

Chapter 1 : Kong Svends HÅ_j - Wikipedia

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Thursday, 6 November Acorns in archaeology In my last post I talked about Oaks and how useful they were and are to people. The last thing that I said in my last post is that acorns had been eaten by humans since at least late Paleolithic times right up to modern times, and that I would write about acorns and acorn eaters in my next few posts. I hope you find the data presented in this post as eye opening as I did find it, and that you will start seeing acorns in a completely different light from now on. Acorns are usually eaten roasted, and during roasting the thin-walled shells are carbonised and destroyed, which makes the macro particle acorn detection in the archaeological remains very difficult. On dry sites wind would then disperse the acorn ash and make it even more difficult to detect. On wet sites we have another problem and that is that like for most other starch rich seeds, the preservation of acorns in waterlogged conditions is not very good. Acorns only preserve well once charred because the elemental carbon of charcoal is not attacked by chemical or biological processes in sediments. But as I said already, when they are fragmented during or after charring, it can be hard to identify them as the bits get scattered. In Eastern North America where archaeobotanical finds of acorns are abundant, the majority of finds consist of fragments of acorn shell of 2mm or less. This might indicate that in Europe most of the evidence of acorn use may have been overlooked or was not preserved. Because of the absence of macro remains we have to rely on micro remains and they are not easy to detect. To detect micro remains of food plants you need to use flotation technique and microscope analysis. At the submerged Mesolithic site of Tybrind Vig in Denmark which is known for its excellent preservation conditions, acorn use has only been attested by the identification of small fragments of acorn using a scanning electron microscope. The same happened at the sites of Cova Fosca and Roc de Migdia in Spain, which had no previous evidence of acorns, and where the presence of acorn parenchyma was attested only by using a scanning electron microscope. However both these techniques are expensive and require well equipped archaeobotanical laboratories. Because of this there are significant national and regional differences in the intensity of archaeobotanical research, resulting in acorn traces being missed among the archaeological material and in an underestimation of the use of acorns as a source of human nutrition in the past. This is the main reason why hazelnuts are usually the most frequently found collected plants on archaeological sites. Hazelnut are eaten raw, where the husk is broken and discarded so we have a chance to find big fragments close together. Also hazelnut husks are far more durable than acorn ones. Another reason why acorns are not detected in larger quantities on archaeological sites is because a lot of the acorn processing is usually undertaken completely or partially off site in the actual oak groves, on river edges, collective grinding stone The number of acorn finds on archaeological sites is still high. At several Mesolithic sites in Europe, acorns are only outnumbered by hazelnuts, the husks of which are far more durable. Acorns are the most frequently found wild fruits at protohistoric archaeological sites in France. In Spain, acorns are third after wheat and barley in terms of frequency of occurrence among archaeobotanical remains, thus even more frequent than legumes such as peas and lentils. The fact that acorns are no longer considered as being edible is also making it likely that archaeologists would not even look for them when they are looking for human food traces. Also when found on archaeological sites acorns are likely to be misunderstood and misinterpreted as accidental blow in or as animal food. But ethnographic and historical evidence is telling us that in some parts of the world acorns were used as human food until very recently. During the pre-agricultural period acorns were an important plant food resource for hunter-gatherers in Europe. Archaeological evidence supports the conclusion that acorns have always been an attractive food resource within various resource strategies, including agrarian societies. In prehistoric agricultural communities, acorns may have played a role as food substitute or reserve for bad times, reserved for emergencies, for example when cereal agriculture had failed. Within the context of agricultural sites acorns are usually located close to fireplaces and in furnaces. Frequently they are accompanied by other crops. In addition, acorns are common finds in vessels and storage pits. They are often

shelled and mixed with cereals. Acorns also occur in shallow pits and are also found unshelled. Acorns are found in graves, and their appearance there as sacrificial offering cannot be discounted. The high number of prehistoric sites across oak growing regions of the Northern Hemisphere where acorns have been found and the large number of acorns recovered from some of these sites are confirming that acorns have been one of the most important food sources for humans in the oak growing regions of the Northern Hemisphere since Paleolithic times. I will here present the list of all the cultures on whose sites acorns were found among food remains. The list is far from being definitive, and I would appreciate any information about sites that I have missed. But as far as I know this is the most comprehensive list of acorn finds in archaeological material freely available in English on the Internet. I believe that as the archaeobotanical research intensifies, we will see more and more evidence of the use of acorns as food. But I believe that even this much is enough to prove the point. All the references to the original documents containing data about acorns in archaeological sites are listed at the end of the post with clickable links. I will present the data according to the region. I decided to do that because a lot of the archaeological sites had been occupied over thousands of years and it would be impossible to put them into any one time period. Also presenting the archaeological data according to the region shows that people from certain areas liked eating acorns more than people from other areas and kept eating them over the period of thousands of years spanning multiple cultures. Which opens a question whether acorn eating is linked to a particular tribal or genetic populations. It is also very interesting that I could not find any data for acorns being found on the sites of the Yamna culture and Cucuteni Trypillian culture. Did I just miss the available data or were these two cultures different from the rest of the Old European cultures? Is it because these two cultures were the true Steppe cultures as opposed to all the other European cultures which were forest cultures? Again did I just miss the available data or are Britain and Ireland in some way different from the rest of Europe? I would greatly appreciate any help in answering these two questions. Tabor Oak, and wild almonds. They are thought to have been consumed by humans. The cave was inhabited between 60, - 48, BC. Kebara cave was at that time occupied by Neanderthals which shows that they too used acorns as food. We see that people were still eating acorns at the time of the Last Glacial Maximum. Ohalo is an archaeological site in the vicinity of the Sea of Galilee inhabited by hunter gatherers around the time of the Last Glacial Maximum, dated to about 17, BC. The Natufian culture was an Epipaleolithic culture that existed from 13, to 9, BC. It was unusual in that it was sedentary, or semi-sedentary, before the introduction of agriculture. The Natufian communities are possibly the ancestors of the builders of the first Neolithic settlements of the region. Generally, though, Natufians made use of wild cereals. Tools for food acquisition, such as sickles, and food processors, such as mortars, bowls, and pestles, are interpreted as evidence for harvesting and processing wild cereals and legumes. The few available seeds support the contention that pulses, cereals, almonds, acorns, and other fruits were gathered. Trees yielding hard-shell fruits were part of the former landscape of the Southern Levant. Among these, oaks were one of the most prominent features of the Mediterranean woodlands, covering large parts of the landscape. Nevertheless, their possible importance as a food source in past economies of the Southern Levant has been underestimated in comparison to other plant resources. Furthermore, the appearance of stone pounding and grinding tools frequently mentioned in ethnographic accounts as acorn processing tools in the Epipalaeolithic and the Early Neolithic has been mostly seen as associated with cereal processing and the transition to agriculture based economies. But there is a strong suggestion that they were indeed used for processing of acorns into flour. The archaeological data demonstrate that the Upper Tigris Valley was one of the primary regions of the Near East for the establishment of the earliest permanent settlements. There is also evidence for weaving and architectural units were clearly built for the purpose of storing food. The site is famous for its stone ware made from chlorite stone. A mix of hunted large and small animals and wild plants seems to have provided the main calorific input. The results corroborate the findings of other contemporaneous sites where an opportunistic use of plants and animals could be demonstrated. So it is suggested that the intensive, probably year-round permanent use of the site is not due to the intensive use or even cultivation of cereals. The rich and diversified environment made the site attractive for a permanent settlement. A specialization on cereals could not be observed so far. The interpretation of plant remains has long been biased by our modern perspective, where the focus on

cereals as one of the basic nutritional elements has been projected onto the past. Jarmo site represents something new in the prehistory of Iraq: Snails still formed part of the diet. The economy of this vast site, was based on hunting, advanced agriculture, stock-breeding and probably trade. Sheep, goat and dog were domestic, but the importance of hunting was not thereby diminished. Wild cattle, wild sheep, onager, half-ass, red, roe and fallow deer, ibex, wild boar, bear, hare, leopards,² and various birds, such as black crane, were hunted, but fishing in the river was less important. Chert blades are set in curved antler-sickles. Hunting had declined, sheep and goat are probably domesticated, cattle and pig appear, whether or not domesticated; the dog is known. They were found in accumulations associated with stores of chestnuts, hazelnuts and acorns, these too being for food, at the same sites. These accumulations could indeed have been the outcome of food-gathering rather than of harvesting of cultivated vines [8]. Therefore oak park woodland probably had a more southwards distribution during the Early Bronze Age than today. That oak was probably locally present is supported through the find of charcoal from small branches and acorns [9].

Africa The earliest evidence of acorn use as food in North Africa is found in the archaeological sites belonging to the upper paleolithic people of Taforalt caves, Morocco, dated to 12, BC. The number of acorn remains found is so large that the archaeologists had to conclude that they were used as year-long staple. Taforalt people had grinding stones, which they used to process some of these nuts, most likely the acorns, whose consumption as bread has been documented since antiquity.

Europe Iberia In Europe we find the earliest traces of acorn use in Gravettian culture, a paleolithic people who also left behind spectacular cave paintings, evidence of burial and distinctive stone tools. This is based on the new investigations of an ancient stone recovered in a cave called Grotta Paglicci in Puglia, in southern Italy. It dates back some 32, years, she says, providing the earliest evidence of food processing in Europe. She says these hunter-gatherers used the rounded end of the stone to bash seeds against another rock to break them up. The flat surface of the stone shows the kind of wear that would be produced by grinding the broken seeds into flour. The stone came to light in June , and although well enough studied at the time, two years ago a new team started a fresh study of material from the cave with the latest modern methods. The researchers sealed the stone in plastic to preserve it for future research.

Chapter 2 : The Tägerup excavations - Lund University

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Typology and the Concept of Curation: Lund Archaeological Review 18 , pp. The aims and goals of the article are to discuss how typology can be misleading in the study of archaeological artefacts. The discussion is exemplified using transverse arrowheads in the late Scandinavian Mesolithic. One contemporary, and often accepted, typology of transverse arrowheads is presented along with a summary of typological development and debates. The concept of curation, first introduced by L. Binford in the s, is discussed and taken into consideration when examining transverse arrowheads from two Late Mesolithic sites in Scania, southern Sweden. Finally, a small-scale experiment including mounting and reworking a transverse arrowhead was conducted. Against the background of the typological debate and the concept of curation, the results of the experiment are discussed and compared to the archaeological record from the two sites. We often note minor dif- he aim of this article is to discuss this pro- ferences in artefacts and categorize them into blem using transverse arrowheads from the various types. Although there are many diferent ty- time period, culture, location, and whatever pologies available, I have chosen to make my other attributes can be described. Vang Petersen has compiled an we label and describe artefacts. Based on the observations, the transverse arrowheads are considered to belong to diferent time frames of the Late Mesolithic. And when type Fig. Something is missing in the typology. In theory, using these types, one should Although it divides the transverse arrowheads be able to categorize and date the last part into chronological time frames and regional variations, the question of why the transverse arrowheads appear in the forms and shapes they do in the archaeological record still re- mains. Typological debates, development and criticism Fig. Points with slightly concave or parallel broadsides. Some have accepted the typology as it is, without any further critical thoughts or ar- guments e. When examining the loor of a hut they discovered all the men- tioned types of transverse arrowheads in a very small area. If the hut is dated using the Fig. Points typological types, this would mean that it was with a broad edge and lared broadsides. An early and internationally noted debate on the subject of typology was carried on be- tween Ford and Spaulding in the s Ford ; ; Spaulding ; I do not intend to go into the arguments of the debate in depth, but rather to focus on its efects on archaeology. Small ob- seems to have baled some. By picking titbits lique points. Unfortunately, this is also true of he concept of curation was introduced by most typological debates of today. He also stu- rary tools as several diferent types or as dif- died the patterns in which items were broken, ferent tools. In a Scandinavian setting, one reused and lost Binford ; Later of the pioneers in the matter of typology is the term came to include many properties Kjel Knutsson, who has studied technologi- that made it difuse. Bamforth made cal aspects as a means to identify and classify an efort to explain the meaning of curation artefacts, rather than relying on purely visible by dividing it into ive categories, which sub- aspects such as shape and form e. Knuts- sequently were additionally structured by son Studies like his have resulted in the Odell To show how the concept of more technological approach towards artefact curation is applicable to the study of trans- analysis that we know today. Some artefacts An example of this would be the manufacture go through major changes throughout their of ready-for-use arrows by mounting the ar- life-spans and some even change their entire rowhead on the shaft in advance of use. Although still maintain- activities and the like Keeley Possible series of a reworked transverse arrowhead. As shown by Binford and discussed Examples from two Scanian sites by Keeley this could be a major issue when discussing archaeological assemblages he archaeological remains discussed are from and their use for dating. With the typological deba- tes and the concept of curation in mind, it is time to return to the main question of the ar- ticle, why the transverse arrowheads appear in the forms and shapes they have in the archa- eological record. To investigate what efects curation has on the assembly of transverse ar- rowheads in the late Scandinavian Mesolithic, archaeological remains from two sites in the Fig. Locations of the sites. Although parts of the site were arrowheads predominating. According to the excavated in the s, a large share of the typology, this would date the site to the mid- artefacts from the site consists of surface inds. What is notable is

the majority of the surface finds were collected next largest category of arrowheads, namely " and consist of around 10, the undecided and other types. A total of 51 transverse arrowheads were Only the transverse arrowheads will be found in the excavations at Ablaahamn. All finds from both sites. We can see that all types of transverse arrowheads are present, with Stationsvej-type Fig. Type distribution of transverse arrowheads Fig. It could also be confused with a Trylleskov-type transverse arrowhead. A small-scale experiment was performed in order to shed further light on this. Type distribution of transverse arrowheads 51 at the Ablaahamn site. An experiment in curation, reuse and retooling in practice With the concept of curation and the arrowheads from the archaeological sites in mind, a modest experiment using a transverse arrowhead was conducted. Note that the mount for the arrowhead is Fig. Arrowhead with one lared broadside and use-wear. From the Ablaahamn site. I based significant macroscopic traces of use-wear. Replicated Stationsvej-type arrowhead, ment, before mounting. As the typological debate rowhead without dismounting it, thus show-grew, from the s onwards, important fac- ing that reworking an arrowhead, rather than tors such as technological processes have often replacing it, is very time-eicient. Also, the been left out. An example of this is curation overall impression from the experiment was and its ive categories. Generally seen as a and observations from such an effort. It is not hard to pro- duce, as the experiment also showed, and it Acknowledgements is a very common object on late Mesolithic sites in southern Scandinavia. All the over a time-span of around years. American possible through generous funding from the Antiquity 74 4. Making and Using Stone Tools. Series in 40, No. Technological Eiciency " Character of Archaeological Formation Pro-Anthropological heory 2. Economizing Behavior and Anthropology. National Museum of Canada. National Interdisciplinary Contributions to Archaeology. Mercury Series, Paper Acheulean Hand-Axes and Language Origins. Unpublished, available at Lund Univer- Eriksen, B. Journal of Danish Archaeology 3. American Museum of Natural History. Statistical Techniques Anthropological Papers Sociotechnical Change and Persis- Copenhagen. BAR International Series Flint fra Danmarks oldtid.

The final synthesis of the results from Tagerup in Sweden, one of the largest excavations of a Mesolithic site ever undertaken in northern Europe.

Kevan Edinborough 50 Weapons of Maths Instruction: A quantitative approach is used to describe the morphological variation found in samples taken from over armatures from nine Danish and Swedish lithic assemblages. A population-level hypothesis of a socially constrained transmission mechanism is presented that may explain the unusually long period of technological stasis demonstrated by six of the nine arrowhead phase-assemblages. Sadly, the scale of analysis and explanation adopted here has fallen out of favour with many British archaeologists over recent years. One of the key aims of this paper is to demonstrate that this perspective has much to offer archaeology, and that it does no harm whatsoever to switch analytical scales on occasion see Bettinger and Eerkens ; Shennan These traits may or may not be affected Papers from the Institute of Archaeology 16 A linked suite of statistical techniques was employed to identify key metric attributes of the various assemblages so that explicit technological relationships could be demonstrated graphically. The aim was to distinguish technological traditions within and between the armature assemblages. Method and Data The lithic projectile points used in this study originate from two main types of blade technology. This technique is strongly associated with technology attributed to the Kongemose culture cf. The second blade technology is less complex and is termed a hard hammer direct percussion technique, one that is used to detach blades from a core, resulting in generally thicker blades with characteristically less standardised Figure 1. Hypothesised arrow-hafting method for microliths. Approximate chronology for the case- the cultural transmission mechanisms themselves, i. The data came from nine stratigraphically sealed phases from seven sites Fig. Each microlith was weighed, measured for maximum thickness and digitally scanned. A total of seven metric variables were recorded for each point, except in the case of one site, Blak II, where the metric variables were only available from scanned images. The bulk of the sites were attributed by the excavators to the Kongemose: Schematic map of study area, showing the seven sites. The point variables recorded for the statistical analysis presented below are detailed in Fig. With the previously obtained weight and thickness measurements, this gave a maximum total of seven continuous variables for each microlith. It is important to note that edge and base dimensions are arbitrarily named. It should also be noted that these measurements are not identical to those used by Vang Petersen for his original frequency seriation Vang Petersen , The internal edge angle used here is the angle that is made by measuring a straight line from the centre of the shortest external dimension on the point named the base down through the centre of the point in a lateral line to the centre of the opposite edge named the edge , and by measuring the internal angle measured at the intersection of the line made by the edge with the lateral line $\hat{\epsilon}''$ minus 90° . This is im- Weapons of Maths Instruction 53 Figure 3. Schematic of point dimensions used for the study. The weight variable was also recorded. The solution was to take a random sample of 30 virtually complete points from each assemblage, giving a representative total of points from the nine sites. Point tips from this sample were often slightly chipped or broken, presumably due to taphonomic processes as well as impact damage. However, as overall shape was largely intact, perimeter dimensions were easily reconstructed from digital scans using Adobe Photoshop. Where the points were clearly damaged beyond simple reconstruction $\hat{\epsilon}''$ and these were few in number across all assemblages $\hat{\epsilon}''$ they were not used in the analysis sample. A large number of linked statistical techniques were employed to identify morphological variation Edinborough ; results from some of the key techniques are presented below. This determined how much variation there was in the distribution of each single point variable for each of the nine assemblages, and how much variation existed when assemblages were combined. Another aim was to determine whether or not individual point variables were normally distributed, as this could be of essential importance for choosing more complex multivariate procedures 54 Kevan Edinborough Shennan Frequency distributions in the form of histograms of each variable for all the sites combined points were run on the data to determine whether any particular variable had a bimodal distribution indicative of a separate technological

tradition. Of the seven variables from the combined nine-site sample, the most peculiar distribution was that of the angle. The shape of the angle variable histogram Fig. Following Vang Petersen, one would therefore expect the angle distribution to show three rather than two peaks. It could be argued that there are three overlapping distributions shown in Fig. Histogram of angle variable for all armature samples in the nine case-study phases, showing a bimodal distribution. To investigate these distributions further, each site assemblage was removed from the total in turn, and the total distribution frequency for the remaining angle variables was recalculated. It seemed reasonably likely that the angle variable indicated whether or not an arrow is transversely hafted, so these three phases may share a common technological tradition of transverse arrowhead hafting. To explore these ideas in the data, a series of bivariate scattergrams was generated for the entire data set based on all possible pairings of all variables Edinborough Interestingly, the results failed to show any consistent bivariate relationships across the phases, although certain relationships between size and shape were clearly more characteristic of some assemblages than others. Bivariate scatter plots were then constructed to establish mean values of the variables against each other. Multivariate statistics principal component analysis and discriminant analysis were then used to quantify the amount of variation in each variable. In other words, the mean amount of inter-assemblage trait variation was established. The time-averaged traits produced clear evidence of technological relationships between assemblages. The results were distinct, as mean values separated and grouped clearly space restricts publication here; for results of full statistical analysis see Edinborough This remarkably long period of stasis within a highly complex technology could be explainable in terms of a socially constrained lithic tradition. It is proposed that this is an excellent way of indicating inter- and intra-phase variation in the lithic technology, especially if there is clear stability over time in the lithic projectile morphology. In further contrast, they are orientated in the same direction compared to the results from the other six assemblages, which form a very tight cluster. This indicates 56 Kevan Edinborough Figure 5. This is interesting, as different mean distributions may be seen at different times and places, and may indicate different traditions moving towards or away from an optimum technology given a constant selective environment. On the other hand, the transverse arrowhead may be a more optimal solution when hunting a wider range of prey types, as it costs less in terms of manufacturing and teaching time Edinborough Another consideration is that of the population size relating to a given group of social learners, a possibility explored in part by Henrich These possibilities were explored using multivariate statistics in my doctoral thesis and will be the subject of forthcoming publications. In conclusion, the time-stepped ellipse orientation see Fig. The quantitative analysis of the point variables from the chronologically central group of the six Kongemose phases proved remarkably homogeneous Fig. This constrained point-making tradition lasted for over a thousand years whilst exhibiting remarkably little variation, and is to my mind suggestive of an extraordinarily exacting social structure Edinborough The implications of this performance difference for the different case-study population histories have been examined in my thesis. Bettinger and Eerkens ; Boyd and Richerson Accounting for technological evolution is clearly complex. Perhaps the biggest archaeological challenge that remains is to explicitly explain multiple tool traditions in terms of their respective environmental and human population histories. My future research will focus upon exploring and comparing these fundamental issues at a variety of temporal, spatial and technological scales. As such, special thanks are owed to Prof. The Development of the Bow Karsten, P. A Technological and excavations. Function Perspective, in Peterkin, G. Hunting and Animal Exploitation in the Holmsberg: Later Palaeolithic and Mesolithic of Eurasia. Raid, Retreat, Defend, Repeat: Quantifying Archaeology 64, Culture and the Evolutionary Process. Demography and Cultural In- cago University Press. Warfare and the Bow and Ar- man Culture. An Evaluation of the Evidence for Journal 11 1 , Kongemosekulturen i Syd- lege London. Evolution of Bow-Arrow Technology. Atlatisk Bodpladsfund fra University College London. Antiquity Vang Petersen, P. Chronological and Regional 64, Variation in the Late Mesolithic of Eastern Denmark. Journal of Danish Archaeology 3, Flint fra Danmarks Oldtid. Getting to the Point: Evolutionary Change in Prehistoric Weaponry. Journal of Archaeological Method and Theory 5,

Chapter 4 : Old European culture: Acorns in archaeology

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It was one of the earlier friaries in Denmark, under the jurisdiction of the Custody of Odense in the Franciscan Province of Dacia. It must have been one of the more prominent houses because the annual chapter meeting of the Franciscans in all of Scandinavia was held there six times between and , but after that year it was only held there twice more, perhaps because other houses had become more important, and there were simply many more Franciscan establishments in the province. The friary was built just east of the town of Nysted in a traditional quadrilateral pattern with four wings around a central cloister , with a chapel forming one of the sides. The friary also had a hospital which kept a mortality book to record the deaths. While the book itself has not survived it is referred to in other documents. In the late 15th century the Franciscans at Nysted were divided by the ongoing conflict that regularly plagued the entire Franciscan order, over how strictly they should interpret the original Rule of Saint Francis , and especially the vow of poverty. The Observants insisted that the monks should conform to the strict rule, and so should avoid owning property and wealth. In the conflict came to a head when the Observants beat up the Conventuals and threw them out of the friary. Two years later the Conventuals in their turn chased the Observants out with cudgels. In time the rift healed, but the stricter interpretation of the rule was enforced until the Reformation. The next year the friary sold its remaining smaller properties including a smallholding and a field in nearby towns. It was lost during the dissolution of the friary until , when it was located in a library in The Hague in the Netherlands. It is one of only four surviving from the entire medieval period in Denmark. Dissolution[edit] The Reformation brought an end to Nysted Friary. Just two years later Nysted was the last one remaining. Many Danes vented their anger against the Catholic Church on the most visible representatives, the multiple monastic houses which were to be found in towns of any importance. The Franciscans were targeted first because their constant appeals for food, clothing, money, and labor seemed an added burden to the tithes , fees, and rents already paid to the church by Danish peasants. A story recorded about Nysted Friary at the time is that when the local district governor was required to make an inventory of its valuables, four gilded silver chalices, four gilded cups, and three small white silver spoons were missing, as the friars had buried their valuables to be retrieved in better times, but the governor demanded their return and confiscated them. Unlike many other places, the Franciscans were able to remain in the friary until In fact it was the last outpost of the Franciscans in Denmark. Nysted Friary remained open until when the last monk, Lutke Naamensen, is recorded as still there. Later that same year the friary was closed. After dissolution[edit] The buildings were ordered to be demolished in , when two of the bells from the chapel were taken down and re-hung in Nysted parish church. In the ruins could still be seen, but from that time on, the stone and bricks were carried off for the construction of local buildings. As late as over 1, wagonloads of brick and stone were removed from the site, so that now even the foundation stones have vanished. Excavations in the s by the National Museum of Denmark found the site and a few burials. Perhaps the most important find was the seal of Chancellor Valdemar Podebusk who became a Franciscan before his death and burial at Nysted. The site has been reused for modern building purposes. This article is based on the equivalent on the Danish Wikipedia.

Chapter 5 : MDS: | LibraryThing

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In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion. Copyright in the Dissertation held by the Author. This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code. Box Ann Arbor, MI Thesis abstract This thesis examines the development of bow-arrow technology in terms of modern evolutionary theory. Previous approaches that propose functional-adaptive technological trajectories are critiqued. Different theoretical approaches towards technology and associated units of analysis are examined. Behavioural ecology, evolutionary archaeology, and dual inheritance theory are shown to hold most promise for explaining trait-lineages in a given technological tradition. Previous approaches to bow-arrow technology are analysed, and an evolutionary archaeological methodology appropriate for examining lithic armatures is presented. Environment, historical contingency, selection, drift, population dynamics and social learning mechanisms are seen as key complex factors requiring case by case examination. An evolutionary case study with nine temporally, geographically, and culturally related stratigraphic phases containing a total of complete lithic armatures from the south Scandinavian middle Mesolithic c. The phases are described in terms of associated fine-grained archaeological data and previous interpretations. A Bayesian chronological framework is constructed for the case study, using modelling facilities in the OxCal calibration package. This method time-steps and calculates relative occupation durations of point bearing phases in terms of available archaeological and radiometric data. The chronological model covers the culture-historical periods termed Blak, Kongemose and Early Ertebolle phases. The validity of previous typological interpretations of projectile point sequences is questioned in light of these results. The nine time-stepped lithic armature assemblages are then analysed to describe inter- and intra-site point trait variation. A linked series of descriptive and multivariate statistical techniques identify key morphological attributes that summarise trait variation within and between phases. Variation is graphically represented and related to different social learning populations, reduction strategies, and engineering constraints. A remarkably long-term homogenous pattern of complex projectile point manufacture is found for the Kongemose phases, compared to the temporally bracketing Blak and Ertebolle phases. Faunal data from the Tagerup and Segebro sites, spanning the case study period, are examined for possible diet breadth changes, in relation to point-trait variation. No functional relationship is found between point-shape and potential targetprey. A simple model of landmass reduction, forestation cover and mammalian population density levels demonstrates reduced land mass alone would not significantly affect human population levels - even with relatively high human population densities. Holocene and A14C data is used as a proxy for contemporaneous climatic fluctuations. These proxies are plotted and superimposed onto the population graph. A correlation between climate change, population fluctuation, and projectile point technology is found. As changes in point morphology and lithic reduction strategies coincide with apparent regional drops in population, drift processes may account for some variation in point-shape. Cognitive Psychology, replicators, interactors, and memes Evolution of bow-arrow technology Mesolithic South Scandinavian bow-arrow technology 79 3. Environmental, osteological, and population context A Tagerup Kongemose phase model. B Tagerup Kongemose phase model. Karsten and Knarrstrom , Preface This project originated from my MA dissertation, which looked at bow-arrow technology in terms of inter- and intra-group conflict in the Greek Neolithic Edinborough The qualitative results of the dissertation led me to question the role of different bow-arrow technologies elsewhere in history and prehistory, and the effects that they had on the people and groups that used them. Giving a central role to a specific technology was not enough; it became clear that to explain technological changes, a more holistic approach was required. The relationship between a diachronically changing environment, fluctuating populations, and cultural innovations and losses, were clearly key issues that were not being looked at in a coordinated manner. Cross-cultural ethnographic and historical evidence strongly suggested that bow-arrow technology was a

particularly important weapon-system, especially in terms of potential changes in the ranking of dietary resources, and the potential for increased rates of interand intra-personal violence. It seemed logical to believe that this was also the case in prehistory, and that with enough ingenuity, the underlying cultural processes concerning the development of bow-arrow technology might be identified, using the evidence of the archaeological record. It became clear that there was already a developed body of theory that had great potential for technological studies, one originating in the life-sciences, and gathered loosely under the umbrella of evolutionary theory, inspired by Darwinian principles concerning descent with modification. It seemed reasonable to say that, where they addressed the residue of past human behaviours on a technological case by case basis, Darwinian theoretical models had considerable explanatory power. If I wanted to test the potential of these new evolutionary models, a much more comprehensive archaeological data-set was required, one suited to a thorough quantitative analysis, rather than the handful of arrowheads that was used in the MA project. Returning from fieldwork in Greece and Turkey in 1981, I commenced what I still see as a rather unusual, and exciting PhD. An initial year of theoretical research into evolutionary explanations of cultural processes led me to study in the United States for two months in September 1982, where I was based at the University of Columbia Missouri, thanks to a 15 chance meeting with Dr. When in Missouri I attended a series of Dr. By the end of my visit, it was clear that US scholars have been developing a complex array of different analytical methods to analyse arrowhead assemblages, both quantitatively and qualitatively, which could be very useful when applied to Old World datasets. Upon returning to London, I began to search for an appropriate set of archaeological assemblages. When looking for the best available environmental context, in conjunction with a comprehensive data-set relating to bow-arrow technology; southern Scandinavian archaeology clearly offered the most potential. Five months of Scandinavian based research during the summer of 1983 armed me with a very large amount of unpublished arrowhead data, and a great deal of associated published and unpublished scholarly work. It also gave me a desire to repay the many Danish and Swedish archaeologists, museum curators, and academics who invested me with their trust, with a significant project. Fundamentally, and despite my obvious interest in bow-arrow technology, this thesis became a methodological exercise to demonstrate how an integrated series of evolutionary models can be used to re-evaluate the material record. The methodological journey has proved an enlightening experience, whilst the results and conclusions have proved equally challenging. Evolutionary models of cultural behaviour are usually tested using the synchronous time frame of the anthropological record. There are currently too few diachronic evolutionary archaeological studies, and sadly, very few indeed that go into the fine-grained detail presented here. A current strength of archaeology is the surprising amount of excavated data that is already expertly recorded, and sitting in extant museum collections, just crying out to be rediscovered and reinterpreted. Surely the object of archaeology is not only to describe objects and preserve them, but to use theory to explain distributions of objects through time and space. The theoretical essence of this thesis, and the central role that is given to technology, is at first sight against the grain of many traditional archaeological approaches and interpretations. However, as a new and recently developed body of theory is being used 16 here; this is to be expected. I would argue that this project, in various ways, builds on the distinguished work of many others, and it is hoped that this will become very clear to the reader. In terms of theoretical archaeology, the post-modern alternative seems to me to be an intellectual exercise that, in the long-term, will prove somewhat of a methodological full-stop. Hopefully, this project does not prove an end in itself, but is instead the beginning of many holistic evolutionary studies; projects that will position various technologies at their centre. This seems a sensible programme for future research, not just for theoretical reasons, but because of the huge number of unstudied artefacts currently filling many an obscure museum storeroom, and the fact that lithic technologies were so ubiquitous for the vast part of human prehistory. It follows that any advice they have given has not always been followed, and all errors in this thesis are entirely my own responsibility. The following organisations and individuals require a special mention. My primary supervisor, Prof. Stephen Shennan, director of AHRB Centre for the Evolutionary Analysis of Cultural Behaviour CEACB, must be especially thanked for providing the inspiration for this project, and for his great patience in guiding my transformation from classicist, to evolutionary inspired archaeologist. My secondary supervisor Dr. Andrew Garrard has been

similarly accommodating with me over the past four years. Cyprian Broodbank at UCL steered me through my first term of doctoral research. Roger was instrumental in arranging permission for me to look at Turkish and Mongolian archery tackle in Cankiri Museum in northern Turkey. Just prior to my return to UCL, after surveying Palaeolithic tool scatters, a Bronze Age Palace, and many an Iron Age hill fort, Roger transformed the team into an impromptu guitar-band in a music shop in Ankara, and then paid for my subsequent hospital fees; for all of this, I cannot thank him enough. Mark Collard must be thanked for the most relentlessly thorough, and ultimately useful, criticism of my initial work. Mike Charlton has constantly proved a tough academic sparring partner, where few other contemporaries seem interested in theory, let alone evolutionary theory. Ole Gron, thank you for your encouragement, unpublished MA thesis, and enthusiasm. John Meadows is thanked for his technical advice and challenging criticisms concerning the OxCal 14C chronological modelling developed in this thesis, and for our many chronological discussions. Clive Orton kindly advised me concerning the use of discriminant analysis statistics. At the beginning of my research, Dr. Peter Rowley-Conwy of Durham University kindly gave me some initial advice, references, and contacts for southern Scandinavia. I must also thank Dr. Richard Carter for some initial information, and the unusual and hopefully not too dangerous afternoon x-raying Mesolithic mandibles in the Copenhagen Zoological Museum. From the United States, Dr. Lee Lyman, and the staff of the anthropology department at the University of Columbia, Missouri, UCM must be thanked for their generous hospitality. During my five months of research and fieldwork in , all the Scandinavian academics I approached proved fantastically generous with their advice and data; no one refused me access to their collections. Also, thank you to Dr. Lars Larsson of the Archaeological Institute of Lund University gave a recommendation that helped me gain access to many Swedish collections. Elisabeth Rudebeck, must be thanked for tracking down the elusive Segebro projectile points, and for arranging my extended stay at the aptly named "Hotel Sparta" at Lund University. Hampus Cinthio and Ylva Olsson of the Lund Historical Museum and the Gastelyckan warehouse-store; thank you for your help in locating various collections, and for providing me with desk space. Per Karsten and Dr Bo Knarrstrom kindly gave me unprecedented access to the Tagerup excavation material, desk space at the Landskrona Historical Museum, and a startling amount of Swedish hospitality. To the following people, I owe a special debt. In Copenhagen, Sophie Madsen and Mikkel Venge, thank you for the use of your wonderful flat; I will replace your bicycles. At the Institute of Archaeology in London, thank you to all my research colleagues, and especially my fellow basement survivors from the IoA room B To Thomas Belton of News International, thank you for the proof-reading, and the eye-opening introduction to journalism. To James Preston of the Ministry of Defence, thank you for your expert opinions on the evolution of various projectile technologies, both ancient and modern. To Christopher Lai and Dr. Steven Leppard, thank you for the knowledge that allowed me to study without financial burden. Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to the memory of my remarkable parents, Doreen and Kenneth Edinborough. Evolution of technology 1. It is proposed that this method requires a case by case holistic ecological approach at both trait and population level, as broad scale functionaladaptive statements about human prehistory at wide geo-temporal scales require more careful qualification than previously given.

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The following was taken from a Danish Newspaper Report written for the 40th Anniversary. The night between Wednesday the 28th and Thursday 29th April, a formation of English Stirling-planes flew over Denmark from a mission covering German sea-territory. That the night activity was of exceptional dimension shows the fact, that the air-raid alarm in the Kalundborg area lasted nearly 5 hours, which was the second longest period at that time. Contrary to the Kalundborg area, the German anti-aircraft batteries were in heavy action here. Eyewitnesses saw, that at least one plane was shot down approx 4km over the Great Belt. Over Ruds-Vedby there was heavy fighting in the air around 0. Many inhabitants were awakened by motor noise and shooting. Zohnesen can report, that he that particular night noticed, that something serious was about to happen. He could hear heavy shooting at a plane in the air in the immediate vicinity of Ruds-Vedby. Whilst on the road a German fighter plane flew over in very low altitude, and they feared that they were being attacked. When they came to the place of the crash, they noticed that there was heavy fire in an area of approx. The body of the plane had gone down in a peat-hole not far from some farms. It seemed strange, that it had nearly disappeared into the earth. It still burned slightly and we began therefore to put out the fire. Zohnesen went around looking for possible survivors, but it became very soon apparent, that this was in vain. Together with the Falck-crew he remained on the site the remainder of the night and some of next morning, and when it became daylight, they found the remains of the plane crew. From the German camp in Slagelse came soldiers, and also Danish police came to the site to make a report. Several eyewitnesses comment on the crash itself, that it seemed as if the engine at an altitude of approx. This coincides very well with the fact that the following day the tip of the wing with engine was found several hundred meters from the actual crash hole. This caused much anger with the spectators against the German and they commented, that he could have shot the boy. To this a pro-German Dane, of which there also were some, replied: Unfortunately for him, the local police officer from Ruds-Vedby had observed this and he went after the boy and confiscated the propellor blade, which he kept until after the war. Most meant that it was an English plane, but it was difficult to see and the Germans did not say anything. Whilst people walked around and looked not very nice things were as usual said about the Germans. After all they just stood there and looked after the plane, and did not understand a word of what was being said. There was a Dane who commented: It is probably one of their own planes, since they are so afraid that we shall see anything. Then soldiers carrying a rifle came to him and said in perfect Danish: We talked with him for a while, says a Reerslev inhabitant, and he told us that was from South Slesvig and had lived for a number of years in Denmark. Unfortunately, he had no Danish citizenship and hence, when the war came, was enlisted as a German soldier. With their violent action they completely disregarded the 5-killed English crew, who were still in the plane. The German action did not succeed, however. It proved impossible to get the plane up and the only thing they got that could be used was the tip of a wing and the engine, which had landed on a field. Perhaps in anger because of the poor result, the Germans filled up the hold with waste and an old car wreck. As a reaction to this fearsome incident, the inhabitants of Reerslev formed an association, which should assist with fire-combat and first aid in case a similar incident was to occur. Funds were being collected for this purpose, so that the necessary material could be purchased, and a permanent telephone duty watch was established on the number Ruds-Vedby. The allied forces were extremely interested in getting all information possible on the missing plane. Enquiries were being made in Denmark, but it was no easy task. Many planes had disappeared into the sea, and in such cases it was often impossible to locate the wrecks. But also crashes on land could present great difficulties. The engines often exploded when crashing, and it was the Germans who further examined the wrecks. And the Germans, in the final phases of occupation, were not very reverent to killed allied flyers. In April of investigations were being made on West Sealand. The hole was still visible and early April 24 soldiers from the 14th Battalion, 1st Company commenced to dig out the plane. H Jensen engineer with the Moor Company had already made some drillings and determined the exact location of the wreck. Lieutenant Herboe, who was in charge of the

soldiers, knew therefore exactly where to dig, and a couple of meters down they found wreckage parts. Experts were of the opinion that there were no bombs in the wreck. When crashing no explosions took place. It was most probably an empty plane returning home to its base, but of course one could not be entirely certain, so the digging was done very carefully. Stirling, and not Sterling as people generally called it, was a 4-engine bomber. This type of plane had been in use since the early start of war, and was at first the only big and heavy bombing plane England had. The Stirling plane had comparatively short and sharp wings and could not fly at such high altitudes and so fast as other bomber planes, which England built in the course of the war. For safety reasons Stirling planes were during the end of the war used specially for night operations. Stirling planes were for example used to drop down weapons and ammunition to the resistance people. A Stirling plane could however, defend itself. A 7,7mm machine gun was located in the nose of the plane and also in the tower. In the Tail 4 similar machine guns were located. Stirling planes were furthermore well known for being able to tolerate quite heavy damage and still being able to return to base. There were iron transports from Sweden and traffic to the Baltic countries, and allied planes bombed Northgerman harbours heavily and mined the East Sea and the Danish Belts. It had virtually buried itself and the excavation was therefore a difficult task. Inspector Madsen, who belonged to the resistance, and two RAF officers followed the excavation. They asked people to come forward with information on this plane, and others that might have crashed on West Sealand. It was well known that people had removed many parts of the planes, and it was asked that the get permission to examine these parts, stressing that no confiscation would take place. It turned out that the morning after the crash a press photographer had been on the site and had taken some pictures, which could be used to identify the plane. During the excavation personal items turned up. It became therefore very soon apparent which plane it was, and one knew that no one have survived the crash. Digging was continued to find the other crewmembers so that they could be properly buried. Hornungs family came from Slagelse, where his grandfather had had a merchant house on the Schweizer hall. Perhaps his connection with the Slagelse area played a part, when he was assigned to this task. As far as McKeever is concerned there is no doubt that he was chosen because he poke fluent Danish. He was furthermore a code expert. A burial site was placed at disposal and the inhabitants of the parish decided that a stone should be erected on the grave. A spring day, warm with sun. The coffin carrying the remains of the dead aircraft crew was carried from the chapel by six members of the resistance. Soldiers from the 1st Company marched before the coffin and on the porch of the church 12 policemen formed an espalier. The little country church was filled to standing. Three hundred people attended the ceremony in the church and in the graveyard another hundred followed the ceremony through loudspeakers, which had been rigged up. England could not have been beaten if night after night they sent planes against Germany. In our little parish we do not know these flyers but we have opened our hearts and considered them as our sons. The grave, where they are now being put to rest, we shall consider as a parish grave and we will ornament and protect it. The ceremony ended with the firing of a salute. The propellor blade, which the police officer had kept, was placed before the stone and later there arrived from England 3 gravestones. In the church porch pictures of all 7 crewmembers were hung. The veterinary in Ruds-Vedby, Mr Much-Petersen, stood for the collection and paid a great part of the expenses himself. He saw to it that the actual site of the crash got status as a memorial place. Today, 40 years later, the site has a little pond with old birch tree around it. On the graveyard the propellor blade can still be seen, although it is somewhat corroded now. It would be a shame if it was destroyed completely, and it should be removed indoors. As far as the gravestones are concerned, there is a peculiarity in that the Danish stone and the three English stones do not have the same date. This is due to the fact that the plane crashed ten minutes to one Danish time, but ten minutes before 24 hrs English time. All this is the Danish conclusion of a story, which is English. A father, which she had never seen or known. Please visit my website for more information at www. Find out how you can use this. 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Chapter 7 : Nysted Friary - Wikipedia

Abstract. Pollen was analysed from a sediment sequence collected in the close vicinity of the Mesolithic settlement TÅgerup, southern Sweden. Macroremains were also retrieved from numerous samples taken at the site of the archaeological excavations of Kongemose and ErtebÅlle settlement phases, b.c. and b.c. respectively.

Chapter 8 : The TÅgerup excavations - CORE

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Chapter 9 : BBC - WW2 People's War - Lost Stirling

Macroremains were also retrieved from numerous samples taken at the site of the archaeological excavations of Kongemose and ErtebÅlle settlement phases, b.c. and b.c. respectively.