In order to realize the style and character of the buildings which existed in Britain during the Roman occupation, we must have recourse not only to the writings of the contemporary Latin authors, but also to the descriptions of the numerous vestigia of cities, villas and encampments, which have been from time to time discovered in our island.

We are informed by Tacitus* that in thirty years after the landing of Cæsar, the Britons had acquired the art of building as practised by the Romans, which was very similar to that adopted in Italy; and from this period till about the middle of the fourth century, all the arts connected with Architecture flourished in our island. Each Roman colony and free city became in fact a little Rome, surrounded by strong walls, and adorned with temples, palaces, courts, halls, basilicas, baths, markets, and other public buildings. The towns were connected by well-made roads, along the sides of which the wealthy Romans erected their villas, some of them being of great magnificence, adorned both with statuary and painting. So rapidly did the knowledge of Architecture spread in Britain that as early as 296 A.D., when Constantius rebuilt the

* Tacit. vita Agric. c. 21.
the city of Autun, in Gaul, he was furnished with workmen from this island, which Eumenius* says abounded with the best artificers, and it is well known that Constantine drafted off crowds of British workmen when he built his new capital on the shore of the Bosphorus.

We may suppose that the Romans, in founding towns and cities in their colonies, observed similar ceremonies to those practised in Italy. Plutarch† gives an account of the founding of Rome, which, with some slight variations, would in all probability apply to the Roman cities in Britain. He says they first dug a trench and threw into it the earliest fruits of all things, and each man took a small turf of the country whence he came and cast it into the trench; with this as a centre they described the city around it; then the founder, with a brazen ploughshare and a yoke of bullocks, drew a deep furrow upon this bounding line, those who followed being particular that all the clods of turf fell inwards towards the centre: upon the line so described they built the enclosure wall of the city. From the remains of such walls in Britain we find that they varied in height from fifteen to thirty feet, and in thickness from nine to fifteen or sixteen feet. Some of these walls had circular towers on the angles, (or bevilled, as at Isurium, where the walls were of solid work sixteen feet thick,) added after the square corners had been finished, and not built as integral parts of the structure—as we find them in our mediaeval city walls. The same method was adopted in the square towers standing at intervals along the faces of the Roman walls; these latter towers were built solid, to a height of about eight feet from their foundations, and hollow above, but tied into the main wall only at their summits. The construction of the walls is totally different from our present manner of building; in South Britain it

* Eumenii panegyr 8. † Plutarch in Romul.
consisted of an inner and an outer facing of coursed work, with rows of tiles at intervals in the height to serve as ties; these parallel facings were filled in with concrete. We should here remark that in Roman walls north of Isurium few tiles appear, the exterior surfaces were roughly scabbled or hammer-dressed, and sometimes worked into chevrons and other patterns by means of channeling or grooving; mason's marks, as in mediæval work, have been found upon the Roman masonry; the stones were slightly wedge-shaped, radiating inwards; for the purpose of giving a better key to the mortar, the Roman city walls were frequently battered on their vertical section. What impresses one most forcibly in examining the remains of the Roman masonry in Britain is the peculiar mosaic-looking squareness of the blocks, in this respect so unlike the laminated character of middle age work; and to correct the absence of bond resulting from the use of this description of masonry, the Roman builders had recourse to the use of tiles or bricks.

At Richborough the first bonding course occurs at the height of five feet from the footings of the wall, and is repeated upwards at intervals of three feet three inches or four feet three inches, but no fixed rule can be established respecting the distance from one such course to another. The inner and outer facings were first built to a certain height in a compact manner, and then the interspaces were filled in with a concretionary mass. The mortar used was composed principally of lime, sand, gravel, broken tiles and pebbles; when the walls had to be carried to a considerable height, the greatest pains were bestowed upon the footings, which were frequently composed of flags from two to four inches in thickness, and eighteen to twenty inches in breadth; they were placed under the outer and inner facings of the wall, and projected several inches beyond them. The lower courses of the facings were usually of a hard whin stone, and worked
to larger dimensions than the stones of the general superstructure, they also stood out slightly in advance of it. The excavations were from a foot to eighteen inches deep. Where the above-mentioned flags were not used, we find broad oak planking, two inches thick, serving a similar purpose. The stone used for walling was generally from neighbouring quarries, but at Richborough stone has been found which is supposed to have been brought from France.

Through the massive enclosure walls, such as we have described, were huge gateways leading into the Romano-British city, which were guarded by strong towers. At Borcovicus the portals were double, each having a wooden gate in two leaves bound with iron, which moved upon metal pivots; these gates closed upon an upright stone standard of colossal dimensions. The areas of the cities varied. The enclosure walls of Uriconium, which we purpose taking as a representative Romano-British city, are supposed to have been three miles in circumference. The streets within the walls were usually narrow, like those of our walled towns of the middle ages, paved with boulders in the centre, the sides being often unpaved, but having hewn stone gutters beside the footpaths. The streets had large sewers underneath them, as at Uriconium, with pipes to conduct the sewage from the houses into them.

On examining the remains of Roman cities in Britain, it is often very difficult to fix the precise nature and appropriation of the various buildings, excepting in cases where inscriptions, or tombs, or altars have been discovered in situ. The writings of Vitruvius, although considered to be of the highest authority respecting the building arts of the Romans, throw but a faint glimmer of light upon the remains of the towns, villages and country residences belonging to this period that have been found in Britain. The rules given by Vitruvius for the planning of the Roman villa in particular will be
found to have been violated, in almost every instance, when we come to examine such ground plans of this description of building as can be traced.

The writers upon the city of Uriconium describe the remains of the basilicae and of the baths; but much that has been advanced by antiquaries respecting such matters must be taken *cum grano salis*, and until a larger surface shall have been cleared, and the foundations of the buildings laid bare, we must look upon these matters as more or less hypothetical; for example, the fact of the so-called baths having been baths in reality is to us at least somewhat doubtful. The mere existence of hypocausts and caldrons, or heat-conducting flues, fails to furnish any real evidence; the only deductions from such remains being that these tile flues must have formed part of the appliances for warming or heating certain apartments above them; but whether these apartments belonged to baths, or houses, or shops, or granaries, must remain open to conjecture. There is one peculiarity respecting some of the so-called baths which is somewhat puzzling, namely, that no evidences of the existence of doorways leading into them from the streets, courts or corridors, have as yet been discovered in their walls, which are standing in some instances to the height of from two to three feet above the general level of these approaches; the walls are two feet six inches in thickness, with the putlog holes, still running through them. The absence of entrances would certainly lead us to the conclusion that the so-called baths were in fact nothing more than huge vats or cisterns, the receptacles for some such produce as grain, which might be thrown in from the top and removed again by throwing it out overhead, as in emptying a cargo of corn from a ship's hold; thus we might reasonably infer, from the absence of doorways and the rude character of the masonry, that the buildings to which these hypocausts belonged were simply
the granaries of Uriconium, built to contain the Roman tithe corn of a large surrounding agricultural district; and the fact of a quantity of wheat, charred and blackened, having been discovered in or near these hypocausts strengthens this opinion. We find that in the Roman colonies a law obtained, * compelling the farmers to bring a certain fixed quantity of corn to the tithing stations, which were established by the officers of the imperial treasury for the purpose of housing such produce, prior to its shipment from Britain, whence it was transported either to Rome or to other colonial stations on the Continent. Britain, in the time of the Romans, was pre-eminently a corn-producing country, whence large quantities were annually exported to Germany and the Rhine.

The peculiar nature of the excavated portion of Uriconium, the absence of doorways to the so-called baths, as we have seen, the finding of grain in the hypocausts, the rude character of the supports to the flooring (unlike the neatly-worked stone pillars which have been found at Deva and at other well-known Romano-British stations, in the hypocausts underneath the baths), and the general rustic character of the whole masonry, with its unfilled putlog holes, having led us to suppose these chambers to have been vats for drying grain, which had been brought into the tithing house, probably in a damp or mildewed state, the result of badly-gathered harvests, or injuries from the weather in its transit thither from great distances,—we proceeded to ascertain whether the derivation of the name Uriconium might not bear upon the question in some manner, and on turning to the best Latin authorities † we find the word urica to mean injury to corn from caterpillars developed in the grain by damp or mildew, and that onus bore the significance of a tax. Now by dropping the final a in urica

† Plin., l. 18, c. 44, et l. 11, c. 37. Columella, l. 9, c. 3.
and changing *onus* into *onium*, we have at once the word Uriconium; and without straining the meaning of the name, we may take it to signify a place for *drying the tithed corn injured by damp*.

In Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary we find the word *urica* thus translated,—"a hurt coming to all manner of grain by "too much moisture," that is, in such a state as to require to be placed in a kiln in order to parch it and prepare it for grinding in the quern, carried about by the Roman soldiers.

The word *urica* is frequently spelt by the classical authors "*eruca*,"* and if we take this rendering of the word, it will be found to approximate closely in sound to the first part of the Saxon name for Uriconium, that is Wroxester, by contraction Wroxeter. We may suppose that on the departure of the Romans and the removal of their taxes on corn, the Saxons would drop the final *onium*, signifying a tax; but as they would still use the hypocausts for drying their own corn, the name of the place might take the form Eruccester, from "*eruca*" and "*castra*," by contraction this word Eruccester would become Eruxeter, or, dropping the initial e (scarcely sounded), Wroxeter. In this manner some worse etymological theories have been made; the present one was suggested entirely by the physical aspects of the place.

The supports of the hypocausts which have been discovered at Uriconium, and the absence of high art, lead us to the conclusion that this city was one of much less importance than Deva and the other Romano-British stations, where objects have been found of a much more artistic type. The *débris* of Wroxeter is, however, especially interesting to the architectural archaeologist, as amongst it are found the remains of building materials in considerable variety, such as bricks, tessellae, flue tiles, flooring tiles, and roof-

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* Plin., l. xviii, c. 44; Columella, l. xi, c. 3.
ing tiles, with the nails by which the latter were fastened to the battens of the roof, large quantities of masonry, with some little moulded and ornamental stone work, as well as specimens of the Roman grout, mortar, and cement. The accumulation of soil for ages over the site of Uriconium has caused these interesting relics to be preserved to us in almost as fresh a condition as they were when the city was overwhelmed by the barbarians, after the departure of the Romans.

The remains of Aldborough and other Romano-British cities in the North, shew the streets to have been narrow, and the buildings poor, small, and closely packed together, with narrow alleys or wynds running between them, similar to those that we find in our mediaeval cities, caused in the latter case, and probably also in the former, by the circumscribing lines of their great enclosure walls, preventing a more ample distribution of building sites. And this would seem to have been the case at Uriconium, one of these narrow alleys is seen running up between two buildings, to the left as you enter the city; this, however, may have arisen from another cause, if we may credit one of the Roman historians,* who informs us that the Romans imposed taxes in all the provinces of the empire, not only upon houses, pillars, hearths, etc., but also on the very air itself. The courtyards were paved with bricks three inches long by one inch broad, set herring-bone fashion, the centre of the streets were paved with boulders, somewhat like our roads before the invention of macadam. The walls of the Roman houses in Britain seem to have been three feet in thickness, faced with masonry, which formed a frame for a rough concretionary rubble filling-in, like the city walls; the divisions between two rooms being often as much as three feet in thickness. The properties of bond of Gothic masonry appear not to have been understood by the

* Petrus Burmannus de Vectigal Pop. Rom., c. ii.
Romans, and even where we find bonding bricks used in Roman work, they do not run through the full thickness of the walls, which latter were plastered over and then painted in fresco, both inside and out, the colours used being various, but red with gaudy stripes of yellow predominating. It is quite certain that the houses of Uriconium were only built to the height of one story above the ground level. No staircases have been discovered. The fact of pieces of window glass, one-eighth of an inch in thickness, having been found at this place, has given rise to the idea that the buildings were lighted, not precisely in the Roman fashion, by a space in the roofs open to the air, above the central court, called the compluvium, but by windows or skylights, and it is certainly probable that in this northern climate, the practical sense of the Romans would suggest to them the convenience resulting from such a mode of covering over the area used for the admission of light. The roofs were covered with micaceous slabs, of hexagonal shape, which must have presented a glittering appearance in the sun: in fact these, and the red and yellow striped walls, would impart to the Romano-British city quite a polychromatic effect. The floors of the hypocausts were tesselated, and laid upon a laminated bed of tiles and mortar, forming a close and compact horizontal mass, which was supported by rows of stone or brick piers, built up singly, and about three feet in height. From Mr. T. Wright's interesting work, The Celt, the Roman, and the Saxon, we extract the following description of the Romano-British pavements, and we would here acknowledge our indebtedness to him for much valuable information respecting this period. "The Roman pavements were formed of a number of small tesserae or cubes, set into a fine cement, arranged in patterns in the manner of Berlin wool work; the cubes being of different sizes gave the artist more freedom and scope in his designs. The cubes were of different substances, and
colours, and shades, of stone, terra-cotta, and glass. At Cirencester, a pavement was found, in which the colours are very striking, and of local substances. White was produced by cubes of chalk, used sparingly, being soft, and only where high relief was required. Freestone of Cirencester gave a cream-colour, and having been submitted to heat gave gray. Yellow was furnished by the oolite of the gravel drift of the district. The old red sandstone from Hereford produced chocolate; and slate colour was obtained by the use of the limestone bands of the lower lias of the vale of Gloucester. Light red, dark red, and black, were produced by terra cotta, and transparent ruby by glass, the whole surface was polished on being properly set. The floors, which were not laid over hypocausts, were laid upon a carefully prepared substratum of rubble and concrete, and a fine bed of burnt clay and lime. The light stone used in the Wroxeter floors is the Palombino of the Italian mediæval mosaics. Various mottoes were introduced in the floors of vestibules and entrances, such as 'cave canem;' 'salve;' &c. At Saltzburg, a Roman tesselated pavement bears the owner's name, and the words, nihil intret mali, 'May nothing evil enter here.' Mr. Maw, of Brosely, an excellent authority on such matters, expresses an opinion that the Wroxeter pavements are not by any means highly artistic.

No wall paintings of an historical character, as at Pompeii, have been found here, nor would the common-place nature of the objects exhumed lead us to expect such at Uriconium. My friend, Mr. H. Ecroyd Smith, reminds me that a curious wall mosaic was here found, bearing an inscription now unfortunately destroyed.

The name and number of the legions have been found stamped on the Roman roof tiles at Caerleon, Mancunium, and other stations, but not at Uriconium. Nor is the latter
place mentioned in the Itineraries, as being a station for military; we are, therefore, surprised at the number of sepulchral monuments discovered in the Roman cemetery near Uriconium, inscribed to the memory of soldiers or military persons of different legions. There is one which commemorates a soldier of the fourteenth legion, which was finally withdrawn from Britain in 69 A.D. It would appear that the Roman legions stationed in Britain were not composed entirely of natives of Italy, but comprised Dalmatians, Crispians, Cilicians, Tortentians from Asiatic Sarmatia, and natives of almost every country of Europe; if such be the fact, can we wonder at the mixture of styles which we find in the early architecture of Britain? In the banded baluster-like columns of the so-called Saxon period, which may, however, have been late Roman, as well as in the general ornamentation of the same period, do we not detect the evidences of an Eastern origin?

It is supposed by antiquaries that the ordinary Romano-British buildings were frequently of timber, upon a stone basement rising from two to three feet above the ground, a method of building still practised in the Sussex villages, near Penvensey, the Anderida of the Romans. The floors of the villas and better houses were supported, as we have seen, upon rows of stone pillars, or tile-piers, or sleeper-walls, these formed the hypocausts, (literally fire beneath, the Roman method of heating a house,) sometimes only half an apartment was so heated, the other half of the floor resting on solid ground, and when only a certain amount of heat was needed this mode of construction would doubtless prove more economical. In laying the floors, a layer of large flat tiles, or flags, in one or two thicknesses, was placed upon the tops of the columns, or walls of the hypocaust, six inches of concrete was then laid upon these, and in this concrete the pavement of the floors was set. Ordinary pavements were
made of tesserae of brick, two inches square; sometimes a floor composed merely of flags was laid over the mass of concrete. The end of the largest hypocaust at Uriconium was semi-circular, and coloured red and yellow imperishably upon the plaster before it dried. The walls here and there shew signs of having been tesselated in rude guilloches and other patterns. Some of the apartments in the Roman houses were simply heated from beneath through the floors, but caleducts, or hot air flues, ran up the walls of others; the tiles used for these flues may be still seen in large quantities. They present a smoothly vitrified face in front, but are roughed at the back to ensure their perfect adhesion to the plaster of the walls. One apartment at Uriconium shews signs of a great number of such flues, and is on that account supposed to have been the Sudatorium, or sweating-room. Under one of the floors there must have been as many as one hundred and twenty supporting brick pillars.

The city of Rome, under Romulus, was of brick; under Camillus, of squared stone; under Cæsar, of marble.* Most of the Romano-British cities appear to have passed through the first two stages of progress, but never to have reached the third; and the miliarium found at Uriconium certainly can lay no claim to being a miliarium aureum, such as the one erected by Augustus Cæsar, in the Roman Forum, where all the highways of Italy met.† The public buildings were equally inferior to those of the Imperial metropolis, the walls of the former, as we have seen, being embellished with painted plaster, those of the latter with costly marbles, and their roofs covered with burnished brass.‡ Nerva’s arch, in Rome, was vulgarly called Noah’s ark,§ and the buildings at Uriconium, being mainly devoted, as we have suggested, to agricultural

purposes, might not inappropriately be called by the same name, in comparison with those of Rome.

As before stated, Antiquaries are of opinion that the public Baths, the Basilicæ, and the Forum were grouped together (as at Pompeii and other Roman cities) upon the part of the city of Uriconium which has been excavated, and that a Latrina can also be here traced. In proceeding with some excavations a few months since, an apartment thirty-four feet long by thirty-two feet wide was opened up. Several coins of the period of Hadrian, Trajan, and Constantine were found, also the end of the hilt of a sword in bronze representing a lion's head, a fibula, and fragments of a so-called Samian wine bowl, ornamented with curious figures in relief, many hair pins and cock's legs have likewise been collected, which with the other matters have been deposited in the Shrewsbury museum.

The Romans supplied their colonial towns with excellent water, laid on in pipes, and brought to fountains or conduits, from which the people carried it to their houses. At Ilkley, in Yorkshire, a fine arched Roman water tunnel was opened some years ago; it was of squared masonry and appeared to be very well built. As far as our memory will serve, it was about three feet six inches in diameter, and ran along the main street, and we believe it was then used as a source of water supply by the inhabitants. In these matters of police the Romans appear to have been very far advanced, a fact which the remains of their gigantic sewers and aqueducts have served to establish.

The accumulation of blackened soil over the entire area of Uriconium, in places to the depth of several feet, proves that the city must have been destroyed by burning. The depth of this accumulation seems at first sight strange; but if we examine the views of some of our Abbeys and other middle-age remains, taken only a hundred years ago, (Wenlock
Abbey, for example, as depicted in Grose's Antiquities,) or if we walk round some of our own old village churches, that have remained untouched for even one century, we shall find how rapidly the soil accumulates around such places, and year by year raises the levels, until the capital takes the place of the base, and the second story becomes in reality the first above ground. So at Wroxeter the earth has covered over the deserted city, and restored to the art of the husbandman what was first severed from him by the Roman ploughshare.

As a further illustration of the rapid accumulation of soil around old buildings, we may quote from Fabricius, who states that the temple of Marcus Agrippa, sometimes called the Pantheon Rotunda, was standing in his day with little alteration besides the loss of the old ornaments, "the most "remarkable difference being, that whereas heretofore they "ascended by twelve steps, they now go down as many to the "entrance."*

Having now completed our sketch of the civic architecture of Uriconium, we will proceed to consider that which relates to the building of villas and country houses, and purpose concluding our paper with a description of the most interesting archaeological objects which have been discovered in the more recent investigations.

Having taken Uriconium as an example of the Romano-British city, we will take the villa at Linley Hall, not very far distant from Uriconium, as our first example of this class of building. The remains of a Roman wall were here found at a distance of about 150 yards from the Hall. It must have served as a rampart for the defence of the occupants of this villa against the incursions of the mountaineers. The site is a most attractive one, affording a view of a vast sweep of country; flue tiles and the remains of hypocausts have been here found, also a quantity of blackened earth. The
walls were two feet six inches in thickness, of sound masonry, with ample doorways through them; a large area of broken walls has been laid bare, but not having been covered by soil to more than a few inches in depth, the remains have become injured by the action of the weather, and therefore more difficult to trace than those of other villas protected by a greater depth of earth; among the débris, few objects of archaeological interest have been here discovered, with the exception of the supports of the hypocausts, some in pottery and some in stone. We are not surprised at the destruction of the towns and country villas, principally by burning, which followed the departure of the Romans; as soon as the Norsemen (with their hatred to the Empire, and desiring to see every vestige which reminded them of the Roman rule swept from the face of the earth) became ascendant in this part of Europe, we can well understand the decline of Roman taste in the arts which followed, and especially in that of Architecture, associated as it was in their minds with the deities of the Pantheon and the Lares and Penates of the Roman households, whose influence had been so long invoked against their arms, and the preservation of which could alone serve to keep alive the memories of the Legionaries.

We often find in excavating the sites of Roman villas in this country, that they have been erected upon the ruins of earlier ones; this fact will not surprise us, when we recollect that the Roman occupation lasted fully four hundred years after the period when such structures were first erected in our island, or about as long as from the time of the invention of printing till now, and during which epoch our own Architecture has experienced multifarious changes and re-edifications. The remains of about a hundred Roman villas have been found in Britain, the principal ones being in the southwest; remains have been found also in North and South Wales, in Shropshire and in Herefordshire. The walls
of these villas were sometimes built with six-inch cavities, to keep out the damp, as at Woodchester. The exterior walls were often plastered on the outside, and painted a dull red colour; the walls were sometimes encrusted with foreign marbles on the inside. On entering a Roman dwelling the visitor invoked the household gods. In the vestibule at Woodchester, fragments of a beautiful group of Cupid and Psyche were found, similar to the well-known group in the Museum Florentinum.

The Romans were great potters: remains of pottery made at the Upchurch marshes, on the Medway, are very numerous. The colour is a dull blue black, resulting, it is supposed, from its being baked in the smoke of vegetable substances. Amongst the Romano-British remains have been found portions of the celebrated Samian ware, of bright red colour, like sealing-wax, although some antiquaries have supposed that this ware was excellently imitated by the potters in Britain, and that a great portion of the so-called Samian ware found upon Romano-British sites is of spurious manufacture. There are some fine specimens of the pure Samian in the Mayer Museum, Liverpool. Some of the bowls have been found rivetted by lead or bronze rivets. Antiquaries are of opinion that most of the true Samian ware found in Britain was imported from the Continent, principally from Arezzo, in Italy, the ancient Aretium. The ware was adorned with subjects of a mythological kind, also with hunting scenes, combats, etc. The red colour is supposed to have been imparted to it by lead and iron oxides, mixed up with the clay, when in a plastic state. The Durobrivian potteries have supplied specimens of the imitation Samian ware.

We may therefore suppose that the interior of a Romano-British villa would present a pleasing and not unartistic aspect to the visitor, with its household gods, its richly-tiled vestibule, its well-lighted hall, decorated with costly marbles and
enriched with gorgeous wall paintings; and we may suppose that precious stones and gilding played a conspicuous part in such adornments. The goldsmiths of Britain carried on a prosperous trade. At old Malton, in Yorkshire, a large stone was found, inscribed to the genius Loci, by one of these Romano-British goldsmiths. Britain was then the Australia of Rome—gold mines were largely worked in Britain by the Romans. The art of gold-mining has been abandoned since their departure until our own times, when it has been revived. In 1866, 2927 tons of auriferous quartz were obtained in North Wales alone, yielding 743 ounces of pure gold.

The great Roman road, known to us under the Saxon name of Watling Street, passed by the gates of Uriconium, and along the sides of it were no doubt erected numbers of such villas as we have described. On the Roman roads were also built the *Taberna diversoriarum* or places of entertainment for man and beast, kept by the *diversores*. At stated intervals were *mansiones*, the keepers of which, named *mancipes*, stopped the passengers to examine their diplomata, or passports. Along the sides of these roads, burials frequently took place; we read on an inscription that a Roman named Lollius was buried by the road side, that they who pass by might say, "Farewell, Lollius." The following characteristic inscription was found upon a Roman tombstone—

"Adieu, Septimia,
"May the earth be light upon you!
"Whoever on this tomb
"Places a lamp burning,
"May his ashes
"A golden soil cover!"

Supposing this tombstone of Septimia to have been placed at the side of one of the Roman roads, such a benediction upon a lamplighter must have had quite a practical bearing.

The Romans levied a tax upon the bodies of the dead, before they were allowed to be buried, which seems to have
pressed very heavily upon the Britons under the Roman rule.

The Roman burials were strictly extra-mural. They sometimes buried the dead entire; sometimes they burned the body, and buried the ashes in a cinerary urn. In country districts, the burial place generally adjoined the villa or hamlet. The ashes were sometimes placed in vessels used for domestic purposes, and sometimes in glass jars. Amongst the ashes are found the obolus, or coin, an offering to Charon; hence, perhaps, the custom of closing the eyes of the dead with a coin. The remains of wine and provisions have also been found in the tombs, and generally one of the small unguent bottles, usually called lachrymatories, or tear bottles, is found with the ashes; personal ornaments, jewellery, food vessels, Samian bowls, amphorae, sandals with bronze nails, imperishable terra cotta lamps, and almost every other article in ordinary use, excepting weapons of warfare, have been found in the Romano-British cemeteries. The sepulchral deposits were generally covered with tiles; thus the word tegula, a tile, came to signify a tomb, and to this practice we doubtless owe the beautiful fable of the origin of the Corinthian capital. The small bell (tintinnabulum), used to summon slaves and attendants, when their services were wanted, is an object frequently found among the remains of this period. A very interesting small object in bronze, viz., a Roman Boar, was recently found in the neighbourhood of Garth, in Montgomeryshire, which, owing to the kindness of my friend, Mr. Morris Charles Jones, the indefatigable Secretary of the Powys-Land Club, I had an opportunity of inspecting; upon the underside of the boar, running longitudinally, was a groove, which must have fitted upon the edge of some disc-shaped object, such as the ridge of a helmet; several theories were suggested by antiquarian friends to explain the precise use of this little archaeological "find;"
my friend, Mr. H. E. Smith, suggested that it might have been an emblem of the Romano-British boar hunt.

The place where the bronze boar above-named was found, being close to Mediolanum, on the great Roman road between Uriconium and Deva, it is our opinion that it belonged to one of the soldiers of the Twentieth legion, (of which the boar was the emblem,) who may have had it struck from his helmet in a brush with the barbarians, against whom he had sallied with his legion from the head-quarters at Deva. Among the archaeological remains found at Deva, was an altar dedicated to the goddess of Brigantium, in Switzerland, hence we may suppose that some of the natives of Switzerland had formed a settlement at Chester.

The peculiar manner of building which has been practised in that city from time immemorial, consisting of galleries, called “the Rows,” above the ground floor of the houses in the streets, with wooden pillars and brackets, bears a striking resemblance to that adopted in Switzerland. It is not improbable that this manner of building originated with the settlers from Brigantium, who raised at Chester this altar to their goddess, a more likely origin certainly than that of the Roman portico, to which it has been attributed by some writers.

In the excavations upon the sites of Romano-British cities numerous objects have been found from time to time, Uriconium having recently furnished the greatest number, among which were the following: the head of an axe, an iron chain, a trident (no doubt an insignia of office placed upon a staff), fibulae, hair pins, needles, tweezers, bones of birds and animals which had been used for food, the shells of snails, oysters and other shell fish, of which the Romans seem to have been very fond. On the site of this and other Romano-British cities, have been found the bones of the stag, the large goat, the *bos longifrons*, teeth and tusks of wild hogs,
of dogs and of wolves; on these sites Roman coins are very numerous, as if the inhabitants had scattered their money about in a most lavish manner. At Uriconium part of a money box and, near it, some coins were found. The coins were freshly struck from the mint of the family of Constantine, which gives a date and fixes the burning of this place at about the close of the Romano-British period, or the end of the fifth century, and just previous to the establishment of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Britain.