Pegswood Moor, Morpeth

A Later Iron Age and Romano-British Farmstead Settlement

by Jennifer Proctor
Pegswood Moor, Morpeth

A Later Iron Age and Romano-British Farmstead Settlement
Above: Romano-British pot.

Front cover: Reconstruction of the earliest phase of enclosed Iron Age settlement.

Back cover: Quernstones in fenceline leading up to entrance into Romano-British enclosure; complete beehive quernstones found at the site; fenceline forming the eastern side of Romano-British enclosure.
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This exemplary report constitutes a vital contribution to our knowledge of the indigenous background to the events that resulted in the formation of the northern frontier of the Roman province during the late first to early fifth centuries AD. The indigenous settlement of the area of northern England in the vicinity of Hadrian’s Wall has often been neglected at the expense of the study of the Roman military. Initial work on the native population of this region during the Iron Age and Roman periods was undertaken in the nineteenth century, when the doyen of Hadrian’s Wall studies, John Collingwood Bruce, called for the settlements of the indigenous population to be examined. During the early twentieth century, archaeological research in this region became dominated by Roman military studies and very little work occurred on the indigenous settlements until George Jobey excavated a variety of enclosed settlements during the 1960s and 70s. Since this time, significant studies by archaeologists, particularly Colin Haselgrove, have advanced our understanding of the enclosed settlements that appeared to dominate the settlement record of northern England. By the turn of the millennium, however, it was becoming apparent that the standard model of the isolated enclosed Iron Age settlement was too simple. In south eastern Scotland, excavations were demonstrating that enclosures were often single phases in far more long-lived settlement landscapes. In addition, evidence from geophysical survey suggested that the archetypal enclosed settlements of northeastern England represented the highly visible elements of far more extensive and complex landscapes of occupation (Biggins et al 1988).

The extensive excavations at Pegswood Moor in 2000 enabled a fuller assessment to be made of the complexity of indigenous settlement during the later Iron Age and early Roman period. This monograph provides an excellent presentation of the important findings from this project. At Pegswood Moor, a long-lived settlement formed the focus for a small community for at least 500 years, from the fourth century BC to the second century AD. During this time, there was a fundamental transformation of the settlement landscape, from an open (unenclosed) settlement to a landscape dominated by an extensive system of enclosures; and, finally, during the period of Roman rule, to a situation in which one main enclosure was focal. The settlement may have been abandoned towards the end of the second century AD, and some time after this the area became moorland. The excavations uncovered substantial evidence for the lives of the inhabitants, including at least sixteen roundhouses and significant information for the objects used by the community.

Pegswood Moor is a highly important study, since it indicates the complexity of the occupancy of the landscape by indigenous communities in this area of Northumberland. People were living in this landscape, creating a surplus and organizing their domestic environments in creative ways during the later Iron Age and Roman period. The evidence for the structuring of space included enclosures used for habitation, storage and manufacturing activities; this indicates the highly organized character of human life at Pegswood Moor when the Roman army was conquering central Britain. The final phase of occupation and use of the site witnesses a significant reorganization of the settlement landscape, with earlier enclosures being cut across, and it is argued in this report that this re-planning occurred in response to the Roman occupation. Broadly comparable changes in settlement patterns have long been observed over southern Britain and also across the North Sea in the Netherlands. The Pegswood Moor project indicates that comparable processes of transformation influenced the indigenous populations of this area of Northumberland, just to the north of Hadrian’s Wall.

The pottery evidence and quernstones from Pegswood Moor are particularly informative. Pottery was relatively scarce, but Steve Willis’ work has demonstrated that significant information can be obtained from the study of material derived from such a substantial excavation. Using the evidence of material culture, the authors of this report are also able to make some significant observations about the deposition of special items across this complex and evolving settlement landscape. Imported objects are rare, which makes it difficult to distinguish the direct influence of the Roman occupation on these people. The significant recent work carried out by Tyne and Wear Museum Services at several other later Iron Age sites just to the north of Newcastle is now adding to the picture obtained from Pegswood Moor. This recent body of work indicates the complexity of the social landscape during the later Iron Age and also the apparently negative effects of the incorporation of these people into the Roman empire, which appears to have led to large-scale abandonment of the landscape to the north of Hadrian’s Wall. In this report, Jennifer Proctor is able to draw on some information from these recent projects and to compare the evidence from a number of indigenous sites in the area. This enables her to create significant new insights into the Roman impact upon the local people of this area. The insights contained in the Pegswood report represent a substantial contribution to our understanding of society in the frontier region of Roman Britain.

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The site at Pegswood Moor lies on the Northumberland Coastal Plain, some 8km inland from the North Sea and 10km east of the Cheviots, lying at an elevation of between 65m and 70m OD. Until relatively recently this region was thought to have been sparsely occupied during later prehistory. However, a body of recent work, including the site described in this publication, has demonstrated that this area was as densely settled in these periods as any other part of the region and a pattern of late prehistoric and Romano-British homestead enclosures is now emerging for the lowlands of Northumberland and Durham.

Mineral extraction, along with agricultural use, has historically been cited as one possible reason for archaeological invisibility of such sites, situated on the Boulder Clay. However it was a proposal for opencast coal extraction which led to the discovery of the site at Pegswood Moor. Initial examination of aerial photographs, carried out in advance of excavation, highlighted the potential for archaeological remains. Three cropmarks were identified, one of which, in the northeastern corner of the site, was interpreted as a possible enclosure of prehistoric or Romano-British date; in actual fact this turned out to be a post-medieval ceramic land drain, fortuitously exploiting the line of an earlier boundary ditch, which was perhaps the most significant and certainly the most substantial and long-lived of those to be excavated.

Sporadic visiting of the site occurred from the Mesolithic/early Neolithic into the Bronze Age, but significant habitation commenced at the site in the Later Iron Age and continued through to the 2nd century AD, sometime after which the area reverted to moorland. It remained as such into the post-medieval period when it came into agricultural use.

Identification of archaeological features on site was not without its problems: recent ploughing had destroyed much evidence. Additionally the nature of the Boulder Clay sub-stratum created great difficulties during the investigations. In dry weather conditions this material quickly dries out, whilst during periods of wet weather, as experienced during much of the excavation, the exposed ground surface drains poorly with much puddling of water. Nevertheless the excavations revealed a wealth of information and three distinct phases of settlement were identified, with compelling evidence for continuity of occupation across these periods.

The first evidence for Later Iron Age habitation at the site has been interpreted as representing part of a small, unenclosed farmstead with at most two structures in existence at any one time. Finds were sparse, but radiocarbon dating suggests the settlement may have been established by the early 4th century BC.

This was succeeded by occupation on a much larger scale, characterised by a network of extensive enclosures, with specific areas set aside for habitation, storage and manufacturing and processing activities. In addition, field systems, stock enclosures, smaller stockyards and a droveway were identified. It is probable that only one roundhouse structure at a time occupied the initial habitation enclosure; domestic dwellings in the form of a ‘string’ of roundhouses were subsequently constructed, extending the settlement to the north. Stock-keeping, indicated by the enclosures and fences, apparently concentrated on sheep. Unfortunately the Boulder Clay had a detrimental effect on the preservation of faunal remains, so that only a very small bone assemblage was recovered.

In addition to livestock, the evidence of numerous quernstones indicates that grain processing formed an important aspect of the economy, though identifiable plant macrofossils were few and restricted to occasional charred remains of cereal grains of barley, emmer/spelt wheat and oat. The recovered pottery assemblage was modest in size, nevertheless particularly informative coming from a part of the region from which only a moderate number of other assemblages are known. Moreover, this is accompanied by evidence to suggest that pottery was being manufactured on site in large bonfire clamps.

The final phase of occupation recorded at the site was characterised by the construction of a rectilinear timber enclosure, built over the remains of the preceding habitation area, in places directly through the middle of earlier dwellings. Associated with this enclosure was an extensive field boundary system that dramatically altered the layout of the land, replacing the earlier complex of small enclosures with a more open, but still managed, landscape. Lying over 10km north of Hadrian’s Wall the site shows little by way of material culture to indicate the influence of Rome. Yet, this marked change in the form and layout of the settlement, occurring in the late 1st or early 2nd century AD, is surely no coincidence.

Building on the pioneering work of Professor George Jobey, which identified numerous rectilinear settlements in the North East Coastal Plain, subsequent excavation, for example at Thorpe Thewles, began to indicate that there was more variety of settlement than formerly thought. More recently, numerous, large, open area excavations ahead of development (primarily for housing schemes or mineral extraction) have been carried out which continue to add to this emerging picture.

This volume is the first of these recently excavated sites to be published in detail and seeks to put the Pegswood Moor settlement in a much broader regional context. It is hoped that future publications will shed further light on settlement patterns in the region during the Later Iron Age and early Roman periods. These recent excavations have also highlighted an apparent absence of native occupation of south Northumberland after the 2nd century. The reason for this absence is not understood and perhaps future excavations may be able to address this crucial question.
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The Pegswood Moor excavations were directed by Jennifer Proctor and the project manager was Robin Taylor-Wilson. The post-excavation consultant and monograph editor was Victoria Ridgeway, to whom the author is indebted for her support, advice and comments on the text throughout the post-excavation assessment and publication stages. The author would also like to thank Adrian Bailey for the illustrations, Cate Davies for typesetting and Jim Wright for surveying.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Planning Background

Extensive archaeological investigations were undertaken by Pre-Construct Archaeology (PCA) in 2000 at Pegswood Moor, near Morpeth, Northumberland. The site is located in a rural setting on the Northumberland Coastal Plain, to the south of the Pegswood to Hebron road (B1337) and c. 2km north of the market town of Morpeth at central National Grid reference NZ 201 882 (Fig. 1). A planning application for an extension to the Pegswood Moor Opencast Coal Site to undertake additional opencast extraction of coal and fireclay across a 9.2 hectare area to the west of existing workings had been submitted by H.J. Banks and Company Limited. The proposed extension comprised previously undeveloped agricultural land at Pegswood Moor Farm and was divided into two adjoining fields. Northumberland County Council Conservation Team (NCCCT) stipulated that an archaeological desk-based assessment should be prepared as the first stage of a scheme of archaeological works and the Wardell Armstrong Consulting Group were commissioned by Banks to undertake this work (Wardell Armstrong 2000a). The assessment highlighted the potential for archaeological remains at the site due to three cropmarks, including a rectilinear cropmark in the northeastern corner of the site, which was interpreted as a possible enclosure of prehistoric or Romano-British date (see Fig. 46). NCCCT recommended that an archaeological trial trenching evaluation should be carried out prior to determination of the planning application and PCA was contracted by Wardell Armstrong to undertake this work on behalf of Banks (Wardell Armstrong 2000b).
Three evaluation trenches, investigated in June 2000, revealed the presence of significant archaeological features and the broad conclusion of this phase of work was that a hitherto unknown settlement of probable Iron Age date was located in the northern portion of the area proposed for opencast extraction (PCA 2000a). On the basis of the findings of the evaluation, an initial open area excavation was undertaken across an area measuring 100m east–west by 55m north–south, this located at the northeastern corner of the extension site. The archaeological remains encountered within this area were of a far greater scale than had been anticipated on the basis of the initial evaluation trenches, and it was apparent that settlement activity extended beyond all limits of investigation. It therefore became clear that open area archaeological excavation was required across a larger proportion of the proposed extension area. An additional five evaluation trenches (Trenches 4–8) were investigated in an attempt to identify the southern limit of settlement activity and thus determine the required extent of open area excavation. Based on the findings of these later evaluation trenches, open area excavation was undertaken across a total area of c. 4.25 hectares between July and December 2000.

Methodology

Archaeological excavation was conducted across an irregularly shaped area with maximum dimensions of 250m north–south by 170m east–west at the northern end of the opencast extension. The total area of c. 4.25 hectares represented just under half of the total opencast extension site (Fig. 2). Topsoil stripping was carried out across the majority of the excavation area using a 360° mechanical excavator employing a toothless ditching bucket (Fig. 3). A convoy of trucks was used to remove spoil, which was stored along the western and northern perimeters of the site to form a safety bund for the opencast site. This topsoil was to be reinstated on the site when extraction was concluded. In the southern part of the site, topsoil was initially stripped using a box scraper/tractor method. This area was subsequently re-machined using a 360° mechanical excavator employing a toothless ditching bucket to permit archaeological inspection. Archaeological investigations were undertaken in a series of contiguous areas, dictated by the requirements of the site operators, specifically the construction of an access road around the northern and western perimeter of the site, as well as the extraction programme itself, which was designed to advance from south to north.
Previous (agricultural) landuse had truncated archaeological remains at the site, so that features were encountered at the truncated upper interface of the natural Boulder Clay sub-stratum, c. 300mm below a heavy clay ploughsoil/topsoil. There was no survival of ‘secondary’ sub-soil material at any location. The effects of generations of ploughing had caused fairly substantial damage to archaeological levels, with no surviving horizontal stratigraphy present and only deeper cut features surviving. Unfortunately, this meant that features such as floor and yard surfaces and internal features within habitation structures, such as hearths, were not encountered, while some of the more ephemeral features, such as roundhouse gullies, only survived to a depth of a few millimetres.

The nature of the Boulder Clay sub-stratum created great difficulties during the investigations. In dry weather conditions this material quickly dries out, becoming baked solid and cracked. When wet, and the autumn of 2000 was particularly wet in Northern England with extensive flooding across the region, the exposed ground surface drains poorly with much puddling of water (see eg Fig. 15). Such conditions made identification and excavation of archaeological features periodically difficult, and in one or two places impossible. That so much detailed information was comprehensively recovered from the excavation was down to the hard work and resourcefulness of the archaeological team, which comprised up to 31 staff. The Boulder Clay also had a detrimental effect on the preservation of faunal remains, so that only a very small bone assemblage was recovered, and this material was poorly preserved with only tiny fragments surviving, making identification to species impossible in most cases. Preservation of plant macrofossils was also poor and only very small quantities of charred and waterlogged ancient plant remains were recovered from bulk soil samples.

The methodology for the archaeological excavation was set out in a Written Scheme of Investigation, prepared by PCA and approved by NCCCT (PCA 2000b). Extensive areas of intense archaeological deposits and all locations where intercutting archaeological features were observed were cleaned by hand to allow detailed investigation, excavation and recording. Where relationships between archaeological features were not apparent in plan, sondages were excavated to ascertain stratigraphic relationships in section. Discrete features such as postholes were fully excavated, whilst linear features were sectioned as appropriate. Roundhouse drainage gullies and wall construction trenches were sampled so that at least 40% of each feature was excavated, although in most cases a greater proportion of each was excavated, with the excavated portions including both terminals.

A strategy for sampling archaeological deposits for palaeoenvironmental remains was formulated and refined throughout the excavation. In general, the fills of roundhouse gullies, pits, possible hearths, ditches and
postholes were considered for bulk soil sampling. Ditch and gully terminals were also sampled where possible. In addition, priority was given to features that contained material that had the potential to provide significant palaeoenvironmental information, such as charcoal, burnt bone or burnt daub. The sampling strategy was initially formulated in consultation with the English Heritage Regional Advisor on Archaeological Science, who visited the site in October 2000 (Huntley 2000).

A post-excavation assessment report on the findings of the excavation was compiled by PCA on completion of the fieldwork (PCA 2002). This described the archaeological methodologies employed during the work, and included detailed descriptions of the archaeological remains, supported by summary discussions and illustrations. It also quantified the written, graphic and photographic elements of the site archive and contained specialist assessments of all the artefactual and palaeoenvironmental evidence. The Northumberland County Historic Environment Record (HER) holds a copy of the assessment report. The site archive, comprising written, drawn and photographic records, along with all artefactual material recovered from the investigations, will be deposited with the Great North Museum, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, under the site code PMF 00.

Radiocarbon dating was undertaken on material recovered from the investigations during the initial post-excavation phase of work. A fragment of charcoal recovered from an enclosure ditch was submitted to Scottish Universities Research and React Centre (sample code SURRC AA-43432). A further group of dates was also obtained from charred organic residues adhering to pottery sherds during the further analysis stage of the project. These samples were submitted to Beta Analytic Radiocarbon Dating Laboratory in Florida (sample codes Beta 230298–230302).

Scope of this Report

Detailed descriptions of the archaeological features are presented in Chapter 2 of this report and this includes some integration of specialist data. That chapter is supported by figures illustrating the main phases of activity, along with details of particular areas of the site and individual features where merited. The on-site recording methodology included planning all features in their entirety, even where not fully excavated, and this is reflected in the published site plans; conjecture (marked as a lighter tone and/or dashed outline) has been employed where features extend beyond limits of excavation or have been truncated. Open hachures indicate where a discrete cut feature was recorded in plan but not excavated. Where conjectured, retained or potentially associated features are shown, these are in lighter tone with no outline. In this text individual context/feature numbers appear in square brackets (eg [100]) and registered (small) finds are referenced as (eg)<15> throughout. Detailed specialist reports, with supporting illustrations, are included in full in Chapter 3, since this will undoubtedly provide useful data for several sites of comparable period in the region that are still undergoing post-exavagation assessment or analysis, as well as other sites that are likely to be discovered during future development programmes, including opencast mining operations across the region.

Chapter 4 presents a thematic discussion of the evidence recovered from Pegswood Moor and examines this against the regional and wider background, particularly in the light of recently published research and ideas concerning Iron Age Britain, which has resulted in a considerable re-evaluation of the previously accepted framework of Iron Age society. The culmination of this work was the publication in 2007 of two volumes bringing together various themes in current research on the Earlier and Later Iron Age in Britain (Haselgrove and Pope 2007 and Haselgrove and Moore 2007, respectively). These publications moved away from traditional terminology and chronology for the British Iron Age, which includes a Middle Iron Age period, and instead use the term Later Iron Age to cover the period from c. 400–300 BC to the Roman conquest, in order to reflect the extensive changes in settlement patterns, social structure and material culture that took place during this period (Haselgrove and Moore 2007, 2). In Harding's survey of the Iron Age in Northern Britain (2004), the Earlier Iron Age is taken as the entire pre-Roman Iron Age period, with the Later Iron Age being used for the period from the second quarter of the first millennium AD. The evidence recovered from Pegswood Moor, along with several other recent investigations in the lowlands of Northumberland and Durham, suggests that the former chronology is perhaps more appropriate and therefore the Later Iron Age is used in this report for the period from around c. 400 BC onwards.

Results of the Investigation

Documentary evidence indicates that the land on which the archaeological excavation was undertaken comprised open moorland until the post-medieval period when the area was enclosed and came into agricultural use. Numerous cylindrical ceramic field drains lying within mechanically excavated narrow linear trenches were recorded, generally crossing the site in a northeast to southwest direction. A more elaborate drain was recorded in the northeastern portion of the excavation area, comprising a ‘horseshoe’ ceramic drain with tiles laid end-to-end within a wide hand-dug construction trench. This ran in a roughly east–west direction along the length of one of the substantial Iron Age ditches, and had possibly been sited deliberately along this feature, which may have been prone to waterlogging, and then turned at right angles to run northwards. This post-medieval field drain was evidently the origin of the rectilinear cropmark, which had been thought to possibly represent a later prehistoric or Romano-British enclosure and which the initial archaeological evaluation of the site was designed to investigate.
The excavation demonstrated that sporadic activity began at the site during the Mesolithic/Early Neolithic period and continued through to the Bronze Age, as evidenced by the recovery of worked flint tools and flint flakes, assigned to Phase 2 activity. The recovered evidence indicated short-term visitation of the site, presumably by mobile communities. Actual habitation began at the site during the Later Iron Age, probably around 400 BC, and continued through into the Romano-British period, with no evidence recovered for
activity after the 2nd century AD. The first evidence for habitation at the site, Phase 3, has been interpreted as representing part of a small Later Iron Age unenclosed farmstead settlement (Fig. 4). This was succeeded in Phase 4 by a Later Iron Age settlement on a much larger scale, characterised by a network of extensive enclosures, with specific areas utilised for habitation, storage and manufacturing and processing activities. In addition, field systems, stock enclosures, smaller stockyards and a droveway were recorded. The final phase of occupation recorded at the site, Phase 5, was characterised by the construction of a rectilinear timber enclosure in the late 1st–early 2nd century AD, built over the remains of the preceding habitation area. Associated with this enclosure was an extensive field boundary system that dramatically altered the layout of the landscape, replacing the earlier complex of small enclosures with a more open, but still managed, landscape. There was no evidence of any further human activity at the site until the late post-medieval/modern era.

Geology and Topography

The solid geology of the Pegswood area comprises rocks of Upper Carboniferous age, principally Sandstone in Lower Coal Measures and the Lower Coal Measures themselves (Jackson and Lawrence 1990). The solid geology is characterised by strata trending downwards in an east-southeast direction and cut by the Pegswood Moor Fault, which runs on a northwest–southeast alignment. The coal seams present in the area include the Little Wonder, Bandy and Brockwell seams, which outcrop in the west. To the east, the Pegswood Moor Fault displaces the upper seams and older seams are present down to the Marshall Green seam in the southwest. Like most of this part of Northumberland, the solid rocks are covered by superficial Quaternary deposits or drift. Extensive drift deposits were laid down during the Devensian glaciation, these principally consisting of till (Boulder Clay) but with laminated clay, sands and gravels also present. The soils of the Morpeth area are of the Dunkeswick soil association, typically slowly permeable, seasonally waterlogged fine loamy over clayey soil (Jarvis 1984). The clayey sub-soil impedes percolation and causes rapid run-off of rainfall in winter. Such soils are seasonally waterlogged for long periods in winter but well-conceived drainage measures have typically been employed to reduce waterlogging.

The site is located within the Northumberland Coastal Plain, a relatively narrow strip of land that is c. 20km wide in the northern part of Northumberland broadening to c. 30–40km further south, bounded to the west by the Pennine and Cheviot hills, to the north by the Lammermuir hills of southern Scotland and to the south may be said to continue beyond the East Durham Plateau to the Cleveland hills. The coastal plain is essentially low-lying at less than 200m OD with the hills reaching altitudes of over 500m OD. Several west–east flowing rivers run across the coastal plain, the most significant of which are the Rivers Tweed, Tyne and Tees. Pegswood is a former colliery village situated less than 8km from the coast with the foothills of the Cheviots c. 10km to the west (Fig. 5). The excavation site on Pegswood Moor lies to the west of the village, on ground that slopes down gently from north to south; the level of the underlying Boulder Clay sloped from c. 68.95m OD in the north of the excavation area to c. 67.55m OD in the south over a distance of 250m. A small contour ridge at 70m is depicted on the Ordnance Survey (1:25,000 scale) map immediately to the northwest of the excavation area. The How Burn, a tributary of the River Wansbeck, flows north-northeast–south-southwest c. 200m to the west of the excavation area and then turns to flow northwest–southeast to the south of the excavation area at a distance of c. 450m (Fig. 2). The confluence of burn and river lies c. 1.3km southeast of the excavation area (see Fig. 1). The present day topography of the area to the north and east of the excavation area has been dramatically altered by opencast workings.

Archaeological and Historical Background

In general, settlement patterns across the Northumberland Coastal Plain vary greatly from those encountered in the adjacent uplands. Only the former are discussed, as the upland areas are not relevant to the scope of this report due to the geographical location of the Pegswood Moor site. A pattern of late prehistoric and Roman small homestead enclosures is well documented in the lowlands of Northumberland and Durham. The North East Coastal Plain and other Boulder Clay covered areas were in the past thought to have been sparsely occupied in the late prehistoric period. Aerial photography, however, has demonstrated that the lowland North East was as densely settled in these periods as any other part of the region, despite the fact that the Boulder Clay is not generally conducive to cropmark generation. Recent land use, primarily agricultural activities and mineral extraction, has often masked or destroyed archaeological remains in these areas, whilst dense settlement patterns can be seen in more inhospitable upland areas where survival of sites is greater (Fenton-Thomas 1992). The most common settlement type identified is the rectilinear enclosed settlement, although the predominance of this type may be due to the fact that such sites are more readily identifiable as cropmarks on aerial photographs than palisaded or unenclosed settlements (Petts and Gerrard 2006, 36–37). These rectilinear enclosures can be bounded by a single or double ditch, in the latter case one enclosure is situated inside the other (Burgess 1984, 163). In date, these appear to range from the mid 1st millennium BC to the Roman period (Haselgrove and Allon 1982, 44). However, without excavation it is impossible to determine whether individual settlements date from the Iron Age or Roman period. On the whole there is a strong degree of consistency in the morphology of sites and site features,
with one or two circular structures enclosed by single or double ditches. The size of the enclosed area varies considerably, ranging from 0.1 to 0.8 hectares and the enclosures tend to be sub-circular or near square with the basic shape seemingly relating to topography or function rather than chronology (Higham 1986, 13). Up to the 1980s archaeological investigations of Iron Age and Romano-British rectilinear enclosure sites in the North East Coastal Plain were dominated by the work of Professor George Jobey, latterly of the Department of Archaeology at Newcastle University, who undertook numerous excavations of later prehistoric sites from the late 1950s as part of a major research project on native sites that previously had received negligible attention. Although his work tended to focus on upland sites in the Cheviots, he also excavated several lowland sites, particularly in the southeast of the region, including some work undertaken as rescue excavations at sites that were to be destroyed by mining activity and housing developments. Jobey was also committed to disseminating information and detailed excavation reports were swiftly published. His investigations demonstrated that these rectilinear settlements comprised small farmsteads whose economy seems to have been based on a mixed pastoral and arable agricultural regime. The closest geographically to Pegswood Moor is a site investigated by Jobey at

![Diagram of Iron Age, Romano-British and Roman military sites](scale=1:1,000,000)
Hartburn, c. 10km to the west and also lying on a tributary of the Wansbeck (Fig. 5). Excavations there indicated a double rectilinear enclosure preceded by an earlier phase of unenclosed settlement represented by the remains of eighteen structures, probably with a maximum of four or five in existence at any one stage (Jobey 1973, 49). Dating evidence was sparse, but a few fragments of finger-impressed pottery tentatively suggested to the excavator that the unenclosed settlement may have originated in the 5th or 6th century BC. The double-ditched enclosure contained a cobbled yard area and several timber and stone-built roundhouse structures, Roman pottery associated with this phase dates the occupation to the late 1st century AD (continuing up to the late 2nd or early 3rd century). At Burradon, c. 15km southeast of Pegswood, a probable unenclosed settlement preceded an enclosed settlement. A group of houses at this site probably belonged to an earlier phase of unenclosed settlement, with the remains of eleven structures recorded, although the relative positions of these indicate that no more than three could have existed at any one stage (Jobey 1970). This unenclosed settlement was apparently replaced by a double banked and ditched enclosure with a single central roundhouse in the Iron Age or Romano-British period. Excavations at Chester House, c. 15km north of Pegswood, also revealed evidence for an unenclosed period of settlement with the remnants of three roundhouses recorded, succeeded by a rectilinear banked and ditched enclosure (Holbrook 1988). No datable material was recovered from Chester House. Around 25km north of Chester House is the site at Doubstead known from excavations by Jobey as a small rectilinear enclosure containing at least two roundhouses and dating perhaps to the 1st and 2nd centuries AD (Jobey 1982). Evidence from this site indicates a mixed agricultural economy, while a significant artefact assemblage was recovered. A rectilinear enclosure at Marden, Tynemouth, contained a central roundhouse structure, which produced a single sherd of pottery dating to the 2nd century AD (Jobey 1963). Excavations at Tynemouth Priory revealed a large timber roundhouse associated with a smaller structure of Iron Age or Romano-British date (Jobey 1967). Evidence for an unenclosed Iron Age farming settlement underlies the Roman fort at South Shields, where part of a roundhouse structure was exposed, this set within field systems where narrow rig-and-furrow cultivation was identified (Hodgson et al. 2001). Rectilinear enclosures are also located across the Durham lowlands and excavated examples include West House, Coxhoe (Haselgrove and Allon 1982) and West Brandon, County Durham (Jobey 1962). A characteristic of the excavation of sites examined in the region through the second half of the 20th century was that work was concentrated on the enclosure and domestic foci (as perceived).

Evidence gathered from excavations in recent years has begun to suggest that there is more variety in Later Iron Age and Romano-British settlement sites in the North East of England than previously thought (Willis 1999, 91). The settlement at Thorpe Thewles, located north of the River Tees near Stockton-on-Tees, was identified in the 1970s as a rectilinear cropmark on an aerial photograph and extensive excavation was undertaken in the 1980s (Heslop 1987). The earliest evidence for habitation at this site, thought to date from the Later Iron Age, comprised a substantial sub-rectangular enclosure with a large central roundhouse dwelling that had been rebuilt at least twice, along with several smaller ancillary structures, possibly utilised for storage and manufacturing and craft activities. The site then expanded, with the bank surrounding the enclosure ditch being pushed into the ditch, and a complex, open nucleated settlement developed in the late 1st century BC and 1st century AD. The economic basis of the settlement was mixed farming, but the settlement was relatively rich in material culture, indicating that the inhabitants had access to wide trade markets. A Later Iron Age and Romano-British settlement has also been excavated at Catcote, a short distance north of the Tees, with investigations ongoing as part of a long-term training and research project. The Iron Age settlement occupied the crest of a hill with its east facing slopes overlooking the Tees Estuary and Hartlepool Bay. Dating from c. 200 BC onwards, it comprised a system of routeways linking fenced and ditched enclosures containing roundhouses (Tees Archaeology 2003). It is possible that each enclosure contained a farmstead, but to date only one enclosure has been investigated in any detail and this revealed evidence for intensive use over a long period with houses being repeatedly rebuilt on the same site. The economy of the settlement was based on mixed pastoral and arable farming with evidence for other activities such as weaving, bone working and metalworking, as well as indications of trade and interaction with the Roman world in the 1st century AD. To date relatively little investigation has taken place of the Roman settlement at Catcote, although it is clear that this occupied an extensive area on the lower eastern slopes of the hill. Work in the 1960s identified a number of low stone walls, possibly representing foundations of rectangular timber buildings, and excavations in 1987 revealed part of a small rectangular building with wattle and daub walls (Long 1988; Vyner and Daniels 1989). The settlement continued to prosper until the end of the Roman period, after which time it seems to have been abandoned. At Ingleby Barwick, just south of the River Tees near Stockton-on-Tees, extensive field systems, including ditches associated with hedgebanks, are known through aerial photographs and excavation (Heslop 1984). The most prominent systems are part of a mixed agricultural regime associated with a villa dating from the 2nd century AD, though an Iron Age unenclosed site preceded the villa, represented by a small circular structure and other features. Excavations at a rectilinear site identified by a cropmark at Foxrush Farm, west of Redcar on the North Sea coast and close to the mouth of the Tees, revealed evidence for settlement activity outside the main enclosure, which contained three roundhouse structures, and the site also produced evidence for metalworking and salt processing.
(Sherlock 2005). Evidence for salt manufacturing was also encountered at the Later Iron Age enclosure at Streethouse Farm, Loftus, a short distance southeast along the coast from Foxrush Farm. At this site, several roundhouse structures have been investigated, some of which may have been for habitation, while some have been identified as having a manufacturing or industrial function (Sherlock 2006).

Recent large-scale open area archaeological excavations in southeast Northumberland, undertaken ahead of projects such as opencast mineral extraction and housing developments, have also revealed further complex settlement types, typically with habitation areas set within complex networks of enclosures (Petts and Gerrard 2006, 38). However, post-excavation programmes for most of these sites were ongoing at the time of writing (Gerrard 2006, 38). However, post-excavation programmes for most of these sites were ongoing at the time of writing and the results are yet to be published. Excavations of two rectilinear enclosure sites identified on aerial photographs were undertaken at West Brunton Farm and East Brunton Farm, two sites in close proximity and both part of the Newcastle Great Park housing development (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a). The earliest phase of settlement at East Brunton comprised a palisaded enclosure of Late Bronze Age to earlier Iron Age date, probably associated with a single circular structure, superseded by an open phase of settlement which contained numerous dwellings. Although it is uncertain how many were in existence at any one time, their relative positions indicate that several may have been in use contemporaneously. The final phase of occupation at East Brunton comprised a Later Iron Age rectilinear ditched enclosure, bounded by a substantial ditch, with a central dwelling. An adjacent enclosure containing roundhouse structures, also bounded by a massive ditch, was partially exposed. The West Brunton site began as an open settlement in the Later Iron Age, and again numerous dwellings were recorded, several of which may have been in existence at any one time. The subsequent phase of settlement, dating from the Later Iron Age to early Roman period, comprised a rectilinear enclosure with a single dwelling, while features located external to the enclosure indicated zonal divisions for specific activities. To the north of the main enclosure was another enclosure containing a circular dwelling. The palaeoenvironmental remains recovered from both Brunton settlements indicated a mixed agricultural economy and there was also evidence for metalworking at both sites, though modest-sized pottery assemblages. Excavations undertaken by Northern Archaeological Associates (NAA) on the Blagdon Hall Estate Ponteland ahead of the Delhi opencast mining extension, revealed extensive settlement activity with several timber roundhouse habitation structures, storage structures, enclosures, pits and field systems recorded (Jenkins 2006). These excavations produced scant artefactual evidence, with only a single sherd of prehistoric pottery and a glass bead, identified as a Meare bead, recovered. This type of yellow glass bead was manufactured in Meare, Somerset from around the 3rd or 2nd century BC with some examples occurring into the early Roman period (Henderson 1987). A major excavation conducted by Tyne and Wear Museums in 2008 at a site c. 500m north-northeast of the NAA site revealed an extensive multi-phase Iron Age settlement site (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming b). Little information was available at the time of writing as the investigations had only recently finished, but it appears that an unenclosed farmstead settlement was succeeded by an enclosed settlement represented by two concentric substantial ditched enclosures. The outer enclosure, which measured 130m by 100m, is interpreted as being contemporary with the inner enclosure, which measured 50m by 45m, as they were connected by a series of ditches dividing the space between into a number of areas, possibly for different functions. Over 40 roundhouse structures were recorded at the site, some of which were associated with the unenclosed phase of settlement, but artefactual remains were scarce, with only a small assemblage of pottery and fragments of quernstone recovered. A geophysical survey undertaken at Dinnington, near the Blagdon Hall sites, revealed a complex site with a rectilinear enclosure and a series of roundhouses, the majority of which were external to the enclosure (Biggins et al. 1997).

The Later Iron Age settlement pattern of the Northumberland and Durham lowlands generally continued relatively uninterrupted into the Romano-British period. The local native farming society, particularly in Northumberland, was probably initially largely unaffected by the considerable Roman military activity in the region. Following the invasion in AD 43, the Roman army pushed northwards and by the early 70s the Brigantian tribe had been conquered by Cerialis, the Roman governor, although the land had not yet been consolidated by the construction of a full network of forts (Breeze 1982, 43). Agricola, who succeeded Cerialis, began his governorship by completing the fort-building programme and famously extended his activities beyond the Tyne–Solway isthmus (Breeze and Dobson 2000). Two tribal groups are known in the region from classical authors. The tribal territory of the Votadini has traditionally been seen as extending from southern Scotland, along the coastal plain from the Forth to the Tyne, and into some of the valleys in the hinterland of the plain, including Redesdale with the major hill fort and supposed capital of the tribe at Traprain Law in East Lothian (Breeze 1982, 29). Roman sources described the Brigantes' territory as stretching from sea to sea (Frere 1987) and it is usually described as occupying the area from the rivers Humber and Trent northwards to the Solway and Tyne (van der Veen 1992, 16). In recent years there has been some debate as to whether the territory of the Brigantes may have been centered only in the eastern Pennines and the Vale of York around their tribal capital at Aldborough (Harding 2004). The River Tyne has traditionally been seen as the tribal boundary marking the northern limit of the Brigantes territory and the archaeological evidence for settlement patterns in the region seemed to support this (Haselgrove 2002, 64). Research by Ferrell (1992; 1997)
identified a difference in settlement patterns between the coastal plain south of the River Wear, where more extensive settlements with a greater degree of integration were found, and Northumberland, which was apparently populated by smaller and more isolated settlements. However, the recent excavations undertaken across the Northumberland lowlands, as detailed above, have demonstrated the presence of extensive settlements north of the Tyne whose inhabitants were clearly involved in some degree of interaction with other communities. This recent evidence has thus brought into question whether the Tyne was in fact a tribal boundary. The epigraphic and literary evidence, which in the past has been used as evidence that the River Tyne formed the northern limit of the Brigantes, is questioned by Allason-Jones (2009). She suggests that in geographical terms the Tyne was not an obvious boundary, as prior to 19th-century dredging it was fordable at low tide, and proposes that the River Wear, which would have been a more suitable boundary as it was much harder to cross, may have been the tribal boundary. The artefactual assemblages recovered from sites south of the River Wear may reflect cultural differences, with sites in County Durham and Teeside producing richer assemblages than those in Northumberland, pointing to the presence of a territory boundary somewhere between these two areas (Allason-Jones 2009). If the River Wear did form the northern boundary of the Brigantes territory, then it must be assumed that either the Votadini territory stretched as far south as the Wear, or that another, as yet unknown, tribe occupied the area between the Wear extending into southern Northumberland beyond the Tyne. The tribal identity of the Pegswood Moor settlement thus remains open to question.

The Roman army began campaigning in southern Scotland and by AD 79 had reached the Forth-Clyde isthmus, at which point campaigning ceased and forts up to the Tay were probably constructed (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 9–10). The main route into northern Britain, Dere Street, was established along the eastern side of the country and in northern England and southern Scotland the route of the A68 largely follows this Roman road (Fig. 5). The advance continued in AD 82 and by the mid 80s forts had been constructed at the mouth of the glens along with the legionary fortress at Inchtuthil. Major forts at Carlisle, Corbridge and Vindolanda were also established along the Tyne-Solway isthmus during the Flavian period in the mid 80s (Jones and Woolliscroft 2001, 38). An east–west road, the Stanegate, was also built across the Tyne-Solway isthmus, either by Agricola or his successor, linking Corbridge and Carlisle. The Roman road known as the Devil’s Causeway branched from Dere Street just north of Corbridge (Fig. 5) and headed northwards across the Northumberland coastal plain then ran northwards to the fort at Learchild on the River Alyn, continuing to its presumed terminal at Tweedmouth (Jobey 1973, 51). This road and the fort at Learchild were in existence by the Flavian period in the mid AD 80s (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 11). Another road was also in existence by this date running from the fort at High Rochester on Dere Street northeastwards to the Devil’s Causeway (ibid.). There has been some suggestion that other branch roads extended across the Northumberland Coastal Plain from the Devil’s Causeway, including one leading from Newcastle (Jobey 1973, 52). A fortlet is conjectured to have existed at Longshaws, situated c. 8km to the west of Pegswood Moor, although this has never been proven by excavation, and Jobey (1973, 52) speculated that a branch road may have joined the Devil’s Causeway in the vicinity of Longshaws.

Following the removal of one of the four British legions to the Danube in AD 86, the army began to withdraw from southern Scotland and retreated to the Tyne-Solway isthmus and forts north of this line were abandoned by the time of Trajan in AD 98 (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 13). A system of forts constructed during the Trajanic period along the Stanegate road indicate that this may represent a frontier system which was a precursor to Hadrian’s Wall, although the evidence is not conclusive (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 16–21; Jones and Woolliscroft 2001, 33–38). Construction of Hadrian’s Wall began in AD 122. The Wall was built along the Tyne-Solway gap and the Pegswood Moor settlement was situated c. 20km north of the Wall. The purpose of the Wall, according to Hadrian’s biographer, was to separate the barbarians from the Romans by creating a continuous barrier (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 39). The provision of gateways every half a mile (0.8km) along the Wall demonstrated that its purpose was to control movement not prevent it and civilians, including local farmers moving their stock, could pass through the barrier, presumably on payment of a fee, such regulation being documented on the Rhone frontier (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 40). Hadrian’s Wall was still nearing completion when it was largely abandoned by AD 140 and the frontier was moved by Antoninus Pius to the Forth-Clyde isthmus where a turf wall was constructed and during this period new forts were established in the Scottish lowlands, mainly along the route of Dere Street and the western route into Scotland. The Antonine Wall was abandoned c. AD 158–163 and Hadrian’s Wall was re-established as the northern frontier (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 128–129). However, the Roman military still maintained a presence north of the Wall, and the fort at Newstead, north of the Cheviots, continued to be occupied into the Late Antonine period in the mid AD 180s. Preparations for the reoccupation of Scotland began under Severus in the early 3rd century, including building work at the supply forts of South Shields and Corbridge, and forts along Dere Street north of the Wall at Risingham, c. 30km west of Pegswood Moor, and High Rochester were also occupied at this time (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 140). The Devil’s Causeway and the road linking this to Dere Street were also still in use at this time and continued to be maintained into the early 4th century (ibid., 143). According to Dio, the Roman army almost reached the northernmost point of Scotland, however occupation of northern Scotland was short-lived and High Rochester became the most northerly fort, occupied into the early 4th century. During the 3rd century, the function of Hadrian’s Wall altered somewhat from its original
purpose, and although it probably retained some of its bureaucratic functions, the major focus for the military defence of the province was moved north of the Wall to the outpost forts. In the east these were High Rochester and Risingham, and a broad zone of defence was created in front of the Wall (ibid., 142).

The arrival of the Roman army in the region is likely to have had a profound impact at various levels, initially and subsequently. As in the south of Britain after the invasion of AD 43 this impact in the north in the later 1st century is not marked archaeologically as a clear horizon at indigenous sites; physical change came later. The needs of a campaigning and then standing army will have imposed various demands on local supply networks and the developing local agricultural economy. Supply of agricultural produce to the army may have been via levy and cash exchange. The tone of the Vindolanda writing tablets [http://vindolanda.csad.ox.ac.uk/], suggests that already by the turn of the 1st century a stable (if imposed and novel) economic and supply relationship was in place in the frontier zone. The proximity of the Roman army may have been disruptive and distorting for many farming communities, yet doubtless created opportunities for some locals. Exploring this nuanced impact and its archaeological corollaries is a key research prerogative.

It is within this regional context that the inhabitants of the Pegswood Moor site developed their political, economic and social lives. Overall, this is an era of marked change, as manifest, for instance, in production, trade and exchange, land-use, agriculture and social relations. The Pegswood Moor settlement was in use throughout this period and its archaeology indicates a major reorganization during the early Roman period and is perhaps no coincidence given this historical background. This publication sets out to explore this change.
Phase 1: Natural Sub-Stratum

Boulder Clay formed the natural sub-stratum across the excavated area. As is typical of the region, this Quaternary material varied in composition across the site but predominantly comprised sandy clay and silty clay, light to mid yellowish brown in colour, mottled with iron panning, with areas of dark reddish brown clay also observed. Abundant inclusions were recorded throughout the Boulder Clay, mostly coal fragments, stones and small boulders.

The natural sub-stratum was encountered at a height of 68.95m OD in the north of the site sloping down to 67.55m OD in the south, over a distance of 250m. This was the level at which archaeological deposits survived.

Phase 2: Earlier Prehistoric

Evidence for pre-Iron Age activity principally consisted of sixteen struck flints recovered during the investigations.

The only feature that was likely to have been associated with recovered struck flint comprised a small pit in the southern part of the site (see Fig. 4). This was sub-circular in shape and measured c. 0.90m in diameter by 0.10m deep. It had a silty clay backfill, with moderate charcoal flecks throughout, which yielded six very small trimming flakes in sharp condition, suggesting that knapping may have been contemporary with the pit (see Bishop, Chapter 3).

Three flints were also recovered from Iron Age features; their condition and technological attributes suggests that these were residual in context. The remainder of the flint assemblage (seven struck pieces) was recovered as unstratified material during topsoil stripping.

Although the struck material was in variable condition, some pieces were in good or sharp condition and are therefore likely to have been discarded close to where they were recovered. The material that was datable is considered to fall into three distinct periods; Mesolithic or Early Neolithic, Neolithic or Early Bronze Age, and Bronze Age. Although no evidence was encountered to indicate actual habitation of the site during these periods, the presence of the flint assemblage demonstrates that sporadic activity was occurring on the site over a long period of time, and is suggestive of short-term visitation of the site, presumably by mobile communities as part of a much wider inhabitation of the landscape.

Phase 3: Unenclosed Later Iron Age Settlement

Structure 1

Structure 1, located towards the northeastern side of the excavated area (Fig. 6), was represented by two sections of curvilinear feature, interpreted as a wall construction trench for a roundhouse, separated by an interval of 3m in the western side of the structure (Fig. 7). Both elements had concave sides and flat bases and measured up to 0.40m wide by up to 0.23m deep. Although it is possible that these may have originally formed a continuous penannular feature, the shallowness of their terminals implying that some of the feature may have been removed by plough truncation, it is also feasible that the wall was built in two sections, this construction technique also being recorded in two other structures at the site. It is not thought that the structure had a west-facing entrance, due to the absence of a corresponding gap in the surrounding drainage gully (see below), so there is a possibility that this structure may have had some form of window or opening in the western side. The wall trench had been truncated to the northeast by a later ditch and did not survive to the southeast, presumably due to plough truncation. The diameter of the wall trench was c. 10m and the projected internal area would have been c. 82m². The wall trenches were surrounded by an external penannular drainage gully, c. 11.50m in diameter, up to 0.65m wide and 0.34m deep. This feature had silted up and been re-cut on at least one occasion. Its northeastern terminal was also truncated, but the presence of a rounded terminal in the southeast testifies to the presence of an east-facing entrance into the roundhouse structure. The primary fill of the latest recut of the drainage gully contained frequent inclusions of charcoal and the uppermost fill contained a large proportion of charcoal and frequent inclusions of tiny fragments of burnt daub and daub flecks, this probably representing domestic refuse, although it is possible that this material may originate from the destruction of the building by fire. One sherd of Iron Age pottery was recovered from the upper fill.

Several other features were recorded in close proximity to Structure 1. Internally were a posthole and a stakehole, these were not substantial enough to represent roof supports and their location, towards the centre of the structure, suggests that they may have been associated with a hearth, perhaps originating from some form of
hearth furniture. Another posthole was located near the southeastern drainage gully terminus, thus possibly related to the southern side of an entranceway into the structure. A short curvilinear slot [156] was recorded adjacent to the southwestern side of Structure 1, while a similar feature [193] was situated internally and had been truncated by its main elements (Fig. 6). The purpose of these features is uncertain, although it is possible that they may be the remnants of a drainage gully and may be the ephemeral remains of an earlier roundhouse structure.

**Structures 2 and 3**

Structure 2, located to the northwest of Structure 1, comprised the ephemeral remains of a curvilinear feature interpreted as representing approximately one quarter of a penannular feature, c. 10.25m in diameter, up to 0.50m wide and 0.20m deep (see Fig. 6). Its uppermost fill contained moderate charcoal inclusions, with some burnt stones, this material probably representing domestic refuse.

Structure 3 was also represented by approximately one quarter of a penannular feature, c. 11.75m in diameter, 0.60m wide and 0.25m deep (Fig. 6). Its uppermost fill also contained charcoal and some burnt stone.

Little survived of these features and so interpretation is necessarily tentative, but it is possible that both represented portions of drainage gullies surrounding roundhouse structures, for which no structural elements survived.
**Structure 4**

Structure 4, located c. 40m to the southwest of Structures 1–3 (Fig. 6), comprised two sections of a curvilinear feature, with a 2m gap between on the western side. The northern element measured 0.40m wide and 0.19m deep with sides varying from near vertical to 45°, with the internal side generally steeper, and a flat base (Fig. 6). On the basis of its profile, this feature is interpreted as an interrupted wall construction trench and there was evidence for the remnants of a clay lining on the internal edge. The southern element only survived to a depth of 90mm. Projecting the walls of the structure gave a diameter of c. 6.80m and internal area of c. 36m². The eastern side of the structure did not survive, so it was not possible to ascertain whether there had been an east-facing entrance or whether the interrupted wall construction represented a structure with a west-facing entrance.

Towards the centre of Structure 4 was a sub-circular pit [111], 1.09m by 0.90m and 0.18m deep, with sides that varied from vertical to gradually sloping. The base was slightly concave with localised irregularities. Its primary fill comprised a distinctive ashy silt with frequent charcoal inclusions, a secondary fill contained patches of ash, while the uppermost fill contained frequent burnt sandstone and charcoal fragments with occasional ash lenses. A fragment of pottery, probably a jar, was recovered from this uppermost fill and AMS dating carried out on organic residues adhering to this sherd produced a date of Cal BC 380 to 170 (Beta 230302; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). A bulk sample taken from the uppermost fill produced a moderate amount of charcoal with some heather type stems present, which had probably been utilised for fuel, and a few small fragments of bone, not identifiable to species, some of which were burnt. The location of this feature and the distinctive nature of its fills are indicative of a hearth, but no evidence of scorching of the surrounding clay was recorded to support this idea. It is possible that once the structure had gone into disuse this pit may have been dug as a rubbish pit to dispose of debris from a nearby hearth, of which no trace survived. However, this is considered unlikely as the composition of the infills is indicative of repeated and episodic deposition. The position of the pit, within the central part of Structure 4, suggests it was associated with the structure; a potential explanation is that it represents a votive feature, containing deposits of hearth material associated with the foundation, use or end of occupation of the structure.
Phase 3 Discussion

The earliest phase of settlement was thus represented by four roundhouse structures interpreted as belonging to a small, unenclosed Iron Age farmstead settlement, although it is likely that only one habitation dwelling was occupied at any one time. Radiocarbon dating indicates that this may have been established by 380 BC. Structures 1 and 4 were truncated by features associated with the subsequent enclosed settlement, whilst the location of Structure 3 indicates that it predated later settlement activity. The relative positions of Structures 2 and 3 were such that that both could not have been in existence contemporaneously, although it was not possible to determine stratigraphically which was the earlier; similarly it is unlikely that Structures 1 and 2 co-existed. Although no traces of wall construction trenches for Structures 2 and 3 survived, if the features recorded did represent drip gullies then the comparative size of these indicates that the structures would have been of a similar size, and possibly slightly larger, than Structure 1. The size of these structures suggests that they represent habitation dwellings, with their relative positions indicating that one house may have replaced another once a structure had become dilapidated beyond repair, particularly due to timbers rotting, with perhaps only one dwelling in existence at any one time. The internal area of Structure 4 was considerably less than Structures 1–3, indicating that this structure was probably not utilised for habitation. It may have been used for storage or for some form of craft activity, such as wool weaving and spinning, although the possibility of a west-facing entrance suggests a potential sacred function. Roundhouse structures almost invariably have east or southeast facing entrances to allow maximum light into the dwelling during the day and where structures with west-facing entrances do occur there is much debate about the implications of this orientation (Parker Pearson 1996). A Late Iron Age roundhouse with a west-facing entrance excavated at Ashford Prison, Middlesex, has been interpreted as a possible shrine (Parker Pearson 1996). Structures with dual openings are also known; three roundhouses with entrances on their east and west sides at Fison’s Way, Thetford are interpreted as being of ritual or religious significance (Gregory 1992). The central pit also indicates a possible sacred function for this structure. Examples of structures interpreted as Iron Age shrines with central votive pits containing structured deposits of hearth material are known (cf. King and Soffe 2001; Atkinson and Preston 1998; see Chapter 4). It was not possible to determine with which roundhouse dwelling Structure 4 was associated, or indeed whether it may have been utilised and maintained throughout the lifespan of all the dwellings, as no stratigraphic relationships or connecting dating evidence was present.

Phase 4: Enclosed Later Iron Age Settlement

The form of the settlement underwent considerable change during the Later Iron Age period as the relatively small-scale unenclosed farmstead gave way to an enclosed farmstead settlement on a far greater scale with evidence for extensive land-use around areas of habitation. A series of enclosures was established and there was evidence that the farmstead was organised into clearly defined zones with specific activities undertaken within each area. Areas for habitation, storage, stock-keeping and manufacturing, for example, have been identified amongst the excavated evidence. It is possible that the settlement developed gradually over time with a series of interconnecting enclosures and land boundaries expanding from an original focus of habitation. However, the surviving evidence means that it is not possible to establish the exact sequence of construction, instead two broad phases of activity have been identified. The initial phase comprised an enclosure containing a roundhouse dwelling, evidently rebuilt twice in a different position, set within a complex of interconnected enclosures utilised for a variety of functions. A second area of habitation was then established, possibly replacing the earlier one or perhaps occupied contemporaneously, with a string of at least eight roundhouses, only a few of which were in existence at any one time, associated with additional enclosures. It is likely that the previously established enclosures and field systems continued to be utilised by the inhabitants of the settlement and this is the favoured interpretation for the archaeological remains from this phase of activity. The enclosure ditches and field boundaries associated with this phase of enclosed settlement continued beyond all limits of excavation, demonstrating that the farmstead extended over a far greater area than that recorded.

Earliest Phase of Later Iron Age Enclosed Settlement

Enclosures 1 and 2

Enclosure 1, located towards the central part of the excavation area, was sub-rectangular in plan and measured 52m north–south by 40m east–west, with an internal area of just over 2,000m² (Fig. 10). The enclosure was originally bounded by a feature up to 1.70m wide and 0.75m deep with a narrow vertical-sided slot in its base indicative of a palisade trench, suggesting that in its earliest form Enclosure 1 was surrounded by a timber fence. A 3m wide entrance was located along the southeastern side of the enclosure and the square terminals on each side of this entrance had near vertical sides stepping down to a vertical-sided slot with a flat base. The western terminal contained stone post-packing, including a fragment of saddle quernstone <33>, set into the end of the slot, suggesting the presence of a substantial
timber upright. The terminals were identical in profile, indicating that the eastern terminal also probably had a timber upright marking the entrance into the enclosure, with any associated stone packing presumably removed. The evidence therefore suggests the provision of a substantial timber gateway through the entrance.

The southeastern corner of Enclosure 1 cut through the eastern side of Structure 4 (Fig. 10) and it is possible that Enclosure 1 may have been deliberately sited to partially enclose this earlier structure, perhaps acknowledging the building because of its postulated sacred function. The provision of a timber fence around Enclosure 1 would in effect have rebuilt the wall surrounding Structure 4 whilst still allowing access to its central pit.
Fig. 11 Enclosure 2 and Structure 5 (scale 1:150)
The boundaries surrounding Enclosure 1 were rebuilt on at least one occasion with the timber fence being replaced by a broadly U-shaped ditch. A few sherds of Iron Age pottery were recovered from the Enclosure 1 boundaries.

Set within the northwestern portion of Enclosure 1 was a sub-rectangular enclosure, Enclosure 2, which measured 21m by 16m with an entrance to the southwest, delineated by ditches to the west and east and a fence line formed by substantial posts to the southeast (Fig. 11). The western side of Enclosure 2 was defined by a curvilinear ditch with a V-shaped profile and a rounded terminal to the south. There was evidence that the ditch had silted up and been re-cut on at least one occasion, and the composition of the latest fill indicated that the feature had been deliberately backfilled, prior to the construction of Structure 7 to the south. A similar sequence of activity was recorded in the northeastern side of Enclosure 2. At its southern end, the eastern ditch turned to the southwest where it continued as a fence line, forming the southeastern side of Enclosure 2. The fence line comprised a construction trench [1223], a 3.20m length of which was excavated in the west, revealing a profile with vertical sides and a flat base. It was lined with a sandy clay deposit containing stone post-packing for timber uprights and five postholes were located along its base. The timbers had evidently been removed from their housings and the construction trench and postholes backfilled following abandonment of the enclosure. At the western end of the construction trench was a large sub-oval posthole [1205], which contained post-packing material surrounding a post-pipe 0.50m by 0.40m and 0.40m deep. The backfill [1060] of the post-pipe contained a relatively large quantity of pottery from its upper part, comprising 21 sherds, 19 of which were from the same vessel, a barrel jar of c. 250mm rim diameter (Fig. 30.11). This would suggest that following the removal of the timber upright, the cavity had been deliberately backfilled with this material. Another section of construction trench was located immediately to the west of posthole [1205], representing a continuation of the line of [1223]; the posts appear to have been removed and the trench and postholes backfilled prior to the construction of a replacement fence on the same alignment. This was represented by a linear trench [1167] with three substantial postholes cut into its base and two posts located to the south of the trench also probably part of it. A cluster of postholes was recorded to the northwest of the fence line, probably representing replacements of a single post in this area. This may have been the location of the eastern side of the entrance into Enclosure 2, perhaps representing the position of a gatepost. All traces of the north side of Enclosure 2 had been removed by successive episodes of later ditch cutting, probably respecting its original northern side.

The evidence for recuts and repairs to Enclosure 2 demonstrate that it remained in use over a relatively long period of time. The elaborate construction and evidence for continual repair and rebuild suggests that it was not simply a storage area and was probably more likely to have been a stock pen. Animals that would have been kept within a habitation area, such as domestic fowl, may have been housed within this enclosure. The excavated evidence demonstrated that Enclosure 2 had been deliberately dismantled rather than silting up and falling into disrepair; its ditches had been backfilled, timber posts removed and the postholes backfilled, prior to the construction of Structure 7 to the south.

A linear northwest–southeast orientated feature, which had been re-cut on two occasions, was recorded in the northeastern quarter of Enclosure 1, forming an internal sub-division within the enclosure with its western side defined by Enclosure 2 and its eastern and northern sides defined by Enclosure 1 (Fig. 10). The space thus enclosed was a rectangular area measuring c. 17m by 12m, possibly utilised for storage. Nineteen sherds of pottery from the same jar were recovered from the latest reinstatement of this feature [340], along with a sherd of a jar or bowl and a probable stone slingshot <24> (see Wright, Chapter 3).

**Structure 5**

Structure 5 comprised the central dwelling in the group of three structures located within Enclosure 1. It was represented by a curvilinear wall construction trench, 0.34m wide and 0.24m deep, with sides varying from steep to gradually sloping and an irregular base. Under half of a presumably penannular feature survived (Fig. 11); the diameter of the wall trench was 7.30m and the projected internal area would have been c. 49m². A post setting containing stone post-packing was recorded within the northwestern end of the wall trench, and post impressions recorded within this area suggested that these had housed timbers measuring c. 0.10m in diameter. A sandy deposit exposed along the length of the wall trench is interpreted as the remnants of post-packing placed around upright timbers. Towards the eastern end this was over lain by a deposit containing frequent charcoal fragments and burnt stones, possibly representing refuse from the dwelling, incorporated into the trench once the structure had fallen into disuse. A further section of wall trench was located to the east and a posthole containing stone post-packing was recorded within this segment. This was also 0.34m wide and its depth varied from 50mm to 120mm, suggesting that the feature had been ploughed through. It is probable, therefore, that the two features originally conjoined. A posthole [1313], situated in the eastern side of Structure 5, may represent part of an east-facing entrance structure to the building, and there was evidence that the post had been wrenched out. To the west of the Structure 5 wall trench was an irregular linear feature [1059], which was not concentric to the structure, although its location indicates association and it is likely to have been a drainage gully. Several stakeholes and postholes were recorded in the interior of Structure 5, and these probably represented internal features rather than the superstructure of the building. No post-packing survived to indicate diameters of timbers, but the features varied in size from 80mm in diameter to 0.48m by 0.19m, with the average being c. 0.17m in diameter. A shallow
linear slot [1344] measuring 1.95m by 0.30m and varying in depth from 50mm to 30mm may have held horizontal timbers, possibly an internal sub-division. A sub-oval pit [1225], measuring 1.83m by 0.57m and 0.11m deep, was located towards the northern edge of Structure 5 and this contained a large quantity of charcoal. There was no indication of any burning of the surrounding natural clay, which demonstrates that the material had not been burnt in situ and, as with the similar feature located inside Structure 4, this pit potentially contained hearth material deposited as part of a ritual activity associated with the structure. In the anthropological literature ash from the hearth has implications of fertility (Parker Pearson 1996, 119) and examples of foundation and closing rituals to mark the lifecycle of dwellings are also well documented (see Brück 1999). Prior to the abandonment of the roundhouse beneath the Roman fort at South Shields, the hearth had been cleared of ash and then deliberately infilled with special materials (Hodgson et al. 2001, 152).

Three ephemeral features [1333], [1238] and [1233] which had been severely plough-truncated and only survived to depths of a few millimetres were located a short distance to the east of Structure 5; these were possibly the remnants of small pits.

**Structure 6**

The gully west of Structure 5 was truncated to the south by a drainage gully [1088] surrounding Structure 6. This was up to 0.92m wide and 0.16m deep and had been plough-truncated, but two distinct elements identified in the eastern section, along with the profile of the feature, demonstrated that it had silted up and been re-cut on at least one occasion (Fig. 12). No traces remained of the northern side of the gully and little of the structural elements of the building survived; a 1.40m length of wall construction trench [1315] ran concentric to the drainage gully in the southeastern part of the structure and this had steep sides and a flat base and measured 0.30m wide and 80mm deep. The projected diameter of Structure 6 was c. 7.30m, and the building would have had an internal floor area of just over 42m². Several postholes were located in the interior of Structure 6, four of which formed a square structure, c. 1m², in the centre of the roundhouse, possibly a structure surrounding the hearth, or perhaps representing roof supports. A row of three postholes in the vicinity of the wall construction trench is likely to represent the southern side of an east-facing entranceway into the structure. Part of a saddle quernstone <19> was recovered from the drainage gully of Structure 6.

**Structure 7**

Structure 7 was positioned across the southern end of Enclosure 2, which as discussed, had been dismantled and backfilled prior to the building of this roundhouse (see Fig. 10). Structure 7 was one of the best-preserved roundhouse structures recorded at the site and comprised two sections of curvilinear wall construction trench with concentric drainage gullies (Fig. 13). The northern part of the construction trench [1330] was 0.57m wide and 0.18m deep and had near-vertical sides and a flat base. This was lined with clay, interpreted as the remnants of post-packing material. The southern part [1201] in general had a similar profile and was 0.42m wide and 0.20m deep. The internal diameter of Structure 7 was 7.95m and it had an internal area of c. 53m². Between the two segments of wall trench on the eastern side of the structure were two groups of postholes, located 2m apart. The four posts on the south side of the entrance varied in diameter from 0.33m to 0.59m whilst the three posts on the north side ranged from 0.20m to 0.44m in diameter. All of these
The Archaeological Remains

Postholes contained remnants of stone post-packing, the best-preserved of which would have housed posts of c. 0.10m and 0.20m diameter. These postholes would have held timber uprights for a 2m wide doorway through an (east-facing) entrance into the roundhouse. The central posthole on the southern side produced a single pottery sherd from an Iron Age tradition vessel. On the western side of the structure, opposite this entrance, was a 4m gap between the wall construction trenches, between which was a large oval posthole, not quite central within the gap, which had near vertical sides, a flat base and measured 0.70m by 0.63m and 0.11m deep. A second, west-facing, entrance to the structure is unlikely as there was no corresponding gap in the external drainage gully, and it is therefore possible that there may have been some form of window or opening on the west side of the structure. Such a construction technique is unusual; a possible parallel has been recorded at Ashford Prison, Middlesex where an Iron Age structure c. 11m in diameter with an east-facing entrance was constructed with two sections of wall trench with a 6.5m gap between the two on the west side of the building (Carew et al. 2006, 44). However, it was not possible to determine whether this particular structure would have had two entrances due to truncation of the surrounding drainage gully in the vicinity of the gap on the western side, or whether it is in fact analogous to Structure 7.

Running concentric, and external to, the walls of the roundhouse were elements of a penannular ring gully, 11m in diameter by 0.70m wide and 0.27m deep, which had sloping sides and a flat base. There was evidence that this had been re-cut on at least three occasions; three separate gullies were recorded at the northern terminal. An assemblage of pottery including nineteen sherds from the same small jar (Figs. 14 and 30.4) was recovered from the central gully terminal [333]. Very few artefactual remains were recovered from any of the roundhouse drainage gullies, despite the large percentage of such features that were excavated at the site, indicating that the habitation areas were kept clean and that refuse was disposed of elsewhere. Domestic waste may have been collected in middens, such as that identified within an enclosure at Hutton Rudby, North Yorkshire (Heslop 1987, 114), to be used as fertiliser on the fields. The presence of this group of pottery sherds within the terminal of one of the drainage gullies is therefore of some significance and is interpreted as being indicative of a structured deposit, similar examples having been identified at Crick Covert Farm, Northamptonshire (Woodward and Hughes 2007). Such deposition has been widely studied, particularly in Iron Age Wessex (see Hill 1995), and has recently begun to be recognised in the archaeological record of the North East (see Willis 1999), as discussed further in Chapter 4.

Three postholes located within the interior of the roundhouse, towards its centre, are assumed to represent internal structural elements, as with the posts recorded inside Structure 6; these may have originated from a structure surrounding the hearth, or perhaps housed upright timbers for roof supports. Two small pits were also located within the interior of the roundhouse. Pit [822], situated in the northeastern quarter of the structure, close to the roundhouse wall, was sub-oval with gently sloping sides and a concave base and measured 0.52m by 0.42m.
by 0.13m deep. It contained a large quantity of charcoal, along with hazelnut shell fragments, tiny fragments of burnt and calcined bone, not identifiable to species, a large cow tooth, overlain by a fragment of briquetage (see Fig. 30.13, Chapter 3). Pit [1211], which was located opposite to pit [822] in the northwestern quarter of the roundhouse, only survived to a depth of 50mm and was sub-circular in plan with a concave base and measured 0.38m in diameter. It also contained quantities of charcoal, while small fragments of burnt bone and slag were noted in the residue of a bulk soil sample taken from this pit. These pits do not have any discernible utilitarian function, though they could have been ancillary post-settings supporting the structure. Their position and contents of their infill indicate that like the feature within Structure 5, they may represent structured deposits, possibly associated either with the construction or end use of the dwelling (see Brück 1999), perhaps incorporating material originating from the hearth within Structure 7. A small pit located against the wall at the back of the structure at South Shields, opposite the entrance, which contained an iron adze head, has been interpreted as possibly representing a structured deposit (Hodgson et al. 2001, 101; 152).

Enclosure 1 discussion

The eastern side of Structure 4 was truncated by Enclosure 1, and the enclosure may have been deliberately sited to encompass part of the earlier structure, avoiding the west-facing entrance and thereby allowing access to the central pit to continue. This positioning indicates that Structure 4 was still visible at the time when the enclosure was laid out, although whether it was still standing, or whether by this stage only traces remained, cannot be ascertained. In its earliest form Enclosure 1 was bounded by a timber fence, and it is possible that the corner of the enclosure in effect rebuilt Structure 4 with two straight sides, thereby incorporating the old ‘religious’ structure into the new enclosed settlement. Evidence for continuity of religious use of a location over a long period of time has been found at Elms Farm, Heybridge, Essex where a small circular structure and square building, both with central votive pits, were established in the late pre-Roman Iron Age (Atkinson and Preston 1988). This area developed into a temple complex by the late 1st to 2nd century AD and several phases of construction were identified, with the area remaining a focus for religious activity into the 4th century. At Maiden Castle, Dorset a circular structure of Iron Age date identified as a shrine was reconstructed in the Roman period alongside a rectangular Roman-Celtic temple (Cunliffe 1978, 321). The fences surrounding Enclosure 1 were at some stage replaced by a ditch and this may have marked the end of the use of Structure 4 as the pit would no longer have been surrounded by timber walls. Structures 5–7, which are interpreted as roundhouse habituation dwellings, could not all have co-existed. Although it is possible that the northern and southern buildings, Structures 6 and 7, could have been in use contemporaneously, it is considered more likely that only one structure was present within the enclosure at any time. Structure 7 appears to have been the latest building within the enclosure; various ditch recuts and repairs to the fencelines provide strong evidence for the longevity of Enclosure 2, so this enclosure may have been in use during the occupation of Structures 5 and 6, falling into disuse with the building of Structure 7. Structure 7 was also the best-preserved roundhouse, with evidence that some posts had been left to rot in situ, further supporting the case that it was the latest building in the sequence, as had it been succeeded by another structure, then it would be expected that it would have been completely taken apart to clear the enclosure for the next dwelling. A possible
sequence of construction then is that Structure 5 was the earliest dwelling and once this was becoming dilapidated beyond repair it was replaced by Structure 6, which in turn was replaced by Structure 7, the construction of which necessitated the dismantling of Enclosure 2. It is likely that by the time Structure 7 was constructed, the boundaries delimiting Enclosure 1 had been reinstated as ditches, leading to the interpretation that the earlier putative religious focus within the corner of the enclosure was no longer in use by this stage.

Enclosures 3 and 4 and Droveway

To the south of Enclosure 1 was a substantial sub-rectangular ditched enclosure, Enclosure 3, which measured more than 90m north–south by 74m east–west, enclosing an area of over 6,660 square metres (see Fig. 10). The northeastern side of Enclosure 3 was defined by the ditches that formed the southern side of Enclosure 1, the eastern element of which turned at right angles to form the eastern side of Enclosure 3. A 6m wide ditched droveway aligned east-northeast–west-southwest led to a gap through the southeastern side of Enclosure 3 and this was traced for a distance of over 28m, continuing beyond the limits of excavation to the east. There was evidence for repairs and recuts to the southwestern side of the droveway, adjacent to the entrance into Enclosure 3, indicating relative longevity of use. Two short lengths of ditch running across the western side of the droveway, close to the entrance, may have been utilised to narrow the entrance into the enclosure, with one short length of ditch probably replacing another. The southernmost of the features continued further southwards, possibly being used to channel herds into different areas to the south and east, perhaps with the aid of temporary wooden hurdles (see Pryor 2006, 105). Ditches continuing the line of the eastern and southern sides of Enclosure 3, which continued beyond the limits of excavation, suggested the presence of further enclosures and field systems to the south and east.

Two parallel ditches, set 2m apart, defined the southern side of Enclosure 3 and at the western end of this double ditch arrangement, at the southwestern corner of the enclosure, was a 6m wide gap. The western side of the enclosure also contained a gap of similar width, this being partially spanned by a length of ditch set back 2.40m within the enclosure. Very similar features excavated at a Bronze Age site in Fengate have been interpreted as representing a system for managing and manipulating herds of sheep (Pryor 1996; 2006). The double ditches forming the western side of Enclosure 3 may also have been associated with the management of stock, and parallels with the Fengate site suggest that they represent a sheep race, used to examine and sort animals herded in from the droveway. It is likely that the elaborate arrangement in the southwestern corner of the enclosure was used to channel animals from the sheep race into separate areas to the west and south, external to the enclosure, as well as into the enclosure, again perhaps also utilising temporary hurdles. An 8m length of parallel ditches was located along the western side of Enclosure 3, towards its northern end, this also possibly representing
the remnants of a 2m wide sheep race.

The northwestern side of Enclosure 3 was defined by a ditch that also bounded the southwestern side of another enclosure located to the north, Enclosure 5. A 20m wide ‘entranceway’ between these enclosures may originally have been narrower as there was evidence of severe plough truncation in this area and ground conditions were poor due to waterlogging. Three substantial postholes were recorded external to the southwestern corner of Enclosure 1 (Fig. 10). The southernmost posthole was sub-circular, measuring 1.10m in diameter and 0.30m deep, and its black silty fill was indicative of a timber having rotted *in situ*. The posthole to the north was circular, 1.10m in diameter and 0.22m deep, with a linear extension to the northeast indicative of the post having been wrenched from the hole. The westernmost posthole was sub-rectangular, measuring 1.40m by 0.83m and 0.26m deep. The latter two features were filled by material indicative of the postholes silting up following the removal of timbers. These substantial timber posts are interpreted as marking one side of an access way between Enclosures 3 and 5, the other side of which was not visible due to poor ground conditions.

Set within the northeastern part of Enclosure 3 was a smaller sub-rectangular enclosure, Enclosure 4, defined by an L-shaped ditch, 0.70m wide and 0.41m deep with near vertical sides and a flat base (see Fig. 10). Its western side was traced for a distance of 21m north–south, but beyond this, to the north, it became impossible to identify due to poor ground conditions; the northern side was similarly not visible. Its southern side measured 24m east–west, with a rounded terminal to the east. It is possible that the eastern side of Enclosure 3 also formed the eastern side of Enclosure 4, in which case the c. 10m gap between this ditch and the eastern terminal of Enclosure 4 is likely to have been much narrower, suggesting that the southeastern side of Enclosure 4 did not survive. Enclosure 4 may thus have measured c. 33m by 24m. There was evidence to suggest that after having silted up, the enclosure ditch had been re-cut, indicating relative longevity of use. It is likely to represent a small stockyard within the larger Enclosure 3 located in close proximity to the habitation area within Enclosure 1, perhaps housing animals at times when they needed to be kept at closer quarters. A curvilinear feature was recorded within Enclosure 4, close to its southern boundary, and this measured 2.60m in length by 1.60m and 0.35m deep. Its primary fill contained frequent inclusions of charcoal and the uppermost fill contained crushed and fragmented charcoal with frequent inclusions of crushed and fragmented burnt stone throughout. A large fragment of stone <22> that may have been utilised as a saddle quern rubber was also recovered, this too showing signs that it had been burnt. The quantity of fire debris contained within this feature suggests that it may have been a rubbish pit used specifically for the disposal of hearth debris. It is possible that hearth structures may have been located within Enclosure 4, perhaps connected with the use of the enclosure, with no traces of such ephemeral features having survived plough truncation.

Enclosure 5

Enclosure 5, situated to the west of Enclosure 1 and north of Enclosure 3, measured c. 70m north–south by at least 70m east–west, continuing to the west beyond the limit of excavation (see Fig. 10). The eastern side of this enclosure was bounded by the western side of Enclosure 1, while part of the northern boundary of Enclosure 3 also formed a portion of the southern boundary of Enclosure 5. There was evidence that this southern boundary may originally have comprised a double ditch, indicated by a short length of parallel ditch, possibly representing the remnants of a 4m wide sheep race. There were no traces of the northern side of Enclosure 5, but excavation of subsequent ditches in this area along the same alignment, associated with enclosures to the north, may have removed all traces. The southeastern corner of Enclosure 5 allowed ingress into Enclosure 3, as discussed above. One side of this entrance was marked by substantial timbers but again, the precise nature and dimensions of the entrance are unknown due to poor ground conditions in the vicinity.

Two features were located within the southwestern part of Enclosure 5 (Fig. 10). The most substantial of these was an oval pit, tapering to the east, which measured 7.60m by 3.18m and 0.50m deep. Adjacent to the western limit of excavation was a sub-oval pit that measured 2.50m by 1.70m and 0.70m deep. Both features may have functioned as watering holes for livestock housed within the enclosure.

Enclosures 6 and 7

Enclosure 6, which was of substantial size, measuring 120m north–south by 60m east–west, was located to the east of Enclosures 1 and 3, with its western side bounded by the eastern sides of these enclosures (see Fig. 10). The northeastern side of Enclosure 6 was originally bounded by a complex sequence of narrow ditches, all aligned roughly east–west, recorded in the far northeastern corner of the excavation area (Fig. 16). These ditches had all evidently silted up and been re-cut, with evidence for terminals suggesting the presence of an entrance in the vicinity. The latest ditch in this sequence, ditch [681], measured 8.0m by 0.85m and 0.25m deep with rounded terminals to the east and west. A very large quantity of pottery was found at the base of its eastern terminal and this material appeared to have been placed in the feature prior to it being backfilled. The pottery assemblage comprised 118 sherds from the same vessel, a very large barrel jar with a rim diameter of 410mm (see Fig. 30.9, Chapter 3). AMS dating was undertaken on organic residues adhering to the surface of one of these sherds and this produced a date of Cal BC 390 to 170 (Beta 230201; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). The fill of this latest ditch was notably different from the naturally silted up fills of all the other ditch recuts at this location, as it comprised dark greyish brown sandy silt with frequent inclusions of charcoal, being indicative of the feature having been deliberately backfilled following deposition of the pottery.
in the eastern terminal. It is possible that this deliberate backfilling took place prior to the realignment of the ditches, as described below.

Ditch [481] ran from the eastern limit of excavation in a southwesterly direction for 10m then turned to run northwards for 12m before curving to run westwards (Fig. 17). At the point where it curved, the ditch truncated the east–west orientated ditch complex, described above, essentially continuing on the same alignment, and forming the northern boundary of Enclosure 6. The main east–west aligned stretch of this feature was traced for a distance of 55m, at which point it was truncated by ditch [174], which bounded a complex of enclosures to the west and continued on the same east–west alignment across the excavated area. A complex sequence of silting-up and re-cutting was recorded within sections excavated across the curvilinear section of ditch [481]. The original ditch was 2.40m wide and 0.85m deep, while the final recut was narrower and shallower, typically 1.60m and 0.30m, respectively. A complete lower stone of a beehive quern <7> was recovered from its latest fill (see Fig. 32.1), along with half of a small rubber from a saddle quern <10> (Fig. 33.2). The east–west stretch of this boundary ditch was a substantial feature measuring 2.75m wide and 0.86m deep and this too had undergone a complex sequence of silting-up and re-cutting. In this case, the final recut was nearly the same width as the original ditch, although about half the depth. A linear trench for a post-medieval horseshoe-type ceramic drain (Fig. 17) had been cut along the length of this east–west stretch of boundary ditch. As discussed in Chapter 1, this feature was evidently the origin of the regular rectilinear cropmark identified on aerial photographs of the site.

The complex of recut features in the northeastern corner of the site suggests that the narrow ditches proved ineffective as boundaries at this location due to their rapid silting-up, despite being continually re-cut, so that they were eventually replaced by a far more substantial ditch. The boundary realignment close to the eastern limit of excavation, as represented by the distinct ‘kink’ in ditch [481], may have been necessary because the ground became unworkable due to the continual re-definition of the boundary, so that it eventually proved more practical to simply move the ditch to the south and excavate a far more substantial boundary feature.

The eastern side of Enclosure 6 was bounded by a series of parallel north-northeast–south-southwest orientated narrow ditches, recorded adjacent to the eastern limit of excavation, these were traced for a distance of over 74m and continuing beyond the limits of excavation to the north and south (see Fig. 10). Three separate ditches were present in the southern area, interpreted as representing a single-ditched boundary that had silted up and been reinstated on at least two occasions. Only two ditches were present in the northern area, with the third probably located beyond the limits of excavation. The southern side
of Enclosure 6 may have been bounded by the northern side of the droveway leading into Enclosure 3.

A sub-oval ditched enclosure, Enclosure 7, occupied the northeastern part of Enclosure 6 and this measured c. 26m east–west by c. 12m north–south internally, enclosing an area of 266m². Traces of narrow ditches, which had silted up and been re-cut and then ultimately replaced by fencelines alongside the eastern side of Enclosure 7, may represent the earliest boundaries demarcating this enclosure (see Fig. 16). A gap of c. 1.80m was present between the ditches that defined the earliest boundary in this area, presumably representing an entranceway, and
in this gap was a sub-circular but rather irregular feature, possibly a hollow created in the underlying sub-stratum by traffic through the entranceway. The latest feature [1122] defining the eastern side of Enclosure 7, which measured 0.44m wide and 0.42m deep, had near vertical sides and a concave base and its primary fill in the north comprised clay, burnt wood and burnt clay (Fig. 16). The profile of the feature and the composition of the basal fill indicate that this was a fence line, which had burnt in situ, at least in its northern portion. The composition of the fills further south indicate that the fence had probably been dismantled with the feature then silting-up naturally. To the south, the latest feature in this complex of boundaries comprised a fence line [1229], of similar proportions and profile with an entrance of c. 2.0m in width provided through these latest fencelines defining Enclosure 7 (Fig. 16).

This group of ditch and fencelines was replaced by a much more substantial semi-circular ditch [182] which had a rounded terminal in the east, just 0.50m away from the southern edge of ditch [481], the ‘kinked’ continuation of the northern boundary of Enclosure 6, and in the west conjoined with the east–west element of ditch [481], this ditch thus also forming the northern side of Enclosure 7 (Fig. 17). Ditch [182] was up to 3.40m wide and 0.80m deep and had silted up and been re-cut on at least two occasions. The feature narrowed to a width of 1m at its terminal and lenses of burnt material recorded within the lower fills of the terminal appear to have been incorporated into the feature as it was gradually silting-up. Two of these deposits comprised layers of burnt turf whilst another was a deposit of spent coal. A bulk sample taken from one of these deposits [723] produced charred organic lumps, one of which contained a sedge seed, along with abundant fragments of charcoal and small fragments of bone, much of which was burnt, including herbivore teeth and a possible pig tooth. Several stone artefacts were recovered from the Enclosure 7 ditch; a complete mortar <5>, an ovoid pebble tool <3>, probably a pestle or a polishing or smoothing tool, and two slingshots <1> and <2> (see Fig. 34.1, Fig. 34.2, Fig. 35.3 and Fig. 35.4, Chapter 3). Five sherds of pottery from a jar or bowl were also recovered, along with a few sherds from other vessels, all jars. One of these sherds had organic residues adhering to it and AMS dating of this material produced two possible dates, Cal BC 340 to 300 and Cal BC 200 to 30 (Beta 230298) the results coinciding with a ‘wiggle’ on the calibration curve (see Chapter 3). A sample of charcoal taken from the uppermost fill of the Enclosure 7 ditch was also submitted for radiocarbon dating and this produced a date of cal BC 51–AD 131 (SRRRC AA43432), dating final disuse of the feature. A sinuous linear feature [1131] was recorded in the northeastern part of Enclosure 6, with a terminal adjacent to Enclosure 7. At this point the feature had near vertical sides and a flat base and measured 0.74m wide and 0.36m deep, its profile and dimension suggesting it may represent a fenceline, possibly constructed to keep animals held within Enclosure 6 away from activity within Enclosure 7.

The substantial size of Enclosure 6, the elaborate construction of its boundaries and the evidence for upkeep and reinstatement of these features, indicates that it is likely to have been utilised as a stock enclosure, rather than representing a field utilised for arable crops. The earliest phase of Enclosure 7, as defined by narrow ditches and fence lines, had a 1.80m wide entrance to the east, while the latest reinstatement of the enclosure boundaries saw the entrance reduced to a width of only 0.50m. It is possible, given the plough truncation at the site, that these ditches may originally have conjoined and that no gap existed, with access to Enclosure 7 perhaps being provided by planks of timber bridging the ditch. The narrowness of this access into Enclosure 7, or the possibility of a bridged access, indicates that the feature was not utilised as a stock pen, indeed these access arrangements would indicate a desire to prohibit stock from entering. The boundaries delimiting Enclosure 7 had been reinstated on several occasions, with an original narrow-ditched enclosure being replaced by one bounded by fencelines, this in turn being replaced by a much more substantial ditch, itself re-cut on at least two occasions. This indicates substantial longevity in the use of Enclosure 7. The fact that it was rebuilt several times with such narrow access arrangements suggests that its function remained constant and that it was utilised for some specific activity, the precise nature of which remains unknown, as no internal features were identified. Material recovered from the enclosure ditch may provide a clue to function: charred organic matter, charcoal and burnt bone, along with a complete mortar and pestle, point to the processing or consumption of food. Therefore, this enclosure may have been utilised as a place for food production, processing or for feasting, with all traces of any hearth presumably being removed by later ploughing.

Enclosure 8

The area located to the north of Enclosures 6 and 7 has been designated as Enclosure 8, although the eastern and northern sides of this lay beyond the limits of excavation so it cannot be certain that this was a fully enclosed area (Fig. 17). The southern side of this putative enclosure was delimited by the northern boundaries of Enclosure 6. The substantial horseshoe ceramic drain that ran along the northern boundary ditch of Enclosure 6 turned to run northwards near the western limit of Enclosure 6 and appeared to run along the line of a much earlier silted-up feature, a north–south aligned ditch, traces of which were recorded towards the northern limit of excavation. This drain was therefore presumably cut through the silted-up ditch that formed the western side of Enclosure 8, removing most traces of this feature. Within the limits of excavation, the enclosure thus measured a minimum of 67m east–west by 36m north–south. There was evidence of intense activity within the eastern part of Enclosure 8 and this area was bounded to the west by fencelines, representing internal sub-divisions within the enclosure. The earliest of these comprised a group of three sections...
of fenceline; [666], [679] and [658]. The latter feature had near-vertical sides and a tapered base, and clusters of stones, representing post-packing, were exposed within its base (Fig. 18). A single pottery sherd from a large jar was recovered from this feature. This interrupted fenceline had been truncated towards its northern end by a linear feature [660], which measured c. 10m north-northeast–south-southwest by 0.43m wide and 0.43m deep. This had rounded terminals, vertical sides and a base that varied from flat to tapered and it is also interpreted as a fenceline due to its dimensions and profile (Fig. 18). The nature of its fills would indicate that the fence had been dismantled, with the open feature beginning to silt up before being deliberately backfilled; this uppermost deposit contained frequent inclusions of charcoal, burnt bone and stone. Two stone artefacts were recovered from the northern terminal of the feature, a rubber from a saddle quern <8> and a rounded hand stone <9> (see Fig. 33.1, Fig. 34.3, Chapter 3), along with a few fragments of pottery. Organic residues on one of these sherds were submitted for AMS dating and produced a date of Cal BC 530 to 390 (Beta 230299). A bulk sample taken from the upper fill of the fenceline contained frequent charred cereal remains, including spelt wheat and degraded grains including barley. The chaff and weeds present in the assemblage suggests that this represents waste material from a late stage of crop-processing, probably produced by fine-sieving (Schmidl, Chapter 3). Small fragments of slag were also present in the residue.

A slightly curvilinear feature [677], aligned north-northeast–south-southwest, was located to the east of the fencelines. This was traced for a distance of 8.50m, continuing beyond the limit of excavation to the north and with a rounded terminal in the south. This feature only survived to a depth of 70mm, but it may also represent the remnants of a fenceline. It had been truncated across its centre by a roughly linear feature [656], also probably a fenceline, which extended for a distance of 15m on an approximate east–west alignment. This had rounded terminals, irregular sides and base and measured 0.45m and 0.14m deep. A group of 129 stakeholes were recorded along the edges and to both sides of fenceline [656], continuing to the west beyond its terminal (Fig. 17). The stakeholes are interpreted as originating from timber structures, and the fact that they survived plough truncation demonstrates that they must have been driven to a considerable depth into the ground. They may have formed structures such as drying racks for crops or tenter frames for hides, or represent posts for animal tethering. Alternatively, they may represent the remnants of timber fencelines or windbreaks, which, along with the fencelines to the west, would have created a sheltered area within the eastern portion of Enclosure 8.

A narrow and shallow east–west orientated linear feature [662], extending across the central western part of Enclosure 8 for a distance of 32m, probably represents an internal fenceline within the enclosure. To the east was a narrow curvilinear feature [663] which had a rounded terminal to the south and ran south–north for 1.60m then turned to run southeast–northwest for 4.80m continuing beyond the limit of excavation. This is also interpreted as a fenceline representing an internal subdivision within the enclosure; two postholes to the south may also have been associated.
Within Enclosure 8, five irregular shaped features, Hearths 1–5, were located in the area to the south of the east–west fenceline [662] and a similar feature, Hearth 6, was located to the north (see Fig. 17). Hearth 7 was located beyond the southern boundary of Enclosure 8, in the northern part of Enclosure 6. Interpretation of these features as hearths is suggested by the fact that the natural clay surrounding all of the features was scorched and is supported by the nature of their fills, which comprised burnt clay and sand with charcoal inclusions. The hearths are unlikely to have been used for domestic cooking; such features would have been located inside the roundhouse dwellings. Internal hearths did not survive at Pegswood Moor, but identification of hearths inside roundhouses at Thorpe Thewles, north of Stockton-on-Tees, demonstrates they can survive but only as ephemeral archaeological features (Heslop 1987). The substantial nature of the hearths within Enclosure 8, the largest being nearly 2.0m in length by over 1m and the smallest c. 0.90m in diameter, along with the burning of the natural clay, which indicated an intense heat, perhaps suggests that these features were utilised for some form of industrial, craft or manufacturing activity. The pottery assemblage recovered from the site was of local manufacture and the exterior surfaces of the sherds display irregular oxidisation indicating that the pots had been fired in an above ground bonfire or in a ‘clamp’, a pit cut into the ground in which a fire is constructed (see Willis, Chapter 3). The group of hearths recorded here may, therefore, represent such clamps for firing pottery that was manufactured at the site. Finally, charcoal and burnt bone fragments recovered from these features also support the interpretation of food preparation being undertaken in this area. In sum, this evidence indicates the possibility that feasting occurred in the eastern part of Enclosure 8, this probably being an intermittent activity undertaken at specific times of the year, perhaps a seasonal activity, such as harvest, that required a large gathering of people.

Later Phase of Later Iron Age Enclosed Settlement

The later phase of enclosed settlement saw the establishment of a new area of habitation in the northwestern part of the area of excavation and the construction of two enclosures to the east of this. The southern boundary of these enclosures effectively reinstated the northern side of Enclosure 1 and it is likely that this earlier enclosure continued to be maintained during this later phase of enclosed settlement. Whether Enclosure 1 still continued to be utilised for habitation is not known, and it is perhaps more likely that the area was given over to some other purpose, such as for storage or stock-keeping. The previously established enclosures and field systems are likely to have continued in use as the habitation area of the farmstead expanded.

Enclosures 9 and 10

Enclosures 9 and 10 were situated in the central northern portion of the site, to the north of Enclosure 1 (Fig. 19). The internal area of Enclosure 9, which was sub-rectangular in shape, was c. 28m by 19m, covering an area of c. 400m². Enclosure 10 measured a maximum of 30m by 22m, with an internal area of c. 600m².

The eastern sides of these enclosures were defined by a substantial ditch [174] that ran from the northern limit of excavation for a distance of 40m in a north-northwest–south-southeast direction then turned to run on a roughly east–west alignment, effectively re-cutting the line of the northern side of Enclosure 1, thus delimiting the southern side of Enclosure 10 (Fig. 20). The east–west element continued beyond the western limit of Enclosure 10 for a distance of c. 25m, so that, in total, it measured c. 55m, terminating to the west to form an entrance between Enclosure 5 and a group of roundhouses, Structures 8–15. The most northerly sections excavated across ditch [174] revealed a profile with concave sides, stepping down to a wide concave base, 2.10m wide and 0.70m deep. The profile changed to the south with stepped sides and a flat-based slot 0.50m wide in the base (Section a, Fig. 20). The primary fill of the ditch in these areas comprised sticky bluish grey silt, indicating that the ditch had silted up...
with water-deposited material, and this was overlain by material comprising a mixture of weathered natural clay and water-deposited material. The northern and western sides of Enclosure 9 were bounded by a curvilinear ditch [385], 2.50m wide and 0.86m deep, with stepped sides and a concave base. A small pebble tool, probably a hone, <4> was recovered from this ditch (see Fig. 35.1). Parts of the western section of ditch [385] were obscured to the south by a complex of Phase 5 ditches, with an area of truncation beyond this. A group of parallel ditches aligned east-northeast–west-southwest formed the southern boundary of Enclosure 9 and the northern boundary of Enclosure 10. Ditch [335], 0.87m wide and 0.25m deep, extended 31m to the west of ditch [174], ending with a rounded terminal. Ditch [337] ran parallel to ditch [335], c. 0.80m to the south, and this measured 0.75m wide and 0.45m deep. It was truncated in the west by ditch [613], but continued beyond this truncation, probably meeting the western side of Enclosure 9, with a total length of c. 26m. The southwestern corner of Enclosure 9 was delimited

![Diagram](image-url)
by ditch [613], up to 1.20m wide, which turned to run eastwards to represent the latest boundary feature defining the southern boundary of Enclosure 9 and the northern boundary of Enclosure 10. Seven sherds of pottery from a jar were recovered from this latest boundary feature.

A cluster of 56 postholes were located in the southwestern portion of Enclosure 9, these were of varying dimensions and shapes, but with most in the range of c. 0.15m–0.25m in diameter with a few larger examples measuring up to c. 0.55m by c. 0.25m. It is possible that some of these postholes represent timber structures, such as drying racks, for drying crops and straw, tethering posts, storage structures or pens for holding smaller animals.

Enclosure 10 was bounded to the east and south by Enclosure 9 ditch [174] and to the north by the group of parallel ditches forming the southern side of Enclosure 9. The western side was bounded by a ditch [690] up to 2.40m wide, with a terminal in the north. An internal ditch within Enclosure 10, extending from its southern boundary in a northerly direction for a distance of 13m, sub-divided the enclosure into two areas, the western one being smaller than the eastern.

Enclosures 9 and 10 may have been used for a variety of functions such as storage areas and animal pens, perhaps holding stock at times when animals needed to be kept at close quarters, for instance during the lambing season, or for housing animals that always needed to be within close proximity to a habitation area, such as domestic fowl.

**Habitation Area, Structures 8 to 15**

A group of eight roundhouse structures, Structures 8–15, were situated in the northwestern portion of the excavation area to the west of Enclosures 9 and 10 and, with the exception of Structure 15, these were aligned in a linear, or ‘string’ arrangement (Fig. 20). The structures had been severely plough damaged and were in a poor state of preservation, in most instances only the base of a penannular feature survived. The relative position of these indicates that the structures could not have been contemporary and probably no more than four could have co-existed. The number of structures, therefore, suggests longevity of occupation in this part of the site with structures being replaced in similar positions when re-building became necessary. The northernmost structure was only half exposed within the limits of the site and it is thus possible that the ‘string’ continued to the north. To the immediate west of the more northerly structures was a north–south orientated ditch [479], which was traced for a length of c. 26m, continuing to the north beyond the limit of excavation, with a square terminal in the south. This measured 0.80m wide and 0.50m deep, and the excavated portions demonstrated that it had silted up and been re-cut on several occasions. It was clear that considerable effort had gone into maintaining this feature over a lengthy period of time. Its alignment and location strongly suggests that it was associated with the string of roundhouses, possibly separating the habitation area from land used for other purposes, perhaps horticulture or stock-keeping. The ditch itself would not have presented much of a boundary as it was relatively slight in form, and it may represent the only surviving trace of a more substantial barrier, such as a bank and hedgerow or timber fence, located to the west of the ditch. As well as strengthening this boundary, such a barrier would also have afforded protection for the habitation area from the prevailing westerly wind.

To the south of the structures was a substantial east–west aligned ditch that formed part of a major boundary feature that traversed the site, earlier versions of which had defined the northern side of Enclosures 1, 6 and 7. This boundary also defined the northern side of Enclosure 5 and an entrance through the boundary in the vicinity of the structures presumably allowed access between the habitation area and Enclosure 5. Sample excavation of the boundary in the area immediately to the south of Structures 8–15 revealed a complex sequence of ditches, recuts and associated narrow linear features, possibly representing hedge-beds (Sections b and c, Fig. 20 and Fig. 21). The original east–west ditch [618] was 0.50m deep and had concave sides and a wide, flat base. A sandy silt deposit represented natural silting of the feature and in the east it was then re-defined as ditch [616], 0.95m wide and 0.70m deep, which had a terminal at its western end and continued to the east beyond the excavated area.

To the west, ditch [618] had been re-cut as ditch [1022], which was very similar in profile and dimensions to ditch [616]. Ditches [1022] and [616] were subsequently re-cut by another east–west orientated ditch [614] which was a wide U-shaped feature up to 1.80m wide and 0.35m deep. A series of narrow parallel linear features [631], [634] and [635] were located on the southern side of this ditch, perhaps representing hedge-beds. The provision of hedges alongside the ditch as well as strengthening the boundary would also have provided protection from the wind for the habitation area to the north. The latest fills of features [631] and [634] may be associated with the subsequent Phase 5 deliberate backfilling of the features, as described below. The nature of the fill of the latest ditch [614] also indicates that this feature was deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of the Phase 5 enclosure.

Ditch [614] was not visible in the westernmost part of the excavated area to the south of the roundhouses and, therefore, probably terminated in this area forming the eastern side of an entrance through Enclosure 5 in the vicinity of Structures 8–15. The corresponding western side of this entrance was represented by the eastern terminal of a ditch [1042], which had near-vertical sides, a flat base and was 0.97m wide by 0.30m deep. This feature also appeared to have been deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of the Phase 5 enclosure. The entrance thus formed would have been c. 2.0m in width. The earlier ditch [616] also had a terminal in the west, presumably representing the eastern side of another, earlier, entrance into the enclosure, this highlighting the necessity to maintain an entrance in the locality, close to the habitation area. The east–west boundary continued from
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Fig. 20 Structures 8 to 15 and Enclosures 9 and 10
(plan: scale 1:500, sections: scale 1:40)

- **a** Section across enclosure ditch [174].

- **b** Section across Enclosure 5 ditch and recuts.

- **c** Section across Enclosure 5 ditch, recuts and Enclosure 11 ditch and recuts.
the western side of the entrance for a distance of c. 35m, continuing beyond the limits of excavation to the west. A segment of this boundary feature excavated adjacent to the westernmost limit of excavation also revealed a series of recuts demonstrating an ongoing effort to maintain this feature. A narrow linear parallel feature was also located to the south of the main ditch here, again perhaps representing a hedge-bed.

Structures 8–15 do not appear to have been situated within an enclosure created specifically to delimit a habitation area, unlike Structures 5–7, which were undoubtedly built within Enclosure 1, although they were set within an extensive complex of enclosure and boundary systems. However, it is possible that the structures were located within a very large enclosure, defined to the south by the east–west boundary feature, with the western and northern boundaries located beyond the excavated area and the eastern boundary represented by the eastern ditches of Enclosures 9 and 10.

Structure 8

Structure 8 was the northernmost roundhouse within this group of buildings, with around half of the structure visible within the limits of excavation (Fig. 20). It comprised two sections of wall trenches, which may originally have formed a continuous penannular feature 9.30m in diameter truncated by ploughing. The eastern segment had near vertical sides, a flat or concave base and measured 0.40m wide and 0.25m deep. Excavation demonstrated that the wall trench had been lined with clay, probably post-packing for upright timbers. The timbers themselves had probably rotted in situ as the clay lining appeared undisturbed and was overlain by dark grey to black silty deposits. The base of the clay lining was uneven, presumably reflecting the positions of the timber uprights originally housed within the construction trench. The western part of the structure only survived to a depth of 0.14m and was of very similar dimensions and profile to the eastern segment, with irregular dips in the base probably representing the locations of timber uprights. Occasional patches of clay throughout the silty clay fill of this feature suggest that a clay lining had been disturbed by ploughing. A fragment of a stone artefact <27>, probably representing a saddle quern rubber, was recovered from Structure 8, along with a probable quern fragment <28>.

Structure 9

Structure 9 was located c. 20m south of Structure 8 and comprised a 0.47m wide and 0.10m deep feature with steep sides and a concave base, representing the remains of a penannular feature with less than half of its circumference surviving, although its full diameter can be estimated at c. 9.40m. The feature did not have an even curve but instead had been built in a series of relatively straight segments. A similar polygonal building plan was recorded in a structure at Little Waltham in Essex and it has been suggested that the structure may have been built with horizontal beam plates (Cunliffe 1978, 177). Structure 9 was truncated to the south by Structure 10 and to the north by Structure 11.

Structure 10

Very little survived of Structure 10, which comprised a curvilinear feature 0.50m wide and 80mm deep with a diameter of c. 9.0m (Fig. 20). Around half of this presumably penannular feature survived, which again had evidently been built in a series of straight segments demonstrating that it represented a wall construction trench rather than drainage gully. Its relative position indicates that it may have replaced Structure 9, and was subsequently truncated to the south by Structure 14.
Structure 11

Structure 11, which truncated the northern side of Structure 9, comprised a penannular feature c. 10.25m in diameter by 0.30m wide and 0.10m deep, with steep sides and a concave base (Fig. 22). The southeastern side of this feature had been largely plough-truncated, and the northern side only survived to a depth of 40mm. The feature had apparently been constructed in two segments, as indicated by two partially conjoining sections in the western side, interpreted as wall construction trenches. These segments did not curve evenly but were slightly polygonal.

Structure 11 had an east-facing entrance, as evidenced by a rounded terminal in the northeastern side of the gully, although the corresponding terminal in the southeast was not present due to truncation. Two postholes located near to the northern side of the entrance may represent settings for part of a doorway into the structure. Posthole [566] had near vertical sides and a flat base and measured 0.34m by 0.24m and 0.19m deep and posthole [574] had a similar profile and was 0.20m in diameter and 0.14m deep.

Three small pits were located towards the centre of Structure 11. Pit [553] was sub-circular, measuring 0.52m by 0.44m and 60mm deep, with gently sloping sides and a flat base. Its fill comprised burnt clayey sand with frequent charcoal inclusions. Pit [555] was of similar form and profile and was also filled with burnt material. Pit [541], 0.50m by 0.60m and 50mm deep, truncated to the west, was sub-oval with gradually sloping sides and a concave base. A fragment of a heat-damaged stone artefact <26>, identified as a possible loom weight, was recovered from this pit. The absence of burning of the natural clay around these pits indicates that they were not hearth bases and it is possible that these may have been associated with some ritual to mark the life cycle of the building (see Brück 1999) as with the pits located inside Structures 5 and 7 within Enclosure 1.

Structure 12

Structure 11 was truncated to the north by Structure 12, which comprised a penannular feature, 0.50m wide and 0.20m deep, with concave sides and an irregular base, measuring 8.80m in diameter (Fig. 23). This feature is best interpreted as a wall construction trench due to its irregular profile and edges. The feature had a 4m wide gap situated in the east, but this was probably originally narrower as the southern side displayed evidence of having been plough-truncated. A fragment from the central part of a stone hone <25> was recovered from this structure. Posthole [403] was situated close to the southern side of the entrance and may have formed part of a structural element associated with a doorway. It was sub-circular with vertical sides and a flat base and measured 0.27m by 0.23m and was 0.19m deep. Post [466], which was sub-rectangular with steep sides and a concave base and measured 0.30m by 0.25m and was 60mm deep, was located in the central part of Structure 12, although it may have been internal to either this structure or the subsequent building, Structure 13. If central to Structure 12, then it may have been a temporary roof support erected during the construction of the building, as it was located in the area where a hearth would be expected. Two pits may also have been internal to either structure, but their position suggests they are more likely to be associated with Structure 12. Pit [564], which was located close to the northern side of Structure 12, was square in plan with rounded corners, 0.17m by 0.17m and 50mm deep, with steep sides and a flat base. Its fill comprised charcoal and sand with small fragments of burnt bone. Pit [572] was circular with vertical sides, a flat base and measured 0.30m in diameter and 0.33m deep. Its sandy clay fill contained frequent inclusions of charcoal and burnt stone and occasional charcoal lenses. The composition of the material within these pit suggests similarities with features within Structures 5, 7 and 11, and they too may represent structured deposits associated with rituals surrounding the life cycle of the structure.
Structure 13

Structure 13, which truncated the western side of Structure 12, comprised a penannular feature with steep sides and a flat to concave base, 0.38m wide and 0.25m deep with a diameter of 7.80m (Fig. 24). The slightly irregular form of the feature suggests that this may be best interpreted as a wall construction trench created in segments rather than a continuous arc. The southeastern side of the structure did not survive plough truncation, but the surviving elements demonstrate that the entrance would have been on the eastern side. Pit [547] was located in the vicinity of where the terminal defining the southern side of the entrance would have been located. This was sub-circular with concave sides and a flat base and measured 0.78m in diameter and was 0.10m deep and its sandy silt fill contained occasional charcoal inclusions. It is possible that this pit was cut through the terminal at the end of occupation of the structure. The terminals of Iron Age ditches were evidently a location imbued with some ritual significance; two pits cut through each terminal of the drainage gully surrounding the central house at Burradon could well be associated with an ‘end of use’ ritual for the roundhouse structure (Willis 1999, 96).

Structure 14

Structure 14, which truncated Structures 9 and 10, represents the southernmost structure in this group of roundhouses. It comprised an approximately penannular feature, 0.41m wide and 0.13m deep, with gently sloping sides and a tapered base, which was c. 6.80m in diameter. As with other structures in this cluster of roundhouses, the feature had been built in a series of relatively straight segments rather than as a continuous arc and this polygonal plan, along with its profile, indicates that it represents a wall construction trench (Fig. 25). Pit [512], located within the southeastern quadrant of Structure 14, was circular with near-vertical sides, a concave base and measured 0.60m by 0.55m and 0.13m deep. Its sandy silt fill contained frequent inclusions of charcoal and stones, possibly representing the structured deposition of hearth debris. Several structural features were also recorded inside Structure 14; these comprised posthole [514], which measured 0.26m by 0.23m and 80mm deep, along with a cluster of six stakeholes, these probably representing parts of internal structural features.

Structure 15

Structure 15, the most easterly building in this group of roundhouses, comprised a penannular wall construction trench, the northern portion of which had been plough-truncated, measuring c. 7.40m in diameter by 0.51m wide and 0.11m deep with concave sides and base (Fig. 26). A cluster of nineteen stakeholes recorded in the southern portion of the structure possibly represent small internal timber features within the roundhouse rather than major structural features. Seven stakeholes were also located outside the structure to the southeast and these too may have been associated with Structure 15.
Phase 5 1st- to 2nd-Century AD
Romano-British Activity

Backfilling of Phase 4 ditches

The latest reinstatement [614] of the east–west boundary ditch adjacent to Structures 8–15 was backfilled with material that was noticeably different (comprising firmly compacted dark orange brown sandy clay), from the natural edge-derived silting and water-deposited material that filled the ditch elsewhere, which generally comprised bluish grey sandy silt or clayey silt. This difference in composition suggests that the ditch was deliberately backfilled in this area. A fragment of glass armlet <13> (Fig. 36.1) dated to the late 1st to early 2nd century AD was recovered from the backfill of the ditch. Two of the linear features [631] and [634] running parallel to ditch [614] also seem to have been deliberately backfilled at this time. The terminal of ditch recut [1042], which represented the western side of the entrance through Enclosure 5, the eastern side of which was formed by ditch [614], contained at its base a lower stone from a beechnut quernstone <18>, along with several large natural boulders (see Fig. 43, Chapter 4), and the feature had then been deliberately backfilled. As with ditch [614], the absence of silting in this ditch indicates that it was backfilled soon after disuse. Five sherds of a jar or bowl were recovered from this infilling deposit and AMS dating carried out on organic residues from one of these fragments produced two possible date ranges, Cal BC 360 to 290 and Cal BC 240 to 50 (Beta 230299), these results coinciding with a ‘wiggle’ on the calibration curve.

Enclosure 11

Enclosure 11 was situated in the northwestern part of the excavated area. As discussed above, the ditches delimiting the northern side of Enclosure 5 in this area were deliberately backfilled, possibly immediately prior to the construction of Enclosure 11. The eastern side of Enclosure 11 truncated Structures 9–14, cutting through the middle of some of these roundhouses (see Fig. 4) and this positioning seems a very deliberate statement associated with the dramatic reorganisation of the settlement. Enclosure 11, which was trapezoidal in plan with rounded corners, was defined by timber fencelines that had evidently been repaired or rebuilt on occasion. The northern side was 26m wide, the southern side was 36m wide and it measured 34m north–south, enclosing an area of just over 1,000m². A 3m wide entrance, Entrance 1, was located towards the southern end of the eastern side of the enclosure whilst two entrances were located along the southern side of the enclosure; a 2m wide entrance in the southeast, Entrance 2, and a 6m wide entrance in the southwest, Entrance 3 (Fig. 28).

The northeastern side of Enclosure 11 was defined by a linear feature [361], aligned approximately north–south, which was up to 0.60m wide and 0.35m deep with vertical sides and a flat base. It is interpreted as the construction trench for a timber fence. It had a rounded terminal to the south, representing the northern side of Entrance 1, and from there extended 18m to the north, at which point it was truncated by a rebuild. Post and plank impressions were visible in the feature in the vicinity of this entrance (Fig. 29). Approximately 3m to the south was another linear feature [580] on the same alignment, which extended for a distance of 10m and then turned in the south to run westwards for 6m, forming the southeastern corner of Enclosure 11. This had a rounded terminal in the north, representing the southern side of Entrance 1, and a 3m length of the feature excavated in this area exposed a V-shaped profile with eight postholes, plank impressions and stone post-packing present. The sides and base of the feature were lined with orange sandy clay, interpreted as packing for the timbers. An upper fill comprised sticky greyish brown, sandy silt with stone post-packing. The presence of the stone packing, along with the impressions of posts and planks evident in the clay lining, indicate that the timbers had been left to rot in situ. Another group of post impressions were recorded in the southeastern corner of feature [580], where it was again lined with clay, overlain by the same material as that encountered to the north. The construction trench increased in size in its east–west aligned section, where it was up to 1.20m wide and 0.55m deep. Further evidence for timber posts were recorded west of the corner. A section across the feature revealed that its sides and base were lined with a deposit of firm yellow clay. A posthole [858], measuring 0.70m by 0.50m, was recorded at the western terminal of [580], indicating that a substantial timber upright had marked Entrance 2 (see Section c, Fig. 20). The timber post had apparently been removed, with the cavity then being backfilled with clayey deposits, prior to the insertion of another post, as represented by a clay-lined posthole [927], 0.70m wide and 0.40m deep. A bulk soil sample taken from this feature produced a single grain of hulled barley and the feature also yielded a sherd of pottery. The increased size of the construction trench in this area, along with the evidence for replacement of substantial timbers, could be explained by the presence of the Phase 4 boundary features in the locality. The backfilled ditch may have created localised waterlogged conditions, thereby requiring the fence to be more substantial in order to prevent movement and rotting of the constituent timbers. The fact that large timbers needed to be replaced generally supports the idea that ground conditions were poor at this location.

The western side of Entrance 2 was defined by a linear construction trench [928], which had a substantial rounded terminal in the east, similar in dimensions to the terminal of [580], indicating that timber posts may have marked both sides of the entrance (Fig. 28). A narrow linear feature [1013] led up to the eastern side of Entrance 2, running in a north-northwest–south-southeast direction, and was traced for a distance of 3.26m, but continued to the southwest beyond this point (Fig. 28). This was 0.45m wide and 0.51m deep and had near-vertical
sides and a flat base, this profile and dimensions indicate that it represents a fenceline leading up to the entrance, possibly to facilitate the herding of sheep through the entrance. A complete upper beehive quernstone <16> (Fig. 32.2), along with a fragment of upper beehive quernstone <17> (Fig. 32.3), were recovered from the base of this feature (Fig. 43).

Fenceline [928] had been constructed on a west-northwest–east-southeast orientation along the northern edge of the backfilled Phase 4 ditch and extended for a distance of 11.20m, having rounded terminal at either end. The western terminal was less substantial than that to the east, 0.60m wide compared to 1.10m. This construction trench measured 0.74m wide and 0.47m deep and had
near-vertical sides in the south and stepped sides in the north. Its northern side was lined with clay, probably the remnants of packing for the timber fence. A post-impression was recorded at the western end of the feature, defining the eastern side of Entrance 3.

The western side of Entrance 3 was defined by the eastern terminal of construction trench [770], which was 0.60m wide and 0.35m deep with sides that varied from near vertical to 45° and a generally flat base. The sides and base were lined with silty clay, interpreted as the remnants of timber packing. Feature [770] defined the southwestern corner of Enclosure 11 then turned to form the western side of the enclosure. A section excavated across this fenceline along the western side of the enclosure revealed material indicative of natural silting and the composition of these deposits, along with the absence of any clay lining, indicates that any timber structure may have been removed at disuse. To the north, feature [770] truncated construction trench [806], which defined the northwestern corner of Enclosure 11 then turned to form the western side of the enclosure. A posthole was recorded on the northern side of the construction trench, close to the western terminus. This measured 0.78m by 0.45m and 0.16m deep and had a cluster of stones in the centre of the base, which presumably formed a post-pad. This may have been an additional repair to the timber fence represented by feature [368], which seems to have replaced a corner of the structure. A fragment of glass armlet <11> (Fig. 36.2) was recovered from the western terminal of construction trench [368], this probably dating from the late 1st or 2nd century AD, along with a single sherd of pottery.

Features inside Enclosure 11

Structure 16, situated just south of the centre of Enclosure 11, was defined by a curvilinear feature, which survived to a depth of only 90mm, and was 0.30m wide (Fig. 28). The poor survival of this structure meant that it was not possible to determine whether this represents part of a drainage gully or wall construction trench. The diameter of the structure can be estimated as c. 5.65m; comparison with other excavated sites suggests that this small size indicates that the structure was unlikely to have been
Enclosure 11 Discussion

Enclosure 11 thus appears to have been constructed and/or repaired in individual sections with timber posts and planks. On the eastern side of the enclosure, in the vicinity of the entrance, the post and plank impressions were extremely well preserved. The absence of dwelling structures, which in this location is unlikely to be the result of plough truncation as evidenced by the presence of the earlier Structures 8–15 and the surviving features within Enclosure 11, indicates that Enclosure 11 was not built for habitation. The form of the enclosure, particularly the provision of three entrances, favours the interpretation that it may represent a substantial stock enclosure. The range in entrance sizes may suggest that different animals were being brought into the enclosure, with Entrance 3, the widest at 6m, perhaps being utilised for cattle and Entrance 2, with the fenceline leading up to it, perhaps for herding sheep through. The more elaborate Entrance 1 on the eastern side may have been used for human access.

As described above, the eastern side of Enclosure 11 truncated the string of roundhouses (Structures 9–14), cutting directly through the middle of some of these, and sections of the major Phase 4 ditch were apparently deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of the enclosure. The fact that the latest phase of this ditch had not silted up prior to being backfilled suggests that only a short period of time had elapsed between the ditch going out of use and the backfilling event; if the ditch had been left open for any considerable length of time it would have silted up. These actions suggest deliberate imposition of the new enclosure over an existing settlement. The apparently careful placing of two almost complete quernstones, one in the backfilling of the Phase 4 ditch and one in the new construction along with a further fragment, suggests deliberate termination and foundation deposits associated with this new phase of activity. The two glass armlet fragments may also represent such deposits, one being put into the backfill of the ditch and the other deposited in the terminal of one of the features defining the new enclosure.

Pit to the north of Enclosure 11

Pit [751], located 1.50m beyond the northwestern corner of Enclosure 11, was ovoid in plan with steep sides, an irregular base and measured 0.95m by 0.25m deep. Its primary fill comprised light greyish brown sandy clay with occasional stones and lumps of orange clay and this was overlain by an upper deposit [780] of dark greyish brown to black sandy silt. A bulk sample taken from this upper fill produced a single charred cereal grain, along with partially charred heather-type stems and twigs, possibly representing the remnants of fuel. This feature may have been a refuse pit utilised for the disposal of hearth material, there was no indication of scorching of the surrounding soil.

Several postholes were also recorded within Enclosure 11, but these do not form any coherent structure or feature.
**Romano-British period boundaries to the east of Enclosure 11**

A complex of ditches and boundaries was recorded to the east of Enclosure 11, extending across the entire excavated area (see Fig. 27). Two sections were excavated across these boundaries in the northern part of the excavated area, one adjacent to the northern limit of excavation, and another located c. 10m to the south.

The most easterly feature, ditch [343], measured 1.70m wide and 0.30m deep, extending for a distance of 100m with rounded terminals (Fig. 28). A 4m long section was excavated along the northern end of this ditch and the composition of its fills indicated that it had silted up naturally. A group of four postholes was recorded along the eastern edge of the ditch in this area, all having vertical sides and flat bases and measuring up to 0.25m by 0.15m and 80mm deep. The shallow depth to which these features survived indicates that further posts may have been situated along the feature, but that all traces could have been removed by horizontal truncation through ploughing. The presence of these postholes indicates that the ditch may have had a timber fence along its eastern edge, possibly to prevent livestock from entering the ditch from the east.

Following the silting-up of ditch [343], a linear feature [344] had been cut through the ditch, towards its western side. This also had a terminal in the north, 1.20m beyond the end of the earlier ditch, indicating the maintenance of an entranceway through the boundary in the far northern portion of the excavated area. Feature [344] had steep sides, a concave base and was 0.46m wide and 0.18m deep. Its fill comprised black and red ash, burnt clay and burnt daub, the composition of this material and the profile and dimensions of the feature indicates that this may represent a wattle and timber fence that had burnt down. It was recorded for a distance of 5.20m, but may have continued southwards along the line of the earlier ditch, but further investigation was not possible. A bulk sample taken from this feature produced charred fruit stones and seeds of blackberry/raspberry, possibly representing a food resource collected from hedgerows nearby.

The line of this easternmost boundary was traced for a distance of over 100m, although without further excavation it was not possible to determine whether the boundary was formed by fencelines or ditches. Towards the central portion of the excavated area, this boundary feature was defined by ditch [1055], which measured up to c. 1.20m wide by 0.40m deep and had a terminal in the south.

A complex sequence of boundary features was recorded to the west of ditch [343], running parallel at a distance of between 2m and 3m. Two sections were excavated across these features, in the north and south, with the boundary features continuing into the central area between, but without excavation it was not possible to distinguish individual features. The most westerly linear boundary [701] had a rounded terminal in the north and was 0.50m wide. The composition of its fill, which contained frequent inclusions of charcoal and moderate fragments of red burnt clay, indicates that this feature also represents the remains of a wattle and daub fenceline which had burnt down. In the south it had a V-shaped profile with a concave base and a rounded terminal in the south. It contained a shallow primary silting-up deposit truncated by stakeholes, indicating that this feature continued as a timber fenceline, although in this area there was no evidence that the feature had burnt down. This westerly fenceline was thus recorded for a total distance of c. 21m.

Immediately to the east of fenceline [701] was a short length of linear feature [703], up to 0.34m wide, the fill of which also contained large quantities of charcoal and fragments of red burnt clay, indicating that this too was a burnt down timber fenceline. The fenceline was traced for a distance of c. 2.0m and a posthole was recorded towards its southern extent, the fill of which also contained charcoal and burnt daub. In the southern excavated area, immediately to the east of fenceline [701], was a short length of a linear feature [545] with a terminal to the south and continuing to the north into the unexcavated area. Five postholes were recorded along the eastern edge of this feature. It is possible that these two fragments of fencelines may represent a central feature in this group of boundary features.

Fenceline [703] was truncated to the east by another linear fenceline [388] which had a sub-square terminal in the south and continued to the north beyond the limit of excavation. It had near vertical sides, a flat base and was 0.45m deep and was recorded for a distance of 9m. The fenceline widened to 0.85m towards its terminal in the south but was only 0.20m wide in the north, possibly due to horizontal truncation. The primary silting deposit had been truncated by a series of postholes and stakeholes and a shallow feature situated in the base of its terminal may have been the base of a post which had burnt in situ as its fill comprised ash, charcoal and burnt daub. Four stakeholes were located along its western edge, near to the terminus, and these were filled with ash, charcoal and burnt daub, again indicating that the timbers had burnt in situ. A small post that had also evidently burnt in situ was situated between the stakes. The upper portion of the fenceline contained frequent charcoal and burnt daub, again indicating that a wattle and daub fence had burnt down.

A further length of fenceline [372] continued to the south of fenceline [388] along the same alignment, after a gap of only 0.40m. This had a sub-square terminal in the north, near-vertical sides and a concave base and was 0.90m wide by 0.36m deep. This feature also had a primary silting fill truncated by stakeholes and a posthole along its western edge. The primary silting of the ditch and the fills of the stakeholes and postholes were overlain by distinctive material that again contained charcoal and burnt daub, demonstrating that the fence had also burnt down in this area. The relatively narrow gap between fencelines [388] and [372] is puzzling; the features appear to have been associated since they have the same dimensions, shape and sequence of silting and structural elements. However, a gap of only 0.40m would not allow
animals to pass through, although it is possible that it may have been used for human access perhaps via a stile. In the southern excavated area, ditch [643] was recorded for a distance of 7.70m with a terminal in the south. This had silted up and been replaced by fenceline [372] which, as with the segment excavated to the north, had a shallow primary silting deposit cut by stakeholes along its western edge. As with the other fencelines in this southern excavated area, there was no evidence that the feature had burnt down.

The western complex of boundary features therefore comprised at least two, and possibly three, timber fencelines, and it is likely that only one was ever in existence at a time, with each representing a replacement of the previous one, presumably required due to the destruction of the fencelines by fire. This repeated burning is very curious; damp fencelines would have been unlikely to spontaneously combust and the possibility that the burning may have been deliberate must be considered. However, it must also be considered that the fences may have caught fire accidentally due to some activity that involved fires being repeatedly lit in the near vicinity.

It was not possible to ascertain whether the eastern complex of boundaries, which was represented by two fencelines, one representing a replacement to the other, co-existed with the western complex. However, the gap between the two groups of features would have been a minimum of 2m wide, and it is therefore entirely feasible that the boundary comprised a double fenceline in the northern part of the site, which may have functioned as a droveway or trackway.

Further traces of the western complex of boundary features were identified at a distance of c. 30m to the south of fence [643] (see Fig. 27). Two parallel and adjacent linear features were recorded over a distance of c. 40m, these had been severely plough-truncated and it was not possible to determine whether they represented fencelines or ditches, nor could a stratigraphic relationship between the two be established. Ditch [1057] was located 3m to the west of ditch [1055], running on the same alignment. The total recorded length of this feature was 41m, although it may have continued further north, parallel to ditch [1055]. The ditch was up to 0.83m wide and 0.27m deep and had concave sides and a flat base. The most westerly feature in this area comprised another parallel ditch [1065]. These three parallel ditches had no stratigraphic relationship, but as with the boundaries to the north, it is possible that a double boundary system was in operation.

Two parallel and adjacent ditches [901] and [908] ran from the southwestern corner of the excavation area running north-northeastwards for a distance of 78m then turned at a right angle to run 10m eastwards. The termini of these ditches both curved round to the north, thereby creating a 2m wide entranceway through these ditches and the complex of boundaries described above. The eastern feature, which measured up to 1.50m wide and 0.25m deep and had a U-shaped profile in the north, had silted up and been re-cut to the east by a ditch with a different profile, with sides sloping down to a vertical sided slot which may represent a clearing-out slot to counter the problem of the ditch silting-up. Sections excavated across the southern portion of the ditch revealed a series of banded fills representing silting-up and the ditch had been re-cut along the same alignments with a V-shaped profile to the same width and around half the depth.

This major north-northeast–south-southwest aligned boundary system extended across the entire excavation area for a distance of 190m, continuing both northwards and southwards beyond its limits. Although this boundary had no stratigraphic relationship with Enclosure 11, they are interpreted as being associated and belonging to the same phase of Romano-British activity. The enclosure and boundary system were both an imposition on the previous settlement; Enclosure 11 cut through several of the earlier structures and its construction involved the backfilling of the earlier settlement ditches. This system truncated boundaries associated with several Phase 4 enclosures, resulting in a significant alteration to the layout of the landscape.

To the east of this boundary, no apparently associated Romano-British period features were discovered, and it is possible that this may have been an open space not subject to any form of sub-division. Similarly, to the west of the boundary, the area in which Enclosure 11 was located may have been either open space or enclosed land. The full extent and nature of landscape management at this time could not be determined within the area of investigation, despite its relatively large scale.
**Lithics**

Barry Bishop

Sixteen struck flints were recovered during the investigations, seven of these were unstratified finds collected during machine stripping. All the struck pieces were made from flint or cherty flint and most retained a hard and often battered cortex, indicating that they had been obtained from derived sources, most probably local alluvial gravels. The flint was variable in colour; most pieces were an opaque speckled dark green, but semi-translucent dark brown, opaque orange brown, opaque pinkish brown and semi-opaque speckled grey pieces were also present. The variability of the flint would also support a derived source for the raw material. The flint appeared to have reasonable flaking qualities but it was prone to thermal shattering, resulting in occasional step fracturing and flake shattering occurring during reduction.

Six very small trimming flakes in sharp condition, one of which would appear to be a small core ‘tablet’ type rejuvenation flake from a faceted platformed core, were recovered from the Phase 2 small pit, the only feature that was likely to have been associated with recovered struck flint. The similarity in colour of these flakes suggests that they originated from the same nodule and their condition suggests that knapping may have been contemporary with the pit, although only a very small proportion of the waste likely to have been generated was present.

Three flints were also recovered as residual material within Iron Age features. These comprised a small, rather battered trimming flake of semi-translucent dark brown flint, a core-preparation flake in opaque speckled dark green flint, and a small platform face rejuvenation flake with blade removal scars on its dorsal side in semi-opaque speckled grey flint. Although the realities of flintworking continuing into the Iron Age have been firmly established in recent years (Young and Humphrey 1999; Humphrey 2003), in this case the condition and technological attributes of the flintwork would suggest that they had been manufactured much earlier and were residual in context.

The remainder of the flint assemblage was recovered as unstratified material during topsoil stripping. Retouched implements amongst the assemblage included a rather battered semi-opaque speckled grey blade, a dark green narrow flake with finely executed semi-invasive parallel retouch along its left dorsal side, an opaque orange-brown flake with semi-invasive parallel flaking forming a roughly triangular edge-trimmed knife and a large core preparation flake of opaque speckled dark green flint with one margin steeply retouched with scalar flaking and several flakes removed from its ventral surface. It is uncertain whether the scalar flaking was an attempt to produce a tool such as a side scraper or a platform with which to detach further flakes. It may, therefore, be regarded as either a retouched tool or a flake core.

The struck material was in variable condition with some pieces slightly abraded and chipped, consistent with having spent some considerable time within a persistently dynamic burial environment such as a plough-zone, whilst other pieces were in good or sharp condition and likely to have been discarded close to where they were recovered. The material that is datable comprised a blade most characteristic of Mesolithic or Early Neolithic industries, two knives of Neolithic or Early Bronze Age date, whilst the crudity of some of the other pieces may suggest a Bronze Age date.

**Pottery**

Steve Willis

The fieldwork at Pegswood Moor yielded a total of 242 sherds of pottery (6,957g) deriving from vessels of Iron Age tradition. Around 27 rim sherds are identifiable amongst the Iron Age tradition pottery, with a maximum of c. 35 vessels of this type being represented. No typologically Roman pottery was recovered.

Other sherds of ceramic material included three fragments from briquetage (salt container) vessels contemporary with the Iron Age tradition pottery sherds (see below) and several items evidently related to activities involving heat which are reported under a separate heading (Residues from Activities Involving Heat), below. Sundry fired clay items were recovered, from a number of site contexts, totalling 35 pieces weighing 151g. Some of these items may have been daub, though none is diagnostic. A table detailing the incidence of fired clay is held in the archive.
The Iron Age tradition pottery came from 27 separate contexts of various types examined across the site. The briquetage came from two different contexts. Overall, the great majority of these items were recovered from phased stratified deposits. Though fragmentary, these ceramic items are in comparatively good condition; they are not particularly abraded nor weathered; original surfaces are largely intact, with ancient residues apparent in many cases. The average sherd weight is within the normal range for material of this sort from settlement sites in the region.

The 242 sherds of Iron Age tradition pottery comprise one of the largest collections of later prehistoric ceramics recovered from a site in Northumberland and their examination carries much potential for elucidating a variety of aspects of culture and practice at the site during the pre-Roman Iron Age/early Roman Iron Age. That almost the entire ceramic assemblage has been recovered from discrete stratified and phased settlement contexts, plus the fact that it is in comparatively good condition, with much that can be reconstructed to establish part profiles of vessels, means that this collection has considerable research potential and is a vital resource in the characterisation of the site.

The Fabrics

**Pottery fabrics associated with the vessels of Iron Age tradition**

Six fabric types could be discerned amongst the collection. All of these fabrics are fairly hard with irregular fractures. Extant original surfaces generally show that they had in manufacture been wiped with some care to give a quite smooth feel. Fractures are generally rough. Sherd cores, margins and the interior surface are normally unoxidized and appear, essentially, black. Exterior surfaces display irregular oxidation, and where this has occurred, surfaces are often red, mid-brown or yellowish brown. This colouration pattern is typical for this material from the region and is the outcome of firing via the bonfire or clamp method. The principal difference between the fabrics is the character of the inclusion types present. The pottery has been classified into the following fabric varieties:

**Fabric 1.** 'Massive' angular fragments of fine-grained basaltic/doleritic rock, c. 6-12mm in longest dimension, are common to abundant; these inclusions have been well-sorted. Some of these rock fragments are oxidizing to white and red. This type of fabric occurs elsewhere in the region.

**Fabric 2.** This variety of fabric contains somewhat less frequent basaltic/doleritic fragments, while some rounded clay pellets occur in sparse frequency.

**Fabric 3.** Small angular fragments of fine-grained basaltic/doleritic rock are common, (c. 1, 2 or 3mm in longest dimension) giving rise to a rather 'gritty' appearance.

**Fabric 4.** 'Massive' angular fragments of basaltic/doleritic rock occur in moderate frequency; fine 'sparkling' semi-translucent quartz grains are moderate to common, perhaps representing disaggregated coarse sandstone. This type of fabric occurs elsewhere in the region.

**Fabric 5.** As Fabric 4 but with small fragments of white quartz present, c. 2-3mm in longest dimension.

**Fabric 6.** Quartz grain tempered fabric; fine quartz/sand grains are frequent. This type of fabric occurs elsewhere in the region.

**Briquetage fabric**

**Fabric A.** The fabric is mainly oxidized, either red or yellowish brown, with an unoxidized interior margin and surface which can appear waxy. It is fairly hard with a smooth, soapy, feel. Fractures are irregular. Linear voids consistent with the combustion of chaff temper occur in moderate frequency; very fine quartz/sand grains and white specks are present, though rare, and are probably indigenous to the clay. The fabric of these examples from Pegswood Moor is characteristically identical to that of the majority of fragments from briquetage salt containers from other sites in the region, of Later Iron Age date (cf. Willis 1995; Fitts et al. 1999).

**Discussion of the fabrics**

It is highly likely that all of the pots represented were made locally, using selected local resources. Local clays seem to have been used, possibly Boulder Clay that had been 'cleaned' or refined via settlement in a water pit, or similar. To the clay matrix, the potters have added tempering in order for the pots to efficiently absorb sudden temperature change and the rise to high temperature – in other words avoiding their explosion or cracking during firing and subsequent exposure to heat. A variety of tempers could be used to this effect but in the case of the Pegswood Moor pots, the potters have been deliberate in their selection of temper material. Virtually all the later prehistoric pottery contains crushed igneous rock fragments, which occur in common frequency. The rock type is fine-grained and very hard, being generically dolerite (though it may be more accurate to describe the rock as basaltic-doleritic). Six varieties of fabric occur, following slightly different 'recipes', but these are really variations on a theme, and do not seem to relate to differences in the form of the vessels (as seen at a few sites, to some degree, in the south of the region by the Late Iron Age, such as Stanwick, North Yorkshire (Willis 1993; in press b).

This pattern is typical of the area between the Tyne and the Tweed, where rock of this type is very much the main temper employed, as for instance with the pottery from Burradon, south of Pegswood Moor. In County Durham, Teesside and North Yorkshire dolerite is also a common temper in this pottery, but less exclusively (Willis 1993; Evans 1995).
Table 1  Pottery typology and quantitative data, by phase

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Fill/cut</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Fabric</th>
<th>Vessel number</th>
<th>No. of sherds</th>
<th>Wt. (g)</th>
<th>No. of rim sherds</th>
<th>Rim %</th>
<th>Form</th>
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<td>133/149</td>
<td>S1 drainage gully</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1108/1111</td>
<td>S4 pit</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>

Each separate vessel identified amongst the sherds has been allocated an individual number, i.e. the Vessel Number. 'Rim %' denotes the percentage of the rim circumference represented by a rim sherd/s (a complete rim circumference would be 100%).

E = Enclosure  S = Structure
### Table 2  Pottery form, technology of manufacture and use, by phase

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<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Fill/cut</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Fabric</th>
<th>Vessel (and dwg. number)</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Rim diam. (mm)</th>
<th>Techn.</th>
<th>Sherd thickness (mm)</th>
<th>Residues</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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<td>Inp</td>
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</table>

| U/S | | | | | | | | | |
| U/s | 4 | 34 | ?Jar | - | 2 | 12 | 0 | 2 joining sherds |
| U/s | 4 | 35 | ?Jar | - | 0 | 11 | 0 | - |
| U/s | 5 | 36 | ?Jar | - | 0 | Inp | 0 | From base |
Explanation of codes employed in Table 2
Under Form, the following abbreviations are employed: 'unc.' denotes that the vessel form is uncertain; 'Jar' means that the item is thought probably a jar. The heading 'Techn.' is an abbreviation meaning: number of sherds where there is evidence of the technology of manufacture, that is, by coil or slab forming in the case of the sherds from Iron Age tradition vessels. 'Thickness of Sherds' records the maximum thickness of the vessel wall as indicated by the extant sherds; 'Inp' is used where the sherd is 'incomplete'that is, the thickness of vessel walls is not recordable as the sherd lacks one or two original (interior / exterior) surfaces. Under 'Residues' the presence of any macroscopically detectable surface residue is recorded: BZI 1 meaning one body sherd with carbonised residue present on an interior surface; RZI 2 would therefore note two rim sherds with carbonised residue on the exterior surface.

E = Enclosure  S = Structure

Clearly these ancient potters were exercising careful selection as regards what went into their pots. There was something about dolerite that was significant to them. Whilst it was clearly, functionally, a practical sound temper, so too is sand. Why dolerite was preferentially chosen remains a matter for archaeological investigation. Dolerite occurs in the form of narrow intrusive dykes across the North East of England, such as the Whin Sill. These dykes often form enduring upstanding topographic features and so it may be that this rock type was selected for a symbolic reason, the rock perhaps being deliberately quarried at such locations. Less prosaically this rock occurs as erratic pebbles in the Boulder Clays across the region, together with many other rocks of course. Such pebbles may have been sorted out from the Boulder Clay by ancient potters, or collected as river pebbles.

Typological and quantitative information
Phase 3, unenclosed Later Iron Age settlement: a total of two sherds of pottery were recovered from Phase 3 contexts.
Phase 4, enclosed Later Iron Age settlement: the majority of the pottery from the excavation comes from Phase 4, which doubtless, in part, reflects the fact that deposits of this phase were comparatively well-represented and investigated. Twenty contexts attributed to Phase 4 yielded 222 sherds of pottery.
Phase 5, Romano-British period activity: Phase 5 contexts produced a total of thirteen sherds of pottery.
Unstratified material: unstratified pottery from the excavation amounted to five sherds.

Manufacture and typology; vessel form and rim type
In terms of the fabrics (that is clay and inclusions) and form types represented, as well as the technology of manufacture, the pottery from Pegswood Moor is typical of pottery assemblages from sites of Iron Age date in the region (i.e. between the River Tees and the Firth of Forth). All sherds of pottery of Iron Age tradition come from hand-made vessels. The hand-forming was accomplished via simple construction – using coil or slab building techniques. Many of the sherds from the site have fractured along these construction lines, which are often oblique to the walls of the vessels. In addition, some breakage ‘planes’ are convex or concave (cf. Jobey 1970, 72-8; 1982, 9-10). The surfaces of the pots have consistently been smoothed but are otherwise unelaborated. No burnishing occurs. The only decoration occurs on the upper surface of one or two rim sherds and is very rudimentary and unobtrusive, taking the form of finger pad impressions. The infrequency of elaboration is a pattern seen elsewhere in the region, while the occasional incidence of finger pad ‘decoration’ is preceded (cf. Swain 1987).

The great majority of the vessels represented amongst this collection are either clearly, or likely to be, examples of jars of so-called ‘barrel’ or ‘bucket’ type. In the case of the former the form is of approximate barrel shape minus the top third of the barrel, with rather wide mouths. The difference between bucket or barrel forms is not marked and they may be seen as variations on a theme, depending on whether walls are approximately straight or somewhat bowed. This basic form class predominates within the region, particularly in Northumberland where there is evidently little variety in forms. This is evidently so at Burradon, Tyne and Wear (Jobey 1970) as well as at Doubstead (Jobey 1982). There is somewhat more variety in the forms occurring in this tradition further south, in the Tees Lowlands region as at Thorpe Thewles (Swain 1987), though here too, jars predominate (comprising c. 80% of assemblages), with the barrel form likewise prominent. Amongst the present collection, as elsewhere, there is some considerable range in the size of the individual vessels; there are seemingly large, medium and small jars present. The large vessels represented here are truly massive with rim diameters of c. 350mm (two examples) and 410mm placing them amongst the biggest vessels of this date from the region. This difference in size will certainly be deliberate and must be associated with function. The capacity and form of these particular large vessels means that they may, effectively have been cauldrons, with the potential of holding and/or cooking food sufficient for a gathering of people. Considerable uniformity occurs likewise in the case of the rim forms (see below), though Vessel No. 6 is a noteworthy variant. At least one bowl is present (coming from context [820], Phase 5 Structure 16 gully; Vessel No. 30). In some cases
it is unclear from rim sherds (the most form-diagnostic material) whether a bowl or jar is represented as these forms share similar rim types, so it is possible that some further bowls are present (in these cases it is stated that the vessel is either a jar or a bowl).

There are five different rim types represented, all being preceded amongst regional pottery collections. The types are simple, with the majority being variations on a single theme.

**Rim Type 1.** The rim is essentially ‘upright’, slightly in-turned and usually tapered somewhat towards its terminal; the terminal is usually rounded. Examples occur at Stanwick (Wheeler 1954, fig. 12, No. 29), Thorpe Thewles (Swain 1987, fig. 44, no. 82; fig. 46, no. 138) and Burradon (Jobey 1970, fig. 9, no. 12).

**Rim Type 2.** The rim is essentially upright, slightly in-turned and has been somewhat flattened, resulting in a slight internal over-hang. Examples occur at Stanwick (Wheeler 1954, fig. 12, no. 30) and Thorpe Thewles (Swain 1987, fig. 45, no. 49; fig. 46, no. 135).

**Rim Type 3.** The rim is turned slightly outwards, creating a neck and ‘slack’ profile; the rim terminal is tapered to a point. Examples occur at Thorpe Thewles. (Swain 1987, fig. 44, no. 106; fig. 46, no. 170).

**Rim Type 4.** As with Type 1 the rim is essentially upright with a slight in-turn, though in this case the tapering terminal is bent further inwards.

**Rim Type 5.** The rim is similar to Type 1, though is upright (with no in-turning); there is some tapering towards the terminal which is rounded. Examples occur at Thorpe Thewles (Swain 1987, fig. 44, no. 114) and Burradon (Jobey 1970, fig. 9, no. 11).

### Chronology

The Iron Age tradition pottery from Pegswood Moor is part of a long-lived tradition spanning the first millennium BC and continuing into the Roman Iron Age (Vyner 1989, 76-7; Willis 1993; Willis in press b). Current evidence suggests there is only limited typological change to pottery styles during this long period. Although there are no sherds of Roman pottery present amongst the recovered assemblage, this in itself would not preclude occupation at the site during the Roman era as the evidence from elsewhere shows that traditional pottery styles continued to be used at sites with indigenous origins well into the Roman era, as seemingly at Thorpe Thewles and Doubestead (Swain 1987; Jobey 1982). Hence, it is not surprising that in Phase 5 some of the vessels from the site, though of Iron Age tradition in terms of their typology, were actually in use during the early Roman era, contemporary with the glass armlets from the site. Unfortunately the nature of this pottery, not least the simplicity of its forms and lack of typological development, means that it is not possible to suggest dates for the occupation phases at Pegswood Moor on the basis of the pottery, except where dates could be obtained from the carbonized residues (see below). Close scrutiny of the details relating to the fabrics and rims do not represent chronological guides in this case. Examples of briquetage from sites occupied during the Iron Age and early Roman period in the region seem, on current evidence, to be associated with occupation dating to the Late Iron Age and immediate post-conquest period (see below). It may be therefore that the few finds of briquetage from the present site are indicators of occupation during the Later Iron Age; their occurrence in Phase 4 contexts seems consistent with this possibility.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Code</th>
<th>Sample Data</th>
<th>Measured Radiocarbon Age</th>
<th>13C/12C Ratio</th>
<th>Conventional Radiocarbon Age</th>
<th>2 Sigma Calibration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beta 230302</td>
<td>[1108] Structure 4 central pit [1111]</td>
<td>2200 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>-24.7 o/ oo</td>
<td>2200 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>Cal BC 380 to 170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beta 230298</td>
<td>[482], Enclosure 7 ditch [182]</td>
<td>2140 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>-27.5 o/ oo</td>
<td>2100 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>Cal BC 340 to 330 AND Cal BC 200 to 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beta 230299</td>
<td>[582] Enclosure 9 ditch [614]</td>
<td>2160 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>-26.5 o/ oo</td>
<td>2140 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>Cal BC 360 to 290 AND Cal BC 240 to 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beta 230300</td>
<td>[659] Enclosure 8, internal fence line [660]</td>
<td>2390 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>-26.3 o/ oo</td>
<td>2370 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>Cal BC 530 to 390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beta 230301</td>
<td>[680] Enclosure 6 ditch recut [681]</td>
<td>2240 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>-26.6 o/ oo</td>
<td>2210 ± 40 BP</td>
<td>Cal BC 390 to 170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Carbonized residues

A surprisingly high proportion of the vessels represented amongst the pottery from the site show evidence of use in cooking, having burnt remains adhering to their surfaces. They appear to have been placed in or near to a fire with food substances within, which have boiled over leaving carbonised residues on the exterior of the vessels. Such residues are familiar from other regional assemblages of this type (cf. Jobey 1982; Willis in press b). One or two vessels have carbonised remains on the interior where food has burnt within the pot, which has not been cleaned out. Such burnt remains from the sides of ancient pots can be submitted for Carbon 14 dating and this technique, of course, provides a potentially important means for dating the site (directly through the actions of people) at a time period for which we have very few means of dating remains with any precision. Five samples were submitted to the Beta Analytic Radiocarbon Dating Laboratory in Florida and these were analysed using the AMS technique. The results are shown in Table 3.

Discussion of the Pottery Assemblage

The excavations produced a modest-sized assemblage of later prehistoric pottery representing c. 35 different vessels, together with briquetage and other ceramic remains, forming a rare instance within the region of the controlled recovery of later prehistoric artefacts from an extensively investigated settlement complex. Although the amount of pottery recovered from this extensive area excavation seems modest, there is no doubt that this is, regionally, an important group of material. Most of this pottery was recovered from stratified settlement contexts, and comprises relatively well-preserved sherds, many of which conjoin to form part profiles of the original vessels. Pottery was the main artefact type recovered from the works (as is normal for a site of this date), and this material provides a range of information on life, practice and culture at the site. The quantity of pottery compares well with the small collections from sites in Northumberland and Tyne and Wear, where, evidently, people frequently used pottery vessels during the first millennium BC and into the Roman period, but not, seemingly, on any large scale (Willis 1999). There is now a steadily growing corpus of pottery of this tradition from the region (cf. the Later Prehistoric Ceramics Gazetteer) but this assemblage is particularly helpful as it comes from a part of the region from which only a moderate number of other assemblages are known.

Whereas it has been possible to discern some form (including rim form) and fabric correspondence amongst the pottery of this type from Stanwick, North Yorkshire, where this has an evident chronological dimension (Willis in press b), the typological range represented in the Pegswood Moor assemblage is not wide and the assemblage is small, factors which preclude any identification of potential correspondence. The radiocarbon dates obtained from the carbonized residues provide extremely valuable information: the dates forthcoming in the case of this site are consistent with expectations in terms of site phasing and the typology of the material. The corpus of such dated items will increase in the future enabling closer examination of such dates vis-à-vis typological details.

The scale of the vessels shows a pattern of some heterogeneity. Whilst the fabric range used and the basic forms show similarity, the size range of vessels is notable given the modest number of vessels represented. More than a third of the vessels show carbonized residues indicating they were used in food preparation; the actual proportion would certainly be much higher if all the vessels were represented by rims, where the residues tend to occur. All of the larger vessels show this evidence of use: so cooking events in some quantity is evidenced, for the extended family perhaps. There are a few particularly large vessels present in this case, though these are not unprecedented as like sizes are known at Stanwick and Rock Castle (Willis 1994; in press b). Given this utilitarian, presumably (one would think) everyday role, it is then surprising that so few pottery sherds occur at this long-lived site. It is not that the pottery is fragile and liable to disintegrate; on the contrary, extant sherds are robust. The average sherd weight is c. 29g, or c. 24g if the vessel (Number 19) represented by 118 sherds is removed from the equation. In this respect too the Pegswood Moor assemblage reflects the regional pattern: sherds are present through time but they are very uncommon finds. In explanation we necessarily resort to the deduction that pottery was used and consumed, but with low frequency and turnover, or that broken items (and other rubbish/artefacts) were scrupulously removed from site, unless a votive offering lead to a deliberate deposit, as, seemingly, occasionally at Pegswood Moor (cf. Chapters 2 and 4). Otherwise, a smattering of sherds occur in site deposits, and not even in the locus of domestic occupation; again the Pegswood Moor site is no exception in the region in these respects. New thinking may assist us to develop other, perhaps equally probable explanations. One trend is reasonably clear: in the south of the region, around the Tees Lowlands, there tends to be more pottery present in Late Iron Age/early Roman period horizons, compared to earlier deposits, and there is more typological diversity at this time. This could be relevant in this case at Pegswood Moor where much of the activity and occupation probably predates this chronological phase, and this might go some way to explain the modest assemblage size and its circumscribed typology. However, the impression is that in Northumberland these trends to larger assemblages and more diversity never developed. In sum, the Iron Age tradition pottery from this excavation is consistent in many ways with the character and patterns seen with pottery of this type across the region, particularly north of the Tyne.
Fig. 30  Illustrated pottery and briquetage from Phase 4 enclosed Later Iron Age settlement (scale 1:4)
The three fragments of briquetage indicate that salt was in use at the site. The fragments come from ceramic salt containers that will probably have been of small cylindrical form, or trough-like (with two troughs bound together to form a cylinder for transport). The fragments occur in a fragile but distinctive chaff (grass) tempered fabric, which is always a clear indicator as to what they represent. Again these vessels were hand-made practical containers. Light, porous and readily formed, they were used to store and convey salt and in this region are unique to the (?Late) Iron Age and early Roman period. The salt will have been sea salt, collected on a semi-industrial scale on the North Sea coast. Medieval salt making is known at Teesmouth and it is documented that there was extensive ‘salt winning’ undertaken along much of the Northumberland coast between Saltburn and Blyth during the Early Modern period and into the 19th century, connected with the fishing industry and supply to London and elsewhere.
Table 4  Incidence of briquetage (salt container) fragments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fill/cut</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Fabric</th>
<th>No. of fragments</th>
<th>Weight (g)</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 4</td>
<td>612/613 Enclosure 9 ditch</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Hand formed; both of irregular shape; fairly typical examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>821/822 Votive pit inside Structure 7</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Hand formed; fabric of typical appearance; possibly from a base. Fig. 30.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The presence of these salt container vessels at Iron Age sites in the North East is one of our best indicators of the trade and exchange networks which must have existed in the region, but which are not otherwise detectable from the archaeological remains normally encountered at sites belonging to this period. As can be appreciated, salt was a vital commodity in past times and was employed in a variety of processes, not just for seasoning and preservation of food; for instance, its uses extend to hide preparation, for animal 'licks', in cheese making and as currency, having practical, potential and symbolic properties. Its preservative qualities, particularly with regard to meat, will have been very enabling for later prehistoric people.

It is possible that one of the fragments of briquetage is part of a 'special deposit', possibly a ritual deposit at the site (see Table 4). At Burradon, and at sites in the Tees Valley of Iron Age date, fragments of these briquetage containers occur in potentially symbolic or ritual deposits, particularly associated with the end of occupation at domestic sites (Willis 1999; in press a; Fitts et al. 1999).

Evidence of briquetage at other regional sites confirms that generally it is rarely frequent in any quantity at consumer sites and compared to pottery sherds is a conspicuously sparse find, doubtless due to its vesicular nature, meaning it is susceptible to frost action and easy breakage. It is possible that the containers were intentionally broken open to access the salt and salt-rich briquetage sherds may have been placed in pots during meal preparation (and extracted before serving) to exploit the flavouring (Willis in press a). Since its first positive identification in the region in 1995 by the present author and Pam Lowther, this ceramic has been identified at most sites with Late Iron Age occupation (cf. Willis 1995; in press a). Recent excavations at the extreme ends of the region, at North Berwick by PCA and south of the Tees at Foxrush Farm, near Redcar, and Streethouse, Loftus, have yielded comparatively large quantities of briquetage and either direct or indirect evidence of manufacture (Morris in PCA 2006; Sherlock 2005; 2006).

Residues from Activities Involving Heat

Phil Clogg, Rod Mackenzie and Steve Willis

A small assemblage of fragments of fused material resulting from activities involving heat was recovered. These come from four separate contexts, and could relate to different types of processes as they are qualitatively different types of remains.

Context [1067], fill of posthole trench [1167], Enclosure 2 fenceline, one fragment, 13g. This fragment is approximately wedge-shaped in plan measuring 44mm by 30mm by 23mm; it is mainly black. It has a fused/vitrified 'upper' surface, with the lower surface resembling a fired clay. It is not clear what this residue represents. It is possible that this is a dragging off of dross that has fused with other material. It is more likely, however, to constitute a mix of cinder, unburnt fuel and slag. Scanning via XRF proved inconclusive. Of these four cases of residue, this is the most likely to be the result of an industrial process, but is not necessarily so; this could have been created by a wide range of fire related processes and could well be 'domestic' in origin.

Context [722], fill of ditch [182], Enclosure 7, three fragments, 6g. These small amorphous pieces are characteristically similar, light, black and vesicular; they measure 29mm by 20mm by 12mm, 25mm by 23mm by 7mm and 25mm by 15mm by 11mm. These residues are cinder, which could be the result of a potentially wide range of processes, including an open fire burning for a few days continuously.

Context [1133], fill of ditch [1135] northwest side of Enclosure 3, three fragments, 61g. These fragments are characteristically similar nodules, stained a variety of browns and measuring 52mm by 45mm by 28mm, 31mm by 31mm by 29mm and 31mm by 28mm by 13mm. These residues are fuel ash slag, relating to a low heat process. Again, they may be domestic in origin and could have been produced in an open fire burning for a few days.
Context [567], topsoil slumping into upper part of backfilled Phase 4 Enclosure 9 ditches, adjacent to Phase 5 Enclosure 11, one fragment, 42g. This fragment is approximately semi-circular in plan, measuring 58mm by 35mm and derives from a bigger item; some ‘run’ projects from the semi-circular shape. One surface is partially fused and is described here as the upper surface; this has a slight green tinge and it is from this that the run projects. Below this, and forming the core and lower surface of the fragment, is a more typical, light red, fired clay matrix, with some small voids. This seems to be a fragment from the clay lining of an oven or kiln, with a slightly fused/vitrified surface as a result of heating. It may be that the clay has mixed with something within the kiln that has induced a ‘run’ similar to that seen with metal slag. This is an unusual, puzzling item. Scanning via XRF proved inconclusive.

**Quernstones and Other Stone Objects**

Elizabeth Wright, with Geological Identification by Trevor Morse

**Catalogue**

**Beehive quernstones**

*Fig. 32.1* <7> fill [641] of ditch [1452], Enclosure 6, Phase 4

Complete lower stone of a beehive quern in a very dense fine to medium grained grey/white Coal Measures sandstone. There are some brown iron stains within the rock. The quern, which has been neatly fashioned, probably from a boulder (as there are uneven areas which have been pecked over) has a pecked hollow measuring 80mm in diameter and 14mm deep at the summit of the dorsal surface. It seems likely that the stone was intended to be made into an upper stone and this was the beginning of fashioning a hopper, which was soon abandoned and the stone completed as a lower stone.

The grinding face, which is flat and worn very smooth, measures 330mm by 276mm. There is a deposit of iron oxide on the grinding face, probably acquired from the depositional environment of the quern. In the centre of the grinding face is a spindle socket of 17mm diameter, narrowing to a rounded base of 10mm diameter at a depth of 42mm. The sides of the socket are very smoothly drilled or ground, though not using a wide tubular or cylindrical drill. The quern retains a height of approximately 126mm.

The quern has seven missing facets, a result of later modification, damage or deliberate slighting. There is a large facet measuring 130mm by 60mm down the side of the quern, which though rounded, meets the grinding surface in a straight edge. The wear on this, which is considerable, is difficult to explain, though somewhat similar in type to that usually described as a ‘lifting facet’ seen on an upper stone where it is levered up against the lower stone by means of the handle. This wear appears to post-date the wear on the grinding surface and probably relates to a period of secondary use.

*Fig. 32.2* <16> fill [1000] of fence line [1013], leading into entrance through Enclosure 11, Phase 5

The complete upper stone of a beehive quern of a low, hemispherical type, probably fashioned from a boulder. The quern is made from a fine to medium grained micaceous Coal Measures sandstone of a grey/white colour showing kaolinite and white mica in addition to the quartz grains. The quern now presents a sub-pentagonal appearance as a number of facets seem to have been removed at a later date, though parts of the original peck-dressed surface remain. Overall the remaining diametric measurements are 370mm by 340mm and the remaining height is 155mm.

There is a central conical pecked hopper measuring 122mm by 115mm at its widest and narrowing to 53mm at 40mm below the summit. The hopper is smooth sided but with some vertical striations. The exterior of the quern was originally neatly finished with peck dressing. The feedpipe narrows from the hopper to 30mm in diameter before flaring slightly onto the grinding surface of the quern, where it measures 55mm in diameter. In the side of the feedpipe there are slight indications of wear from a metal spindle 30mm long and about 10mm in diameter.

A radial handle socket in the side of the quern has a sub-square opening, measuring 40mm by 40mm and narrowing to 15mm at the base at a depth of 50mm. This was almost certainly used with a wooden handle and was probably formed using a chisel.

The grinding surface of the quern, which measures 338mm by 330mm is worn smooth and very flat (contrasting with the noticeably concave wear on <18>). Examination of the large secondary facets on this stone showed some smooth, undulating wear polish on a 260mm wide facet on the side of the quern with the handle socket and slight wear and smoothing on another facet adjacent to this, as well as on the side opposite the handle socket. It is just possible that this upper stone was later re-used as a lower stone and perhaps might have been retained in a wooden frame to keep it from turning in use. Such frames are known from the medieval period and it is not inconceivable that the same idea may have been employed earlier. Discarded beehive querns were sometimes employed as sockets for doorposts but there are no wear traces in the hopper consistent with such use. The secondary use of this quern, though very obvious, must remain enigmatic.

*Fig. 32.3* <17> fill [1000] of fenceline [1013], leading into entrance through Enclosure 11, Phase 5

About one sixth of the upper stone of a beehive quern of a low bun-shaped type having a concave rounded grinding surface. The stone is a fine to medium grained grey/fawn micaceous Coal Measures sandstone. A recently broken part of the artefact exhibits fire reddening of the rock.
The outer surface of the quern is very neatly pecked to a rounded shape but the absence of the edge to the grinding surface makes it difficult to estimate the original diameter which may have been about 350mm, of which 300mm remains. There is a conical, pecked hopper originally about 70mm deep and perhaps about 100mm or more in diameter narrowing to a feedpipe of about 40mm to 45mm diameter. The quern now survives to a height of 80mm, but when complete and in use the height is likely to have been 130mm or more. A downward pointing handle socket at an angle of about 30 degrees to the horizontal has an estimated diameter of 25mm to 30mm and a length of 65mm. It appears to have been drilled by a different technique from that used in <18>, <16> and <7>, perhaps using a tubular drill. The handle had probably worn through onto the grinding surface of the quern at the time the quern was discarded and this may have been the reason for discard. The grinding surface has been worn very smooth.

The quern belongs to a group of ‘developed’ beehive querns categorised by Curwen (1937) as ‘Roman Legionary’ type because of their recognition at sites of Roman forts and their vici. This connection is probably fortuitous, owing more to the period of currency of the style than to any specific military connections.

The lower stone of a beehive quern in medium grained micaceous Coal Measures sandstone. The quartz grains are sharply angular, there is visible kaolinite and abundant flakes of white mica. The quern shows signs of heat alteration and damage, which will be discussed below. The quern has a smoothly worn grinding surface, concave by about 9mm and now slightly oval in shape, 320mm long by 310mm wide, as there is some breakage along opposite edges. Rock flakes are missing from the dorsal surface of the quern either as a direct result of heat damage or as a result of deliberate slighting or shaping of the stone.
There is a crack across the radius of the grinding surface of the quern between the central spindle socket and the circumference which probably follows a natural fault line in the rock and which has broken away a little as a result of heat and weathering.

The central spindle socket is conical, being slightly sub-square towards the base, measuring 44mm deep and 13mm in diameter at the grinding surface, narrowing to about 10mm. It is probable that a chisel was used to shape the socket. The quern was probably shaped from a natural boulder quite neatly pecked to shape. Its remaining height is about 110mm. There is a flat facet of about 220mm diameter, which was probably intended as a base for the quern. This is now set at an angle to the grinding surface as a result of asymmetric wear, which is very commonly seen, as many beehive stones seem to have been used with an oscillating action rather than being fully rotated.

The stone of the quern now has a pinkish tint probably as a result of heat damage, which is most readily observed on the base and edges. It probably occurred while the quernstone was placed with the grinding face against the ground as the flat face and central spindle socket do not show any discolouration.

Saddle quernstones and rubbers

Fig. 33.1 <8>, fill [659] of fence line [660], internal division within Enclosure 8, Phase 4
Probably the rubber from a saddle quern, but perhaps a large whetstone: a thin, light type in a fine grained micaceous sandstone or mudstone, possibly mildly metamorphosed. Both brown and white mica are present.

About half of the artefact remains. It has a smoothly rounded end and near vertical sides. Remaining length is 130mm, width 60mm, and depth 22mm. In contrast to <27>, where only one side of the artefact had been used and the other surfaces polished by handling, both sides of this rubber had been utilised.

Fig. 33.2 <10> fill [641] of ditch [1452], Enclosure 6, Phase 4
Half of a small sub-rectangular rubber from a saddle quern, which has a flat, smoothed grinding face. All surfaces of the rubber show more or less polish or smoothing as a result of use. The stone is of a dense, compact, fine-grained quartzitic sandstone showing some mica and black inclusions either of iron minerals or rock fragments. The remaining part of the rubber measures 102mm long by 72mm wide and has a depth between 30mm and 40mm, being shallower towards the centre.

Fig. 33.3 <19> fill [1087] of drainage gully [1088], Structure 6, Phase 4
Part of a small saddle quern in a glassy Andesite, probably a Pitchstone Andesite, perhaps from the Cheviot lavas. The remaining measurements are 170mm by 150mm. The quern does not survive to its original height, which can only be estimated as greater than 115mm. The dorsal surfaces of the quern are faceted where it was trimmed from a boulder or original source rock.

The grinding face of the stone survives and is worn hollow by about 8mm. It retains faint traces of peck finishing or possibly percussive use and some patchy areas of roughness. The surface of the quern is weathered and shows some iron deposition. Where the stone is not obviously broken, the smoothing from use wear overlaps the edges of the stone, demonstrating that these surfaces are original.
A large fragment of a creamy buff rock with abundant, somewhat rounded grey inclusions. Further examination demonstrates the rock to be an igneous rock of volcanic origin, possibly from the Cheviots or elsewhere and possibly obtained from a glacial deposit. There is some red colouration, possibly a result of heat alteration. The fragment has two faces meeting at an angle of about 80 degrees, both of which show smoothing. Elsewhere a curve may have been achieved by deliberate shaping. The piece, which measures 127mm by 100mm by 92mm over all, may have been used as a saddle quern rubber.

A fragment of fine to medium grained grey/white sandstone showing white mica. One surface has been removed or damaged. The polish elsewhere on this stone is of a type normally seen on stones which have seen heavy use and repeated handling, suggesting that this was probably the rubber of a saddle quern. Measures 77mm by 50mm by 40mm overall.

A probable quern fragment in a fine grained sandstone, reddened by heat. The fragment, which has a number of smooth surfaces set at angles, possibly derives either from a saddle quern or the hand rubber of a saddle quern. It is irregular and measures 80mm by 90mm by 70mm overall.

Mortars

Fig. 34.1 A small, somewhat trapezoidal shaped stone mortar of a portable size and weight, fashioned from a medium to coarse feldspathic gritstone of a white/yellow colour, showing some limonite or goethite. The mortar was recovered largely complete, though following excavation has split into one small and two large fragments. The mortar measures 210mm by 110mm overall and is 75mm deep with an oval hollow in one face measuring 105mm by 90mm and having a maximum depth of 15mm. The mortar has been roughly shaped from a cobble or boulder. The dorsal surface of the mortar is quite smooth as a result of movement when in use, in contrast to the roughness of the worn surface within the hollow, which has resulted from use with a percussive rather than a grinding action. The mortar exhibits minor evidence of reddening and blackening from fire or heat on its dorsal surface.

A probable fragment of a mortar or saddle quern in an igneous rock. Thin sectioning revealed this to be a microgranite, probably of Cheviot origin. The original proportions of the stone are not clear, but it may have...
been a small one such as <5>. It is approximately oval with an irregular outline and one broken facet below, the other surfaces having weathered. The grinding surface is hollowed by 6mm and retains a rough surface. It may have been employed percussively as a mortar, rather than with a smoothing action. Measures 90mm by 87mm by 55mm overall.

Pebble tools and hand stones

Fig. 34.2  <3> fill [146] of ditch [199], re-cut of Enclosure 7 ditch [182], Phase 4
An ovoid pebble tool with slight surface damage, probably a polisher or smoothing tool. The artefact fits very comfortably in the hand and shows especially smooth wear where the thumb fits in either hand on a heavily worn pebble inclusion in the stone. The stone is otherwise of fine-grained, micaceous Coal Measures sandstone. Length of pebble tool 120mm, width 48mm, thickness 26mm. The tool is evenly worn on all its surfaces.

Fig. 34.3  <9> fill [659] of fence line [660], internal division within Enclosure 8, Phase 4
A well-used hand stone shaped from a rounded, but slightly flattened cobble of quartzite. There are a number of polished facets, otherwise the stone shows lightly pecked, chipped surfaces, probably caused by pecking to shape, though possibly from percussive use. The tool is 85mm in diameter and 58mm thick with a flattened, very smoothly polished facet measuring 50mm by 45mm and worn concave by about 3mm. A slight thumb hollow on one face is worn very smooth with use and would have suited use in either hand. Both flatter faces of the tool show some polish probably from handling in use. Height of the artefact remaining is 77mm. This artefact may have been used in food preparation though other uses are possible. It is of a fine, dense, quartzitic sandstone possibly partially altered by metamorphosis, and exhibiting black specks of iron. The rock probably derives from a glacial source.

Hone stones

Fig. 35.1  <4> fill [327] of ditch [385], Enclosure 9, Phase 4
The greater part of a small pebble tool in a fine to medium grained grey sedimentary rock with small inclusions of rock fragments and degraded feldspar. The tool may have been used as a hone or a ‘sanding block’. One end is 30mm wide and the other 40mm, the tool being preserved to its full original length of 98mm. The thickness varies between 17mm and 18mm. On the narrower face the central height ranges from 30mm at the wider end to 20mm at the narrower. The dorsal side has chamfered edges and is slightly rougher than the operative faces, though still smoothed. The tool has a somewhat rectilinear shape.

Fig. 35.2  <25> fill [464] of drainage gully [477], Structure 12, Phase 4
A fragment from the central part of a hone stone in a pale grey, very fine grained micaceous sedimentary rock. The hone, which now measures only 65mm long by 38mm to 47mm wide and 28mm thick, has a rectangular cross section. There are slight scratch marks, probably made by the edge of a metal blade at an angle of 80 degrees to the edge of the hone. The rock from which the hone is made shows slight signs of pink staining as a result of heat. All faces of the hone except for those obviously broken show signs of smoothing.

Slingshots

Fig. 35.3  <1> fill [146] of ditch [199], recut of Enclosure 7 ditch [182], Phase 4
A probable slingshot made of a heavy, dense pitchstone andesite. The slingshot is neatly pecked, being slightly ovoid in shape and measuring 40mm by 37mm by 32mm.

Fig. 35.4  <2> fill [146] of ditch [199], recut of Enclosure 7 ditch [182], Phase 4
Probable slingshot measuring 35mm by 30mm by 28mm in a heavily weathered, dense, heavy iron-rich igneous rock. The slingshot is chipped neatly to shape. This rock is identical in hand specimen to that of <19>, which was subjected to thin section analysis and proved to be a probable pitchstone andesite.

Fig. 35.5  <24> fill [214] of ditch 340, internal subdivision Enclosure 1, Phase 4
Another probable slingshot of the same raw material, possibly a pitchstone Andesite, as examples <1> and <2>. It has been neatly chipped to an ovoid shape and measures 33mm by 22mm by 32mm.

Miscellaneous

<14> (not illustrated) fill [19] of roundhouse drainage gully [149], Structure 1, Phase 3
A small angular fragment, possibly of Carboniferous limestone. The fragment has probably been utilised as it shows slight smoothing on two orthogonal faces. Measurements 37mm by 12mm by 26mm overall.

<26> (not illustrated) fill [540] of pit [541], Structure 11, Phase 4
Perhaps about one quarter or less of a shaped piece of fine grained sandstone, oxidised on the surface to a red/orange colour and pink throughout as a result of heat. The artefact, which may be part of a loom weight, appears shaped with two smooth, flattened sides and a smoothed, curved edge. Size 110mm diameter and 47mm thick.
simple process of using two stones to grind material has a long history going back into the Palaeolithic period when this method was probably employed to grind pigments for use in decorating the person or producing rock art. Saddle querns continued in use in Britain subsequent to the introduction of rotary querns in the middle Iron Age, though numbers steadily decreased in relation to rotary types. They were obviously still used during the Roman period in small numbers, but by this time their use may have become specialised and possibly industrial. Both upper and lower stones of saddle querns were found, all in a fragmentary state. Additionally, there were two examples, <33> and <5>, probably more accurately described as mortars, as they appear to have been used with a percussive action, though <33> may also have been used as a saddle quern base.

The rocks selected for use as parts of saddle querns are very variable, including igneous rocks as seen in <19>, a glassy andesite, probably from the Cheviots, and a microgranite, probably from a similar source, gritstones, sandstones and a cobble of fine grained quartzite. Most of these raw materials were probably available in the form of glacially transported erratics from the Cheviots and from Coal Measures rocks not far distant from Pegswood Moor. It is of interest that the igneous rocks were utilised in lower saddle stones whilst the hand stones were made from finer grained rocks which are more comfortable to handle and cause less damage to the skin. The flatter hand stones, such as <8> and <10>, are more typical of saddle quern rubbers, though these can be extremely variable in shape and size, owing much to the form of the raw material used to make them and to personal preference of shape or size. The hand stone or pebble tool <9> must have been held and used in a very different way from the other stones in the collection. On the basis of the hand querns recovered, whilst all showed a degree of wear, none was extremely heavily used, which might suggest that ground products did not form the predominant part of the diet.

The two ‘mortars’ recovered belong to Phase 4 and so were evidently used in the Iron Age.

The beehive querns, for which there was evidence of two lower and two upper stones, fall into two groups. Both groups could have been used either before or after the Roman Conquest, though the second group is restricted to the very end of the pre-Roman Iron Age and the Romano-British period and seems developmentally later in the north of Britain. Curwen (1937, 148) refers to these as the ‘Roman legionary type’, but they occur on sites of all types and it is mainly their period of introduction in the north of Britain which has some apparent correlation with Roman military activity. Given the secondary context of most quern finds and the sparsity of and difficulty in dating locally sourced pots in the north, this is not surprising. The developed type of beehive quern is seen in the south of England in the Late Iron Age and in the native style of the East Anglian puddingstone querns.
The earlier type of beehive quern which is characterised by a hemispherical or conical shape and flat grinding faces begins in the middle Iron Age and in some less Romanised and isolated parts of northern Britain the type seems to have continued in use well into the Roman period. The developed type of beehive quern tends to be lighter, mainly because of its lesser height and most frequently shows a conical, slightly inclined grinding surface. As a result of the lesser height, the feedpipe tends to be comparatively short.

Although the majority of the beehive querns from Pegswood Moor were stratified in Romano-British Phase 5 contexts, as potentially long-lived artefacts their period of use may have been in Phase 4 as several seem to have performed the function of foundation deposits for Phase 5 features, suggesting that by this time they had been discarded or that the sacrifice of the object constituted the discard. Signs of wear following modification on <7> and <16> suggest that by the time of deposition they had already undergone a period of secondary use.

The hemispherical quern <16>, which has a flat grinding surface, belongs to the group of predominantly hemispherical shaped stones common in the north of England with a single, non-penetrating radial handle socket, many of which have been described by Jobey in *Archaeologia Aeliana*. In some such querns, the handle socket has worn to a rectangular shape as a result of wear from an iron handle, but in this case the sub-square shape of the handle socket at the surface of the quern seems to result from the use of a chisel to form the opening, rather than a method involving drilling. The lack of wear on the sides of the handle socket suggests the use of a wooden handle. However, the narrowness of the feedpipe and signs of wear in the sides of the feedpipe caused by the spindle in the paired lower stone demonstrate that the spindle was of iron.

The beehive quern of developed type <17> shows the inclined grinding face, conical hopper and short feedpipe more common in this type of quern. The handle socket, inclined at an angle of about 25 to 30 degrees to the horizontal, appears to have been drilled (probably a later technique than the chiselling seen in <16>). The drilling of the handle socket, a more specialised and technically demanding technique, may suggest that the quern was manufactured elsewhere. As the handle socket had probably worn through onto the grinding face by the time this quern was discarded and the quern is very thin at the centre, it appears to have seen heavy use, although it may initially have been less tall than for example <16>. The angling of the handle socket, whilst it might merely result from very asymmetric wear, could suggest that the quern was fully rotated in use. The heavy, flat based hemispherical beehive querns seem to have been used with an oscillating rather than fully rotary motion and with their radial handle sockets would most readily be used in this way. The more developed types, being generally lighter and sometimes smaller, may have begun to be fully rotated and the angling of the handle socket would have facilitated this development.

The introduction of the inclined grinding surface would also lead to the suggestion that these querns were fully rotary. It is noticeable that base stones with conical, inclined surfaces do not tend to show the very noticeably asymmetric wear that is exhibited by many of the upper and lower stones of the earlier, more massive types, as seen for example in lower stone <18>.

Not one of the quernstones was found complete. It is fairly unusual to find complete, discarded quernstones on a settlement site. If a settlement were abandoned then stones in use were precious artefacts, difficult and ‘expensive’ to replace, which were conserved and removed. Given the massive size and weight of beehive querns, it must have been very unusual for these to be broken accidentally whilst still in use unless weakened by a catastrophic fire. The fragmentation seen in quernstones excavated from the sites of settlements must therefore owe much to deliberate action.

As an apparently ‘magical’ artefact which converted raw grain to flour, particularly in the case of the beehive quern where the grain goes in at the hopper and comes out converted to flour at the grinding face, there may have been a number of superstitious and folk practices associated with the artefact. In particular, superstitious practices seem to be associated with the disposal of beehive querns. It is very common to find quernstones which have been destroyed or defaced by the application of very large forces, sufficient to cleave some of the quartz crystals or quartz cement between grains. Querns have often been subjected to heat or very close to fire, though it is difficult to know if this was to make them easier to destroy or deface or as part of a ‘purification’ ritual. This does suggest a need to ‘kill’ or ‘purify’ the artefact at the end of its useful life or necessitated by some other social event, perhaps the demise of the owner.

Traditionally, even into this century, as, for example, in rural communities in Portugal and in China, querns have been a part of the marriage dowry and it is likely that a similar symbolism was attached to them in the more distant past. Rotary querns in particular, with their ‘male’ and ‘female’ parts may have formed a useful symbol for the marriage union.

The use which was made of broken or defaced stones once ‘destroyed’ or ‘killed’ seems to have varied between communities. In areas where suitable rock with good grinding or sharpening qualities was not readily found, the smaller fragments were often re-used as rubbers, polishers and hones. In areas where good grinding and sharpening stones were more readily available, they might be discarded completely or possibly re-used in hearths or as building or flooring stones. Many are found either used as packing stones in postholes, where it is not always clear if they are to be regarded as votive deposits or as serving a practical purpose, or in ring gullies associated with houses, where some may merely have been discarded to be out of the way, but others appear in significant locations such as the termini of ditches, where it seems more likely that they represent votive deposits.
The grouping together of the substantial pieces of querns represented by \(<16\) and \(<17\) in fence line [1013], leading up to the entrance through Enclosure 11, and of \(<18\> in the backfill of Phase 4 ditch [1042], deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of Enclosure 11, bears all the appearance of a votive deposit probably associated with the entrance to the Phase 5 Enclosure 11.

The three Phase 4 slingshots, two of which, \(<1\> and \(<2\>\), were found close together in the fill of ditch [199], the recut of ditch [182] delimiting Enclosure 7 and one, \(<24\> found in the fill of ditch [340], an internal subdivision within Enclosure 1, would appear to have been manufactured together at the same time in the same raw material. These sandy ironstone pebbles bear all the appearance of deliberate chipping to shape, and if not shaped then were probably selected for their suitable shape and size. The slingshots would fit well as a deterrent to predators of flocks or herds as part of a pastoral economy.

The various saddle quern bases and rubber fragments are too fragmentary to do more than provide evidence for some food or crop processing on site. They seem to have been relatively light and of a readily portable size. Several of the processing stones may have been used as mortars perhaps for shelling hazel nuts or pulverising roots but are again of portable dimensions. The heavier wear exhibited by the rotary querns which were probably used in Phase 4 may indicate a site economy dependant on crop agriculture and processed plant products.

### Glass Objects

Lindsay Allason-Jones and Jennifer Price

Fragments of two glass armlets were recovered from the excavations. Both date from the early Roman period and both were recovered from Phase 5 deposits associated with Enclosure 11.

#### Discussion of glass objects

Although native sites in Northumberland usually produce little in the way of material goods, the exception to the rule is glass armlets, although these are invariably found as fragments and never as a complete bracelet (Allason-Jones forthcoming). There has been much debate as to their origin and use, with suggestions that they were worn as pendants or bangles or used as horse-harness, fasteners or hair-rings (see Kilbride-Jones 1938; Stevenson 1956; Price 1988; Allason-Jones 1991). These artefacts are presumed to have been manufactured in the North East (Kilbride-Jones 1938; Stevenson 1956; 1976) although recent research has demonstrated that they are found beyond the lowlands of Scotland and North East England (Price 1988). There has been much discussion as to whether they were the product of the military for sale to the local population (Price 1988) or by the native population for sale to the military (Allason-Jones 1991). However, despite the numbers of glass armlets found in the Military Zone, the evidence one way or the other is still elusive. The North East examples have all been made from recycled Roman glass vessels (Allason-Jones 2009).

The ice blue armlet with cobalt blue and white is the commonest type found in Britain with the bulk of the examples from military and native sites in the northern military zone dating from 2nd-century contexts. Kilbride-Jones was of the opinion that the olive yellow opaque glass armlet (Type 3B) was not as common as the plain white Type 3A, nor had it as long a period of manufacture, belonging to the late 1st and early 2nd centuries AD. Type 3B does not feature in Price’s discussion of glass armlets in East Yorkshire and it appears that the type was confined to the area between Hadrian’s Wall and the Antonine Wall.

**Catalogue**

**Fig. 36.1** \(<13\> fill [582], backfill of Phase 4 Enclosure 5 ditch [614], deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of Enclosure 12

Fragment of plain, opaque, olive yellow, glass armlet of triangular section. Kilbride-Jones Type 3B.

Internal diameter; 57mm; width: 7mm; thickness: 10mm.

**Fig. 36.2** \(<11\> fill [360] of Enclosure 11 boundary [368]

Fragment of a translucent, ice blue glass armlet of triangular section with a cobalt blue and white cord along the apex. Kilbride-Jones Type 2; Price Type 2Ai.

Internal diameter; 54mm; width: 7mm; thickness: 10mm.
Palaeoenvironmental Remains

For the initial assessment (PCA 2002), 46 bulk sediment samples (‘GBA’/‘BS’ sensu Dobney et al. 1992), selected from 72 collected, were processed to 500 microns (by Humber Field Archaeology on behalf of PCA) and the plant remains reported by Hunter (in PCA 2002). Most of the samples gave few ancient biological remains but twelve were identified as worthy of some further study due to the presence of plant and/or vertebrate remains.

Plant macro-fossils

Alexander Schmidl

The analysis sub-samples were processed by Pre-Construct Archaeology Limited. Ten litres of sediment from each of the twelve bulk samples was processed to 1mm with a 300 micron sieve used for the ‘flot’. The resultant ‘flots’ and residues were dried and the residues sorted. The ‘flots’ and selected components from the residues (e.g. charcoal, slag, coal ferrous material, ceramic, bone, daub) were submitted to Palaeoecology Research Services (PRS).

Plant remains were fully recorded using a low-power binocular microscope (x7 to x45) and identified by comparison with modern reference material at PRS and the use of published works (Cappers et al. 2006; Jacomet 2006; Jacquat 1988). Identifiable taxa and other components were listed on paper and the data later transcribed into Microsoft Word tables for presentation. Nomenclature for plant taxa follows Stace (1997). Wood charcoal identifications were attempted with reference to Schoch et al. (2004).

The vertebrate remains were examined and identified as closely as possible with reference to the PRS modern comparative collection.

Few biological remains were recovered rendering any interpretation rather tentative, but the small assemblages of charred remains of cereals and associated arable weeds were consistent with others of the period (Later Iron Age to early Romano-British) from the region and the British Isles in general. The Iron Age trend in favour of the cultivation of spelt wheat (and away from emmer wheat) apparent from larger British archaeobotanical assemblages was also reflected here and the relative proportions of grain, chaff and weeds present suggested waste from a late stage of crop-processing. Charred root/rhizome, sedge and heath-grass remains were recorded from six Phase 4 (Later Iron Age) and Phase 5 (early Romano-British) deposits and may well derive from the burning of imported peat or turves. Other identifiable charred plant remains were restricted to a few finds of blackberry/raspberry from one Phase 5 deposit and possibly represented a food resource collected by the inhabitants of the settlement from hedgerows nearby.

Phase 3, Later Iron Age unenclosed settlement

The sample from the Later Iron Age unenclosed settlement (Phase 3) taken from the upper fill [1108] of the central pit [1111] within Structure 4 gave no identifiable organic remains just a moderate amount of charcoal with heather type stems present. A few small bone fragments were also noted, some of which were burnt, although these were not identifiable to species.

Phase 4, Later Iron Age enclosed settlement

Nine samples of Later Iron Age date from the enclosed settlement (Phase 4) were examined from the fills of pits, ditches, a gully and a hearth. The quantities of ancient remains recovered were, again, small and chiefly consisted of small fragments of unidentified charcoal.

Charred grain was recovered from deposits [173], [546] and [659]. The only identifiable grain, from the fill [173] of Enclosure 9 ditch [174], was a single charred fragment of barley (Hordeum distichon L./H. vulgare L.), but the fill [546] of pit [547], Structure 13, and the fill [659] of fenceline [660], Enclosure 8, gave slightly more substantial assemblages of both grains and chaff, together with some other charred organic remains.

Fill [546] gave a little charcoal (to 12mm), a few rhizome fragments (12mm), three nuts of sedge (Carex), two carpospores of heath-grass (Danthonia decumbens (L.) DC.), one carpospore of a member of the grass family (Poaceae), one carpospore of brome (Bromus), one rachis segment and two grains of barley (Hordeum distichon L./H. vulgare L.), three grain fragments of oat (Avena) and one grain of wheat (Triticum). Waterlogged remains comprised five earthworm egg capsules and four waterlogged seeds of orache/goosefoot Atriplex(Chenopodium), all of which were probably modern intrusions or contaminants.

Charred organic remains from fill [659] consisted of silted charcoal (to 10mm) and a few charred root/rhizome fragments (to 10mm), 21 carpospores of brome (Bromus), five carpospores of rye brome (Bromus secalinus L.), two sedge (Carex) nuts, one achene of knotweed (Persicaria), eight rachis segments and one grain of barley (Hordeum distichon L./H. vulgare L.), 24 glume bases and four grains of spelt wheat (Triticum spelta L.), eighteen glume bases of emmer/spelt wheat (Triticum dicoccum Schübl./T. spelta L.) and three unidentifiable cereal grains. Two waterlogged seeds of orache/goosefoot Atriplex(Chenopodium) were probably modern contaminants.

Vertebrate remains were recovered from two of the samples from this phase, from fill [723] of Enclosure 7 ditch [182], and fill [821] of pit [822], Structure 7; a third Phase 4 deposit expected to yield bone, fill [1210] of pit [1211], Structure 7, gave no remains. None of the fragments could be identified closely; all of those from fill [723] were pieces of large mammal tooth enamel (76 fragments to 35mm; 24g) and those from fill [821] were all burnt (to white or black, occasionally both), unidentified pieces of bone (37 fragments to 25mm; 6g).

Phase 5, 1st- to 2nd-century AD Romano-British period activity

Two samples from Romano-British deposits were examined, from fill [331] of fenceline [344] and fill [864]
of posthole [927], part of Enclosure 11. The latter gave no identifiable organic remains just a trace of fine (to 2mm) unidentifiable charcoal.

Organic remains from fill [331] consisted of nine earthworm egg capsules, 77 fruit stones of blackberry/raspberry (Rubus fruticosus L. agg./R. idaeus L.), four seeds of orache/goosefoot (Atriplex/Chenopodium) and five nuts of sedge (Carex); all waterlogged and most likely of modern origin. There were also five charred fruit stone fragments of blackberry/raspberry (Rubus fruticosus L. agg./R. idaeus L.) which may have been ancient.

Discussion

Most of the ancient biological remains recovered from the analysis sub-samples consisted of small fragments of unidentifiable charcoal and other charred vegetative remains (rhizomes/roots) from deposits of the Later Iron Age enclosed settlement (Phase 4) and early Romano-British period (Phase 5). The single sub-sample from the Phase 3 unenclosed Later Iron Age occupation (Phase 3) gave no identifiable organic remains just a very little unidentifiable fine charcoal.

Overall, identifiable plant macrofossils were few and restricted to occasional charred remains of cereal grains of barley (Hordeum distichon L./H. vulgare L.), emmer/spelt wheat (Triticum dicoccum Schüb./T. spelta L.), spelt wheat (Triticum spelta L.) and oat (Avena) and associated crop weeds (e.g. knotweed – Persicaria, and rye brome – Bromus secalinus L.). There was also a little cereal chaff, glume bases and rachis segments of barley and spelt wheat, from two of the Phase 4 Later Iron Age enclosed settlement deposits [546] and [659], a pit fill and a fenceline fill, respectively. The recovered assemblages were rather small for reliable interpretation but, from the limited evidence available, barley and spelt wheat appear to be the most abundant cereals. Archaeobotanical studies of other sites of the period in Northumberland (Thornbrough and Chester House), undertaken by van der Veen (1992), showed a similar dominance by these two cereals. According to Greig (1991), the British Iron Age was characterized by the main cereal crops being spelt wheat and barley. Based on examination of the wider archaeobotanical data, van der Veen and O’Connor (1998) identified a change in the preferred choice of glume wheat crop, from emmer wheat to spelt wheat, occurring during the Iron Age in Britain and this too appears to be reflected in the Pegswood Moor assemblages.

An examination of the relative proportions of grain, chaff and weeds present in the assemblages suggests that they may have originated as a by-product from a late stage of crop-processing – probably ‘waste’ from a fine-sieving process (see Jacomet 2007). Again, the small size of the available assemblages means that this can only be tentatively asserted.

Charred roots (heather) and rhizome fragments were recorded from six of the analysis sub-samples: fill [659] of Enclosure 8 fenceline [660]; fill [723] of Enclosure 7 ditch [182]; fill [900] of ditch [923] associated with the droweway; fill [1011] of Enclosure 5 gully [1012]; fill [1224] of Structure 5 pit [1225]; and the Phase 5 fill [331] of fenceline [344]. These remains may well derive from the burning of imported peat or turves (Hall 2003). In addition, fill [546] of Structure 12 pit [547] yielded some remains of sedge (Carex) and heath-grass (Dantonia decumbens L. DC.) which probably has a similar origin. During the assessment, silicified remains were noted from fill [552] of Structure 11 pit [553] and these too may have come from peat or turf burning. Records reflecting the use of peat are quite common from deposits from the Neolithic onwards (see Hall 2003), and it would seem that this resource was widely utilised, as fuel and/or in construction (e.g. for turf roofs), in prehistoric and later times.

Other identifiable charred plant remains were restricted to a few finds of blackberry/raspberry (Rubus fruticosus L. agg./R. idaeus L.) from the Phase 5 fill [331] of fenceline and possibly represent a food resource collected by the inhabitants of the settlements from hedgerows nearby. However, a much larger number of uncharred seeds of the same taxa was also present and thought to be of modern origin and the possibilities that all of the remains may be ancient or modern cannot be entirely discounted.

The uncharred seeds and/or fruits and earthworm egg capsules recorded almost certainly represent modern contamination or intrusions into the deposits.

Vertebrate remains were recovered from two of the three samples (all from Phase 4 fills) from which they were expected, namely fills [723] and [821]; no remains were recovered from the third deposit, fill [1210]. None of the fragments could be identified closely – all of those from fill [723] were pieces of ?large mammal tooth enamel and those from fill [821] were all burnt, unidentified pieces of bone. The assessment of the faunal remains (Gidney, see below) showed that bone preservation at this site was extremely poor. As such, it was unsurprising to find that the few remains recovered were of burnt bone or tooth enamel, both of which are more enduring in unfavourable preservational conditions than unmodified bone.

Radiocarbon dating

A fragment of charcoal (Betulaceae cf. Corylus/hazel) from context [1150], the latest surviving deposit within Phase 4 Enclosure 7 ditch [182], was submitted to Scottish Universities Research and Reactor Centre for dating.

The summary results of the analysis are shown below. The 1s (one standard deviation) level of confidence indicates a 68% probability that the true value lies between the +1s and -1s limits. Broadening the limits to ±2s means the probability rises to 95%.

**Sample 66**

<table>
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<td>AA-43432 (GU-9433)</td>
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**Radiocarbon Age BP**

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<td>1σ cal BC 36-cal AD 116, cal BP 1985-1834</td>
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<tr>
<td>2σ cal BC 51-cal AD 131, cal BP 2000-1819</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Animal Bone

Louisa J. Gidney

A number of excavated contexts from the site produced very limited quantities of animal bones along with four residues from sieving of bulk samples during the initial phase of assessment.

A total of sixteen contexts produced fragments of animal bone (see Tables 5 and 6). Preservation of the material was poor: the dentine has decayed from teeth, leaving only flakes of enamel; severe leaching of the mineral component of unburnt bone has led to surface degradation, flaking and crumbling; burnt bone is brittle by nature, rendering burnt fragments vulnerable to breakage into smaller fragments.

The only species to be positively identified was cattle. Tooth enamel was observed in contexts [214], the fill of Enclosure 1 internal sub-division ditch [340] and [723], the fill of Enclosure 7 ditch [182]. Calcanea (heel-bones) were recorded in contexts [482], also a fill of Enclosure 7 ditch [182] and [612], Enclosure 9 boundary ditch [613]. Fragments of long bone shaft, possibly of sheep-size, were noted in context [365], the fill of Phase 5 Enclosure 11 fenceline [361]. Most fragments were too small for identification, even to size class of animal. Moreover, it was not possible to determine if the small bone fragments were human.

Burning was observed on a number of bone fragments. It is not possible to assess the temperature to which the bone has been exposed; such burn marks could have been inflicted merely by exposure to an open hearth.

Table 5 Quantification of hand-recovered faunal remains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fill/cut</th>
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<th>Phase</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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</thead>
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<td>214/340</td>
<td>Enclosure 1 internal sub-division</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>Cattle tooth enamel fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>482/182</td>
<td>Enclosure 7 ditch</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>Cattle calcaneum, poor condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>563/564</td>
<td>Votive pit inside Structure 12 or 13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>Calcined long bone shaft fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>571/572</td>
<td>Structure 13 Posthole</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Comminuted fragments of calcined bone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>612/613</td>
<td>Enclosure 9 ditch</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>Cattle-size frags, possibly including scapula and long bone</td>
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<td>Fenceline, internal sub-division within Enclosure 8</td>
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<td>1.8</td>
<td>Indeterminate fragment</td>
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<td>Enclosure 11 fenceline</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Sheep-size long bone shaft fragments, calcined</td>
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Table 6 Quantification of faunal remains from sieved sample residues

<table>
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<th>Feature</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Weight (g)</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1108/1111</td>
<td>Pit inside Structure 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>No identifiable bone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>723/182</td>
<td>Enclosure 7 ditch</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>Fragments from cattle tooth enamel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>821/822</td>
<td>Votive pit inside Structure 7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>Small fragments of burnt and calcined bone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210/1211</td>
<td>Votive pit inside Structure 7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>Comminuted fragments of calcined bone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1218/1219</td>
<td>Structure 6 posthole</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>Minute fragments of burnt bone, species identification not possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1224/1225</td>
<td>Votive pit inside Structure 5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Small unidentifiable burnt bone fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1276/1131</td>
<td>Fenceline, internal sub-division within Enclosure 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>Possible fragments of tooth enamel, species identification not possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1371/1372</td>
<td>Structure 7 posthole</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>? minute fragments tooth enamel</td>
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Chapter 4 Discussion

Development and Form of the Settlement

Dating and chronology

The excavated evidence from Pegswood Moor appears to span the period from around 400 BC into the 2nd century AD; i.e. the Later Iron Age and early Roman period (see 'Scope of this report', Chapter 1, for an explanation of the terminology used). Despite a well-defined stratigraphic chronological development of the site, precise dating of elements of this sequence is difficult to determine.

As discussed above (Willis, Chapter 3) the pottery from Pegswood Moor is of a long-lived Iron Age tradition spanning the first millennium BC and continuing in use during the Romano-British period. Only limited typological changes are visible during this period and it is not possible to date the occupation phases of the site on the basis of the pottery. Similarly, although briquetage was recovered, this is no more diagnostic, being attributable only to the Later Iron Age or early Roman period. With the exception of two glass armlet fragments, recovered from deposits attributable to Phase 5 and dated to the early Roman period, no other diagnostically datable artefacts were recovered.

A large number of the ceramic vessels had burnt residues adhering to their surfaces and five samples were submitted to the Beta Analytic Radiocarbon Dating Laboratory in Florida and these were analysed using the AMS technique. A copy of the detailed results of this analysis is held with the archive and the results have been summarised within the pottery report (Willis, Chapter 3). These dates (calibrated to 2 sigma) have been integrated into the sequence and specialist reports (see Chapters 2 and 3) and are discussed further below. A further radiocarbon date was obtained from a fragment of charcoal recovered from the upper backfill of a Phase 4 Enclosure 7 ditch.

Site location and morphology

Chapter 2, detailing the site layout and sequence, highlighted some principles and continuities in the organization of the site. In this chapter these and other aspects are examined further. The suitability of the location for agriculture is clear from its lowland setting in an area of what is today productive mixed agricultural land in rain shadow. The site is sufficiently inland (8 km) to have some shelter from the effects of easterly and northeasterly winds and the often cool and damp air conditions associated with the North Sea along eastern England. Still, it would in past times, as today, suffer something from that exposure, but also benefit from the marginal moderating effect proximity to the North Sea can have with regard to temperature. The nearby How Burn, which skirts the site to the west and south, would have assisted drainage and represented a source of fresh water, which may have been routinely used for watering animals, and so forth.

Examination of the site plans reveals what is essentially an east–west and north–south arrangement of the land division features. This orientation is adhered to with the enclosures, which are set within the longer boundaries. The east–west ditch sequence in the northern portion of the excavated area, and which extends beyond the limits of excavation, was re-stated on a number of occasions. This appears to be an important (perhaps the most important) axial marker in the landscape of the settlement, defining and impacting on various spheres of life at the site. It is apparent that smaller enclosures are appended to it or by it, activities of manufacturing, and perhaps feasting, are clustered by it. The importance of this division is emphasized by the effort taken to follow its course with the manifestation of the southern parameter of Enclosure 11. Overall, the Phase 4 Later Iron Age enclosed settlement shows an orderly, intelligible arrangement of the land around the settlement, tied to the functioning of the site as an agricultural establishment (see below). The people of this settlement had planned the site and the idea was adhered to through time both in terms of boundaries and building placements. There is, inevitably, development, given the longevity of the site, but it is striking that the north–south principle, or how this was understood at the time, was followed too by the strings of house placement and replacement. The Romano-British period activity again follows this system in terms of the placement of Enclosure 11. It is possible to develop an argument that this cardinal arrangement follows cosmological attentiveness, and this may be supported by the orientation of the roundhouses and Structure 4 with its likely west (and east) facing entrance(s). Equally though it is possible to look at the immediate landscape setting of the site in comprehending the decisions made by the inhabitants.
when they moved from the unenclosed settlement to an enclosed settlement with its emphatic remaking of the site. There is a strong possibility that this was engendered by population growth, changing agricultural practice (intensity) and a permeating idea and practice of firm land divisions, as we can see characterizing the Later Iron Age across much of lowland Britain (cf. Hill 1995; Taylor 1997). This move to instate firm boundaries allows some opportunity to read the anthropogenic landscape. At Fisherwick, Staffordshire, and further down the Trent Valley in Nottinghamshire, it appears that the orientation of the natural drainage pattern may have been used as a ‘baseline’ from which to divide the landscape; hence at Fisherwick we see in microcosm coaxial ditches following and at right angles to the stream and river directions, while in the middle and lower Trent Valley this is written large on the landscape at this time, or in the early Roman period where it is known as the brickwork field pattern (Garton 1987; Knight and Howard 2004). This seems likely too at Pegswood Moor. To the west of the site, the How Burn runs essentially north–south before turning to the east to follow a more ragged somewhat incised route in a valley, but broadly running west to east. The axial east–west boundary established with the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement lies at right angles to the How Burn to its west, towards which it heads; likewise, the major north–south boundaries follow, broadly, the line of the stream north–south and if projected to the south, are then at a right angle to the eastward flow of the stream. The major boundary system associated with the subsequent Romano-British period of activity, part of a phase representing a radical reorganization of the site, perhaps reflecting new ownership, is not on the same north–south alignment as the main boundaries of the preceding phase, being more on a north-northeast to south-southwest alignment. If anything, that line is even more consistent with the alignment of the How Burn to the west, which it more precisely parallels. Division on the land using water courses is a widespread cultural phenomenon, being practical, unequivocal and enduring, linked presumably also to water rights, and with the potential dimension of symbolism given the supernatural properties that water sources, particularly flowing water, were often imbued with at the time. It is possible that the major east–west division of the enclosed settlement and north–south boundary to south-southwest division in the Romano-British period represent significant property divisions. Interestingly, the upland site at Thockrington, Northumberland, to take but one example, also shows some similar cardinal orientations, and, as with Pegswood Moor, lies 200m from a north–south stream, towards which it is orientated (Willis 1999). Hence a growing demographic need to use land in the Later Iron Age evidently lead to increasingly marked division of the land, presumably defining rights and ownership, function and control, and a change in practices. This move had economic, social and political dimensions, and may have been achieved by consent, or otherwise. These aspects and others are considered in the course of this chapter.

Unenclosed Later Iron Age settlement

The first phase of settlement at the site was represented by the remains of four roundhouse structures forming part of a small, unenclosed farmstead of Later Iron Age date, which produced a single AMS date of Cal BC 380 to 170 (Beta 230302; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). The drainage gully surrounding the best-preserved structure, Structure 1, had been re-cut on at least one occasion, demonstrating relative longevity of occupation. Structures 1–3, which were amongst the largest roundhouse structures excavated at the site, with an interior space more than 10m in diameter, are interpreted as representing habitation dwellings. The relative positions of the structures indicate that Structures 1 and 2 could not have been contemporary, nor could Structures 2 and 3. It is therefore likely that only one structure was ever in existence at a time and perhaps most likely that these three buildings represent a series of replacement dwellings that would have been built when the previous structure became dilapidated beyond repair. Each habitation structure may have accommodated descendants of the same household, as discussed further below.

The three houses from the unenclosed settlement are likely to have been in existence for several generations, especially considering the evidence for repair to Structure 1. The length of time over which each structure would have been in use would depend on several factors but, as discussed further below, it is possible that the structures could have had a lifespan of at least 25 years as suggested by experimental archaeological reconstructions of roundhouses (see www.Castellhenllys.com and Reynolds 1993). It was not possible to ascertain the sequence of construction, but it is suggested that Structure 1 was the latest dwelling as it was the best preserved. Presumably when a structure was replaced, its predecessor would be thoroughly dismantled to make way for the new building, and this may account for the relatively poor preservation of Structures 2 and 3. The unenclosed settlement may therefore have spanned a period of at least c. 75 years, although it is feasible that the settlement may have been in existence over a longer period if the buildings had a lengthier lifespan, and particularly if other roundhouse structures, obliterated by subsequent settlement and later ploughing activity, formed part of the settlement. Structure 4, represented by two elements of an interrupted wall construction trench, was considerably smaller than Structures 1–3, c. 6.80m in diameter, and this notable difference in scale may be related to the function of the building. The presence of a central pit, in the location where a hearth would normally be situated within a roundhouse used for habitation, indicates that this was not a residential structure. The presence of a west-facing entrance suggests that it may have been used for one or more craft or manufacturing activities requiring a draft from the prevailing wind such as drying food or skins, but this orientation, along with the central pit, could also indicate that the building may have had a sacred function (as discussed further below). There was no stratigraphic
or artefactual relationship to link Structure 4 with any of the other three buildings and it is therefore uncertain with which dwelling it was associated. It is possible, given its postulated sacred function, that it may have been maintained at least in some form throughout the lifespan of the unenclosed settlement. The positioning of Enclosure 1, part of the subsequent enclosed Later Iron Age settlement, in relation to Structure 4 perhaps indicates that the building was still visible at the time when the enclosure was laid out, though whether the structure remained in use or was even upstanding by this stage is not certain. Perhaps the corner of Enclosure 1, which in its initial form was bounded by a timber fence, in effect rebuilt Structure 4, with the formerly curved timber walls being replaced by the angles of the enclosure corner.

Enclosed Later Iron Age settlement

The subsequent Later Iron Age occupation of the site was characterised by the establishment of an enclosed settlement, which evolved over time into an extensive and highly spatially organised community. There is, however, compelling evidence for continuity of occupation of the site with the unenclosed settlement developing into an enclosed settlement without a significant period of abandonment. Ditches assigned to Phase 4 truncated three of the earlier roundhouse structures, and this may be seen as a deliberate action, symbolising change in the organisation and layout of the settlement. However, Structure 4 may have been deliberately encompassed within the corner of Enclosure 1, possibly acknowledging this structure and perhaps allowing access to the central pit to be maintained, thus respecting the previous settlement and its occupants. The archaeological and artefactual evidence, particularly the series of AMS dates, indicates that the enclosed settlement was established some time in the last two centuries BC and remained occupied for a period of at least 200 years, until some time during the late 1st century AD.

Enclosure 1 contained three roundhouse dwellings, a small stock enclosure or animal pen, which had evidently been maintained over a lengthy period of time, and an area possibly used for storage, also maintained over a considerable period. Although stratigraphic relationships did not survive between all of these features, it is possible to suggest a likely sequence of construction based on the available evidence. Structure 5 is interpreted as representing the earliest building, being replaced by a dwelling to the south, Structure 6. Within Enclosure 1, Enclosure 2 was dismantled and backfilled prior to the construction of Structure 7, and the evidence for the longevity of Enclosure 2 suggests that it was in use during the occupation of Structures 5 and 6. Although Structures 6 and 7 could have been in use contemporaneously, it is considered more likely that only one structure was present within the enclosure at any time, these probably representing replacements of a single dwelling. Structure 7 is interpreted as representing the latest building within the enclosure. It was also the best-preserved roundhouse, with evidence that some posts had been left to rot in situ, suggesting that the building had been abandoned and left to fall into disrepair rather than being completely dismantled. Had it been succeeded by another structure, then it would be expected that the enclosure would have been cleared for the next dwelling. The drainage ring gully which surrounded Structure 7 had silted up and been re-cut on at least three occasions, demonstrating occupation over a relatively long period of time and considerable effort in maintenance. Assuming again that each dwelling had a lifespan of around 25 years, the structural remains recorded within Enclosure 1 indicate that habitation within this area probably spanned at least 75 years. The relatively small size of the structures within Enclosure 1, all less than 8m in diameter, suggests that they accommodated only a single household unit and its descendants.

Enclosure 1 was set within an extensive network of predominantly ditch-defined enclosures that extended beyond all limits of the excavated area, and the common boundaries shared by these features demonstrated contemporaneity of use. The northern boundary of Enclosure 1 formed part of a major and long-lived east–west aligned boundary system that extended across the entire excavated area, continuing beyond both limits of excavation (as discussed further below). Enclosure 3, located to the south of Enclosure 1, measured over 90m north–south by 74m east–west, enclosing an area of over 6,600m², with Enclosure 4 located in its northeastern corner. The acidic nature of the soil at Pegswood resulted in very poor bone preservation, and it was not possible to positively identify sheep amongst the meagre faunal assemblage, although fragments from sheep-sized long bones were recovered (see Gidney, Chapter 3). However, the overall form of Enclosure 3 and its associated features, when compared to evidence recovered from similar sites, indicates that it was used for the herding, control and management of sheep. Various elements in Enclosure 3 are interpreted as stock herding features, including a 6m wide droveway leading through an entrance in the southeastern side, two entrances in the southwestern corner, a further entrance in the northwestern side, two parallel ditches, set 2m apart, delimiting the southern side of Enclosure 3 and an 8m length of parallel ditches along the its western side. Corner entrances into fields utilise the advantage of the natural funnelling effect of the two sides of the fields, making it easier to herd sheep through the opening; where entrances are placed along the side of a field, the flock tends to scatter to either side of the entrance, but does not pass through it (Pryor 2006, 101). Pryor (1996) has identified elements associated with sheep management in Fenland field systems, and although these date from the Bronze Age, the function of these features is relevant to the systems recorded at Pegswood Moor. A complex system of droveways and stockyards at Newark Road, Fengate have been interpreted as confined spaces where flocks were temporarily kept while animals were sorted, inspected and exchanged (Pryor 1996, 314). A similar stock-handling system was recognised by Pryor...
at the nearby site of Storey’s Bar Road, Fenge where rectilinear paddocks were entered via corner entrances, all of which showed evidence for diversion or narrowing, which again suggests their use in handling stock (ibid., 319). The droveway at Pegswood Moor leading into the enclosure in the southeast could have been used to herd sheep, and possibly cattle, into the enclosure, possibly from nearby coastal grazing areas, to the east. The parallel ditches along the southern side of Enclosure 3 may have been associated with the management of sheep; similar features excavated at Fenge, two closely parallel shallow ditches, 1.5m apart and 25m long, have been interpreted as representing a sheep ‘race’, used to examine and sort animals (Pryor 2006, 101). Sheep races (or drafts) remain in use in modern farming and generally comprise a narrow passageway into which sheep are herded allowing animals to be identified, sorted and drafted into separate areas (Barber and Freeman 2000, 203). When sheep are confined in a group in small spaces they become more docile and easier to handle (Pryor 2006, 96). The droveway leading into Enclosure 3 had a gap in its southern side and it is likely that temporary hurdles and drafting gates would have been used where necessary to divert animals from the main droveway. With their progress along the race carefully controlled, the animals would be easier to inspect closely. The arrangement at the southwestern corner of Enclosure 3 suggests that at the western end of the race, temporary hurdles were also used to direct animals into three separate areas as necessary, into Enclosure 3 itself, or the enclosed areas to the west and south. In modern sheep handling systems, a three-way drafting gate is also employed, this being the most efficient way of sorting large flocks (Barber and Freeman 2000, 203). Short lengths of parallel ditches recorded along the western side of Enclosure 3 also possibly represent the remnants of a 2m wide sheep race. Enclosure 4, within Enclosure 3, may have been used as a smaller stock yard or pen, at times when it was necessary to keep the animals under closer observation, such as during the lambing season.

Enclosure 5, to the northwest of Enclosure 3, was another extensive area measuring 70m north–south by at least 70m east–west, and this also probably served as a stock enclosure. Two substantial pits inside this enclosure may have provided water for animals. Traces of another sheep race were recorded along the southern side of this enclosure, leading towards an entrance in the southeastern corner that provided access into Enclosure 3.

Even allowing for horizontal truncation through ploughing, the ditches delimiting Enclosures 3–5 would not have been substantial enough to contain sheep or prevent other animals from crossing the boundary. These ditches would originally have had an upcast bank running alongside them, from the initial excavation of the feature, which would have provided an ideal medium in which to grow a hedgerow; without a hedge, the small ditch and bank would not have been stock-proof (Pryor 2006, 87). Such low banks would not have survived plough truncation and hedges leave little trace in the archaeological record due to the shallow penetration of their roots (ibid.). Again, the degree of truncation at Pegswood Moor means that evidence of such features would not survive.

To the east of Enclosure 1, the large rectangular enclosure, Enclosure 6, was also probably used for stock and although no access arrangements associated with stock management were identified, it is possible that such entrances were situated to the southeast, beyond the limits of excavation, perhaps connecting with the droveway. The complex sequence of narrow east–west ditches bounding Enclosure 6 on its northeastern side indicates longevity of use. The latest ditch in this sequence produced a large quantity of pottery at the base of its eastern terminal, material that appeared to have been placed in the feature prior to deliberate backfilling. AMS dating undertaken on organic residues adhering to the surface of one of these sherds produced a date of Cal BC 390 to 170 (Beta 230301; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3) indicating a Later Iron Age date for use of this vessel. This complex of ditches and recuts which were replaced by a more substantial ditch, itself also subject to continual silting and re-definition, indicated that Enclosure 6 had been maintained over a considerable length of time.

Enclosure 7, within the northeastern corner of Enclosure 6, was also evidently long-lived, the eastern side of the enclosure originally being defined by narrow ditches that had silted up and been re-cut on at least one occasion, which were then replaced by fencelining. As with the northeastern corner of Enclosure 6, the boundary of Enclosure 7 was also re-defined with a much more substantial ditch, itself subject to a sequence of silting and re-cutting. The narrowness of the entrance through the eastern side of Enclosure 7, which would only have allowed human access, suggests that animals were not held within this enclosure. Material recovered from the infill of the enclosure ditch does, however, provide clues to the activities undertaken within this relatively small, enclosed area. Lenses of burnt material contained within the lower fills of the eastern terminal included a layer of burnt turf, along with a deposit of spent coal, representing the remnants of fuel. Burnt material identified as cinder, which could have originated from an open fire burning for a few days continuously, was also recovered. The charred roots and rhizome fragments recovered from a bulk sample from the enclosure ditch may well have derived from the burning of imported peat or turves, and small fragments of cattle tooth enamel were also recovered, along with a complete mortar <5> and an ovoid pebble tool <3>, which may have been used as a pestle (see Wright, Chapter 3). The remnants of fuel indicate the presence of hearths in the near vicinity, and although there was no evidence for such features within the internal area of Enclosure 7, all traces could have been removed by later ploughing. It is postulated therefore that either some form of manufacturing or processing activity was undertaken within Enclosure 7, or that it was used for a social activity, such as feasting, with the material within the ditch representing debris from cooking hearths. The longevity of the enclosure and the considerable effort expended in
maintaining and redefining its boundaries, would indicate that whatever activity was undertaken within it was of particular importance. AMS dating of organic residues adhering to pottery recovered from the Enclosure 7 boundary ditch produced two possible dates as the results coincided with a ‘wiggle’ on the calibration curve: Cal BC 340 to 300 and Cal BC 200 to 30 (Beta 230298; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). The latter date range is considered the most likely, as charcoal recovered from the uppermost fill of the same ditch produced a date of cal BC 51–AD 131 (SURRC AA 43432; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3), potentially dating final disuse of the feature.

There was also evidence to suggest that the some form of social gathering may have occurred in the eastern portion of Enclosure 8. Fragments of pottery from two large vessels recovered from this area came from massive portions of Enclosure 8. Fragments of pottery from two social gatherings may have occurred in the eastern portion of Enclosure 8, potentially dating final disuse of the feature. AMS dating of organic residues adhering to pottery recovered from the Enclosure 7 boundary ditch produced two possible dates as the results coincided with a ‘wiggle’ on the calibration curve: Cal BC 340 to 300 and Cal BC 200 to 30 (Beta 230298; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). The latter date range is considered the most likely, as charcoal recovered from the uppermost fill of the same ditch produced a date of cal BC 51–AD 131 (SURRC AA 43432; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3), potentially dating final disuse of the feature.

There was also evidence to suggest that some form of social gathering may have occurred in the eastern portion of Enclosure 8. Fragments of pottery from two large vessels recovered from this area came from massive pots, with rim diameters of c. 350mm and 410mm, the size of these presumably associated with their function. Such vessels had sufficient capacity to cook enough food for a gathering of people, and would likely have been used as cauldrons (see Willis, Chapter 3). One of these vessels was represented by a large assemblage of sherds evidently placed within the terminal of the latest small ditch defining the northern side of Enclosure 6 and southern side of Enclosure 8, prior to it being deliberately infilled. AMS dating carried out on residues from one of these sherds produced a Later Iron Age date of Cal BC 390 to 170. Charred organic remains from one of the fencelines in this area included root/rhizome fragments, probably representing debris from the burning of peat or turves and perhaps from hearths in the vicinity. A bulk sample from this feature also produced remains of barley and spelt wheat, with the composition of the assemblage indicating that a late stage of crop-processing may have been undertaken in the vicinity, probably fine-sieving (see Schmidl, Chapter 3) with further processing indicated by the large whetstone or rubber from a saddle quern <9> and the rounded hand stone <9> recovered from the same fenceline. An AMS date of Cal BC 530 to 390 (Beta 230300; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3) from organic residues adhering to a pottery sherd recovered from this fenceline, being earlier than other AMS dates obtained from the site, is considered either erroneous or perhaps represents residual pottery from an earlier phase of settlement.

Collectively, this data is considered to provide good evidence that feasting took place in the eastern part of Enclosure 8 at times when communal gatherings occurred, perhaps at specific times of the year such as harvest, or during particular activities such as pottery manufacturing. Fencelines and possible windbreaks recorded in this area would have created a sheltered area for such feasting activity, providing protection from the prevailing westerly wind. While there was no structural evidence for any hearths within this part of the enclosure, the presence of charred material testifies to their existence in the near vicinity. It is likely that relatively ephemeral hearth structures would have been used for cooking, and these would therefore not have survived plough truncation.

The substantial size of the hearths within the western part of Enclosure 8, along with the degree of scorching of the underlying Boulder Clay, indicating a sustained high temperature, suggest that these features were unlikely to have been used for cooking purposes and a more reasonable interpretation is that they were used for some type of manufacturing activity. The pottery assemblage recovered from the investigation was of local manufacture and the irregular oxidation on the surfaces of the pots demonstrated that they had been fired in an above ground bonfire or a clamp (essentially a pit cut into the ground in which a fire is built). This group of hearths may thus represent the remains of pottery clamps in which pots manufactured at the site were fired (see ’Manufacturing, processing and trade, below). Enclosure 8 therefore also appears to have been used for manufacturing and processing activities and its position, downwind of the contemporary habitation area, suggests that this location was deliberately selected to keep activities that may have been hazardous, in terms of fire risk, or perhaps unpleasant due to the production of smoke, away from the dwellings.

It is possible that the area of habitation represented by Structures 8–15 in the northwestern part of the excavated area replaced the habitation area within Enclosure 1. By this stage, Enclosure 1 may have been in use for over 75 years and it may have become necessary to relocate the habitation area due to the need to increase the number of dwellings. However, as the ditch defining the southern side of Enclosure 10 effectively re-cut the line of the northern boundary delimiting Enclosure 1, it is possible that this enclosure continued to be maintained and that habitation may have continued with both areas inhabited contemporaneously, at least for a time. Alternatively, Enclosure 1 may have been given over to some other purpose such as storage, stock-keeping or horticulture. It is probable that the complex of enclosures originally associated with Enclosure 1 continued to be used when Enclosures 9 and 10 and the associated habitation area were in use. The evidence for this comes from the apparent longevity of many of the boundary features delimiting these enclosures, and the provision and maintenance of an entrance in the major east–west boundary in the vicinity of Structures 8–15, a feature which would have allowed access between the habitation area and Enclosure 5. The quantity of roundhouse dwellings within this habitation area suggests an increase in the population of the settlement. Such an expanded community would require sufficient land to support their pastoral and arable economy, again suggesting that the complex of enclosures and field systems continued to be maintained. Although it is acknowledged that further enclosure boundaries could lie beyond the limits of excavation, thereby placing Structures 8–15 within a very expansive enclosure, it is perhaps more likely that the structures were not constructed within a purpose-built enclosure. The narrow ditch located to the immediate west of the roundhouses group only bounded the four northernmost structures and does not appear to form part of an enclosure which the structures occupied. It may have had a hedge or
fenceline along its western side; such a feature as well as strengthening this boundary would have protected the dwellings from the prevailing west wind. The limitations in the number of dwellings imposed on the previous habitation area by Enclosure 1 may have been a factor in building a new habitation area that was not surrounded by an enclosure; constructing these dwellings in a more open area would have allowed more dwellings to be built if there was further population expansion.

The remains of the eight structures were, with the exception of Structure 15, aligned in a north–south linear ‘string’ arrangement. The position of the structures indicates that they could not all have been contemporary, in fact no more than four could have co-existed, demonstrating that the area must have been occupied by structures over a relatively long period of time. Structures were evidently replaced in similar positions when rebuilding was necessary. Structures 9 and 12 were rebuilt in practically the same position and an examination of similar rebuilding of Bronze Age structures has led to the suggestion that such activity may have been a way of expressing continued rights of ownership, this perhaps even occurring upon the death of the head of the household (Brück 2007, 29). The northernmost structure was only half exposed within the limits of the site and the ‘string’ may have continued to the north. It is possible that not all of the structures functioned as habitation dwellings, indeed the size of Structure 11, which is the largest structure of all excavated at the site, might indicate that this had a different purpose, perhaps being used for craft or manufacturing activities, such as weaving (see ‘Roundhouse structures’, below). Although the precise number of structures used for dwellings in existence at any one time can never be known for certain, the available evidence demonstrates that more than one habitation structure would have been present within this phase of the settlement. The increase in the number of dwellings from the unenclosed phase of settlement and earliest phase of enclosed settlement was presumably required due to an increase in the size of the population. Additional dwellings were perhaps built to accommodate groups of households from the same kin group. The suggested construction sequence indicates at least five phases of rebuilding, and assuming a life-span for a roundhouse of around 25 years, the area may have been inhabited for at least 125 years (as discussed further below).

Enclosures 9 and 10 to the east of the habitation area may have been used for a variety of functions. A large group of postholes and stakeholes within the southwestern part of Enclosure 9 could represent the remains of timber structures, such as two-post drying racks for drying crops and straw, four-post storage structures, small pens for holding smaller animals, or tethering posts for goats. Reynolds (1979, 55) suggests that simple four-post structures may have been constructed as shelters for domestic fowl. The area to the west of the habitation area did not appear to have been apportioned into a distinct enclosure, and is therefore unlikely to have held stock, and the absence of archaeological features suggests that it was also probably not used for storage. This area may have been used for purposes that have left little trace in the archaeological record, such as horticulture. Evidence for cultivation was recorded across a plot of land close to the roundhouse at South Shields where a series of ard marks and two sets of successive spade-dug furrows, both at different spacings, suggested that the area had been utilised for several different types of cultivation (Hodgson et al. 2001). However, it was not it was not possible to determine whether this area had been used for cereal crops or vegetables.

The enclosed Later Iron Age settlement was thus evidently highly spatially organised (Figs. 10 and 19) with storage areas and stock pens located close to the area of habitation, presumably for security and ease of access for the inhabitants of the site. Areas set aside for manufacturing and processing activities were situated downwind of the prevailing wind away from the habitation area, and stock enclosures, a droweway and further field boundaries continuing beyond the limits of excavation in the west, south and east indicate the presence of an extensive field system associated with the enclosed Iron Age settlement.

1st- to 2nd-century Romano-British period activity

The final phase of occupation recorded within the excavated area saw a substantial alteration in the layout of the settlement and its associated field systems and the abandonment of the area previously used for habitation. Prior to the construction of Enclosure 11 in the northwestern part of the site, elements of the east–west boundary ditches to the south of Structures 8–15 were deliberately backfilled. The glass armlet fragment recovered from one of these backfill deposits and another fragment recovered from Enclosure 11 date from the late 1st to early 2nd century AD (see Allason-Jones and Price, Chapter 3). A fragment of charcoal recovered from the uppermost fill of an Enclosure 7 ditch, presumably deposited when the enclosure ditches were no longer being maintained, produced an AMS date of cal BC 51–AD 131 (SURRC AA-43432). Organic residues from a sherd of pottery recovered from the backfill of one of the Phase 4 east–west ditches in the vicinity of Structures 8–15 produced two possible date ranges; Cal BC 360 to 290 and Cal BC 240 to 50, due to a ‘wiggle’ on the calibration curve (Beta 230299; see Willis, Pottery, Chapter 3). Taking into consideration all of the other dating evidence from the site and the excavated evidence demonstrating continuity between the occupation of the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement and the Romano-British activity, the later date range is considered to be the most likely date for this pottery, which it is assumed originated from the previous, enclosed phase of Later Iron Age activity.

The absence of dwelling structures within Enclosure 11 and the provision of three entrances, indicates that it did not delimit an area of habitation, but perhaps was used
for coralling stock. The range in entrance sizes implies that these may have been for different animals: Entrance 3, the widest, probably being for cattle and Entrance 2, which had a fence leading into it on the east side, perhaps most likely for sheep. Entrance 1, within the east side, was more elaborate with well-preserved post impressions on either side, and it is likely that this entrance was solely for human access as entrances used by animals presumably became bemired. The elaborate timber construction of the enclosure, which would have required a large quantity of wood, along with the evidence for the holding of a variety of animals, suggests that this was not simply a stock enclosure, but that it may have also been used for other functions. Giles (2007, 244) in discussing Later Iron Age enclosures in East Yorkshire suggests that ‘as wealth on the hoof, animals may have been displayed and paraded, driven through the settlements of others or gathered together with other herds at key times of the year’. Such gathering of stock would have been necessary for practical purposes such as counting and inspecting stock, sorting for culling and to ensure successful breeding, but may also have had an element of prestige for the community (ibid.). Such activities may also have been carried out within the elaborate enclosure at Pegswood Moor and it is also possible that the enclosure was used for trading activities. Perhaps Structure 16 within Enclosure 11, which at 5.65m in diameter would have been too small for habitation, may have functioned as a storage area for fodder or even a shelter for animals or humans using this enclosure. Whatever its precise function, the timber enclosure would have been a dominant and highly visible feature in the landscape.

Although a significant variation in site layout was undertaken at this time, the excavated evidence indicates that the site was not abandoned between the Iron Age enclosed settlement and the Romano-British occupation. As previously discussed, east–west boundaries to the south of Structures 8–15 were deliberately backfilled prior to the construction of Enclosure 11 and probably immediately after they had fallen into disuse, without a period of abandonment. The eastern side of Enclosure 11 cut through six of the string of roundhouses, which may have been a deliberate statement associated with the reorganisation of the settlement. Two quernstones placed at the base of the fenceline at Entrance 2 and a complete quernstone placed in the base of the Phase 4 ditch forming the western side of the entrance between Enclosure 5 and Structures 8–15 prior to it being backfilled, strongly suggest votive deposition associated with this new phase of activity (see ‘Ritual activity’, below). Structured deposition of quernstones is a widely recognised phenomenon throughout the prehistoric period and these objects were evidently imbued with ritual significance (Buckley 1992; Hill 1995; Brück 1999). The placing of the quernstones within these particular features at Pegswood Moor may have been of especial symbolism as these tools of arable agriculture had been placed at a point in time and within an area of the settlement where the site was refashioned to pastoral activities. A linear boundary recorded to the east and south of Enclosure 11 has been interpreted as being associated with this Romano-British activity. Although none of the features comprising this boundary had a stratigraphic relationship with the enclosure, the similarity in alignment between the western side of the enclosure and this boundary is noteworthy. In addition, some of the boundary features cut through the earlier field system interpreted as being associated with the enclosed Iron Age settlement. Therefore, both the enclosure and the boundary to the east appear to have been dramatic impositions on the previous settlement, with considerable alteration of the layout of the settlement and its associated field system. The boundary was relatively complex, in fact comprising a double boundary system, with timber fence lines constructed over the line of earlier silted-up ditches, which themselves had apparently been burnt down and reinstated. All of these features formed a major north-northeast–south-southwest aligned boundary running across the full length of the area of investigation, for a distance of over 185m, and continuing beyond the limits of excavation to the north and south. The substantial extent of this boundary, along with the evidence for reinstatement and ongoing maintenance, demonstrates that it was a significant feature in the landscape. The possibility that this boundary was connected to a change in ownership of the land, and the possible association of alignment with the How Burn to the west, has already been discussed above. To the east of the boundary, however, no other Romano-British features were recorded and it is possible that this may have been an open space not subject to any form of sub-division. It is feasible that this area was given over to arable cultivation during this phase of Romano-British activity. The substantial and long-lived double boundary system separating this area from the area to the west where Enclosure 11 was located indicates a need to maintain a secure division between the two areas. The area to the west may have been used for grazing, with the pasturelands alongside the How Burn particularly suitable for this, while, as suggested, the land to the east was used as arable land. It is possible that the arable area was sub-divided into smaller plots but that no traces of plot boundaries remained; hedges, which would have provided protection from the wind for arable crops, would not have survived plough truncation.

There was no evidence for any area of habitation associated with the Romano-British enclosure and field systems, which could account for the scarcity of artefactual remains recovered from Phase 5 features. The substantial nature of Enclosure 11 does however suggest that it was associated with a settlement of some size. The fact that a large group of structures had gone out of use at the time of its construction also indicates that the population of the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement must have moved somewhere in the very near vicinity, presumably beyond the limits of excavation to the north or west. Whether or not this postulated settlement area remained in use for any length of time is uncertain; however, the reinstatement of the boundary to the east of Enclosure 11 broadly suggests that it was long-lived.
The Social Landscape

The full extent of the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement and its associated land organization features could not be ascertained within the limits of excavation; it extended beyond the site boundaries in all directions. Areas of habitation, manufacturing and processing, field systems and enclosures, these interpreted as representing stock enclosures, were all identified. With a mixed agricultural regime evidently in place, areas of land used for arable cultivation lay beyond the area of excavation. Perhaps the most likely location for such land was to the north of the excavated area where a slight rise in elevation would have provided an advantageous position for cereal cultivation, presumably more suitable than the area surrounding the How Burn. Similarly, the 1st- to 2nd-century AD Romano-British period activity continued beyond the limits of excavation and the full extent of the land management system in that era was not revealed. The inhabitants of the Later Iron Age and the Romano-British settlements would undoubtedly have exploited land up to the How Burn, which loops around the excavated area c. 200m to the west and c. 450m to the south. Land around the burn would have offered ideal pastureland for grazing cattle, with the stream itself providing a water source for the inhabitants. The minimum area postulated for the settlement and its associated field systems is 700m north–south by 400m east–west, but presumably extending further northwards than this to include land used for arable crops and possibly further habitation during the 1st and 2nd centuries (Fig. 38). A complex of cropmarks visible on aerial photographs within the area to the immediate east of the excavated area, now part of the opencast coal site, includes an east–west cropmark that extended for a distance of c. 200m situated close to the B1337 road. It is possible that this cropmark may represent a continuation of the major east–west boundary complex excavated at the site. Numerous north–south aligned cropmarks in this area also extended towards the How Burn for a distance of c. 280m. An archaeological evaluation of this field, comprising the investigation of four trenches, prior to the extension of the opencast mining site did not identify any features of archaeological origin, although the major east–west cropmark was not examined nor were the linear features running towards the burn (The Archaeological Practice 1996). It is entirely feasible then that the field systems identified during the current investigations did extend across this eastern field thus extending the minimum dimensions of the settlements and its field systems to over 600m east–west. As previously discussed, the wider landscape was no doubt also exploited, including, potentially, nearby coastal resources which may have involved the use of seasonal meadows and estuary and coastal marsh areas for grazing, as much land to the east (from c. 5km east of the site) offers this prospect (Fig. 39).

The excavated evidence has been interpreted as indicating that, within the limits of the excavation, only one dwelling, of a size suggesting that it accommodated a single household unit, was associated with the initial enclosed phase of Later Iron Age settlement. However, the composition of such a household is likely to have varied and may not have been typical of modern western society. The house and household have become a focus for research over recent years and discussions focusing on the smallest social unit, ‘the household’, have emphasised that this should not been seen in terms of a traditional ‘Celtic’ model, i.e. grandparents, parents, children, and it should be acknowledged that the composition of the household may have varied over time and space and may have differed across societies and groups (Haselgrove and Moore 2007, 6). Hingley (1992) suggests that the basic unit of society in the Iron Age of the region was a household and Harding (2004, 291) suggests that households living within a single substantial timber roundhouse might include a nuclear family with its immediate sub-ordinates. In sites with paired structures, the secondary structure could have been a residence for a closely associated group,
such as a married son, or servants or estate workers, or equally may have been of different function altogether and not a residential unit (*ibid.*). All this is of course speculation, yet a common denominator will have been that the household however composed, was economically viable; that is, that it could reproduce itself, or muster the means to do so.

The extent of the complex of associated enclosures and field boundaries suggests that more than a single household occupied and worked the site and it is thus possible that the Later Iron Age settlement may have comprised further areas of habitation located beyond the excavated area. The labour force required for the creation and maintenance of the field and enclosure boundaries and associated features would perhaps be more than a single household could provide. It is therefore likely that the settlement comprised more than one habitation area, with perhaps additional groups of households from the same extended kin group being located beyond the limits of excavation, possibly each contained within their own distinct enclosure. Although the establishment of the habitation area in the northwestern corner of the site probably saw an increase in the number of habitation dwellings and thus an increase in population, again it is feasible that additional households continued to coexist beyond the limits of excavation, sharing the maintenance and use of the previously established land management system. Arrangements of this type are seen in this period in other parts of Britain, often in the form of so-called ladder settlements (cf. Hill 1995b; Taylor 1997).

In addition to the possibility that the Pegswood Moor settlement may have contained other areas of habitation beyond the excavated area, it is likely that other communities would have been situated within the near vicinity during the Later Iron Age. The Historic Environment Record (HER) maintained by Northumberland County Council Conservation Team lists many probable later prehistoric or Romano-British sites within a 5km radius of Pegswood Moor. These sites have been identified as cropmarks on aerial photographs, although none have been examined through excavation, and these are shown on Fig. 39. Within the close vicinity of Pegswood Moor, a complex of cropmarks including contiguous rectilinear enclosures and linear ditches, the latter possibly representing part of an extensive field system, are situated less than 1km to the west on the south side of Silver Hill (HER 11095; Fig. 39.15). Two parallel ditches, interpreted as forming a trackway, run southwestwards from this site to another rectilinear enclosure at Kater Dene, located less than 0.5km away, and beyond. The Kater Dene enclosure, which was visible as an earthwork until the late 1940s, measures c. 65m by 50m and is associated with field systems to the north and west (HER 11120; Fig. 39.17). A rectilinear enclosure is located less than 0.5km to the northwest of Pegswood Moor (HER 11614; Fig. 39.23) and another possible enclosure lies 0.75km to the northeast (HER 11615; Fig. 39.25). Numerous rectilinear enclosures have been identified south of the River Wansbeck and as the river is not deep in the vicinity of Morpeth, particularly during the summer, it would have been easily fordable; contact between the Pegswood Moor community and sites south of the river would therefore have been possible.

Interpretation of the excavated evidence and artefactual remains from Pegswood Moor has led to the suggestion that gatherings of people and feasting may have occurred at the site during the Later Iron Age and it is feasible that contemporary communities within the near vicinity may have congregated at the Pegswood Moor settlement at specific times of the year. The 1st- to 2nd-century AD stock enclosure may also have functioned as some form of market place or enclosure for the congregation of people and stock. Such gatherings would have been important for many factors, not least for the obvious human desire for social interaction, which would also lead to new partnerships being established between communities. Exchange and trade, of ideas as well as material goods, may also have been a significant factor and, as discussed, the gathering of herds from different communities, as well as having practical motives such as ensuring successful breeding, may also have had an element of prestige. Feasting may have occurred at certain times of the year, possibly associated with the agricultural cycle such as at harvest time, as well as to celebrate religious festivals and is also likely to have commemorated events such as births, deaths and marriages. Although without excavation it is not possible to prove if any of the sites identified as cropmarks were contemporary with the Pegswood Moor settlement, the excavated evidence from the region suggests that many could have been occupied at the same time. Excavated sites such as Pegswood Moor and East and West Brunton were occupied for a long period of time, with evidence for settlement spanning several centuries, and it is therefore feasible that many of the cropmark sites may have been equally long-lived settlements occupied contemporaneously. The presence of a potential trackway between the settlements at Silver Hill and Kater Dene lends weight to the suggestion that the Pegswood Moor settlement would not have been an isolated community but would have interacted with settlements in the vicinity, many of which were probably situated only a short walk away. The HER cropmark data therefore suggests that many communities may have exploited this landscape during the Later Iron Age period.

**Roundhouse Structures**

The degree of horizontal truncation of archaeological features through ploughing resulted in limited survival of structures and in some cases the structural remains comprised only the bases of penannular features a few millimetres deep. However, many of these features have been interpreted as wall construction trenches on the basis of their form, as discussed in Chapter 2. Table 7 lists the dimensions of the structures according to the interpretation of their remaining structural elements and Table 8 lists the structures according to diameter.
Pegswood Moor, Morpeth: A Later Iron Age and Romano-British Farmstead Settlement

Ref HER no. Description
1 11118 Cockshot Wood rectilinear enclosure.
Enclosure at Mitford Steads South: two rectangular concentric ditched enclosures with traces of circular structures inside inner enclosure.
3 11119 Rectangular enclosure with earth bank near Mitford Castle.
4 11115 Rectangular enclosure with earth bank at Castle Plantation.
5 11112 Spital Hill II: later prehistoric settlement.
6 13789 West Lane End: circular feature 15m in diameter, with inner concentric circle, square enclosure around the whole.
7 11111 Later prehistoric settlement on Spital Hill: enclosed settlement.
8 22693 Rectilinear enclosure with associated field systems.
9 11227 Three circular enclosures.
10 11084 Rectilinear enclosure.
11 11082 Rectilinear enclosure.
12 11083 Rectilinear enclosure
13 11228 Rectilinear and roughly circular enclosure surrounded by ditches.
14 11281 Rectangular enclosure with two ditches at Tranwell.
15 11113 Various rectilinear enclosures east of Warreners House.
16 11405 Linear ditches joining at 90 degrees with two straight and parallel linear features unconnected with the first.
17 11120 Kater Dene rectilinear enclosure with associated field systems and trackway heading towards Silver Hill cropmarks.
18 22736 Possible field systems.
19 11095 Enclosures, ditches and a trackway, covering a large area and forming a series of fields on south side of Silver Hill.
20 11096 Ditches and a possible enclosure on north side of Silver Hill.
21 22743 Rectilinear enclosure.
22 22738 Rectilinear enclosure.
23 11614 Rectilinear enclosure west of Butterwell.
24 11713 Rectilinear enclosure.
25 11615 Rectilinear enclosure.
26 11550 Waddle Bank, enclosure surrounded by two ditches.
27 11542 Rectilinear ditched enclosure.
28 11543 Rectilinear ditched enclosure, quern found in the vicinity.
29 11716 Rectilinear enclosure.
30 11561 Rectilinear enclosure.
31 11568 Narrow rectangular cropmark.
32 11613 Possible enclosure north of Bothal Mill.
For three of the sixteen roundhouses identified (2, 3 and 16) it was not possible to determine whether the remains represented a wall construction trench or an eaves drainage gully. They have been assigned a function (see Table 7) according to their size, relative to the other structures identified on site.

Table 8 demonstrates that features positively identified as wall construction trenches ranged in diameter from 10.25m to 6.80m (Fig. 40). Roundhouses of comparable dimensions are found at sites throughout the region; the structures at Burradon were on average 7m in diameter (Jobey 1970) and of 36 structures identified at Hartburn, all fell in the range of 7–14m, although the average diameter was c. 10.20m, with a single example being 16m diameter.

Although the functions of the features defining Structures 2 and 3 are not known for certain, if it is assumed that they represent wall construction trenches, then with the exception of Structure 4, Phase 3 structures comprise three of the four largest buildings recorded. This could be due to the form of the unenclosed settlement, which may have meant that building size was not limited by enclosure boundaries. It is probable that these structures accommodated a single household unit and, as already discussed, Structures 1–3 did not co-exist and were probably replacement dwellings for the same ancestral household.

Structure 4, at 6.82m in diameter, was notably smaller than the other Phase 3 structures, which suggests that it was not for habitation, perhaps being used for some other function, such as craft or manufacturing activities. The presence of a 2m wide gap in the western side of the wall construction trench indicates the presence of a west-facing entrance into the structure. A west-facing entrance would have meant that the structure would have remained relatively dark for a large proportion of the day, therefore making it unsuitable for craft or manufacturing activities. From the Middle Bronze Age through to the Romano-British period, roundhouse structures almost invariably have east or southeast facing entrances which allows the maximum daylight into the dwelling (Parker Pearson 1996). A structure with a west-facing entrance clearly contravened ‘an almost universal tradition of the Iron Age… It may have been regarded as a special place, one where everyday experience was suspended or reversed’ (Bishop 2006, 103). It is also possible that Structure 4 may have had two entrances, in which case it would have been well lit, but as the eastern side was truncated by later features, this remains uncertain. Three circular structures, in a string, excavated at Fison’s Way, Thetford, each had dual openings, in all cases on their east and west sides; the structures are interpreted as ritual/religious foci (Gregory 1992; cf. Haselgrove 2001). The central pit within Structure 4 may be of some significance to its function as it may represent a votive pit containing structured deposits of hearth material, discussed further below; such central pits are well attested within structures interpreted as Iron Age shrines (cf. King and Soffe 2001; Atkinson and Preston 1998). The position of Structure 4 within the southeastern

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Wall construction trench diameter</th>
<th>Eaves drip gully diameter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.06m (82m²)</td>
<td>11.44m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.27m* (83m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.72m* (106m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.82m (36m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.30m (49m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.32m (42m²)</td>
<td>9.63m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.95m (53m²)</td>
<td>11.00m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.30m (73m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.40m (74m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.00m (73m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.25m (83m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.80m (63m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.80m (47m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.80m (42m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.43m (46m²)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.04m (28m²)*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* features of uncertain function
**Approximate internal areas have been calculated based on projected wall lines of structures where these do not survive.
corner of the subsequent Phase 4 Enclosure 1 suggests a deliberate encompassing of the structure and its central pit, possibly even allowing access to the pit to continue, indicating that its existence was acknowledged and it may even have continued to be used in some form. An example of a Later Iron Age structure with a west-facing entrance excavated at Ashford Prison, Middlesex, situated facing the remnants of a Neolithic circular ditched monument, has been interpreted as possibly representing some form of shrine to the ancestors associated with the monument (Carew et al., 2006, 103).

Structures 5–7, located within Enclosure 1, do not appear to have co-existed, and again presumably represent the replacement of a single habitation dwelling for the same ancestral household. The size of the Enclosure 1 structures, between 7.30m and 7.95m in diameter, are amongst the smaller recorded at the site, perhaps related to the size of the household they accommodated. Structures 8, 9, 10, 12 and 13, the string of structures in the northwestern part of the excavated area, measured between 7.80m–9.40m in diameter, and are likely to represent habitation dwellings. The increase in size from the structures within Enclosure 1 may be related to an increase in the size of the household that each structure accommodated, as well as a possible increase in the number of households, as suggested by the increase in numbers of dwellings at the site. Structure 15, which measured 7.40m in diameter, was located slightly further east than the string of roundhouses. This difference in location may be related to function, with this building perhaps being used for some other purpose, such as craft or processing activities or for storage, although this is by no means certain. It may also have denoted the status of the owner/dwellers. Two structures stand out as being the largest within this group of buildings in the northwestern part of the excavation area; Structure 11 at 10.25m, and the smallest at the site, Structure 14 at 6.80m. This difference probably relates to variation in function, for example, craft or manufacturing activities such as weaving may have been carried out in Structure 11, while Structure 14 may have been used for storage. The possible sequence of construction of the structures, along with the interpretation of the function of each, indicates that the maximum number of structures that could have existed at any one time within the excavated area may have been two dwellings with two structures probably used for other purposes, although there may have been less, or indeed more if the habitation area continued northwards beyond the excavated area.

The small size of Structure 16, within Enclosure 11, suggests that it was not a dwelling, and its location, within an area interpreted as a stock enclosure, suggests another function. It is possible that this may have been some form of circular shelter associated with the function of the enclosure, possibly a storage facility for fodder.

The scarcity of artefactual material directly associated with individual structures means that it is not possible to ascertain the relative status of the occupants of each roundhouse dwelling based on the nature of cultural material. Artefactual material was virtually absent from the surrounding drainage gullies, suggesting that the habitation areas were kept clean and rubbish was disposed of away from the living quarters. It has been noted in respect of roundhouses in hillforts, that it is rarely possible from surface features to distinguish any distinctive hierarchy in house size or construction (Higham 1986, 125). Equally, there is nothing amongst the evidence from the Pegswood Moor site that can be used to assess the status of the inhabitants of the roundhouses.

The surviving portions of Structures 4 and 8–15 comprised features best interpreted as wall construction trenches, Structures 1, 6 and 7 were all represented by the remains of wall construction trenches surrounded by drainage gullies, while Structure 5 comprised a wall construction trench with a partial drainage feature that was not concentric to the building. Structure 7 was the best-preserved of these and this comprised two sections of wall construction trench with a 4m gap between the two on the west side, directly opposite the east-facing entrance, with a large posthole situated off centre of this gap, slightly towards the south. The surrounding drainage gully comprised a penannular feature with a wide gap on the eastern side corresponding to the entrance. There was no gap in the drainage gully on the western side of the structure. Structure 1 was similar to Structure 7 with two sections of wall construction trench surrounded by a drainage gully with the southern side of an east-facing entrance surviving. There was a 3m wide gap between the wall construction trenches on the western side of the structure, and, as with Structure 7, there was no corresponding gap in the surrounding external drainage gully. Roundhouses with two entrances are unusual, but not unknown, examples being found at Dalton Parlours and Roxby Moor, Yorkshire, Hayknowes and Caronbridge, Dumfriesshire, Rispaın Camp, Wigtownshire and Wolsdy Hall, Cumbria (Harding 2004, figs 2.5 and 2.6). However, these structures all comprise wall trenches or rings of posts and none have a surrounding drainage gully surviving. The provision of two entrances would have had obvious advantages in terms of maximising the light within the structure, but there must also have been some disadvantages because it would make the structures very windy, particularly at this site with its prevailing westerly wind, and would result in a loss of useable interior space. The fact that the drainage gullies surrounding Structures 1 and 7 did not have a corresponding break in the vicinity of the western gap in the wall construction trenches strongly suggests that the buildings did not have two entrances. An alternative possibility is that these buildings had some form of window or opening on their western sides, thus maximising the light without compromising shelter as much as a full entrance would. This may have been an opening used seasonally to utilise summer evening sunlight. A possible parallel has been recorded at Ashford Prison, Middlesex (Carew et al. 2006, 44). An Iron Age roundhouse structure, c. 11m in diameter, which had an east-facing entrance was constructed with two sections of wall construction trench
Discussion

Fig. 40  Interpretation of function of elements of Pegswood Moor roundhouse structures (scale 1:500)
separated by a 6.5m gap on the west side of the building. However, it was not possible to determine whether the drainage gully had a corresponding gap due to truncation so it cannot be proven whether the structure had two entrances or whether it represents a true parallel to Structures 1 and 7 at Pegswood Moor.

The northern construction trench of Structure 7 was lined with clay, interpreted as post-packing for timber uprights. There were no traces of clay packing in the southern construction trench and the composition of the fill suggests that the structural remains had been removed and the feature had subsequently silted up. The construction trench for Structure 5 contained a post setting with stone post-packing at the northwestern end. The trench had an irregular base with post impressions visible and a deposit of sand throughout the trench, interpreted as post-packing placed around the timbers. Structure 8 was also defined by a construction trench, this being a vertical-sided and flat-based feature in contrast to the construction trenches of Structures 5–7, and in the east this was lined with clay used as post-packing for the timbers. The timbers seem to have rotted in situ since the clay lining appeared undisturbed. The presence of stakeholes both external and internal to the penannular feature representing Structure 15 may indicate that this feature was also a wall construction trench as stakes are unlikely to have surrounded a drainage trench. It is possible that the external stakes may have been the remainder of a ring of an outer setting of stakes, although interpretation cannot be definite as only a few were present. Two of the houses at West Brandon had an outer setting of stakes, and these were interpreted as anchors for the rafter (Cunliffe 1978, 225).

Two main types of later prehistoric timber roundhouse are known in the region. Very large houses were constructed with a timber ring of supports, whilst the more common type in the region comprised a construction trench to accommodate an outer wall capable of bearing a conical roof (Higham 1984, 122). A very similar construction technique to Structures 1, 6 and 7 was used for the well-preserved roundhouse at South Shields. This building comprised a drainage gully with an inner concentric wall-slot, measuring 8.75m in diameter by 0.20m wide and 0.33m deep, which had vertical sides and a concave base with closely set circular post impressions in its base, these 100–150mm in diameter and spaced 150mm apart (Hodgson et al. 2001, 96). The wall slot had not been dug as a continuous arc, but in a series of relatively straight 2m long segments. It has been suggested that a polygonal building plan recorded in a structure at Little Waltham, Essex may have been the result of a construction technique that utilised horizontal beam plates (Cunliffe 1978, 177). The two houses within the enclosure at Doubstead comprised construction trenches for timber walls, and although survival was limited, some stone post-packing remained (Jobey 1982, 7). All of the structures excavated at Hartburn, with one exception, have also been interpreted as construction trenches for timber walls based on three possible attributes: a square-cut and narrow profile; the presence of packing stones in situ; and the presence of shallow impressions in the base of some features created by the stub ends of posts (Jobey 1973, 22).

Roundhouse structures excavated at Maiden Castle, Dorset and Melsonby, North Yorkshire had very close-set postholes which indicated that the walls were made with upright poles interwoven with rods, creating a basketwork upon which daub was plastered (Sharples 1991; Fitts et al. 1999; Reynolds 1979, 31). Modern reconstructions of roundhouses have used hazel rods for the interweaving (see Reynolds 1979; 1993). A similar construction technique may have been used at Pegswood Moor, with the construction trenches holding a frame of uprights. Daub comprises clay and earth mixed with hay, straw, animal hair or any fibrous material and, with the addition of large amounts of water, this is trodden into a plastic consistency (Reynolds 1993, 100). The daub is then applied to both sides of the wall with enough force so that it wraps around the woodwork and does not fall off when dry. Ten tonnes of clay were used in the reconstruction of a 12.80m diameter roundhouse at Pimperne Down, Dorset and it was noted that a substantial hollow, similar to features often described as ‘working-hollows’ on Iron Age sites, had developed in the area used to prepare the daub (Reynolds 1993, 100).

None of the structures excavated at Pegswood Moor had any evidence for the presence of roof supports. The structures ranged in diameter from c. 11.75m to 6.80m and it is possible that whilst some of the smaller structures may not have needed such roof supports, other larger examples may have been constructed with timbers supported on post-pads or within relatively shallow post-settings, with such ephemeral features unlikely to survive plough truncation. The basic structure of a roundhouse comprises a cylindrical wall with a conical roof with the roof placed in such a way that the pressure is evenly expressed downwards and therefore counteracted by the ground (Reynolds 1993, 94). For smaller structures, a ring-beam at eaves level would have been all that was required to provide the strength necessary to carry the roof (Cunliffe 1978, 177). The roof rafters would also have been interwoven with rods to provide a support for the thatch roof (Reynolds 1979, 31). The South Shields roundhouse had a clay bank between the gully and wall-slot which sloped away from the wall and a series of postholes was cut into this bank on the north side of the structure, interpreted as supports for the eaves of the conical roof with the absence of similar features on the southern and western sides of the building indicated this was a localised repair (Hodgson et al. 2001, 96).

The wall construction trenches of Structures 1, 6 and 7 were surrounded externally by concentric ditches, such penannular ditches frequently being referred to as ‘eaves drip gullies’ (Megaw and Simpson 1979). The gully or ditch would serve to collect rainwater running off the roof to prevent it from flooding the house during heavy rain (Cunliffe 1978, 177). An important function of these ditches would also be to keep water away from the walls of the structure to prevent rotting and it has been
suggested that the ditches would also create a dry inner space, which would become progressively drier with time (Carew et al. 2006, 77). This construction technique meant that the use of deep posts inside the structure would be counterproductive, as they would penetrate the artificially lowered water table. The eaves-drainage gully surrounding Structure 7 had silted up and been re-cut on at least three occasions, demonstrating that it was deliberately dug, rather than being formed naturally by the action of water running off the roof. The penannular gullies surrounding Structures 1 and 6 had also silted up and been re-cut.

Structure 7 was the only roundhouse with evidence surviving for the doorway. In the east of the structure, adjacent to the terminals of the wall construction trenches, were two groups of postholes, located within the interior of the building and set at a distance of 2m apart. All of the postholes contained intact stone post-packing. These postholes presumably represented a timber ‘porch’ at the entrance to the roundhouse and would have held timber uprights for the doorway. Any entrance into a roundhouse structure would create a weakness in the stability of the building, as the break in the wall would have been a weak point that compromised the strength of the building. Traces of timber slots were identified in the gap between the wall ends and inner porch posts in roundhouse structures excavated in Wiltshire, suggesting the presence of a timber frame, presumably also utilising horizontal lintels attached to the top of the porch posts, which would have strengthened the weak point (Reynolds 1993, 95).

The absence of hearths in the interior of the Pegswood Moor structures is presumed to be due to a lack of survival, since such features must have been present within structures used as habitation dwellings. Four small postholes in the centre of Structure 6 formed a structure c. 1m² in size and it is possible that this may be the remains of a hearth surround. At Thorpe Thewles, hearths recorded in the centre of the main house were represented by areas of in situ burning with no traces of a stone surround (Heslop 1987, 25). The earliest hearth was surrounded by a raised lip of oxidised clay and stood to a height of 80mm, set directly on natural clay. A subsequent hearth consisted of brick-red, oxidized, clean clay that left a slight depression 130mm deep after excavation. The survival of horizontal stratigraphy at Thorpe Thewles, including floor surfaces, ensured the survival of such features. A probable hearth was also located towards the centre of the South Shields structure; this measured 1.05m by 1.10m by 130mm deep (Hodgson et al. 2001, 98). The degree of truncation of archaeological levels at Pegswood Moor means that such ephemeral features have not survived.

It is not possible to accurately determine the average lifespan of an Iron Age roundhouse. The length of time over which each individual structure would have been in use would depend on several factors, such as ground conditions, tolerance of decrepitude and incentive to rebuild (Heslop 1987, 110). Experimental reconstructions of such dwellings have demonstrated that they have the potential to be durable and long-lived structures. The Pimperne Down roundhouse, based on an excavated example at the site, comprised a structure 12.80m in diameter with an outer wall constructed with a ring of stakes interwoven with rods to form a wattle wall onto which daub was plastered. The building had an inner ring of timber posts 9.75m in diameter with a continuous timber lintel at the top (Reynolds 1979; 1993). The building was dismantled after 14 years and at this stage was still in good condition, having been inspected by a structural engineer and declared sound after 12 years. This reconstruction demonstrated that it was possible to effect repairs to the roundhouse structure, such as replacement of rotting porch-posts and replacement of timber posts within the inner ring, without the structure collapsing. At the time of writing, the oldest reconstructed roundhouse in Britain was that at Castell Henllys, built in 1981. Reynolds (1993) concluded that the archaeological data and the experimental reconstruction at Pimperne Down suggested that the lifespan of the structure could have been up to 100 years, although it was acknowledged that this was a tenuous proposition. This would seem a rather lengthy period of time and although it is possible that a building could in theory have survived for this period, whether it would still be deemed inhabitable by the occupants is another matter. More experimental work over sufficiently long periods would need to be undertaken in Britain to determine information about the durability of Iron Age roundhouses, but the available data does suggest that an average lifespan can reasonably be assumed to be at least 25 years.

Parker-Pearson’s examination of the use of domestic space in later British prehistory has led to his proposal that the spatial arrangement of roundhouse interiors was organised largely on cosmological grounds (1999). He considered that as most structures had east-facing entrances to reflect the sunrise, activities within the roundhouse were ritually structured around the movements of the sun. In this cosmological model, the southern half of the dwelling was used for work activities when the sun was in the southern sky and the northern side was used for sleeping when the sun was invisible in the night sky; people would hence move around the structure following the movements of the sun which were ‘embedded in the routines of daily life within the house’ (Parker Pearson 1999, 49-50). This model also identified a left/right division of space according to where different activities were undertaken, again linked to cosmological beliefs. The cosmological argument relies heavily on the orientation of roundhouse entrances, which in past literature have been described as generally east and southeast facing. A recent reappraisal of the cosmological theory has suggested that this model of activity based on sunwise movement and the left/right division of space does not hold true for most parts of Britain and also challenges the reliance on anthropological parallels used to construct this theory (Pope 2007). An examination of published circular roundhouses of prehistoric and Roman date in north and central Britain determined that the majority were orientated between northeast and southeast with a clear preference for east, east-southeast
and southeast (Pope 2007, 212). These orientations indicate that ‘for communities in north and central Britain if not elsewhere, the idea of sun-based belief systems as centred on the roundhouse… can be called into question’ (ibid.). The orientation of roundhouses in these regions at least is more likely to have been determined by the need for shelter and light. If the present day dominant westerly wind direction was the same during later prehistory, then the optimum orientation for shelter would be between north and southeast whilst the maximum light would be provided by a southerly orientation (ibid., 213). Thus the optimum position to balance the requirements for shelter and light would be achieved by an orientation between east and southeast. The latitude of northern Britain means that there are fewer hours of daylight during the winter months than further south (though more in summer, when the sun rises here in the North East) and a more southerly orientation may thus indicate a desire to maximise daylight. In sum, there exist competing views in this respect. Doubtless debate will continue. The arguments, of course, presuppose tasks were primarily focused within the dwelling, which is something unproven. It was not possible to determine the exact orientations of entrances in many of the Pegswood Moor structures due to the incomplete building plans, but those that could be determined had east-facing entrances (Structures 1, 5 and 6) and an east-southeast facing entrance (Structure 7). Of the remaining structures, the surviving evidence indicated that most would have been orientated somewhere between northeast and southeast, with Structure 4 being the notable exception, as discussed above.

The recent reappraisal of the use of domestic space within roundhouses has also questioned the cosmological north/south and left/right divisions, again at least for structures in north and central Britain (Pope 2007). A study of structures from these areas determined that a high proportion of hearths were situated in the centre of the structure, with some towards the front of centre, this central position presumably being used to create even distribution of light and heat across the dwelling as well as reducing the fire risk (ibid., 215). In the South Shields structure, the distribution of plant remains within the dwelling suggests that there was an open area for sitting or moving around the central hearth and the pattern of hollows suggested a U-shaped seating area facing east (Hodgson et al. 2001, 150-151). Posts and stone slabs were located in the front north quadrant encroaching towards the hearth area and it has been suggested that slabs found in a similar position at A’Cheardach Mhor, South Uist were for baking (ibid.). Pope’s regional study showed that pits were most common at the front of the structure, with some also at the back right, and although their function is not always certain, it is likely that many examples, particularly those that were clay- or stone-lined, may have been used for storage (Pope 2007, 225). Four examples of twin post-settings interpreted as being for looms are known and these are all positioned towards the front of the structures (ibid.). A structure in Arran produced evidence for crop and wood processing activities along with a concentration of lithics at the front of the structure and there was evidence for wood and grain storage at the back of the structure (Barber 1997, 11). Grain processing was undertaken at the front of the South Shields roundhouse and bedding material was found at the back (Hodgson et al. 2001). Stone beds found at the rear of a number of Roman Iron Age structures, particularly in Northumberland and Gwynedd, provide further evidence that the back of roundhouse dwellings was used for sleeping (Pope 2007, 216). Pope’s regional study therefore suggests that the front space of roundhouses was a focus for activity, presumably as the morning light would be available at the front of the structure. With the door open, light would extend into the backspace and the darkest areas would be to the sides of the structure with sunlight moving from left to right during the morning and disappearing by noon (ibid.). Light towards the back and periphery of the structure would fade during the day leaving only the front area well lit until late afternoon or early evening, at which point the central fire would provide the main light source. The spatial arrangement of domestic space within simple single-walled roundhouses, the type identified at Pegswood Moor, may thus have been dependant on practical considerations such as light levels within the dwelling, so that activities were undertaken at the front, an area which as well as being the best lit would also be most accessible, and the back area, which was darker and more private, was reserved for sleeping and storage (ibid.). However, this arrangement of domestic space may not be applicable to the Pegswood Moor Structures 1 and 7 which had the postulated openings diametrically opposed to the entrance. Unfortunately there is no surviving evidence to suggest how the space was utilised within any of the Pegswood Moor structures.

The Economy of the Settlement

Unenclosed Later Iron Age settlement

Artefactual and palaeoenvironmental remains from the unenclosed settlement were scarce and so it is not possible to propose any detailed economic model. However, in common with other unenclosed settlements of the period in the region, this was presumably a farmstead settlement, occupied perhaps by a single household, with a subsistence economy based on mixed arable and pastoral farming. The stratigraphic evidence for continuity of occupation from the unenclosed to enclosed farmstead would also indicate a continuity in the economic basis of the settlement. The unenclosed Iron Age settlement at South Shields, located c. 15km southeast of Pegswood Moor, provides much information about agricultural practices during the same period, 4th–2nd century BC, that the Pegswood Moor unenclosed settlement was probably occupied. A system of narrow rig-and-furrow agriculture, with spade-dug furrows spaced 0.70m apart, was recorded 10m to the southwest of the South Shields roundhouse and a similar
Enclosed Later Iron Age settlement

The combined evidence from the archaeological, biological and artefactual remains from Pegswood Moor indicates that the economy of the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement was based on a mixed agricultural regime, supplemented by some foraging. The evidence provided by the stock enclosures and droveway demonstrates that pastoralism formed a major part in the economy. The necessity to separate crops from animals means that agricultural regimes based on mixed farming produce ‘more complicated and nucleated patterns with stock enclosures around central huts from which droveways lead through an area of fields to pasture beyond’ (Ramm 1980, 31). Unfortunately, the acidic nature of the Boulder Clay resulted in a very small and poorly preserved faunal assemblage. The only species to be positively identified was cattle (see Gidney, Chapter 3). The site would have been an ideal location for cattle rearing with pasturelands and a plentiful water supply provided by the How Burn flowing into the River Wansbeck in the near vicinity. Fragments of long bone shaft, possibly of sheep-size, were also noted. However, most bone fragments were too small for identification, even to size of class of animal. Archaeological features indicative of sheep herding suggest that sheep played a significant role in the pastoral economy. It is likely that nearby coastal resources were exploited for seasonal grazing, with land at an altitude of between 25–50m OD less than 0.5km to the east (see Fig. 39). The droveway on the east (the coast side) may have been the main route for this movement of stock potentially passing to grazing around the Wansbeck estuary (see Fig. 38).

This situation is paralleled at many sites in the region where the paucity of faunal remains has meant that little viable statistical analysis has been undertaken (Higham 1986, 136; Petts and Gerrard 2006, 35). Where such analysis has been possible, cattle appear to be the dominant food source. However, the presence of sheep, pig and horse bones, along with cattle bones at sites near to Pegswood Moor such as Burradon, Doubstead and Hartburn indicates that cattle-raising was not the sole pastoral activity in the region. An exception is Tynemouth Priory where sheep made up 50% of the found assemblage; this may have been because coastal marsh grazing was exploited, since sheep were more vulnerable to predators inland (Jobey 1967; Higham 1986, 136). The excavations at Thorpe Thewles did produce a sizeable faunal assemblage, detailed analysis of which has provided so much information about the economy of a Later Iron Age and Romano-British settlement in the region that is worth summarizing in so far as the economy at Pegswood Moor may have mirrored the patterns. Cattle was the principal meat source throughout all phases of the Thorpe Thewles settlement, although a change in husbandry practices and exploitation of this species was identified (Rackham 1987, 107). During the earlier phase of enclosed settlement, the mortality profile of the cattle showed that some animals were kept for breeding, milking or working stock. Cattle were also slaughtered whilst juveniles, such animals being exploited for beef and also for their hides. The cattle assemblage recovered from the following phase of unenclosed settlement at Thorpe Thewles displayed a marked change in mortality rates, with the majority of beasts slaughtered whilst juvenile, representing a huge increase in the role of beef production. Sheep formed the second most abundant species in the faunal assemblage and the quantity increased during the later unenclosed phase of settlement. A small proportion were slaughtered as juveniles for meat, but the majority had been slaughtered after they had produced a few wool crops and also after a few breeding seasons (ibid., 107–8). The Thorpe Thewles flock may have principally been a wool flock, with milk, cheese and meat of lesser importance. Goat bones were also positively identified and this species was presumably used for dairy produce (ibid., 108). The proportion of pigs amongst the faunal assemblage also increased in the later phase of settlement and most had been slaughtered as juveniles, for meat and lard, with only a few being kept as breeding animals (ibid.). Traditionally, pigs were grazed in woodland, but sty husbandry may also have been used. The proportion of pigs in the assemblage suggests that significant numbers of the species were kept, and although the pollen evidence for the area generally indicates an open landscape, it is probable that there would have been some woodland in the vicinity to support this pig population. Horses were also present and these were probably utilised for riding or light traction. There was no indication that horses were bred at the site, and the decline in frequency in the species seen in the later phase of settlement may suggest that the requirement for transporting people or goods lessened, perhaps associated with a change in farming practice or social or economic changes (ibid.). Dogs would have been used as working animals, for herding and deterring predators. Two examples of domestic fowl bones represent the earliest find at this time of this species in northern England (ibid., 107). It is possible that this species may have been utilised to a greater extent at the settlement, but

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the evidence does not survive due to the fragility of the bones. A few wild geese bones, along with two fragments of red deer antler, the latter comprising finished artefacts that may have been brought onto the site, indicates that exploitation of wild mammals and bird was minimal (ibid., 109).

Evidence for arable farming at Pegswood Moor is provided by quernstones and ancient biological remains recovered from bulk samples. The development of the iron ard during the first millennium BC meant that it was possible to cultivate the heavier Boulder Clay soils present along the coastal plain (Rees 1979) and the introduction of spelt and bread wheat provided crops suitable for such soils (Jones 1981). The bulk samples from Pegswood Moor produced a small number of charred cereals and other carbonised plant remains, including barley, oats and wheat, but as with the faunal remains, this material was scarce and preservation was poor due to the nature of the sub-soil. Some bulk samples also produced small quantities of cereal chaff, glume bases and rachis segments of barley and spelt wheat. The relative proportions present in the assemblages suggest that this material was a waste product from a late stage of crop-processing, probably from fine-sieving (see Schmidt, Chapter 3) and although the recovered assemblages were rather small for reliable interpretation, the available data suggests that barley and spelt wheat were the most abundant cereals cultivated.

Two lower and two upper beehive rotary quernstones were recovered from the excavation. The context in which the three Phase 5 querns were found, along with evidence that these were long-lived tools (see Wright, Chapter 3), indicate that the period of use for all of these objects would have been during the phase of Later Iron Age enclosed settlement. The presence of beehive querns demonstrates that cereal processing was undertaken within the settlement. Two types of beehive quern were present, the period of use of the earlier type, characterised by a hemispherical or conical shape and flat grinding surface, begins in the Iron Age and in some isolated and less Romanised parts of northern Britain continues to be used well into the Roman period. The developed type of beehive quern, which tends to be lighter and has a conical grinding surface, was not introduced in the region until the very end of the pre-Roman Iron Age (ibid.). One of the querns placed at the base of the Phase 5 fenceline <17> is of this later developed type, and was therefore presumably in use at the settlement towards the end of the phase of enclosed settlement. Fragments of saddle querns along with rubbers were also recovered from Phase 4 enclosed Iron Age contexts. Saddle querns continued to be used in Britain after the development of the rotary quern in the Iron Age, although their use decreased. Such querns were still in use during the Roman period, however by this time their function may have changed from plant processing to a more specialised, and possibly industrial, use.

The subsistence economy at Pegswood Moor is likely to have been supplemented by some foraging to exploit wild resources in the vicinity. However, the only evidence for such activity recovered from the enclosed phase of Later Iron Age settlement comprised charred hazelnut fragments from one of the pits within Structure 7.

This scarcity of plant remains is mirrored at most sites across the region, with Thorpe Thewles again the notable exception providing much information about the arable economy of a Later Iron Age and Romano-British settlement in the region. The two main cereal crops cultivated at Thorpe Thewles were spelt wheat and six-rowed hulled barley. Emmer wheat was present in very small numbers and this species was only represented by grains with no chaff present, indicating that it was probably not grown as a crop, but represents a weed amongst the other cereal crops (van der Veen 1987, 94). The weed assemblage indicated that the landscape around the site comprised open agricultural land and the composition of the assemblage as a whole, along with the presence of chaff, suggested that the site produced its own crop for consumption within the settlement with no evidence that a surplus of cereal crops were grown for export (ibid., 96;99). The settlement at Chester House produced a small assemblage of ancient seeds comprising six-row barley (Hordeum vulgare) along with emmer and spelt wheat, with emmer wheat being the more abundant of the two (van der Veen 1992, 39).

During the first millennium BC, major changes took place in the nature of arable production in Britain: spelt wheat replaced emmer, naked barley replaced hulled barley and several new crops, such as Celtic beans, oats and rye, were introduced (ibid., 152). Spelt wheat had a number of advantages over emmer wheat; it tolerates a wider range of soil conditions, is hardier than emmer, and is resistant to a range of pest and diseases, which may have led to it replacing emmer (ibid., 146). There is considerable regional variation in both the time and the degree to which these changes occurred, but the present evidence from North East England suggests that emmer wheat continued to be grown in some areas of the region ‘as part of an intensive, small-scale arable strategy, while another part switched to spelt wheat as part of a strategy of arable expansion’ (ibid., 153). It has been suggested that the increase in the scale of arable production was a response to increasing population pressure and decreasing soil fertility which necessitated the exploitation of previously marginal areas and the use of more diverse crops (Jones 1981 and 1984 referenced in van der Veen 1992, 153). The ‘regional divergence on the rate of adoption of these new practices may possibly be related to differences in the social circumstances of the various groups of farmers, for example in access to wealth, capital, technical information, etc.’ (ibid.). Van der Veen’s (1992) study of crop husbandry regimes in the region concluded that the evidence suggests that the switch to spelt wheat should be interpreted as representing arable expansion and that socio-economic factors influenced this change in arable production strategies. The assemblages available at the time of this study suggested that the continuation of small-scale arable production, as evidenced by the predominance of emmer wheat, occurred in sites in northern Northumberland, which were classed as Group A sites, whilst the adoption
of spelt wheat associated with arable expansion, Group B sites, was restricted to the area south of the Tyne, in the Tees lowlands (van der Veen 1992, 148). As no climatic or soil differences existed between the Tees lowlands and the lowlands of the Tyne-Forth region, it was concluded that the difference in agricultural regimes was due to cultural factors, perhaps even linked to different tribal territories. As discussed in Chapter 1, while the River Tyne has traditionally been seen as the frontier between the territories of the Votadini and Brigantes but recent reappraisal of the available evidence has suggested that this may not have been the case. The unenclosed Iron Age settlement excavated recently at South Shields produced a substantial plant assemblage which demonstrated that spelt wheat and six-row hulled barley were the principal cereal crops grown at the site (van der Veen 2001, 140). Although the plant assemblage recovered from Pegswood Moor was small, the remains did suggest that spelt wheat and barley were the most abundant crops cultivated and this therefore fits with the suggestion that this zone of arable expansion also extended north of the Tyne into the south Northumberland lowlands. Preliminary results from the East and West Brunton sites also indicate that spelt predominated over emmer wheat at both sites (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a). These recent excavations have therefore provided solid evidence that the Group B sites were not restricted to the Tees lowlands.

1st- to 2nd-century AD Romano-British period activity

Artefactual and palaeoenvironmental remains associated with the 1st- to 2nd-century AD Romano-British activity were scarce, almost certainly due to the fact that no areas of habitation were located within the excavated area. The archaeological features that were present did, however, indicate that pastoral farming formed an important constituent in the economic basis of the settlement. At the time of writing, there were no known parallels in the region for the timber enclosure and interpretation of its function as a stock enclosure may therefore be open to reconsideration if similar archaeological remains with better artefactual and ecofactual assemblages are discovered in the region. The form of the stock enclosure indicated that at least some of the land was still exploited for pastoralism, with the area to the east of the enclosure potentially set aside for arable fields. A major reorganisation in the layout of the settlement and landscape occurred with the construction of the enclosure, with the areas previously utilised for habitation, manufacturing and processing perhaps being replaced by arable fields and the large stock enclosure with adjacent pasture. The impetus for this significant change to the management of the landscape is not known. However, the elaborate construction of the timber stock enclosure and the evidence that it held a variety of animals may provide a clue to this major change. It is possible that the enclosure functioned as a place for gathering stock, perhaps from nearby communities, as well as the Pegswood Moor settlement. As previously discussed, as well as being necessary for practical purposes associated with the management of stock, the gathering together of herds and flocks may also have had an element of prestige for the community (Giles 2007, 244). The timber enclosure would have been a significant, dominant and highly visible feature within the landscape and is likely to have had fulfilled an important role. The major change in the environs of the Pegswood Moor settlement may be related to the intensification of agricultural production with an increase in the relative proportion of cattle, perhaps stimulated by a significant Roman military presence in the region during the 1st and 2nd centuries AD. The army would have required vast quantities of produce during this period and the settlement on Pegswood Moor was situated within a zone of military communication routes, as discussed further below. Extensive communication networks may have been in existence in the near proximity to the Pegswood Moor settlement in the 1st and 2nd centuries AD. The Devil’s Causeway, which branched from Dere Street just north of Hadrian’s Wall and headed northwestwards across the Northumberland Coastal Plain, ran to the west of Pegswood (see Fig. 5). There has been some suggestion that branch roads extended across the coastal plain from the Devil’s Causeway, including one leading from Newcastle (Jobey 1973, 52). A fortlet is thought to have existed at Longshaws, situated c. 8km to the west of Pegswood Moor, although this has never been proven by excavation, and Jobey (1973, 52) had speculated that such a branch road may have joined the Devil’s Causeway in the vicinity of Longshaws. There is no evidence to prove the possible link between the reorganisation of the settlement at Pegswood Moor in the early Roman period and the role of the campaigning army, but the possibility of such an association, and the fact that the timber enclosure may have functioned as a market place for trade, should be postulated.

Manufacturing, Processing and Trade

In common with most Iron Age settlements in the region, the Pegswood Moor settlement would have been a largely self-sufficient farming community. All of the materials required for construction of roundhouse structures, such as timber for the rods and posts, clay and water for the daub and straw for the thatch, would have been sourced within close proximity of the settlement. Many of the items and tools used at the settlement would have been manufactured within its boundaries and all raw materials would have been gathered from the wider area. There is strong evidence to indicate that the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement had a distinct zone in the northeastern part of the excavated area where processing and manufacturing activities were carried out.

It is highly likely that all of the vessels represented in the pottery assemblage were made locally; local production can be seen as a possibility when all of the
raw material identified in the pottery can be found within 10km of where the pottery is found. Local ceramic production was carried out during the Later Iron Age in northern Britain (Arnold 1981, 1985, referenced in Morris 1997, 41; 45). Indeed, it is entirely possible that the pottery was actually manufactured within the settlement by its inhabitants. Local clays seem to have been used to manufacture the Pegswood Moor pottery, possibly Boulder Clay that had been cleaned or refined in a water pit. The thick Boulder Clay glacial deposits in the area would have provided a plentiful supply of this material and the How Burn would have been an abundant water source. Features interpreted as clay quarrying pits were identified at the Thorpe Thewles settlement, along with probable slurry pits for processing and storing fine clay, these being up to 1.15m in diameter with vertical sides and flat bases, with their infills comprising blue-grey gley of consistent fine texture, unlike any other feature at that site (Heslop 1987, 32). Tempering material was added to the clay to prevent the pots cracking during firing and subsequent exposure to heat. A variety of temper material could be used, but the Pegswood Moor potters seem to have deliberately selected a single type of temper. Most of the pots had been tempered with crushed igneous rock fragments, generically known as dolerite, which occurs in narrow dykes across the region, such as the Whin Sill. This material is also found as erratic pebbles in the Boulder Clay and as river pebbles, and could have been sorted out from the Boulder Clay or collected from the nearby River Wansbeck. Dolerite is a widely used temper across the area between the Tyne and the Tweed, the assemblage from Burradon, for example, was dolerite tempered, and was also utilised further south in County Durham and Teesside. Dolerite was also an important temper in the Thorpe Thewles pottery assemblage (Swain 1987, 63). The Pegswood Moor pots were all hand-made vessels, this was a simple method using coil or slab building techniques, the surfaces of the pots had been smoothed, with no burning present, and decoration was uncommon with only one or two examples of simple finger pad impressions. This scarcity of decoration is typical of pottery in the region; only a small proportion of the Thorpe Thewles assemblage was decorated, the majority of which comprised finger-impressed decoration (ibid.).

The exterior surfaces of the Pegswood Moor pottery sherds display evidence that they had been fired by rudimentary means, this being shown by irregular oxidation resulting in a variety of surface colours. Similarly, the vast majority of the Thorpe Thewles pottery had a variety of surface colours demonstrating a similar firing technique (ibid.). The pots would have been fired in either an above ground bonfire or in a ‘clamp’, a pit cut into the ground in which a fire is constructed. It is possible that the substantial hearth structures located in the northeastern part of the excavated area at Pegswood Moor may represent the remains of clamps where pots manufactured within the settlement were fired.

As discussed in detail above (see Willis, Chapter 3), the majority of the Pegswood Moor pots comprised barrel-type jars, these being the dominant form in the region, for example barrel jars formed the largest group from Burradon and Thorpe Thewles (Jobey 1970; Swain 1987, 62). These vessels would have been used as cooking pots and a high proportion of the Pegswood Moor pots had burnt remains adhering to their surfaces, caused by the contents of the pot (such as stews, broths and porridge) boiling over and leaving carbonised remains on the exterior of the vessels. A few vessels also had carbonised remains on their interior surfaces, where food burnt within the vessel had not been cleaned out. There is considerable range in the size of the individual vessels amongst the Pegswood Moor assemblage, as is typical for the region. The large vessels were extremely substantial with rim diameters of c. 350mm (two examples) and 410mm. These are amongst the biggest vessels of this date yet recovered from the region. The reason for making such huge vessels must have been associated with their required function; such pots would have been large enough to hold food for many people. At least one bowl was also present in the Pegswood Moor assemblage, this from a Romano-British period context, and perhaps was of specialized function given its association with Structure 16. Two other possible bowls were recovered from this phase of activity and two possible bowls also came from the preceding enclosed Iron Age settlement phase.

Although the Romano-British pottery assemblage was small, no doubt due to the fact that no associated area of habitation was identified within the limits of excavation, the material that was present demonstrated a continuity in the pottery tradition at the settlement, with pottery assigned to Fabric Group 4 (Willis, Chapter 3) present in the assemblages from the Later Iron Age enclosed settlement and the Romano-British era 1st- to 2nd-century AD activity.

The saddle querns recovered from Pegswood Moor included examples made with igneous rocks and a microgranite, both probably from the Cheviots, along with gritstones, sandstones and a cobble of fine-grained quartzite (see Wright, Chapter 3). The igneous rocks were used for lower saddle stones whilst the hand stones were made from finer-grained rocks, presumably as these are more comfortable to handle and cause less damage to the skin. Coal Measures sandstone had been used for all the rotary beehive quernstones. It would have been possible to source most of these raw materials locally as the site lies in an area of Carboniferous Coal Measures, close to outcrops of Millstone Grit and Carboniferous Limestone, and glacially transported erratics from the Cheviots would also have been found within the vicinity. However, it is possible that some of the querns could have been made and imported to the site from further afield. The developed beehive quern <17> had a drilled handle socket that appears to have been drilled by a different technique from that used for the other beehive querns found at the site, perhaps using a tubular drill. This is a specialised and technically demanding method and may suggest that this quern was manufactured elsewhere. New work on querns has shown that some sites acquired examples that
had evidently been produced at some distance from the consumer site (Willis 1999, 100). It seems likely that some looms at least were professionally fashioned both at the quarry and in the finishing stages, and they may have been traded over some distance (Higham 1986, 141). Some may have been made to order. Work carried out on Later Iron Age and Roman beehive querns in North East Yorkshire has demonstrated that the quality of stone suitable for grinding can determine the distance over which they are distributed, with poor quality limestones having a localised distribution, better quality limestone extending up to 20km and high quality sandstone querns being transported up to distances of 90km from their source (Hayes, Hemingway and Spratt 1980, in Morris 1997, 52). A similar study of distribution has been attempted in Teesdale, however this revealed that outcrops of fine and medium grained sandstones, which most of the beehive querns in the area were manufactured from, are particularly common in Teesdale (Gwilt and Heslop 1995, 44). Analysis of the lithology of these querns and attempts to establish provenance concluded that most of the beehive querns were made and distributed locally within Teesdale. The Pegswood Moor stone assemblage also included pebble tools and hones made from millstone grit, quartzite and micaceous Coal Measures sandstone. As with the querns, these could all have been acquired from a local source. The majority of these were recovered from Enclosure 8 features in the northeastern part of the site, in the area where processing and manufacturing activities seem to have occurred. It is probable that the hones were used for sharpening iron tools; iron knives would have been used for skinning and cutting hides (Cunliffe 1978, 289) and the tools may therefore be associated with the possible evidence for tenter frames in this area or with food processing activities. A well-used hand stone <9> also recovered from the same area, may have been used for some manufacturing process, with its chipped surfaces possibly the result of being used with a percussion action. A stone mortar <5> and a pebble tool <3> recovered from the same feature, the Enclosure 7 ditch in the northeastern part of the site, were perhaps used together as a pestle and mortar. The possibility that this enclosure was used for feasting suggests that these objects may have been associated with food processing. Other stone objects include a fragment from a possible loom weight <26>. Clay objects interpreted as possible loom weights were recovered from Burradon (1970, 81). The manufacture of woollen fabrics seems to have been carried out in most parts of the country during the Iron Age, presumably on a part-time basis within each household, with evidence for this provided by clay and stone loom weights, which are used for keeping bunches of warp threads taut. No archaeological traces of looms survive in this country (Cunliffe 1978, 287), although we have an idea of how looms from this period may have worked due to a combination of these loom weights and archaeological and modern ethnographic examples from other countries. The loom weights would have been used to weight the warp threads on upright looms, as well as to space the threads and prevent entanglement (Sudds 2006, 70–71). Upright looms would have comprised a simple wooden frame, which would have left little trace in the archaeological record, at most a pair of postholes which would leave no clue to their original function, and it is also possible that the frames may have been free-standing, thereby leaving no trace (cf. Carew et al. 2006, fig. 62). Weaving would have been carried out within roundhouse dwellings; the possible loom weight was recovered from a pit inside Structure 11. This structure, at 10.25m diameter, was the biggest within the enclosed Later Iron Age settlement so that it may have been deliberately constructed with manufacturing and processing activities in mind as its function, or part of its function. The evidence for stock enclosures and features associated with sheep herding at Pegswood Moor indicates that sheep farming is likely to have played an important role in the settlement economy. Parallels with Thorpe Thewles suggests that flocks may have been primarily kept for exploitation of their wool, which would have been used within the settlement and would have provided the community with a valuable resource, with meat and milk of secondary importance.

Although no metal artefacts were recovered from the excavations, indirect evidence for their use was recovered from the site. Such objects would have been used within the settlement for a variety of purposes. The hones recovered from the excavations would have been used to sharpen iron tools such as knives, and slight scratch marks on one example were probably made by the edge of a metal blade. Wear patterns from a metal spindle within the feedpipe of a beehive quernstone also provided evidence for the use of iron tools. Little evidence was recovered to prove that metalworking was carried out at the site, however a few fragments of hammer-scale and fragments of slag present within the bulk samples processed during the assessment phase (PCA 2002) suggest that iron smithing took place. As no traces of smelting hearths were found within the excavated area, this may have occurred beyond the limits of excavation, or perhaps in the northeastern part of the excavated area, which seems to have represented a zone set aside for industrial and manufacturing purposes. Fragments of fused material resulting from activities involving heat were recovered; unfortunately none of these were diagnostic, but they do suggest industrial processes were carried out at the site. Spent coal was recovered from the Enclosure 7 ditch and Jobey (1970, 86; 1973, 49) has noted that in the Romano-British period there is evidence that small quantities of outcrop coal were used on open hearths. It is likely that such outcrops would have been available in the near vicinity and the presence of this spent coal indicates that such material was exploited as a source for fuel at Pegswood Moor. There is some indication from the fills of the Enclosure 7 ditch that turf may also have been used as a fuel source. The process of smelting iron was relatively simple and although very few furnaces of this period have been found across the country, the process was simple enough to have been carried out domestically.
by communities on a part-time basis using ore extracted from local sources (Cunliffe 1978, 290). However, some researchers have questioned this and suggest that the technological skills necessary for smelting would make it a specialist activity (Salter and Ehrenreich 1984 in Morris 1997, 55). There is, however, evidence for smithing at many Iron Age settlements and a study of iron working in central southern England has shown that smithing took place at most settlement sites wherever tools were present (ibid.). Smithing does not require purpose-built hearths and can be carried out anywhere. In North East England, iron slag indicative of smithing activity, along with a smithing hearth bottom, were recovered from Thorpe Thewles (McDonnell 1987, 92). A few fragments of slag were recovered from Burradon, along with a fragment of clay tuyère that originated from a furnace or hearth used for iron smelting or smithing (Jobey 1970, 80–81). Iron slag and cinder from iron smithing was found at Doubstead (Jobey 1982, 17). The gradual introduction of iron working in the last centuries BC in the north had major implications for arable farming, with stronger and more efficient equipment considerably improving production (Higham 1986, 140). The heavy Boulder Clay soils could have been made workable by ploughing with iron ards.

Three fragments of briquetage were recovered from the Pegswood Moor and these indicate that salt was being used at the site (see Willis, Chapter 3). Processing of salt in the Iron Age period seems to be have been a low-level technology utilising coarse hand-made ceramic pans and containers for drying salt crystals, simple hearths with bars and pedestals, water channels and plank-lined pits used as storage tanks (Morris 1997, 50). Briquetage containers, used to manufacture salt from brine, as well as for transportation and storage, were of cylindrical or trough form, with two troughs bound together to form a cylinder for transport. The troughs were made by slicing coil- or collar-built cylinders from top to bottom to create two containers and then adding two semi-circular pieces of clay to either end to provide watertight containers for holding brine (Morris 2007, 430). These containers generally become so fragmented that estimate of size is difficult, however, four partially complete examples from the Fens measure > 330mm in length by 150–230mm wide by 60–80mm deep (ibid., 431). The containers were placed above the heat source on a variety of supports and the brine was heated until evaporation resulted in the production of salt. The fragments of briquetage from Pegswood Moor are in a distinctive hand-made chaff (grass) tempered fabric, which is always a clear indicator of briquetage. This material was particularly suitable for this function as it was light, porous and readily formed. The use of chaff in the briquetage of the Lincolnshire Fens is associated with the intensification of production from the Later Iron Age onwards. Salt would have been a vital commodity that was required not only as an essential part of the diet but also as a preservative for meat and cheese as well as being used for a variety of other purposes such as processing hides (ibid.), for animal licks and for medicinal purposes such as reducing infection in wounds. It is also possible that salt was used as a currency and may have been used as part of a marriage dowry (ibid.). Examination of salt producing sites in the Lincolnshire fenlands has identified a significant increase in the production of salt during the Later Iron Age and early Roman period (ibid., 438). Matlby (2006) suggests that this intensification of production may have been stimulated by an increased demand for salt for curing meat.

The presence of briquetage is also extremely important in demonstrating that the Pegswood Moor settlement was engaged with an exchange network and it further strengthens the evidence for a trade in salt in the region (Willis 1999, 101). Sea-salt is likely to have been extracted along the North Sea coast (ibid.). During recent investigations at Streethouse Farm, near Loftus, south of the Tees (see Fig. 5, Chapter 1) one hearth used for processing salt was excavated, and a further hearth has also been identified. Two radiocarbon dates have been obtained from the site, 380–160 BC and 220–90 BC, placing it within the Later Iron Age (Sherlock 2006). Evidence for salt processing has also been found at the Needles Eye site on North Road, Berwick-upon-Tweed, where large quantities of briquetage were recovered from a cliff top site from deposits dated to 380–170 cal BC (PCA 2006). Elsewhere in the country, there is evidence for salt containers being transported up to 50–60km from coastal workings (Bradley 1975 in Morris 1997, 51; Willis in press a). It is therefore possible that the briquetage found at Pegswood Moor may have been traded a considerable distance.

The two glass bangle or armlet fragments recovered from the Romano-British period phase of activity provide further evidence that the Pegswood Moor community was involved in a trade and exchange network (see Allason-Jones and Price, Chapter 3). Similar glass armlets are a common find in Scotland and northern England, although some groups of bangles also occur in large numbers in other parts of Britain (Price 1988, 339). There is some debate as to whether such armlets were of Roman manufacture and acquired by native population through trade or exchange or vice versa. These objects were first discussed by Kilbride-Jones in 1938 who divided them into three types, and determined that Types 2 and 3 never appeared south of Hadrian’s Wall. Since this study, many such armlets have been found south of the Wall and Price (1988) has identified another major group of armlets in the Yorkshire region. Allason-Jones (1991) interprets the group of armlets found along the west coast of Wales as evidence that they may have been traded along a route used in reverse for pottery. These objects were made in one seamless piece, from a lump of molten glass, and there is considerable variety in dimensions and decoration (Price 1988, 341). Some, such as the Kilbride-Jones Type 2 found at Pegswood Moor, have twisted cords, made by heating and stretching glass rods of one or more colours. Translucent and opaque glass could be used for the armlets, examples of both types being found at Pegswood Moor, and Stevenson (1956, 215–217) suggested that the source of this glass was most likely reused Roman vessel glass collected.
for this purpose, with Roman military installations being the most likely source. The colours in the cords are likely to have been specifically produced for this purpose (Price 1988). The distribution of Type 2 bangles in northern Britain suggests they were closely linked to the Roman military presence in the region (Price 1988, 347; 354), with a production site perhaps being located close to one or more of the legionary or auxiliary sites from where they were distributed to the native settlements.

The Kilbride-Jones Type 2 ice blue armlet with cobalt blue and white is the most common type found in Britain, with the bulk of the examples from military and native sites in the northern military zone dating from 2nd-century AD contexts. However, there are indications that these armllets may be present earlier in northern Britain, with two fragments found at the Agricolan supply base at Red House, Corbridge (Charlesworth 1979, in Price 1987, 84) and another from a Flavian fort at Elslack, near Skipton, North Yorkshire (May 1910 in Price 1987, 84), demonstrating that some examples were present by the last quarter of the 1st century AD. A fragment of this type of armlet was recovered from the main enclosure ditch at Thorpe Thewles, from an immediately pre-Roman horizon, and represents the earliest example recovered in the region to date (Price 1987, 84). Kilbride-Jones was of the opinion that the olive yellow opaque glass armlet (Type 3B) was not as common as the plain white Type 3A, nor had it as long a period of manufacture, belonging to the late 1st and early 2nd centuries AD. Type 3B, which was found at Pegswood Moor, does not feature in Price’s discussion of glass armllets in East Yorkshire and it appears that the type was confined to the area between Hadrian’s Wall and the Antonine Wall.

Ritual Activity

There is compelling evidence amongst the archaeological remains from Pegswood Moor for the presence of structured deposition indicative of ritual activity. A large proportion of the pottery recovered is likely to represent structured deposits. Of the 6,418g of pottery recovered from Phase 4 features, 5,024g came from just four deposits, representing nearly 80% of the assemblage. The quantity of pottery recovered from the site, although large in regional terms, was fairly small when the length of time of occupation of the settlement is considered, with a maximum of c. 35 vessels present in the assemblage. Although the small quantity recovered may in part be due to the fragility of the material, which means that it does not survive well once it has entered the ploughsoil zone (Willis 1999, 89), it is considered more likely that this is due to disposal practices. There was no evidence at Pegswood Moor for any refuse pits, and although it is possible that such features may been located away from the habitation area, perhaps a more likely explanation is that refuse was collected in middens to be spread as fertiliser on the fields. At Thorpe Thewles, the distribution of artefacts associated with the Phase II sub-rectangular enclosure was interpreted as being the result of a refuse disposal regime based on rubbish dumps and middens (Heslop 1987, 114). Two areas of dark, pottery-rich soil were identified in both corners of the enclosure adjacent to the entrance into the Iron Age enclosure at Hutton Rudby, North Yorkshire, and these were interpreted as manure heaps or domestic middens (ibid.). Such a practice would mean that little pottery would survive within archaeological features and the virtual absence of such material from roundhouse gullies at Pegswood Moor indicates that the habitation areas were kept clean, with refuse being transported elsewhere. A notable exception was the northern terminal of the central drainage gully surrounding Structure 7, which produced 125g of pottery, including 88g from the same vessel. The terminals of Iron Age roundhouses were clearly of symbolic significance; two substantial pits cut through each terminal of the drainage gully surrounding the central house at Burradon were interpreted by the excavator as being later, intrusive, features on the basis of two medieval pottery sherds found amongst the assemblage of Iron Age tradition and Roman pottery, briquetage, daub and fired clay, including part of a tuyère (Jobey 1970, 71). However, a re-examination of these pits suggests the medieval sherds could be intrusive due to medieval ploughing and that these features could very well be associated with an ‘end of use’ ritual for the roundhouse structure (Willis 1999, 96). The spatial analysis of artefactual material within roundhouse drainage gullies at an extensive Iron Age site at Crick Covert Farm, Northamptonshire revealed that groups of pottery were often deposited in the terminals of these features throughout the Early Iron Age to the Late Iron Age period (Woodward and Hughes 2007). The unabraded condition of the pottery, along with the fact that it was common to find many sherds from a single vessel in these assemblages, has led to the interpretation that this pottery was probably placed deliberately with symbolic intent at the time of the abandonment of the structure. Similar examples of concentrations of pottery within the terminals of roundhouse drainage gullies have been identified at Cat’s Water, Fengate (ibid.). The terminals of roundhouse drainage gullies thus seem to have been of symbolic significance throughout the Iron Age period and the deposition of pottery from the same vessel in these locations was of particular importance, perhaps associated with some ritual to mark the end of the life of the dwelling.

A posthole forming part of Enclosure 2, close to its entrance, had post-packing material surviving in situ and the backfill of the post-pipe contained a relatively large quantity of pottery, 706g, of which 645g were from the same vessel. This would suggest that following the removal of the timber upright the cavity had been deliberately backfilled with this material. The deposition of this pot is considered likely to be associated with an ‘end of use’ ritual for the enclosure. The enclosure was evidently long-lived and was deliberately dismantled and backfilled to make way for the construction of Structure 7. Similarly, the final reinstatement of the fenceline delimiting the northeastern side of Enclosure 6 had a large quantity of pottery, 3,936g from the same vessel, a very large barrel
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...Jar, at the base of its eastern terminal, placed in the feature prior to it being backfilled before replacement and realignment of this long-lived boundary. It is now well recognised that structured deposits are often placed in boundary features, and especially terminals which marked the locations of access through the boundaries (cf. Hingley 1990; Hill 1992).

Several small pits found within the Pegswood Moor roundhouse structures have been interpreted as having a ritual association to mark some stage in the lifecycle of the building. A pit [1225] located towards the northern edge of Structure 5 contained a large quantity of charcoal. Two small pits were located within the interior of Structure 7. Pit [822], situated in the northeastern quarter of the structure, close to the structure wall, contained a large quantity of charcoal and tiny fragments of burnt and calcined bone, not identifiable to species, overlain by a fragment of briquetage. There is other evidence from the region that briquetage occurs in potentially symbolic or ritual deposits (Willis 1999, 96). Pit [1211], which was located opposite to pit [822] in the northwestern quarter of Structure 7, also contained quantities of charcoal and fragments of burnt bone. Three small pits were located towards the centre of Structure 11; pits [553] and [555] were filled with material comprising burnt clayey sand with frequent charcoal whilst pit [541] contained a fragment of a heat-damaged stone artefact <26>, identified as a possible loom weight. Two small pits [564] and [572], which may have been internal to either Structure 12 or 13, were filled with charcoal, sand and burnt bone, and charcoal and burnt stone, respectively. The distinctive nature of these fills, which were notably different from those of most of the other features on site, are indicative of material from hearths, although there was no evidence of scorching of the surrounding clay demonstrating that the deposits were not burnt in situ. This indicates that these features were not the bases of hearths and it is possible that they represent structured deposits. In the anthropological literature, ash from the hearth has implications of fertility (Parker Pearson 1996, 119). The fills of these pits may perhaps represent votive deposits, incorporating hearth material that perhaps may even have originated from the hearths of the structures within which they were situated. There are many examples in the anthropological literature of rituals to mark the lifecycle of the house; these can be associated with the foundation of the structure, its rebuilding, remodelling or final abandonment (Brück 1999, 334). An examination of the spatial distribution of artefacts within roundhouse structures at the Iron Age settlement at Glastonbury in the Somerset Levels has led to an interpretation that some items may have been deliberately deposited as foundation deposits, during the life of the house, or at abandonment as closing deposits (Woodward and Hughes 2007, 188).

A fairly large pit was located towards the centre of Structure 4 and its primary fill comprised ashy silt with frequent charcoal inclusions. A secondary fill contained distinctive patches of ash, while the uppermost fill contained frequent burnt sandstone and charcoal fragments with occasional ash lenses. A bulk sample...
taken from the uppermost fill produced some heather type stems, probably utilised for fuel, and a few small fragments of bone, not identifiable to species, some of which were burnt. As already discussed, this structure is interpreted as being of probable ritual significance due to its small size, west-facing entrance and the fact that it was encompassed within the corner of an enclosure during the following phase of occupation. If usage of the pit was linked to a ritual significance of the structure, its central position suggests that the structure did not contain a hearth since there would not have been sufficient room to accommodate a hearth. The west-facing entrance and the absence of a hearth would mean that the interior of the structure would have been in relative darkness for much of the day, unless some form of portable fire, such as torches, was brought into the building. At Elms Farm, Heybridge, Essex a small circular structure and a square building established in the late pre-Roman Iron Age have been interpreted as being religious structures and both had central votive pits (Atkinson and Preston 1998).

The interior of the South Shields roundhouse had a small pit set against the roundhouse wall at the back of the structure, opposite the entrance, and this contained an iron adze head with its haft broken off, this feature being interpreted as possibly representing a structured deposit (Hodgson et al. 2001, 101; 152). The South Shields structure was destroyed by fire, possibly a deliberate act, and perhaps part of a funerary rite, as this would explain some curious features found within the house (ibid.). The ash had been removed from the hearth, possibly because it was taken to a new house, and the features had been infilled with burnt stone fragments and at least one, possibly two, quernstone fragments, indicative of deliberate infilling with special materials. A basket of grain had been placed in a hollow located just inside the door, presumably created by the passage of people through the entrance, before the structure burnt down.

At Pegswood Moor, quernstones had been placed in the base of the Enclosure 5 ditch terminal prior to it being backfilled and along the base of a fenceline leading up to Enclosure 11 (Fig. 42, Fig. 43). Such evidently careful placing of material has been interpreted as being indicative of ritual activity (Hill 1995, 101). The location of these quernstones is also of some significance, namely the association with an entrance into the enclosure, a location which would have been of symbolic significance. As discussed above, the placing of the quernstones within these particular features may have been of even more significance as these tools of arable agriculture had been placed at a point in time and within an area of the settlement where the site was refashioned to pastoral activities. Deposition of quernstones in ritual contexts occurred throughout the prehistoric eras and Hill has discussed the structured deposition of these objects during the Iron Age in Wessex (Hill 1995). An imbuing of these objects with ritual significance is likely to be connected with their use in processing grain and thus being seen as a means to fertility. Their ritual deposition may be related to the transforming attributes of the quern, converting harvested grain into flour (ibid., 108) and it has been suggested that querns were likely to have been invested with special meaning through their role in the cycle of arable production (Hingley, 1992 in Willis 1999, 99). Querns found in such contexts are often heavily
burnt and/or broken (Buckley 1992, 4) and the deliberate destruction of objects may have been necessary in order for the material to be acceptable for such an offering. 'Rituals may employ mundane objects, potentially including refuse or the simultaneous destruction of objects' (Needham and Spence 1997, 86). Brück (1999, 262) suggests that 'materials whose lives had ended or which were in a state of decay may have been seen as sources of fertility'. Beehive querns were unlikely to have been broken accidentally given their substantial size and weight and excavated examples have been often exposed to fire, presumably to make them easier to destroy or deface, but also possibly as part of a purification ritual. Such fire damage is evident on some of the examples from Pegswood Moor, and none of the querns were complete, with even the most apparently complete examples having actually been modified or defaced in some way. There are examples of querns that can be interpreted as being ritually deposited from other sites in the region. At Doubestead, a quern fragment was found with a ring and bracelet at the terminal of an entrance ditch and examination of the quern distribution at Thorpe Thewles has shown that two examples came from the terminals of penannular building gullies, another lay within a gully near a terminal, and a fourth lay just outside a terminal (Willis 1999, 96).

The two glass armllet fragments from Pegswood Moor were both found in locations that were of probable symbolic significance. One example was found with the quernstone in the base of the Enclosure 5 ditch terminal prior to it being backfilled, the other within a terminal of one of the timber fencelines bounding Enclosure 11. Evidence from the region indicates that glass armllet fragments occur in potentially symbolic locations (Allason-Jones, pers. comm.). In recent years, the practice of structured deposition within prehistoric contexts has become widely acknowledged and has been discussed at length in the archaeological literature. However, its existence has hitherto been largely unrecognised in the archaeological record of North East England (Willis 1999, 96). Hill (1995, 101) has examined the phenomenon of structured deposition in great detail and although he emphasises that it is not possible to form rigid criteria for the definition of ritual behaviour, he suggests that such activity can be recognised in the archaeological record: 'neither the content nor the location of a deposit is a secure guide to its ritual origins, but evidence for the irregularity, form, and ways in which the deposit was made is'. It was concluded that the material used in such activities need not be prestigious items: 'it is perfectly possible to have ritual practices which used and deposited daily domestic garbage' (Hill 1995, 98). Such practices should not necessarily be seen as 'highly specialised procedures, set apart from daily life and directly referencing religious beliefs or the supernatural' (Bishop and Bagwell 2005, 51). They are likely to have been part of daily life, a way of acting that reinforced the concerns of the inhabitants of the settlement and emphasized certain significant aspects of their lives, and may have ranged from personal activities to communal ceremonies (Bradley 2003). Indeed evidence for ritual activity on prehistoric sites should not be seen as unusual in a society that was greatly dependant on the productivity of agricultural and natural resources which could easily be affected by natural disasters, crop failures and diseases. Brück (1999) has highlighted the problems of viewing prehistoric ritual activity in relation to modern Western concepts and proposes that there is considerable anthropological evidence to suggest that many societies do not distinguish between the sacred and profane. In societies where this distinction is not made, 'ritual activity may not be spatially or temporally distinguished from more “mundane” or secular activities’ (Brück 1999, 319).

The Settlement in its Regional and Wider Setting

Unenclosed Later Iron Age settlement

A survey of unenclosed Iron Age settlement in Northumberland undertaken by Gates (1983) identified a concentration of sites in the uplands, with only a few sites known below the 122m contour. However, this distribution pattern is more likely to reflect subsequent land use; sites in the uplands are often visible as extant monuments, while archaeological remains on the Northumberland Coastal Plain are likely to have been destroyed through centuries of ploughing (Holbrook 1988, 58). In the lowlands, unenclosed sites are less readily identifiable than enclosed settlements as the earthworks of the latter are more likely to survive and are more easily identifiable on aerial photographs (Harding 2004, 41). The insubstantial nature of this settlement type also means that they are probably less likely to appear as cropmarks. However, a true picture of lowland distribution of these sites is now emerging from excavation of later enclosed settlements, which in many cases have been found to overlie unenclosed settlements. Excavations at Chester House demonstrated that initial colonization of the site was marked by at least two, and possibly three phases of unenclosed settlement (Holbrook 1988, 57). The earliest occupation was a single unenclosed roundhouse of large diameter (16.80m). This large pre-Roman house was replaced by a smaller structure, 9.30m in diameter, probably with very little time lapse between their construction, suggesting more or less continuous occupation of the site. This house represented a 70% reduction in covered area from the first building, which may have been compensated for by an increase in the number of structures; a possible structure was recorded in the corner of excavation and others may have lain outside the excavation area. A probable unenclosed settlement may have preceded the enclosed settlement at Burradon, although this depends upon the interpretation of two concentric enclosure perimeters; the similarity in plan of the perimeters and the identical treatment of the entranceways would favour contemporaneity (Holbrook 1988, 58). If so, a series of houses at that site can be seen
as belonging to an earlier phase of unenclosed settlement. The remains of eleven structures were recorded, but the positions of these indicate that no more than three could have existed at any one stage, and, at times, there may have been less (Jobey 1970, 88). A similar situation is found with the double enclosure at Hartburn; if these are also interpreted as contemporary, then an earlier phase of unenclosed settlement also existed at this site. This was represented by the remains of eighteen structures, with a maximum of four or five in existence at any one stage, although again this number could well have been less (Jobey 1973, 49). At West Brunton the earliest phase of settlement comprised an open settlement dating from the Later Iron Age. It contained many roundhouses and although it is not possible to ascertain how many were contemporary, their relative positions indicate that several could have been in existence at any one time (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a). At East Brunton, an initial phase of Earlier Iron Age settlement comprising a palisaded enclosure was superseded by an open settlement, again represented by numerous roundhouses of which several may have been contemporary (ibid.). Evidence for an unenclosed settlement replaced by enclosed settlement was also found at one of the sites on the Blagdon Hall Estate (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming b). Part of an unenclosed Later Iron Age settlement has been identified beneath part of the Roman fort at South Shields, c. 15km southeast of Pegswood (Hodgson et al. 2001). Preservation was extremely good as the site had been overlain by windblown sands before the construction of the Roman fort, which itself had protected the earlier settlement from levels of destruction often seen at rural locations. A well-preserved roundhouse, 8.75m in diameter, very similar in form and construction techniques to Pegswood Moor Structure 1, was recorded. Due to the small area excavated, it is not known whether this roundhouse represented a solitary structure, or whether the unenclosed settlement may have contained other habitation dwellings. The roundhouse was destroyed by fire and there is a possibility that this may have been a deliberate act, perhaps associated with a funerary rite (ibid., 152), as discussed. The surrounding cultivated area was also abandoned, before the area was reclaimed in the Later Iron Age period with evidence for successive periods of ploughing.

Identification of unenclosed settlements through excavation in recent years in the lowlands of South East Scotland and North East England has thus suggested that such settlement types may have been much more widespread than previously indicated (Harding 2004, 290). There is growing evidence to dispute the widely accepted view that enclosed settlement predominated in the Tyne-Tees Lowlands in the first millennium BC (Hodgson et al. 2001, 155). Although pottery from this period is notoriously difficult to date closely, Gates (1983, 106) considers the pottery recovered from the Burradon and Hartburn unenclosed settlements as too early for a Later Iron Age/ Romano-British context and suggests an early 1st millennium BC date for these sites. Other sites have produced more definite dating evidence and these are of Later Iron Age date. The unenclosed settlement at West Brunton has produced AMS dates suggesting that the settlement dates from the 4th to 2nd century BC, whilst the unenclosed settlement at East Brunton may date from the 6th to 4th century BC. The South Shields site has been dated to 4th to 2nd century BC. The likelihood that several structures within these unenclosed settlements were contemporary, even if not all were utilised as habitation dwellings, would indicate that they might have accommodated groups of households, perhaps of collateral kin (Harding 2004, 289).

The evidence from Pegswood Moor fits in with the emerging pattern for settlement distribution on the coastal plain of North East England where excavations of enclosed settlements have provided evidence for an initial period of unenclosed habitation preceding enclosure. The unenclosed Pegswood Moor settlement, which had at most two structures standing at any one time within the area excavated, probably only one of which was used for habitation, originated in the Later Iron Age, probably some time between the early 4th to 2nd century BC. The ensuing enclosed phase of settlement appears to have originated at the end of the first millennium, with activity at the site continuing into the 1st century AD, although with the focus of settlement shifting beyond the boundaries of the excavated area.

Enclosed Later Iron Age settlement

A pattern of small homestead rectilinear enclosures of the Later Iron Age is now well documented in Northumberland. The coastal plain and other Boulder Clay covered areas were in the past thought to have been devoid of activity in the late prehistoric period, however, aerial photography has demonstrated that the lowland North East was as densely settled in these periods as any other part of the region (Burgess 1984, 163). The rectilinear enclosure, sometimes single, sometimes double, with one enclosure inside the other, with generally east-facing entrances, containing one or two circular structures is widely recognised as a standard settlement type in the region, with a concentration of this type of settlement on the coastal plains of Northumberland and Durham. These appear to range from the mid 1st millennium to the Roman period (Higham 1986, 133), however, without excavation it is impossible to distinguish between enclosed settlements of the Later Iron Age and those of the Roman period. Excavations on several ditched enclosures on the Northumberland lowlands have provided evidence for pre-Roman occupation. The enclosures as revealed by cropmarks tend to be sub-rectangular or near square; the basic shape was not determined by period and the shape relates to topography or function rather than chronology. The size of the enclosed area varies considerably, ranging from 0.1–0.8 hectares, and the enclosure ditches range from 3–8m in width (Fig. 44). At Burradon, there was evidence for an external bank, 3m wide. The scale of many of these enclosure ditches implies that some form of communal co-operation must have been in operation.
 Vyner and Daniels 1989) display marked evolution from the simple, rectilinear ditched enclosures typical of the Northumberland and Durham coastal plains. In fact, it has become apparent that Iron Age settlement patterns in the region may be as varied as those seen in southern Britain. The Phase II Later Iron Age occupation at Thorpe Thewles comprised a substantial enclosure with a central circular house that had been rebuilt on at least two occasions (Fig. 40). Several other circular structures were located within the main enclosure, which were probably not for habitation and could have been used for storage and craft or manufacturing activities. The enclosure seems to have been divided into areas for habitation and workspace and internal partitions separated these areas from the rest of the enclosure, which was presumably used to periodically house livestock. A complex of small enclosures, interpreted as being for stock-keeping and management, was located around the periphery of the settlement on its eastern side (Heslop 1987, 119). It is likely that extensive field systems and further complexes of enclosures may have been associated with the Thorpe Thewles settlement. The excavation area encompassed the southern part of the sub-rectangular enclosure along with a small external area on its eastern side and archaeological features associated with the enclosed settlement continued beyond the area of investigation. This phase of settlement at Thorpe Thewles thus had much in common with the Pegswood Moor enclosed settlement, with areas utilised for different zones of activity and a habitation enclosure set within a wider complex of associated enclosures. Thorpe Thewles developed into a complex, open nucleated settlement in the late 1st century BC and 1st century AD with several roundhouse structures, at least two of which may have been for habitation (Heslop 1987; Fig. 40). Enclosures, also presumably for stock-keeping, were associated with this phase of settlement. Haselgrove and Allon (1982, 49) suggest that this later development to unenclosed settlement from enclosed settlement was possibly the result of population growth and the integration of an individual settlement into larger scale social and political units. The move to unenclosed settlement seen at Thorpe Thewles could perhaps be associated with sharing of territory and resources, therefore signifying a move away from a supposed social isolation of individual groups (Hingley 1990, 99). A similar progression may be seen at Pegswood Moor where the area of habitation was moved from the confines of a relatively small enclosure to what might be an unbounded area, although still associated with a wide system of enclosures and field boundaries, presumably to accommodate population expansion and the necessary increase in the number of dwellings.

Recent large-scale open area excavations in Northumberland in advance of mineral extraction and housing estates schemes indicate that complex expansive Iron Age settlements, similar to the Pegswood Moor Later Iron Age settlement, are present in the region, but as such sites are not readily identifiable without large-scale excavations, their true distribution remains uncertain. At the time of writing, post-excavation work was still
Fig. 45  Plans of more extensively excavated settlements in Northumberland and Durham (scale 1:4,000)

West Brunton, unenclosed settlement (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a).

East Brunton, Phases 1 and 2 palisaded enclosure and open settlement (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a).

Delhi Opencast, Blagdon Hall multi-phase (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming b).

West Brunton, rectilinear enclosure (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a).

East Brunton, Phase 3 rectilinear settlement (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a).

Delhi Opencast, Blagdon Hall multi-phase (Northern Archaeological Associates 2006).

Thorpe Thewles, enclosed settlement (Heslop 1987).

Thorpe Thewles, unenclosed settlement (Heslop 1987).

Pegswood Moor, Phase 4 enclosed settlement.

Faverdale, mid to late 2nd-century settlement.

Faverdale, mid to late 2nd-century settlement.
ongoing for the sites excavated at the Blagdon Hall Estate, ahead of the Delhi opencast mining extension, Ponteland. An initial phase of archaeological work by Northern Archaeological Associates (NAA) uncovered an Iron Age settlement, extending over an area of at least 280m by 90m, which had undergone several phases of development (Jenkins 2006; Fig. 45). The earliest phase of settlement was represented by a very large unenclosed roundhouse structure 17m in diameter. Several other roundhouse structures were recorded, with evidence for a complex sequence of rebuilding, including some likely to have been used for habitation and others for storage. These also appeared to form part of an unenclosed settlement but were associated with a small enclosure likely to have been used for stock. Also recorded at that site was a rectilinear field system which appeared to have been modified at some stage to enclose an area of habitation represented by two roundhouses. The scale of the ditches enclosing these structures was similar to those recorded at Pegswood Moor. An excavation located c. 500m north-northeast of the NAA site revealed an extensive multi-phase Iron Age settlement site with over 40 roundhouse structures recorded (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming b). Here, several roundhouses were associated with an unenclosed farmstead settlement, these structures predating the subsequent ditched enclosures, although it is possible that only one or two structures were ever in existence at any one time (Fig. 45). The subsequent enclosed settlement comprised two concentric ditched enclosures, the outer one measuring 130m by 100m, the inner 50m by 45m. These enclosures are interpreted as being contemporary as a series of ditches between the two divided the space into separate areas, possibly for specific functions or activities. Two large roundhouses appeared to be contemporary within the inner enclosure and numerous other circular structures were also located within the two enclosures, although it is not certain how many were contemporary with the enclosed phase of settlement. At West Brunton, excavation of the small rectilinear enclosure that had been identified as a cropmark revealed a central roundhouse with a smaller subsidiary structure (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a; Fig. 45). Associated archaeological features surrounded the enclosure and zones of activity were identified, including storage, industrial and possible stock-keeping areas. Another enclosure was partially exposed to the north and the area investigated indicated that this was also likely to represent another sub-rectangular enclosure with a central roundhouse and a subsidiary structure. At East Brunton, the rectilinear enclosure, also known from cropmark evidence, contained a central roundhouse, and another enclosure containing a large structure and two smaller structures was partially exposed to the east, along with a fragment of another interconnected enclosure, the alignment of all three enclosures indicating contemporaneity (ibid.). The enclosures at East and West Brunton were very similar in size and shape to those rectilinear settlements excavated by Jobey and others across the North East Coastal Plain, but a wider area outside the enclosure boundaries was investigated which revealed that the habitation enclosures were set within complex networks of enclosures (Petts and Gerrard 2007, 38). It is thus possible that the previously excavated rectilinear enclosure sites (such as those shown on Fig. 44) may also have been surrounded by associated field systems and enclosure complexes that were not identified due to the focus of the excavation area.

In general, the substantial nature of ditches surrounding Iron Age rectilinear settlements means that, even on the coastal lowlands area, where archaeological features have often been subject to severe horizontal truncation through ploughing, such settlement types can appear as cropmarks on aerial photographs and are widely known. The ephemeral nature of many of the archaeological features associated with these more complex types of settlement undoubtedly means that many features do not appear as cropmarks. Indeed it is possible that many of the known rectilinear enclosure sites in the region may be set within extensive field systems with boundaries created by features of a more ephemeral nature than the ditches surrounding the habitation areas, similar to those identified at Pegswood Moor; this is a pattern seen in southern Britain. Such peripheral elements of the settlement are unlikely to appear as cropmarks and it is fair to say that past excavations of these rectilinear enclosures have largely concentrated on exposing the circuit ditches and interior, while the surrounding landscape within which the enclosures were set has been relatively little explored. It is of note that none of the archaeological features at Pegswood Moor were identifiable on aerial photographs of the site, even the more substantial enclosure ditches (Fig. 46). The principal cropmark at Thorpe Thewles comprised a rectilinear enclosure with internal circular structure, representing the early phase of enclosed settlement at the site. Large numbers of features recorded at Thorpe Thewles, including the extensive unenclosed settlement features, did not appear as cropmarks. In addition, feature size was not a determining factor in the presence/absence of cropmarks, as some features that did not produce cropmarks were as wide and deep as some of those that did (Heslop 1987, 5). The features that did produce cropmarks all contained a large proportion of deposited occupation debris, creating a marked contrast between the sub-soil and the feature fills. The excavated sections of features at Pegswood Moor demonstrated that occupational debris was largely absent from the fills of boundary and enclosure ditches, with fills generally comprising redeposited natural sub-soil material, with organic silting deposits only present as shallow basal deposits. This absence of occupational debris in the substantial enclosure ditches, along with the ephemeral nature of the boundaries delimiting the enclosure and field systems surrounding the habitation nucleus, are considered to be the main factors accounting for the absence of cropmarks at Pegswood Moor.

Traditional views of the development of Iron Age settlement types have seen an 'ordered progression
towards enclosure through increasingly complex or labour-intensive structural stages’ (Harding 2004, 290). It has been suggested that functional explanations for enclosure include the need for protection against thieves or predators, and that it was also probable that other factors, such as the desire to assert the identity of a community and to define the nodal points of a settlement, may have been involved in the development of enclosed settlement; ‘the idea of defining personal or communal space by enclosure is endemic in human society’ (ibid.). Hingley (1990) also suggests that even if the primary aim of settlement enclosure was for defence, the enclosure boundary would have a broader significance to the community and may have been associated with a range of other meanings. Examination of enclosed and open settlements in the Upper Thames Valley led to the hypothesis that settlement enclosures may be defined as boundaries of social exclusion that distinguished a local social group from broader society (Hingley 1990, 96). Bowden and McOmish (1987) suggest that enclosure boundaries may also have had an element of prestige, so that the magnitude of the boundaries related directly to the status of the community and to inter-community relations. Haselgrove (1984, 29-30) sees the evidence from North East England as indicating that during the Later Iron Age to early Roman period there was a ‘shift in the meaning of the settlement boundary from a symbol of the isolation of the local social group to a symbol of the isolation of a newly-arisen elite’. Within this model there is a move away from the enclosure being seen as a boundary of social exclusion to that of status indicator. It is possible that the function of the settlement boundary as a status symbol may have occurred during periods of social stress, utilised at times when there was an increase in competition between groups (Hingley 1990, 97). Holbrook (1988, 58) proposed that the scale of many rectilinear settlement enclosure ditches, for example Chester House, is excessively large for practical functions such as to facilitate drainage and discourage wild animals, and the ditches may therefore have had an element of prestige. Knight (2007, 200) in examining the change from open to enclosed settlements during the Iron Age in the Trent Valley, also highlights the fact that the magnitude of settlement boundaries is far in excess of that needed for utilitarian purposes and suggests that the construction and maintenance of boundaries may have been associated with a need to emphasise group identity and social cohesion. Knight also suggests that this concept may have developed as a reaction to increasing pressure on land. The construction of a roundhouse habitation structure within an enclosure boundary would also serve to highlight the significance of the boundary between the inhabitants and the outside world (Giles 2007, 242). Visitors would have to cross the enclosure ditch, with its gates and/or fence, as well as the threshold of the house and this may have led to more formal codes of hospitality; changes noted in the ceramic styles of the Later Iron Age in East Yorkshire indicate that feasting occurred during this period (ibid.). The area within enclosures occupied by habitation structures tends to be relatively small, particularly in the case of single dwelling enclosures, suggesting to some researchers that the purpose of the enclosures was concerned with ownership; the residents were enclosing something they owned, therefore the holding of livestock or storage of agricultural produce could well have been a factor in the larger enclosed areas (Ferrell 1997, 234).

It is also possible that the ditches of enclosed settlements may have been created to relate to the landscape within which they were set. Settlements enclosed by wooden palisading are common in the region in the earlier and middle centuries of the 1st millennium BC (Willis 1999, 91). The regional pollen record shows a comparatively wooded landscape in this period (Fenton-Thomas 1992), so that when the landscape is wooded, enclosure boundaries are commonly of timber construction (Willis 1999, 91). In the latter part of the 1st millennium BC, there is a tendency for palisaded enclosures to be replaced by ditch-and-bank enclosures, this coinciding with a marked decrease in woodland, as shown in the regional pollen record (Willis 1999, 91). Although this change could be seen in practical terms, because wood became scarce, Willis (1999) proposes that it is unlikely that timber palisading became less common because wood was scarce; in fact, the pollen record does not show a lack of wood, and if timber palisading was considered by the population to be the necessary enclosure type, then sources of timber would have been managed to provide this material. He suggests that the form of an enclosure actually acknowledges the environment within which the site was set; the interiors of palisaded enclosures, which generally occupied a wooded landscape, would not have been visible from the outside, in contrast to the interiors of ditched enclosures, which usually occupied a cleared landscape, which would have been visible from the outside. The decision to use a particular boundary to reflect the surrounding landscape may have been made so that the constructed human world was unified with the natural world, in contrast to the more prevalent view that Iron Age boundaries sought to underline the differences between the settlement site and outside world (Willis 1999, 93). ‘The net effect of these particular boundary forms may have been to blur the distinction between the world without and the world within the settlement, suggesting a continuous ecology’ (ibid.).

In settlements that are set within field systems with trackways between, such as those found in upland Perthshire, ‘the concept of enclosure and the controlling of access is endemic to the layout of the agricultural pattern in the landscape’ (Harding 2004, 290). As with settlement boundaries, enclosure on a landscape scale may also occur for various reasons such as the need to define limits and mark territory stimulated by population growth and its associated intensification of agriculture (ibid.). Enclosing of the landscape may also have been undertaken for practical reasons associated with agricultural regimes and the need to separate land used for arable and pastoral farming (ibid.). Such motivations may have resulted in the extensive enclosure
systems created on the North Yorkshire Moors and the construction of these systems must have required resources and organisation beyond the capability of an individual household and thus potentially represent social organisation on a regional level. In the Trent Valley, many enclosed settlements are associated with complexes of sub-rectangular fields and linear trackways indicating a link between the development of the enclosures and the field systems (Knight 2007, 208). In this area, it is suggested that the development of enclosures, rectilinear field systems and boundaries delimited by pit alignments was stimulated by population growth leading to pressure on the pasture and arable resources (ibid., 214). A significant increase in population occurred in lowland Britain during the 1st millennium BC and this resulted in the exploitation of previously more marginal areas, such as the Boulder Clay lands of the Nene-Ouse watershed and the claylands of Leicestershire. This was facilitated by the introduction of crops suitable for such soils and the development of the iron plough for tillage (ibid.). In the Trent Valley, where the economy may have been reliant on a pasture-based farming system, by the end of the Iron Age a system of closely-spaced enclosures and field systems had been established that may have tightly controlled pasture land that would have come under increased pressure from an expanding population (ibid). With such pressures, there would have been an increasing need for communities to demarcate land.

The boundaries at Pegswood Moor formed part of an extensive complex of fields surrounding enclosed habitation areas and these indicated a well-organised landscape management system. Field systems were set out according to function with many within the excavated area relating to pastoral activities and stock-herding, with boundaries separating these areas from areas of dwelling. Although these boundaries can thus be seen in functional terms, as discussed above, they may also have had a whole range of meaning and symbolism to the community that created this system. Some of the boundary alignments were evidently very long-lived features, in particular the major east–west boundary that traversed the central part of the site, as discussed under Site Morphology at the beginning of this chapter. This alignment had apparently been established initially as the northern boundary of Enclosures 6 and 7, then continuing as the northern boundary of Enclosure 1. Following abandonment of Enclosure 1 as an area of habitation, the boundary was reinstated by creation of the southern boundary of Enclosure 10, which then continued beyond that enclosure to form a boundary between the new habitation area and enclosures to the south, continuing beyond the western limit of excavation. The east–west boundary thus extended for a distance of over 160m. The western portion of the boundary was evidently deliberately backfilled ahead of the construction of Enclosure 11 in the Romano-British period, with the southern boundary of this enclosure

Fig. 46   Aerial photograph showing cropmarks originally thought to represent a Romano-British enclosure, looking north. Photo by Tim Gates. Copyright reserved
constructed along the northern edge of the original east–west boundary. The east–west boundary was thus maintained over a considerable length of time, throughout the entire occupation of the Later Iron Age settlement and continuing into the 1st and 2nd centuries AD; although the exact length of occupation of settlement is not known, the available evidence indicates that it was in existence for at least three or four centuries. The concept that an east–west orientation for the spatial organisation of monuments and settlements may have been of some significance to past communities is suggested by evidence from sites of many periods, for example Earlier Neolithic burial monuments, Late Bronze Age ringworks, Iron Age hilltop enclosures, Later Iron Age brochs and shrines, Roman temples, Irish ringworks and Christian churches (Pope 2007, 214). The symbolism of the east–west orientation ‘may be a result of long-term ritual or phenomenological concerns, originally associated with sunrise and sunset’ (ibid.). Many of the other Pegswood Moor enclosure ditches had also been re-cut, although this may have occurred more times than the surviving evidence suggests as successive re-cutting may have removed all traces of some earlier manifestations of boundaries. It is possible that the act of reinstating boundary features may have had symbolic associations for the inhabitants beyond the practical need for such re-cutting and may have been a way for the present inhabitants to acknowledge the former occupants. Giles (2007) has examined Late Iron Age settlement patterns in East Yorkshire and suggests that the work needed to maintain ditches (weeding, clearing and shovelling) would allow the inhabitants to acknowledge the ‘gifts they had inherited, whilst being reminded of their obligations towards descendants. Rather than seeing these ditches simply as boundaries defining physical territories, they were the medium through which people transmitted rights of tenure and customs of use across time’ (Giles 2007, 246).

Establishment of the more extensive and developed Later Iron Age sites in the region are likely to have been the result of a combination of social and economic changes. By the late 1st century BC there was a distinct difference between the upland and lowland areas of this region, with the latter able to support a higher population and thus more extensive settlement sites (Heslop 1987, 120). Numerous settlements developed in the comparatively rich agricultural areas of the Northumbrian lowlands at this time. Analysis of pollen data from the region has shown that the increase in agriculture was not related to the impact of Roman settlement as regional pollen records show that at the majority of sites the earliest extensive or complete woodland clearance occurred from around c. 350 BC with a marked intensification in the period c. 200–100 BC (Tipping 1997, 242). Pollen diagrams demonstrate that the purpose of this clearance was to increase the availability of agricultural land for both pastoral and arable use, although it is not possible to use the data to establish the ratios of land utilised for each (ibid.). The reason for this agricultural expansion is likely to have been the result of a combination of factors, such as population expansion and a need to generate agricultural surpluses (ibid, 244). Intensification of agriculture and associated clearances were likely to be associated with social changes; ‘Late Iron Age agricultural decision making seems to have been exercised at a more centralised level, with the initiative to expand the land available for farming taken within a corporate or hierarchical social context’ (ibid.). Whatever, a highly organised agrarian landscape seems to have been established in the region by the Later Iron Age.

As discussed in Chapter 1, it is not known for certain within which tribal territory the Later Iron Age settlement at Pegswood Moor would have been located, the Brigantes, Votadini or an as yet unknown small tribal group. Tacitus described the Brigantes as being the largest tribe in Britain in numerical terms and Ptolemy states that their territory stretched from sea to sea (Frere 1987, 41). However, the traditional view of a unified or confederated Brigantian state dominated by a single ruling dynasty has been challenged in recent years, along with the extent of the territory that they controlled (Harding 2004, 23). Harding (2004) suggested that their territory may more realistically have been centered only in the eastern Pennines and the Vale of York around their tribal capital at Aldborough (cf. Mattingly 2006) and that the Roman view of the Brigantes may have been a simplified view of a much more complex system in which local communities had their own identities. The notion that the Brigantian territory was restricted to the eastern Pennines is also suggested by the broad similarity in settlement patterns and agricultural practices and the associated socio-economic conditions in this region. Whether shared economic, settlement and cultural patterns imply a shared political structure remains a matter for investigation and discussion. Certainly, the response of the native population in the region to the subsequent Roman occupation can shed some light on social organization as discussed further below.

Native Settlement in the Romano-British Period

By the time of the Roman arrival in the north there was a substantial farming population in the region (Breeze and Dobson 2000, 212). In the Northumberland lowlands the pattern of settlement and the agricultural economy that was established in the pre-Roman period seems to have been largely unaltered by the conquest. There is a concentration of rectilinear settlements in the North Tyne Valley, their proximity to Hadrian’s Wall suggesting that some arrangement must have been made with the Roman military for the occupation of these sites. Jobey (1966) suggested that the regular distribution of these sites might indicate that they were deliberately placed for the purposes of agricultural development. Whilst some sites, such as West Brandon, seem to have been abandoned before the conquest, other homesteads, such as Hartburn, display evidence of continuity of occupation into the Roman period (Higham 1994, 134). Other rectilinear enclosure settlements, such as Doubestead (Jobey 1982), which was occupied in the late 1st to 2nd century AD, and Marden
(Jobey 1963), seem to have been established after the conquest, although caution is necessary given the limited dating evidence available from most of these sites. The sites at East and West Brunton were also occupied into the early Roman period (Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a). Although samian pottery, Roman coarseware pottery and glass ornaments are found on native Romano-British settlement sites in the region, such material is very scarce (Harding 2004, 172). Examples include Roman pottery from Hartburn (Jobey 1973), a single sherd of amphora and a Roman tile from East Brunton (Willis, Tyne and Wear Museums forthcoming a), a sherd of samian and two glass armlet fragments from North Road, Berwick (Pre-Construct Archaeology 2006), sherds from an amphora and two other Roman vessels from Burradon (Jobey 1970; Willis 1999), two glass armlet fragments from Doubestead (Jobey 1982), a fragment from a Roman coarseware jar from Marden (Jobey 1963) and fragments from three samian vessels and twelve Roman coarseware vessels from Tynemouth Priory (Jobey 1967). At Pegswood Moor, the only evidence for imported goods comprised the two glass armlet fragments, although the provenance of these is by no means certain (see 'Manufacturing, Processing and Trade', above). At Pegswood Moor, the abandonment of the previous settlement area coupled with the evidence for continuity in the exploitation of the land, suggests that habitation must have continued in the near vicinity but for some reason was relocated to a different area some time probably in the 1st century AD.

There is growing evidence from recent excavations that native farmstead settlements south of the Wall in the Durham and Tees lowlands developed strong trade links with the Roman army and the Roman supply infrastructure and that at least some local inhabitants had aspirations towards a 'Romanised' lifestyle. At the developed settlements of Thorpe Thewles, Catcote, and Ingleby Barwick in the Tees lowlands, there was continuation of activity into the 1st and 2nd century AD; indeed at Catcote and Ingleby Barwick, activity continued into the late Roman period. At Thorpe Thewles, the single unit Later Iron Age settlement was replaced by a much more complex open settlement with several roundhouse structures, at least two of which may have been for habitation, and some of which may have been used for specialised functions such as manufacturing or processing activities. Enclosures, also presumably for stock-keeping, were associated with this phase of settlement. The artefactual material recovered from Thorpe Thewles clearly demonstrates the existence of interaction with the Roman world during the mid to late 1st century AD, potentially pre-conquest in date, and continuing into the 2nd century AD, with imported samian, amphora and terra nigra pottery present along with non-local Roman fabrics. Settlement activity at Thorpe Thewles continued into the 1st century AD, when the site seems to have been at its most expansive. The final phase of activity within the excavation area comprised substantial sub-rectangular enclosures located across the area previously used for habitation, these being utilised until the mid to late 2nd century AD. It was not possible to determine the extent of this land management system, as the boundary features did not generate cropmarks. The presence of some occupation debris within enclosure ditches indicates that settlement did continue in the vicinity, but as with the Pegswood Moor settlement, this later habitation area was not located within the limits of excavation and was not identifiable as cropmarks. There is no evidence to suggest that the relocation of the habitation area at Thorpe Thewles was due to the Roman conquest, despite these events occurring at similar times. It may be that the original site chosen for the single-unit enclosure became unsuitable for the expanded and complex settlement that developed and the changing demands in resources caused by the increasing population in the 1st century AD resulted in the need to relocate the settlement elsewhere in the vicinity (Heslop 1987, 118). A particular disadvantage of the original settlement was the distance from the nearest source of running water (ibid.). At Faverdale, north of Darlington, samian pottery recovered from the later 1st century AD native farmstead settlement demonstrates that the indigenous population of this site had links with the Roman military, shortly after the Roman conquest of the area (PCA forthcoming).

The first half of the 2nd century saw an increase in the intensity of utilisation of the landscape at Faverdale and an extensive system of rectilinear enclosures was established. The excavated evidence suggests that these were utilised for a variety of purposes such as habitation, stock-keeping, and manufacturing and processing activities, including metal-working. A substantial rectilinear enclosure measuring 70m by 64m was constructed, this presumably for habitation, although no dwellings survived due to the level of horizontal truncation. Ceramic building material, including quantities of roof tile, recovered from the enclosure ditch indicates that this demolition material had originated from buildings that were Romanised in form. A small hypocausted structure, which was divided into two small rooms, was built inside the enclosure, adjacent to the edge of the enclosure ditch, this decorated with painted wall plaster. This was similar in dimensions to a hypocausted building at Ingleby Barwick. The artefactual assemblage from the 2nd century settlement included Roman wheel-thrown pottery, native handmade pottery, some examples of which were evidently imitating Roman forms, samian ware, amphorae, Roman brooch forms and vessel glass. Although the precise nature of the relationship between the inhabitants of the settlement and the Roman military is not known, this artefactual assemblage would suggest strong trade links. Dere Street was located c. 6km to the west of the Faverdale site and another north-south road, Cade's Road, ran a similar distance to the east (see Fig. 5). The nearby excavated fort at Piercebridge dates from the late 2nd century, although the existence of an earlier fort along Dere Street is postulated (Cool and Mason 2008). The presence of some pottery from the 3rd and 4th centuries indicates that the Faverdale site continued to be utilised to some extent throughout the later Roman period, but
the limited evidence suggests a relatively low intensity of occupation. Similarly, the native farmstead settlement at Ingleby Barwick developed in the Roman period into a villa, again with the provision of a small hypocausted structure. A bath-house was excavated in the 1940s at Old Durham, following its discovery during gravel quarrying operations (Richmond et al. 1944). There was no evidence of any military occupation at the Old Durham site, and the bath-house has been generally interpreted as being typical of several examples attached to highly Romanised developed farmsteads in the civil territory of Roman Britain. Excavations at East Park, Sedgefield, have identified the remains of a settlement which appears to be a northern version of a ‘Roadside Settlement’, a type of site seen commonly in the south of the province from the turn of the first century. The Sedgefield settlement was laid out on either side of Cade’s Road, and inhabited between AD 150 to AD 400. Groups of enclosures have been interpreted as plots belonging to family units, or where certain types of activity, such as pottery manufacture, took place. Small roads between the enclosures led to a central open space, which may have acted as a market place for the settlement (Carne and Mason 2006). The site was evidently inhabited by an indigenous population and not established through Roman material culture. There is also little evidence amongst the excavated sites for activity after the 2nd century AD, however, whether this is due to an absence of material culture, or to a true absence of settlement in this period has not been ascertained. It is possible that settlement may have declined, or to a true absence of settlement in this period has not been ascertained. It is possible that settlement may have declined, or to a true absence of settlement in this period has not been ascertained.

During the 2nd century AD in Roman Britain, imported and other manufactured goods became significantly more common on small villa sites and it is likely that their inhabitants acquired wealth through traded agricultural surplus which was then spent on building Romanized dwellings and purchasing manufactured goods at least in parts of southern Britain. Increasing prosperity of rural sites was expressed not only by the construction of better houses and facilities, such as bath-houses, but also by the acquisition of personal and household possessions (de la Bédoyère 1993, 30). There must have been some degree of social motivation and aspiration stimulating this move towards a Romanised lifestyle, and it was presumably driven by the effects of living in a Roman province (Millett 1990; Mattingly 2006).

The situation in the area between the lowlands north of Hadrian’s Wall, where the Pegswood Moor settlement was situated, and the River Wear appears to be very different to that south of the Wear into the Durham and Tees lowlands. As discussed, excavations of native farmstead settlements in the frontier zone north of the Wall have produced scant evidence for Roman material culture. There is also little evidence amongst the excavated sites for activity after the 2nd century AD, however, whether this is due to an absence of material culture, or to a true absence of settlement in this period has not been ascertained. It is possible that settlement may have continued but that the general paucity of material culture found on farmstead settlements in the Northumberland lowlands before the Conquest continued throughout the Roman period. Many native farmstead settlements seem to have continued largely unaltered in terms of morphology, if not economy, and as yet there is no evidence for Romanised forms of settlement such as those that were developing in the Durham and Tees lowlands. Examination of Roman artefactual material found on native sites within Northumberland and of objects of local manufacture found within Roman forts has suggested that the native population was not particularly interested in acquiring Roman material culture but were willing to exploit marketing opportunities offered by the presence of large numbers of troops (Allason-Jones 1989). The reason for the absence of a developed Roman settlement system in the frontier zone within which the Pegswood Moor settlement was situated is not certain. Millett (1990) and Mattingly (2006) have both seen this as a negative impact of the presence of the Roman army. It is possible that the Roman military may not have allowed such a system to develop, that the native population in this area may have been resistant to it, or that the economic and social infrastructure of the native communities may not have been conducive to it (Harding 2004, 171). However, Hadrian’s Wall perhaps should not be seen as the main reason for the apparent absence of Romanised settlement. According to Breeze and Dobson (2000, 149) the Wall was not the provincial boundary but instead it facilitated ‘the peaceful economic exploitation of the northern part of the province’ with the three outpost forts in this area protecting the part of the province isolated by the Wall. It is possible that any relationship between the indigenous population and the Roman military in this particular area may not be particularly visible in the archaeological record. In the Netherlands, it has been noted that while the Batavi embraced Roman culture with the widespread adoption of new forms of pottery, metalwork and Latin literacy, there was little change in the form of rural settlements across a wide area to the south of the frontier (Hingley 2008). Excavations within the territory of the Batavi have shown that local communities modified their economies to feed the growing military and urban demand for supplies along the frontier (ibid.). Hingley (2005, 97-9) proposes that the Batavi exploited aspects of Roman culture in a way that allowed them to operate on their own terms within the imposed imperial system. As previously discussed, the tribal identity of the region including the Northumberland lowlands, within which the inhabitants of the Pegswood Moor settlement lived, is uncertain, and perhaps the contrast in the response of the indigenous population to Rome between this area and the Durham and Tees lowlands may be an indicator of a difference in tribal society.

Harding (2004, 155) notes that many researchers believe that the arrival of Rome had little effect on the native population in the North East region, with the previously established settlement and economic pattern continuing largely unchanged. Villas and urban settlements are generally scarce in the region, and were not established in the frontier zone, while native homestead settlements typically yield very little in the way of Roman material culture. Debate in recent years, prompted by the publication of The Romanization of Britain by Millet and reactions to it, have focused on assessing what Romanization actually entailed in terms of the concept of
identity and how this was manifest in the archaeological record. The absence of evidence for Roman forms of wealth, such as hypocausted buildings and imported table ware and domestic goods, which traditionally have been seen as manifestations of Romanisation, should not necessarily be equated with poverty, particularly in the northern region (Harding 2004, 156). There has also been much debate in recent years as to what extent the process of Romanisation was ‘imposed by the Roman administration through coercion, and to what extent it was adapted by the local elites to their own advantage’ (ibid., 157). Iron Age society in southeastern Britain was very different to that in the northern region at the time of the Roman Conquest. A wealthy culture had developed around the Thames Estuary by this stage and the presence of large quantities of high status Roman pottery and wine amphorae attest to strong trade or diplomatic links with Roman culture (ibid.). Other imported forms, such as Gallo-Belgic pottery, and the development of locally made wheel-thrown pottery provide evidence for the establishment of markets and indicate that a new form of economy was developing in the region. Coinage had also been introduced into the region before 100 BC, although it is not certain to what extent this had been adopted as a currency. Cross-channel trade was also flourishing and territories from Dorset to Lincolnshire were issuing coins (ibid., 158). Settlement patterns were also different from those in the northern regions due to the presence of oppida, tribal centres of power, the most northerly known example of which is Stanwick in North Yorkshire. The Roman occupation of Britain was presumably achieved by a combination of military force and diplomatic negotiation depending on the attitude of the native tribes towards Rome. Urban settlements, including tribal capitals known as civitas, were established in the southeastern regions after the Conquest and a social and economic structure based on the integration of town and country developed.

As previously discussed, it is not certain whether the settlement at Pegswood Moor was located within the tribal territory of the Votadini or the Brigantes, or perhaps even within the territory of a small, as yet unknown, tribe. Little information is known about the Votadini, although there is evidence to suggest that this tribe were friendly to Rome in so far as their supposed tribal capital of Traprain Law continued to be occupied as a defended settlement throughout the Roman occupation and there is a notable absence of military installations from most of their territory (Frere 1987, 92; van der Veen 1992, 16; Breeze and Dobson 2000, 212). The Brigantes have historically been thought of as hostile to Rome (Frere 1987, 92). However, as the traditional view of the territory controlled by this tribe has been challenged in recent years, as discussed above, it is likely that the situation was much more complex. Harding (2004, 163) emphasises that ‘it is important not to assume that the entire province from the Trent to Hadrian’s Wall was uniformly responsive or hostile to annexation and acculturation.’ The settlement at Stanwick appears to have developed strong trade links with the Romanised south in the years leading up to occupation of the region (Harding 2004, 163). The current view, that Stanwick was engaged in positive trading activities with the Romanised south, possibly with a treaty relationship, seems more likely than the outdated interpretation of the site as a stronghold for an anti-Roman Briggantian faction (Harding 2004, 163). The distribution of villas and related settlements in the area to the east of the Pennines in comparison to Roman military installations suggests that the degree of Romanisation was much greater than that to the west and further north, and this may in part have been due to this earlier establishment of pre-Conquest contact (ibid.). The aristocracies of the Iron Age tribes who had presented no resistance to the occupation presumably retained a substantial degree of delegated authority (Harding 2004, 156). However, there must have been some negative impact on the native population in the immediate frontier zones, as establishment of the frontier itself and construction of the network of forts would have meant that native land was requisitioned and communities displaced to some extent (Mattingly 2006). Hadrian’s Wall would have presented a barrier to the movement of stock to seasonal pastures and would have affected traditional sources of supply (Harding 2004, 171). When combined with the burden of taxation and the threat of enslavement, these factors must have generated a degree of hostility to the Roman military presence which, even when not actively expressed in resistance, would have inhibited the process of Romanisation’ (Harding 2004, 171; Mattingly 2006).

It is difficult to be precise about the size of the army in northern Britain in the late 1st century AD. However, documentary sources provide more solid evidence for the 2nd century and the number of troops stationed in the northern frontier in AD 120 is thought to be 30,000, rising to 34,000 in AD 210 (Breeze 1984). An army of this size would require the provision of substantial quantities of a wide range of goods such as food, clothing, arms, transport, animals and tents, demanding products in both raw and finished states (ibid.). The diet of the Roman army is relatively well documented and in its basic campaigning form comprised grain (usually wheat), bacon, cheese, vegetables, sour wine, olive oil and salt (Davies 1989; van der Veen 1992, 18). When not on active service, a wider variety of food would have been consumed and plant remains found at Roman forts in Britain include wheat, barley, lentils, Celtic beans, dill, celery, coriander, linseed, poppy seed, figs, strawberries, raspberries and hazelnuts and faunal remains indicate that beef, mutton, pork, deer, chicken, hare, fish and shellfish were consumed (ibid.). It has been estimated that 10,000 horses were needed by the Roman cavalry units in the Hadrianic period along with c. 4,000 mules for pack animals and such numbers of animals would have required large quantities of hay and grain for fodder (Breeze 1984). Leather would have been required in large quantities for items such as tents, shoes, shields, bags and clothes. During the early years of conquest, most of the supplies would have been brought in by long distance transport to supply bases, such as that at Red House, Corbridge. Once occupation had become established, the army would acquire supplies through a
combination of purchase, requisition and taxation (van der Veen 1992, 19). In addition, each army unit was provided with an area of land around its fort to help provide it with raw materials and it seems probable that this would be used to provide food through crops or grazing. Both direct and indirect taxes were normally paid in cash. However, the non-monetarization of frontier tribes sometimes led to taxation in kind; Tacitus notes that the Frisii tribe were assessed for taxation in ox-hides, which were required for military purposes, and the Batavians provided recruits instead of paying taxes. Both forms of taxation may well have operated on the northern frontier of Britain (Breeze 1984, 277). Soldiers could also requisition goods from civilians if they had a permit. Goods were also bought from civilians, either on the open market, or by order. However, all documentary sources relating to purchases are for single and mostly small orders; there is no evidence that the army had a regular order or contract with a single supplier for any goods, though this seems likely. Therefore, staple products for the army were acquired in a variety of ways; self-manufacture, taxation, purchase or requisition.

The cumulative economic effect of over 30,000 troops in the north of Britain in the late 1st and 2nd century AD must have been enormous (Breeze 1984, 282). Rural settlements in the northern regions must therefore have been producing a considerable quantity of agricultural produce for the Roman army (Harding 2004, 172). However, as the number of Roman objects found on native sites is very small and coinage is almost totally absent, some researchers have suggested that this supply may have been based on taxation or by exchange in kind (Harding 2004, 172). In the Agricola it is stated that corn was requisitioned and delivered directly to forts whilst documentary evidence relating to the supply of the Roman army in Britain is contained in the Vindolanda tablets (Bowman et al. 2003). Tablets relating to the domestic accounts of Flavius Cerialis, prefect of the Ninth Cohort of Batavians at Vindolanda for a few years around AD 100, provide some interesting and detailed information about food, clothing and domestic equipment utilised in the commander’s household. A wide range of foodstuffs is listed, presumably providing a much more varied diet than that of the ordinary soldier, some of which must have been imported, but many items must have been acquired locally (Bowman 1994, 68). Purchases of meat, including pork, roe-deer and venison, beans, radishes and honey for cash are recorded indicating that supply was not just by requisition. One letter refers to the purchase of chickens and apples and instructs the purchaser to buy a large quantity of eggs ‘if they are on sale there at a good price’. Again this is strong evidence for the existence of a local market economy and that military needs, possibly including official rations as well, were not just fulfilled by requisition or compulsory purchase (ibid.).

A traditional view is that there is no evidence to suggest that in the northern frontier regions the native economy benefited from Rome’s presence through the establishment of new markets nor that there was any reorganisation of the agricultural economy to increase productivity (Harding 2004, 174). However, the evidence from Pegswood Moor, Faverdale and Ingleby Barwick could now be taken as an indication of marked change. The excavated evidence from Pegswood Moor has demonstrated that the settlement underwent considerable change in the early Roman period. Construction of the timber enclosure and the associated boundary system appears to have drastically altered the way in which the landscape was exploited and indicates a major change in the economic basis of the site.

**Concluding Remarks**

The discovery and investigation of the Pegswood Moor site has been of great significance in terms of expanding knowledge of the Later Iron Age in the region as it represents one of the first extensive excavations to demonstrate that settlement patterns in the lowlands of Northumberland were much more varied than had traditionally been thought. This period in the region has in the past been seen as a cultural and economic backwater, with an internal uniformity, specifically a consistency and limited variety in settlement type, agriculture and material remains (Willis 1999, 83). However, the accumulating evidence from recent large-scale developer funded excavations in advance of housing schemes and open cast mining sites along the coastal plain have demonstrated that the Iron Age in North East England exhibited degrees of diversity and complexity both in its settlement and material records comparable to the Iron Age elsewhere. Many of the elements that have recently been recognised in the archaeological record of the region have been identified at Pegswood Moor, such as evidence for developed forms of settlements types and exchange and ritual activities. The excavated evidence has demonstrated that the Later Iron Age Pegswood Moor settlement was not an isolated community but instead exploited a wide hinterland and evidently interacted with other communities in the vicinity.

It is now apparent from field remains in upland Northumberland and investigations such as the Ingram Valley project (ASUD 1999) that extensive and intensive agriculture was practiced in later prehistory here. Equally, however, there is now good evidence that crop cultivation developed in the lowlands, where later agriculture has obscured the evidence (Higham 1986, 203). The ubiquity of querns on both upland and lowland sites is indicative of arable cultivation, while prehistoric settlements in the Cheviot foothills are generally associated with field systems. The Pegswood Moor site is one of the first excavations to produce evidence for the definite association of field systems with a Later Iron Age lowland settlement in the region. Some, at least, of the sites examined by Jobey are likely to have had similar systems associated, but these were unclear at the time of investigation or not the focus of archaeological attention when resources were relatively limited. The excavation at Pegswood Moor has demonstrated not only that field
systems did exist and can survive later ploughing, but that identification of such features on aerial photographs is unlikely since many components will not appear as cropmarks due to their insubstantial nature or because the features were filled with soils akin to those they were cut into, with comparatively little organic/occupation debris matter being incorporated. The work at Pegswood Moor has also highlighted the fact that it is possible for hitherto unknown substantial and extensive settlements to be present in the coastal lowlands, as such settlements may leave no trace as cropmarks or upstanding earthworks. The excavation has also highlighted the detrimental effects of ploughing on such sites. Centuries of ploughing had resulted in severe truncation of archaeological features with no survival of any horizontal stratigraphy and in some cases some of the more ephemeral features, such as roundhouse wall construction trenches and gullies, only surviving to a depth of a few millimetres. It is entirely possible that had the site continued to be ploughed, and especially had a few seasons of deep ploughing taken place, many of the archaeological features recorded in 2000 would have been completely destroyed.

Whilst one might wonder as to how eroded the site already was at the time of excavation, it is apparent that the excavation was able to recover substantive data sufficient to enable characterization of the site. The features observed, planned and sampled provide a coherent picture both through a sequence in time and in terms of site layout. The collection of a range of artefacts and environmental remains colours this picture. Presentation of the data in this report and its interpretation locate the site within its regional context. Parallels can be drawn with other sites in Northumberland to be excavated in the past 50 years, as well as with sites further south in County Durham and into North Yorkshire. It is clear from the Pegswood Moor site and ongoing fieldwork that we can now see Northumberland in the later prehistoric and early Roman era in a new light. If it was known already from the work of Professor Jobey and others that there were numerous small enclosed sites, presumably farmsteads, likely to date to this period across the county, Pegswood Moor and other sites now being worked on point to a highly organized social and economic landscape. This was an extensively occupied landscape with major and minor land divisions, intense agriculture, trade and shared cultural practice, and in some areas, contiguous settlement and agricultural management.

The publication of the Thorpe Thewles site some twenty years ago did much to transform archaeological perceptions of the North East region. This publication may well contribute in achieving the same for the area north of the Tyne. The northern part of the North East region shows a range of differences in material culture, and perhaps in site morphology, compared with Iron Age remains from the southern part. It is noteworthy that some of these nuances are seen at Pegswood Moor: for instance, in the typologically more circumscribed Iron Age tradition pottery assemblage and lower frequency of Roman material culture. The peoples of these two areas had different experiences following the Roman conquest and it is doubtless significant that the Roman era coincides with a major redesign of the Pegswood Moor site, signalling not necessarily a fundamental change in its agricultural functions, but perhaps an alteration in the way they are conducted and in ownership. Marked changes occur south of Hadrian’s Wall too, with the cessation of activity at the Thorpe Thewles site in the mid 2nd century AD, which is also the time when the settlement at Ingleby Barwick was becoming a villa. The significance of the Pegswood Moor site lies then in the new detail it can bring to the emerging picture we have of this part of the North East region at this innovative, volatile and formative time.
Fig. 47  Reconstruction showing the earliest phase of enclosed settlement at Pegswood Moor from the northeast. Enclosures 1, 2 and Structure 5 on the right with a droveway and fields behind, extending towards the How Burn.
Résumé

Nathalie Barrett

Le site de Pegswood Moor est situé sur la plaine côtière de Northumberland, à environ 8 km de la mer du nord et 10 km à l’est des Cheviots, à une altitude d’entre 70 m et 65 m. Jusqu’à assez récemment, les impressions tenues sur cette région était qu’elle avait été peu occupée pendant la protohistoire. Cependant, un ensemble d’investigations récentes, y compris le site décrit dans cette publication, a démontré que ce secteur était aussi densément peuplées dans ces périodes que toute autre parties de la région et maintenant des modèles de fermes enclos protohistoriques et romano-britanniques émergent aux plaines de Northumberland et de Durham.

L’extraction minière, comme l’usage agricole, a longtemps été citée comme raison possible pour l’invisibilité archéologique de ces sites, situés sur les dépôts argileux erratiques. Cependant, c’était un projet pour l’extraction de charbon à ciel ouvert qui a mené à la découverte du site de Pegswood Moor. Un premier examen des photographies aériennes, effectuées à l’avance des fouilles, a souligné les possibilités de découvertes de vestiges archéologiques. Trois traces archéologiques ont été identifiées par prospection aérienne, dont l’une, dans le coin nord-est du site, a été interprétée comme un enclos fossoyé de date préhistorique ou romano-britannique. En réalité, ceci s’est avéré être un drain de champs post-médiéval en céramique, qui exploitait par hasard la ligne d’un fossé de frontière antérieure, qui était peut-être le plus important et certainement le plus vaste et de plus longue durée de tous ceux qui fut fouillés.

Des visites sporadiques au site fut produite à partir du mésoolithique ou début du néolithique jusqu’à l’âge de bronze, mais l’habitat important a commencé au site à l’âge du fer final et a continué jusqu’au 2ème siècle après JC, et quelque temps après le secteur est redevenu landes. Il est resté tel jusqu’à la période post-médievale quand il est entré en usage agricole. L’identification des données archéologiques sur le site n’a pas été sans problèmes: le labourage récent avait détruit beaucoup de vestiges. En outre, la nature du substrat argileux erratique crée de grandes difficultés au cours des fouilles. Dans des conditions climatiques sèches cette terre sèche sèchement, tandis que pendant les périodes de temps humide, elle a été vécue pendant une grande partie des fouilles, la surface exposée au sol draine mal et laisse plusieurs flaques d’eau. Néanmoins, les fouilles ont révélé une mine de données et trois phases distinctes d’habitat ont été identifiées, avec des preuves convaincantes de la continuité de l’occupation à travers ces périodes.

Le premier indice démontrant l’habitat à l’âge de fer final sur le site a été interprété comme représentant une partie d’une petite ferme sans enclos où il existait deux structures au plus à un moment donné. Les trouvailles de vestiges fut rares, mais la datation au radiocarbone suggère que l’habitat ait peut-être été établi avant le début du 4ème siècle avant JC. Elle fut suivie par une occupation à beaucoup plus grande échelle, caractérisée par un réseau de vastes enclos, avec des espaces réservés à l’habitation, à l’entreposage, au traitement et à la fabrication. En outre, des fossés en systèmes agraires, grands enclos pour cheptel, plus petits parcs à bétail et un chemin à troupeaux ont été identifiés. Il est probable qu’une seule construction circulaire à un moment donné occupait le premier fossé d’enclos de l’habitat. Des habitations sous forme d’une ‘chaîne’ de huttes circulaires ont ensuite été construites, étendant l’habitat vers le nord. L’élevage du cheptel, indiqué par les enclos et clôtures, était apparemment concentré sur les moutons. Malheureusement les dépôts argileux erratiques ont eu un effet néfaste sur la préservation des restes fauniques, de sorte que seul un très petit assemblage d’os a été récupéré. En plus de l’élevage, de nombreuses meules témoignent que le traitement du grain formait un aspect important de l’économie, bien que les macro-fossiles végétaux identifiables étaient rares et limités aux quelques restants de grains carbonisés de céréales d’orge, blé d’épautre et avoine. L’assemblage de poterie récupéré était modeste en taille, néanmoins particulièrement instructifs puisqu’elle provenait d’une partie de la région de laquelle seul un nombre modéré d’autres assemblages soit déjà connus. En outre, d’autres vestiges indiquent que la poterie était fabriquée sur place en foyers avec des grandes pinces.

La dernière phase d’occupation noté au site a été caractérisée par la construction d’un enclos rectiligne en bois, construit sur les vestiges de la zone d’habitation précédente, quelque-fois directement à travers le milieu des structures antérieures. Associés à cet enclos était un vaste système de fossés et d’autres enclos, qui a considérablement modifié l’aspect du terrain, remplaçant l’ancien ensemble de petits enclos avec un paysage plus ouvert mais toujours exploité. Situé 10 km au nord du mur d’Hadrien le site démontre peu de vestiges qui indiqueraient l’influence de Rome. Pourtant, le changement marqué en forme et aspect de l’habitat, qui s’est produit à la fin du 1er ou en début du 2ème siècle après JC, n’est sûrement pas une coïncidence.

Suivant le travail original du professeur George Jobey, qui a identifié de nombreux habitats de formes rectilignes sur la plaine côtière du nord-est, les fouilles ultérieures, par exemple à Thorpe Thewles, ont indiqué qu’il y aurait une plus grande variété d’habitat qu’il n’avait précédemment été pensé. Plus récemment, de nombreuses grandes fouilles, menés en avance de la construction, (principalement pour les résidences domiciles ou pour l’extraction minière) ont été effectuées, ces fouilles continuèrent à ajouter à cette nouvelle image du passé.

Ce volume présente le premier de ces sites récemment fouillé à être publier en détail et cherche à mettre l’habitat de Pegswood Moor dans un contexte régional plus large. Il est espéré que d’autres publications au futur vont éclaircir davantage cette question des types d’habitat dans la région au cours de l’âge du fer et en début d’époque romaine. Ces fouilles récentes ont également mis en lumière une absence apparente de l’occupation du sud de Northumberland après le 2ème siècle. La raison de cette absence n’est pas comprise et peut-être des fouilles au futur seront en mesure de répondre à cette question critique.
Zusammenfassung

Sylvia Butler

Die Pegswood Moor Stätte befindet sich auf einer Höhe von zwischen 65m und 70m OD auf der Küstenebene von Northumberland, um die 8km landeinwärts von der Nordsee und 10 km östlich der Cheviots. Bis vor kurzem wurde angenommen, dass diese Region während der spät-prähistorischen Zeit spärlich besiedelt war. Jedoch haben kürzlich durchgeführte Arbeiten, inklusive der in dieser Publikation beschriebenen Stätte, demonstriert, dass dieses Gebiet während dieser Periode genauso dicht besiedelt war wie alle anderen Teile der Region und ein Muster von spät-prähistorischen und roman-britischen Gehöften kommt nun im Tietland von Northumberland und Durham zum Vorschein.

Mineralgewinnung zusammen mit agrarwirtschaftlicher Nutzung wurde historisch als ein möglicher Grund für die archäologische Unsichtbarkeit solcher, sich auf dem Blocklehm befindenden Stätten, angegeben. Es war aber ein Kohle-Tagebau Vorhaben, welches zur Entdeckung der Stätte bei Pegswood Moor führte. Erst-Untersuchungen von Luftaufnahmen, die vor der Ausgrabung durchgeführt wurden, ließen das Potential für archäologische Funde erkennen. Drei Bewuchsmerkmale wurden identifiziert, eines welches in der nordöstlichen Ecke der Stätte als eine mögliche Einfriedung aus der prähistorischen oder roman-britischen Zeit interpretiert wurde. Es stellte sich aber heraus, dass es sich hier um einen nachmittelalterlichen Keramik Land-Abflusskanal handelte, welcher zufällig die Linie eines früheren Grenzgrabens nutzte, welcher vielleicht der bedeutendste und zweifellos der umfangreichste und langlebigste derer war, die freigelegt wurden.

Die Stätte wurde während der mesolithischen/früh-neolithischen bis in die Bronzezeit hinein sporadisch aufgesucht, aber eine intensive Besiedlung begann erst in der späten Eisenzeit und hielt bis zum 2. Jahrhundert AD an, nach welcher Zeit das Gebiet sich irgendwann wieder in Moorland zurückverwandelte. Es verblieb als solches bis in die nachmittelalterliche Zeit, während welcher es dann agrarwirtschaftlich genutzt wurde.

Die Identifikation von archäologischen Merkmalen an der Stätte war nicht ohne Probleme, da neuzeitliches Pflügen viele Beweise zerstört hatte. Zusätzlich bereitete die Natur vor der Ausgrabung durchgeführten durch (größtenteils für Wohnungsbauprojekte oder Bauvorhaben vorausgehend wurden in letzter Linie eines früheren Grenzgrabens nutzte, welcher vielleicht der bedeutendste und zweifellos der umfangreichste und langlebigste derer war, die freigelegt wurden.

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Die letzte Phase der Besiedlung, die an der Stätte verzeichnet war, war angezeigt von der Konstruktion einer geradlinigen Holzeinfassung, die auf den Rückständen des vorherigen Wohngebietes errichtet wurde und an manchen Stellen direkt durch die Mitte von früheren Behausungen lief. Verbunden mit diesen Einfassungen war ein weit reichendes Feldgrenzsystem, welches dramatisch das Layout des Landes veränderte, indem es den früheren Komplex von kleinen Einfassungen in einem offenem, aber nach wie vor verwalteten Landschaftsbild ersetzte. Über 10 km nördlich von Hadrian’s Wall liegend zeigt die Stätte wenig in Form von materieller Kultur, was eine Influenz von Rom andeutet könnte. Jedoch ist die merkliche Veränderung in der Form und des Layouts der Siedlung, die im späten 1. oder frühen 2. Jahrhundert stattfand, sicherlich kein Zufall.

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Lying 8km inland on the Northumberland Coastal Plain Pegswood Moor seems to have attracted its first permanent settlers around the 4th century BC. Initially a small and apparently isolated farmstead, by the 2nd century BC this had expanded into an organized enclosed settlement with areas set aside for stock-keeping, habitation, manufacturing and processing activities, including pottery production. Evidence suggests a mixed agricultural economy, whilst a droveway leading towards the coast and field systems extending away from the focus of habitation point to extensive exploitation of the wider landscape.

Towards the end of the 1st century AD there was a fundamental change in the management of this landscape, with new boundaries established on different alignments. Most striking was the construction of a substantial timber enclosure built through the line of several roundhouse dwellings - a seemingly deliberate and pointed statement. Tantalisingly, no associated focus of habitation was found within the area of excavation and, as with the majority of other excavated settlements in the area, evidence for occupation after the 2nd century was absent. The impetus for this sudden yet short-lived change can only be speculated on - but the arrival of vast numbers of Roman troops in the region with all their attendant requirements must surely be in part responsible.

Little artefactual evidence to indicate the influence of Rome was recovered. However, the site did produce one of the largest assemblages of native tradition pottery from the region, along with fragments of briquetage suggesting connections with the coast. The presence of whole quernstones, quern rubbers and mortars emphasises the importance of crop processing to this community – that these were found whole in boundary features suggests they held a symbolic significance.

As this publication shows, the extensive archaeological investigations at Pegswood Moor have contributed greatly to our developing understanding of settlement patterns in the Northumberland Coastal Plain during the Later Iron Age.