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Enigmatic stone objects of the Saharan Neolithic and Post-Neolithic

Microwear study and its limitation

Some, though not all, of the artefacts described are not made of flint. The problem arises as to whether these may ever be regarded as suitable for microwear study, even were their condition adequate. Patination and even slight abrasion, tending to destroy microwear traces rapidly and completely, will have ruined much Saharan material. Very little work is known to have been done anywhere on non-flint tools.

Another setback may be in the general difficulty in obtaining supplies of the same rock used in tool manufacture, since not all flints perforce behave in the same way in terms of damage through use, in order to carry out controlled experiments, using replicated tools. For the above information I am much indebted to D. A. Rowe.

The two basic aims of petrological examination of stone tools, as explained by Cummins (1983: 17), are to identify the products of known factories and to acquire petrological data leading to the discovery of previously unknown sources of raw material. It is depressing to learn that some particularly tantalising non-flint objects, especially apparent fragments of large artefacts occurring as surface finds, can only be identified by typology studies, at a time when these in themselves remain incomplete (*cf.* Hugot 1968: 485, speaking of large enigmatic objects, particularly from the eastern Sahara, suggestive of "coulters" or "ploughshares"). Even traces of wear and/or striations visible with the naked eye (as on much grinding material as well as on ard-tips from Orkney and Shetland) may not be much help, when only a fragment is involved.

Re-use of implements by later populations is another hazard. Here may be envisaged the treatment of a different substance in a quern formerly used for something else. For terminology here used in respect of grinding material component parts see Table 1, which I have kept as simple as possible. Not only the substance treated in this secondary context, but also the method of use of the upper and lower stones in conjunction one with another, may blur and distort existing wear-patterns on

Table 1

Terminology of grinding material

Name	Author	Term here used
Grain-rubber, saddle quern	Curwen 1937	Saddle-quern/saddle quern/quern
Revolving handmill/rotary quern	Curwen 1937, 1941 Bray and Trump 1973	Not used
—	—	Static quern, not transportable, or only for short distances
Handstone Upper stone	Banks 1982 Clark 1973	Upper stone
Lower stone	Curwen 1937 Clark 1973	Saddle quern/quern/static quern, dependent on circumstances
Milling stone	Banks 1982	Saddle quern/quern/static quern, as above
Fixed grindstone Grinding and pounding hollows	Hugot 1981 Camps 1982	Fixed oval or roundish depressions (<i>i.e.</i> , not all shown to have been used for grinding/pounding)

Pestles and *mortars* sometimes look identical to *upper stones* and *querns* respectively. Apart from clear-cut pestles and mortars, the identification of a number of objects appears to depend entirely on the opinion of the viewer. Certain texts may also have suffered during translation.

both artefacts. It is also a common occurrence to find lone upper or lower stones, presumably carried far from their original habitat and then abandoned. The use of some upper stones to break up sugar nowadays has been cited by Maître (1972: 135).



FIG. 1. Western Immidir. Two embryo *rondins de pierre*

We may still be far from the day evidently envisaged by a well-intentioned researcher who came upon a pair of apparent rough-outs of long stone rods ("rondins de pierre") lying adjacent at about 2412N/0225E, being heard to wonder aloud as to whether it might one day be possible to determine: a) the probable shape of the finished products, and b) the type of tool(s) used to rough-cut the two objects involved (Fig. 1).

Grinding material

In spite of gallant efforts by Roubet (1973) and Amblard (1982; 1984) to standardise French-language nomenclature — the latter author dealing anyway with a single region — I am ignorant of any universal terminology in English (see however Table 1 and Kraybill 1977: 487 - 488).

The existence of two quite different methods of saddle-quern manufacture has become apparent since 1982. The first seemingly involved carving the quern outline in a horizontal or even vertical rock-face, then detaching it from the parent rock for completion (Milburn 1983). The second method was to collect suitably-shaped stone blocks from the hillside and then shape them as required, as at Adrar Madet (1839N/1027E) (Fig. 2). From the number of unfinished examples lying about

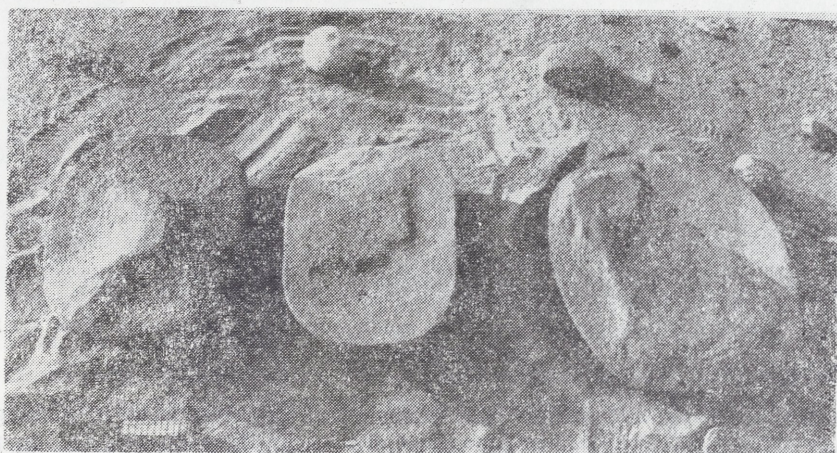


FIG. 2. Adrar Madet. Embryo saddle querns. Behind them are (left) a stone ball and (right) a typical upper stone.

it may be inferred that the site was left, once climatic conditions became too severe, a situation also attested by Quéchon and Roset (1974: photos 2 and 3) at nearby Termit. It is thought that Adrar Bous, also in this area, was abandoned around 4,500 B.P. (Smith 1984: 86).

The typology of upper stones used with saddle-querns appears highly complex in some regions (Fig. 3 and 4), though less so in others (Banks 1980: 242 and Figs. 12; 4, 7 - 9; 1982: 17). It is possible that the four types listed around Adrar Bous by Clark (1973: 283) inclusive of pestles, could be further subdivided. Each and every



FIG. 3. Southern Tassili-uan-Ahaggar. Upper stones

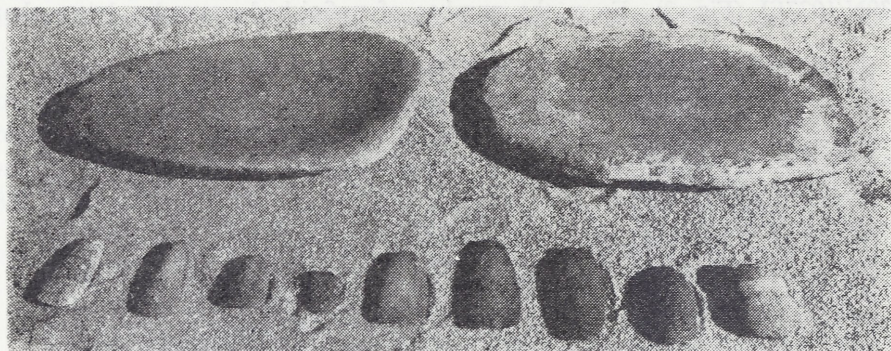


FIG. 4. Southern Tassili-uan-Ahaggar. Two saddle querns and some axes. Note small grooved axe on right

typology risks being thrown into utter chaos by an apparent habit of picking up a handy small stone and using it regardless: *cf.* Fig. 5, item 2, found alongside item 1; this latter, when turned over, proved to be a small mortar on whose visible bottom part much hammering shows.

The upper stones illustrated by Savary (1967: Fig. 1) appear to be variations on a single theme and are probably found over a huge area, testifying to a certain unity in method of use. A number of stones in my Fig. 3 bear traces of hammering; *cf.* Brennan (1975: 138) in respect of "anvil or pitted stones" of U.S.A. apparently very similar to those mentioned by Souville (1976: 198 - 199), along with grooved axes

found in the Eastern Sahara, as in Morocco and U.S.A. (Brennan 1975: 102). Arkell (1953: 42) associated hammer-stones with breaking up lumps of ferruginous mud-stone used for red ochre and similar other stones used for pigment. Some apparent large anvils seen in western Immidir, on what to-day is a particularly inhospitable bare hillside, must await further study before publication.

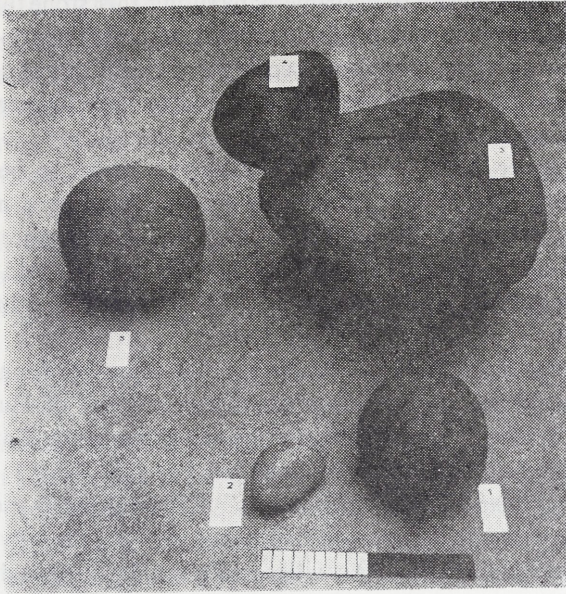


Fig. 5. Enneri Blaka (ca 2045N 1243E)

1: Mortar; 2: Pestle

Tassili-n-Ajjer

3: Static quern; 4, 5: Upper stones. Nos. 4 and 5 appear to belong together

We encounter the same problem when dealing with what I have here termed static or non-transportable querns, meaning large, ungainly stone blocks possessed of a grinding surface but not thought to have been produced with the intention of moving them very far, if at all (Fig. 5, item 3; cf. Amblard 1984: 80 and note 48). Some brand-new saddle-querns at Adrar Madet could weigh as much as ca 12.5 kg (Milburn 1987), while Huard *et al.* (1968: 641) cite a quern, type not precisely stated, 94 cm in length and weighing 80 kg; cf. the same authors (1968: 631) for ideas on transportable and static querns. One interesting suggestion is that "large grinding stones should not be invariably associated with food-processing" (Sordinas 1964: 76), although the statement is related to grinding associated with a present-day activity.

The upper stones for use with static querns, especially those apparently welded by two hands, sometimes look as though a handy specimen has been picked up, almost regardless of size, just so long as it could be used in conjunction with the flat-tish upper surface of a suitable stone block, in which a depression would occur through

use. Thus both quern and upper stone would take shape through use, rather than from initial selection and manufacture. The same may not apply to many upper stones small enough to be used in only one hand, though a number seem very ungainly and bear marks of hammering and/or single or multiple cup-marks.

In Fig. 5, items 4 and 5 weigh 3.52 and 5.38 kg respectively. Item 4 is heavily hammered at the point closest to the camera: by tilting this stone through about 90° the flattish grinding-surface can be fitted exactly into the cavity in the adjacent quern (item 3), on which deep peripheral scoring is visible. Certain upper stones seen adjacent to similar static querns are almost round enough to merit being termed "stone balls" (see below).

In respect of upper stones so far mentioned, it remains to be determined by experiment to what degree ever-recurring forms may have been manufactured or prepared, partially or totally. We need to know as well for instance, whether a very irregularly-shaped stone like that shown in Fig. 5, item 2, could assume regular proportions — or at least a more symmetrical shape — if used in a conventional way over a period.

To date we possess few details of the exact use of fixed oval or roundish depressions in flattish rock surfaces. These are the "fixed grindstones" of Hugot (1981: 604), said by him to be used in some cases for grinding pigments. Camps (1982: 567) calls them "grinding and pounding hollows".

Perhaps we may also include "cup-marks" as having been used for grinding/pounding in some cases: their size and depth can vary enormously. But it remains to be demonstrated which particular cavities in a given flat surface did serve to grind or pound material.

Lhote (1979: 33 - 64) has undertaken a study of a number of such cavities in the Tassili-n-Ajjer, concluding that a number of difficulties exist in determining the uses of the variously-shaped depressions. In August 1984 he informed me as to the unsuitability of a quantity of upper stones for use with them. The widely-differing shapes and sizes may indicate various functions, not yet convincingly explained. Thinking back to all such sites as I have encountered, I cannot recall any at which apparent upper stones were present.

Certain cylindrical shafts, many of them too deep and with a diameter insufficient to permit their use as mortars, are also mentioned by Lhote (1979: 48 - 49). I have seen several within Aïr, but can offer no satisfactory explanation for their presence (Morris and Milburn 1977: 143).

Turning now to the east Algerian stone balls of Savary (1967: Fig. 3) and described as classic equipment on Neolithic surface sites, he shows that five out of six examples in fact possess a lateral ridge, the use of which is not suggested.

Frequent mention has been made of "bolas-stones" in specialist publications, though I have often wondered why such objects — if correctly identified — so often lie amid a profusion of grinding material, albeit lacking Savary's characteristic ridge, though I know of a few specimens which do possess it.

In September 1980 J. D. Clark suggested in conversation their use in sharpening-up querns. He has elsewhere (Clark 1955: 404) mentioned modern Bantu quern-sharpeners, also that such stone balls should not be confused with those occurring in Palaeolithic hunting cultures in which grinding of cereal crops was unknown. The sharpening-up of smooth quern-surfaces, apparently in modern times in Tibesti, is recalled by Huard (1970: 542), although the instrument used for this purpose is not stated. Two of the "stone pestles" illustrated by Zarattini (1983: 234), although seemingly pre-Neolithic, might qualify as "balls".

Bennett and Elton (1898: 10) cite Schliemann as follows in respect of material seen by him at Troy, "rudely cut, nearly globular, stone instruments for flour grinding are very numerous in all the four lower prehistoric cities". An illustration on the same page is stated to show a specimen about 4 inches (*ca* 10 cm) in diameter.

A stone ball is shown beyond the centre embryo quern in my Fig. 2, made of a whitish stone, and there are around one dozen more to be seen in the back two rows of Fig. 3, some of them very rough indeed through long exposure to the elements.

The discs shown by Savary (1967: Fig. 4) remain problematical as to use, though not dissimilar to certain upper stones in size and shape. The type described by Clark (1973: 282) as "flat, double sided ... with near circular plan forms" seems to relate to a variety which I have come to regard as typical of the western Ténéré Tafassasset and especially of Adrar Madet. One such example measured 13.3 × 11.7 cm, with a thickness varying from 1.0 to 2.0 cm around the centre of the short side. The thinnest part — this being apparently caused by wear — was around the centre of the longest side, suggesting to me that perhaps the object had been held across its longest side and rubbed to and fro at some 90°.

Had this object been a small quern — and certain minuscule specimens seem to exist — the wear should then be at the approximate center rather than at the edges.

Stone sculptures

Sculptured stone objects (Camps 1982: 572 - 574, 577, 581, and Fig. 8: 4) known to date include certain forms unidentifiable in this century, being alien to anything we know, plus others whose "identification" is questionable, to say the very least. The map of their general distribution in the central Sahara is given by Camps (1982: 572), also labelled Fig. 8: 4. Between pp. 552 - 553, a prior "Fig. 8: 4" illustrates a pair of sculptures.

It is possible that a number have found their way into private collections and may never be published (to judge by a recent enquiry from a dealer as to whether I knew of any for sale!).

New or unpublished material known to me includes, first, the object from near Edjeleh (Erg oriental), apparently very roughly made and perhaps atypical or even from a different culture altogether (Souville 1983). Next comes an object looking

like the carved head of a serpent, seen by A. Bonnert near Amguid (2630N/0536E) and mentioned to me on 18 June 1983; I understood that it is to be published in *Bullétinde la Société Préhistorique Française*.

The object which I recently published (Milburn 1984a: Fig. 19: 1) comes into the category of "non-identified". Yet I am grateful to A. Nibbi for a suggestion to the effect that its shape recalls that of an Egyptian basket. My own knowledge hardly permits comment one way or another, though I have since been referred by her to various publications, several of which do show objects whose outline is generally similar. While most baskets of which I have seen illustrations have a convex base, *i.e.* the main weight seems to cause a bulge at the bottom centre of each basket, a very few look as though the weight lies at each corner, so that the overall appearance of the base of the basket is concave (*cf.* Naville 1898, Part III: Pl. LXXV, just to left of mast of boat).

"Rondins de pierre"

The use of RPs (Gast 1965; Milburn 1984d), together with stones resembling clubs and other shapes, notably from SE Sahara, remain largely indeterminate, even though employment as "hoes" and "picks" has been suggested and agriculture postulated (Davies 1967: 162; Hugot 1981: 602); compare Amblard (1984: Fig. 192) for a "pick" from Tichitt, south Mauritania.



FIG. 6. 1: Worn ball; 2: Conventional grooved axe; 3: Unusual grooved axe; 4: Unidentified object à bourrelet

One interesting observation is by Gautier (1923: 105) who speaks of "tools in polished stone... enormous stone rolling-pins and large bell-shaped mortars of a type well-known to archaeologists, still in use in the Soudan (*cf.* Huard *et al.* 1968: 633, referring to stone pestles formerly used in Soudan) ... used to crush grain ... and also as standing stones on Moslem tombs". This latter use leads me to think that RPs are indeed the stones cited above, since the custom is attested in a number of areas, which could imply that RPs were once quite common. If one interpretation of a rock painting be correct, then a rod (of stone or wood?) seems to be in use in conjunction with a mortar shaped like a thin bucket (Huard 1970: Fig. 3:7).

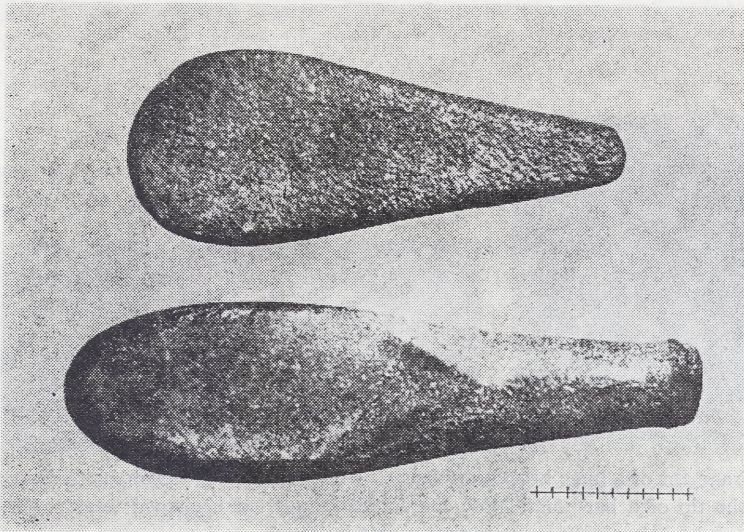


FIG. 7. Two enigmatic objects of SW Ahhagar

The object in Fig. 6: 4 seen near Adrar Mariaou in the northern Ténéré Tafassasset, recalls a club. It is scored and indented in places and has no obvious cutting-edge. The thin end, vaguely phallic, seems to be the "bourrelet" (pad. cushion) mentioned by Huard *et al.* (1968: 634 - 636); *cf.* an RP of which the sole visible end is clearly phallic (Nilsson and Dauber 1982: photo 14), stated to be found near Temet, not far from Adrar Bous, of which I have tried without success to obtain further details; *cf.* also the "phallic effigy pestle" of Brennan (1975: 127) in U.S.A.

An object possessing this "bourrelet" feature was found about 80 km SW of Silet, Ahaggar, though here all similarity ends. The "bourrelet" is at the far end of what might be termed a handle, terminating beyond this in a flattish ovaloid space, somewhat reminiscent of the upper surface of a saddle-quern. A rather similar object occurring nearby was far more simple in form and lacked the "bourrelet" (Fig. 7).

At the same site as the object shown in Fig. 6: 4 was seen the broken artefact shown in Fig. 8: 1, evidently only a small portion of what originally existed and in no way an axe or utensil with a sharp cutting-edge. Possibly, however, it may come into the category of what been called “picks” or “hoes” and connected with agrarian practices (Souville 1984: 240); cf. Amblard 1984: Fig. 192 and 193.

Leaving aside for the moment the copious material on “outils aratoires” (Huard *et al.* 1968: 637 - 640) and “the earliest agrarian undertakings” in the Chad Sahara (Huard 1970), the RP published in the last Proceedings (Milburn 1984: Fig. 2) has two clearly differing extremities, for which a separate use may be postulated. I have

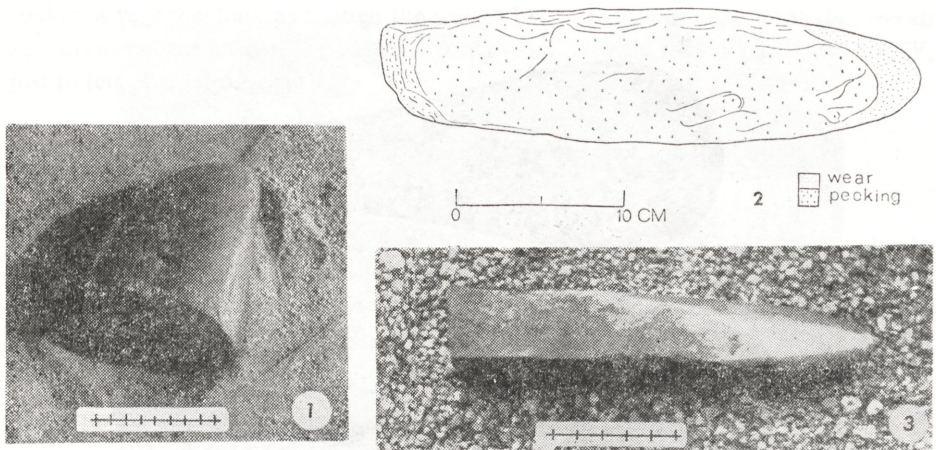


FIG. 8. 1: Fragment of a large broken artefact; 2: Under surface of a probable ard-tip; 3: Under surface of the tip of a bar-point. Note characteristic inverted U-shaped wear pattern, similar to that visible in Fig. 2

asked myself whether the “blunt pencil/knife edge” end — facing to the right in the illustration and a common enough feature of numerous RPs — can be attributed to intentional shaping rather than to wear, at least initially? Could such wear, if wear it is, be occasioned by resting the RP in a tall mortar and simply pushing it round and round the inner circumference — probably with only one hand — to treat some substance within the mortar?; cf. the camel oil mill system (Wilson 1984: 169 - 170).

In an Egyptian mural “on the wall of one of the ancient tombs at Assouan” feature two examples of the “balanced dumb-bell pestle”, very similar to many in use to-day in the central and southern Sahara (Bennett and Elton 1898: 89 - 90).

I have certain other questions still unanswered. What, for instance, can be the reason for some RPs having a portion of their length quite flat? Why is a particular form of long stone splinter missing from a flank in some cases? Are cup-marks along the flank of a few RPs functional rather than decorative? (Amblard 1984: Fig. 192; Milburn 1987: Fig. 1).

Ploughing in the southern Sahara?

A single identification of sorghum from an impression on a surface sherd from Adrar Bous provides an intriguing hint that some domesticated plants were known (Smith 1980: 455; 1984: 86), although doubt appears to be felt by Clark (1980: 567) about grain cultivation before 1,100 B.C. It is likely however that further evidence of domestication in the Tilemsi valley, Mali, may become available in respect of second millennium pastoralists (Smith 1984: 89, 92).

If we can accept as hoes the artefacts cited by Huard *et al.* (1968: 639), felt by these authors to be for agriculture rather than for digging up roots, due to their presence in SE Tibesti alongside prolific grinding material, one must emphasise that some root-digging cannot yet be ruled out entirely (*cf.* Bray and Trump 1973: 106). The agrarian tools of Tibesti, we are told, have remained extremely primitive right up to the present day (Huard 1970: 542). Souville (1984: 240), admittedly speaking of a zone of fertile Morocco, is emphatic that grooved axes shaped like picks — of which a number are known from SE Sahara — could have been used as hoes. Their use in the ancient salt industry has also been suggested.

Speaking of Ténéré Tafassasset, one view sees stone hoes as necessarily being used for agriculture. The Ténéré people are not regarded as being nomads, their tool-kit being too large and too numerous. "They may have been herdsmen ... they had subsidiary agriculture" (Davies 1967: 162 - 163). A recent opinion suggests environmental conditions making it difficult to maintain herds large enough for subsistence, also that grain cultivation "was practised on a strictly *ad hoc* basis by pastoral peoples taking advantage of an occasional particularly wet season but otherwise relying on their herds and whatever wild game they could obtain ... and on the wild plant foods they collected" (Smith 1984: 90).

The dwellings of makers of the Tenerian industry are thought to have been of an impermanent nature (Clark 1973: 288). Even though this remark appears to be based upon one visit to the western part of the area, I am unaware of any reason to contradict it.

A provisional explanation of Tenerians possessing pottery for many millennia (*cf.* Roset 1983), though lacking proven agriculture, might be to view this as a prelude to "migratory herdsmen and cultivating women" (Haaland 1981), with women potting and *et cetera* instead of cultivating.

A single find of a probable ard-tip appears to provide another hint of agriculture (Milburn and Rees 1984), albeit perhaps of the *ad hoc* variety above-mentioned. When found, it was seen as no more than a stone rod (RP), similar to others encountered in the area. Hence there was no immediate search for traces of grain *in situ* nor for evidence of soil tillage, and no thought of possible agriculture until some years later.

The object was one of eight inspected, of which seven were rejected out of hand by S. E. Rees, to whom I am indebted for a statement (22.9.1984) to the effect that

the wear-marks would be the same on an ard which could be pushed along, rather than pulled. On ard-tips in general see Rees (1979). R. B. K. Stevenson kindly remarked (26.11.1984) that the brittleness of stone bars as compared with wood should have ensured large losses even in sandy soil.

Inspection is invited to the drawing of the under surface (Fig. 8: 2) and comparison should be made with the characteristic inverted U-shaped wear pattern on the tip of the lower surface of the object in Fig. 8: 3. This latter, part of a bar-point plough recently in use in Northumberland, exhibits wear indicative of the implement being mounted so that it points slightly to the left, in parallel with other bar-points mounted on the same frame. I thank T. Sharp for bringing to my notice the whole question of the bar-point plough, for explaining its function and for the tip illustrated in Fig. 8: 3.

My provisional conclusion, as at December 1984, on which I hope to go into greater detail shortly, is as follows. There may have existed people who used ards in the southern Sahara, albeit still so inexperienced in cultivation as to have been taking no intentional steps fortuitously, far less with intent — to bring about conditions necessary for production of true domesticated grain, recognizable as such, along the lines described by Stemler (1980; 1984).

If this in fact be so, then the situation cited by Renfrew (1973: 208) could apply, namely that “cultivated wild grain” was in production, giving rise, some millennia later, to such questions as “how long does a plant have to be cultivated before it becomes domesticated?”

Gouges

There is currently nothing which I can add to remarks already made elsewhere (Milburn 1984c), except to offer an illustration of a couple of gouges from western Ténéré Tafassasset (Fig. 9). The top object is of the type I have termed “parallel-sided” and suggested that it may be particular to the Ténérien and north-east Niger, though I should welcome any indications to the contrary.

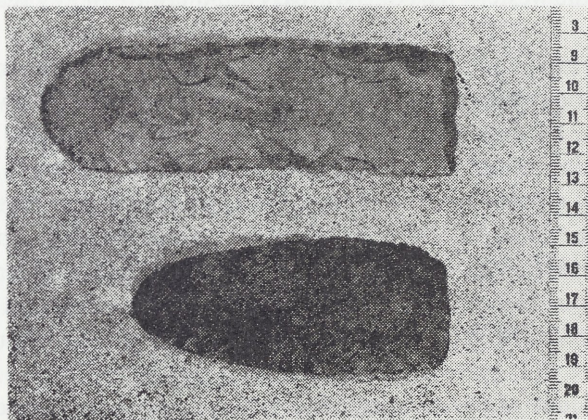


FIG. 9. Two gouges of the Ténérien

Beads

Having recently had occasion to pursue Garamantian shadows far and wide, even as far as the desert of Goran (though only in literature), I found that a number of cases of the occurrence of the so-called Garamantian emeralds appear to predate the known existence of these highly enigmatic people (Mauny 1956; *cf.* Milburn 1985).

Indications are that the "emeralds" are likely to have been amazonite felspar (Ogden 1982: 92), at any rate those found in Egypt, with no true emeralds being attributable to Garamantian commerce (Monod 1974). In 1972 I found an amazonite bead lying on a Neolithic site at Adrar Bous: it had no more than a trace, at either end, of the start of an attempt to drill it through. If this area was finally abandoned by Ténérien people around 4,500 B.P. (Smith 1984: 86) then this example is likely to belong to the site and to predate the Classical Era.

Such stone may well have come from the famous quarry at Eghei Zumma, Tibesti, visited during this century. I am still unaware as to whether such amazonite has been compared with so-called emeralds found in Punic graves.

The carbuncle is even more mysterious, though cited by classical sources as having been a trade item. One author mentions carbuncles from south Libya (Adams 1984: 304), though I remain entirely ignorant as to the nature of such objects, while presuming at least that a bead was involved, if not a bulky stone unsuitable for piercing.

Stone monuments

A number of types of the so-called "monuments mégalithiques/tombes préislamiques" remain to be shown to have been erected as tombs. Apart from the common "redjems" or stone piles found along ancient routes (Heseltine 1959: 157), some further examples can be named, using where possible the illustrations of Reygasse (1950):

1. Horse-shoe (Reygasse 1950: Fig. 58, "fer à cheval"). His illustration has been printed back to front: the open part of the horse-shoe should face east. This type is ill-named, although the name has stuck;

2. Basket-handle (Not illustrated; "anse de panier"). Is a true horse-shoe in fact, with a curved wall open to east or south-east in most cases;

3. Low multiple rings (Reygasse 1950: Fig. 44, "cercle rituel"). The above three models are all common in Ahaggar in the widest sense. They may well be post-Neolithic;

4. Curved orientated walls (Fig. 10). This type appears to be unknown to date. I am grateful to Th. Monod for the information (4.4.1984) that he has no idea of the significance nor age. An attempt to copy V-shapes (Reygasse 1950: Fig. 70, 72D), near which they sometimes occur, may be involved. They are found, so far as I know, in the areas Ahnet, Asedjrad and western Immidir, hence roughly across the

terrain between the so-called Tanezrouft and Ahaggar trans-Saharan routes. They are often orientated about east, like V-shapes, though not invariably so.

Some V-shapes themselves are highly enigmatic, in terms of why they appear to be a combination of V-shape and axle-shape (Milburn 1981: Figs. 1a and b). The relationship of the axle-shape to the V-shape has also to be determined: the former are somewhat rarer, for instance one unique site contains nine V-shapes and only one axle-shape (*cf.* Milburn 1984).



FIG. 10. Curved orientated walls, not known to contain a burial

The language of Reygasse (1950: 56, 61 - 62) compared with that concerning pages 85 - 86 and 88, is hard to fathom. In the former pages he is clearly describing other peoples' excavations and discoveries of V-shapes, plus one apparent axle-shape. In the latter pages, concerning his own work around Abalessa, near Tamanrasset, he talks of "burials covered with paving". There are six illustrations (Figs. 125 - 130), while only two apparent rough V-shapes are shown on the general plan of the "necropolis of Abalessa" in his "Plan no. 5" on page 78. It is not clear how many of the structures are V-shapes nor whether axle-shapes are present: what we do gather (Reygasse 1950: 88) is that he found a skeleton.

All in all, indications are that burials in V-shapes may consist of a single contracted skeleton, lying on the right side, head to south and facing out between the open "arms" of the monument itself, hence about east or south-east.

Conclusion

The above remarks have been kept as brief as possible in complex circumstances, though I hope that they will help serve to set the stage for more detailed observations based on more fieldwork. The area and the subject matter covered are both extremely wide and merely indicate just how little we know of many aspects of pre- and protohistory.

Acknowledgements

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