THE ARVERNI AND ROMAN WINE

ROMAN AMPHORAE FROM LATE IRON AGE SITES IN THE AUVERGNE (CENTRAL FRANCE): CHRONOLOGY, FABRICS AND STAMPS

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Cover image: Deposit of Dressel 1B amphorae from Gondole 'Les Chaumes' well F146 (photo: Yann Deberge/A.R.A.F.A).

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	Stamps	
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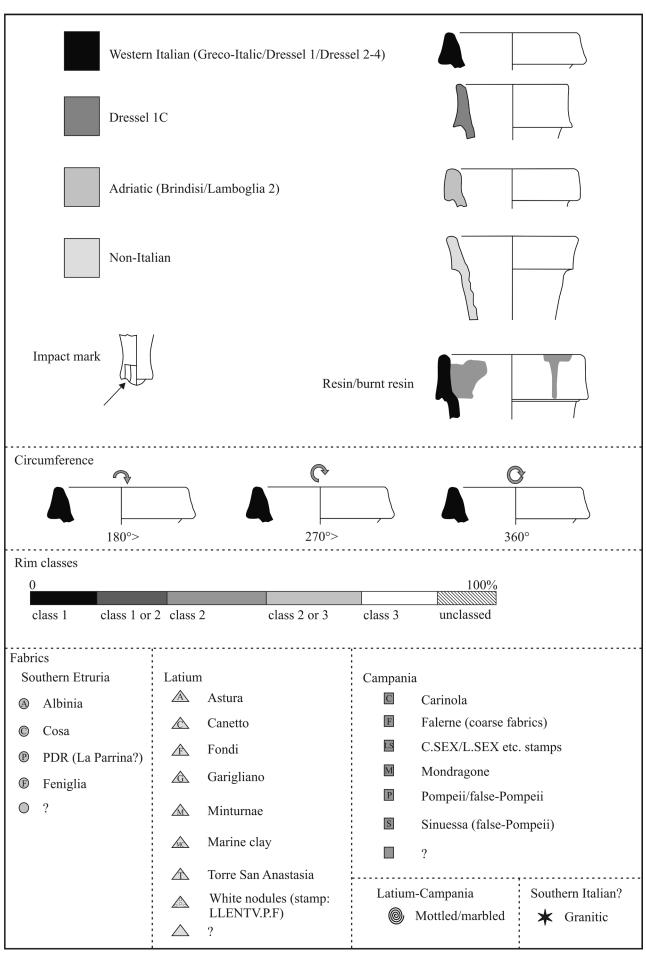


PLATE 1. KEY TO THE AMPHORA DRAWINGS.

Chapter 1

Introduction

This volume is derived from a PhD which examined the assemblages of Republican amphorae from late Iron Age sites in the Auvergne, central France (Loughton 2001). Aspects dealing with the distribution of Republican amphorae in the Auvergne (Loughton and Jones 2000), the morphology and typology of the rims (Loughton 2000, 2003b; Deberge *et al.* 2007a), and the stamped sherds (Loughton and Olmer 2003; Loughton 2005), have already been published. The Republican amphorae from the late Iron Age farm at Le Pâtural has also been published (Loughton 2007).

Since the completion of the study, the author has studied additional amphora assemblages from the region including Clermont-Ferrand 'Albert-Elisabeth', Clermont-Ferrand 'Gandaillat' (second trench), Corent (sanctuary), Gergovie (fortifications, sanctuary), and Gondole 'Les Chaumes', most of which are included in this study. The amphorae from the sanctuaries on Corent and Gergovie will be published separately (Loughton in prep. 1, 4) although these assemblages will occasionally be referred to. A small number of amphora assemblages from Gondole 'Les Chaumes' are included here although the complete assemblage will be published separately (Loughton in prep. 3). Altogether a sample of c.155,000 amphora sherds, weighing 16 tons from c.3,900 vessels, and from sites spanning from the second century BC until the early first century AD form the basis of this study. Naturally, these additional assemblages have resulted in various modifications to the original PhD, while recent research and publications on various aspects of Republican amphorae have also necessitated further revisions. Finally, the passage of time has resulted in a certain amount of re-interpretation of the material and the modification and development of various ideas expressed in the PhD. Hence, the following work is substantially different and expanded.

Scope of the study

The scale of the Italian wine trade to Gaul during the late Iron Age is remarkable. For example, a recent excavation of c.2.6 ha at Toulouse 'caserne Niel' (dep. Haute-Garonne) in south-western France uncovered 875,000 sherds of Republican amphorae with a weight of 97.5 metric tons (Loughton and Alberghi 2012). Five recent excavations of c.7.6 ha at Toulouse (dep. Haute-Garonne) have uncovered 126 tons of amphorae, mostly from Republican vessels (Benquet et al. 2013; Loughton and Alberghi 2012). Excavations on the oppidum of Mont Beuvray 'Bibracte' (Burgundy, dep. Nièvre) have since 1984 uncovered approximately 500,000 sherds of amphorae with a weight of 50 tons (Olmer 2011). For Bibracte around 1 million amphorae were imported to the site (Olmer 2003, 136)

while Tchernia has estimated that 55–65 million Dressel 1s were exported to the whole of Gaul (1986, 86).

Republican amphorae provide an ideal dating tool for the later prehistoric period. Not only are they found over a wide area of Europe (and beyond), they are also found on sites associated with historical events (Carthage, the Roman camps at Numantia, sites from the Gallic War), while sometimes they provide absolute dates in the form of consular marks. Uenze (1958) was one of the first individuals to use Republican amphorae as a dating tool although Peacock (1971, 161, 165) queried the precision of the dates he assigned to assemblages of Republican amphorae. Subsequent work, especially over the last 20 years, has supported many of Uenze's findings and demonstrated the great value of his work (Benquet 2007; Hénon 1995; Guichard 1997a; Loughton 2000, 2001; Maza 1998a; Poux 1999a). This volume builds upon this approach. There are various strands to this study:

- Description and datation of Republican amphora assemblages from sites and features. This analysis concentrates on the morphology of the diagnostic amphora sherds (rims, shoulders, handles, and bases).
- 2. Provenance of the Republican amphorae. This is achieved via a visual analysis.
- 3. Comparing the amphora assemblages from the Auvergne with well-dated assemblages from other parts of France and from adjacent countries.
- 4. Description and provenance of the 328 stamped sherds (Appendix 1).
- 5. The distribution of Republican amphorae in the Auvergne.
- 6. Analysis of the contexts in which Republican amphorae were deposited in the Auvergne and the practices leading to the deposition of this material.
- 7. A brief examination and discussion of the other types of Mediterranean imports (ceramics and metal-vessels) found in the Auvergne during the late Iron Age.

Current debates

Over the last 15 years, there has been an increasing volume of research devoted to Republican amphorae especially dealing with the material from France. There have been many regional studies of Republican amphorae (Audé 2007; Barthélémy 2001; Barthélémy-Sylvand 2005, 2007; Chaidron and Dubois 2013; Hénon 1995; Lemaître and Sanchez 2009; Lemaître *et al.* 2007; Maza 1998a; Olmer 1997, 2003; Piot 2002; Sanchez 2009; etc.). Amphora assemblages from many late Iron Age settlements

including farms, agglomerations, and oppida have been published (Audé and Dixneuf 2007; Aulas 1983, 1985, 1988; Benquet 2002, 2007; Benquet and Piot 2000; Colin 2000; Guichard 1997a; Landreau 2012; Laubenheimer and Barthélemy-Sylvand 2010; Poux and Sellès 1998; Schopfer 2004; etc.). A major conference was recently held on the Itinéraires des vins romains en Gaule (IIIe-Ier siècle savant J.C.) which has just been published (Olmer ed. 2013). Many papers have appeared dealing with the morphology of Republican amphorae (Olmer et al. 1995), stamped sherds (Olmer 1997, 2003; Desbat and Maza 1997; Laubenheimer 2007; Loughton 2005; Loughton and Olmer 2003), and fabrics (Hesnard et al. 1989; Thierrin-Michael 1990, 1992). Brun (2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2005) has reviewed the evidence for the production of wine and olive oil in the eastern and western Mediterranean during the Roman period. Recently there have been excavations on one of the main Republican amphora production centres at Albinia, Italy (Vitali ed. 2007; Olmer and Vitali 2002). A volume dealing with the excavations on the amphora kilns at Giancola near to Brindisi, Italy, has also appeared (Manacorda and Pallecchi eds. 2012). One of the main aims of this study is to publicize this work by applying many of these research methodologies to the material from the Auvergne.

One of the main areas of debate concerns the classification of Republican amphorae which are presently divided into two main groups: the earlier Greco-Italic and the later Dressel 1 with its three subtypes (Dressel 1A, 1B, and 1C) (Lamboglia 1955). Several researchers (Loughton 2003a, 2003b; Olmer 1997, 133; Tchernia 1986, 310-311) have questioned the validity of this scheme and highlighted the difficulty of reliably assigning sherds to the different forms. Various, and often conflicting, methodologies for studying and classifying Republican amphora sherds have been developed. Most of these are concerned with the morphology of the rim sherds although some schemes also classify the shoulders and bases. Another approach involves examining the morphology of complete Republican amphorae from the cargoes of Mediterranean wrecks and comparing them with sherds from terrestrial assemblages. These different methodologies are outlined and discussed including their advantages and disadvantages.

The assemblages of Republican amphorae from the Auvergne have several advantages for typological and chronological studies. The available corpus is large and there are many substantial assemblages ranging from a hundred to over a thousand vessels. Various types of site are represented from farms, to agglomerations, possible urban sites (*oppida*), and funerary and cult sites. Crucially, the sites and assemblages also provide a good chronological span from the second century BC to the early first century AD. It is therefore possible to examine how the morphology and provenance of Republican amphorae evolved over nearly two centuries. At the other end of the scale, it is also possible to study these changes over relatively short periods as the associated finds from these assemblages have been studied as part of the *Projet*

collectif de recherche les mobiliers du second âge du Fer en Auvergne (Mennessier-Jouannet ed. in prep. 1, 2; Deberge et al. 2007a). Reports on the iron finds (Orengo 2003) and the coinage (Guichard et al. 1993; Malacher and Collis 1992) have already appeared. A brief preliminary summary of the evolution of the late Iron Age ceramics, small finds, and imported wares has been published (Deberge et al. 2007a). This allows the assemblages of amphorae from pits, wells, occupation layers, and ditches to be more precisely dated. It also allows the types of amphorae to be compared with the ceramics and small finds. Finally, there is a sequence of well-dated, but briefly occupied sites from the late second to the end of the first century BC (Guichard et al. 1993).

In contrast, studies of other regions of France have suffered from various limitations. Many assemblages of Republican amphorae are studied in isolation without providing any detailed information on the associated ceramics, imported wares, and small finds (Barthélémy-Sylvand 2005, 2013; Benquet 2007, 2013; Maza 1998a; Hénon 1995; etc.). Often the amphorae from a site are analysed as one sample with no attempt to examine the material from individual features (Hénon 1995; Poux 1999a; etc.). Another approach treats Republican amphorae as type fossils, and sites are dated by the presence of one or two diagnostic sherds. For example, a Greco-Italic rim will indicate La Tène C occupation and a Dressel 1B rim the Caesarian period.

The data from the Auvergne is then ideally suited to address many of the crucial questions concerning the Republican wine trade to north-western Europe. These include when the trade commenced, especially to non-Mediterranean France. Are there examples of Greco-Italic amphorae that are generally believed to be rare outside of Mediterranean France? Most models have generally seen the Republican wine trade to Gaul as being late, only starting after the conquest of southern France in 121 BC by Rome (Arthur 1995, 242; Cunliffe 1982, 52-53, 1984, 4, 1988, 81; Metzler et al. 1991, 162; Nash 1976a, 1984, 102; Tchernia 1983, 101). Finally, when did it end? Some researchers have argued for a sudden decline in the Italian wine trade starting around 50 BC (Desbat 1998a) while others have argued for a later date during the Augustan period (Sanchez and Auroux 2004, 339, 342).

Other crucial questions concern the provenance of the Republican amphorae. This topic is often neglected in many studies of Republican amphorae from France; an exception is the recent work of Thierrin-Michael (1990, 1992, 1995, 2000, 2003; Thierrin-Michael and Maza 2002) and Olcese (2004, 2005–2006, 2006, 2010). Detailed fabric studies, using thin-sectioning, have been mainly limited to small assemblages of Republican amphorae from southern England (Williams 1985, 1987). It is difficult to ascertain any chronological patterning in the kilns/regions supplying Republican amphorae to sites in France because of the scarcity and the reliability of much of the data. Instead, diagnostic Republican amphora

stamps have been used to provenance amphorae. The distribution of diagnostic stamps it has been argued shows that kilns in Latium and Campania supplied south-western Gaul while the *ager Cosanus* (southern Etruria) supplied the central-eastern and northern regions (Olmer 2003; Olmer *et al.* 2013). However, this approach is fraught with problems, most notably the fact that the majority of vessels were never stamped.

An important aspect of this study involved collecting details on Republican amphora findspots in the Auvergne and for the whole of France (Loughton and Jones 2000; Loughton 2003a). Appendix 2 provides basic details on 4,997 Republican amphora findspots from France. Most studies still rely on distribution maps from the 1970s and 1980s. It was decided to create new distribution maps for the Dressel 1 and for the other main Republican amphora varieties in France, and from this to discern any spatial and temporal patterning.

Although the wine trade to Gaul during the later Republican period is typically seen as an Italian monopoly, evidence is appearing which questions this assumption. Firstly, vine growing and viticulture appears during the late second century BC in parts of Languedoc and Roussillon (Brun and Laubenheimer eds. 2003; Mauné 2013) and soon after the middle of the first century BC in the Lyon area (dep. Rhône) (Poux 2011). Secondly, considerable evidence has emerged over the last couple of decades for the production of Republican amphorae in Spain (López Mullor and Martín Menédez 2006; Bernal and Lagóstena. eds. 2004; etc.) and France (Brun and Laubenheimer eds. 2003). The distribution of Spanish Dressel 1s and related vessels (Tarraconensis 1–3/Laietana 1–3) and the scale of this trade to Gaul are poorly understood. It is possible that some of the amphorae and wine exported to the Auvergne during the first century BC came from Spain and southern Gaul.

The last 20 years have seen a profusion of studies exploring various aspects of eating, drinking, and feasting during prehistory (Arnold 1999; Dietler 2005; Dietler and Hayden eds. 2001; Parker-Pearson 2003; Poux 2004; etc.). Topics investigated include the role of feasting in the expression and maintenance of social identities (Pitts 2004, 2005) and social groups (Dietler 1990), and its role in the political economy (Dietler 1990, 2005). Researchers have also attempted to identify feasting sites and feasting remains in the archaeological record (Poux 2000a 2002b, 2004; Poux and Feugère 2002; Ralph 2007). Many of these studies have argued that access to amphorae was under elite control and the consumption of wine restricted to special feasts organized by the nobility (Haselgrove 1996, 171-173; Metzler et al. 1991, 167, 172; Poux 2004; Poux and Feugère 2002; Roymans 1990, 42). In contrast, other researchers have argued that the exchange of Mediterranean goods was controlled by a new class of merchants and traders (Wells 1995a 240-241). Finally, some have argued for the development of a market economy (Nash 1976a, 1978b). Are these interpretations

applicable to the Auvergne? Which social groups were drinking imported wine in the Auvergne during the late Iron Age?

Another important development has been the recognition that amphorae and amphora-parts, such as handles and bases, were often modified and reused (Peña 2007; Lawall and Lund eds. 2011). While there is considerable and varied evidence relating to the modification and reuse of Dressel 1s this evidence has not always been noted or systematically recorded.

Finally, the Republican wine trade is obviously an important source of information for understanding the scale, nature, and the development of the Roman economy (Bowman and Wilson eds. 2009; Scheidel 2009; Wilson 2009a, 2009b; etc.). Yet surprisingly this debate has made relatively little use out of the increasing number of stratified late Iron Age and Gallo-Roman amphora assemblages from France. Such data has the potential to shed light on the level of Roman trade and elucidate trends for different commodities and export regions. In contrast, Roman Mediterranean shipwrecks and their amphora cargoes have contributed more to this debate (Parker 1992; Wilson 2009b, 219–229, 2011).

To summarize, this volume aims to compare how the assemblages of Republican amphorae from the Auvergne compares and contrasts with the evidence from other regions of France. This research will provide an opportunity to assess the validity of current models concerning the chronology of the Republican wine trade and the modification and deposition of amphorae in Gaul during the second to first centuries BC.

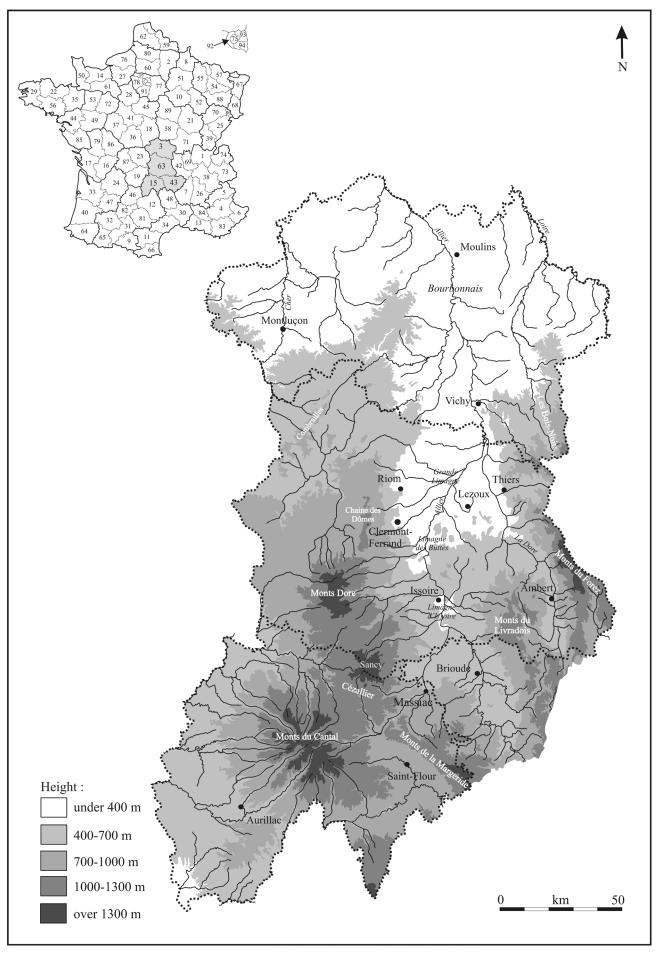


FIGURE 1. THE AUVERGNE.

Chapter 2

The Auvergne and the Arverni

Geographical background

Situated within the north-east of the Massif Central mountain range the administrative region of the Auvergne comprises the modern departments of the Allier (3), Cantal (15), Haute-Loire (43), and Puy-de-Dôme (63) (Figures 1-3). This study is mainly concerned with the amphora assemblages from the department of the Puyde-Dôme as this department has seen the majority of archaeological excavations over the last 40 years because of the expansion of Clermont-Ferrand and surrounding towns. This situation is finally beginning to change with the investigation and excavation of various Iron Age sites in the northern department of the Allier (Lallemand 2004, 2007a, 2009, 2010; Lallemand and Orengo 2007), and in the south and the Cantal (Milcent and Delrieu 2007). The late Iron Age occupation of the south-eastern Massif Central (departments of the Haute-Loire and Loire) has recently been studied by Kurzaj (2012).

The Auvergne is an isolated, rural region; most of the population is concentrated around the city of Clermont-Ferrand—the capital of the department of the Puy-de-Dôme. The landscape has been shaped and warped by geologically recent volcanic activity. Great linear faults have created a wide depression surrounded on either side by blocks of higher land (Mills 1985). This central depression contains the Allier river and three sedimentary basins; the Issoire Limagne in the south, and the Grande and Petites Limagnes near to Clermont-Ferrand.

The Grande and Petites Limagnes contain thick deposits of *terres noires* overlying the limestone bedrock. These soils were deposited from the Neolithic to the Gallo-Roman period (Ballut 2007; Daugas *et al.* 1983) and were apparently formed by soil erosion resulting from human activity, especially the deforestation of the higher lands and slopes. The *terres noires* provide fertile agricultural land but require extensive draining to be cultivated.

The Petite Limagne basin is broken up by several small lava plateaux to form the Pays de Buttes. Here the basaltic lava flows seeped into the limestone rocks, to leave behind (once the softer surrounding limestone had eroded away), flat topped and steeply sided plateaux. This area also contains gentle limestone hills with thin, poor soils (Mills 1985, 193). This area has poor agricultural potential with the upper slopes being uncultivated and given over to scrub, while the lower slopes provide rough grazing (Mills 1985, 196).

To the west are the Chaine-des-Dômes and the Mont Dores mountains (Figure 1). The former developed between

80,000–5,000 years ago, and contains *c*.100 volcanic cones and craters that range in height from 700 metres to the highest the Puy-de-Dôme at 1464 metres. South of this range are the mountains of the Mont Dores and the Sancy, which contain the remains of volcanoes that formed between four million and 250,000 years ago. These mountains are higher than the Chaine-des-Dômes and the highest peak, the Puy-de-Sancy, reaches 1885 metres. The highlands of the Massif Central are used as pasture. The Auvergne is bordered to the east by the granite mountains of the Forez, Livradois, and Bois Noirs, beyond which lies the Loire valley (Figure 1). These mountains reach comparable heights to the Chaine-des-Dômes and the Mont Dores.

The Auvergne is a raised plateau enclosed by higher land on both its western and eastern sides, and further south by the Monts du Cantal (the highest peak here, the Plomb du Cantal reaches 1855 metres) and the Cévennes. There are few communication routes cutting east-west, and the main axis of communication lies north-south with the Allier valley but even this is not very accessible. The main north-south routes are further to the east with the Loire and the Rhône rivers. To the north and the department of the Allier, the landscape is more open and less than 400 metres above sea level. For a more detailed description of the geography and geology of the region see Jones (2001) and Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet (1994a, 55–61).

The Arverni

The Auvergne takes its name from the Arverni one of the Gallic tribes, which invaded Italy in the fourth century BC (Nash 1975, 212). Their core territory was located around the modern day city of Clermont-Ferrand (Figure 4). Defining the exact tribal boundaries of the Arverni is difficult. Nash has suggested that, for central France, Medieval dioceses and Roman administrative borders directly followed the late Iron Age tribal boundaries (1976a, 114, 1978b, 464– 465). Other researchers have used the distribution of coins belonging to different polities and distinctive pottery types to delineate tribal boundaries in central France (Guichard et al. 2002). From these approaches a rough approximation can be made (cf. Trément et al. 2007). The core territory of the Arverni probably included the eastern part of the department of the Allier, the whole of the department of the Puy-de-Dôme and the Cantal, and the western part of the Haute-Loire (Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994a, 71–72) (Figure 4).

Guichard *et al.* (2002, 167) have assigned the northeastern part of the Allier department (from the Loire to the Allier) to the Aedui and the eastern Haute-Loire to

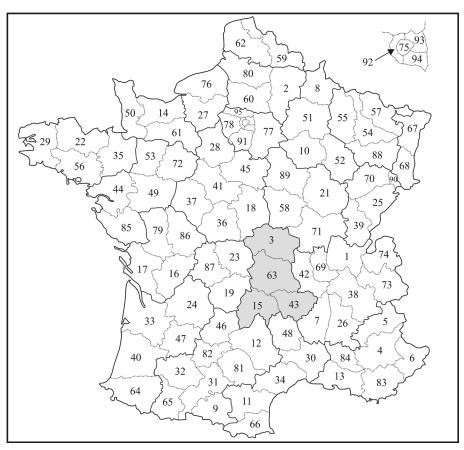


FIGURE 2. DEPARTMENTS OF FRANCE.

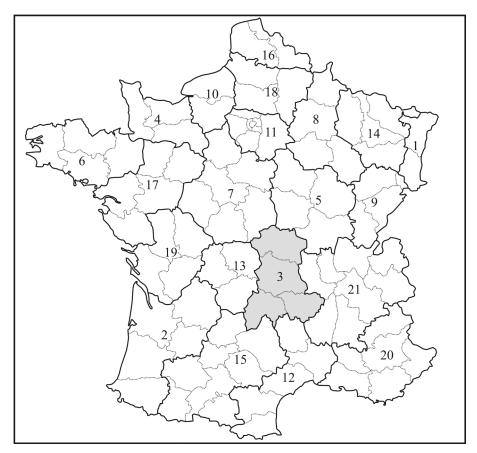


FIGURE 3. REGIONS OF FRANCE.

1: AIN, 2: AISNE, 3: ALLIER, 4: ALPES-DE-HAUTE-PROVENCE, 5: HAUTES-ALPES, 6: ALPES-MARITIMES, 7: ARDÈCHE, 8: ARDENNES, 9: ARIÈGE, 10: AUBE, 11: AUDE, 12: AVEYRON, 13: BOUCHES-DU-RHÔNE, 14: CALVADOS, 15: CANTAL, 16: CHARENTE, 17: CHARENTE-MARITIME, 18: CHER, 19: CORRÈZE, 21: CÔTE-D'OR, 22: CÔTES-D'ARMOR, 23: CREUSE, 24: DORDOGNE, 25: DOUBS, 26: DRÔME, 27: EURE, 28: EURE-ET-LOIRE, 29: FINISTÈRE, 30: GARD, 31: HAUTE-GARONNE, 32: GERS, 33: GIRONDE, 34: HÉRAULT, 35: ILLE-ET-VILAINE, 36: INDRE, 37: INDRE-ET-LOIRE, 38: ISÈRE, 39: JURA, 40: LANDES, 41: LOIRE-ET-CHER, 42: LOIRE, 43: HAUTE-LOIRE, 44: LOIRE-ATLANTIQUE, 45: LOIRET, 46: LOT, 47: LOT-ET-GARONNE, 48: LOZÈRE, 49: Maine-et-Loire, 50: Manche, 51: MARNE, 52: HAUTE-MARNE, 53: MAYENNE, 54: MEURTHE-ET-MOSELLE, 55: MEUSE, 56: MORBIHAN, 57: MOSELLE, 58: Nièvre, 59: Nord, 60: Oise, 61: Orne, 62: PAS-DE-CALAIS, 63: PUY-DE-DÔME, 64: Pyrénées-Atlantique, 65: Hautes-PYRÉNÉES, 66: PYRÉNÉES-ORIENTALES, 67: BAS-RHIN, 68: HAUT-RHIN, 69: RHÔNE, 70: HAUTE-SAÔNE, 71: SAÔNE-ET-LOIRE, 72: SARTHE, 73: SAVOIRE, 74: HAUTE-SAVOIE, 75: VILLE DE PARIS, 76: SEINE-MARITIME, 77: SEINE-ET-MARNE, 78: YVELINES, 79: DEUX-SÈVRES, 80: SOMME, 81: TARN, 82: TARN-ET-GARONNE, 83: VAR. 84: VAUCLUSE. 85: VENDÉE. 86: VIENNE, 87: HAUTE-VIENNE, 88: VOSGES, 89: YONNE, 90: TERRITOIRE DE BELFORT, 91: ESSONNE, 92: HAUTS-DE-SEINE, 93: SEINE-SAINT-DENIS, 94: VAL-DE-MARNE, 95: VAL-D'OISE.

1: Alsace, 2: Aquitaine, 3: Auvergne, 4: Basse-Normandie, 5: Bourgogne, 6: Bretagne, 7: Centre, 8: Champagne-Ardenne, 9: Franche-Comté, 10: Haute-Normandie, 11: Ile-de-France, 12: Languedoc-Roussillon, 13: Limousin, 14: Lorraine, 15: Midi-Pyrénées, 16: Nord-Pas-de-Calais, 17: Pays de la Loire, 18: Picardie, 19: Poitou-Charentes, 20: Provence-Alpes-Côte-d'Azur, 21: Rhône-Alpes.

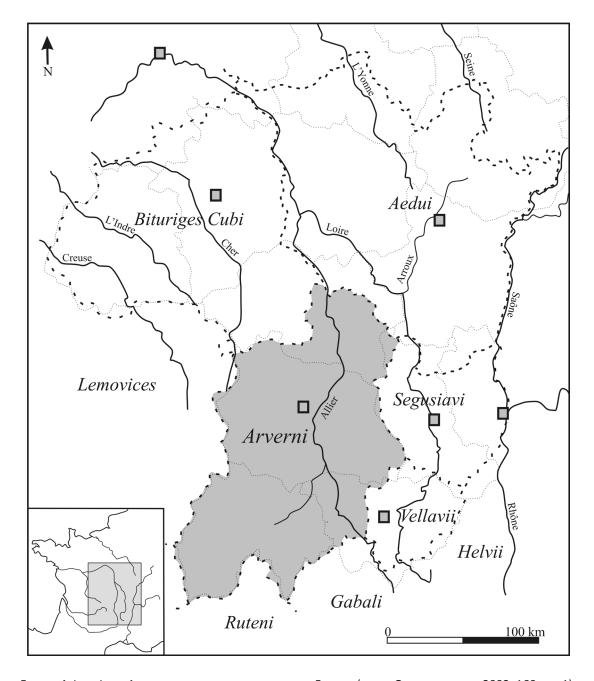


FIGURE 4. LATE IRON AGE TRIBAL BOUNDARIES IN CENTRAL FRANCE (AFTER GUICHARD ET AL. 2002, 160 FIG. 1).

the Vellavii a client tribe of the Arverni (Caesar, De Bello Gallico 7.75). To the north Arverni territory bordered with that of the tribes of the Bituriges Cubi and the Aedui; to the east with the Segusiavi, who were allies of the Aedui; to the west with the Lemovices; and to the south with the Ruteni and the Gabali (Figure 4). These last two tribes may also have been subjects of the Arverni (Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994a, 72). Caesar also refers to further dependant tribes: the Cadurci who were located in the departments of the Lot and part of Tarn-et-Garonne; and the Eleuteti (De Bello Gallico 7.75). The location of the Eleuteti is unknown although the south-eastern part of the Cantal has been suggested (Trément et al. 2007). According to Caesar the Cévennes mountains separated the territory of the Arverni from the Helvii of the Roman province (De Bello Gallico 7.7-7.8).

The Arverni during the third to second centuries BC may have controlled larger territories. This is the impression given by the classical writer Strabo who mentions that 'the Arverni had extended their rule as far as Narbonne and the boundaries of the territory of Massalia and ruled over the tribes as far as the Pyrenees and to the ocean and the Rhine' (*Geography* 4.2.3). There has been considerable debate over the veracity and the meaning of this statement (cf. Jones 2001; Stevens 1980, 81–84). As Strabo was writing much later (first century AD) we have no idea of the source(s) of his information although it most likely came from the Greek philosopher and historian Posidonius of Apameia who wrote about the wars between Rome and Gaul.

It is worth noting that Strabo's grasp of geography was often inaccurate; for example, he wrongly placed the Arverni capital, *Nemossus*, on the river Loire instead of the Allier (*Geography* 4.2.3). It is possible that Strabo was simply exaggerating Arverni power to magnify the Romans defeat of their king Bituitus in the late second century BC. Finally, there is Strabo's use of the term 'rule', which could refer to political connection and/or alliances over this area rather than explicit territorial control. According to Caesar, the Arvernian Celtillus won control over the whole of Gaul during the early first century BC (*De Bello Gallico* 7.4). Yet, Caesar mentions that the Aedui and the Sequani were the two dominant tribes in Gaul during this period (*De Bello Gallico* 6.11).

The classical sources also suggest that in the second century BC the Arverni had strong ties with the Allobroges from around Vienne and the right bank of the Rhône and possibly with the Volcae from Languedoc (Dyson 1985, 138–139, 143, 155). For the first century BC Caesar refers to connections between the Arverni and the Sequani of eastern France (Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* 1.31). During the revolt of Vercingetorix against Rome in 52 BC the Arverni formed alliances with the following tribes: Andes Aulerci, Cadurci, Lemovices, Parisii, Pictones, Senones, and all the tribes along the western coast (Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* 7.4). Some of these tribes may have had long-standing connections with the Arverni.

During the second century BC the Arverni were ruled by kings, as was the case with other areas of Gaul during this period (Roymans 1990, 33). We do not know whether this was a recent development, or was long established. The Arvernian king Louernius and his son Bituitus are mentioned in Athenaeus (*Deipnosophistae* IV, 152) and Strabo (*Geography* 4.1.11); both writers probably took their information from Posidonius. Confusingly Appian refers to Bituitus as the king of the Allobroges (*De Rebus Gallicis* XII, 2). These accounts note the wealth and power of Louernius and Bituitus.

The Arverni and Rome

Apollodoros Athenaeus refers to a treaty between Rome and the Arverni and the *Aidousioi* (Aedui), which dates to around 144 BC (Collis 2003, 19, 114, 124). This would correspond with the reign of Louernius and it is naturally tempting to suggest a link. Perhaps the fabled power and wealth of Louernius stemmed from Roman connections and patronage. The Aedui were recognized as Roman allies in 122 BC, however, this may have formalized the earlier alliance of 144 BC (Dyson 1985, 152; Ebel 1976, 70).

Roman interest in southern Gaul began in the third century BC, because of the strategic importance of this area for the Romans in their wars against the Carthaginians in Spain (Ebel 1976). During the second century BC Rome intervened on Massalia's behalf on several occasions when local tribes threatened the city (Ebel 1976, 64). In 125 BC, an alliance of tribes centred on the Arverni threatened

Massalia, which resulted in Roman military intervention in the area (Dyson 1985; Ebel 1976). Two Roman armies in southern France defeated a force of Arverni and Allobroges under the command of Bituitus in 121 BC (Rivet 1988, 41; Ebel 1976, 71). Bituitus and his son (Comm, Congentiatus or Congonnetiacus) were captured and exiled (Dyson 1985, 153). Bituitus was later displayed in Rome (Florus I, 37.5). The Arverni and the other tribes of central Gaul were not placed under direct Roman control, the Romans however, may have claimed hegemony over all of Gaul (Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* 1.45) and the Arverni and their allies may have been seen as Roman clients (Ebel 1976, 79).

By the first century BC Caesar states that Gaul was divided into two factions: Arverni/Sequani and the Aedui (*De Bello Gallico* 1.3, 6.11). According to Caesar, the Arverni and Sequani brought over German mercenaries from the Suebi who defeated and subjected the Aedui (*De Bello Gallico* 6.11, 7.4) but then apparently (and predictably) turned on their hosts.

Dyson suggests that there was further Roman military action against the Arverni during the early first century BC, and at this time the Vellavii were detached from their control (Dyson 1985, 156; Strabo, Geography 4.2.3). Caesar mentions that the Arvernian Celtillus attempted to claim the kingship but was executed (De Bello Gallico 7.4). Perhaps these events were connected and the Romans may have again feared the consequences of a unified Arverni under the direction of a monarch (Dyson 1985, 165-166). The Romans may have bolstered or created support within the Arverni aristocracy (and with other tribes) by offering money and gold, or favourable access to merchants and Mediterranean goods, such as wine. One possible example, although dating to the later first century BC, is the noble Epasnactus who according to Caesar was a 'loyal friend of the Roman people' (De Bello Gallico 8.44). The use of the term 'friend' may imply a formalized form of recognition by Rome (Dyson 1985, 170 note 261). It is also likely that some individuals (perhaps hostages following the events of 121 BC?) from important families were held and educated in Rome, as has been suggested for elements of the British nobility during the early first century AD (Creighton 2000). Possibly, some of these hostages were later allowed to return home.

The chaos of the Roman conquest of Gaul allowed the Arvernian Vercingetorix to reclaim the kingship and to lead the revolt against Rome. Vercingetorix defeated Caesar at Gergovia in the Auvergne, but was finally defeated at Alesia in 52 BC. Intriguingly, according to the Greek Historian Cassius Dio, Vercingetorix 'had once been on friendly terms with Caesar' (XL 40.6, 41.3). Perhaps the great Arverni chieftain had Roman connections and may have served as an auxiliary in the Roman army?

Auvergne: the Iron Age settlement

This section provides an outline of the Iron Age occupation of the Auvergne (for earlier reviews *cf.* Collis 1975a,

1984a; Nash 1978a). Jones (2001) provides a current interpretation and so too the collection of papers from the Actes du XXVIIe colloque international de l'Association Française pour l'Etude de l'Âge du Fer (Clermont-Ferrand 2003) which was dedicated to the Iron Age of the Auvergne (Mennessier-Jouannet and Deberge eds. 2007). The Iron Age database for this region is not perfect, as most of our data is confined to an area around Clermont-Ferrand and the Allier valley. Less is known about the Iron Age exploitation of the uplands and outlying areas. However, following systematic archaeological fieldwork and excavation by members of the Association pour la recherché sur l'âge du Fer en Auvergne (A.R.A.F.A), the area around Clermont-Ferrand has provided a detailed picture of the Iron Age settlement. Many of the sites mentioned below are described in more detail later when their assemblages of Republican amphorae are examined.

Hallstatt and Early La Tène

During the late Bronze Age (950–800 BC) settlement was concentrated on several large hilltop sites bordering the southern Grande Limagne including Corent, Côtes-de-Clermont, and Gergovie (Milcent 2004; Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994a, 63–64 fig. 4).

During Hallstatt C (800–620 BC) the number of sites increases significantly with the first evidence for occupation of the Grande Limagne with the appearance of small farms, while the hilltop sites were apparently abandoned (Milcent 2004). There are also several sites in the south around Issoire and on the northern Grande Limagne (Milcent 2004; Mennessier-Jouannet and Milcent 2007). In the southern Massif Central, especially the Cantal mountains, there are inhumation burials in tumuli dating from Hallstatt C until early La Tène A (Milcent and Delrieu 2007).

For the Auvergne, few sites can be dated to Hallstatt D1–3 (620–480 BC) (Mennessier-Jouannet and Milcent 2007). Moreover, the dating of Hallstatt and early La Tène sites here is hampered by the general lack of brooches. Small finds are found in some inhumation burials, but they generally lack any ceramic offerings to allow cross matching. For the southern Grande Limagne the site of Le Pâtural contains a small inhumation cemetery with 12 tombs dating from the late seventh to the first half of the sixth century BC (Burgess *et al.* 2000). There is Hallstatt D2/3 activity at Aulnat 'Îlot des Martyres' (Arnaud 2005) and at Clermont-Ferrand 'Belde' (Mennessier-Jouannet and Milcent 2007).

Evidence for La Tène A and B (480–250 BC) settlement is more widespread although still concentrated on the southern Grande Limagne (Mennessier-Jouannet and Milcent 2007). A cemetery at Pont-du-Château 'Champ-Lamet' possibly started during La Tène A and continued into La Tène B2 (Blaizot and Milcent 2002). During the early twentieth century an important cemetery at Cournon d'Auvergne, dating to La Tène B was uncovered. Sadly, the material was dispersed before it could be properly

studied however many burials were richly furnished with various pieces of weaponry (Orengo 2003).

Middle and Early Late La Tène

From La Tène C to La Tène D1b (*c*.250–110 BC) the settlement record for the region becomes particularly rich although the majority of sites are concentrated on the southern Grande Limagne and surrounding areas (Mills 1985, 197; Collis 1995a).

Southern Grande Limagne

Aulnat, to the east of Clermont-Ferrand, has produced a dense group of sites spanning from La Tène B2 to La Tène D1b (Figure 5) (Deberge et al. 2007b). This agglomeration includes the sites of Aulnat/La Grande Borne (excavated by John Collis and Robert Périchon), Elisée Reclus, Gandaillat, Le Brézet (Poux and Vernet 2001), and Pontcharaud. These sites contain large numbers of pits, wells including some stone-lined examples, and timber buildings (Deberge et al. 2007b). The site was involved in a variety of industrial and craft activities, including the smithing of iron, the working of precious metals, coin manufacture, and pottery production (Collis 1975b, 1980; Deberge et al. 2007b; Orengo 2003). Inhumation burials (of adults and children) are found throughout the agglomeration. Most are interned with one or two ceramic vessels, brooches, and bracelets (Deberge and Orengo 2007). Rich burials are rare although one or two contain weaponry. Gandaillat also has two small zones of cremation burials (Deberge and Orengo 2007; Deberge et al. 2007b). Most of this activity dates to the second century BC and earlier occupation is mostly limited to La Grande Borne.

This complex covers approximately 150 hectares (Collis 1975a, 185, 1995a; Malacher and Collis 1992, 191) although it is not clear if it represents a village or some form of proto-urban settlement (*cf.* Jones 2001, 108–111). Collis has suggested that the nearest parallels are with earlier sites in the Mediterranean such as Rome, Athens, and certain Etruscan sites (Deberge *et al.* 2007b). Other important second century BC agglomerations from France, such as Acy-Romance (dep. Ardennes), Alluyes-Saumeray 'Bas des Touches' (dep. Eure et Loire), Feurs (dep. Loire), Levroux 'Les Arènes' (dep. Indre), Roanne (dep. Loire), and the Basel-Gasfabrik in Switzerland (Collis *et al.* 2000) are smaller than the Aulnat/Gandaillat complex.

The most extensively excavated settlement for the late La Tène period in the region is the farm of Le Pâtural, which is about five kilometres north of La Grande Borne, on the Grande Limagne (Deberge *et al.* eds. 2007). This site differs significantly from the Aulnat complex consisting of a sequence of ditched enclosures with timber buildings and occasional pits and wells. Again, inhumation burials are found within the area of settlement. There were two iron forges (Orengo 2003, 60, 69–70), but unlike Aulnat there is no evidence for the production of coins or the working of precious metals.

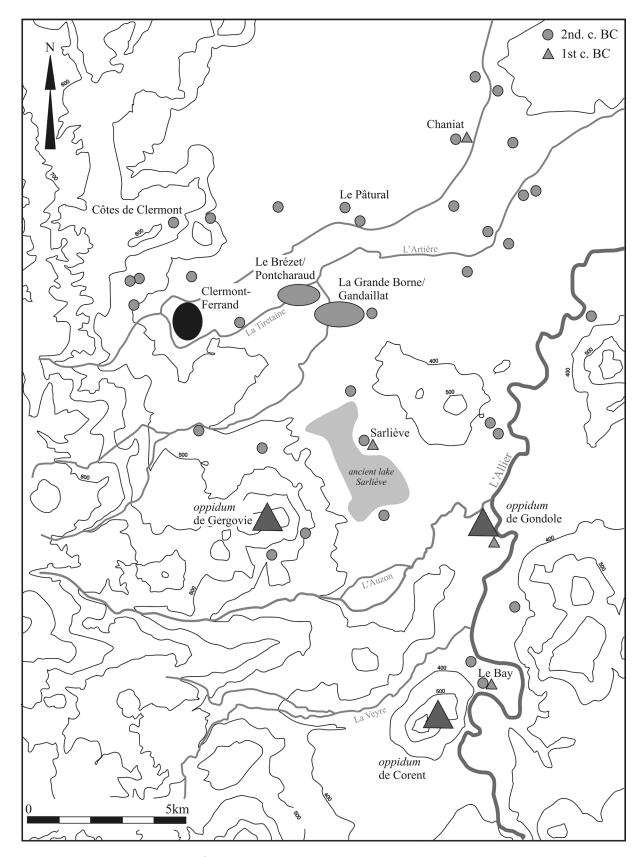


FIGURE 5. LATE LA TÈNE SITES IN THE SOUTHERN GRANDE LIMAGNE (AFTER A.R.A.F.A.).

In contrast to the southern Grande Limagne, the surrounding hills were generally devoid of settlement during the second century BC. The exceptions are the Côtes-de-Clermont and Chanturgues, which have produced a scatter of La Tène C2-D1 ceramics on the plateau top and its slopes

(Nash 1978a, 124; Collis 1975a, 189). The nature of this settlement remains poorly understood but it possibly represents an extension of the Grande Limagne sites. Few Iron Age sites are known in the west and on the plateau des Dômes and the Combrailles. Recent excavations have

uncovered an enclosed farm at Saint-Ours-les-Roches 'Le Brus' (Mennessier-Jouannet *et al.* 2009; Deberge 2007) and a small rich cremation cemetery at Pulvérières (Dunkley *et al.* 2005). Both of these sites date from the second to the first century BC.

Lezoux

Further to the east around Lezoux, there are several middle-late La Tène settlements (Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994b, 116–117, 132 fig. 56). Again, these sites are poorly understood with limited archaeological data (*cf.* Jones 2001).

Northern Grande Limagne

For the northern Grande Limagne there are several middle and late La Tène sites but less evidence for the first century BC (Mennessier-Jouannet 1993, 1994). Only the site of Aigueperse has been excavated. This appears to be an agglomeration covering several hectares with evidence for iron and bronze working, and pottery production (Mennessier-Jouannet and Dunkley 1996; Deberge ed. in prep. 1).

Issoire

Twenty-five kilometres to the south of Clermont-Ferrand, only two late La Tène settlements are known from the Issoire basin, both near to Le Broc (Watson 1999, 57–58). Prehistoric (Bronze Age and early Iron Age) and Roman sites were more frequent (Watson 1999, 57–59) and Iron Age sites may be masked by later activity.

Department of the Allier

Work by David Lallemand has uncovered evidence for a major settlement of c.20 hectares, starting in La Tène C2 and continuing into La Tène D1, at Varennes-sur-Allier towards the northern border of Arvernian territory (Lallemand 2007a; Lallemand and Orengo 2007).

First century BC: the oppida

By the end of the second century BC there was a major change in the settlement of the region, with the abandonment of most of the rural sites on the Grande Limagne such as Aulnat/Gandaillat and Le Pâtural, and a succession of nucleated *oppida* (Collis 1982, 1995a; Malacher and Collis 1992). Caesar used the term *oppidum* to denote the large defensive settlements he encountered during his conquest of Gaul (Collis 1984a, 5). Caesar was never consistent in his use of the term, and he occasionally describes some of the more important *oppida* as *urbs* e.g. Bourges 'Avaricum' (dep. Cher) and Mont Beuvray 'Bibracte' (dep. Nièvre). Archaeologists use the term with an equivalent flexibility and confusion (Woolf 1993a).

For the Arverni, six sites can be identified as *oppida*. Corent, Gondole, and Gergovie are close to Clermont-

Ferrand (Figure 5). The fourth at Viermeux 'Cusset', near Vichy (dep. Allier) is approximately 25 kilometres north-east of Clermont-Ferrand (Lallemand 2007a). The fifth Saint-Just-de-Baffie, is 15 kilometres south-east of Ambert in the south-west of the department of the Puy-de-Dôme and near to the eastern border of Arvernian territory (Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994b, 306). Finally, the sixth site at Bègues is near to Gannat (dep. Allier) (Lallemand 2007a).

Corent, a large flat-topped lava plateau, was the first to be occupied with abundant evidence for settlement and cult activity from *c*.110 BC until 80 BC (Guichard *et al.* 1993). Recent excavations by Matthieu Poux (2002a, Poux *et al.* 2002; Poux ed. 2011) suggest that occupation continued until around 60/50 BC. There is considerable evidence for industrial and artisanal activities, notably textile production, the working of leather and animal furs, and the production of bronze and lead (Poux ed. 2011). At the base of Corent was a contemporary settlement of approximately 20–30 hectares at Le Bay, adjacent to the Allier river (Guichard and Collis 1992, 22).

The fortified lowland *oppidum* of Gondole was occupied during La Tène D2 (*c*.80–30 BC) and abandoned before the Augustan period (Deberge *et al.* 2009). Recent excavations have demonstrated that occupation continued beyond the rampart with various zones given over to funerary and industrial activities (iron and bronze working, coin minting) and the large-scale production of pottery (Deberge *et al.* 2009).

Finally, the plateau of Gergovie, which was occupied just before the Gallic war and since the eighteenth century has been identified as the location of Caesar's defeat by Vercingetorix. Recent excavations on the edge of the ancient lake Sarliève 'La Grande Halle d'Auvergne', close to Gergovie, have uncovered a major second to first century BC settlement (Vernet 2002b; Trément *et al.* 2007; Deberge and Orengo 2007).

Gallo-Roman

The oppidum of Gergovie was abandoned during the early first century AD in favour of settlement once again on the Grande Limagne plain, with the founding of the Roman town of Augustonemetum which survives today as Clermont-Ferrand. By the Gallo-Roman period numerous farms and villas are found on the Grande Limagne, the Petites Limagnes, and in the Allier valley (Mills 1985, 198; Provost and Mennessier-Jouannet 1994b, 77-78; Dousteyssier et al. 2004; Dousteyssier 2011, 59-79). The presence of late La Tène ceramics (including sherds of Republican amphorae) on many of these sites has been used to argue for settlement continuity from the late Iron Age to the Gallo-Roman period (Trément and Dousteyssier 2000; Dousteyssier et al. 2004). However, most of these late La Tène ceramics date to the second and not the first century BC (Vallat 2004, 200–201; Y. Deberge pers. com.) suggesting a break in settlement. A situation confirmed by the excavations at Romagnat 'Maréchal' (Liégard and Fourvel 1996), Le Pâtural (Deberge *et al.* eds. 2007), and Beaumont 'Champ Madame' (Alfonso and Blaizot eds. 2004) which all show no continuation of settlement from the late Iron Age to the Roman period.

Conclusion

The settlement record for the department of the Puy-de-Dôme during the later Iron Age shows a society dominated by open settlements involved in cereal and arable farming (Richardson 1997; Deberge 2007; Jones 2001). Settlement was concentrated on the Grande Limagne with less dense settlement in the outlying regions (northern Grande Limagne, Lezoux, and Issoire). The impression given is that the majority of the late Iron Age population was confined to a small area of the Auvergne; a pattern in some ways similar to the distribution of the modern population of the region.

Many sites show evidence for a variety of craft and industrial activities (Orengo 2003). Most sites were self-sufficient producing the iron tools and objects they needed, either by the use of itinerant specialists or by members of the settlement itself. Only some of the larger settlements, such as La Grande Borne, were engaged in a wider range of industrial activities. Excavations at other parts of the Aulnat complex, such as at Gandaillat, have not found the same range or level of industrial activities (Deberge *et al.* 2007b).

The late La Tène settlements in the department of the Puyde-Dôme had access to a wide range and quantity of goods in the area around Clermont-Ferrand at least. From the second century BC onwards a range of more standardized and specialized forms of pottery began to be manufactured. During the late second century BC fine wheel turned vessels that copy Italian Campanian forms (imitation Campanian) appeared. La Tène C-D saw the production of fine painted pottery often with complex zoomorphic designs (Guichard 1994, 2003), which Andrews (1997), has argued were produced by skilled full-time artisans. These fine wheelmade ceramics are found on most of the La Tène C-D1 sites in the region and it is even possible that the painted vessels were exported to surrounding regions.

The lack of settlement hierarchy for the middle and late La Tène period in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme is reflected in the burial record, which is relatively impoverished in terms of the number and types of grave goods (Deberge and Orengo 2007). There is limited evidence for a military elite in the burial record (Deberge and Orengo 2007; Loison *et al.* 1991) and rich burials are rare for the Auvergne throughout prehistory, even when we know of the existence of powerful individuals such as Louernius.

From the end of the second to the first century BC the Auvergne saw the formation of several *oppida*. These sites may have been deliberately planned, and show an

increasing concern with defence and the control of space and people. The *oppida* in the Auvergne are not near to the best farmland (the Grande Limagne) and are instead located in marginal areas showing a greater concern with communication routes such as the river Allier. It is noteworthy that the *oppida* of Corent and Gergovie were located on hilltops previously settled during the late Bronze Age/Hallstatt period. There appears to be a desire to make use of and invoke earlier ritual and ancestral authority.

The Auvergne is unusual with its succession of centrally located *oppida*, for other areas of France the continued use of a dominant *oppidum* was the norm and the Arverni appear to have had less need for fortified settlements to control their territory unlike other tribes. The Aedui had a political centre at Mont Beuvray 'Bibracte' (dep. Nièvre), a trading settlement at Châlon-sur-Saône 'Cabillonum' (dep. Saône-et-Loire), and lesser *oppida* controlling the more distant parts of their territory, such as at Mâcon (dep. Saône-et-Loire) (Barral and Guillaumet 2000; Barral *et al.* 2002; Caesar *De Bello Gallico* 7.42, 7.90). The Bituriges Cubi had a number of *oppida* dispersed throughout their territory (Ralston 1988; Guichard *et al.* 2002) including Bourges 'Avaricum' (dep. Cher), Châteaumeillant (dep. Cher), and Nevers 'Noviodunum' (dep. Nièvre).

For the Segusiavi the settlements at Roanne (dep. Loire) (Lavendhomme and Guichard eds. 1997) and Poncins 'Goincet' (dep. Loire) (Collis et al. 2000, 75) continued to be occupied alongside the local oppida at Chambles 'Essalois' (dep. Loire), Saint-Jean-Saint-Maurice 'Joeuvre' (dep. Loire), and Saint-Marcel-de-Félines 'Cret-Châtelard' (dep. Loire). For the Carnutes there is a similar complex pattern with some sites such as Orléans (dep. Loiret) being occupied from the second century BC until the Gallo-Roman period while the open settlement of Alluyes-Saumeray 'Les Bas des Touches' (dep. Eure et Loire) was abandoned during the first century BC (Collis et al. 2000, 80; Riquier 2005). The second century BC agglomerations at Pons (dep. Charente-Maritime) and Châteaumeillant (dep. Cher) were both succeeded by fortified oppida (Houdusse and Landreau 2010; Büchsenschütz et al. 2010).

The nearest comparison to the Auvergne is the Aisne valley in northern France with a similar shift from second century BC rural sites to a succession of short-lived *oppida*: Condé-sur-Suippe 'Varriscourt' (dep. Aisne), Villeneuve-Saint-Germain 'Les Grèves' (dep. Aisne), and Pommiers 'Moulin à Vent' (dep. Aisne) (Haselgrove 1990a, 1996).

For the Auvergne Collis (1982) has proposed a crisis model to explain the pattern of settlement change during the late La Tène period. A crisis causes the nucleation of previously open settlement into more defensible locations. However, it is possible that the *oppida* here had a slightly more gradual evolution developing out of earlier sites, as is the case with Pons (dep. Charente-Maritime) and Châteaumeillant (dep. Cher). Indeed current excavations on Corent are suggesting that this might have been the

case. In contrast, the pre-oppida agglomeration at Aulnat/Gandaillat/La Grande Borne suggests a relatively rapid growth around the middle of the second century BC (Deberge et al. 2007b). It is possible that the development of the Aulnat agglomeration was connected with the rise to power and the rule of Louernius and Bituitus. The decline and abandonment of this site would then be connected to the emergence of a new dynasty or chiefs, following the capture of Bituitus, who chose to found a new settlement on Corent.

The defeat of the Arverni in 121 BC, the end of kingship may have resulted in a decline in population and a period of instability. However, the abandonment of the southern Grande Limagne sites appears to occur a generation after the defeat of the Arverni unless our chronology is slightly out (?). Other changes occurring during this period include the decline of many of the established ceramic types such as the fine painted wares (Guichard 2003, 110) and the *jatte d'Aulnat*. As well as being new foundations, the *oppida* also saw a break with the material culture of the preceding open settlements.