

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

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

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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 knapping skill and mental templates. Integrating these two lines of literature into a broader theoretical framework of cultural reproduction, here we present new 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 knapping skill acquisition has a differential effect in the cultural reproduction of different aspects of handaxe morphology. More specifically, compared with elongation and pointedness (PC2), cross-sectional thinning (PC1) is more constrained by knapping skill. Our findings thus shed new light on how the processes of skill learning can bias the cultural reproduction of artifact morphology. ¶

Keywords: Late Acheulean; Handaxe morphology; Boxgrove; Experimental archaeology; Knapping skill; 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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42 **1 Introduction**

43 The morphological variability of Acheulean handaxes has been one of the most well-studied and
 44 well-published topics in paleolithic archaeology (Key & Lycett, 2019; Petraglia & Korisettar, 1998;
 45 White, 1998, 2022). Despite the recurrent narrative emphasizing the homogeneity and longevity
 46 of handaxe assemblages on a global scale and the conservatism behind this phenomenon that
 47 evokes genetic explanations (Corbey et al., 2016; Corbey, 2020; Richerson & Boyd, 2005; Sterelny,
 48 2004), many researchers have recognized the diversity within what has been deemed as a unified
 49 Acheulean “tradition” and tried to dissect the sources and meaning of this variation (Lycett &
 50 Gowlett, 2008; Moncel et al., 2018b, 2018c, 2018a; Nowell, 2002; Nowell & White, 2010; Sharon et al.,
 51 2011). More specifically, a complex suite of interconnecting factors (Lycett & Cramon-Taubadel,
 52 2015) have been identified to contribute to handaxe morphological variation, including but not
 53 limited to raw material variability (Eren et al., 2014; Lycett et al., 2016; McNabb & Cole, 2015;
 54 Sharon, 2008), percussor properties (Shipton et al., 2009), functional differences (Key et al., 2016;
 55 Key & Lycett, 2017; Lycett & Gowlett, 2008; Machin et al., 2007; White & Foulds, 2018), reduction
 56 method/intensity (Shipton et al., 2009; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015), time budgets (Schillinger et
 57 al., 2014c), learning processes (Kempe et al., 2012; Lycett et al., 2016), social signaling (Kohn &
 58 Mithen, 1999; Spikins, 2012), aesthetic preferences (Gowlett, 2021; Le Tensorer, 2006), knapping
 59 skill (Caruana & Herries, 2021; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Stout et al., 2014), and mental templates
 60 (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Hutchence & Scott, 2021; Schillinger et al., 2017).

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

75 1.1 Mental template

76 In its classical definition, the term mental template indicates that the “idea of the proper form
77 of an object exists in the mind of the maker, and when this idea is expressed in tangible form in
78 raw material, an artifact results” (Deetz, 1967: 45). This concept lies at the very foundation of the
79 cultural-historical approach in that the identification of archaeological cultures is based on the
80 existence of distinct mental templates in a given spatial-temporal framework. Early researchers,
81 whether explicitly or implicitly, often endorsed this conceptual framework and actively applied it
82 in the typological analysis of handaxes at the regional level (Roe, 1969; Wenban-Smith et al., 2000;
83 Wenban-Smith, 2004). Combined with the production of large flakes, the emergence of mental
84 templates (or “imposed form”) has been recognized as a major technological innovation of the
85 Acheulean compared with the Oldowan (Isaac, 1986). Importantly, this conception of a mental
86 template as an idea or image transmitted between minds also echoes core assumptions of the
87 more modern approach of cultural transmission theory (Eerkens & Lipo, 2005, 2007).
88 For a decade or so, the mental template concept has been less frequently used, since it was
89 criticized for a) its normative and static assumption (Lyman & O’Brien, 2004), b) ignoring other
90 competing factors such as raw material constraints (White, 1995), and c) being constrained by the

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

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

123 of mental templates still has value in the study of handaxe morphological variation, which can be
124 further dissected into a series of shape variables corresponding to pointedness, elongation, and
125 cross-sectional thinning among other things.

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

133 1.2 Knapping skill

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

¹⁵³ improved through practice as perceived by local practitioners. It is thus possible in experimental
¹⁵⁴ and ethnographic settings to evaluate the skill levels reflected in knapping products (Roux et al.,
¹⁵⁵ 1995; Stout, 2002).

¹⁵⁶ When contextual information is less readily available as in Late Acheulean archaeological assem-
¹⁵⁷ blages, how to properly operationalize and measure knapping skills has been a methodological
¹⁵⁸ issue receiving much attention among archaeologists (Bamforth & Finlay, 2008; Kolhatkar, 2022).
¹⁵⁹ In addition to measurements that can be applied in almost any lithic technological system such
¹⁶⁰ as raw materials, platform preparation, as well as hinges, in the context of handaxe technology,
¹⁶¹ symmetry (Hodgson, 2015; Hutchence & Debackere, 2019) and cross-sectional thinning (Caruana,
¹⁶² 2020; Pargeter et al., 2019; Stout et al., 2014; Whittaker, 2004: 180-182) have been frequently
¹⁶³ quoted as reliable and distinctive indicators of the skill level as supported by several experimen-
¹⁶⁴ tal studies. These two features have also been commonly used as standards for dividing Early
¹⁶⁵ 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). Knapping skill
¹⁷³ and learning difficulties particular to the lithic medium have been less commonly considered
¹⁷⁴ as a potential influence of the reproduction of the form. The complexity of this issue is further
¹⁷⁵ exemplified by the fact that motor skills like knapping cannot be simply learned through ob-
¹⁷⁶ servation but must be reconstructed through individual practice using supportive material in
¹⁷⁷ social contexts (Stout & Hecht, 2017). The ignorance of this factor becomes one of motivations
¹⁷⁸ behind our terminological choice of “reproduction” over “transmission”, where the former implies
¹⁷⁹ more than just the copying of an static image with information loss (Liu & Stout, 2022; Stout,
¹⁸⁰ 2021). As we stated earlier, this reframing essentially echoes the stance of extended evolutionary
¹⁸¹ synthesis (EES) on inclusive inheritance that phenotypes are not inherited but reconstructed
¹⁸² in development (Laland et al., 2015: 5), which has also received more attention recently in the

183 domain of cultural evolution (Charbonneau & Strachan, 2022; Strachan et al., 2021).
184 Centering around the concept of cultural reproduction, we aim to explore the possibility of
185 dissecting the interaction of knapping skill and mental template through a comparative study
186 of an archaeological handaxe assemblage known for its remarkable high skill level, a reference
187 handaxe collection produced by modern knapping experts, and an experimental handaxe sample
188 produced by modern novice knappers. We generated the novice handaxe collection from a
189 90-hour skill acquisition experiment providing the opportunity to introduce the diachronic
190 dimension of training time and interrogate its impact on the variables of interest. As such,
191 our theory-driven data-informed project aims to examine the following research question: Do
192 the processes of skill learning in a lithic medium exert any biases on the cultural reproduction
193 of artifact morphology? To address this question, we assessed the degree to which trainees
194 succeeded in approximating different aspects of handaxe morphology represented in a sample of
195 modern experts and then compared both samples with archaeological handaxes from Boxgrove.

196 2 Materials and methods

197 2.1 Boxgrove handaxe collection

198 The archaeological site of Boxgrove is located in the former Eartham quarry, Boxgrove, West Sussex,
199 featuring a long sequence of Middle Pleistocene deposits (Pope et al., 2020; Roberts & Parfitt,
200 1998). This 500-ka-old site has documented exceedingly rich details of Lower Paleolithic hominin
201 subsistence behaviors (Smith, 2013, 2012) and their paleoenvironmental contexts (Holmes et
202 al., 2010; Preece & Parfitt, 2022). In addition to the presence of one of the earliest hominin fossil
203 (tentatively assigned to *Homo heidelbergensis*, Hillson et al., 2010; Lockey et al., 2022; Roberts et
204 al., 1994) and bone assemblages with anthropogenic modifications in northern Europe (Bello et
205 al., 2009), Boxgrove is mostly known for its large sample size of Late Acheulean-style flint handaxes
206 and the high knapping skill level reflected in their manufacture (Figure 1). As such, it has received
207 wide research attention in the past two decades regarding the relationships between technology,
208 cognition, and skills (García-Medrano et al., 2019; Iovita et al., 2017; Iovita & McPherron, 2011; Key,
209 2019; Shipton & Clarkson, 2015; Stout et al., 2014). We selected a complete handaxe assemblage
210 (n=326) previously analyzed and reported in digital formats by Iovita and McPherron (2011),
211 which is currently curated at the Franks House of the British Museum (Iovita et al., 2017). The

²¹² digital photographs are taken of each handaxe at a 90° angle, which was oriented with the tip to
²¹³ the right of the photos, and the camera faces the most convex surface of the handaxe ([Iovita &](#)
²¹⁴ [McPherron, 2011](#)).

Boxgrove



Expert



— 5 cm —

Novice



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

215 **2.2 Experimental handaxe collection**

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

232 In the knapping skill acquisition experiment, all research participants participated in the initial
233 assessment (assessment 1 in our data set) before formal training, where they each produced a
234 handaxe after watching three 15-minute videos of Late Acheulean style handaxes demonstrated
235 by expert knappers and examining four Late Acheulean style handaxe replicas prepared by Bruce
236 Bradley, which are part of our expert sample as described above. Training was provided by verbal
237 instruction and support from the second author, an experienced knapping instructor ([Khreichsheh](#)
238 [et al., 2013](#)), herself trained by Bruce Bradley, with 10 years knapping practice and specific knowl-
239 edge of Late Acheulean technology including the Boxgrove handaxe assemblage. She was present
240 at all training sessions to provide help and instruction to participants. All training occurred under
241 controlled conditions at the outdoor knapping area of Emory’s Paleolithic Technology Lab, with
242 knapping tools and raw materials provided. All participants were instructed in basic knapping
243 techniques including how to select appropriate percussors, initiate flaking on a nodule, maintain
244 the correct flaking gestures and angles, prepare flake platforms, visualize outcomes, deal with
245 raw material imperfections, and correct mistakes. Handaxe-specific instruction included estab-

246 lishment and maintenance of a bifacial plane, cross-sectional thinning, and overall shaping. The
247 training emphasized both aspects of handaxe making technical skill (the importance of producing
248 thin pieces with centered edges) as well as mental template related markers (symmetrical edges).

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

259 **2.3 Lithic analysis**

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

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

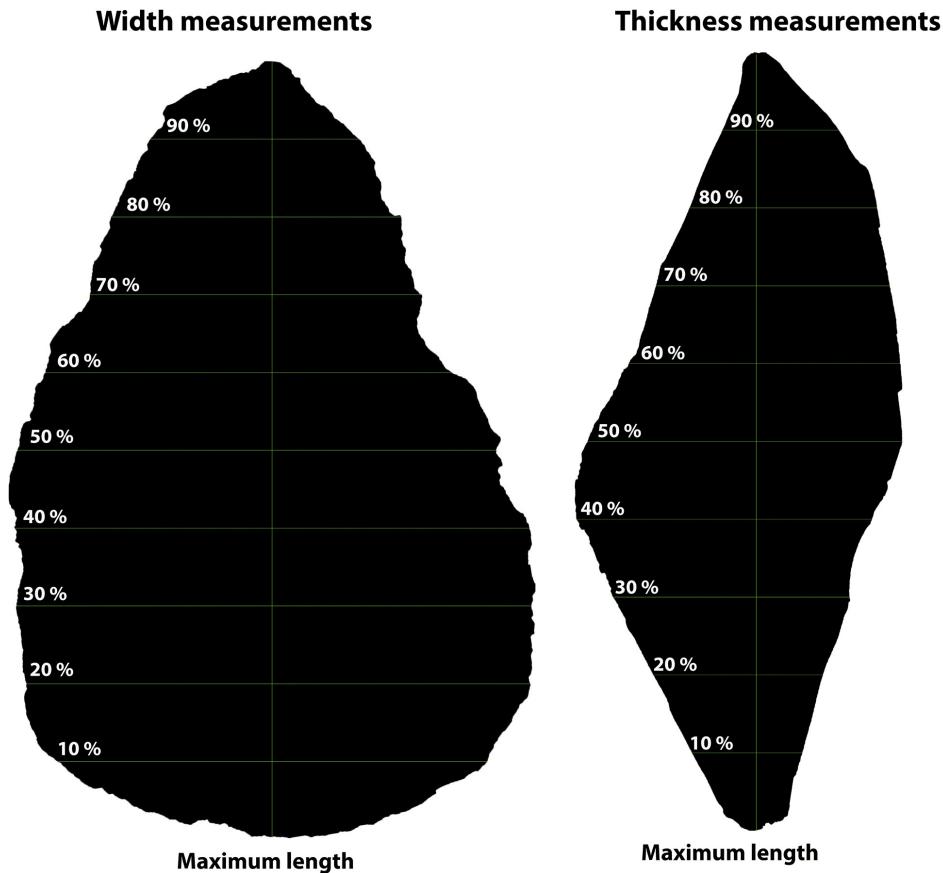


Figure 2: A visual demonstration of the handaxe measurement protocol using Image J (after Pargeter et al. 2019: Figure 5).

280 2.4 Statistical analyses

281 We use the statistical programming language R 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021) to conduct statistical
282 analyses and data visualization in this study, particularly the R packages “FactoMineR” (Lê et
283 al., 2008) and “ggstatsplot” (Patil, 2021). As the initial step, simple visualization techniques such
284 scatter plots are frequently used to explore the relationships between variables of interest. Given
285 the number of variables involved in this study, we used principal component analysis (PCA) to
286 reduce the dimension and identify the possible patterns in this morphometric data set, which
287 is one of the most used techniques in similar studies (García-Medrano, Maldonado-Garrido, et
288 al., 2020; García-Medrano, Ashton, et al., 2020; Herzlinger et al., 2017; Iovita & McPherron, 2011;

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

305 3 Results

306 3.1 Principal component analysis

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

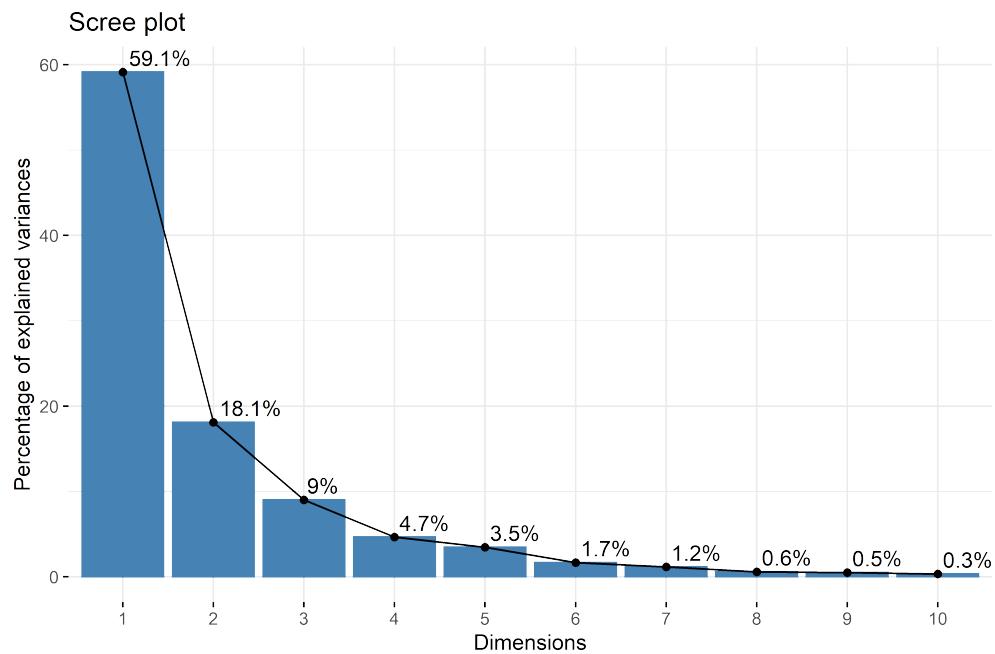


Figure 3: A scree plot showing the percentage of explained variances of the first 10 principal components.

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 correlated 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

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

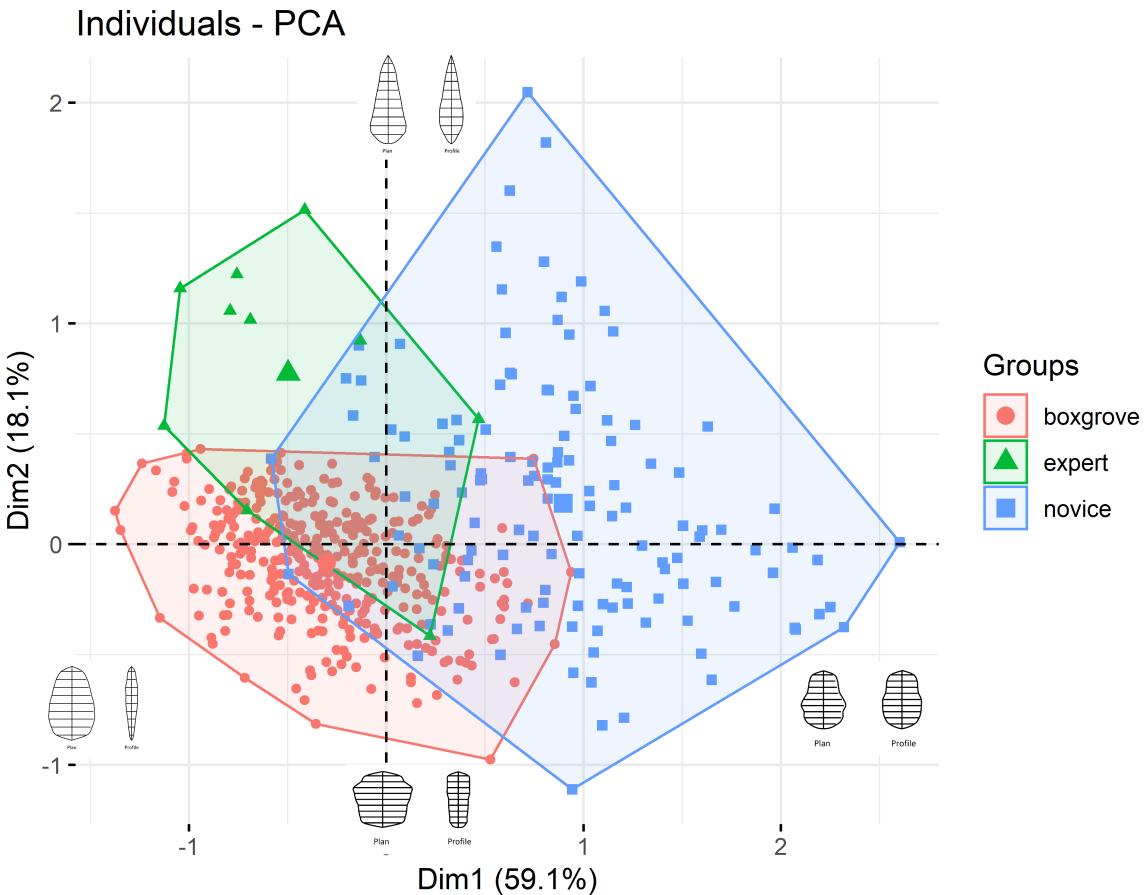


Figure 4: A principal component scatter plot of handaxes from the groups of Boxgrove (red, n=326), expert (green, n=10), and novice (blue, n=132). The four images illustrate simplified plan and profile morphology of handaxes displaying extreme PC values (e.g., The leftmost and uppermost handaxes respectively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

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

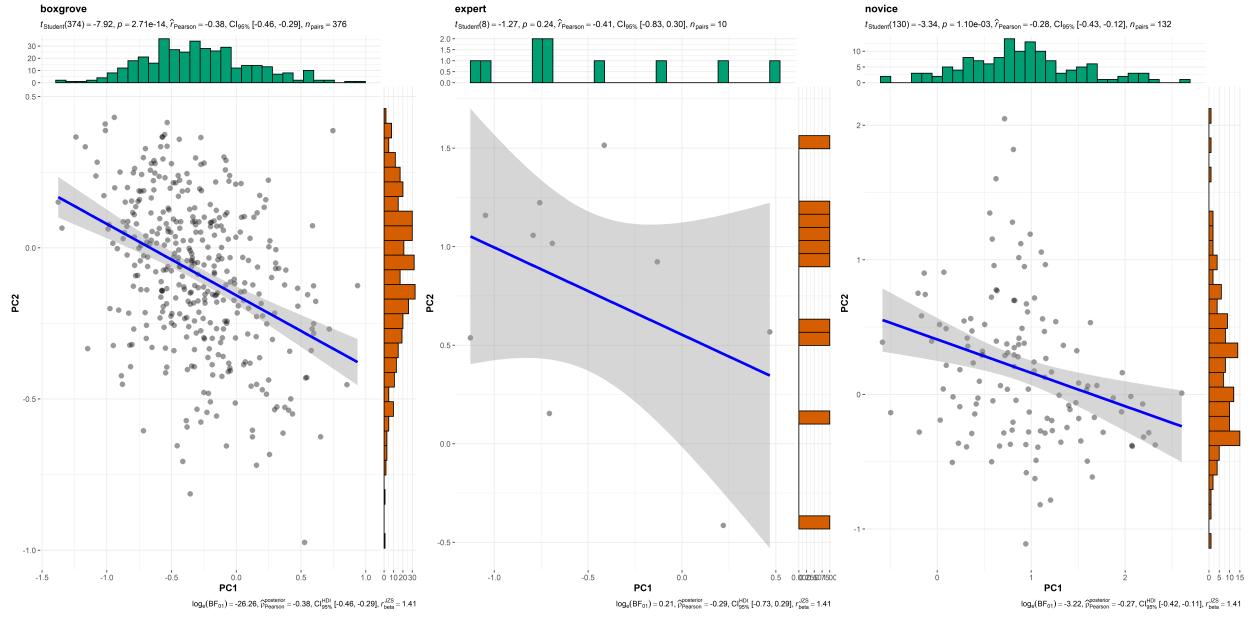


Figure 5: A scatter plot showing the correlation between PC1 and PC2 respectively in the groups of Boxgrove (left, $n=326$), expert (middle, $n=10$), and novice (right, $n=132$). The upper left area in each individual plot displays statistical reporting from a frequentist perspective, including the student-t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

331 3.2 Effects of skill acquisition

332 We extracted the PC1 and PC2 values of individual handaxes and compared them between
 333 different groups, where the novice group was divided into three sub-groups based on their
 334 training stages as specified in the method section. As such, we found that for PC1 values (**Figure**
 335 **6**), the only two group comparisons that are not statistically significant are the one between
 336 Boxgrove and Expert ($t = -1.65, p > 0.05$) and the one between Early training and Late training
 337 stages ($t = -0.65, p > 0.05$), which at least partially confirms our visual observation of the general
 338 PCA scatter plot. Likewise, for PC2 values (**Figure 7**), the group comparison between the Early
 339 training and Late stages again is not statistically significant ($t = 0.33, p > 0.05$). Additionally,
 340 the pairwise comparisons of mean PC2 values between the Early training and Expert ($t = -3.5,$
 341 $p > 0.05$) and between the Late training and Expert ($t = -3.68, p > 0.05$) are also not statistically
 342 significant. An unexpected result is that the mean PC2 value difference between the Pre-training
 343 group and Boxgrove is also not statistically significant ($t = -0.82, p > 0.05$). These results
 344 essentially suggest that there is a significant difference between the pre-training group and
 345 post-training groups in both PC1 (thinning) and PC2 (pointedness), while the effects of training
 346 across different assessment periods on both dimensions are not significant. Interestingly, the

347 post-training groups are very different from the expert group in the mean PC1 value, but not
 348 in the mean PC2 value. Regarding the delta weight of different groups, our analysis (**Figure 8**)
 349 suggests that there is a significant difference between the pre-training group and Late training
 350 group, while all other pairwise group comparison results are insignificant. It can also be inferred
 351 that the expert group display a higher variability in terms of delta weight compared with novices.

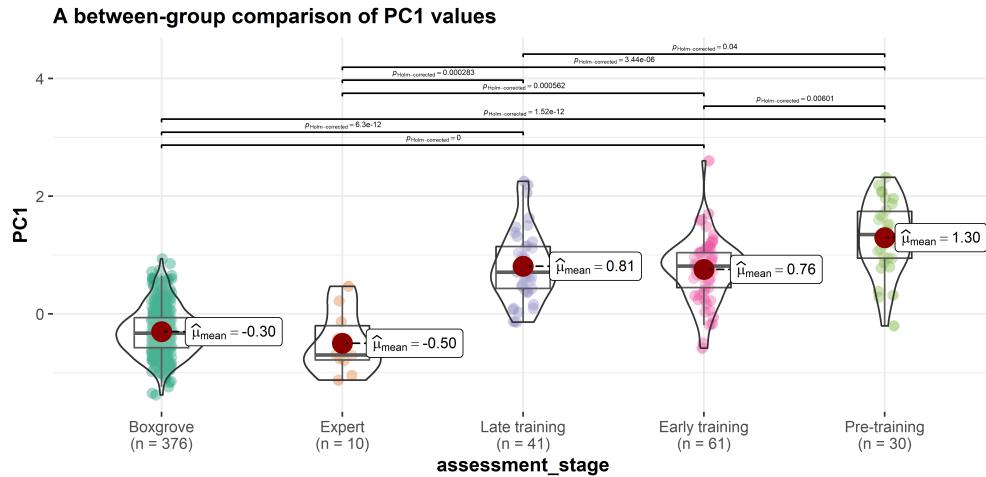


Figure 6: A between-group comparison of PC1 values.

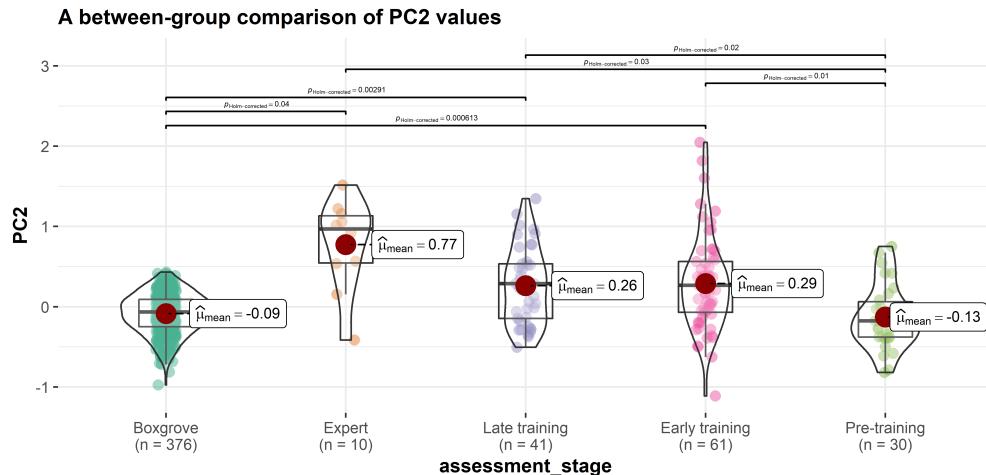


Figure 7: A between-group comparison of PC2 values.

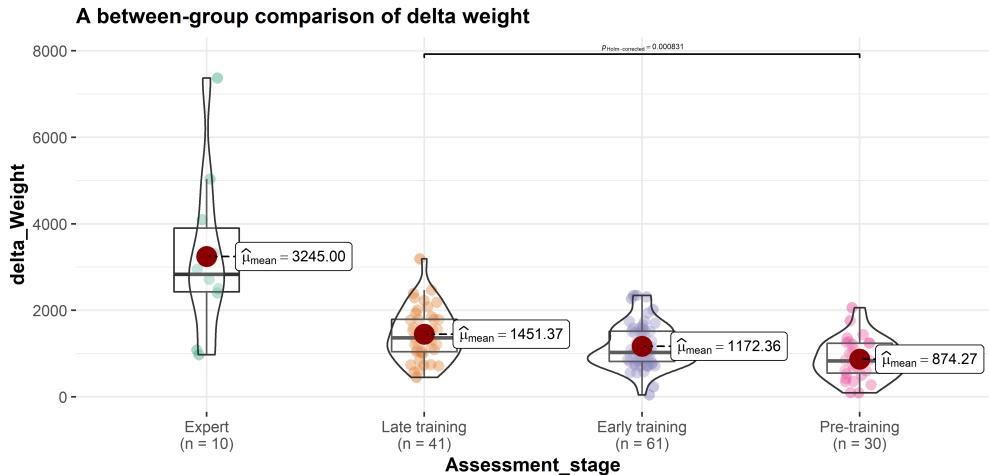


Figure 8: A comparison of the delta weight between the pre-training, early training, late training, and the expert group.

352 4 Discussion

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

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

387 Unexpectedly, we found that modern experimental knappers did not closely approximate the
388 PC2 (elongation and pointedness) values of Boxgrove handaxes. More specifically, the Boxgrove
389 assemblage displays an ovate shape featuring a wider tip as previously pointed out by Shipton
390 and White ([2020](#)) as well as Garcia-Medrano et al. ([2019](#)), while the experimental assemblages
391 are characterized by a more pointed shape with a longer central axis ([Figure 4](#)). This likely
392 reflects the fact that our expert participants and instructor were verbally requested to make
393 handaxes “comparable to Boxgrove handaxes” (with which they were familiar) but were not
394 provided with a concrete template to copy. It would appear that they thus followed a more
395 generalized archaeological conception of a “representative teardrop Late Acheulean handaxe”
396 with a particular focus on thinning (PC1). This likely also reflects the current cultural value placed
397 on thinning as a marker of skill ([Whittaker, 2004](#): 180-182). Novices sought to approximate this
398 form, as demonstrated by their instructor and exemplar handaxes. In fact, the four examples
399 presented to trainees have a mean PC2 value of 1.18, indicating a high degree of elongation
400 and pointedness. It should be also noted that the instructor (N. Khreisheh) has learned how
401 to knap and how to teach knapping from one of our expert knappers (B. Bradley), potentially
402 suggesting a cascading effect of social learning that also contributed to a shared mental template

403 between the expert group and the novice group after training. At a higher level, this pattern
404 may reflect a divergence of group-level aesthetic choices as expected under the theoretical
405 framework of the communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), which could potentially provide
406 a mechanistic explanation to some macro-level cultural phenomena such as regionalization
407 (Ashton & Davis, 2021; Davis & Ashton, 2019; García-Medrano et al., 2022; Shipton & White, 2020).
408 The most common form of learning in the experiment occurred in the group condition, where
409 the instructor, as the competent group member, directed the joint enterprise by actively teaching
410 multiple novices at the same time. Meanwhile, novices had the chance to also communicate and
411 learn from their peers, producing a shared repertoire of artifacts and actions.
412 The pre-training group is unexpectedly similar to the Boxgrove group in PC2. This is potentially
413 because these novices lack the ability to effectively reduce the nodules, which are typically flat pre-
414 prepared cortical flakes, to the desired form (Figure 9). If the given nodules already possess an oval
415 morphology like those presented in the Boxgrove assemblage, it is likely the form of end products
416 knapped by novices in the pre-training group will remain roughly unchanged (Winton, 2005: 113).
417 This explanation is also supported by the comparison of average delta weight, defined as the
418 difference between the weight of a handaxe and the weight of its corresponding nodule, among
419 four groups, where the pre-training group displays the lowest value (Figure 8). It might be worth
420 noting that the expert group is highly variable probably due to the raw material starting size and/or
421 shape. Achieving handaxe forms while removing as little mass as possible (i.e. making as big a
422 handaxe as possible from the nodule) generally requires a higher skill level due to the reductive or
423 subtractive nature of stone knapping, where correcting an error or any thinning procedure always
424 requires the removal of raw material and thereby reducing the size of a given handaxe (Schillinger
425 et al., 2014b: 130; Deetz, 1967: 48-49). On the other hand, the refitting analyses of the Boxgrove
426 handaxe assemblage have suggested that the nodules exploited by knappers inhabiting this site
427 are somewhat bulky and amorphous (Roberts & Parfitt, 1998: 339, 360). These characteristics
428 have been clearly displayed in a recent attempt of slow-motion refitting of a handaxe specimen
429 from Boxgrove GTP17 (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iS58MUJ1ZEo>). As such, we infer that
430 behind the resemblance of the pre-training group and the Boxgrove assemblage in PC2 are two
431 types of mechanisms that are fundamentally different from each other, where the latter group
432 exhibits a complex suite of cognitive and motor execution processes to transform the shapeless
433 raw 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.

434 The negative correlation between the PC1 and PC2 values suggests a hidden structural constraint
 435 regarding the relationship between cross-sectional thinning and the imposed form. Our results
 436 ([Figure 5](#)) suggested thinner handaxes (low PC1 value) are generally more pointed/less ovate (high
 437 PC2 value), which was first reported in Crompton and Gowlett's ([1993](#)) pioneering study on the
 438 allometry of Kilombe handaxes. In the thinning phase of handaxe making, a knapper must strike
 439 flakes that travel more than half way across the surface while not breaking the handaxe into half
 440 ([Callahan, 1979](#): 90). As a corollary, we speculate that it would be easier to perform thinning if the
 441 plan shape of a handaxe is narrower and more pointed, echoing the high technological difficulty of
 442 making large yet thin bifacial points as perceived by American hobbyist flintknappers ([Whittaker,](#)
 443 [2004](#): 180-182). It is possible that such constraints help to explain why our novice knappers on
 444 average produced more handaxes in similar shapes to those preferred by modern expert knappers,
 445 however, this clearly does not explain the design target at Boxgrove. Given the ovate forms of the
 446 Boxgrove assemblage, it thus requires a high skill level to overcome this structural constraint to
 447 produce thin yet wide handaxes as demonstrated by the Boxgrove knappers. This also provides
 448 an alternative explanation to the cultural reproduction of form for the experimental convergence
 449 on pointed forms. In this comparative context, it would only be the Boxgrove assemblage that
 450 provided evidence of social conformity on a more difficult target shape.

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

460 5 Conclusion

461 Our case study suggested that the processes of skill learning in a lithic medium does in fact exert
462 biases on the cultural reproduction of artifact morphology. More specifically, skill acquisition
463 has a differential effect on the cultural reproduction of different aspects of mental templates,
464 where cross-sectional thinning (PC1) is more constrained by knapping skill while elongation and
465 pointedness (PC2) is less so. At a larger theoretical level, these results question the distinction
466 between social learning of design targets vs. individual learning of the skills needed to achieve
467 them. In the future, more robust experimental studies are needed to deepen our understanding
468 of the relationship between skill acquisition and the morphological variability of handaxes in
469 the proper developmental context (Högberg, 2018; Lew-Levy et al., 2020; Nowell, 2021) as well as
470 their implications for the biological and cultural evolution of the hominin lineages.

471 6 CRediT authorship contribution statement

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

478 **7 Declaration of competing interest**

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

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