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## Q14 How shattered flakes were used: Micro-wear analysis of quartz flake fragments

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### 36 1. Introduction

37 Quartz, as a raw material for making sharp edged tools during pre-  
38 history, has long been poorly discussed in archaeological research.  
39 This is because of what Callahan (1987 in Driscoll 2010) described as  
40 the gravel effect – many quartz assemblages on first glance appear to  
41 be comprised of amorphous pieces, not easily recognised as humanly  
42 modified 'tools'. Recently we have, however, seen a rising interest in  
43 the subject as shown by a number of publications (see Driscoll, 2010,  
44 2011 for an overview of research) and sessions arranged at international  
45 conferences. The importance of quartz to prehistoric toolmakers and  
46 users has on a worldwide basis started to be recognised within the ar-  
47 chaeological community. The reasons for this vary, but originally it  
48 was simply the result of necessity. In some areas quartz was, if not the  
49 only, the dominant lithic component in prehistoric assemblages. This  
50 is true for Sweden and Finland where the assemblages discussed in  
51 this paper have been excavated.

52 Among lithic analysts it must have been the apparent irregularity of  
53 the fracturing of quartz that made studies such as attribute analysis  
54 seem futile in previous years (Callahan et al., 1992; Knutsson, 1998;  
55 Tallavaara et al., 2010). This problematic quality of most quartz assem-  
56 blages is accompanied by the problem of identifying tool types

### A B S T R A C T

Prehistoric quartz assemblages have always posed a special problem for archaeologists. Due to its brittle nature, 21  
quartz is hard to understand within the lithic classification systems normally constructed based on formally var- 22  
ied flint assemblages. In this paper we explore how to get around this problem on the basis of two analytical do- 23  
mains, fracture analysis and use-wear analysis. A sample of 544 unmodified quartz flakes and flake fragments 24  
from Mesolithic and Neolithic sites in Sweden and Finland was analysed. It can be concluded that both whole 25  
and fragmented flakes were used as tools. The type of use was correlated to variation in edge qualities rather 26  
than the formal characteristics of flakes. 27

The results of this investigation will have major impact on the way quartz assemblages with low formal variation 28  
are approached in the future. To be able to make behavioural inferences from quartz assemblages, the materials 29  
have to be approached with a focus on functional types. 30

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traditionally defined by archaeologists as 'formal', i.e., retouched pieces 57  
(Lindgren, 2004). Furthermore, formal types are lacking in most quartz 58  
assemblages, which are dominated by flakes and flake fragments. The 59  
real difficulty is to identify the tools among the unretouched portion 60  
of the assemblage, and not just bracketing them off as 'debitage' or 61  
'waste' (Knutsson, 1988). It is within the frame of this debate the 62  
present paper was developed. We will in our analysis focus on and 63  
merge two recently discussed and seemingly valuable analytical do- 64  
mains, fracture analysis (Callahan et al., 1992; Tallavaara et al., 2010) 65  
and functional analysis (Knutsson, 1988; Taipale et al., in press). 66

### 2. Materials and methods 67

#### 2.1. Archaeological quartz data 68

The backbone of our data is formed by quartz assemblages from 21 69  
archaeological sites from Sweden excavated between 2004 and 2010. 70  
These sites date to between 6700 and 2300 cal BC, covering the Late 71  
Mesolithic, Early Neolithic and Middle Neolithic periods (Ahlbäck and 72  
Isaksson, 2007; Björck and Hjärthner-Holder, 2008; Guinard and 73  
Groop, 2007; Guinard and Vogel, 2006, 2007; Holm and Lindgren, 74  
2008; Knutsson, 2008a,b; Knutsson and Knutsson, 2009; Stenbäck, 75  
2007). In addition, quartz material from two Late Mesolithic sites from 76  
Finland was analysed (Pesonen and Tallavaara, 2006; Rankama and 77  
Kankaanpää, 2011; Taipale, 2012). The sites included in this study 78  
vary in size and complexity from what seemed to be small activity 79

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80 areas with around 100 flakes and flake fragments to larger sites with  
 81 hearths, cooking pits and flaked quartz assemblages comprising up to  
 82 c. 48,000 artefacts. Altogether 98,582 quartz artefacts were subjected  
 Q21 to sampling for micro-wear and fracture analysis, and the total sample  
 84 finally amounted to 544 pieces. The proportion of sampled flakes and  
 85 flake fragments varied between 0.16% and 50% of the total assemblage  
 86 of an individual site, mainly due to the variation in the absolute num-  
 87 bers of finds from the different sites.

88 Most of the analyses that contributed to this study were done for cul-  
 89 tural resource management projects and therefore aimed at answering  
 90 specific questions related to tool and site function. For this reason, in-  
 91 stead of random sampling, the pieces that were most likely to show  
 92 use-wear evidence were targeted in the sampling. The selection criteria  
 93 were guided by earlier results as well as experimental work and rele-  
 94 vant ethnographic data. The flakes and flake fragments were in general  
 95 selected among the larger pieces in the assemblages since these were  
 96 considered more likely to have served as tools (cf. Sandén, 1998).  
 97 These criteria pose certain limitations to the representativeness of our  
 98 sample and will have consequences for how far we can use the results  
 99 in statements about the use of unmodified flakes and flake fragments  
 100 in the past.

## 101 2.2. Fragment classification

102 The fragmentation of quartz flakes during knapping is caused by radial  
 103 and bending fractures, and combinations of these can result in quite  
 104 complex fragmentation patterns. The high rate of fragmentation can  
 105 probably be explained by the raw material's relatively low tensile and  
 106 compressive strength and its large number of internal flaws (Cotterell  
 107 and Kamminga, 1990:129; Domanski et al., 1994; Tallavaara et al.,  
 108 2010). As a result of experimental studies, Callahan et al. (1992)  
 109 suggested that instead of being chaotic, the fragmentation of quartz fol-  
 110 lows certain rules of fracture mechanics of brittle solids and therefore is,  
 111 to a certain degree, predictable. Building on their experimental results,  
 112 they created a schematic classification system for quartz flake fragments  
 113 (see Figs. 1 and 2) and further stated that the frequency distributions of  
 114 fragment types vary systematically according to the knapping method  
 115 (bipolar/platform on anvil/freehand platform) used.

116 Recently, Tallavaara et al. (2010) identified a central problem in the  
 117 fracture analysis method: the predictability and distinctiveness of the  
 118 fragment 'profiles' produced by different core reduction methods need  
 119 to be tested statistically. Further variables to focus on were suggested:  
 120 indenter hardness, flake dimensions, and individual knapping styles.  
 121 Their work demonstrated that there is significant variation in fragmenta-  
 122 tion introduced by these variables. Driscoll's (2011) experimental  
 123 work has also shown that variation in quartz raw material qualities  
 124 also affects fragmentation, although to a limited extent.

125 Despite these issues, the recognition of the high rate of fragmenta-  
 126 tion in flakes is a prerequisite for the technological and functional anal-  
 127 ysis of quartz assemblages. Callahan et al.'s (1992) classification scheme  
 128 also serves as a useful tool for distinguishing among different types of  
 129 fragments observed in the assemblages (Fig. 1, Table 1; see also  
 130 Rankama, 2002; Sandén, 1998; Tallavaara et al., 2010).

131 One of the key problems discussed in the literature (Driscoll, 2010  
 132 with refs.) and one of the goals of our study was to investigate whether  
 133 there is a systematic relationship between the degree of fragmentation  
 134 and the probability of the fragment being selected for use. Because dif-  
 135 ferentiation among various fragment types (Callahan et al., 1992) is  
 136 not always easy, we also wanted to design a simpler classification sys-  
 137 tem that is based on the number of breaks observed on fragments.  
 138 When flakes shatter during production, they fall into one, two or several  
 139 pieces, where the number of break surfaces created is positively corre-  
 140 lated to the degree of fragmentation. We thus determined the typical  
 141 number of breaks for each fragment type, and then reclassified our  
 142 material using break count categories (see Fig. 2) where a split flake  
 143 (type B6, Fig. 1) has one break surface, a broken split flake (types B1

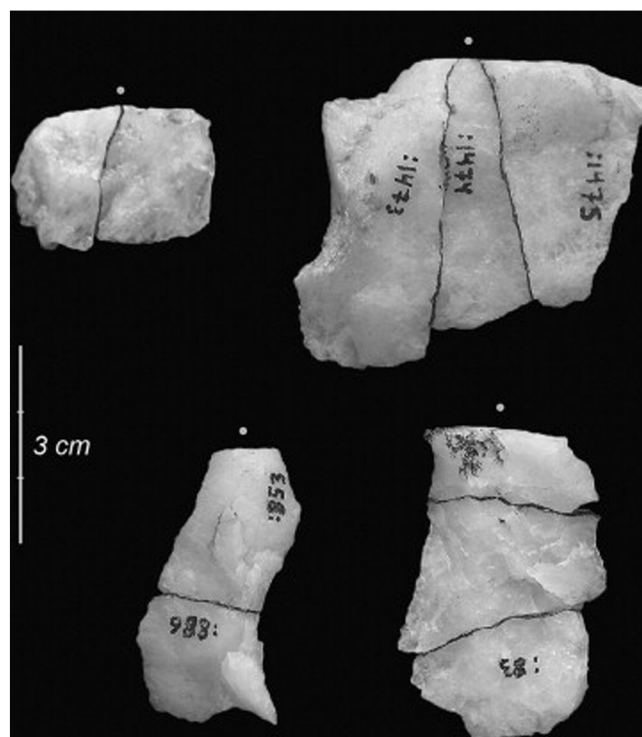


Fig. 1. Refitted or mended flakes from a prehistoric site in Finland. In the upper left a split flake and in the upper right a whole mended platform flake consisting of one middle fragment (type D2 see Fig. 2) and two side fragments (type A2). In the lower left a broken flake consisting of a proximal and distal fragment (types F1 and F3) and in the lower right a broken flake consisting of a proximal, a central and a distal fragment (types F1, F2 and F3). From Tallavaara et al., 2010, fig. 2.

and B3, Fig. 1) has two such surfaces, etc. Basically, more breaks equal  
 more right-angled edges, ultimately with four breaks representing a  
 fragment with only right-angled edges.

In addition to the fragmentation classification, length and width  
 were measured for each flake and flake fragment since previous func-  
 tional analyses of flint assemblages have shown that size is one impor-  
 tant selection criterion. Length was measured along the longest axis and  
 width was measured perpendicular to length.

## 2.3. Micro-wear analysis and tool classification

The extensive experimental work done by Knutsson (1988a) has  
 shown that wear forms on quartz tool edges as a result of use and that  
 the characteristics of the microscopic traces vary systematically accord-  
 ing to different use situations. The wear traces on quartz edges are easily  
 visible with an incident light microscope equipped with Nomarski  
 prisms at magnifications between 200× and 400× and can be defined  
 in more detail using SEM with magnifications of 400–2000×. Processes  
 like micro-fracturing, material fatigue, silica precipitation, dissolution,  
 plastic deformation, polishing and phase transformation have been  
 found to be important in wear formation. Different combinations of  
 wear features seem to be systematically related not to the type of tool  
 use, but to the variability in the characteristics of the worked materials  
 and the related third body (i.e., the material created between the tool  
 surface and the worked material, Knutsson, 1988a: 85ff).

Different types of linear features accompanied by edge wear in the  
 form of rounding (micro-fracturing) (Fig. 3D and H) or plastic deforma-  
 tions (Fig. 3D) are typical of used quartz edges. The linear features can  
 be formed as linear arrays of microscopic cracks, i.e., brittle fracture  
 wear (striations) (Fig. 3E), or as a result of plastic deformations (sleeks  
 and broad plastic deformations) (Figs. 3D and 7J) (Knutsson, 1988a).  
 Polishes also occur, especially in the context of working silica-rich raw

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