Excavations at Manor Farm, Drayton, Oxfordshire

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SUMMARY

The excavation revealed a series of intercutting boundary features, possibly focussing on a large hollow of indeterminate function. The earliest features were a gully and possible waterhole of middle or late Bronze Age date. These were overlain by a series of small gullies of early Roman date. Some early Anglo-Saxon features were present, but most activity belonged to the late Saxon/early medieval period, and comprised a series of boundary ditches forming enclosures containing postholes. The artefactual assemblage included pottery from all periods, and an unusual late Saxon strap-end. Environmental remains included evidence for early, pre-Norman cultivation of tetraploid wheat and fodder vetch. The excavations offered a rare opportunity to see evidence for the earliest stages of the development of a south Oxfordshire village.

Oxford Archaeology (hereafter OA and formerly the Oxford Archaeological Unit) carried out an area excavation at Manor Farm, Drayton, Oxfordshire (NGR SP 4772 9425) in May/June 2000. The work was commissioned by Cooke and Arkwright, Chartered Surveyors, acting on behalf of their client, Earl of Plymouth Estates Limited. The excavations were requested by the Deputy County Archaeologist, Hugh Coddington, as significant archaeological deposits had been identified during an earlier field evaluation carried out by Thames Valley Archaeological Services (TVAS).[1] The results of the evaluation are summarised below.

GEOLOGY AND TOPOGRAPHY (Fig. 1)

The site is located to the north-east of The Green in the village of Drayton and bounded by the Abingdon Road to the west and Gravel Lane to the south. The site lies at approximately 62 m. OD, on the second gravel terrace of the River Thames floodplain.

HISTORICAL AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

The earliest documentary evidence for the village of Drayton comes from the Abingdon Chronicles, recording that 10 hides of land were granted by King Eadred to a thegn named Eadwold in AD 955.[2] On the death of Eadwold, the remainder of the lands were passed to Abingdon Abbey. At some point it returned to royal hands and in AD 983 Æthelred II gave half of the manor to Wulfgar and later the same half to Abingdon Abbey in AD 1000. Domesday records that before the Conquest, Drayton was divided into two parts, which developed into the manors of West Drayton and East Drayton. In 1381, William of

[1] G. Hull, 'Land at Manor Farm, Drayton, Oxfordshire' (Archaeological Evaluation Report, Thames Valley Archaeological Services, 1999).

[2] *V.C.H. Berks.* iv, 341-4.

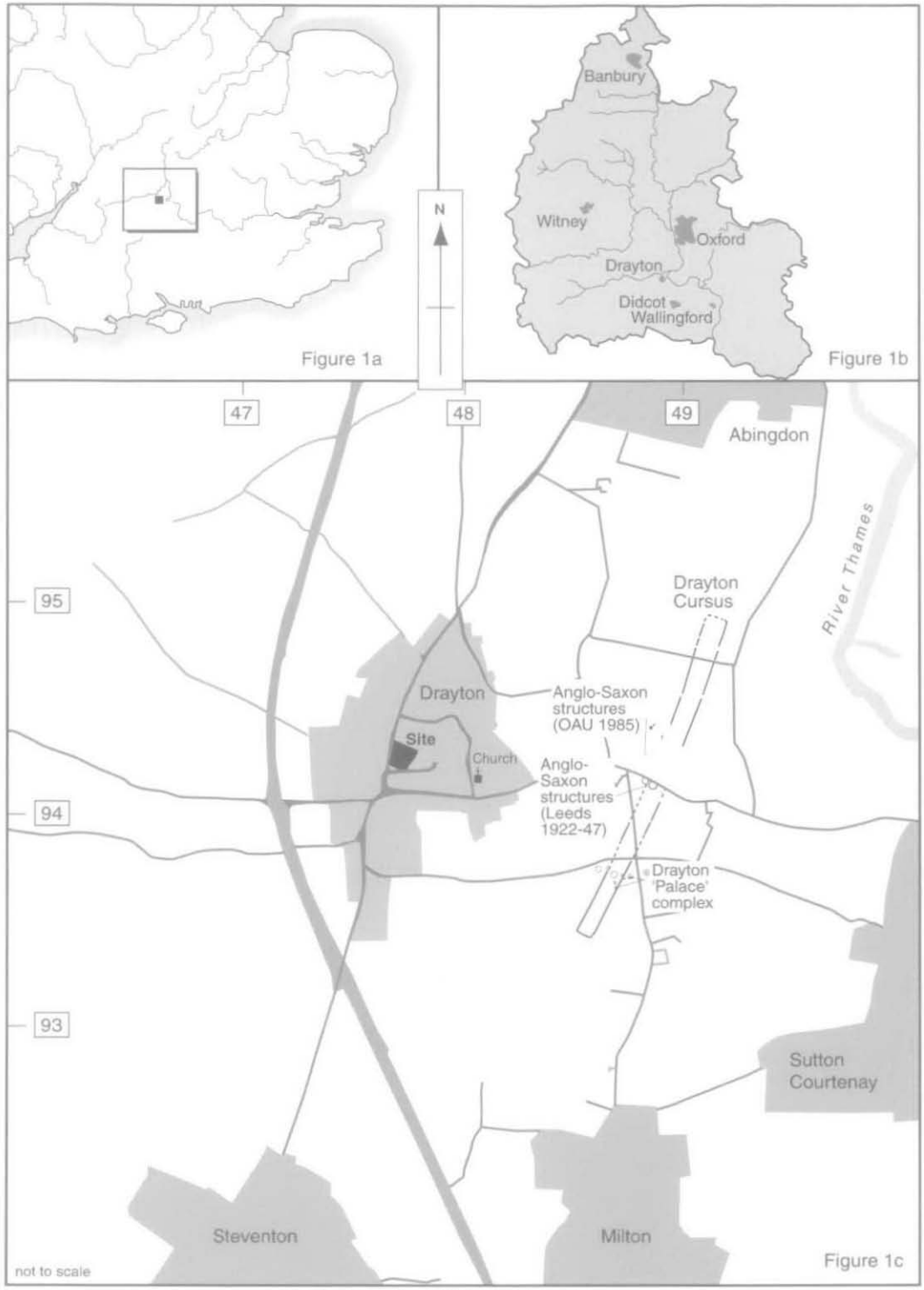

Fig. 1. Location of Manor Farm, Drayton.

Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, received a licence to alienate the manor of West Drayton to his newly-founded college of St. Mary of Winchester (now New College) at Oxford. The manor remained the property of New College until 1815. The manor of East Drayton was held by Abingdon Abbey until the dissolution of the monasteries, when it passed into private hands. Both West and East Drayton manors were purchased in 1826 by a Nonconformist minister, Lewis Loyd, whose descendants still held the lands in 1924.[3]

The earliest archaeological evidence from the area dates to the Neolithic period, with extensive excavations carried out on the cursus monument to the east of the Manor Farm site.[4] These excavations also revealed other features, including Bronze Age pits, a Roman field system and Saxon buildings. In addition to the excavated evidence, there are extensive cropmarks of earlier Neolithic monuments, Bronze Age barrows and Saxon timber-framed buildings.[5] The large Saxon settlement (approx. 1.5 km. south-east of Manor Farm) appears to be on the same scale – and possibly of the same status – as the palace at Yeavering, although it has not been excavated.[6] Immediately to the north of the site are a series of earthworks which are thought to be part of the medieval village of Drayton.

SUMMARY OF THE EVALUATION RESULTS

The evaluation by TVAS in October 1999 revealed features of Roman, Anglo-Saxon and medieval date. The features were predominantly boundary ditches, although a few postholes and pits were excavated.[7] The eastern part of the evaluation area produced the most archaeology.

THE EXCAVATIONS

METHODOLOGY

An area of approximately 1600 sq. m. was subjected to an area excavation. The site was machined in two stages. A baulk was left across a raised feature believed to be a possible medieval house platform, which was subsequently excavated by hand.

THE PHASING (Figs. 2, 3 and 4)

The chronological phasing of the archaeological deposits was based upon a combination of the recorded stratigraphy, spatial relationships and the dating of the finds. Since a large quantity of the pottery recovered was either residual or intrusive and cannot be relied upon to produce an accurate sequence of dating, the chronological phasing is interpretative rather than definitive. The phases referred to in this report are as follows:

- Phase 1: Prehistoric
- Phase 2: Roman
- Phase 3a: Early to mid Saxon
- Phase 3b: Late Saxon/early medieval
- Phase 4: Post-medieval

[3] Ibid.
[4] A. Barclay, G. Lambrick, J. Moore and M. Robinson, *Lines in the Landscape: Cursus Monuments in the Upper Thames Valley* (Oxford Archaeology Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph 15, 2003).
[5] Ibid.
[6] J. Blair, *Anglo-Saxon Oxfordshire* (1994), 31-2.
[7] Hull, op. cit. note 1.

Fig. 2. Plan of excavations at Manor Farm, Drayton.

RESULTS

Phase 1: Prehistoric (Figs. 2, 3 and 4)

Two prehistoric features were positively identified on the site. A ditch (268) extended approximately 40 m. across the excavated area from north to south, curving slightly to the east at the southern end. It was approximately 1 m. in width and up to 0.3 m. in depth, with brown, clay silt fills. Several interventions were cut through the ditch, three of which (266, 274, 283) produced fragments of middle or late Bronze Age pottery. To the east of this ditch lay a large amorphous feature (182), probably a waterhole, approximately 6.9 m. in width, with a depth of 0.55 m. It was filled with grey sand and gravel silts.

Fig. 3. Phasing of prehistoric to medieval features.

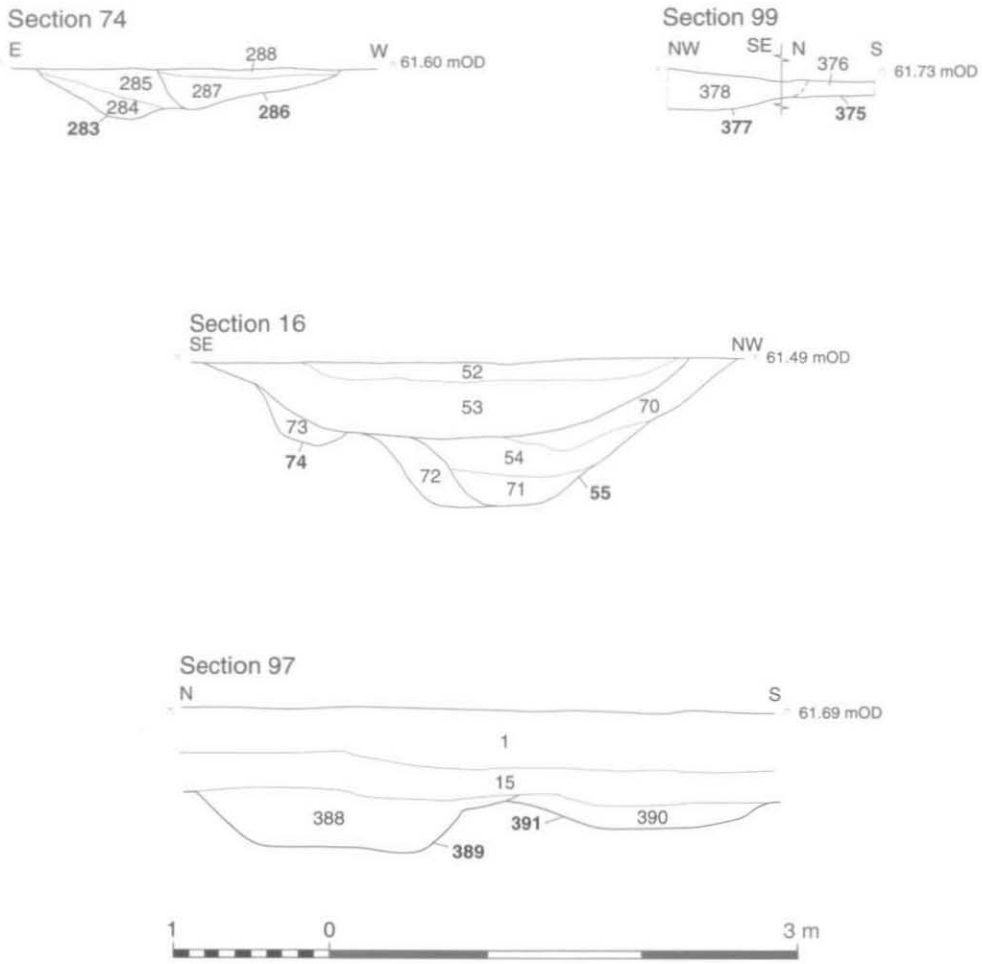

Fig. 4. Sections through prehistoric to medieval features.

Phase 2: Roman (Figs. 2, 3 and 4)

This phase was characterised by a series of small linear gullies (83, 86, 123, 181, 204, 373) laid out in a regular pattern, running N.-S. and E.-W. The gullies were on average 0.65 m. wide and 0.17 m. deep. They were mainly filled with a single deposit of grey clay silt. The assumption that these gullies relate to each other is based on their similarity and regularity in size and alignment, which differs from those of later periods. Gully 86 which runs E.-W. may be related to 181, which terminates to the east, although the post-medieval ditch 365 obscures any relationship. Gully 86 is clearly later than 83, a N.-S. oriented ditch, but is likely to be part of the same phase of field boundaries. The extent of the gullies 272 and 443 in the SE. corner of the site is not clear as the middle area of the site was obscured by a large amorphous feature, thought to be a pond or waterhole (279). Most of the pottery belonging to this phase dated to the 1st-2nd centuries AD.

Roman pottery was also recovered from another amorphous feature (18) in the NE. corner of the site. It was not possible to define the precise outline of this feature; an excavated section through it revealed a brown silty clay, with mottling indicative of watery conditions. It is not clear whether this was a deliberately dug feature or a natural hollow, but no other pottery was recovered.

Phase 3A: Early to Mid Saxon (Figs. 2, 3 and 4)

There were few features convincingly dated to this period, although the evidence from the pottery, even if residual, indicates that there was activity on, or near, the site at this time. There were, potentially, two phases of activity within the early to middle Saxon period. The first is characterised by relatively wide, uneven ditches running E.-W. (364, 385) and one NW. to SE. (369). These ditches were similar in size, on average 1.2 m. in width, with a depth of 0.2 m.; they contained fills of brown or grey clay silts. The second phase of ditch construction in this period is represented by narrower ditches or gullies (269, 362, 442), on the same E.-W. alignment, and a wider ditch (386) running N.-S. These ditches varied in width from 0.3 m. to 1.1 m., with typically a single fill of brownish-grey clay silt and an average depth of not more than 0.3 m. Ditch 269 curves round to the north, an alignment mirrored in later phases.

Phase 3B: Late Saxon/Early Medieval (Figs. 2, 3 and 4)

This phase, which exhibits the most activity on the site, is characterised by a series of boundary ditches formed into enclosures, within which clusters of postholes are evident. All of the main ditches appear to respect the large pond/hollow (279) and seem to form enclosures at the four corners of the site with 279 in the centre. In the SW., two ditches (241, 243) curve round from the west to the north. Both ditches have brownish-grey silty clay fills and are not more than 0.25 m. deep. They form two phases of a curvilinear enclosure, bounded at its western end by group 363, which appears to be a N.-S. segmented ditch. The later construction of the ditches are wide, at least 0.9 m. in width. Within the enclosure formed by the curvilinear ditch are a series of intercutting postholes and pits. Only one of the pits (293) was dated, producing 9th- to 10th-century pottery. The pits varied in size considerably and may have been large postholes or small pits. Despite the presence of postholes, there is no clear footprint for a structure.

To the north of this area lies a smaller enclosure, bounded by ditches 367 and 372. In this area, there were a few scattered postholes (30, 36, 38, 48) which probably also relate to this phase. These were small in size, not more than 0.4 m. in width and 0.2 m. in depth. No dating evidence was forthcoming except one residual sherd of prehistoric pottery. A further enclosure lies in the NE. corner of the site. A group of pits/postholes are bounded on two sides by ditches (368 and 391). Late Saxon/early medieval pottery was recovered from the silty-clay fills of both ditches and one of the pits (128). Although it is unclear if these pits/postholes represent a building, it is clear that there were at least two phases of activity in this area. Pottery sherds dating to the 11th century were recovered from ditch 389 (the recut of 391) and one of the pits (91).

There is a final enclosure in the SE. corner of the site, with several pits/postholes (394, 396, 432) bounded by ditches 270 and 389. Consistent with the evidence elsewhere on the site, there appears to be two phases of ditch construction and the later recuts are wide features, up to 2.5 m. in width. The final phase within this period shows a variation in the typical late Saxon enclosure pattern. Two ditches are thought to belong to this period (267 and 366) as they follow a different alignment which cuts the earlier enclosures. These ditches are narrower than the earlier ones (averaging 0.5 m. in width), with dark grey clay silt fills.

Phase 4: Post-medieval (Figs. 5 and 6)

There is one post-medieval ditch (365) on the site which produced 17th-century pottery. The southern end of this ditch was not visible although it is likely that it terminated prior to reaching the Saxon ditch 241. A series of postholes, assumed to be contemporary in date, represent a fence line running along the length of 365.

The raised area in the NW. of the site was originally thought to be a house-platform, due to the presence of a complex of well-defined earthworks, including hollow ways and building platforms, in the pasture immediately to the north of the excavated area. The feature consisted of a long low N.-S. slightly raised area, which extended towards the centre of the site. Beneath the topsoil (15) the mound appeared to consist of an island of isolated stratigraphy, containing a ditch (7=9), filled with a series of deposits (4, 5, 6, 10), cut into a deposit of green-brown silty clay (2, 8). The upper deposit (4) was a dark grey silty clay, which contained several small finds, including an Anglo-Saxon strap-end and knife. The western side of silty-clay deposit (2, 8) may have been cut by an earlier ditch (12) though it is possible that its fills, 13 and 14, may merely be supplementary deposits which grew up along the edge of the feature. The feature was broadly parallel to the post-medieval ditch 365, and they may be related. As to its function, it is most likely that this feature represents a dumped deposit, of an uncertain date, but most likely post-medieval. Conceivably it could represent the debris from dredging a pond or waterhole, which would explain the redeposited finds within it.

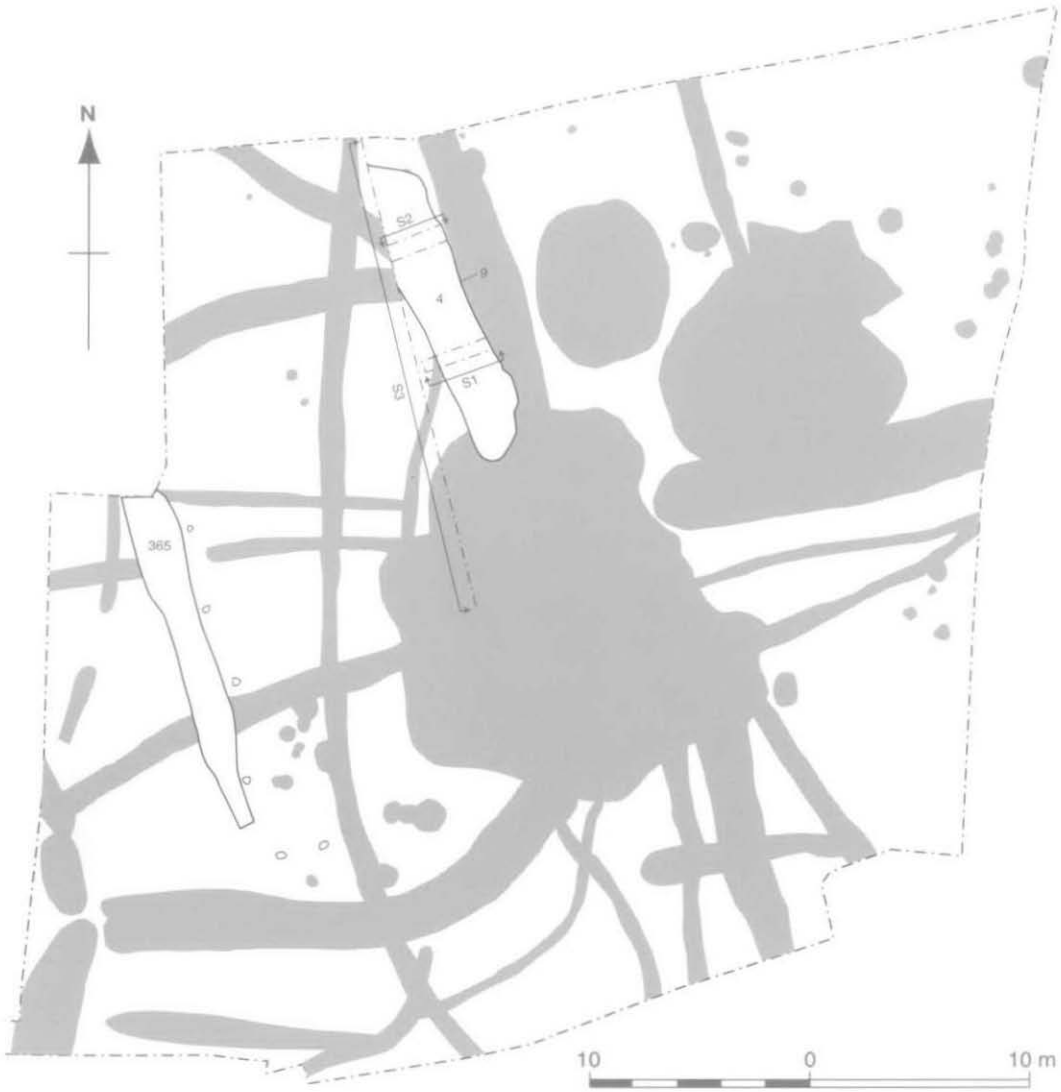

Fig. 5. Plan of post-medieval features.

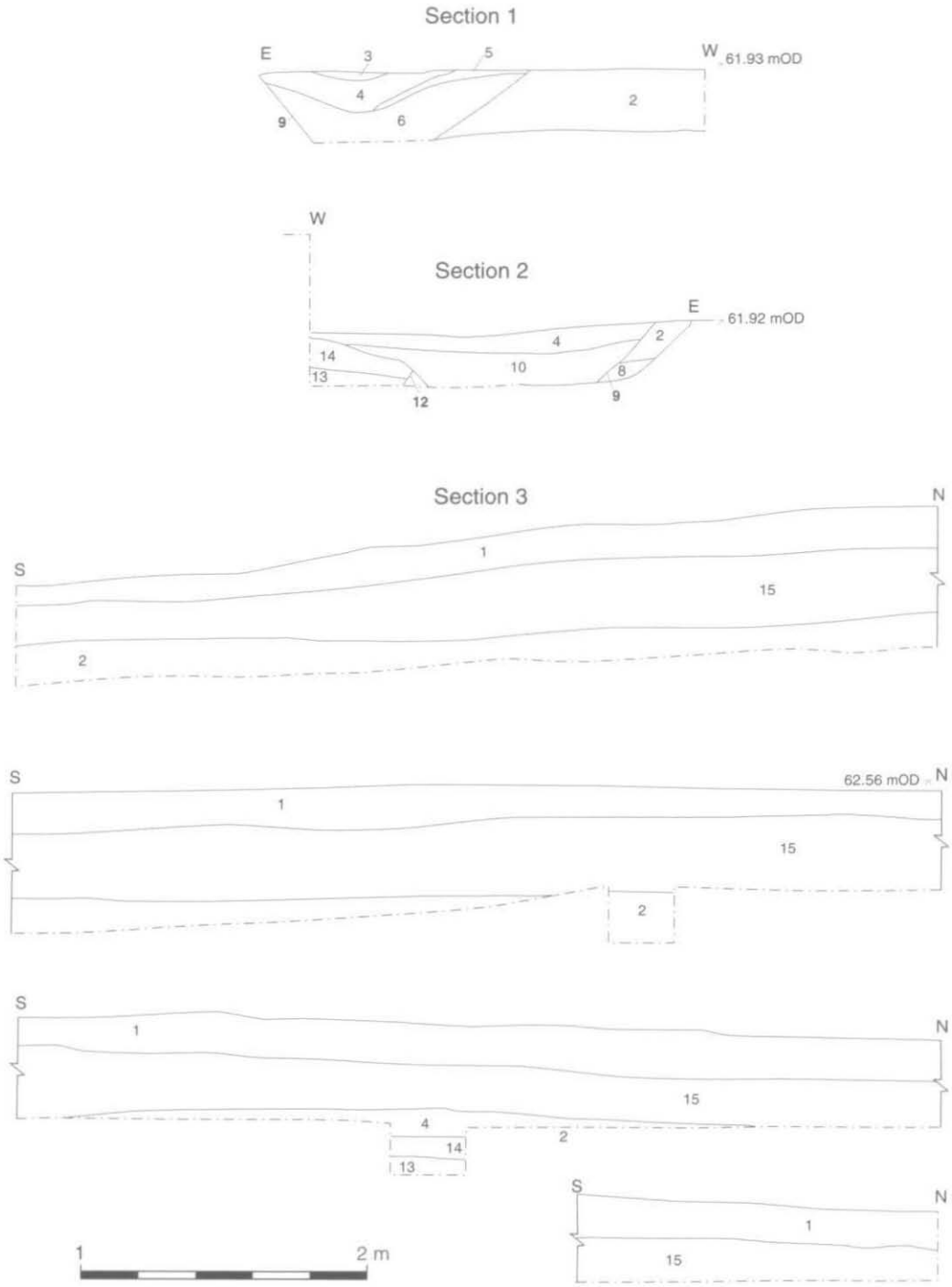

Fig. 6. Sections through post-medieval features.

ARTEFACTUAL EVIDENCE

PREHISTORIC POTTERY by ALISTAIR BARCLAY (Fig. 7)

The excavation produced a relatively small assemblage of prehistoric pottery (16 sherds, 307 g.). The assemblage includes a wide range of material, mostly of Bronze Age date, but also including single finds of Neolithic and Iron Age date. The condition of the assemblage is generally good with little signs of the material having been redeposited. However, it can be noted that the earlier material, of Neolithic and early Bronze Age date, is more abraded. This could indicate that this material is residual.

The assemblage is quantified by weight and sherd number (Table 1) in which refitting fresh breaks are excluded from the sherd count. The pottery is characterised by fabric, form, surface treatment, decoration and colour, while only the more diagnostic featured sherds are listed in the catalogue. The sherds were analysed using a binocular microscope (x 20) and were divided into fabric groups by principal inclusion type. OA standard codes are used to denote inclusion types: A = sand (quartz and other mineral matter), F = flint, G = grog, S = shell, Q = quartzite. Size range for inclusions: 1 = <1 mm. fine; 2 = 1-3 mm. fine-medium and 3 = 3 mm. < medium-coarse.

TABLE 1. QUANTIFICATION AND BREAKDOWN OF THE PREHISTORIC POTTERY ASSEMBLAGE BY FABRIC, DATE AND CONTEXT (SHERD NUMBER AND WEIGHT)

Context	*Q2 (EN)*	*G3 (EBA)*	*GFA3 (EMBA)*	*S3 (MBA)*	*F1 (MBA)*	*F2 (MLBA)*	*A1 (IA)*	*Total*
17							1, 2g	1, 2g.
39			2, 47g.					2, 47g.
183				2, 98g.				2, 98g.
252				1, 5g.				1, 5g.
265					2, 37g.			2, 37g.
273	3, 77g.							3, 77g.
285		2, 6g.				3, 35g.		5, 41g.
Total	3, 77g.	2, 6g.	2, 47g.	3, 103g.	2, 37g.	3, 35g.	1, 2g.	16, 307g.

Fabrics:
A1: Soft fabric with common coarse sand (IA; context 17 (upper fill of 279))
F1: Hard fabric with abundant finely crushed flint (1 mm.) (MBA; context 265 (fill of 266))
F2: Hard fabric with common medium flint (1-3 mm.) and sparse fine quartz sand (MBA; context 285 (fill of 283))
G3: Soft fabric with sparse ill-sorted grog (up to 4 mm.) (EBA; context 285 (fill of 274))
GFA3: Hard fabric with common coarse angular grog, sparse angular flint and rare fine quartz sand (E–MBA; context 39 (fill of 38))
Q2: Hard micaceous fabric with common coarse angular quartzite (1-3 mm.) (EN; context 273 (fill of 274))
S3: Soft fabric with common fossil shell platelets (up to 10 mm.) and sparse fine quartz sand (MBA; context 183 (fill of 182), 252 (fill of 250)).

Forms

The earliest pottery is represented by a small number of sherds from the shoulder of an early Neolithic Carinated Bowl (Fig. 7.1). Two other sherds in the same fabric could be from the same vessel. All of this material was recovered from ditch fill 273 and is unlikely to be contemporary, its abraded condition indicating that it may well be redeposited.

Two small and abraded grog-tempered body sherds from context 285 are of probable early Bronze Age date. Other sherds (context 39) from the base of a vessel in the principally grog-tempered fabric GFA3 could be of either early or middle Bronze Age date. These sherds are likely to be from a Biconical Urn or from a sub-biconical urn of the earliest Deverel-Rimbury tradition.

Middle Bronze Age pottery includes a worn rim fragment (Fig. 7.2) and a base and body sherds from Bucket Urns (fabric S3) and the rim and shoulder fragments (fabric F1) from a Globular Urn. The Globular Urn (Fig. 7.3) is well made and typically thin-walled (up to 6 mm.) with smoothed surfaces, with a dense flint-gritted fabric and fired to a dark grey to black colour. Three other body sherds (context 285) in fabric F2 could be of either middle or late Bronze Age date. One of these sherds has a slight shoulder which would perhaps indicate a late Bronze Age date. A single sand-tempered sherd from context 17 is most likely to be from an Iron Age bowl or jar.

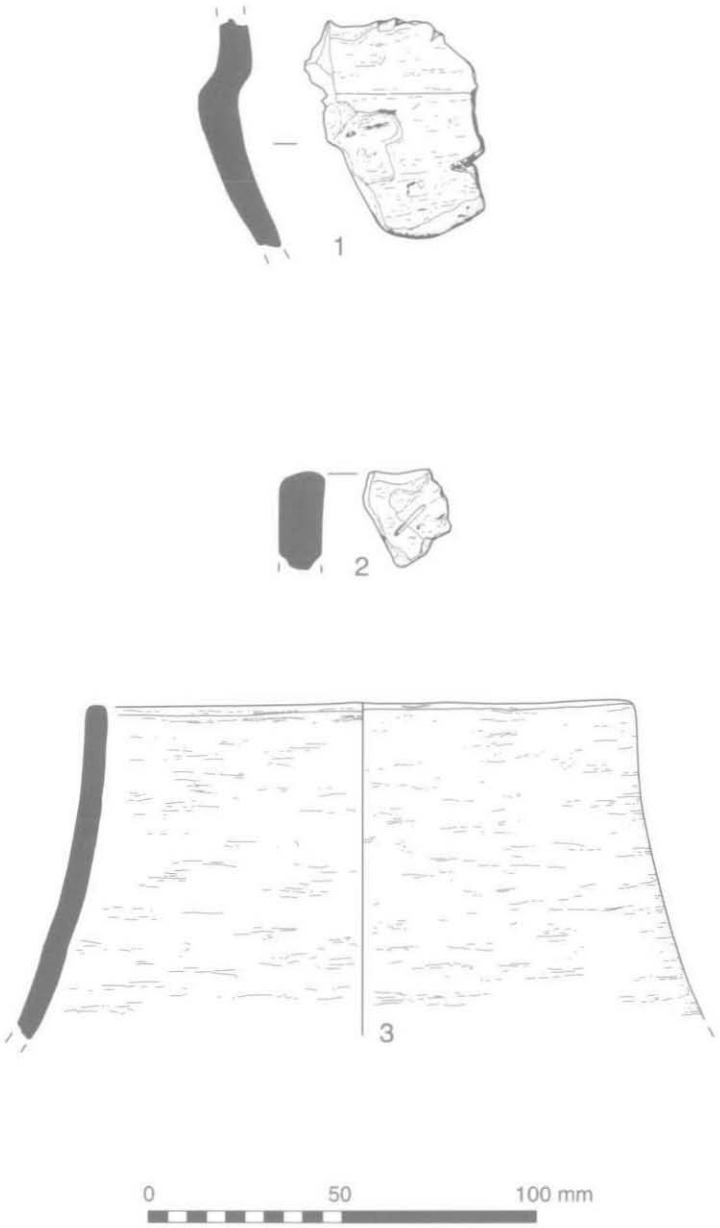

Fig. 7. Prehistoric pottery.

Discussion

The small assemblage is of interest because of the range of material, indicating activity over a long period of prehistory. The Carinated Bowl fragment is an important find, despite being residual, as this is thought to be the earliest type of Neolithic pottery.[8] Little of this material is known from the Thames Gravels and the only other vessel from the Abingdon area that can be definitely attributed to this style occurs at Corporation Farm 2 km. from this site.[9] The use of this pottery is likely to be broadly contemporary with other early Neolithic activity in the area.[10] The small assemblage of Bronze Age pottery recovered from pits, ditches and waterholes is similar to the range of material found at Appleford[11] and from the enclosed settlement at Corporation Farm, Abingdon.[12] The Globular Urn fragment is a rare find[13] and could hint at the presence of a nearby settlement, perhaps of high status. The latest material is a single sherd of Iron Age date which came from the upper fill (context 17) of the pond. This sherd is very small and worn and may well be residual.

Illustrated sherds (Fig. 7)
1. Shoulder from a Carinated Bowl. Fabric Q2. Condition worn. Early Neolithic. Context 273.
2. Bucket Urn rim. Fabric S3. Condition worn. Middle Bronze Age. Context 252.
3. Globular Urn rim. Fabric F1. Condition good. Middle Bronze Age. Context 265.

ROMAN POTTERY by PAUL BOOTH

A small group of some 18 sherds (161 g.) of Roman pottery was recovered during the excavation. The unremarkable assemblage appears to be largely, if not entirely, of 1st- to 2nd-century date. The material was rapidly scanned and recorded using the established OA recording system for Iron Age and Roman pottery. Sherds were examined by context and recorded by fabric, with details of form and decoration noted where these could be determined. Quantification was by sherd count and weight, with quantification of vessels by rim count and EVEs (Estimated Vessel Equivalents). The pottery was divided initially into major ware groups, defined on the basis of significant common characteristics.[14] Sherds were then assigned either to the principal subdivisions of the ware groups or to individual fabrics/wares. The fabric groups present, with quantities, were as follows (note that detailed references to fabric descriptions are not given here):

Fabrics:
S30: Central Gaulish samian ware. 1 sherd, 11 g.
O10: Fine oxidised 'coarse' wares, mostly Oxford products. 4 sherds, 17 g.
R: General reduced coarse wares (undifferentiated). 1 sherd, 4 g.
R10: Fine reduced 'coarse' wares, mostly Oxford products. 4 sherds, 18 g.
R21: Sandy reduced coarse ware. 2 sherds, 15 g.
R30: Moderately sandy reduced coarse wares. 2 sherds, 45 g.
R90: Coarse- (usually grog-) tempered reduced wares. 2 sherds, 45 g.
B11: Dorset black-burnished ware (BB1). 1 sherds, 3 g.
C10: Shell-tempered wares (undifferentiated). 1 sherd, 3 g.

[8] A. Herne, 'A Time and a Place for the Grimston Bowl', in J. Barrett and I.A. Kinnes (eds.), *The Archaeology of Context in the Neolithic and Bronze Age: Recent Trends* (1988), 9-29.

[9] P. Shand, 'Early Neolithic pottery in quartzite-tempered fabrics occurs at Corporation Farm, Abingdon' (unpubl. Univ. of Reading M.A. thesis); P. Shand, E. Henderson and R. Henderson, 'Corporation Farm, Wilsham Road, Abingdon', in Barclay et al., op. cit. note 4.

[10] The pottery is likely to be contemporary with the Drayton long barrow and with early Neolithic tree clearance that pre-dates the construction of the cursus; see Barclay et al., op. cit. note 4.

[11] Paul Booth pers. comm.; unpubl. information from recent OAU excavations at Appleford Sidings.

[12] Shand et al., op. cit. note 9; Barclay et al., op. cit. note 4.

[13] J.C. Barrett, 'Four Bronze Age cremation cemeteries from Middlesex', *Trans. London & Middx. Archaeol. Soc.* xxiv (1973), 111-34; H.J. Case, N. Bayne, S. Steele, M. Avery and H. Sutermeister, 'Excavations at City Farm, Hanborough, Oxon.', *Oxoniensia*, xxix/xxx (1964), 1-98. There are a number of unpublished examples from recent Oxford Archaeological Unit excavations at Yarnton and Appleford Sidings.

[14] For a more detailed account of this aspect of the recording system see P. Booth, A. Boyle and G.D. Keevill, 'A Romano-British Kiln Site at Lower Farm, Nuneham Courtenay, and other sites on the Didcot to Oxford and Wootton to Abingdon water mains, Oxfordshire', *Oxoniensia*, lviii (1993), 87-217, esp. 135-6.

The fabrics are almost all likely to have derived from sources within the region, particularly the Oxford industry. A single sherd of Central Gaulish samian ware was the only import and the identification of a single black-burnished ware sherd is not completely certain. One fragment in the fine oxidised ware group O10 might originally have been of the white-slipped Oxford fabric Q21, and a small sherd of fabric R30 was notable for containing a number of ironstone ooliths along with sand temper.

The only vessel certainly represented by a rim sherd was from a large storage jar in fabric R90, of Young type R19.[15] A battered sherd in fabric O10 might have been either an odd footring base or a squat, upright rim fragment from a jar or bowl. A large base sherd in fabric R30 (context 263) had been roughly trimmed to a flat round shape. This could have happened in the Roman period or later.

Neither the range of fabrics nor the few indications of vessel form is particularly chronologically diagnostic, but a subjective impression is that most of the material could be of 1st- to 2nd-century date. Fabric R21, for example, is particularly characteristic of the mid 1st to early 2nd centuries in the Abingdon area. Many of the other fabrics, however, are found throughout the Roman period in this region. Characteristic late Roman Oxford products are absent, but in such a small assemblage this absence is not conclusive. While clearly indicative of Roman activity in the immediate vicinity, none of the Roman pottery was recovered from features thought to date to that period.

ANGLO-SAXON, MEDIEVAL AND POST-MEDIEVAL POTTERY
by PAUL BLINKHORN (Fig. 8)

The pottery assemblage comprised 162 sherds with a total weight of 2,379 g. The minimum number of vessels (MNV), by measurement of rim sherd length, was 2.02. The assemblage comprised a range of wares which suggested that there was activity from the site from the 9th or early 10th century until the later 11th to early 12th century. Some of the pottery, especially the late Saxon wares, are extremely unusual finds in the rural context in the region.

Where appropriate, the coding system and chronology of the Oxfordshire County type-series has been used, as follows:[16]

Fabrics:
OXB: Late Saxon Oxford ware ('Oxford Shelly ware'). Handmade, later vessels wheel-finished. Late 8th-early 11th century.
OXR: St. Neots ware type T1(1). AD 850-1100.
OXZ: Stamford ware. *c.* AD 900-1200.
OXAC: Cotswold-type ware. AD 975-1350.
OXBF: South-west Oxfordshire ware. Late 9th-early 13th century.
OXY: Medieval Oxford ware. AD 1075-1350.
OXDR: Red earthenwares. AD 1550+.
OXDQ: Staffordshire-type slip-trailed wares. AD 1640-1800.

Early/middle Saxon wares: Undecorated, handmade wares, in two main fabrics, one of which has a dense chaff temper, and the other dense quartz. The absence of decorated sherds makes it impossible to date the material other than to within the broad period AD 450–850.

Thetford-type ware: Wheel-thrown sandy ware, produced at several centres in East Anglia, such as Thetford, Ipswich and Norwich. All the sherds from this site appear to be products of the Ipswich kilns.[17] *c.* AD 900–1150.

Late Medieval Oxidized ware: South Midlands? Brick red fabric with dense rounded white, pink and black sub-rounded quartz up to 1 mm., giving a slightly harsh surface. 15th-16th century.

[15] C.J. Young, *The Roman Pottery Industry of the Oxford Region* (BAR 43, 1977), 212-13.
[16] M. Mellor, 'Oxford Pottery: A Synthesis of Middle and Late Saxon, Medieval and early Post-medieval Pottery in the Oxford Region', *Oxoniensia*, lix (1994), 17-217.
[17] S.E. West, 'Excavations at Cox Lane (1958) and at the Town Defences, Shire Hall Yard, Ipswich', *Proc. Suffolk Inst. Archaeol. Hist.* xxix (1964), 233-303.

TABLE 2. POTTERY OCCURRENCE BY NUMBER AND WEIGHT (G.) OF SHERDS PER CONTEXT BY FABRIC TYPE

	IA/RB		*E/MS*		*OXB*		*OXR*		*STAM*		*THET*		*OXAC*		*OXY*		*OXBF*		*MOX*		*OXDR*		*OXDQ*		*19thC*		
Ctx.	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*No*	*Wt*	*Date*
2	2	21	1	3			1	24									1	7									9th/10thC?
4			2	38	1	26	20	212	1	5	1	6					18	472	1	27							15thC?
10							2	21																			9th/10thC
15											1	2	2	14			3	43							3	52	19thC
17	1	2																									IA
20	1	29					1	18																			9th/10thC
21							5	53																			9th/10thC
23							1	3									1	9									9th/10thC?
42																					2	45					16thC
52	1	32					1	6																			9th/10thC?
58							6	24																			9th/10thC
59																	1	4									9th/10thC?
84							1	8																			9th/10thC?
92			1	10																							E/MSax
96	1	5	1	1			3	38							2	63											11thC?
100													1	17													11thC?
109																	1	4									9th/10thC?
117							1	2																			9th/10thC
119																	1	1					1	6			17thC
129																	2	35									9th/10thC?
149					1	42	4	27	1	4	1	14			3	24	12	68									L11thC
163																	1	1									9th/10thC?
168																	1	8									9th/10thC?
173	1	6									2	9															9th/10thC
175							8	259																			9th/10thC
177	1	2			1	1	2	23																			9th/10thC
180																	1	6									9th/10thC?
217	2	11					2	11							1	11	2	29									11thC
222																	1	106									9th/10thC?

234							2	15									2	62									9th/10thC?
235							1	2																			9th/10thC?
245			1	1																							E/MSax
249																	2	104									9th/10thC?
265	3	36																									IA?
273	10	65																									Prehist?
278																	2	16									9th/10thC?
295	1	7	1	14													1	7									9th/10thC?
305							6	88																			8th/9thC
305							2	15																			8th/9thC
321							1	5																			9th/10thC
350					1	14											1	68									9th/10thC?
374											1	7															9th/10thC?
414			1	5																							E/MSax
437																	1	14									11thC
Totals	24	216	8	72	4	83	70	854	2	9	6	38	3	31	6	98	55	1064	1	27	2	45	1	6	1	15	

The pottery occurrence by number and weight of sherds per context by fabric type is shown in Table 2. This group is one of the first medieval pottery assemblages to be found in Drayton. In 1994 Mellor listed the parish as having no finds of medieval pottery,[18] and the range of fabric types which occurred at this site, especially the late Saxon material, is worthy of some comment. Pottery assemblages of the 9th and 10th centuries are rare finds in Oxfordshire, other than at urban centres such as Oxford. The presence of sherds of OXB is unusual in a rural context, and most known finds of the material are to the north and north-west of Oxford.[19] Similarly, finds of East Anglian and Mercian late Saxon wares such as St. Neots ware and Ipswich-Thetford ware are extremely rare finds in Oxfordshire, especially to the south of the Thames, with this group being one of the most southerly groups of the material ever found. It is likely that the Ipswich-Thetford ware was brought to the site via London. The material, unlike its middle Saxon predecessor, Ipswich ware, is rarely found any great distance from the production centre at the Suffolk town, apart from the small quantities which are known from late Saxon London.[20] St. Neots ware was present in very large quantities at the *burh* at Wallingford,[21] but otherwise only a handful of finds of such pottery have been made in southern Oxfordshire.[22] The situation is similar with Stamford ware, with very few finds of the material in southern Oxfordshire other than in the urban centres.[23] One of the sherds of Stamford ware is from a vessel with stamped applied strips (Fig. 8.7). Stamping is rare on such pottery, with only four different motifs known.[24] The impressions on this sherd appear similar, if not identical, to one of the known types, which was noted on a handled storage jar from possibly Norman deposits at Stamford Castle,[25] although on the vessel in question, stamping was limited to the rim-top and handles, and the applied strips were thumb-impressed rather than stamped.

Another remarkable feature of this assemblage is the relatively small quantities of Cotswolds-type ware (OXAC) present. This material is found throughout Oxfordshire, and is known from sites in Northamptonshire and Buckinghamshire. It is inevitably one of the major wares at sites of the period in the region. Its low representation at this site cannot be due to chronology; other contemporary wares, such as OXAQ and OXY are well-represented. A similar lack of material on sites to the south of the Thames has been noted before,[26] and this group appears to conform to the pattern. Similarly, the presence of large quantities of OXBF at the site are in keeping with known assemblages to the south of the Thames.[27] Overall, despite its small size, this assemblage is a useful addition to the corpus of knowledge of the late Saxon and Saxo-Norman pottery traditions of Oxfordshire.

Chronology

The range of ware types present at this site indicate that the main period of post-Roman activity was from the late 9th or early 10th century to the later 11th or early 12th century, and there may also have been some occupation of the site in the early or middle Saxon period. The presence of hand-made chaff- and sand-tempered pottery at the site would, superficially, suggest that there was activity during the period AD 450-850, but this is not necessarily the case. Mellor has noted that such pottery is found in association with late Saxon pottery (such as St. Neots ware) in the county of Oxfordshire,[28] and it may therefore have still been in use at that time. Only three of the eight sherds of handmade pottery from this site were found without later wares in association, and two of the three were extremely small in size. It is entirely possible therefore that some or even all of the handmade material is of 9th-century date, but it is impossible to say this with certainty due to the somewhat homogenous nature of such pottery. Where such sherds have occurred without any later material in association, they have been given a date of the early/middle Saxon period ('E/MS'), but this should be regarded as a *terminus post quem*, and they could equally likely be later in date.

18 Mellor, op. cit. note 16, pp. 211-12.
19 Ibid. 40.
20 A.G. Vince, 'The Saxon and Medieval Pottery of London: A Review', *Medieval Archaeology*, xxix (1985), 25-93.
21 Mellor, op. cit. note 16, fig. 9.
22 Ibid. fig. 8.
23 K. Kilmurry, *The Pottery Industry of Stamford, Lincs. c. AD 850-1250* (BAR 84, 1980), fig. 32.
24 Ibid. p. 83, fig. 73.
25 Ibid. p. 112, fig. 23.160.
26 Mellor, op. cit. note 16, p. 50.
27 Ibid. 53.
28 Ibid. 28.

The other wares types show that activity probably began in the later 9th or 10th century. Oxford shelly ware (OXB) can be as early as the late 8th century,[29] but all the material at this site was found in association with later material such as St. Neots ware and, unless redeposited, would appear to be contemporary. The earliest absolute date for St. Neots ware in Oxfordshire is the early 10th century,[30] but in Northamptonshire, it is known from the mid 9th century.[31] The flat-topped rim bowl (Fig. 8.3) is an early form, and numerous vessels of this type occurred in the 9th century deposits at West Cotton in Northamptonshire.[32] Such forms did last into the 10th century, however, and so the earliest dating for the late Saxon activity at this site must be given as the 9th-10th centuries.

There are similar problems with the dating of OXBF. The material is well-attested from deposits dating to the mid 11th century in Oxfordshire,[33] but earlier finds have been made; sherds of the material were noted in association with a coin of Alfred with a loss-date of 875-880 at Fairford in Gloucestershire.[34] At least some of the assemblage from this site may be of a similarly early date. A significant proportion of the ware-group was found either with no other pottery in association or stratified with St. Neots ware and no later material. A few sherds were in association with OXB or handmade sherds only. Thus, a good case can be made for at least part of the assemblage from this site being of late 9th- or early 10th-century date. The southerly location of the site means that it was nearer the probable source of the ware in the Savernake Forest[35] than places such as Oxford, and thus likely to have been supplied with the material at an earlier date than the county town. Consequently, groups from this site which produced OXBF and no material later than St. Neots ware have been given a *terminus post quem* of the 9th-10th centuries.

The presence of early medieval Oxford ware (OXY), including a single glazed sherd, shows that activity at the site continued until around the end of the 11th century or into the early 1100s. This is supported by the lack of datable 12th-century wares from the site, such as East Wiltshire ware (OXAQ), a relatively common find on contemporary sites in southern Oxfordshire.[36]

The few sherds of later material, such as Late Medieval Oxidized ware, OXDR and OXDQ show that there was limited activity from the later 15th century onwards.

Cross-fits

Two cross-fits were noted:
4 = 234, OXBF, jar rim (Fig. 8.5).
4 = 15, OXBF, body sherds.

Illustrated sherds (Fig. 8)

1. Chaff-tempered handmade rim. Uniform black fabric with a dark brown outer surface. Traces of sooting on shoulder. Context 92.
2. Full profile of bowl. Dark grey with brown surfaces. OXB. Context 149.
3. Bowl rim. Dark grey fabric with brown surfaces. OXR. Context 21.
4. Upper part of bowl. Dark grey fabric with purplish-grey surfaces. Sooting on lower outer body. OXR. Context 175.
5. Upper part of jar. Grey fabric with darker surfaces. OXBF. Contexts 4 and 234.
6. Upper part of jar. Grey fabric with orange surfaces. Outer surface and rim extensively sooted. OXBF. Context 222.
7. Body sherd with stamped applied strip. Orange-pink fabric with grey inner surface and core. OXZ. Context 4.
8. Jar rim. Pale grey fabric with dark surfaces. OXY. Context 96.

[29] Ibid. 41.
[30] Ibid. 57.
[31] V. Denham, 'The Pottery', in J.H. Williams, M. Shaw and V. Denham, *Middle Saxon Palaces at Northampton* (Northampton Development Corp. Monograph Ser. 4, 1985), 46-64.
[32] P.W. Blinkhorn, 'The Post-Roman Pottery', in A. Chapman, *West Cotton: A Study in Settlement Dynamics. Excavations at West Cotton, Raunds, Northamptonshire 1985-9* (English Heritage Monograph Series, in press).
[33] Mellor, op. cit. note 16, p. 54.
[34] Ibid. 51, 54.
[35] Ibid. 51.
[36] Ibid. fig. 23.

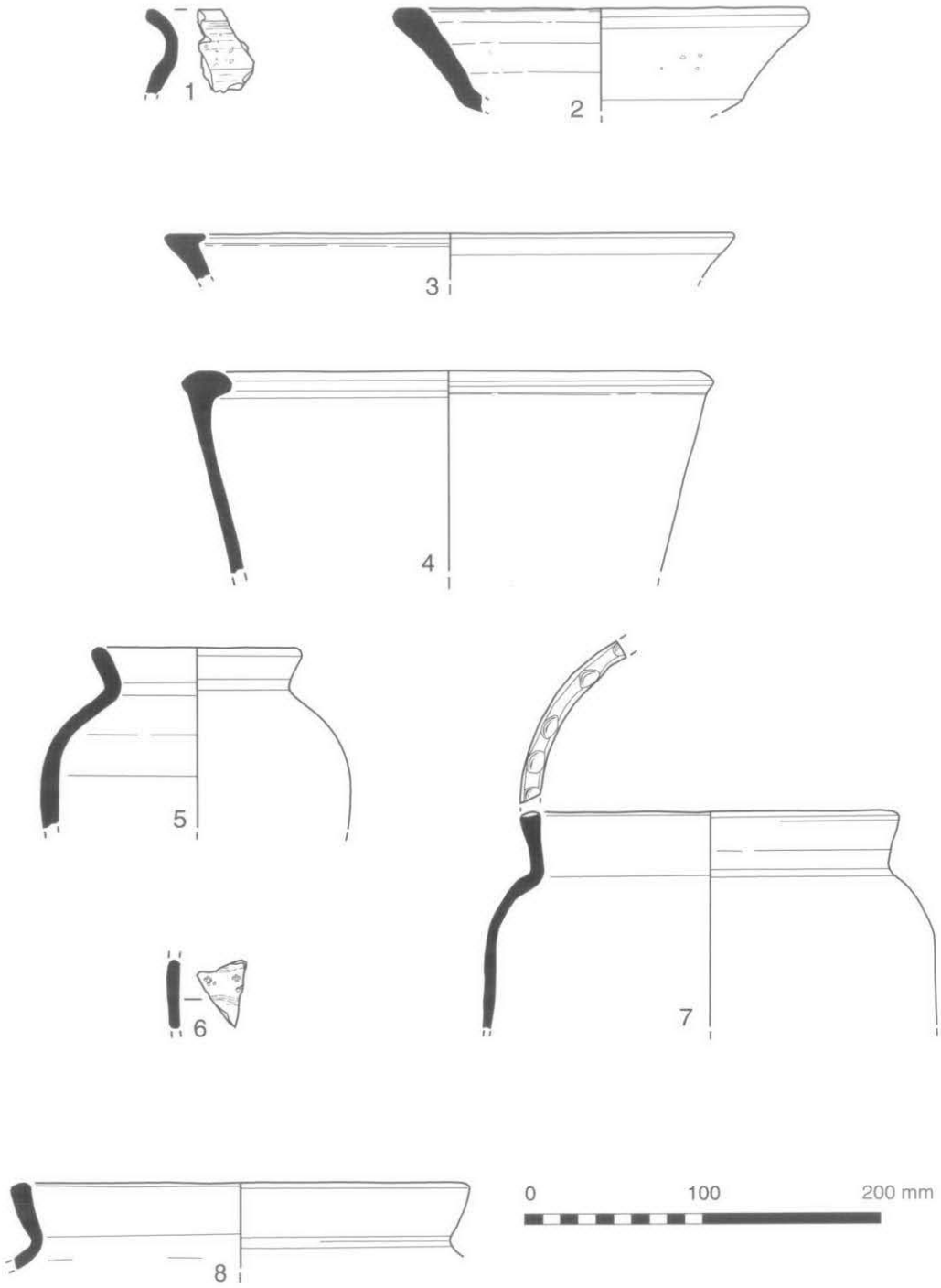

Fig. 8. Saxon pottery.

METAL OBJECTS by LEIGH ALLEN (Fig. 9)
(with identification of the strap-end by Dr. Gabor Thomas)

A small assemblage of metalwork was recovered from the excavations. An elaborately decorated zoomorphic strap-end and two iron knives dated to the mid-late Saxon period were recovered from a ditch fill containing late medieval pottery. A third knife and a possible spoon bit were recovered from 9th- to 10th-century contexts.

The zoomorphic strap-end (SF1, Fig. 9.1) recovered from context 4 has a split butt-end and two rivet holes for attachment. The main body of the strap-end is decorated with three tear-shaped fields of niello, inlaid with small spirals of silver wire. Additional fields are located in the circular ears and facetted eyes. The general appearance of the strap-end is scarab-like with a short squared-off snout. An almost identical example to the Drayton strap-end was recovered from Boxted in Suffolk.[37] Zoomorphic strap-ends have a wide distribution throughout Britain, reaching the peak of their production in the 9th century. This particular form exemplified by the fine silver wire and niello has been found in several coin hoards dating to the second half of the 9th century. The distribution of this form is concentrated in East Anglia where 55 examples have been recovered. Outlying examples have so far only appeared in the Yorkshire wolds, Cambridge, *Hamwic*, and Repton in Derbyshire. This example is broken across the butt end on the obverse, a common type of break on this 9th-century form.

The two knives from context 4 are mid to late Saxon in date. SF 4 (Fig. 9.3) has a tang greater in length than the blade and a cutting edge heavily sharpened to an elongated S-curve. This is a characteristic Viking type that did not continue in use in post-Conquest England. The second knife, SF 3 has a centrally placed tang that is shorter than the blade. The blade back is horizontal angling down to the tip; the blade edge is worn. A third knife fragment (SF 6) was recovered from ditch fill 173, of which most of the tang is missing. The blade edge and back run parallel before both tapering to the tip. A tool with a lanceolate terminal and a square-sectioned shank was recovered from pit fill 177. The shank tapers to point at the end and could have been used as a piercer or drill bit to make holes in leather or wood. Finally a section of chain with a pendant attached was recovered from context 339 (topsoil). The chain consists of five long flat links alternating between five round links. Attached to the final circular link is a hexagonal pendant decorated on both sides with flowers; one side has a stylised flower head, the other side has a more realistic flower with leaves. Attached to the same link is a decorative opaque white glass fitting, conical in shape with ridges around. A similar length of chain with alternate flat and circular links, but with a plain pendant, was recovered from St. Peter's Street Northampton from a post-medieval context.[38]

WORKED BONE by LEIGH ALLEN (Fig. 9)

Two bone objects were recovered from the excavations. A small bone pin was recovered from the topsoil and a fragment of polished long bone from context 4, a mixed layer containing late medieval pottery.

The pin (SF9, Fig. 9.2) is small and slender; it has a rounded head with a circular perforation through it that has been drilled from both sides. The whole pin is polished and appears to be decorated. There is a fine incised transverse groove above the perforation and two further transverse grooves or notches on both of the narrow sides adjacent to the perforation.

This form of pin is commonly found on sites ranging in date from the Iron Age to the Saxon period. Decorated examples however are more unusual. Two examples with transverse grooves forming part of the decoration were recovered from Fishergate, York, from 9th- and 11th- to 12th-century contexts.[39]

FLINT by HUGO LAMDIN-WHYMARK

A total of 19 flints and one piece of burnt unworked flint were recovered from 15 contexts on the site. The condition was generally poor, with post-depositional edge damage visible on the majority of flints. It is probable that it is residual. All of the flints recovered appeared to be of the same mid brown raw material,

[37] G. Thomas, 'Silver Wire Strap-ends from East Anglia', *Anglo-Saxon Studies in Archaeology and History*, 9 (1996), 81-100, fig. 4c, no. 43.

[38] G.E. Oakley and L.E. Webster, 'The Copper Alloy Objects' in J.H. Williams, *St. Peters Street Northampton, Excavations 1973-1976* (Archaeological Monograph 2, 1979), 248-65, 258, fig. CA 6, no. 109.

[39] N.S.H. Rogers, *Anglian and other finds from 46-54 Fishergate* (The Archaeology of York 17/9, 1993), 1368-9, fig. 667, nos. 5542 and 5549.

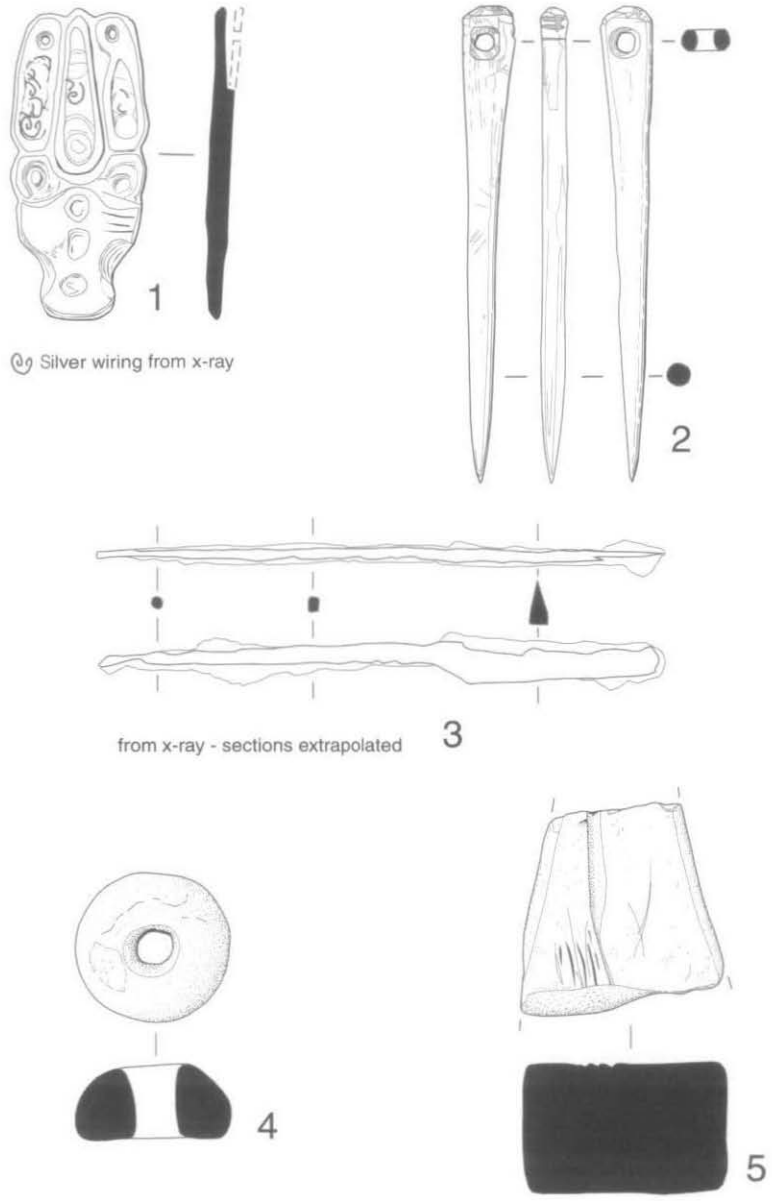

Fig. 9. Saxon objects: (1) Strap-end; (2) bone pin; (3) iron knife; (4) spindlewhorl; (5) whetstone.

containing many small cherty inclusions; occasional thermal fractures were present. The cortex is white and about 3-4 mm. thick. The surface of the cortex appears to be slightly weathered, although it is not rolled. It is likely that the flint is from a derived source, although not from the river gravels.

The artefacts were catalogued according to broad artefact/debitage type, general condition noted and dating attempted where possible. Unworked burnt flint was quantified by piece and weight. Table 3 shows the flint assemblage by category.

TABLE 3. THE FLINT ASSEMBLAGE BY CATEGORY

Category Type	*Total*
Flake	13
Tested nodule/bashed lump	1
Single platform flake core	1
End scraper	1
Side scraper	1
Other scraper	1
Retouched flake	1
Burnt unworked	1
Total	20

The assemblage was primarily composed of relatively squat flakes. The flakes were struck using a mixture of hard and soft hammer percussion. A few flakes exhibited platform edge abrasion, although this was not a common trait and was not present on the flake core. Four retouched flints were recovered including three scrapers. The scrapers were all relatively crudely manufactured on flakes, with limited areas of abrupt retouch. Technologically, the material in this assemblage appears to represent a mixture of later Neolithic and Bronze Age flintwork. The limited size of the assemblage and absence of diagnostic artefacts precludes refined dating.

WORKED STONE by FIONA ROE (Fig. 9)

The pieces of stone described here came from five contexts. There are two worked objects, a spindle whorl and a whetstone, while eight small fragments of Niedermendig lava probably came from one or more rotary querns. These are all finds that could fit well into a late Saxon setting.

The spindle whorl (Fig. 9.4) is complete, and is made from a fine-grained limestone, probably the local Kimmeridge Clay.[40] It is plano-convex in shape (Fig. 9.4), and belongs to one of the common varieties known from sites such as Winchester, Lincoln and York.[41] The distinctive shape resembles that of bone spindle whorls, which have often been found made from the heads of cattle femurs.[42]

The whetstone (Fig. 9.5) is incomplete, but is a rectangular block showing wear on all four sides, while additional grooves on two of the sides are evidence for point sharpening. It is made from a fairly fine-grained, buff coloured, slightly micaceous sandstone of unknown provenance.

The fragments of Niedermendig lava only amount to *c.* 105 g. This small quantity of recovered quern stone is fairly typical of a material that does not survive well in certain soil conditions. Niedermendig lava may not always have been recorded from Saxon sites in the area, but it is now becoming clear that it was extensively traded up the Thames from at least middle Saxon times. Lava quern fragments of middle and late Saxon date have been found at Eynsham Abbey, Oxfordshire.[43] Some late Saxon finds of lava are

[40] W.J. Arkell, *The Jurassic System in Great Britain* (1933), 459.

[41] M. Woodland, 'Spindlewhorls', in M. Biddle, *Object and Economy in Medieval Winchester* (Winchester Studies 7ii, 1990), 216-25; J. Mann, *Early Medieval Finds from Flaxengate* (The Archaeology of Lincoln, xiv-1, 1982), 23-4; A.J. Mainman and N.S.H. Rogers, *Craft, Industry and Everyday Life: Finds from Anglo-Scandinavian York* (The Archaeology of York 17/14, 2000), 2529.

[42] Mann, op. cit. note 41, p. 23, fig. 21.

[43] A. Hardy, A. Dodd and G. Keevill, *Aelfric's Abbey: Excavations at Eynsham Abbey, Oxfordshire* (Oxford Archaeology Thames Valley Landscapes Monograph 16, 2003), 292.

known from Oxford, as for instance from under both the Castle Mound and Nuffield College.[44] There is also a little evidence for the use of lava in late Saxon Abingdon.[45] The small collection of lava fragments from Drayton is useful for filling in the still limited picture of what must have been an important aspect of Anglo-Saxon trade.

Catalogue

Complete spindle whorl (Fig. 9.4), plano-convex type, slightly burnt, straight-bored hole: diam. 39 mm., th. 19 mm., diam. of hole 9 mm., 38 g. Fine-grained, light coloured limestone, likely to be from local Kimmeridge Clay. ?Saxon/Medieval. Context 3 (ditch)(SF2).

Two small fragments, probably originally from rotary quern: 5 g. Niedermendig lava. 9th/10th century. Context 20 (layer of cobbling in NW. corner).

Four small fragments, probably originally from rotary quern: 60 g. Niedermendig lava. 11th century. Context 96 (ditch).

Two small fragments, probably originally from rotary quern: 40 g. Niedermendig lava. 11th century. Context 217 (ditch fill within area of 279).

Part of whetstone (Fig. 9.5), slightly burnt, well worn on all four sides, with grooves from point sharpening on two sides: now 53 x 50 x 34 mm., 110 g. Banded sandstone, fairly fine-grained, well sorted quartz grains with a little mica, originally light buff coloured but now mainly burnt pink, source uncertain. ?Saxon. Context 227 (ditch fill of 368).

BURNT CLAY by KAYT BROWN

A small amount (82 fragments weighing 1150 g.) of burnt clay was recovered from five contexts. Four of these contexts (fills 58 (f.o.270), 234, 301, 305) were phased to the late Saxon/early medieval period, and one context (4) assigned a post-medieval date. The material was in a poor condition, being abraded and fragmentary. Late Saxon/early medieval contexts produced daub and a very worn fragment of a possible loomweight, although a large proportion could not be identified to type.

CERAMIC BUILDING MATERIAL by KAYT BROWN

A small assemblage of 10 fragments of ceramic building material weighing 639 g. was recovered during the excavation. This material comprised a fragment of Roman plain flat tile, medieval and post-medieval plain tiles and three fragments of a post-medieval brick.

ENVIRONMENTAL EVIDENCE

ANIMAL BONE by BETHAN CHARLES

A total of 565 fragments of bone were recovered from the site. Many of the bones were re-assembled reducing the fragment count to 444. From this number, 384 (13 401 g.) fragments were retrieved by hand from the site and a further 60 (39 g.) sherds of bone were recovered from environmental samples, sieved through a mesh of >10 mm. and 10-4 mm. where necessary. Only 44% of the bulk bone was identified to species and 25% was identified from the sieved material.

Methodology

The calculation of the species recovered from the site was done through the use of the total fragment method. All fragments of bone were counted including elements from the vertebral centrum, ribs and long bone shafts. The minimum number of individuals was not calculated due to the small number of bones recovered. The

[44] E.M. Jope, 'Late Saxon Pits under Oxford Castle Mound: Excavations in 1952', *Oxoniensia*, xvii/xviii (1952-3), 98.

[45] T.G. Allen et al., *Excavations in the Vineyard, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, vol. ii: From Abbey to Civil War* (OA publication; in prep.).

sheep and goat bones were separated using the criteria of Boessneck and Prummel and Frisch, in addition to the use of the reference material housed at the OA.[46] However, since only one fragment was identified as goat all remaining caprine bones are listed as sheep.

The ageing of the animals was based on tooth eruption and epiphyseal fusion. Silver's tables were used to give timing of epiphyseal closure for cattle, sheep, pigs and horses.[47] Data from epiphyseal fusion can be found in the archive. Sheep's tooth eruption and wear was measured using a combination of Payne and Grant's tables.[48] Cattle tooth eruption and wear was measured using Halstead and Grant's tables.[49] Pig tooth eruption and wear was measured using Higham, Bull and Payne, and Grant's tables, defined by Hambleton.[50] Only the data from the tooth eruption and wear for cattle and sheep from the Saxon period has been included in this report due to the small numbers of mandibles from other periods. None of the animals were sexed due to lack of indicative elements. The measurements taken were those defined by von den Driesch and can be found in the archive.[51]

Condition

The bone was in excellent condition with very little attritional damage. However, many of the pieces were small fragments of bone, contributing to the small number of bones identified to species. Many of the bones had butchery marks, most of which were from the Saxon deposits from which most of the bone was found. Some of the bones were split which may indicate that the marrow was being extracted.

Thirty-five fragments of bone had tooth marks, almost all of which were from the Saxon deposits. These marks would have been caused by dog gnawing which would have added to the dispersion of the bones across site. Only a few fragments of bone had been burnt, again most of which were from the Saxon deposits.

Results (Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7)

TABLE 4. TOTAL FRAGMENTS OF HAND-COLLECTED BONE ACCORDING TO SPECIES AND PHASE

Phase	*Horse*	*Cattle*	*Sheep*	*Goat*	*Pig*	*Red Deer*	*Dog*	*D. Goose*	*D. Fowl*	*Unidentified*	*Total*
Unphased	1	10	9	0	2	1	0	0	0	48	71
Prehistoric	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5
Roman	2	8	6	0	4	0	0	0	1	29	50
Saxon	7	58	28	0	12	0	1	1	1	104	212
Post-Medieval	2	3	8	1	3	0	0	0	1	28	46
Total	12	80	52	1	21	1	1	1	3	212	384

[46] J. Boessneck, 'Osteological Differences in Sheep (*Ovis aries* Linné) and Goat (*Capra hircus* Linné)', in D. Brothwell and E. Higgs (eds.), *Science in Archaeology* (1969), 331-58; W. Prummel and H.-J. Frisch, 'A Guide for the Distinction of Species, sex and body size in bones of sheep and goat', *Jnl. of Archaeol. Sci.* xiii (1986), 567-77.

[47] I.A. Silver, 'The Ageing of Domestic Animals', in D. Brothwell and E. Higgs, *Science in Archaeology* (1969), 283-302.

[48] A. Grant, 'The Use of Tooth Wear as a Guide to the Age of Domestic Ungulates', in B. Wilson, C. Grigson and S. Payne (eds.), *Ageing and Sexing Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (BAR 109, 1982), 91-108; S. Payne, 'Kill-Off Patterns in Sheep and Goats: The Mandibles from Asvan Kale', *Anatolian Studies: Jnl. of Brit. Inst. of Archaeol. at Ankara*, xxiii (1973), 281-305.

[49] P. Halstead, 'A Study of Mandibular Teeth from Romano-British Contexts at Maxey', in F. Pryor and C. French, *Archaeology and Environment in the Lower Welland Valley* (E. Anglian Archaeol. Report 27, 1985), 219-24; Grant, op. cit. note 48.

[50] C.F.W. Higham, 'Appendix, Stock Rearing as a Cultural Factor in Prehistoric Europe', *Proc. of Prehistoric Soc.* xxxiii (1969), 84-106; G. Bull and S. Payne, 'Tooth Eruption and Epiphyseal Fusion in Pigs and Wild Boar', in Wilson et al., op. cit. note 48, pp. 55-71; Grant, op. cit. note 48; E. Hambleton, *Animal Husbandry Regimes in Iron Age Britain. A comparative study of faunal assemblages from British Iron Age sites* (BAR 282, 1999).

[51] A. von den Driesch, *Guide to the Measurement of Animal Bones from Archaeological Sites* (Peabody Museum Bulletin 1, 1976).

TABLE 5. TOTAL NUMBER OF BONE FRAGMENTS FROM ENVIRONMENTAL SAMPLES ACCORDING TO SPECIES AND PHASE

Phase	*Sheep*	*Frog*	*Unidentified*	*Total*
Unphased	2	6	7	15
Roman	0	0	5	5
Saxon	3	4	33	40
Total	5	10	45	60

TABLE 6. TOOTH WEAR STAGES OF SHEEP MANDIBLES FROM SAXON DEPOSITS

Phase	*2–6mth*	*6–12mth*	*1–2yrs*	*2–3yrs*	*3–4yrs*	*4–6yrs*	*6–8yrs*
Saxon	0	1	1	1	1	1	2

TABLE 7. TOOTH WEAR STAGES OF CATTLE MANDIBLES FROM SAXON DEPOSITS

Phase	*8–18 mth*	*Adult*	*Old Adult*
Saxon	1	1	2

Prehistoric: A fragment of sheep tibia with tooth marks and a small fragment of cattle rib were the only elements identified from the prehistoric deposits.

Roman: It can be seen in Tables 4 and 5 that only a small number of bones were recovered from the Roman deposits. These included elements from cattle, sheep, pig, horse and domestic fowl, in the order of the most bone recovered. The few bones do not give us much information regarding the economy of the site beyond the presence of the animals.

Saxon: The majority of the assemblage came from the Saxon deposits with cattle and sheep being the predominant species. The tooth wear stages for the sheep (Table 6) indicate that the animals were killed at all ages and that some were kept until very old. It is likely that the animals were kept primarily for their secondary products such as wool, milk and dung. It can be seen from the tooth wear stages in Table 7 that three of the four cattle represented had reached adulthood before being killed. It is possible that the animals were kept for traction purposes as well as for secondary products such as milk and dung. The younger animal may have been killed as part of an increase in dairy production. However, the small number of mandibles limits interpretation. A small number of pig bones were also recovered from the site. It does not appear that pigs were intensively farmed at the site. The limited amount of ageing data indicates that the animals were killed before two years of age. Seven fragments of horse bone were found from the Saxon deposits. One humerus had chop marks indicating that horse meat was eaten by the inhabitants, although it is unlikely that it contributed greatly to their diet. Only two fragments of bird bone were recovered from this period consisting of a fragment of a domestic fowl ulna and a domestic goose ulna. Other animals from Saxon deposits included a single dog tibia, and a number of frog bones from the sieved material.

Post-medieval: Only a small number of bones were recovered from this period of occupation. It appears that sheep were the most numerous animals kept at the site. Measurements taken from two of the sheep bones indicate that the sheep were larger than those from the earlier periods, indicative of improved breeding. Other bones from this period of occupation include cattle, pig, horse, goat and domestic fowl.

Conclusion

The small number of bones recovered from the site does not allow a clear interpretation of the animal husbandry practices at site during the individual periods of occupation. Most of the animal bones were recovered from the Saxon period of occupation and represent the greatest variety in species recovered. However, it is unlikely that this represents anything other than a medium-status settlement. The other periods of occupation do not contain enough bone to give more information other than the presence of the animals at the site. The bones of the cattle and sheep are larger during the post-medieval period due to improvements made during this period.

CHARRED PLANT REMAINS by RUTH PELLING (Fig. 10)

Methodology

Bulk samples were taken for the extraction of charred plant remains. Assessment of the samples demonstrated that two contained a good quantity of charred seeds and chaff, notably a large number of pulses. Both samples were therefore examined further. The samples were derived from ditches of late Saxon/early medieval date. Spot dating suggests sample 6 (context 234) was of 9th- to 10th-century date and sample 3 (context 305) dated to the 8th-9th centuries.

As funding for the project was limited, the samples could not be sorted and identified in full. Samples were therefore scanned under a binocular microscope at x10 magnification, and only some items were extracted. Cereal grain was not extracted but was provisionally identified during scanning and the abundance was estimated. Cereal rachis, non-cereal cultivated seeds and weed seeds were extracted. It was clear that pulses formed a significant component of the samples. Given the suspected presence of *Vicia sativa* subsp. *sativa* (cultivated vetch) in what would be early contexts, the pulses were identified and quantified in full. Chaff and other cultivated species were also identified and counted. All species of weed seed noted were identified, while counts were estimated, with the exception of the vetches. An estimated minimum number of total weed seeds is given for each sample.

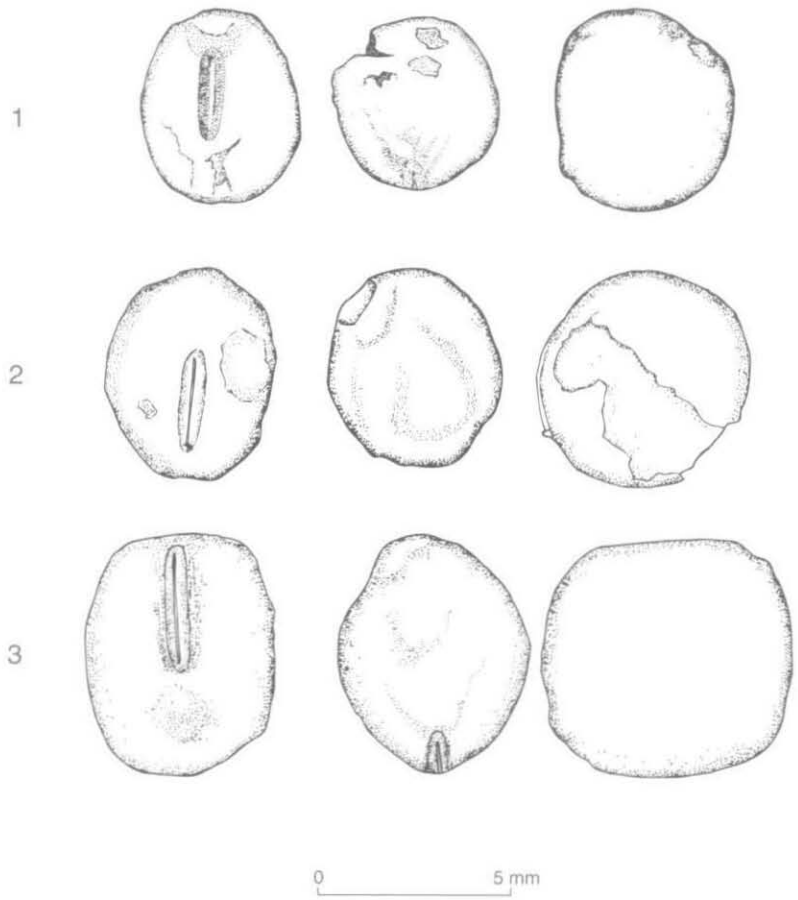

Fig. 10. Seeds of *vicia sativa* cf. subsp. *sativa*: (10.1, 10.2) Archaeological examples from Drayton; (10.3) Modern example from OUM reference collection.

Identification Notes

Identification of plant remains is based on morphological characteristics and by comparison with a modern reference collection held at the Oxford University Museum of Natural History. Nomenclature and taxonomic order of wild species follows Clapham, Tutin and Moore.[52] Identification criteria of grain and chaff are well documented.[53] The tetraploid wheat, identified on the basis of its trapezoid shape and bulges beneath the point of attachment, is likely to be *Triticum turgidum* (rivet wheat) on ecological grounds and on the basis of later documentary evidence. The hexaploid rachis, identified by its shield shape internodes with longitudinal lines, and distinct fold beneath the point of attachment is recorded as *Triticum aestivum* (bread wheat).

The pulses were identified according to surface dimensions and shape of hilum. Seed size is very variable in pulses and particularly in vetches for which there is a wide overlap in wild and cultivated forms. While only very large seeds of *Vicia sativa* can be identified as cultivated with certainty, it is usual to separate large and small seeded vetches in archaeobotanical material. Zohary and Hopf give a size range for cultivated *Vicia sativa* (subspecies *sativa*) as 4.5-7.0 mm. in diameter.[54] Reference material held at the Oxford University Museum of Natural History ranged from 4.6 mm. to 5.6 mm., while for *Vicia sativa* ssp *nigra* (wild vetch) the seeds were all less than 3.0 mm. The archaeological material from Drayton generally fell into two distinct size categories, those of 4.0 mm. or more and those of less than 3.0 mm. Some seeds fell in the 3.0 to 4.0 mm. range, but were mostly of 3.0 to 3.2 mm. All seeds smaller than 3.0 mm. were recorded as *Vicia/Lathyrus* sp. with no attempt of identification to species. All other seeds were subdivided according to hilum shape. If no hilum was preserved seeds were recorded as *Vicia/Lathyrus* or if greater than 4.0 mm. as *Vicia/Pisum* sp. (vetch/bean/pea). Seeds with a long, lozenge-shaped hilum were identified as *Vicia sativa* as seen in modern material (Fig. 10.3). Large seeds with a medium hilum were identified as *Vicia faba* var *minor*. No seeds with a short round hilum characteristic of *Pisum sativa* (pea) were present. The larger seeded *Vicia sativa* were recorded as cf. subspecies *sativa* (cultivated fodder vetch). Small seeded *Vicia sativa* were recorded as cf. subspecies *nigra* (wild vetch).

Results (Tables 8 and 9)

Both samples are dominated by cereal grains, notably free-threshing *Triticum* sp. (wheat). *Hordeum vulgare* (barley), *Avena* sp. (oats) and *Secale cereale* (rye) are also identified. The *Hordeum vulgare* grain includes hulled asymmetric grain, characteristic of hulled six-row barley. Chaff is also well represented in the samples and is dominated again by free-threshing *Triticum* sp. While most of the *Triticum* rachis was not identified to ploidy level, occasional fragments in both samples were identified as hexaploid, *Triticum aestivum* type. Two tetraploid, *Triticum turgidum* rachis internodes were identified in sample 6 (context 234). *Secale cereale* and *Hordeum vulgare* rachis were present.

Vetch-type seeds were numerous in both samples. The greatest majority were recorded as wild species following the size criteria outlined above. Of the seeds recorded as cultivated (greater than 4.0 mm.), possible *Vicia faba* var *minor* (broad bean) was present in both samples, while 4 seeds of *Vicia sativa* cf. subsp *sativa* (cultivated fodder vetch) were identified from sample 6 (see Figs. 10.1 and 10.2).

Other species of economic importance include *Linum usitatissimum* (flax) and *Corylus avellana* (hazel), represented by seeds and nut-shell fragments in both samples. A *Brassica/Sinapis* sp. seed in sample 6 may represent a crop species, although could be of a wild variety. The *Brassica* seed and one *Linum usitatissimum* seed were preserved by calcium phosphate mineral replacement which suggests they may have derived from dietary waste or sewage.

A range of arable weed seeds were identified while some species more characteristic of ruderal habitats were also present such as *Conium maculatum* (hemlock) and *Hyoscyamus niger* (henbane). The arable weeds suggest a typical Saxon flora of cereal crops. The *Agrostemma githago* (corn cockle) and numerous *Anthemis cotula* (stinking mayweed) are typical weeds of arable fields, both of which are often prolific in Saxon and medieval deposits. *Valerianella dentata* (narrow-fruited cornsalad) is a weed of arable crops on light, well-drained, soils. *Odontites verna* (red barstia), *Galium aparine* (goosegrass) and *Anthemis cotula* suggest the cultivation of heavier clay soils, while *Carex* sp.(sedges), *Eleocharis palustris* (common spikerush) and *Montia fontana* (blinks) are characteristic of wetter ground and/or seasonal flooding.

[52] A.R. Clapham, T.G. Tutin and M. Moore, *Flora of the British Isles* (1989).

[53] G.C. Hillman, S. Mason, D. DeMoulins and M. Nesbitt, 'Identification of Archaeological Remains of Wheat: the 1992 London workshop', *Circaea*, xii (2) (1995) 195-209; S. Jacomet, *Prähistorische Getreidefunde: Eine Anleitung zur Bestimmung prähistorischer Gersten- und Weizen-Funde* (1987); S. Jacomet (trans. J.Greig), *Prehistoric Cereal Finds: a guide to the identification of prehistoric barley and wheat finds* (1989).

[54] D. Zohary and M. Hopf, *Domestication of Plants in the Old World* (1988).

TABLE 8. CULTIVATED PLANTS FROM ENVIRONMENTAL SAMPLES

	Sample	3	6
	Context	305	234
	Provisional Date	8th/9th C	9th/10th C
Cereal Grain			
Triticum sp.	Free threshing wheat grain	500+	1000+
Hordeum vulgare	Barley grain	50+	100+
Secale cereale	Rye grain	10+	50+
Avena sp.	Oats	50+	100+
Indeterminate grain		+++	+++
Cereal Rachis			
Triticum aestivum type	Free-threshing hexaploid wheat rachis	3	10
Triticum turgidum	Rivet wheat (tetraploid) rachis		2
Triticum sp.	Free-threshing wheat rachis	130+	290+
Triticum sp.	Wheat, basal rachis		5
Hordeum vulgare	Barley rachis	1	
Secale cereale	Rye rachis	1	13
Cerealia indet	Rachis		++
Cerealia indet	Basal rachis	2	
Cereal size	Culm node	1	7
Cultivated Pulses			
cf. *Vicia faba* var *minor*	Celtic/Broad bean	1	2
Vicia sativa cf. subsp. *sativa*	Cultivated fodder vetch		4
Vicia/Pisum sp.	Vetch/Pea	3	9
Other Economic Plants			
Linum usitatissimum	Flax seeds	15+	2
cf. *Linum usitatissimum*	Flax, mineralised seed		1
Corylus avellana	Hazel nut shell fragments	10+	1

+ = 1–10 items; ++ = 11–50 items; +++ = 51+

TABLE 9. WEEDS FROM ENVIRONMENTAL SAMPLES

	Sample	3	6
	Context	305	234
	Provisional Date	8th/9th C	9th/10th C
Brassica/Sinapis sp.	Mustard/Cabbage etc., mineralised		1
Ranunculus subgen *Ranunculus*	Buttercup	+	+
Silene latifolia subsp. *alba*	White Campion	+	
Agrostemma githago	Corn Cockle		+
Montia fontana subsp. *chondrosperma*	Blinks	+	
Chenopodium album	Fat Hen		+
Atriplex sp.	Orache	+	
Malva sp.	Mallow		+
Vicia sativa cf. subsp. *nigra*	Common vetch	2	31
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	Vetch/Vetchling/Tare (large >3.0 mm.)	14	138
Vicia/Lathyrus sp.	Vetch/Vetchling/Tare (small <3.0 mm.)	10	138
Medicago/Lotus/Trifolium sp.	Medick/Clover/Trefoil	+	+
Conium maculatum	Hemlock	+	
Torilis japonica	Upright Hedge-parsley		+
Umbelliferae			+
Polygonum aviculare	Knotgrass	+	+
Fallopia convolvulus	Black Bindweed		+
Rumex sp.	Docks	+++	+
Hyoscyamus niger	Henbane	+	+
Odontites verna	Red Barstia	+	+
Galium aparine	Goosegrass/Cleavers	+	+
Sambucus nigra	Elderberry		+
Valerianella dentata	Narrow-fruited Cornsalad	+	+
Anthemis cotula	Stinking Mayweed	+++	+++
Tripleurospermum inodorum	Scentless Mayweed		+
Carduus/Cirsium sp.	Thistle	+	+
Centaurea nigra	Lesser Knapweed		+
Centaurea sp.	Knapweed/Thistle		+
Lapsana communis	Nipplewort	+	
Eleocharis palustris	Common Spike-rush		+
Carex sp.	Sedges	+	+
Poa annua type	Meadow-grass	+	+
Bromus subsect *Eubromus*	Brome grass	+++	+
Gramineae	Grass, small seeded		+
Total Weeds		200+	600+

+ = 1–10 items; ++ = 11–50 items; +++ = 51+

Discussion

The crop plants recorded from the late Saxon/early medieval deposits at Drayton Manor Farm are generally typical of the Saxon and medieval period. Free-threshing hexaploid bread type wheats, hulled barley, oats, rye, pulses and flax are all known from a range of sites of post-Roman date and suggest a typical mixed arable farming economic base. Two species require further comment, free-threshing tetraploid wheats, i.e. rivet wheat, and cultivated fodder vetch. The date of introduction of both species is unclear but has been assumed to be about the time of the Norman Conquest. Early finds of tetraploid wheat have been catalogued by Moffett, including a number of 12th- to 14th-century deposits in the Midlands, an 11th- to 12th-century deposit from Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire and a late 11th-century deposit from North Shoebury on the Thames Estuary.[55] These finds suggest an introduction after the Norman Conquest, although until a much greater body of information is available this cannot be securely demonstrated. At West Cotton tetraploid wheat is present from the 10th century.[56] The present examples may therefore support the West Cotton evidence for a pre-Norman introduction. However, given the small number of rachis identified as tetraploid it must also be considered that they represent contamination from later deposits.

The earliest documentary record for *Vicia sativa* ssp. *sativa* is from the early 13th century, where is it recorded as a field crop in the manorial accounts of the estates of the bishop of Winchester.[57] Documentary evidence also suggests that it was cultivated during the 13th and 14th centuries in chalk or limestone areas in southern Britain and in the north-west Midlands.[58] The identification of archaeological specimens of cultivated vetch is problematic due to the overlap in sizes, shrinkage of charred material and the damage of testa and hila by charring. It has however been recorded from 12th-century deposits at West Cotton in Northamptonshire[59] and more recently large seeded *Vicia sativa* has been recorded from Northfleet in Kent from a late 11th century deposit.[60] The Drayton material, therefore, raises the possibility of very early cultivation of *Vicia sativa* ssp *sativa* in the 9th to 10th centuries AD.

The presence of large amounts of cereal chaff would suggest that either cereal processing was taking place within the settlement or that straw/chaff was being utilised, for example for thatch or matting, or even for fuel. In either case this suggests that the cereals were cultivated and harvested locally rather than fully processed grain bring brought into the site. The weed flora is of a typical arable weed assemblage which gives some indication of the cultivation of heavy and seasonally wet soils as might be expected for a site situated on the flood plain. The number of weed seeds recorded was quite large, partially due to the large number of *Anthemis cotula* seeds, presumably from a seed head. A large number of vetch or vetch type seeds were also recorded. Wild vetches are often associated with cultivated vetches and may therefore represent their associated weed flora.

Conclusions

Assuming the dating of contexts 305 and 234 is accurate then the deposits are important in the evidence they provide for the early, pre-Norman cultivation of tetraploid wheat and fodder vetch. Without radiocarbon dating of the material such early cultivation cannot be indisputably demonstrated. The assemblage suggests that the late Saxon arable economy at the site was mixed, based on a range of cereals and cash crops or garden crops. The weed flora suggests the cultivation of floodplain soils, which with the evidence of the chaff would suggest at least some of the crops were being cultivated locally and processed within the site. The assemblages must represent mixed deposits of cereal/legume product and processing waste charred in one or more episodes of burning.

[55] L. Moffett, 'The Archaeobotanical Evidence for Free-threshing Wheat in Britain', in E. Hajnalova (ed.), *Palaeoethnobotany and Archaeology: International Work-Group for Palaeoethnobotany* (Acta Interdisciplinaria Archaeologica 7, 1989), 233-43.

[56] G. Campbell, 'The Preliminary Archaeobotanical Results from Anglo-Saxon West Cotton and Raunds', in J. Rackham (ed.), *Environment and Economy in Anglo-Saxon England* (CBA Research Report 89, 1994), 65-82.

[57] C.R.J. Currie, 'Early Vetches in Medieval England: a note', *Econ. Hist. Review* (2nd ser. xli, 1988), 114-16.

[58] B.M.S. Campbell, 'The Diffusion of Vetches in Medieval England', *Econ. Hist. Review* (2nd ser. xli, 1988), 193-208.

[59] Campbell, op. cit. note 56.

[60] R. Pelling, 'The Charred Plant Remains from Northfleet East Substation (NFES99)' (unpubl. report for OAU).

DISCUSSION

Although the archaeological features recorded at Drayton Manor Farm consist almost exclusively of gullies and ditches the excavation reveals important aspects of the archaeology of the village of Drayton.

The evidence for prehistoric activity consists of a 40 m. stretch of linear ditch and a possible waterhole. The former contained middle/late Bronze Age pottery typical of nearby sites from the area, and the flint assemblage also contained a Bronze Age element. Although these are the earliest features on the site, earlier activity is indicated by the finds assemblage containing both later Neolithic flintwork and earlier Neolithic pottery, including a rare example of a Carinated Bowl fragment.

The location of the site only 1 km. west of the Drayton Cursus is important.[61] The Carinated Bowl fragment probably predated this major addition to the prehistoric landscape, and may have been contemporary with the Drayton long barrow and pre-cursus clearance. However, the early date of the Drayton Cursus (3600-3300 cal BC) means that it may have been built not long after the long barrow, so the activity represented by the bowl fragment may have partially overlapped with cursus construction.[62]

Beyond the small amount of late Neolithic flint there is no evidence for activity at the site until the middle/late Bronze Age, by which time the cursus may have fallen out of use, being cut by a series of ring ditches of probable early Bronze Age date. Middle/late Bronze Age activity is, however, found to the north at Corporation Farm, Wilsham Road, Abingdon, which is the site of one of the best examples of a middle Bronze Age enclosed settlement from the Upper Thames Valley.[63] It was also associated with a middle Bronze Age field system. Although it is difficult to extrapolate the nature of middle Bronze Age/late Bronze Age activity at Manor Farm from one ditch and a waterhole, the presence of a Globular Urn fragment may imply some form of settlement in the immediate area, possibly of high status. As such this adds to the pattern of Bronze Age activity in the immediate area, with unenclosed settlements known from Appleford, as well as the enclosed Corporation Farm site.[64]

The Roman activity consisted of a series of small linear gullies, containing pottery characteristic of the 1st to 2nd century. Roman field systems were recorded to the east, over the gravel island which had previously been the location for the Drayton Cursus North.[65] These appear to belong to the 1st to 2nd century AD, and had reverted to grassland by the end of the Roman period. To the west recent work has revealed that the eastern end of the Vale of the White Horse contained a series of small Romano-British settlements, of which the site at Drayton may have been one.[66] Like Drayton some of these sites appear to have gone out of use by the end of the 2nd century. The lack of evidence for late Roman activity in Drayton may reflect the decline of the field systems, with a change from arable agriculture to a, possibly less intensive, pastoral economy using the nearby water meadows.

61 Barclay et al., op. cit. note 4.

62 Ibid.

63 J. Barrett and R. Bradley, 'The Later Bronze Age in the Thames Valley', in J. Barrett and R. Bradley (eds.), *Settlement and Society in the British Later Bronze Age* (BAR 83, 1980), 247-69, esp. 251, fig. 4.

64 D. Miles, 'Conflict and Complexity: the Later Prehistory of the Oxford Region', *Oxoniensia*, lxii (1997), 1-20.

65 P. Booth and M. Henig, *Roman Oxfordshire* (2000), 98-9.

66 C.M. Hearne, 'Archaeological Evaluation in the Vale of the White Horse, near Abingdon, 1992–99', *Oxoniensia*, lxv (2000), 7-12.

In the early Anglo-Saxon period Drayton was within the core area of early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries within the Thames basin between the Ock and Thames confluence. However, the evidence for early Anglo-Saxon activity on this site was small. The two possible phases of ditches belonging to this period indicate some form of land division, though it is not clear whether these represent some kind of field boundary, or smaller settlement divisions. Stratigraphically they may be late Roman, representing an aceramic period of activity on site. However, elsewhere nearby[67] the small Roman settlements have ceramic assemblages continuing until the late 4th to 5th centuries, implying that there was continued pottery supply to the region until the end of Roman occupation, so if Roman activity had continued at Drayton until the 4th century pottery might be expected.

The residual ceramic evidence is not able to provide much chronological detail about the site beyond showing the presence of activity in the period AD 450-850. As noted above, such simple hand-made wares have been found with St. Neots ware elsewhere, so here they may be related to the middle/late Saxon period. This means there is no secure dating evidence for this phase of ditches beyond a broad post-Roman date, indicated by the lack of Roman pottery and a *terminus ante quem* of the middle/late Saxon period provided by the securely dated features above.

These features may be broadly contemporary with the equally uncertainly-dated Anglo-Saxon occupation excavated at Sutton Courtenay. Excavations by E.T. Leeds between 1921 and 1937 revealed over 30 sunken-featured buildings and fragments of at least two post-built houses.[68] Further archaeological investigations around 200 m. to the north of Leeds' work revealed a small number of sunken-featured buildings and post-built structures. Two hundred metres to the south-west of Leeds' site, the crop-marks of a so-called Anglo-Saxon 'palace' site have been identified from aerial photographs, which includes six hall houses and many sunken huts.[69] The broad dating of these sites is not secure. The presence of sunken-featured buildings at both sites may suggest an earlier Anglo-Saxon date, though Blair has suggested the post-in-trench technique at the 'palace' site making a pre-AD 600 date unlikely.[70] Metal-detector finds from the area around these sites suggest the presence of an élite early 7th-century cemetery, and coin finds imply an early 8th-century trading site.[71] Whilst its precise position remains uncertain this phase of activity in Drayton is most likely to be related to the phase of 6th- to 7th-century activity in the immediate area.

The most important phase of occupation on this site belongs to the late Anglo-Saxon period. The structural remains are simple: a series of small enclosures containing some groups of postholes. The role of these postholes is not clear; whilst they may represent structures they are unlikely to have been substantial. The artefacts are, however, more forthcoming. The most unusual aspect is the distinctive ceramic assemblage. The range of pottery found is atypical of other Oxfordshire assemblages, and the presence of St. Neots ware and particularly Thetford ware suggests that the settlement gained much of its ceramic assemblage from the east, rather than from elsewhere in Oxfordshire. The St. Neots and Thetford ware are most likely to have arrived in the area via London, along the course of the Thames, rather than directly across country.

67 Ibid.

68 E.T. Leeds, 'A Saxon Village near Sutton Courtenay', *Archaeologia*, lxxxiii (1923), 146-92; idem. 'A Saxon Village near Sutton Courtenay (2nd Report)', *Archaeologia*, lxxxvi, 59-80; idem. ' A Saxon Village near Sutton Courtenay, Berks. (3rd Report)', *Archaeologia*, xcii (1947), 79-93.

69 D. Benson and D. Miles, 'Cropmarks near the Sutton Courtenay Saxon Site', *Antiquity*, xlviii (1974), 223-6; Blair, op. cit. note 6.

70 Blair, op. cit. note 6, p. 31.

71 H. Hamerow, 'Anglo-Saxon Oxfordshire 400–700', *Oxoniensia*, lxiv (1999), 23-39, 30, figs. 1-7.

This site further adds to the likelihood that sites in Oxfordshire, south of the Thames (i.e. formerly in Berkshire), had a distinctly different range of ceramics than those to the north of the river. The large quantity of St. Neots ware from the *burh* at Wallingford suggests that the town may have been the immediate source of the Drayton assemblage, rather than the monastic site at Abingdon. Wallingford was clearly an important nodal point, and in Domesday the king's tenants in Wallingford owed carrying services via the river as far as Sutton Courtenay, the neighbouring manor to Drayton.[72] The Thames was clearly an important route for trade goods in the middle/late Saxon period[73] and the Niedermendig lava quern fragments probably also arrived at Drayton following the same route. This must also have been the route along which the unusual strap-end, characteristic of East Anglia, arrived.

Despite the presence of traded goods from a distant source, the main purpose of the site was clearly agricultural. The environmental and bone evidence shows clearly that the site was involved in a wide range of agricultural activities. The age profile of the cattle and sheep suggest that they were being kept for secondary products, rather than just meat, and there is no indication of any livestock specialism. The animals were clearly being butchered on or near the site, rather than being brought to the site as meat. The same is true of the arable base of the site. The presence of wheat, barley, oats, rye, pulses, flax and possibly vetch shows that a wide range of plant resources were being cultivated in the surrounding area. The cereals, at least, were probably processed nearby, as indicated by the presence of large quantities of chaff.

Thus, in this period the site appears to be part of a small agricultural settlement with a broad agricultural base and some trade links with the east of the country, probably through a series of intermediaries, including London and Wallingford. The excavations give us an archaeological view of the village of Drayton contemporary with its first historical appearance when 10 hides of land were granted by King Eadred to the thegn Eadwold in AD 955.[74] Both these horizons are broadly contemporary with the period when large-scale land units were being dismantled, and small, cellular manors began to be created.[75] In Oxfordshire, this happened from *c.* AD 850 onwards, precisely the period when the late Anglo-Saxon settlement at Drayton appears to begin. The proximity of the possible 'palace' site and the *sceatta* finds between Drayton and Sutton Courtenay suggest that the original larger estate may have centred on Sutton Courtenay, and the manor of Drayton may have been carved out of this larger land-unit. The sudden surge of activity on the site around this period suggests that the putative creation of the manor of Drayton was associated with a period of intensified settlement in the village, as might be expected. The site is around 300 m. from the site of the church and the manor on the High Street and may be on the outer edge of the Anglo-Saxon village, though the settlement morphology of the village has not been explored in detail and earthworks in the field to the north of the site suggest that the medieval village was also situated along the Abingdon Road as well as the High Street. Until further work is carried out in Drayton and elsewhere, this site gives an all-too-rare glimpse of a south Oxfordshire village in its formative period.

72 J. Morris, *Domesday Book: Berkshire* (1978), 56b, B.1.

73 J. Hiller, S. Foreman and D. Petts, *Excavations at Eton, Dorney and Taplow, 1996-2000, vol. 3: The Saxon to Post-medieval Landscape* (forthcoming).

74 *V.C.H. Berks.* iv, 341-4.

75 Blair, op. cit. note 6, p. 133.

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