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3 **Towards understanding the influence of Neolithisation for communities using the**
4 **Zvejnieki cemetery, Latvia: A technological and functional analysis of the osseous**
5 **artefacts discovered in the Late Mesolithic burial no 57 and Neolithic burial no 164**

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13

14 **Abstract:** The results of traceological (technological and use-wear) studies of osseous artefacts
15 discovered in the Mesolithic burial no 57 and Neolithic burial no 164 from the cemetery in
16 Zvejnieki, Latvia are discussed. This research identified significant differentiation in the
17 techniques used to make animal tooth pendants deposited in the Mesolithic grave and, by
18 contrast, identified relative uniformity in the methods used to make those from the Neolithic
19 grave. In addition, use-wear traces were observed on many of the Mesolithic pendants and were
20 absent from almost all Neolithic ones, indicating the Neolithic examples were probably made
21 for funerary purposes. This research also identified that the bone points from both graves were
22 made in a similar manner and had been used. The technological and functional similarities and
23 differences between the artefacts from the Mesolithic and Neolithic burials are discussed in the
24 context of their probable origin and on observations made on other collections of similar
25 chronology in the region.

26 **Keywords**

27 Zvejnieki (Latvia); Burials; Mesolithic; Neolithic; Bone artefacts; Traceology

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 The small size and considerable mobility of the hunter-gatherer communities of the
31 Early and Middle Holocene Europe are probably the main reasons why cemeteries from this
32 period are sparse. In central Europe, they are usually small, containing [at most 1-5] graves,
33 such as, for example, Janisławice (Chmielewska, 1954; Cyrek, 1978) and Mszano (Marciniak,
34 2001) in Poland, and Bad Dürrenberg, Groß Fredenwalde and Liepe in Germany (Gramsch,
35 2010, 39). The situation is different in northeastern Europe, where small cemeteries, such as
36 Spiginas and Donkalnis in north-western Lithuania (Butrimas, 2012), are found next to large
37 cemeteries which have clearly been used over long time periods (cf. Grünberg, 2016), such as

38 Oleniy Ostrov in north-western Russia (Gurina, 1956), Zvejnieki in Latvia (Zagorskis, 1987;
39 2004; Zagorska, 1992) and Dudka and Szczepanki in northeastern Poland (Gumiński and
40 Bugajska, 2016). Settlement sites are equally crucial for the study of the prehistoric hunter-
41 gatherer communities of the region. Thanks to favourable environmental conditions like those
42 in the cemeteries, they also exhibit well-preserved and rarely available organic archaeological
43 material, mainly bone. Examples of these sites are Šventoji in Lithuania (Rimantienė, 2005) or
44 Pulli and Kunda-Lammasmägi in Estonia (Indreko, 1948; Jaanits and Jaanits, 1975).

45

46 Osseous raw materials have undoubtedly played a key role in the life of hunter-gatherer
47 communities of the Early and Middle Holocene. The products made from them were used in all
48 aspects of the lives of these human groups. Not only were they one of the basic materials for
49 making tools and hunting weapons (David, 2005a), but they also served an essential function
50 in social and spiritual life. They became a means for expressing symbolic ideas through realistic
51 figurative art (Płonka, 2003; Mantere and Kashina, 2020) and highly decorative ornaments on
52 artefacts from that period (Płonka, 2003). Bones and items made of bone were used for
53 communicating the social role and position of individuals (Larsson, 2009) and belongingness
54 to a local group (David, 2006). They were an essential element of rituals (e.g. Osipowicz et al.,
55 2020a, b; Eliott et al., 2018; Gummesson et al., 2018) and a permanent constituent of burial
56 gifts where their observed technological and formal diversity suggest sensitive indicators of
57 many regional cultural traditions (David, 2007). Lastly, products made of osseous raw materials
58 appear to have been important items of exchange within the inter-social relations of that period
59 (Manninen et al., 2021), sometimes across large areas (cf. Osipowicz et al., 2017), involving
60 not only the artefacts themselves but also the ideas related to them, of technology (David,
61 2005a, 2007; David and Kjällquist 2018), style and form (Manninen et al., 2021) and ornament
62 (e.g. Płonka, 2003).

63 The region of northeastern Europe is an area with some of the best conditions for the
64 preservation of organic material from the Early and Middle Holocene, and its potential for the
65 study of osseous collections from these periods is exceptionally valuable. However, most
66 research on bone material has focused on typology and zooarchaeology, and targeted research
67 on their technological and functional aspects is the subject of few published articles.

68 Osseous materials from Estonia, from the sites Pulli (David, 2005b), Saaremaa (Luik et
69 al., 2011), and single finds from the Pärnu river (Luik and Haak, 2017) have mainly been
70 studied with a focus on artefacts and their technology. To date, no osseous materials from
71 Estonia have been subjected to functional analyses. In Latvia, osseous artefacts from the
72 Zvejnieki cemetery have been the subject of research on their technology (David and Zagorska,
73 2004; David, 2006; Larsson, 2006), and there is one generalised functional study on the animal
74 teeth pendants (Larsson, 2006, 2009). From Lithuania, most osseous materials traceologically
75 studied have come from the complex of sites in Šventoji (Luik and Piličiauskienė, 2016;
76 Gaižauskas, 2017; Iršenai et al., 2018; Osipowicz et al., 2019a, b, 2020a, b, d, e; Osipowicz,
77 2020) and Kaltanėnai site (Piličiauskas et al., 2020). Additionally, single papers presenting the
78 results of the analyses, including preliminary technological studies, on selected stray finds from
79 Lithuania, have been published (Ivanovaitė et al., 2018; Rimkus et al., 2019). In Russia, the
80 research has mainly focused on the osseous materials from Zamostje (e.g. David, 1996;
81 Lozovska, 1997; Gyria et al., 2013; Maigrot et al., 2013; Treuillot, 2013) and the sites located

82 within the Upper Volga region (e.g. Zhilin, 1998, 2015, 2020). Also, materials, mainly pedants,
83 from the burial site at Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov have been analysed traceologically (Rainio et al.,
84 2021; Mannermaa et al., 2021, 2022).

85 There is a real need for more research in this area.

86

87 1.1. East Baltic Plain – an outline of inter-cultural transformations and impact in the Early and
88 Middle Holocene (with particular emphasis on the area of today's Latvia)

89 The East Baltic Plain area is extremely interesting regarding cultural changes that took
90 place there in the Early and Middle Holocene. Throughout this period, it was, as one might put
91 it, 'on the borderlines between two worlds', accumulating ideas from vast areas; yet, the
92 communities living here continued the foragers' way of life till the end of the Stone Age.

93 The oldest known traces of humans in the territory of Latvia belongs to reindeer hunters,
94 which arrived at the very end of the Late Palaeolithic (10500-9000 cal BC). They are associated
95 with the Swiderian tradition, expanding from its core area covering the region from Ukraine to
96 Poland and Lithuania (Kozłowski, 1989).

97 For most of the Mesolithic, the East Baltic Plain was inhabited by people assigned to
98 the Kunda culture (9000-6500 cal BC). The genesis of this unit is still in question (Ostrauskas
99 2006); however, it is assumed that it came into existence after the convergence of a wave of
100 migration from north-eastern Europe and the inheritance of Swiderian culture. Some
101 researchers also consider the influence of Madlenian and later the Maglemose traditions (Jaanits
102 1990, Zagorska 1993, Rimantienė 1984). Recently, eastward affiliation has been suggested
103 (Sorensen et al., 2013). The osseous inventory of Kunda culture is characterised by Kunda-type
104 fish spears, harpoons, bone points of a triangular cross-section, Shigir points, and single
105 specimens with one or two slots (Kozłowski 1971, 1989, Zagorska et al., 1993).

106 As a result of the technological studies of collections of implements made of osseous
107 raw materials originating from selected Early Mesolithic sites in Europe conducted recently,
108 three technocomplexes have been distinguished on our continent (cf. David 2005a, 2007). Due
109 to the presence of the so-called Z-method (named after site Zamostje, Russia - David 2007) in
110 the applied methods for manufacturing semi-products for osseous points, the Kunda culture was
111 qualified as the easternmost group of the Northeastern technocomplex (David 2007; David and
112 Zagorska 2004). Likewise, in this regard, it is situated on the borderline between different
113 cultural systems.

114 Significant transformations in Latvian Stone Age occurred during the Late Mesolithic
115 (6000-5400 cal BC) and Early Neolithic (5400-4100 cal BC). This period was divided by the
116 appearance of so-called Narva ceramics, bearing the influence of more southern territories
117 (Piezonka, 2015). Still, the subsistence economy did not change – it was a time of optimal
118 climatic conditions, an increase in food resources and population increase and a flourishing
119 hunter-fisher-gatherer way of life (Loze, 1993).

120 At approximately 4100-4000 cal BC from north-eastern Europe, the Pit-Comb Ware
121 culture appears, starkly differing from previously observed traditions. This phenomenon is
122 characterised by new types of pottery (with pit and comb ornament), the emergence of an
123 extensive amber exchange network, the shift in lithic technology and distinctive burial
124 practices, such as collective burials, different grave goods and others (Berg-Hansen et al 2019;
125 Zagorska, 2016).

126 At the same time, old, local burial traditions continued to be practised (single
127 inhumations, tooth-pendant dominance, bone and antler grave goods). Both graves from the

128 Zvejnieki burial ground analysed in this article (graves 57 and 164) belong to this local
129 Mesolithic-Neolithic burial tradition.

130 In light of the presented data, it seems reasonable to hypothesise that the intercultural
131 influences connected to the Neolithisation of the discussed region that were noticed in the case
132 of pottery and stone artefacts may also be visible in production methods and use of the osseous
133 products.

134

135 1.2. Objectives

136 This article aims to present the results of traceological studies on the collections of bone
137 artefacts from two burials at the site in Zvejnieki, Mesolithic grave no 57 and the Neolithic
138 grave no 164. The microscopic analysis of these artefacts was undertaken primarily to
139 characterise the manner of their production and to interpret their probable function. The data
140 obtained was used to identify and interpret the origins of possible technological and functional
141 differences between the Mesolithic and Neolithic artefacts and also to seek to identify behaviour
142 related to their funerary purpose. Some of the analysed objects, mainly the pendants from grave
143 57, had previously been subjected to similar analyses using a small magnification of $\times 10$
144 (Larsson, 2006, 256). In the case of such artefacts, the main objective of this research was to
145 supplement, if possible, the existing findings using higher magnification and an optical
146 microscope for technological analyses, higher magnification to enable the analysis of polish,
147 and a metallographic microscope for the study of function.

148 1.3.-Zvejnieki

149 The Zvejnieki Stone Age complex in northern Latvia includes one of the most
150 significant hunter-fisher-gatherer cemeteries in northern Europe in terms of both the
151 exceptional number of individuals buried there and the long period of use. It is located on a
152 gravel ridge of glacial origin, which was formerly an island close to the shore of the palaeolake
153 Burtnieks in northern Latvia (Fig. 1).

154 In the 1960s, Francis Zagorskis directed a large-scale excavation at Zvejnieki in
155 response to the accidental discovery of ochre-stained human bones during gravel extraction at
156 the site. The burial ground was excavated from 1964 to 1971, with minor interruptions. The
157 Neolithic settlement, Zvejnieki I, was excavated from 1964 to 1966, and in the 1970s,
158 excavations were undertaken in the Mesolithic settlement, Zvejnieki II (Fig. 1C; Zagorskis,
159 1987, 2004; Zagorska, 1992, 2006b).

160 The favourable preservation conditions for skeletal remains, implements made of
161 osseous materials, and the arrangement of the cemetery helped form the basis of a preliminary
162 chronological outline and archaeological interpretation (Zagorskis, 1987). The Zvejnieki
163 archaeological complex consists of a burial ground used over a period of five millennia
164 (approximately 7500–2600 cal BC) and two settlement sites partly contemporaneous with it.

165 The excavation at Zvejnieki revealed one of the largest Stone Age burial concentrations
166 in northern Europe. Still, the exact number of individuals buried at the site is not known. A total
167 of 308 burials were recorded in the 1960s and 1970s, including some collective burials of up to
168 six individuals. Recent excavations, ending in 2009, added 27 other individuals to the total
169 number discovered, and many burials may still remain beneath the unexcavated ruins of a

170 farmhouse at the site. Additionally, a number of graves were destroyed in the western part of
171 the cemetery during the gravel extraction that prompted the research in the 1960s (Zagorska,
172 2006b).

173 The extraordinarily rich material from the site has been investigated by a wide range of
174 specialists from Latvia and other countries (e.g., Zagorska and Zagorskis, 1989; Zagorska and
175 Lõugas, 2000; Larsson, 2006, 2010; Lõugas, 2006; Mannermaa, 2006; Zariņa, 2006; Nilsson
176 Stutz et al., 2013; Larsson et al., 2017; Henderson et al., 2022; Macāne, 2022), and radiocarbon
177 dating has established the chronology of the site (Larsson and Zagorska, 2006; Mannermaa et
178 al., 2007; Meadows et al., 2018).

179

180 **2. Materials and methods**

181 2.1. Materials

182 The osseous artefacts subjected to the traceological analysis conducted for the studies
183 described in this article are stored at the Museum Storage Facility in Riga. The burials included
184 were chosen for analysis because of the high amount of osseous artefacts in the grave goods
185 and the presence of the radiocarbon datings, establishing their precise chronology.

186 Grave no 57 (Fig. 2)

187 The grave contained the burial of an adult female in an extended supine position with
188 the head to the northwest (cf. Zagorskis, 1987, 27; Zagorska et al., 2018). An intensive ochre
189 layer surrounded the skeleton and the sides of the pit. The grave inventory was rich and included
190 a bone point, a flat stone axe, flint artefacts, as well as 49 pendants made from the teeth of elk
191 (*Alces alces*; 24), red deer (*Cervus elaphus*; 22) and aurochs (*Bos primigenius*; 3) (Macāne,
192 2022, table 1, 426). They were found on and beside the skeleton and as decoration on other
193 grave goods. Some of the tooth pendants had been placed in groups at some distance from the
194 skeleton, in an intense patch of ochre. The most striking find in this grave was a bone dagger
195 with an elk head representation forming the handle (cf. Zagorska et al., 2018; hereinafter
196 referred to as an elk-like shaft to avoid functionally profiled terms before the final confirmation
197 of the function of such artefacts). This elk sculpture was found at the knees of the interred
198 woman, across the left leg, with the handle pointing downwards. Grave no 57 was the richest
199 female burial in the cemetery (Zagorska, 2016). It was dated to the Late Mesolithic (6825±60
200 BP, Ua-3636; 5838-5624 cal BC; Zagorska, 2006a; Zagorska et al., 2018).

201 Grave 164 (Fig. 3)

202 Human remains in burial 164 belong to an adult male. The grave depth was about 40 cm
203 and was filled with black soil. A small amount of powdered ochre was powdered at the back of
204 the skull and at the right elbow of the deceased. The upper part of the left arm of the skeleton
205 was destroyed (Zagorskis, 2004, 30). The grave goods comprised nine pendants made of animal
206 teeth:- aurochs (*Bos primigenius*; 1), dog (*Canis familiaris*, 1), otter (*Lutra lutra*; 4), red deer
207 (*Cervus elaphus*; 1), wild boar (*Sus scrofa*; 1), and elk (*Alces alces*; 1), 16 bone points deposited
208 between the legs of the skeleton and a fragmentary bone spearhead placed over the left side of
209 the chest (Macāne, 2022, table 1, 428). A complete set of one otter's upper and lower canines

210 were identified in the grave, suggesting an intentional choice of teeth coming from the same
211 animal (Macane, 2022, 138). The act of placing bone points between the legs of the deceased
212 in grave 164 is unique at Zvejnieki. The burial also contained 42 wing bones (carpometacarpi
213 and carpal phalanges) of jay (*Garrulus glandarius*) found on the right arm, on the trunk, at the
214 right knee, and at the feet (Mannermaa, 2006). It is possible that the wings decorated the
215 funerary garment, thereby playing a symbolic role (Zvelebil, 2003; Mannermaa, 2006: 296;
216 Mannermaa, 2008a, 216–217). The burial is dated to the Middle Neolithic (5230±95 BP, Ua-
217 15544; 4326-3801 cal BC; Zagorska, 2006a).

218 2.2. Methods

219 The traceological analyses were performed using two microscopes. Studies on the
220 technological traces and, in the case of tools, the general characteristics of the working edges
221 were undertaken using a Nikon SMZ-745T microscope (magnification up to ×65) fitted with a
222 Delta Pix Invenio 6EIII camera. The latter was used to take the photomicrographs presented in
223 Fig. 4C-G; 5; 6; 7; 8; 9; 10A-G, I, J; 11A, D-H. Observations on the polish were performed
224 using a Motic AE2000MET microscope with up to ×50 magnification (magnification up to ×500)
225 fitted with Moticam 5+ camera. The photomicrographs presented in Fig. 4A, B; 10K; 11B, C,
226 I, J were also taken with this equipment.

227 The terminology applied in this research was based on the system adopted in the
228 literature (e.g. Korobkova, 1999; Newcomer, 1974; Legrand, 2007; Buc, 2011; Orłowska,
229 2016; Osipowicz et al., 2020b), adjusted to the needs and requirements of each specific artefact.

230 The preservation of the artefacts from both included burials is similar, indicating that
231 the decomposing process was alike in both cases and did not significantly influence the analysis
232 results. The traceological studies were hampered by the damages and surface erosion of some
233 artefacts, as well as the presence of ochre and other contaminants covering them. The biggest
234 obstacle, however, was the substance used to preserve the specimens (with similar optical
235 features to a kind of lacquer), which in many cases, made it completely impossible to observe
236 and analyse the polish. Some of the artefacts also wear traces of modern exfoliation of the
237 surface.

238 Calibration of ¹⁴C datings presented in this article was performed against IntCal20
239 (Reimer et al., 2020) with OxCal ver. 4.4 (Bronk Ramsey, 2020).

240

241 3. Results

242 A summary of the key data obtained in the course of the traceological studies is shown in Table
243 1.

244 3.1. Technological analysis

245 3.1.1. Grave 57

246 The surface of the osseous point discovered in the burial was formed at the final stage
247 by scraping, probably with the use of the natural, that is not retouched, edge of a blade or flake
248 (Fig. 4E, G). This technique was supplemented by whittling, which resulted in the traces being
249 particularly visible at the base (tang) of the point. Here can be observed chatter-marks (Fig. 4D)

250 and incisions (Fig. 4C), typical for this technique. The presence of chatter marks indicates that
251 the processed raw material was not softened or was softened poorly.

252 The preservation of the elk-like shaft is very poor. The only technological traces visible
253 on its surface are poorly readable remains of whittling (linear bands with incisions – Fig. 5A),
254 chatter marks – Fig. 5B), and scraping (Fig. 5C).

255 As a result of these traceological analyses, it was found that the collection of pendants
256 from grave no 57 comprises: 17 unperforated pendants but with other traces of processing (Fig.
257 2: 4-20), 12 perforated pendants (Fig. 2: 21-32) and 20 animal teeth with no traces of processing
258 (Fig. 2: 33-52).

259 The technological traces observed on the unperforated pendants in most cases (15
260 specimens), are limited to the grinding of the teeth's roots and crowns from one face or two
261 opposite faces (Fig. 2: 4-18; Fig. 6). In the remaining two cases (Figs. 2: 19, 20), parallel
262 scraping traces were observed on the teeth's roots.

263 The examination of the perforated pendants disclosed one artefact with a bifacial drilled
264 perforation (Fig. 7: 1) but damaged to such a degree that further interpretation was impossible,
265 and 11 pendants with perforations made by carving techniques which could be deconstructed.
266 There is a visible differentiation in methods and tools used in this process; in some cases, each
267 side of the same perforation was created differently (cf. Larson 2006, 255).

268 Generally, it is possible to distinguish three variants of the perforation method:

269 (1) grinding or whittling of the tooth's surface and then scraping and whittling the hole (Fig.7:
270 2, 3). In this case, scraping was probably conducted using a dull claw-like tool (possibly a kind
271 of morphological perforator?) with a wide and rounded working edge. Whittling was mainly
272 used to widen the hole. This method was observed most frequently (11 cases; considering each
273 side of the perforation as a separate case);

274 (2) grinding or whittling the surface of the root to flatten it and then cutting or grooving the
275 hole (3 cases – Fig.7: 4). Cutting or grooving was performed with the sharp, thin, un-retouched
276 working edge of a stone tool, as in the case of some types of morphological burins or with edges
277 created as the result of breaking the flake (cf. Osipowicz, 2019). The perforations were later
278 widened usually by whittling;

279 (3) scraping, whittling or grooving, without "flattening" grinding (7 cases – Fig. 7: 5).

280 In the case of one of the pendants, it was not possible to determine the method of forming the
281 perforation on one of the faces due to the extensive damage to the surface.

282 On some pendants, other less standard technological traces were also observed. In the
283 case of two artefacts (Fig. 2: 21, 27), the sides of the perforations bear interesting pairs of V-
284 shaped cuts. They have the opposite location, which means that if the incision created on the
285 upper face of the pendant was made from the left side, then the one created on the opposite face
286 is located on the right side (Fig. 8). Two pendants with perforations bear technological traces
287 also on the crowns. In one case, scraping and in the second circumferential grinding of the entire
288 crown were employed.

289 **3.1.2. Grave 164**

290 All bone points that were deposited in this burial were made in a very similar way. Two main
291 techniques were used to form their final shape: whittling (Fig. 9A, B – yellow arrows marks
292 incisions) and scraping, which was usually secondary to whittling and conducted with the use

293 of the natural edge of a blade or sometimes, seemingly, a claw-like tool (Fig. 9C, D). No
294 technological traces are preserved on the artefacts, which would allow the identification of the
295 techniques used in the earlier stages of their production.

296 Four of the points are ornamented. The ornaments are usually constructed from single
297 cuts (Fig. 9I, F) with U-shaped cross-sections (Fig. 9J, G), which is not typical of the use of
298 flint tools (Olsen, 1988; Greenfield, 1999, 2006). Multiple cuts are sporadic (Fig. 9H).

299 Perforations are visible at six of the nine animal teeth found in the grave. In most cases,
300 they were created by whittling (method 1 above) to flatten the surface and then scraping to
301 create the hole (9 cases – Fig. 10A-D, G). In three cases, an additional cutting/grooving was
302 also performed (method 1/2 – Fig. 10E, F). No other traces of processing were observed on
303 these artefacts.

304

305 **3.2. Use-wear**

306 **3.2.1. Grave 57**

307 The point found in this burial displayed no typical impact traces but had been used, as
308 indicated by the presence of the linear polish with flat topography and smooth texture preserved
309 (thanks to the absence of the preservation detergent) on the point's tip (Fig. 4A, B). The polish
310 follows the artefact's axis and is connected with the short, similarly oriented scratches (filled-
311 in and black striations).

312 No use-wear traces are visible on the elk-like shaft, possibly due to the high post-
313 depositional destruction of its surface. In the case of the unperforated pendants, traces of usage
314 were not observed.

315 In the group of perforated pendants, more visible use-wear traces were observed on three
316 specimens. On seven artefacts, it was not possible to determine the presence of use-wear inside
317 the perforations due to the damage and covering of a preservative. In the case of only one
318 pendant can we convincingly argue that it had not been used.

319 The remaining two artefacts could each have been used for a short period of time, as
320 indicated by the differently visible technological traces on various parts of their perforations.
321 In some areas of their circumferences, these had been more or less obliterated (cf. Osipowicz
322 et al., 2020b). No cracks or small waste fragments of bones, such as typically seen on new
323 pendants, were observed (cf. the results of the studies on the artefacts from grave no 164).
324 However, due to the damage, the presence of contaminations on their surface and, above all,
325 the thick layer of preservative covering the artefacts, the possibility that they had been utilised
326 for short periods cannot be verified by observing the distribution of the polish.

327

328 **3.2.2. Grave 164**

329 Among the 17 osseous points that have been found in burial no 164, five specimens bear
330 probable impact traces, such as micro-burin spalls, pecking and other (rounding of the tip, linear
331 polish and striations), indicating they were used as projectile points (Fig. 11C-E). Two other
332 points, also probably used as projectiles, displayed rounding of the tip and linear polish without
333 impact traces (Fig. 11A, B). The remaining ten artefacts were probably not used, or the use-

334 wear traces are no longer visible on their surfaces due to post-depositional damage or
335 preservatives.

336 Some of the used points also showed other, less typical use-wear traces. Three artefacts
337 bear interesting retouching and pecking on both side edges in their widest area where the tip
338 part transitions into the base, or tang (Fig. 11F-H). The probable origin of these marks will be
339 discussed later. In the case of two points, the use polish was observed only on the upper part of
340 the artefacts, while their bases are completely without it (Fig. 11I, J). The broken tip of one
341 point was repaired by secondary scraping.

342 Only one of the pendants discovered in this burial was used. It bears use-wear traces,
343 that is, linear polish and rounding of the perforation edge, only on one side (Fig. 10I, K), while
344 on the opposite side, where technological traces are still evident, use-wear traces are absent
345 (Fig. 10J). The suggested way the adornment was mounted on clothes is shown in Fig. 10H.
346 The remaining pendants found in the burial were not used, indicating they were made just before
347 deposition. This is corroborated by the presence of small, sharp fragments of bones occurring
348 during the perforating of the pendants, still visible inside the perforations (Fig. 10B, D, G -
349 marked with yellow arrows). These would have been rubbed away the first time the string was
350 threaded into the holes.

351

352 **4. Discussion**

353 This research analyses only osseous artefacts from two of the over 324 burials from
354 Zvejnieki. However, it allows for several technological and functional observations, the
355 verification of which, through microscopic examination of the materials deposited in other
356 burials from the site, may lead to a significant expansion of knowledge about the life and funeral
357 practices of hunter-gatherer communities using those cemeteries.

358 4.1. Pendants

359 The results of the traceological analysis of the animal tooth pendants from the
360 Mesolithic grave no 57 differ to some extent from the earlier findings of Larsson (2006), who
361 states that the vast majority of these artefacts do not show signs of processing, that seven teeth
362 have no perforation but exhibit grinding on one face of the root, and 11 pendants have
363 perforations, of which ten were carved, and one was drilled (Larsson, 2006, 259).

364 In the course of our analysis, it was possible to identify the other ten pendants, without
365 perforation but with other traces of processing, among the animal teeth in the collection, an
366 almost 2.5-fold increase on those identified by Larsson's research. The discrepancy may be due
367 to the fact that Larsson only occasionally analysed tooth crowns (Larsson, 2006, 255), and it is
368 on them that the vast majority of the newly observed technological traces are located.

369 The results of the microscopic examinations of the perforated pendants essentially
370 confirm the findings of Larsson (cf. Larsson, 2006, 255). Additionally, this research has been
371 able to distinguish three perforation methods in the group of pendants with carved holes.

372 Significantly, it seems that the main methods applied to produce the pendants from
373 burial no 57 are somehow related to the type of raw material used and their intended purpose,
374 meaning that their clusters within the grave contain technologically uniform artefacts (cf. Fig.

375 2: 1a, 1b). All the deer teeth discovered in the grave are processed unperforated pendants and
376 were deposited in two clusters, one next to the left shoulder and the other next to the left thigh.
377 The perforated pendants were made exclusively from elk teeth except for one aurochs' tooth.
378 The cluster of this type of pendant, five specimens, were laid over the left arm. Elk's teeth from
379 this grave are also largely unprocessed specimens; in 4 cases, they were transformed into
380 unperforated pendants.

381 There are some discrepancies between the results of this research and the results of
382 Larsson's (2006, 259) in that this research suggests that there were probably more pendants with
383 traces of usage from the Mesolithic grave no 57. This difference, however, is small and does
384 not affect the overall picture, namely that most teeth and pendants show no signs of wear.

385 While discussing our results, reference should also be made to the origin of the newly
386 identified atypical technological traces discovered on some of the artefacts. These include V-
387 shaped cuts observed on the sides of the perforations of two pendants from burial no 57 (Fig.
388 2: 21, 27). If, as it seems, their creation was intentional, their purpose could have been to give
389 the pendants a slightly different orientation inside the composite ornament than can be observed
390 in the case of "typical" pendants (as shown in the sketch in Fig. 8: 2). Both pendants were found
391 side by side, in independent concentration, on the right side of the deceased's pelvis (Fig. 2:
392 1b). It may confirm that they originally formed one ornament. The third pendant found in this
393 place (Fig. 2:19) has a damaged root, so it cannot be stated whether the same technological
394 process was used in that case.

395 As mentioned above, traceological studies of Early and Middle Holocene osseous
396 artefacts from the region of North-Eastern Europe, especially from the southeastern coast of the
397 Baltic Sea, are relatively rare. Detailed microscopic studies aimed at interpreting the method of
398 production and use have only been conducted on animal tooth pendants from the sites in
399 Šventoji (Osipowicz et al., 2020b) and the Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov cemetery (Mannerma et al.,
400 2021; Rainio et al., 2021).

401 The vast majority of pendants made from elk teeth in the cemetery at Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov
402 were made using a different technology than those from the graves in Zvejnieki. At Yuzhniy
403 Oleniy Ostrov, the area to attach the string was created by carving one or several grooves around
404 the root tip (cf. Mannerma et al., 2021). Unique to one burial (no 127), two pendants were
405 drilled through, with additional grinding on the root. There were also 22 unperforated pendants
406 but with traces of grinding on the roots. Similar to burial no 57 in Zvejnieki, grave no 127 from
407 Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov is dated to the Late Mesolithic. There is no radiocarbon dating made
408 for this feature. However, it is suggested that the cemetery at Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov was used
409 in 6300-6050 cal BC (Schulting et al., 2022). Therefore, both features could be discussed as
410 analogies for each other. The current knowledge about the funerary traditions of the hunter-
411 gatherer communities in the discussed area, their mobility, and intergroup relations is, however,
412 too limited to draw any further conclusions in this regard. Increasingly, however, the academic
413 discussion focuses on the flow of ideas and artefacts between the areas of northwest Russia,
414 including the arctic zones and the southeastern coast of the Baltic Sea (Osipowicz et al., 2017).
415 Recently, thanks to the developments in isotope research, attention has also been paid to the
416 possibility of people moving long distances in the region (Piličiauskas et al., 2022). Authors of
417 this study, by comparing $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ human intra-tooth variation with the local baselines,
418 identified 11 non-local individuals in Mesolithic and Subneolithic Lithuania. Six of the 11 non-

419 locals had higher $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios, indicating that they might have come from southern Finland
420 and/or Karelia (so, a distance of even several hundred kilometres). On the other hand, two
421 individuals from the Donkalis cemetery (Mesolithic and Subneolithic) probably come from
422 the Lithuanian coast of the Baltic sea to the inland area, indicating mobility up to 85 km.

423 All pendants from the sites in Šventoji (dated to 3200-2500 cal BC) have perforations,
424 of which almost 80% were drilled, and only about 20% were scraped (cf. Osipowicz et al.,
425 2020b). No grinding traces were observed on any of them. However, more than 50% had the
426 drilled surface prepared by scraping. Thus, the techniques of perforating the pendants from
427 Šventoji differ significantly from those observed in the graves from Zvejnieki analysed here.

428 4.2. Points

429 According to the results of studies conducted by David (2006) on Early and Middle
430 Mesolithic materials from Zvejnieki, this site belongs to the Northeastern technocomplex,
431 illustrating the so-called Z-method used to split the raw material during the bone processing
432 (David, 2006). It was not possible to identify this technique during the traceological analyses
433 of points from graves 57 and 164, probably due to the retreatment of their surface in the later
434 stages of the operational chain of their production.

435 For the same reasons as in the case of pendants, it is difficult to find the analogies for
436 the technological and functional features of the discussed artefacts. There is, however, a
437 fragment of an arrowhead from Šventoji (site 23), which comes with a form similar to the
438 artefacts analysed, that has been subjected of traceological studies. As a result, traces of
439 scraping made to finish the surface were observed on it, with characteristics analogous to those
440 visible on the Latvian points (Osipowicz et al., 2020b, 159). However, scraping is one of the
441 basic techniques used to form the surface of the osseous products, so in this case, no further
442 conclusions can be drawn.

443 The atypical retouch and pecking marks observed on the edges of three points from
444 burial 164 (Fig. 11F-H) could have been created in two ways:

- 445 1. Intentionally, by their users, to fit the arrowheads to the arrow shafts in the area where the
446 cord was bound;
- 447 2. Unintentionally, as a result of the friction of the cord against the point mounted in the arrow
448 shaft. It is suggested that this last interpretation is more plausible.

449 Our observations in this regard should be integrated into the context of the osseous points from
450 other burials. However, even taken on their own, these traces should be considered significant,
451 probably allowing the calculation of the width of the arrow/spear shafts used. The traces
452 observed on the points discovered in grave 164 can also be helpful in the reconstruction of their
453 hafting length. The absence of use-wear polish on the basal end of one of the specimens
454 probably reflects the depth of the arrow/spear shaft (Fig. 11I, J).

455 Importantly, our analyses for the first time confirmed the use of the points laid in the
456 graves in Zvejnieki as the projectiles and also their subsequent repair.

457 4.3. Elk-head shaft

458 Elk-head shafts occur widely in the northern parts of Eastern Europe, and the elk
459 silhouette is depicted on rocks around Lake Onega and in other areas (Mantere and Kashina,
460 2020). Elk sculptures dominate Stone Age art in Lithuania (Rimantiene, 1996). Elk-like
461 stylisations made in antlers occur in the Boreal sites of Poland and Germany (Kabaciński et al.,
462 2011). Unfortunately, except for the research of Iršėnas et al. (2018) on the artefacts from
463 Šventoji, other artefacts with elk depictions have not yet been subjected to any detailed
464 traceological analysis, and Iršėnas et al.'s research did not allow for conclusions on their
465 function and detailed technology. Similarly, this research will not add much to the debate
466 because the analysed elk-like shaft from Zvejnieki bears only poorly visible and simple
467 technological traces.

468 4.4. "Neolithic patterns" - are they legible in the analysed materials?

469 One of the aims of the reported studies was to gather new data for discussion on the
470 issue of whether neolithisation influenced enough the members of the community using the
471 cemetery in Zvejnieki to reflect on the way they made and used osseous items. In the light of
472 the results of this research, the following can be stated:

473 1. Drawing an analogy with the interpreted use of very similar implements, both the Mesolithic
474 and the Neolithic points analysed in this research are used hunting weapons, and not just grave
475 goods.

476 2. The pendants from the Mesolithic burial illustrate several methods in shaping and making
477 the perforations. Conversely, the Neolithic burial studied shows a certain standardisation in this
478 respect. Moreover, none of the Neolithic pendants was ground before making the perforation,
479 which was the most frequent technique in the case of Mesolithic burial.

480 3. The pendants from the Mesolithic burial seem to be also varied from the functional
481 perspective, even if it cannot be unequivocally confirmed by the attributes of the polish. Most
482 of the better-preserved artefacts, suitable for use-wear analysis, seem to have been used for
483 various lengths of time, and only one is probably completely new. This might suggest that they
484 were intended and used as adornments on clothing, and damaged pendants were replaced with
485 new ones over time. Other options are that either (1) used pendants or pendants previously made
486 and stored for some time were added to the grave at the time of burial-(cf. Larsson, 2006, 281)
487 or (2) the pendants were used a short time for ritual purposes before being placed in the grave.
488 This last option has been suggested for the artefacts from the site Yuzhniy Oleniy Ostrov
489 (Rainio et al., 2021). Whatever the correct option, it is clear that these pendants were used
490 before deposition. In the Neolithic grave, the pendants, with one exception, were made for
491 funerary purposes. This confirms the suggestion made with respect to the wider assemblage of
492 artefacts from Zvejnieki by David (2003, 2006).

493 The typical profile of most of the pendants from both burials analysed in this research
494 matches the results of David's research, which found significant differences between artefacts
495 of this type from settlement contexts and grave finds. In the light of this study, perforated
496 pendants seem to be typically found in funeral contexts, as is the grinding technique used to
497 flatten the root extremity before making the perforation, a technique not recorded on the
498 domestic material (David, 2006).

499 It is not possible to state at this stage whether the observed differences between the two
500 assemblages are specifically the result of the neolithisation or whether they resulted from
501 coincidence, cultural behaviour, individual preferences of the people buried in the graves, their
502 social position, gender or other factors. This question can only be answered by more studies on
503 artefacts from other burials in Zvejnieki and other sites in the region, which will allow for
504 statistical analysis. Larsson's studies on pendants from the cemetery in Zvejnieki provided
505 promising conclusions in this regard (2006, 274), and their supplementation with new data from
506 in-depth traceological studies, contextual multi-aspect analyses of other types of osseous and
507 stone artefacts from the site, and further comparative studies of grave and settlement materials
508 will be of crucial importance for the successful research in this area.

509 At the moment, it can only be stated that the influence of neolithisation is not visible in
510 the results of the conducted microscopic studies on these artefacts that were most likely related
511 to obtaining food, which was one of the basic attributes differentiating the typical economy of
512 hunter-gatherer and Neolithic communities. Well-developed use-wear traces observed on the
513 osseous points from the Mesolithic and Neolithic burials indicate very clearly that in both
514 periods, hunting played an essential role in the life of the communities using the cemetery in
515 Zvejnieki.

516

517 **Conclusions**

518 The cemetery in Zvejnieki is one of Europe's most important prehistoric sites. The multi-
519 faceted and interdisciplinary study of the archaeological sources from here will continue for a
520 long time and will probably provide a vast amount of invaluable information about the Early-
521 and Middle-Holocene communities from Northeast Europe. The osseous material examined
522 here represents a very small part of the cemetery's artefact assemblage. However, the results of
523 their microscopic examination have allowed some interesting observations which will feed into
524 the results of the microscopic examinations of future research, will allow a statistically based
525 verification and lead to a better understanding of the culture and traditions of the communities
526 in prehistoric Zvejnieki. For this to be possible, however, it is necessary to carry out further
527 traceological studies on the collections of osseous artefacts from both the cemetery and the
528 accompanying settlements. These should be integrated as much as possible with other studies,
529 including, in particular, modern palaeobiological research, but also essential for traceological
530 studies, interdisciplinary analyses of residues preserved on the bone and stone objects in graves.
531 The artefacts from Zvejnieki present an enormous interpretive potential, and that targeted
532 research of the type discussed here should be considered one of the primary research-objectives
533 in the near future.

534

535 **Author contributions**

536 **Grzegorz Osipowicz:** Conceptualisation, Methodology, Data curation, Validation,
537 Investigation, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration,
538 Funding acquisition. **Justyna Orłowska:** Data curation, Visualization **Ilga Zagorska:**
539 Resources, Visualization

540 **Data availability**

541 Datasets related to this article are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable
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543 **Declaration of competing interest**

544 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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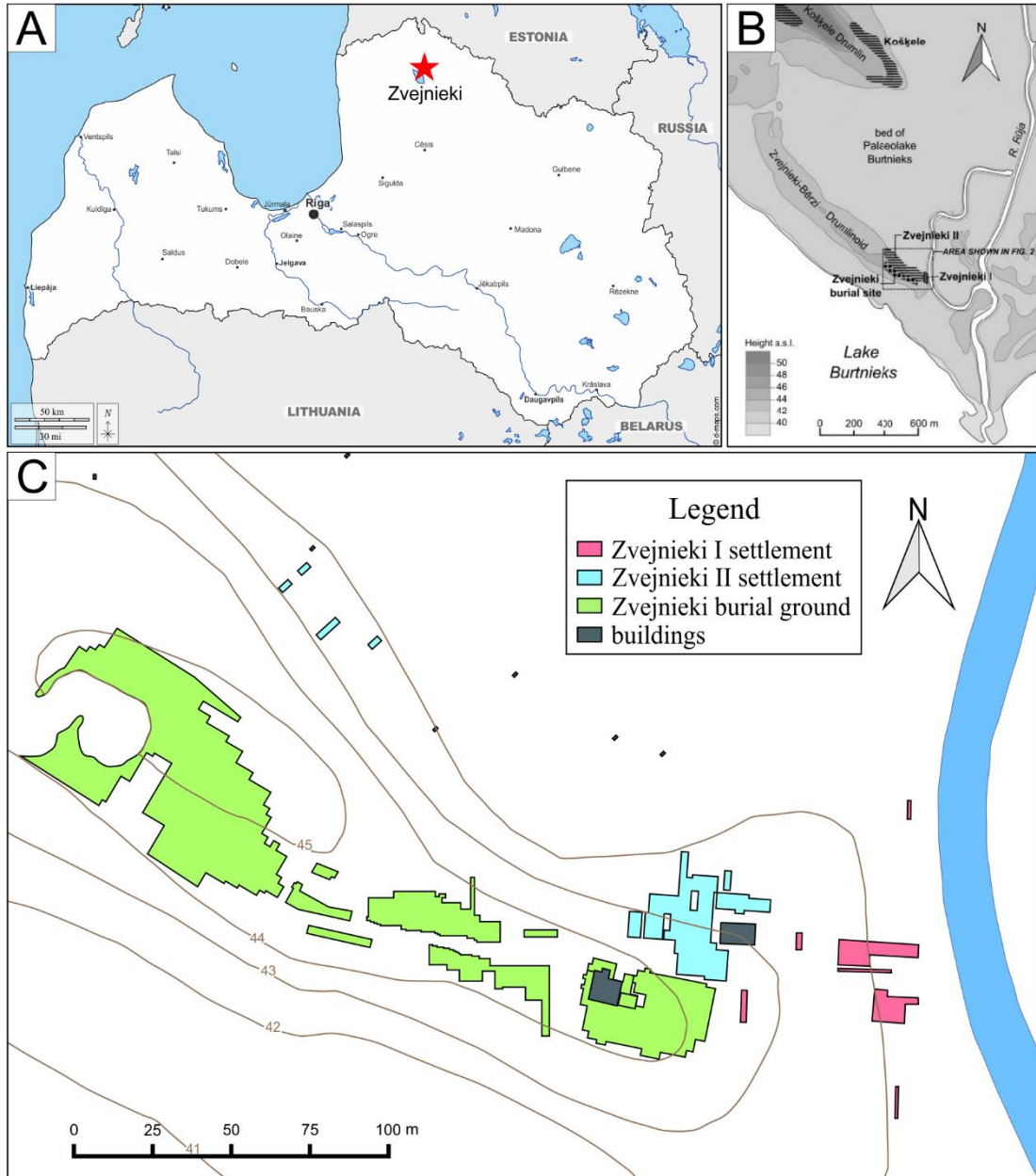
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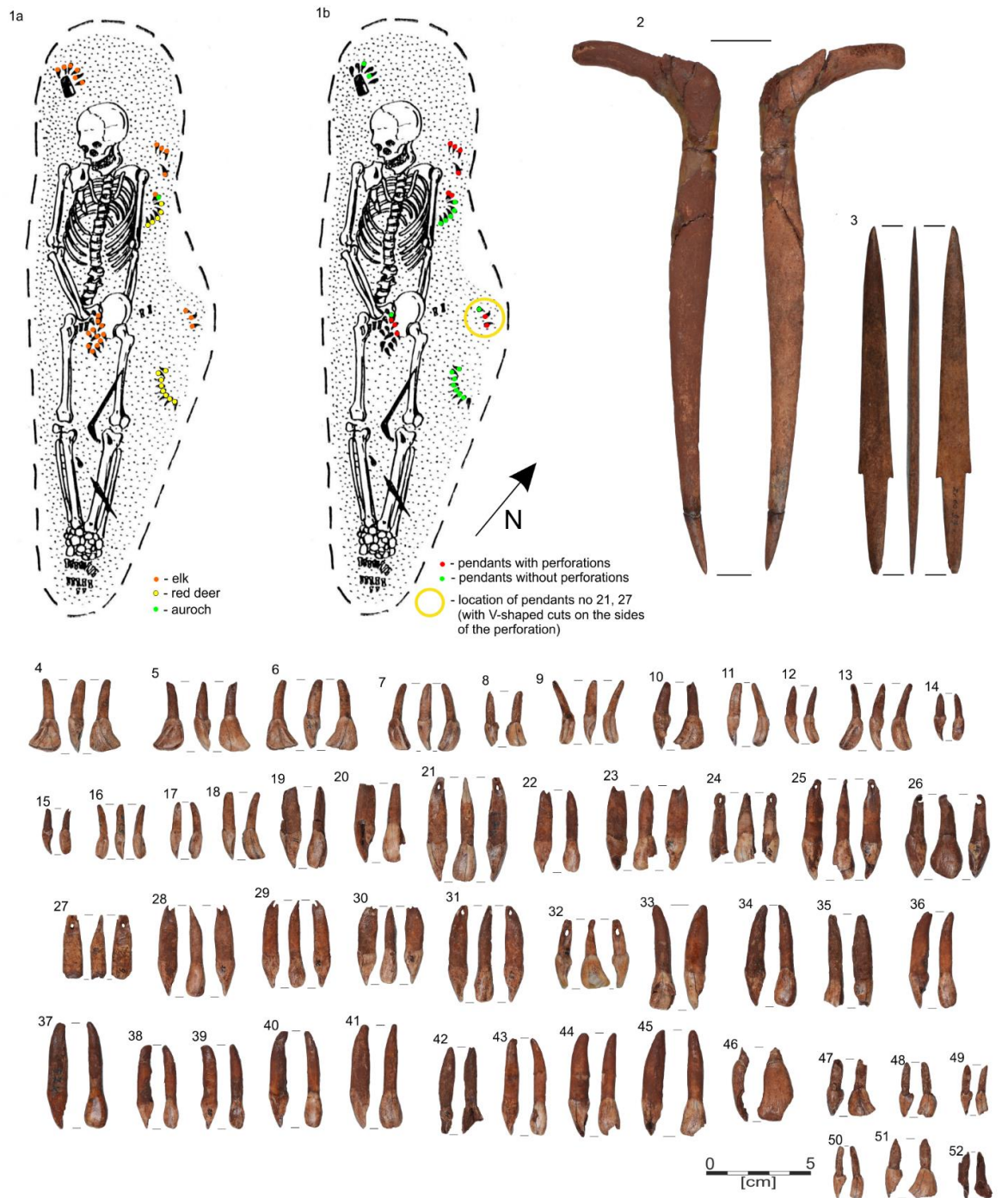
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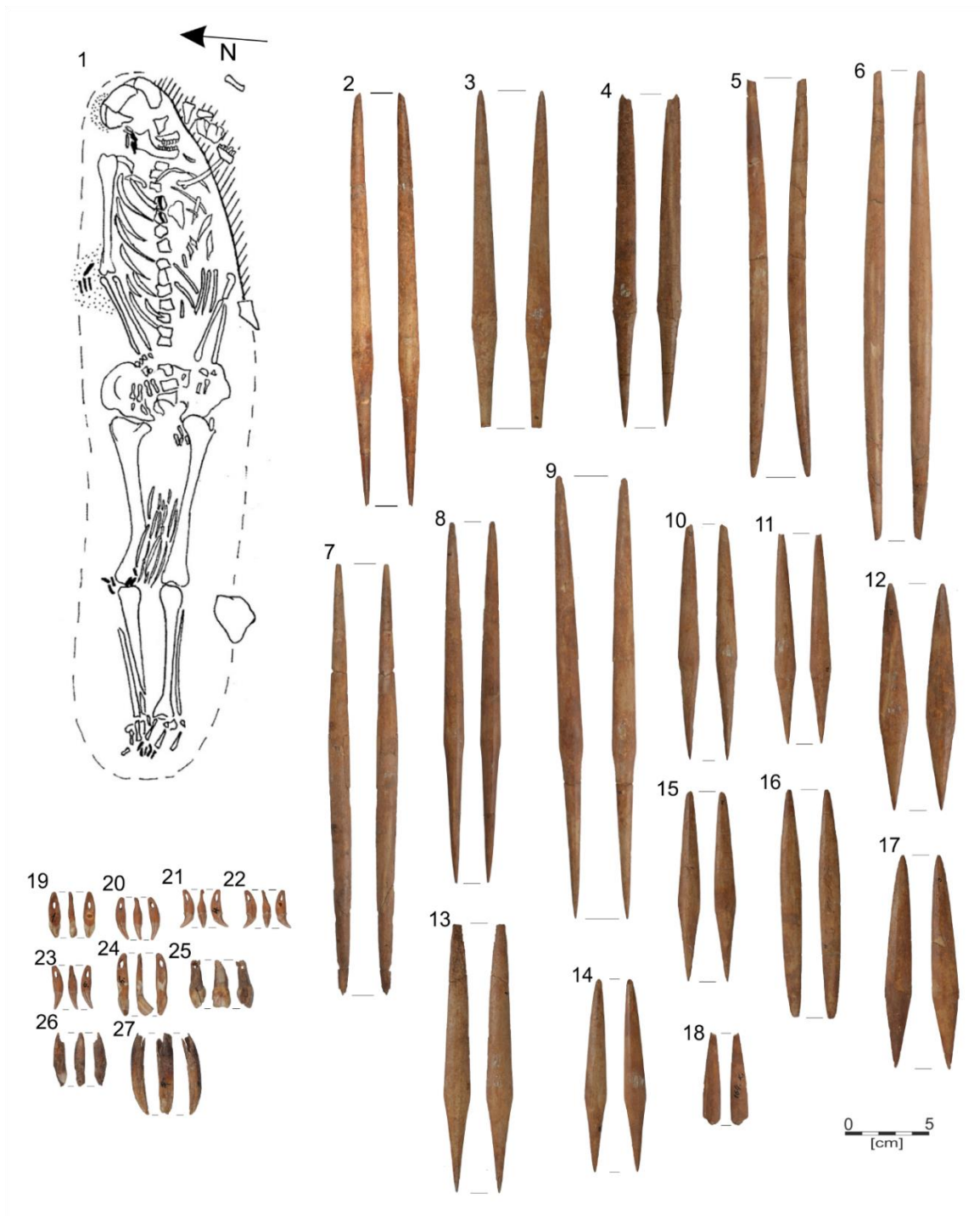
864 Fig. 1. Location of the site Zvejnieki: A - Latvia with the location of site Zvejnieki. B -
 865 Location plan showing the Zvejnieki archaeological complex and the Koškele sites in relation
 866 to the palaeolake Burtnieks. Drawing after Larsson et al.2017, Fig. 2, 58). C – Plan of the
 867 Zvejnieki archaeological complex. Redrawn after Larsson et al. 2017, Fig. 3, 59.

868



869

870 Fig. 2 Zvejnieki, grave no 57: Plan of the burial with marked the distribution of pendants
 871 according to species (1a) and technological types (1b). 2-52 – osseous artefacts from the
 872 grave: 2 – elk-like shaft; 3 – point; 4-52 – pendants (Fig. 2.1a and 2.1b after Larson 2006 with
 873 authors changes).

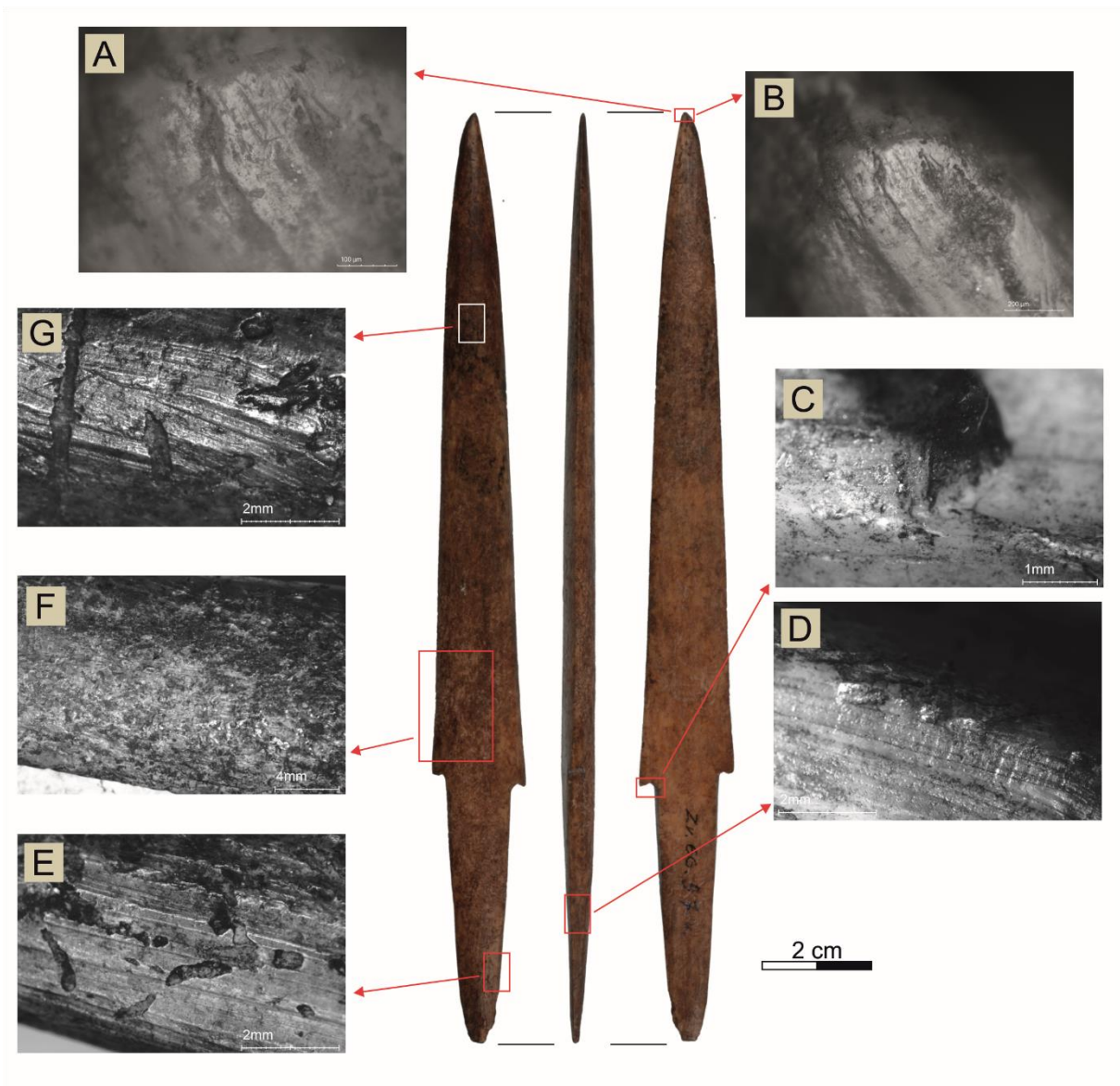


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875 Fig. 3. Zvejnieki, grave no 164: Plan of the burial (1) and discovered osseous artefacts (2-27):

876 2-18 – points; 19-27 – pendants. Fig. 1 after ????????

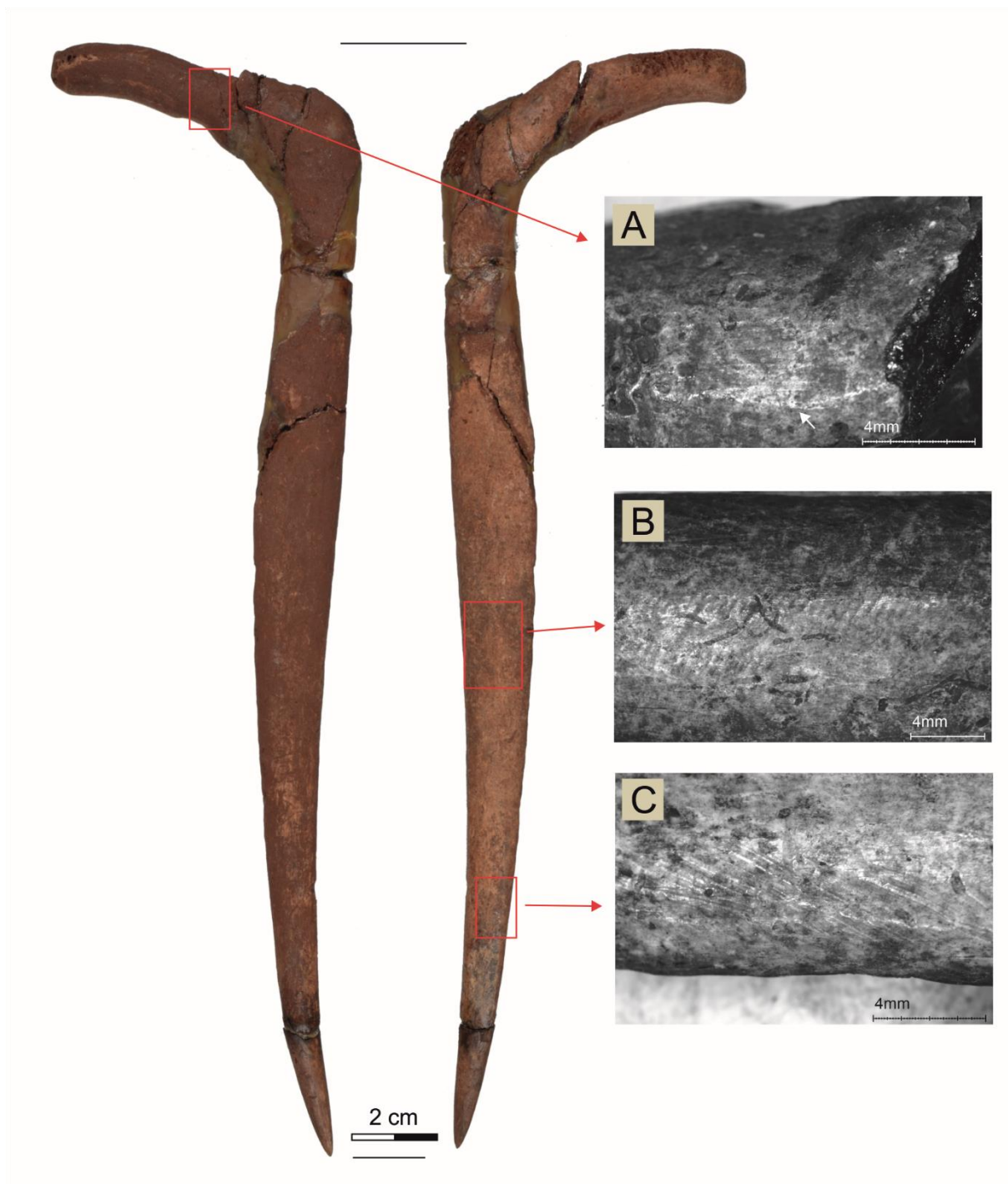
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879 Fig. 4. Zvejnieki, grave no 57. Bone point from a grave and examples of the use-wear (A, B)
 880 and technological (C-G) traces discovered on its surface

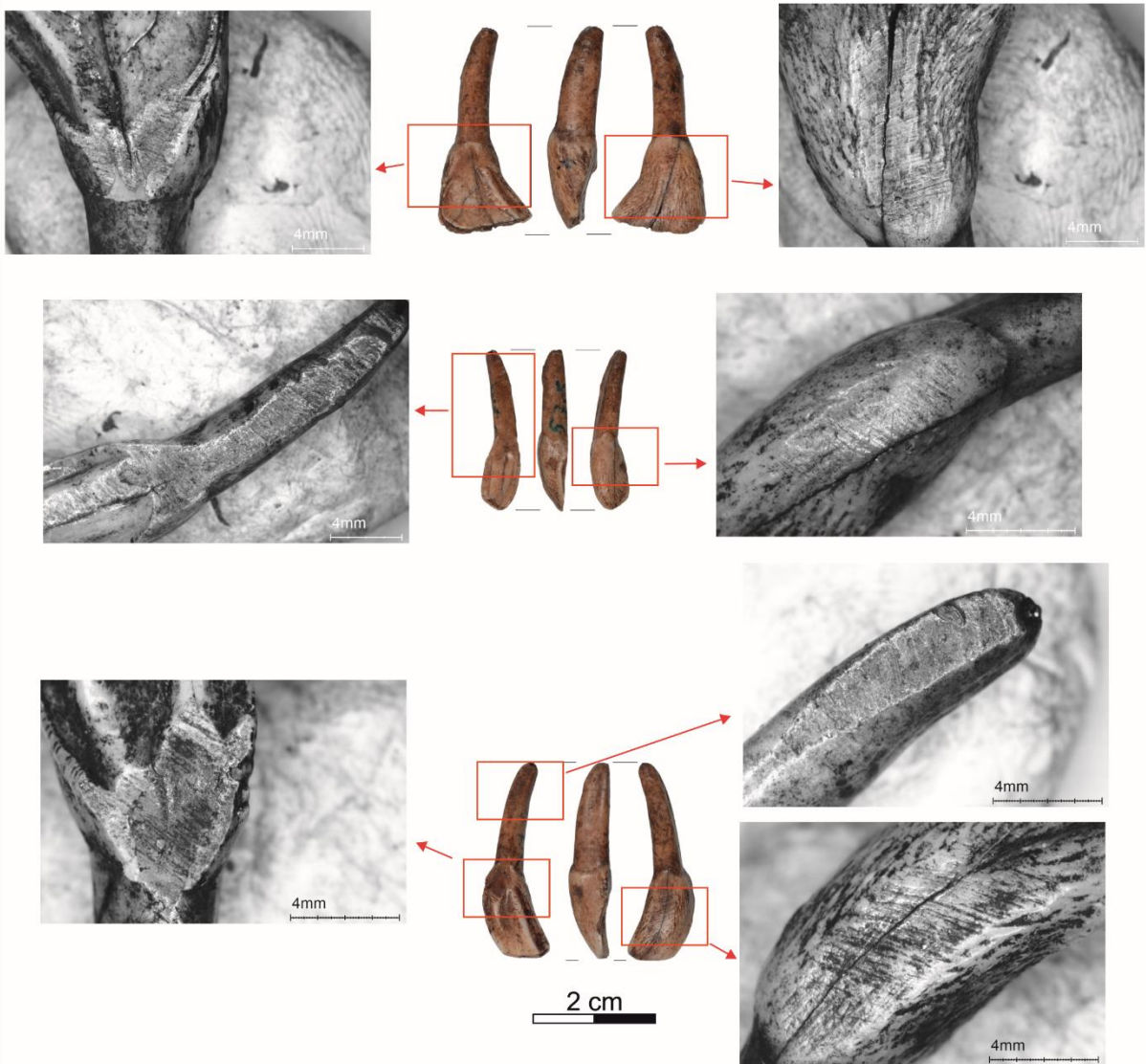
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884 Fig. 5. Zvejnieki, grave no 57. Elk-like shaft from a grave and examples of the technological
885 traces discovered on its surface

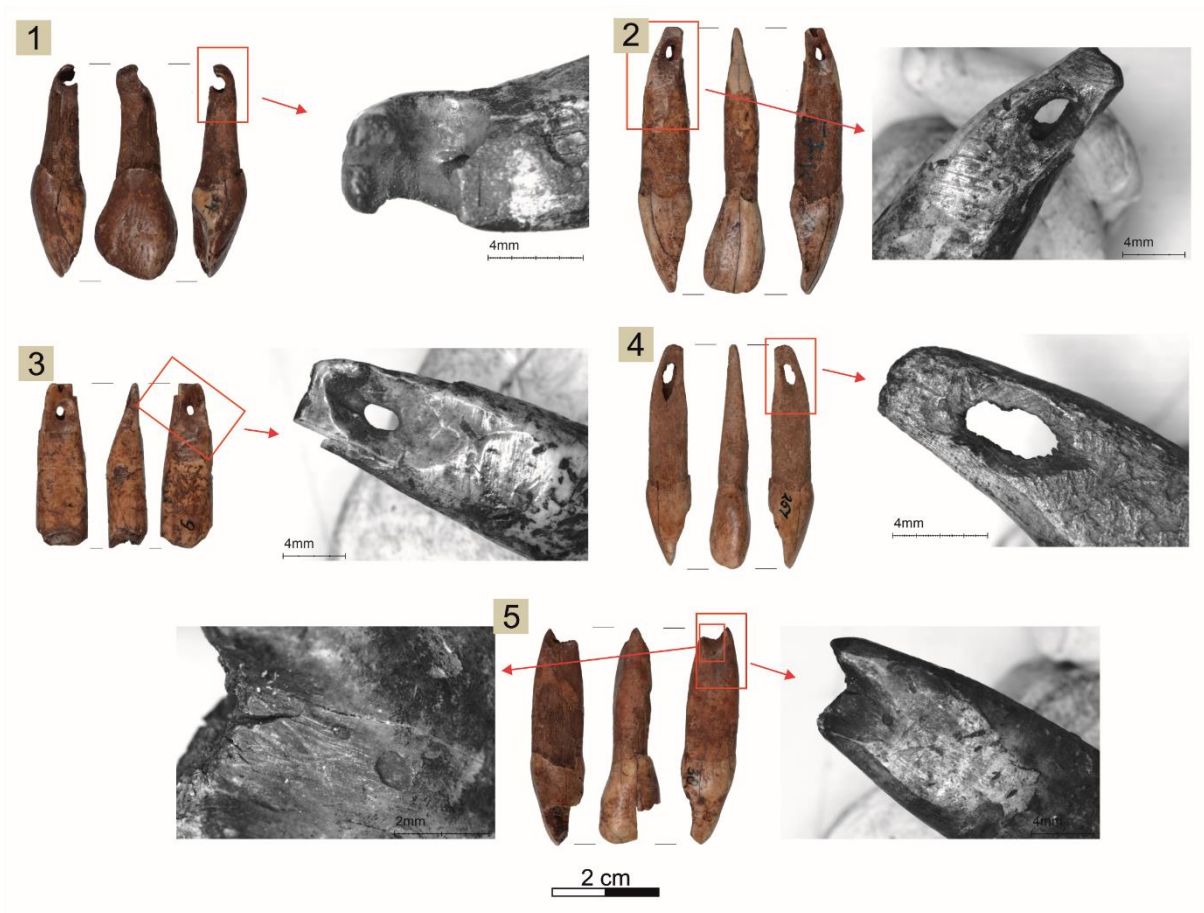


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888 Fig. 6. Zvejnieki, grave no 57. Pendants without perforations and examples of the
 889 technological traces discovered on their surface.

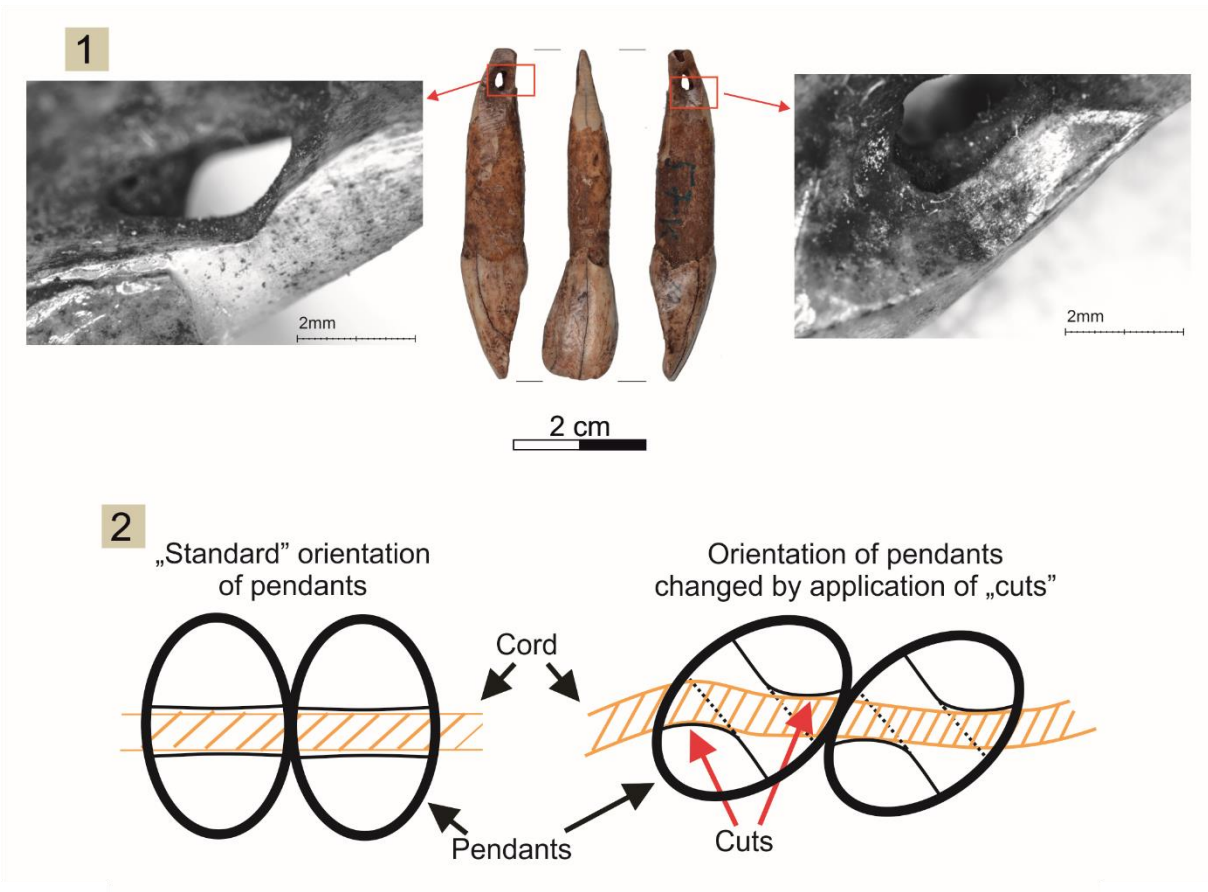
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892 Fig. 7. Zvejnieki, grave no 57. Pendants with perforations and examples of the technological
 893 traces discovered on their surface.

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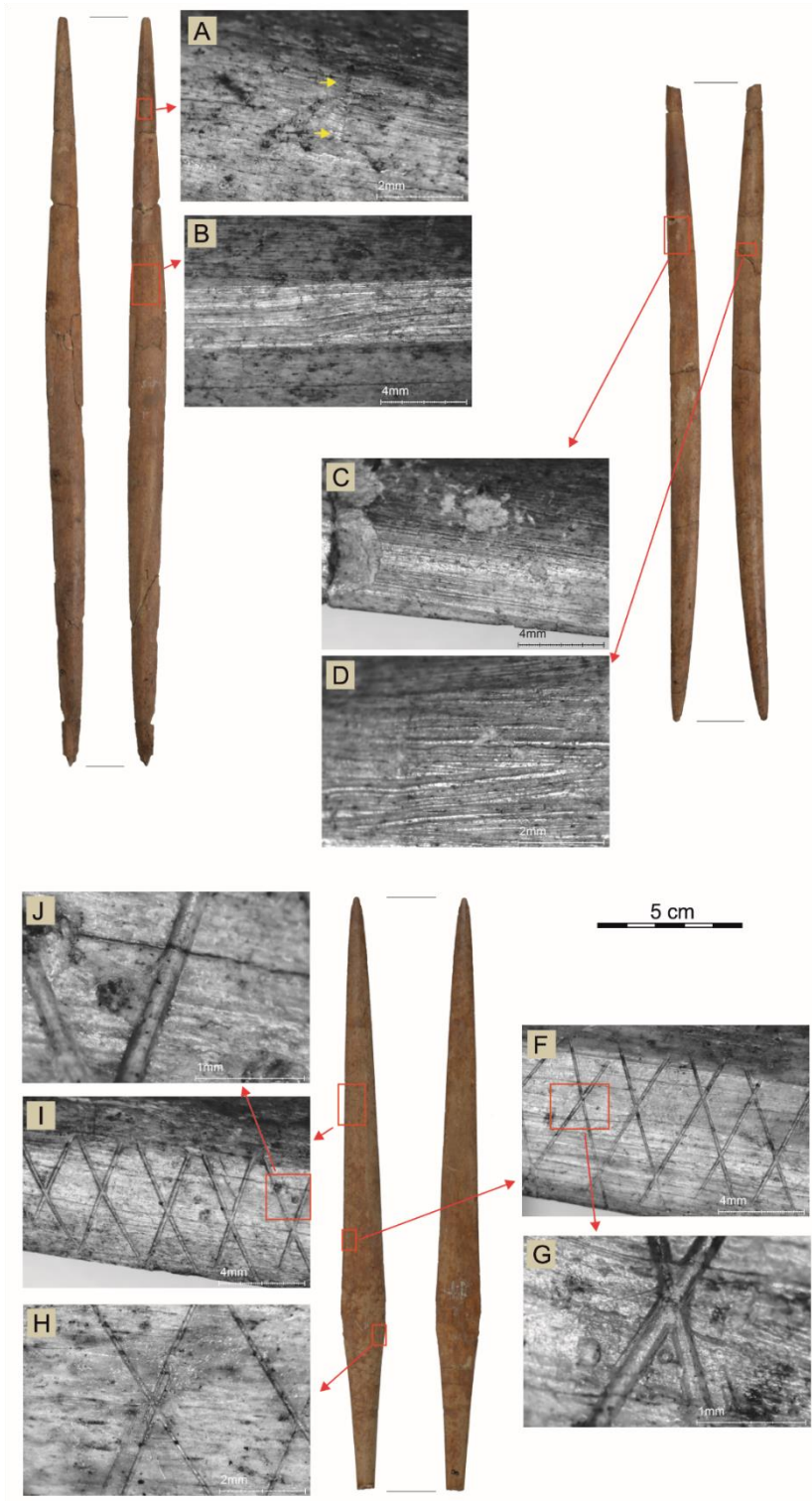


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896 Fig. 8. Zvejnieki, grave no 57. An example of atypical traces observed on pendants with
 897 perforations (1) and scheme showing the possible orientation of artefacts prepared this way on
 898 clothes.

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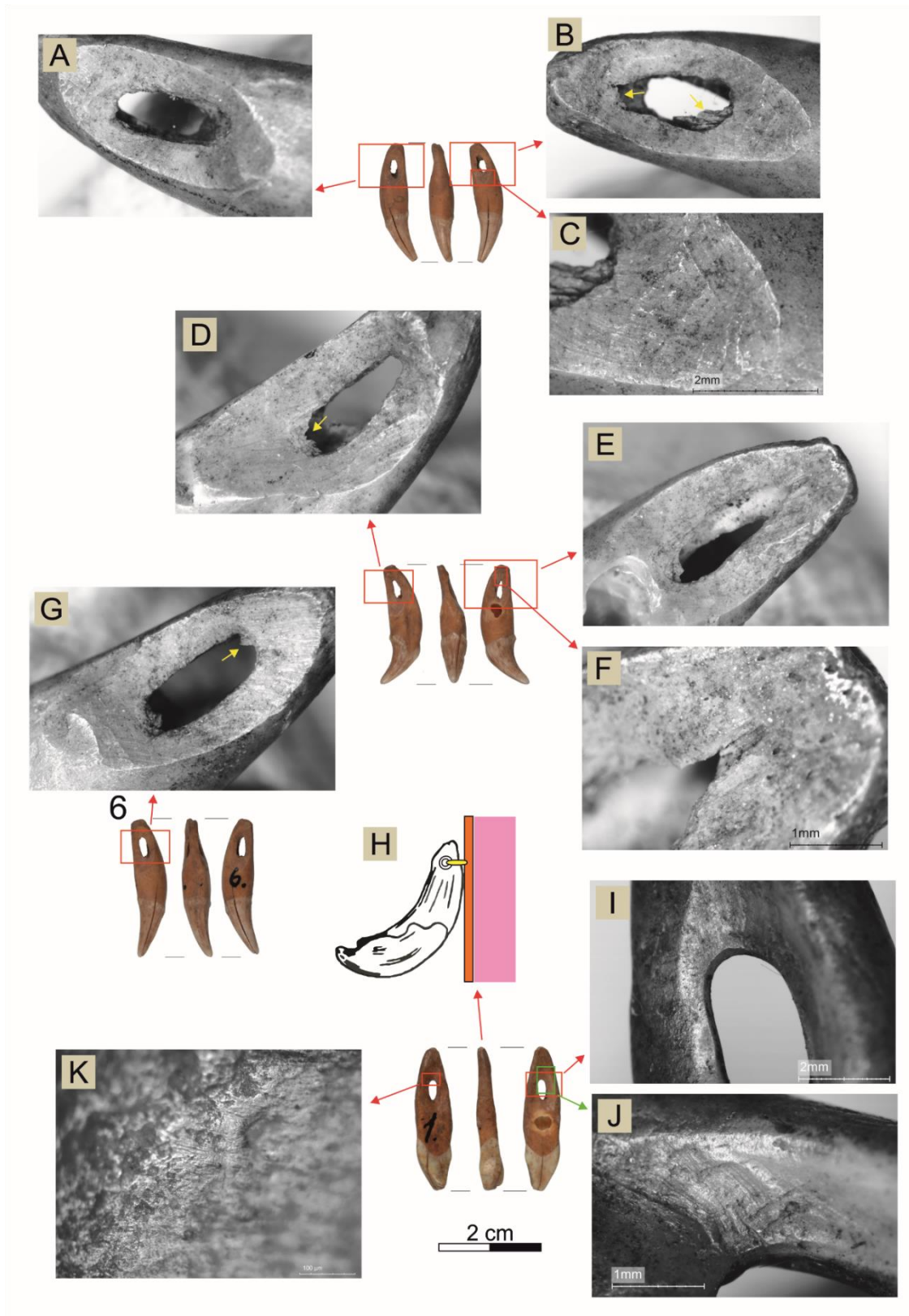
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902 Fig. 9. Zvejnieki, grave no 164. Points from the grave and examples of technological traces
 903 (A-D) and ornamentation details observed on their surfaces

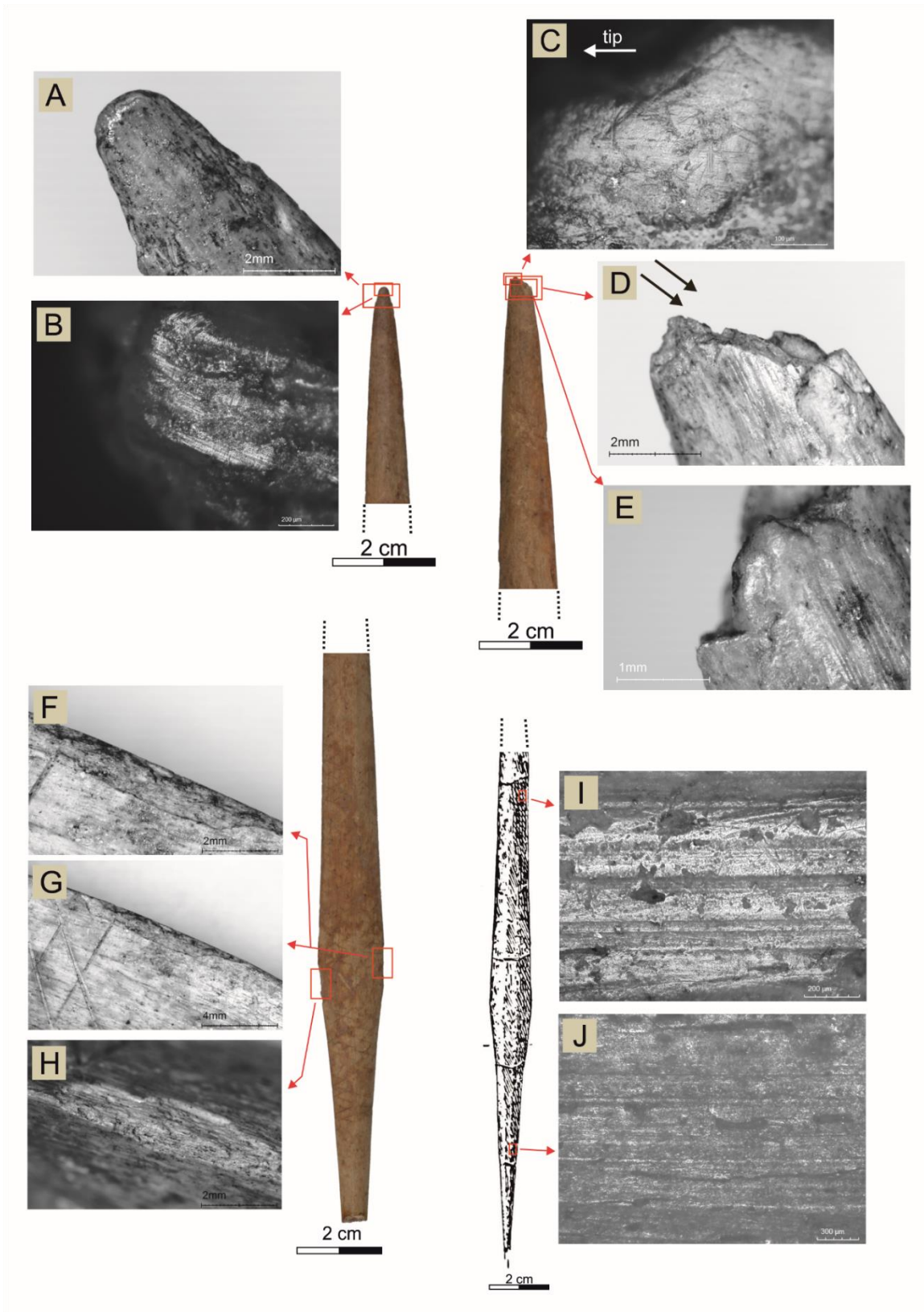
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906 Fig. 10

907 Fig. 10. Zvejnieki, grave no 164, pendants. The examples of the technological (A-G, J) and
 908 use-wear (I, K) traces discovered on their surface. H – scheme presenting the way the only
 909 used pendants was probably mounted to the clothes.



911

912 Fig. 11. Zvejnieki, grave no 164. The example of use-wear traces observed on points.

913

914 Table 1. Characteristic of the osseous artefacts from burials 57, 164 in Zvejnieki, studied traceologically.

915

Grave no.	Type of artefact	Specimen inv. number	Preservation	Technological traces*	Use-wear traces	Figure
164	Point	VI 93:228 (15)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Impact traces? on the tip; retouching of side edges in their widest area; usage polish on the upper part of the point	Fig. 3:2
		VI 93:221 (8)	Good	Whittling; Ornament: cutting	Rounding on the tip of the point, polish, striations; retouching of side edges in their widest area	Fig. 3:3
		VI 93:214 (1)	Good	Whittling, scraping Ornament: cutting	Not readable; retouching of side edges in their widest area	Fig. 3:4
		VI 93:217 (4)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:5
		VI 93:218 (5)	Slightly exfoliated	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:6
		VI:219 (6)	Slightly exfoliated	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:7
		VI: 93: 220 (7)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:8
		VI: 93: 222 (9)	Good	Whittling, scraping; Ornament: cutting	Possible impact traces and usage polish	Fig. 3:9
		VI: 93: 226 (13)	Good; erosion on the tang	Whittling, scraping	Impact traces, rounding on the tip, polish	Fig. 3:10
		VI: 93: 225 (12)	Slightly eroded on the tang	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:11
		VI: 93: 223 (10)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:12
		VI: 93: 215 (2)	Good, partly eroded	Whittling, scraping; Ornament: cutting	Not readable	Fig. 3:13
		VI: 93: 229 (16)	Good	Scraping	Impact traces on the tip	Fig. 3:14
		VI: 93: 227 (14)	Good	Whittling, scraping; repaired	Not readable	Fig. 3:15
		VI: 93: 224 (11)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:16
		VI: 93: 216 (3)	Good	Whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 3:17
	VI: 93: 230	Good	Weakly readable	Not readable	Fig. 3:18	
	Pendant	VI 93:231/1	Good	Perforation: the method 1, the method 1/2	Used rounding in the perforation	Fig. 3:19
		VI 93:231/2	Good, broken root	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 3:26
		VI 93:231/?	Good	Perforation: method 1, method 1	New, not used	Fig. 3:20
VI 93:231/4		Very good	Perforation: method 1,	New, not used	Fig. 3:21	

				method 1		
		VI 93:231/5	Good	Perforation: method 1, method 1/12	Probably used/not used	Fig. 3:24
		VI 93:231/6	Very good	Perforation: method 1, method 1	New, not used	Fig. 3:23
		VI 93:231/?	Very good	Perforation: method 1, method 1/2	New, not used	Fig. 3:22
		VI 93:231/8	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 3:25
		VI 93:231/9	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 3:27
57	Point	VI 93: 65	Good, surface eroded in spots	Surface: scraping, whittling	Linear polish and striations on the tip of the point	Fig. 2:3
	Elk-head shaft	VI 93: 71	Very bad, broken in a few places, covered with ocher and detergent	Surface: whittling, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 2:2
	Pendant	VI:93: 64/27	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:33
		VI:93: 64/31	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:34
		VI:93: 64/24	Bad, exfoliation on the root, broken crown	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:35
		VI:93: 64/25	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:36
		VI:93: 64/39	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:37
		VI:93: 64/33	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:38
		VI:93: 64/28	Slightly exfoliated surface	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:39
		VI:93: 64/32	Slightly exfoliated surface	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:40
		VI:93: 64/37	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:41
		VI:93: 64/41	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:42
		VI:93: 64/40?	Slightly exfoliated root	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:43
		VI:93: 64/26	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:44
		VI:93: 64/49?	Good	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:45
		VI:93: 64/10	Bad, surface exfoliated	Perforation: method 1, V-shaped cuts on the sides of the perforation method 1?	Not readable	Fig. 2:21
		VI:93: 64/21	Bad, surface exfoliated; perforation partly broken	Perforation: method 3, method 3	Not readable	Fig. 2:22
	VI:93: 64/30	Bad, surface exfoliated; perforation partly broken	Perforation: method 1, ?	Not readable	Fig. 2:23	
	VI:93: 64/18	Bad, surface exfoliated	Perforation: method 2, method 1?	Not readable	Fig. 2:24	
	VI:93: 64/35	Slightly exfoliated; perforation party broken	Perforation: method 2, method 3	Used, rounding in the perforation	Fig. 2:25	

VI:93: 64/34	Bad, surface exfoliated	Perforation: drilling	Used, rounding in the perforation	Fig. 2:26
VI:93: 64/9	Good, broken	Perforation: method 1, method 1; V-shaped cuts on the sides of the perforation	Probably used, rounding in the perforation	Fig. 2:27
VI:93: 64/22	Good, perforation party broken	Perforation: method 1, method 3	Not readable	Fig. 2:29
VI:93: 64/20	Good, perforation party broken	Perforation: method 1, method 1	Not readable	Fig. 2:28
VI:93: 64/11	Bad, surface exfoliated	Scraping?	Not readable	Fig. 2:19
VI:93: 64/19	Bad, surface exfoliated, perforation party broken	Perforation: method 2, method 3	Not readable	Fig. 2:30
VI:93: 64/36	Good, broken	Scraping	Not readable	Fig. 2:25
VI:93: 64/23	Bad, surface exfoliated	Perforation: method 1, method 1	Probably used	Fig. 2:31
VI:93: 64/48?	Fragment	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:46
VI:93: 64/5	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:4
VI:93: 64/13	Exfoliation on the root	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:5
VI:93: 64/4	Good	Crown: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:6
VI:93: 64/3	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:7
VI:93: 64/43	Exfoliation on the root	Root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:8
VI:93: 64/6	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:9
VI:93: 64/29	Good	Perforation: method 3, method 3	Not readable	Fig. 2:32
VI:93: 64/44	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:47
VI:93: 64/16	Exfoliation on the root	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:10
VI:93: 64/46	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:48
VI:93: 64/2	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:11
VI:93: 64/15	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:12
VI:93: 64/42	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:49
VI:93: 64/47	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:50
VI:93: 64/45	Bad	Grinding?	Not readable	Fig. 2:51
VI:93: 64/14	Good	Grinding, scraping	Not readable	Fig. 2:13
VI:93: 64/38	Bad	Not readable	Not readable	Fig. 2:52
VI:93: 64/17	Good, exfoliation	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:14
VI:93: 64/12	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:15
VI:93: 64/8	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:16
VI:93: 64/1	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:17

		VI:93: 64/7	Good	Crown and root: grinding	Not readable	Fig. 2:18
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916 * Perforation methods in the pendants according to classification developed in the text.

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