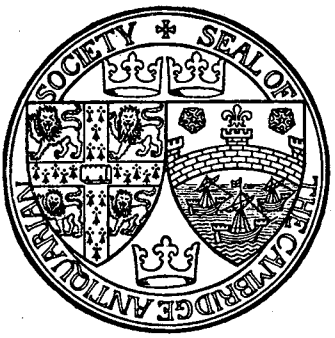
PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

CAMBRIDGE ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY

(INCORPORATING THE CAMBS & HUNTS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOCIETY)



VOLUME LXVI

JANUARY 1975 TO DECEMBER 1976

IMRAY LAURIE NORIE AND WILSON
1977

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CAMBRIDGE ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY

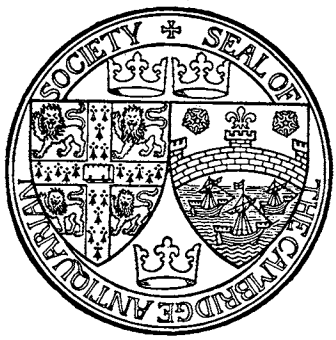
(INCORPORATING THE CAMBS & HUNTS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOCIETY)

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

CAMBRIDGE ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY

(INCORPORATING THE CAMBS & HUNTS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOCIETY)



VOLUME LXVI

JANUARY 1975 TO DECEMBER 1976

IMRAY LAURIE NORIE AND WILSON
1976

Published for the Cambridge Antiquarian Society (incorporating the Cambs and Hunts Archaeological Society) by Imray Laurie Norie and Wilson Ltd, Wych House, Saint Ives, Huntingdon

Printed in Great Britain at The Burlington Press, Foxton, Royston, Herts SG8 6SA

CONTENTS

EXCAVATIONS AT STONEA, CAMBS: SITES OF THE NEOLITHIC, BRONZE AGE AND ROMAN PERIODS

T. W. J. POTTER

INTRODUCTION

DURING the early 1960s, the writer and his brother, Mr C. F. R. Potter of Ardingly College, Sussex, carried out a series of small scale excavations in the area of the Cambridgeshire Fenland around March. An account of the excavation of a small Roman period site at Coldham has already been published (Potter 1965), and the writer and his brother are currently preparing a report on their investigations of a large Romano-British settlement at Grandford, March (Salway 1970, 197). The purpose of this article is to describe two small excavations at Stonea, near March, where a Bronze Age barrow with some Neolithic occupation and a Romano-British settlement were investigated between 1960 and 1962. These excavations were of very limited extent and both sites would repay more thorough and systematic examination; however, further work is not planned for the immediate future and it has thus seemed advisable to place on record the present results without additional delay.

Topography and archaeology of the Stonea area (Fig. 1)

Stonea, medieval Staneie or Ston(e)heye (Reaney 1943, 265–6), is a small, isolated outcrop of gravels and boulder clay which rises out of the peat fen, some three miles to the south-east of the town of March. Geologically, it is an island about a mile across and standing no more than 15 feet above sea level. On all sides the ground slopes down to merge almost imperceptibly with the surrounding peat fen. The outcrop today forms the focal point for the cultivation of the adjacent peat fen, and is occupied by a number of farms and cottages, although there is no larger settlement nucleus. Indeed, much of the outcrop is given over to arable land, interspersed by areas of pasture which coincide with underlying boulder clay. Although in urban terms it remains thinly settled, Stonea nevertheless must always have been an attractive centre for occupation sites, with nearby fertile soil and well-drained position.

The archaeological evidence does show in fact that it was occupied from the earliest times. Acheulian and Levalloisian tools are recorded (Roe 1968, 39) and, in the F. M. Walker Collection, now at Wisbech Museum, there are numerous flint objects from the area, including many typical Neolithic and Bronze Age tools. An Icenian coin hoard is recorded (Evans 1890, 586), and in the south-

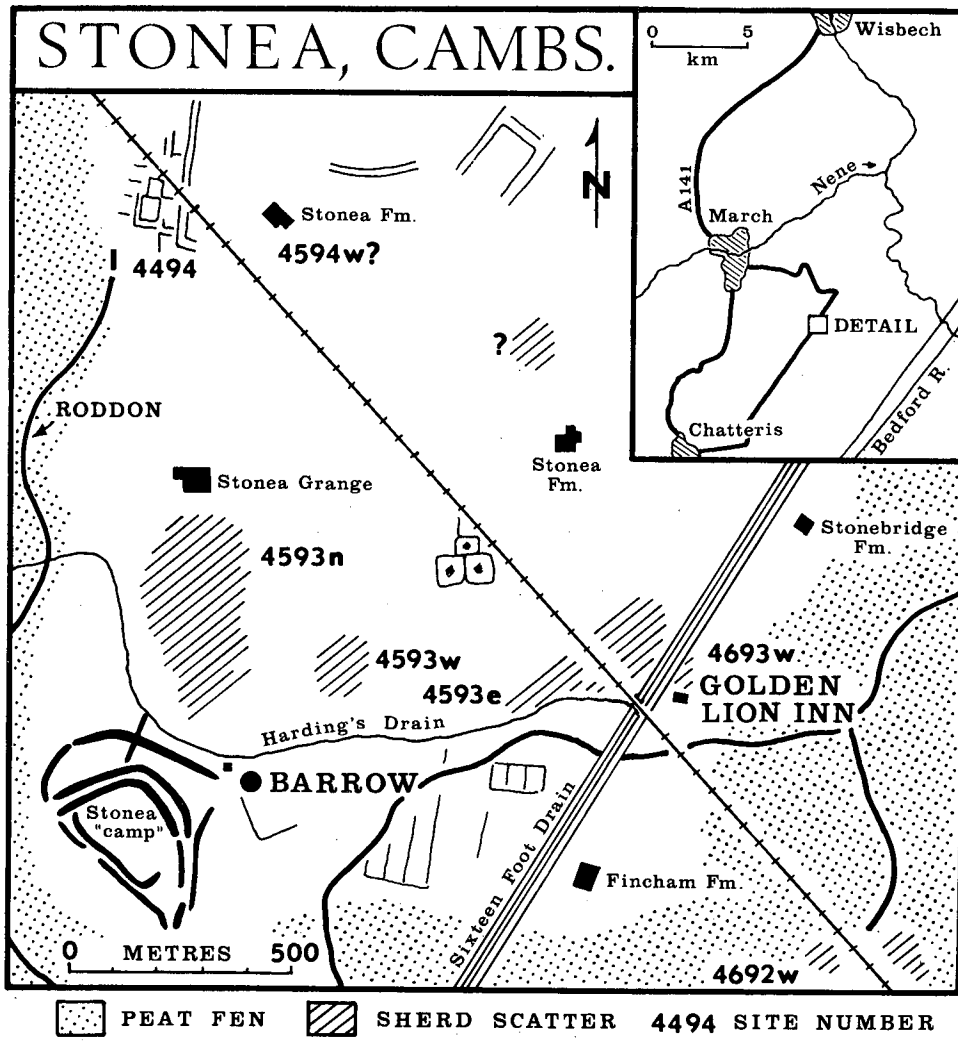


Fig. 1. Map showing the location of the excavated sites and Roman period settlement in the Stonea area. Site references from Salway 1970; additional documentation from aerial photographs and ground survey.

west part of the outcrop are extensive earthworks, known locally as Stonea Camp (Plate I). They are associated with a surface scatter of predominantly pre-Flavian pottery (Potter 1965, 29–30; Salway 1970, 218), although a medieval date has also been proposed (Dyer 1972, 226). In the Roman period, ground survey and aerial photography has revealed numerous settlement traces, plotted on Fig. 1, clustering on the gravel and clay outcrop. Many of these sites

Plate I: (*a*) Stonea Barrow; (*b*) rectangular enclosure; (*c*) Stonea Camp; (*d*) roddon of extinct watercourse. Photograph looking west.
Photograph by J. K. St Joseph, Cambridge University Collection: copyright reserved.

persisted into the 4th century and perhaps later (Salway 1970, 18; Potter 1965, 26) and, although there is no proven Dark Age occupation, the outcrop was probably continuously settled from the later Middle Ages (Reaney 1943, 265–6).

Thus, the comparatively high, well-drained ground of the Stonea outcrop seems always to have marked it out as a favoured area of settlement. Moreover, the small number of modern buildings makes it an especially useful area in which to study the phases and development of Fenland settlement over a very long period of time.

I. THE BRONZE AGE BARROW

In 1961, survey work in the Stonea region revealed a low mound, some 65ft across, in the field to the east of Stonea camp (TL/451931). The mound,

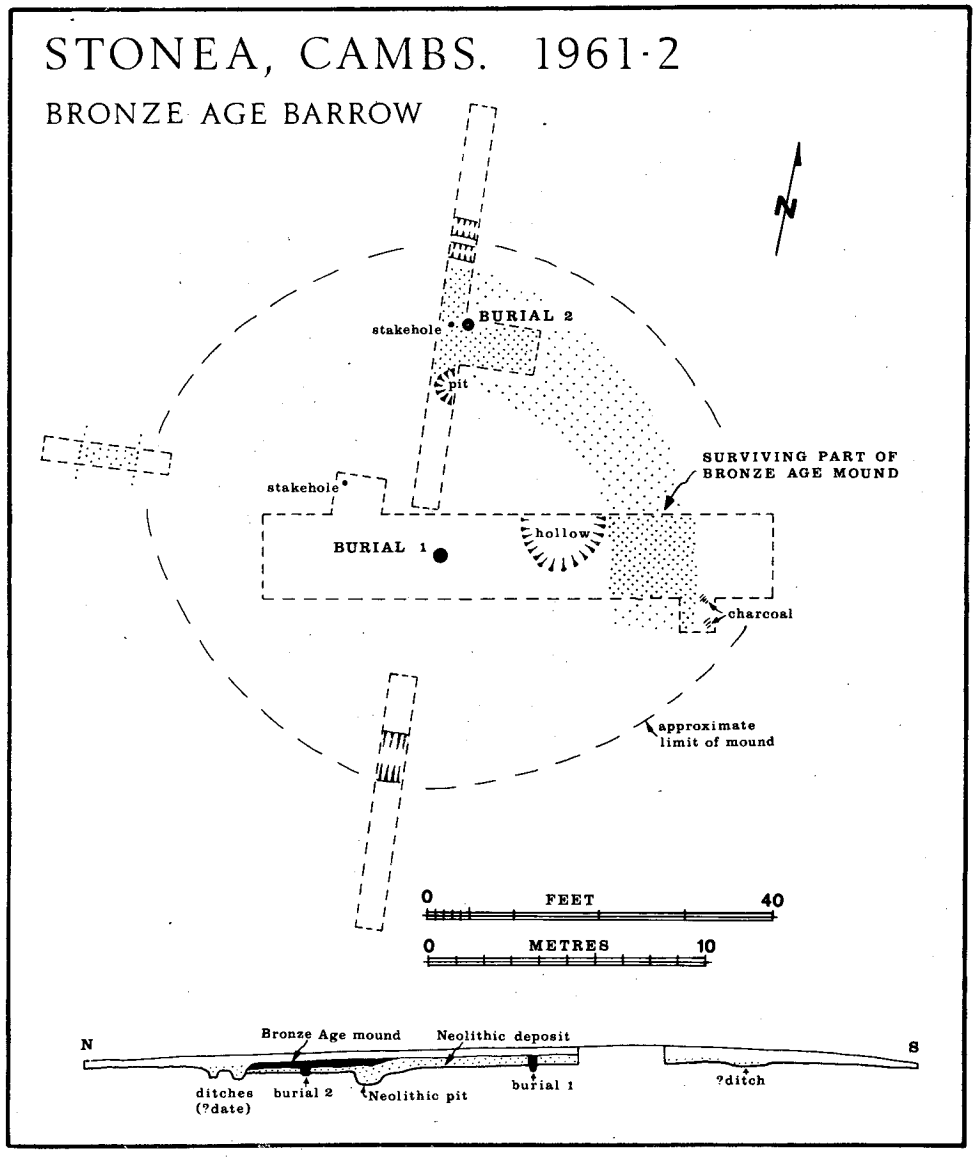


Fig. 2. Plan and section of Stonea barrow.

apparently surrounded by a ring ditch, showed clearly on an aerial photograph ploughed every year, it was decided to trench the mound, and small-scale excavations were carried out during weekends in 1961 and 1962.

The excavations showed that the mound had been built up in three phases (Fig. 2). These deposits overlay a sterile sand and gravel subsoil which was sealed by a thin horizon of leached sand (Fig. 3, unit 6), representing the old ground surface. The earliest mound deposit rested upon the old ground surface. It consisted of a layer of leached, sandy-textured soil, grey-white in colour and occasionally flecked with charcoal (Fig. 3, unit 3). This layer varied in depth between one and ten inches, and tended to thicken towards the north and east

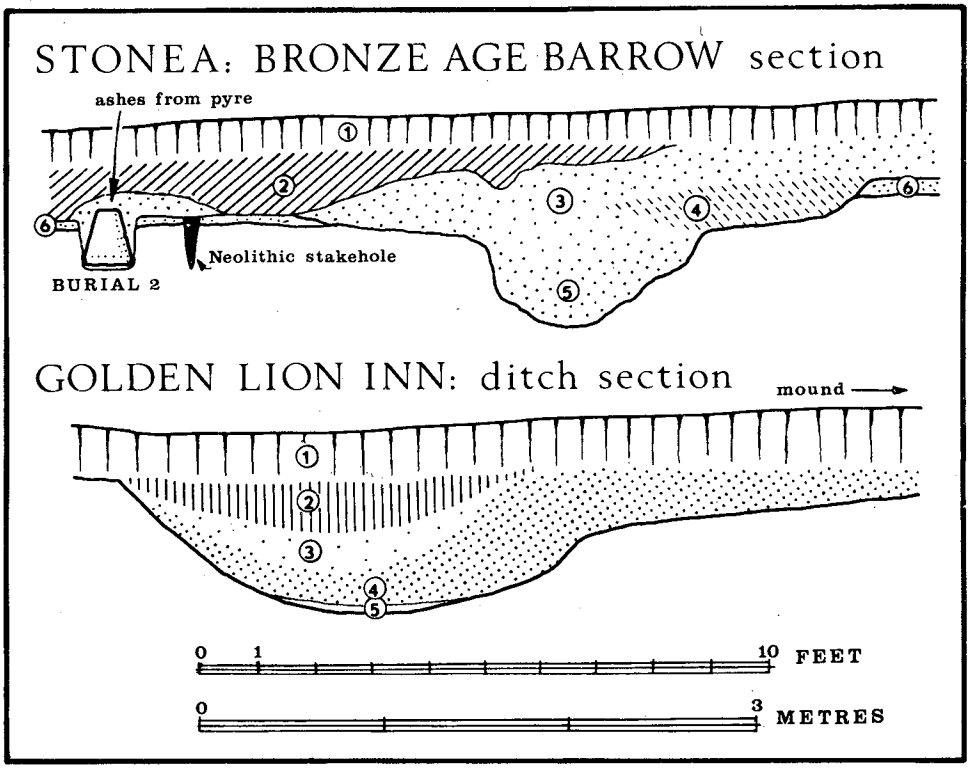


Fig. 3.

sectors of the site. At the base of the layer and cut through the old ground surface were a number of features (Fig. 2). The deepest feature was a circular pit, nearly four feet in diameter and over two feet in depth (Fig. 3, unit 5). It was filled with a charcoal-flecked grey sand, overlaid by a tip of dark brown gravelly sand, thrown in from the south side (Fig. 3, unit 4). The pit contained a few sherds of pottery and a piece of bone. A second pit-feature was found in the eastern sector of the excavations. It consisted of a shallow hollow about a foot in depth and ten feet across. It had been cut through the old ground surface and into the underlying gravels. The floor of the hollow was roughly level, and had been trodden into a hard surface. It was filled with a leached white sand containing flecks of charcoal and a good deal of pottery. In addition to these two pit features, there were also two stakeholes (Fig. 2), driven through the old ground surface. One stakehole was 3 inches in diameter and 8 inches deep, and the other 6 inches in diameter and 10 inches deep. Both were filled with dark soil, suggesting that the stakes had rotted *in situ*.

The area excavated was too small to permit any interpretation of these structural traces, but the site would clearly merit large-scale clearance. However, the features and the overlying layer of grey-white sand did yield a few worked flints, some fragments of bone and nearly 600 sherds of coarse reddish pottery. Most of the sherds were small and abraded and few were decorated or represent identifiable forms. These are discussed in detail below but it may be noted here that the identifiable forms are consistently Neolithic in type and, in Mr Kinness's view, probably represent a late Neolithic assemblage. Thus, Stonea may be added to the group of Fenland Neolithic sites like Peacock's Farm (Clark and Godwin 1962) and Hurst Fen, Mildenhall (Clark, Higgs and Longworth 1960), which were positioned on relatively high, well-drained ground but in close proximity to the peat fen.

The second phase of the mound build-up was represented by a thin horizon of black soil, about 2 inches thick, and abundantly flecked with charcoal. The layer was restricted to a small part of the eastern sector of the site, where it overlay the layer of sand containing the Neolithic pottery. The thin black layer was not associated with any obvious traces of structures but it did yield two sherds of Beaker pottery, discussed below. This occupation material probably represents transient settlement, late in the Neolithic period.

In the north and east sectors of the site, both the Beaker-period horizon and the earlier Neolithic layer were sealed beneath a deposit of dark brown, gravelly soil, representing upcast from the subsoil (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 unit 2). This upcast was associated with two Bronze Age burials and must represent the surviving part of a barrow mound, of which the upper section has been completely removed by ploughing. The barrow ditch, so apparent on the aerial photograph

(Plate I), did not prove easy to identify on the ground. In the northern cutting were two small parallel ditches, each about 2 feet wide and 15 inches deep (Fig. 2). Both ditches had U-shaped profiles and were filled with black soil with no obvious traces of internal stratification. They yielded no finds but in section the more southerly ditch appeared to cut the tail of the barrow mound, which it should thus post-date. However, further work would be required to elucidate fully the relationship between these ditches and the barrow. In the southern cutting (Fig. 2) the barrow ditch was also elusive. The only indication of its course was a shallow depression, 5 feet in width and about 9 inches in depth, which could have marked the bottom of the ditch; but too little was uncovered to decide with certainty. The position of the ditch was even less clear on the west and east sides of the mound. To the west was an indistinct soil mark, 7 feet wide and characterised by a slightly discoloured brown sandy fill, but this was not investigated further. To the east there was no evidence at all for a ditch. Thus, the presence of a barrow ditch remains to be demonstrated with certainty.

Partial excavation of the barrow mound uncovered two burials, both cremations. A central interment, *burial* 1, had been placed in a small circular pit, some 12 inches in diameter. The soil mark of the pit was identified at the base of the ploughsoil (Fig. 2), and excavation showed that it had been cut through the Neolithic layer and into the subsoil. Its total surviving depth was 18 inches. The pit had been filled to within a few inches of the top with cremated bone, over which was a sterile layer of grey sand. Mr Denston's report on the cremated bone, given below, concludes that the bones were probably those of a woman, aged between 30 and 40. Scattered through the fill of the pit were also 17 jet and 11 amber beads (Fig. 6, p. 35), evidently belonging to a fine necklace. The beads, although slightly warped by heat, had not been heavily burnt, and must have been thrown into the pit, bead by bead, after the body had been cremated. The beads, which are of fusiform type, belong to a well-known class, widely distributed in Britain from Wessex to Scotland. Similar examples in both amber and jet occur in the rich graves of the Wessex Culture, as for example at Upton Lovell (Annable and Simpson 1964), as well as in more local contexts like Snailwell, Cambs. (Lethbridge 1949). Further north, jet and amber fusiform beads are generally associated with Food Vessels (Piggott and Stewart 1958), with numerous examples from Scotland (Craw 1928–29). The form of the necklace can vary enormously. A well-known northern type is the crescentic space-plate necklace, which usually has jet fusiform beads, as well as spacers of jet or lignite. Further south the fusiform beads are often found in association with other bead types like segmented faience, shale and sometimes bone.

Burial 2 lay 26 feet to the north of the central interment. A small circular pit, about 9 inches in depth, had been dug through the old ground surface and into

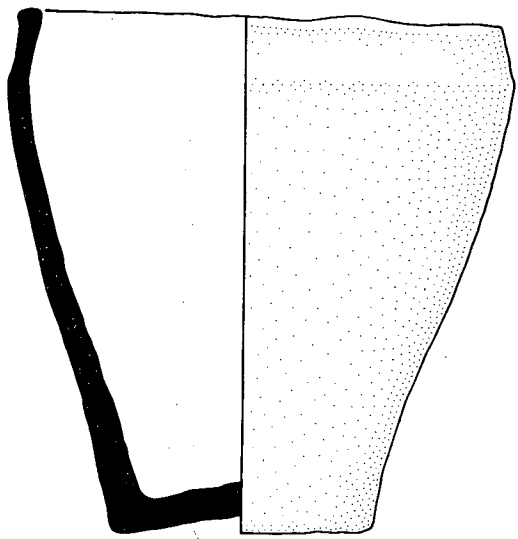


Fig. 4. Urn from burial 2, Stonea barrow. One quarter natural size.

the subsoil (Fig. 3). The bottom of the pit was covered by nearly an inch of ash and tiny fragments of cremated bone. Over this had been placed an inverted urn, containing the cremation. This was in turn covered by a low mound, 6 inches high, of ash, charcoal, soil and small pieces of cremated bone, presumably deriving from the funeral pyre. Sealing this mound was the upcast forming the body of the barrow (Fig. 3, unit 2). Thus, in general terms, the burial must have been contemporary with the construction of the barrow, and presumably of much the same date as the central interment. It was, in Ashbee's term (1960, 43), a satellite rather than secondary burial. In this respect, it is interesting to note that Mr Denston concludes that the bones from the satellite burial are those of a young man, aged about 20–25, contrasting with the central interment of an elderly woman. The urn containing the cremation was an ill-proportioned, crudely-made vessel (Fig. 4). It is just under 11 inches in height and has a wide body and a slightly inturned, short shoulder with a flat-topped rim. The fabric is brown and slightly gritty, and there are clear vertical tooling marks. Typologically, the urn is so shapeless that any cultural or chronological attribution is not easy. In form, it does perhaps most nearly approach the shape of a collared urn, but the analogy is only a general one. Much more significant in chronological terms is the fact that, for stratigraphic reasons, burials 1 and 2 should be fairly close in date.

The only other feature of note revealed by these excavations were two patches of charcoal on the old ground surface, just beyond the eastern margins of the barrow mound (Fig. 2). There was no dating evidence for these charcoal scatters.

Detailed description of the Neolithic pottery (Fig. 5)

559 sherds of Neolithic pottery were recovered from the deposits beneath the barrow mound. In size, the sherds divide roughly as follows:

3 sq. ins+	106 sherds
1–3 sq. ins	183 sherds
less than 1 sq. in	270 sherds

Thus, the bulk of the sample comprises very small scraps of pottery: indeed, both large sherds and joining fragments are very rare. Some attempt was made to sort the sample by fabric, but this proved to be fruitless: there were distinctions both in colour and texture, but no clear quantifiable categorisation emerged. In colour the sherds ranged from a pale red to a brown, whilst a very small proportion, perhaps 2–5%, were dark brown to black. Most sherds contained abundant temper, particularly crushed flint, sand and shell. The fabric was commonly vesiculated, although the degree of vesiculation varied, being much less pronounced on the darker coloured wares. These darker wares also occasionally revealed traces of a light burnish. Burnishing was otherwise rare, although it may well have disappeared through weathering.

The bulk of the sherds comprised featureless pieces of body, without either decoration or identifiable shape characteristics. In thickness these sherds ranged from 0·2–1·6 inches, the mean tending towards 0·4–0·5 inches. Fragments of a minimum of twelve pots were represented by rim sherds, all of which are illustrated in Fig. 5, except for some minute crumbs, one from a pot with a tapering, slightly incurved rim, and two from pots with flat-topped rims. Other rim forms occurred in the following frequencies:

Flat-topped	4 (two with internal mouldings)
Tapered	2 (+ ? 2)
Rolled	1
Externally moulded	2
Everted	1
Plain	2

A few other sherds, apart from rims, had some curvature although, with the exception of those illustrated (Fig. 5), the only two which could be readily identified were two carinated sherds.

Decoration was extremely rare. Excluding the Beaker sherds (Fig. 5, nos. 18, 19), which derived from a different stratigraphic unit, only nine sherds were decorated, less than 2% of the total sample. This figure does not include the jar

with impressed dimples (Fig. 5, no. 1) and three other small sherds with dimples.

Catalogue of the drawn Neolithic sherds (Fig. 5)

1. Jar rim and shoulder, in a vesicular reddish-brown fabric, lightly burnished on the interior. Small black and white grits. The jar has a flattened rim with a prominent internal moulding, and large impressed dimples at the junction of the neck and shoulder.
2. Jar rim comprising three non-joining sherds but from the same pot. Gritty reddish fabric with very many small flint grits. Comparatively non-vesicular. Flat-topped rim with slight internal moulding, decorated with deep incisions, and a row of impressed dimples along the inside lip.
3. Sherd with a tapered rim in a coarse, very vesicular fabric, red-brown in colour and with comparatively little temper. Incised diagonal lines on the outside of the rim and a medley of incised diagonal lines, perhaps forming roughly drawn triangles, on the inside of the rim. One similar rim but undecorated.
4. A rolled rim in a fairly smooth brown ware with flint temper. Lightly incised diagonal hatching, in several registers, covering the rim and neck.
5. Small very abraded sherd in a gritty dark brown-black fabric, with lightly incised decoration. Possibly some trace of white infilling in the band of diagonal hatching.
6. Abraded sherd in a vesicular reddish-brown fabric. Lightly incised, irregularly drawn lines.
7. Sherd in a lightly burnished brown fabric with three deeply incised parallel lines at the top and other lightly incised, carefully drawn, parallel lines below.
8. Sherd in a vesicular reddish-brown fabric with prominent incised lines, forming at least one triangle.
9. Abraded sherd in a vesicular brown fabric with irregular incised hatching.
10. Shoulder sherd in a vesicular, reddish fabric with lightly incised lines on the inside lip of the pot.
11. Rolled rim in a dark grey-brown fabric with white grits.
12. Moulded rim in a soft, vesicular, brown-grey fabric.
13. Jar rim in a fairly hard, reddish fabric with white grits.
14. Neck and shoulder of a bowl in a lightly burnished dark brown fabric.
15. Moulded rim in a reddish-brown fabric with a few white grits. There are incised lines on the top of the rim.
16. Plain, slightly tapered rim in a lightly burnished, dark brown fabric. Three other rim fragments could belong to this pot.
17. Sherd in an unusual pale reddish-grey ware, with incised herringbone type decoration.
18. Beaker sherd in a reddish-brown ware. The incised lines are keyed to hold an infilling. Stratified above the other Neolithic sherds.
19. As 18.

The Neolithic pottery: discussion

This account is adapted from notes by Mr Ian Kinnes.

The following ceramic styles may be distinguished: plain bowl, Ebbsfleet, Mildenhall, Whiteleaf and Grooved Ware. This combination of styles suggests

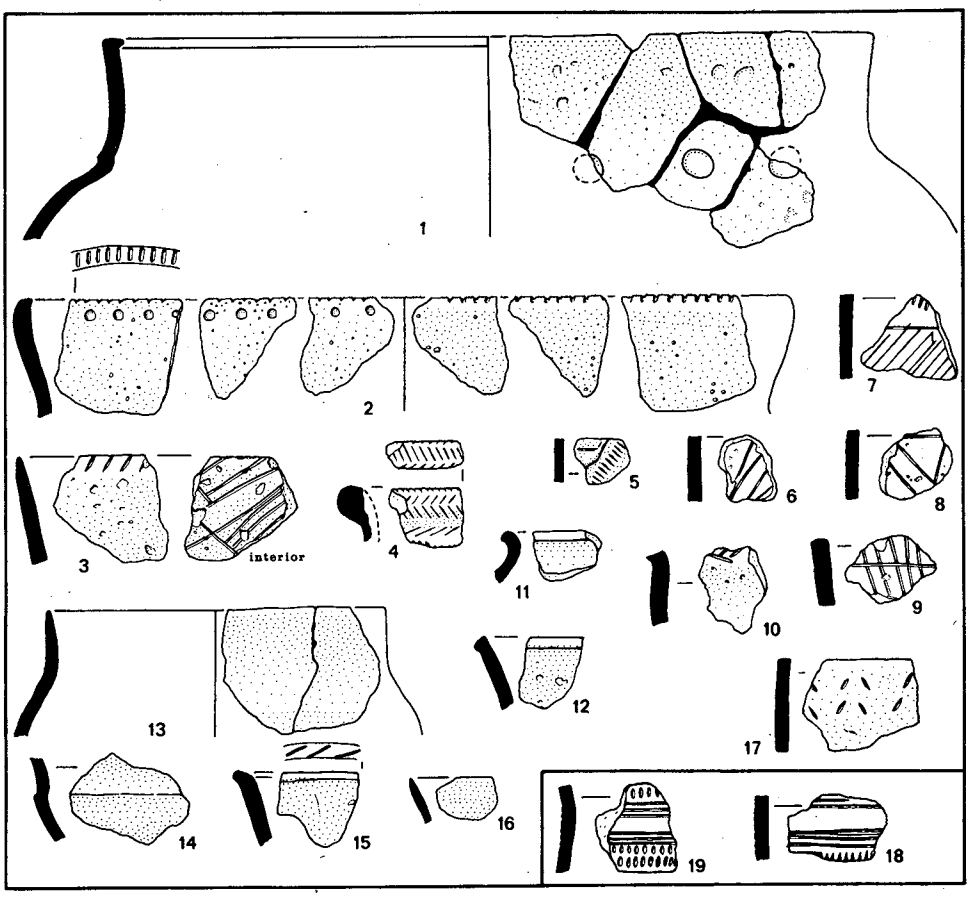


Fig. 5. Neolithic pottery from Stonea barrow. One third natural size.

a Final Neolithic date and, moreover, clearly illustrates the complexity of stylistic influences upon what, in stratigraphic terms, is a homogeneous assemblage. The use of such a wide variety of styles appears, however, to be characteristic of this period: older types were not supplanted by new styles, but persisted in use, although sometimes in modified form. A discussion of the material will illustrate the point more clearly.

Neolithic wares have a standard genealogy. Plain bowl styles were ancestral to the regional styles of Mildenhall and Ebbsfleet, which fused together to form a local variant, the Whiteleaf style. Grooved Ware, although basically a new phenomenon, also owed something to these older traditions. Beaker wares, on

the other hand, represent an intrusive element which was far-reaching in terms of its impact upon indigenous styles. This is of course an over-simplified account of the development of Neolithic styles, and the importance of the Stonea assemblage is that it shows that, once established, Neolithic pottery styles tended to endure rather than be replaced by new, emergent trends. The form G vessel (Fig. 5, no. 14) provides a good example. However, allowance must also be made for the fact that older styles will be modified by new influences. At Stonea, this is well illustrated by the Mildenhall types, since there are both unmodified examples and also pieces which reflect the chronologically later styles of Ebbsfleet, Whiteleaf, Grooved Ware and Beaker.

(*a*) *Ebbsfleet* (Fig. 5, nos. 1, 2, 11, 12, 13, 15)
The basic jar and necked forms, together with the restrained decorative elements, can be readily paralleled at the type site (Burchell and Piggott 1939). The presence of these forms at Stonea provides additional documentation of the spread of the Ebbsfleet style from its main area of diffusion, the Wessex and Thames Valley regions.

(*b*) *Mildenhall* (Fig. 5, nos. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10)
The fabric and decorative technique of these sherds ally them with the developed bowl style of this region, best exemplified at the nearby site at Hurst Fen (Clark, Higgs and Longworth 1960). The horizontal zoned pattern of Fig. 4, no. 9 is strongly reminiscent of Hurst Fen P46. Moreover, this sherd, together with the pendant triangles on three other sherds from Stonea, suggests some developed Beaker influence.

(*c*) *Whiteleaf* (Fig. 5, nos. 4, 5)
The expanded rim form and herringbone incision (Fig. 5, no. 4) can both be paralleled at the type site (Childe and Smith 1954, Figs. 5 and 7). The diagonal hatching (Fig. 5, no. 5) cannot be precisely matched, although it falls within the general decorative trend of Whiteleaf styles. Its white infill, a notably rare feature, is paralleled by the infill of vessel 10 at Whiteleaf.

(*d*) *Grooved ware* (Fig. 5, nos. 3, ? 17)
One vessel (Fig. 5, no. 3) is allied both by rim form and decoration to the Clacton or Durrington Walls sub-styles of Grooved Ware (Wainwright and Longworth 1971, 236–241). The extensive internal triangle pattern can be paralleled by vessel P452 at Durrington Walls. The other sherd, Fig. 5, no. 17, cannot be readily assigned to a particular style. Its vertical zone effect, reminiscent of Grooved Ware decorative trends, might indicate domestic Beaker influence (Clarke 1970, 266–270). Its distinctive fabric, however, may indicate that it represents one of the ill-defined local styles which in East Anglia seem to result from the interaction of Grooved Ware and Beaker styles.

(*e*) *Bowl* (Fig. 5, no. 14)
The pronounced carination and light burnish of this sherd ally it with the eastern British series of plain shouldered vessels of early Neolithic origin, Piggott's Form G (Piggott 1931, 75).

The Beaker Pottery (Fig. 5, nos. 18, 19)
In fabric and decoration, both sherds are clearly of normal Beaker type. Definite ascription of these sherds to any particular sub-group is prohibited by the lack of the total decorative scheme. It is unlikely, however, that there is any great chronological gap between this material and that of formal Neolithic date.

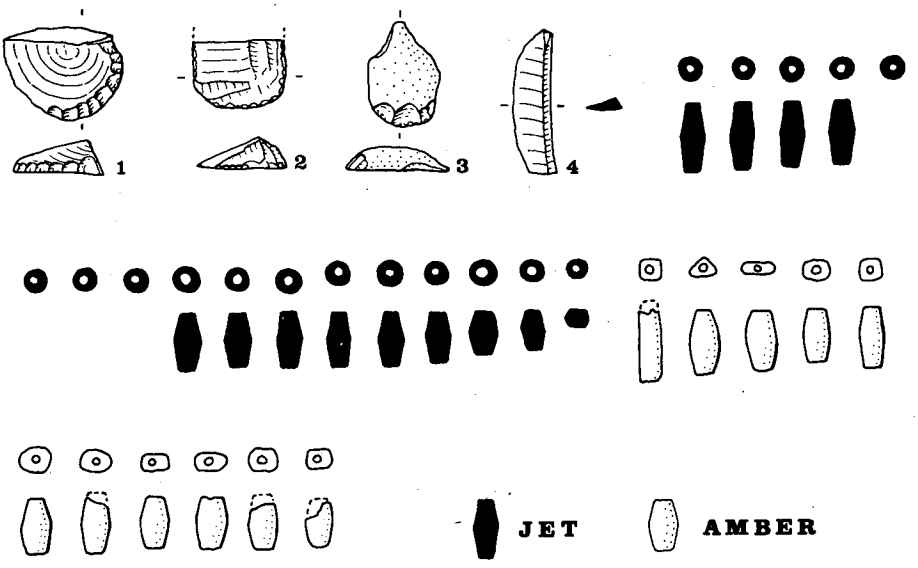


Fig. 6. Neolithic flints from Stonea barrow. Necklace from burial 1.
One half natural size.

The Flints (Fig. 6)

Mr Christopher Potter has kindly contributed the following note:

The nine flints recovered from the site are too small an assemblage to be statistically significant. Seven of the flints are brown, while the other two are of a darker material. The one patinated flint has been later retouched with a small notch. Four flints have traces of cortex and it would seem likely that the material was derived from local gravels.

1. A convex scraper on a small irregular flake; breadth 32mm, length 24mm.
2. A convex scraper on a broken flake or blade, with steep retouch; breadth 25mm, length 19mm.
3. A thumb scraper on a primary flake with cortex on the upper surface, breadth 19mm, length 28mm.
4. A flake with signs of use.

The rest can be summarised as follows:

Flake with serrated edge (1)
Notched flakes (2)
Retouched flakes (2)

Using the system employed for the Durrington Walls material (Wainwright and Longworth, 1971, 164) Scraper 1 would be classified as Class A ii (short end scraper) and Scraper 2 as Class E (broken flake). Scraper 3 is more consistent with those found in Beaker contexts, and the small size of the other two scrapers would not be inconsistent with this conclusion (Wainwright, 1972, 62). On the available evidence it would seem likely that the flint assemblage contains both Late Neolithic and Beaker material.

The Cremations

By C. B. DENSTON (*Duckworth Laboratory of Physical Anthropology, Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, Cambridge*).

This account relates to a study of the cremated remains from a Bronze Age barrow at Stonea. The examination of the material follows the technique used on previous occasions by the author, and is based on cremation reports by Lisowski (1956, 1959, 1962) and by Gejvall (1947, 1948). The aim in a study of this type is to try if possible to determine the age, sex and number of individuals cremated.

Cremated remains

The remains were forwarded to the laboratory in a fairly dirty condition, the earth being of a reddish tinge, suggestive of iron, some of which adhered to the bones, and necessitated careful removal. There were no traces of charcoal.

Preparation of material

The cremated material was first washed in a sieve of 2mm mesh to remove the soil and to float off any other light material. Next the material was allowed to dry and then fragments of the various bones and teeth were sorted into groups. The remaining material was then sieved again to remove the dust, and picked free of small stones and other foreign material. This residue of small bone fragments was classed as unidentifiable. The groups of material were then examined in detail in order to establish as far as possible the number of individuals cremated, their sex and age. A few fragments of individual bones could be glued together, though actual reconstructions were impossible. Finally, the cremated material was weighed.

[Note: Through pressure of space, this report is abbreviated. A fuller version is available in typescript. T.W.J.P.]

Burial 1

Number of individuals:	probably one
Sex:	possibly female (from femur and vertebrae)
Age:	30–40 (from suture closure, completed epiphyseal union, completed teeth eruption, vertebrae)
Total weight of bones:	1 822 grams
Identifiable fragments:	skull (65); teeth (11); femur (16); tibia (16); humerus (7); fibula (5); ulna (4); radius (5); ribs (44); metatarsals (1); metacarpals (1); phalanges (6); calcaneum (2); scaphoid (1); innominate bones (12); sacrum (2); vertebrae (48); patella (1); miscellaneous long bone (101); miscellaneous cancellous bone (143); miscellaneous (860)
Pathology:	slight lipping was noted on two portions of the bodies of lumbar vertebrae probably indicating slight osteo-arthritis

Burial 2

Number of individuals:	probably one
Sex:	possibly male (from innominate bone)
Age:	20–25 (from innominate bone, tibia, humerus, radius, vertebrae)
Identifiable fragments:	cranium (100); mandible (4); teeth (5); long bones (160); vertebrae (32); ribs (50); scapula (4); innominate (6); manubrium (1); tarsal (4); metatarsal and phalanges (6); metacarpal (12); unidentified fragments (100)

II. THE ROMANO-BRITISH SITE AT THE GOLDEN LION INN, STONEA

In 1960, in the course of fieldwork in the Stonea area, a Romano-British site was discovered by the Golden Lion Inn, near Stonea Station (Fig. 1; grid reference TL/460934; Salway 1970, 219). The site lay in a small triangular field, flanked to the north-west by the modern road between Upwell and Chatteris (B1098) and the Sixteen Foot Drain and, to the south, by the Golden Lion Inn and its associated buildings. The field, which is about 8ft above sea level, lies on the eastern margins of the outcrop of gravel and clay forming the island of Stonea. The subsoil at this point comprises clay and silt. To the east and south-east of the site the ground drops rapidly away into the peat fen, falling to as low as 1–2ft above sea level. Although the field is regularly cultivated, it is usually

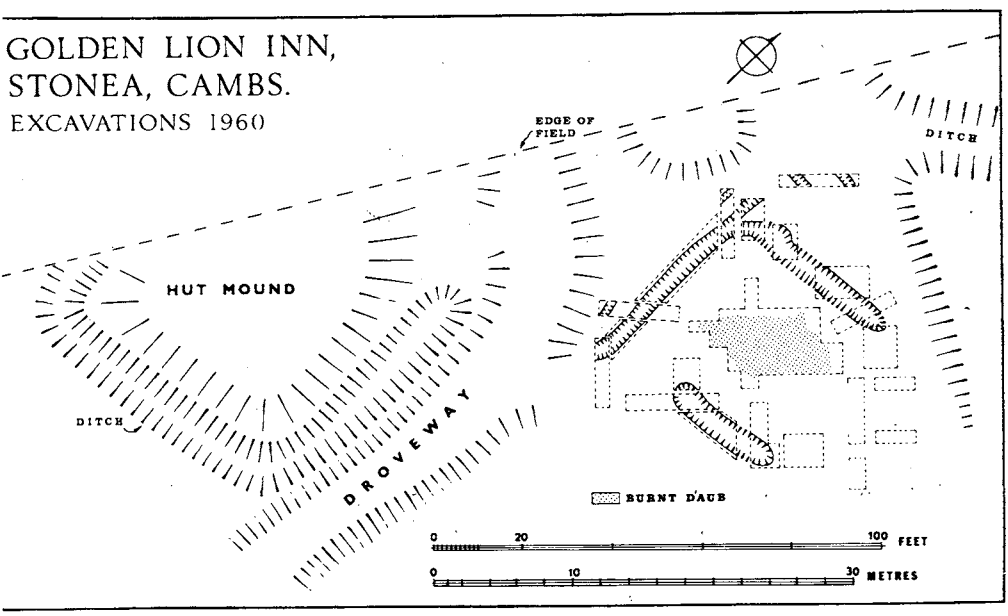


Fig. 7.

waterlogged in winter, the water table rising to within a foot or less of the present ground surface.

When the site was first visited in 1960, two rectangular ditch systems could clearly be distinguished, together with several other features (Fig. 7). The ditches enclosed mounds of higher ground, one measuring internally about 60 × 60ft and the other 35 × 40ft. Between these two enclosures was the prominent *agger* of a droveroad, winding west–east across the field and down into the fen. Both enclosures had entrances giving access to the droveroad, suggesting a general contemporaneity for the earthworks. The scatter of surface pottery was entirely Roman in date and extended into the fields on the north-west side of the Sixteen Foot Drain (Fig. 1, site 4593e), as well as down to Stonea Station (Salway 1970, 219). Thus, the Golden Lion site was probably part of a much larger complex.

Over a number of weekends in the autumn of 1960 limited excavations were carried out on the more northerly of the two rectangular enclosures. The work was brought prematurely to a halt by waterlogging of the site, but it did prove possible to excavate a number of sections across the enclosure ditch (trench plan: Fig. 7; section: Fig. 3). The enclosure was found to measure 35 × 40ft internally, being demarcated by a continuous ditch along the north and west sides, and by a short separate length of ditch along the south side. Extensive trenching failed to reveal any ditch on the east side of the mound and, in addition there was a gap, 15ft wide, at the south-west corner of the enclosure, where a gravelled entrance gave access onto the droveroad.

The shape and fill of the ditch varied considerably. In width, it ranged from 3ft 6in to 6ft, being much narrower along the western side of the enclosure. In section (Fig. 3, a diagonal section of the south ditch) it had a shallow, U-shaped profile, between 1ft and 2ft 6in in depth. In the bottom was a variable quantity of primary silt (Fig. 3, unit 5), comprising a dark clayey deposit with a few pot-sherds. The texture and character of this silt suggests that it may have formed under fairly damp conditions. In some parts of the ditch, however, there was a thin layer of burnt material on the ditch bottom. Overlying the primary silt was a thick layer of occupation debris, which had evidently been thrown in from the direction of the mound (Fig. 3, unit 4). This layer was heavily flecked with charcoal and yielded much burnt clay, bones and a large sample of pottery. This tip was represented in every section of the ditch that was excavated. The more shallow parts of the ditch were completely filled by this refuse but, where the ditch was deeper, the occupation debris was overlaid by a grey silt layer, containing only a few scraps of pottery (Fig. 3, unit 3). This was in turn sealed beneath a deposit of reddish-brown peat which archaeologically was completely sterile (Fig. 3, unit 2). This peat had undoubtedly formed under wet

conditions and it is probable that the underlying silt (Fig. 3, unit 3) was also the product of flooding.

Parallel with the western section of the enclosure ditch was a narrow gulley, only 1ft 6in wide and 6in deep. In profile, it was flat-bottomed and it was filled with a black deposit, containing a few sherds. It was sealed by the occupation tip from the mound. This gulley continued to the north of the main enclosure, where it was joined by a second gulley, the two running parallel (Fig. 7). Excavation of a cutting to the north of the enclosure revealed two similar gullies, apparently aligned at right angles to the other pair. Too little was excavated to determine the plan or function of these gullies, but their form and orientation rather suggests that they may have been construction trenches for timber buildings. If so, they may represent structures, perhaps for agricultural purposes, associated with the hut mound.

On the enclosure mound, a substantial area was stripped of topsoil, exposing an irregular surface of burnt clay mixed with silt. The layer also included some daub, with the impressions of small posts, 2–3in in diameter. The surface had been badly disturbed by ploughing, but appeared to represent a spread of debris rather than the remains of a floor. In fact, underneath this layer were traces of a gravel floor, but unfortunately the onset of bad weather prevented the complete excavation of what was evidently a timber building with daub walls, laid out within the ditched enclosure.

Pl. II. Lateral metapodial of a horse, probably sharpened into a pointed tool. Scale in centimetres.

The Small Finds

Like the Coldham site (Potter 1965) there were few small finds at Stonea. Only one coin was found, a worn *dupondius* of Domitian, an issue of A.D. 89, which was picked up on the surface. The objects found in the excavation were as follows:

1. A bronze ?pendant, boat-shaped in form and with a hollow interior, U-shaped in section; small broken attachment loop at one end. Length: 2in. Width: 0·5in.
2. Fragments ot three square-sectioned nails.
3. Five fragments of rather thin green glass.
4. A bone awl, 3.4in in length; made from the lateral metapodial of a horse. (Plate II).
5. A fragment of bone pin.
6. A bone loomweight made from a cow femur head. Hole 0.4in in diameter. (Plate III).
7. A small fragment of millstone grit quernstone.
8. Some 30 oyster shells.

Pl. III. Perforated femur head (the proximal epiphysis) of a cow, perhaps a loomweight. Scale in centimetres.

The Coarse Pottery (Figs. 8, 9)

1. Storage jar with a strongly everted rim and a gritty brown-grey fabric. In this example, the body is decorated with vertical combed bands, overlaid by a thick white slip. A common Fenland type well represented at Stonea with fourteen examples, though some are smaller, not always decorated, and have a slight moulding on the underside of the rim. One example is in a smooth light grey fabric; the others are in a similar fabric to the vessel illustrated.
2. Jar with a rilled shoulder in a dark brown-black gritty fabric. A common jar form in some areas of south-east England in the 1st and 2nd centuries (and perhaps later) but rare on this site. One other example in a dark grey shell-gritted ware, with rilling half way down the body. cf. also 3 and 5 below.
3. Jar in a coarse, vesicular, dark brown-black fabric, with a band of light rilling on the upper part of the body. At least six similar examples in shell-gritted ware. cf. 4 below.
4. Jar in a hard light grey fabric with black grits and some mica dusting. One body groove. This form was probably rather squat. There are at least six rims of similar form, all in hard grey or dark grey wares, but it is impossible to say whether they derive from deep jars, similar to 3 above, or the squatter version probably represented here.
5. Jar in a coarse brown-black fabric with shell-grits. There are light tooling marks on the outside of the rim, and rilling on the body.
6. Narrow-mouth jar with a plain rim in a coarse black ware, burnished externally. Possibly handmade. Two similar examples, one with a very slight moulding on the rim.
7. Narrow-mouth jar in a hard light grey fabric with a whitish core. A narrow band of impressed dimples on the neck. One other jar of similar form but in a gritty reddish ware and without the decoration.
8. Tall jar with a vestigial carination in a hard light grey-buff fabric, with a whitish core. Slipped. Several rim fragments probably belong to this type of jar.
9. Narrow-mouth jar with rilling on the shoulder in a gritty orange fabric and a white-slipped exterior. Two similar examples but with lighter rilling and in a yellowish, less gritty fabric. All examples have the ingrooved rim.
10. Flagon rim in a gritty, dark brown-black fabric with a reddish core. One example of identical form but in a gritty reddish-brown fabric.
11. Amphora rim in a rather soft, pinkish fabric with fine grits. Rather abraded. Mr J. J. Paterson (University of Newcastle) has kindly contributed the following note:
This is the rim from a spherical amphora produced in the valley of the river Baetis in South Spain (Dressel 20 in the table in *CIL* xv, 2). This type of amphora carried olive oil from Baetica throughout the Roman Empire from around the beginning of the 1st century A.D. until at least the middle of the 3rd century A.D. There are a number of variants of the basic type of amphora, and these can be shown to have some chronological significance (A. Tchernia in *Journal des Savants* 1967, 216ff.). However, it is impossible to give a precise date for the rim alone. The acute angle of the lip is consistent with a date in the period from the Flavians to at least the mid 2nd century. For full discussion, see: M. Beltran Lloris, 'Las anforas romanas en Espana', *Anejo de Caesaraugusta* vii (1970), 464ff.
12. *Mortarium* in a smooth grey-buff fabric, with white and black grits on the interior.
13. *Mortarium* in a pink-cream fabric, slightly gritty in feel. There are black grits on the interior. A common Nene Valley type. Surface find.

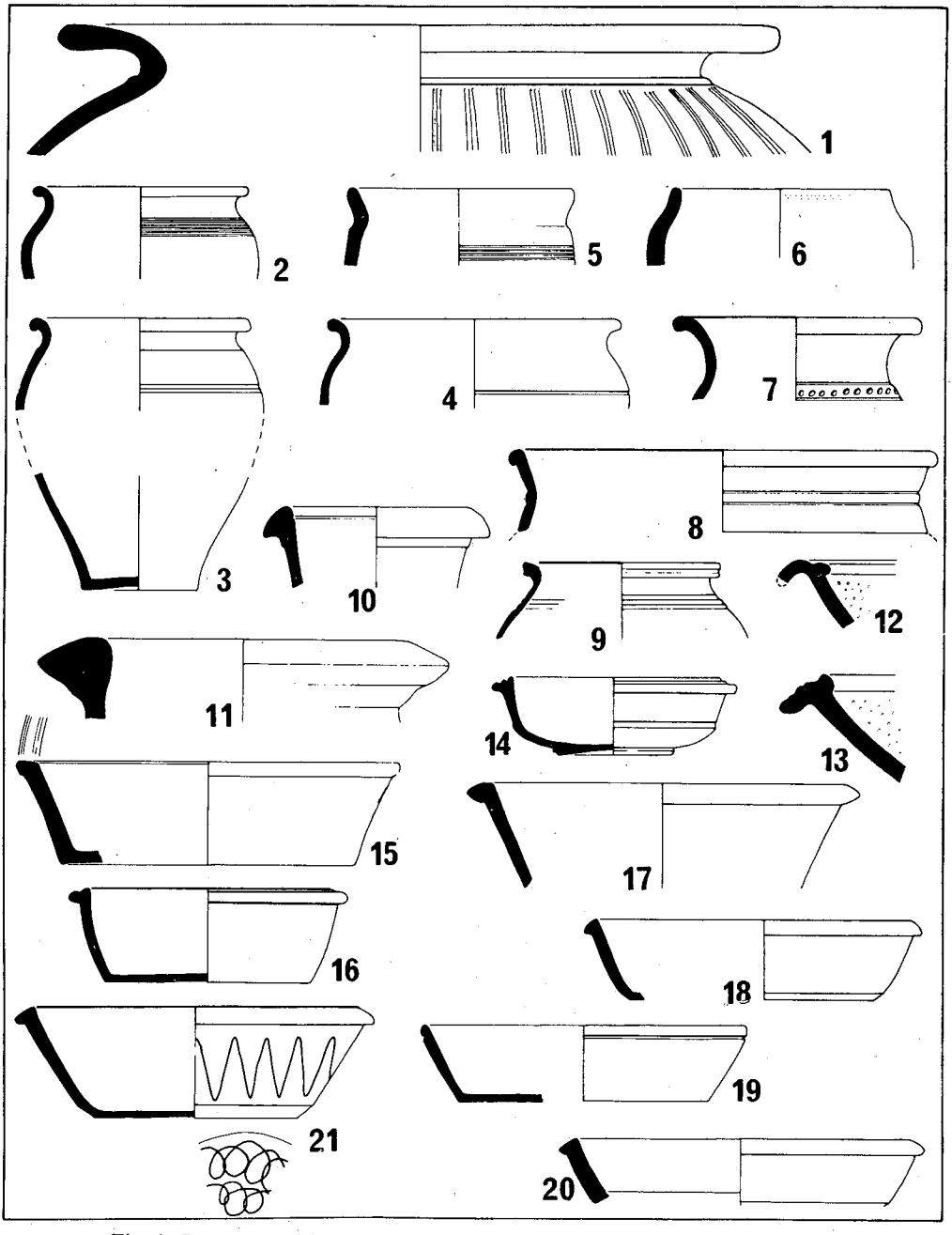


Fig. 8. Romano-British coarse pottery from the Golden Lion Inn, Stonea. One quarter natural size.

14. Carinated bowl with a grooved rim, with a smooth cream-buff exterior and a rather gritty buff interior. Two similar examples but rather deeper and with flatter rims.
15. Flat bottomed dish in a soft reddish ware with shell and white pebble grits.
16. Flanged rim dish in a hard cream fabric with a pale yellow-red wash on the exterior.
17. Dish in a good cream fabric with a red colour-cost, inside and out.
18. Dish in a rather gritty, dark-grey fabric, with a moulded rim and chamfered base. Eight examples of similar form, either in the same fabric (four examples) or with a whitish core and a grey finish (four examples).
19. Dish in a burnished, dark grey, micaceous fabric with a light grey core. There is a deep groove under the rim and a shallow groove on the underside of the base. Three similar examples, as well as a further four without the deep groove beneath the rim.
20. Dish in a cream fabric with an orange colour-coat. Moulded rim and chamfered base. There are seven similar dishes, as well as fragments of five dishes with plain rims. All have an orange colour-coat.
21. Deep dish with a prominent moulded rim and a chamfered base. Roughly finished, burnished dark grey fabric. There are burnished zigzag lines on the body and burnished intersecting loops on the underside of the base. One similar form, but undecorated.
22. Flanged dish in a rather gritty, cream fabric, with an orange colour-coat. Surface find.
23. Wide shallow bowl with an overturned rim and a ring base, in a very soft, light grey fabric with a dark grey core. One similar example.
24. Shallow bowl with an inturned rim, in a burnished dark grey fabric. An unburnished band below the rim is decorated with a burnished wavy line.

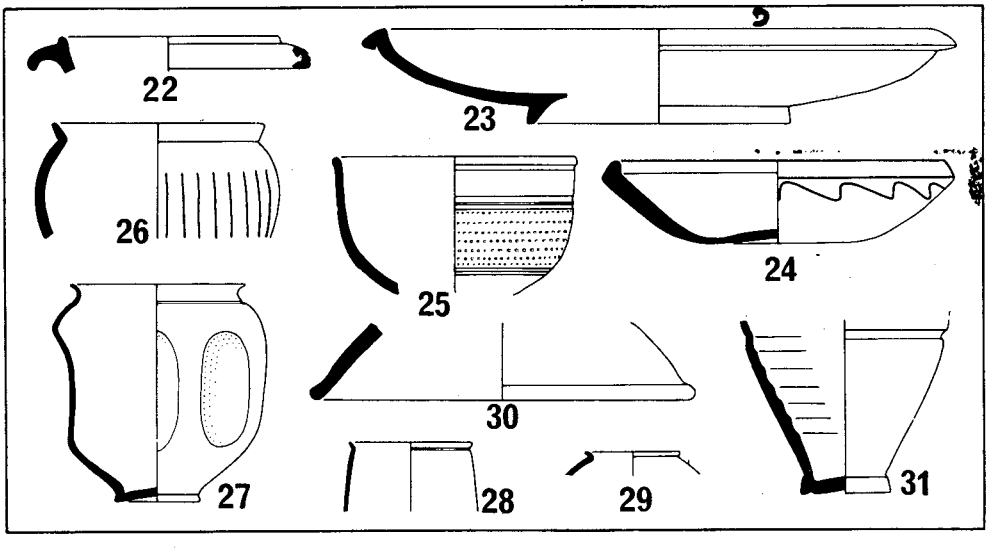


Fig. 9. Romano-British coarse pottery from the Golden Lion Inn, Stonea.
One quarter natural size.

25. Deep bowl, an imitation Drag. 37, in a soft, light orange fabric with a black core. There are traces of a white slip on the exterior. Rouletted decoration. Surface find.
26. Globular beaker in a hard, dark grey fabric, lightly burnished, with vertical burnished lines on the body. The interior is unburnished. There are fragments of four beakers of similar form, all in the same grey fabric except for one example in an ivory coloured ware. One grey ware example has barbotine dots.
27. Indented beaker found in fragments but substantially complete. Cream fabric and a good orange colour-coat, rough-cast below the shoulder. There are only eleven other fragments of rough-cast colour-coat ware, three from indented beakers. There are also four others sherds from indented beakers, all with colour-coats but not rough-cast.
28. Small beaker with an everted rim in a fine cream fabric and a reddish colour-coat. Four other examples.
29. Small jar with an everted rim in a cream fabric with a dark brown colour-coat.
30. Lid in a dark brown, shell-gritted ware. Five similar examples. There are also fragments of lids with moulded rims in colour-coat wares (1) and grey ware (6).
31. Base of tall jar or beaker in a cream fabric, with a dark brown-red colour-coat.

The Samian

By JOANNA BIRD

The information contained in the section on Potters' Stamps was kindly provided by Mr B. R. Hartley.

Potters' Stamps

1. [ADVO]CISI — on a fragment of form 37 with scroll decoration. Die 8a, the usual mould-stamp of Advocisus of Lezoux. *c.* AD 160–190.
2. [CER]I.AL.I/M/ — on form 33. Cerialis II of Lezoux, die 4a. *c.* AD 135–160.
3. RVFFI[M] — on form 31. Ruffus II of Lezoux, die 2a. *c.* AD 130–160.
4. SC.IRO[F] — on form 33. Saciro III of Lezoux, die 4a. Antonine.

Decorated

1. Form 37 in the style of Acaunissa of Lezoux; a bowl from Verulamium (Hartley 1972 D92) is probably from the same mould. The motifs occur elsewhere in his work: the Pan on S & S pl. 81, 26, the inner medallion on pl. 80, 14, the rosettes and leaves on pl. 79, 10, and the beads on pl. 79, 9. *c.* AD 125–145.
2. Form 37 in the style of the Cinnamus-Cerialis group at Lezoux – for the lion on boar (Oswald 1491), cf. S & S pl. 163, 71 and 164, 1. *c.* AD 150–180.
3. Form 37 in the style of Cinnamus of Lezoux. His ovolo 3 with bead border, and what may be an astragalus and medallion – cf. S & S pl. 157, 1. *c.* AD 150–180.
4. Form 37 with the small hollow circle and beadrow used by Criciro of Lezoux (S & S pl. 117, 4). The little figure is probably Oswald 682A, the hare Oswald 2058. *c.* AD 135–175.
5. Form 37, in the style of Acaunissa of Lezoux, who used the rosette, beads, and baluster (S & S pl. 80, 16), the cakestand (pl. 79, 12), and the trilobed motif (pl. 79, 11). *c.* AD 125–145.

6. Form 37, Central Gaul. The ovolo is too smudged to identify. Probably Antonine.
7. Form 37, Lezoux. The ovolo is probably Cinnamus 3, which was shared by several potters. *c.* AD 140–180.
8. Form 37 in the style attributed to Sacirius of Central Gaul (Térrisse 1968, figs. 19 and 20). Hadrianic-early Antonine.
9. Form 37 in the style of Satus/Cettus ('Small-S Potter') of Les Martres de Veyre. S & S pl. 143, 42, may be from the same mould, and shows all the motifs – ovolo, large lion (Oswald 1497J), grapes, and beads. Slightly burnt. *c.* AD 130–165.
10. Form 37, Lezoux. Circle at base. Antonine probably.

Plain wares

Flavian:	Form 27 (probably), S. Gaul
	Form 36, South Gaul
Flavian-Trajanic:	Form 18, S. Gaul
Late 1st century:	S. Gaulish sherd
Hadrianic/early Antonine:	
	Form 31, Central Gaul
Antonine:	Form 31, Central Gaul: 11 examples
	Form 31R, Central Gaul: 1 example
	Form 33, Central Gaul: 2 examples
	Form 38, Central Gaul: 4 examples
	Dech. Form 68 or 72, Central Gaul: 1 example
Mid 2nd century:	Form 27, unusually large, Central or East Gaul
	Form 31, Central Gaul
	Form 33, Central Gaul
Antonine/early 3rd century:	
	Form 31, East Gaul
Late 2nd/early 3rd centur es:	
	Form 31, Central or East Gaul
	Form 37, Central or East Gaul
	Form 38, Central or East Gaul
2nd century:	Form 31, Central Gaul: 4 examples
	Form 33, Central Gaul: 3 examples
	Form 37, Central Gaul: 1 example
Other:	2 S. Gaulish sherds
	4 Central Gaulish sherds

REFERENCES

Hartley 1972: B. R. Hartley, 'The Samian Ware' in S. S. Frere, *Verulamium Excavations I*, London.
Oswald: F. Oswald, *Figure-types on Terra Sigillata* (Liverpool, 1936–7).
S & S: J. A. Stanfield and G. Simpson, *Central Gaulish Potters*, London 1958.
Térrisse 1968: J. R. Térrisse, *Les Ceramiques Gallo-romaines des Martres de Veyre*, Gallia Supp. XIX.

Golden Lion Inn, Stonea; chronology

As noted above, p. 40 only one coin was found, a worn *dupondius* of Domitian, which was picked up on the surface. Thus, the dating of the site depends almost entirely upon the evidence of the Samian and coarse wares. Discounting the few first century sherds as residual, both the coarse wares and the Samian imply a late Hadrianic or early Antonine date for the foundation of the site. Thus the evidence from Stonea fits in well with the major development of the Fenland in the first half of the second century postulated by Salway (1970, 9). The date of abandonment is less easy to identify. Amongst the coarse wares (Figs. 8 and 9), nos. 13, 16, 21, 22, 28 and perhaps 29 might best be regarded as post 2nd century types, but it should be pointed out that colour-coat wares are notably rare and that late 3rd century coins, normally very common on Fenland sites, are remarkable by their absence. Thus it is probably fair to conclude that the site was abandoned in the 3rd century, probably around AD 250 or earlier.

The Animal Bones

By GRAEME BARKER (*Department of Ancient History, Sheffield University*)

This report deals primarily with the animal bones from the Romano-British deposit at the Golden Lion Inn, Stonea, Cambs. In addition to this sample, eight fragments were recovered from Neolithic levels below the Stonea barrow. Three of these were identified: a lower first or second molar of a cow, and fragments of a metacarpal and tibia of a caprine, probably sheep.

The Romano-British sample consisted of 181 fragments, 72 of which were unidentifiable. Included in the sample were the two specimens shown in Plates II and III: the lateral metapodial of a horse which has probably been sharpened into a pointed tool, and the perforated femur head (proximal epiphysis) of a cow, perhaps used as a loom weight. The primary count of identifiable fragments is shown below in Table I. (See pp. 51-3 for Tables.)

The sample is extremely small and it is impossible to make realistic calculations of the minimum numbers of individuals represented. Table II gives an estimation, showing a sample of the different anatomical elements.

Apart from the frequency of caprine metapodials, Table II confirms the principal features of Table I: first, that cattle and caprines were the most important stock animals at the site and, second, that their numbers were roughly equal.

The ages of the animals at death can be constructed from the stages of tooth eruption and fusion of long-bone epiphyses. The mortality data of the Stonea sample are given below in Table III, using the figures for modern stock given by Silver (1969).

Discussion

Tables I and II suggest that the stock economy at Stonea in the Roman period depended essentially on cattle and caprines, in approximately equal numbers. The conclusion must be tentative, because of the nature of the sample. On the other hand, the stock economy at another fen site of the period in East Anglia was remarkably similar: at Hockwold-cum-Wilton in Norfolk, caprines were unimportant compared with cattle in the Neolithic, Bronze and Iron Age deposits, but by the Roman period had become almost as numerous as cattle (Cram, in Salway, 1967, 75–6). At the same time, the relative importance of swine decreased steadily and pig was extremely rare in the Roman deposit. At Stonea, too, swine were unimportant and it is possible that the woodland necessary for their pannage was not readily available in the area.

The mortality data from the Stonea sample are limited, but Table III shows that cattle and caprines were killed both immature and mature. There is little evidence for an obvious peak in the mortalities, although seven of the nine caprine mandibles are from animals older than 21/24 months at death. As has been found elsewhere (Higgs and White, 1963), there is no evidence at Stonea for the early slaughter of stock because of the lack of winter fodder; indeed, the tooth eruption and bone fusion data of eighteenth century stock, different from modern improved breeds, would weight even more heavily the mature deaths. Thus the seven caprine mandibles 'older than 21/24 months' would, according to the eighteenth century data, probably be older than 30/40 months (Silver, 1969, 297). The pattern of cattle and caprine mortalities at Hockwold is very similar: over half the cattle were maintained through the third and even the fourth year, and many sheep were also over three years old at death (Cram, in Salway, 1967, 76–7).

The metric data from the Stonea faunal sample are given in Table IV at the end of the report, some of which can be compared with the measurements taken from the Hockwold sample (Cram, in Salway, 1967, 78). Both samples are small,

but the measurements for the Roman cattle and caprines at the two sites compare very closely. Using the calculations given by Cram for the weight of edible meat available in the Roman cow, and employing modern figures for caprines and pigs, it is possible to estimate the amount of meat provided by the stock at Stonea, multiplying the meat weight postulated for cattle (498lb.), sheep (60lb.), and pig (100lb.), by the percentages given in Table I. On this calculation the cattle provided 21,165lb., the caprines 2,820lb., and the pigs 525lb. These figures, although hypothetical, at least add another dimension to the percentages in Table I, suggesting that the caprines were unlikely to have supplied any large proportion of meat compared to cattle. At Hockwold, nevertheless, percentages of caprines increased significantly in the Roman period and it is possible that, as Cram suggests (in Salway, 1967, 79), the Romans raised caprines in the fenland principally for their wool, rather than their meat.

DISCUSSION

The excavations at Stonea clearly demonstrate the importance in a peat fen context of the outcrops of gravel and clay, which occur sporadically in the southern Fenland. These 'islands' of higher ground provided obvious foci for settlements which, at Stonea, probably extended back to Palaeolithic times. In terms of their setting, there is a strong analogy with sites like the Iron Age village of Glastonbury which, as Clarke (1972) has convincingly demonstrated, must have subsisted largely by exploiting the adjacent peat fen. Indeed, Dr Barker's analysis of the faunal remains clearly illustrates the influence of the local peat fen environment upon the economy with, for example, a high percentage of bird bones and low figures for swine, for which, by analogy with the present-day vegetational cover, pannage must have been lacking. Furthermore, the faunal percentages and meat-weight calculations suggest that a major food source was cattle, which supports Salway's contention (1970, 14) that 'the major agricultural products of the (Roman) Fenland were animal (and perhaps fish) rather than cereal'. These faunal analyses apply to the Roman period, for the sample from the Neolithic and Bronze Age deposits is far too small to be of any

validity, indeed, it will be of critical importance in future excavations to determine how the economy of Fenland sites may have adapted in prehistoric and historic times to the environmental and climatic changes so vividly demonstrated at sites like Peacock's Farm (Clark and Godwin, 1962). An area like Stonea, where sites of so many periods are represented, would provide an obvious focal point for such an investigation, in a region which in archaeological terms remains almost totally unsampled. The Neolithic and Bronze Age finds speak for themselves and probably imply a fairly substantial settlement nucleus in those periods. The Romano-British site is valuable not only for the economic evidence provided by the faunal sample, but also for the information about the type of structure built in this region, supporting the notion that in the Roman period Fenland houses were flimsy and insubstantial (Salway 1970, 3–7). Similar evidence from Grandford, March, will be discussed by the writer in a later paper (*PCAS* forthcoming).

The pottery from the Golden Lion Inn excavations suggests that this site was laid out in the course of the major development of the Fens in the first half of the 2nd century (Salway 1970, 9), and was abandoned in the first half of the 3rd century. Moreover, it is clear from the ditch sections that the site became liable to flooding in the 3rd century (but apparently not earlier), the upper part of the ditches being filled with waterlaid material. Mr John Bromwich (1970, 120–21) has already mentioned the evidence from the Golden Lion Inn for 3rd century flooding, and has related it to the abandonment of low-lying sites on the fringes of the southern Fens in the 3rd century, as well as with contemporary flooding at Welney and, perhaps somewhat earlier, at Hockwold (cf. also Salway 1970, 14–15). The causes of this flooding have been variously assigned, the concensus favouring neglect of the drainage systems in periods of political instability as a root cause (e.g. Salway 1970, 15–16; Bromwich 1970, 122–25). What, however, has not received emphasis is the ubiquity of flooding on low-lying sites in the later Roman period. At the large Roman valley-bottom site at Braughing, Hertfordshire, for example, excavations by the writer revealed evidence both for 1st century flood levels and for a thick layer of alluvium which overlay the 4th century deposits. Moreover, as a recent study by Vita-Finzi (1969) has clearly demonstrated, the same pattern occurs widely in the Mediterranean: valley-bottom Roman sites are invariably covered by upwards of six feet of alluvium, which began to form in the later Roman period. In Central Italy, this sequence has been demonstrated by excavation of a Roman mausoleum at the Fosso della Crescenza, where the main phase of alluviation began after AD 209 (Judson 1963; Ward-Perkins 1964, 14–15), and the writer has recently obtained similar results from a valley-bottom section at Narce, near Rome.

Further examples would be out of place in this paper but sufficient has been said to suggest that many low-lying Roman sites, both in Britain and abroad, were troubled by flooding, particularly from the 3rd century. Moreover, the ubiquity of the alluviation implies that the causes may have been more generalised than has sometimes been inferred; the Fenland flooding should probably be seen not as an isolated phenomenon but in a much wider geographical context. Causatory factors are however extremely hard to identify. Deforestation has sometimes been cited but, as Vita-Finzi (1969, 105–11) has convincingly argued, this is not an adequate explanation. Much more likely is a hypothesis which would involve the notion of some degree of climatic change, which, in combination with the neglect of drainage systems, might account both for the Fenland alluviation and the heavy silting over valley-bottom sites (Vita-Finzi 1969, 112–15). Much more work will be required to test this hypothesis and there are many obvious objections. Meanwhile, it brings into focus the importance of environmental studies for even so well-documented a period as the later centuries of the Roman Empire.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The research described in this paper owes a great deal to the co-operation of numerous people. Mr Hudson of Wimblington and Mr Smith of Stonea kindly gave permission for the excavations on their land, and the actual work was carried out by boys from March Grammar School (now the Neale-Wade School). Special thanks are due to Mrs Joanna Bird, Dr Graeme Barker, Mr Bernard Denston, Mr I. Kinnes, Mr J. J. Paterson and Mr Christopher Potter who contributed specialist reports, and to Mr W. L. Hanchant, Mr M. Millward and Mr J. H. Ward. Dr J. K. St Joseph and Mr Geoffrey Wood (County Planning Office, Shire Hall, Cambridge) very kindly made available relevant aerial photographs, and Miss Mary Cra'ster and Miss Joan Liversidge advised and helped with every stage of this project. Finally, I would like to thank my father, formerly Headmaster of March Grammar School, and my mother, whose patient encouragement made possible this research.

NOTE: the finds from these excavations have been deposited in Wisbech Museum. The letter 'L' designates finds from the Golden Lion Inn, and the letter 'S' finds from the Stonea barrow.

ANIMAL BONE TABLES

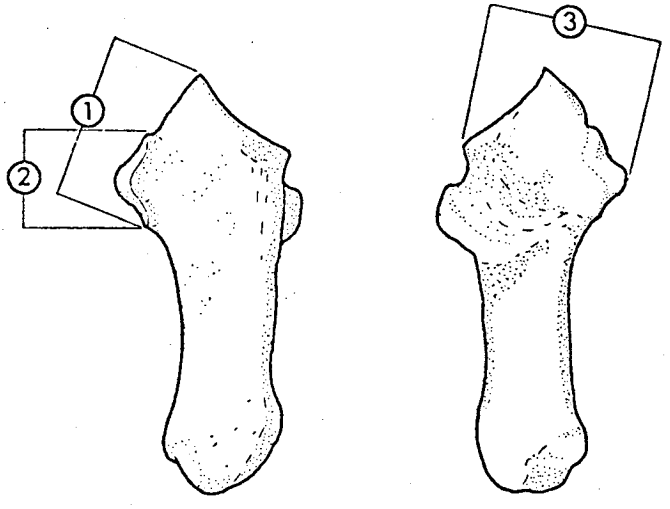


Fig. 10. Calcaneum, showing the three measurements taken.

Table I. Numbers of identifiable fragments

	number	per cent (approx.)
cattle	40	42·5
caprines	45	47
pig	5	5·25
horse	5	5·25
TOTAL	95	100·00
(bird	14)	

Table II. Minimum number of individuals

	mandible	teeth	scapula	humerus	radius	pelvis
cattle	9	13	1	2	2	1
caprines	12	13	1	–	1	–
pig	–	1	–	–	–	–
horse	–	2	–	–	–	–
	femur	tibia	calcaneum	astragalus	metapodials	phalanges
cattle	1	4	–	1	1	2
caprines	1	2	1	1	9	2
pig	–	1	–	–	–	2

Table III. Ages (in months) at death

	tooth eruption (months)		bone fusion (months)	
CATTLE	5/6+	1 (probably under 12 months)	12/18+	1
	c. 15/18	2	24/30+	1
	15/18+	1	40/48−	1
	28/36+	1	40/48+	2
CAPRINES	21/24−	1	13/16+	2
	c. 21/24	1	18/24−	1
	21/24+	7	18/24+	2
			20/28−	1
			20/28+	1
			30/36−	1
			30/36+	1
PIG			24−	2
HORSE			16/20+	1

Table IV. Metric data from the Stonea sample

Tibia: 1. Maximum width distal epiphysis
2. Maximum thickness distal epiphysis

Metacarpal: 1. Maximum width proximal epiphysis
2. Maximum thickness proximal epiphysis
3. Maximum width distal fusion
4. Maximum thickness distal fusion

Metatarsal: 1. Maximum width proximal epiphysis
2. Maximum thickness proximal epiphysis
3. Maximum width distal fusion
4. Maximum thickness distal fusion

Astragalus: 1. Maximum length of lateral side
2. Maximum thickness of lateral side, measured from baseline of anterior side
3. Maximum length of medial side

Calcaneum: 1. As in Fig. 10
2. As in Fig. 10
3. As in Fig. 10

Mandible: 1. Maximum length M3
2. Maximum length M3–M1
3. Maximum length P4–P2

Maxilla: 1. Maximum length M3

(all measurements in millimetres)

(Table IV continued)

Cattle				
tibia	(1) 56·6	(2) 41·9		
metacarpal	(1) 56·3	(2) 34·6		
astragalus	(1) 58·2	(2) 31·9	(3) 52·9	
mandible	(1) 34·0			
mandible	(1) 27·4			
Caprines				
tibia	(1) 25·5	(2) 20·1		
metacarpal	(1) 18·5	(2) 13·2	distal epiphysis unfused	
metacarpal	(1) 17·5	(2) 11·3		
metacarpal	(1) 23·5	(2) 16·8	(3) 25·9	(4) 14·5
(maximum length – 132)				
metatarsal	(1) 17·0	(2) 16·6	distal epiphysis unfused	
metatarsal	(1) 23·2	(2) 22·8	(3) 27·5	(4) 16·5
(maximum length – 160)				
astragalus	(1) 25·5	(2) 15·1	(3) 24·1	
calcaneum	(1) 21·9	(2) 11·8	(3) 21·6	
(tuber calcis unfused)				
mandible	(1) 20·8	(2) 47·5	(3) 23·9	
mandible	(1) 18·5	(2) 41·3	(3) 20·7	
mandible	(1) 18·9	(2) 45·6	(3) 24·8	
mandible	(1) 17·0	(2) 44·5	(3) 21·7	
mandible	(1) 18·0	(2) 43·5	(3) 22·6	
mandible	(1) 21·3	(2) 41·7		
mandible	(1) 20·7	(2) 43·0		
mandible	(1) 22·2	(2) 45·8		
mandible missing	(1) 14·4			
mandible missing	(1) 16·2			
mandible missing	(1) 17·0			
Pig				
maxilla	(1) 29·4			
Horse				
metatarsal	(1) 42·2	(2) 34·6	(3) 39·1	(4) 25·3
(maximum length – 225)				

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Annable, F. K. and Simpson, D. D. A. (1964): *Guide Catalogue of the Neolithic and Bronze Age Collections in Devizes Museum*, Wiltshire Archaeological and Natural History Society.

Ashbee, P. (1960): *The Bronze Age Round Barrow in Britain.*

Bromwich, J. (1970): 'Freshwater flooding along the Fen margins south of Isle of Ely during the Roman Period', in *edit.* C. W. Phillips, *The Fenland in Roman Times*, Royal Geographical Society Research Series no. 5, 114–126.

Burchall, J. P. T. and Piggott, S. (1939): 'Decorated prehistoric pottery from the bed of the Ebbsfleet, Northfleet, Kent', *Ant. J.* xix, 405–420.

Childe, V. G. and Smith, I. F. (1954): 'The excavation of a Neolithic barrow on Whiteleaf Hill, Bucks.', *P.P.S.* xxvi, 212–230.
Clark, J. G. D. and Godwin, H. (1962): 'The Neolithic in the Cambridgeshire Fens', *Antiquity* xxxvi, 10–23.
Clark, J. G. D., Higgs, E. S. and Longworth, I. H. (1960): 'Excavations at the Neolithic site at Hurst Fen, Mildenhall, Suffolk', *P.P.S.* xxvi, 202–245.
Clarke, D. L. (1970): *Beaker Pottery of Great Britain and Ireland*, Cambridge.
Clarke, D. L. (1972): 'A provisional model of an Iron Age society and its settlement system', in edit. D. L. Clarke, *Models in Archaeology* London, 801–870.
Craw, J. Hewat (1928–29): 'On a jet necklace from a cist at Poltalloch, Argyll', *P.S.A.S.* lxiii, 154–189.
Dyer, J. (1972): 'Earthworks of the Danelaw Frontier', in edit. P. J. Fowler, *Archaeology and the Landscape*, London, 222–236.
Evans, J. (1890): *Coins of the Ancient Britons.*
Gejvall, N. G. (1947): 'Bestamning av branda ben fran forntida gravar': *Fornvannen*, folio 1, 39–47.
Gejvall, N. G. and Sahlström, K. E. (1948): 'Gravfaltet pa Kyrkbacken i Horns socken Vastergötland. II Antropologisk del', *Kungl. Vitterhets Historie och Antikvitets Akademiens Handl. Del.* lx. 2, 153–180.
Higgs, E. S. and White, J. P. (1963): 'Autumn killing', *Antiquity* xxxvii, 282–289.
Judson, S. (1963): 'Erosion and deposition of Italian stream valleys during historic time', *Science* cxl, no. 3569, 898–9.
Lethbridge, T. C. (1949): 'Excavations of the Snailwell group of Bronze Age barrows', *P.C.A.S.* xliii, 30–50.
Lisowski, F. P. (1956): 'The cremations from Barclodiad y Gawres', in *Barclodiad y Gawres* by T. G. E. Powell and G. E. Daniel, Liverpool, 62–69.
Lisowski, F. P. (1959): 'The Rath cremation', *J. Roy. Soc. Antiq. Ireland* lxxxix, 26–29.
Lisowski, F. P. (1962): 'Report on the cremations from the West Kennet Long Barrow', Appendix II in *The West Kennet Long Barrow*, London: H.M.S.O.
Piggott, S. and Stewart, M. (1958): *Early and Middle Bronze Age Grave-Groups and Hoards from Scotland*, Inventaria Archaeologica, Great Britain, 5th set, G.B. 25–34.
Piggott, S. (1931): 'The Neolithic Pottery of the British Isles', *Arch. J.*, lxxxviii, 67–158.
Potter, T. W. (1965): 'The Roman Pottery from Coldham Clamp', *P.C.A.S.* 58, 12–37.
Roe, D. A. (1968): *A Gazetteer of British Lower and Middle Palaeolithic Sites*, C.B.A. Research Report no. 8.
Reaney, P. H. (1943): *The Place names of Cambridgeshire and the Isle of Ely*, Cambridge.
Salway, P. (1967): 'Excavations at Hockwold-cum-Wilton, Norfolk, 1961–62', *P.C.A.S.* lx, 39–80. Report on the animal bones by C. L. Cram, 75–80.
Salway, P. (1970): 'The Roman Fenland', in *edit.* C. W. Phillips, *The Fenland in Roman Times*, Royal Geographical Society Research Series, no. 5, 1–21, and *Gazetteer*, 177–132.
Silver, I. A. (1969): 'The ageing of domestic animals', in E. S. Higgs and D. Brothwell, *Science in Archaeology*, London, 283–302.
Vita-Finzi, C. (1969): *The Mediterranean Valleys*, Cambridge.
Wainwright, G. J. (1972): *The Excavation of a Neolithic Settlement on Broome Heath, Ditchingham, Norfolk, England. PPS* 38, 1-97.
Wainwright, J. G. and Longworth, I. H. (1971): *Durrington Walls: excavations* 1966–1968. London.
Ward-Perkins, J. B. (1964): *Landscape and History in Central Italy*, J. L. Myres Memorial Lecture. Oxford.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CAMBRIDGE ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY

VOLUME LXVI

JANUARY 1975 TO DECEMBER 1976

Price £2 net for members, £3 for non-members

CONTENTS