Revised edit- ion of edited copy

[~]**^t**

Cea

-I

The interpretation of the diverse functional uses of stone tools

has, to date, been based principally on a theoritical analysis of their ('f, 'Bovdes 4 5 . *4,5e.v..,.l,,,.,. "')* wear patterns. This has been our most reliable archaeological guide, but actual functional experiments will give more substance to the theory. Questions must be posed and answered such as: what materials was prehistoric man forming, altering or modifying with his stone tools_, and at what angle did he hold the working tool? Were the stone tools held mill just in the hand when performing these tasks or were they affixed to a handle or holding devise by fitting and wedging, adhered to other materials with vegetable resin, or were they lashed to stocks and shafts? Many stone artifacts have been placed in typological categories which imply function. Some are correctly typed because of actual observation and ethnographic accounts. Other functions are based on theory or the industries of a particular site which place# similar implements, bearing certain technological characteristics, into useful typological categories. However, this tends to associate various shapes with specific functions µ£- [, when, in reality, they could have been multi-purpose tools. As a result, $\overline{1}$ artifacts not conforming with these categories are said to be non-diagnostic and are often discarded as debitage, lithic debris, flakes,

exhausted cores, or general manufacturing by-products. The most reliable source of implied function is a careful analysis of the wear pattern on the edges or ridges.

The use of obtuse angles on artifacts as working edges has generally been overlooked or ignored whereas recent evidence reveals functional scars and wear patterns on thistangles The results of functional experiments indicate that these obtuse angles provide additional OFTEN The obtuse edge of a tool will usually show polish diagnostic traits. homegone when it is used continually on uncontaminated materials. Striations or ore as scratches on the obtuse edge result from abrasive contamination; and b occasional minute step fractures are due to improper holding, too much n otteed pressure, or the non-homogeneous nature of the material being formed. We know from experiments and archaeological evidence that the acute angle on a flake or blade is an excellent cutting edge for yielding materils, but we have failed to consider the functional value of the obtuse angles of more than 90° and less than 130°. The obtuse has proven, so far, tobe angle of more than 130 μ is too flat to have functional value. Experiments in function reveal that the obtuse angle on stone tools can perform tasks impossible to complete with stone tools having acute angle edges of 90° or less. The use of the obtuse angle as a cutting edge has

been a revealing experience and has opened the door to further experiments

Revised

 \tilde{c}

to determine the diversity, of this angle as a functional edge.

uses

Experimental results show that the obtuse angle on stone tools made of material even as fragile as obsidian can be used to remove spiral shavings with accuracy and control from dry bone and the tool will still retain its cutting edge. For example, the use of an obtuse angles on stone tools provides a clue to the elaborate carving of lintels of extremely hard wood (sapodill%) used in temple construction by the Maya in the Yucatan. Using the obtuse angle of a stone tool may also explain the modification of other resistant materials such as bone, horn, antler, and ivory. When the acute edge is used to form this type of resistant material, the tool will break or the edge will dull before the task is complet ed.

I made replicas of obtuse angle tools and then used them in many ways -- cutting at different angles, holding in different positions, and cutting and forming a variety of materials. Then Both the cutting tool and the material being worked were compared with archaeological specimens $evalvat$ e to (estimate) the striations, polish and functional flake scars. In Cach case, the $\left(\frac{e}{e}\right)$ the $\left(\frac{e}{e}\right)$ materials of both the $\left(\frac{e}{e}\right)$ and the material being cut or that formed was the same as these employed in prehistoric specimens. It is essential that the worker use the same materials for modification as those

Revised . available aboriginally - whether they are being gouged, planed or chopped -- in order to verify the manner of holding and function. Some implements having acute angle edges - like the obsidian blade require light force for cutting soft materials, and the thumb and index ,, finger furnish sufficient force for light cutting tasks. But when the obtuse angles of tools are used for cutting, more force is required- - much
 $\frac{1}{\alpha}$ $\frac{1}{\alpha}$ the same principle as our $\frac{1}{2}$ **exage** $\frac{1}{2}$ The acute angle - θ° to 90° - can be used to work softer materials while an obtuse angle - 90° to 130° \rightarrow is used to work more resistant material. The angle of the tool edge must correspond to the resistance of the material being worked. During the functional experiment, the worker must keep in mind the brittle nature of the stone tool and be familiar with the tool's strong and weak areas. They can not be twisted or used in a levering way and must be kept in word alignment with the opposing resistance of the material being worked. Skill in using any hand tool requires practice and reason which demands continued experiment. Even when the experiments yield good results, they may not compare to the work of a skilled aboriginal workman. One source of an obtuse angle cutting edge is a blade scar ridge on a polyhedral core. The parallel blade scars are slightly concave $\not b$ between the ridges. leaving the ridges as satisfactory obtuse angle

 μ

working edges. The core is used as one would use a draw plane - holding

Revised the proximal and distal ends of the core with the right and left hands. The modern draw plane or draw knife can only be pulled toward the user but the obtuse angles on a polyhedral core can be pushed or pulled. The polyhedral core is drawn at a slight angle rathern than at right angles as one would use a modern plane. When used in this fashion, the depth of the cut may be accurately adjusted by a slight change of angle of the bearing surface. The obtuse angle of the cutting edge is far stronger $O^{r}(\text{ocr+eV})$ than a 90 γ edge. When woaked antler is worked, shavings three inches long may be removed with a single pass of the core. I know of no single edged metal tool which will remove material with the speed of the obsidian core tool. The cuts are very clean and smooth with no bruising of the surface being planed. When the core planer is used on very hard wood, the finish is excellent and the core can be used to published -6 $u^{\alpha e}$ make surfaces flat. It is surprising how durable the edge can be. Use flake scars generally result from holding the tool at the wrong angle, $\bullet\bullet$ ⁰(<. *)..,J.* C...h *o r ff Mo c; £ti* !:l1j from contamination hof the material being planed rather than from function. When the obtuse angle of the core is used repeatedly on resinous wood, resin will build up and impair the cutting action. Then the resin must be scraped off or removed with solvent or a new blade detached from the core to expose two new sharp cutting edges. Or the entire polyhedral

5

core can be rejuvenated by removing a series of blades around the perimeter to expose new obtuse angle cutting edges .

The surprising and excellent results of using the obtuse angles of a core as a shaping and forming tool for antler, hardwood and bone prompted me to look for similar angles on other artifacts for cutting experiments. Similar experiments with both buring blades and cores resulted in only moderate success. Using the buring core in the manner of an engraving tool resulted in the core slipping and its corners breaking after a few passes-- generally when the tip was lifted upward to terminate the cutting action. After a minimum amount of work on hard material, the The formation of the burin core would crush due to micro step flake scars torming on the margin. However, if the burin blade was removed at more or less than a 90[°] amgle to the margin of the core, both acute and obtuse angles were formed on the core's edge. The acute angle was excellent for working soft woods and the obtuse angle was good for \overline{a} where the control of the control of the control of the forming more resistant materials. Failure to adequately use an angle of 90[°] or $\frac{M \circ R}{\epsilon}$ is probably due to a lack of understanding of the proper use of the many prehistoric styles of burins.

The natural facets on quartz crystals can also be used as forming tools but are not as efficient or effective as the artifically made obtuse angles on cores and other tools. The natural facets on the crystal

Revis ed

7

are plane surfaces, while those made by removing a blade or flake from a core leave concave surfaces between the obtuse angles, giving a sharper cutting edge. If the crystal is made into a blade core by removing blades longitudinally, the obtuse angles of the blade scars are a far more efficient cutting tool, than the natural facets. However, a quartz more efficient cutting tool than the natural facets. However, a quartiz hund on the natural obtaine angles of a quarty cripatal angles may well be the result of function (Allchin, 1966, Fig. 30)

Another functional experiment involved the use of a strangulated blade. Obsidian archaeological specimens from the El Inga site in Eucador were brought by Carl Phagan to the 1970 Idaho State University Flintworking Field School. We made replicas of the originals from obsidian. In archaeology this strangulated blade has been classified as a spokeshave. We attempted to use it by placing the concave edge on a wooden shaft and pulling the ventral side of the blade toward the worker. This removed only a slight amount of the wood and left a very irregular cut on the shaft. If additional pressure was applied to the blade, it broke. We then noticed striations on the ventral side of the El Inga specimen between the two opposing concavities which comprised the strangulation. These striations gave us a clue to the manner in which the implement was held and used. The striations indicated that the slightly convex ventral side of the blade was placed flat on the wooden

shaft being shaped. The convex surface acted as a bearing and aided the adjustment of the depth of the cut being made. When we used the strangulated blade in this manner, it made a flat smooth cut and \mathbf{L} required little force to remove a clean shaving. Both concavities serve well as cutting surfaces. The opposite concavity on the blade permitted the worker to tilt back the blade to terminate the cut. When used in this manner, the blade did not break because little force was necessary to remove shavings from the material being worked.

Further functional experiments with the strangulated blade showed that the angle of the cutting edge of the blade could be made acute for soft materials or obtuse for cutting harder materials. If the cutting edge was too acute or was used improperly, then use flakes were removed from the ventral side of the blade rathera than the concave portion $ab\psi se$ of the strangulation. Many tools other than blades exhibit anlow angle, and these can be which are simply, and rapid¹/to make or resharpered often by a simple the removal of a single flake a new working edge is exposed. It is possible to misinterpret this single sharpening flake as a tool when it is only $(F - 1)$ a reconditioning or resharpening flake,

Robert Heiser showed me obsidian cores from Papalhuapa, Guatamela which were formed by blade removal but also showed evidence of function

on the obtuse angle ridges. The blade scar ridges on the cores were dulled which indicated they could have been used as planes , wedges , reamers, drills, anvils , pointed percussors for making soft stone figures and some could have been sectioned to be used as preforms for *I* ear plugs. This site is important because it is near its source of raw /' material and should illustrate many manufacturing **sseps** and can be related to ethnographic accounts . **A** preliminary report of this site has been published by John A. Graham and Rolert F. Heizer (1968). In 1970, Dr. Junius Bird, American Museum of Natural History, gave me a collection of six obsidian cores from Oaxaca, Mexico and they all showed signs of wear on the obtuse angle ridges. Obsidian polyhedral cores from the Metro excavations in Mexico, D.F. shown to me by Jose Luis Lorenzo in and notice of the state of blade scar ridges. *Included upon* one which ~ (or reamonly) indicated that the distal end was used as a drill, until the core was worn to a smooth cylindrical shape. I collected obsidian polyhedral cores from Teotihuacan, Puebla, Colima, and on the coast in the State of Nayarit and they all bear evidence of wise of \bigstar blade scar ridges as cutting and forming edges. Through personal communication with Denise de Sonneville Bordes (1970) I learned that she has noted evidence of functional scars on the dorsal ridges of blades from the Upper Paleolithic of Southern France.

Personal examination of a blade from the Clovis site at Murray Springs, Arizona (1969) showed intensive wear and polish on the dorsal ridge while the lateral margins were still quite sharp. This suggests that the ridge was used as a cutting implement before the blade was detached from the core, and when the ridge became dulled was detached from the core to *6'Jjtv£L..* expose two fresh useful ridges. The core with multiple obtuse angle ridges would have been an ideal implement for rapidly shaping the shaft wrench made from the long bone of a mammouth found at Murray Springs (Maynes and Hemmings , 1968). Occasionally· cores are noted which are not exhausted for further blade detachment but the ridges bear evidence that exhausted for further blade detachment but the ridges bear evidence that
they were used for shaping tools while they still retained their size.
Pixe for a particular function, size for a particular fernetion.
In conclusion: limited experiment, limited examination of paleolithic In conclusion; limited experiment, limited examination of
paleolithic implements indicate that more lithic debris should be retained and intensively examined and not discarded as non-diagnostic.

 $\begin{array}{c} \n\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} 11 \\
\end{array}$ It is entirely possible that definite technological traits, characteristic modes of use, manners of holding or hafting, and the nature of the Material being worked can possibly be defined by this lithic debris, and we may find multiple-purpose implements. It has been a revelation to find that for some tasks a thin, sharp acute-angled edge will not perform as well as an obtuse-angled edge. Aboriginal tools bearing an obtuse

10

angle working edge may not fall into the categories of well defined types. Some may be assymetrical^{s w}ithout definite form, but a caretypes. Some may be assymetrical without definite form, but a carry definition of the wear patterns on the obtuse angles may the amount

type of function, and method of halding.

Functional polish appearing on some aboriginal artifacts presents problems of use analysis. Use polish is frequently observed on scraping and agricultural tools which usually have acute angles on their working edges. Scraping generally rounds or polishes the working edges, conceivably due to the abrasive nature of a contamination of sandy soils on wet hides, and the polish noted on agricultural tools could well be the result of continual digging and tilling. But polish and edge-rounding also appear on tools which have acute and obtuse angle working surfaces. A tool with a rounded polished edge ceases to cut or plane an would only function when an excess of force and energy was applied by the worker. However, the rounded polished edge will work well as a burnisher. It is difficult to understand why prehistoric man would use an edge until it acquires a polish when a more functional edge could be established by detach- α ment ing a flake to expose a sharp edge.

Diverse functional experiment, were performed over a considerable

period of time - such as cutting antler, bone, grass, hardwood, etc using tools with both acute and obtuse/angle edges. Yet there was *I* · never a sign of poYish on the edge and use flakes were detached only *^I* when the tool was improperly used.

Due to the durability of the stone tool and the amount of use and abuse necessary to establish functional polish or scars, criteria for determining function must be approached with caution. Many tools may have performed their task and been abandoned before they exhibited any function scars or polish. To wit - the ax. When an ax is used, most dulling is due to misuse rather than from chopping clean wood.

He functional experiments were hampered by the lack of functional experiments were hampered by the lack of imperative "know-how" of the aborigine in using lithic tools, and it is doubtful if today we can ever approach his functional skill with

stone implements.

Obtuse-Angle Burin:

The success of using the obtuse angle for forming and shaping by the planeing technique prompted me to experiment with slotting implements. An obtuse-angle burin appeared to be the logical tool to cut strips from antler and bone to make harpoons, needles, awls an

similar implements.

It is a simple task to make a burin by modifying a thin flat flake from a right angle to an acute angle either by percussion or
example of the pressure. But establishing an obtuse angle on the burin becomes and pressure. Howeve heat the burin becomes an pressure. But establishing an obtuse angle on the burin becomes an apparently impossible task. When the worker is making an acute-angle burin, he can strike off a spall $\mathcal{W}^{\mu\nu}$ obtuse angle. But this spall is the bulbar part, so even though the is the bulbar part, so even though t
will be roundly will not out will be round a will not ont on the mass made to make an obtuse-edged buring pout. An effort was made to make an
with an edge with an edge
by detaching a flake of more than 90°. A The platform had to be tilted when pressure was applied the tool would slip to receive the force but this baused the pressure tool would slip by detaching a flake, of note than 90°. The platform had to be tilted
to receive the force but this baused the pressure tool would slip
to receive the force but this baused the pressure tool to stip, or and
interperson to $\frac{1}{2}$ **the percussor to richochet.** At this time, it appears mechanically impossible to make an obtuse-angle burin by either pressure or percussion by the established technique.

This failure caused me to mentally review aboriginal collections examined in the past which might have this characteristic. Dr. Fred , johnson of the Peabody Institute had shown me a handfull of such

flakes from the Arctic which resembled broken ostrich shell and had all margins with double edges broken at 90° . One margin of these flakes had an obtuse angle and the other margin had an acute angle, and ψ oth edges of all margins were 90 $^{\circ}$ to the dorsal and ventral sides and your edges of all maights were yo to the dorsal and ventral. generally have one margin with a 90[°] and a rounded edge, a result of the breaking or snapping process. This breaking or snapping process does not produce a margin with a double 90° edge. So this double 90° angle break presented a question of manufacturing technique. Dr. George Agagino had also sent me a flake assemblage from the Lindenmeier site which contained a number of flakes with this same type of fracture. Ruthann Knudson also had a similar assemblage of flakes e of flakes
ethibiting from the Claypool site which contained a number of flakes double 90[°] angle edge⁵. These were termed pseudo-burins because the fracture force was different than the tethnique applied to make normal burins, which are struck or pressed off longitudinally from the edge of the flake.

~ **J'{** Revised

 $_{\rm U}$

 γ

The shattered flakes of the Peabody collection had the appearance of the debitage of a broken window pane supported by the caseing and broken by the force of a thrown rock or ball. The breakage was caused

by both the support of the cas \oint ing and the force of the projectile. Fractures resulting from this type of breakage commonly have a double 90° edge on one margin.

Using the support and projectile **principle ,** an experiment was made to replicate this style of fracture. An indentation was made in a soft stone to resemble a nutting stone. The flake was then placed over this concavity and a punch of pointed stone or antler was placed on the flake and aligned with the pit, and the punch-struck a sharp force opplied to the blow causing the flake to shatter. The punch $\frac{\partial \mathcal{W}}{\partial n \hat{\sigma}}$ the nutting stone ℓ oncovity produced the desired double 90° edge 5 This type of intentional loges this type of Intentional fracture will produce flakes with right angle breaks and also cause
Insal <u>ourless of the original</u> flake. At will also cause,
the flake to break geometrically into pieces resembling triangles forsal surface of the original flake. ot with both obtuse and acute angles.

> The use of the concavity and the punch may be only one of several ways to produce this distinctive style of fracture. The pseudo-burins must then be selected from the flake shatter which is composed of both acute and obtuse angle burin-like objects. When the pseudo-burins are affixed to a handle with adhesive, the obtuse angle of the pseudo-burin will outlast and out cut burins of 90° or less when used on hard materials .

Because of the infrequent appearance of the classic burinations of tools from Middle America, the unidentified pseudo-burin may have been used to accomplish the same function as the conventional

burin.

 $\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 \\ & & & \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 \\ & & & & \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 & & \mathbb{A}^1 \end{array}$