

1 Differential effects of knapping skill acquisition on the
2 cultural reproduction of Late Acheulean handaxe
3 morphology: Archaeological and experimental insights

4 Cheng Liu* Nada Khreisheh† Dietrich Stout‡ Justin Pargeter§

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6 **Abstract**

7 Despite the extensive literature focusing on Acheulean handaxes, especially the sources
8 and meaning of their morphological variability, many aspects of this topic remain elusive.
9 Archaeologists cite many factors that contribute to the considerable variation of handaxe
10 morphology, including knapper skill levels and mental templates. Integrating these two lines
11 of literature into a broader theoretical framework of cultural reproduction, here we present
12 results from a multidisciplinary study of Late Acheulean handaxe-making skill acquisition
13 involving thirty naïve participants trained for up to 90 hours in Late Acheulean style handaxe
14 production and three expert knappers. We compare their handaxe to the Late Acheulean
15 handaxe assemblage from Boxgrove, UK. Through the principal component analysis of mor-
16 phometric data derived from images, our study suggested that knapping skill acquisition has
17 a differential effect in the cultural reproduction of different aspects of handaxe morphology.
18 More specifically, compared with elongation and pointedness (PC2), cross-sectional thin-
19 ning (PC1) is more constrained by knapping skill. It also confirmed that reaching the skill
20 level of modern experts requires more training time than was permitted in this extensive and
21 long-running (90-hour) training program. ¶

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

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*Department of Anthropology, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA; raylc1996@outlook.com

†The Ancient Technology Centre, Cranborne, Dorset, UK; nada.khareisheh@dorsetcouncil.gov.uk

‡Department of Anthropology, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA; dwstout@emory.edu

§Department of Anthropology, New York University, New York, NY, USA; Rock Art Research Institute, School of Geography, Archaeology, and Environmental Studies, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa; justin.pargeter@nyu.edu

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43 **1 Introduction**

44 The morphological variability of Acheulean handaxes has been one of the most well-studied
 45 and well-published topics in paleolithic archaeology (Key & Lycett, 2019; Petraglia & Korisettar,
 46 1998; White, 1998). Despite the recurrent narrative emphasizing the homogeneity and longevity
 47 of handaxe assemblages on a global scale and the conservatism behind this phenomenon that
 48 evokes genetic explanations (Corbey et al., 2016; Corbey, 2020; Richerson & Boyd, 2005; Sterelny,
 49 2004), many researchers have recognized the diversity within what has been deemed as a unified
 50 Acheulean “tradition” and tried to dissect the sources and meaning of this variation (Lycett &
 51 Gowlett, 2008; Moncel et al., 2018b, 2018c, 2018a; Nowell, 2002; Nowell & White, 2010; Sharon et al.,
 52 2011). More specifically, a complex suite of interconnecting factors (Lycett & Cramon-Taubadel,
 53 2015) have been identified to contribute to handaxe morphological variation, including but not
 54 limited to raw material variability (Eren et al., 2014; Lycett et al., 2016; McNabb & Cole, 2015;
 55 Sharon, 2008), percussor properties (Shipton et al., 2009), functional differences (Key et al., 2016;
 56 Key & Lycett, 2017; Lycett & Gowlett, 2008; Machin et al., 2007; White & Foulds, 2018), reduction
 57 method/intensity (Shipton et al., 2009; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015), time budgets (Schillinger et
 58 al., 2014c), learning processes (Kempe et al., 2012; Lycett et al., 2016), social signaling (Kohn &
 59 Mithen, 1999; Spikins, 2012), aesthetic preferences (Gowlett, 2021; Le Tensorer, 2006), knapper
 60 skill levels (Caruana & Herries, 2021; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Stout et al., 2014), and mental
 61 templates (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Hutchence & Scott, 2021; Schillinger et al., 2017).

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

76 1.1 Mental template

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

89 For a decade or so, the mental template concept has been less frequently used, since it was
90 criticized for a) its normative and static assumption (Lyman & O’Brien, 2004), b) ignoring other
91 competing factors such as raw material constraints (White, 1995), and c) being constrained by the

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

104 Current conceptions of a “mental template” are thus more nuanced than the idea of a fully speci-
105 fied image in the mind of the maker that is directly expressed in material form and transmitted
106 between minds. For example, Hutchence and Scott (2021), leveraged the theory of “community
107 of practice” (Wenger, 1998) to explain the stability of Boxgrove handaxe design across multiple
108 generations. From this perspective, social norms behind the consolidated material expressions
109 were developed and negotiated by individuals in a group who have a shared history of learning.
110 They further emphasized that emergent actions of individual knappers also contribute greatly to
111 the shape of Boxgrove handaxes but they were simultaneously constrained by the imposition of
112 social norms. This view also somewhat echoes the “individualized memic construct” proposed by
113 McNabb et al. (2004), which highlighted the influence of individual agency that is complementary
114 to the traditionally favored explanation of social learning. As for the critique towards confounding
115 factors explaining morphological variability, raw material is often treated as an important variable
116 to be controlled at the very beginning of a research design focusing on mental templates. This is
117 best exemplified by an experimental study of García-Medrano et al. (2019), where they carefully
118 chose experimental nodules mirroring those found in the Boxgrove archaeological assemblage
119 in composition, size, and shape. Regarding the critique of design space constraint, Moore and
120 Perston’s experiment (2016) suggested that bifaces can be manufactured through flake removals
121 dictated by a random algorithm. However, Moore (2020: 656-657) also suggested that these
122 random experiments cannot produce “attributes like the congruent symmetries of handaxes seen
123 in the Late Acheulean.” In short, when exercised with proper caution, the concept of mental

¹²⁴ templates still has its value in our study of handaxe morphological variation, which can be fur-
¹²⁵ ther dissected into a series of shape variables corresponding to pointedness, elongation, and
¹²⁶ cross-sectional thinning among other things.

¹²⁷ In short, contemporary approaches to the concept of a mental template emphasize the causal
¹²⁸ importance of production process and constraints and the interaction between individual and
¹²⁹ group level phenomena. We again note the striking similarity of the perspectives to the concept
¹³⁰ of “constructive development” as a source of guided variation in evolution biology ([Laland et al.,](#)
¹³¹ [2015](#)). We thus sought to further develop these perspectives by directly investigating the effects of
¹³² learning difficulty and skill acquisition on the reproduction of experimentally controlled design
¹³³ targets.

¹³⁴ **1.2 Knapping skill**

¹³⁵ Following the reconceptualization of the mental template as a more flexible and interactive
¹³⁶ concept, one possible way of defining skill is the capacity for a knapper to realize mental templates
¹³⁷ using the resources available ([Roux et al., 1995](#): 66). At the same time, however, the technological
¹³⁸ choices defining a particular metal template may themselves be shaped by learning challenges
¹³⁹ and costs ([Henrich, 2015](#); [Roux, 1990](#)), implying the possibility of skill development as a constraint
¹⁴⁰ factor on artifact form that is not highlighted even in comprehensive literature review on this
¹⁴¹ topic ([Kuhn, 2020](#): 168-170). This version of conceptualization, particularly relevant when it
¹⁴² comes to motor skills such as knapping, can be dismantled into two mutually dependent aspects,
¹⁴³ namely the intentional aspect (goal/strategic planning) and the operational aspect (means/motor
¹⁴⁴ execution) ([Connolly & Dalgleish, 1989](#)). It also roughly corresponds to the well-known dichotomy
¹⁴⁵ developed by French lithic analysts of “*connaissance*” (abstract knowledge) and “*savoir-faire*”
¹⁴⁶ (practical know-how) ([Pelegrin, 1993](#)). As Stout ([2002](#): 694) noted, the acquisition of skill is deeply
¹⁴⁷ rooted in its social context, and it is not composed of “some rigid motor formula” but “how to
¹⁴⁸ act in order to solve a problem”. This ecological notion of skill somewhat mirrors Hutchence
¹⁴⁹ and Scott’s ([2021](#)) reconceptualization of the mental template in that they both refute the idea
¹⁵⁰ that technology is simply an internal program expressed by the mind and they prefer a dynamic
¹⁵¹ approach emphasizing the interaction between perception and action. The manifestations of
¹⁵² skill in materialized form display a great amount of variation, but ethnoarchaeological studies
¹⁵³ have repeatedly suggested that skills can be improved through practice as perceived by local

¹⁵⁴ practitioners. It is thus possible in experimental and ethnographic settings to evaluate the skill
¹⁵⁵ levels reflected in knapping products (Roux et al., 1995; Stout, 2002).

¹⁵⁶ When contextual information is less readily available as in the Late Acheulean archaeological
¹⁵⁷ assemblages, how to properly operationalize and measure knapping skills has been a methodolog-
¹⁵⁸ ical issue receiving much attention among archaeologists (Bamforth & Finlay, 2008; Kolhatkar,
¹⁵⁹ 2022). In addition to measurements that can be almost applied in any lithic technological system
¹⁶⁰ such as raw materials, platform preparation, as well as hinges, in the context of handaxe tech-
¹⁶¹ nology, symmetry (Hodgson, 2015; Hutchence & Debackere, 2019) and cross-sectional thinning
¹⁶² (Caruana, 2020; Pargeter et al., 2019; Stout et al., 2014; Whittaker, 2004: 180-182) have been
¹⁶³ frequently quoted as reliable and distinctive indicators of the skill level as supported by several
¹⁶⁴ experimental studies. These two features have also been commonly used as standards for dividing
¹⁶⁵ Early Acheulean and Late Acheulean (Callahan, 1979; Clark, 2001; Schick & Toth, 1993).

¹⁶⁶ 1.3 Cultural reproduction

¹⁶⁷ The cultural reproduction, or transmission as it is commonly termed in the cultural evolutionary
¹⁶⁸ literature (Eerkens & Lipo, 2005, 2007), of mental templates and production skills makes them
¹⁶⁹ reach beyond individual-level practice and form a repetitive pattern that can be identified in
¹⁷⁰ archaeological records. Nonetheless, the abstract shape of handaxe as a mental template that is
¹⁷¹ often pulled away from its original substrate has been frequently treated as the main research
¹⁷² subject of cultural transmission experiments (Schillinger et al., 2014c, 2017, 2015), while how
¹⁷³ knapping skill as another source of variation is reproduced during the learning process and how
¹⁷⁴ it moderates the material manifestation of mental templates has been rarely discussed. The
¹⁷⁵ ignorance of the latter becomes one of motivations behind our terminological choice of “repro-
¹⁷⁶ duction” over “transmission”, where the former implies more than just the copying of an static
¹⁷⁷ image with information loss (Liu & Stout, 2022; Stout, 2021). This reframing essentially echoes the
¹⁷⁸ stance of extended evolutionary synthesis (EES) on inclusive inheritance that phenotypes are not
¹⁷⁹ inherited but reconstructed in development (Laland et al., 2015: 5), which has also received more
¹⁸⁰ attention recently in the domain of cultural evolution (Charbonneau & Strachan, 2022; Strachan
¹⁸¹ et al., 2021).

¹⁸² Centering around the concept of cultural reproduction, we aim to explore the possibility of
¹⁸³ dissecting the interaction of skill level and mental template through a comparative study of

an archaeological handaxe assemblage known for its remarkable high skill level, a reference handaxe collection produced by modern knapping experts, and an experimental handaxe sample produced by modern novice knappers. We generated the novice handaxe collection from a 90-hour skill acquisition experiment providing the opportunity to introduce the diachronic dimension of training time and interrogate its impact on the variables of interest. As such, our theory-driven data-informed project aims to examine the following research questions: 1) Do the processes of skill learning in a lithic medium exert any biases on the cultural reproduction of artifact morphology? To answer this question, we first applied multivariate analysis of handaxe morphometric data to identify different components of morphological variation. Our study has the following three assumptions: 1) Boxgrove, expert, and novice assemblages should have a common design target (mental template) as Boxgrove is designated as the model during the training; 2) The morphometric variables showing overlap between Boxgrove and expert samples while being markedly different from novice samples reflect skill level differences; 3) Throughout the training the novice samples should become more similar to expert samples in both skill level and mental template, but the acquisition of the former aspect will be more challenging and thereby constraining the latter aspect. The third assumption here is particularly informed by the previous study of Pargeter et al. (2020) showing that in handaxe manufacture novices' predictions of the contour of flakes to be removed are highly similar to those of expert knappers, while novices do not have the right forces and accuracy to successfully remove their target flakes to produce a nice handaxe.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Boxgrove handaxe collection

The archaeological site of Boxgrove is located in the former Earham quarry, Boxgrove, West Sussex, featuring a long sequence of Middle Pleistocene deposits (Pope et al., 2020; Roberts & Parfitt, 1998). This 500-ka-old site has documented exceedingly rich details of Lower Paleolithic hominin subsistence behaviors (Smith, 2013, 2012) and their paleoenvironmental contexts (Holmes et al., 2010; Preece & Parfitt, 2022). In addition to the presence of one of the earliest hominin fossil (tentatively assigned to *Homo heidelbergensis*, Hillson et al., 2010; Lockey et al., 2022; Roberts et al., 1994) and bone assemblages with anthropogenic modifications in northern Europe (Bello et al., 2009), Boxgrove is mostly known for its large sample size of Late Acheulean-style flint

²¹⁴ handaxes and the high skill level reflected in their manufacture (**Figure 1**). As such, it has received
²¹⁵ wide research attention in the past two decades regarding the relationships between technology,
²¹⁶ cognition, and skills ([García-Medrano et al., 2019](#); [Iovita et al., 2017](#); [Iovita & McPherron, 2011](#); [Key,](#)
²¹⁷ [2019](#); [Shipton & Clarkson, 2015](#); [Stout et al., 2014](#)). To identify the morphological manifestation of
²¹⁸ knappers' skill level in our study, we selected a complete handaxe assemblage (n=326) previously
²¹⁹ analyzed and reported in digital formats by Iovita and McPherron ([2011](#)), which is currently
²²⁰ curated at the Franks House of the British Museum ([Iovita et al., 2017](#)). The digital photographs
²²¹ are taken of each handaxe at a 90° angle, which was oriented with the tip to the right of the photos,
²²² 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.

223 **2.2 Experimental handaxe collection**

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

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

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

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

267 2.3 Lithic analysis

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

²⁸⁴ Notably, Shipton and Clarkson (2015) previously found that reduction intensity does not have a
²⁸⁵ strong impact on the shape of handaxes. The same procedure was also applied to the morphome-
²⁸⁶ tric analyses of the experimental handaxe collection, which was partially published in Pargeter et
²⁸⁷ al. (2019).

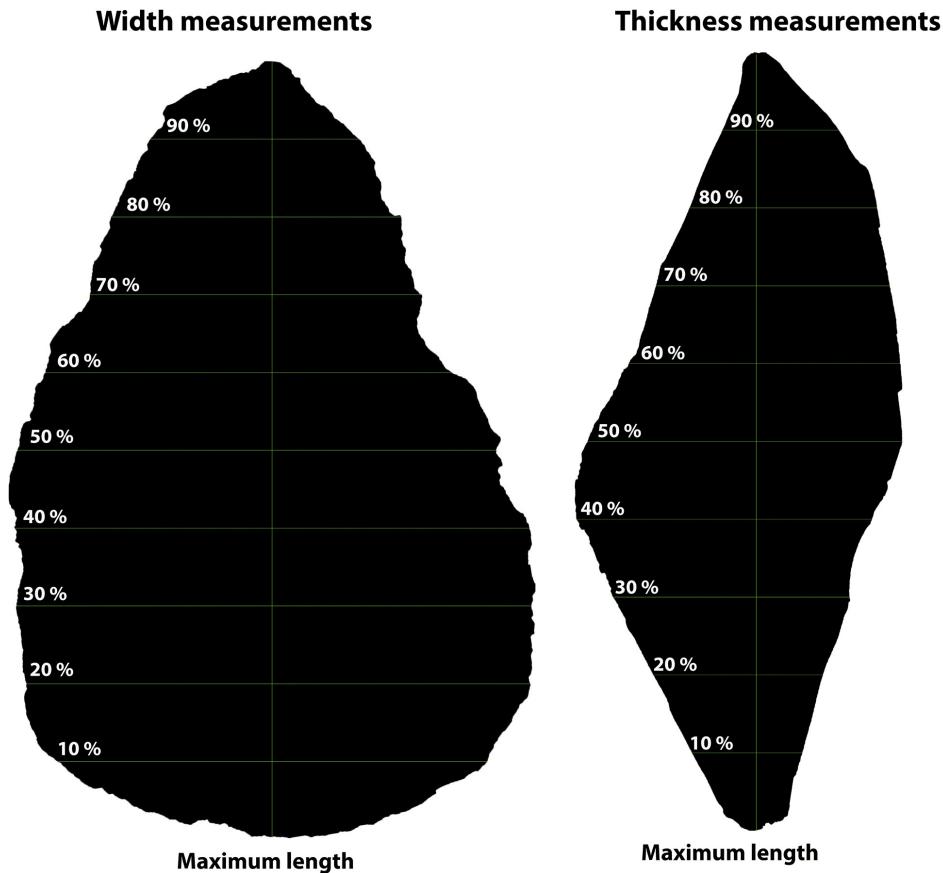


Figure 2: A visual demonstration of the handaxe measurement protocol using Image J (after Pargeter et al. 2019: Figure 5).

²⁸⁸ 2.4 Statistical analyses

²⁸⁹ We use the statistical programming language R 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021) to conduct statistical
²⁹⁰ analyses and data visualization in this study, particularly the R packages “FactoMineR” (Lê et
²⁹¹ al., 2008) and “ggstatsplot” (Patil, 2021). As the initial step, simple visualization techniques such
²⁹² scatter plots are frequently used to explore the relationships between variables of interest. Given
²⁹³ the number of variables involved in this study, we used principal component analysis (PCA) to
²⁹⁴ reduce the dimension and identify the possible patterns in this morphometric data set, which
²⁹⁵ is one of the most used techniques in similar studies (García-Medrano, Maldonado-Garrido,
²⁹⁶ et al., 2020; García-Medrano, Ashton, et al., 2020; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Iovita & McPherron,

297 2011; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015; Stout et al., 2014). To detect the effect of training on novices' 298 performance as compared with archaeological samples and handaxe made by experts, we also 299 compare the corresponding metrics built on PCA across different training periods and across all 300 groups using the Games-Howell nonparametric post-hoc test. Compared with other nonpara- 301 metric tests frequently used in archaeological research for multiple group comparison such as 302 Tukey's test, Games-Howell test does not rely on the assumptions of sample normality, and equal 303 sample sizes and equal variance are not necessary conditions to perform this test. The sample 304 size of each compared group can be as low as 6 (Games & Howell, 1976; Sauder & DeMars, 2019). 305 Lastly, we compare the delta weight, as defined by the difference between initial nodule weight 306 and end product weight, between these groups to understand the effect of reduction intensity 307 on morphological variation. This study adheres to the principles of reproducibility and data 308 transparency of archaeological research by depositing all the codes and data sets involved in an 309 open-access online repository (Marwick, 2017), which are available as supplementary materials 310 and can be accessed through the author's Github (<https://github.com/Raylc/Boxgrove-Exp>).

311 3 Results

312 3.1 Principal component analysis

313 Our analysis suggested that the first two components already explain 77.2% of the variation for the 314 entire morphometric data set composed of 19 variables (Figure 3), which is a rather reasonable 315 variance ratio to avoid overfitting. Variable loadings (Table 1) indicate that the first principal 316 component (PC1) captures relative cross-sectional thickness ("refinement"). It is positively corre- 317 lated with all thickness measurements while negatively correlated with all other measurements. 318 A higher PC1 value thus indicates a handaxe that is thicker relative to width and length, and vice 319 versa. The second principal component (PC2) tracks elongation and pointedness, as indicated 320 by a positive covariance of maximum length and bottom width/thickness. As PC2 increases, a 321 handaxe will be relatively longer and more convergent from the broad base to the tip. Thus, PC1 322 corresponds to cross-sectional thinning and PC2 to a narrowing of the tip relative to length and 323 base dimensions.

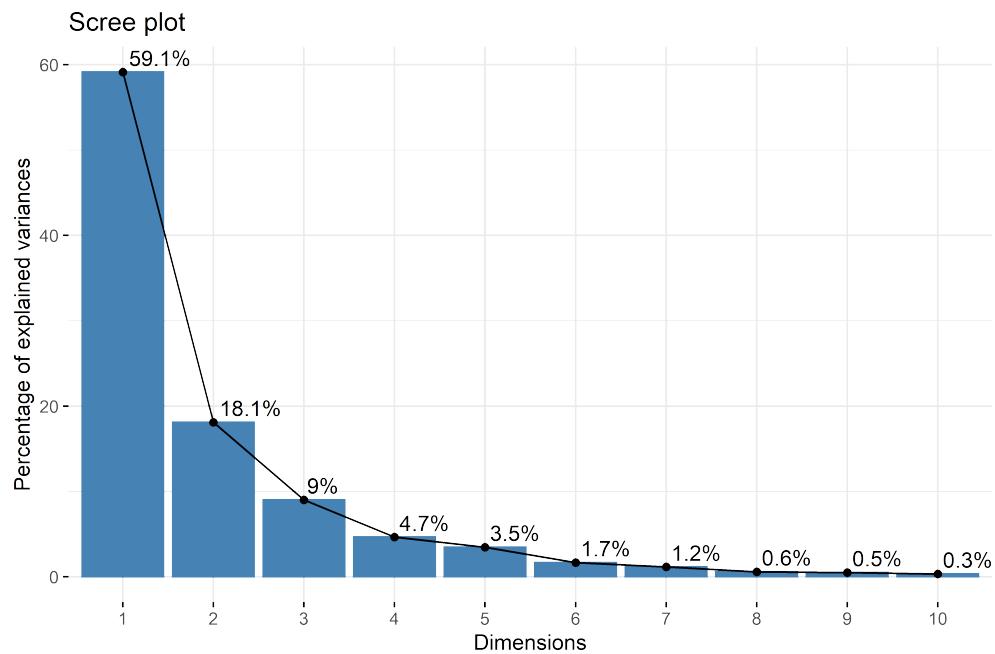


Figure 3: A scree plot showing the percentage of explained variances of the first 10 principal components.

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.

Variables	Dim.1	Dim.2
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

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

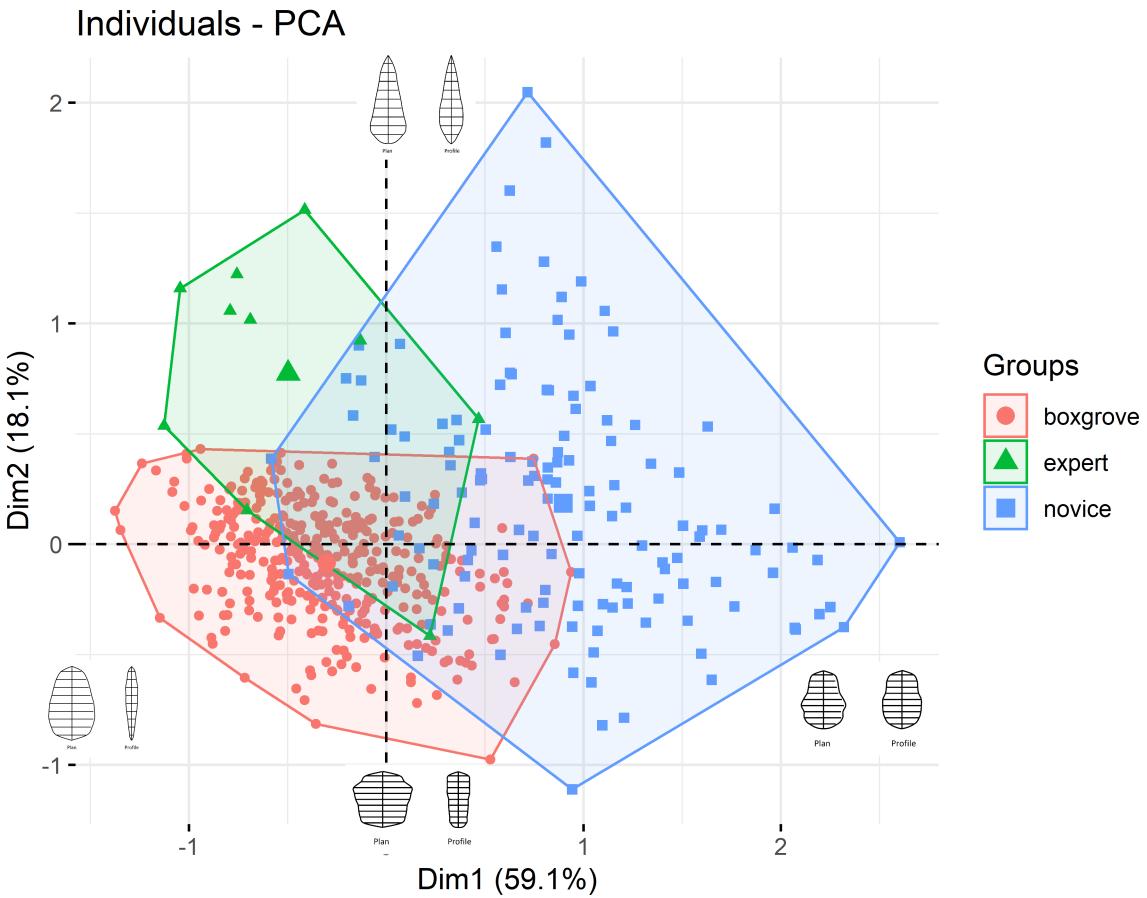


Figure 4: A principal component scatter plot of handaxes from the groups of Boxgrove (red, n=326), expert (green, n=10), and novice (blue, n=132). The four images illustrate simplified plan and profile morphology of handaxes displaying extreme PC values (e.g., The leftmost and uppermost handaxes respectively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

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

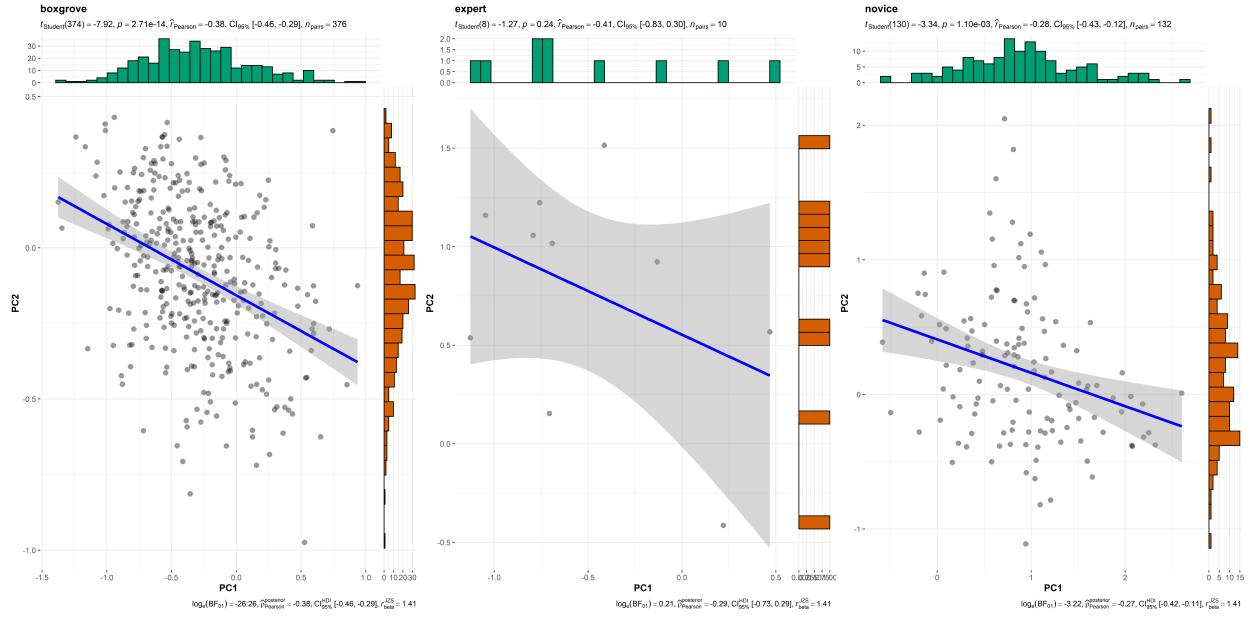


Figure 5: A scatter plot showing the correlation between PC1 and PC2 respectively in the groups of Boxgrove (left, $n=326$), expert (middle, $n=10$), and novice (right, $n=132$). The upper left area in each individual plot displays statistical reporting from a frequentist perspective, including the student-t 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.

337 3.2 Effects of training

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

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

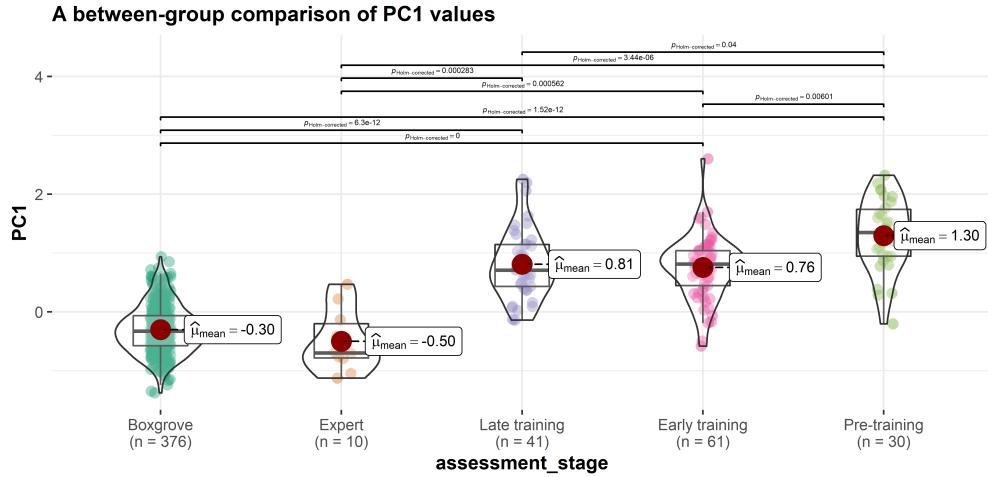


Figure 6: A between-group comparison of PC1 values.

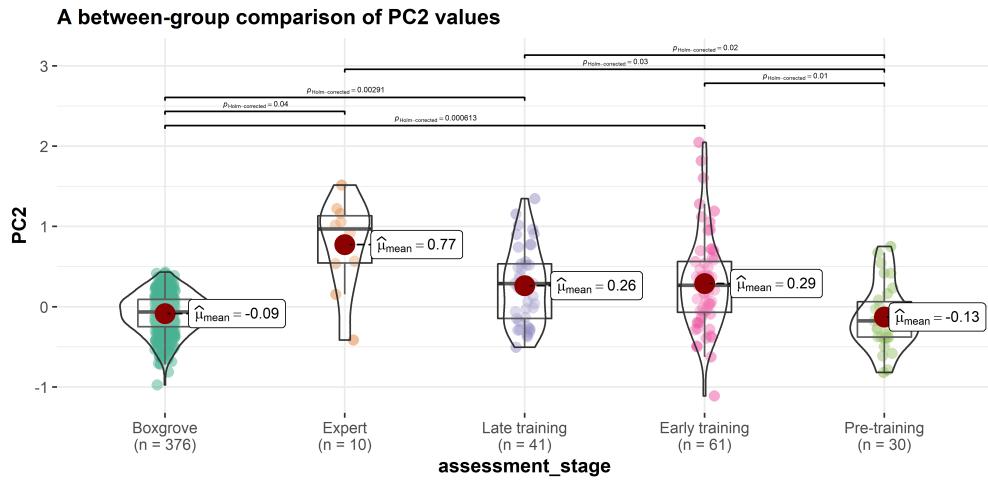


Figure 7: A between-group comparison of PC2 values.

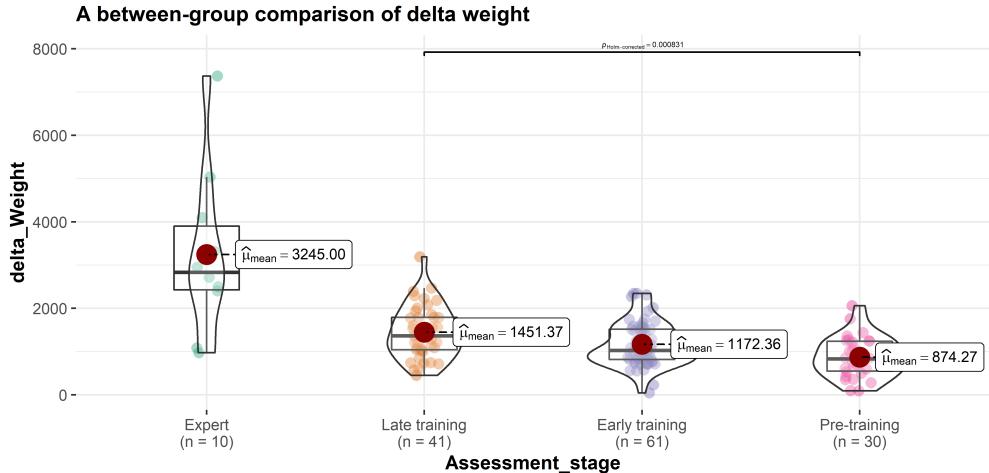


Figure 8: A comparison of the delta weight between the pre-training, early training, late training, and the expert group.

355 4 Discussion

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

374 pieces, serving the purpose of achieving the desired convexity and/or volume. This procedure
375 involves precise control of striking forces, strategic choice of platform external angle, and attentive
376 preparation of bifacial intersection plane, all of which were part of our experimental training
377 program ([Callahan, 1979](#); [Caruana, 2022](#); [Pargeter et al., 2020](#); [Shipton et al., 2013](#); [Stout et al.,](#)
378 [2014](#)). Experimental studies have also shown that the thinning stage of handaxe produce often
379 involves the use of soft hammers, which is also supported by direct ([Bello et al., 2016](#); [Stout et al.,](#)
380 [2014](#)) and indirect ([Roberts & Parfitt, 1998](#): 384-394; [Roberts & Pope, 2009](#)) archaeological evidence
381 from Boxgrove, although the validity of differentiating purcussor types (hard hammerstone, soft
382 hammerstone, and antler hammer) based on flake attributes has been challenged by other
383 experimental studies([Driscoll & García-Rojas, 2014](#)). It should be noted that both our experts and
384 novices frequently used soft hammers in the production of experimental assemblages. In the skill
385 acquisition experiments, novice knappers were explicitly taught to switch to the soft hammer for
386 thinning purposes, although some of them did not follow the instruction during the assessment.
387 On the other hand, it has also been shown that hard hammers can also be used to achieve similar
388 thinning results ([Bradley & Sampson, 1986](#); [Pelcin, 1997](#)), and the replicas produced by Bruce
389 Bradley in our expert reference collection did not involve the use of soft hammers.

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

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

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

434 In terms of our second research question, this study shows that training does have an immediate
435 intervention effect (pre-training vs. post-training) in both PC1 (skill level) and PC2 (mental tem-
436 plate). Nonetheless, once the training has been initiated, its effects across different assessments

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

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

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

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

484 Although we are not the first research team to use secondary archaeological data (e.g., [Key, 2019](#)),

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

505 5 Conclusion

506 Regarding the research question we proposed in the beginning, our case study suggested that
507 skill acquisition has a differential effect in the cultural reproduction of different aspects of mental
508 templates, where cross-sectional thinning (PC1) is more constrained by knapping skill while
509 elongation and pointedness (PC2) is less so. At a larger theoretical level it questions the distinction
510 between social learning of design targets vs. individual learning of the skills needed to achieve
511 them. Traditionally archaeological experiments speaking to the literature of cultural evolution
512 tend to use handaxe as a model artifact and focus on how copying errors emerge during the
513 transmission of a fixed and static target using transmission chain design and alternative raw
514 materials such as foam ([Schillinger et al., 2014c, 2017, 2015](#)). This line of inquiry is generally char-

acterized by high internal validity (causal mechanisms) but low external validity (generalizability to archaeological data). In contrast, our study unpacks the differential reproductions of two major sources of variation and reveals how the development of motor skill during learning is constraining the achievement of the socially learnt design target, through an actualistic experimental setting featuring a higher degree of external validity ([Liu & Stout, 2022](#)). In the future, more robust experimental studies are needed to deepen our understanding of the relationship between skill acquisition and the morphological variability of handaxes in the proper developmental context ([Högberg, 2018](#); [Lew-Levy et al., 2020](#); [Nowell, 2021](#)) as well as their implications for the biological and cultural evolution of the hominin lineages.

6 CRediT authorship contribution statement

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

7 Declaration of competing interest

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

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541 providing us access to the digital photographs of the Boxgrove handaxe assemblage.

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