THE ELMTON FIELDWALKING SURVEY: PREHISTORIC AND ROMANO-BRITISH ARTEFACT SCATTERS

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INTRODUCTION

This report provides a synthesis of fieldwalking carried out in Elmton parish, Derbyshire (Fig. 1), between October 1984 and June 1986, on behalf of the Creswell Crags Visitor Centre. The work was directed by David Knight, with the assistance in the 1985/86 fieldwalking season of Christine Cox, and was funded by the Manpower Services Commission. Additional funds were provided by Derbyshire County Council for analysis of the prehistoric flintwork (by Daryl Garton) and Romano-British pottery (by Ruth Leary) and for the preparation of this report. Full details of the survey are available in an archive maintained by Sheffield City Museum, together with the finds, and the Derbyshire Sites and Monuments Record.

Objectives

The principal aim of the survey was to establish the density, date and character of prehistoric and Romano-British surface finds in the vicinity of the Palaeolithic cave sites at Creswell Crags, Derbyshire (SK 534741). Previous fieldwalking in Elmton parish, mainly by Mrs P. Finch, together with small-scale excavations of an Iron Age/Romano-British promontory fort at Markland Grips (Lane 1969), explorations in the caves and rock shelters flanking Markland and Hollinhill Grips (Jenkinson 1984, 135–38) and excavations of a Mesolithic to Romano-British site near Whaley (Radley 1967), had demonstrated the archaeological potential of this area. It was hoped that systematic fieldwalking of the parish would provide a useful framework for an understanding of the wider landscape. The fieldwalking project was conducted alongside a detailed aerial survey of the parish by Christine Cox, but unambiguous evidence for crop- or soil-marks implying prehistoric or Romano-British activity was obtained only from Camp Hill, on the southern outskirts of Creswell Village (Plate 1; Fig. 7).

Methodology

Most fields were walked along a series of north–south transects, spaced 10m apart from centre to centre, with the aim of locating higher density artefact scatters which could signify activity foci. The area scanned along each transect averaged 2m wide, thus providing a *c.* 20% sample of each field. Transects were positioned so that they correlated with Ordnance Survey eastings, thus enabling finds to be located easily relative to the National Grid. All Post-Medieval and earlier surface finds were collected, individually recorded and archived. The approximate location of each find along the transect was determined by pacing. Full details were recorded of the stage of cultivation, the height of the crop, the degree of weathering, soil moisture content, lighting conditions and other

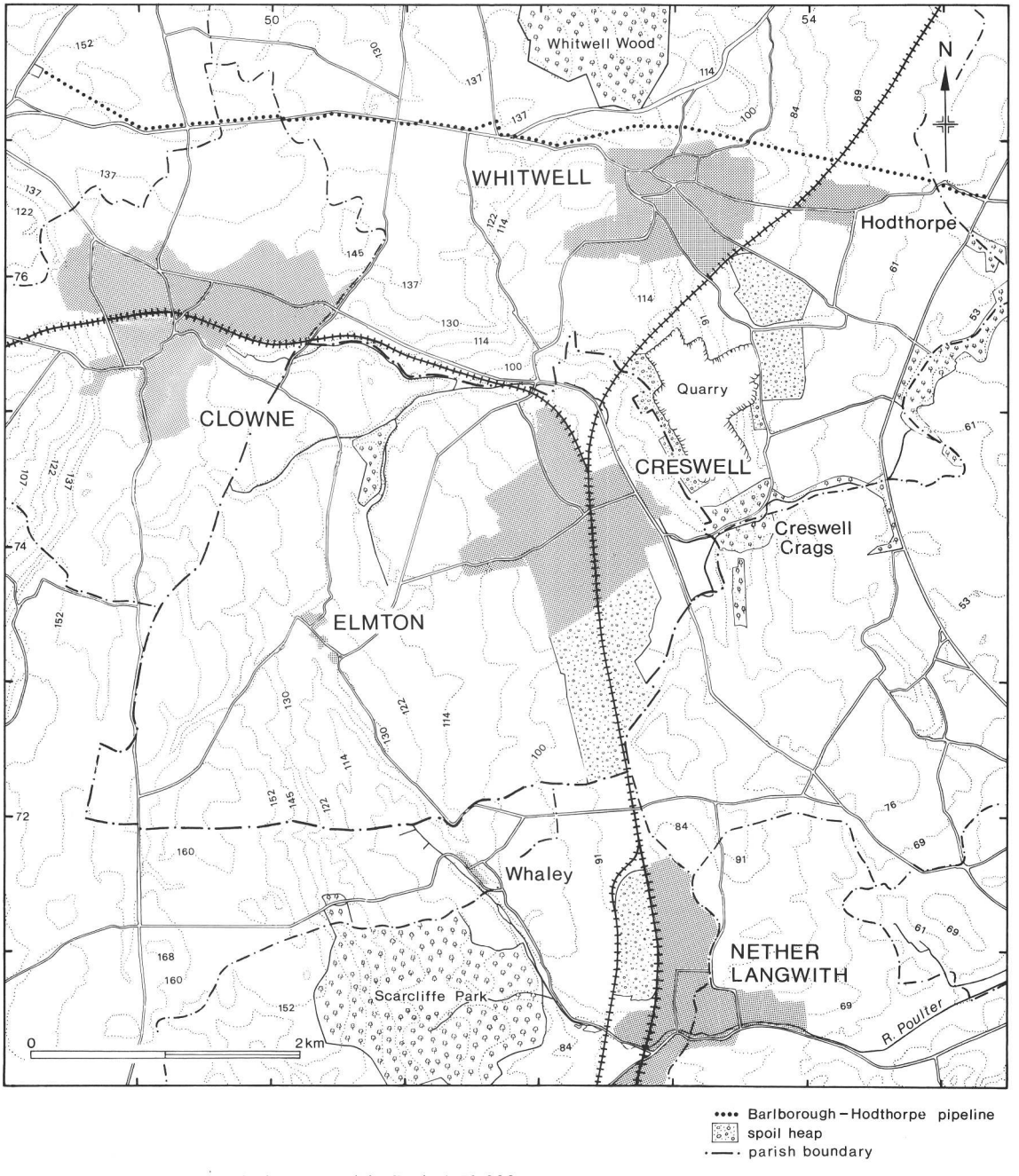


Fig. 1: Location of Elmton parish. Scale 1:50,000.

relevant variables (e.g. earthworks, concentrations of dark soil, rubble, etc.). Field conditions within the study area were monitored closely during the fieldwalking season in order that walking could be restricted to ploughed or drilled fields which were sufficiently weathered for surface finds to be clearly visible.

One field, incorporating on its eastern side the levelled outer defences of the multivallate promontory fort at Markland Grips (SK 508751), was walked more intensively as part of a detailed survey of the site and its immediate environs. It was hoped to undertake an equally detailed survey of the fort interior, but field conditions in the two fieldwalking seasons permitted only transect walking. A grid of 10m squares was superimposed on the field outside the promontory fort, and all surface finds of Post-Medieval and earlier date were collected and plotted by grid square.

PREHISTORIC ARTEFACT SCATTERS

The fieldwalking evidence for prehistoric activity derives exclusively from surface scatters of lithic material (Fig. 2), and in this section attention is focused upon raw material types, artefact densities and chronological patterning. Comparisons are made, where appropriate, with data recovered in two other major landscape surveys in the Trent basin: the Fosse Way fieldwalking assessment (Garton 1992; Kinsley and Knight 1992) and the Peak Transect (Barnatt *et al.* in prep.). The Fosse Way survey encompassed all available fields (88) within a 200m corridor centred on the Roman road from Widmerpool, Leicestershire to Newark, Nottinghamshire; transects were walked at 10m intervals. The Peak Transect encompassed all available fields (29) within a transect some 4km wide and 22km long from the East Moors gritstones, through the river valleys of the Wye and Derwent, and across the limestone plateau of the White Peak to the Dove Valley, Derbyshire; transects were walked at 2.5m intervals. The Fosse Way lies some 35km south-east of Elmton and traverses a lowland river valley landscape. The Peak Transect was located some 23km to the north-west and crossed three geologically different zones in an upland environment. In contrast, Elmton is located on the dipslope of the Lower Magnesian Limestone escarpment of eastern Derbyshire (Eden *et al.* 1957, 141–46). Little systematic work aimed at investigating the distribution of lithic artefacts on the Magnesian Limestone escarpment has been undertaken elsewhere, with the exception of a test-pit transect from Hodthorpe to Barlborough (Knight and Priest 1997) and an unpublished fieldwalking project conducted in the Worksop area in 1987–88 as part of the Bassetlaw Heritage Project.

The lithics from the systematic fieldwalking were laid out by field, and the raw materials and forms were listed. The artefacts were tabulated by type and a written assessment was prepared of each field, commenting on raw materials, any pieces of particular interest and the date ranges represented by the typologically diagnostic pieces. Other Elmton lithics held at Creswell Crags Visitor Centre in 1993 were examined cursorily; to differentiate this material clearly from that recorded during the systematic fieldwalking, it is referred to here as the 'casual collections'. The latter class of material was collected during repeated visits to individual fields, and was catalogued by field name and/or by six- or eight-figure National Grid Reference. These lithics were laid out by field, the proportions of flint and chert were noted, and an assessment was made of the periods represented.

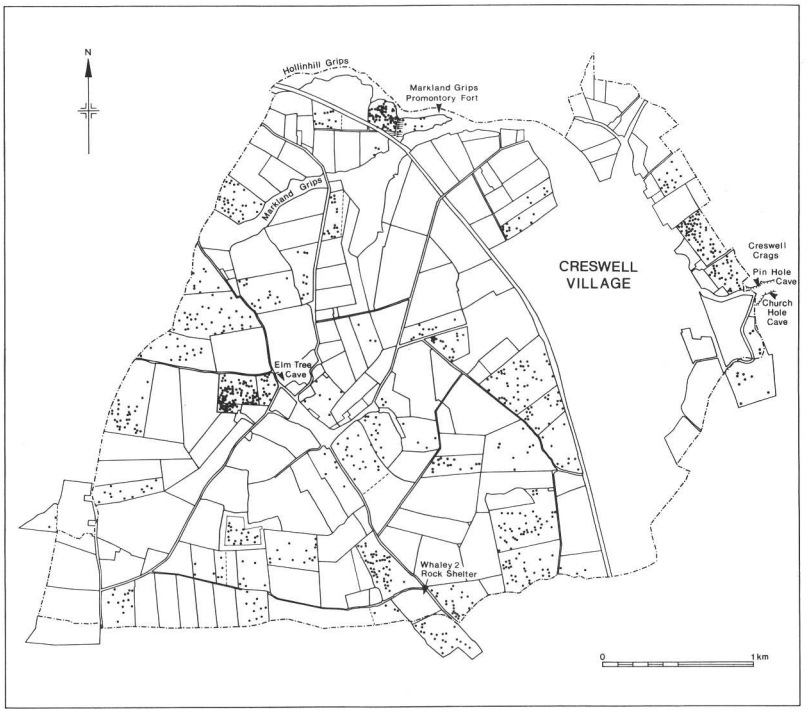


Fig. 2: Distribution of prehistoric flintwork within fieldwalked area (fields with no finds were not walked; broken lines indicate edges of walked areas within individual fields). Scale 1:50,000.

Raw Materials

In contrast to the Fosse Way and the Peak Transect, the fieldwalked area of Elmton parish lies mainly on Lower Magnesian Limestone, with three fields on the eastern side of the parish on Middle Permian Marl (Director General of the Ordnance Survey 1971; 1974). Extensive deposits of Head are recorded in Hollinhill Grips and in both branches of Markland Grips, and in other river valleys cut through the dipslope of the Magnesian Limestone (Eden *et al.* 1957, 159–60). Unmapped deposits of boulder clay may mask the solid geology in some areas (*ibid.*, 158–59), as was demonstrated during test-pitting and trenching in advance of the construction of a pipeline across the Magnesian Limestone escarpment between Hodthorpe and Barlborough (fig. 1; Knight and Priest 1997, 8), but no mapped deposits exist within the parish. Some flint suitable for flaking could have been incorporated in the Head deposits and in unmapped drift deposits, but none of the known deposits has been investigated for such lithic resources. Small rolled flint fragments (<36mm diameter) were collected in fields across the parish, but the recorded material is rarely of sufficient size for flaking. The nearest other flint sources are the glacial sands and gravels of the River Idle some 20km to the east, and beyond that the Trent gravels.

The struck cherts, though variable in colour, are all fine quality and fine-grained cherts which knap with a conchoidal fracture. They may have been imported from the Carboniferous Limestones, some 20km to the west, where similar raw materials were

used in assemblages from the limestone plateau (Barnatt *et al.* in prep.). The recovery of a small rolled but complete chert nodule (maximum dimension 44mm) and of a thermally fractured piece suggests that some cherts could derive from drift deposits (see also Knight and Priest 1997, 20). However, the small sizes of the pieces collected by fieldwalking and the rarity of rolled surfaces suggest that this was not a significant resource. Along with the small quantities of struck chert, fragments of a coarse, irregularly fractured chert were found in some fields. These coarse chert fragments were usually recovered in quantity, and, as they may be a product of 18th and 19th century liming of the fields (cf. Roberts and Leach 1985, 22), have been ignored in this report.

Flint

The soils derived from the Magnesian Limestone are base-rich, and hence most of the flintwork is heavily corticated; the raw material type, therefore, could in most cases not be ascertained with certainty. The few uncorticated pieces could be divided into translucent flint, mottled flint and Wolds type opaque flint. The last originates within the Jurassic chalk of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire, but it is also found derived in tills and river gravels to the west of the chalk escarpment; it has been recorded at Ash Tree Cave, Whitwell and Pinhole Cave, Creswell Crags (R. Jacobi *pers. comm.*).

Chert

In the Derbyshire White Peak, where chert is found within the Carboniferous Limestone, this raw material is most often used in Mesolithic assemblages (Hart 1981, 29; Radley 1968, 35). Of the chert pieces from Elmton, most of the unretouched forms are either blades, rather than flakes, or cores with blade removals predominating. The retouched chert tools comprise an end and side scraper, a scraper on a thermal flake and a narrow blade microlith fragment. There is also some correlation between the pattern of Mesolithic artefact recovery and the presence of chert at Elmton. Chert is present in all of the five fields with microliths or backed blades (made in flint) and in three of the eight fields with possible Mesolithic tools (e.g. scrapers made on truncated blades and truncated blades). The cherts include black, grey and light grey speckled material, comparing with pieces from White Peak collections.

Size

All of the complete flakes were measured, but as most fields yielded only a few complete pieces the data from all fields in all raw materials have been bulked together (58 pieces). The measurements and averages were calculated in the same manner as for the Peak Transect (Barnatt *et al.* in prep.). The average length of the Elmton flakes is 21.6mm and their average breadth is 18.6mm. Breadth: length ratios were not calculated. The average length of the Elmton flakes compares with flake lengths from the East Moors and Wye/Derwent zones of the Peak Transect (22.2 and 19.8mm respectively) and from three sections along the Fosse Way (22.6mm), but all are much shorter than those from the White Peak (27mm: Barnatt *et al.* in prep.).

Density

The density of flintwork per field is shown as individual findspots in Fig. 2 and in graph form in Fig. 5. All surface finds were collected from the field adjacent to Markland Grips

promontory fort, and although all finds from this field are shown in Fig. 2, the density in Fig. 5 has been divided by four to make the results comparable with the rest of the fieldwalking. Both figures show a relatively even density of lithics, except for two pairs of fields with much higher densities close to Elm Tree Cave and Creswell Crags. Prehistoric occupations are well known from caves at Creswell Crags (Jenkinson 1984) and the high density of lithics on the scarp slope at the western entrance to the gorge is as might have been anticipated. No details, unfortunately, have been located of excavations which were reputedly carried out by Armstrong and Court at Elm Tree Cave (Jenkinson 1984, 138). Higher densities of material were not recorded in the vicinity of the Whaley 2 Rock Shelter, where Mesolithic, Neolithic, Bronze Age and Romano-British material was recovered from excavations (Radley 1967). Hence these fieldwalking results do not show a clear spatial pattern in relation to the known occupation of the cave sites.

Date

The distribution of the datable tools and debitage from the systematic fieldwalking is plotted by period in Figs. 3 and 4 as an indicator of the spread of settlement activities. These results must be considered as a preliminary interpretation, bearing in mind that only one season of fieldwalking data was available for analysis and that the total number of artefacts is small. Given the tiny number of datable pieces, the following three levels were devised for use in these figures:

1) the co-occurrence of diagnostic pieces and debitage, or of more than one diagnostic piece.

2) the co-occurrence of possible pieces and debitage, or of more than one possible piece.

3) single pieces, or several pieces that could belong with such an assemblage but were not themselves diagnostic.

The occurrence of datable material from the 'casual collections' is indicated by a star within the appropriate field.

Mesolithic

Microliths, the type-fossil of the Mesolithic, and a micro-burin, the typical debris from manufacturing microliths, were found in four fields, with a steeply retouched blade segment ('raclette') in another. The microlith forms include obliquely blunted points of Earlier Mesolithic type (one with opposed retouch; cf. Deepcar, Yorks.: Radley and Mellars 1964, 9, fig. 5: 48–55) and a single narrow blade form of Later Mesolithic type. In each case, debitage likely to belong to the Mesolithic was also recovered (i.e. cores with regular blade removals and small blades). Such debitage was also recovered from another five fields where possible Mesolithic tools were found (e.g. backed blades, a square-ended scraper [cf. Garton *et al.* 1989, 135] and an end scraper made on a blade). Mesolithic material predominates in three of these fields (E102, E54/70), but is found alongside predominantly later material in the rest. The distribution is restricted to the southern part of the parish, but is not found in all of the walked fields in this area. When comparing with Fig. 2, it is clear that the diagnostic Mesolithic material tends to occur in the highest density fields. This pattern was also noted in the Peak Transect (Barnatt *et al.* in prep.) and may reflect a basic pattern of Later Mesolithic flintworking. Scatters characteristically comprise a number of small, high-density clusters of knapping/activity

foci which, when disturbed by ploughing, would produce high density scatters consisting mainly of debitage.

The pattern of datable finds from the 'casual collections' mostly reflects the distribution obtained by systematic survey, with the exception of a burin and blade core from the area to the south of Markland Grips (Fig. 3). Most of the Mesolithic material was recovered from around Field E54 to the west of Elmton village. Interestingly, this material includes a high proportion of black chert (up to 40% of some collections) which is barely represented (2.8%) within the systematic collections. This chert occurs as both cores and blades/flakes, but was rarely retouched into tools. This might suggest that a focus of chert knapping was located to the south or west of Field E54, or perhaps that the chert was not as confidently recognised, and therefore collected, by fieldwalkers in the systematic survey. The forms of the microliths and cores include both Earlier and Later types.

Earlier Neolithic

The sparse distribution of Earlier Neolithic material probably reflects the difficulty of recognising artefacts of this date in multiperiod collections. The single field where Earlier Neolithic activity may be inferred with reasonable confidence yielded both a leaf-shaped arrowhead and an edge-used blade similar to those recovered from the Earlier Neolithic building at Lismore Fields, Buxton (Garton in prep.). The other attributions represent single examples of these implement types. Like the Mesolithic distribution, the recognised Earlier Neolithic is predominantly southern.

Two Earlier Neolithic tool types were recognised in the 'casual collections': a leaf-shaped arrowhead and a backed flake knife (cf. Smith 1965, fig. 43). Neither was accessioned with any quantity of material, and hence these are presumably not from high density scatters.

Later Neolithic/Early Bronze Age

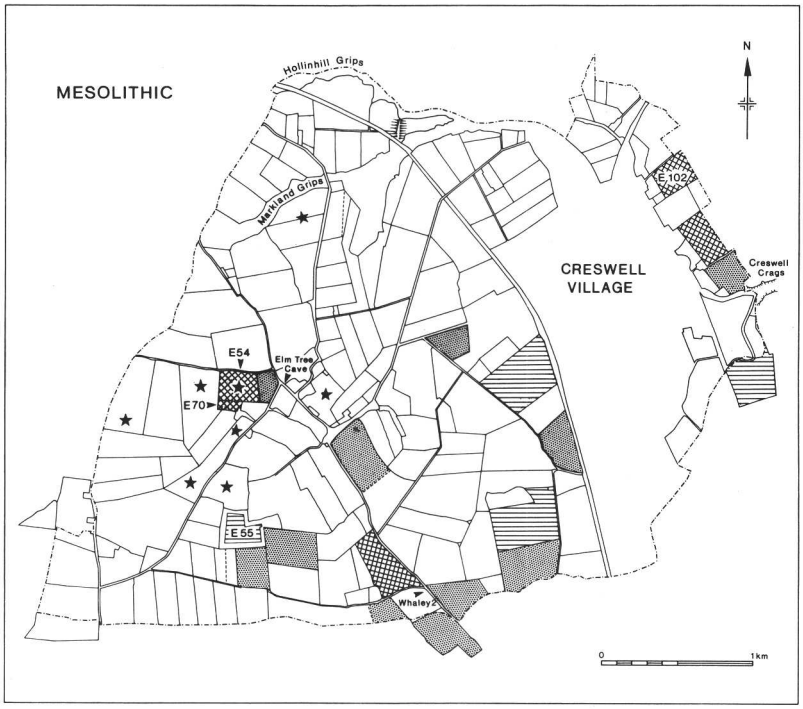
This period is represented by a wide range of tool forms, including polished flint and stone implements, chisel arrowheads, thick chunky scrapers, 'thumbnail' size scrapers, miscellaneous retouched flakes on large broad flakes, flake and plano-convex knives and rods (Saville 1981, 10). The debitage includes broad flakes, sometimes with faceted butts, and discoidal and large flake cores. The difference in distribution between this and the earlier periods is very clear; the number and range of all levels is increased, while the distribution extends to the northern part of the parish, from where no earlier activities were confidently recognised.

The Later Neolithic artefacts from the 'casual collections' are also identified from a wider area than earlier artefacts. These include a polished Group VI stone axe from Markland Grips (Db 248: Clough and Cummins 1988, 191).

Discussion

Density

Comparison of the flintwork densities per hectare between Elmton, the Fosse Way and the Peak Transect reveals some significant differences. The Fosse Way had a much higher proportion (64%) of low density fields (<4 per hectare) than either of the other two surveys (Elmton 40%; Peak 45%) but the Peak Transect had a higher proportion (17%)



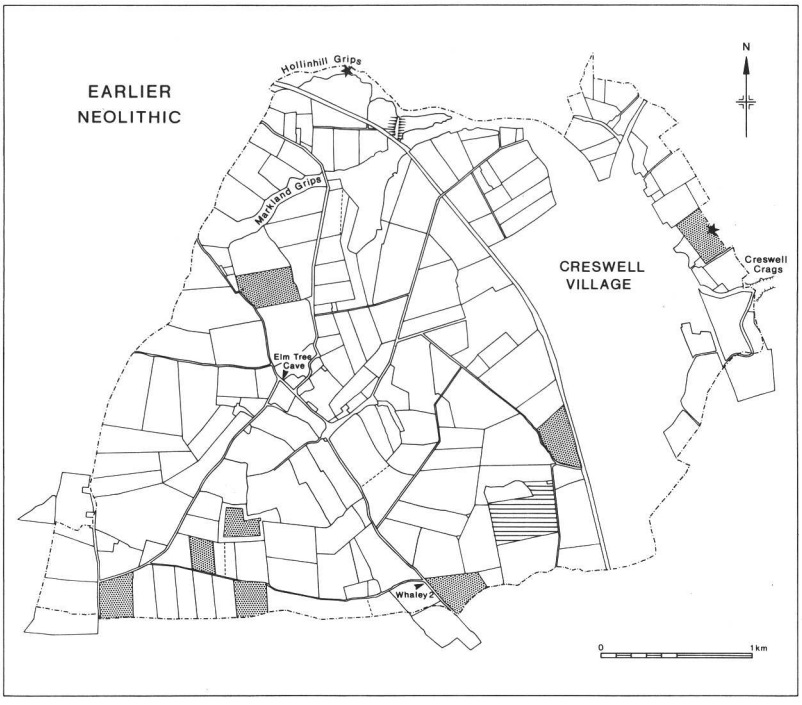


Fig. 3: Distribution of fields yielding datable Mesolithic (A) and Earlier Neolithic (B) tools and debitage (see Fig. 4 for key). Scale 1:50,000.

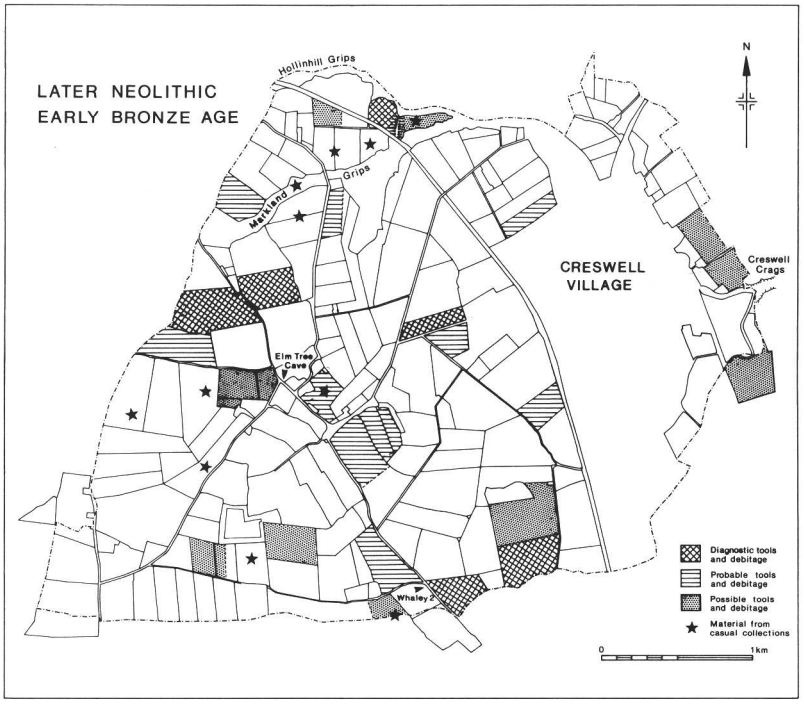


Fig. 4: Distribution of fields yielding datable Later Neolithic/Early Bronze Age tools and debitage (see text for full explanation of key). Scale 1:50,000.

of high density fields (>13 per hectare: Elmton 4%, Fosse Way 10%; Garton 1992; Barnatt *et al.* in prep.). Interestingly, the East Moors and the Wye/Derwent zones within the Peak Transect mirror the results from the Elmton survey, but contrast strongly with the higher densities from the Carboniferous Limestone of the White Peak. Given the broadly similar geological substrate and topography of the Elmton and White Peak area, these differences are surprising. A further difference in the larger size (above) and better quality of the flintwork from the White Peak is readily apparent on seeing the collections, and has been noted by others (e.g. Vine 1982, 15; Bradley and Hart 1983, 186; Barnatt *et al.* in prep.). The reasons for these regional differences, particularly when set against the contrasting distances from the raw material resources, require much more investigation.

Chronological patterns

Elmton abuts the well known prehistoric site of Creswell Crags, though other lesser known caves and rock shelters are known in the vicinity (Fig. 2; Jenkinson 1984). Many of the earlier investigations of these caves and rock shelters are poorly recorded, but material of all dates from the Middle Palaeolithic to Medieval period has been found (Jenkinson 1984). The caves are noted particularly for the production of Late Upper Palaeolithic material, and it was hoped that the fieldwalking might yield evidence for complementary open-air sites of this date. In this respect, the fieldwalking evidence is

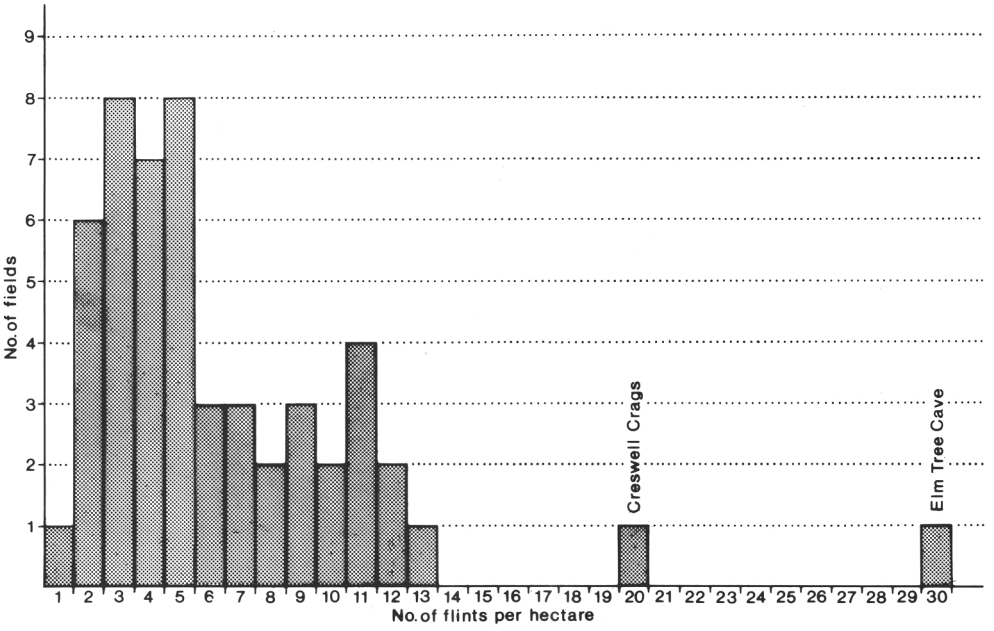


Fig. 5: Histogram showing variations in flintwork densities between fields (fields in vicinity of Creswell Crags and Elm Tree Cave labelled separately).

disappointing, since no diagnostic Late Upper Palaeolithic tools were recovered. Two large backed blades that could have belonged with Late Upper Palaeolithic assemblages were found, but neither is diagnostic of this date (R. M. Jacobi *pers. comm.*) and both could belong with the Mesolithic assemblages collected from the rest of those two fields (E54, E55). Given the small size of the sample (various estimates of 0.5–7% of the ploughsoil population appear on the surface: Ammerman 1985; Tingle 1987, 89) and walking at 10m intervals (searching a *c.* 20% sample of the surface) any assemblages would have to be reasonably large to be recorded. Pieces from such activities were located by 10m transects in the Fosse Way fieldwalking, but more detailed fieldwalking at 2.5m transects was required to locate clusters of artefacts (Kinsley 1993, 8–9; Garton 1993). No Late Upper Palaeolithic pieces were recognised from the 'casual collections' either. Hence these fieldwalking data might suggest that the Late Upper Palaeolithic flint-working activities within Elmton Parish were focused within the caves and gorges. This contrasts with the interpretation based upon other material close to Elmton published by Hart (1981, 19–21) and Phillips and Guirr (1985, 134). The latter cite 'long blades in chalk flint and tools such as burins and end-scrapers' (*ibid.*, 134) but no indisputedly diagnostic tool types. Hart (1981, 19–21) has postulated an open settlement containing pieces comparable with those found at Mother Grundy's Parlour (Creswell Crags) at Scarcliffe Mill Farm, only 1km south of Elmton. This area was intensively fieldwalked for Creswell Crags Visitor Centre in 1986, and it is hoped to study this material, and compare it with Hart's collection, in the near future.

It has long been recognised that raw materials were used considerable distances from their original sources in the Mesolithic. Jacobi (1978, 301–07) has identified extensive

use of Wolds flint amongst the Earlier Mesolithic groups visiting the Pennines, implying a movement of resources from east to west. The use of light grey cherts in the Earlier Mesolithic of the White Peak has recently been recognised at Kenslow (Garton in prep.) and similar raw materials have now been identified in cores, blades, scrapers and microliths in the fieldwalking collection from Elmton. Roger Jacobi has also recorded the presence of these raw materials in Earlier Mesolithic material from Mother Grundy's Parlour at the nearby Creswell Crags (R. Jacobi *pers. comm.*; Clark and Rankine 1939, 105). Hence the pattern of resource procurement is more complicated than previously envisaged; as well as the western movement of flint, cherts were moved eastwards off the parent limestone, or else were incorporated in workable sizes in secondary deposits nearer these sites. Further work is required to isolate these chert sources and to identify their distributions within assemblages.

Clearly identifiable Mesolithic pieces form a consistent background component to the Later Neolithic scatters. This is also true of the Fosse Way and Peak Transect collections. It is difficult to interpret this Mesolithic background, but, as Mesolithic activity often seems to be represented by small (*c.* 5m diameter) high-density artefact clusters, the spacing of the fieldwalked transects at Elmton could have been too wide to retrieve more than a few items per cluster. Any future analysis, therefore, should also consider artefact distributions within fields, and perhaps rewalk some fields at closer intervals. If the Earlier Neolithic is similarly distributed, there would be a similar result, with the added complication that its products are much more difficult to identify confidently.

The increase in the quantity of flintwork in the Later Neolithic, as recorded at Elmton, seems to be typical wherever systematic fieldwalking and analyses have been undertaken (e.g. Shennan 1985, 68). In this instance there would also appear to be an expansion of flint-using activities into new areas of Elmton. However, the small sample size urges caution, and new data may necessitate modification of this interpretation. Such changing distributions of flintwork in the White Peak led Bradley and Hart (1983, 192) to infer dramatic changes in the economic and social environment during the Later Neolithic and Early Bronze Age. It is at just this time when the qualitative differences between the Elmton and White Peak flintwork, mentioned above, are most readily identifiable. This is puzzling, given that Elmton is closer to the raw material resources (above). The processes responsible for such changes can only be guessed at, but it is clear that any attempts to model them will need to be considered within the regional context.

ROMANO-BRITISH ARTEFACT SCATTERS

A total of only 49 Romano-British sherds and one possible tile fragment, scattered widely over the parish, was recovered from approximately half of the walked fields (Fig. 6). It is unclear, in view of the limited systematic fieldwalking which has been carried out elsewhere on the Magnesian Limestone escarpment, how representative this density is of the area generally. It compares well, however, with the low artefact densities which have been recorded during systematic fieldwalking by Trent & Peak Archaeological Trust on the neighbouring Sherwood Sandstones, even from areas corresponding with major cropmark complexes. Close comparisons may also be drawn with the topsoil densities recorded in the test-pit transect across the Magnesian Limestone escarpment from Barlborough to Hodthorpe (Knight and Priest 1997, fig. 2). Three minor

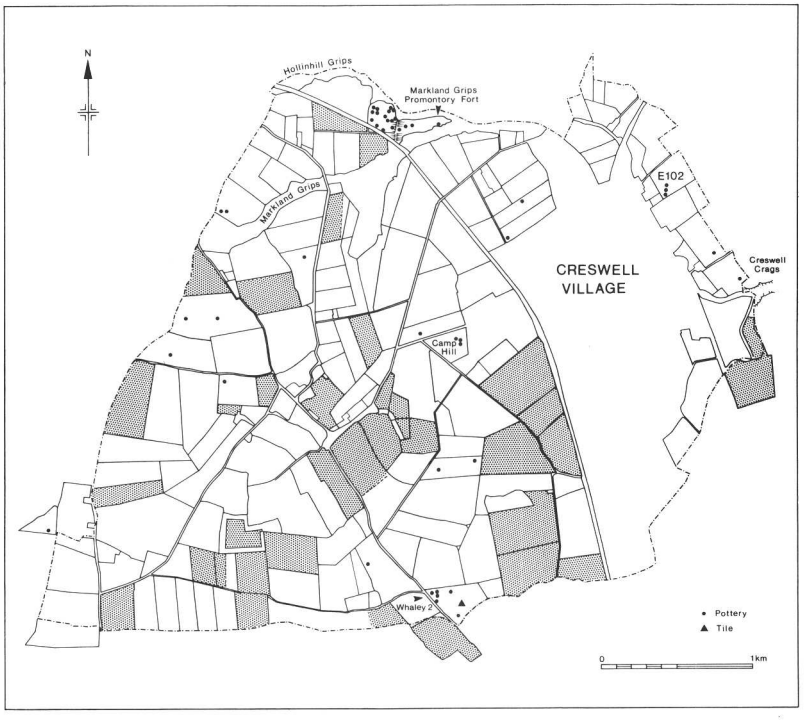


Fig. 6: Distribution of Romano-British pottery and tile within fieldwalked area (walked fields yielding no artefacts are shaded). Scale 1:50,000.

concentrations of material correspond with known archaeological sites, including the well-known promontory fort of Markland Grips (Lane 1969), the Whaley 2 rock shelter (Radley 1967) and a cropmark complex at Camp Hill, immediately south-west of Creswell (Plate 1; Fig. 7). The remaining sherds are very thinly scattered, with the exception of a cluster of three unabraded to moderately abraded Derbyshire Ware body sherds, dating from the mid-2nd to mid-4th centuries AD, which were collected from a field near the western entrance to the Creswell gorge (E102). These sherds derived from a 5m length of one transect, and could indicate a hitherto unidentified activity focus.

Markland Grips Promontory Fort

The sherd distribution shown in Fig. 6 is distorted by the use of different fieldwalking strategies in the fort interior and in the field abutting and partially overlying the ramparts. *All* surface finds were collected from the field outside the fort, whereas only a *c.* 20% sample was retrieved from the interior; hence, if allowance is made for the different sampling strategies, the density of material does not vary significantly between these areas. Stray finds of Roman coins have also been recorded from the site (Derbyshire SMR: Site 5216), while small-scale excavations by Lane in the fort interior yielded Romano-British pottery, 'large quantities' of worked bone, 'slag' and 'burnt clay', and two body sherds to which he ascribed an Iron Age date (Lane 1969, 62–63).

Fieldwalking recovered a total of 22 Romano-British sherds, all but four from the field to the west of the ramparts. The pottery from the fort interior comprises a sherd of

Derbyshire Ware, dating from the mid-2nd to mid-4th centuries AD (Dool *et al.* 1985, 116); grey ware sherds from an everted-rim jar and a bead-rim wide-mouthed jar, both longlived forms of the 2nd to 3rd and 2nd to 4th centuries respectively (cf. Buckland *et al.* 1980: Types Ea and Hc & d); and a grog-tempered sherd from a jar with a short everted rim and flattened lip, probably of the 1st century AD (cf. Dunston's Clump, Notts.: Leary 1987, 50, vessels 19 and 26; Scratta Wood, Notts.: Challis and Harding 1975, 136–37; unpublished pottery archive, R. S. Leary). The Derbyshire Ware and grog-tempered sherds are noticeably less abraded than the grey wares. This is to be expected in the case of the hard-fired Derbyshire Wares, but the fairly fresh appearance of the grog-tempered sherd suggests that it had only recently been exposed. The material from outside the fort is mainly abraded, and comprises eleven grey ware sherds, two grey grog-tempered sherds, two Derbyshire Ware sherds, two scraps of unidentifiable samian and one grey quartz and shell-tempered fragment from a storage jar or possibly from a brick. The grey ware sherds include a dish with a lipped rim and an everted-rim jar, both most common in this region in the 2nd or 3rd centuries AD (Buckland *et al.* 1980, 155, 157), while the Derbyshire Ware vessels include an everted-rim jar with internal rebate. The last is an unusual form in this fabric, and is otherwise known only from fieldwalking along the Nottinghamshire Fosse Way in a grog-tempered and a brown quartz-tempered ware of the 1st or very early 2nd century AD (Kinsley and Knight 1992; unpublished pottery archive, R. S. Leary). The quartz and shell-tempered fragment, if part of a storage jar, may be compared to material from kilns at Little London, Lincs., dated to the first half of the 3rd century AD (Buckland and Dolby 1980, 34), and is present in the Fosse Way fieldwalking collections. The grey grog-tempered ware has not yet been noted locally, but a similar ware is found in South Humberside and north Lincolnsire in the 2nd and early 3rd centuries AD (cf. Darling 1984, 86, no. 58). Thus, although small, the collection is consistent with a 2nd to 3rd century AD date range, with some activity in the 1st century AD. The abraded condition of much of the pottery suggests that it had been lying in the ploughsoil for some considerable time. Cropmarks suggestive of field boundary ditches, possibly of prehistoric or Romano-British date, have been noted in the fields to the west of the fort (Derbyshire SMR: Site 5223; NMR air photograph SK 5175/2), and although occupation may well have extended over this area, manuring could also provide an appropriate mechanism for their deposition away from the defended area.

Whaley 2 Rock Shelter

Excavations by Armstrong (1937–48) and Radley (1966) recovered a large quantity of Romano-British pottery, dated from the 1st to 4th centuries AD, and other occupation debris (including 'pot boilers' and animal bone) from the upper layers of a deposit which had accumulated above a roughly vertical rock face overlooking the Whaley Valley (Radley 1967, 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14; see especially figs. 6–7). These layers also incorporated significant quantities of prehistoric flintwork (*ibid.*, fig. 7), and, as argued by Radley (*ibid.*, 16), seem to represent material derived from activity upslope. Radley also observed a scatter of Romano-British pottery, bone and 'pot boilers' in the field immediately east of the rock shelter, spread 'sporadically over an area approximately 200 yards across, but . . . concentrated in an area 15 yards across'. Five trial pits in this area, each 1 yard square, yielded '20 [Romano-British] sherds at 12–16 inches and traces of walling' (*ibid.*,

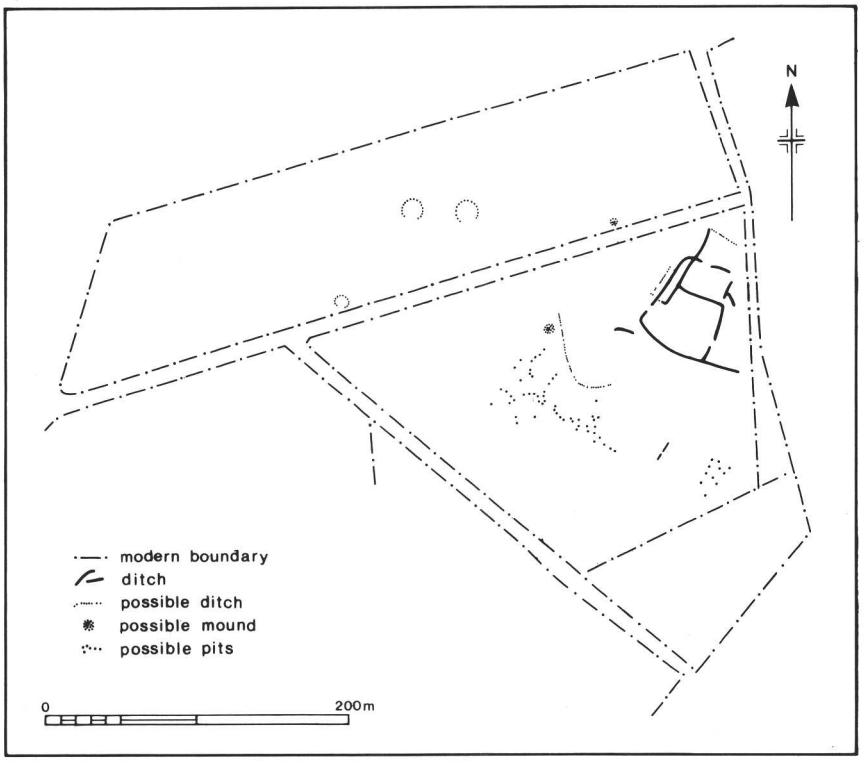


Fig. 7: Plan of cropmarks on Camp Hill (drawn by C. Cox). Scale 1:5,000.

14). In the recent systematic fieldwalking, a total of six moderately abraded to abraded pottery sherds and a calcite-gritted fragment, possibly from a tile, were recovered in the western part of the field, mostly from near the rock shelter. The pottery includes the rim of a samian bowl (Dragendorff 36); a sherd from a Derbyshire Ware cupped-rim jar dating from the mid-2nd to mid-4th centuries AD; a sherd of 'pre-Derbyshire' ware dated at Derby and Brough-on-Noe to between the 2nd and early 3rd centuries AD (Leary 1993, 120); and a deep bead-rim bowl and an everted-rim jar in grey ware, both similar in form and date to those from Markland Grips. A 2nd to 3rd century AD date range would accommodate all of the types represented, although continued activity in the 4th century cannot be excluded.

Camp Hill

Air photographs have revealed a series of cropmarks at Camp Hill, continuing north-west and south-west into adjacent fields (Plate 1; Fig. 7). The salient feature is a group of rectilinear single-ditched enclosures in the north-east corner of the field, apparently of several phases. Several other linear ditches may be observed away from this complex, together with a scatter of possible pits and at least three small curvilinear features up to *c.* 12m in diameter which could represent hut foundations. Typological comparisons suggest a later prehistoric or Romano-British occupation focus, but little artefactual evidence in support of this interpretation has so far been obtained. Roman coins have

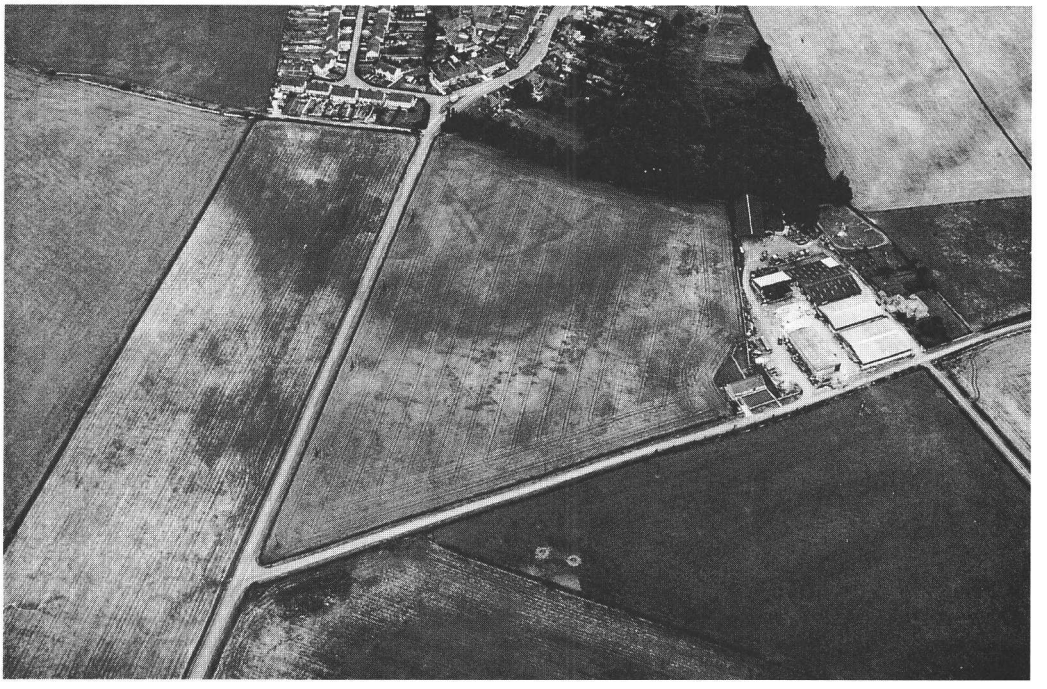


Plate 1: Cropmark complex at Camp Hill, Elmton. Photograph by C. Cox.

been reported from the site (Derbyshire SMR: Site 5226), while systematic fieldwalking yielded four moderately abraded Romano-British sherds, including one sherd of samian, a flat-rim dish in grey ware (a type most common in the 2nd to 3rd centuries AD: Buckland *et al.* 1980, 155) and two greyware sherds. The cropmarks accord the site a high rarity value in the context of the Magnesian Limestone escarpment, although it is unclear whether the poor cropmark record of the escarpment compared, for example, with the neighbouring Sherwood Sandstones (Riley 1980) reflects a genuine paucity of prehistoric and Romano-British settlement or geological factors inhibiting the formation of such traces.

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