

also offers in its tables some key previously unpublished summary datasets, such as a list of all Roman monuments in the UK under the management of state archaeology organisations.

Visual representation of the past as a gateway to engaging and successful interpretation is a key theme in the volume. This emerges clearly in contributions dealing with various aspects of Hadrian's Wall Cavalry: a dispersed exhibition which took place in 2017 and featured a programme of associated events, including a large-scale re-enactment of cavalry manoeuvres and a contemporary art installation. Griffiths explores the genesis, delivery and legacy of the project. Booth and Nixon deal with the contemporary art aspect of Hadrian's Wall Cavalry project – a wind-powered installation at the fort of Chesters, reproducing the sound of a cavalry's charge. This would have benefitted from the artist's perspective to be more thoroughly woven into the article. An evaluation of audiences and visitors' reaction to the art is also missing. The most effective article on Hadrian's Wall Cavalry is Bishop's, giving a complete account of the *Turma!* re-enactment event, detailing its successes (such as engaging the public in supporting factions of re-enactors using colourful flags) and limitations (such as equipment accuracy and funding concerns). Re-enactment, its merits as a tool for engagement, and its pitfalls, are also discussed by Burandt.

Finally, the importance of audience research and stakeholder consultation threads through the volume, with practical examples of methodologies and outcomes from Viminacium, in Serbia (Golubović) to the Dutch Limes (Hazenberg and Visser) to Birdoswald on Hadrian's Wall (Roberts). Audience and stakeholder research also plays an important role in informing public archaeology projects on the Roman frontier. In particular, Collins and Shaw's paper discusses community engagement on Hadrian's Wall and includes a previously unseen synthesis of volunteering programmes which have taken place on the Wall over the last ten years.

In conclusion, the volume provides a valuable carousel of theoretically informed case studies, partially joined together by the light-touch editing approach. The target audiences are museum staff and those involved with managing and presenting archaeological heritage, as well as scholars of the subject, including postgraduate researchers. The subject matter is, however, of much wider interest. Open access distribution would have been a welcome addition and would have helped to overcome the barriers of knowledge which currently exist between heritage professionals and the visitors and audiences the volume discusses.

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A Biography of Power: Research and Excavations at the Iron Age Oppidum of Bagendon, Gloucestershire (1979–2017). By T. Moore. Archaeopress, Oxford, 2020. Pp. xxv + 667, illus. Price £85. ISBN 9781789695342.

Of all the Later Iron Age sites identified as British *oppida*, Bagendon in Gloucestershire has, until recently at least, probably been the least well known. This has nothing to do with its nature, form or preservation, however, and more perhaps that it has, in a modern historical sense, no direct or obvious connection with named Iron Age royalty, real or imagined. The *oppidum* at Colchester, identified on Iron Age coin as *Camulodunum*, was claimed by British kings like Cunobelinus, whilst Silchester (*Calleva*) had Verica, St Albans (*Verulamion*) had Tasciovanos and Stanwick, Cartimandua. The unnamed Bagendon, when compared directly to *Verulamion* and *Camulodunum*, has undoubtedly fallen further into obscurity because of its failure to produce a well-documented sequence of wealthy Late Iron Age burials. This new work aims to change all that and place Bagendon where it belongs: at the centre of archaeological debate.

First recorded in the early eighteenth century, the earthen ramparts of Bagendon were scientifically examined by the pioneering archaeologist Elsie Clifford in 1954–6. The results of her work were published in considerable detail, and with commendable speed, in 1961 as *Bagendon: A Belgic Oppidum*, with a foreword by Mortimer Wheeler. In the years that followed, however, various reassessments of the original artefact assemblage, together with subsequent earthwork surveys by the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England, and limited ground investigation during phases of road development, raised worrying questions surrounding the established chronology, phasing and overall significance of the site.

Moore's new volume, written with a comprehensive array of specialist contributors, is a huge book in every sense of the word. Combining the results of a series of new excavations (2012–17), large-scale geophysical surveys (2008–16) and an analysis of previously unpublished work (1979–81), Moore has overseen something which marks a major advance in both our understanding of the Bagendon *oppidum* but also the nature of Iron Age settlement, trade and systems of power across southern Britain up to and beyond the Roman invasion.

Following an introduction to the site, placing it in context and summarising the earlier archaeological investigation, Part II opens with the details of an extensive programme of remote sensing. A total of 172 hectares have been examined, geophysical survey focusing on as much of the internal area as possible, together with a more limited examination of the periphery. The results, combined with LiDAR survey data, are presented together with detailed interpretative plots which suggest a very wide range of prehistoric, Roman and medieval activity. Intriguingly, internal divisions within the enclosure, trackways creating a potential grid-like arrangement together with a variety of pits and buildings including a number of roundhouses, appear akin to what has already been identified at the *oppidum* of Silchester.

The results of more detailed archaeological investigations conducted at Scrubditch and Cutham, two morphologically distinct antennae-like enclosure sites identified through geophysical survey, follow on in chapter 3. The dataset here is presented with a detailed set of aerial photographs, remote-sensing plots, plans, sections and full-colour excavation images. The Iron Age sites, which date to the third century B.C., each contained at least one roundhouse and associated pits, both apparently representing a regional variant of the more familiar Middle Iron Age banjo enclosures noted across central southern Britain. These may have had a role in the management and movement of livestock within the Cotswolds and between the Severn and Thames Valley. Together they flesh out the origins of the Bagendon *oppidum*, hinting at the wider range of complex settlement systems and seasonal agricultural meeting places that preceded it.

Recognising that the enclosures of Scrubditch and Cutham were abandoned at the point of significant landscape transformation, as the *oppidum* began to take shape, the publication then turns to an earlier phase of archaeological investigation, namely the work conducted in the valley bottom between 1979 and 1981 by Richard Reece and Stephen Trow. The results of this work, when combined with the more recent geophysical survey, fit seamlessly into the new research programme, the early excavations indicating a range of metallurgical activity, including iron smithing and smelting, bronze working and the minting of coins, with geophysics locating a variety of small enclosures and associated pits, industrial and settlement activity extending well beyond the excavated area. An examination of the pottery from the 1979–81 project further presents an opportunity to reanalyse the assemblage recorded by Clifford, suggesting that more extensive settlement began in the first two decades of the first century, developing significantly up to the A.D. 50s.

Chapter 5 concentrates on the third of the new sites to be examined directly as part of the project, at Black Grove in 2015. Here a small, early to mid-second century villa (or Romanised longhouse with pretensions), one of several stone structures overlooking Iron Age occupation in the valley below, was sample excavated. Although only a small area was investigated, the Black Grove building can be compared well with other archaeological discoveries in the area, such as 'Ditches' villa (published in 2008 by Stephen Trow, Simon James and Tom Moore), which suggest a cluster of early second-century villas developing out of, or directly over, an earlier phase of Iron Age settlement. The appearance of multiple Romanised locales suggests to Moore the presence of 'families striving to villa-status after the conquest' something which in turn implies 'a more oligarchic or clan-like social structure, with multiple "elite" families located across the complex'.

Detailed specialist reports fill the middle section of the book, describing the ceramics, brooches, metalwork and metalworking debris, coins and coin moulds, glass, shale, building material, human remains and animal bone from each of the individual excavations in considerable detail and with useful summaries for the non-specialist reader. The final section of the book attempts to place Bagendon in context, looking first at its landscape setting, as determined through the geoarchaeological and land-snail evidence, viewshed analysis and additional geophysical surveys (at Hailey Wood Camp and Stratton Meadows), Moore himself rounding off the work with an examination of landscape change from the Early Iron Age to the mid-second century ('Becoming the Dobunni?') and a final overview of the *oppidum* in relation to the Late Iron Age/Early Roman transition in southern Britain ('The Bagendon complex: a biography').

A Biography of Power successfully presents a hugely significant sequence of settlement, outlining the continually evolving nature of cultural identity and elite power through the Iron Age and how, ultimately, the importance of this complex waned as nearby Roman Corinium grew. The fulsome nature of the

geophysical surveys, combined with the detailed results of well-targeted excavations and comprehensive finds reporting, ensures that this volume is not only one of the more important research publications into that most critical of periods but one which, in time, will no doubt be one of the most influential.

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London in the Roman World. By D. Perring. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2022. Pp. xix + 573, illus. Price £40. ISBN 9780198789000.

Dominic Perring is ideally placed to write this major book that reconstructs the history of Roman London as far as can be done, for he has spent years excavating in that city, and has experienced the wider Roman world. It has 31 chapters, and takes stock of what has been discovered on a huge number of sites, more than 500 since 1990. Throughout the book the author puts the city into a wider context.

He starts with a brief review of past studies, and describes the natural topography of London before there was any settlement. London was founded as a Roman port from its beginning, and Perring discusses the recent discovery of possibly a huge fortified enclosure at the north end of London Bridge and suggests that it might have held a Claudian invasion force in 43. Then, around 52, merchants settled beside a grid of streets, centred on a gravelled market-place on Cornhill, opposite London Bridge. The status of London at this stage is considered, as is its destruction in 60–61 during the Boudican revolt which left a layer of debris from burnt buildings. This was followed by a recently discovered post-Boudican fort showing that military control was needed to help restore the city.

London was developed on a huge scale during the Flavian period (69–96), when shops, houses, streets and public buildings were erected. The public buildings included a modest-sized basilica and forum on the site of the market-place, an amphitheatre, and baths – the large one at Huggin Hill having *three* hot steam rooms. In the early second century a vast basilica, longer than St Paul's Cathedral now, and an extensive forum, replaced the earlier one, so that by the time of Hadrian's visit to Britain in 122, London was at the pinnacle of its growth.

Perring then tries to untangle the next 80 years, which form one of London's most puzzling periods, for it was transformed from a trading city of merchants – to what? It was ravaged by a massive Hadrianic fire *c.* 125–135, after which Perring suggests that the large Cripplegate fort was built, perhaps following the sacking of London in a British revolt. Then, about 165–180, London's population was greatly reduced, possibly due to plague, and instead of blocks of busy houses, shops and businesses, there developed a scatter of fine houses and other buildings with open spaces between on which there was a puzzling build-up of 'dark earth'. Wealth was certainly there, but where did it come from?

Then, about 200, London began to be restored when a defensive city wall, over 3 km long, with a V-shaped ditch beyond, was constructed around only its landward side, enclosing 133 hectares. It had five main gates, and dating evidence suggests that it was built during the reign of Caracalla (198–217). Timber quays beside the River Thames were enlarged, monumental buildings were constructed, temples of Isis and probably Jupiter were restored, and the famous Temple of Mithras was built about 240, with sculptures of Italian marble.

Something curious happened in the mid-third century, for the riverfront quays were dismantled about 255 and a riverside defensive wall was constructed about 275–280. Clearly, London no longer relied on trade for its main income, so where was its income from? Perring suggests that this decline was partly caused by changes in the river level, though this was a period of decline in the trade of Roman Britain. London slowly contracted, though attempts were made to restore it. The basilica caught fire after *c.* 250, its roof collapsed and had to be repaired, and the amphitheatre may have been refurbished. London then became a seat of government in the late third century under the independent rule of Carausius and Allectus, when two great public buildings, possibly temples, were initiated.

When London was restored to the Roman Empire in 296 by the Emperor Constantius, it produced coins down to 325. But decline was slow and relentless, and its scatter of town houses was gradually demolished, as happened to the basilica about 300. So what does this say about how London was governed? London's decline during the fourth century mirrors other cities in Roman Britain, as threats forced it to strengthen its defences. Soon after 350, a number of D-shaped bastions were built against the outer face of the defensive