

THE NORTHGATE RECONSTRUCTION

P Holder and J Walker

INTRODUCTION

The Unit was asked to provide advice and assistance to Manchester City Council so that the City could reconstruct the Roman fort wall and defences at Manchester as they would have appeared around the beginning of the 3rd century (Phase 4).

This short report has been included in the volume in order that a record of the archaeological work should be available for visitors to the site.

The Wall and Rampart

Only the foundations and part of the first course of the wall survived (see Chapter 4, Phase 4, Area A). The underlying foundations consisted of interleaved layers of rammed clay and river cobble. On top of the foundations of the fort wall lay traces of a chamfered plinth (see Chapter 5g) made up of large red sandstone blocks, behind which was a rough rubble backing. This rubble was set in a coarse yellow mortar, behind which lay the remains of an earlier dumped clay rampart. It was possible by using the angle of rest of the rampart and the height of similar Roman walls, such as that at Caer Gybi, to estimate the original height of the fort wall. The size of blocks used in the original construction could also be gauged from part of the wall that was discovered by Professor GBD Jones and others, where it had collapsed into what was left of an inner defensive ditch to the fort.

Using this evidence and clues derived from existing Roman fort walls, a series of trials were conducted on how to achieve the correct "look" for the stonework. In order to minimise costs it was decided that the wall would consist of a sandstone skim over a concrete base. Construction proved to be relatively easy especially as wall details suggested by discoveries made in other places were not included, as no evidence for them had come from the extensive excavations in the area. The red sandstone originally used by the Romans may

have come from the supposedly ancient quarries at Collyhurst some few kilometres north-east of the fort. As this source was not available, Hollington Red Sandstone from Staffordshire was used to form a wall of coursed facing blocks 200-320 mm long by 140-250 mm deep by 100-120 mm thick. York stone was used for paving, steps and copings. A recipe for the right type of mortar, which consisted of three parts river sand, three parts building sand, two parts lime and one part white cement, was obtained from Hampshire County Council.

The Ditches and Roads

The Phase 4a (see Chapter 4, Area B) ditches were re-established along their original line to form a defensive circuit consisting of an outer V-shaped ditch in front of a smaller inner ditch running close to the fort wall.

There were three original roads; the main road from the Northgate that ran up to Deansgate, the intramural road that ran along the rampart, inside the fort, and a spur road (see Chapter 5, Phase 4, Area C) that led off from the main road and which may have been linked to a route running to the Roman site at Wigan. These roads were reconstructed using 50% duckstones (60-80mm) and 50% pebbles (20-40mm) bound with gravel and rolled to mimic the original surface.

The Civilian Buildings

At the heyday of the civilian settlement most of the timber framed walls of the civilian buildings were on red sandstone footings. The 'dwarf walls' of three buildings were recreated in simplified form. One building consisted of an outer square room behind which ran two chambers, and is a copy of a building plan recovered by Professor Jones in 1972 (Jones and Grealey 1974). This building is typical of the larger civilian structures and the original building with its large chamber facing onto the road may have been a small inn. Another building is typical of those found throughout the North-West and in the northern vicus of Manchester

(Jones and Grealey 1974). It consists of a long rectangular building, gable-on to the road and divided into two chambers. Again the plan was based upon examples from the 1972 excavations and such buildings are thought to have constituted the normal house for most civilians. The third building is modelled on a small two room booth (F727, Phase 3b, Area C) discovered during the 1982 season.

In order to soften the impact of the site and intergrate its disparate elements, it is bordered by plants selected from species thought to have been introduced to Britain by the Romans (Godwin 1975, 474-81).

For the first phase of the scheme the Unit prepared a 45 page booklet on Roman walling techniques and the writer visited the site on a number of occasions during construction to make recommendations on specific problems.

The Gateway

The Basic Plan

Manchester City Council has recently reconstructed the Phase 4 very early 3rd century gateway of the fort to its full height (see Chapter 4, Phase 4, Area A). Despite the previous excavations undertaken in the area it was not until 1982 that all the foundations of the gateway were fully exposed. These consisted of two L-shaped extensions to the wall and a central spine in the middle of the roadway, designed to support two arches. This plan is not typical of military gateways of the period around the turn of the 2nd century, but is paralleled to an extent by that found at Bewcastle. Liversidge (1969, 63) proposed a reconstruction of the north-eastern postern gate at Colchester of c200 AD, which consists of a simple chamber with three windows over a single passage. Much of the outer face of the Colchester gate was found lying on the ground nearby and included fragments of two original windows.

Gateways formed of two simple internal wings have been found in Romano-British town defences at places such as the south and north gates at Silchester, the north-east gate at Colchester, the west gate of the "old town" at Lincoln, and the London gate at Canterbury.



Plate 7.1
The reconstructed site showing gateway, roads and vicus buildings

Research (Richmond and Childe 1942) suggests however that, overall, gateways of this period and type were based upon a unified design drawn from earlier Augustan city gates which usually consisted of circular or rectangular towers flanking a central room or rooms with a crenellated walkway above (Richmond 1930). The late 2nd century Porta Nigra at Trier and the Porta Asinaria cAD 270 at Rome display this form. A classic example of a roofed windowed over-chambered gate with twin towers is preserved in a Roman clay model from Intercisa (Dunaujvaros) (Lengyel and Radan 1980, Plate LXI). Less well known is a 4th century Roman bronze model of a twin portal gate with chamber over discovered in Sarmatian territory and now housed in the Hungarian National Museum (Lengyel and Radan 1980, Plate XCV'). Originally, the Bewcastle and the Manchester gates were probably simplified versions of this basic design, in which the flanking towers were not incorporated but the central chamber retained. This chamber was supported by a massive central spine which was set slightly back from the line of the wall, thus allowing small spines at the end of the rampart wall walks from which to overlook the face of the gate.

Given this hypothesis about the basic form of the gate, it was possible to draw up a draft design which was circulated to a number of British and foreign scholars with an acknowledged expertise on the subject. As their comments on the basic elevation were favourable, the problem had to be faced of how to provide enough detail to make it possible for the architect, Mr Hatcher, to produce working drawings. Several sources of information were available:

- (a) The excavated evidence
- (b) The evidence from existing Roman structures or literary works
- (c) Modern academic opinion.

It was felt that the weight to be given to each source should be, wherever possible, that excavated evidence would supersede Roman sources, which would supersede received opinion. From this it was possible to draw up the following contingency table of evidence for each element of the gateway on the basis of the frequency of the evidence known to the author.

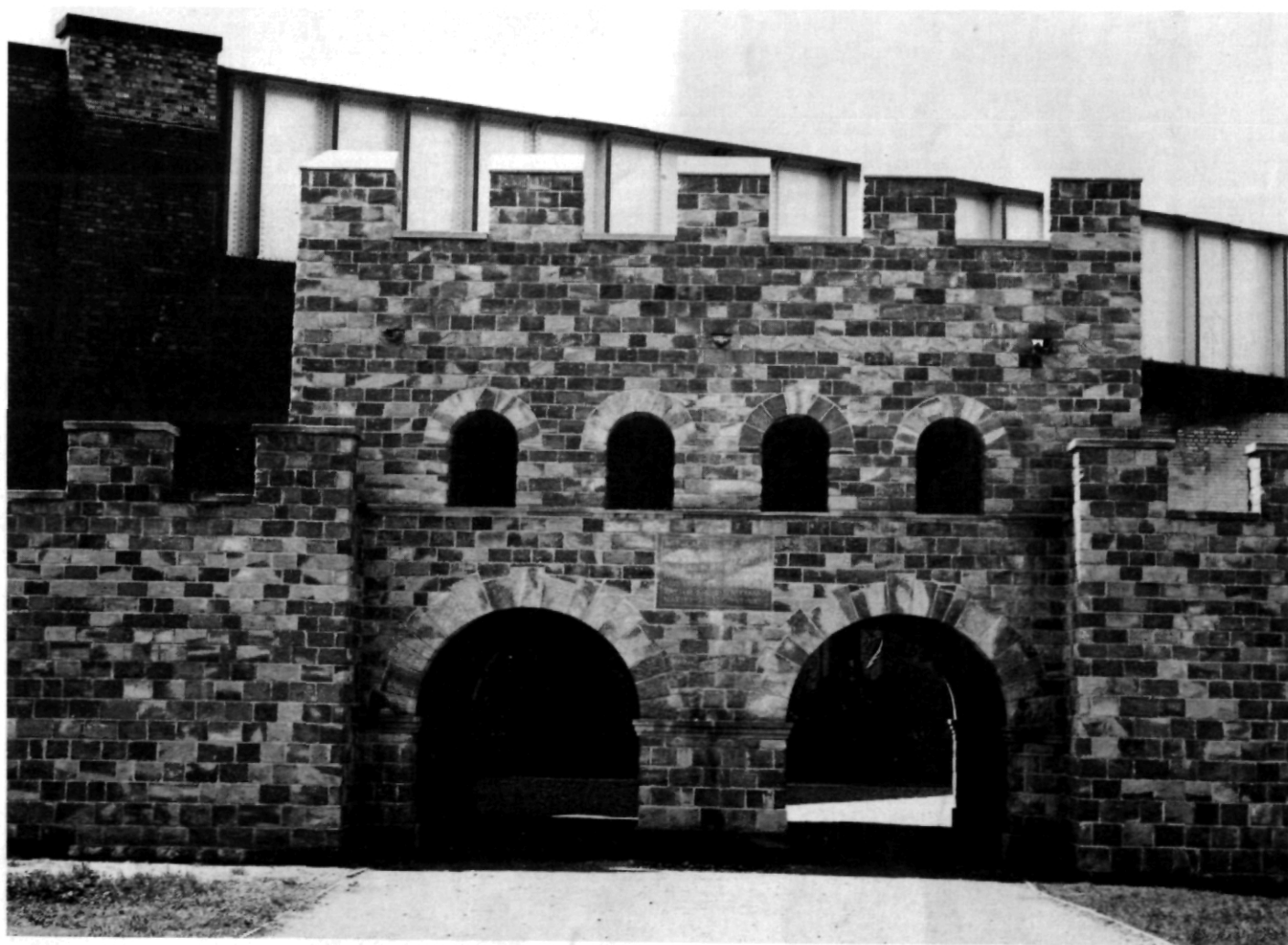


Plate 7.2
The outer face of the reconstructed Northgate

TABLE 7.1
SOURCE RANKING

Problem	Excavated Evidence	Other Sites or Roman Literary Evidence	Academic Opinion
The Basic Plan	1	2	3
The Stonework	1	3	2
The Arches	3	1	2
Gate Chamber	3	1	2
The Fighting Platform	3	1	2
The Inscriptions	3	1	2

The resultant drawing was then modified in response to practical architectural considerations. The following sources were then used to provide the details for the reconstruction:



Plate 7.3
The outer face of the gate seen from the inner defensive ditch

Table 7.2
PRIMARY EVIDENCE USED IN THE RECONSTRUCTION

Problem	Primary Evidence
The Basic Plan	The excavated remains
The Stonework	The excavated remains
The Arches	
Height	Richmond and Childe
Voussoirs	Various sites
Doors	Vindolanda
String Course	Hungary
The Gate Chamber	
Doorways	Canterbury
Windows	Rome Verulamium Great Casterton Duston
The Fighting Platform	
Merlons	Wacher
Roof	Vitruvius
The Inscriptions	RIB 575 RIB 576 RIB 581

Although Roman gateways are usually regarded as having a primarily defensive function, this is not completely true of the Northgate at Manchester. The view from the gate was obstructed by the civilian buildings situated outside the fort and beyond the outer ditch, from the cover of which an assailant would need less than thirty seconds to cross the ditches and attack the wall. The non-defensive nature of the gate is also emphasised by the lack of a door sill, a feature of other fort gates such as that at South Shields (Miket 1983, 33). In addition to their practical function of regulating traffic, it is likely that the gateways of this period had a symbolic significance, but the importance of this in a military setting is obscure and open to speculation.

The Stonework

In the reconstruction a stone dressing technique which resemble that shown on the Roman stonework recovered from the late infill of the defensive ditches was used, namely, rock-faced ashlar with chisel drafted margins (Richmond and Childe 1942, 138). Tooling marks were also added to the stone blocks in order to resemble Roman workmanship. The materials used in the reconstruction have been designed to quickly gain a "weathered look" to add a natural appearance to the stone. The walls consist of an outer 'skin' of coursed sandstone blocks, tied back to a concrete core with stainless steel wall ties.

The Arches

If the Northgate follows the example of the gateways of the forts on Hadrian's Wall, and the parapet walk coincided with the first floor of the gateway, the height of the gateway arch would be

limited to a maximum of 11.5 feet. This calculation is based upon allowing 6'1" to the top of the impost, an arch radius of 4' 7.5", 5' 3" or 5' 6.5", 2' for the voussoirs, 2' 7.5" for the springer and 2' for the dedication tablet (Richmond and Childe 1942, 145). The top of the impost was set at c1.7m in keeping with that surviving at Great Chesters. The arch heights were set lower than Richmond and Childe's calculations in order to ensure that it was possible to walk through at rampart level (Hobley 1982, 228). This means that a mounted rider, as proved by experiment, has to duck to use the gate; however, P Holder, above, has suggested that the garrison at the time was an infantry one and the Northgate was a minor access point.

The best indication as to the height of a gateway is found where the fort walls survive to their full height or where the level of the rampart walk can be deduced from the position of doors or floor levels in towers. Examples at the Castra Praetoria in Rome and at Bu-Njem and Gehriat-el-Garbia in Libya suggest that the walls had a height of less than 3.5m. This argument is further strengthened by Caesar who mentions ramparts of 10 and 12 feet (3.03m), (De Bello Gallico II, 5, VIII, 9; De Bello Civili I, 61, III 63, 69).

The voussoirs of the arches are in keeping with other Romano-British arches such as that at Exeter (Wacher 1974, Plate 63), the west gate at Chichester (Wacher 1974, Plate 47) and the Newport arch, Lincoln (Wacher 1974, Plate 122). A similar stone arch, with a chamfered springer, survives on the north side of the south gate at Caerwent and is thought to date from the late 3rd or 4th century (Bennett 1980, Plate 23).

The gate doors were of heavy wood with iron hinges and a heavy wooden jamb (Richmond and Childe 1942, 140), and are loosely based on the door found at Vindolanda (R Birley 1977, Plate 57). Some city gates were known to be iron-plated against fire (Richmond and Childe 1930, 42). As a general rule, the doors turned upon iron pivots which rode in iron shoes within pivot holes (Richmond and Childe 1942, 139) and this is likely at Manchester. Each arch is surmounted by a voussoir at its highest point. The arches are chamfered to throw off rainwater.

The Gate Chamber

From its plan on the ground we know that the Northgate was a double portalled structure, slightly recessed from the line of the wall, with access through it at the level of the wall's rampart. Research has given us approximate standards for the dimensions of the passage width and depth of the gate passages as ten and twenty Roman feet respectively (Jarrett 1969, 157). Above the portals is a covered chamber allowing access to the parapet. The doorways of this chamber are based upon those found in the rear wall of the east tower of the Riding Gate at Canterbury (Wacher 1974, 189-90, Plate 39). The chamber was reached by an external stairway at the side of the gate, the steps of which are very similar to the steps leading up to the Roman basilica at Exeter (Wacher 1974, Plate 64).



Plate 7.4
The inner face of the Northgate

The gate chamber was lit by arched windows whose reconstruction in the Northgate is based upon those found in the city gates of Rome (Richmond 1930) and excavated evidence from Britain (Liversedge 1969, 63). At Verulamium a wooden sill beam has been found which may have supported iron or wooden bars, and at Great Casterton the site of a villa has yielded large quantities of window glass. It seems that the glass was fixed to an exterior iron grille such as that found at Duston (Liversedge 1969, 82-83). Both horizontal and diagonal grilles are known from the Roman world as are internal shutters (Webster 1959).

The string course is the only feature of the gate face which served a purely ornamental purpose. String courses are attested on the gates of the Hadrianic frontier forts and on Imperial city gates in Europe. They are usually situated at parapet walkway level, but this is not always the case and in our reconstruction they are situated below this level. The bronze gate model from Hungary shows string courses at springer level on each side of the portals as well as a decorative string course on the round headed chamber windows, the central supports of which appear to be pillars set on small stylobates.

The Fighting Platform

Above the gate chamber was a flat crenellated platform. This would be reached by a ladder and hatch from the chamber and afforded a useful fighting platform. As P Bidwell (Miket forthcoming) has noted, "There are a large number of such representations ranging from early stone reliefs of city gates and towers at Avellino and Capua, for example, to the reverses of 3rd century coins". Debate has centered as to whether such a structure was adaptable to the wetter climate of the Northern Empire. Given the form of the gate of Manchester and the frequency of such examples, it was decided to try the flat roofed form under the austere climate at Manchester. The merlons, both here and on the rampart, had to be taller than a man for defensive purposes, but their width depended upon the type of weaponry used. Sometimes they were spaced differently at the front and back to avoid silhouetting the defenders. (Richmond and Childe 1942, 143). The merlons were surmounted by caps which could have been either flat or triangular. Both types have been used in the reconstruction of the Northgate. Examples of the triangular type are known from the Upper German limes. In Britain such caps seem to have been found in London (Maloney 1983, 109 fig 106). The dimensions of the merlon caps give us a clue to the size of the merlon, and in turn this gives us an indication of the width of the parapet walk, believed to be approximately 3.5 feet (Richmond and Childe 1942, 144).

The roof, adapted from Vitruvius (VII,1) is formed by laying reinforced concrete onto a single layer of tongued and grooved boarding nailed to joists and protected from the weather by a layer of sheathing felt and two layers of asphalt, topped with reclaimed stone slabs bedded in 1:1:6 cement/lime/sand mortar and grouted with 1:3 cement/sand mortar.

The structural timber is green American oak, with the largest beam weighing some 2.5 tonnes and struts which are required to prevent excess compression under the weight of the roof (about 20 tonnes). The doors and gates are of seasoned oak, while the shutters and boarding are treated redwood.

The Inscriptions

Two inscriptions have been designed for the gateway; on the inside is to be one, commemorating the detachment of Raetians and Noricans known to have been in Manchester (RIB 576) and Lucius Senecianus Martius, the only known Roman name from Manchester (RIB 575), on a stone based on RIB 2137 from Cramond. On the outer face of the gate will be an inscription designed by Professor A R Birley, again commemorating the Raetians and Noricans, and the Emperor Severus and his sons who are thought to have commissioned the gate (see Chapter 4, Phase 4, Area A).

Conclusion

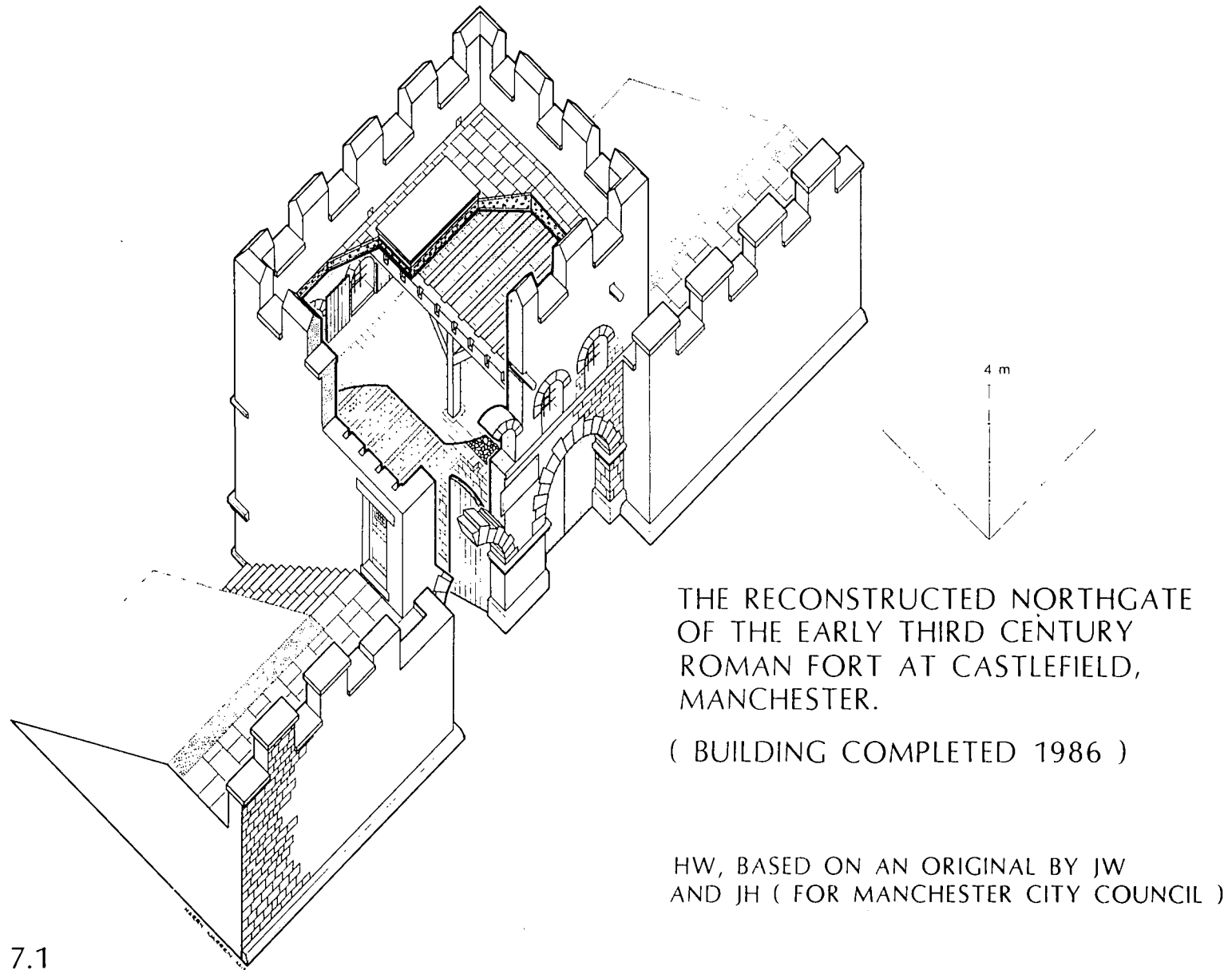
An attempt was made to ensure that possible variations in detail were evident in the reconstruction. The merlon caps, for instance, are chamfered on the gate and plain on the wall in order to show the two most probable varieties. Equally, a string course is absent on the wall, despite strong evidence that it is a common Roman feature, because no traces of it were found during excavations, and yet has been incorporated into the gate on the basis of analogous sites and to symbolise the "prestige" function of such structures.

In the archaeological design of the gate the overall emphasis has been on simplicity in the hope that this will increase the likely longevity of the accuracy of the reconstruction.

It remains a consistent problem of reconstruction work, however, that every increase in the size of a scheme leads to a linear if not geometric increase in the probability of its being incorrect. The first phase of the Manchester scheme was deliberately kept to a simple reconstruction of the wall that was based solely on excavated evidence in order to both overcome this problem and to keep down costs. The success of both that scheme and the excavations led to a very real and direct call for a full-scale reconstruction of the gate and to a theoretically increasing, and unavoidable, loss of certainty.

Such uncertainty can obviously be minimised by approaches, such as that adopted by Tyne and Wear County Council, but they cannot be eradicated for it is in the nature of reconstruction work that as new evidence and interpretations come to light, so will the validity of the reconstruction come to be questioned.

The final value of such reconstructions must therefore be not in their accuracy but in their existence as an expression of the public will, so evident at Manchester, not to lose touch with the substance of the past.



(b) THE ROMAN GARRISONS OF MANCHESTER

P Holder

The various garrisons which occupied the fort site at Manchester have left no closely dated remains and what has survived is open to differing interpretations. Three units are attested at Manchester which could well have formed the garrison at some stage - vexillatio Raetorum et Noricorum; cohors III Bracaraugustanorum and cohors I Frisiavonum. For the last two their history is closely interwoven with their recorded presence at Melandra Castle, eleven miles to the east, which necessitates a detailed discussion of the garrisoning of that fort. A fourth unit, cohors I Baetasiorum CIL might be recorded on one of the inscriptions found at Manchester.

In addition to these three units, two others are recorded on stamped tiles. One is legio XX Valeria Victrix, but the presence of two of its tiles means no more than that its products were used in one of the fort's phases (Bruton 1909, 150-51, 187 fig 2). The other is a fragmentary stamped tile reading COH.I (Bruton 1909, pl 9) which can be restored with confidence as COH.I (III BRE). It was therefore one of the products of cohors III Breucorum at Grimescar presumably dispatched by the cohort from its base at Slack to Manchester rather than indicating its physical presence.

Cohors III Bracaraugustanorum

Raised from the Bracares of north-west Spain this cohort is recorded in Britain on diplomas of AD 103, 122, 124, 146 (CIL, XVI, 48, 69, 70, 93). The only evidence for where it was in the province consists of seven stamped tiles found at Manchester and one at Melandra. Tile stamps are very difficult to date closely and as suggested above the existence of a stamped tile from a fort does not necessarily indicate the presence there of the unit recorded. However the stamping of tiles by the legions in Britain did not start much before the end of the 1st century apart from a few early Flavian examples produced by legio IX Hispana (Wright 1978, 378-92; Boon 1984, 15-16). This provides a likely terminus post quem for the use of tiles at both forts in one of their phases which is confirmed by the complete absence of tiles from Phase I at Manchester.

Of the total of eight tiles two have been lost (Gentleman's Magazine 1832, 561 and 1840, 415; the latter is reprinted in CIL, VII, 1230). The tegula from Melandra was found in the bath block and pre-dates cAD 140 when the fort was given up (Brittania 1974, 464, n14). The five other tegula stamps are of the same type as the Melandra example, but were all found in contexts at Manchester suggesting re-use. Four were found in the vicus, one used in a kiln floor. The fifth was found in an area of cobbling within the western rampart of the extended fort (EE, IX, 1277). The context of these finds is apparently 3rd century and as such they hardly help in the question of the cohort's relationship with Manchester. There are parallels from Britain of the stamped tiles of an auxiliary unit appearing at two fort sites. The most pertinent are the

products of cohors III Breucorum which were made at Grimescar near Huddersfield and have been found at Slack and Castleshaw as well as Manchester. So it is likely that the Bracaraugustani were given responsibility for the manufacture of tiles for the forts at Manchester and Melandra. Of the two the latter is more suitable for the location of the tiler because it has a local clay outcrop, although no Roman use of it has yet been proved.

Cohors I Frisiavonum

Originally raised in Lower Germany, the regiment is recorded on diplomas of AD 105, 122 and 124 for Britain (CIL, XVI, 51, 69, 70). Then in the 3rd century it is attested on Hadrian's Wall at Rudchester (RIB 1395, 1396). The only other evidence for its stay in Britain comprises a group of centurial building stones found at Manchester and now lost (RIB 577, 578, 579) and one from Melandra (RIB 279). Apart from providing the name of the centurion whose century carried out the work, these stones only reveal that a phase in the construction of the fort's defences was commemorated, whether it was a stone curtain wall or a newly refurbished turf rampart (RIB 279). At the earliest they belong to the early 2nd century; for so far as can be ascertained, auxiliary units in Britain did not start to record their building before that time - if in fact they, and not just the legions, had been doing any at all.

The date of the stone from Melandra recording the century of Valerius Vitalis can be considerably narrowed down. A wall made of gritstone was inserted into the front of the rampart at Melandra almost certainly early in the reign of Hadrian. This is likely to have been the construction work the Melandra stone commemorated; for it too is also gritstone. But at Manchester the stone curtain wall is apparently of 3rd century construction, so the centurial stones ought to relate either to the Phase 2 fort of 3 acres or to the Phase 3 enlarged turf and timber fort, 5 acres in extent (Although a 5 acre fort would normally be considered too large for a cohors quingenaria peditata, without any information about the internal layout the possibility of such a unit in residence cannot be ruled out). One possible way to decide the date of the stones is to analyse the names of the centurions. Two of them - Masavo and Cudrenus - have German names (RIB 577, 579; Weisgerber 1968, 378-81 and 384-5). The other two - Quintianus and Candidus - have colourless Latin ones although it is possible that they too could have been of German origin (RIB 578, 580). It is thus possible that these men were centurions of the cohort during the early part of the 2nd century before non-German elements would be expected to predominate. But it has to be borne in mind that recruits from Germany would always be sent to British units if there were not enough recruits forthcoming from Britain and, failing that, Gallia Belgica (Holder 1982, 52-3).

The stones from both sites could therefore belong to about the same period. Yet this does not have to mean that the cohort moved from one fort to the other; for there are inscriptions from elsewhere in Britain of two units helping each other in construction work, of the same unit at two

different forts at about the same time. For example between AD205 and AD208 cohorts I Aelia Dacorum milliaria and cohorts I Thracum CR are recorded building a granary at Birdoswald (RIB 1909). At High Rochester vexillations from cohorts III Gallorum and cohorts II Nerviorum are jointly recorded on a building stone (Brittania XIV, 337, n12) and there is a vexillation of the latter cohort attested at Risingham (RIB 1240).

Vexillatio Raetorum et Noricorum

This unit is attested on an altar of which only the lower part survives but enough to show that the commander held the rank of praepositus (RIB 576).

This raises the immediate question of what type of unit is involved. Two suggestions have been made. Firstly it could have been a vexillation drawn from the legions in Raetia and Noricum - III Italica and II Italica - sent to Britain as reinforcements by Severus after his defeat of Albinus in AD 197 (Birley 1952, 183-5). Alternatively it could have been a vexillation drawn from a national *numerus* of Raetians and Noricans and given permanent status like the vexillatio Raetorum gaesatorum also in Britain (Saxer 1967, 71, n179).

The arguments in favour of the former are that while the Raetians continued to supply units for the auxilia in the shape of *numeri gaesati* (a tradition going back to the 1st century) the cultural and economic background of Noricum was so different that such troops could no longer be recruited by the time of Severus. In addition because each province only had one legion they could only supply half a normal sized legionary vexillation and so if the need arose for troops to be supplied by these provinces the force would be brigaded together. Thus this vexillatio was a campaign detachment at Manchester to help in the building programme there, after which it would have been dispersed.

These arguments certainly demolish any notion that the unit was a national *numerus*. Yet it seems strange that contrary to usual practice no mention is made of the legions from which this vexillation was supposedly drawn. A third possibility can be introduced. Ordinarily the term vexillatio Raetorum et Noricorum would indicate that auxiliaries were involved. The force would be drawn from the auxiliary regiments stationed in a province and sent to a war zone when required.

Occasionally such vexillations were given permanent status; for example vexillatio equitum Illyricorum (AD 129; CIL XVI 75) became *numerus equitum Illyricorum* (AD 140; Roxan 1978, no 39). While these inscriptions for auxiliary detachments usually state the type of soldier involved, for instance cavalry, a vexillatio Dacorum is attested from the Parthian wars of L. Verus (CIL III 1193; ILS 2746). Thus it is conceivable that vexillatio Raetorum et Noricorum was drawn from the auxilia in the provinces of Raetia and Noricum by Severus for his war against Albinus and afterwards given permanent status as a *numerus* as part of the reinforcements for Britain. It would have therefore formed the garrison of the new stone fort at Manchester and remained there in the 3rd century. This type of *numerus* was commanded by praepositi who were usually equestrian officers. Sometimes legionary centurions were placed in charge if no suitable equestrian was available and so it is possible that L. Senecianus Martius, the centurion of legio VI Victrix known at Manchester (RIB 575), was serving there in this capacity.

Cohors I Baetasiorum CR

A fragmentary inscription (RIB 581) found at Manchester, but now lost, has been interpreted as a Severan building dedication recording (without erasure) Geta as Caesar: thus () NINUS (/ G) ETA C(aesar). However, this reading is not that secure as the drawing in RIB indicates. The illustration in the first edition of Baines' (1938) confirms this fact. The correct reading could be () ETAS (). In his review of RIB, Alföldy (1966) proposed to read (coh. I Ba) ETAS, which is certainly possible. If the inscription recorded the cohort and was an imperial dedication set up in the reign of an Emperor with Antonius in his nomenclature, rather than a text mentioning a () NINUS who was a soldier or prefect of the unit, then an approximate date can be established. Cohors I Baetasiorum CR was part of the garrison of the Antonine Wall probably for both periods of its occupation, although the evidence is open to question. Its stay at Maryport is considered to probably have been during the reign of Commodus, but again the dating is not certain. By the 220s the cohort was at Reculver. While it is true that the dates for the unit's moves during this time are not precisely known, the possible periods of occupation at Manchester appears to have been c.163-180 and c.190-218.