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EDITORIAL

This is the last *PCAS* I shall edit (having decided that I should concentrate on my own research until senility overtakes me). The new Editor will be Alison Taylor, Cambridgeshire County Archaeologist for more than twenty years, and probably the first local archaeologist I met on my return to the 'old country' after many years in Australia. Alison's kindness and friendship, and her organisational abilities, I value highly, and I am delighted to edit this volume in her honour, at a time when she is beginning a new career as a consultant.

Many of the articles in this volume have been written by Alison's colleagues at the County Council, others by friends who have been associated with her and Cambridgeshire archaeology over many years, and this volume therefore concentrates on areas which I hope she will find of interest: around the massive piece of work on the Cambridgeshire Dykes are several shorter (but not small or insignificant) papers; all concerned with sites investigated in Cambridgeshire since 1974, and since Alison's appointment as County Archaeologist.

With our good wishes for future blossoming.

AUDREY MEANEY

Excavations at Orchard Lane, Huntingdon, 1994

Niall Oakey with Paul Spoerry

and contributions by Umberto Albarella, Corinne Duhig,
Sandra Garside-Neville, Peter Murphy, Pippa Smith & Paul Spoerry

Summary

Excavations at Orchard Lane, Huntingdon, in 1994 revealed rubbish and cess pits dating from AD 900–1150, and information was obtained on the diet of the Saxo-Norman population. Probably in the eleventh century, the site became a cemetery and remains of over twenty individuals were excavated. Burials had ceased by the fifteenth century and, apart from a quarrying episode in the sixteenth or seventeenth century, thereafter the property remained open or was used as a builders' yard. The opportunity is taken to publish a group of Saxo-Norman pottery, and future research priorities for archaeology in Huntingdon are proposed.

Introduction

In July 1994 a team from the Archaeological Field Unit of Cambridgeshire County Council carried out an archaeological evaluation of a site at Orchard Lane, Huntingdon (NGR TL 2420 7160, Figure 1). This was in response to the placing of an archaeological condition on development by Huntingdonshire District Council, acting on the advice of Development Control, Archaeology Section, Cambridgeshire County Council. The project was designed to sample, investigate and evaluate surviving archaeological deposits threatened by the proposed development of a hostel for people with learning difficulties by Huntingdon Mencap.

Human skeletal remains were encountered during the evaluation phase and, in view of the probable destruction of these and other significant archaeological remains, English Heritage (who funded the evaluation) provided the finan-

cial resources necessary to carry out the excavation and recording of the area within the footprint of the proposed development. All human skeletal remains were cleared, under the conditions of a licence for the removal of human remains issued by the Home Office under the provisions of the Burial Act, 1857.

Following the guidelines of English Heritage (1991), the data produced by the excavations were assessed and a design for further post-excavation analysis was submitted (Oakey *et al.* 1995). English Heritage agreed to fund the proposed programme leading to publication of this report.

The Orchard Lane project has significance as the first opportunity in recent years to carry out and publish the results of a substantial urban excavation in Huntingdon. It will initiate a modern archaeological database for the town and provide a background against which future decisions on the management of the archaeological resources of Huntingdon and its environs can be made.

Historical and Archaeological Background

The historic core of Huntingdon lies on First Terrace River Gravels on the north bank of the River Great Ouse (British Geological Survey, *Sheet 187: Huntingdon* (Southampton 1978)). Isolated prehistoric artefacts have been recovered from Huntingdon, but the first structural evidence of settlement dates from the Romano-British period. At this date the settlement appears to have been subsidiary to Godmanchester on the opposite bank of the Ouse and lined Ermine Street for several hun-

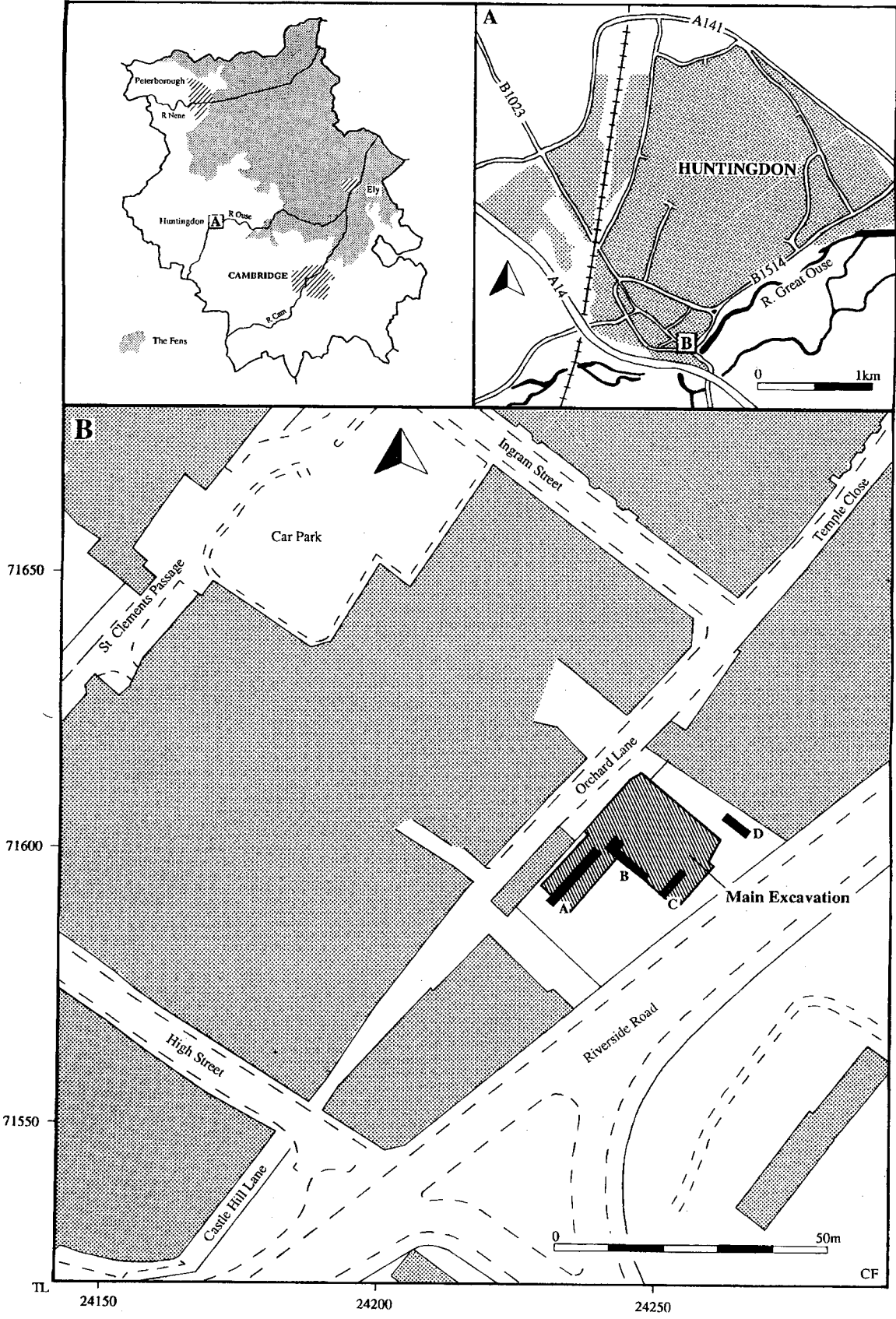


Figure 1. Orchard Lane, Huntingdon. Location of excavation.

dred metres beyond the river crossing (Dunn 1972: 13–14). Its location, controlling the bridgehead, gave a settlement at Huntingdon considerable strategic importance as the Ouse represented the first barrier or defensible line along Ermine Street as it ran north from London and before the erection of a bridge at St Ives in the twelfth century it was probably the lowest crossing point on the Ouse.

Discounting a dubious reference in a putative Peterborough foundation charter in the E Manuscript of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle under the year 656 (12th century) (Earle & Plummer 1892: 30–31), the first documentary reference to Huntingdon occurs in Manuscript A of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which states that in 917 Edward the Elder captured the 'burh' of Huntingdon from the Danes and repaired and restored it.¹ Presumably the area's strategic importance had attracted one of the Danish armies or warbands of the late ninth century to settle and probably fortify it, but there is no evidence at present to suggest the precise location of the 'burh'. It is probable that the old line of Ermine Street was perpetuated, crossing the river c. 150 m upstream of the current bridge, and that the Saxon and Danish settlements were focused on the area now occupied by the earthworks of the Norman castle.

Edward the Elder established Huntingdon as the centre of a territory conforming to later Huntingdonshire and the town entered a period of prosperity which lasted into the fourteenth century. A mint was established in the tenth century and endured for nearly two hundred years, with the earliest surviving coins dating from the reign of Eadwig (955–9) and the last belonging to the last issue of Stephen (VCH 1932: 121–2). Domesday records that at Huntingdon in 1066 there were 256 burgesses and at least 100 freemen in four wards (Morris 1975: 203a). This compares with totals of 60 in Northampton (Morris 1979: 219a) and 29 in Cambridge (Morris 1981: 189a). It is possible that the term 'burgess' was used more loosely in Huntingdon than elsewhere, but if all are assumed to be heads of households it indicates a flourishing urban settlement. At least 133 residences that were occupied before 1066 are described as unoccupied in 1086 and these include 21 residences which had been removed to make way for the castle.

The castle would have had a major impact on the topography of the town, as it blocked the route of Ermine Street and may have caused the movement of the bridging point to its current location. A timber bridge was replaced by the present stone structure, which leads onto the existing High Street, in c. 1332 (VCH 1932: 125). This formed the focus of medieval

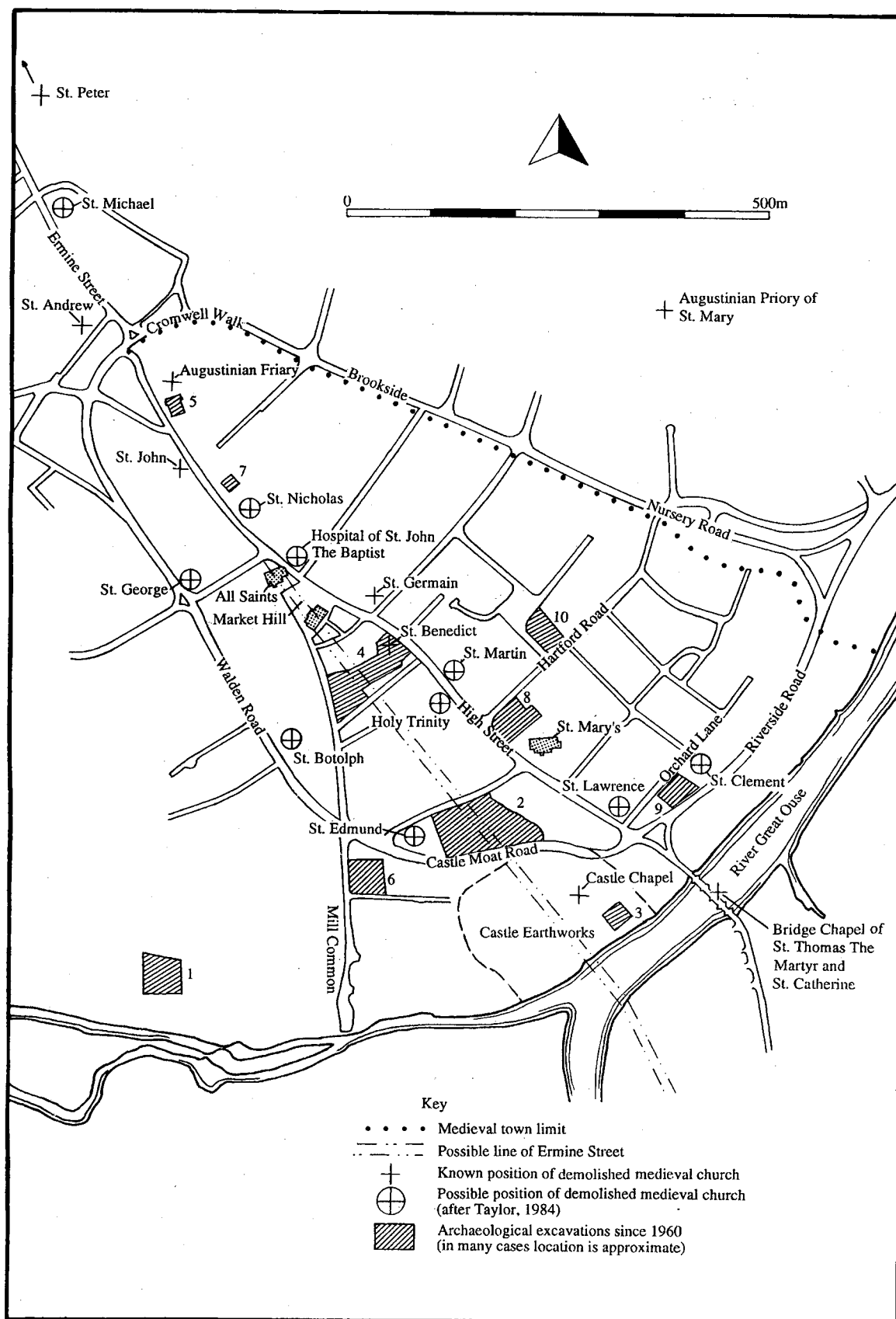
Huntingdon, which spread north-westwards past the surviving medieval church of St Mary to the Market Place and beyond along the road to Stamford (Figure 2). The existing alignment of Nursery Road/Brookside/Cromwell Walk is suggestive of a linear, curving feature, possibly a ditch or bank forming the northern boundary of the town, but no alignment survives to indicate a corresponding feature to the west.² St Mary's Priory was built north of the possible boundary in 1086 and may have been located within a detached cemetery of the pre-Conquest collegiate church of St Mary. This was one of six monastic houses and hospitals which existed in Huntingdon by the thirteenth century (Haigh 1988: 40–44), and seventeen other priories and abbeys owned small properties within the town (VCH 1932: 123). Sixteen parish churches are recorded at the same date (VCH 1932: 122), but the exact locations of many of them are not known (Taylor 1982–83a).

The thirteenth century represented the apogee of Huntingdon's fortunes in the medieval period. In the next century it went into an abrupt and marked decline, so that by 1364 three parish churches had become derelict due to lack of parishioners and no incumbents were appointed to eight others after the fourteenth century (VCH 1932: 145–6). Even allowing for the special pleading probably used by burgesses keen to paint a bleak picture, the preamble of the charter of 1363 is eloquent in its testimony to the privations of the town (*Calendar of Charter Rolls* vol. V: 179 (15 October, 37 Edward III), quoted in Carruthers 1824: 81):

considering that the said town of Huntyngdon, as well by mortal pestilences as from various other adversities thereunto coming, is so impoverished and injured that the fourth part of the said town is not inhabited, and the remaining few have scarcely wherewith to live...

The sequence of lethal epidemics of the fourteenth century, typified by the Black Death, is cited as one cause of the decline, but another reason was interruption of river communications to the sea at Lynn. This was caused by various diversions and obstructions to the Ouse and was a matter of incessant recorded complaints by the burgesses of Huntingdon. Also partially responsible was the decline and cessation of St Ives Fair before the middle of the fourteenth century. Huntingdon had the right to collect tolls on items brought to the fair (valued at £100 per annum in 1260), but the disruption to the wool and cloth trade occasioned by the Hundred Years Wars and the establishment of the Staple dealt a mortal blow to the nationally important fair (VCH 1932: 123).

Complaints of decay and the burden of taxation were frequent in the fifteenth and sixteenth



century, burgesses avoided office, and by the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII only four parish churches survived and half the dwelling houses were empty (VCH 1932: 124). The strategic position of Huntingdon had proved to be a liability in 1461, when it was sacked by a Lancastrian army, and again in August 1645 when it was taken by the King's army, at the cost of considerable physical damage to the churches of St John and St Benedict and other buildings, and to the purses of the town through the demand for quarter and provisions.

The later seventeenth century saw the beginning of a recovery which lasted until the middle of the nineteenth century, as Huntingdon's location made it an important coaching centre on the road north from London. However, this trade was killed by the advent of the railway in 1850. This brought little commercial benefit to Huntingdon, and since that time it has functioned as a local administrative, social and market centre with a little light industry.

Speed's map of 1610 suggested that the town was concentrated along the High Street and around the Market Place, with a little development along the streets and lanes which led off the major thoroughfare. Between the built-up area and the putative medieval northern boundary, open land is shown divided into closes and larger fields. Little had changed by 1768 when Jefferys' map was published. It is only with the Ordnance Survey maps of 1885 that the spaces fill with terraced houses, and this process speeded up in the twentieth century as housing and industrial estates spread well beyond the probable boundary.

Unfortunately, there have been few opportunities for archaeology to contribute to knowledge of Huntingdon. Like many other English towns, Huntingdon was the scene of considerable development between the 1960s and 1980s, much of it in archaeologically sensitive areas along the spine of the High Street, but the archaeological response was uneven and incomplete. Various excavations took place between the late 1960s and 1980s near the castle, in St Benedict's Court, on St Mary's Street, and at Cromwell House on the site of a friary, but only one has been fully published (Haigh 1984).³ Further redevelopment at the start of the 1980s on the site of St Benedict's church met with limited archaeological response, al-

though the results from a small trench have been published (Taylor 1982–83b). A recent small-scale evaluation has revealed intensive digging of rubbish and cess pits behind 90/91 High Street in the eleventh and twelfth centuries (Heawood 1994), with possible structures and pits of twelfth or thirteenth century date found along the modern Hartford Road (Aileen Connor, personal communication). A site on the corner of High Street and Hartford Road produced evidence of pits and a gravel surface dating to the thirteenth or fourteenth century. After an episode of deliberate dumping, a cellared building was erected on the High Street frontage in c. 1500 and was replaced or partially replaced in the seventeenth century by a structure fronting on to Hartford Road (Welsh 1994). These findings seem to confirm the focusing of medieval occupation along the High Street spine, but a ditch of possible Saxo-Norman date (tenth to eleventh century) has been found on Mill Common (Leith 1992).

The site described here lay south east of Orchard Lane (formerly St Laurence's Lane, Jail Yard Lane, and Gaol Lane), c. 70 m north-east of the High Street and 100 m north of the bridge across the Ouse. The medieval church of St Clement is known to have been in the south of Huntingdon as, in 1334, the parson claimed that the chapel on the bridge was in his parish. It may have stood on the south side of Orchard Lane, but it is not mentioned in records after 1372 (VCH 1932: 145). In 1824 it was stated to have been 'on or near the site of the house belonging to William Margetts Esq. in whose garden great quantities of human bones have been dug up' (Carruthers 1824: 134). In 1843 Mr Charles Margetts lived at Orchard House, an eighteenth-century house on the south-eastern corner of Orchard Lane and High Street (VCH 1932: 126). On the north-western corner of the lane, the house (155) is built upon the foundations of the old County Gaol (VCH 1932: 126), and Carruthers states that 'A church is also said to have stood in the Close behind the Gaol' (Carruthers 1824: 134). Orchard Lane is referred to as St Laurence's Lane in sixteenth-century documents, but, although a church of this name is recorded in the thirteenth century, no details of its location are known (VCH 1932: 146).

Figure 2. *Medieval Huntingdon and sites mentioned in the text. The locations of archaeological excavations are numbered as follows: 1. Mill Common 1973; 2. Pathfinder House 1973; 3. Castle Hills 1975; 4. St Benedict's Court 1975 and 1980; 5. Cromwell House 1984; 6. Mill Common 1992; 7. 90/91 High Street 1993; 8. Marshall's Garage 1993; 9. Orchard Lane 1994; 10. 12 Hartford Road 1996.*

The shaded areas refer to the properties under investigation and are not an accurate portrayal of the excavated areas.

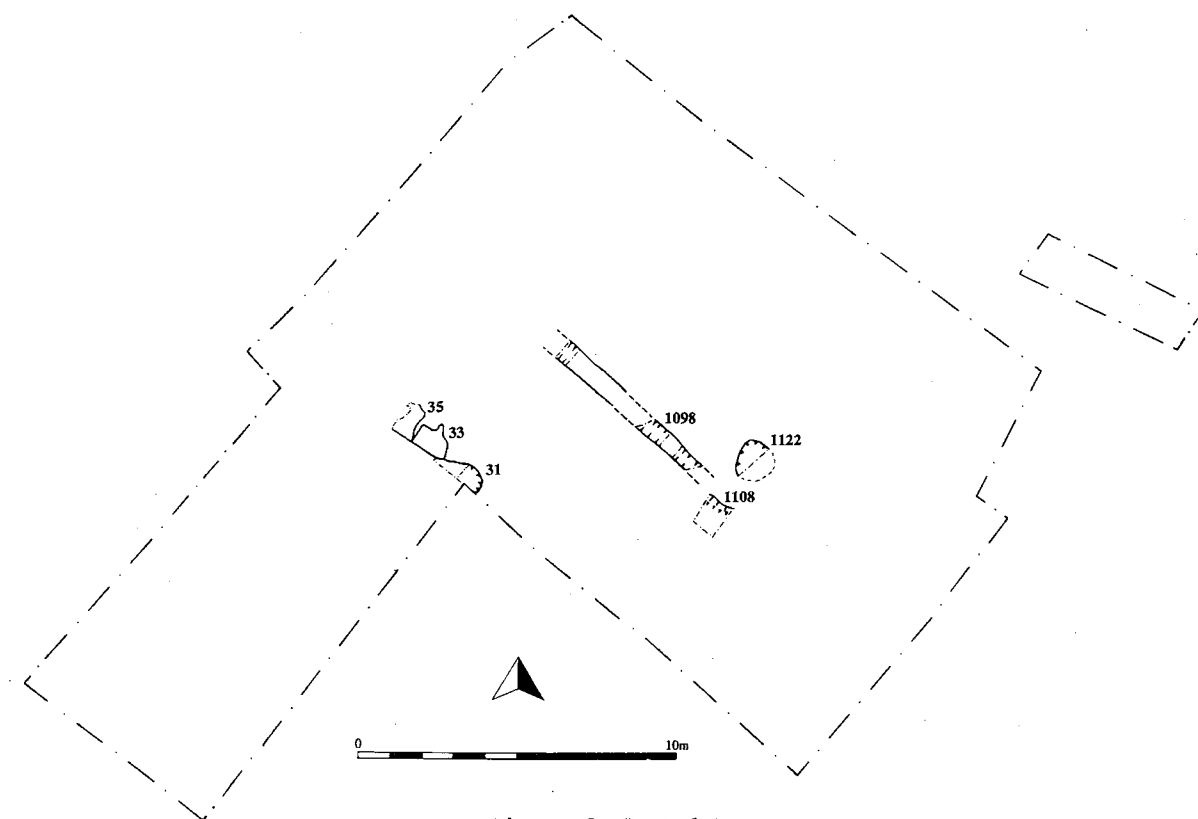


Figure 3. *Period 1.*

A 1572 survey of Huntingdon enumerates properties on the right (south-eastern) side of St Lawrence Lane as

ITEM a litle Close extending downe to ye
Riverside being parcell of St. Johns.
ITEM next ye same a Close in the tenure of Sr
Hen: Cromwell.

A series of closes continue to the Common Fields (Dickinson 1972: 16).⁴ A further survey survives from 1598, which again refers to the land belonging to St John's Hospital and a series of closes

ITEM the hospitall one Toft.
ITEM the water Close.⁵

A plan of the Hospital lands in Huntingdon in 1752 shows the site (now on Jail Yard Lane) occupied by (from the south) Colt Close, a narrow parcel of land leading from the lane to the river, and land belonging to Lord Sandwich (the Earls of Sandwich, then the Montagues, bought much of the Cromwell's Huntingdon estates in the early seventeenth century).⁶ No buildings are shown on the site in 1752, but a map published by Jefferys in 1768 shows a building on the frontage to 'Gaol Lane'. This is probably the brick coach house or stable which survives to the north of the excavations. The Tithe Map of

1850 has a schematic representation of this same building, shown bordering the narrow parcel of land running to the river in 1752.⁷ On the Ordnance Survey map of 1885 a number of small buildings or sheds surround the eighteenth-century building and encroach onto the area excavated, but most of the site was open, narrow closes leading from Orchard Lane to the river. By the early twentieth century the property had assumed its present boundaries to north, west and south and had become a builders' yard containing one small building. It maintained this function until the 1990s, but in recent times Riverside Road was constructed to the south-east, cutting the site off from the river and creating the existing eastern boundary of the property. When archaeological investigation began the site was derelict and overgrown and the only structure was a temporary building serving as a scout hut. This was demolished between the evaluation (Phase 1) and the ensuing excavation (Phase 2).

Methodology

The evaluation phase of the project (Phase 1) comprised four linear trenches totalling c. 55 sq m (Trenches A–D), and as a consequence of

the results from these, an area of c. 385 sq m (Phase 2) was opened. In both phases a mechanical excavator was used to remove most of the post-medieval and modern overburden. All exposed contexts were then cleaned and recorded before a representative sample was excavated. The results of Phase 1 meant that efforts in Phase 2 were concentrated on the investigation of the earliest remains and the removal of all human skeletal material. During Phase 1 many later medieval and post-medieval deposits were excavated; and so hand-excavation of these deposits in Phase 2 was more selective, often taking the form of sampling.

In both phases the Archaeological Field Unit's standard single-context recording procedure was followed and records were produced for contexts 1–163 in Phase 1 and 1001–1158 in Phase 2. All site records, databases and specialist reports are retained and available for consultation in the archives of Cambridgeshire County Council Archaeological Field Unit, while the artefacts and ecofacts are stored in the County Archaeological Store.

The activities on the site had involved a great deal of disturbance and redeposition of deposits and their contents. This was highlighted by the distribution of human skeletal material and pottery. The site was used for burials in Period 2 (eleventh to fourteenth centuries), but disturbed human bones were found in all subsequent periods, while wares dating to 900–1150 formed the major component in pottery assemblages of all periods. Only deposits from Period 1 (tenth to early twelfth centuries) had escaped large-scale contamination by redeposited material, and for this reason animal bone and environmental samples from this period alone were selected for further detailed research. No large groups of pottery, ceramic building material and human skeletal material from Huntingdon have been published before, so these categories were examined in more detail.

Results

Period 1 Tenth and eleventh centuries (Figure 3)

Description

Contexts of this period survived as the fills of truncated features cut into the natural. Shallow linear feature 1098 was over 5 m long and up to 0.80 m wide, but later truncation meant that its depth varied from 0.20 to 0.55 m. No evidence for posts and stakes was seen in its base or in fill 1097. Its relationship to cut 1108

had been destroyed, but the latter was seen to have vertical sides and was at least 1.35 m deep. Circular pit 1122 was only 0.55 m deep, but had a flat base and the concave and undercut character of the sides indicated that either it had held liquid or had stood open for some time. A lens of redeposited natural clay and gravel within its fill (1114) suggested an attempt to seal the contents.

To the north west was a group of truncated sub-rectangular pits with vertical or very steep sides. The earliest, 33, contained lenses of ash (32) and was cut by 31 which, in turn, was cut by 1102, containing fill 1084. The latter was heavily truncated and is too small to be shown here on plan. Another pit, 35, was located to the north west.

Interpretation

Although some Romano-British pottery and a piece of box flue of similar date were recovered, most of the sherds from this period date from the Saxo-Norman period (AD 900–1150).

The recovery of mineralised plant remains and fly puparia from contexts 1093 and 1114 indicated that both 1108 and 1122 had functioned as cess pits. The amount of animal bone recovered implied that each had also been used for the disposal of domestic rubbish, and this was probably the primary function of all the other pits of this period. Charred cereal grains and other plant materials were found, but there was no evidence for on-site crop processing, and the deposits probably result from domestic consumption. However, a high proportion of the intact marine mollusc shells and valves recovered was derived from immature specimens with little nutritious or commercial value. They may result from the processing on this riverside site of a shellfish catch brought up the Ouse and the disposal of unsaleable material (Murphy 1996; summarised below, pp. 149–53). A similar operation may account for the predominance of either small species or small examples of larger species within the fish recovered from Period 1 contexts. Eel bones derived from medium-sized specimens, but none of the fish-bones displayed evidence of having passed through the gut of humans or any other animal (Smith, unpublished report, summarised below, p. 149). Frog and toad specimens are more likely to indicate the proximity of a wet environment than be food refuse.

The animal bone from this period was dominated by domesticated livestock, with the exception of a fragment of roe deer pelvis. Some butchery marks were noticed, but c. 15% of the bones bore evidence of gnawing by carnivores

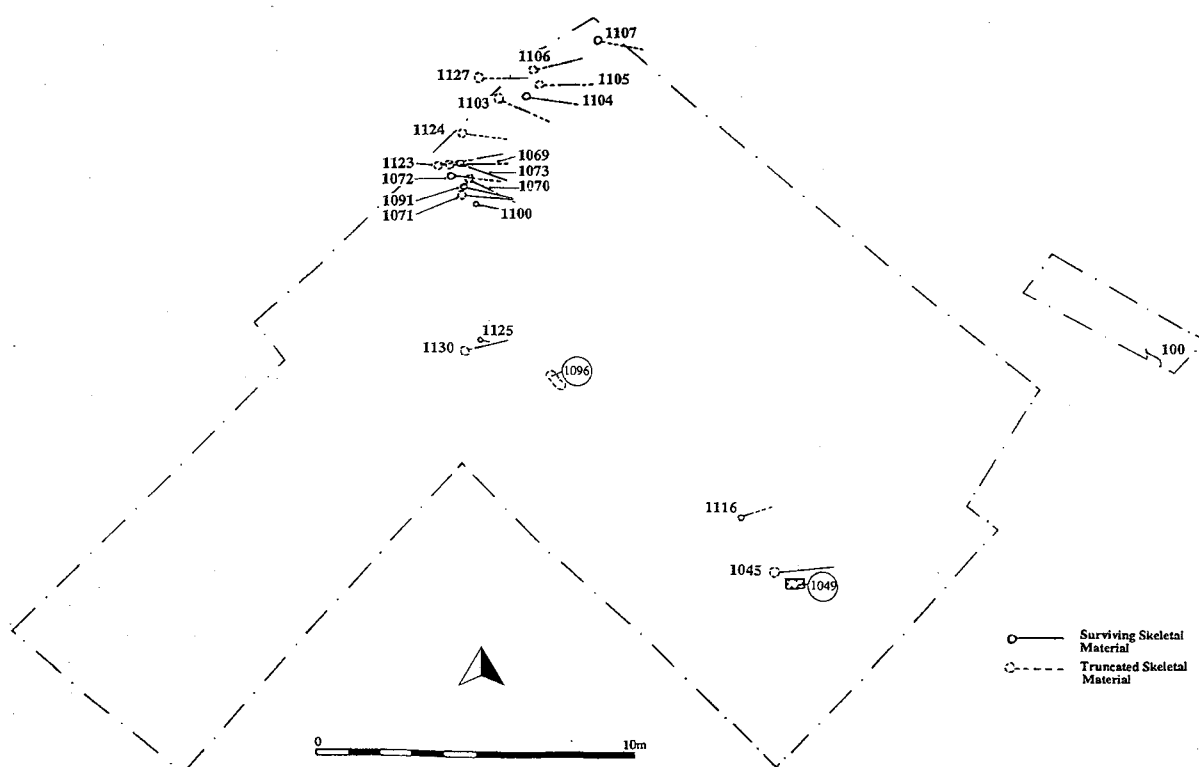


Figure 4. *Period 2.*

(Albarella, unpublished report, summarised below, pp. 147–9). This may represent bones being deliberately fed to dogs or it may indicate that the bones had formed part of an exposed rubbish dump or midden before they were buried. The scale of the pits suggests a domestic context, rather than a civic or co-operative operation for the bulk collection and disposal of rubbish.

There was no evidence to suggest that the linear feature 1098 formed the foundation of a building, and it may have been a ditch or gully, functioning as a property boundary running towards the river. Although no traces of a structure were uncovered, the presence of pieces of daub (one with wattle impressions) in pit fills 32 and 1114 suggests that buildings existed in the proximity (Garside-Neville, unpublished report, summarised below, pp. 142–3). Any Period 1 deposits nearer to Orchard Lane had been destroyed by later activity in Periods 2 and 3, but the recovery of so much Saxo-Norman pottery from later contexts (c. 5.4 kg) confirms domestic activity on or near the site. Gully 1098 ran at right angles to Orchard Lane and may indicate that this thoroughfare already existed in the Saxo-Norman period. Remains of buildings of this date may have stood along the Lane, fronting yards running down towards the Ouse.

Pits in these yards were used for the disposal of human cess and domestic refuse, and also for the unsaleable or non-consumable elements of shellfish and fish catches. The presence of the latter may point to the presence of contemporary wharves or landing places on the riverfronts of these properties.

Period 2 Eleventh to fourteenth centuries (Figure 4)

Description

Remains of 21 articulated human skeletons were recovered. One of these, 1089, had been disturbed and reburied in cut 1088 (Period 2/3), while 1049 was a charnel deposit of at least three individuals and probably represents redeposition after disturbance of 1045 and other skeletons. Disturbed human bones were found in many Period 3 and subsequent contexts.

Context 100 may be a severely truncated grave cut and truncation elsewhere meant that it was impossible to isolate grave cuts for more than half of the burials. There was little evidence of coffins using metal fittings (four iron nails were found with skeleton 1073) and soil conditions would have prevented the preserva-

tion of wooden coffins. No grave goods were present. Where sufficient articulated bone survived all burials were extended and supine and were aligned within ± 10 degrees of west-east, with heads to the west.

At the northern end of the site, burials had been intensive and superimposition had taken place, with limited disturbance to earlier inhumations. No individual grave cuts could be distinguished for skeletons 1069–72, but 1069 was above 1070 which, in turn, lay above 1071 and 1072. These four individuals may have been interred at one time in a single large grave 1040, but 1070 was not on the same alignment as the other three and individual grave cuts may have been obscured by the disturbed soil. Examination of the skeletal material from this group did not reveal any traits to indicate that they were related, but 1069 and 1073 both displayed sternal aperture, which can be inherited (Corinne Duhig, personal communication).

The grave of infant 1125 cut the grave fill (1131) around a female aged 19–25 (1130), a placement which may indicate a family relationship.

Skeletal remains were concentrated near the Orchard Lane frontage, with other scattered remains within a strip running north west to south east. Many of the skeletons directly underlay nineteenth and twentieth-century dumps and it is likely that the absence of articulated human remains from the north-eastern part of the site reflects the truncation of deposits in Periods 3–5. Redeposited, disarticulated human bone was found in this area and between skeletons 1125 and 1100. A number of casual visitors to the site remembered seeing large quantities of 'human bone' during the construction of Riverside Road, suggesting that burials continued to the south east of the site. However, the south-western part of the site, although thoroughly disturbed in Period 3, produced negligible redeposited skeletal material and it is probable that either the cemetery did not extend to this area or burials were much less intense.

Interpretation

The alignments and method of burial are consistent with a Christian cemetery. The majority of the pottery from the grave fills was of Saxo-Norman date, but a few sherds of medieval sandy ware were also found. The Period 1 settlement was probably superseded by the cemetery late in the Saxo-Norman period, but burials had ceased by the fifteenth or sixteenth century when Period 3 quarries and pits disturbed some of the skeletons.

The intensity and superimposition of burials 1069–73, 1091, 1100 and 1123 suggest that burials took place over a long period, but there may have been special circumstances for this concentration. No common skeletal traits were detected, but this need not necessarily mean that the individuals were unrelated (Corinne Duhig, personal communication). Very little disturbance of the earlier burials was caused by this later superimposition. This may indicate that care was taken (particularly of larger bones) because earlier interments were expected and their disturbance would be a sign of disrespect. Such an attitude would not have been exclusive to the remains of close family, and the proximity of this spot to Orchard Lane and, possibly, to an access point into the burial ground may have made it a particularly popular or prestigious location for interment.

The limit of the intact burials to the south west coincides with the boundary of a narrow parcel of land shown running from Orchard Lane to the river in 1752, and the exposure of skeletons during the construction of Riverside Road indicates that the cemetery also extended towards the river.

Although no structural remains were recovered, and the documentary evidence is equivocal at best, it seems likely that the burials were within the churchyard of one of the medieval churches of Huntingdon. The sixteenth-century references to Orchard Lane as St Laurence's Lane indicate that this church was located in the area, but tradition also places St Clement's in this lane. The evidence of Carruthers suggests that there were churches on both sides of Orchard Lane (see above, p. 127). St Laurence's and St Clement's fail to appear in the documentary record after the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries respectively, so they both fit with the limited dating evidence recovered by excavation. St Clement's claimed that the chapel on the bridge was within its parish, and the way in which the cemetery extended towards the river may be significant in this respect. St Clement was a popular dedication for churches in Scandinavia and occurs in Anglo-Scandinavian towns such as Ipswich, London, Cambridge, Bedford and Norwich, often (as in the last three cases) near main river crossings (Ayers 1994: 26–7). The saint was associated with sea travel and commerce (Morris 1989: 175–6), which would also support a riverfront location, but the available evidence is not sufficient to unequivocally assign the excavated cemetery to either the church of St Clement or of St Laurence.

The number of skeletons recovered was insufficient to draw any conclusions on the life

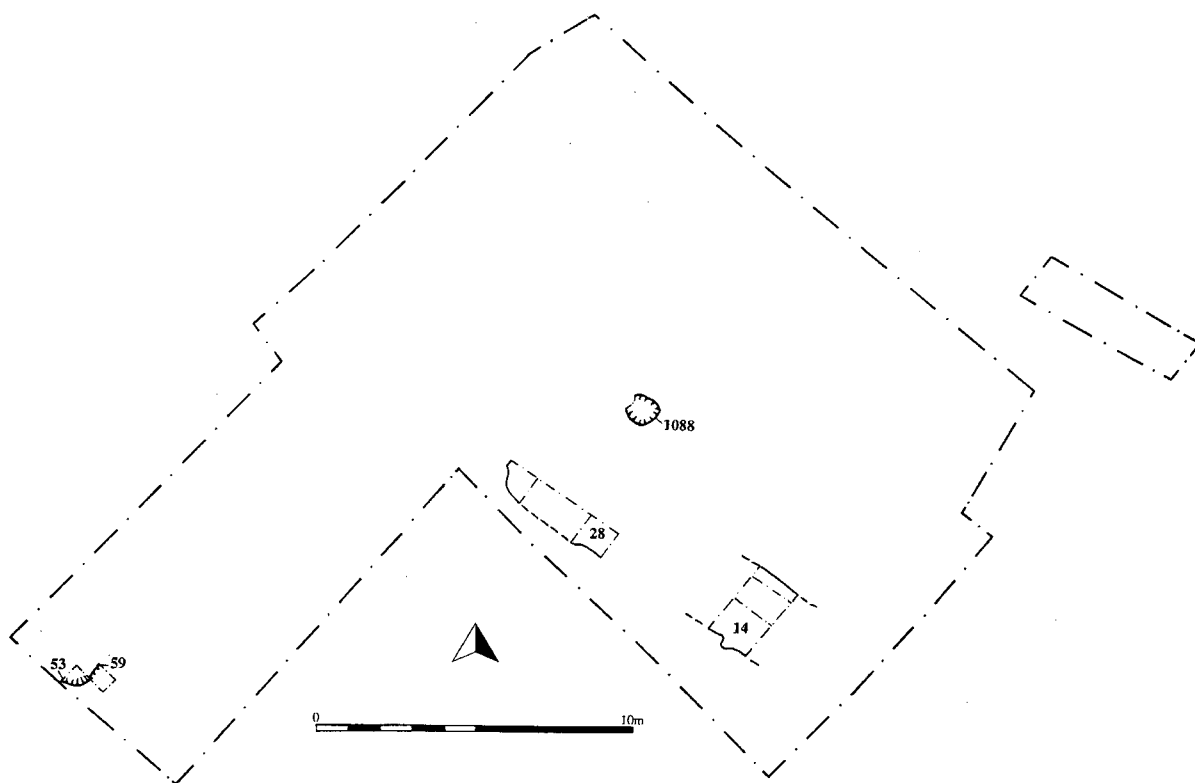


Figure 5. *Period 2/3.*

expectancy or age structure of the population, but the pathology of the remains is consistent with an urban population (see below, p. 145). The prevalence of platymeria and squatting facets suggests that many of the individuals were involved in repetitive tasks such as might be characteristic of trades and crafts found in a medieval town. The individuals buried on this site seem to have lived in some privation, exhibiting symptoms of exposure to infection, parasites and food shortages or a combination of all three. If all four adult individuals (1069–72), or even only three of them had been interred in one episode, this may indicate that they were victims of a single catastrophic event such as one of the particularly virulent epidemics of the fourteenth century which caused so much distress to Huntingdon.

Period 2/3 Eleventh to eighteenth centuries (Figure 5)

Description

Insufficient evidence survived to allocate these contexts positively to Period 2 or 3. Circular, flat-bottomed pit 1088 contained the disarticulated skeleton of adult male 1089. Some care had been invested in the reburial, as some of

the small bones of the hands and feet were included.

A cut (28), at least 4.5 m long and 1 m wide, was backfilled with fill 45 which contained pottery dating to 1150–1250. This was recut as 55 (not illustrated) which was backfilled in the fifteenth or early sixteenth century. Ditch 14 (2.6 m wide and 0.38 m deep) may be a continuation of either 28 or 55.

Pits 53 and 59 were only partially excavated. Each had steep sides and 53 cut the backfill (60) of 59. Pottery in context 60 dated from 900–1200, while the fills of cut 53 were mid-fourteenth century or later in date.

Interpretation

Cut 1088 had been dug to contain a disturbed skeleton. The evident care taken to collect some of the small bones for redeposition may indicate that it took place while the cemetery was in use, or whilst its memory was still respected.

The full width of 28 and its recut 55 was not recovered, although an apparent butt end was found to the north-west. The fill of 14 was similar to that of 28 and 55, and they may form part of one ditch, at least ten metres long and 2.60 m wide. Ditch 14 truncated the fill around skeleton 1045, may have been the cause of

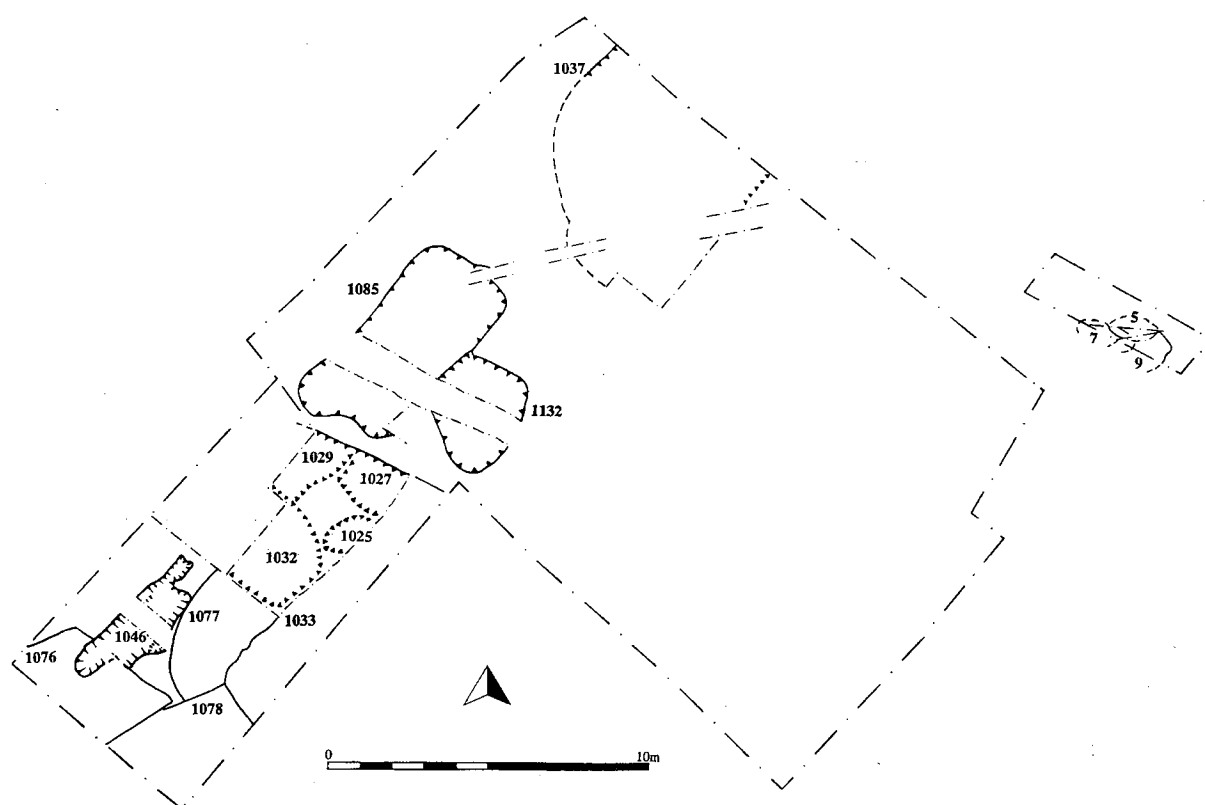


Figure 6. *Period 3.*

charnel deposit 1049, and formed a south-western limit to the burials. It coincided with a boundary shown on eighteenth and nineteenth-century maps, but it had been backfilled at some point after the early sixteenth century. It was impossible to prove whether it formed a boundary to the Period 2 cemetery or was a later feature.

Pits 53 and 59 were cut by quarries and pits of Period 3, but it was difficult to prove their contemporaneity with the cemetery. Only a very small proportion of each was investigated, but they seemed to be rubbish pits of the later medieval period and, if this is an accurate interpretation, show a different type of activity on the property adjacent to the cemetery.

Period 3 Fifteenth to eighteenth centuries (Figure 6)

Description

This period is characterised by the excavation of a series of large pits and their subsequent backfilling with spoil and bricks. Trenches A and B had cut the backfills of these pits, but the restricted size of these excavations had led to the erroneous conclusion that each fill represented a small, discrete pit. Thus the partially excavated sequence of pits 7, 5, 9 and 95

(not illustrated) in Trench D may form fills within a single large pit. With these exceptions, all the pits are located near the Orchard Lane frontage. Their shapes varied but they all had steep or vertical sides.

1037 was sub-circular, had a diameter of at least 6.30 m and was over 1.45 m deep. It was not bottomed, but the backfills included redeposited spoil from its excavation (1151, 1038) and a thick (1.20 m+) layer of compacted bricks degrading into brick dust (1041). The fill had slumped and in the eighteenth century levelling deposits (1146–8) were dumped into the resultant depression.

Cut 1085 was sub-rectangular with rounded corners, measured 6.80 by 3.30 m and adjoined 1132. Neither was fully excavated, but in both cases the lowest deposits encountered comprised thin layers which contained a high proportion of redeposited natural silty clay and sand. They may represent slumping from the sides or dumping, but in both 1085 and 1132 they were sealed by a 0.45–1 m thick layer of broken, degrading bricks and brick-dust (1034). This had probably been deposited while hot, as the surface of underlying layer 1068 in cut 1132 had been baked, and pottery burnt.

To the south west, a sondage was excavated by machine and hand through quarry complex

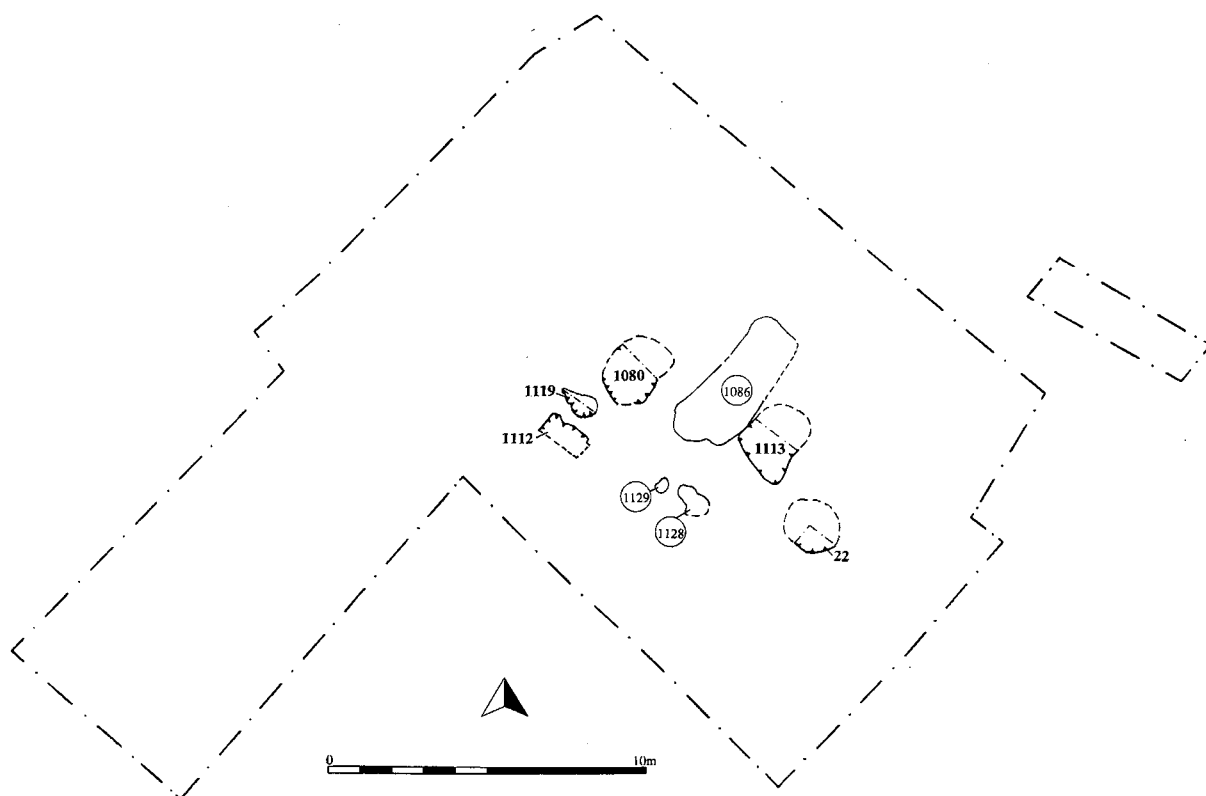


Figure 7. *Period 4.*

1033. To the north east, a vertical face fell 0.72 m to an uneven base, formed by a series of scoops (1025, 1027, 1029 and 1032) cut into the natural sand and clay. Each of these scoops had flat bases, and in the base of 1027 a series of shallow spade or shovel cuts were seen. These discrete cuts could only be isolated where they cut the natural, and different fills seen in the north-west facing section were separate dumps backfilling the overall complex. Only the north-eastern edge of 1033 was visible within the Phase 2 excavations, and unexcavated cuts 1076–8, although interpreted as separate quarries during excavation, may be part of the same complex and were seen to cut undisturbed natural to the north west. The fills of the complex were similar to the other pits of this period, comprising a mix of redeposited natural and layers of dumped brick, or in some cases tile. Context 1054, a deposit in 1078, had degraded to such an extent that it had reverted to a dark red sandy clay.

An irregular pit 1046 cut the backfills of complex 1033, but its function and date are unclear.

Interpretation

All the cuts of Period 3 penetrated into the natural and are interpreted as quarries dug to ex-

tract the clays and sands present on the site. The presence of mortar among the deposit of degraded bricks backfilling the pits indicates that many of the bricks derived from demolished structures (Garside-Neville, unpublished report). There was no evidence recovered from the excavation to indicate what purpose the extracted clay and sand served. However, it is clear that the pits were not used for dumping domestic rubbish. Most of the backfill material seemed to be the spoil from their excavation, as it included redeposited human bone from disturbed burials, and c. 60% of the pottery dated from Period 1. A further c. 20% was redeposited from Period 2 and the remainder was of sixteenth-century or later date. Backfill 1051 in quarry 1085 contained sixteenth-century pottery, while the levelling of the slump into quarry 1037 took place in the eighteenth century. The lack of introduced or casual rubbish indicates that access to the site was restricted, but the spread of the quarries across the whole frontage and the absence of any sort of boundary feature suggests that the excavated area was part of a single property at this time, although this conclusion is not supported by the documentary evidence for the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries.

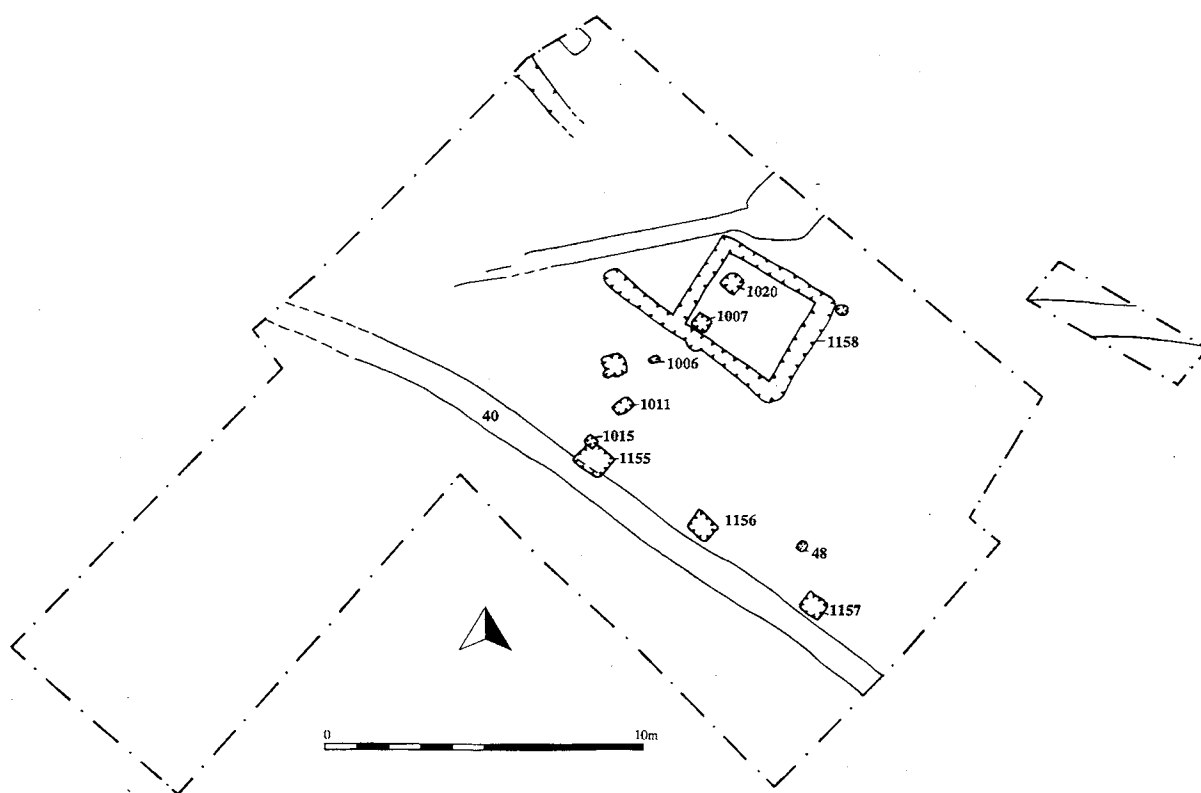


Figure 8. Period 5.

The major component of introduced material was the dumps of brick and tile, but these comprised only c. 30% of the total material and therefore it is unlikely that the pits were dug deliberately for their disposal. They seem to have derived from a brick building or buildings of late medieval date, but the evidence that at least some of them were deposited while hot is intriguing. The building may have been destroyed by fire, but no sign of smoke-blackening or traces of charcoal from burnt wood was seen during excavation. There is no documentary record of a major fire in Huntingdon in the sixteenth or seventeenth century, although the siege of 1645 is known to have caused considerable structural damage. An alternative source for the hot bricks may be an industrial structure such as a kiln or forge. There was no evidence that any building or structure had existed on the site in Period 3.

Period 4 Nineteenth century (Figure 7)

Description

A series of irregular, shallow cuts and unexcavated fills formed two north west-south east alignments: 1080, 1086, 1113 and 22; 1112, 1119, 1129 and 1128. These were iden-

tified where they cut into underlying deposits; the fills were indistinguishable from the sealing layer of cultivated soil 1/65/88/116/120/1008, which sealed them and covered the whole site. Much of this deposit was removed by machine.

Interpretation

Where the cultivated soil was hand-excavated it produced pottery of nineteenth century date.⁸ It can be seen as the result of agricultural or horticultural activity and the rows of cuts probably indicate the position of trees within an orchard, pre-dating the use of the site as a builder's yard in the later nineteenth and twentieth centuries (Period 5). Any traces of the orchard nearer to the Orchard Lane frontage would have either been destroyed by later activity or removed during machining of the site prior to excavation.

Period 5 Nineteenth and twentieth centuries (Figure 8)

Description

Many of the contexts of this period were removed by machine and only seen in section.

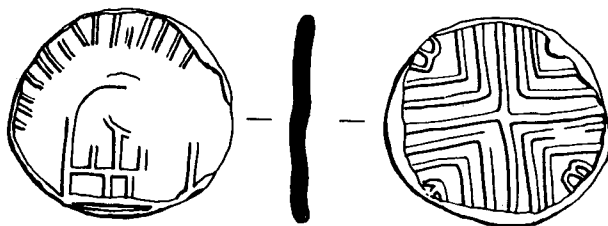


Figure 9. Coin 103. Seventeenth or eighteenth-century token. Full size.

Cuts and fills of Period 5 were seen in plan only where they cut the deposits of earlier periods. Research priorities dictated that their excavation and recording was rapid.

Cuts 40 and 3 contained brick drains and probably form part of the same drainage system as an unnumbered east-west drain (Figure 8). Cut 1158 formed the foundation for a brick building which probably pre-dated an alignment (1023) of post-holes 1020, 1007, 1006, 1011 and 1015 running parallel to Orchard Lane. The backfill (1014) of 1015 was cut by rectangular pit or foundation cut 1155. This formed a north west-south east alignment with pits 1156 and 1157.

Before excavation began, it was apparent that up to 0.75 m depth of material had been removed from the north-western corner of the property, in order to provide a flat surface, partially floored with concrete, but the south-west facing section of the site showed that material had been dumped here in order to provide an even slope down from the Orchard Lane frontage of the property.

Mechanical excavation of Trench A had removed the floors, walls and foundations of a number of brick buildings, and these were recorded in section.

Interpretation

The contexts assigned to this period are all associated with use of the site as a builder's yard and are mapped by the Ordnance Survey. The 1885 map shows a complex of buildings in the south-western part of the site and these are probably the brick structures seen in section in Trench A. This and later maps also show a building which corresponds with the position of foundation 1158, and a number of visitors to the site remembered it as a small smithy. The date of its demolition is unknown, but the later alignment 1023 is dated by pottery to the second half of the twentieth century. It was probably a fence, but larger pits 1155-7 held the supports for a corrugated iron fence demolished at the beginning of the Phase 2 excavation. Material had been deliberately dumped to form a surface to enable wagons or lorries to

deliver material to the yard through gates on Orchard Lane.

Metalwork

A catalogue and X-rays of all metalwork from the site are available in archive. The majority of the material consisted of nails or unidentified objects and was recovered from contexts of Period 4 or 5.

Coins and tokens

All the coins recovered were from Period 4 or later unstratified contexts. After cleaning and conservation, identifications were made by Dr Mark Blackburn, Keeper of Coins at the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge.

Roman

102. ?4th century, very badly corroded. Diameter 17 mm. Weight (with corrosion) 2 g. Unstratified. Not illustrated.

Medieval

108. Henry III long-cross cut halfpenny, 1248-50, by the moneyer Willum at Wilton. Diameter 18 mm. Weight 0.67 g. Legend reads WIL [LUM ON] WIL Unstratified. Not illustrated.

133. 15th century (?Edward IV) penny. Legend corroded and worn. Diameter 17 mm. Weight 0.68 g. Context 1008 (Period 4). Not illustrated.

Post-medieval

101. George II halfpenny, 1748. Diameter 28 mm. Weight 9.10 g. Unstratified. Not illustrated.

103. 17th or 18th century unidentified token. ?Local. Diameter 28.5 mm. Weight 11.01 g. Very worn, and deformed by impact(s) on obverse. Obverse has radiate lines above a vague and damaged design, possibly depicting a building (Figure 9). Reverse bears cross design with possible lobes on border in each quarter. Context 1008 (Period 4).

Pottery

Paul Spoerry^a

Introduction

This report describes all the post-Roman pottery recovered from Period 1 to Period 3 contexts, plus re-deposited pottery from Period 4 contexts, but not the nineteenth century ceramics that provide the true dating of this period. Period 5 ceramics are not included and, after identification as being of nineteenth-twentieth century date, this material was discarded on site. The assemblage is thus full for Periods 1 to 3, and only representative of residual material from Period 4. Residuality and redeposition were identified as a potentially significant problem early on in excavation Phase 2. The inclusion of Period 4 residual material in this analysis allows a greater breadth of temporal and spatial study for the site, while addressing the problem of residuality.

Published work on late Saxon and medieval pottery from Huntingdon and its immediate surroundings is almost non-existent. The most pertinent published works all deal with ceramics from either the St Neots-Paxton area of south Huntingdonshire (Addyman 1969; 1973), or from Cambridge (Addyman & Biddle 1965; Hurst 1956; 1957; 1958). Other published groups from the historic county of Huntingdonshire are rare, the only notable examples being from excavation of manorial or moated sites at Ellington (Tebbutt *et al.* 1971) and Wintringham (Beresford 1977).

One of the aims of this excavation project was to provide a dated sequence of ceramics from this part of Huntingdon over several centuries. It was hoped that division of the assemblage into pre-burials and post-burials groups, and characterisation of these groups, might provide a basis from which knowledge of the pottery sequence and assemblage profile in Huntingdon could develop further. Those aims have been borne in mind throughout this study, but the high residual component in later groups has made the production of a clear sequence impossible.

Due to the high levels of residuality and abrasion, individual context-groups are not described and most individual vessels or sherds have not been extensively described here.

Pottery types

Twenty-five 'types' of pottery were identified across the whole post-Roman assemblage of 699 sherds (6308 g) of pottery. 184 g (2.9%) of the assemblage was classified as 'unknown'.

Pottery types are defined using simple ware identifiers (letter codes) which represent a recognised ware from a known source, or with a known occurrence. The type codes and descriptions derive from a County-wide 'type series' currently being developed. The detail of the type series will not be provided here, but a list of macroscopic descriptions of new types, mostly of fairly local origin, is presented below.

In the whole post-Roman assemblage, St Neots-type ware is by far the most common, accounting for 42.4% of the assemblage by weight. Thetford-type ware comprised 15.4% while Sandy Shelly ware (8.8%) and Sandy ware (8.2%) are the most common of the locally-defined types. Medieval Lyveden-Stanion decorated and/or oolitic-tempered wares make up 6.5% of the whole assemblage, whilst no other type of pottery is present as more than 3.5% of the whole assemblage. Imported pottery accounts for only 0.25% of the total.

These figures indicate that the two major eastern English late Saxon wares dominate the assemblage suggesting that, as a whole, it is dominated by material from the period AD 900–1150.

Roman material

The residual Roman material represents 6.75% of the Period 1 assemblage, around 3% of the Period 2 and 2/3 assemblages, and about 5.75% of the Period 3 assemblage. With the site being located within a few hundred metres of a major Roman river crossing, some residual material of this date would be expected.

Late Saxon material

If the three known characteristic late Saxon pottery types are taken as an index of the pre-1150 assemblage, then their presence in later periods can be used to indicate the degree of residuality.

Table 1. *The presence of late Saxon pottery (by period).*

Period	Percentage of assemblage as St Neots, Thetford and Stamford wares
1	91.3%
2	73.6%
2/3	43.0%
3	55.4%
4*	49.9%

* NB All Period 4 material is deemed residual as the dating component (19th century pottery) was identified but not retained.

Table 1 indicates that a major residual pre-1150 component exists in all period assemblages and roughly half of the Period 2/3 and 3 assem-

blages are identifiable as residual late Saxon material.

Just under 74% of the Period 2 assemblage comprises the three named late Saxon wares. If a previous period of late Saxon/post-Conquest activity was disturbed by a medieval graveyard, it might be expected that the larger part of the graveyard-period assemblage would be residual material. Whether three quarters of this assemblage is residual is a moot point, bearing in mind that later periods which disturb late Saxon activity appear to have resulted in assemblages only half of which contain residual Saxon material. The explanation for more late Saxon pottery in Period 2 (compared to Periods 2/3 and 3) may be that these types, particularly St Neots type ware, continued in use during at least part of the period of burials. It is generally acknowledged that St Neots type ware has greater longevity and develops into later medieval shelly types elsewhere (Hunter 1979), but this assemblage is so fragmentary that it is difficult to identify whether 'developed' versions of St Neots-type ware forms are present in any period.

Examination of mean sherd size and sherd abrasion indicated little reworking of the residual pottery in Periods 2/3 and 3. However, increased abrasion and significantly smaller sherd size in Period 2 implies that reworking in successive grave fills was having a greater effect on the residual pottery.

Period Assemblages

Period 1

The Period 1 assemblage is probably the one period group that, excepting a few Roman sherds, exhibits little residuality. Thus, if the Orchard Lane assemblage is to provide a basis for a wider Huntingdon assemblage at any point, then this is the group with most potential.

Table 2. *Period 1 pottery assemblage.*

Type	No. sherds	Weight (g)	Weight as %
St Neots type ware	64	592	66
Thetford type ware	22	218	24.3
Stamford ware	2	9	1
Sandy Shelly ware	6	27	3
Sandy wares	9	37	4.1
Other	2	14	1.5

St Neots-type ware dominates this group. Almost all sherds for which a vessel type could be assigned are cooking pots; the rims (Figure 10, 4–5) are all out-turned, with one everted,

and have diameters in the 16–19 cm bracket. One flattened rim from a bowl with rounded profile is present (16), whilst one piece of particular interest appears to be a lamp base (Figure 10, 25).

Thetford-type ware pieces include one externally thickened cooking pot rim and several sherds that are probably from pitchers, one with external rouletting. Locally made types are barely present, Sandy Shelly ware and sandy wares only providing 15 sherds. Overall, St Neots-type ware cooking pots and bowls, plus Thetford type ware pitchers, predominate.

Period 2

In Period 2, St Neots-type ware is again very dominant, although there is less Thetford-type ware. A wider variety of other types appear, supporting the suggestion that this group represents both residual Period 1 ceramics and new material of the period 1200–1350 introduced during use of the site as a cemetery.

The St Neots-type ware is again dominated by cooking pots with out-turned or everted rims, almost all of fairly small size (rim diameters of less than 20 cm), but including several bowls with rim diameters of 26–37 cm. These bowls all have rounded profiles and the rims are thickened in a variety of shapes (e.g. Figure 10, 20). In addition there is a rim or handle sherd from a St Neots-type ware jug (24).

There is much less Thetford-type ware in this assemblage. Where vessel type is identifiable, most sherds seem to be from cooking pots, rather than pitchers. The local coarsewares are also mostly apparent as cooking pot sherds, with one bowl rim in a Shelly ware also being present, whilst the regional finewares include Lyveden–Stanion and Brill glazed jug sherds.

Period 2/3

This period represents features that cannot be assigned definitively to either Period 2 or 3. It may well be a composite of two period assemblages; with the added factor of Period 1 residuality, it was not deemed worthy of detailed consideration here. It is worth noting, however, that this assemblage included a few sherds of Lyveden–Stanion and Brill glazed jugs, some probable medieval Bourne products and two sherds of probable Saintonge green glazed ware.

Period 3

Period 3 is also characterised by much residuality, with almost 56% of this assemblage by weight represented by known 'late Saxon' types.

One feature of this group is the large number of St Neots-type ware cooking pot and bowl rims represented (twenty in all). These, with other examples from the earlier periods, provide the only group of St Neots-type ware from Huntingdon to be published to date.

Ten of the twelve St Neots-type ware cooking pot rims have diameters of less than 20 cm. All have out-turned rims, bar one which is everted, whilst a few rims are thickened or have piecrust decoration.

The eight St Neots-type ware bowls include three with angled profiles; three with rounded profiles (e.g. Figure 10, 15), one of which has an in-turned, flanged rim in classic St Neots-type style (Figure 10, 22); one straight-sided; and one rounded and slightly in-turned (23).

Other form types identifiable from this assemblage include two rims from Thetford-type ware vessels (27, 28) and rims from both Lyveden-Stanion and, probably, Brill glazed jugs.

Period 4

The retained assemblage is completely residual and little statistical analysis has been carried out. It is wholly in keeping with that seen in Period 3.

Conclusions

Almost all of the late Saxon and medieval assemblage has been recovered from contexts where it is residual. Despite this, the fact that most of the earlier sherds appear to have been abraded means that, provided the few later sherds can be identified, some general trends can still be observed.

The late Saxon and early post-Conquest assemblage in Huntingdon is dominated by St Neots-type ware and, to a lesser extent, Thetford-type ware. It can be tentatively suggested that the former was mostly used for cooking pots and bowls, whilst the latter was utilised more for pitchers. With regard to St Neots-type ware, this appears to be in accordance with the majority of assemblages from the region. Thetford-type ware is also produced in a variety of vessel types, but it seems that the pitchers and storage vessels are most commonly found at a distance from the production source area. The Orchard Lane assemblage fits this pattern with regard to pitchers, but only a few storage vessel sherds have been recorded. The relative absence of Stamford wares is quite surprising and cannot be adequately explained.

This assemblage suggests that only a very small proportion of the vessels in use before 1200 comprises other local coarseware products. This is almost certainly because St Neots-type ware is the local utilitarian product. Its main distribution zone appears to be the Cambridgeshire–Huntingdonshire–Northamptonshire region. It is possible that it was made at more than one location within Huntingdonshire; although the burnt pits observed at both St Neots (Addyman 1973: 75) and Buckden (McCarthy & Brooks 1988: 176) may or may not be evidence for clamp or bonfire firings. It is the soft nature of St Neots-type ware resulting from low-temperature firing that probably rendered it unfit for containing liquids (Hurst 1976: 323), and this may explain the need to use Thetford-type ware containers in Huntingdon. Local St Neots-type products were more than adequate for most other uses. The Period 1 assemblage includes a small amount of Sandy Shelly ware, Sandy ware and Hard Sandy ware. It is not certain whether any or all of these are of local origin, although this must be quite likely for the shelly material which has affinities with St Neots-type ware.

From Period 2 onwards, the assemblage includes increased amounts of all these minor types and it seems likely that their main period of use in Huntingdon was in the post-Conquest to medieval period. The sandy wares may originate either with the Colne sandy and calcareous products of the Huntingdonshire Fen Edge (Watson *et al.* forthcoming), or they may be a variant of the Northamptonshire Rockingham Forest industries (Lyveden, Stanion etc.).

As there are so few of them, the glazed ware imports from around the greater eastern region can only be considered across the assemblage in general. The relative lack of Stamford and Developed Stamford wares, especially when compared to the large influx of Thetford type wares, is surprising and cannot easily be explained. The fact that Lyveden-Stanion finewares are the most common medieval glazed type is not surprising as this industry was based only about twenty miles west of Huntingdon. The presence of a few, probably Bourne, glazed medieval sherds, and one from Grimston is not unexpected, whilst the presence of a few Brill-Boarstall glazed ware sherds in most period groups points to a trickle of vessels into Huntingdon from the area to the south west. There are also occasional sherds of imported Saintonge medieval glazed wares and one piece of late medieval German stoneware from Siegburg.

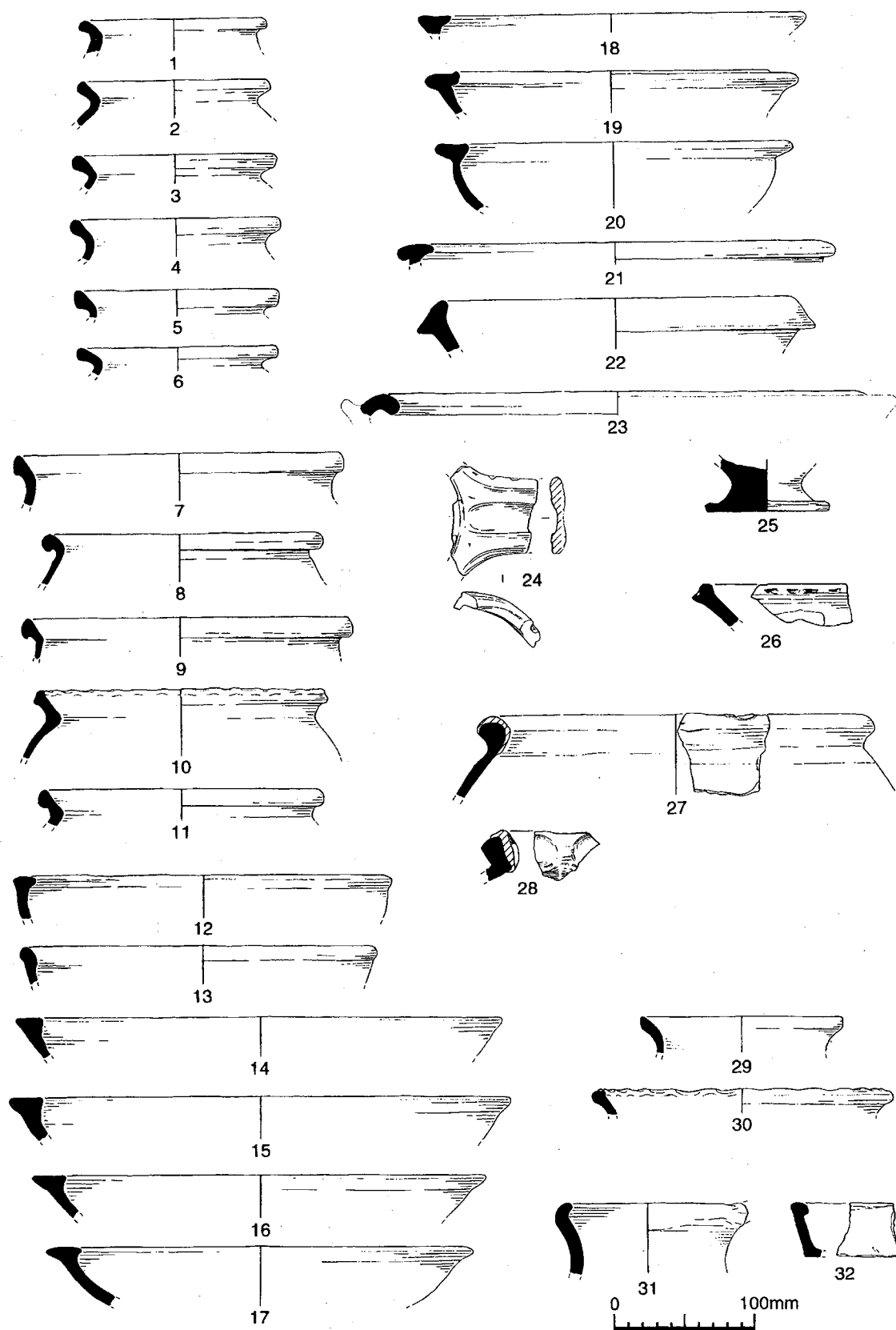


Figure 10. Pottery from Orchard Lane.

*Illustrated sherds (Figure 10)**St Neots-type ware*

- 1 Small cooking pot with rounded, out-turned rim. Smooth brown-pink surfaces with grey core.
- 2 Small cooking pot with slightly beaded, out-turned rim. Black throughout with smoothed surfaces.
- 3 Small cooking pot with slightly thickened, everted rim. Dark brown to black with smoothed surfaces.
- 4 Small cooking pot with everted, thickened rim with upright section. Smoothed brown-pink surfaces with grey core.
- 5 Cooking pot with out-turned, bevelled rim. Dark grey to black surfaces with grey core.
- 6 Cooking pot with everted, thickened rim. Smoothed black to brown surfaces with grey core.
- 7 Cooking pot with upright, thickened rim. Smoothed buff-orange surfaces with light grey core.
- 8 Cooking pot with out-turned, thickened rim. Light grey-brown fabric throughout.
- 9 Cooking pot with in-turned body and externally rolled rim. Brown surfaces with light grey core.
- 10 Cooking pot with out-turned rim with external beading and pie-crust decoration. Orange-brown surfaces with grey core.
- 11 Cooking pot with out-turned, thickened rim. Brown surfaces, blackened externally, with dark grey core.
- 12 Deep bowl, slightly in-turned profile with internally thickened, rounded rim. Fabric is mid-grey throughout.
- 13 Straight-sided bowl with externally beaded, rounded, rim. Red-brown surfaces with dark grey core.
- 14 Bowl with rounded profile and thickened, triangular rim. Fabric is grey throughout except for the external surface which is brown-grey.
- 15 Bowl with rounded profile and flat topped, externally thickened rim. Purple-brown surfaces with grey core.
- 16 Bowl with rounded profile and flat topped, externally thickened rim. Mid-brown surfaces and grey core.
- 17 Bowl with rounded profile and flat-topped, hammerhead rim. Purple-brown and dark grey surfaces with grey core.
- 18 Bowl with probable rounded profile and flat-topped, internal thickened rim. Smoothed brown surfaces with grey core.
- 19 Bowl with rounded profile and flat-topped hammerhead rim with internal lid-seating. Smoothed light brown surfaces with grey core.
- 20 Bowl with rounded profile and flat-topped hammerhead rim with internal lid-seating. Smoothed light brown surfaces with grey core.
- 21 Bowl with probable rounded profile and flat-topped, hammerhead rim. Surfaces are possibly smoothed and light brown with a dark grey core.
- 22 Inturned, carinated bowl rim with external flange on body. Brown-grey surfaces, possibly smoothed internally, with dark grey core.
- 23 Inturned and rounded bowl rim, probably from a shallow vessel. Rough surfaces with a grey fabric throughout.
- 24 Strap handle with rim segment from jug. Orange-brown to pink-brown surfaces with grey core. This fabric has less, and coarser, shell than all other St Neots-type ware listed here. It has been classified as St Neots type, but is undoubtedly a different variant and, from the form, of later date.
- 25 Base, probably from a lamp. Brown surfaces and dark grey core.

Other fabrics

- 26 Flat-topped Shelly ware bowl rim with external bevel and stabbed decoration. Sooting internally and externally. Has affinities, in both fabric and form, with twelfth to fourteenth century types from Stanion, Northants. Fabric has orange-brown surfaces, brown margins and a grey core.
- 27 Externally rolled and thumbled rim from a Thetford-type ware storage jar. The fabric has abundant fine quartz sand temper and is grey with grey-brown surfaces. Similar examples have been recorded both in Norfolk and at Cambridge.
- 28 Upright rim of Thetford-type ware vessel of uncertain form. The rim is wholly covered by an applied, thumbled strip. The vessel may be a storage vessel variant. The fabric contains abundant fine quartz temper and is mid-grey throughout.
- 29 Slightly out-turned and externally bevelled rim from a small, upright Sandy ware cooking pot. The fabric is dark grey throughout and contains a small amount of oolitic limestone temper in addition to abundant quartz sand.
- 30 Rim with pie-crust decoration from a bowl with a probable rounded profile in a Sandy ware fabric. The external surfaces are blackened, but the fabric has a grey core and red-brown internal surface.
- 31 Rounded, cupped rim, with part of pinched and pulled lip, from a jug in Colne medieval ware. The fabric is hard with abundant fine quartz sand and a little crushed limestone. The colour is dark grey with lighter grey surfaces.
- 32 Internally rolled, flattened rim from a shallow bowl (dish) in Colne medieval ware. The fabric, which contains abundant fine quartz sand and some crushed limestone and flint, is mostly black, but with a red-brown outer surface.

Macroscopic fabric descriptions

Only those fabrics that are not defined as a known, named 'type' are described here. For example, St Neots-type ware, Thetford-type ware, Lyveden-Stanion glazed wares, and Colne medieval ware are all present in the assemblage, but defined elsewhere. In the main, the types listed here are defined by their fabric, with only limited information currently available on forms and decoration.

Sandy Shelly ware (code SSHW)

A fairly hard-fired fabric that usually has a reduced core with red-brown or olive oxidised surfaces and (often) margins. It contains abundant quartz sand (mostly much less than 0.5 mm diameter), usually well sorted, and occasional to common shell fragments of varying size (up to 2 mm, but usually smaller). The shell is often ill sorted and sometimes accompanied by small amounts of crushed limestone and small oolites.

It usually appears as cooking pots, but also occurs at Orchard Lane as storage vessels and angled bowls. Some of the material at this site may derive from Northamptonshire and be a Lyveden-Stanion coarseware type.

Sandy ware (code SW)

A fairly hard-fired, usually reduced fabric, commonly having dark grey surfaces and a lighter grey core and margins. It contains abundant quartz grains up to 0.5 mm in diameter and, less commonly, occasional larger quartz grains.

The vessels are wheel-made and are found at Orchard Lane predominantly as cooking pots, but with occasional jugs and bowls.

Hard Sandy ware (code HSW)

A very hard-fired fabric, often with oxidised buff, orange or red-brown surfaces and a reduced grey core. It contains abundant quartz grains, usually much less than 0.5 mm in diameter.

Vessels are wheel-made and often show signs of turning. Occasionally they have a splashed green or clear glaze. At Orchard Lane this fabric is present as cooking pots.

Shelly ware (code SHW)

At Orchard Lane this has been used to describe shelly ware sherds that are definitely unlike St Neots-type ware. In most cases the amount of shell is less than occurs in St Neots-type ware and is present either as rather larger fragments or as more angular, less plate-like, pieces.

This type is present as cooking pots and bowls.

Ceramic Building Materials

Sandra Garside-Neville¹⁰

Introduction

The total amount of ceramic building materials, including daub, from the excavations was 51.41 kg. The material was collected as a representative sample of brick, roofing tile, daub and plaster from each context, designed to demonstrate the various fabrics and degrees of firing. After recording, pieces that were unusual in some way or served as a good example of a fabric or form were retained as part of a reference collection.

Roofing material

At Orchard Lane, the only method of suspension found on medieval plain roofing tile was pegholes, which were often roughly punched through, with the peghole flared outwards. Where a piece of medieval roofing tile had no diagnostic feature showing method of suspension, it was classified as 'plain', but the material was so fragmentary that few complete measurements of dimensions other than thickness could be made. Dobson refers to a statute of Edward IV of 1477 that stipulates the minimum dimensions for plain tile as ten and a half inches by six and a quarter inches by five eighths of an inch (Dobson 1960: 12). The complete plain tile from context 1003 (Period 5) is slightly larger than this.

Three fragments of ridge tile were found, amongst them a dark green glazed fragment (context 1001) which clearly led up to some sort of decorated crest. The fabric was notably pottery-like in consistency, and there is evidence that in the medieval period ridge tiles could be made by potters rather than tilers (Cherry 1991: 193). The other two fragments are unglazed and have recognisable tile fabrics.

Other forms of roofing tile on the site were Roman (*tegula* and *imbrex*) and pan tile. The latter was made in England from about the seventeenth century, although it may have been imported from the Netherlands earlier (Dobson 1960: 18). The examples from this site show evidence of mechanised production and probably date from the nineteenth century or later.

Brick

There were several varieties of brick differing in size, fabric and method of manufacture. Some fabrics were clearly made on a sanded surface, and it is likely that a sanded mould was also used. The products of these fabrics are generally well-made with sharp edges. One example from 1008 (Period 4) shows an indented edge, a medieval trait, the causes of which are a matter of debate (Smith 1985: 42).

Other fabrics were made on a straw or grass surface. Although two examples have sanded surfaces the norm appears to be frame made (Smith 1985: 42). This method of manufacture entailed a dollop of clay being put onto a straw or grass bed and a wetted mould placed over the clay. This can result in a thickening at the bottom of the brick, evident in the Orchard Lane examples. Perhaps to counteract rough edges, some examples are knife-trimmed along the edges and, occasionally, the bottom surface.

The size of bricks can be used as a rough guide to their date, but comparative data from the locality is needed, as brick sizes are subject to regional trends (Lloyd 1983: 10–12; Betts 1985: 451–2). Although breadth and thickness measurements were taken for medieval bricks, there were no complete lengths. The widest breadth of 132 mm may indicate a fourteenth to fifteenth-century date, but other breadth and thickness measurements probably indicate later dates (Lloyd 1983: 96).

Some fragments of Roman material were found in contexts of Periods 1–3. These may originate as bricks used for hypocausts, arches or brick courses, but they were so fragmentary that they may be from roof tiles.

Floor tiles

There is a distinctive group of tiles, appearing in Period 3 and occurring only in one fabric. No complete example survived, but thickness varied between 32 and 39 mm. Some examples had a distinct bevel, occurring only on one edge, and the tiles are moulded, showing no sign of knife trimming. The identification of this material as floor tile is tentative and based on thickness and also the presence of bevelling, which is common in floor tiles to aid the spread of mortar on a laid floor. It is possible that this group was used as kiln flooring, although none of the examples in the sample shows signs of exposure to intense heat. Another use may have been for a specialised function such as a fire-place.

Daub

A small amount of daub (435 g) was recovered from the site. A piece from Period 1 showed impressions of wooden rods (c. 20 mm wide) at right-angles to each other. A fabric which occurred in Period 2 and 3 contexts may be brick as, despite a high organic content and friability, it had a flat surface (possibly with a limewash) and was quite thick. Daub from 1086 (Period 4), has a flat surface with three uniformly curving wattles (9 mm wide) behind it and is typical of wattle infill (Goffin 1989).

The daub sample is too small to identify the appearance of the structures from which the fragments derive, but the distinctive fabrics and variations in impressions suggest that they came from different buildings, possibly of different dates.

Plaster

One fragment, from 1008 (Period 4), was found and had a plain, roughly finished surface on a layer of daub or pink mortar.

Fabrics

Twenty-four fabrics of building material and daub were identified, and descriptions are available in the site archive. They were identified and described with the aid of a x10 hand lens.

In broad terms, the building material can be divided into two fabric groups. One has a high quartz content and fires to a deep red colour, while the other has a high limestone and shell content which leads to a firing colour between white and pink-brown. The latter group accounts for the bulk of the sample and is probably the typical choice of product for the area (Hughes 1935–36: 10). The two distinctive groups of fabrics may indicate that different clay sources or clay mixes were used, possibly at different times. Alternatively, the two types may have been intended for different markets or uses and some bricks may have been manufactured in Huntingdon itself while others came from further afield.

Conclusions

A total of 1.485 kg of Roman ceramic building material suggests that a building or buildings existed in the locality. The combed keying found on the box flue tile is thought to be a later Roman technique (Crowley 1992: 150).

Ceramic building material appears on the site in Period 2. Peg tile is generally thought to have come into use around the thirteenth century (Lewis 1987: 7), and manufacture of brick became widespread in the fourteenth century (Lloyd 1983: 5), so a Period 2 appearance is not surprising.

Most of the ceramic building material derives from the backfill of quarries and pits and is not associated with buildings on the site itself. However, some examples show signs of mortar and of re-use (in the form of mortar along broken edges), indicative of use in a building or buildings. The sample does not show much evidence of being poorly fired or over-fired.

The sample from this site has laid the foundations of a ceramic building material typology for Huntingdon and district.

Human Skeletal Remains

Corinne Duhig¹¹

The material and its recording

The material consists of 23 Phase 2 'skeletons', variously preserved, a box of Phase 1 contexts and two boxes of disturbed and redeposited bone. Most of the bone was broken, some badly shattered, but there was little erosion, and cortices were intact. Some bones are springy and greasy to the touch, indicating considerable collagen present, and a few long bones are spirally fractured, showing that they have been broken whilst in this 'green' state; blackening might be charring or fungal discoloration. The basic methods of recording and analysis used are as found in Bass (1987), Steele & Bramblett (1988) and Ubelaker (1989). Ubelaker's method for dental ageing of immatures varies slightly from European methods, but is used here for convenience, where suggestions as to demography are tentative at best.

In Table 3, the Phase 1 contexts are shown individually and then (after the dotted line) grouped as a minimum number of individuals, because some fragments refit between contexts. At the end of the table (after the second dotted line) the minimum number of individuals is shown for the 'disturbed/redeposited' contexts, which also have some refits. Sex and height is 'not applicable' for immature skeletons; sex is 'not determinable' for many of the adults and height for most of them, and as 1073B cannot be sexed the height is calculated from both the female and the male formulae. Pathological terms are discussed in the text or described in the glossary.

Preservation is coded as: 1, <25%; 2, 25–50%; 3, 50–75%; 4, >75%. In many contexts presence of multiple individuals is shown by duplication of bones, frequently only one or two – for example, the three adults of 1127 are identified from three right femora. In four contexts, however, most of the bones cannot be attributed to any one individual from that context, and this is shown in the notes to Table 3.

Demography

The number of individuals, assuming that the bone from the redeposited contexts is independent of the identifiable graves (i.e. that it derives from other graves from this cemetery that have not been excavated or have been substantially destroyed), is 51, 33 adults and 18 immatures.

If, however, it is assumed that the redeposited bone and 'individuals' represented by four bones or less are part of the more-complete burials analysed here, the number reduces to 24, 18 of which are adults and 6 immature. There are thus 35% or 25% immatures, a not unusual situation for the ancient world or for modern undeveloped countries (average about 30%) (Waldron 1994: 23). Infants – that is, below one year of age – tend to be absent from pre-modern cemeteries (Molleson 1993: 210–14), and here we have a similar pattern, with only one definite infant.

There are five definite females and nine males amongst the adults, a sex ratio of nearly 1:2, which would, if it truly represented the cemetery, require explanation. The number of sexed individuals, however, is so small that the ratio is easily distorted by random effects. If the probable females (4) and males (4) and the one possible female are added the ratio is 1:1.3, which is unsurprising.

Disease

Fortunately, the number of individuals does not affect the prevalences of pathological conditions, as these are determined from the number of appropriate bone-parts present; to facilitate inter-site comparisons (Waldron 1994: 23); the figures for prevalence are shown in parentheses as: number of cases of the disorder/number of relevant bones or bone-parts recovered/percentage. Despite the disturbed nature of much of the material, the size of the sample and good cortical preservation has provided valuable direct and comparable data on the health of one medieval urban group.

Caries increases throughout English populations from the Neolithic to the present day, due to dietary change from abrasive food, which produced severe attrition but scoured away decay patches, to an acid-producing and sticky diet. Dental caries is present in one third of all our preserved dentitions (5/16/31.3%). Brothwell's maximum figure for carious teeth in the medieval period is approximately 25% (Brothwell 1972: Fig. 55), which would be considerably less if affected dentitions rather than individual teeth were used, so our prevalence is relatively high. The prevalence is similar to that of a local Saxon site (30.9% in a population of 148) (Duhig forthcoming), but lower than that of a fifteenth to sixteenth-century monastic graveyard (13/29/44.9%) (Duhig 1994). Only two possible dental abscesses were found. Dental enamel hypoplasia is found in nearly one-third of dentitions (5/16/31.3%), more

than double the local Saxon prevalence and exceeding the quarter affected in the medieval group. The additional fact that half the skulls which had at least one orbit had *cribra orbitalia* (5/10/50.0) suggests that life was particularly hard for this group, with food shortage, parasitism, infections, or any of these in combination; the medieval monastics had less than a third the amount of *cribra*, perhaps because town life was more cramped and insanitary than that of a monastic community (but these two medieval groups are not necessarily even roughly contemporaneous and children — who manifest *cribra* more commonly — are absent from the monastic community, so comparison must be cautious).

More than half the adult spines (10/17/58.8) have Schmorl's nodes, vertebral osteoarthritis or osteophytosis, all resulting from the wear and tear of weight bearing and heavy work (Rogers & Waldron 1995: 33, fig. 4.1), and osteoarthritic changes in other areas of the skeleton in 15% of adults (5/33/15.2; this figure is presented because prevalences by joint are not calculable due to disarticulation). The hip is affected in two cases, the shoulder and knee in one case each and the final case is that of an older man (1073) with osteoarthritis or related changes of sterno-clavicular joint, shoulder, elbow, knee and foot. Waldron finds the shoulder and spine the joints most affected in medieval skeletons, with hand, hip and knee following, and, although the rank order of the areas has not been calculated according to Waldron's method (Waldron 1995), the absence of osteoarthritic change in any hands from this site certainly results from the paucity of small hand bones in the assemblage. Comparable figures for earlier local populations are 85% spinal arthritic disorders and 37% non-spinal among Saxons, 51% and 27% among medieval monastics. Our population appears to have been doing less, or less severe, physical work than the Saxons and even, considering the non-spinal areas of the skeleton, less than the monks, but our inability to age most of the Orchard Lane adults prevents consideration of age effects, which can be significant.

The conditions of platymeria and squatting facets are particularly prevalent at this site (6/19/31.6 and 3/12/25.0), although only one case of platycnemia was present (1/12/8.3). Two cases of platymeria were extremely marked (hyperplatymeria). Whatever activity has produced these changes, it appears to have been widespread in the population, and no clear sex differentiation can be seen, given the large number of unsexed skeletons.

Three bones with pathological changes are of particular interest. Skeleton 1070 has lost the right femoral head at the level of the epiphyseal line, the surface being deeply pitted and covered with new bone. An aseptic necrosis following trauma during the growing period is probable (Ortner & Putschar 1985: 236–8, Figs. 371–4), but tuberculous destruction (tuberculous coxitis) cannot be excluded, although little reparative bone is to be expected in these cases. Unfortunately the greater trochanter is broken, so the extent of the disorder cannot be determined and the second diagnosis cannot be tested; a fragment of the hip socket is present, severely osteoarthritic, which would be the case whatever the cause of the femoral damage. The second case is an axis vertebra, which is cleft horizontally through the body and vertically through the dens, the clefts having smooth edges and the absence of any resorption or new bone formation, showing they are not the result of disease. This developmental anomaly resulting in non-fusion of the elements which make up the mature axis is mentioned by Anderson in his review of disorders of the dens (Anderson 1988: esp. Fig. 5); normally the horizontal cleft is closed by three to four years of age. The third case is an erosion of the *dorsum sellae* which is unlikely to have been produced by infection — because an infection within the skull vault would have been fatal before bone changes appeared — and presumably derives from the pressure of a growing tumour or cerebro-spinal fluid at a raised pressure.

A relationship between the two individuals with *foramen caecum molare* should be considered, because Capasso and Di Tota have determined that the genetic element in its development is nearly 100% (Capasso & Di Tota 1992). However, the bones were recovered from contexts which were c. 20 m apart.

Glossary

Cribræ orbitalia: a 'sieve-like' appearance in the upper eye orbit, caused by iron-deficiency anaemia (from food shortage malabsorption, infection, or bleeding due to internal parasites).

Dens: the peg on the top of the second cervical vertebra, the axis, on which the first cervical vertebra turns to produce rotational movement of the head.

Dental enamel hypoplasia: poorly formed bands of enamel on the teeth indicating starvation or severe illness during the development period.

Dorsum sellae: within the base of the skull is a saddle-shaped depression which, in life, contains the pituitary gland, the *dorsum sellae* ('back of the saddle') being its posterior edge.

Entheses: areas of a bone where ligaments and tendons

Table 3. Human skeletal material

Con- text	Indi- vidual	Sex	Age	Height (cm)	Pathological conditions and anatomical variants	Preser- vation
6	A	N/A	<12	N/A		1
	B	N/D	A	N/D	cribra 1, o/a ribs	1
8		M	35-45	N/D	TMJ disease, dental abscess or cyst, caries	1
13		M	A	N/D		1 bone
19		N/D	A	N/D	Schmorl's nodes	1
21		N/A	imm	N/A		1 bone
27		N/D	A	N/D		1
42	A	N/D	A	N/D		1
	B	N/A	imm	N/A		1
61	A	M	17-25	N/D		1
	B	N/A	15	N/A	foramen cœcum molare	1
.....						
Ph1 MNI	A	M	35-45	N/D	TMJ disease, dental abscess or cyst, caries, Schmorl's	
(skull 8)					nodes (vertebrae might be A or B), o/a ribs	
	B	M	17-25	N/D	cribra 1	
(mandible 61A, frontal 6B)						
	C	N/A	15	N/D	foramen cœcum molare	
(mandible 61B)						
	D	N/A	<12	N/A		
(ilium 6A)						
1045		?M	A	N/D	Schmorl's nodes, infection of tibial head	2ab
1049	A	??F	A	N/D	platymeric, Schmorl's nodes (vertebrae might be A, B or C)	2ab
	B	N/D	A	N/D		2 bones ^b
	C	N/D	A	N/D		1 bone ^b
1069		?M	A	N/D	o/a spine, sternal aperture	2
1070	A	?F	45-49	N/D	necrosis of femoral head	3
	B	N/A	7.5-8	N/D		1 bone
1071	A	?F	17-18	N/D		3
	B	N/D	A	N/D		1 bone
	C	N/D	A	N/D		1 bone
	D	N/A	imm	N/A		1 bone
1072	A	F	23	151	hypoplasia, sternal aperture, septal aperture, platycnemic	4
	B	M	18-23	N/D		1 pelvis
1073	A	M	50+	169	caries, o/a throughout skeleton	4
	B	N/D	A	166/170	lateral squatting facet, tibial exostosis	2 bones
	C	N/A	child	N/A		1 bone
	D	N/A	child	N/A		1 bone
1089		M	45+	N/D	caries, ?abscess, hypoplasia, erosion of dorsum sellae, cribra 1, pitted palate, Schmorl's nodes, hip o/a, hyperplatymeric	3

(and thus, muscles) are attached.

Epiphyseal line: the point at which the ends of a long bone (the epiphyses) fuse to the shaft when growth is completed at the end of adolescence; the gap between shaft and epiphysis is filled with bone-producing cartilage until this time, so allowing the length of the long bone to increase.

Erosion: loss of bone from an area due, for example, to certain infections, neoplasias (benign and malignant cancers) or pressure from an organ or other object.

Exostosis: new bone formed on the surface of a bone (by its surrounding membrane) because of inflammation, infection or other, often indeterminable, cause which increases blood supply to the area; shape and form varies according to cause and time span of development.

Foramen cœcum molare: small pits on the molar tooth

crowns, having a strong genetic component in their development and thus useful for determining relatedness of individuals in a cemetery.

Platycnemia, platymeria and squatting facets: respectively, side-to-side flattening of the tibial shaft, front-to-back flattening of the femoral shaft and small facets on the lower tibia at the ankle; poorly understood but possibly associated with habitual squatting.

Schmorl's nodes: indentations in the vertebral bodies caused by pressure from damaged intervertebral discs due to weight bearing and heavy work (Resnick & Niwayama: 1988).

Septal aperture: hole through the olecranon fossa immediately above the elbow articulation of the humerus; more common in females and persons with slender bones (Saunders 1989).

Shovelling: a distinctive form of front tooth, in which

Table 3 (continued). *Human skeletal material*

Con-text	Individual	Sex	Age	Height (cm)	Pathological conditions and anatomical variants	Preservation
1091		N/A	11y ± 30m	N/A	hypoplasia, cribra 3	4
1096		M	45+	N/D	occipital 'bun', caries, abscesses, o/a spine	2
1100		N/A	18m ± 6m	N/A	cribra 2, new bone at entheses	3
1103		N/D	A	N/D		1
1104	A	F	25-35	163	cribra 4, TMJ disease, caries, hypoplasia, foramen cœcum molare, o/a shoulder, septal aperture, tibial exostosis, lateral squatting facet	4
	B	N/D	A	N/D		1 bone
1105		N/D	A	N/D	Schmorl's nodes, platymeric, o/a knee	1
1106		M	A	174	o/a hip and knee	4 bones
1107	A	N/D	A	N/D		1
	B	N/A	child	N/A		2 bones
1116		?F	25-35	154	maxillary incisor shovelling, absent C7, Schmorl's nodes	2
1123		N/A	7-8	N/A		2
1124		?M	A	N/D		1
1125		N/A	2y ± 8m	N/A		3
1126		N/A	18-24m	N/A		1
1127	A	?M	A	N/D		1 bone ^c
	B	F	A	N/D	platymeric	1 bone ^c
	C	?F	A	N/D	hyperplatymeric	1 bone ^c
	D	N/A	imm	N/A		2 bones
1130	A	F	19-25	162	hypoplasia, Schmorl's nodes	4
	B	N/A	2.5-3.5	N/A		1 bone
	C	N/A	2.5-3.5	N/A		1 bone
.....						
D/R MNI	A	M	17-25	N/D		1 bone ^d
	B	M	A	N/D		1 bone ^d
	C	F	A	N/D		1 bone ^d
	D	N/D	A	N/D		1 bone ^d
	E	N/A	<1y	N/A		2 bones
	F	N/A	5y ± 16m	N/A		1 bone ^e
	G	N/A	older child	N/A		e
	H	N/A	adolescent	N/A		1 bone
A-H					transitional T/L vertebra, o/a spine, Schmorl's node, 'third trochanter', platymeria, infection of tibial shaft, medial and lateral squatting facets	

a refit of bone fragments between 1045 and 1049

b most bones from 1045 and 1049 could belong to any of the four individuals

c most adult bones from 1127 could belong to any of the three adult individuals

d many adult bones from these contexts could belong to any of the the three adult individuals

e many immature bones from these contexts could belong to either of the two immature individuals

the sides of the crown are thicker than the centre, and/or curved inwards, producing the 'shovel' shape; common in certain populations.

Sternal aperture: hole at the midline in the body of the sternum, having some heritable element in its production (Barnes 1994: 223).

TMJ disease: temporo-mandibular joint disease, that is, osteoarthritis of the jaw joint.

Transitional vertebra: a vertebra which partly or fully resembles that of the adjacent type, for example, a vertebra which has rib facets (normal for thoracics) but the form of a lumbar vertebra is called transitional thoracic/lumbar; family groups in some cemeteries have been suggested by the clustering of these conditions, which have some heritable element (Barnes 1994: 14-34).

The Mammal, Bird and Amphibian Bones

Umberto Albarella¹²

Methods

Animal bones were partly hand-collected and partly recovered from bulk samples, wet sieved through a 0.5 mm mesh. They were recovered from contexts of all periods, but only those from Period 1 (900-1150) were considered worthy of study, as severe problems of residuality made the dating of bones from later contexts uncertain.

Table 4. Bones of mammals, birds and amphibians.

	hand-collected	from sieving	total
Cattle (<i>Bos taurus</i>)	24	2	26
Caprine (<i>Ovis/ Capra</i>)	20	2	22
(sheep (<i>Ovis aries</i>))	(5)	(-)	(5)
Pig (<i>Sus scrofa</i>)	15	1	16
Equid (<i>Equidae</i>)	3	-	3
Cat (<i>Felis catus</i>)	-	1	1
Roe deer (<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>)	1	-	1
House/wood mouse (<i>Mus/ Apodemus</i>)	-	1	1
Small rodent (<i>Rodentia</i>)	-	4	4
Mole (<i>Talpa europaea</i>)	-	1	1
Domestic fowl (<i>Gallus gallus</i>)	1	1	2
Amphibian (<i>Amphibia</i>)	-	27	27
(toad (<i>Bufo sp.</i>))	(-)	(2)	(2)
(frog (<i>Rana sp.</i>))	(-)	(8)	(8)
total	64	40	104

The mammal bones were recorded following a modified version of the method described in Davis (1992) and Albarella & Davis (1994). In brief, all teeth and a restricted suite of parts of the skeleton were recorded and used in counts. These were skull (zygomaticus), scapula (glenoid articulation), distal humerus, distal radius, proximal ulna, carpal 2-3, distal metacarpal, pelvis (ischial part of acetabulum), distal femur, distal tibia, calcaneum (sustentaculum), lateral astragalus, naviculocuboid, distal metatarsal, proximal phalanges. At least 50% of a given part had to be present for it to be counted. For birds, the following were always recorded; scapula (articular end), proximal coracoid, distal humerus, proximal ulna, proximal carpometacarpus, distal femur, distal tibiotarsus, distal tarsometatarsus. Horncores with a complete transverse section and 'non-countable' elements of particular interest were recorded, but not included in the counts.

Due to the small size of the assemblages, the number of identified specimens was the only method used for calculating the frequencies of species and parts of the skeleton. The minimum number of individual (MNI) count is not recommended for small assemblages and was thus ignored. Wear stages were recorded for all permanent and deciduous lower fourth premolars (P₄ and dP₄) as well as for the lower molars of cattle, caprines and pig, both isolated and in mandibles. Tooth wear stages follow Grant (1982) for cattle and pig, and Payne (1973; 1987) for caprines. Measurements were taken following the recommendations of Payne & Bull (1988) for pig bones, and von den Driesch (1976) for the other taxa. The few metric and ageing data which could be recorded from this assemblage form part of the archive.

Results

All bones from Period 1 derive from pit fills, with the exception of a few examples from the fill of gully 1098. The preservation of the bone surface was rather uneven, as is typical for pit fills. Gnawing marks caused by carnivores were noticed on 15% of the bones which, together with the absence of any bones in articulation, suggests that the bones were not in a primary deposit and may have lain elsewhere before final deposition.

The list of species found at Orchard Lane is shown in Table 4. The assemblage is typical of urban sites of this period, being dominated by domestic livestock. The presence of a roe deer pelvic fragment suggests that some wild game arrived at the site.

Sieved samples were too small and few to assess the loss of small anatomical elements from the hand-collected assemblage, but they permitted the identification of some smaller species which were not recovered during excavation. In particular, small mammal, amphibian and fish bones were recovered from sieved samples. Mice are typical commensal species and are commonly found in towns. The presence of frog and toad bones is consistent with a river-side environment.

Insufficient data about body parts, age and size was recovered, but it is worth noting that most cattle teeth and bones belong to fully adult animals, although a few immature bones were also found. This is consistent with the type of cattle exploitation expected from this period, namely their primary use as draught animals with the occasional slaughter of calves for veal. A few butchery marks were noted on cattle and sheep bones. These

are all a consequence of dismembering of the carcase, but chop marks at the base of a cattle horncore suggest some interest in horn-working.

The information derived from this assemblage of animal bone is restricted by its small size. However, data relating to disposal practices, use of animals and presence of wild game may stimulate further research into the animal economy of this important Saxon and Norman town.

The Fish Bone

Pippa Smith¹³

Methods

The fish bones were retrieved from samples of Period 1 contexts, wet sieved through a 0.5 mm mesh, thus ensuring excellent retrieval of small elements and species. The bones were identified using a binocular microscope at magnification x10, with magnification x20 used for study of the pharyngeal bone of small Cyprinids. Taphonomic detail such as evidence for digestion was looked for. The size of the specimens was estimated by reference to modern comparative specimens of known size, but due to the small number of bones in this group, and the predominance of vertebrae, it is inappropriate to calculate the minimum number of individuals. Fish were identified to species where possible but only to family level if reliable distinctions could not be made. Thus bones from the head of cyprinids were identified to species but the vertebrae were taken only to family level as further identification is not possible.

Results

Eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) and a number of cyprinids, dace (*Leuciscus leuciscus*), roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) and bream (*Abramis brama*), were all identified. One salmonid vertebra was also present and from its size this is more likely to be from trout (*Salmo trutta*) than salmon (*Salmo salar*). The cyprinids and salmonid are unquestionably freshwater species, whereas eel inhabits both sea and rivers. Eels metamorphose from larvae to elvers in coastal waters and then migrate to fresh water to feed and grow, and it is likely that the eels represented here are at that stage. The eel vertebrae present come from medium sized individuals falling within the range 450 mm to 800 mm predicted by modern specimens.

Although 119 bones were examined, these may represent very few fish. As noted above it is inappropriate to calculate the minimum number of individuals on a small group of fish bones. However, when we consider that eel have 112–117 vertebrae, it can be seen that a group of 86 vertebrae may represent only one specimen.

The specimens represented in the samples are small species or small examples of larger species and would not have provided people with much to eat. Dace and roach are small members of the Cyprinid family, and the bream is consistent in size with small comparative specimens, between 140 and 170 mm in length.

Coy identified a large number of small cyprinids from the Saxon site of Wraysbury, Berkshire and suggests that they may have become trapped after periodic flooding (Coy 1987). However, it is thought unlikely that flooding of the Ouse would have reached the site and no flood deposits were recognised during excavation (Niall Oakey, personal communication). The bones come from sealed pits, including cess pits, but the fact that the number of fish bones was small and that they were recovered from a limited context type may suggest that other fish bone did not survive to be recovered. Cess pits provide a particularly good environment for the survival of small and fragile bone. The predominance of small freshwater fish may reflect the route by which the remains arrived in the pits. Although there was no direct evidence on the bones to indicate that they had passed through the gut, if this was the route into the pit it would explain why large freshwater and sea fish were absent. Alternatively, it may be that these fish were served at table whole and table waste was incorporated into rubbish thrown into the cess pits. The waste from the larger fish may have been deposited elsewhere.

Plant Macrofossils and Invertebrates: Summary

Peter Murphy¹⁴

Methods

Samples from Phases 1 and 2 of the excavation were processed in a bulk sieving and flotation tank, using 0.5 mm collecting meshes. The dried flots and residues were sorted, extracting artefacts, concretions, plant macrofossils, mineral-replaced arthropods, molluscs and bones of fish, amphibians and mammals. After an assessment of all samples, full analysis of those from Period 1 contexts was recommended.

Table 5. Charred and mineral-replaced plant macrofossils, etc.

sample no. context no.	1 19 (20)	2 42 (5)	3 61 (7)	4 8 (9)	5 30 (31)	7 32 (31)	8 127 (33)	9 21 (22)	10 27 (28)
charred plant material									
Cereals									
Indeterminate cereal (ca)	18	19	13	11	27	21	1	6	10
<i>Avena sativa</i> L. (flo)	1								
<i>Avena</i> sp. (ca)			13		2	6		1	4
<i>Hordeum</i> sp.	1	3	1	2	5	4		1	4
<i>Secale cereale</i> L. (ca)	2	3	4	1	9	8			2
<i>Triticum aestivum</i> s.l. (ca)	15	6	4	18	23	8	1	10	15
Pulses									
<i>Vicia/Pisum</i> sp(p)	1					1+1fr			1+1co
Herbs (weeds/grassland plants)									
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L.			2						
<i>Anthemis cotula</i> L.			2						
<i>Avena/Bromus</i> sp.	4	3	2	2	2	2		1	3
<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.					1s (a)				
<i>Brassica</i> sp.			1 c.f.						
<i>Bromus mollis/secalinus</i>	1			2	2	1			
<i>Centaurea</i> sp.					1				
<i>Galium aparine</i> L.		1							
<i>Medicago lupulina</i> -type									
Poaceae indet. (small)									
Polygonaceae indet.			1	1					
<i>Raphanus raphanistrum</i> L.	1								
<i>Rumex</i> sp.				1	1				
<i>Sherardia arvensis</i> L.									
<i>Vicia/Lathyrus</i> sp.				2+1ca					
Wetland taxa									
<i>Cladium mariscus</i> (L.) Pohl									
Trees/shrubs									
<i>Corylus avellana</i> L. (ns.fr.)	x	x	x		x	x			x
Indeterminate seeds etc.				1	1	1			
Vegetative material									
Cyperaceae indet. (st. fr.)									
Poaceae indet. (cn)						1			
Monocot. stem/leaf									
Thorn		x							
mineral-replaced plant material									
Cereals									
<i>Avena</i> sp.									
Fruitstones/seeds									
<i>Malus sylvestris</i> L.									
<i>Prunus</i> cf. <i>domestica</i> s.l.									
<i>Prunus spinosa</i> -type									
<i>Rubus fruticosus</i> agg									
<i>Sambucus nigra</i> L.									
Herbs (grassland/weeds)									
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L.									
Apiaceae cf. <i>Conium maculatum</i> L.									
<i>Centaurea</i> sp.									
Chenopodiaceae indet.			1						
<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i> (L.) A. Love									
<i>Ranunculus</i> sp.									
<i>Rumex</i> sp.									
<i>Stellaria media</i> -type									
Wetland plants									
<i>Eleocharis</i> sp.									
Indeterminate seeds etc.									
Other mineral-replaced material									
Arthropods									
Faecal concretions						1 (b)			
Poaceae indet. (cn)									
Sub-spherical 'nodules'									
Thorn									
Sample volume/wt	3 kg	6 kg	6 kg	6 kg	20 l	10 l	10 l	10 l	10 l

Notes: (a) seed and fruit fragments; (b) including impressions of *Agrostemma* testa.

Table 5 (continued). *Charred and mineral-replaced plant macrofossils, etc.*

sample no. context no.	11 68 (70)	12 71 (31)	13 34 (35)	14 57 (53)	15 153 (160)	16 154 (155)	102 1073	103 1094	104 1093	105 1114
charred plant material										
Cereals										
Indeterminate cereal (ca)	2	8	1	2	1	3	1	2	19	9
<i>Avena sativa</i> L. (flo)										
<i>Avena</i> sp. (ca)		3							20	4
<i>Hordeum</i> sp.	1					1	2		3	1
<i>Secale cereale</i> L. (ca)	1	8				1			5	5
<i>Triticum aestivum</i> s.l. (ca)		6		10	2	8	8	3	12	7
Pulses										
<i>Vicia/Pisum</i> sp(p)										
Herbs (weeds/grassland plants)										
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L.										1
<i>Anthemis cotula</i> L.						1				
<i>Avena/Bromus</i> sp.				1		2				
<i>Beta vulgaris</i> L.										
<i>Brassica</i> sp.										
<i>Bromus mollis/secalinus</i>				1					2	
<i>Centaurea</i> sp.										
<i>Galium aparine</i> L.						1				
<i>Medicago lupulina</i> -type						1				
Poaceae indet. (small)						1				
Polygonaceae indet.										
<i>Raphanus raphanistrum</i> L.		1								
<i>Rumex</i> sp.									1	
<i>Sherardia arvensis</i> L.				1						
<i>Vicia/Lathyrus</i> sp.				1			fr		2co	
Wetland taxa										
<i>Cladium mariscus</i> (L.) Pohl			2							
Trees/shrubs										
<i>Corylus avellana</i> L. (ns.fr.)	x	x		x		x		x	x	
Indeterminate seeds etc.				1	1					1
Vegetative material										
Cyperaceae indet. (st. fr.)					x					
Poaceae indet. (cn)					1					
Monocot. stem/leaf			x							
Thorn										
mineral-replaced plant material										
Cereals										
<i>Avena</i> sp.										1
Fruitstones/seeds										
<i>Malus sylvestris</i> L.									4	7
<i>Prunus</i> cf. <i>domestica</i> s.l.									2	
<i>Prunus spinosa</i> -type									15	2
<i>Rubus fruticosus</i> agg									5	
<i>Sambucus nigra</i> L.									1	1
Herbs (grassland/weeds)										
<i>Agrostemma githago</i> L.									1 c.f.	
Apiaceae cf. <i>Conium maculatum</i> L.									7	1
<i>Centaurea</i> sp.									1 c.f.	
Chenopodiaceae indet.									4	
<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i> (L.) A. Love										1
<i>Ranunculus</i> sp.									1 c.f.	
<i>Rumex</i> sp.										2
<i>Stellaria media</i> -type									1 c.f.	
Wetland plants										
<i>Eleocharis</i> sp.									1	
Indeterminate seeds etc.									26	6
Other mineral-replaced material										
Arthropods									xxx	x
Faecal concretions									xxx	x
Poaceae indet. (cn)									4	
Sub-spherical 'nodules'									x	x
Thorn									1	
Sample volume/wt	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101

Table 6. Marine molluscs.

sample no. context no.	1 19 (20)	2 42 (5)	3 61 (7)	4 8 (9)	5 30 (31)	9 21 (22)	10 27 (28)	11 68 (70)
<i>Cerastoderma</i> sp.								
<i>Cerastoderma edule</i> L.								
<i>Mytilus edulis</i> L.	x	x	1	x	x	x	1	1
<i>Ostrea edulis</i> L.						1		
<i>Littorina</i> sp.								
Gastropod whorl fragments								
sample volume/wt.	3 kg	6 kg	6 kg	6 kg	20 l	10 l	10 l	10 l

Notes: x = non-hinge or non-apical fragments.

Results

Plant macrofossils

Charred cereal grains were present in most samples, but in small quantities. Preservation was, in general, poor: most grains had porous and abraded surfaces. There was a high proportion of unidentifiable fragments. Several samples included slag-like fused siliceous concretions and globules, formed from silica-containing plant material burnt at high temperatures.

Wheat grains (*Triticum aestivum* s. l.) predominated and were of a form characteristic of early medieval contexts. Grains of barley (*Hordeum* sp.), rye (*Secale cereale*) and oats (*Avena* sp.) were also recovered. A single floret base of *Avena sativa* was identified. No other chaff fragments were noted, although there were some large Poaceae culm nodes, possibly cereal straw. Preservation of pulse seeds and cotyledon fragments was poor but there were probable examples of pea (*Pisum sativum*), with large-seeded vetches (e.g. *Vicia sativa*) or small horsebeans (*Vicia faba* var. *minor*) possibly also represented. Charred fragments of hazel-nut shell (*Corylus avellana*) were frequent.

The samples also included small numbers of charred seeds of weeds and grassland plants, mainly segetals which are commonly associated with medieval cereal crops. A record of *Beta vulgaris* (beet) is more unusual, having hitherto only been reported in East Anglia from medieval deposits at Fishergate, Norwich (Murphy 1985). The charred material from Orchard Lane comprised a seed and fruit fragments, so it could represent either cultivated beet (ssp. *vulgaris*) or the wild sea beet (ssp. *maritima*). The latter is perhaps more probable and, if so, would represent an accidental import from a coastal area.

Context 34 included fruits of saw-sedge (*Cladium mariscus*) associated with unidentified monocotyledonous stem and leaf. This material could be derived either from sedge peat, imported as fuel, or from thatching material.

In view of the generally poor preservation of grains, the absence of cereal chaff could be a result of differential preservation during charring. However, there is no evidence for on-site crop processing and no reason to think that the charred assemblages represent anything other than domestic consumption of foodstuffs and use of other plant materials.

Context 32 included fragments of phosphatic concretions with impressions of testas of corn cockle (*Agrostemma githago*), but mineral-replaced plant material was most common in the pit fills 1093 and 1114. Macrofossils of edible fruits included internal casts of *Prunus* fruit-stones (probably *Prunus spinosa*, sloe, and *P. domestica* s.l., plum/bullace), internal casts probably of bramble (*Rubus fruticosus*), seeds of apple (*Malus sylvestris*) and elder (*Sambucus nigra*). A single mineral-replaced oat grain came from 1114. Identification of small seeds and fruits of wild taxa proved difficult, but weeds, grassland and wetland plants were represented. Both samples indicate use of these pits for disposal of human sewage, together with other types of refuse.

Arthropods

Mineral-replaced arthropod remains were abundant in the latrine pit fills (1093, 1114), mostly comprising fly puparia with occasional Isopods (wood-lice). Other remains were undoubtedly recent contaminants.

Molluscs

Shells of terrestrial and freshwater snails occurred in small numbers, but there were some obvious modern contaminants. Consequently full quantification of these species was not undertaken.

Marine mollusc shell was thought less likely to include intrusive material, for there was no significant domestic activity on the site after Period 1. *Mytilus edulis* (mussel), represented mainly by non-hinge fragments, was most frequent, but cockle (including *Cerastoderma edule*) and oyster (*Ostrea edulis*) were also represented. The intact valves and shells included

Table 6 (continued). *Marine molluscs.*

sample no. context no.	13 34 (35)	14 57 (53)	15 53 (160)	16 54 (155)	102 1073	103 1094	104 1093
<i>Cerastoderma</i> sp.				x		x	2*
<i>Cerastoderma edule</i> L.							1
<i>Mytilus edulis</i> L.	x	x	x	x	8	5	31
<i>Ostrea edulis</i> L.	x				1		
<i>Littorina</i> sp.		1					
Gastropod whorl fragments						x	
sample volume/wt.	101	101	101	101	101	101	101

Notes: x = non-hinge or non-apical fragments; * = paired articulating valves.

a high proportion of very immature specimens. This might indicate that the shell from the site was not simply domestic food refuse for very small shellfish are not, practically speaking, edible. The small shells may represent unsaleable material separated by riddling from a shellfish catch shipped up-river.

Scraps of avian eggshell were noted in some contexts.

Discussion

The Orchard Lane site and the topography of Huntingdon

A limited amount of pottery and building material suggested activity nearby in the Romano-British period, supporting previous evidence for a minor settlement lining Ermine Street as it ran north from the Roman bridgehead.

Period 1 included pits and other evidence of domestic activity in Saxo-Norman times (AD 900–1150). This indicates that by this time the settlement had spread along streets or lanes running off the High Street towards the putative northern boundary or defences of Huntingdon (Figure 2). The location of rubbish and cess pits at Orchard Lane may point to an additional focus of settlement along the waterfront. Unfortunately, the pottery is incapable of more precise dating than a broad range of several centuries, and so it is impossible to identify when occupation began on the site or whether the truncated remains represent multiple phases of activity.

The problem recurs when attempts are made to date the change of use from domestic activity to burial (Period 2). The pottery assemblage indicates that the cemetery was in use until the fourteenth century, but it is impossible to tell whether it was established before or after the Norman Conquest. No church structure or architectural fragments that might have helped with dating were found on site and the documentary evidence is not helpful.

The circumstances of the establishment of a cemetery upon the site can be explained in one of two ways; either it represented an extension of an existing burial ground or churchyard, or it was part of a newly created church and yard. It is probable that at least 75% of the churches in a flourishing pre-Conquest town such as Huntingdon were established before the end of the eleventh century, especially in a location so close to the centre of the settlement (Morris 1989: 169). Archaeological excavation of urban churches seldom reveals evidence of earlier domestic activity pre-dating the medieval church foundation; St Mary-le-Port, Bristol being a rare exception (Watts & Rahtz 1985: 192). However, houses and early churches in late ninth and tenth century towns are usually concentrated along the main thoroughfare and around the market place (Morris 1989: 192, 204). The Orchard Lane cemetery may be associated with a new church founded to serve an expanding population and, if a date of establishment could be determined, it might indicate the period at which Huntingdon began to outgrow its ‘spinal’ phase. Increased prosperity and population in this locale may have followed from the movement of the bridge nearer to the Orchard Lane site, but, again, it is difficult to specify whether this took place before or at the time of the construction of the Norman castle.

Most churches in pre-Conquest towns were founded by laypeople (Morris 1989: 171), and the stimulus for the establishment of the cemetery may have been the conversion of a private chapel into a parish church. A church in this location may have had extra prestige as it would have been visible to everyone crossing the river from the south, acting as a visual balance to the castle.

The cemetery (and, presumably, any associated church) was not used after the fourteenth century, reflecting a trend in pre-Conquest towns, which experienced ecclesiastical overcrowding in the later medieval period. This occurred in cities such as York, Lincoln and Norwich, but was also common in smaller towns

more comparable to Huntingdon, such as Thetford and Wallingford (Morris 1989: 335).

In the larger, more prosperous settlements the disused churchyards disappeared under secular buildings,¹⁵ and this, presumably, has been the case with many of Huntingdon's churches. However, the cessation of burials at Orchard Lane in the late medieval period and the subsequent history of the site as open ground indicates little demand for building land and suggests that this site had become peripheral to the settlement despite being only 70 m from the High Street. This reflects Huntingdon's documented problems in the late medieval period and the subsequent failure to fully recover.

Although predominantly used for cultivation or open storage (Periods 4 and 5), the site did experience a short-lived quarrying episode (Period 3) in the sixteenth or seventeenth century. The pits and quarries were restricted to the Orchard Lane frontage and penetrated and extracted the natural clays and sands before almost immediate backfilling. The quarried material may have been used to make bricks, possibly for only one building, but there was no evidence on site for this process. The dumping of hot bricks into the quarries remains intriguing, but may be associated with demolition of buildings damaged in the Civil War.

The commercial profit derived from the quarrying overcame any feelings of respect or superstition concerning the burials. The previous use of the site as a Christian cemetery may have been forgotten, but skeletons were certainly encountered, disturbed and redeposited with little evidence of any concern for the human remains.

Huntingdon and its hinterland

The evidence for the relationship between Huntingdon and its hinterland is largely restricted to Period 1 and, unsurprisingly, depicts a town relying on the surrounding countryside to supply its food. Domestic livestock such as cattle and sheep were probably raised nearby, while pig and domestic fowl could have been raised in backyards within the town. There was insufficient evidence to comment meaningfully on butchery patterns or age structures, except to say that both mature cattle and calves were being consumed. A piece of cattle horncore showed signs of having been worked.

The presence of roe deer suggests that hunting was used to supplement meat supplies, while the freshwater fish specimens indicate exploitation of the Ouse or the nearby Fens as a food source. The small species or small examples of larger species which make up the corpus

of fish bones may represent discarded specimens from a catch made with nets or traps.

The cereal grains recovered from the site are assumed to come from cultivation within a short distance of Huntingdon, but the plums, apples, elder and hazel-nut also found may have been grown within the town limits.

Remains of peat for either fuel or thatching probably derive from the nearby Fens, but the marine molluscs have certainly come a longer distance. The nearest source and point of access to the sea is the Wash, down the Ouse. The presence of discarded immature shellfish suggests that catches were being imported into Huntingdon in bulk and not sorted until they reached the town.

Although studies of the local ceramic industry and its markets are in their infancy, most of the pottery recovered from the site derives from production within a 15–20 mile radius of Huntingdon and is dominated by St Neots types. The major exception are Thetford-type wares imported from Norfolk, which may have fulfilled a specialist function as pitchers.

Huntingdon as an archaeological resource

The Orchard Lane site has proved that good archaeological sequences survive in Huntingdon with useful artefactual and ecofactual databases. Incidentally, it has also indicated the quality of information that may have been lost during development over the last four decades.

It is an archaeological truism that each excavation poses as many questions as it answers, and a number of topics for future archaeological research in Huntingdon have been highlighted by this piece of work. These include investigations into the extent, density and character of the town in the late Saxon and early Norman period; the establishment of the parochial system and how it reflected population growth or other factors; the extent of late medieval depopulation and economic depression as evidenced by declining pressures on land; and the effect on the town of the Civil War and the subsequent economic recovery in the later seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Little is known of the relationship of the town to the River Ouse and the degree to which it was exploited and served as a trade artery. The potential of Huntingdon's waterfront as a location of preserved wooden structures and artefacts of organic materials has not been explored. As these more general considerations become better understood they will provide a context within which to address more specific issues such as the impact of the construction of the

castle; the date and effect of the movement of the bridging point; the location and nature of the town boundaries, including whether they ever fulfilled a defensive function; whether the built-up area of the town ever completely filled the area defined by the postulated boundary; and whether the hospitals, friary and other medieval religious establishments were built on sites previously occupied by houses. At the moment it is difficult to provide very precise dates for the pottery recovered from Orchard Lane and further excavation of datable groups of ceramics from Huntingdon or other settlements in the mid-Anglia or East Midlands area is necessary for a more tightly dated sequence.

More topics for research could be listed, but it is already apparent that future development within the historic core of Huntingdon is likely to have an impact upon archaeological deposits vital for understanding and presenting the history of the town. The Orchard Lane excavation can be regarded as a sample of the wider archaeological site represented by Huntingdon as a whole, and this report is offered as a preliminary statement upon which further research should build. Huntingdon is representative of a class of settlement, the smaller county towns, that have not benefitted from adequate archaeological attention in the past. It has sufficient importance and potential in itself to justify a structured appraisal of its archaeology and, where possible, this process should include the preparation and full publication of the results of excavations that took place between 1960 and 1990.

Acknowledgements

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The project was managed on behalf of the Archaeological Field Unit of Cambridgeshire County Council by Paul Spoerry and the excavation was directed by Niall Oakey.¹⁶ Phase 1 was carried out by Scott Kenney, who also assisted with Phase 2 and the initial post-excavation analysis. Many archaeological assistants and volunteers worked on the excavation and

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The staff of the County Record Office at Huntingdon provided help with the documentary background to the site and various staff at the Cambridgeshire County Council SMR also provided information.

Endnotes

- ¹ Earle & Plummer 1892: 101–2 (dated there 921, actually 917 according to more recent studies).
- ² Walden Road and its continuation to the north are recent alignments.
- ³ A summary of the excavations at Mill Common between 1967 and 1969 are retained by the Cambridgeshire SMR, together with notes on the other excavations. Location of the records and artefacts from these excavations and their eventual publication should be seen as a priority for a fuller understanding of Huntingdon's past.
- ⁴ Huntingdon Record Office (hereafter *HRO*) H26–Acc 926 and 3991/1, published as Dickinson 1972.
- ⁵ *HRO* M 58/3, Hagable assessment for Huntingdon Borough, 1598.
- ⁶ *HRO* SM 11/71, Plan of the Hospital lands in Huntingdon, 1752.
- ⁷ *HRO* 2196/27 I, Huntingdon St Mary tithe map, 1850.
- ⁸ Much of this late pottery was not retained, but its presence was noted in the site records.
- ⁹ Archaeological Field Unit, Cambridgeshire County Council, Fulbourn Community Centre, Haggis Gap, Fulbourn, Cambridge. A fuller report and database forms part of the site archive.
- ¹⁰ Brick and Tile Services, 63 Wilton Rise, York. A fuller report, database and reference collection form part of the site archive.
- ¹¹ 109 Sturton Street, Cambridge.
- ¹² Department of Ancient History and Archaeology, University of Birmingham. A fuller report and database is available in the site archive.
- ¹³ Wessex Archaeology, Portway House, Old Sarum Park, Salisbury. A fuller version of the report and database is available in the site archive.
- ¹⁴ Centre of East Anglian Studies, University of East Anglia, Norwich. A fuller version will be published in the Ancient Monuments Laboratory Report series.
- ¹⁵ An example is the churchyard of St Benets, York (Pearson 1990: 7).
- ¹⁶ Wessex Archaeology, Portway House, Old Sarum Park, Salisbury.

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