cremation burial of Bronze Age date was uncovered in Trench 44; as a result, the trench was extended to form a small area of strip-, map- and sample-excitation measuring 30 x 20 m, but few further features, and none of this date, were identified.

**Excavation methodology** (Figs 3, 4 and 5; Plate 1)

A total of ten discrete areas of strip, map and sample excavation were investigated in two phases, areas 1–5 being excavated in May 2006 and areas 6–10 between April and June 2007 (Fig. 2). It should be noted that at the time of the excavation areas 6–10 were designated as sites 1–5, but for this publication they have been re-numbered for the sake of clarity. At the same time as the 2007 phase of excavation, a further phase of evaluation trenching (in Area 11, originally designated as Site 6) was also carried out at the western end of the summit of Jennett’s Hill, but no significant archaeological remains were identified (OA 2007). The locations of the excavation areas were targeted on concentrations of archaeological features identified by the evaluation. Areas 1 to 5 were targeted on the probable limekiln and complexes of boundary ditches recorded in the northern part of the site, Area 6 on the pits in Trench 156, and Areas 7 to 10 on the features recorded to the west and south of Jennett’s Hill. Areas 7 and 11 were divided from Areas 8, 9 and 10 by a strip of scrubby woodland that was to be retained by the development. In each area a two-stage methodology was implemented. The initial stage of work consisted of the stripping of overburden and planning of archaeological features. This was then followed by the detailed
Figure 2 Location of the excavation areas and evaluation trenching
Figure 3   Plan of all archaeological features in areas 1 to 5 and evaluation Trench 44
excavation of a sample of the revealed archaeological features according to a strategy agreed with Dave Thomason, then of Berkshire Archaeology. This methodology was designed to allow a flexible approach and the implementation of an appropriate strategy for the sampling, excavation and recording of features.

The overburden was stripped under archaeological supervision using a 360° tracked mechanical excavator with a toothless ditching bucket (Plate 1). Machine excavation continued until either archaeological deposits or the natural geology were encountered. A provisional pre-excavation plan of the stripped area was produced digitally using a total station, and hand excavation of the archaeological features then followed. All discrete features were half-sectioned, while a sufficient proportion of each ditch or gully was excavated to characterise and date the feature. A buried soil layer in Area 10 was investigated by the excavation of 21 test pits, each measuring 1 m square, forming a transect of nine test pits extending across the deposit, with a further transect of 12 test pits extending from this line to the western limit of the deposit. A soil layer at the south-western corner of Area 7 was investigated by excavation of a similar transect of seven test pits. All recording followed procedures detailed in the OA fieldwork manual (Wilkinson 1992). Damage to Area 7 caused by dirt bikes necessitated re-stripping of this area, and is likely to have resulted in some truncation of archaeological features.

No above-ground archaeology survived on the site, but features cut into the natural geology were identified in all ten excavation areas (Figs 3, 4 and 5). The distribution of these remains correlated closely with variations in the nature of the underlying geological deposits, the greatest concentration of features being located on the sandy substrate of Jennett’s Hill. The parts of the site located on London Clay, specifically Areas 1 to 6, the northern end of Area 7, the south-western half of Area 8 and the part of Area 10 south of the public footpath that bisected this area, were characterised by a lesser density of remains, many of which comprised post-medieval drainage features.

Location of the archive
The finds, paper record and digital archive are to be deposited at Reading Museum and Art Gallery under accession codes REDMG 2006.38 and 2007.39.

Figure 4  Plan of all archaeological features in Area 6
Figure 5: Plan of all archaeological features in areas 7 to 10.
ARCHAEOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

Phase 1: Mesolithic activity (Figs 6 and 7; Plate 2)
A sequence of buried soils and colluvial layers was exposed in the baulk at the eastern end of Area 10, at a break of slope near the top of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill (Fig. 6; Plate 2). The earliest of these layers, directly overlying the natural sand (505002), was a thin and intermittent deposit of slightly organic brown sand, interpreted as a buried colluvial soil (505292). This was sealed by a second colluvial deposit of loose whitish yellow sand 0.15 m thick (505291), above which was a buried topsoil (505058/505200). The latter layer extended across the top of the slope as a tongue of material some 37 m long and 8.3 m wide (Fig. 7). A total of 21 test pits was excavated through this layer, resulting in the recovery of an assemblage of worked flint of Mesolithic date. The flint formed a coherent assemblage dating from the early Mesolithic, and consisted largely of flakes with a smaller component of blades, as well as ten cores and three complete and two broken microliths. The material was in fresh condition, indicating that it is unlikely to have moved far from its original place of deposition.

Phase 2: Middle Bronze Age (1700–1200 BC) (Figs 8 and 9)
The evidence for activity dating from the middle Bronze Age comprised three spreads of burnt flint (404032, 505128/505154, 505275), interpreted as the plough-levelled remains of burnt mounds, two waterholes (505104, 505122), a pair of inter-cutting sub-rectangular pits or troughs (504048, 504051), and a pit containing a deliberately placed pot that may be the truncated remains of a cremation burial (4409). Groups of features sealed beneath two of the burnt mounds may have been contemporaneous in date. Features of this period were mostly concentrated at the southern end of the site, in areas 9 and 10 (Fig. 8), although burnt mound 404032 and the possible cremation burial were located further north, in evaluation Trench 44 and Area 4 respectively.

Features sealed beneath the burnt mounds (Figs 9-11; Plate 3)
Each of the burnt flint spreads was sampled by means of a single hand-dug trench excavated across the feature and associated colluvial layers (Plate 3). These trenches exposed shallow pits beneath mounds 404032 and 505128/505154, and it is possible that these features played some role in the activities associated with the mounds and are thus also of middle Bronze Age date, although none contained datable artefacts. A single feature (404033) was identified beneath burnt mound 404032 (Fig. 9), and three shallow pits (505152, 505208, 505210) were exposed in the trench dug across burnt flint spread 505128/505154.

Pit 404033 was oval in plan and measured 0.63 x 0.43 m (Fig. 9). It was filled with a single deposit of burnt flint (404034). This material was identical to that from the overlying mound, indicating that the pit was open at the time that the burnt flint forming the mound was accumulating, and therefore was associated with the activities that resulted in the creation of the mound.

All three pits (505152, 505208, 505210) beneath burnt mound 505128/505154 were roughly oval in shape with irregular profiles and measured up to 1.10 m across and 0.12–0.30 m deep (Figs 10 and 11).
Plate 2  The soil sequence exposed in the baulk at the western end of Area 10, showing Mesolithic buried soil 505200 buried beneath colluvium 505169. Total depth of section = 1.3 m

Figure 6  Section through the soil sequence exposed in the baulk at the eastern end of Area 10

Figure 7  Location of buried soil layer 505200 containing the Mesolithic flint scatter
Figure 8  Plan of Bronze Age features in areas 9 and 10
Figure 9  Plan of burnt mound 404032

Plate 3  Slot excavated across burnt mound 404032
505128/505154

Scale = 2 m
Each pit was filled with a single deposit of dark grey silty sand (505153, 505209 and 505211 respectively), but none contained any artefactual material. A thin layer of light grey sand (505155) 0.10 m thick lay over pits 505208 and 505210, and was in turn sealed by the material of the burnt mound, which directly overlay pit 505152. Excavation of the trench across the burnt mound also exposed a possible ditch or gully (505239) beneath colluvial material to the north of the spread, and it is possible that this feature was also associated with the mound. Interpretation of this feature was hampered by the fact that a length of only 1 m was exposed within the trench, but it appeared to extend approximately east-west, passing 1.6 m from the northern edge of the mound. The feature had a regular U-shaped profile and was 0.65 m wide and 0.20 deep with a single fill (505240) composed of grey silty sand.

**Burnt mounds 505128/505154, 505273/505275 and 404032** (Figs 9-12; Plate 3)

The remains of three burnt mounds were identified in the form of spreads of burnt flint pebbles and charcoal. Burnt mounds 505128/505154 and 505273/505275 were located on the lower slopes of
the southern side of Jennett’s Hill. Mound 404032 lay in Area 4, on more low-lying, level ground in the northern part of the site.

Burnt flint spreads 505128 and 505154 were only 2 m apart and are likely to have originated as a single mound, subsequently divided by later agriculture and the digging of post-medieval ditches. Spread 505154 was irregular in shape and measured approximately 7 m east-west by 3.8 m north-south. It had a slightly domed profile with a maximum thickness of 0.40 m (Fig. 11), and petered out against the slope of the hill to both the north and south. The mound consisted of sandy silt and burnt and fire-cracked flint pebbles, and appeared to comprise a single homogeneous deposit with no evidence for internal stratigraphy. A radiocarbon determination of 1420–1260 BC (SUERC–20260, calibrated at 2 sigma) was obtained from a sample of alder roundwood charcoal from within the mound. Colluvial layer 505201 had built up against the northern, up-slope edge of the spread, which must therefore have still survived as an upstanding mound when the colluvium formed. Burnt flint spread 505128 was identical in composition to layer 505154; it measured c 10.5 x 4.5 m and was 0.18 m thick.

Burnt mound 505273/505275 (Fig. 8) was located c 15 m from mound 55128/505154. It overlay a thin layer of light orange grey silty sand (505274/505277) that may be the result of disturbance of the natural sand associated with the activities involved in the creation of the mound, or could be a deposit of colluvial material of earlier date. A certain amount of mixing had occurred between the upper part of this layer and material from the burnt mound itself, creating an intervening band of grey sand (505276). The burnt mound comprised a layer of black, charcoal-rich soil and burnt flint pebbles, extending over an irregular area measuring 16.5 x 6.6 m. It had a maximum thickness of 0.20 m, thinning and petering out to north and south (Fig. 12). At its southern end it was sealed by a deposit of colluvial material (505272). A sample of alder roundwood produced a calibrated radiocarbon determination of 1630–1490 BC/1480–1450 BC (SUERC–21051). The central part of the mound was cut by a post-medieval ditch (505278).

Burnt mound 404032 was located at the western end of Area 4 and was the least well preserved of these features. Whereas the mounds in the southern part of the site were located at the foot of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill and become buried beneath colluvial deposits that had protected them from later disturbance, this feature lay on level ground and had clearly suffered from the truncating effects of ploughing, and survived as a spread of material only 0.05 m thick. The spread extended across an area measuring 13.5 x 7.5 m, and consisted of an irregular layer of sandy silt and burnt flint, sealing pit 404033. The spread was cut by a later ditch of uncertain date (404008).
A pair of waterholes (505104, 505122) was excavated at the foot of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill, a little over 20 m north-west of burnt mound 505128/505154 in Area 10 (Fig. 8). Waterhole 505122 (Plate 4; Fig. 13, section 505037) measured 2.6 m in diameter and 1.10 m deep, with convex sides and a flat base. The lower part of the feature was filled with a sequence of alternating deposits of dark silty sand (505162, 505164, 505166) and light silty sand (505163, 505165). These layers, characteristic of deposition in standing water, accumulated to a total depth of 0.50 m. There was then a clear change in the character of deposition. The subsequent fills mostly appeared to be the result of natural silting after the feature had fallen out of use, the earliest of these deposits (505170) yielding a single ceramic sherd probably from a middle Bronze Age globular urn. Another fill (505171) was a dark, charcoal-rich deposit that is likely to have been a dump of domestic waste.

Waterhole 505104 (Fig. 8) was larger and more oval in shape, measuring 5 m x 3.4 m and 1.4 m deep. Following some initial slumping of the sides of the feature (505247, 505266), the basal fills (505232, 505253) consisted of dark clay deposits with flecks of organic material; these were consistent with deposition in standing water (Fig. 13,
section 505053). The clay deposits were succeeded by layers of sandy silt that probably resulted from natural infilling of the feature. A single plain body sherd likely to be of middle or late Bronze Age date was recovered from fill 505245.

**Sub-rectangular pits or troughs 504048 and 504051 (Figs 8 and 13)**

Two inter-cutting pits or troughs (504048, 504051) located in Area 9 were attributed to the Bronze Age on the basis of pottery recovered from their fills.

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*Figure 13  Sections through Bronze Age features: waterholes 505104 and 505122 and pits 504048 and 504051*
Figure 14  Plan of Bronze Age pit 4409 and other features in evaluation trench 44
Phase 3: The Iron Age and Roman period
(400/300 BC–early 2nd century AD)

The Iron Age settlement (Fig. 15)
An Iron Age settlement, comprising seven circular structures, at least two four-post structures and associated pits and postholes, extended across the northern part of Area 8 and the southern end of Area 7 (Fig. 15). The features of this settlement were divided into two broad sub-phases based on the dating of pottery recovered from their fills. A total of four circular structures, the two four-post structures and two discrete pits were attributed to the middle Iron Age, while two circular structures, six pits and a posthole were ascribed to the late Iron Age. A single circular structure, two possible two-post structures, a pit and a number of postholes did not produce evidence that would enable them to be attributed to either sub-phase but were clearly associated with the settlement. A group of pits representing a second area of contemporaneous activity was recorded in Area 6.

Sub-phase 3a: Middle Iron Age (400/300–50 BC)

Circular structures (Fig. 16)
Structure 1 (Fig. 16) was the best preserved of these features, consisting of an annular gully (503288) that surrounded a partially surviving inner gully (503289) and a number of internal pits and postholes. Although little datable material was recovered from the internal features to demonstrate that they were contemporary with the structure, the fact that such features were only present within the inner gully suggests that this was the case. The outer gully (503288) was roughly circular and measured 14 m in diameter. It was generally c 1 m wide and 0.24 m deep, although on the south-western side the width was reduced to only 0.58 m, presumably due to greater plough truncation of this part. The sides were sloping, but slightly irregular, the inner side having a less steep gradient than the outer. An assemblage of 52 sherds of pottery (384 g) originating from a minimum of two vessels datable to the middle Iron Age and 25 pieces (59 g) of fired clay from a hearth or oven were recovered from an intervention excavated across the eastern part of the drip gully, adjacent to a probable entrance through the inner gully. Only two sherds of pottery (20 g) were recovered from elsewhere within the gully. The inner gully (503289) comprised a semi-circular arc defining the northern half of a circle c 9.5 m in diameter. It is uncertain whether the southern half had been destroyed by subsequent truncation, or whether the structure had been semi-circular in form. Certainly it was less substantial than the outer gully, with a width of 0.20 m and a depth of only 0.10 m, and would have been more vulnerable to the effects of later ploughing. The gully was slightly polygonal in form, appearing to consist of four or five fairly straight segments. The eastern end of the gully ended in a posthole (503111) which may have supported a post forming the north side of an east-facing doorway into the building. The posthole was oval in shape with a width of 0.60 m and a surviving depth of 0.11 m.
Figure 15   Plan of the Iron Age settlement
Figure 16  Detailed plans of the Iron Age structures
Four pits and a further fourteen postholes, six of which were sampled by excavation, were identified within the structure. All four pits (503153, 503132, 503183, 503198) were oval in shape with steep sides, the sides of pit 503153 being slightly undercut. The pits ranged from 0.76 m x 0.48 m to 1.18 m x 0.87 m and up to 0.40 m deep. All but 503153 had a single fill containing occasional fragments of burnt flint, in addition to which pits 503153 and 503132 also contained a small amount of burnt clay. An assemblage of thirteen sherds of pottery datable to the middle Iron Age was recovered from the second of four fills within pit 503153, and a single sherd of pottery datable broadly to the Iron Age came from the only fill (503199) of pit 503198. It is possible that these were small internal storage pits which were used for dumping refuse after they had fallen out of use. The postholes within the structure ranged from 0.18 m to 0.50 m across and between 0.05 m and 0.18 m in depth and were all slightly oval in shape. They formed no coherent pattern but are likely either to have been structural in origin or to have supported internal partitions or perhaps temporary structures such as looms.

Structure 2 (Fig. 16) was situated 8.5 m east of Structure 1 and consisted of a penannular gully (503290) 14 m in diameter with an east facing entrance, and two internal postholes. There was no trace of an internal foundation trench like that of Structure 1. The ring gully measured 1 m wide and 0.24 m deep, and was concave in shape with the outer edge cut at a steep angle while the inner edge cut at a steep angle and between 0.18 m and 0.40 m deep. The only fill (503199) of pit 503198. It is possible that these were small internal storage pits which were used for dumping refuse after they had fallen out of use. The postholes within the structure ranged from 0.18 m to 0.50 m across and between 0.05 m and 0.18 m in depth and were all slightly oval in shape. They formed no coherent pattern but are likely either to have been structural in origin or to have supported internal partitions or perhaps temporary structures such as looms.

Structure 3 (Fig. 16) was smaller than the other circular structures, at only 7 m in diameter. It consisted of a ring gully (503292) with no surviving internal features, and the western side had been destroyed, most likely by modern ploughing. A terminus defining the southern side of an entrance was excavated on the east side of the structure, but any evidence for a corresponding terminus on the northern side of the entrance had been destroyed by late Iron Age pit 503215. The terminus defining the southern side of the entrance contained an assemblage of 67 sherds of pottery originating from at least five vessels. It is unclear whether this structure was a smaller roundhouse or an ancillary building, but pottery from within the gully fill dated it to the same period as the other, larger, roundhouses.

Structure 6 (Fig. 16) was located in the southern part of Area 7, c. 50 m north-west of the contemporaneous structures in Area 8. Approximately 12 m in diameter, this structure comprised the northern part of a presumably circular gully (502228). A break in the central part of the surviving half of the gully is likely to be due to truncation rather than representing an original entrance, as the gully was seen to peter out at this point rather than ending in a deliberate terminus. This truncation exposed a posthole (502069) in the base of the gully. Middle Iron Age pottery recovered from the base of this structure may have formed part of the structure. An extrapolation of the structure based on the surviving portion indicates that postholes 502115 and 502117 would have been positioned within the ring gully. Both postholes were similar to those already described, and a single piece of early Iron Age pottery was recovered from the fill of posthole 502115.
posthole sampled from 503295 was more substantial with a depth of 0.18 m and a diameter of 0.96 m. While no dating evidence was recovered from Structure 603295, three fragments of pottery dating from the middle Iron Age were recovered from Structure 603296.

Pits within the settlement

Three pits associated with the middle Iron Age phase of the settlement were recorded in Area 8 (Fig. 15). Two were situated south-east of Structure 3. The earlier of these was a large sub-rectangular pit (503238) measuring 4.05 x 2.20 m and 1.04 m deep with two largely sterile fills composed of redeposited sands with small quantities of charcoal. This was cut by a smaller sub-circular pit (503211) with a diameter of 1.6 m and a total depth of 0.56 m. Pit 503211 was filled with two layers of redeposited sand and an upper fill that contained a large amount of charcoal and fired clay, which may represent a dump of domestic debris. Eight large pieces of middle Iron Age pottery were recovered from the final deposit.

Some 10 m to the west was pit 503075, roughly circular in plan, 1.8 m across and 0.56 m deep with a rounded profile. The middle fill contained a high proportion of burnt flint and oak charcoal (see Challinor below) while the upper fill produced a little middle Iron Age pottery.

Sub-phase 3b: The late Iron Age (50 BC–mid 1st century AD)

Circular structures (Fig. 16)

Structure 5 (Fig. 16) was located to the south of middle Iron Age structures 1–3 in Area 8, apparently at the southern limit of the settlement. The structure consisted of a ring gully (503293) with no surviving internal features. The gully was heavily truncated and survived as three segments. The largest surviving segment comprised almost three quarters of the whole circumference of the structure. The remaining two segments on the southern side of the structure were short, measuring up to 4.2 m in length. The width of the surviving portions of the gully was only 0.60 m and the depth was 0.20 m. The diameter measured 15 m, making this structure slightly larger than those that preceded it. The eastern end of the largest surviving segment ended in a terminus, most likely defining the northern side of an east-facing entrance into the structure. Twenty pieces of late Iron Age pottery as well as a quantity of worked flint were recovered from the terminus. No pottery was recovered from the interventions dug on the north-eastern and south-western sides of the structure.

Structure 7 (Fig. 16) was located north of structures 1 and 2, the surviving elements comprising a curving segment of gully 6 m long (503287) and three postholes. The gully, which measured 0.60 m wide and 0.20 m deep, was uncovered at the northern edge of the area and was probably part of a structure that extended beyond the edge of the excavation. Posthole 503136, which was located 0.20 m beyond the western terminus of the gully, may have formed the southern side of a west-facing entrance to the structure. The posthole measured 0.50 x 0.28 m and 0.18 m deep and had a flat base and steep regular sides. Two further postholes (503059, 503063) within the structure were also investigated. Five large pieces of late Iron Age pottery were recovered from fill of the terminus at the eastern end of the gully.

Pits within the settlement

Features dated to the late Iron Age included a total of seven pits, one in Area 7, four in Area 8 and two in Area 9, as well as two discrete postholes (Fig. 15). Within Area 8, pit 503113 was located a short distance west of Structure 7. This was a large sub-circular pit measuring 2.4 x 2.2 m, with a depth of 0.96 m. It contained a sequence of six fills of silty sands and clays not dissimilar in composition to the natural geology, the uppermost of which (503119) yielded sixteen pieces of pottery. Pit 503101 was located immediately adjacent to the west side of the drip gully of Structure 5. The pit was circular and measured 2.5 m in diameter and 0.52 m deep, with a gentle profile and a concave base. A total of eighteen large sherds of late Iron Age pottery were recovered from the earliest fill (503108) of three within this feature, including a substantial part of a single vessel. The upper fills, composed of redeposited natural sand, contained no artefacts, although small quantities of charcoal were present. Pit 503215 cut the eastern side of middle Iron Age Structure 3. It was approximately square in plan with an irregular profile and measured 1.9 m wide and 0.3 m deep. An assemblage of 34 large pieces of pottery dating to the late Iron Age was recovered from the upper of its two fills (503219). A small posthole (503217) was located immediately adjacent to the pit, though this cannot be closely dated within the Iron Age.

Pit 502024 was located in the southern part of Area 7. It was circular with steep sides and a flattened base and measured 0.84 m in diameter and 0.30 m deep. Four large pieces of pottery dating from the late Iron Age were recovered from the upper (502025) of its two fills.

Pits 504012 and 504055 were situated in the western part of Area 9. They were both oval in shape and had similar steep profiles with flattened bases; pit 504012 was the larger at 1.5 x 1.86 m and 0.60 m deep, while pit 504055 measured 0.91 x 1.76 m and 0.74 m deep. Both pits contained sandy clay fills with some charcoal inclusions and small quantities of late Iron Age pottery.

Other features within the settlement

Structure 4 (Fig. 16) was a circular structure consisting of a ring gully (503294) at the eastern edge of the excavation area. Only part of the western side was exposed within the area of investigation, with
the majority of the structure lying beyond the site limits. The 0.3 metre-wide gully was extremely truncated, surviving only to a depth of 0.05 m. No artefacts were recovered from this structure to enable it to be attributed to a specific sub-phase, although its form suggested that it dated to the Iron Age.

Two possible two-post structures were identified between structures 4 and 5 (Fig. 15). They each comprised a pair of postholes 1.3–1.8 m apart, but yielded no dating evidence. A scatter of at least 14 postholes was located to the north-east of Structure 2 (Fig. 15). With the exception of the two four-post structures described above, these features could not be resolved into coherent structures, and none was sampled by excavation.

Scattered postholes of this period were encountered in the southern part of Area 7. Posthole 502113, south-west of Structure 6, contained a single

Figure 17   Plan of Iron Age features in Area 6
piece of late Iron Age pottery. Further south another posthole (502174) containing three small sherds of late Iron Age pottery was exposed in one of the test pits excavated through Roman buried soil layer 502171. This may hint at the existence of structures sealed beneath that deposit.

**Iron Age activity in Area 6 (Fig. 17)**

A group of five pits dating from the Iron Age was recorded in Area 6, some 200 m north of the area of the contemporaneous settlement, and may represent a separate focus of activity (Fig. 17). All the pits were shallow, measuring no more than 0.24 m deep, and contained charcoal and small fragments of pottery. Three pits (501017, 501019, 501027) produced pottery dating from the middle Iron Age, pit 501027 in particular producing 26 large fragments of pottery. Pit 501024, which yielded no dating evidence during the full excavation, had been sampled during the evaluation phase as pit 15613 and produced pottery dating to the middle Iron Age and four fragments of slag, including a possible furnace base weighing 423 g. A fifth pit had been sampled during the evaluation phase (identified as 15610), and produced large fragments of slag weighing 3155 g, and four small pieces of late Iron Age pottery.

**The late Iron Age and Roman agricultural landscape**

The establishment of the field system during the late Iron Age (Figs 18 and 19)

During the late Iron Age the landscape was divided by a complex of ditched enclosures and field boundaries that extended across areas 7, 8 and 9 in the southern part of the site, east of the Iron Age settlement (Fig. 18). It is uncertain whether these features were contemporary with the late Iron Age phase of the settlement or post-dated its abandonment. Although the common orientation and similar morphology of the ditches defining these enclosures suggest that these features were part of a single system, detailed correlation of features between areas was difficult due to the intervening unexcavated areas. The features were all attributed to the late Iron Age on the basis of stratigraphic relationships and pottery recovered from their fills. The ditches typically had slightly irregular steep profiles with uneven bases, and measured 0.52–1.50 m wide and 0.12–0.55 m deep (Fig. 19).

A pair of conjointed enclosures cut the ring gully of middle Iron Age Structure 6 in the south part of Area 7. The western enclosure was defined by ditch 502230 and lay mostly beyond the western edge of the excavated area. The south-west corner of this enclosure may have been defined by ditch 503300, part of which was exposed at the north end of Area 8. Ditch 502231 extended from ditch 502230 to form the northern side of a second enclosure, which continued with ditch 502037. It is likely that ditches 502231 and 502037 were originally a single feature, but the intervening section probably had been removed by truncation from later ploughing; investigation of the end of ditch 502037 demonstrated that it became progressively shallower and petered out, rather than ending in a deliberate terminus. Ditches 502080 and 502195 appeared to define a third enclosure, although its east side had been destroyed by a later ditch when the field system was re-modelled in the Roman period (see below). It is unclear whether the interruption of ditch 502080 on the northern side was an entrance or a result of truncation.

Ditch 502232 extended NE-SW to the east of these enclosures and may have defined the edge of a trackway. The ditch appears to have had two phases; in the first phase the ditch curved towards the north-east, while in the second phase it continued northwards.

The field system continued into Area 9, where ditch 504168 was on the same alignment as ditch 502230 in Area 7. Ditch 504419 was set at right angles to 504168, extending eastward across the site before turning north and continuing beyond the edge of excavation to form the southern and eastern sides of an enclosure also defined by ditch 504168.

A group of ditches located to the east and south-east of these boundaries produced no datable material, but their alignment and morphological similarity to the ditches of the late Iron Age field system suggest that they were part of this complex. Ditches 504058 and 504175 were aligned roughly north-south and largely parallel to ditch 504168, although ditch 504175 curved to the south-west in its southern part, while ditch 504176 extended from ditch 504175 at right angles. It is possible that this boundary originally joined the southern end of ditch 504168, although much of its length was subsequently destroyed by the creation of Roman ditch 504173 (see below).

To the east of these features, a group of five curving ditches following the contour of the foot of Jennett’s Hill at the east end of Area 9 appear to represent successive re-definitions of a single boundary. A small quantity of late Iron Age pottery was recovered from two of these ditches, but it is uncertain whether they date from this phase or whether the pottery was residual and the ditches later in date.

A group of ditches at the northern end of Area 7 appeared to define at least two sub-rectangular enclosures, possibly divided by a trackway aligned north-south. These enclosures lay on a slightly different alignment to the boundaries to the south and produced no diagnostically late Iron Age material, but they are likely to be attributable to this phase as the western enclosure is cut by the putatively early Roman ditch 502225. Five small pieces of middle Iron Age pottery were recovered from ditch 502224, but these were badly abraded and likely to be residual.

Ditch terminus 502176, which was exposed in one of the test pits excavated through Roman buried soil layer 502171, appeared to lie on the same
alignment as the late Iron Age ditches to the north and had a similar profile, although only a length of 0.38 m was revealed. As this feature contained three sherds of pottery dating from the late Iron Age, it is likely to have formed part of the field system.

Ditch 503297 extended east-west across Area 8 and cut across structures 1, 3 and 4. However, it is uncertain whether the ditch formed part of the late Iron Age field system or its Roman successor, as its eastern end, which might have joined ditch 504168 or 504171 (a later Roman ditch to the east, see Fig. 20) lay beyond the excavated area. Two substantial (104 g) sherds of late Iron Age pottery were recovered from the upper fill but these may be residual, deriving from earlier settlement activity in this area.

The re-organisation of the field system (Figs 20 and 21; Plate 5)

The field systems and enclosures of the late Iron Age were superseded by further ditched boundaries during the early part of the Roman period (Fig. 20). Although the ceramic evidence from the fills of the new boundary ditches contained post-conquest pottery, none of this material need date from later than the end of the 1st century or the early part of the 2nd century, suggesting that the re-organised
Archaeology in the Park: Excavations at Jennett’s Park, Bracknell, Berkshire
Figure 20 (facing page)  Plan of the Roman field system and other features

Figure 21   Sections across ditches of the Roman field system

Figure 20 (facing page)  Plan of the Roman field system and other features
field system may not have been long lived. While similar in alignment these ditches were on the whole far more substantial in nature than those they replaced (Plate 5). As with the Iron Age field systems, these Roman field systems were only present in areas 7, 8 and 9 in the southern part of the site, indicating continuity of occupation. Like those of the late Iron Age, the ditches typically had slightly irregular profiles, but were more substantial, measuring 1.50–4.25 m wide and 0.44–0.95 m deep (Fig. 21).

Ditches 502225 and 502226 replaced the earlier Iron Age land divisions in Area 7, and formed the basis of two large enclosures. Ditch 502225 dated from the early Roman period and represented a change from the use of small enclosures to larger ones. Cutting and replacing ditch 502195, it enclosed much of the south-western part of Area 7.

Ditch 502226 branched off the western side of ditch 502225 to form a subdivision of the area enclosed by the latter. It extended towards the north-west before turning at right angles to the south-west and continuing beyond the edge of the excavation. It contained a few pieces of Bronze Age and middle Iron Age pottery which appear to be residual, as the remainder of the finds recovered from this ditch were securely Roman in date.

Ditch 502167 was much narrower than the other Roman enclosure ditches. Situated at the southern edge of Area 7, this probably represents a subdivision of the larger enclosure formed by ditches 502225 and 502226. A ditch terminal recorded at the southernmost extreme of Area 7 (502189) may be the northern end of ditch 504171, which was recorded in Area 9 (see below), and may also be associated with ditch 502225, which lies on the same alignment.

The new field system continued into Area 9. Ditch 504171 was on the same alignment as ditch 502225 in Area 7 and may have terminated at 502189. Ditch 504172 was roughly parallel with and east of 504171, but did not correspond to any feature in Area 7 and may have terminated between the areas of excavation. Ditch 504173 branched off from 504172, extending westward across the site before continuing beyond the edge of excavation. The three ditches appear to define four rectangular enclosures in Area 9. Discrete dumps of concreted industrial waste, comprising a conglomeration of fragments of slag, fired clay and ash as well as burnt and unburnt stones, were recovered from the fills of ditches 504171 and 504172.

Within Area 8 one ditch (503298) was identified as belonging to the early Roman period. Ditch 503298 extended across the thin, central part of the area. Although the small assemblage of pottery recovered from this feature contained no demonstrably post-conquest types, the native types found were in use until AD 70 and are therefore not inconsistent with a date in the early part of the Roman period. It was more substantial than most of the ditches dating from the Iron Age, and would appear to be a continuation of early Roman ditch 504173 recorded in Area 9. It may be evidence for an extension of the field system, as represented by the boundary ditches, into the area formerly used for settlement.
Roman pits and topsoil layer in Area 7 (Fig. 20; Plate 6)

Three pits (502004, 502077, 502135) dated to the Roman period were located inside the enclosures in Area 7 (Fig. 20). All three were sub-circular in shape and ranged from 0.74 x 0.74 m to 1.36 x 1.24 m in size and 0.17 m to 0.45 m in depth. The fills consisted of greyish silty sand containing charcoal inclusions, with the exception of two fills in pit 502135, which were layers of charcoal. There is no evidence of in situ burning and these probably represent dumps of hearth debris, suggesting the presence of a nearby settlement.

A large spread of brownish grey silt rich in organic material, pottery and fired clay was exposed at the south-western corner of Area 7 (502171; Fig. 20; Plate 6). The layer measured at least 13 m x 9 m and up to 0.16 m deep, and extended beyond the limits of the excavated area to the south and the west. It was noted that both this layer and the underlying part of the natural sand were more silty than the natural geology across the rest of the site, and did not drain well after rain storms. It is therefore possible that the deposit formed through poaching of the soil in a relatively boggy area. Pottery recovered from this layer indicated that it had formed during the early part of the Roman period, before AD 70.

Phase 4: The medieval period (Fig. 22)

The main evidence for medieval activity comprised an arrangement of enclosures and field boundaries located in areas 1–5, in the northern part of the site (Fig. 22). These features were divided into three sub-phases (sub-phases 4a, 4b and 4c) on the basis of stratigraphic relationships and ceramic dating evidence, although sub-phase 4b was represented only by a single pit.

Sub-phase 4a: late 11th – late 12th century

Curvilinear enclosures 403120, 403087 and 403065 and associated features (Fig. 23)

A possible horseshoe-shaped enclosure (403120) was located in the south-eastern part of Area 3. Its southern half extended beyond the southern edge of the excavation (Fig. 23). The enclosure measured 12 m long and more than 4 m wide and was open to the south-west. It was defined by a gully 0.5 m wide and 0.2 m deep with a shallow regular profile which suggests that the feature was a palisade trench rather than, say, a drainage or boundary ditch. Four large sherdst of coarse, unglazed pottery was recovered from its fill. The enclosure was cut by one of the boundary ditches attributed to sub-phase 4c (403086).

Curvilinear ditch 403087, located in the western part of Area 3, may have formed the eastern side of a second enclosure, the rest of which did not survive. The ditch extended for a distance of 10 m and measured 0.6 m in width and was 0.25 m deep, except at the northern end where the depth decreased to 0.10 m. It was unclear whether this end of the ditch represented an original terminus or disappeared due to later ploughing. The end of the ditch was cut by a shallow posthole (403102), which had a diameter of 0.62 m and depth of 0.22 m. It is possible that the presence of a post at the ditch terminal was associated with an entrance through the enclosure ditch.

A possible third enclosure was represented by a curving ditch (403065) located in the northern part of Area 3. The majority of the feature had been destroyed by later ditches 403082, 403083 and 403084, and only two short segments of the ditch survived between them.

Gully 403119 lay parallel to the north side of enclosure 403120 and may be associated with it. The gully was 0.4 m wide and up to 0.1 m deep, and had a shallow U-shaped profile with a concave base. Gully 403118 was similarly insubstantial and is likely to be of a similar date as it lay on a parallel orientation. Two further linear gullies (403004, 403117) contained pottery dating from the late 11th–late 12th century. They lay on the same alignment and it is possible that they represent parts of a single boundary. Both were cut by the ditches of the sub-phase 4c field system. Two pits in this area (403002, 403090) also contained pottery dating from this phase.

Enclosure ditches (Fig. 24)

A group of ditches that may have formed part of an enclosure or complex of field boundaries was located in Area 1 and produced pottery belonging to this phase (Fig. 24). The eastern side of the enclosure, or the eastern limit of the field system, was defined by boundary ditch 401052, which extended across the area on a NNE-SSW orientation and was the most substantial of the ditches attributed to this period. The ditch was steep sided with a flat base, 0.6 m deep. Its width varied from c. 1.3 m to c. 3.4 m in the northern part of the excavated area, where it was not sectioned. No features were found to the east of this boundary, and those on its western side appeared to respect it.

Ditch 401030 may have formed a boundary at right angles to ditch 401052, with ditch 401056 representing a return to the north. These ditches were no more than 0.10 m deep and it is unclear whether the break between them was an original entrance to the enclosure or whether they were originally a single, continuous feature that had been partially ploughed away. If an entrance existed here, it was closed when these ditches were replaced by a continuous, somewhat more curvilinear ditch (401055). The enclosed area was subdivided by ditches 401059 and 401016 and by an L-shaped gully (401058) further west. Several of these ditches extended beyond the area exposed by the excavation.

A single ditch in Area 2 (Fig. 25) could also be attributed to this sub-phase. Ditch 402058 contained
Figure 22  Plan of the medieval field system in areas 1-5
no datable material but was cut by pit 402044, which dated from sub-phase 4b. It is possible that other, undated ditches in this area also belonged in this sub-phase, but in the absence of ceramic dating evidence or stratigraphic relationships this could not be proved.

Pits
A total of ten isolated pits attributable to the late 11th–late 12th century on ceramic grounds were identified in locations scattered across the site, including two pits in Area 3 (403002, 403090) that may have been associated with the enclosures in this area. These ten features each contained small groups of pottery and no specific function could be ascribed to any of them.

Sub-phase 4b: late 12th – mid 13th century
Sub-phase 4b comprised a single pit (402044) and was defined on the basis of the ceramic assemblage that was clearly chronologically distinct from sub-phases 4a and 4c (Blinkhorn, this volume). The pit was located in the western part of Area 2 (Fig. 25) and was large, measuring 3.70 m x 2.70 m and 0.63 m deep with moderately sloping sides and a concave base. It contained a single fill from which 23 sherds of pottery were recovered.

Sub-phase 4c: mid 13th – mid 14th century
(Figs 23-25)
The sub-phase 4a enclosures in Area 3 were superseded, probably during the 13th century, by an arrangement of rectilinear enclosures and linear boundary ditches, which also extended into areas 1 and 2. The southern part of Area 3 was enclosed by ditch 403085, which extended SW-NE across Area 3 before returning towards the south-east and continuing beyond the area of investigation (Fig. 23). The enclosure was sub-divided by ditch 403086, which extended parallel with the eastern arm of 403085 to define two areas, one being 11 m wide and the other at least 30 m wide. Ditch 403086 measured 0.6 m wide and 0.3 m deep and cut across the eastern part of sub-phase 4a enclosure 403120.

A pair of ditches (403082, 403084) ran NE-SW across the northern part of the area, parallel with 403085. Ditch 403082, the more northerly of the two, was 0.6 m wide and 0.2 m deep with a single fill,
while ditch 403084 was more substantial, measuring 1.05 m wide and 0.34 m deep. An assemblage of 25 sherds (1526 g) of pottery from the latter ditch dated it to this sub-phase. The ditches were 5 m apart and may have been drainage ditches flanking a trackway. They were both cut by a ditch (403083) that produced post-medieval pottery in the evaluation. The corridor between this trackway and the enclosures in the southern part of the area may also have been used for moving animals. Two gullies (403032, 403105) projecting northward from ditch 403085 and a third (403038) that projected southwards from ditch 403084 may have been part of a mechanism to control movement through this corridor.

An L-shaped arrangement of postholes (403122) may represent the remains of a rectangular fenced enclosure adjoining the southern side of ditch 403084 and cutting across the earlier enclosure 403087. The enclosure measured 12 x 6 m and was open to the north-west, unless this side was enclosed by hurdles or similar structures that left no archaeological evidence, or was completed by postholes that have been destroyed by subsequent truncation.

A group of ditches exposed in Area 2 contained no datable material but lay on the same orientations as the ditches in Area 3, and may thus have been part of the same complex of boundaries (Fig. 25). Ditches 402013 and 402011, aligned NW-SE, ran roughly parallel to each other and 20 m apart. Ditch 402013 measured 24 m in length and 0.86 m in wide with a depth of 0.38 m. Ditch 402011 measured 0.7 m wide and 0.24 m in depth; both features had similar irregular U-shaped profiles. A third unexcavated ditch ran parallel to these features 8 m to the east of 402011 (Fig. 25). Ditches 402015 and 402038 extended transversely between 402013 and 402011 sub-dividing the area into rectilinear fields or enclosures.

A curving ditch (4402) recorded in evaluation Trench 44 and also traced in Trenches 41 and 43 may be a continuation of one of the ditches of the

Figure 24 Plan of medieval features in Area 1
trackway (Fig. 22). The alignment of this ditch suggests that it may also be the same feature as ditch 401052, perhaps indicating that this large ditch, originally established as part of the enclosure complex in Area 1 dating from sub-phase 4a, was still in use during sub-phase 4c. It may be relevant in this respect that ditch 401057, which formed a boundary roughly at right angles to ditch 401052 (Fig. 24), produced pottery dating from sub-phase 4c.

It is uncertain whether the medieval field system continued to the west of Burnthouse Ride. Although a number of possible boundary ditches exposed in Areas 4 and 5 may have formed part of this complex (Fig. 22); the only dating evidence recovered from any of these features was a group of three sherds of 19th-century pottery from ditch 405027, which may have formed the eastern side of an apparently empty rectilinear enclosure.

A single east-west medieval ditch (501011) was excavated at the northern edge of Area 6 (Fig. 17), but it was too distant from the ditches of the field system in the northern part of the site to ascertain whether it represented a continuation of that complex.

Figure 25   Plan of medieval features in Area 2

Phase 5: Post-medieval period

Probable limekiln 405003 (Figs 26 and 27; Plates 7 and 8)

A probable limekiln (405003) was uncovered near the north-western edge of Area 4 (Fig. 22) where it cut one of the ditches of the medieval field system (405031; Fig. 26; Plates 7 and 8). Nothing of the structure survived above ground level. A modern land drain had been dug through the western part of the kiln, but the majority of the structure of the oven was still substantially intact, although the flue area was more heavily disturbed. The north-west end of the flue lay beyond the site limit under a haul road and could not be examined. Part of the kiln was excavated by hand to a depth of 1 m, at which point inundation by groundwater made further progress impossible and only a small sample of the lower part of the structure was examined by machine. These difficulties mean that a number of aspects of the structure are unclear.

In plan the kiln comprised an ovoid firing chamber measuring 3 m x 2 m internally at ground level, with a flue at least 2.7 m long and up to c 0.5
Figure 26 Plan of probable limekiln 405003
m wide extending from the north-western side. The structure had a brick lining, constructed from hand-made bricks set end-on to the edge of the chamber. The structure of the chamber survived to a depth of c 1.8 m. Its profile was roughly ovoid, with a rounded offset c 1 m below the extant top. Although it is not certain, this seems to correspond to the base of the brick lining, below which, although heavily burnt, there was no clear evidence for brickwork. The base of the chamber was therefore presumably made simply of very heavily fired clay subsoil. It was slightly concave in profile. There is no evidence for the relative levels of the chamber floor and the base of the flue at the point where they met. The structural bricks measured between 210 x 106 x 55 mm and 225 x 110 x 65 mm, and were datable from their size and quality to the late 16th-17th century. The interior faces of the bricks were very heavily fired, resulting in a thick green vitrified surface, and the surrounding natural clay was discoloured as a result of the heat produced by the kiln. This characteristic means that it was impossible to tell if the chamber walls were set against the edges of a construction cut, or whether this cut was originally larger.

Details of the construction of the flue are uncertain. It extended at least 2.7 m from the inner face of the chamber, but its outer end could not be located. The flue through the chamber wall was c 0.35 m wide, broadening slightly to the north. On the west side vitrified brick extended 1.6 m from the inner face of the chamber and the east face of the flue was similarly lined. The flue appears to have been 0.8 m deep, but it is not certain that this was its total depth, and the nature of its base is unknown, though it was perhaps unlined.

There was a thin deposit of reduced chalk (405029) above the heavily-burnt clay base the primary fill of the chamber. Above this a layer of very heavily burnt and vitrified brick (405026) up to 0.14 m thick may have been the remains of a secondary floor to the chamber. This was overlain by another thin layer of crumbly off-white chalk/lime (405025), in turn sealed by a deposit of grey silty clay (405020) up to 0.19 m thick which may represent the disuse of the structure. Above this was a sequence of backfill deposits, commencing with 405015 which consisted entirely of brick rubble and crushed brick. The subsequent fills were mostly of silty clay incorporating greater or lesser amounts of brick rubble. Chalk/lime fragments and flecks were prominent in most of these deposits. The main fill of the flue, 405024, was also of this character.

The interpretation of structure 405003 as a limekiln is based on general characteristics of size and form, and in particular the evidence for intense heating. The present structure is broadly comparable to features described as field kilns and known from adjacent counties (Williams 2004, 12-13), but the location on level ground, requiring the excavation of a (probably) deep stokehole rather than exploiting a steep slope or bank, is less typical. The internal ledge of structure 405003 is characteristic of these kilns, however, although the ovoid profile of the structure is also reminiscent of that of many ice-
Plate 7  View of probable limekiln 405003 from the north-west, along the flue. Scales = 2 m and 0.5 m

Plate 8  Limekiln 405003 after machine excavation of the lower fills
houses (egg Beamon and Roaf 1990, 5 and 57). For this reason, the lack of certainty about the nature of the bases of the chamber and ‘flue’, and their relationship, is unfortunate. But while burning has occasionally been noted as a treatment of ice-house interiors (ibid., 120), the extreme heat evidenced in structure 405003 is consistent with the temperatures required to calcine chalk or limestone (in excess of 900°C). The narrow flue would have allowed some access to the firing chamber, but to be most effective its base should have been at the same level as that of the chamber. It is not clear if this was the case. Either way, removal of the calcined chalk and its raising up to carts or pack animals would have been laborious.

19th- and 20th-century drainage features
The features exposed in the south-western part of Area 8 and the southern half of Area 10 exclusively comprised a network of drainage features associated with modern agriculture.

Radiocarbon dating
Two samples of charcoal from burnt mounds 505154 and 505275 were submitted to Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC) AMS Facility, Glasgow. The results are shown in Table 1. They are presented as conventional radiocarbon ages. The calibrations of these results, which relate the radiocarbon measurements directly to the calendrical time scale, were calculated using the OxCal3 calibration programme (Bronk Ramsey 1995; 2001). The calibrated date ranges cited within the text are those for the 95% confidence level (2 sigma).

THE FINDS

The pottery by Edward Biddulph, Paul Blinkhorn, and Lisa Brown

Introduction
An assemblage of pottery weighing c 21 kg was recovered from the evaluation and subsequent excavation. The pottery belonged mainly to the Iron Age and medieval periods, with smaller amounts of Roman material and occasional post-medieval pieces also recorded. The condition of the pottery was mixed. The prehistoric and Roman pottery was generally in poor condition, and represented mainly by small, undiagnostic body sherds, although larger sherds were also present. The medieval pottery was in much better condition, and a number of near-complete vessels broken into relatively few pieces were recorded.

The prehistoric and Roman pottery was sorted into fabrics within context groups, and further sorted into ‘sherd-families’, for example rims belonging to the same vessel, or the mass of undiagnostic body sherds within a fabric-group. Each sherd-family was recorded by sherd count, weight in grammes, and, where a rim was present, vessel count (MV) and estimated vessel equivalents (EVE). Forms and fabrics were identified using Oxford Archaeology’s standard recording guidelines for Iron Age and Roman pottery (Booth nd) with reference to local assemblages, for example from Binford (Booth 1995) and Bray (Cleal 1995). The medieval and post-medieval pottery was sorted into context-groups, and each group weighed and counted, with rims being quantified by EVE.

Prehistoric pottery by Lisa Brown

Introduction
Some 479 sherds of prehistoric pottery weighing 4.1 kg were recovered from the site, 339 sherds (2.6 kg) from the excavation and 140 sherds (1.4 kg) from the evaluation stage. Most of the pottery dates from the middle Iron Age but middle to late Bronze Age material was also present, including 124 sherds (1.27 kg) belonging to a single vessel recovered during the evaluation. The condition of the prehistoric pottery was generally moderate to poor, consisting for the most part of small, undiagnostic body sherds. Pottery associated with the middle Iron Age roundhouses and industrial pits was particularly abraded. However, some of the coarse flint-tempered wares were relatively robust and well preserved.

Fabrics
Twenty-five prehistoric fabrics were identified within four broad ware groups based on principal inclusion type (Booth nd; PCRG 1997): sand, flint, shell and flint/shell (Table 2). Sandy wares, of which a proportion were glauconitic, were most important overall, representing 59% of the total by sherd count (48% by weight), followed by flint (35% by count, 46% by weight). Shelly wares formed only 6% by count (5% by weight).

The site lies on London Clay and the Bagshot Beds sand and gravel of Jennett’s Hill, which could
have provided the clay sources for some of the non-glauconitic sandy wares. Other fabrics would not have been procurable in the immediate locality as the closest sources of flint temper and flinty clays are along the Upper Chalk of the North Downs some 15 km to the south of the site, and glauconitic sand would have derived from greensand formations, either a similar distance to the south or further to the west within the Reading Beds (Morris and Mepham 1995, 79).

Bronze Age

Coarse flint and shell/flint were evidently components of the Bronze Age pottery, suggesting that vessels were not produced in the immediate area of the site. The truncated, fragmented base of a large middle Bronze Age vessel (Fig. 28.1) set in a purpose-dug feature, 4409, possibly a votive deposit, was exposed during the 2006 evaluation of the site. The vessel, in fabric F3, was most likely a large urn of some sort. A few sherds in the same fabric from ditches 18308 and 22514, also from the evaluation, are probably of the same date.

Sub-rectangular pit 504048 yielded another probable urn sherd (Fig. 28.2), decorated with a double horizontal row of fingernail impressions immediately below the rim above a vertical ridge. The sherd, in fabric FA4, is very well fired and in relatively fresh condition. Although somewhat unusual, it is likely to date to the middle Bronze Age (A Barclay and M Leivers, pers. comm.). The pit was cut by a second sub-rectangular pit, 504051, which produced a body sherd in an identical fabric, indicating that they were probably contemporaneous. Small body sherds, also in FA4, one from tree-throw hole 362011, the other from a general deposit of colluvium (504134), may represent the same phase of activity. It is also possible that some sherds in similar flint-tempered fabrics recovered in small numbers from middle Iron Age pits and late Iron Age and Roman ditches are residual middle or late Bronze Age pottery.

Early and middle Iron Age

One probable early Iron Age sherd was identified – a shouldered jar with an upright expanded and decorated rim (Fig. 28.3). It came from the fill of material. Waterhole 505104 produced a single plain body sherd in mixed flint and shell temper. Although nothing can be said of the vessel form, it is likely to be of middle or late Bronze Age date on the basis of fabric and general appearance.

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middle Iron Age pit 503211 and could be residual from early Iron Age activity in the area, although no features dating from that period were identified. The rim of the jar was decorated, apparently by a repeated squeezing action between thumb and forefinger, creating a sort of ‘pleating’ effect. Although this specific device is unusual, it resembles the finger-impressed decoration common to early Iron Age jars from this and the much wider region, and probably represents a variation of this treatment. The jar was made in fabric AF4, essentially a sandy ware with sparse, ill-assorted calcined flint inclusions, some of which were reddened by heating. Apart from the decoration, treatment of the surface was minimal. A few body sherds in the same fabric were recovered from the same pit, and also from gully 503049 of Structure 2, as well as late Iron Age pit 503101 and Roman ditch 502226. It is possible that this jar is an example of an early Iron Age decorative technique continuing...

Figure 28 Prehistoric pottery
into the middle Iron Age. However, it appears to
correspond more closely to the early Iron Age tradi-
tion both of the Reading/Newbury area to the west
of the site (Morris and Mepham 1995) and the
Surrey/Middlesex region some 10-15 km to the
north-east at Heathrow (Jones forthcoming).

The middle Iron Age pottery assemblage was
dominated by sand-tempered fabrics. These varied
in terms of texture—both fine and coarse fabrics
were recorded—and composition. Fabrics also
included in lesser quantities glauconitic (black)
sand, flint, mica, and shell. Of these variants, sand
and mica or sand alone were most significant. Flint-
tempered fabrics and shell-tempered fabrics made
much smaller contributions to the middle Iron Age
assemblage. Again, the fabrics contained other
inclusions, typically sand, and could be both coarse
and fine.

Only 18 middle Iron Age vessels were identifi-
able by form, and only two profiles could be
reconstructed (Fig 28.4 and 7). However, the range
of forms allows some comparison with contempo-
raneous sites in the region, including Dunston
Park, Thatcham (Morris and Mepham 1995),
Thames Valley Park, Reading (Mepham 1997a),
Brimpton (Timby 1999) and Heathrow (Jones
forthcoming).

Vessel forms included slack-bodied jars with a
hint of shoulder and ovoid jars with elongated rims
or short out-turned rims, suggesting proto-bead
rims. The latter form continued into the late Iron
Age as form CB (see Biddulph, below). This range
of forms closely resembles the small assemblage
recently recovered during the Heathrow Terminal 5
caveexcavations (Jones forthcoming). A globular bowl
form was also tentatively identified although rim
fragments were too fragmentary to be certain that
these were ovoid jars with simple rims.

Five slack-bodied jars in fabric AM2 (Fig. 28.5)
were recovered, three from the penannular gully of
Structure 2, close to its northern entrance. A fourth
came from late Iron Age ditch 502231, which cut the
gully of Structure 6, the pottery probably origin-
ating from the roundhouse. Another came from
industrial pit 501027 in Area 6. A similar vessel in
fabric A3 came from the terminal of Structure 2 and
another in fabric AM3 was residual in Roman ditch
504171.

Several ovoid forms were directly associated with the middle Iron Age
roundhouses. These included four in fabric A2 from
the southern part of the gully of Structure 3 (Fig.
28.7), two in fabric A3 from the southern terminal of the
gully of Structure 2 (Fig. 28.4) and a third in A3 from
a late Iron Age ditch cutting Structure 6. Gully
503288, the outer gully of Structure 1, produced an
ovoid jar in glauconitic/flint fabric BF3. A number
of similar forms were residual in later features,
including two in fabric FM3 from late Iron Age
ditch 504108 (Fig. 28.9) and one in AM2 from
Roman ditch 504171 (Fig. 28.8).

Four examples of globular shaped vessels,
possibly bowls, were recovered. A rare shell-
tempered (SA2) example came from the gully
terminal of Structure 2 (context 503049) and another
with shell inclusions (AS3) from late Iron Age ditch

Table 3    Quantification of late Iron Age and Roman fabrics
(MV = minimum number of vessels based on rim count; EVE = estimated vessel equivalence based on rims)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fabric</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Weight (g)</th>
<th>MV</th>
<th>EVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E20 - Late Iron Age/early Roman fine sand-tempered ware</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E30 - Late Iron Age/early Roman medium sand-tempered ware</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E40 - Late Iron Age/early Roman fine shell-tempered ware</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E60 - Late Iron Age/early Roman fine flint-tempered ware</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1636</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E80 - Late Iron Age/early Roman grot-tempered ware</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>2189</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O10 - Fine oxidised ware</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O20 - Sandy oxidised ware</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O80 - Coarse-tempered oxidised ware</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>759</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10 - Fine white-slipped oxidised ware</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R10 - Fine grey ware</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R20 - Sandy grey ware</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R30 - Medium sandy grey ware</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R50 - Black-surfaced ware</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R90 - Coarse-tempered reduced ware</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S20 - South Gaulish samian ware</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W10 - Fine white ware</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W20 - Sandy white ware</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W21 - Verulamium-region white ware</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W30 - North Gaulish fine white ware</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>8137</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Late Iron Age and Roman pottery
by Edward Biddulph

Assemblage composition

Some 900 sherds weighing 8 kg—c.38% of the entire pottery assemblage by weight—were assigned to the late Iron Age or Roman period (Table 3). Much of the pottery was no later than the early Roman period and essentially belonged to a single ceramic phase starting from the end of the 1st century BC and continuing to the later 1st/early 2nd century AD (Table 4). Nevertheless, context groups were, where possible, assigned to one of two phases—late Iron Age or early Roman—based on the presence or absence of certain forms; groups containing no post-conquest (AD 43) pottery, for example, were placed in the late Iron Age. The resulting ceramic phases, though broadly drawn, give an indication of changing pottery supply and use during the transition from Iron Age to Roman and provide a basis for comparison with other sites in the region.

The late Iron Age assemblage was dominated by pottery of late Iron tradition, which emerged by the late 1st century BC (Table 5). Grog-tempered ware (E80) was among the best-represented fabrics. A relatively wide range of forms was available, with bead-rimmed jars (CH) and barrel-shaped jars (CB) being most common (Table 5). The latter was available in the middle Iron Age and points to a transitional period when potters employing the new fabrics retained the old forms. Curving-sided bowls and lids were also recorded. Sand-tempered wares (E20 and E30) were less important in the assemblage, although high-shouldered necked jars (CE), not recorded in E80, were available in these fabrics. Flint, so common in earlier Iron Age fabrics, continued to be incorporated in 1st-century wares; flint-tempered fabrics (E60) were relatively poorly-represented by sherd count, but more numerous in terms of vessels represented. Globular jars (CG), bead-rimmed jars and barrel-shaped jars were present in the fabric. It is very likely that a proportion of this fabric group includes Silchester ware, current during the mid 1st century AD (Fulford 1984, 135), but other sources along the North Downs are also no doubt represented. Shell-tempered ware (E40) was recorded in small quantity. No forms were identified.

Table 4  Chronological summary of late Iron Age and Roman context groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ceramic phase</th>
<th>% EVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Late 1st century BC-mid 1st century AD</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early-mid 1st century AD</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid 1st century AD</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-late 1st century AD</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late 1st-mid 2nd century AD</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid 2nd-mid 3rd century AD</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total EVE</td>
<td>8.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5  Quantification of late Iron Age forms and fabrics by EVE (C jars, CB barrel-shaped jars, CE high-shouldered necked jars, CG globular jars, CH bead-rimmed jars, CI everted rim jars, HC curving-sided bowls, L lids)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fabric</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>CB/CE</th>
<th>CE</th>
<th>CG</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>HC</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E20</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E60</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E80</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Total</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The early Roman period saw the introduction of a range of wheel-thrown sandy fabrics (Table 6). However, the range of forms available during this time was little different from that of the late Iron Age. The persistence, too, of grog-tempered ware and other pre-conquest fabrics suggests that potters maintained the older traditions for a decade or two after AD 43 as the new fabrics were established. Sandy grey wares (R20/R30) replaced grog-tempered ware as the dominant fabric. The grey wares cannot be attributed to source with certainty, but the pottery was of a uniformly sandy fabric with iron oxide inclusions and probably largely from the same area. A fabric of similar description was recorded at Binfield (fabric R21; Booth 1995, 110). Forms encountered in the fabric at Jennett’s Park also find their matches at Binfield, particularly medium-mouthed oval bodied jars (CD) and high-shouldered necked jars (CE). Globular, bead-rimmed, and wide-mouthed jars (CM) were also present. Storage jars (CN) were available in coarse-tempered (usually grog) reduced and oxidised wares (R90 and O80). An oxidised equivalent of sandy grey ware was recorded (O20) and represented by a medium-mouthed jar. Sandy white wares, some from the Verulamium region (W21), and a North Gaulish fine fabric (W30) were also represented. Jars were seen in the sandy fabrics and the imported fine ware was available as a beaker, though no rim was found; in any case, a date around AD 50 or perhaps a decade or two later is reasonable. Two fragments of South Gaulish samian (S20) dating to the mid 1st or early 2nd century were collected, but it was not possible to identify their forms.

Just one piece was certain to date after c AD 130. A bead-rimmed dish in sandy grey ware recovered from a gully fill was deposited in the mid Roman period, but it is chronologically isolated. Some of the pottery broadly identified as coarse-tempered oxidised ware (O80) was close in description to pink-grogged ware from Buckinghamshire, dated to the mid 2nd to 4th century, but accompanying material always confined deposition to the early Roman period and the sherds are better identified as a local storage jar fabric.

**Discussion**

The ceramics suggest that the site was occupied during the late Iron Age and the early Roman period. The overlap of forms at key transitional periods hints at continuous occupation from the middle Iron Age to the early 2nd century, although the mid 1st century AD saw the strongest period of pottery deposition. The chronology makes Jennett’s Park contemporary with the settlement at Park Farm, Binfield (Roberts 1995), some 4 km to north. The pottery assemblage there was twice as large and consequently included a greater range of forms and fabrics, including mortaria and imported finewares (Booth 1995, 107-110). Still, the Jennett’s Park pottery would not have been out of place at Binfield and it is reasonable to suggest that pottery supply to both sites drew on the same producers or clay sources. The Jennett’s Park assemblage did not include wasters or other evidence of on-site pottery production, but two clay fire bars recovered from the site may well have formed part of a pottery kiln located nearby (C Poole, below).

Patterns of pottery deposition at Jennett’s Park appeared to be fairly uniform across the site. The overall mean sherd weight was 9 g, while on average 14% of each vessel’s rim survived. These point to a generally fragmented assemblage composed of small pieces identified to type at only a basic level. Most pottery was collected from ditches and gullies, with lesser amounts coming

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**Table 6** Quantification of early Roman forms and fabrics by EVE (C jars, CD medium-mouthed oval-bodied necked jars, CE high-shouldered necked jars, CG globular jars, CH bead-rimmed jars, CI everted rim jars, CM wide-mouthed jars, CN storage jars, HC curving-sided bowls, JC platters, L lids)

| Fabric | C  | CD | CE | CG  | CH | CI  | CM | CN | HC | JC | L  | Total | % Total |
|--------|----|----|----|-----|----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|---------|---------|
| E20    | 0.07 |    |    |    | 0.06 |     | 0.18 |     | 0.18 | 0.31 | 6%  |      |         |         |
| E60    | 0.21 | 0.15 |    | 0.14 |     |     | 0.5 |     |      | 0.5 | 10% |      |         |         |
| E80    | 0.25 | 0.17 |    |     |     | 0.06 | 0.48 |     |      | 0.48 | 10% |      |         |         |
| O10    |     |    |    | 0.15 |     |     | 0.03 | 0.22 |     |      | 0.22 | 5%  |      |         |         |
| O20    | 0.07 | 0.12 |    |    |     |     |     |      |      | 0.1 | 2%  |      |         |         |
| O80    |     | 0.1 |    |     | 0.1 |     | 0.1 | 0.1 |     | 0.13 | 3%  |      |         |         |
| R20    | 0.13 |     |    |    | 0.15 | 0.17 |     | 0.15 | 1.86 | 38% |     |      |         |         |
| R30    | 0.18 | 0.15 | 0.85 | 0.17 | 0.16 | 0.35 | 0.47 | 0.18 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 2%  | 4.87 | 12%     |         |
| R50    | 0.36 |     |    |    | 0.1 |     |     |      |      | 0.98 | 2%  |      |         |         |
| R90    | 0.57 |    |    |    |    |     |     |      |      | 0.57 | 12% |      |         |         |
| W20    |     |    |    |    |    |     |     |      |      | 0.57 | 12% |      |         |         |

**Total** 0.18 | 1.43 | 0.98 | 0.32 | 0.72 | 0.29 | 0.35 | 0.18 | 0.15 | 0.18 | 0.09 | 4.87 | -        |         |

**% Total** 4% | 29% | 20% | 7%  | 15% | 6%  | 7%  | 4%  | 3%  | 4%  | 2%  | -    | -        |         |
from pits and layers. The mean sherd weight of pottery from linear features and pits was identical to the site mean, confirming that the pottery was in the same condition regardless of where it was deposited. This suggests that the pottery had undergone similar processes of disturbance and relocation (for example being moved with organic material from household or communal middens to manuring spreads) before terminal deposition in the cut features, and that the focus of settlement was elsewhere; there were no groups, for instance, of near-complete pottery finally deposited soon after initial breakage and discard. The exception to the general condition of the pottery is an organic-rich layer 502171 in the southern part of Area 7, which contained a relatively large group with a mean sherd weight of 15 g. The figure suggests that the group saw fewer or different episodes of redeposition compared with the pottery from pits and ditches. It may also suggest that this deposit lay closer to the settlement centre and the area of pottery use, perhaps serving as a settlement midden, though the group’s still fragmented rims, averaging 8% per vessel, to some extent argues against this. Despite the apparent redeposition, residuality—the occurrence of pottery dating earlier than the context-groups in which it was found—was low overall. Out of 179 late Iron Age or early Roman context-groups, just five contained residual middle or early Iron Age pottery (given the continued currency of pre-conquest fabrics in the early Roman period, it was not possible to confidently identify residual late Iron Age pottery in context-groups dating after AD 43). One explanation for this is that areas of late Iron Age and early Roman activity did not impinge on the areas of earlier occupation; settlement shifted over time.

Comparative assemblages apart from Binfield are somewhat limited. Few other sites around Bracknell have been investigated in any detail; fieldwalking revealed scatters of Roman-period occupation material at Cabbage Hill 4 km or so to the north-east of Jennett’s Park and Ashridge Wood 4 km to the north-west (Roberts 1995, 123). At Broadwater, slightly further afield at c 8 km north-west of Jennett’s Park, settlement spanned the late Iron Age to 3rd or 4th centuries AD, but the paucity of key indicators like Silchester ware suggests something of a break in occupation during the mid-1st century (Walker 1993, 105), a time of relatively intense activity at Jennett’s Park. The Roman town of Silchester provides much pottery data, but here the differences in pottery supply are very much clearer. Despite the limitations of the data, pottery from the sites can contribute to the question of site status and help to place Jennett’s Park within its region. Turning first to wares, we may usefully employ Paul Booth’s approach to ordering sites. Examining sites from the Upper Thames Valley, he found that in the early Roman period the proportion of fine and specialist wares (amphorae, finewares, samian, white-slipped wares, and white-
Apart from vessel form, there was little evidence of pottery use. A grog-tempered jar had soot externally underneath the rim and had probably been used for cooking on a hearth. Burnt deposits were recorded within a white ware vessel and a sandy reduced ware vessel, which had obviously seen heat, but without a form, this adds little to our understanding of pottery use.

Catalogue of illustrated pottery (Fig. 30)

Context 19013, fill of ditch 19003, group 502225, evaluation Trench 190. Early-mid 1st century AD
3. Bead-rimmed jar (type CH), fabric E60.
5. Lid (type L), fabric E60

Layer 502171, Area 7. AD 43-70

Context 504132, fill of ditch 504129, group 504173, Area 9. AD 50-70
10. Storage jar (type CN), fabric O80.
11. Medium-mouthed necked jar (type CD), fabric R30 with additional iron oxides.
12. High-shouldered necked jar (type CE), fabric R30 with additional iron oxides.
13. Wide-mouthed jars (type CM), fabric R30 with additional iron oxides.

Context 12603, fill of gully 12601, evaluation Trench 126. AD 120-200

Figure 30  Late Iron Age and Roman pottery
**Medieval and post-medieval pottery**

by Paul Blinkhorn

The medieval and post-medieval pottery assemblage comprised 396 sherds with a total weight of 8900 g. The estimated vessel equivalent (EVE) by summation of surviving rim-sherd circumferences was 4.64. The assemblage comprised a range of wares from relatively local sources which indicates that there was activity at the site from the later 11th to mid 14th century. The assemblage appears entirely domestic in nature.

**Fabrics**

The following fabrics were noted.

Poly-tempered wares (Jones 1998)

**F1: Coarse Sandy ware.** Late 11th–12th century. Moderate to dense sub-angular quartz up to 1 mm. Rare angular white flint up to 2 mm. 208 sherds, 2936 g, EVE = 1.18.

**F2: Fine quartz.** Late 11th–14th century. Moderate – dense quartz, less than 0.5 mm. Rare sub-rounded red ironstone up to 2 mm. 49 sherds, 1195 g, EVE = 0.58.

**F3: Fine quartz.** Late 11th–14th century. Moderate sub-angular quartz up to 5 mm. Sparse to moderate sub-angular ironstone up to 1 mm. Rare rounded chalk up to 1 mm. 18 sherds, 203 g, EVE = 0.

**F4: Coarse quartz.** Late 11th–14th century. Moderate to dense sub-angular quartz up to 1 mm. Sparse rounded quartz up to 4 mm. Rare red ironstone up to 3 mm. 5 sherds, 1076 g, EVE = 0.29.

**F5: Fine quartz.** Late 11th–14th century. Moderate to dense sub-angular quartz up to 0.5 mm. Sparse to moderate flint less than 2 mm. Occasional limestone fragments up to 2 mm. 32 sherds, 522 g, EVE = 0.39.

**F10: Sandy Glazed ware.** Late 12th–13th century. Sparse to moderate quartz, less than 1 mm. Sub-rounded red ironstone up to 1 mm. Rare flint and limestone up to 1 mm. Sparse, poor quality green glaze. 1 sherd, 110 g, EVE = 0.12.

Other wares

**F330: Shelly Ware.** Late 11th–13th century. Moderate to dense shell platelets up to 1 mm. Sparse rounded red ironstone up to 1 mm, rare flint up to 5 mm. Some sherds show evidence of surface-wiping. Equivalent to Jones’ Surrey fabric S2 (Jones 1998, 230). The calcareous inclusions have largely been leached out in all the sherds at this site. 10 sherds, 115 g, EVE = 0.07.

**F356: Surrey Whiteware.** Mid 13th–mid 15th century (Pearce and Vince 1988). A range of sandy white wares from several sources in Surrey, including Kingston and Cheam. Range of vessel forms which changes over time, but the earlier assemblages are dominated by glazed jugs, some with slipped, incised and plastic decoration. The ware occurs on a large number of sites in the Thames Valley and its hinterland (ibid. 1988, figs 2–4). 61 sherds, 2,229 g, EVE = 2.11.

**F425: Red Earthenware.** 17th–19th century. Fine sandy earthenware, usually with a brown or green glaze, occurring in a range of utilitarian forms. Such ‘country pottery’ was first made in some areas in the 16th century, and in some areas continued in use until the 19th century. There is evidence for production of such pottery at Inkpen, 10 km to the west of Newbury, while a coarser variety has been sourced at Ashton Keynes in the Upper Thames Valley (Vince et al. 1997, 65), and it is likely that there are as yet more local Berkshire sources. Nettlebed in South Oxfordshire, where kilns have been detected (Mellor 1994, 156), is less than 24 km distant to the north-west. 6 sherds, 213 g.

**F1000: Miscellaneous 19th and 20th century wares.** 3 sherds, 36 g.

The range of fabric types is largely typical of this area of the Thames Valley hinterland, with pottery from probably fairly local sources used, although the lack of a county ceramic type-series for Berkshire means that much of the identification and dating of the pottery from this site is based on the typologies established for Surrey (Jones 1998), and for the Surrey Whiteware pottery known from London (Pearce and Vince 1988).

The poly-tempered wares, fabrics F1–F5 and F10, have inclusions which are generally variations on sand, flint, calcareous material and/or ironstone, and appear to have many similarities with Jones’ ‘poly-tempered sandy wares’ (Jones 1998, 231), which have the same range of minor inclusions. Such pottery was noted by him as being common at sites near to Bracknell, particularly Staines and Chertsey. Jones noted that ‘their precise classification…is usually difficult’ (ibid. 1998, 217), and the author agrees with his statement. Some of the poly-tempered vessels from Surrey have distinctive vertical combing on the body, and are also known as ‘M40 Ware’, due to first being noted at sites excavated along the line of the M40 motorway (Hinton 1973). Sherds with combing were not noted amongst the assemblage from this site, but the fabrics are otherwise very similar.

Sand-tempered wares are found along a considerable length of the middle Thames Valley and its hinterland, and the problem of differentiating between the numerous different wares has been noted in the past (Mellor 1994, 84). For example, Mellor identified at least four different quartz-tempered fabrics in southern Oxfordshire and its environs, with centres such as Henley-on-Thames and Maidenhead producing very similar quartz tempered wares, and sand-based fabrics have been identified at numerous places near Bracknell, such
as Windsor (Mepham 1993; Blinkhorn 2005), Reading (Blinkhorn 2005) and Eton (Blinkhorn 2000). Historical sources indicate that there were potters in Henley during the 13th and 14th centuries, and also perhaps Reading (Mellor 1994, 208 and 210). The medieval kiln at Ashampstead (Mepham and Heaton 1995) is another source. Sandy wares with flint and limestone inclusions are also known from kilns at Camley Gardens near Maidhead (Pike 1965), Newbury (Mepham 1997b), and Denham in Buckinghamshire (Mellor 1994, 86). Reading has produced Newbury-types ware (Blinkhorn forthcoming) and small quantities of ‘M40’ types ware (Mellor 1994, 86), and sand-and-flint Camley Gardens-types coarsewares akin to Jones’ poly-tempered wares are known from Windsor and Eton (Mepham 1993, 43; Blinkhorn 2000, 20). Combed sherds are known from Reading, Windsor and Eton and the sites mentioned above, and their absence from this site suggests that there may be a different source for the pottery to those places, although their absence may simply be due to the vagaries of archaeological sampling, as Jones notes the presence of scored pottery at both Staines and Chertsey (Jones 1998, 231). The poly-tempered fabrics here are all therefore likely to be from a similar, if not the same, source, and thus have a similar chronology, but uncertainty will always be a factor in the identification and accurate dating of pottery of this type in Berkshire until such time that a county ceramic type-series is established and available for study.

**Chronology**

The main period of activity at the site, in terms of pottery deposition, was during the late 11th–mid-14th centuries. The pattern of pottery consumption over time is fairly typical of sites in the area, with the earlier phases being dominated by the poly-tempered wares, along with small quantities of Shelly ware, and Surrey Whitewares becoming more common in the 13th century. The presence of a Surrey Whiteware bowl or skillet with a pulled lip from context 403012 is good evidence that activity carried on until close to the middle of the 14th century; Pearce and Vince (1988, fig. 42) date such vessels to the second quarter of that century. That activity had ended by the later 14th century is very strongly suggested by the complete absence of Surrey/Hampshire ‘Tudor Green’ wares, despite their being common in the region, including at sites further to the west such as Reading. Similarly, the more specialist medieval pottery vessel forms of the mid-late 14th century and beyond, specifically those associated with the storage, preparation, serving and consumption of food and drink, are almost entirely absent. Finally, Coarse Border Ware, which dominates Surrey Whiteware assemblages from around the middle of the 14th century onwards (Pearce and Vince 1988, 16-17), is also entirely absent from this site.

**The pottery**

All the fabric types were local wares, and the range of vessel types is restricted. Imported wares, despite being known from other sites in the region such as Eton (Blinkhorn 2000), Windsor (Mepham 1993) and Reading (Blinkhorn forthcoming) are entirely absent, as are common late medieval wares, particularly Surrey/Hampshire ‘Tudor Green’ types. Many of the jars have evidence of sooting and/or scorcing, and it appears in every way an ordinary domestic assemblage. The assemblage can be subdivided into three sub-phases:

**Sub-phase 4a (late 11th–late 12th century)**

The assemblage from this phase comprised 139 sherds with a total weight of 2279 g (EVE = 3.14), and is made up entirely of unglazed wares, with poly-tempered wares comprising 97.1% of the assemblage by weight. The only other pottery type is Shelly ware, which comprises 2.9% of the phase assemblage. The sherds were mostly relatively small and fragmented. A total of 14 rim sherds were noted, all from jars in poly-tempered fabrics with simple profiles (eg Fig. 31.1), apart from a single shelly example. Two of these vessels was survived to a full profile (Fig. 31.9 and 12).

**Sub-phase 4b (late 12th–mid 13th century)**

The assemblage from this phase comprised 23 sherds with a total weight of 611 g (EVE = 0.22), and all the pottery from this ceramic phase was from the same context (402045). The group is made up almost entirely of unglazed wares, with poly-tempered wares comprising 91.5% of the assemblage by weight, the rest of the material being Shelly ware. A single sherd from the rim and neck of a poly-tempered glazed jug was also noted (Fig. 31.2). The fabric of the vessel has the same basic range of inclusions as the other poly-tempered fabrics, and is doubtless from a similar source. Jones (1998, 216) noted the presence of glazed jugs amongst the assemblage of poly-tempered wares from Staines. The jug from this ceramic phase is the only rim apart from one other, from a jar (Fig. 31.3).

**Sub-phase 4c (mid 13th–mid 14th century)**

This was the largest ceramic phase assemblage from the site, comprising 224 sherds with a total weight of 5730 g (EVE = 3.14), with many well-preserved vessels present. The bulk of the assemblage comprised poly-tempered wares (61.1%), but Surrey Whitewares were also well-represented, making up 38.9% of the assemblage. The bulk of the rim assemblage comprised jars (59.9%, EVE = 1.88), mainly in poly-tempered wares (eg Fig. 31.8 and 11), although Surrey Whiteware examples were also present (EVE = 0.85; eg Fig. 31.6, 7 and.9). The rest of the rim assemblage comprised a Surrey Whiteware jug (EVE = 0.91) and two bowls in the same fabric (EVE = 0.30). One of the latter had a pouring lip (Fig. 31.5), and may be a fragment of a skillet rather than a bowl, although both bowls and skillets with lips...
Figure 31  Medieval pottery
are known from the Surrey Whiteware tradition (Pearce and Vince 1988, 47). In either case, such vessels date to around the second quarter of the 14th century. None of the other Surrey Whiteware vessels from the site is closely dateable.

Catalogue of illustrated pottery (Fig. 31)


Worked flint by Hugo Landin-Whymark

Introduction

An assemblage of 235 flints was recovered, the majority of which came from the buried soil in Area 10 (Table 7). In addition to this deposit, a few Mesolithic flints were recovered from the rest of the excavation area, although these were very sparsely distributed, and a small number of later prehistoric flints, including a later Neolithic Levallois core, were recovered from locations scattered widely across the area. Although the assemblage was modest in size, these artefacts provide an opportunity to consider the function of the Mesolithic site. The flint assemblage has therefore been subject to detailed analysis to reveal the technological attributes of the debitage and typological affinities of the artefact forms. This has allowed consideration of activities undertaken at this location and comparisons to be made with other Mesolithic sites in Berkshire, Surrey and further afield.

Methodology

The flints were catalogued according to broad debitage/artefact types, with retouched pieces classified according to standard morphological descriptions (Bamford 1985, 72-77; Healy 1988, 48-49; Bradley 1999, 211-227; Butler 2005). Additional information on condition was also recorded. Technological attributes were recorded for all flakes and tools, excluding later prehistoric flints recovered away from the main focus of the scatter in Area 10. Attributes recorded include butt type (Inizan et al. 1992), extent of dorsal cortex, termination type, flake type (after Harding 1990), hammer mode (Onhuma and Bergman 1982), and the presence of platform-edge abrasion and dorsal blade scars. The metrical attributes of 126 complete flakes were measured using standard methods for recording length, breadth and thickness (Saville 1980).

Raw material and condition

The raw material exploited was a mid to dark brown flint with an abraded, or partly abraded, light whitish brown cortex. The flint contains occasional thermal fractures, but is generally of good flaking quality. This raw material was imported to the site from a secondary flint source, such as river gravels or clay-with-flints. A single flake was manufactured on flint from the Bullhead Bed at the base of the Reading Beds (Dewey and Bromehead 1921).

The majority of the flint assemblage was in fresh condition, including the flint from buried soil 505058/505200. Occasional flints had slight edge-damage or were rolled; these flints were generally recovered as residual finds in later archaeological contexts. The majority of the assemblage was free from surface cortication, but occasional flints had a light white surface cortication. Approximately half of the flints had light to dark orange iron-staining.

The assemblage

The majority of the flint was recovered from Area 10 with a small number of additional flints recovered from areas 8 and 9; eighteen of the flints from the evaluation were also recovered from this general area. These flints form a coherent assemblage dating from the early Mesolithic, with the exception of a later Neolithic discoidal core from Area 8 (503273) and a late Neolithic/early Bronze Age knife from Area 10 (505184). The flint assemblage was recovered from a variety of contexts, but
the majority of pieces were recovered from buried soil 505058/505200 or as unstratified finds in its vicinity. The flints from buried soil 505058/505200 were in fresh condition indicating that they are unlikely to have moved far from their original place of deposition. The colluvium overlying the buried soil contained few flints, indicating that the flint scatter did not extend significantly upslope. In this respect it is also notable that only a single flint was recovered from the evaluation of Area 11, on the northern slope and top of Jennett’s Hill. The main area of Mesolithic activity was, therefore, on the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill, with a focus of activity near the top of the slope. It is not possible to consider the distribution of the flints further as only a limited proportion of the buried soil was hand-excavated, and this only within the western half of the deposit.

The density of flint across the rest of the extensive evaluation and excavation areas around Jennett’s Park was remarkably low and only sixteen flints were recovered apart from the main concentration. These artefacts were widely distributed and include both Mesolithic and Neolithic/early Bronze Age flints; the only diagnostic artefact was an edge-blunted point with inverse basal retouch from evaluation Trench 58, in the area later excavated as Area 3.

### Table 7  The flint assemblage from Jennett’s Park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category type</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Excavation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area 3</td>
<td>Area 4</td>
<td>Area 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flake</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blade</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blade-like</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular waste</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro burin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejuvenation flake core/edge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejuvenation flake other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single platform blade core</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bipolar (opposed platform) blade core</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested nodule/bashed lump</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single platform flake core</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-platform flake core</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levallois/other discoidal flake core</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core on a flake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassifiable/fragmentary core</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microlith</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End scraper</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End and side scraper</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awl</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piercer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spurred piece</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backed knife</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retouched flake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                                | 31         | 1          | 1      | 1      | 7      | 16      | 178   | 235   |

| No. of burnt flints (%)*             | 1          | 1          | 11     | 13     |
| No. of broken flints (%)*            | 4          | 1          | 3      | 49     |
| No. of retouched flints (%)*         | 3          | 2          | 3      | 17     |

* Percentage excludes chips

The density of flint across the rest of the extensive evaluation and excavation areas around Jennett’s Park was remarkably low and only sixteen flints were recovered apart from the main concentration. These artefacts were widely distributed and include both Mesolithic and Neolithic/early Bronze Age flints; the only diagnostic artefact was an edge-blunted point with inverse basal retouch from evaluation Trench 58, in the area later excavated as Area 3.

### Flakes

The flake component of the assemblage includes a significant proportion of thin and narrow flakes (Fig. 32; Table 8). However, only 22 complete flakes are of blade proportions (> 2:1 length to breadth ratio), representing 17.4% of the flake assemblage. This proportion is comparatively low for the
Mesolithic, as on average one might expect more than 33% of flakes to reach blade proportions (Ford 1987b). Blades are, therefore, under-represented, an assertion supported by the presence of dorsal blade scars on 29% of all flakes. The under-representation of blades, however, cannot be accounted for by breakage, for example during the manufacture of tools (ie microliths), as consideration of broken blade fragments would only increase the proportion of blades to 22% of the flake assemblage. Blades may, therefore, have been manufactured at this location, but removed for use or adaptation elsewhere. The maximum blade length was 73 mm, with an average blade measuring 42.8 mm long by 17 mm wide and 5.3 mm thick. The average dimensions of flakes were 33.4 mm long by 24.8 mm wide and 6.3 mm thick.

The flake debitage further reflects the preparation and working of cores. The raw material may have been imported as partly prepared nodules, as cortical flakes are under-represented at 6.5% of all flakes. However, these nodules are unlikely to have been extensively dressed, as 54.8% of flakes bore some cortex, although the cortex frequently covered a small proportion of the dorsal surface only; 32.7% of flakes exhibited cortex on between 1% and 25% of the dorsal surface (Table 9). The presence of a high proportion of side-trimming flakes (19.1%) may further indicate that nodules were not extensively prepared and that cortex was removed once a platform had been established (Table 10). Blade production was initiated by the removal of a crested blade. Three unifacial crested blades are present, measuring 40 mm, 57 mm and 60 mm in length and provide an indication of the maximum length of blades manufactured (Fig. 33.1). A single core rejuvenation flake was present in the assemblage.

The dominance of plain platforms may suggest that platforms were maintained by the removal of core rejuvenation tablets, but none was recovered. The high proportion of plunging flake terminations (18.6%) may, however, indicate that the platform angle was maintained by the removal of a plunging flake rather than tablet rejuvenation (Table 11). Flakes were carefully removed from cores, with 52.1% of flakes showing platform-edge abrasion. Plain platforms were most commonly encountered.

![Figure 32  Length to breadth scatter diagram for complete unretouched flint flakes over 10 mm²](image-url)

Table 8  Comparison of length/breadth index values for unretouched flakes 20 mm or more in length

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length to breadth value</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Background</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;0.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6-1.0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1-1.5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.6-2.0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1-2.5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6-3.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1-3.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6-4.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 9  Extent of cortex on dorsal part of flakes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dorsal extent</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>90 (45.2%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1-25%</td>
<td>65 (32.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-50%</td>
<td>14 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-75%</td>
<td>17 (8.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76-99%</td>
<td>12 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10  Flake types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flake type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>13 (6.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Side trim</td>
<td>38 (19.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distal trim</td>
<td>22 (11.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc. trim</td>
<td>31 (15.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-cortical</td>
<td>95 (47.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejuvenation</td>
<td>4 (2%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11  Flake termination types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Termination type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hinge</td>
<td>16 (9.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step</td>
<td>8 (4.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plunging</td>
<td>31 (18.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feather</td>
<td>112 (67.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(43.7%), but punctiform and linear butts were also recorded (20.6% and 10.9% respectively). The latter butt types are most commonly associated with blade production. The proportion of cortical butts is surprisingly high at 11.5%, but this may reflect the fact that the abraded cortical surfaces do not significantly hinder knapping. The hammer mode was difficult to determine with any degree of confidence, but it is apparent that both hard and soft hammer percussion was employed. The dataset, although small (56 pieces), indicates that cortical flakes were more frequently detached with a hard hammer (75% hard hammer: 25% soft hammer), whilst non-cortical flakes were detached using both hard and soft hammers (50% hard hammer: 50% soft hammer).

Cores
Thirteen cores were present in the assemblage (excluding the discoidal core), representing a high core to flake ratio of 1:17.5. The number of cores and ratio of flakes further indicate that flint knapping was undertaken at this location. Two tested nodules were present including a large quartered block, weighing 425 g with a maximum dimension of 110 mm, which exhibited a few removals and an attempt to create a crest. This piece may be representative of the form of raw materials imported to the site. The extensively worked cores include two single platform blade cores (Fig 33.2 and 3) and an opposed platform blade core (Fig. 33.4), but flake cores dominate, with three single platform (Fig. 33.5) and three multi-platform flake cores. The flake cores would have produced good blanks for the scrapers present in the assemblage. These cores have been worked until exhausted and weigh between 12 g and 77 g, with an average weight of 41 g.

Retouched artefacts
Retouched artefacts form 11% of the combined artefact assemblage, and include a broad range of tools, such as microliths, scrapers, piercers, notched flakes and edge-retouched flakes. This total is relatively high and a variety of activities are represented. Three complete and two broken microliths are present. The forms are not readily classifiable using Jacobi's system (1978), but are broadly comparable to Clark's classification (1934); all forms are broad-blade and comparable to early Mesolithic industries. Four microliths were recovered from Area 10, with one recovered from evaluation Trench 58. In Area 10, a single microlith exhibited a simple distal oblique truncation, but may not represent a finished artefact as the bulb has not been removed and the tip was broken during manufacture (Fig. 33.6). A second microlith has a long straight truncation with additional edge retouch along the opposite side and forming a rounded base (Fig. 33.7). This
microlith is most comparable to Clark’s B4. The two other microliths are broken and unclassifiable, but both have oblique truncations with additional lateral retouch (Fig. 33.8 and 9). The microlith from evaluation Trench 58 is most comparable to Clark’s Type E points (Fig. 33.10). The flint has a straight truncation along the right hand side, with slight inverse oblique truncation at the distal end. The manufacture of microliths is attested by the presence of two micro-burins. One example represents a failed attempt, as the blade snapped in the middle rather than through the notch.

Eight scrapers are present in the assemblage, including five end scrapers and three end-and-side scrapers. The scrapers have all been manufactured on flakes and have semi-abrupt to abrupt edge retouch. Area 10 yielded three end scrapers, whilst areas 8 and 9 each yielded an end scraper and a side-and-end scraper (Fig. 33.11 and 12); the remaining scraper was recovered from evaluation Trench 232, located c 15 m from the Mesolithic scatter in Area 10. These scrapers are considered to relate to the Mesolithic activity, but as the artefact form is essentially not diagnostic it is possible that some examples date from the Neolithic-early Bronze Age. Piercing tools are particularly common, with an awl (Fig. 33.13), two piercers (Fig. 33.14), and two spurred pieces (Fig. 33.15). The awl has been manufactured on a flake and has abrupt retouch along two sides converging to a point. The distal retouch appears to be in fresher condition than the rest of the flint and may result from reworking after a period of use. The assemblage also contains three notched flakes and two flakes with slight edge retouch. A well utilised and probably hafted flake was also recorded (Plate 9). The blade-like flake has a heavy gloss and rounding on the ridges on the left hand side of the dorsal surface, with a slight gloss on the ventral surface; the right hand edge also has considerable damage, presumably from use. In contrast, the right hand side of the flint, on both the ventral and dorsal surface, is free from gloss and the edge is in fresh condition. This strongly indicates that the right hand side of the flint was protected within a haft, while the left hand side of the flint was subjected to considerable use.

Discussion

The excavation identified a distinct scatter of early Mesolithic flint within a buried soil at the top of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill, and also recovered a small number of Mesolithic and later Neolithic/early Bronze Age flints in the wider landscape. The scatter represents the focus of activity in the local area, although the recovery of worked flint from areas 8 and 9 and the evaluation trenches to the south demonstrates the presence of some peripheral activity. The original scale of the site is difficult to determine as the buried soil extends to the east beyond the limits of excavation. Only 8.4% of the buried soil was excavated, and so the assemblage of 235 flints does not represent the entire original size of the scatter, although the scatter is unlikely to have comprised many thousands of flints.

Jennett’s Park lies outside the typical distribution of Mesolithic activity in the region. The majority of Mesolithic sites are located either in the main river valleys, for example along the Kennet and Thames (Wymer 1977), or on the greensand in Surrey and Sussex (Rankine 1949). The claysands of East Berkshire have yielded comparatively few Mesolithic scatters and isolated flints, but this to some degree represents comparatively limited fieldwork. The East Berkshire archaeological survey (Ford 1987a) significantly enhanced the archaeological record and demonstrated by fieldwalking the presence of both isolated artefacts and flint scatters on the claysands. These include scatters to the north of Bracknell at Park Farm, Binfield (Ford 1987a; Roberts 1995) and one scatter located less than a kilometre to the west (Site 340—Ford 1987a, 60). These scatters all occupy similar slightly elevated locations to Jennett’s Hill. The scatter to the west and the current scatter are both situated on isolated outliers of the Bagshot Beds in a predominately London Clay landscape, although the scatters at Park Farm are both located on clay. These scatters provide good evidence for the exploitation of claysand resources, but the function of these scatters and temporal patterns of occupation are open to debate.

The scatter on Jennett’s Hill and the other flint scatters on the claysands are of moderate proportions and comparably sized assemblages are known from sites on the greensand in Surrey (Rankine 1949). These assemblages are, however, notably smaller than those from many of the sites along the main rivers, commonly interpreted as base camps. Indeed, it has been suggested that some of the greensand sites represent the location of short episodes of habitation, perhaps for the performance of specific tasks. The scatter Kettlebury 1, located on the lower greensand in Surrey, yielded a small assemblage of flint comprising 381 pieces, including 18 scrapers, four microliths and two micro-burins (Rankine 1949). Mellars classified this scatter as a ‘scraper-dominated’ assemblage and interpreted Kettlebury 1 as a short term habitation site with a particular focus on the preparation of hides (Mellars 1976). The scatters on the claysands around Bracknell, including Jennett’s Park, are, or at least would have been, considerably larger than Kettlebury 1 and distributed over a more substantial area. They also contain a more diverse range of tools. This may indicate that the scatters around Bracknell result from the performance of a broad range of activities and reflect a considerable period of habitation rather than the performance of specific task. It is, however, notable that scrapers are more common than microliths at both Jennett’s Hill and the two scatters at Park Farm (Roberts 1995, 126). This may suggest that although other activities were
Figure 33 Worked flint
performed, the preparation of hides was more frequently undertaken on the claylands than on sites by rivers. This may reflect differences in the locally available resources, for example the hunting of large mammals as opposed to fishing. In the absence of stratified deposits it is difficult to consider temporal patterns of occupation, but it is probable that these clayland scatter represent habitation sites that were occupied in seasonal cycles of movement and/or resource exploitation.

Illustration catalogue
6. Burnt mound 505285, SF 685. Microlith with oblique distal truncation. Tip broken, possibly during manufacture, and the bulb has not been removed. Possibly an unfinished obliquely blunted point. Length: 33 mm, breadth: 10 mm, thickness: 3 mm. Early Mesolithic
7. Buried soil 505201. SF 655. Microlith comparable to Clark’s Type B4 (1934). Straight proximal truncation on right hand side with additional edge trimming along left hand edge and around the distal end. Length: 31 mm, breadth: 6 mm, thickness: 3 mm. Early Mesolithic
8. Buried soil 505201. SF 656. Broken microlith most comparable to Clark’s Type C1 (1934). Proximal oblique truncation on right hand side with retouch extending along side. Some edge retouch on distal left hand side before distal break. Length: 39+ mm, breadth: 16 mm, thickness: 3 mm. Early Mesolithic
10. Evaluation Trench 58. Context 5811. Microlith most comparable to Clark’s Type E, straight backed points (1934). Straight truncation along right hand side, with slight inverse oblique truncation at distal end. Length: 40 mm, breadth: 11 mm, thickness: 3 mm. Early Mesolithic
13. Burnt mound 505285. SF 697. Awl. Abrupt edge retouch and evidence of secondary retouch along the distal edge after the artefact has become iron-stained. Mesolithic
14. Burnt mound 505285. SF 701. Piercer with abrupt retouch along one edge. Mesolithic

Fired clay by Cynthia Poole

Introduction
The fired clay assemblage comprised 603 fragments weighing 14045 g, of which 368 fragments (1294 g) were recovered from bulk samples (Table 12). Preservation was moderately good with a mean fragment weight of 23 g, which rises to 54 g if the samples are excluded. Much of the fired clay was moderately to heavily abraded and frequently had patches of soil and mineral concretions adhering.

The largest concentration occurred in areas 7, 8 and 9, while the remainder of the site produced negligible quantities. Over 90% of the fired clay assemblage was found in features phased to the late Iron Age and early Roman periods. A small quantity was found in middle Iron Age contexts and a few pieces were undated or occurred residually in medieval contexts. Two thirds were found discarded in ditches or gullies and nearly a quarter in pits, with smaller quantities in miscellaneous hollows.

Fabrics
The fired clay fabrics were similar in character and likely to be derived from the locally available clay sources.

FC1 was fired to yellowish brown, reddish yellow and grey-black. It contained medium–coarse quartz sand in variable densities and rare-common coarse grits of burnt angular flint, burnt sandstone and rounded chert pebbles, all between 3-20 mm in size.

FC2 was a laminated fine sandy-silty clay fired to reddish or yellowish brown and grey containing rare maroon grits.

FC3 was a laminated micaceous fine sandy-silty clay fired to pinkish/yellowish reddish brown and orange, with cream streaks, containing a high density of medium and coarse quartz sand with a scatter of coarser grits 2-3 mm and maroon iron oxide grits.
**Forms**

Apart from a small red bead, all the fired clay was identified as oven structure or furniture. The majority from both the evaluation and excavation was triangular oven brick, whilst the remaining material included a limited range of forms: oven plate, fire bar, pedestal and oven wall. Fragments which retained some surface indicating they had been shaped have been designated as ‘utilised’, while entirely amorphous fragments have been recorded as ‘unidentified’. Both categories are likely to have derived from ovens, hearths or oven furniture.

**Oven structure**

One fragment with a plano-convex surface from Roman soil layer 502171 may be part of a stoke-hole arch or vent in the oven wall. Another fragment, from late Iron Age ditch 502230, had interwoven wattle impressions measuring c 13 and 15 mm in diameter on one side and a plain surface on the other, and was probably part of the upper oven wall or dome constructed over a supporting wattle framework.

**Table 12  Summary of fired clay data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nos</th>
<th>Nos %</th>
<th>Wt (g)</th>
<th>Wt %</th>
<th>Fabrics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Triangular Oven Brick</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>10878</td>
<td>77.45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pedestal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fire bar</td>
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<td>0.5</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oven plate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>5.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oven structure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilised</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>1282</td>
<td>9.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>2.26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bead</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>603</td>
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<td>14044.5</td>
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**Table 13  Triangular oven bricks: range of sizes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Length mm</th>
<th>Thickness mm</th>
<th>Est. total wt (g)</th>
<th>Perforations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Large corner fragment</td>
<td>c 200-250 (&gt;90 mm)</td>
<td>84-93</td>
<td>c. 2500</td>
<td>1 perforation: 15 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c 70-80% complete</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>c. 1550</td>
<td>2 perforations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c 60% complete</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>c. 1055</td>
<td>2 perforations: 9 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central body</td>
<td>&gt;60</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 perforations: 13 and 15 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corner fragment</td>
<td>&gt;100</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corner fragment</td>
<td>c 200+ (&gt;90)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corner fragment with finger</td>
<td>c 200+ (&gt;85)</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 perforation: 12 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>groove 15 mm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. no.: 1</td>
<td>50-55</td>
<td>1 perforation: 16 mm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. no.: 3</td>
<td>c 70</td>
<td>10 mm, 11 mm x2; 12 mm, 13 mm, 14 mm x2; 14x9 mm; 18 mm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. no.: 3</td>
<td>c 80-85</td>
<td>4 (11, 12, 14 mm x2, 16 mm, 21 mm)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. no.: 1</td>
<td>c 100</td>
<td>15 mm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 34  Triangular oven bricks/loomweights from fill 502081 of ditch 502080 and fill 502005 of pit 502004
Three examples of perforated oven plate were recovered: one from Roman soil layer 502171 and two from Roman ditch 504172. The two pieces from the ditch were rectangular or polygonal in form. These were 42 and 55 mm thick and were pieced by vertical circular perforations, c 35 mm diameter and c 60 mm in diameter.

Two examples of fire bars, both very fragmentary, were found. One appeared to be part of a tapering cigar-shaped variety (though the end did not survive) measuring 40-50 mm by 34-40 mm wide. The second was from one end of a fire bar with square cross-section and flat end measuring 40 x 40 mm increasing to over 48x46 mm towards the centre, indicating that this too was a tapered form.

**Small object**

Bead: circular disc with convex edges. Colour: red. Central perforation: 1.5 mm diameter. Thickness: 3 mm. Diameter: 6 mm. Weight: < 1 g. Date: possibly prehistoric, though from early Roman ditch 504172.

**Discussion**

The identifiable structural fired clay all derives from hearths or ovens, being either part of the floor, lining wall or superstructure, or associated portable oven/hearth furniture. The evidence for superstructure is sparse and the assemblage is dominated by portable hearth or oven furniture, of which the triangular oven bricks form the main component.

These objects were ubiquitous throughout the Iron Age and continued in use into the early Roman period, being found on a wide variety of settlement types from hillforts to smaller enclosed and unenclosed rural settlements. Their continued use in the early Roman period indicates the continuation of a native British tradition. The majority at this site was found in late Iron Age and early Roman contexts, though examples were also present in the middle Iron Age phase. Their use as oven furniture, as an alternative to the traditional function of loomweights, has been discussed in relation to those found at Danebury in Hampshire (Poole 1995) and there is increasing evidence from other sites to indicate an association with ovens or similar structures. An early reference to an Iron Age kiln near Guildford describes the kiln as being lined with triangular bricks (Lowther 1935) and at Dagenham a group was found mixed with kiln pedestals probably from a kiln uncovered at this site (Poole 2007). Those found during the evaluation at Jennett’s Park in ditch fill 19013 were associated with a tip of charcoal and burnt flint, which commonly formed the primary layers in the base of Iron Age ovens. A large group of fragments was found in pit 502004, dating from the 1st century AD; this took the form a shallow sub-circular hollow with charcoal fragments in its fill and although no in situ burning was observed, such a feature could typically form the base of a hearth or oven. Two further hollows similar in form and fill could indicate the presence of further hearth or oven bases.

There is a range in the size of the bricks in all periods, which suggests that they were associated with a variety of structures of differing sizes or that their function may have depended on size, with the possibility of their being used as oven or hearth flooring, wall lining or pedestals.

Other varieties of oven furniture were confined to the Roman phase of occupation. The presence of fire bars and perforated oven plate may indicate changes in design introduced in the Roman period in relation to ovens, or possibly kilns. Perforated oven plates, however, were found in both the Iron Age and Roman periods. During the later period they were more commonly associated with pottery kilns, possibly because their domestic function was superseded in the Roman period by iron gridirons. Similarly the fire bars are of a Roman type commonly associated with pottery kilns (Swan 1984, 62-64). However, in the absence of firm evidence for pottery production, a domestic function is more likely.

**Ceramic building material by Cynthia Poole**

A total of 189 fragments of ceramic building material weighing 21053 g were recovered from the evaluation and excavation. These were almost exclusively of medieval and post-medieval date, apart from a few Roman pieces. The latter comprised four fragments of tegulae recovered from buried soil layer 502171 and two brick fragments, one from the fill of medieval ditch 403085 and the other from the fill of a tree-throw hole of uncertain date (504073). Medieval and post-medieval building material was recovered from all ten excavation areas and appears to represent material scattered over a wide area in low densities, except for material from probable limekiln 405003. Two complete bricks from the structure of the kiln were taken as samples. These measured 225 x 110 x 65 mm (9 x 4 3/8 x 2 5/8 ins) and 210 x 106 x 55-60 mm (8 1/4 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/4-2 1/2 ins), and their size and quality suggest a date in the late 16th-17th centuries. It is likely that the remainder of the building material became incorporated into the features and layers from which it was recovered as a result of manuring or other casual activities, rather than representing evidence for buildings standing within or close to the areas under investigation.

**Worked stone by Ruth Shaffrey**

A small chunk of greensand, possibly Lodsworth stone, was recovered from the upper fill of Roman field boundary ditch 502258 in evaluation Trench 189. The piece has one pecked and smoothed surface and may be a fragment from a rotary quern.
**Slag by Luke Howarth**

An assemblage of 11.82 kg of metalworking debris was recovered from the evaluation and excavation. The material was collected both by hand during excavation and from environmental samples, although the latter was of limited value due to the small size of the fragments obtained, which derived entirely from contexts from which hand-retrieved material had already been recovered. The material was recovered exclusively from the fills of pits and ditches, there being no hearths or furnaces identified on the site. No hammerscale or similar metalworking wastes were identified. The assemblage was derived mostly from features dating from the Iron Age and Roman period, with only three fragments (82 g) from later features and 28 fragments (2193 g) from undated contexts.

**Middle Iron Age**

Approximately half the assemblage derived from contexts attributed to the middle Iron Age (5105 g, 47 fragments). Most of this material is of furnace/smithing hearth bottom. Most of the fragments are relatively amorphous but all have a medium to coarse crystalline texture with impressions of charcoal. Along with these were a few fragments that may be part of a slag cake, produced during smithing. In addition there was one low density lump of silt sand with an ‘ashy’ colour and feel, presumably relating to some other industrial process, since it lacked slag or hammerscale.

**Late Iron Age**

The material from this phase (534 g, 10 fragments) falls into three categories. The first is an iron-rich slag with impressions of charcoal. The texture indicates slow cooling, probably in situ, though irregular deformation of the vesicles makes it difficult to be certain. The second group consists of partially vitrified or baked fragments of clay and building fabric, incorporating some pieces of slag and slagged ceramic building material. The third category comprises a single fragment which is of a lower density, and has a series of overlapping runs on the surface. Overall this assemblage is probably suggestive of primary smithing. One particular fragment, c 100 mm across at most and with a coarse crystalline texture characteristic of slow cooling, is likely to have been formed by working on a small hearth.

**Discussion**

There is evidence for smithing and possibly smelting occurring at the site associated with the Iron Age settlement and the ditches of the late Iron Age and Roman-period field systems. The largest concentrations of material come from a group of pits in Area 6, dating from the Iron Age and located about 200 m north of the contemporaneous settlement. This material consists mostly of smithing bottoms, and is likely to have resulted from the dumping of debris from hearths located nearby. The absence of hammerscale, however, indicates that the pits were not located particularly close to the working area.

**Other finds by Ian Scott**

**Metal finds**

The metalwork assemblage comprises seven iron objects (10 fragments) recovered from the evaluation and excavation. All the objects are poorly preserved and heavily encrusted with corrosion products. A heavily encrusted rod or bar was recovered from late Iron Age pit/posthole 503217. The piece measured 105 x 13 mm and is of unknown function. The fill of medieval pit 501031 contained a whittle tang knife. This could well be a medieval form, but is heavily encrusted and broken into three pieces. The remainder of the assemblage consisted of individual finds of nails, either complete or fragmentary.

**Glass**

Four pieces of glass were recovered, comprising two joining fragments from the base of a cylindrical wine bottle, probably 19th century or later in date, a flat sherd from the side of a cough mixture or tonic bottle with the letters ‘SG’ embossed on it, and a sherd probably from a modern milk bottle.

**THE ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE**

**Animal bone by Lena Strid**

The animal bone assemblage consisted of 47 fragments (27 g) from features dating from the early Iron Age to the medieval period. Preservation was poor, because of acidic soil conditions, and as a result only two fragments could be identified to species, while no butchery marks or pathological conditions could be identified. The identifiable elements were both teeth, one from an adult bovine and the second from a juvenile or sub-adult pig; the remainder of the assemblage consisted of burnt bone, teeth and burnt
bone being the two most resilient categories of an archaeological bone assemblage.

Charred plant remains by Wendy Smith

A total of 42 bulk samples were collected in the course of the various phases of evaluation and excavation for the recovery of charcoal and other charred plant remains. Following assessment of all the samples, it was found that only one sample was sufficiently rich to be interpretable (OA 2008). The vast majority of samples collected did not contain charred plant remains other than charcoal, and for this reason their flots were not recorded beyond assessment level. The one exception was a sample taken during the evaluation phase from an ash lens (19013) rich in indeterminate glume wheat (Triticum dicoccum Schübl./spelta L.) chaff within ditch 502225 of the Roman field system.

Methodology

The author assessed and identified charred plant remains using a low-power binocular microscope at magnifications between x12 and x40. Modern comparative material in the Oxford Archaeology collection was consulted for the identifications of fully analysed plant remains. Nomenclature for economic plants follows Zohary and Hopf (2000) and nomenclature for indigenous taxa follows Stace (1997). The traditional binomial system for the cereals has been maintained here, following Zohary and Hopf (2000, tables 3 and 5).

Results

The fully quantified charred plant remains recovered from sample 19, context 19013, are presented in Table 14. This assemblage was almost entirely composed of indeterminate emmer/spelt (Triticum dicoccum Schübl./spelta L.) glume bases and a few spikelet forks. Much of the chaff was extremely abraded and broken quite low on the glume, near to or just above the abscission scar, so identification to species level was not possible in most cases. A few identifiable glumes were recovered, and emmer and spelt were identified in equal number. In total 98.6% of all identifications were glume bases or spikelet forks of emmer or spelt. A few indeterminate cereal/large grass (POACEAE) caryopses fragments were also recovered, along with one charred bud, possibly from a tree or shrub.

Discussion

The earliest evidence for spelt (Triticum spelta L.) in England dates to the middle Bronze Age, for example at Dartford, Kent and Yarnton, Oxfordshire (Pelling 2003a), and spelt is believed to have been widely adopted in England by the Iron Age. Emmer (Triticum dicoccum Schübl.) has been recovered from Late Iron Age—Roman-period deposits at Bray (Clapham 1995, 36), although spelt wheat was the dominant cereal there. Campbell and Straker (2003, 18) have identified the middle Bronze Age—late Iron Age as the period when there appears to have been a gradual change from the cultivation of

Table 14  Charred plant remains from Roman field boundary ditch fill 19013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Number</th>
<th>19</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context Number</td>
<td>19013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context Description within ditch</td>
<td>Ash lens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Roman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Volume (l.)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flot Volume (ml)</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of flot sorted</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeds per litre</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Binomial</th>
<th>English Common Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cereal Grain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cereal/POACEAE – indeterminate caryopsis</td>
<td>5* Indeterminate Cereal/ Large Grass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Cereal Chaff |                      |
| Triticum dicoccum Schübl. – glume base | 5 Emmer |
| Triticum dicoccum Schübl. – spikelet fork (gb + r) | 3 (4gb + 0r) Emmer |
| Triticum dicoccum Schübl./spelta L. - gb | 381 Emmer/Spelt |
| Triticum dicoccum Schübl./spelta L. – spikelet fork (gb + r) | 37 (42gb + 0r) Emmer/Spelt |
| Triticum dicoccum L. – glume base | 5 Spelt |

| Other Plant Remains |                      |
| Unidentified - bud | 1 Unidentified bud |

Total (using glume base scores for spikelets) 437

* estimate count from fragments
emmer wheat to the cultivation of spelt. However, recent results from Kent suggest that emmer wheat was not completely abandoned in some areas of England, and continued in cultivation even into the Saxon period (Pelling 2003b; Pelling and Robinson 2001). The presence of both emmer and spelt at Jennett’s Park suggests that both were cultivated. However, with the vast majority of glume bases and spikelet fragments so poorly preserved, it is not possible to suggest whether emmer and spelt were grown as a maslin (an intentionally mixed crop) or one was merely a contaminant of the other crop. In the absence of other samples from the site containing interpretable assemblages of charred plant remains, it is difficult to interpret this single rich, and remarkably pure sample. The limited number of taxa within this sample is unlikely to be fully representative of the range of agricultural activities carried out at the site.

Charcoal by Dana Challinor

Introduction

Charcoal from twelve bulk samples collected in the course of the excavation was examined; three middle Bronze Age, five Iron Age and four of the Roman period. None of these assemblages came from features that could be associated directly with specific activities, and so the aim of the analysis was to provide an overview species list for each period, from which a general characterisation of wood fuel use and changes in local woodland resources could be considered.

Methodology

Two approaches to the analysis were undertaken; the first was to analyse key contexts in full and the second was to rapidly scan the whole sample and select twenty fragments for identification. The burnt mound samples contained abundant charcoal and a percentage of the sample was examined. Where there were large quantities of oak present in the sample, non-oak pieces were deliberately chosen for identification. This method ensures that a range of taxa are identified, but it does not necessarily represent the full species list or quantities of each taxon in the sample. Where possible, the maturity of the charcoal was recorded. Classification and nomenclature follow Stace (1997).

Results

Nine taxa were positively identified: Ulmus sp. (elm), Quercus sp. (oak), Alnus glutinosa (alder), Corylus avellana (hazel), Populus/Salix (poplar/willow), cf. Prunus sp. (cherry/blackthorn), Maloideae (hawthorn, apple, pear, service), Acer campestre (field maple) and Fraxinus excelsior (ash). The condition of the charcoal was generally fair to poor, friable and heavily encrusted, which obscured some anatomical characteristics. Consequently, it was not always possible to distinguish between Alnus and Corylus, and the single fragment of probable Prunus could not be confirmed. Identifications have been given to species level where a single native species is the most likely source of the wood. The recognition of tyloses (which indicate the presence of heartwood in oak, ash etc.) was not always possible given the encrustation of the charcoal, so the evidence for maturity was limited to a few cleaner fragments. Some smaller roundwood was indicated by the curvature of the growth rings, but there were no whole stems in the samples.

Middle Bronze Age

Charcoal samples from two burnt mound deposits (505154 and 505275) and from waterhole 505104 were analysed (Table 15). The sample from mound 505154 was dominated by alder, while that from mound 505275 contained roughly equal quantities of oak and alder. The assemblage from waterhole 505104 was rapidly analysed, but appeared to have a similar composition. The similarity between this assemblage and the burnt mound samples suggests an affinity between them. It is particularly striking because the regional review for southern wood revealed a paucity of alder charcoal in the archaeo-

Table 15  Charcoal from Bronze Age burnt mound layers 505154 and 505275 and waterhole 505104

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample number</th>
<th>512</th>
<th>523</th>
<th>516</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context number</td>
<td>505154</td>
<td>505275</td>
<td>505231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature number</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>505231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature type</td>
<td>Burnt mound</td>
<td>Burnt mound</td>
<td>Waterhole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% flot identified</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quercus sp.</td>
<td>oak</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>55h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alnus glutinosa Gaertn.</td>
<td>alder</td>
<td>90r</td>
<td>50r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alnus/Corylus</td>
<td>alder/hazel</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraxinus excelsior L.</td>
<td>ash</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

r=roundwood; s=sapwood; h=heartwood
logical record for the Bronze Age and earlier periods (Smith 2002). Smith discusses several reasons for this, including environmental (alder prefers damp soil conditions such as riversides), burning properties (alder does not make a good wood fuel unless well seasoned) and selection of alder for other uses (alder is often found in waterlogged wooden structures).

Alder is not uncommon in burnt mound assemblages, and predominated in similar deposits such as at Anslow’s Cottages, Burghfield (Gale 1992) and Cox Bank Farm, Uttoxeter (Gale 2007). These sites were located in proximity to wetland environments in which alder would have flourished. The alder from Jennett’s Park may provide evidence for a similar environment in the low-lying areas to the south-west of Jennett’s Hill. Although alder does not make a good wood fuel, it does make a good charcoal fuel (Edlin 1949), which may have been beneficial for some activities, such as steam baths, although it would probably not have been worth the effort and cost of converting the wood to charcoal for general domestic purposes. There is, however, considerable variability in the charcoal assemblages from burnt mound deposits, many of which contain more diverse assemblages (for example, Reading Business Park (Gale 2004), Eton Rowing Lake (Challinor, forthcoming)), perhaps indicating different functions.

Iron Age

The four samples analysed from the Iron Age settlement came from the ring gully of Structure 2 (context 50368), the trench of Structure 3 (context 503182), pit 503075 and pit 503211 (Table 16). All the assemblages were dominated by oak. The full analysis of context 503182 revealed the presence of hazel and field maple, and further analysis on the other samples might have extended the species list further. However, it was apparent that the primary fuelwood was oak. Some mature oak was evident in pit 503075. The pit assemblages may have derived from domestic or industrial waste, as the ring gully samples were similar.

The single sample from an Iron Age pit from Area 6 (501027) had a diverse assemblage of elm, oak,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 16 Charcoal from Iron Age features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% flot identified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Ulmus sp. | elm | 22 |
| Quercus sp. | oak | 10 20hs | 53r 19 20 |
| Corylus avellana L. | hazel | 45r 4r |
| Alnus/Corylus | alder/hazel | 2 4 |
| Acer campestre L. | field maple | 2 1 |
| Fraxinus excelsior L. | ash | 6 |
| Indeterminate | 4 8 |

r=roundwood; s=sapwood; h=heartwood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 17 Charcoal from Roman features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quercus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alnus glutinosa Gaertn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Populus/Salix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cf. Prunus sp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maloideae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraxinus excelsior L.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

r=roundwood; s=sapwood; h=heartwood
hazel, field maple and ash, in contrast to the assemblages from Area 8. Interestingly, oak only forms 12% of the assemblage, compared with 52% hazel and 25% elm. A number of the hazel fragments appeared to be from small diameter roundwood. The function/origin of the charcoal is unknown but the use of multiple species suggests that no special selection applied to the fuel.

Roman period

Four samples dating to the Roman period were subjected to rapid analysis (Table 17). The two samples from pit 502135 were clearly dominated by oak. The ditches produced more diverse assemblages, including oak, alder, willow/poplar, hawthorn group and ash. The alder and willow/poplar indicate that wood growing in a damp environment was still in use in this period. Although these samples cannot be associated with specific activities, a comment may be made on the nature of the context types. Ditch samples frequently exhibit greater diversity of charcoal taxa than pits, possibly because ditches are likely to have been open longer, or received mixed assemblages. Nonetheless, oak appears to be the most important component of the fuelwood selection in all features.

Discussion

The analysis of charcoal from fuel debris can provide a rough indication of woodland composition, but biases were introduced into the record by deliberate selection for economic uses. The species list from Jennett’s Park is limited and consequently direct extrapolation to the environment is difficult. Suffice to say that the named taxa could have grown locally. Oak may have formed the dominant woodland, with the lower-lying areas supporting alder and willow and/or poplar, although the use of the latter species was fairly limited. There is little evidence for hedgerow or scrub species. There is thus some contrast between the fuelwood collection strategies employed in different periods, the Bronze Age burnt mounds being typified by the use of a combination of oak and alder, perhaps in the form of charcoal, whereas the Iron Age and Roman samples are largely characterised by a dominance of oak. However, the dataset is admittedly limited and it is likely that in practice a more diverse range of material was used, perhaps determined by the function of individual fires.

Pollen by Elizabeth Huckerby

A soil monolith was taken through the fills of waterhole 505122 (Fig. 13) for palynological analysis. Subsamples from the three lower fills (505164, 505163, and 505162) of the waterhole were subjected to an assessment level of analysis. A decision was taken not to proceed with full analysis because of the low frequency of the pollen and spores and their poor preservation, although it is still possible to draw some conclusions regarding the contemporaneous environment. The samples were prepared using a standard chemical procedure (method B of Berglund and Ralska-Jasiewiczowa 1986) and mounted on slides. Slides were examined at a magnification of 400x (1000x for critical examination) by ten equally-spaced traverses across at least two slides to reduce the possible effects of differential dispersal on the slides. Pollen identification was made following the keys of Moore et al. (1991), Faegri and Iversen (1989), and a small modern reference collection. Andersen (1979) was followed for the identification of cereal grains. Indeterminable pollen was also recorded as an indication of the state of pollen preservation. Plant nomenclature follows Stace (1997).

Table 18: Results of the pollen assessment from waterhole 505122

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pollen sum (total)</th>
<th>84</th>
<th>35</th>
<th>172</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trees and shrubs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betula - birch</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quercus - oak</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alnus - alder</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraxinus excelsior - ash</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tilia - lime</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corylus avellana-type - hazel</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Heather</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calluna vulgaris - heather</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Herbs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asteraceae undiff - daisy family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taraxacum-type - dandelion-type</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caryophyllaceae - pink family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenopodiaceae - goosefoot family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poaceae - grasses</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potentilla - cinquefoils</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubiaceae - bedstraw family</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinapis - mustards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown herbs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ferns, mosses and liverworts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sphagnum - sphagnum moss</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polypodium - polypody</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pteridium aquilinum - bracken</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pteridopsida (monolete) - monolete ferns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthoceros - hornwort</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indeterminable grains</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charcoal sum (total)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lycopodium marker spores</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pollen preservation was poor in the three samples assessed. There were very few pollen grains in contexts 505164 and 505163, but the concentration of grains in the lowest fill (505162) was high, although the grains were very poorly preserved. Abundant fragments of microscopic charcoal were identified in the three samples.

**Results**

**Fill 505162**

The pollen assemblage from this sample was dominated by tree pollen mainly from oak, hazel and alder with some lime. Pollen from herbaceous taxa was also recorded and was largely from grasses with occasional grains from other taxa including daisy and dandelion type. There were only a few fern spores in this fill.

**Fill 505163**

Very few pollen grains and fern spores were recorded in this fill. However, of the pollen available, fern spores (polyploidy and bracken) were the more abundant.

**Fill 505164**

The concentration of pollen and spores in this fill was again relatively low and the assemblage was dominated by fern spores (polyploidy and undifferentiated). An interesting find is of a spore of hornwort (*Anthoceros*), a liverwort-like taxon found growing on damp soils probably around the edge of the waterhole.

**Discussion**

As only an assessment level analysis was undertaken, the interpretation of the data is extremely tentative. However, the pollen data from the primary fill (505162) suggests that the landscape was quite wooded, with a mixed woodland of oak, hazel, alder and some lime present. Undoubtedly there had been some clearance of the woodland, which had become quite open in character, and the waterhole may have been sited in a clearing. The very limited data from the other two fills (505163 and 505164) suggest that the woodland became progressively more open with ferns becoming increasingly dominant in the understorey.

The presence of lime pollen (2% of the total land pollen and spores) in fill 505162 suggests that it may date to before the so-called ‘Tilia decline’. This is thought to be associated with anthropogenic forest clearance and its date varied at different sites, but in this part of the country it generally occurred about 1700–1000 BC (Greig 1991; Devoy 1979).

**Soil micromorphology by Richard Macphail**

Two thin sections from monolith column samples taken from the potential Mesolithic buried soil were studied (Fig. 6, Plate 2, Appendix). The two 0.25 m-long monoliths (532 and 533) were sub-sampled for thin sections across the two relatively dark coloured contexts (505200 and 505292). Thin section samples also included material from the very base of the overlying colluvium (505269), the interleaved whitish yellow sand (505291) and underlying natural (505002).

The two thin section sub-samples were impregnated with a clear polyester resin-acetone mixture; samples were then topped up with resin, ahead of curing and slabbng for 75 x 50 mm-size thin section manufacture by Spectrum Petrographics, Vancouver, Washington, USA (Goldberg and Macphail 2006; Murphy 1986). Thin sections were further polished with 1,000 grit papers and analysed using a petrological microscope under plane polarised light, crossed polarised light, oblique incident light and using fluorescent microscopy, at magnifications ranging from x1 to x200/400. Thin sections were described, ascribed soil microfabric types and microfacies types (Table 19 and Appendix), and counted according to established methods (Bullock et al. 1985; Courty 2001; Courty et al. 1989; Goldberg and Macphail 2006; Macphail and Cruise 2001; Stoops 2003).

**Discussion**

The situation at Jennett’s Park is not simple. The soil profile records a complicated soil and colluvial history, comprising periods of erosion and soil stabilisation. Context 505002 seems to be an in situ weathered bedrock, but the presence of dusty void coatings suggests that the overlying contexts may be colluvial in origin. Sandy soils are notoriously unstable even during Mesolithic times (Barton 1992; Macphail 2006; Mellars and Dark 1998; Simmons 1975). Contexts 505292 and 505291 are likely to be colluvial layers. Moreover, context 505269 also contains fragments of eroded ‘Btg’ horizon, suggesting the erosion of a former soil horizon.

Context 505200 also represents a phase of topsoil formation. This Holocene argillic soil was partially formed in colluvial sand, and was exposed to topsoil formation processes as a result of truncation, as indicated by broad humic burrows, rooting, and subangular, blocky structure development. It is also likely to have been impacted upon locally by human occupation—hence the presence of a probable flint flake. It is not known whether the possible sand-size flint fragments that occur lower down are in reality artefacts, and/or record general human activity in the area over millennia; the flint flake is sealed within the argillic soil microfabric. Lastly, most of the humic soil associated with the occupation of the 505200 substrate seems to have been eroded, followed by burial by context 505269, and hence this discontinuous layer is mainly only recorded by humic burrows.

It is likely that the palaeosol originally may have been considered a typical argillic brown earth (Fyfield 4 soil series) before Holocene leaching. The buried soil is a palimpsest and has been truncated
by further erosion. Soils derived from Tertiary sands, being already partly weathered and derived from earlier geological formations, are inherently infertile and highly prone to leaching (eg Jarvis et al. 1984, 196-9), leading to the loss of fine matrix soil; one relict patch of micaceous fine soil likely records the nature of the early Holocene brown loamy soil profile. The second (and penecontemporaneous) pedogenic impact was translocation of clay from the upper profile, and this produced clay void and grain coatings throughout this ‘subsoil’, with concentrations in well-developed Bt horizons, best expressed in context 505292.

The development of these argillic brown earths and podzols during the Holocene is well-understood, and follows the trend of ‘lessived soils’ – ‘acid lessived soils’ – podzols (eg Duchaufour 1982, 114, 287). Podzols can develop on an acid substrate such as Tertiary sands. These can form under oak woodland without any clearance or other human impact (Dimbleby and Gill 1955; Mackney 1961). In the subsoils of some podzols, illuvial sesquioxides and humus coatings can be found sealing earlier-formed clay coatings; this was recorded at Hengistbury Head, Hampshire where podzols had formed under an oak woodland cover by the late Bronze Age/early Iron Age (Macphail 1992; Scaife 1992).

**Conclusion**

The soils testify to a history of erosion and periods of soil formation associated with human activity. The main phase of early Mesolithic activity identified on the site appears to be associated with the upper palaeosoil (505200), although the presence of angular flint fragments and overlying colluvium may suggest an earlier phase of activity associated with the lower truncated soil (505292). It can be inferred that periods of erosion and colluviation may have been the result of the Mesolithic activity and potentially woodland clearance association with the buried soils. This could have also led to podzolisation of these buried soils as a secondary impact of clearance.

**DISCUSSION: FROM WOODLAND TO PARKLAND**

**The Mesolithic camp**

The earliest evidence for the presence of people at Jennett’s Park dates from the Mesolithic period, and is likely to represent a small, temporary camp. The remains of this camp consisted of a concentration of worked flint recovered from a buried topsoil...
(505200) on Jennett’s Hill. The full extent of the camp was not established, as the layer extended beyond the eastern edge of the area exposed by the excavation. This situation was compounded by the excavation strategy, as the test pits excavated into this layer sampled only 8.4% of the exposed area, and were located exclusively in the western half. It is consequently not possible to be certain of the extent of the flint scatter, and the assemblage recovered can only be regarded as a sample of the total material present.

Although few diagnostic forms were present, the five microliths recovered were of broad-blade type and are likely to indicate a date during the early part of the period. The site is one of a small number of such modestly sized sites known on the claylands of East Berkshire, including two scatters at Park Farm, Binfield, 4 km north of Jennett’s Park (Roberts 1995, 124-132) and site 340 of the East Berkshire archaeological survey less than a kilometre to the west (Ford 1987a, 60). These sites were somewhat larger, and produced more varied flint assemblages, than some of the small, ‘task-specific’ sites located on the greensand to the south, which were dominated by a single tool type, such as Kettlebury 1 (Rankine 1949). At both Jennett’s Park and Park Farm, scrapers were more numerous than microliths, suggesting that processing of hides was a significant activity, but unlike at single-task sites, a range of other tools was also present, indicating that this was only one of a suite of activities undertaken.

Mesolithic occupation of Berkshire and the surrounding counties appears to have been dominated by dense settlement in the Thames and Kennet valleys, where the size and density of settlements led Bradley (1978, 98) to posit the possibility of a semi-sedentary population. The East Berkshire Archaeological Survey has demonstrated that away from the river valleys these base camps were supplemented by smaller sites that are likely to have been the locations of more short-term camps, perhaps occupied temporarily during expeditions into the forest beyond the valleys to gather foodstuffs and other resources available there. The location of the site at the top of the southern slope of Jennett’s Hill is typical of the camps in East Berkshire, which are generally found on such elevated positions; the scatters at Park Farm, for example, are located on a spur overlooking a stream in a small valley. These locations may have been selected in order to provide a vantage point over the surrounding area, and at Jennett’s Hill the view may have been enhanced by deliberate clearance of any existing tree cover, causing the erosion that produced the colluvial sequence associated with the buried soil. The area to the south-west of Jennett’s Hill, beyond Area 8, is relatively low-lying and was observed during the excavation to be prone to flooding and standing water. No environmental evidence dating from the Mesolithic period was recovered, but evidence dating from the Bronze Age indicated a wooded environment with some wetter ground, and it is likely that these were the prevailing conditions throughout most of prehistory. It is probable that Mesolithic people were attracted to this location by the presence of this wetland, and the range of animal and plant resources associated with it.

The Neolithic hiatus

After the visits by groups of Mesolithic people, Jennett’s Park does not appear to have been occupied again until the middle Bronze Age. The only evidence for a human presence during the intervening years was a later Neolithic discoidal core and a late Neolithic/early Bronze Age knife, most likely representing no more than brief visits to the area. This is typical of the clay areas of East Berkshire, south of the outcrop of chalk in the loop of the River Thames between Reading and Windsor; the East Berkshire survey, for example, was able to find very little evidence for activity dating from the Neolithic or Bronze Age in this part of the county, and concluded that the area may not have been permanently colonised until the Bronze Age (Ford 1987a). The heavy soils of this region may have been inimical to cultivation with the simple ard in use at the time, and while the Thames Valley to the north was substantially cleared of woodland and relatively intensively settled (Lambrick, forthcoming), this part of the county may still have been substantially wooded. It seems that for a considerable period of time this part of the landscape was a forgotten backwater.

Fire and water: middle Bronze Age activity

People returned during the middle Bronze Age, but in a different location—at the base of Jennett’s Hill—and their activities took a very different form, although the environment that attracted them may have been quite similar. The features dating from this period are numerically small, but they nonetheless include a considerable variety of different types, including three burnt flint mounds, two waterholes, two trough-like pits and a possible cremation burial or deliberately placed pot, as well as a number of small pits or postholes buried beneath two of the burnt mounds. Clearly these features represent a range of activities, albeit perhaps associated with each other.

The burnt mounds, comprising deposits of large quantities of burnt and heat-shattered flint pebbles, are examples of a somewhat enigmatic class of monuments that have long been known in the north and west of Britain (Buckley 1990; O’Kelly 1954), but which are increasingly being recognised in the Midlands (Beamish and Ripper 2000; Hodder 1990) and the south of England (Ford 2007, 2-3). Although evidence for the use of heated stones in cooking is ubiquitous on later prehistoric settlements (Lambrick, forthcoming), the much greater volumes
of stones at burnt mound sites, and the absence of any other forms of domestic refuse, clearly indicate that they are not the product of normal domestic activity. Several burnt mounds have been recorded within the loop of the Thames to the north and west of Jennett’s Park, for example at Barkham Square, Wokingham (Torrance and Ford 2003, 88-97, fig. 3.6). The radiocarbon determinations of 1630–1490 BC/1480–1450 BC and 1420–1260 BC that were obtained for two of the mounds at Jennett’s Park are typical of dates obtained for such features elsewhere. Although some burnt mounds have produced dates from as early as the Neolithic period (Williams 1990, 137), most date from the later Bronze Age (Bradley 2007, 214). To date, all the examples from Berkshire for which radiocarbon dates have been obtained have been found to date to between the 15th and 9th centuries BC (Ford 2007), and similar dates are also predominant for sites in the Thames Valley (Lambrick, forthcoming). The ‘classic’ burnt mound is usually described as a crescentic or horseshoe-shaped mound of heat-affected flint. The burial of the burnt mounds was not extensive, consisting of a single trench excavated across each feature, and so it is possible that a trough thus buried could have been missed. The trough-like pits recorded in Area 9 are located some 140 m away from the burnt mounds and are not obviously associated with them. The features found beneath the mounds, which may have been contemporary with the activities associated with the formation of the mounds, provide little useful evidence, particularly as only those features within the footprint of the intervention excavated across each mound were revealed. Consequently the full range and number of features present are unknown, as is their distribution. The absence of heat-affected flint or other burnt material from their fills indicates that the features were not directly associated with the heating or use of the flint. Perhaps they were the pits and postholes of structures that stood around the mounds.

The details of the activities represented by the features at Jennett’s Park are difficult to interpret. No evidence was found for troughs associated with the burnt mounds, but this is not unusual, and in this case it is possible that the troughs had become buried beneath the mounds. The excavation of the mounds was not extensive, consisting of a single trench excavated across each feature, and so it is possible that a trough thus buried could have been missed. The trough-like pits recorded in Area 9 are located some 140 m away from the burnt mounds and are not obviously associated with them. The features found beneath the mounds, which may have been contemporary with the activities associated with the formation of the mounds, provide little useful evidence, particularly as only those features within the footprint of the intervention excavated across each mound were revealed. Consequently the full range and number of features present are unknown, as is their distribution. The absence of heat-affected flint or other burnt material from their fills indicates that the features were not directly associated with the heating or use of the flint. Perhaps they were the pits and postholes of structures that stood around the mounds. The size and extent of the burnt mounds clearly indicate that they accumulated as a result of large-scale, recurrent activities. However, the artefactual assemblages associated with these and the other middle Bronze Age features were minimal, and certainly did not represent the quantity and range of artefacts that might be expected of a permanent settlement. It seems therefore more likely that the remains here are the result of repeated visits by people who for the most of the time were resident elsewhere. Some evidence for the episodic nature of the activities at the site is also provided by the other features. The lower silts of waterhole 505122, consisting of alternating layers of dark and light material, may represent the cycles of occupation and abandonment of the site; the darker layers may have formed during periods of occupation, when activities in the vicinity of the waterhole resulted in the deposition of more charcoal and organic material giving the soil its darker colour, while the intervening, more sterile layers, containing less evidence for anthropogenic influence, may have accumulated during periods when the site was abandoned. Indeed, the very presence of two waterholes adjacent to each other suggests that one was dug as a replacement for its predecessor, a situation that may have only become necessary because, in the absence of a permanent population to ensure its maintenance, the original waterhole silted up. In the loose, sandy soil into which the features were dug, it would be entirely feasible for this to occur in a fairly short space of time. Similarly trough-like pit 504048, though its precise function is unknown, seems to have been back-filled at the end of its use, and subsequently replaced in the same location by the identical pit 504051, perhaps representing the decommissioning of the first pit at the end of one occupation of the site and its replacement with an identical feature during a subsequent visit.

If the remains at Jennett’s Park were the result of episodic visits to this locale, whether seasonal, annual or at some other interval, how did this fit into the occupation of the broader landscape? The site appears to be rather isolated in relation to the main areas of middle Bronze Age settlement known...
in the region, which are concentrated in the Thames Valley where the fields and boundaries of a fully agricultural landscape were developing (Lambrick, forthcoming; Yates 2007). In contrast to this domesticated landscape, the evidence of the pollen from waterhole 505122 indicates that the environment around Jennett’s Park was characterised by woodland, and the charcoal assemblages from burnt mound 505128/505154 were dominated by alder, which characteristically grows in damp environments, suggesting that marsh still predominated in the low-lying areas around Jennett’s Hill; the charcoal from the other two burnt mounds was of alder and oak in approximately equal quantities. One possibility is that the periodic visits to Jennett’s Park formed part of a pattern of ‘residential mobility’. In contrast to earlier theories that assumed that the adoption of cultivars around 4000 BC necessarily led to a sedentary lifestyle based on permanent settlements that were occupied all year round (eg Holgate 1988), it is now widely accepted that the early farming communities of the Neolithic and the early Bronze Age had a more mobile lifestyle, more akin to that of their hunter-gather forebears, with no permanent home base (Barrett 1994, 136-146; Brück 1999). The earliest evidence for the adoption of a sedentary lifestyle in this part of Britain occurs during the middle Bronze Age in the Thames Valley (Lambrick, forthcoming) with the development of more readily identified permanent settlements and domestic architecture, such as that at Weir Bank Stud Farm, Bray (Barnes and Cleal 1995). Outside the valley, however, occupation sites are rarer, and those that are known are often represented only by isolated groups of pits, as at Aldermaston Wharf and Knight’s Farm, Burghfield (Bradley et al. 1980, 224, 258, 260) and Dunston Park, Bray (Fitzpatrick et al. 1995, 72), and are similar to the evidence from the temporary camps of earlier periods. It is possible that this reflects a continuation of a mobile lifestyle in these areas (Ford 2007, 1-2), and that the activity at Jennett’s Park is one element of such a pattern of activity, indicating that the development of the communities in this part of the landscape took a markedly different trajectory from that of their contemporaries in the Thames Valley. Alternatively, the remains at Jennett’s Park may be the result of periodic visits from members of the sedentary communities based in the valley. Either way, the presence of the waterholes and burnt mounds is clearly evidence for a very specific and circumscribed range of activities that were particular to this location, and which appear to have differed from those typical of most permanent settlements or more temporary camps, even if we cannot be certain of their details.

The gatherings that took place at Jennett’s Park may have had more than a purely mundane purpose. Bradley (2000) has drawn attention to the importance of natural locations to pre-industrial communities. He has emphasised that the use of the landscape by prehistoric societies was not limited to settlement and monument sites, but was far more extensive, involving many locations that were not physically modified in any deliberate or detectable way, and many of which may have been attributed unique symbolic significance. In a similar vein, Levy (1982, 56-7) has argued from ethnographic evidence that certain classes of ritual activity were undertaken in special locations away from settlement, and with only a restricted element of the community participating. It is therefore possible that the isolated location of Jennett’s Park was significant in the choice of this place for the activities that generated the burnt mounds. Its distance from the main areas of settlement and its wild character, dominated by marsh and woodland in contrast to the more domesticated landscape of the Thames Valley, may have resulted in it being neutral territory, communally controlled or perhaps even believed to have some special character. Its proximity to the watery landscape of the adjacent marsh may also have been significant, as traditions of ritualised deposition in watery places—such as rivers, lakes and bogs—were long-lived in northern Europe from the Neolithic period onward (Bradley 1990). Some form of ritual activity may be hinted at by the urn set into the ground in pit 4409. Most of the pit, and all but the base of the urn, had been destroyed by modern ploughing, and it is possible that the feature was a cremation burial from which the cremated bone had been lost due to this truncation, but enough of the soil filling the vessel was preserved to expect at least some bone to have survived. The absence of any bone suggests that it is more likely that the feature was not a cremation burial, but that the pot and its unknown contents represent some form of deliberate deposit, perhaps as some form of votive offering. Jennett’s Park may therefore have been perceived as a suitable location for some part of the community to remove themselves from the rest of the population, or for members of different communities to come together in activities that included cooking, feasting or bathing. These served to re-affirm community ties, and perhaps involved such practices as negotiating access to resources, assigning marriage partners or enacting rites of passage.

Settling down: the Iron Age and Roman period

Jennett’s Park was first used for permanent settlement during the middle Iron Age, when a small farmstead was established at the foot of the western slope of Jennett’s Hill. How this location was chosen is not known, although the small assemblage of early Iron Age pottery recovered from the fills of later features indicates that people were already using this land before the settlement was established, and although the evidence does not suggest that they were living here, it is possible that they had already cleared some of the woodland for agricultural purposes. The local geology may also

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have been a factor in choosing this location, as the settlement was situated on an area of sand, whereas the geology of most of the land to the north, west and south was clay and would have been more prone to flooding. The only contemporaneous sites in the area currently known are at Fairclough Farm, on the northern outskirts of Bracknell, and Park Farm, Binfield, 4 km north of Jennett’s Park; these settlements are both similarly situated on localised deposits of sand or gravel.  

The settlement comprised a group of roundhouses and associated features including ancillary buildings and various pits and postholes. The evidence from the pottery assemblage indicates that it was occupied continuously from the middle Iron Age (400/300–50 BC) until the end of the late Iron Age, around the middle of the 1st century AD. Its full extent was not established with any certainty, but it extended over an area covering at least 125 m NE-SW and 60 m NW-SE. The settlement was not enclosed; the ditches recorded around its southern and eastern sides dated to the Roman period after the settlement had been abandoned. It is not possible to be certain from the excavated evidence whether the buildings were occupied contemporaneously, forming a small village, or whether they represent a sequence of more short-lived structures occupied at different times during the life of the settlement. There was some evidence that the structures were not all contemporaneous, as structures 1, 2, 3, 6 and 8 produced pottery of middle Iron Age type, whereas the pottery from structures 5 and 7 dated from after the introduction of late Iron Age forms and grogtempered fabrics during the later 1st century BC. In addition to this, Structure 3 was clearly later than Structure 8, since the former was constructed on the site of the latter, and the curvature of the ring gully of Structure 8 suggested that it was also not contemporary with Structure 1, as their ring gullies would have intersected. Pope (2008, 18) has suggested that due to decay of the earth-fast timbers, roundhouses were unlikely to last for more than a generation. Whether or not that is relevant in the present case (see below), it is probably more likely that the settlement at Jennett’s Park comprised no more than two or three houses at any one time, representing a farmstead occupied by an extended family. No evidence was found for repairs to extend the use of the buildings, and presumably as each roundhouse reached the end of its usefulness a replacement was built at a new location nearby, perhaps resulting in some degree of settlement shift between generations, albeit within a fairly circumscribed area.  

The structures themselves were generally represented by circular gullies, with only the occasional posthole surviving, the remainder of the structural features having presumably been destroyed by subsequent ploughing. The open, generally V-shaped profiles of these gullies indicates that they are likely to be the drip gullies beneath the eaves of the buildings, designed to catch rainwater running off the roof, although being relatively substantial, the gullies of structures 1 and 2 could also have served as soakaways, a function proposed for the equally substantial ring gullies at Orsett, Essex (Carter 1998, 121). In any case, the gullies are less likely to have functioned as foundation trenches for the walls, as the these would generally be more straight-sided. The best preserved of these buildings, Structure 1, provides some additional details of their construction. The outer gully encircled a foundation trench for the wall of the building. This was slightly polygonal in form, comprising four or five relatively straight sections. Although no evidence was found for timbers set within the trench, it is likely that the main structural posts were located at the junctions between these sections, with the straight sections in-filled with wattle and daub panels or a solid wall of split timbers. The main posts would have been linked at the top by a ring-beam, which supported the principal rafters of the roof. The pits and postholes within Structure 1 formed no coherent pattern, but it is possible that some may have been the postholes of internal partitions, or perhaps the framework for an attic (Pope 2008, 18). The posthole at the eastern end of the foundation trench is likely to have held the post supporting one side of the doorway, which faced in the same easterly direction as the entrances through the drip gullies of structures 2, 3 and 5. The ring gully around Structure 1 was continuous, with no break at the entrance, and was presumably crossed by means of planks. The burnt flint and fired clay recovered from pits inside the structure are likely to derive from hearths or ovens possibly within the building (C Poole, above), although there was no direct evidence for these features surviving in situ. Further fired clay was recovered from the fill of the drip gully, while fragments of triangular oven bricks or loomweights were collected from the drip gully of Structure 2. The smaller size of Structure 3, on the other hand, suggests that it may be an ancillary structure rather than domestic in use. No evidence was found to indicate its function, but it may have been used for craft activities or to stall animals. The possible segmented construction of the drip gully of Structure 5 is paralleled by Structure 1 at Fairclough Farm (Torrance and Durden 2003, fig. 4.2), and while it could be attributed to the effects of modern ploughing, this arrangement could also indicate that these buildings had one or more entrances.  

The artefactual assemblage from the roundhouses was not large, and the range of items was fairly limited. This is typical of such structures, and may be evidence that the occupants took their possessions with them when they abandoned each building, leaving them bare (Pope 2008, 18). The corollary of this is that some of the objects that were found may have been placed deliberately, as some form of act of closure to mark the end of the building’s use (Pope 2008, 18-19). The largest
assemblages of pottery, recovered from the gully terminals at the entrances to structures 2 and 3, and from an intervention excavated across the outer gully of Structure 1 next to the doorway, may be the remains of such deposits, placed at the former entrances of the buildings as part of rites associated with their abandonment. Unfortunately, excavation of the rest of the circumference of these gullies was minimal, and was not sufficient to demonstrate conclusively that the terminals had been treated differently from other parts of the structure. A similar instance was recorded at Fairclough Farm, where the gully terminals defining the entrance into one of the roundhouses were filled with rich, humic soil containing sherd of pottery, some of which may have originally been complete vessels, in contrast to the sterile sand filling the rest of the gully (Torrance and Durden 2003, 104-5). Similar deposits of artefacts associated with the entrances to roundhouses have also been recorded at several sites in the Thames Valley (Lambrick, forthcoming).

The evidence for structures within the settlement is completed by two four-post and two two-post structures. The former is usually interpreted as grain storage structures raised on four posts to keep the contents dry and safe from mice or other predators (Bersu 1940, 97-8), and this suggestion has received some support from charred grain found in association with examples that have burnt down (eg Stanwick, Northamptonshire—Neal 1989, 156). In practice, however, the function of such structures is far from certain, and square, post-built structures could have had a range of forms and functions. No evidence was recovered in association with the examples at Jennett’s Park to confirm their purpose. The two-post structures presumably comprised pairs of upright posts that supported some form of superstructure of unknown form. They could have served any one of a number of functions, from mangers to frames on which skins or textiles were suspended for drying or other treatment.

The features recorded in Area 6 seem to have revealed part of a separate area of activity, some 200 m from the main area of settlement. Some of the pits in this area contained slag, including material from the bases of furnaces or smithing hearths, and although no such installations were found in situ, it is likely that the pits were located on the periphery of an area given over to metalworking. These activities may have been confined to this isolated location because the smoke they produced and the risk of fire were undesirable within the settlement, but perhaps also due to more cosmological concerns. Hingley (1997) has suggested, on the basis of a survey of the locations where metalworking was carried out and of ethnographic evidence, that the process of transforming natural ore into manufactured tools was imbued with symbolic significance, requiring it to take place in specific locations away from purely domestic activities.

Evidence for the settlement’s economy was sparse, not least because the acidic nature of the soil did not permit the preservation of animal bone, a phenomenon that also affected the other sites in the area. Settlements of this type are usually assumed to be small, mixed-economy farmsteads by analogy with sites on the chalklands of Wessex or in the Thames Valley (Roberts 1995, 122). However, the paucity of charred plant remains from settlements in East Berkshire may indicate that arable production was not a major part of the economy in this area. At Jennett’s Park, most of the soil samples associated with the Iron Age settlement proved to contain no charred plant remains. Similarly none of the Iron Age samples at Park Farm contained carbonized remains (Robinson 1995, 118), and although wheat, oat and barley were all present at Fairclough Farm they were each represented by only a single grain (Letts 2003, 104, table 4.1). It is possible that the economy in this area was primarily pastoral, with arable production at each settlement limited to meeting the needs of the inhabitants. The bone assemblage from a contemporaneous enclosure at Wood Lane, Cippenham, although admittedly small, was dominated by cattle (Rielly 2003), as was the only context at Thames Valley Park, Reading, that produced any significant quantity of bone (Barnes et al. 1997, 70). This perhaps indicates that the local economy was typified by an emphasis on cattle husbandry, but with animal bone rarely surviving this can be no more than a tentative suggestion. Such specialisation is unlikely to have been practised in isolation, and presumably indicates that these settlements were integrated into wider exchange networks through which they were able to dispose of their surplus produce and gain access to that of other settlements.

The ceramic evidence indicates that the settlement was occupied into the late Iron Age, when structures 5 and 7 were in use, but was abandoned before the start of the Roman period. The field system was established during the late Iron Age, but it is not possible to be certain whether this occurred during the occupation of the settlement, representing fields and paddocks encircling the eastern and northern sides of the farmstead, or whether the settlement was already abandoned and the whole area given over to agricultural use. The digging of the ditches that defined the field system was obviously a significant investment in the infrastructure of the agricultural economy, and presumably replaced either a system based on land divisions that had no archaeologically detectable manifestation, such as hurdles or hedgelines, or a pattern of open grazing without physical boundaries. The establishment of this new complex of boundaries may have represented an intensification of farming practices, combining a drainage function with facilitating a more efficient management of grazing resources, as stock could be periodically excluded from specific enclosed areas to prevent them becoming over-grazed. Although the original
field boundaries were replaced with new, more substantial boundary ditches during the early Roman period, the persistence of pre-conquest fabrics among the pottery assemblage suggests that this was not associated with a break in occupation. The apparently direct replacement of some of the boundaries of the original field system and the maintenance of its NNE-SSW orientation also argue for this being a re-organisation of the existing boundaries rather than a wholesale replacement. Some limited evidence survived for the crops grown at the site during the Roman period in the form of charred remains of emmer and spelt recovered from a dump in boundary ditch 502225. It is unfortunate that only this single sample from the excavation produced sufficient remains for analysis, and that the majority of the remains could not be identified to species. As a consequence, it is not possible to be certain whether the two were grown as a single mixed crop, or whether one was a contaminant of the other. That crop processing was carried out at the site is also demonstrated by the fragment of quern found in the fill of one of the boundary ditches. The discovery of dumps of industrial waste within the fills of the field boundary ditches in Area 9 indicates that some process was being carried out among the fields in addition to their agricultural use. These deposits comprised conglomerations of fragments of slag, fired clay and ash, as well as burnt and unburnt stones, that clearly derived from some process that generated very high temperatures, although in the absence of hammerscale it is not possible to attribute them definitely to metalworking. They may have derived from a number of different processes, perhaps including pottery manufacture, as fire bars and perforated oven plates were recovered, both of which may be associated with kiln structures (Poole, above). No settlement belonging to the late Iron Age and Roman period was discovered, but the people farming the land presumably lived nearby. That settlement must lie either in the area where no evaluation trenches were dug or was unlocated settlement from which it was farmed. The majority of the undated ditches belong to the late Iron Age (Cunliffe 1991, 120-129; Hill 2007), and the demands of the Roman state after the conquest (Mattingly 2006, 353-363, 494-6). These developments entailed a significant increase in the proportion of the population that was not directly involved in agriculture, resulting in the need for food producers to generate a surplus, which was then collected as tax or tribute. This may have compelled farmers who had previously practised subsistence farming regime to adopt a more intensive strategy in order to increase yields sufficiently to meet these increased fiscal demands.

During this period, integrated field systems were constructed across large areas of the landscape (Dark and Dark 1997, 93-104), with particularly well documented examples on the Berkshire Downs (Bowden et al. 1993) and in the upper Thames Valley (Benson and Miles 1974). However, a different pattern of landuse may have been current in the eastern part of the county. The East Berkshire archaeological survey recorded only a low density of pottery on the areas of London Clay, and concluded that this reflected a limited use of manuring in this area, implying that a much larger proportion of the landscape was given over to pasture or woodland (Ford 1987a, 95). Similarly, little evidence has been found for extensive field systems in the middle Thames Valley despite a number of large scale excavations having been carried out, and Ford (2003, 163) has suggested that large-scale organisation of the landscape may have been lacking, with settlement in this area being ‘self-contained and individualistic’. It is possible therefore that this part of the county was typified by large areas of woodland or rough grazing, with widely scattered individual settlements, each with its own small area of enclosed fields and paddocks. The extent of the field system at Jennett’s Park was not established with any certainty. Ditches that are likely to be field boundaries were recorded in evaluation trenches extending across most of the area of the development, but very few produced datable finds and consequently it is difficult to attribute them to a specific period, particularly as medieval and post-medieval ditches are known to be present in addition to the late Iron Age and Roman examples. The presence of Iron Age pottery as residual material in some of the medieval ditches in areas 1 to 5 suggests that activity of this date extended at least this far north, and it is therefore possible that the majority of the undated ditches belong to the late Iron Age/Roman field system.

The ultimate fate of the field system and the unlocated settlement from which it was farmed during the Roman period is not known. The latest material recovered from the ditch fills dates from no later than the early 2nd century. However, in order for the boundaries to be stock-proof it is likely that the ditches were accompanied by hedges, and these may have continued to grow—and remain functional—long after the ditches had silted up. A fragment of a dish recovered from an evaluation trench was deposited during the 2nd century or
later, but this is insufficient to point to later Roman settlement in the immediate area.

From forest to park

After the early Roman field system passed out of use, the area of Jennett’s Park seems to have been abandoned again until the medieval period. In the absence of proper management, the landscape would have reverted to heath and woodland, which characterised much of eastern Berkshire during the medieval period. Certainly the evidence of the Domesday Book shows that large parts of the county were covered by woodland (VCH 1907, 341). Jennett’s Park and the surrounding countryside lay within Windsor Forest from shortly before Domesday until the early 14th century (Windsor Forest is one of the few instances where a forest is expressly mentioned as already existing in Domesday (VCH 1907, 341)). Forest in this sense refers not specifically to a wooded area, but to land that was subject to forest law, a system of law that was designed to preserve large areas of land and the animals therein, particularly deer, for hunting by the king (Rackham 1980, 175-7). In addition to hunting, forests were an important source of income as the king controlled all the natural resources of the forest and often granted local nobles or other residents the right to hunt or collect timber, firewood, hay and suchlike in return for a fee. The land in a forest would typically include a range of landscapes, including woodland, heath and wetland. The large areas designated as forest would also have included settlements, and the features recorded in areas 1 to 5 may be the boundaries of fields and paddocks associated with a farm located beyond the limits of the investigation. The earliest of these features at Jennett’s Park appears to represent a group of curvilinear stockades dating from the late 11th–12th century, associated with parts of linear ditches. The ditches may have had a function related to the control of the movement of animals, perhaps as part of a complex of boundaries that funnelled them into the stockades. These enclosures may have been used either to corral stock belonging to a nearby farm, or related to management of the deer that lived in the forest. During the mid-13th century the enclosures were replaced by a series of more rectilinear boundaries, which may also have been associated with stock management. The possible trackway in Area 3, defined by ditches 403082 and 403084, and the possible corridor between this and the enclosures to the south may have been designed to control and direct the movement of animals while keeping them out of the adjacent enclosures, which, along with those in areas 1, 2, 4 and 5, may have enclosed areas of pasture, arable or horticulture. Aerial photographs taken in 1961 show the cropmarks of an area of ridge-and-furrow to the south of the extant field boundary between Area 8 and the other excavation areas, and this is likely to be contemporary with the features in areas 1 to 5 as medieval pottery including the rim of a 13th-14th century storage jar had previously been recovered from the same area. Forest law severely curtailed the rights of those who lived in the forest to hunt game or exploit the other natural resources in the forest, and the pottery assemblage recovered from these features, which is limited in range and comprises only locally made wares, would be typical of such an impoverished settlement.

The area west of Burnthouse Ride was enclosed during the early 14th century when Easthampstead Park was created, and it is probably no coincidence that the trackways and enclosures of the earlier settlement were abandoned at about the same time. Whereas areas subject to forest law contained settlements and other areas of privately owned land, a park was reserved exclusively for the deer, and was entirely enclosed. This was a more efficient way of managing deer, as they could be located and caught more easily. Parks were most commonly stocked with fallow deer, which were more easily controlled than the native red deer, and Easthampstead Park is recorded as having contained between 200 and 300 of the creatures, as well as 60 red deer (Harl. MS. 3749, cited in VCH 1923, 78). The boundaries of the park during the medieval period are likely to be the same as those preserved in John Norden’s 1607 map of Windsor Forest, which shows the park as teardrop-shaped, with the junction of Peacock Lane and Burnthouse Ride forming the northernmost point. A sloping bank, c 4–5 m wide, nearly a metre high and extending alongside Burnthouse Ride to the south of Tarman’s Copse, is likely to be the remains of part of the park boundary. The creation of the park would have entailed the expulsion of the inhabitants of the settlement from the land which they had formerly farmed. Since the trackway and enclosure boundaries to the east of Burnthouse Ride, and therefore outside the park, were also abandoned at this time it is likely that the loss of the land enclosed by the park rendered the settlement uneconomic to farm and resulted in its abandonment.

Whereas forests belonged to the king, a park could be owned by anyone who could afford to maintain one, although in the case of Easthampstead Park the owner was the Crown. Hunting formed an important part of the chivalric, feudal system of medieval England, the consumption of venison being reserved for the nobility. A number of kings are recorded as having hunted at Easthampstead, including Edward III, Richard II, Henry VIII and James I (VCH 1923, 78). The park eventually passed into private hands in 1629, when Charles I granted it to William Trumbull on condition that the stock of deer should be maintained for the king and future monarchs to hunt (VCH 1923, 78-9). However, during the turbulent times of the Civil War, poaching and the destruction of park pales became commonplace, and all the deer at Easthampstead were killed. This phenomenon was
widespread at the time, resulting in a scarcity of deer. It was not possible to re-stock the park, and it became purely ornamental and remained so to the modern day.

The medieval hunting lodge, which was located some distance to the south of the development area, was incorporated into a newly built mansion shortly before the death of William Trumbull in 1635. The date attributed to the bricks of the kiln recorded in Area 5 suggests that the kiln was closely contemporary with the construction of the mansion. The kiln itself presents a number of problems as a result of the incomplete nature of the record, but it is most likely to have been for burning lime for mortar and may therefore be associated with the construction of the 17th-century house. The kiln had been used intensively, but it is not known if this was over a short period related to the 17th-century building, or whether it remained in use over a longer period. A secondary use, producing lime for agricultural use, is possible. The raw material was presumably chalk, which could have been obtained from sources to the north, where the Upper Chalk is found no more than 10 km distant from the site.

This first mansion was demolished during the 1860s and replaced on a different site by the current Easthampstead Park House, built in the Jacobean style. The historic maps of the area show that the boundary of the park has changed on several occasions since the 17th century, the area of Jennett’s Park being finally excluded during the 19th century, perhaps following the construction of the new mansion, and it is likely to have been at this time that it was incorporated into the holdings of Peacock Farm.
### Table A1 (Fig. A1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Microfacies type (MFT)</th>
<th>Soil microfabric type (SMT)</th>
<th>Sample No.</th>
<th>Depth (relative depth)</th>
<th>Interpretation and Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MFT A4/SMT 1a, 1b, 3a</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>75-160 mm</td>
<td>SM: Heterogeneous with SMT 1a, 1b and 3a (burrows); fragments of SMT 1b in SMT 1a of 505269; Microstructure: massive with weakly formed subangular blocky, 30-40% voids, simple packing voids and channels and chambers; Coarse Mineral: as 505002; Coarse Organic and Anthropogenic: traces of fine roots; example of fine charcoal (600 µm), example of 1.5mm size flint flake; Fine Fabric: SMT 3a: dusty very dark brown (PPL), very low interference colours (coated and bridged grain, speckled b-fabric, XPL), brownish (OIL); thin humic staining and occasional fine amorphous organic matter; rare traces of charred OM; Pedofeatures: Textural: abundant thin clay void coatings; Amorphous: rare traces of Fe-Mn fine mottling; Fabric: many thin and broad burrows; Excrements: rare very thin organo-mineral excrements.</td>
<td>(505269) 505220 (505291) Loose sand (505269) containing fragments of SMT 1b (‘Br’ part-burrow mixed and over moderately weakly clay coated sands which are characterised by weakly humic burrowing and subangular blocky structure formation, with fine root traces; burrowed soil contains humus and very fine charcoal; rare traces of fine charcoal and a 1.5 mm long flint flake is present. Sandy subsoil with history of iron and clay translocation (Bt(g) layer), possibly truncated/exposed to ephemeral topsoil formation (broad burrows and structures, possible associated root traces) and mixing of humic fine soil containing fine charred organic matter; examples of fine charcoal and flint flake indicative of possible local Mesolithic activity (as found locally).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFT A3/SMT 1a(1b)</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>175-190 mm (505291)</td>
<td>SM: As 505002; with very few SMT 1b and rare Fe-Mn mottling.</td>
<td>505291 As 505002; with very few SMT 1b and rare Fe-Mn mottling. Leached sands – as 505002 – with rare patches of clay coatings and Fe-Mn mottling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFT A2/SMT 1b</td>
<td>190-215 mm (505292)</td>
<td>SM: Homogeneous (SMT 1b); Microstructure: massive with relict subangular blocky(?); 30% voids Coarse Mineral: as 505002; C:F, 80:20 (includes grain coatings, otherwise 95:05); Coarse Organic and Anthropogenic: as 505002; Fine Fabric: SMT 1b: dark to very dark yellowish brown (PPL), isotropic (coated grain and bridged grain, undifferentiated b-fabric, XPL), yellowish orange to orange (OIL); Pedofeatures: Textural: very abundant poorly birefringent iron-stained clay void and grain coatings (25 µm) and void infills (75-100 µm); Amorphous: rare fine patches of grains cemented by iron-manganese (mottling); Fabric: many thin burrows.</td>
<td>505292 As below, but with very abundant iron-stained clay void and grain coatings and void infills; rare iron-manganese cemented fine mottles; many thin burrows. Thin sandy ‘Bt(g)’ horizon; Fe-Mn picking out relict fine rooting?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFT A1/SMT 1a (2a)</td>
<td>215-250 mm (505002)</td>
<td>SM: Homogeneous (SMT 1a – example of SMT 2a); Microstructure: massive with coarse ('sampling') fissures; mainly simple packing voids, 35% voids; Coarse Mineral: C:F (Coarse:Fine limit at 10 µm), 95:05; well sorted medium (with fine and few coarse) sand size subangular quartz/quartzite (with flint, feldspar, opaques and weathering glauconite); Coarse Organic and Anthropogenic: trace of possible angular coarse sand-size flint fragments? in burrow; Fine Fabric: SMT 1a: yellowish brown (PPL), isotropic (coated grain, undifferentiated b-fabric, XPL), pale yellowish brown (OIL); very thin weakly iron-stained grain coatings; SMT 2a: dusty pale brown (PPL), moderate interference colours (close porphyric, speckled (with mica) with weakly grano-and recticulate striate b-fabric), pale yellow (OIL); Pedofeatures: Textural: trace of very thin (10-15 µm) clay grain coatings, and example of very dusty clay coatings forming pan-like capping over SMT 2a – relict soil fragment(?); Fabric: many thin (&lt;1mm) burrows.</td>
<td>505002 Well sorted mainly medium sand-size quartz with weathered glauconite; massive with open void space and trace amounts of very thin clay grain coatings; possible trace of angular coarse sand-size flint flakes; example of fine sandy loam containing mica and capped by very dusty clay void coatings. Moderately strongly leached well sorted ‘glauconitic’ sands (yellowish field colour) with example of relict patch brown micaceous loam soil; possible trace/examples of flint in burrow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1: Scan of M532. Yellowish brown Context 505200 is characterised by a burrowed subangular blocky structure. Width is ~50mm.

Figure 2: Scan of M533. Yellowish brown Context 505292 between whitish yellow sands 505292 (Natural) and 50529. Width is ~50mm.

Figure 3: Photomicrograph of M533 (Context 505002 – ‘Natural’; see Fig 2), showing relict area of loamy (L) micaceous soil; very dark dusty clay void coatings (arrows) occur above; a possible fine flint fragment is noted (F). Plane polarised light (PPL), width is ~2.38mm.

Figure 4: As Fig 3, under crossed polarised light (XPL); note speckled (micaceous) birefringence fabric of this patch of loam (relict unleached fine soil).

Figure 5: Photomicrograph of M533 (Context 505292; see Fig 2); strongly iron-stained clay void and grain coatings (‘ferri-argillans’) of Bt(g) horizon; note included long thin angular possible flint flake. PPL, width is ~2.38mm. Figure 6: Detail of Fig 5, showing iron-stained clay coatings and infills, and possible flint flake. PPL, width is ~0.90mm.

Figure 6: Detail of Fig 5, showing iron-stained clay coatings and infills, and possible flint flake. PPL, width is ~0.90mm.
Figure 7: As Fig 6, under XPL. Faint interference colours of oriented clay coatings (mainly obscured by iron staining).

Figure 8: Photomicrograph of M532 (Context 505200; see Fig 1); note broad 'humic' burrow through weakly iron and clay-coated sands. PPL, frame width is ~4.62mm.

Figure 9: Detail of Fig 8, showing humic fine soil in burrow. PPL, width is ~0.90mm

Figure 10: As Fig 9, under oblique incident light (OIL), illustrating humic soil in comparison to iron-clay grain coatings.

Figure 11: As Fig 8, showing angular, probable flint flake (arrow), associated with weakly humic burrow. PPL, width is ~4.62mm.

Figure 12: As Fig 11, under OIL

Figure A1 Photomicrographs of the micromorphological thin sections (and previous page)
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