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Later Prehistoric Finds Group

Issue 19 Summer 2022

Welcome to the latest edition of the LPFG Newsletter. In spite of the soaring temperatures, there is much news from the world of later prehistoric research. In this edition, John Smythe returns with more news about his research into the curious Bronze Age Wilburton plates. Thibaud Poigt, winner of this year's prestigious *Prix européen d'archéologie Joseph Déchelette,* describes his award winning research into Late Bronze Age and Iron Age weighing systems of Western Europe. Meredith Laing also provides an engaging book review of the AHRC funded *Grave Goods Objects and Death in Later Prehistoric Britain* by Anwen Cooper, Duncan Garrow, Catriona Gibson, Melanie Giles and Neil Wilkin. Lastly, there is news about our upcoming, free to attend, symposium.

A 4th-1st century BC weight from Danebury, Hampshire, UK. Read more about the international nature of Iron Age weights and measures in Thibaud Poigt's contribution on page 9.

Welcome

The Later Prehistoric Finds Group was established in 2013, and welcomes anyone with an interest in prehistoric artefacts, especially small finds from the Bronze and Iron Ages. We host an annual conference and publish a bi-annual newsletter, in addition to a series of datasheets providing short, accessible introductions to different classes of objects. Members receive all our new publications via email, and you can download back issues for free on our website, https://laterprehistoricfinds.com/

Membership is currently free; if you would like to join the group, please e-mail LaterPrehistoricFindsGroup@gmail.com.

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To submit articles, notes or announcements for inclusion in the LPFG newsletter, please e-mail Andrew Lamb at lpfgnews@outlook.com. Guidelines are available on the website, but please feel free to e-mail with any questions.

Who we are at the LPFG

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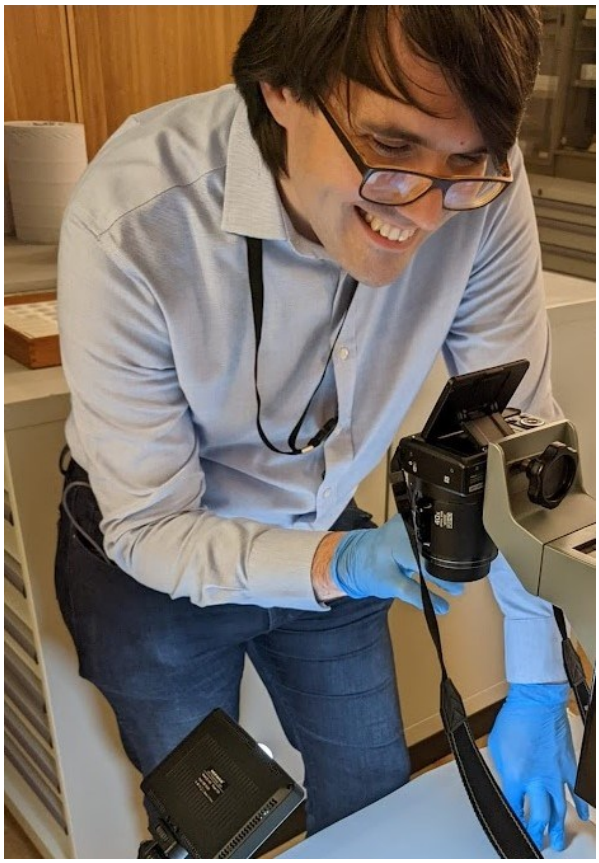
Letter from the Chair



Welcome to the Summer 2022 edition of the Later Prehistoric Finds Group Newsletter! We would like to extend our sincere thanks to everyone who have contributed their time and expertise to writing and editing this excellent edition.

On behalf of the LPFG Committee, I would like to thank all our members as they continue to support the group through what is a strange period for later prehistoric finds. Great strides are being made in later prehistoric study as we experience the first Summer approaching pre-pandemic levels of fieldwork. These insights are also reaching larger audiences than ever before as universities, museums, and groups such as our own continue to embrace online and hybrid events.

On that note, in 2021 we held our second Online Symposium, and we very much thank everyone who contributed to making it such an edifying and entertaining event, and particularly to AOC Archaeology for lending us their Zoom account so we could host such a large audience. This year, we are holding our third Online Symposium on 7th October, and you can find the full details to sign up on page 18. The symposium remains free to attend, with donations optional and greatly appreciated to keep the group running and free for all.

Early in 2022, we held our online AGM and all attendees will, I hope, agree that the event was a success. At the AGM we introduced a constitution for the group and expanded our stated focus to cover all of Europe. We said a very grateful goodbye to our Chair, Helen Chittock, who ended a stellar term of service as first Deputy Chair and then Chair, seeing us through quite possibly the strangest 4 years of the LPFG's history as we weathered multiple lockdowns.

A fond farewell also went to Lewis Ferrero as Twitter Editor, and Emily Freeman as Ordinary Member, both of whom deserve great thanks for their excellent contributions to the group throughout their times on the committee. Finally, we welcomed Andrew Reynolds as Twitter Editor and he has taken to the role with relish, with the fruits of his labour evident at @LtrPrehistFinds on Twitter.

On behalf of the whole LPFG Committee, please enjoy this edition of the newsletter. We look forward to seeing you at the Online Symposium in October!

Best wishes,

George Prew (LPFG Chair)

Wilburton plate: a very different kind of ingot

John Smythe

In the last issue of this Newsletter I discussed the so-called plate ingots in Wilburton hoards, and repeated Peter Northover's conclusion that 'the reasons for its existence are still obscure' (Smythe 2022). In this paper I want to try and address that.

Northover (1982, 100) originally suggested that the plates could have played an important role in making the leaded bronze artefacts typical of the Wilburton period. More specifically he saw 'plate scrap…as one of the ways of circulating lead in ready-alloyed form' (ibid, 99). Shortly afterwards, others proposed that high lead and high tin plates could have been used to increase the proportion of lead or tin (Needham and Hook 1988, 268). What follows is not entirely novel, but it does explore the potential role of all of these plates in more detail. Northover's analyses of their alloy composition is helpful (1982, Table 1: under the Guilsfield, Isleham & Syon Reach hoards; only including definite plates).

Composition of alloy	*Number*	*%*
High tin	15	42
High lead	8	22
Both	5	14
Other	8	22
Total	36	100

Table 1.

If 13% or more is set as the threshold for both high tin and high lead (Northover 1982, 87; Needham 1990, 81), the results can be grouped into four categories: those with high tin, high lead, with both high tin and lead, and the remainder (= Other) with a mix of low and moderate

tin and lead. As Table 1 shows, the high tin examples are actually more numerous than the high lead ones.

It may be instructive to compare the alloy composition of these plates with the other objects in these three hoards, using the same criteria.

Composition of alloy	*Number*	*%*
High tin	14	8
High lead	39	22
Both	2	1
Other	119	68
Total	174	99

Table 2. Note: this excludes five items, nearly all chapes, that were affected by segregation or corrosion (Northover 1982, Table 1: Sh 20, Is 70, Is 72, Is 78 & Is 93).

The composition of the alloy is very different, with the ranking of the high tin and high lead ones reversed. What is more, the tin proportion is flattered by the inclusion of two bronze cakes from Guilsfield, both of which have high tin levels. These can be ignored as they could also be alloyed ingots. In the high tin and high lead category there is an item that could be either plate scrap or casting waste (Northover 1982, Table 1 Isleham Is 42). If it is a plate then it can be omitted from this table (and added to the other one). The other object is a semi-circular mount from Isleham (Northover 1982, Is 136), the only artefact in all of these hoards that has a high count for both tin and lead. Perhaps the most striking difference is the frequency of artefacts with low or moderate amounts of tin and lead;- three times the proportion of plates.

Copper, rich in impurities (called 'S' metal by Northover 1982, passim), and already alloyed with tin may largely have been coming in from Europe, and lead from the Mendips or less likely central Wales (Rohl & Needham 1998, 103, 105; Northover 2015, 220). The purer 'H' type metal might have come from the south-west if not further afield in Britain or beyond (Rohl & Needham 1998, 104). A small contribution from the Great Orme mine in north Wales is possible but thought unlikely at this particular time (Williams *et al.* 2019, fig 6; 1183). If this brief summary still holds then tin was entering the metal system principally in the form of imported artefacts although H metal, if extracted within Britain, would need to have been alloyed with tin from somewhere. And the most likely source for that would be the south-west peninsula (Berger *et al.* 2022).

The extra lead used by the Wilburton smiths is important because it marks a significant difference between Britain and its nearest neighbours: Ireland and France (Northover 1982, 92). In the former it is not even certain that there was an equivalent phase, with any plates confined to the dubious County Roscommon hoard (Waddell 2010, 187; 209-211, and Fig 6.16 & Eogan

1983, 49, fig. 109 no. 21). In Atlantic France, as far as one can tell, there is limited evidence for plates at this time; and there may even have been more deposited in the later Carps Tongue hoards, together with copper ingots (Cécile Le Carlier De Veslud *pers comm,* 23/03/2022; & Francis Bordas *pers comm*. 29/04/2022). However, these are dismissed as 'real' ingots and often identified as pieces from wagons and other artefacts. Thus it is possible that there are more unrecognised contemporary examples (Verron 2000, 234). None appear to have been analysed. In any case, it does look as though they played a different role there.

It is now possible to put forward a working hypothesis as to how the plates might have been used as alloyed ingots to create Wilburton artefacts. The simplest explanation is that the lower tin and lead examples were used either as they were, or to dilute high tin or high lead ingots (or conversely that high tin or lead ones were mixed with the former to enhance the fraction of either of those metals in the alloy). If the composition of the resulting artefacts is represented by those plotted above, then scrapped objects, whether in whole or part, could have been added to that mix depending on their composition. Perhaps more difficult to explain are those with both high tin and high lead. This is because only one of the artefacts has such a signature. These plates range from 13.16 to 17.18 % tin and 13.6 to 18.3 % lead. In theory, it is feasible that dilution could be achieved, resulting in comparable, reduced tin and lead readings. Some of the artefacts from Isleham, in particular, have a signature that might result from this.

They include swords, spearheads, chapes, cauldron handles, a phalera, a mount, a chisel, and other tools and axes that have high/moderate tin and lead readings within only a few percentage points of each other (See Northover 1982, Table 1, Is 2, Is 31, Is 51, Is 52, Is 54, Is 67, Is 68, Is 77, Is 90, Is 91, Is 108, Is 125, Is 129, Is 130, Is 136, Is 138, Is 141, & Is 143).

It is plausible, then, that all of these alloyed plates together could have provided a full repertoire that could be utilised by the Wilburton smiths to use alone, or to mix in proportion. It would have allowed them to cast a very wide range of typical artefacts. If this scenario is correct, one obvious advantage is that the smiths would have been less dependent on either the immediate availability of scrap, or on a regular and sufficient supply of lead and tin. The plates would have served as a repository for a mix of alloys that could have been used to even out any supply disruptions. Furthermore, the simple form that they take would have made them much easier to store and transport than most 'scrapped' artefacts.

That would also have made them a convenient shape and size to add to the crucible for re-melting. The best preserved of the Dainton crucibles is slightly oval, with an internal diameter of 135 mm and a surviving depth of 38 mm (Needham 1980, 184; 188). Using the plates in Badlesmere I as examples, every single one, provided it was arranged horizontally, would fit be-

cause their longest dimension is 70 mm. Although a depth of 38 mm might seem very little the thickest plate in Badlesmere I is 12 mm, whilst the vast majority are 2-5 mm; the smith could have placed several on top of each other. Their flattish shape and relative thinness would also have aided a quicker and more efficient melt. It seems credible that it was their convenience and efficiency that convinced the smiths to adopt and then continue to use them.

Quite why these alloyed ingots began to be used is more difficult to answer. The need for extra lead must surely have been a key driver though. The requirement for extra lead would have added considerable complexity to the supply of all the requisite metals coming from different sources, especially for communities living further from the likely sources of lead and tin. Perhaps the supply of scrapped artefacts from Europe, or more locally, was proving unreliable and fluctuated wildly through boom and bust? Some of it must have come in by sea and was subject to varying weather conditions. During the booms the smiths could add to their stocks, whilst during the downtimes they could rely on the plates. Or demand for martial equipment, especially, was potentially growing and outpacing supply. Both scenarios could have contributed. Whatever the explanation it is interesting that the largest depositions of plates found so far are some distance from the presumed sources of contemporary lead or tin.

The dataset used here is far from ideal. It includes only three hoards and the analysed plates may not be representative of each of those. At the time of writing only 36 out of well over 6,500 plates have been analysed. Furthermore, results from artefacts in the Isleham assemblage dominate Table 2, yet the proportion involved is tiny compared to the total in that huge hoard. Nonetheless, this is the only currently available data from analysed assemblages that have any plates. Clearly, we could do with many more results from the wider Wilburton area (Smythe 2022, 6).

I have argued above that the use of this alloyed plate would have offered many advantages to the smiths and, above all, would have given them more control over the supply of metal. It may also have proved a more efficient way of casting the characteristic Wilburton artefacts. Although it seems to be adding an extra stage to the metalworking process, utilising pre-alloyed ingots could well have aided 'mass' production. That may seem contradictory given the accomplished artefacts produced by the Wilburton smiths which imply time-consuming casting. They may have found a unique way of balancing these two conflicting requirements.

Acknowlegements

Apart from those mentioned in the earlier paper I need to add special thanks to: Alan Williams who discussed his findings about Great Orme in more detail; Cécile Le Carlier De Veslud and Francis Bordas for their comments about 'plates' in France, and to Peter Northover for several discussions with him. None are responsible for the views expressed here.

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John Smythe *is an independent researcher. After a career unconnected to archaeology, John studied for a MSc at UCL's Institute of Archaeology. He subsequently specialised in Bronze Age metalwork from Kent and helped excavate the Badlesmere site in 2018-2019. He returned to the British Museum as a*

volunteer on their Bronze Age treasure team after the end of the Covid lockdowns.

Email: johndsmythe@hotmail.com

The globular weights with hanging loops: some insights into weighing in Iron Age Europe

Thibaud Poigt

Weighing is often considered as some sort of timeless practice, tightly linked to merchants or jewellers in the collective mind. However, it is a very specific action which relies on complex abstract concepts such as mass, counting systems or metrological units. The first clues to its use on the Eurasian continent are provided by Near East and Egyptian settlements of the late 4th or early 3rd millennium BC (see for example Alberti *et al.* 2006). In the central Mediterranean, the oldest evidence dates to the Middle Bronze Age (Cardarelli *et al.* 1997; 2001), whilst in Central and Western Europe, scales and weights only appear during the Late Bronze Age (Pare 1999; Poigt 2022). For these periods, we can distinguish several main weighing habits: the use of small rectangular bronze weights used for assessing small quantities, and larger weights that can be made of stone, metal - or a combination of both - and which take globular (with hanging loop) or lenticular shapes (Cardarelli *et al.* 1997; Ialongo and Rahmstorf 2019; Pare 1999; Poigt 2022). At these times, many different weighing systems were used, for local purposes (Poigt 2022, 176-184) even if they can converge around similar metrological units (Ialongo and Rahmstorf 2019, 115-120).

Surprisingly, for the Iron Age (c. 8th-1st centuries BC), we know very little about weighing practices. If there is a continuity of practices since the Late Bronze Age, its archaeological remains diminish significantly after the 9th BC. One of the only clues to attest some sort of continuity of practices from the Late Bronze Age is the use of globular weights with hanging loops until the end of the Iron Age. One can even state that such a shape never really disappeared, since it remains frequent for non-digital scales until today.

Nevertheless, the use of these objects is variously documented for the European Iron Age. We know very little about the weighing practices of the 8th and 7th c. BC, and no globular weight with hanging loops can be clearly dated to this period so far. However, for the 6th-5th centuries BC, several settlements from Central Europe, northern France and the Czech Republic, provide these kinds of items (Rahmstorf and Pare 2007).

After the 5th century BC, globular weights with hanging loop seem to disappear from the archaeological record in the continental Europe, except for some occasional discoveries. By contrast, southern England provides several of these weights which have been particularly well studied for the hillfort of Danebury (Stockbridge, Hampshire; 6th-1st centuries BC). From a morphological point of view, they show strong similarities with those used earlier on the Continent (Cunliffe 1984; Cunliffe and Poole 1991; Poigt 2022; fig. 1). An interesting feature of these weights is that, contrary to what the shape could lead one to think, they were probably not designed to be hung. Indeed, in several cases, the loop is not deeply inserted into the object to support it; with most of these objects weighing several kilograms (fig. 2).

Figure 1 - Weight from Danebury (Stockbridge, Hampshire), 350/100 BC; Hampshire Cultural Trust #905.

With regards coins, weights have a specific place among archaeological artefacts, as they can only be fully understood when the metrological system on which they were built is characterised. A metrological system is an abstract construct, resulting from a social consensus, and it is based on a combination of a metrological unit and a counting system. This process seeks to transform an analogic information into a numeric one. A certain amount of mass, in the case of weighing metrology, is arbitrary defined as "one" and becomes the metrological unit. The metrological system is made by adding multiples and fractions to this unit. Nevertheless, it is not unusual for a human group to use several units in the same system, as pounds, ounces, or grains.

When dealing with Iron Age weights, we cannot rely on written sources to identify and name such units and metrological systems. Consequently, they can only be approached and understood through mathematical and statistical analysis. The first thing that can be said about the weights used in Europe during the Iron Age is that they allow relatively heavy measures, mainly between

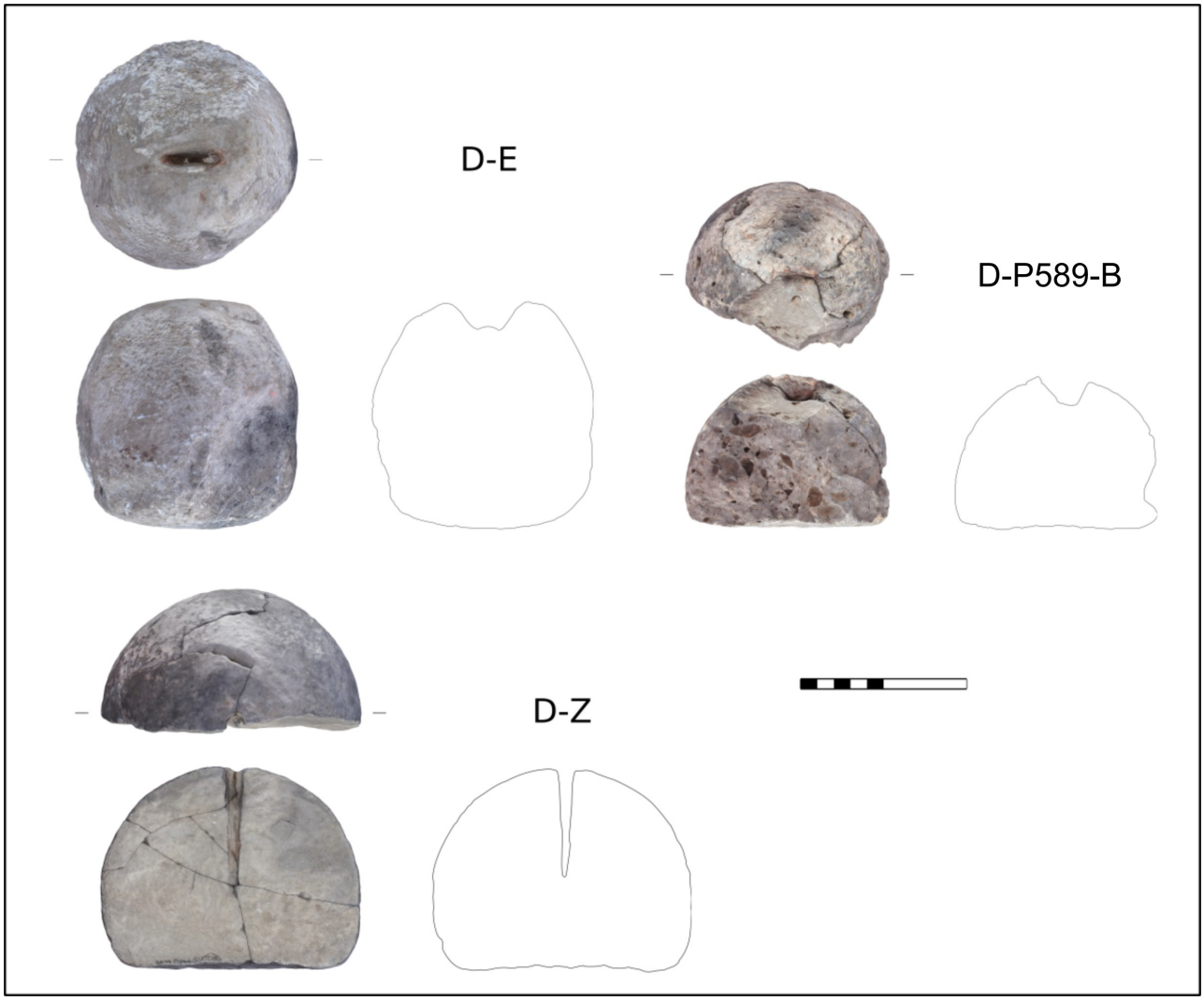

Figure 2 - Comparison between two kinds of loop insertion observed on the weights discovered at Danebury: weights D-E and D-P589-B (Hampshire Cultural Trust # 8.79_1798 and #684) with a superficial drilled hole to receive the loop; weight D-Z (Hampshire Cultural Trust #8.76_1538) with a deeply drilled hole, ensuring a better fit.

a few tens of grams to several kilograms (fig. 3); likely with a tendency to create heavier weights at the end of the period (the average mass of the Iron Age globular weights with hanging loops in Western Europe is approximately 1.1kg).

Deeper analysis allows to make hypotheses about the metrological units used. For the 6th-5th centuries BC in Central Europe, Rahmstorf and Pare (2007) proposed that most of the weights are based on a unit of approximating 270-300g. The metrological analysis of the weights from Danebury highlights probably the use of two units: one of 309g, close to the weight identified in Central Europe for earlier periods, and another of 257.7g (Poigt 2022, 215-224). It is likely that these units, and the one identified by Rahmstorf and Pare ,are the same or that they share a common origin. Such units could even originate from the ones used during the Bronze Age, with the same types of weights, for which units of 104-105g have been identified (Poigt 2022, 160-4)

with a half weight of 52.2 g (Cardarelli *et al.* 1997, 638; 2001, 40-41). These units have a direct arithmetic relationship with 309g (3 x 103g or 6 x 51.5g) or 257.7g (2.5 x 103.1g) or (5 x 51.5g).

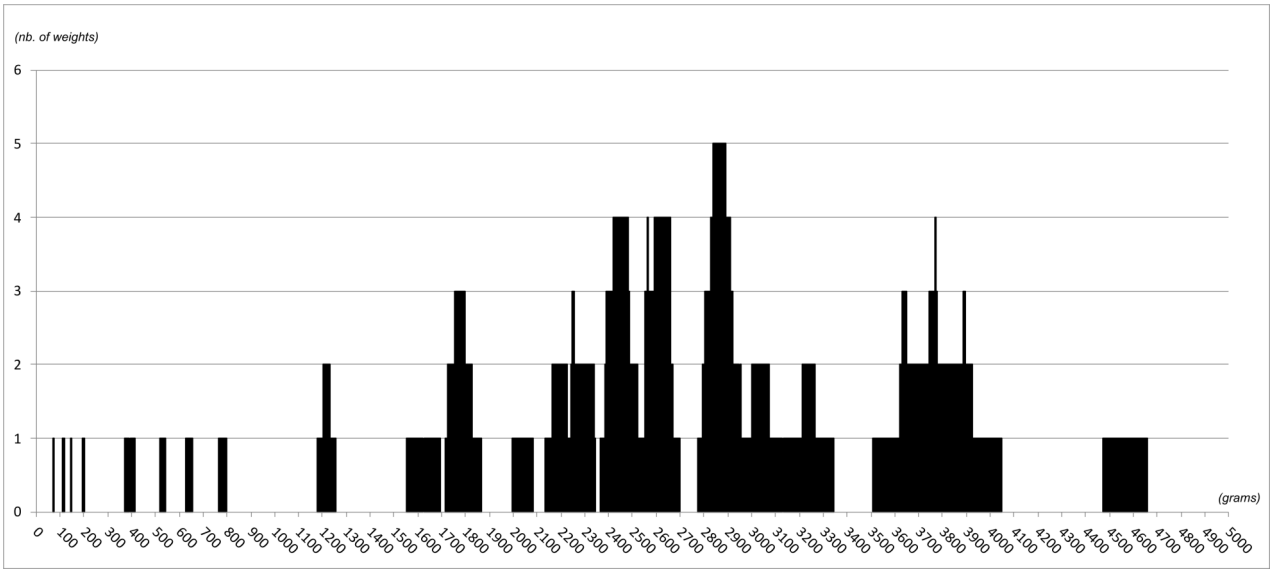

Figure 3 - Frequency Distribution Analysis of the Iron Age globular weights with hanging loop from Western Europe

Demierre and Girard (2018) also identified very similar units among 30 light weights across a large geographical area, between southern France and Switzerland (most of them come from Corent, Entremont, La Tène and Toulouse) dating to La Tène C and D (c. 3rd-1st centuries BC). They take many shapes: sphendonoid, plano-convex, discoids and polyhedral. Some of them could also be reminiscent of the globular weights with hanging loop. The authors identified two units, one of 6.26g and another of 2.558g (Demierre and Girard 2018, 192-193). These two units almost perfectly equal 1/50 and 1/100 of the units identified at Danebury: 50 x 6.26 = 313g (instead of 309g) and 100 x 2.558 = 255.8g (instead of 257.7g).

In summary, the populations of Gaul already had long-established skills in weighing metrology at the beginning of the Iron Age. Nevertheless, in the current state of our knowledge, the heterogeneity of the identification of weights and scales in the archaeological records does not allow us to be sure that the weighing practices continued everywhere after the 9th century BC. The persistence of shapes – and probably of general metrological habits – is a strong indicator to suggest that a continuity through time exists. However, it could also rely on diffusion through other territories than Gaul, such as the British Isles.

However, the metrological comparison is a perilous method because it is easy to see links between numbers, and we can hardly verify the hypotheses proposed here without other strong archaeological evidence. Nevertheless, we can rely on the very strong persistence of the shape of these weights through time to propose that a certain metrological continuity could also occur. The subject of metrological practices is still underexploited, especially for the Iron Age, and a lot

of work has yet to be done..

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*Dr **Thibaud Poigt** is an archaeologist, specialising in quantification processes during the Bronze and Iron Ages in Europe. His thesis dealt with weighing instruments from Western Europe from the Late Bronze Age to the La Tène period of the Iron Age. In 2022, he was awarded the 4th Joseph Déchelette European Archaeology Prize.*

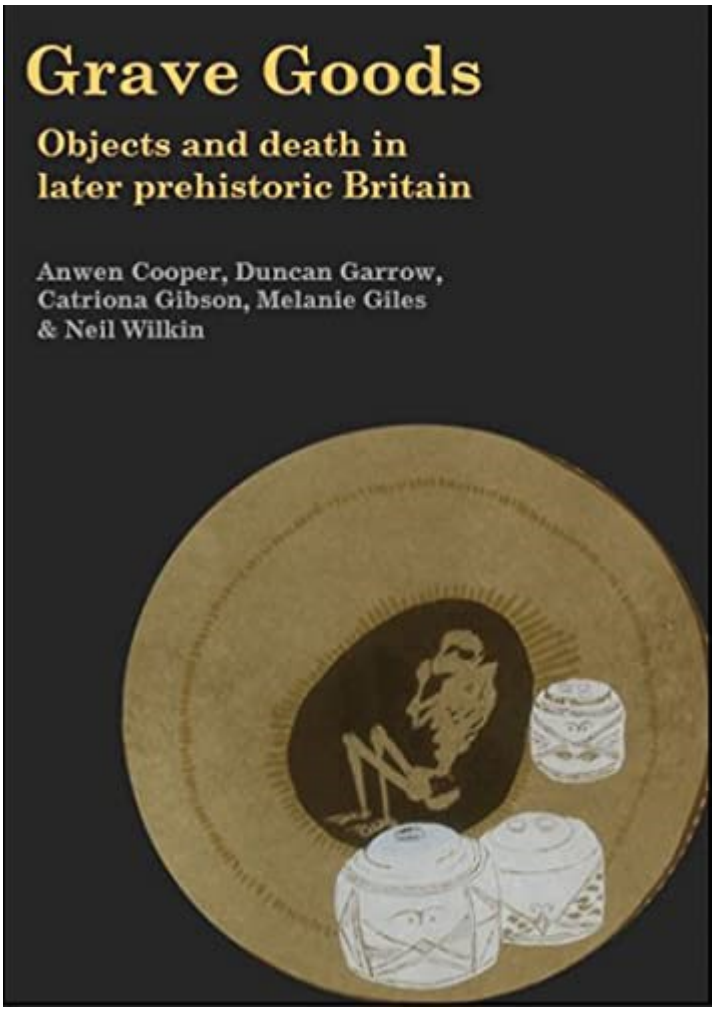
UMR 5607 Ausonius; UMR 5608 TRACES

Book Review

Grave Goods: Objects and Death in Later Prehistoric Britain

Anwen Cooper, Duncan Garrow, Catriona Gibson, Melanie Giles & Neil Wilkin. Oxford, Oxbow. 2021. 320p. ISBN: 9781789257472. Hardback £27.99

Meredith Laing



This excellent and thought-provoking book presents the results of an AHRC funded project, which was a collaboration between researchers at the Universities of Reading and Manchester, and the British Museum. Its temporal scope is wide, encompassing the early Neolithic through to the end of the Pre-Roman Iron Age (c. 4,000 BC to AD 43). However, it is geographically focussed on six study areas (Orkney/Outer Hebrides, Angelsey/Gwynedd, East Yorkshire, Kent, Dorset and Cornwall/Isles of Scilly), allowing the authors to present their findings at the macro/big data level, highlight regional trends, and present individual stories from specific sites.

The book challenges some of the in vo-

gue thinking around flat ontologies which aim to blur the boundaries between objects and bodies. It asks what we actually mean by 'grave goods' and where the temporal and spatial boundaries might be applied for objects found close to human remains – is it still a grave good if it is not within the same feature, or was added or removed later? It also interrogates the data to ask what the artefacts placed in graves meant to the people who placed them.

The results of the project are set within their scholarly context via an impressive exposition of approaches to grave goods study from the earliest antiquarians, through to recent arguments around personhood and relational ontologies, and everything in between. The ideas are expertly woven into the cultural milieu which gave rise to them.

After a short chapter outlining the data collection and 'headline' results, the subsequent thematic chapters embed findings from the project within a discussion of past and current thinking on the themes explored therein.

In order to consider whether what was placed in the ground with bodies was representative of a wider material repertoire, in Chapter 4 the authors step beyond grave goods to explore the relationship between settlement deposition, hoards and graves, thereby intentionally avoiding the route taken by some projects of studying burial artefacts in isolation. The connections and divergences between depositional environments across space and time are highlighted, which enables us to see how choices were made by individuals and communities. Drilling down into the data, there is a comparison between the burial of daggers and spearheads in hoards and in graves during the Early Bronze Age, and a busting of the long-held assumption that Middle Bronze Age funerary and domestic practices broadly replicate each other.

The oft-overlooked, smaller and more mundane items found in graves are brought out into the light in Chapter 5, in a welcome contrast to studies focussing on grander artefacts. Clearly, mundane is a relative concept, and we can only guess at value attributions in prehistoric communities. But it is refreshing to see natural artefacts such as pebbles, repaired and poorly made items, and animal remains foregrounded, and their potential meanings explored. The mundane mattered!

Continuing the mundane theme, pottery vessels - those most common of grave goods (in fact forming over 40% of the Grave Goods database entries) are given an entire delightful chapter, which focuses mainly on Early Bronze Age vessels, but consciously avoids a typology-based discussion, which would potentially mask behaviours and connections in depositional practices which transcend modern typologies. Differences are teased out between pots containing human remains, covering them or placed beside them, and links between pot size and burial rites; showing increasing size with the move to cremation. Smaller, undecorated or more haphazardly decorated vessels are shown to have been more common with children, hinting at contempor-

ary views of what may have been appropriate for different types of person. This is an area which could be further developed through interrogation of the database, which is freely available via the ADS website (Grave goods: objects and death in later prehistoric Britain: Database (archaeologydataservice.ac.uk), namely a consideration of the relevance of age or sex to the provision of grave goods and exploration of the social context driving those decisions.

Chapter 7 showcases the mobility of artefacts, and the materialised geographies embodied within items which were moved from their place of origin (so called 'exotic' items). Instructive illustrations show the source and deposition locations. Mobility is also discussed in relation to artefacts which travelled a relatively short distance, rather than the length of the country or imported from overseas. The importance of the local has not been much explored to date, and the discussions presented around potential meanings connected to exotics which travelled far from their point of origin, compared to the same substances in their local areas (e.g. shale deposited in Dorset), and the not-so-exotic locally available stones (e.g. quartz in Cornwall or chalk in East Yorkshire) are compelling. Aside from the wider issue of movement of materials, the decision to commit them to the grave or dedicate given materials to the dead, rather than their continued use or ownership by the living community, is discussed.

The final thematic chapter looks at the, often complex, temporalities of artefacts buried with human remains. The comparatively long periods of use and rearrangement at Neolithic burial complexes, and the attendant impacts on items left with individual deposits, can mask the prevalence of grave goods during this time. Arguments are advanced that body-artefact relationships during the Neolithic may need stretching to encompass extended temporal practices, with objects added to and removed from association with remains of given individuals over a long period. This moves us beyond the idea that a grave good is something associated with a known person and placed with them at the time their remains enter the ground. The extended temporalities associated with Neolithic burial are contrasted with Bronze Age pyre goods and cremation practices, whereby a range of temporal scales may be postulated for the treatment of bodies and objects pre- and post-burning. This is contrasted again with Late Iron Age cremations whose grave goods speak more of the immediacy of possessing and using certain objects in times of shifting political and social control.

Grave Goods presents a welcome and refreshing take on items placed with human remains. Its intentional focus on what might be termed the more everyday, mundane or unspectacular objects sometimes found in graves, and on hitherto under-explored themes in their study, superbly demonstrates the potential of these objects to tell us very personal stories about the people and communities involved. Whilst the better known, flashier artefacts are not ignored, the deliberate focus on bringing out narratives from less explored aspects of material culture de-

posited with parts of and whole bodies brings a richer contextualisation to later prehistoric communities.

There are so many strands and ideas contained within this book, and it would be wonderful to see how the evidence presented within it compares with other regions outside those chosen for this study. The book and the associated database are likely to become a hugely useful resource for researchers, students and scholars of later prehistory.

Meredith *completed her PhD at the University of Leicester, researching children in later prehistory through combining burial practices for the young dead, with evidence of their craft activities through fingerprint and fingertip impression analysis.*

Email: mjilaing@gmail.com

Twitter: @MeredithJILaing

The Later Prehistoric Finds Group Online Symposium 2022

Innovations and Interpretations:

New Methods and New Techniques in the Study of Later Prehistoric Finds

Friday 7th October 2022

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Sign up for tickets via Eventbrite here: https://www.eventbrite.co.uk/e/innovations-and-interpretations-lpfg-symposium-2022-tickets-414214305137

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