

An Archaeological Resource Assessment of Roman Derbyshire

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Geology and Topography

Derbyshire's landscape encompasses dramatic variations in geology, geomorphology and soil types. In the north lie the uplands formed by gritstones in the district of High Peak, and the dissected Carboniferous limestone of the southern High Peak and Derbyshire Dales. The latter is flanked on its eastern side by the gritstone outliers of the East Moors and Stanton Moor. In the north east, the Magnesian limestone of Bolsover district forms a narrow north-south ridge of higher ground. Sandwiched between the gritstone East Moors and the Magnesian limestone lie the complex, lower lying coal measures, running from the South Yorkshire border southwards through North East Derbyshire, Chesterfield, Amber Valley and Erewash. Here they give way to the Triassic marls and loams of South Derbyshire and the Trent Valley, Derby district and the southernmost parts of Derbyshire Dales.

The SMR: Distribution of Records

The Roman period accounts for 10.7% of total SMR records. The distribution of Roman records within Derbyshire reveals something of the same quantitative bias for the uplands of Derbyshire Dales which has been noted previously for the various prehistoric periods. Derbyshire Dales, which comprises 30.3% of Derbyshire's surface area, accounts for 41.6% of all Roman records. In contrast, North East and South Derbyshire comprise 10.5% and 12.9% of Derbyshire's surface area, but only have 3.2% and 2.6% of Roman records respectively. Differences in land-use history and the impact upon above ground remains, combined with very different traditions of archaeological fieldwork have undoubtedly contributed to these differences. Up until the mid-nineties Roman records on the SMR for Erewash were severely under-represented. Through a co-ordinated programme of fieldwork undertaken by a local archaeological society including surface collection from ploughed fields and excavation, supplemented by aerial photography and geophysical survey, this situation has been transformed over the past few years. Erewash, which has 4.2% of Derbyshire's land area, now has just over 5% of all Roman records. This illustrates the impact which a programme of organised and targeted fieldwork can have upon our knowledge of the Roman archaeological resource in areas which initially appeared to be blank.

The Character of the Resource

Forts and Fortlets

The initial militarisation of Derbyshire from AD50 onwards has left a series of military installations: Neronian forts are known from Strutts Park (Forrest 1967), west of the Derwent at Derby, Chesterfield (CARC 1973; Courtney 1975; Ellis 1985; Lane 1974) (c.AD54), and possibly the Castle Hill Camp fortlet between Pentrich and South Wingfield (Kay 1961; Smithward 1911) (? AD60s). Dating evidence suggests that the 70s saw a second wave of fortifications being established at Little Chester, also in Derby (AD75-80) (Brassington 1967, 1982a, 1982b, 1993, 1996, 1997; Dool and Wheeler 1985, Todd 1967a; Webster 1961; Williams 1991) , Brough on Noe (AD75) (Bartlett 1959, 1960; Dearne 1993; Jones and Thompson 1969; Jones et al. 1966; Jones and Wild 1968, 1970; Richmond 1938) and Melandra (AD78) (Bruton 1907; Petch 1943, 1949). As yet undated military establishments have been identified: the possible fortlets at Sawley (Todd 1967b) and Highstones (Hart 1981: 90), near Tintwistle, along with a possible fort at Drakelow.

To these we should also add that it has long been speculated that we should expect to find military installations at Carsington, Longdendale and Buxton (Hart 1981: 83). However, subsequent archaeological fieldwork, including excavations, in and around suggested locations for the latter have singularly failed to establish a military presence. A 'ditch feature' identified initially through resistivity survey and then from aerial photography above Mill Cliff, Buxton, gave rise to the almost confident interpretation of this site as being that of the fort (Hart 1981): subsequent evaluation in advance of development however has shown that these features had geological rather than anthropogenic origins (Abbott 1994), and the absence of Roman finds of any description from a series of evaluation trenches suggests that if Buxton had a fort it was located elsewhere.

For those military installations about which we may be confident of their locations and where there has been some measure of investigation the level of detailed understanding we have gained concerning their internal developmental chronology and layout is highly variable (Hart 1981, 93; Dearne 1991, 70). Strutts Park appears to have been supplanted by Little Chester in the mid 70s. Chesterfield, Pentrich, Brough, Melandra, and, less clearly Little Chester (Wheeler 1985b), were all abandoned at various points in the 2nd century. The reoccupation of Brough in the mid-late 2nd century marks the onset of seemingly continuous occupation through to the mid-late 4th century.

Roads

Studies of the Roman road network in Derbyshire have attracted considerable attention in their own right over many years. Early antiquarian interest (Lysons and Lysons 1817) was replaced by a variety of field, documentary and map-based research (Cockerton 1937; Lomas 1958; Munslow 1949; Smithward 1913). Since the 1950s systematic fieldwork, including excavation, has added considerably to our knowledge (Belford 1996; Guilbert 1996; Oakley 1955; O'Brien and Todd 1976; Saunders 1959; Wroe 1982; Wroe and Mellor 1971). Today, a difficult admixture of records for well established roads with visible, surveyed earthwork or cropmark evidence, often supplemented by localised excavations, on the one hand sits uncomfortably alongside records for a variety of routes represented in

literature which are, at best, identified from highly localised evidence which has been extrapolated across long stretches of the landscape. The 'join-the-dots' variety of evidence appeals to preconceptions of straight lines, and calls upon known centres of Roman activity to provide objectives for these desk-based events of pen and ruler. In assigning the same road a new SMR record and number each time it crosses a parish boundary the Derbyshire SMR has accumulated a large number of records for roads many of which are highly speculative in substance. Even the comparative assurance with which we may represent 'Ryknield Street', 'Batham Gate' and 'The Street' is not without localised uncertainties along their lengths (i.e. Guilbert and Challis 1993; Jordan et. al. 1996).

Quite apart from the obvious importance of having a sound knowledge of the Roman road system in discussions of the military and economic development of Derbyshire as part of a broader region, the character of the network within the county has itself helped to shape speculation on other, related aspects of Derbyshire's Roman archaeology. The convergence of roads upon Buxton, an important Roman Spa, has itself fuelled debate over the possible location of a fort (Tristram 1916). Arguments similarly influenced by the alignment of roads have been put forward regarding the location of the as yet unidentified fort in the vicinity of Carsington (Hart 1981: 87), which in turn has sustained the almost interminable hunt for the administrative heart of the Roman lead mining industry - the so-called *Lutudarum* - in this area at the southern edge of the Carboniferous limestone..

Vici

Evidence for the growth of civil settlements associated with the establishment of the auxiliary forts comes from Melandra (Webster 1971), Brough (Dearne 1993; Branigan and Dearne 1993; Drage 1993; Lane 1973b) and Little Chester (Birss and Wheeler 1985). These sites have all been the subject of a relatively recent and important review by Dearne (1991) in which he has attempted to discuss the chronology, development, size, and character of the activity represented. From his discussion it is argued that at sites such as Brough, and arguably Melandra, the civilian settlement was intimately tied to the fort. He suggests that in such settlements, which he regards as true *vici*, the military may well have encouraged the settlement as an integral part of the fort's life. Sites such as these were primarily engaged within the military economy, and may have received active, physical protection.

For sites such as Little Chester however, he recognises a much wider set of relationships in which the civilian settlement was engaged. He suggests the term 'military town' to identify the duality of the economic life in such places. The range of industrial activities (Brassington 1980; Wheeler 1985a) and substantial cemetery including mausolea (Wheeler 1985c) uncovered at the racecourse site is certainly quite different from what is known at Melandra and Brough. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that the civilian settlements at Brough and Melandra ceased with, if not before the abandonment of the forts. At Little Chester there is evidence to suggest the civilian settlement continues beyond the abandonment of the fort (Dearne 1991: 70).

Dearne also discusses the uncertainty which exists over the character of civilian activity around the fort at

Chesterfield. Evidence for ovens and furnaces connected with metal working, and of pits for storing coal (Courtney 1975; Ellis 1989), hints at industrial activity within the fort which post dates the abandonment of the fort by the military. However, the industrial evidence is in marked contrast to the paucity of evidence for more generalised civilian settlement (Dearne 1991: 77). The recent evaluation and recording exercise undertaken by the University of Manchester Archaeological Unit at Vicar Lane, Chesterfield, promises to contribute significantly towards our understanding of a number of these issues.

Buxton

If there is a measure of uncertainty over the character of civilian settlement associated with known forts then how much greater is the uncertainty over Buxton. Identified in the Ravenna Cosmography as *Aquae Arnemetiae*, Buxton potentially represents a settlement which developed around Romano-Celtic cult centred upon natural hot and cold springs (Hart 1981: 94). Today, the 'site' of the probable Roman baths is covered by the Georgian Crescent building. In this area during the seventeenth and eighteenth century (Walker et al. 1994) discoveries of lead lined baths, red plaster and building remains were made at some considerable depth in the sediments which surround the area of St Anne's well. In the eighteenth century, Pilkington investigated a mound overlooking the site of the previous discoveries. Here he found a structure which has been interpreted (Burnham and Wachter 1990; Walker et al. 1994) as a probable classical temple - one of only three known from Britain. In the mid-seventies, following the removal of a 20th century swimming pool, a brick structure was exposed and a deposit containing 232 Roman coins, 3 bronze bracelets and a wire clasp ranging in date from the 1st to the end of the 4th century AD was excavated (Hart 1981: 94).

This intriguing series of early discoveries lends tangible support to the interpretation of Buxton as the 'Bath of the north', but the character and extent of civilian settlement - and whether this was in association with a military installation or not, remains obscure. A considerable range of small finds, together with occasional glimpses of apparently Roman contexts, from the backgardens of houses has failed to provide a clear sense of the extent of Roman Buxton, let alone a soundly based understanding of its chronology and development. The dating of coinage in the 'votive' deposit from near the Crescent might be seen to indicate heightened frequencies of offerings during the third and fourth centuries. To what extent this might correlate with the development of settlement at Buxton is a matter of some conjecture.

Incidentally, it is worth drawing attention to the not inconsiderable body of evidence identified from barrow excavations for the secondary votive use of Bronze Age burial mounds in the Roman period (Howard Jones pers. comm.). Evidence for the insertion of offerings, frequently in the form of coins or broken sherds of pottery, is widespread within the barrows of upland Derbyshire. Yet it is only relatively recently that such evidence has been recognised as part of a much wider phenomenon associated with Roman votive behaviour.

Caves

East Midlands Archaeological Research Framework: Resource Assessment of Roman Derbyshire

The upland limestone regions of Derbyshire provides a series of cave sites with evidence for Roman activity (Branigan and Dearne 1991a), which is part of a wider phenomenon of Romano-British cave use (Branigan and Dearne 1992). In Derbyshire the unusually rich character of much of this evidence, with a significant representation of Roman metalwork including brooches, chatelains, nail cleaners, tweezers and ear scoops (Hart 1981, 105) has raised significant doubts over the purely occupational origins of much of this archaeology. A recent review of the finds from Thirst House Cave (Branigan and Dearne 1991b) has emphasised the puzzling quality of many of the brooches and ear rings which appear to have been deposited within the cave between the late 1st and mid-second century AD, periodically being swept out to form an archaeologically rich talus deposit. Yet in many respects the pottery, spindle whorls, small-scale structural iron work and domestic debris present a view of what we might anticipate from a domestic site. Branigan and Dearne see the association with at least one Romano-British burial outside of the cave as probably lending support to the presence of a domestic function in the cave.

At Poole's cavern, Buxton, excavations between 1981 and 1983 by Peakland Archaeological Society and Buxton Archaeological Society produced a large Romano-British assemblage containing a considerable body of metalwork including coins and brooches, rolls of thin sheet bronze, along with ceramics, a faunal assemblage and burials (Bramwell et al. 1983). The dating of the coins and fibulae point to use between the late 1st and third centuries, with the majority being of 2nd century date. Indeed, reanalysis of the material (Branigan and Bayley 1989) has suggested that the cave saw its principal period of use between 120 and 220 AD. The excavators appeared to reveal some spatial separation of the coin and fibulae finds from the pottery and faunal remains, although this has been questioned (Branigan and Bayley 1989: 48). Discussing the possible character of the use of the site Bramwell and Dalton draw attention to the comparative absence of spindle whorls, loom weights and bone hairpins which might be expected from a domestic site. Instead, they see the evidence as supporting the interpretation of the site as that of a rural shrine or sanctuary. This too has subsequently been questioned and rejected (Branigan and Dawley 1989: 49). Instead, Branigan and Dawley interpret the site as essentially domestic, but with the additional refuse from a metalworkers activities. They see a link between Poole's Cavern and the growth of Buxton as a spa centre providing a ready local market for small decorative trinkets.

It is worth noting however that Romano-British evidence has also come from caves along the Magnesian limestone ridge of Bolsover district. In particular, the caves at Creswell Crags, including Robin Hood's cave, Pinhole and Church Hole have all produced assemblages which contain a variety of bronze brooches, coins, pottery and bone (Hart 1981).

Makepeace has recently (1998) drawn attention to the large number of known Romano-British settlements in the Peak District which have caves in their vicinity. This may or may not be of significance. Given that many of the identified settlements are located along valley edges and scarps, where ploughing has had the least influence in eroding upstanding earthworks, the proximity to caves - which also tend to be in these locations - may be as much a product of differential survival rates amongst settlements as some locational / behavioural pattern. However,

Makepeace recognises that caves probably fulfilled a variety of roles in the context of Romano-British life. Some fissure caves appear to have only been used for burial (Palmer 1925).

Craft and Industrial Activity

Pottery

There has already been some mention of evidence for industrial or craft activity. In addition to the pottery kilns at Derby racecourse (Brassington 1971, 1980), to the north of Derby - not far from the line of Rykniel Street - a series of kilns at Hazelwood (Brassington and Webster 1988) and Holbrook (Kay 1962) have been excavated. Slightly further north another pottery kiln, discovered during work by the Gas Board as part of their 'methane project', was investigated at Shottle Hall (Kay and Hughes 1963). To these we might also add a possible kiln site near Milford (Brassington 1969) which is not far from the Hazelwood site. All of these latter sites appear to have been located with reference to locally available deposits of suitable clay and were involved primarily in the production of Derbyshire Ware vessels. Although other production sites may yet be discovered in other areas the recognition of these sites within such a relatively small area might suggest that this was a centre for the production of this particular coarse pottery which is found on Romano-British sites throughout Derbyshire.

Metalworking

The metalworking suggested at Poole's Cavern represents part of a much wider set of metal working activities on Romano-British sites. At Bolsover, in north eastern Derbyshire, an evaluation (Sumpter 1992; Wall 1992) and recording exercise (Jones 1995) undertaken in advance of the construction of extensions to the local authority headquarters identified a Romano-British 'oval' enclosure, within which a defined area appeared to be dedicated to various industrial activities including iron smithing. Evidence included smithing slag and hearth bottom, as well as hammerscale. A similar range of evidence is currently being investigated and recorded at Swarkestone, South Derbyshire, as part of the recording work associated with a gravel quarry (David Knight, pers. comm.). Undoubtedly, the maintenance and repair of iron implements must have been a relative commonplace within and around many Romano-British settlements. Evidence for the Roman extraction of ironstone and the production of iron however is, despite locally available sources of suitable ironstone close to the surface, absent in Derbyshire.

Coal

Similarly, evidence for the use of coal by Romano-British populations comes from a variety of contexts. In Chesterfield, a pit within the abandoned fort appears to have been used for coal storage (Ellis 1989). Near Rotherham, excavations within the *praetorium* of the Roman Fort at Templeborough found evidence for the use of coal (May 1922: 37). Coal has been found crushed on the surface of Rykniel Street at both Tupton (O'Brien and Todd 1976: 23) and at Shirland (Saunders 1959), whilst at Wingerworth coal was identified in the ditches alongside Rykniel Street (Oakley 1955). As noted by O'Brien and Todd (1976: 23) the extraction of coal in precisely these areas of north Derbyshire where deposits occur close to the surface would have been relatively easy, but how widely it may have been transported and for how broad a range of functions is unknown. As yet we have no direct physical

evidence relating to the Roman mining of coal. That medieval and later coal mining selected those same outcropping measures close to the surface, and that post war opencast techniques have also targeted the same deposits, has probably erased most, if not all opportunities to identify such early evidence for exploitation.

Lead

Of all of the industrial activities which have been associated with the Romano-British population in Derbyshire it is that of lead mining which has exercised most archaeological minds. The initiation and organisation of lead mining, processing and distribution in the Roman period is a subject which is central to some of the most important models regarding the character of Romano-British settlement in the White Peak. Within this body of interest the documented but unlocated administrative centre (or company ?) for the lead industry in the region - *Lutudarum* - has excited much speculation and fieldwork in the hunt for the lost lead capital of the Peak (Branigan 1985).

The known distribution of pigs of Derbyshire lead (Dool and Hughes 1976) indicates something of the shipment of this material around Britain for use in pewter, and for making things such as cisterns, and water pipes. Examples bearing the inscription 'product of the Lutudarensian partners' are known from various locations (Bartlett 1967) around the Humber, in Warwickshire and elsewhere. Not all of the use and distribution of lead will have involved the production of lead pigs. Settlements of the period on the Carboniferous limestone, once investigated closely, usually produce small lumps of lead ore, or Galena. At Lumb Brook, Hazelwood (Brassington and Webster 1988) a lead roasting hearth excavated alongside the Romano-British pottery kilns suggests that the reduction of lead ore on a relatively small scale was also taking place away from the limestone.

The SMR is full of references to lead mines in which it is believed that Roman exploitation of the lead ore took place. Yet, upon examination, there are perilously few secure instances where Roman mining of lead can actually be demonstrated. As with the coal fields, those areas which attracted the Romano-British miner probably attracted medieval and later miners for much the same reasons - ease of access and the quality of the ore.

Very few lead pigs are dateable. An inscribed example from Cromford Nether Moor bore the name of emperor Hadrian (AD117-138). Fieldwork at Roystone has identified a lead rake filled and overlain by a double orthostat wall, probably of the 2nd century (Hodges and Wildgoose 1980: 52). At Carsington two pigs of lead, weighing just over 56 and 46kg respectively, were excavated from a deep pit (Branigan et al., 1986). The pit, dating to the late 4th century, contained a variety of lead scrap, galena, wood ash and daub. The same general area has produced evidence for quite extensive settlement (Branigan 1991: 60; Dearne et al. 1995; Lomas 1960), including probably the closest thing to a villa yet discovered in Derbyshire (Ling 1992; Ling and Courtney 1981; Ling et al., 1990). Not far from Carsington, a limited excavation at Closes Farm, Kniveton, revealed a substantial Romano-British ditch containing a rich assemblage of pottery, metalwork, coins, glass and tessera. This discovery has prompted further, on-going work by Liverpool University. Furthermore, the area of Carsington Pastures with its extensive pock-marked landscape evidence for lead mining from the medieval onwards may also preserve evidence for lead mining in the Roman

period (but see Guilbert 1994; Hodges 1991). This combination of evidence has generally served to reinforce the view that *Lutudarum*, if it can actually be associated with single area (Branigan 1985), should be located within this southern edge of the Carboniferous limestone.

Other

The exploitation of Derbyshire's mineral wealth during the period includes evidence for the use of Hopton Wood marble, again from the Carboniferous limestone, in the Roman baths at Godmanchester, Cambridgeshire (Green 1960). The gritstones of Derbyshire were also used in the production of quernstones (Hart 1981: 108). Little is known about the character or extent of production for either of these industries.

Rural Settlement

In many respects the discussion of evidence for rural settlement in Derbyshire is forced into a comparison of upland with lowland settlement. Reasons for this may be justified in terms of actual patterns of settlement during the Roman period. However, the actual reasons are more pragmatic and mundane. The type and apparent quantities of evidence which survive in upland and lowland locations in Derbyshire are quite different. The character of historic landuse in Derbyshire's uplands has left a rich data set consisting of reasonably well preserved earthwork enclosures and field systems in those parts of the limestone uplands where ploughing has been at a minimum. Hart's (1981) survey identified around forty known settlements in the Carboniferous limestone region the majority of which are located on the thin soils of valley or scarp edges. This body of recognised sites has recently been numerically enhanced (Makepeace 1998) in a study which discusses in some detail the locational attributes of Romano-British settlement in the uplands of the Peak District. Makepeace finds that most of the sites he discusses fall within one or more of the following locations: plateau slope, high valley, tors, low valley, shelf and projecting shelf. Interestingly, various programmes of systematic surface collection on the White Peak have not radically transformed the overall locational picture of Romano-British settlement: the areas of upland plateau which form much of the interfluvial region of the White Peak seem to provide very little evidence for settlement.

The magnesian limestone belt in north east Derbyshire also provides earthwork evidence for Romano-British settlement, although here regular deep ploughing has been destroying a series of enclosure sites (Hart 1981: 96). At Whitwell Wood a series of well preserved oval and sub-circular enclosures survive within the Forestry Commission's land, some of which are believed to be Romano-British. A series of cropmark enclosures identified through aerial photography in 1996 on the dip slope of the ridge between Glapwell and Bolsover may also include sites of this period. Little is known about the substantial, rectangular aisled barn-like dwelling investigated in Stubbins Wood, near Shirebrook (Kay 1951) except that it appears to date from the third century AD. From the sort description which Kay offers it would appear comparable to the initial phase of the mid-second century building excavated by Hodges at Roystone Grange.

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The excavations at sites such as Roystone Grange (Hodges 1991; Hodges and Wildgoose 1981) and Staden (Makepeace 1983, 1987, 1989, 1995) provide us with a detailed view of upland rural settlement. Comparison with those sites for which our detailed knowledge is more limited and where surface collections provide the basis for dating (i.e. Rainster Rocks (Dool 1976)) provides an amazingly consistent picture. The foundation for the majority of upland sites appears to date from the 2nd century AD. Only a small group of sites, such as Chee Tor (Lane 1987), appear have their foundation date from the 3rd century (Branigan 1991: 62-3). Taken together with the dating evidence from the caves and the votive deposit at Buxton it would seem that the uplands of Derbyshire witnessed a marked increase in settlement during the 2nd century AD.

If this observation holds, then there are some interesting problems which follow regarding the origins of this 2nd century expansion of settlement. Not least of these is where are the Iron Age settlements? In the previous research frameworks presentation the dearth of Iron Age upland settlement evidence beyond the ramparts of hillforts and the occasional cave deposit or burial was a major theme. Current research (Bevan nd) taking a detailed look at the body of known Romano-British settlements may shed some light on this issue. Certainly, many of these sites retain the general characteristics of the farms of Iron Age Britain (Barnatt and Smith 1997: 50). However, suggestions that a 2nd century, and specifically Hadrianic, expansion of settlement followed the redeployment of garrisons to locations further north (Branigan 1991: 62) finds support in the suggested abandonment dates for Brough and Melandra. In this context, Dearne's comments on the dependency of the *vici* at Melandra and Brough upon the military economy offers perhaps further support to the perspective that Roman rural economy in upland Derbyshire only began in earnest in the 2nd century AD.

Indeed, it is against this perspective of the colonisation of the Peak in the 2nd century AD that Hodges has suggested that upon the redeployment of the garrisons the Roman authorities may have actively encouraged settlement of the uplands. The proposed influx of farmers would have engaged largely in a pattern of sheep rearing for milk, wool and meat. Alongside this would have been the useful secondary activity of lead mining. The detailed picture of the Roman upland settlement gained through the painstaking field work of Martin Wildgoose at Roystone Grange identifies how such settlements may have appeared. The actual farm buildings sat within its bipartite field system of orthostatic walled enclosures - one half for arable, the other half as enclosed winter pasture - with the unenclosed hills providing open summer pasture (Hodges and Wildgoose 1980). To what extent Roystone may be typical or at least representative of the rest of upland Derbyshire is a matter for future research.

Outside of the upland zone the evidence for Roman rural settlement takes on a different quality. In a considerably denuded archaeological landscape the archaeology of artefact scatters and cropmarks takes over. For much of the coal measures zone, and the clays to the south of the limestone uplands very little is known. However, the almost total absence of Roman settlement records which existed for Erewash district, as mentioned previously, has been radically changed by the consistent efforts of a local society - Ockbrook and Borrowash Historical Society. Their work has identified through surface collection a whole series of Roman sites - some of the scatters containing

decorated Samian. Excavation of one of the scatters, at Little Hay Grange, has identified a substantial stone building, of at least two phases of construction, which appears to have been built in the late 1st century AD. Furthermore, the Roman building appears to have been built directly upon the infilled ditch of an Iron Age settlement - possibly a palisaded enclosure.

That we have in this area a few km north of the Trent evidence of substantial Roman settlement in the first century is perhaps not so surprising. The character of the Little Hay Grange site, along with the richness of some of the scatters indicates something of the wealth of this area. It is worth noting that in 1729 the discovery of a large, lavishly decorated silver *lanx* dating to the late 4th century AD and bearing the inscription 'Exuperius Episcopus Ecclesiae Bogiensi Dedit', or 'Bishop Exuperius gave (this tray) to the church of Bogium' (Keys 1991) was made in fields about 1km away from Little Hay Grange.

Meanwhile, recent evaluation and recording exercises in the south of the county are identifying Romano-British settlements which appear to further demonstrate a measure of continuity from the Iron Age.

The village of Shardlow has a number of rich Roman discoveries represented on the SMR (Usher 1995). At Chapel Farm, Shardlow, recent evaluation and recording in advance of a gravel extraction scheme identified a substantial Roman settlement within an enclosure (Knight and Malone, S. 1997) dating to the first and second century AD. The enclosure was found to be located directly on the site of a Late Iron Age enclosed settlement. Worthy of note is that some of the Romano-British features at Chapel Farm are cut through deposits of alluvium.

At Swarkestone, another gravel extraction site currently under investigation has already seen the excavation of an Iron Age enclosure. Not far from this site a Romano-British site is being excavated and is producing a variety of evidence including metal working.

Previous Research Priorities:

Existing statements of research priorities vary quite markedly in their content and approach. In 1977 Courtney and Hart explicitly tied Iron Age and Romano-British settlement studies together within north Derbyshire. Recognising the distribution of surviving Romano-British settlement and field system earthworks along the edges and scarps of the Carboniferous Limestone valleys as a product of the limits on past ploughing they suggested that these areas be studied for Iron Age settlement evidence. Courtney and Hart (1977, 12), and Hart (1981, 14-15) specifically identified Roman Military archaeology in north Derbyshire as being of low priority. Hazel Wheeler also stated that for the Trent Valley many details for military establishments and associated towns had already been established (1977, 40). In the same 1977 volume however, Dool reflected upon the lack of knowledge concerning the interior arrangements of Derby's 2 Roman forts, and the matching lack of excavation details from Little Chester's *vicus*.

More recently, Derbyshire Archaeological Advisory Committee's 1986 publication, 'Archaeology in Derbyshire:

Research Potential' identified a number of general subjects under headings which have been reflected in this paper. Many of the same subjects have been restated in DAAC's 1998 statement on their five year research programme into the Roman period in Derbyshire and the Peak District.

Some Observations

In working towards the development of research frameworks for the East Midlands it is worth stating that many of the urban centres with Roman military origins will continue to see development activity whether we see Roman forts and their civilian settlements as a priority or not. It is clear that a better understanding of Chesterfield's fort and civilian settlement is much needed. Equally, it is also apparent that the dearth of evidence from the northern coal measures hampers the study of the full character of the Romanisation of northern Derbyshire. To what extent the pattern of 2nd century upland rural settlement colonisation might extend off the north Derbyshire uplands into the coal measures around Chesterfield and across to the magnesian limestone is less clear and in need of attention.

The whole issue of Buxton as a Roman centre requires a great deal more work if it is to be adequately addressed. It may have to be accepted that no amount special pleading will soften the attitudes of English Heritage and allow the demolition of the grade I listed Georgian Crescent in order that the Roman bath deposits can be exposed! However, monitoring of potential fort locations, such as the market square, will continue. Yet it is intriguing that the 1st century activity upland forts and their *vici* may take place in an economically and socially unintegrated landscape. That the patterns of subsequent later 2nd century development of the *vici* at Brough, and the expansion of rural settlement in the uplands appears to match the dating evidence from the Buxton 'votive' and Poole's Cavern evidence might lead us to anticipate that civilian settlement at Buxton followed the same chronological pattern. If there was a fort at Buxton, might we not also expect the short-lived development of a true *vici* (*sensu* Dearne 1991) in the first century?

That some solid fieldwork to record the extant earthworks associated with one of the major Roman roads of Derbyshire has been undertaken by TPAT, and will hopefully be extended is to be welcomed. Similarly, the growth of research interest which has taken place into the Romano-British use of caves has added considerably to our understanding of certain aspects of upland settlement. Care will have to be taken however, that such a finite resource should be conserved carefully in the future. Similarly, there is considerable scope for looking at the potential wider significance of the deposits and assemblages from the Magnesian limestone caves for understanding Romano-British settlement in north eastern Derbyshire.

Entire industrial activities, such as the exploitation of coal by Romano-British populations is poorly understood. Any mining remains which are uncovered belonging to this period must assume a very high priority for protection. However, at very best they are most likely to be discovered through watching briefs or contingencies on already approved opencast applications.

Meanwhile, for much of lowland Derbyshire the need for basic initial fieldwork and data collection through ploughed field survey is all too clear. The example from Ockbrook illustrates the potential benefits which could result from such work.

Finally, the entire issue of the end of the Roman period has not been touched upon in this paper. The almost total absence of 5th century Anglo-Saxon settlement (or any other) evidence from Derbyshire presents a problem akin to the previously described for the Iron Age in upland Derbyshire.

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