EXCAVATIONS AT GALLOPER WIND FARM: A LATER PREHISTORIC AND ROMANO-BRITISH LANDSCAPE

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INTRODUCTION

INVESTIGATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH the onshore elements of the Galloper Wind Farm development were undertaken near the Suffolk coast, between Leiston and Sizewell, by Wessex Archaeology from 2011 to 2016 (Fig. 49). The works revealed a complex, multiphase system of conjoined enclosures, pits and a small group of cremation graves, representing the remains of an early–mid-Romano-British farmstead. Aside from a scatter of Early Iron Age pits — one of which contained an unusually large quantity of pottery and fired clay — there was little evidence of activity in other periods.

Preliminary investigations entailed the excavation of forty-two trial trenches and the monitoring of geotechnical test pits (Fig. 49).[1] These works were followed by excavation of 4.68 hectares within the footprint of the new substation, sited approximately 1km from the coast at NGR 646615 262725.[2] Finally, area excavation and monitoring of intrusive works were carried out within the cable route between the substation and the landfall site on Sizewell beach, located just south of Sizewell village at NGR 647640 262590.[3] The cable route extended some 900m west of the landfall site, parallel and to the south of Sizewell Gap — a minor road linking Leiston and Sizewell — passing through two arable fields ('east field' and 'west field') and traversing a narrow lane (Sandlings Walk). From its most westerly point in the west field (NGR 646770 262455), the cable route turned north–north-west, crossing Sizewell Gap and continued through the arable field ('north field') containing the greater part of the substation site. The land within the cable route rises from the Mean High Water (MHW) mark at the landfall site to an average height of around 5m–9m OD. As the cable route proceeds north across the north field, the land rises to approximately 10m–15m OD within the substation site.

The bedrock geology is Crag Group – Sand (Quaternary and Neogene). Superficial deposits along the coast consist of Marine Beach Deposits – Sand and Gravel (Quaternary – Holocene), whilst those recorded inland comprise Lowestoft Formation – Sand and Gravel and Lowestoft Formation – Diamicton (Quaternary – Anglian Stage).[4]

A more comprehensive descriptive and analytical account of the results of the work has been produced to accompany this report.[5] This is available via the Archaeology Data Service (ADS) and the Suffolk HER by reference to the site code LCS 161.

EXCAVATION RESULTS

All archaeologically significant features, deposits and finds, with the exception of a post-medieval halfpenny coin and two pieces of worked flint from the ploughsoil in the cable route, were confined to the substation site (Fig. 50). Consequently, the 'site' refers to this area unless otherwise stated.

FIG. 49 – Site location and plan of investigated areas.

Earlier prehistoric activity

The earliest evidence consists of a small quantity of cultural material found in clearly later or undated contexts. This includes thirty-two pieces of worked flint; the only distinctive elements of the assemblage are a broken, slightly rolled and patinated flake, which is likely to be Palaeolithic (ditch GP1866; Fig. 52), a utilised trimming flake from a blade core, probably of Early Neolithic origin, and three scrapers of indeterminate date. Abraded body sherds (23g) of flint-tempered pottery, probably Middle Neolithic Peterborough ware, were also recovered from a Romano-British enclosure ditch (GP1874; Fig. 50). Eight sherds of coarse Beaker

FIG. 50 – Plan of excavated features in the substation site.

pottery were also found together in Romano-British ditch GP1870 (Fig. 52).

No features could be correlated with a partial, concentric ring-ditch previously identified from aerial photographs (Fig. 50).[6] Whilst the putative ring-ditch may have been the result of geological variation or agricultural activity, the cropmarks could have represented the final vestiges of a highly truncated prehistoric monument, all traces of which had since been destroyed by ploughing.

Later prehistoric pits and other features

The next phase of activity, broadly dating to the Early Iron Age, was evidenced by a group of pits and other potentially associated features in the north-eastern part of the site (Fig. 51). The most significant of these was pit 1444, from which over 6kg of pottery and fired clay (including possible briquetage) was recovered. It was the largest of the pits, measuring 1.75m by 1.46m and 0.73m deep, and had almost vertical sides and a concave base. No finds came from the primary fill, although the overlying deposit, a mid-grey sand with occasional

FIG. 51 – Plan of Iron Age feature group.

charcoal inclusions, produced four sherds (11g) of pottery and forty-seven pieces of fired clay (1158g). Pottery (seven sherds, 91g) and fired clay (30g) were also retrieved from a thin lens of mixed, yellow-grey sand within this deposit. Most of the finds, however, were recovered from the overlying and uppermost layer of light grey-brown sand; this material seems consistent with deliberate dumping of waste in the top of the largely infilled pit. Bulk samples yielded a sparse assemblage of charred plant remains, including a few barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) grain fragments and seeds of oat/brome grass (*Avena/Bromus* sp.).[7]

The next largest assemblage of Iron Age material came from pit 1415, which was 0.96m by 0.80m across and 0.38m deep, with steeply sloping sides and a flattish base. Again, no finds came from the primary fill, although the uppermost, a very dark grey sand with flecks of charcoal, contained twenty-one sherds (323g) of Early Iron Age pottery and 49g of fired clay. Several smaller, shallower pits in this area also contained Early Iron Age pottery, albeit in much smaller quantities; two sherds (28g) were retrieved from pit 1445, whilst single small sherds came from pits 1475, 1478 and 1480. Twenty-one sherds (64g) of probable Early Iron Age pottery were also found in a very dark layer of grey sand with frequent charcoal inclusions that infilled a roughly 2m wide and 0.13m deep subcircular depression (1492). The origin of this feature is somewhat uncertain, although it was clearly cut by Romano-British enclosure ditch GP1874.

Another relatively large, vertically sided pit (1496; 1.80m x 1.05m, 0.53m deep) may have been of slightly later date than the others. No finds were recovered from its primary fill, but the overlying deposit, a very dark grey sand with sparse charcoal inclusions, contained six sherds (77g) of Iron Age pottery. Most of the material cannot be dated more precisely, but a single large sherd (31g) is possibly of (earlier) Middle Iron Age date.

Numerous other typically small and shallow undated pits and/or post-holes could be contemporary with the Iron Age features in this part of the site. They include a group of four undated post-holes (GP1451) that possibly formed the remains of a rectangular post-built structure measuring 1.8m by 0.75m.

Many of the pits and post-holes were distributed around a roughly subrectangular area, approximately 30m to 35m across, that was devoid of any potentially Iron Age features. This may be coincidental, although the seemingly blank area could reflect some constraint imposed by obstacles or features that left no identifiable trace, or that the space was set aside for other forms of activity (see discussion).

Other indications of activity prior to the Romano-British period are sparse and equivocal. A sherd (7g) of Early Iron Age pottery came from a small, shallow pit (1197; Fig. 50) 150m west of the other late prehistoric pits, and a few sherds of later prehistoric pottery were found residually in Romano-British ditches. The very dark, mixed fills of another possibly prehistoric pit (E3003; 1.3m in diameter and 0.36m deep) in the south-west corner of the site (Fig. 50) produced a little over 6kg of burnt flint, but no datable finds.

Several narrow and shallow (generally less than 1m wide and 0.2m deep) ditches (Fig. 50), mostly confined to the western part of the site, yielded no finds and do not obviously belong to the same phase of activity as the Romano-British enclosure system (see below). In the occasional instances where stratigraphic relationships could be determined, all were truncated by Romano-British ditches. It is tentatively suggested that the undated ditches are the fragmentary remains of an earlier field system of similar date (i.e. later Bronze Age to Iron Age) to others recorded nearby.[8] It is equally possible, however, that the ditches were of earlier Romano-British date.

The Roman farmstead

The enclosure system. The majority of the evidence from the investigations related to the system of Romano-British enclosures and a small number of associated features

(Figs 50 and 52). Although following a similar north–south alignment to the putative late prehistoric/early Romano-British field system ditches, the conjoined, rectilinear enclosures seem to have been superimposed over them arbitrarily, suggesting that they were established during a major change in the organisation and use of the land.

The complex consisted of at least nine ditched enclosures (Enclosures A–I, Fig. 50), which encompassed between 200m^2 (Enclosure A) and 4000m^2 (Enclosure F). The enclosure ditches were typically less than 1m wide and no more than 0.5m deep. Most contained

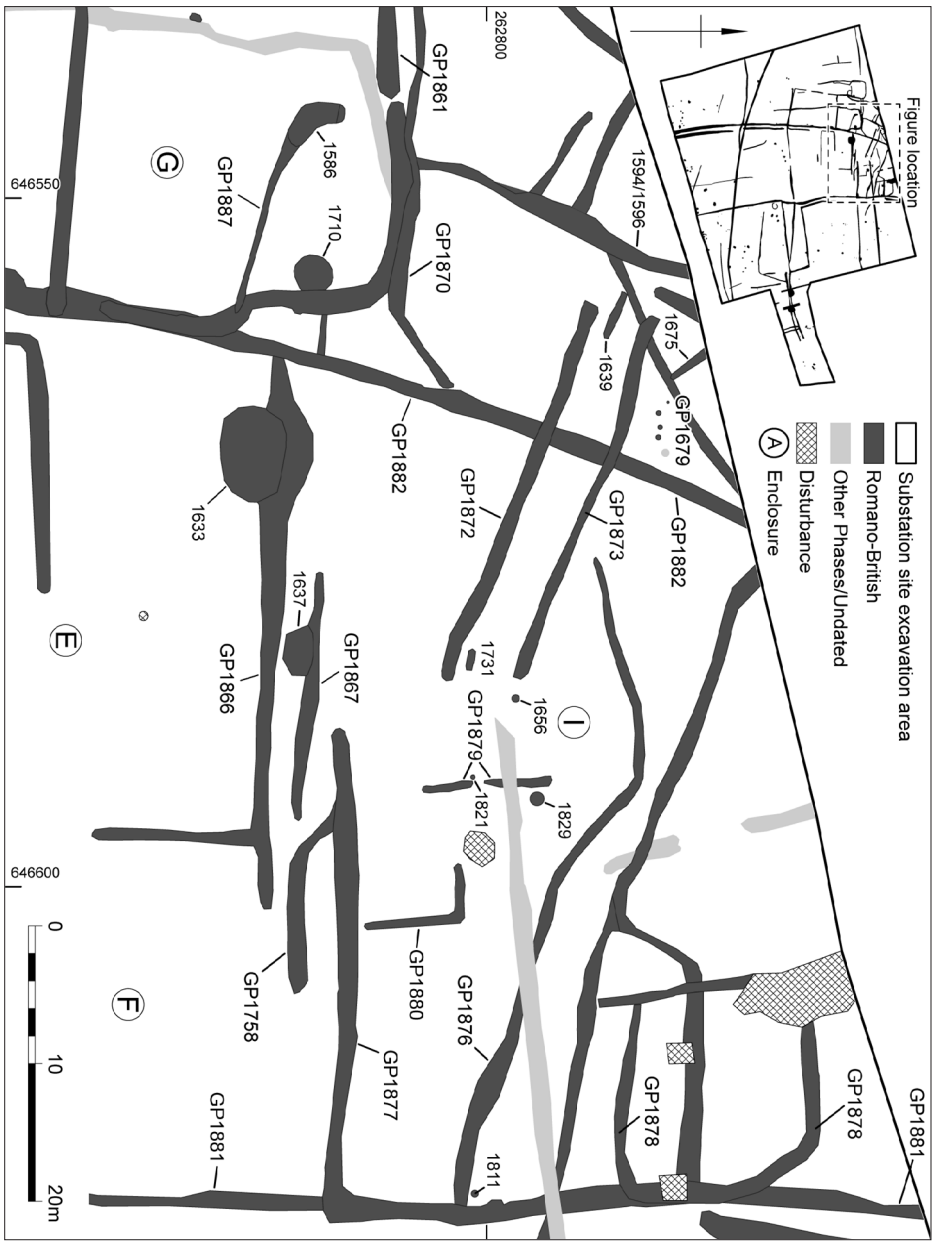

FIG. 52 – Plan of Enclosure I.

undifferentiated mid-grey-brown sandy fills, probably formed by natural processes. Indeed, continual and rapid erosion of the highly mobile sandy geology often seems to have necessitated recutting of the ditches. There was little evidence of deliberate infilling, but this may have been difficult to distinguish given the homogeneous composition of many of the ditch fills. Some of the later ditches in the northern part of the complex, however, contained probable localised dumps of waste material and mixed, darker deposits.

The finds (see below) indicate that the enclosure system was in use from the mid-/late first century through to the early/mid-third century AD, and possibly slightly beyond. There are no suggestions, however, that the site continued to be occupied or used intensively throughout the late Romano-British period.

The enclosure complex was clearly the product of several phases of maintenance, extension and alteration, as the ditches were often recut, sometimes on slightly different alignments, and/or superimposed over earlier ones. Unfortunately, it is not possible to precisely resolve the sequence in which the individual enclosures were created, used, altered and eventually became redundant. This is partially because stratigraphic relationships were frequently difficult to distinguish due to the similarity of the ditch fills. Periodic alterations and recutting of the ditches also casts doubts on any proposed phasing. In addition, the pottery from the ditches (approximately 6kg in total), was not distributed evenly; much of the material came from just a few excavated sections in the north-western part of the complex, with only small quantities deriving from other areas of the enclosure system. The chronologically undiagnostic character of some of this material (e.g. featureless body sherds and long-lived fabrics), combined with the potential for residuality, intrusiveness and curation, present further obstacles to understanding the development of the enclosure complex.

Nevertheless, it can be surmised that certain elements of the enclosure system were established early in the sequence. Examples include ditches GP1881 and GP1882 (Fig. 50), which had been recut several times and evidently defined the principal axes of the complex, and influenced the layout or formed parts of Enclosures C–I and possibly B. Enclosures A and B, which were overlain by Enclosures G and C respectively, must also be relatively early components. However, many of the enclosures were probably in existence and maintained over a prolonged period. The ditches defining Enclosures C and F, for example, had been recut on multiple occasions, whilst the datable finds from pits and ditches associated with Enclosure I (Fig. 52 and see below) suggest that this part of the complex was comparatively long-lived. The relative abundance of finds from Enclosures G, H and, especially, I seems to indicate that they were used intensively during the second and third centuries AD. Enclosures C, E and F were probably also in use at this time.

The types and quantities of the finds from the ditches and other contemporary features are typical of those from rural sites of the period. Whilst providing no indication of any distinctive forms of activity on site (e.g. relating to zones used for crafts, industry or processing), the overall distribution of this material, much of it deriving from contexts within and around Enclosure I, is potentially significant (see below).

The sparse assemblages of charred plant remains from the Romano-British ditches and pits are reflective of general settlement waste and provide little evidence for any distinct forms of activities associated with the enclosure system. Cereal remains included occasional barley grain fragments and hulled wheat, emmer or spelt (*Triticum dicoccum/spelta*), grain and glume base fragments. Also present in small quantities were seeds of vetch/wild pea (*Vicia/Lathyrus* sp.), oat/brome grass, meadow grass/cat's-tails (*Poa/Phleum* sp.) and runch (*Raphanus raphanistrum*), weed species typical of those found in grassland, field margins and arable environments. A few seeds of dock (*Rumex* sp.), a sloe (*Prunus spinosa*) stone and hazelnut (*Corylus avellana*) shell fragments were also identified, possibly indicating some

exploitation of neighbouring hedgerow/scrub/woodland environments as a wild food resource. Further details relating to the palaeoenvironmental evidence can be found in the archive report.[9]

Whilst the enclosures presumably reflect the differentiation of spaces used for a variety of activities, it is difficult to ascribe a specific function to many of them. However, the form of several examples, such as Enclosures A, C, D, and H, suggests that they were used as animal pens and for stock control. Several sets of closely spaced parallel ditches associated with the enclosures can perhaps be characterised as droveways, drafting races or funnelled entrances used to segregate livestock and control the movement of animals between enclosures and the surrounding pasture lands (Fig. 50). Some of these were linked with gaps in the enclosure ditches, probably representing stock gates, as at the north-west corner of Enclosure C. Animal bone was, however, scarce and poorly preserved, with a total of just 1.57kg recovered, almost all of which came from two pits in Enclosure I (see below).

Other elements of the enclosure complex may have defined smaller storage or 'working' areas. These could include C-shaped ditch GP1878 (in Enclosure I) and a pair of open-ended 'subcompartments' (Enclosure E) in the north-west corner of Enclosure F. The latter of these contained a possible working hollow (1633; Fig. 52), some 7.5m by 5m across and 0.2m deep, from which ten sherds (104g) of Romano-British pottery were retrieved. A similar amorphous hollow (1637), around 2.5m wide and 0.2m deep, was found a few metres east of 1633. Its upper fill produced pottery (four sherds, 150g) attributable to the first to third centuries AD, including a large fragment (134g) of North Gaulish mortaria.

It seems reasonable to speculate that Enclosure I (Fig. 52) formed part of an inhabited area, or that it lay on the edge of a domestic site just beyond the northern limit of the excavation; the bulk of the finds came from this area, and the only real concentration of Romano-British pits was found in and around the enclosure (see below). Although inconclusive, possible traces of structures were also identified in this part of the site. The enclosure had undergone extensive alterations and elaboration throughout its period of use. Its southern side was defined by a series of parallel ditches (GP1758, GP1866, GP1867 and GP1877), which seem to have formed a complex entrance. Their fills contained pottery (twenty-four sherds, 450g) attributable to the first to third centuries AD, along with fired clay (95g) and a piece of CBM (455g). Ditches GP1887 and 1594/1596, which produced just two sherds (20g) of pottery, possibly formed an extension or a separate small, subrectangular enclosure appended to the western side of Enclosure I. This does not seem to have been in use at the same time as Enclosure G, although the stratigraphic sequence could not be determined.

Several other ditches crossed the interior of Enclosure I (Fig. 52). Some appear to have formed subdivisions, although others are of uncertain function. Of note are ditches GP1872 and GP1873, which extended for 30m, cutting across the ditch forming the western side of Enclosure I (GP1882). Although their function is not immediately apparent, they are probably amongst the latest elements of the enclosure system. Relatively large and mixed assemblages of cultural material, consistent with dumping of waste or inadvertent accumulation of occupation debris, were recovered from the very dark fills of these ditches. Forty-three sherds (265g) of pottery (predominantly of second- to early/mid-third-century AD date), a piece of CBM (94g) and three fragments of quern stone (2041g) came from the eastern terminal of GP1873, whilst the terminals of GP1872 produced 100 sherds (1167g) of second- to early/mid-third-century pottery, fired clay (423g), animal bone (68g), a fragmentary oyster shell (8g), eleven pieces of stone from at least two querns or millstones, and five iron objects; a nail, a curved shank, two strip fragments and a plate with two rivets.

Large collections of cultural material — presumably representing localised dumps of waste — also came from two other slots excavated through the enclosure ditches. The dark fills of

GP1861, which defined the northern side of Enclosure G (Fig. 50), yielded 133 sherds (1016g) of pottery, dating from the second to early/mid-third centuries AD, including sherds from a round-bellied jar/bowl, a triangular-rimmed bowl/dish, a bead rim bowl/dish and a Nene Valley colour-coated ware indented beaker. Wear patterns, particularly on the underside of bases, indicate that the vessels had been well used before deposition. Animal bone (7g), fired clay (30g), a small fragment of blue-green window glass (2g), two pieces of quern stone, three iron nails and parts of a hinge and joiner's dog also came from this ditch. A smaller quantity of pottery (seventy-six sherds, 609g), including material of potentially second- to fourth-century date, and eleven pieces of CBM (520g) were retrieved from a section excavated close to the terminal of ditch GP1860, at the south-eastern edge of Enclosure H (Fig. 50). Little artefactual material was found in other parts of the enclosure system.

Pits. Six pits within and around Enclosure I (Fig. 52) produced Romano-British cultural material. These were generally less than 1m in diameter, between 0.15m and 0.5m deep, and often contained mixed, dark deposits suggesting that they had been deliberately infilled or used to dump waste. The largest single group of Romano-British pottery (seventy-nine sherds, 2029g) came from pit 1829. The large, well-preserved sherds (average 25.7g) include pieces from three jars (Fig. 55.13 and 15), a bowl with a frilled flange rim (Fig. 55.14) and two long-necked, round-bodied beakers, all in greyware fabrics and of late first- or early second-century AD date. This pit also contained fired clay (528g), CBM fragments (91g) and animal bone (7g). Pit 1731 produced the greatest quantity of animal bone from the site (943g; mainly from sheep/goat and cattle), along with a small amount of fired clay (23g) and sixty-four sherds (938g) of pottery, predominantly of second- to mid-third-century AD date. Five sherds (49g) of pottery were found in a pit 1811, a small feature with a charcoal-rich fill, whilst pit 1656 produced just a single sherd (6g), but also yielded the second largest assemblage of animal bone; 513g, again, mostly from sheep/goat and cattle. Fired clay (99g) and pottery (seventy-six sherds, 763g), of second- to mid-third-century AD date, were recovered from a possible elongated pit or ditch segment, 1639, a little west of Enclosure I. A few sherds (57g) of second-century or later pottery were also retrieved from a small shallow pit (1664; not illustrated) cut into the eastern terminal of ditch GP1861, on the northern side of Enclosure G (Fig. 52).

Two other small pits in the south-eastern part of the site, away from the core of the enclosure complex (Fig. 50), contained pottery of first-century date. Pit 1175 produced sherds from a single, well-used jar/bowl belonging to the middle decades of the century (Fig. 54.8), whilst the charcoal-rich fills of pit 1272, a little further to the north and within Enclosure B, yielded eighty-one sherds (397g), including rims from three greyware jars and an oxidised butt beaker, as well as tiny pieces of calcined animal bone (6g; buff-white/grey in colour with signs of erosion).

Numerous pits, often small and shallow with undistinctive grey-brown sandy fills, were scattered across other parts of the excavation area, particularly along its southern edge (Fig. 50). Virtually no finds were recovered from them and, consequently, it is unclear whether they were contemporary with the enclosure system. A few other, mostly relatively large and deep pits were scattered within and around the north-western parts of the enclosure system (e.g., 1573 and 1710, both of which were cut by the ditches of Enclosure G, as well as 1301, 1520 and 1586; Figs 50 and 52); none contained finds, although they may have been of similar date to the enclosures.

Possible structural features. Enclosure I contained an L-shaped gully GP1880 (Fig. 52), which was around 0.5m wide and up to 0.15m deep. It measured 7m (north–south) by 4m (east–

west). Five sherds (78g) of first–third-century pottery and a large piece of CBM (442g) came from its single fill. It was possibly associated with two short sections of gully (GP1879), a few metres to the west, that were of roughly the same proportions and followed a similar orientation. These were infilled with a much darker and slightly mixed deposit, from which pottery (twenty-four sherds, 259g) and tiny fragments of animal bone and fired clay were retrieved. A single sherd (9g) of pottery also came from a solitary, 0.11m deep post-hole (1821) between the two sections of GP1879. Although possibly relating to a small sub-enclosure, the features could represent the truncated remains of one or more rectangular structures constructed using sill-beams.

Just to the west of Enclosure I were four closely spaced post-holes (GP1679; Fig. 52), each approximately 0.4m in diameter and up to 0.3m deep. Two produced pottery (five sherds, 46g), probably dating from the second century AD. They were arranged in a slightly irregular line and may have formed the remains of a structure such as a fence, rack/frame or windbreak.

The only other potentially structural feature was a small, undated penannular ditch/gully (GP1885) within, and possibly contemporary with, Enclosure B (Fig. 50). This was up to 0.85m wide, just 0.1m deep, and enclosed a slightly irregular flattened/ovoid area measuring some 5.2m by 4m. It may have been a structural component of a circular building rather than, for example, a drainage gully or part of a prehistoric monument. If so, the structure would have been of modest proportions, perhaps indicating that it fulfilled an ancillary rather than domestic function. Alternatively, the ditch/gully could have formed a small enclosure.

Mortuary activity. Three cremation graves (T604, 1004 and 1401) containing the remains of urned burials were found, apparently on the margin of the enclosure complex, in the extreme eastern part of the site (Fig. 50). Cremated human bone was also recovered from a fourth feature (1411) in this area and, whilst some or all of this material may have been redeposited, it probably represents the remains of an unurned burial. The graves (0.20–0.40m in diameter) formed two pairs (each 2.0m–3.75m apart), set within about 10m of each other. All exhibited signs of bioturbation and had suffered horizontal truncation, with surviving depths of between 0.03m (grave T604) and 0.15m (grave 1004).

The greyware jars used for burial were placed upright in the graves. All were fragmented and the upper parts of those from T604 and 1401 had been lost to truncation. The cordoned jar with an everted rim from grave 1004 is of late first- to mid-second-century AD date. Sherds from a greyware lid (Fig. 54.7) were also found in this grave; both vessels are of the same diameter and may have been used as a pair. An iron nail and 'rod' — perhaps grave/pyre goods — were recovered from grave 1401 and five sherds (48g) of pottery, including two Romano-British jar rims, were found, probably residually, with the unurned burial remains in grave 1411. A sample of the cremated human bone from the unurned burial returned a calibrated radiocarbon date of AD 90–250 (SUERC-90839, 1830±24 BP).[10] Given their proximity, all four burials are assumed to be broadly contemporaneous. The principal results of the analysis of the cremated bone are presented below. Further details are provided in the archive report.[11]

Post-Roman evidence

There is virtually no evidence for activity on the site following the abandonment of the enclosure system. Post-Roman finds were limited to single sherds of Late Saxon Thetford-type ware (31g) and post-medieval redware (13g), as well as a post-medieval halfpenny coin with the letters J or T and P scratched into the obverse face, all recovered from the ploughsoil. The only definitively post-Roman features, except a few localised areas of modern disturbance, were associated with two recently removed field boundaries, which can be correlated with land divisions shown on the first edition Ordnance Survey map.

The works uncovered no remains associated with the extensive networks of anti-invasion defences erected along the coast during the Second World War. This was largely due to the application of trenchless methods to install the cabling from the beach to the east field, which avoided exposure or disturbance to any surviving remains. Other forms of contemporary activity relating to documented military training and anti-aircraft sites surrounding the substation site either did not lie within the excavated areas, or had left no physical trace.

THE FINDS

Pottery (Amy Thorp and Rachael Seager Smith)
Detailed fabric and form analysis were undertaken in accordance with national guidelines.[12] Fabric quantifications are presented in Tables 1 and 3, with full descriptions of the prehistoric wares given in Appendix 1.

Fabric code	No. of sherds	Weight (g)	% sherds	MSW (g)
Early prehistoric				
Flint-tempered - F1	2	23	0.8	11.5
Grog-tempered - G1	8	133	3.4	16.6
Iron Age				
Quartz sand and flint				
QF1	101	1671	43	16.5
QF2	33	920	14	27.9
QF3	16	127	6.8	7.9
QF4	10	105	4.3	10.5
Quartz sand and organics				
QV1	22	243	9.4	11
QV2	31	604	13.2	19.5
Quartz sand				
Q2	3	51	1.3	17
Prehistoric				
Quartz sand and flint - QF99	3	19	1.3	6.3
Quartz sand - Q1	4	8	1.7	2
Grog - G2	2	8	0.8	4
Total	**235**	**3912**	**100**	**16.8**

TABLE 1 – Quantification of prehistoric pottery fabric types.

Prehistoric. The prehistoric pottery came from fifteen features, but only pit 1444 contained more than twenty-five sherds. It is moderately well-preserved with a relatively high mean sherd weight (16.8g) and low levels of abrasion. It is almost entirely of Iron Age date with just ten residual early prehistoric sherds.

Iron Age. With the exception of a piece from a globular bowl (pit 1496), diagnostic sherds occurred only in the two largest groups, pits 1415 (twenty-one sherds, 373g) and 1444 (161 sherds, 3159g); all other features contained fewer than ten body sherds.

Three ware groups, encompassing seven individual fabrics, were identified (Table 1 and Appendix 1). Sand and flint-tempered (QF1–QF4, 72 per cent by count) and sand and organic-tempered (QV1–QV2, 23 per cent by count) wares form the principal categories, with the third group, comprising a single sandy fabric (Q2), represented by just three body sherds (pit 1415). Differences between fabrics in the principal groups are minor, concentrating on marginal variations in the size and frequency of inclusions, and most of the sand and flint-tempered fabrics also contain small amounts of organic material. This comprised coarse grass or straw, probably incorporated as animal dung, evidenced by the consistent length (*c.*5mm) of the surviving voids. Both natural variability in the clay resources and the 'small batch' nature of the household production typical of the period would account for this continuum in fabric composition.

Nine rims were separated into six forms: a jar (R1), three bowls (R2–4) and two unidentifiable forms (R5 and R6), represented by pieces broken just below the rim (Table 2). The globular bowl (Fig. 53.6) remains unparalleled, but appears to be of Middle Iron Age date. The other forms bear strong similarities with flint-tempered vessels from West Harling.[13] One of the shouldered jars (Fig. 53.3) has the characteristic 'cabled' rim and the irregularly formed cabled rims (R6; not illustrated) may also be from broadly comparable, perhaps poorly manufactured, forms. Bowls with rounded (Fig. 53.4) and angular/carinated (Figs 53.2 and 53.5) shoulders are also common at West Harling.[14]

Vessel form		**QF1**	**QF2**	**QF3**	**QF4**	**QV1**	**Total**
R1	Shouldered jar, short neck and flattened rim top (sometimes cabled)	2					**2**
R2	Round shouldered bowl, upright expanded rim			1			**1**
R3	Shouldered bowl, slightly concave neck and rounded to flattened rim				1	1	**2**
R4	Globular bowl, short out-turned rim					1	**1**
R5	Flattened, externally expanded rim	1					**1**
R6	Irregularly formed cabled rim	1	1				**2**
Total		**4**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	**9**

TABLE 2 – Iron Age vessel forms by fabric type (number of rim sherds).

Decoration is limited to the fingertip or nail impressions used to create the cabled rims, but a wider range of surface treatments (wiping using coarse vegetable matter, carelessly executed finger-smearing and burnishing) are apparent. Wiping is seen on all fabric groups but occurs in combination with finger-smearing only on the sand and organic-tempered wares (including several externally pinched bases). Burnishing, on both surfaces of the shouldered bowls (R2 and R3), as well as a plain base and body sherds potentially from bowls, was undertaken with reasonable care. The finer finish of these open forms is again consistent with the West Harling groups, and one vessel (Fig. 53.2) may have the fine slip mentioned.[15]

In addition to the poorly formed cabled rims (R6), other features of this assemblage attest to very rough workmanship. Fabrics are frequently laminated, while coil joints and joints

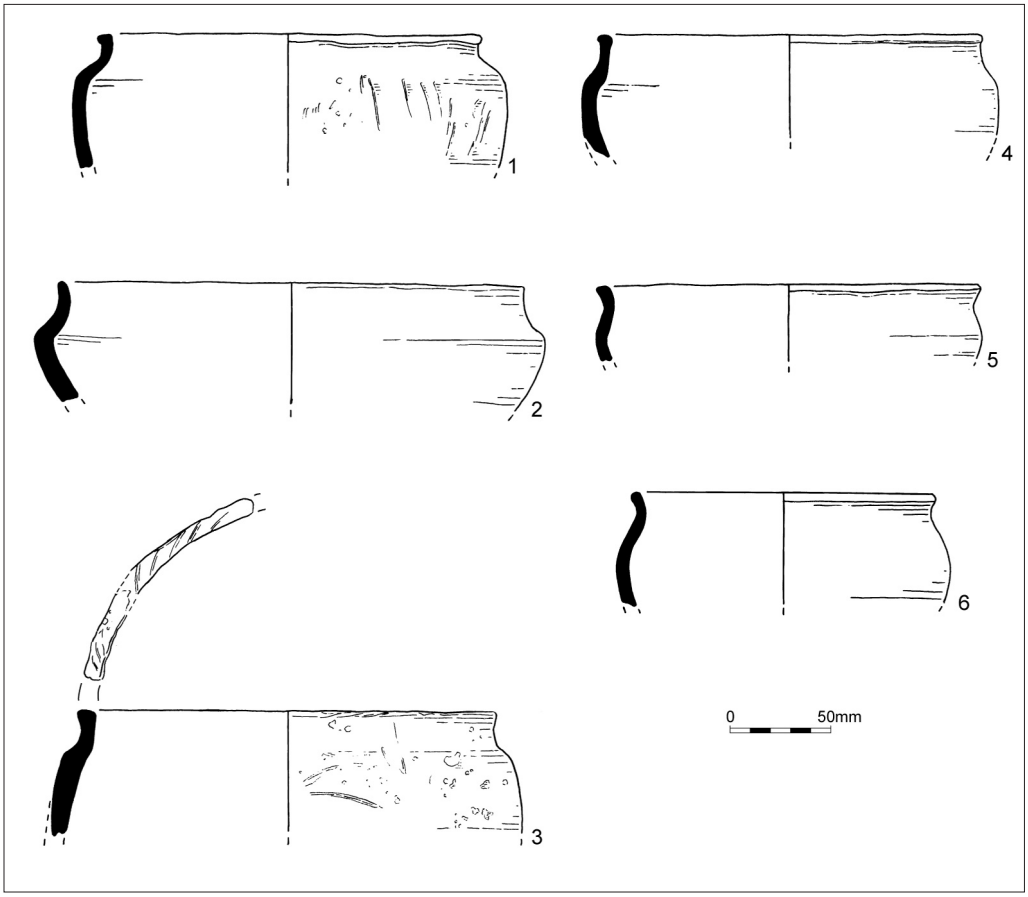

FIG. 53 – Pottery nos 1–6.

between elements of the vessel (e.g. base to lower walls, especially on the externally pinched bases) are poorly fixed, resulting in cracking and separation. A high proportion of sherds in both principal wares (e.g. fabrics QV2 and QF2: 77 per cent and 87 per cent by count, 98 per cent and 91 per cent by weight respectively) are hard fired and fully oxidised.

Many sherds, especially those from pit 1444, are also discoloured. One shouldered jar has a concentrated band of pink/white/lilac on the interior, while others (fabrics QF1, QF2, QF4 and QV2) have white coatings on the exterior and occasional pink/lilac patches on surfaces and breaks. These colours are typical of vessels used in salt production, although the use of estuarine clays or brackish water during manufacturing might produce similar effects.[16] While the vessel forms are not those typically associated with briquetage, their coincidence with fired clay oven furniture in pit 1444 and the coastal location of the site may suggest that at least some of them were utilised as such. In coastal areas, a crossover between pottery and briquetage fabrics is not uncommon and both types were probably made by the same individuals.[17] It should be noted, however, that no *in situ* evidence for salt production (e.g. hearths or channels) was encountered during these excavations.

Overall, the assemblage is consistent with the Earliest Iron Age to Early Iron Age ceramic traditions of the region. The use of flint as the predominant temper is typical of this period in

Suffolk, with the shift to sandy wares occurring during the Middle Iron Age.[18] The vessel forms share similarities with West Harling's Earliest Iron Age groups, dating between 800–600/500 BC, although a radiocarbon date (550–380 cal. BC) suggests this decorated ware tradition continued well into the Early Iron Age.[19]

Romano-British. Seventy features contained Romano-British pottery. A breakdown of the wares is shown in Table 3. Sherds survive in variable condition, with some (e.g. from graves T604 and 1004) showing significant surface abrasion. Sherds from pits (mean sherd weight 15g) are larger than those from ditches (8.5g), although several semi-complete vessels from pit 1829 are largely responsible for this disparity.

Ware	**No. of sherds**	**Weight (g)**	**% sherds**	**MSW (g)**
Imported wares				
Samian	2	14	0.2	7
North Gaulish mortarium	1	134	0.1	134
Sub-total	*3*	*148*	*0.3*	*49.3*
British finewares				
Nene valley colour-coated ware	12	33	1.1	2.7
Pakenham colour-coated ware	3	9	0.3	3
Sub-total	*15*	*42*	*1.4*	*2.8*
British coarsewares				
Micaceous sandy greywares	807	8017	69.7	9.9
Black-surfaced reduced ware	149	1941	12.8	13
Gritty greyware	127	1720	11	13.5
Grog-tempered ware	3	273	0.2	91
Sand and organic-tempered ware	4	25	0.3	6.25
Colchester Black-burnished ware 2	2	47	0.2	23.5
East Anglian reduced ware	1	64	0.1	64
Oxidised ware	46	214	4.0	4.6
Sub-total	*1139*	*12,301*	*98.3*	*10.8*
Total	**1157**	**12,491**	**100**	**10.8**

TABLE 3 – Romano-British ware types by number and weight.

Continental imports comprise two sherds of Samian (ditch GP1878 and pit 1829) and a base from a North Gaulish mortarium (hollow 1637), all of first- to second-century AD date. The condition of the Samian is poor; one sherd is a tiny, probably South Gaulish, scrap, while the other is a heavily burnt Central Gaulish dish rim.

Eleven of the Nene Valley sherds derive from a long-necked, indented beaker with barbotine scale decoration, of late second- to early third-century AD date (Enclosure G, ditch GP1861).[20] The Pakenham colour-coated wares are represented by small body sherds from an indented beaker (ditch GP1873 and pit 1731); production may have started at the end of the second century AD, but a later, third- to fourth-century AD date, is generally offered for these wares.[21]

Reduced coarsewares represent 94 per cent of the sherds. Production is well documented in

the region, particularly during the mid-first to second centuries AD.[22] Muscovite mica is common in Suffolk pottery and a feature of the Hacheston and Leiston material.[23] Although the black-surfaced and gritty greywares form part of this overall micaceous greyware group, their distinctive appearance has permitted their separation (Table 3); both remain unsourced but occur in other local assemblages.[24]

The vessel forms span a wide date range. Jars and bowls predominate, with smaller numbers of straight-sided dishes, lids and beakers; more specialist types include a well-preserved cheese press (Fig. 54.11) and a mortarium base (ditch 1639). Early (mid-first- to early second-century AD) types include upright necked jars with everted, sometimes slightly undercut, bead rims (e.g. Fig. 55.13), made at both Hacheston and Stowmarket.[25] These are particularly common

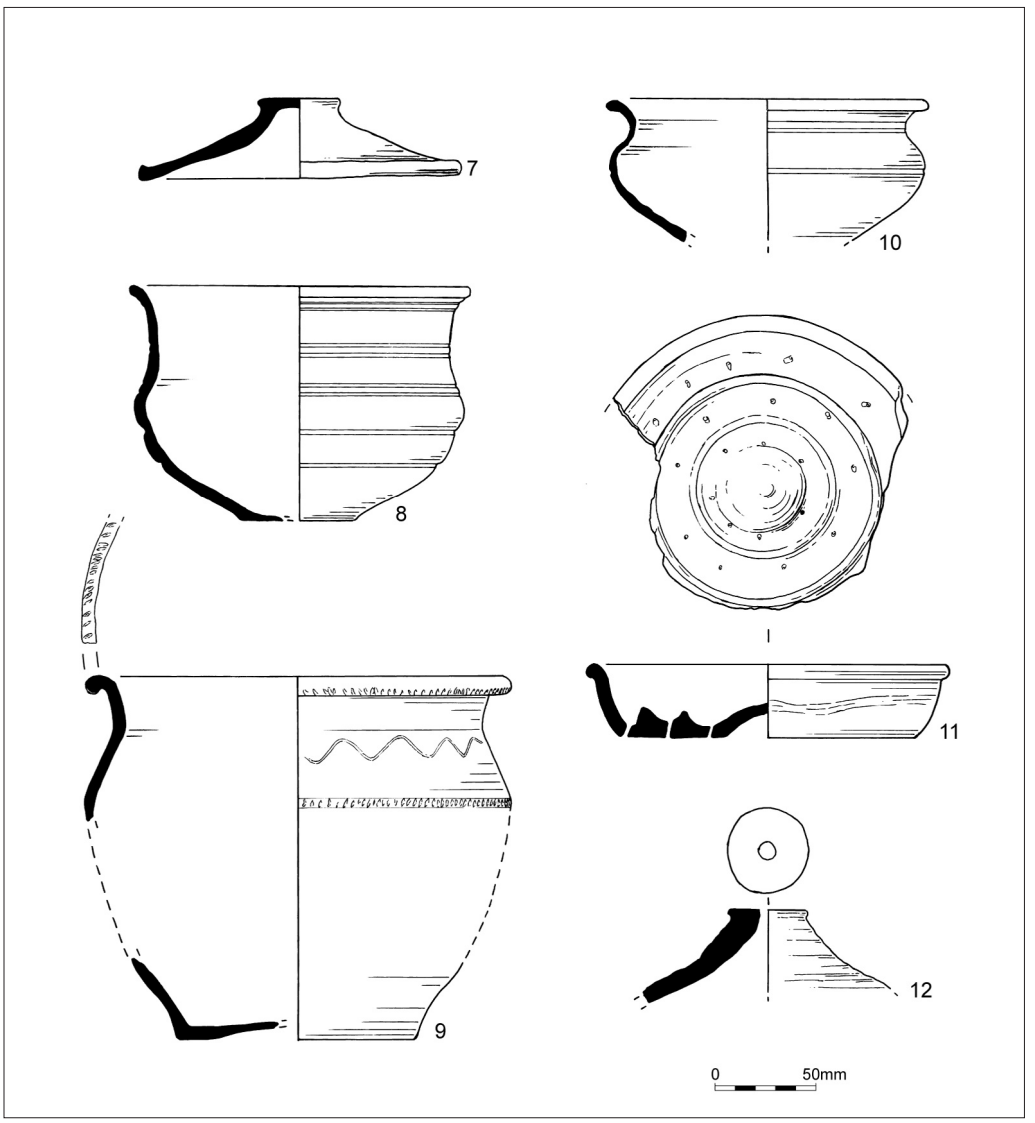

FIG. 54 – Pottery nos 7–12.

among the gritty greywares. A deep carinated jar/bowl (Fig. 54.8) paralleled at Hacheston fits within the smaller size range for this form and belongs within the middle decades of the first century.[26] Less common jar forms include necked vessels, a lid-seated variant and large storage types, while a carinated bowl (Fig. 54.9),[27] a Gallo-Belgic style platter (ditch GP1877) and two long-necked, round-bodied beakers (pit 1829) may also belong within this period.

Pit 1731 and ditches GP1860, GP1861 and GP1873 contained round-bellied jars/bowls with a girth groove (e.g. Fig. 54.10), a long-lived type dating from the second to fourth centuries AD.[28] Rounded/bead rim bowls or dishes and straight-sided dishes are also relatively common, preferentially occurring in the black-surfaced fabric. Reminiscent of Dorset black-burnished wares, these are most common during the second and early third centuries AD, whilst the dishes continue into the fourth century AD.[29]

The minority wares (Table 3) include oxidised sherds, probably of local manufacture; diagnostic pieces are limited to an early Roman butt beaker rim (pit 1272) and a cordoned jar shoulder decorated with diagonal slashes (gully GP1867). The grog-tempered wares include two storage jar rims of first- to third-century AD date, while the sand and organic-tempered sherds (ditch GP1860) are probably from a single, local vessel.[30] Regional wares are limited to a well-worn base from an East Anglian mortarium (ditch 1639) of third- or, more probably, fourth-century AD date, and two sherds of Colchester black-burnished ware (ditches GP1872 and GP1873).[31]

Overall, the composition of the assemblage is consistent with small-scale domestic occupation, with associated funerary activity on the outskirts of the settlement. It is dominated by local, utilitarian, kitchen-type wares mostly from the Hacheston kilns, although limited access to continental and regionally imported vessels is evident.[32] Diagnostic material indicates a date range extending from the mid-/late first century to the early/mid-third century AD, with a handful of later pieces, such as the East Anglian mortarium.

Illustrated vessels

Prehistoric pottery (Fig. 53)

1. Shouldered jar with short neck and flattened rim top (R1); fabric QF1; pit 1415, context 1417, PRN 6.
2. Shouldered bowl with slightly concave neck and rounded to flattened rim (R3); fabric QF4; pit 1444, context 1442, PRN 36.
3. Shouldered jar with short neck and flattened cabled rim top (R1); fabric QF1; pit 1444, context 1442, PRN 38.
4. Round-shouldered bowl with upright expanded rim (R2); fabric QF3; pit 1444, context 1442, PRN 46.
5. Shouldered bowl with slightly concave neck and rounded to flattened rim (R3); fabric QV1; pit 1444, context 1442, PRN 49.
6. Globular bowl with short out-turned rim (R4); fabric QV1; pit 1496, context 1500, PRN 29.

Romano-British pottery (Figs. 54 and 55)

7. Lid; greyware; urned burial 1004, context 1006.
8. Deep cordoned and carinated jar or bowl; greyware; pit 1175, context 1177.
9. Carinated bowl with deep concave neck; black-surfaced reduced ware; ditch GP1872, cut 1619, context 1620.
10. Round-bellied jar or bowl with girth groove; greyware; ditch GP1873, cut 1654, context 1655.
11. Cheese press; greyware; ditch 1675, context 1676.

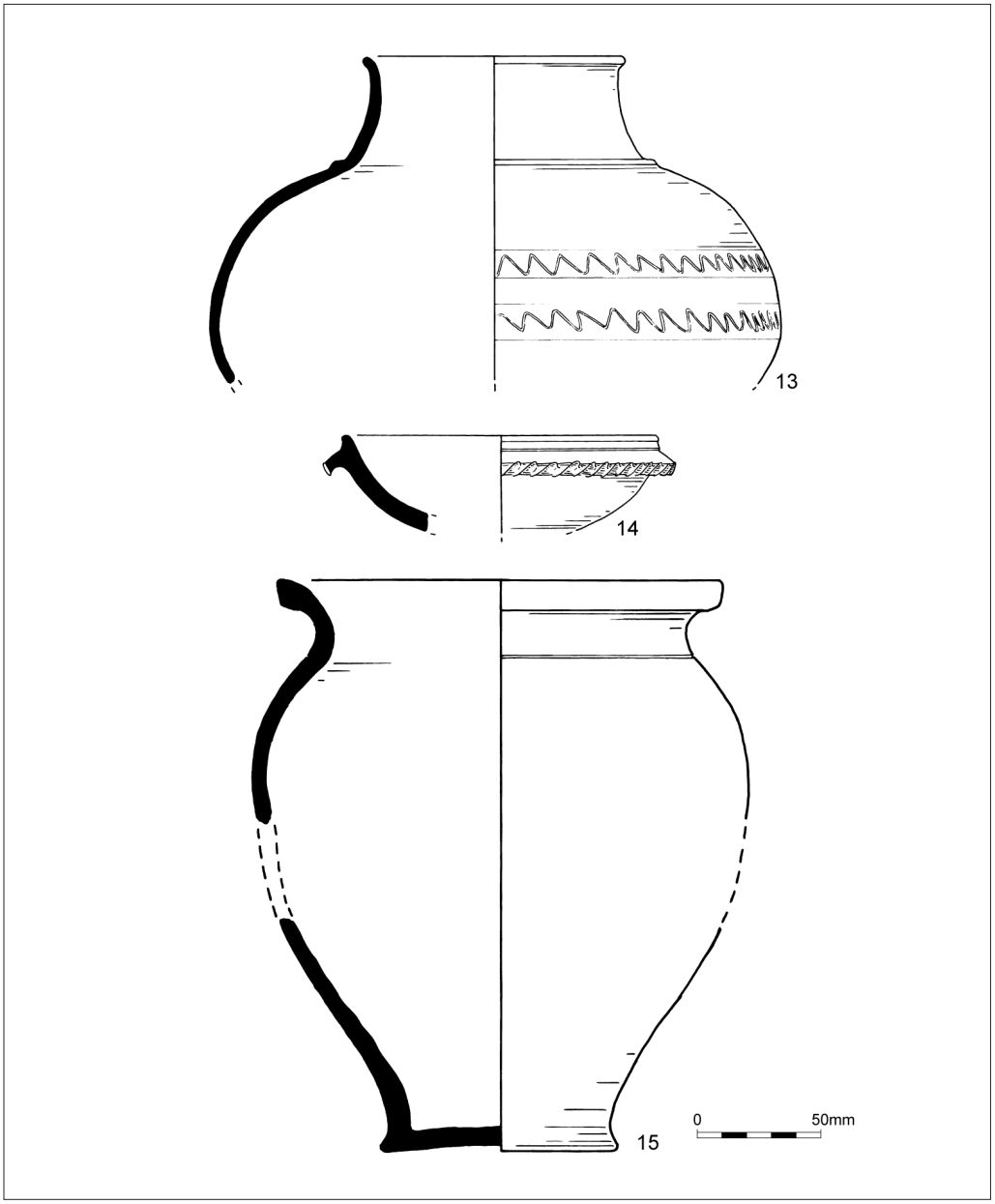

FIG. 55 – Pottery nos 13–15.

12. Lid with post-firing perforation; greyware; ditch GP1877, cut 1803, context 1804.
13. Narrow neck jar with slightly beaded rim; greyware; pit 1829, context 1831.
14. Shallow bowl with frilled flange rim; greyware; pit 1829, context 1831.
15. Necked jar with everted beaded rim; greyware; pit 1829, context 1831.

Fired clay (Amy Thorp, Grace Perpetua Jones and Rachael Seager Smith)
Small quantities (generally less than 100g) were recovered from twenty-four features and deposits. Most are abraded, featureless pieces, probably derived from structures or oven/hearth linings. Fabric descriptions are provided in Appendix 2.

Early Iron Age pit 1444 contained 220 pieces (4949g), including oven furniture, as well as abraded pieces probably of structural origin. Most are in a sandy, oxidised fabric with organic and flint inclusions (Fabric A), with a small proportion in a paler fabric with carbonate rock fragments (Fabric B). Some 'salt' discolouration, like that evident on pottery from this feature, is apparent, especially among the Fabric A material. Many fragments with surviving surfaces derive from roughly smoothed, handmade pedestals, bars or other types of oven supports with triangular, subrectangular or circular cross-sections. Although none of these pieces display the extensive bleaching seen on pedestals from definite salt production sites, it is possible that they were used to support vessels or troughs during the evaporation process.[33]

Corner fragments from perforated triangular objects came from Romano-British ditches GP1844 and GP1877 (Fabrics C and D respectively). These items are common in Iron Age contexts, remaining current well into the second century AD.[34] Traditionally interpreted as loom weights used in textile weaving, it is now considered more probable that they represent hearth/oven furniture.[35]

Other finds (Phil Harding, Amy Thorp, Grace Perpetua Jones and Rachael Seager Smith)
The thirty-two prehistoric worked flints were mostly made from local, rounded flint pebbles. Apart from the possible Palaeolithic flake (ditch GP1866), all are unpatinated and in mint condition. Diagnostic pieces include an early Neolithic trimming flake from a blade core and an early prehistoric scraper (ploughsoil, west field), a Beaker period thumbnail scraper (ditch GP1861), and a larger, end scraper (topsoil, substation excavation area). The remainder are flakes of later Neolithic or Bronze Age date. Burnt flint (pit E3003 [6181g] and ditches GP1854 [10g] and GP1852 [23g]) is intrinsically undatable, but generally interpreted as indicative of prehistoric activity.

Romano-British ceramic building material (twenty-nine pieces, 3403g) includes two pieces from *tegulae* roof-tiles (ditch 1876) and plain, flat fragments (32–43mm thick) from smaller, thinner bricks (*bessales*, *pedalis* or *lydion*), predominantly used in hypocausts or lacing/bonding courses in walls.[36] Iron fixings and fittings comprise eight nails (Manning's type 1B;[37] grave 1401, pit 1639 and ditches GP1857, GP1861 and GP1882), parts of a possible hinge and a joiner's dog (ditch GP1861), a holdfast, a riveted sheet metal plate fragment, two strips, and a nail shank (ditch GP1872). None are closely datable, but all came from Romano-British contexts.

Millstone Grit querns were imported from Derbyshire or south Yorkshire during this period, although it is feasible they arrived as fragments, perhaps as building or sharpening stones.[38] Eleven pieces (7194g) from ditch GP1872 probably derive from two stones (ten are 40–45mm thick, but one is thicker at 50mm), both around 800mm in diameter and, therefore, probably mechanically operated millstones. Two fragments (1214g) of a similar thickness came from ditch GP1873, while those from ditch GP1861 (1014g) are thicker (72mm). Scored lines creating a T-shape on the upper surface of one of the latter stones may indicate its reuse for sharpening once broken. Other items of Romano-British date include a scrap of blue/green window glass (ditch GP1861), and the left valve of an oyster shell (ditch GP1872).

Cremated human bone and aspects of the mortuary rite (Jacqueline I. McKinley)
Cremated human bone was recovered from four Romano-British contexts including the *in situ* remains of three urned burials and a probable unurned burial. The graves were all found on

the eastern margin of the area of investigation where they formed two closely located pairs (each 2.0–3.75m apart) set within about 10m of each other. Analysis of the cremated bone follows the writer's standard procedure.[39] Age and sex were assessed using standard methodologies.[40] A summary of the results is presented in Table 4.

Context	Cut	Deposit type	Bone weight	Age/sex	Pathology
606	T604	urned burial	236.8g	adult 18–45 yr	
1006*	1004	urned burial	289.1g	adult 20–35 yr	
1404	1401	urned burial	486.4g	adult >40 yr ??female	osteophytes – axis, T/S; degenerative disc disease – 1st sacral
1412	1411	unurned burial/ ?redeposited	202.4g	adult 20–45 yr	periosteal new bone (lamellar) – humerus, radius, ulna; enthesophytes – femur

KEY: * undisturbed

TABLE 4 – Summary of cremated human bone deposits.

Most of the features had survived to <0.10m in depth and bone was evident at surface level in three of the four deposits; the bone in grave 1004 had survived undisturbed in the lower *c.*0.10m depth of the vessel, effectively sealed below the collapsed-in upper body sherds. It is probable that some bone will have been lost from all except grave 1004 due to bioturbation and horizontal truncation, though the quantities are likely to have been small. The bone from the two northerly graves is slightly worn/eroded and 'chalky' in appearance, whilst that from the two southerly graves is in good visual condition and inclusive of both trabecular and the more robust compact bone. It is unclear what mechanisms might have influenced these differences; grave depth, level of disturbance and burial type are not consistently involved.

The remains of four adults are represented, including a minimum of one over forty years of age, possibly a female. Such small burial groups (of either cremation or inhumation graves) are a familiar feature in the rural Romano-British landscape, where pairs of burials or singletons were commonly located close to field boundaries and probably related to nearby farmsteads. Such mortuary deposits, particularly those associated with the cremation rite, are less conspicuous and more readily missed in the archaeological record than the 'elite' barrow cremation graves such as those at Rougham, Suffolk, or Mersea Island in Essex, and the larger cremation cemeteries associated with towns.[41] Whilst their modest form and small assemblage size might suggest they are worthy of little note, the majority of the rural population would have been afforded burial in these liminal but locally significant locations.

Pathological lesions indicative of age-related 'wear and tear'/physical stress were observed in the spine of the older adult from grave 1401.[42] Patches of healed periosteal new bone observed on elements of the upper limb from grave 1411 were probably related to a soft tissue injury/infection affecting the underlying bone rather than a systemic condition. Whatever the cause, the individual is likely to have been in pain and debilitated for some weeks, or possibly

months before the infection cleared.

The majority of the bone is white in colour, indicating a high level of oxidation.[43] The very slight variations in colour (grey or blue/grey), reflecting incomplete oxidation, observed in a few bone fragments from all the deposits do not indicate any specific shortfalls or technical problems with the cremation process.[44] Such minor variations are commensurate with those commonly seen in small rural assemblages, which tend to feature a greater proportion of well oxidised remains than burials from urban locations.[45]

The weights of bone recovered (Table 4) are generally small, falling in the lower range of those commonly observed from cemeteries of this date,[46] and represent approximately 13 per cent (grave 1411) and 30 per cent (grave 1401) of the expected average weight of bone from an adult cremation.[47] It currently remains unclear why there should be such variation in the amount of bone taken from the pyre site for burial, but it serves to emphasise the importance of the primary part of the mortuary rite, i.e. the cremation, and the fact that formal 'burial' of remains might have comprised only one of a number of secondary acts.[48]

The majority of the bone in the urned burials was recovered from the 10mm sieve fraction (50–64 per cent of the total weight), with similar proportions (47 per cent) in the 5mm and 10mm fractions in the unurned deposit. The maximum fragment sizes are relatively small at between 32mm (burial 1412) and 54mm, such a range generally being recorded for disturbed deposits elsewhere.[49] Although in general the bone from the site is more fragmentary than is commonly observed, it does not necessarily reflect deliberate intent;[50] taphonomic factors (see above) and potential variations in collection and storage methods (e.g. less careful handling or greater incidental trampling of the pyre site) might, however, have affected the condition of some of the remains.

The proportion of the bone identifiable to skeletal element (46–53 per cent by weight) fell in the median to upper range (generally 30–50 per cent [personal observation]). A variety of elements from all skeletal areas were recovered, with the commonly observed disproportionate amount of skull elements at the expense of the often fragile axial skeleton. In the case of the unurned deposit, an unusually small proportion of skull elements (7 per cent of the identifiable elements by weight) is represented, with a markedly disproportionate amount of lower limb elements (69 per cent by weight). This disparity could reflect preferential loss of the skull elements from the truncated grave (implying the skull elements were closest to the upper levels of the fill), or some degree of selection (or exclusion; cremated bone being eminently transportable and suitable for curation in variously sized packages) regarding the bone collected for burial.[51]

Unsupported tooth roots and small hand/foot bones were only recovered from grave 1401 (fourteen such elements). This suggests that collection from the pyre site was effected by individual hand recovery of fragments in most cases, thereby creating a bias against recovery of the smaller skeletal elements.[52] There might have been some variation in the case of burial 1404, which also contained twice as much bone as the other deposits, with collection involving raking off and winnowing of material from the pyre facilitating easier (and more rapid) recovery of the smaller skeletal elements.

Animal bone (L. Higbee)

Preservation varies from fair to poor (eroded cortical surfaces and abraded edges), but is generally consistent within individual contexts, although only the more durable and robust elements are recognisable. The fragmentation rate is also high, such that only twenty-five of the 273 fragments (1571g) are identifiable to species and element.

Bones from cattle and sheep/goat predominate. They include a pair of mandibles and fragments of cattle skull from pit 1656, and a similar range of skeletal elements, as well as a

pair of scapulae, from pit 1731; part of a cattle-sized long bone shaft (ditch GP1860), and cattle tooth enamel (ditches GP1872 and GP1883) were also recovered.

DISCUSSION

Earlier prehistoric activity

The limited evidence for earlier prehistoric activity on the site is generally consistent with that from other investigations in the immediate vicinity; aside from several Early Neolithic pits on the eastern side of Leiston, no obviously Neolithic or earlier Bronze Age features seem to have been recorded during nearby excavations.[53] By contrast, recent developer-funded archaeological work has revealed substantial evidence for activity during these periods in other parts of east Suffolk, as at Reydon, Wangford Quarry, Saxmundham and, particularly, Flixton Park Quarry and Woodbridge.[54] The local scarcity of Neolithic and earlier Bronze Age remains is perhaps surprising given the extent of intrusive investigation nearby and the numerous ring-ditches identified by remote sensing techniques.[55] Few of the ring-ditches have been tested by intrusive means and, whilst some may represent the sites of round barrows or similar types of monument, others might relate to later types of feature or be of non-archaeological origin. Indeed, the only ring-ditch excavated nearby is thought to be of somewhat later Bronze Age date, its creation perhaps linked with the laying out of field systems.[56] Whether the paucity of remains from early periods is a genuine reflection of low levels of activity is uncertain; it is equally possible that the land was used in ways that were unlikely to leave any archaeologically recognisable signature.

Later prehistoric occupation

The cluster of pits and other features in the north-eastern part of the site, along with the types and quantities of finds retrieved from some of them, seem to be indicative of Early Iron Age occupation. Although structural remains were mostly lacking, this may have been due to truncation caused by intensive modern agriculture. It is tempting to speculate that the 'blank' space surrounded by the pits signals the location of the inhabited area; certainly, this was large enough to accommodate one or more roundhouses. Another possibility is that the settlement associated with these features was located a little beyond the excavation limits. Unfortunately, it is impossible to confirm whether several undated ditches on the site are the fragmentary remains of a late prehistoric field system, as suggested here, or if they are earlier Romano-British land divisions.

The large quantity of pottery and fired clay from pit 1444, some potentially having been used in salt production, is of particular interest. Its presence can be explained as the result of deposition of waste; whether this was an entirely prosaic activity is unclear given the well-documented phenomenon of seemingly deliberate, and sometimes structured, deposition during late prehistory; in any case, the distinction between the 'ritual' and the 'mundane' in such contexts is potentially a largely arbitrary one imposed by modern sensibilities.[57] Salt production was clearly not undertaken here as a major specialised activity, given the absence of characteristic features such as settling tanks, evaporation hearths, water channels and sluices, or substantial layers of briquetage and burnt waste. Nevertheless, the material might derive from a nearby saltern or very small-scale production on site. Alternatively, it could represent the remains of one or more containers in which salt was brought to the site from further afield. Late prehistoric salterns are well known in Essex, Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, but they are uncommon in Suffolk, possibly because these sites have been lost to more intensive coastal erosion. In any case, salt was clearly transported over considerable distances during this period.[58] As salt was a necessary, but valuable commodity

during late prehistory, the distribution of briquetage — the principal form of evidence for its exchange and consumption — has been the subject of some debate. This has tended to focus on sites afforded some elevated or special status (e.g., hillforts and ring-works) and the extent to which they played a role in the control and redistribution of salt.[59] However, briquetage is not commonly found in abundance on small, late prehistoric domestic sites. Indeed, none seems to have been reported from other excavated sites in the local area, including a small later Bronze Age/earlier Iron Age settlement on the eastern edge of Leiston, or other late prehistoric domestic sites at Eye, Carlton Colville and Flixton Park Quarry.[60]

In conclusion, the site at Sizewell Gap can probably be added to the distribution of late prehistoric domestic sites excavated in recent years. Such discoveries, together with later prehistoric enclosures and trackways recorded by excavations in the local area, as well as other possible examples identified more widely by remote sensing surveys, are gradually revealing a detailed picture of the settled, agricultural late prehistoric landscape across the eastern part of the county.[61] This suggests, perhaps contrary to expectations, that the dry sandy soils and low-lying marshes of the Suffolk coastline did not substantially discourage settlement and agriculture during early periods.

The Roman farmstead

As with part of a Romano-British field system recently excavated on the eastern side of Leiston, there is no obvious indication that the enclosure complex at Sizewell Gap had been influenced by earlier phases of land division.[62] The lack of evidence for activity on the site between the earlier Iron Age and the establishment of the enclosure system, probably during the first century AD, is broadly consistent with patterns seen throughout parts of eastern England. A comparatively high proportion of settlements in this region appear to have been newly founded during the Late Iron Age as part of a general expansion of settlement, which continued into the second century AD, and many of these sites were also occupied following the conquest. The dramatic shifts in the location and intensity of occupation give the impression that this was a time of considerable social and political upheaval.[63]

In the absence of definitive structural remains, pits and ditches seemingly infilled with occupation debris have been taken as a proxy indication that Enclosure I was closely linked with domestic activity. However, Enclosure I did contain the truncated remains of possible structures, of sill-beam construction, perhaps analogous to 'Roman Building III' at Bloodmoor Hill, Carlton Colville and others at Wenhaston.[64] Whichever the case at Sizewell Gap, intensive ploughing, in particular, and the unavoidable consequences of machine stripping when conducting large-scale investigations, probably account for the paucity of structural remains at Romano-British sites in the region, even where other indications of occupation are recorded.[65]

Although the enclosure system appears to have been part of a small farmstead, there is little detailed evidence for its economic basis. This is due to the poor survival of animal bone and palaeoenvironmental materials, and the absence of evidence for facilities such as crop dryers or kilns, or artefactual remains that could be closely linked with subsistence-based or economically productive activities. Nevertheless, the form of the enclosures and trackways strongly suggest that the agricultural regime was largely based on animal husbandry. An environmentally/geologically deterministic argument — that the sandy soils were not conducive to arable farming — might be made in support of this. Although the raising of livestock could have enabled small-scale manuring of fields or garden plots, the dry, sandy soils would presumably have still presented difficulties. In any case, the community may have exploited localised areas of more productive land away from the enclosure complex, both for grazing and cultivation.

The location and manner of burial employed by the inhabitants of the farmstead during the

latter stages of its occupation are unknown, but the community seems to have followed the custom of burying the cremated remains of their dead on the periphery of the main activity areas during the first–early second centuries AD. Although earlier Romano-British cremation-related deposits have been recorded at Gallows Hill near Hacheston, Easton, Carlton Colville and, possibly, Levington, examples are generally scarce in the east of the county.[66] Consequently, the small group of burials from the site provides a modest, but significant addition to the regional corpus of evidence for mortuary activity at this time.

As would be expected, and with the principal exception of the substantial and long-lived roadside settlement at Hacheston, most of the rural settlements excavated in east Suffolk seem to represent farmsteads.[67] Examples include sites at Easton, Carlton Colville, Hollesley Bay, Wenhaston with Mells and Thorington.[68] Some of these may have been open, but many were also associated with trackways and enclosures. The site at Sizewell Gap can probably be placed in the category of the 'complex farmstead', as defined by Smith *et al.*, based on its morphology, which seems to reflect the differentiation of spaces used for different activities — particularly livestock management — as well as its chronology and history of sequential alteration.[69] Of the twenty-two sites classified as such in the eastern region, none lie within the Suffolk Coast and Heaths 'landscape zone'.[70] Consisting of several conjoined enclosures, as at Caister-on-Sea and Kilverstone in Norfolk, the Sizewell Gap enclosure system deviates from the more common regional form of the 'complex farmstead', that of a single subdivided enclosure.[71] The morphological diversity of farmsteads evidently reflects their varied developmental histories. It might be supposed, for example, that farmsteads focused on a single subdivided enclosure were often planned and laid out in a single decisive act, albeit frequently altered thereafter. In contrast, those formed of multiple conjoined enclosures give the impression of more organic development. As the sequence at Sizewell Gap could not be established with greater precision, it is with some frustration that the site yields scant insight in this regard. Apparently located some distance from any major population centres — the closest known example being at Hacheston — the impression is that the community at Sizewell Gap was rather isolated.[72] Despite this, remote sensing surveys have revealed numerous other possible settlements with attendant field systems, trackways and enclosures along the coast.[73] Moreover, given that only disparate elements of the enclosure system at Sizewell Gap were previously known from cropmarks, the scale of activity could be considerably greater than that indicated by remote sensing techniques.[74] Together with the pottery kiln and hints of settlement found in Leiston, a field system and possible enclosure at the edges of the town and other traces of occupation and land divisions nearby, the farmstead at Sizewell Gap provides valuable information relating to the density, character and distribution of settlement and agriculture in the local area and the wider coastal zone.[75] Undoubtedly, future archaeological work, such as in association with the development of the Sizewell C power station, will further illuminate these areas of study.

Around the mid–late third century AD, the focus of activity moved away from the site, whilst the discovery of Early Saxon remains on the north-eastern fringe of Leiston points to the emergence of new centres of settlement in the following centuries.[76] Unfortunately, as is so frequently the case, the archaeological record presently offers few clues as to the nature and location of occupation in the local area during the intervening period. It is also unclear why the farmstead at Sizewell Gap declined, although a considerable proportion of settlements in the region seem to have been abandoned at a similar time.[77] Wider shifts in later Romano-British society may have been responsible for changes in settlement and land use in the region, although the factors governing the fates of individual settlements were probably complex and varied according to local circumstance.

Post-Roman land use

The dry sandy soils of the Suffolk coastal region were generally not conducive to arable farming until the arrival of agricultural improvement techniques in the mid-nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Consequently, much of the landscape was composed of unenclosed sandy heaths and commons throughout the medieval and post-medieval periods, although the marshlands were used for grazing and some degree of reclamation was undertaken to improve pasture and open up land for cultivation.[78]

To an extent, this may explain the paucity of post-Roman remains within the investigated areas. Nonetheless, it is difficult to account for the lack of medieval finds, features or deposits within parts of the cable route given the results from other excavations on the lower-lying land immediately north of Sizewell Gap.[79] These have revealed extensive, well-preserved and complex remains derived from occupation, along with related manufacturing, trades and industry, spanning the eleventh–fourteenth centuries. Interpreted as evidence for the westward expansion of Sizewell — once a prosperous town that came to rival medieval Leiston in size — the remains were found as little as 20m from the cable route.

The seemingly blank area within the cable route cannot be satisfactorily explained as a result of differential levels of truncation, variations in methodological approaches or lack of recognition (e.g. due to burial by undifferentiated sands redeposited through wind action or inundation). Perhaps then, the route of Sizewell Gap correlates with a distinct boundary between the medieval settlement and the commons and heaths to the south. The road may have been established sometime later than the medieval suburb, perhaps following a pre-existing land division. Indeed, it has been suggested that this was a minor thoroughfare, a cul-de-sac or driftway, until the early nineteenth century, when it replaced the more northerly medieval route between Leiston and Sizewell.[80] However, in the nineteenth century, the route continued along what is now Grimsey's Lane to join the southern side of Leiston, thus providing a comparatively direct route between the towns. Consequently, this might correspond with another medieval road that fell into decline, possibly in tandem with Sizewell, which shrank dramatically between the fourteenth and seventeenth centuries.[81]

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The project was managed for Wessex Archaeology by Mark Williams and the fieldwork team was led by Lisa McCaig. In addition to the named finds and environmental contributors, Dana Challinor analysed the charcoal and Sarah Wyles assessed the environmental evidence and commented on the marine molluscs. This report was edited by Phil Andrews and Philippa Bradley. The figures are by Kitty Foster and the finds were illustrated by Nancy Dixon.

Archive location

The archive is held at the offices of Wessex Archaeology Ltd in Salisbury and Maidstone under the project codes 77610, 77611, 104810, 104811 and 104812. In due course, it will be deposited with the Suffolk County Council Archaeological Service under the site code LCS 161.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Prehistoric pottery fabric descriptions

NB. All linear voids are likely to result from burnt out organic inclusions

Sand and flint-tempered:

QF1: Hard, coarse; abundant (40%) well sorted rounded to subrounded quartz sand (predominantly 0.5mm), sparse (7%) poorly sorted angular calcined flint (generally <2mm, but up to 10mm) and sparse (3%) linear voids.

QF2: Moderately hard, coarse; very fine sandy matrix; common (20%) poorly sorted rounded to subrounded quartz sand (up to 1.5mm) and sparse (7%) moderately sorted angular calcined flint (0.5–1mm); visible firing cracks.

QF3: Moderately soft; very fine sandy matrix; common (20%) moderately sorted rounded quartz sand (0.25–1mm), sparse (7%) poorly sorted angular flint (generally <0.3mm, but up to 3mm) and moderate (10%) linear voids.

QF4: Moderately soft; common (25%) moderately sorted subrounded quartz sand (0.1–0.75mm), sparse (7%) moderately sorted angular calcined flint (generally 0.5–1mm, occasionally up to 5mm) and moderate (10%) linear voids. Some possible firing cracks.

Sand and organic-tempered:

QV1: Moderately soft; very fine sandy matrix; moderate (15%) poorly sorted rounded to subrounded quartz sand (0.25–1mm) and moderate (10%) linear voids.

QV2: Hard, coarse; very common (30%) moderately sorted subrounded quartz sand (0.1–0.75mm) and moderate (10%) linear voids. Some firing cracks.

Sandy wares:

Q1: Soft fabric; common (20%) moderately sorted subrounded quartz sand (0.1–0.5mm), and rare (1%) calcined flint (up to 1.5mm).

Q2: Moderately hard; common (20%) moderately sorted rounded to subrounded quartz sand (0.1–1mm) and sparse (7%) well sorted subangular grog (up to 2mm). Some laminar firing cracks (or possibly from burnt out organic inclusions).

Grog-tempered:

G1: Moderately soft; common (20%) poorly sorted subrounded sandy grog (0.5–4mm), moderate (10%) well sorted subrounded to subangular quartz sand (0.25–1mm), sparse (3%) poorly sorted angular calcined flint (1.5–3mm) and sparse (5%) linear voids. Some possible firing cracks.

G2: Soft; moderate (15%) moderately sorted subangular grog (1–3mm), and moderate (10%) poorly sorted subrounded quartz sand (0.2–0.5mm).

Flint-tempered:

F1: Soft, coarse, laminated; common (20%) poorly sorted angular calcined flint (1–3mm).

Appendix 2: Fired clay fabric descriptions

Fabric A: Pale orange or grey (some patchy 'salt' discolouration), silty textured; common (20%) subrounded to rounded medium to coarse-grained quartz, sparse (5–7%) moderately sorted linear voids and rare flint.

Fabric B: Buff to pale orange, fine to medium-grained sandy matrix; moderate (10–15%) subrounded to subangular and poorly sorted carbonate rock inclusions (< 8mm).

Fabric C: Variably fired (orange to reddish-brown), silty textured; common (20%) subrounded to rounded moderately sorted fine to medium-grained quartz and sparse (5%) linear voids.

Fabric D: Silty-textured, buff or pale orange exterior and margins, unoxidised dark grey core; common (25%) subrounded to rounded well-sorted medium to coarse-grained quartz, occasional subrounded sandstone inclusions (< 3mm) across, sparse (5%) linear voids and rare angular detrital flint (< 20mm).

Fabric E: Irregularly fired buff or pale orange; common (20%) subrounded to subangular fine to medium-grained quartz, with occasional larger grains, sparse (3%) linear voids and occasional rounded pebbles. Impressions from grass or other organic matter on exterior.

NOTES

1 Wessex Archaeology 2011; 2013; 2014.
2 Wessex Archaeology 2019.
3 Wessex Archaeology 2017.
4 British Geological Survey online viewer.
5 Wessex Archaeology 2020.
6 Richmond 1994; Suffolk HER ref. LCS 068.
7 Wessex Archaeology 2020.
8 E.g. Archaeology South-East 2017a; Cotswold Archaeology 2018; 2019; PCA 2016.
9 Wessex Archaeology 2020.
10 Wessex Archaeology 2020.
11 Wessex Archaeology 2020.
12 Barclay *et al.* 2016.
13 E.g. Clark and Fell 1953, 25 and 26, classes III and VI.
14 Clark and Fell 1953, 26.
15 Clark and Fell 1953, 26.
16 Morris 2001, 41.
17 Morris 2001, 393–4; Morris 2001, 62.
18 Martin 1999, 74–80.
19 Clark and Fell 1953; Brudenell 2011, 17 and 19.
20 Perrin 1999, 94–5, Fig. 61, no. 166.
21 Smedley and Owles 1961, 222.

22 Plouviez 1989; Arthur and Plouviez 2004; Damant 2004; Peachey pers. comm.
23 Hacheston: Arthur and Plouviez 2004, 161–2; Leiston: Damant 2004.
24 E.g. Peachey 2019.
25 Hacheston: Arthur and Plouviez 2004, 167, type 29; Stowmarket: Plouviez 1989, 6, form 1.
26 Arthur and Plouviez 2004, 167–8, type 22A; Martin 1988, 41.
27 *Cf*. Symonds and Wade 1999, 477, CAM type 227.
28 Arthur and Plouviez 2004, 167, type 30.
29 Arthur and Plouviez 2004, 169, types 38 and 40.
30 Symonds and Wade 1999, 479, Cam 270B and 273.
31 Tomber and Dore 1998, 130–1.
32 Arthur and Plouviez 2004.
33 Morris 2009; Cleal and Bacon 2001.
34 Wild 2002, 10.
35 Lowther 1935; Poole 1995; Poole 2015.
36 Brodribb 1987.
37 Manning 1985.
38 Shaffrey 2015, 147.
39 McKinley 1994a, 5–6; 2004a.
40 Buikstra and Ubelaker 1994; Gejvall 1981; Scheuer and Black 2000.
41 Rougham: Babington 1872; Mersea Island: McKinley 2013a.
42 Rodgers and Waldron 1995, 25–6.
43 Holden *et al.* 1995a–b.
44 See McKinley 1994a, 76–8; 2004b, 293–95; 2008.
45 McKinley 2008, 173–4.
46 E.g. McKinley 2004b, table 6.6.
47 McKinley 1993.
48 McKinley 2013b.
49 E.g. McKinley 2004b, table 6.70.
50 See McKinley 1994b; 2004b.
51 See McKinley 2013b.
52 McKinley 2004b, 303.
53 Archaeology South-East 2017a.
54 Cooper 2018; Garrow 2012, table 15.1, 221; Last *et al.* undated; Reydon: Harding 2017; Wangford Quarry: Meredith 2009; Saxmundham: Newton 2013; Oxford Archaeology 2016; Flixton Park Quarry: Boulter and Walton Rogers 2012; Woodbridge: Last *et al.* undated.
55 Archaeology South-East 2017a–b; Atfield *et al.* 2009; Breen *et al.* 2014; Cotswold Archaeology 2016; 2018; 2019; Gill *et al.* 2013; Pre-Construct Archaeology 2016; Good and Plouviez 2007; Hegarty and Newsome 2005; Horlock and Tremlett 2016.
56 Archaeology South-East 2017a.
57 Bradley 2005.
58 Kinory 2011; 2012.
59 Kinory 2012; Morris 1994.
60 Leiston: Pre-Construct Archaeology 2016; Eye: Caruth 2012; Carlton Colville: Heard 2013; Flixton Park Quarry: Boulter 2015.
61 Archaeology South-East 2017a; Cotswold Archaeology 2018; 2019; Pre-Construct Archaeology 2016; Good and Plouviez 2007; Hegarty and Newsome 2005; Horlock and Tremlett 2016.
62 Archaeology South-East 2017a.
63 Smith. *et al.* 2016, 214–5; Hill 2007.
64 Carlton Colville: Lucy *et al.* 2009, fig 2.4, 26–8; Wenhaston: Stirk and Benfield 2009.
65 Evans undated, 21.
66 Hacheston: Plouviez 1987; Easton: Pre-Construct Archaeology 2017; Carlton Colville: Lucy *et al.* 2009; Levington: Sommers 2006.
67 Blagg *et al.* 2004.
68 Easton: Pre-Construct Archaeology 2017; Carlton Colville: Lucy *et al.* 2009; Hollesley Bay: Mowatt 1975; Wenhaston with Mells: Stirk 2009; Thorington: Newman 1992.
69 Smith *et al.* 2016, 28–33.
70 Smith *et al.* 2016, table 6.2, 212.
71 Caister-on-Sea: Albone 2006; Kilverstone: Garrow *et al.* 2006; Smith *et al.* 2016, 219.

72 Blagg *et al.* 2004.
73 Good and Plouviez 2007; Hegarty and Newsome 2005; Horlock and Tremlett 2016; Taylor 2007.
74 Suffolk HER ref. LCS 059.
75 Leiston: Damant 2004; Archaeology South-East 2017a–b; Cotswold Archaeology 2019.
76 Cotswold Archaeology 2018.
77 Smith *et al.* 2016, 215.
78 Martin 2012, 225–7; Good and Plouviez 2007, 14.
79 Atfield *et al.* 2009; Breen *et al.* 2014; Cotswold Archaeology 2016; Gill *et al.* 2013.
80 Breen *et al.* 2014, 7–9.
81 Breen 2013.

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