

# Differential effects of knapping skill on the cultural reproduction of Late Acheulean handaxe morphology: Archaeological and experimental insights

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### **Abstract**

Despite the extensive literature focusing on Acheulean handaxes, especially the sources and meaning of their morphological variability, many aspects of this topic remain elusive. Archaeologists cite many factors that contribute to the considerable variation of handaxe morphology, including knapper skill levels and mental templates. Integrating these two lines of literature into a broader theoretical framework of cultural reproduction, here we present results from a multidisciplinary study of Late Acheulean handaxe-making skill acquisition involving thirty naïve participants trained for up to 90 hours in Late Acheulean style handaxe production and three expert knappers. We compare their handaxe to the Late Acheulean handaxe assemblage from Boxgrove, UK. Through the principal component analysis of morphometric data derived from images, our study suggested that knapper skill levels and mental templates have a relatively clear manifestation in different aspects of handaxe morphology. The former relates to cross-sectional thinning (PC1), while the latter refers to handaxe elongation and pointedness (PC2). Moreover, we also evaluated the effects of training on the differential cultural reproduction of these two aspects using the data from a 90-hour-long knapping skill acquisition experiment. We found that the desired shape of a handaxe can be relatively quickly picked up by novices, while reaching the skill level of modern experts requires more training time than was permitted in this extensive and long-running training program. ¶

**Keywords:** Late Acheulean; Handaxe morphology; Boxgrove; Experimental archaeology;  
**Skill level:** Mental template; Cultural transmission

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## 46 **1 Introduction**

47 The morphological variability of Acheulean handaxes has been one of the most well-studied  
 48 and well-published topics in paleolithic archaeology (Key & Lycett, 2019; Petraglia & Korisettar,  
 49 1998; White, 1998). Despite the recurrent narrative emphasizing the homogeneity and longevity  
 50 of handaxe assemblages on a global scale and the conservatism behind this phenomenon that  
 51 evokes genetic explanations (Corbey et al., 2016; Corbey, 2020; Richerson & Boyd, 2005; Sterelny,  
 52 2004), many researchers have recognized the diversity within what has been deemed as a unified  
 53 Acheulean “tradition” and tried to dissect the sources and meaning of this variation (Lycett &  
 54 Gowlett, 2008; Moncel et al., 2018b, 2018c, 2018a; Nowell, 2002; Nowell & White, 2010; Sharon et al.,  
 55 2011). More specifically, a complex suite of interconnecting factors (Lycett & Cramon-Taubadel,  
 56 2015) have been identified to contribute to handaxe morphological variation, including but not  
 57 limited to raw material variability (Eren et al., 2014; Lycett et al., 2016; McNabb & Cole, 2015;  
 58 Sharon, 2008), percussor properties (Shipton et al., 2009), functional differences (Key et al., 2016;  
 59 Key & Lycett, 2017; Lycett & Gowlett, 2008; Machin et al., 2007; White & Foulds, 2018), reduction  
 60 method/intensity (Shipton et al., 2009; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015), time budgets (Schillinger et  
 61 al., 2014c), learning processes (Kempe et al., 2012; Lycett et al., 2016), social signaling (Kohn &  
 62 Mithen, 1999; Spikins, 2012), aesthetic preferences (Gowlett, 2021; Le Tensorer, 2006), knapper

63 skill levels (Caruana & Herries, 2021; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Stout et al., 2014), and mental  
64 templates (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Hutchence & Scott, 2021; Schillinger et al., 2017).

65 Here we used experimental data from a multidisciplinary study of handaxe-making skill acquisi-  
66 tion (Bayani et al., 2021; Pargeter et al., 2020; Pargeter et al., 2019) to investigate the interaction  
67 between learning processes and the reproduction of specific morphological targets (c.f. “mental  
68 template”). This investigation was motivated by the theoretical expectation that, just as devel-  
69 opmental processes can act to channel biological variation and shape evolutionary trajectories  
70 (Laland et al., 2015), learning challenges might influence cultural evolutionary processes (e.g.,  
71 Schillinger et al., 2014a). Results allowed us to identify particular aspects of handaxe morphology  
72 that are more and less constrained by learning difficulty, thus helping to partition sources of mor-  
73 phological variation (Lycett & Cramon-Taubadel, 2015). By comparing our experimental results  
74 to a large sample of handaxes from the site of Boxgrove, England, we were able to illustrate the  
75 use of this approach assess the presence and nature of culturally reproduced mental templates.  
76 This complements previous work investigated reduction intensity (Shipton & Clarkson, 2015) and  
77 raw material form (García-Medrano et al., 2019) as alternative explanations for morphological  
78 variation and standardization at Boxgrove.

## 79 **1.1 Mental template**

80 In its classical definition, the term mental template indicates that the “idea of the proper form  
81 of an object exists in the mind of the maker, and when this idea is expressed in tangible form in  
82 raw material, an artifact results” (Deetz, 1967: 45). This concept lies at the very foundation of the  
83 cultural-historical approach in that the identification of archaeological cultures is based on the  
84 existence of distinct mental templates in a given spatial-temporal framework, which also great  
85 overlaps with some core assumptions of the more modern approach of cultural transmission  
86 theory (Eerkens & Lipo, 2005, 2007). Early researchers, whether explicitly or implicitly, often  
87 endorsed this conceptual framework and actively applied it in the typological analysis of handaxes  
88 at the regional level (Roe, 1969; Wenban-Smith et al., 2000; Wenban-Smith, 2004). Combined with  
89 the production of large flakes, the emergence of mental templates (or “imposed form”) has been  
90 recognized as a major technological innovation of the Acheulean compared with the Oldowan  
91 (Isaac, 1986).

92 For a decade or so, this concept has been less frequently used, since it was criticized for a) its

93 normative and static assumption (Lyman & O'Brien, 2004), b) ignoring other competing factors  
94 such as raw material constraints (White, 1995), and c) being constrained by the basic fracture  
95 mechanics and design space of bifacial technology (Moore, 2011; Moore & Perston, 2016). A more  
96 recent approach has been to identify morphological "design imperatives" derived from utilitarian  
97 and ergonomic principles, which refers to a set of minimum features shared by all handaxes  
98 including their glob-but, forward extension, support for the working edge, lateral extension,  
99 thickness adjustment, and skewness (Gowlett, 2006; Wynn & Gowlett, 2018). The major difference  
100 between the concepts of design imperatives and mental templates lies in the fact that the former  
101 does not necessarily require the presence of explicit internal representations of form, where  
102 the shape of handaxes can instead emerge "through the coalescence of ergonomic needs in the  
103 manipulation of large cutting tools (Wynn, 2021: 185)." Following this discussion, Kuhn (2020:  
104 168-170) developed a complimentary framework by explicitly identifying how different factors  
105 constrain the morphology of the design target, such as production constraint (raw materials) and  
106 functional constraint (mechanical and symbolic factors).

107 Current conceptions of a "mental template" are thus more nuanced than the idea of a fully speci-  
108 fied image in the mind of the maker that is directly expressed in material form and transmitted  
109 between minds. For example, Hutchence and Scott (2021), leveraged the theory of "community  
110 of practice" (Wenger, 1998) to explain the stability of Boxgrove handaxe design across multiple  
111 generations. From this perspective, social norms behind the consolidated material expressions  
112 were developed and negotiated by individuals in a group who have a shared history of learning.  
113 They further emphasized that emergent actions of individual knappers also contribute greatly to  
114 the shape of Boxgrove handaxes but they were simultaneously constrained by the imposition of  
115 social norms. This view also somewhat echoes the "individualized memic construct" proposed by  
116 McNabb et al. (2004), which highlighted the influence of individual agency that is complementary  
117 to the traditionally favored explanation of social learning. As for the critique towards confounding  
118 factors explaining morphological variability, raw material is often treated as an important variable  
119 to be controlled at the very beginning of a research design focusing on mental templates. This is  
120 best exemplified by an experimental study of García-Medrano et al. (2019), where they carefully  
121 chose experimental nodules mirroring those found in the Boxgrove archaeological assemblage  
122 in composition, size, and shape. Regarding the critique of design space constraint, Moore and  
123 Perston's experiment (2016) suggested that bifaces can be manufactured through flake removals  
124 dictated by a random algorithm. However, Moore (2020: 656-657) also suggested that these

125 random experiments cannot produce “attributes like the congruent symmetries of handaxes seen  
126 in the Late Acheulean.” In short, when exercised with proper caution, the concept of mental  
127 templates still has its value in our study of handaxe morphological variation, which can be fur-  
128 ther dissected into a series of shape variables corresponding to pointedness, elongation, and  
129 cross-sectional thinning among other things.

130 In short, contemporary approaches to the concept of a mental template emphasize the causal  
131 importance of production process and constraints and the interaction between individual and  
132 group level phenomena. We again note the striking similarity of the perspectives to the concept  
133 of "constructive development" as a source of guided variation in evolution biology ([Laland et al.,](#)  
134 [2015](#)). We thus sought to further develop these perspectives by directly investigating the effects of  
135 learning difficulty and skill acquisition on the reproduction of experimentally controlled design  
136 targets.

## 137 1.2 Knapping skill

138 Following the reconceptualization of the mental template as a more flexible and interactive  
139 concept, one possible way of defining skill is the capacity for a knapper to realize mental templates  
140 using the resources available ([Roux et al., 1995](#): 66). At the same time, however, the technological  
141 choices defining a particular metal template may themselves be shaped by learning challenges  
142 and costs ([Henrich, 2015](#); [Roux, 1990](#)), implying the possibility of skill development as a constraint  
143 factor on artifact form that is not highlighted even in comprehensive literature review on this  
144 topic ([Kuhn, 2020](#): 168-170). This version of conceptualization, particularly relevant when it  
145 comes to motor skills such as knapping, can be dismantled into two mutually dependent aspects,  
146 namely the intentional aspect (goal/strategic planning) and the operational aspect (means/motor  
147 execution) ([Connolly & Dalgleish, 1989](#)). It also roughly corresponds to the well-known dichotomy  
148 developed by French lithic analysts of "*connaissance*" (abstract knowledge) and "*savoir-faire*"  
149 (practical know-how) ([Pelegrin, 1993](#)). As Stout ([2002](#): 694) noted, the acquisition of skill is deeply  
150 rooted in its social context, and it is not composed of “some rigid motor formula” but “how to  
151 act in order to solve a problem”. This ecological notion of skill somewhat mirrors Hutchence  
152 and Scott’s ([2021](#)) reconceptualization of the mental template in that they both refute the idea  
153 that technology is simply an internal program expressed by the mind and they prefer a dynamic  
154 approach emphasizing the interaction between perception and action. The manifestations of

155 skill in materialized form display a great amount of variation, but ethnoarchaeological studies  
156 have repeatedly suggested that skills can be improved through practice as perceived by local  
157 practitioners. It is thus possible in experimental and ethnographic settings to evaluate the skill  
158 levels reflected in knapping products (Roux et al., 1995; Stout, 2002).

159 When contextual information is less readily available as in the Late Acheulean archaeological  
160 assemblages, how to properly operationalize and measure knapping skills has been a methodolog-  
161 ical issue receiving much attention among archaeologists (Bamforth & Finlay, 2008; Kolhatkar,  
162 2022). In addition to measurements that can be almost applied in any lithic technological system  
163 such as raw materials, platform preparation, as well as hinges, in the context of handaxe tech-  
164 nology, symmetry (Hodgson, 2015; Hutchence & Debackere, 2019) and cross-sectional thinning  
165 (Caruana, 2020; Pargeter et al., 2019; Stout et al., 2014; Whittaker, 2004: 180-182) have been  
166 frequently quoted as reliable and distinctive indicators of the skill level as supported by several  
167 experimental studies. These two features have also been commonly used as standards for dividing  
168 Early Acheulean and Late Acheulean (Callahan, 1979; Clark, 2001; Schick & Toth, 1993).

### 169 1.3 Cultural reproduction

170 The cultural reproduction, or cultural transmission as described in standard cultural evolutionary  
171 literature (Eerkens & Lipo, 2005, 2007), of mental templates and skill levels makes them reach  
172 beyond individual-level practice and form a repetitive pattern that can be identified in archaeo-  
173 logical records. Nonetheless, the abstract shape of handaxe as a mental template that is often  
174 pulled away from its original substrate has been frequently treated as the main research subject of  
175 cultural transmission experiments (Schillinger et al., 2014c, 2017, 2015), while how knapping skill  
176 as another source of variation is reproduced during the learning process and how it moderates  
177 the material manifestation of mental templates has been rarely discussed. The ignorance of  
178 the latter becomes one of motivations behind our terminological choice of “reproduction” over  
179 “transmission”, where the former implies more than just the copying of an static image with  
180 information loss (Liu & Stout, 2022; Stout, 2021). This reframing essentially echoes the stance of  
181 extended evolutionary synthesis (EES) on inclusive inheritance that phenotypes are not inherited  
182 but reconstructed in development (Laland et al., 2015: 5), which has also received more attention  
183 recently in the domain of cultural evolution (Charbonneau & Strachan, 2022; Strachan et al.,  
184 2021).

185 Centering around the concept of cultural reproduction, we aim to explore the possibility of  
186 dissecting the interaction of skill level and mental template through a comparative study of an  
187 archaeological handaxe assemblage known for its remarkable high skill level, a reference handaxe  
188 collection produced by modern knapping experts, and an experimental handaxe sample pro-  
189 duced by modern novice knappers. We generated the novice handaxe collection from a 90-hour  
190 skill acquisition experiment providing the opportunity to introduce the diachronic dimension of  
191 training time and interrogate its impact on the variables of interest. As such, our theory-driven  
192 data-informed project has the following two interconnected research questions: 1) What can the  
193 deep structure revealed through the multivariable analysis of handaxe morphometric data inform  
194 us on the material manifestation of knapping skills and mental templates? Our presumption here  
195 is that the morphometric variables showing overlap between Boxgrove and expert samples while  
196 being markedly different from novice samples reflect skill level differences, and all three group  
197 should show a similar mental template since this is a common target. 2) Does training has a  
198 differential effect in terms of the reproduction of knapping skill level and mental templates among  
199 novices? Our expectation is that throughout the training the novice samples should become more  
200 similar to expert samples in both skill level and mental template, but the acquisition of the former  
201 aspect will be more challenging and thereby slower than the latter aspect. This hypothesis is  
202 informed by the previous study of Pargeter et al. (2020) showing that in handaxe manufacture  
203 novices' predictions of the contour of flakes to be removed are highly similar to those of expert  
204 knappers, while novices do not have the right forces and accuracy to successfully remove their  
205 target flakes to produce a nice handaxe.

## 206 2 Materials and methods

### 207 2.1 Boxgrove handaxe collection

208 The archaeological site of Boxgrove is located in the former Eartham quarry, Boxgrove, West Sussex,  
209 featuring a long sequence of Middle Pleistocene deposits (Pope et al., 2020; Roberts & Parfitt,  
210 1998). This 500-ka-old site has documented exceedingly rich details of Lower Paleolithic hominin  
211 subsistence behaviors (Smith, 2013, 2012) and their paleoenvironmental contexts (Holmes et  
212 al., 2010; Preece & Parfitt, 2022). In addition to the presence of one of the earliest hominin fossil  
213 (tentatively assigned to *Homo heidelbergensis*, Hillson et al., 2010; Lockey et al., 2022; Roberts et  
214 al., 1994) and bone assemblages with anthropogenic modifications in northern Europe (Bello

<sup>215</sup> et al., 2009), Boxgrove is mostly known for its large sample size of Late Acheulean-style flint  
<sup>216</sup> handaxes and the high skill level reflected in their manufacture (**Figure 1**). As such, it has received  
<sup>217</sup> wide research attention in the past two decades regarding the relationships between technology,  
<sup>218</sup> cognition, and skills (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Iovita et al., 2017; Iovita & McPherron, 2011; Key,  
<sup>219</sup> 2019; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015; Stout et al., 2014). To identify the morphological manifestation of  
<sup>220</sup> knappers' skill level in our study, we selected a complete handaxe assemblage (n=326) previously  
<sup>221</sup> analyzed and reported in digital formats by Iovita and McPherron (2011), which is currently  
<sup>222</sup> curated at the Franks House of the British Museum (Iovita et al., 2017). The digital photographs  
<sup>223</sup> are taken of each handaxe at a 90° angle, which was oriented with the tip to the right of the photos,  
<sup>224</sup> and the camera faces the most convex surface of the handaxe (Iovita & McPherron, 2011).

## **Boxgrove**



## **Expert**



— 5 cm —

## **Novice**



Figure 1: A selection of Boxgrove handaxes and modern replicas produced by experts and novices.

225 **2.2 Experimental handaxe collection**

226 The handaxe experimental replicas used in this study comprised two sub-collection ([Figure 1](#)).  
227 The first sub-collection includes 10 handaxes knapped by three expert knappers, including Bruce  
228 Bradley (n=4), John Lord (n=3), and Dietrich Stout (n=3) ([Stout et al., 2014](#)). These handaxes  
229 were made for previous research projects, which similarly aimed to approximate ‘Late Acheulean’  
230 handaxes explicitly comparable to the Boxgrove assemblage ([Faisal et al., 2010; Stout et al., 2014;](#)  
231 [Stout et al., 2011](#)). The second sub-collection is produced from a 90-hour handaxe knapping skill  
232 acquisition experiment ([Bayani et al., 2021; Pargeter et al., 2020; Pargeter et al., 2019](#)), where 30  
233 adults with no previous experience in knapping were recruited from Emory University and its  
234 surrounding communities and requested to make 132 handaxes in total. Among these 30 adult  
235 participants, 17 have gone through multiple one-to-one or group training sessions that amounted  
236 to 89 hours in maximum, while the remaining 13 were assigned to the controlled group, where  
237 no formal training is given. As part of the preparation efforts, the experimental team spalled  
238 the Norfolk flints acquired through [Neolithics.com](#) into flat blanks of similar size and shape for  
239 training and assessments. The mechanical properties of these raw materials are comparable to  
240 the ones used in Boxgrove in that they are both fine-grained and highly predictable in fracturing  
241 process.

242 In the knapping skill acquisition experiment, all research participants participated in the initial  
243 assessment (assessment 1 in our data set) before formal training, where they each produced a  
244 handaxe after watching three 15-minute videos of Late Acheulean style handaxes demonstrated  
245 by expert knappers and examining four Late Acheulean style handaxe replicas from our expert  
246 sample. Training was provided by verbal instruction and support from the second author, an  
247 experienced knapping instructor ([Khreisheh et al., 2013](#)) with 10 years knapping practice and  
248 specific knowledge of Late Acheulean technology including the Boxgrove handaxe assemblage.  
249 She was present at all training sessions to provide help and instruction to participants. All train-  
250 ing occurred under controlled conditions at the outdoor knapping area of Emory’s Paleolithic  
251 Technology Lab, with knapping tools and raw materials provided. All participants were instructed  
252 in basic knapping techniques including how to select appropriate percussors, initiate flaking  
253 on a nodule, maintain the correct flaking gestures and angles, prepare flake platforms, visualize  
254 outcomes, deal with raw material imperfections, and correct mistakes. Handaxe-specific instruc-  
255 tion included establishment and maintenance of a bifacial plane, cross-sectional thinning, and

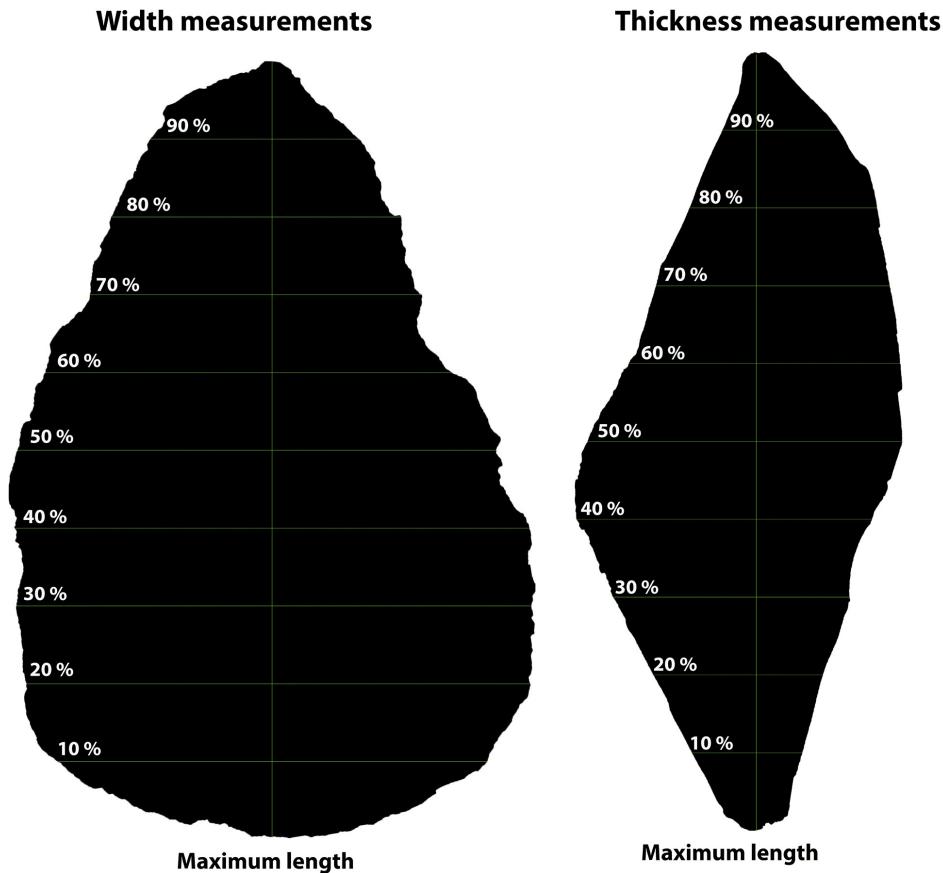
256 overall shaping. The training emphasized both aspects of handaxe making technical skill (the  
257 importance of producing thin pieces with centered edges) as well as mental template related  
258 markers (symmetrical edges).

259 Subsequently, the 17 participants in the experimental group were assessed after every ten hours  
260 of the cumulative learning period, where each of them was requested to produce a handaxe for  
261 expert knapper's (N. Khreisheh) review, leading to the compilation of a data set composing 9  
262 assessments in total. It should be also noted that 6 out of 17 participants dropped out of the  
263 research before the final assessment due to personal reasons. To detect the effect of training  
264 on skill level and mental template, we reorganized our assessment classification scheme and  
265 combined it into three broader categories, namely pre-training (assessment 1), early training  
266 (assessment 2-5), and late training (assessment 6-9), which helps increase the sample size of  
267 the measured intervals. A more detailed experimental protocol can be assessed in one of our  
268 published papers ([Pargeter et al., 2019](#)).

### 269 **2.3 Lithic analysis**

270 To better understand the morphological variation of Boxgrove handaxe collection, we adopted a  
271 standardized analytical procedure to extract the morphometric information from 752 photos of  
272 the studied samples ([Iovita & McPherron, 2011](#)), which include both the front and lateral views  
273 of a given specimen. First, we used Adobe Photoshop to conduct a batch transformation of  
274 the samples' pixel scale into a real-world measurement scale based on the fixed photographic  
275 setting. This is then followed by the batch conversion of color photographs to a black-and-white  
276 binary format. Subsequently, we cropped the silhouettes of handaxes one by one using the  
277 Quick Selection Tool in Adobe Photoshop. The metric measurements were conducted in ImageJ  
278 ([Rueden et al., 2017](#)), where we employed a custom ImageJ script ([Pargeter et al., 2019](#)) to mea-  
279 sure the maximum length, width, and thickness of a given silhouette. The width and thickness  
280 measurements are taken at 10% increments of length starting at the tip of each handaxe (**Figure**  
281 [2](#)), which eventually leads to 19 morphometric variables in total (1 length measurement, 9 width  
282 measurements, and 9 thickness measurements). Finally, we calculated the geometric means of all  
283 19 linear measurements to create a scale-free data set that preserves the individual morphological  
284 variation at the same time ([Lycett et al., 2006](#)). This allometric scaling procedure controls for size  
285 variation which may come from initial blanks and/or reduction intensity (shaping/resharpening).

286 Notably, Shipton and Clarkson (2015) previously found that reduction intensity does not have a  
287 strong impact on the shape of handaxes. The same procedure was also applied to the morphome-  
288 tric analyses of the experimental handaxe collection, which was partially published in Pargeter et  
289 al. (2019).



290 Figure 2: A visual demonstration of the handaxe measurement protocol using Image J (after Pargeter et al. 2019: Figure 5).

## 290 2.4 Statistical analyses

291 We use the statistical programming language R 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021) to conduct statistical  
292 analyses and data visualization in this study, particularly the R packages “FactoMineR” (Lê et  
293 al., 2008) and “ggstatsplot” (Patil, 2021). As the initial step, simple visualization techniques such  
294 scatter plots are frequently used to explore the relationships between variables of interest. Given  
295 the number of variables involved in this study, we used principal component analysis (PCA) to  
296 reduce the dimension and identify the possible patterns in this morphometric data set, which  
297 is one of the most used techniques in similar studies (García-Medrano, Maldonado-Garrido,  
298 et al., 2020; García-Medrano, Ashton, et al., 2020; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Iovita & McPherron,

299 2011; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015; Stout et al., 2014). To detect the effect of training on novices' 300 performance as compared with archaeological samples and handaxe made by experts, we also 301 compare the corresponding metrics built on PCA across different training periods and across all 302 groups using the Games-Howell nonparametric post-hoc test. Compared with other nonpara- 303 metric tests frequently used in archaeological research for multiple group comparison such as 304 Tukey's test, Games-Howell test does not rely on the assumptions of sample normality, and equal 305 sample sizes and equal variance are not necessary conditions to perform this test. The sample 306 size of each compared group can be as low as 6 (Games & Howell, 1976; Sauder & DeMars, 2019). 307 Lastly, we compare the delta weight, as defined by the difference between initial nodule weight 308 and end product weight, between these groups to understand the effect of reduction intensity 309 on morphological variation. This study adheres to the principles of reproducibility and data 310 transparency of archaeological research by depositing all the codes and data sets involved in an 311 open-access online repository (Marwick, 2017), which are available as supplementary materials 312 and can be accessed through the author's Github (<https://github.com/Raylc/Boxgrove-Exp>).

### 313 3 Results

#### 314 3.1 Principal component analysis

315 Our analysis suggested that the first two components already explain 77.2% of the variation for the 316 entire morphometric data set composed of 19 variables (Figure 3), which is a rather reasonable 317 variance ratio to avoid overfitting. Variable loadings (Table 1) indicate that the first principal 318 component (PC1) captures relative cross-sectional thickness ("refinement"). It is positively corre- 319 lated with all thickness measurements while negatively correlated with all other measurements. 320 A higher PC1 value thus indicates a handaxe that is thicker relative to width and length, and vice 321 versa. The second principal component (PC2) tracks elongation and pointedness, as indicated 322 by a positive covariance of maximum length and bottom width/thickness. As PC2 increases, a 323 handaxe will be relatively longer and more convergent from the broad base to the tip. Thus, PC1 324 corresponds to cross-sectional thinning and PC2 to a narrowing of the tip relative to length and 325 base dimensions.

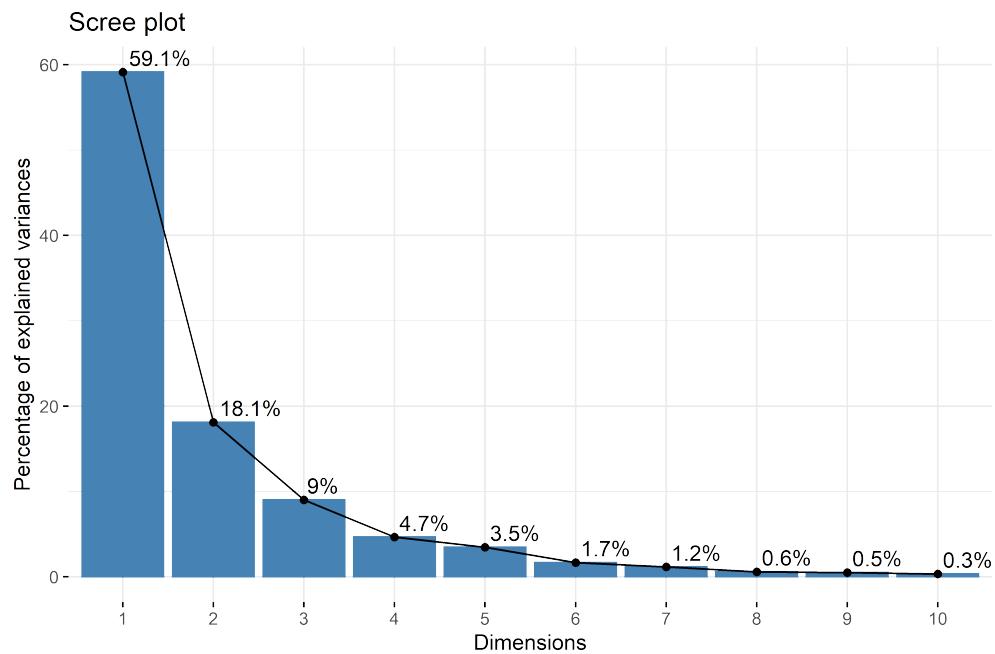


Figure 3: A scree plot showing the percentage of explained variances of the first 10 principal components.

Table 1: Variable loadings for the first two principal components. PC1 (Dim.1) is positively correlated with all thickness-related variables and negatively correlated with all width-related variables and the maximum length. PC2 (Dim.2) is positively with bottom width and thickness variables as well as the maximum length and negatively correlated with width and thickness variables of the tip area.

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Dim.1</b>	<b>Dim.2</b>
width_90%	-0.1131	-0.1256
width_80%	-0.1420	-0.1327
width_70%	-0.1684	-0.1232
width_60%	-0.1867	-0.0967
width_50%	-0.2037	-0.0652
width_40%	-0.2121	-0.0197
width_30%	-0.2083	0.0233
width_20%	-0.1886	0.0661
width_10%	-0.1447	0.0806
thickness_90%	0.0143	-0.0240
thickness_80%	0.0247	-0.0227
thickness_70%	0.0436	-0.0094
thickness_60%	0.0668	0.0048
thickness_50%	0.0894	0.0261
thickness_40%	0.1083	0.0485
thickness_30%	0.1288	0.0629
thickness_20%	0.1444	0.0659
thickness_10%	0.1309	0.0487
max_length	-0.3626	0.2507

326 A closer look at the principal component scatter plot ([Figure 4](#)) yields the clustering of different  
 327 groups of handaxes. The majority of Boxgrove handaxes occupy an area featuring negative values  
 328 of both PC1 and PC2. The expert group is similar to the Boxgrove group in PC1, while the former  
 329 has a relatively higher PC2 value than the latter on average. The group of novice displays the  
 330 highest ranges in both PC1 and PC2 values according to the scatter plot, however, it is rather  
 331 pronounced that most handaxes made by novices have a positive PC1 value that is different from  
 332 both the groups of Boxgrove and experts.

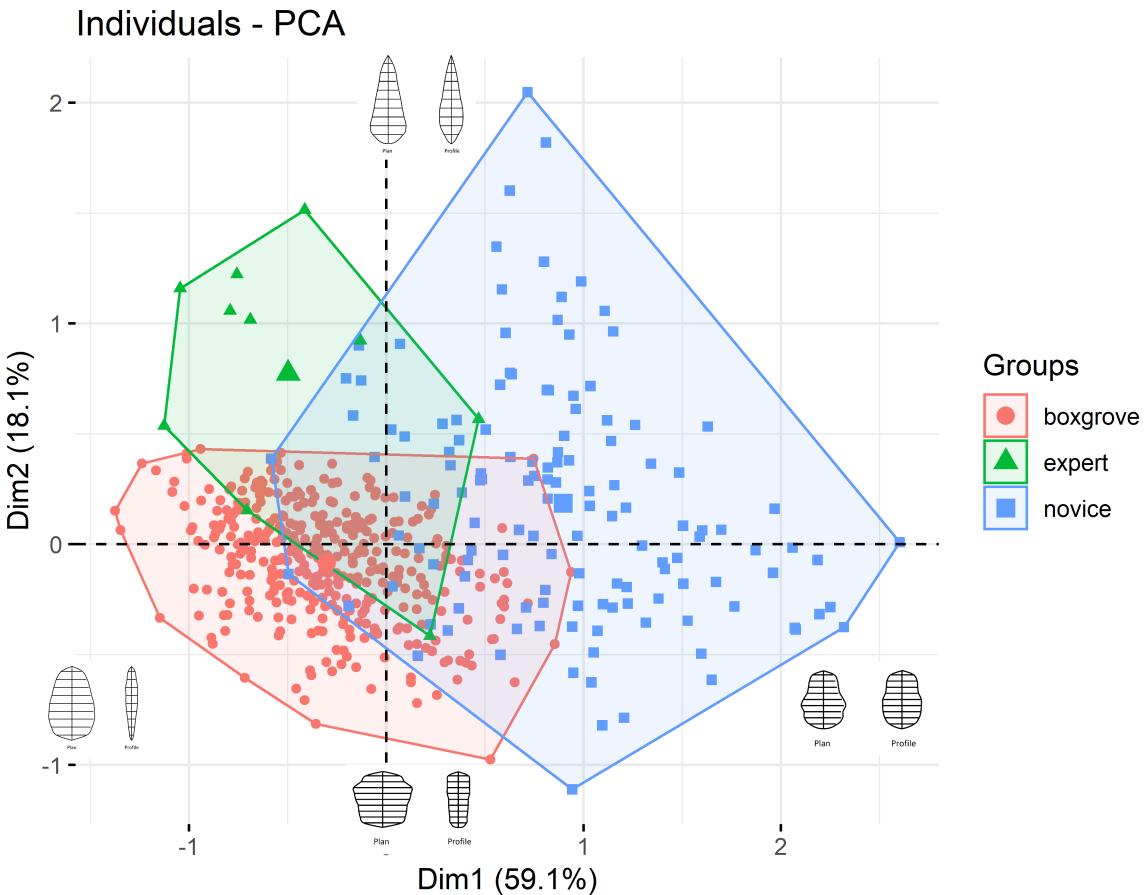


Figure 4: A principal component scatter plot of handaxes from the groups of Boxgrove (red, n=326), expert (green, n=10), and novice (blue, n=132). The four images illustrate simplified plan and profile morphology of handaxes displaying extreme PC values (e.g., The leftmost and uppermost handaxes respectively display the highest PC1 and PC2 value, and vice versa).

333 In addition, visual inspection of the principle component scatter plot (Figure 4) suggested that  
 334 PC1 and PC2 might be negatively correlated within the Boxgrove and Expert groups. To test this,  
 335 we conducted a series of exploratory plotting and statistical analyses of the PC values of three  
 336 groups analyzed in our analysis (Figure 5). Across all three groups, a negative correlation has  
 337 been displayed between the PC1 and PC2 values, although this trend is not statistically significant  
 338 ( $r=-0.41$ ,  $p= 0.24$ ) in the expert group, probably because of its small sample size.

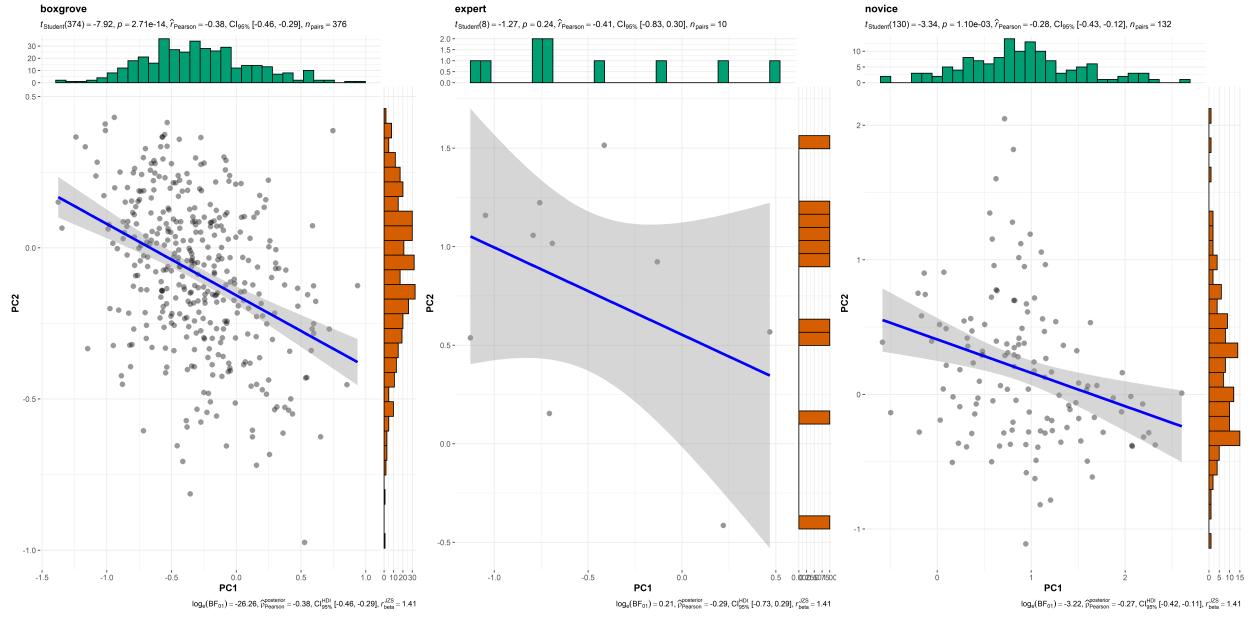


Figure 5: A scatter plot showing the correlation between PC1 and PC2 respectively in the groups of Boxgrove (left,  $n=326$ ), expert (middle,  $n=10$ ), and novice (right,  $n=132$ ). The upper left area in each individual plot displays statistical reporting from a frequentist perspective, including the student-t test statistics, p-value, Pearson correlation coefficient, confidence interval, and sample size. The lower right area in each individual plot displays statistical reporting from a Bayesian perspective, including the natural logarithm of Bayes factor, posterior type and estimate, credible interval, and prior type and value.

### 339 3.2 Effects of training

340 We extracted the PC1 and PC2 values of individual handaxes and compared them between  
 341 different groups, where the novice group was divided into three sub-groups based on their  
 342 training stages as specified in the method section. As such, we found that for PC1 values (**Figure**  
 343 **6**), the only two group comparisons that are **not** statistically significant are the one between  
 344 Boxgrove and Expert ( $t = -1.65, p > 0.05$ ) and the one between Early training and Late training  
 345 stages ( $t = -0.649, p > 0.05$ ), which at least partially confirms our visual observation of the  
 346 general PCA scatter plot. Likewise, for PC2 values (**Figure 7**), the group comparison between  
 347 the Early training and Late stages again is not statistically significant ( $t = 0.333, p > 0.05$ ). An  
 348 unexpected result is that the mean PC2 value difference between the Pre-training group and  
 349 Boxgrove is also not statistically significant ( $t = -0.818, p > 0.05$ ). These results essentially  
 350 suggest that there is a significant difference between the pre-training group and post-training  
 351 groups in both PC1 (thinning) and PC2 (pointedness). However, the effects of training across  
 352 different assessment periods on both dimensions are not significant. Regarding the delta weight  
 353 of different groups, our analysis (**Figure 8**) suggests that there is a significant difference between  
 354 the pre-training group and Late training group, while all other pairwise group comparison results

355 are insignificant. It can also be inferred that the expert group display a higher variability in terms  
 356 of delta weight compared with novices.

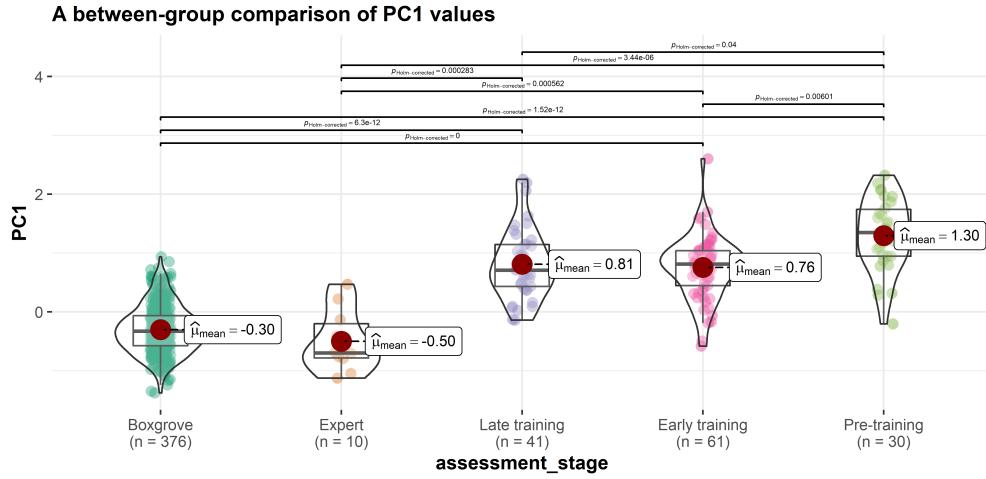


Figure 6: A between-group comparison of PC1 values.

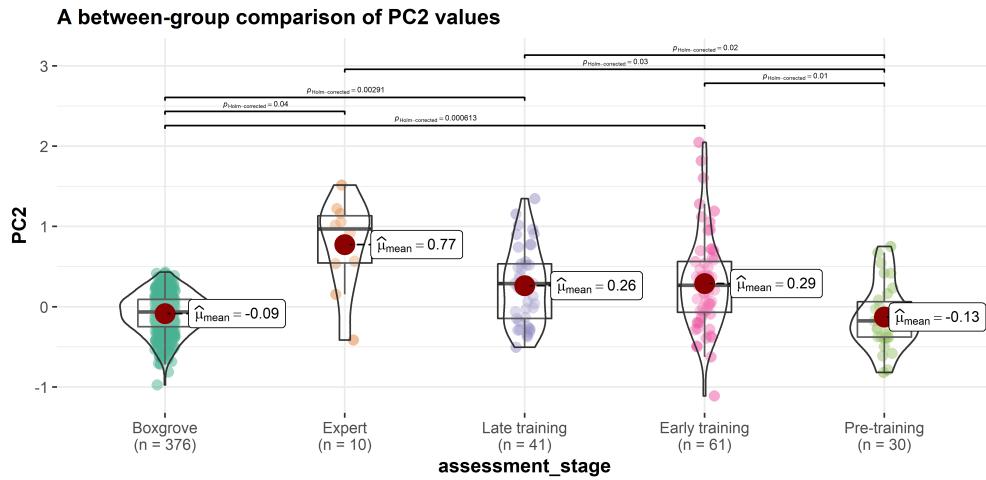


Figure 7: A between-group comparison of PC2 values.

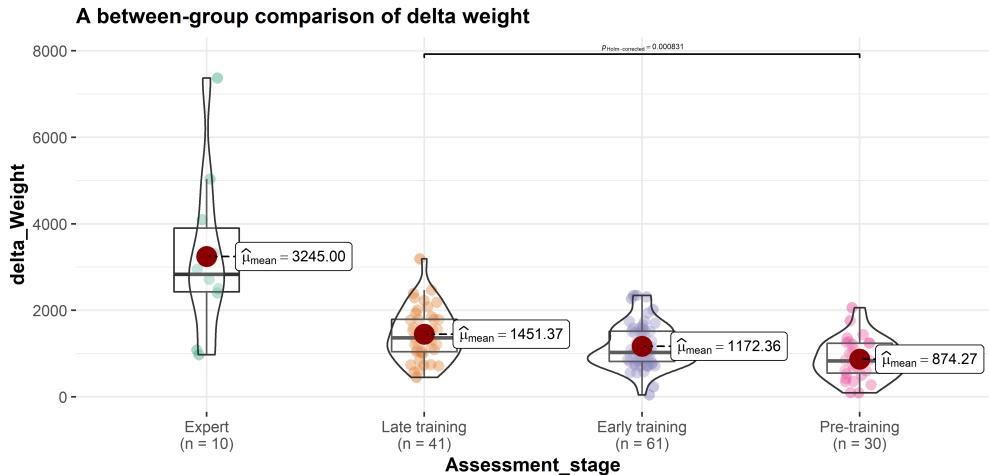


Figure 8: A comparison of the delta weight between the pre-training, early training, late training, and the expert group.

## 357 4 Discussion

358 Our study suggests that skill can differentially affect the expression and of different aspects of  
 359 artifact mental templates, potentially biasing processes of cultural reproduction. In the case of  
 360 handaxe morphology, we found that skill is more highly constraining of cross-sectional thinning  
 361 (PC1) than it is of handaxe elongation and pointedness (PC2). This is in accordance with the  
 362 existing literature on handaxe knapping skill (Callahan, 1979; Caruana, 2020; Stout et al., 2014),  
 363 and supports the use of cross-sectional thinning as a robust indicator of skill level at Boxgrove.  
 364 It also suggests that cultural evolutionary approaches to handaxe morphology should consider  
 365 technological choices about investment in skill acquisition (Pargeter et al., 2019) as a directional  
 366 influence alongside random copy error (Eerkens & Lipo, 2005) as sources of variation. In contrast,  
 367 we found morphological targets not requiring cross-sectional thinning (elongation and point-  
 368 edness (PC2)) to be less constrained by skill. These aspects of morphology might thus provide a  
 369 clearer signal of “arbitrary” cultural variation and accumulating copy error. Notably, Boxgrove  
 370 handaxes are highly constrained along PC2 compared to our experimental samples, in keeping  
 371 with prior arguments that production at this site adhered to of a well-defined mental template  
 372 (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Shipton & White, 2020).

373 Thinning is regarded as a technique requiring a high knapping skill level because it requires one  
 374 to carefully detach flakes in an invasive manner while not breaking the handaxe into several  
 375 pieces, serving the purpose of achieving the desired convexity and/or volume. This procedure

376 involves precise control of striking forces, strategic choice of platform external angle, and attentive  
377 preparation of bifacial intersection plane, all of which were part of our experimental training  
378 program ([Callahan, 1979](#); [Caruana, 2022](#); [Pargeter et al., 2020](#); [Shipton et al., 2013](#); [Stout et al.,](#)  
379 [2014](#)). Experimental studies have also shown that the thinning stage of handaxe produce often  
380 involves the use of soft hammers, which is also supported by indirect archaeological evidence of  
381 flake attributes from Boxgrove ([Roberts & Parfitt, 1998](#): 384-394; [Roberts & Pope, 2009](#)), although  
382 the validity of differentiating purcussor types (hard hammerstone, soft hammerstone, and antler  
383 hammer) based on flake attributes has been challenged by other experimental studies([Driscoll &](#)  
384 [García-Rojas, 2014](#)). It should be noted that both our experts and novices frequently used soft  
385 hammers in the production of experimental assemblages. In the skill acquisition experiments,  
386 novice knappers were explicitly taught to switch to the soft hammer for thinning purposes, but  
387 some of them did not follow the instruction during the assessment. On the other hand, it has also  
388 been shown that hard hammers can also be used to achieve similar thinning results ([Bradley &](#)  
389 [Sampson, 1986](#); [Pelcin, 1997](#)), and the replicas produced by Bruce Bradley in our expert reference  
390 collection did not involve the use of soft hammers.

391 Given the dissimilarity of PC2 (elongation and pointedness) values between archaeological and  
392 experimental samples and its similarity among modern knappers, we argue that this dimension  
393 reflects different mental templates, where the Boxgrove assemblage displays an ovate shape  
394 featuring a wider tip while the experimental assemblages are characterized by a more pointed  
395 shape with a longer central axis. It should be noted that a thin cross section as measured by  
396 PC1 could also be part of a mental template or design target and was explicitly instructed by  
397 our expert instructor to novices, however, novices cannot fully understand nor achieve this  
398 technological goal due to the constraint of skill level, making it a robust indicator of the latter.  
399 Our results regarding the ovate plan morphology of the Boxgrove assemblage generally supports  
400 what have been reported by Shipton and White ([2020](#)) as well as Garcia-Medrano et al. ([2019](#)).  
401 The finding that the expert group has a mental template different from the Boxgrove assemblage  
402 is rather surprising since they were requested to mimic Boxgrove handaxes, a potential reason  
403 of which could be that these expert didn't have Boxgrove handaxes at hand as model during the  
404 manufacture and thus followed their vague memory of a "representative teardrop Late Acheulean  
405 handaxe." In general, this pattern may reflect a divergence of group-level aesthetic choices as  
406 expected under the theoretical framework of the communities of practice ([Wenger, 1998](#)), which  
407 could potentially provide an mechanistic explanation to some macro-level cultural phenomena

408 such as regionalization (Ashton & Davis, 2021; Davis & Ashton, 2019; García-Medrano et al.,  
409 2022; Shipton & White, 2020). The most common form of learning in the experiment occurred in  
410 the group condition, where the instructor, as the competent group member, directed the joint  
411 enterprise through actively teaching multiple novices at the same time. Meanwhile, novices had  
412 the chance to also communicate and learn from their peers, producing a shared repertoire of  
413 artifacts and actions. Unfortunately, the handaxe data from the instructor (N. Khreisheh) are  
414 unavailable, but it should be noted that the instructor has learned how to knap and how to teach  
415 knapping from one of our expert knapper (Bruce Bradley). This cascading effect of social learning  
416 might explain why there is a shared mental template between the expert group and the novice  
417 group after training.

418 The negative correlation between the PC1 and PC2 values revealed a hidden structural constraint  
419 regarding the relationship between cross-sectional thinning and the imposed form. Our results  
420 (**Figure 5**) suggested thinner handaxes (low PC1 value) are generally more pointed/less ovate (high  
421 PC2 value), which was first reported in Crompton and Gowlett's (1993) pioneering study on the  
422 allometry of Kilombe handaxes. In the thinning phase of handaxe making, a knapper must strike  
423 flakes that travel more than one half way across the surface while not breaking the handaxe into  
424 half (1979: 90). As a corollary, we speculate that it would be easier to perform thinning if the plan  
425 shape of a handaxe is narrower and more pointed, echoing the high technological difficulty of  
426 making large yet thin bifacial points as perceived by American hobbyist flintknappers (Whittaker,  
427 2004: 180-182). It is possible that such constraints help to explain why our novice knappers on  
428 average produced more handaxes in similar shapes to those preferred by modern expert knappers,  
429 however, this clearly does not explain the design target at Boxgrove. Given the ovate forms of the  
430 Boxgrove assemblage, it thus requires a high skill level to overcome this structural constraint to  
431 produce thin yet wide handaxes as demonstrated by the Boxgrove knappers. This also provides  
432 an alternative explanation to the social transmission of form for the experimental convergence  
433 on pointed forms. In this comparative context, it would only be the Boxgrove assemblage that  
434 provided evidence of social conformity on a more difficult target shape.

435 In terms of our second research question, this study shows that training does have an immediate  
436 intervention effect (pre-training vs. post-training) in both PC1 (skill level) and PC2 (mental tem-  
437 plate). Nonetheless, once the training has been initiated, its effects across different assessments  
438 on both dimensions are rather non-significant. When the performance of experts is used as a

reference point here, we can see that for PC2 no significance difference is detected between early training, late training, and expert group, while for PC1 the expert group is clearly different from the training groups, supporting our hypothesis in terms of the differential cultural reproduction of mental templates and skill level. This finding provides a parallel line of evidence that corroborates what has been suggested in Pargeter et al. (2019) that 90 hours of training for handaxe making is still not enough for novices to reach the skill level as reflected in expert knappers, even considering the massive social support involved in the experiment set up including the direct and deliberate pedagogy and the simplified raw material procurement and preparation procedures. Methodologically speaking, this study also demonstrated that the pattern revealed by the multivariate analysis of morphometric data can nicely match with the expert knapper's 5 point grading scale of novices' knapping performances that takes multiple factors into consideration, including outcome, perceptual motor execution, and strategic understanding (See Table 2 of 2019 for more details).

Moreover, this follow-up project further adds the samples produced by the Late Acheulean toolmaker as a new benchmark to deepen our understanding of this issue. As previously shown in Key's (2019) previous finding regarding Boxgrove, it is noteworthy how constrained the range of Boxgrove assemblage morphological variation is as measured by both PC1 and PC2 even when compared with the modern expert group (Figure 4), especially given the fact that it has the largest sample size among all studied groups. Some potential explanations for this phenomenon include 1) the strong idiosyncrasy of individual expert knappers shaped by their own unique learning and practice experience; 2) the present-day skill shortage of our expert knapper as compared with Boxgrove knappers despite their multiple years of knapping practice (Milks, 2019); and/or 3) modern knappers' skill level was affected by time constraints when they were requested to produce the reference collections (Lewis et al., 2022; Schillinger et al., 2014c).

The pre-training group is unexpectedly similar to the Boxgrove group in PC2 because these novices lack the ability to effectively reduce the nodules, which are typically flat pre-prepared cortical flakes, to the desired form (Figure 9). If the given nodules already possess an oval morphology like those presented in the Boxgrove assemblage, it is likely the form of end products knapped by novices in the pre-training group will remain roughly unchanged (Winton, 2005: 113). This explanation is also supported by the comparison of average delta weight, defined as the difference between the weight of handaxe and the weight of nodule, among four groups, where

470 the pre-training group displays the lowest value (**Figure 8**). It might be worth noting that the  
471 expert group is highly variable probably due to raw material starting size/shape. Achieve handaxe  
472 forms while removing as little mass as possible (i.e. making as big a handaxe as possible from  
473 the nodule) generally requires a higher skill level due to the reductive or subtractive nature of  
474 stone knapping, where correcting an error or any thinning procedure always requires the removal  
475 of raw material and thereby reducing the size of a given handaxe ([Schillinger et al., 2014b](#): 130;  
476 [Deetz, 1967](#): 48-49). On the other hand, the refitting analyses of the Boxgrove handaxe assemblage  
477 have suggested that the nodules exploited by knappers inhabiting this site are somewhat bulky  
478 and amorphous ([Roberts & Parfitt, 1998](#): 339, 360). These characteristics have been clearly  
479 displayed in a recent attempt of slow-motion refitting of a handaxe specimen from Boxgrove  
480 GTP17 (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iS58MUJ1ZEo>). As such, we infer that behind  
481 the resemblance of the pre-training group and the Boxgrove assemblage in PC2 are two types of  
482 mechanisms that are fundamentally different from each other, where the latter group exhibits  
483 a complex suite of cognitive and motor execution processes to transform the shapeless raw  
484 materials to a delicate end product in a given shape.

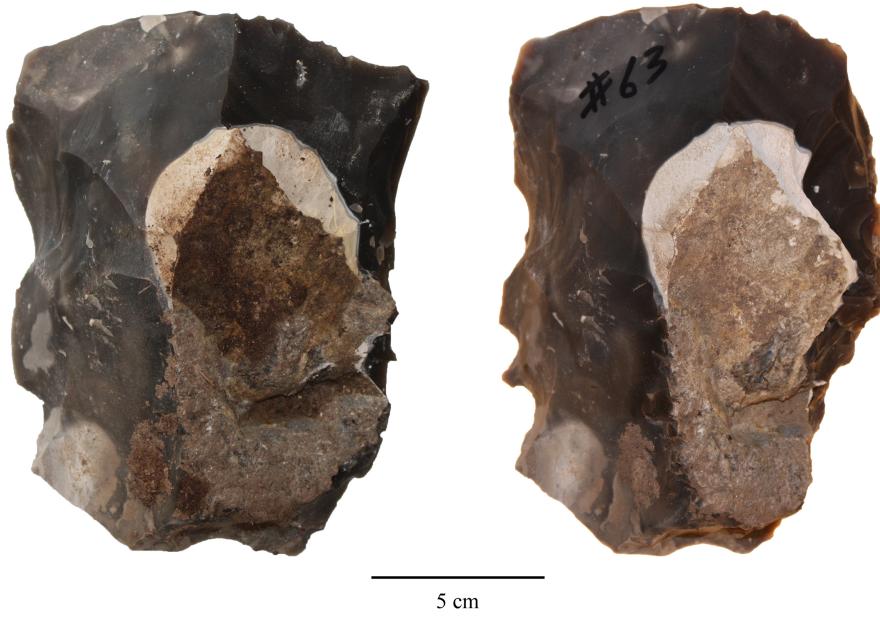


Figure 9: Core 63 before (left) and after knapping(right), showing the minimal morphological change during the knapping process.

485 Although we are not the first research team to use secondary archaeological data (e.g., [Key, 2019](#)),  
486 we would still like to highlight here that this research project further exemplifies the potential

487 of reusing old archaeological data in digital format to address novel research questions. In this  
488 paper, the main source of archaeological data is a collection of photos produced and curated  
489 more than 10 years ago, and the morphological variation data of the experimental collection are  
490 also derived from photographs instead of remeasurements of the original artifacts. Given the  
491 irreversible nature of archaeological excavations, digitized data, be it text, pictures, or videos,  
492 often become the sole evidence that is available for certain research questions. Yet, it has been  
493 widely acknowledged that the reuse of archaeological data has not received enough attention  
494 among researchers in our discipline ([Faniel et al., 2018](#); [Huggett, 2018](#); [Moody et al., 2021](#)). Among  
495 many reasons preventing archaeologists from reusing published and digitized data ([Sobotkova,](#)  
496 [2018](#)), the lack of a standardized practice of and motivation for data sharing is a prominent one  
497 ([Marwick & Birch, 2018](#)). As stated in the method section, we addressed this issue by sharing the  
498 raw data and the code for generating the derived data on an open-access repository. Another  
499 major and legitimate concern of archaeological data reuse is their quality. In terms of this aspect,  
500 we do acknowledge the limitations of relying on photos when it comes to the more detailed  
501 technological analysis of stone artifacts, however, our paper shows that finding the appropriate  
502 research questions given the data available is key to revealing new novel insights into the studied  
503 topic. Moreover, we believe that this type of research has a strong contemporary relevance due  
504 to the continued influence of the COVID-19 on fieldwork-related travel and direct access to  
505 archaeological artifacts ([Balandier et al., 2022](#); [Ogundiran, 2021](#)).

## 506 5 Conclusions

507 Regarding the two research questions we proposed in the beginning, our case study suggested that  
508 1) To some extent we can delineate the effects of knapping skill and mental template through the  
509 handaxe morphometric data, where the former is closely associated with cross-sectional thinning  
510 while the latter is mainly expressed in elongation and pointedness due to the constraint of the  
511 former; 2) On average training has an immediate effect of making novices to better understand  
512 the shared design targets, but 90 hours of training is still not enough for novice to reach the level  
513 of expertise as reflected in modern experienced knappers, let alone the Boxgrove tool makers,  
514 which supports our differential cultural reproduction hypothesis. At a larger theoretical level  
515 it questions the distinction between social learning of design targets vs. individual learning of  
516 the skills needed to achieve them. Traditionally archaeological experiments speaking to the

517 literature of cultural evolution tend to use handaxe as a model artifact and focus on how copying  
518 errors emerge during the transmission of a fixed and static target using transmission chain design  
519 and alternative raw materials such as foam (Schillinger et al., 2014c, 2017, 2015). This line of  
520 inquiry is generally characterized by high internal validity (causal mechanisms) but low external  
521 validity (generalizability to archaeological data). In contrast, our study unpacks the differential  
522 reproductions of two major sources of variation and reveals how the development of motor skill  
523 during learning is constraining the achievement of the socially learnt design target, through an  
524 actualistic experimental setting featuring a higher degree of external validity (Liu & Stout, 2022).  
525 In the future, more robust experimental studies are needed to deepen our understanding of  
526 the relationship between skill acquisition and the morphological variability of handaxes in the  
527 proper developmental context (Högberg, 2018; Lew-Levy et al., 2020; Nowell, 2021) as well as  
528 their implications for the biological and cultural evolution of the hominin lineages.

## 529 6 CRediT authorship contribution statement

530 **Cheng Liu:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology,  
531 Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Nada Khreisheh:** Investigation,  
532 Writing – review & editing. **Dietrich Stout:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Resources, Funding  
533 acquisition, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Justin Pargeter:**  
534 Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing –  
535 review & editing.

## 536 7 Declaration of competing interest

537 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relation-  
538 ships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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