



McDONALD INSTITUTE CONVERSATIONS

Inspired geoarchaeologies: past landscapes and social change

Essays in honour of Professor Charles A. I. French

Edited by Federica Sulas, Helen Lewis & Manuel Arroyo-Kalin



Inspired geoarchaeologies



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Edited by Federica Sulas, Helen Lewis
& Manuel Arroyo-Kalin

with contributions from

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Courtesy of Kasia Gdaniec.

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CONTENTS

Contributors	ix
Figures	xv
Tables	xvii
Introduction	1
Archaeology, if you like	2
People, landscapes and lifeways	3
A biographical sketch of Charly French, geoarchaeologist	5
Some memories from Helen Lewis	6
A gift to archaeology, by Federica Sulas	8
Through the looking glass, by Manuel Arroyo-Kalin	10
Publications and reports by Charly French	15
Personal accounts	27
Picking my way along the catena path with Charly (Kasia Gdaniec)	27
Canadian connections: Charly's early days digging in the East Anglian Fens (Francis Pryor)	30
Developing geoarchaeology: contextual analyses and the urgency of the sustainability agenda (Wendy Matthews)	32
An archaeology of the Anthropocene: uncovering lost landscapes with Charly French (Nicole Boivin)	37
Firmly on the ground: science and a three-dimensional past (Martin Jones)	41
Geoarchaeology: reflections on progress and prospects (Martin Bell)	43
Part I Archaeology, if you like	51
Chapter 1 Practising geoarchaeology: on land, underwater, online	53
FRASER STURT	
Geoarchaeology?	53
Practising geoarchaeology: fieldwork	58
Narrative and knowledge	59
Practising geoarchaeology: teaching, learning and supporting	59
Conclusions	60
Chapter 2 Why do we see what we see where we see it? Geomorphological controls on archaeological narratives across space and time	61
ROBYN H. INGLIS	
Shaping the surface record	62
Shaping deep sequences	68
Conclusions	71
Chapter 3 Landscapes of scale or scales of landscape: patterns of land use and landscape	73
MICHAEL J. ALLEN	
Land-use patterns (a proxy for human activity)	74
Patterns of land use	78
All change: a new geoarchaeology and palaeo-environment to consider	84
Conclusions: concepts and communicating patterns of land use	86
Postscript	87

<i>Chapter 4</i>	Geoarchaeology in fluvial landscapes	89
	ANDREA L. BALBO	
	Four hundred feet under. The flooded Raša-Boljunščica River system and the spread of anatomically modern humans to Mediterranean Europe	89
	After the ice. Northern incursions along the Rena River at the beginning of the Holocene following the melting of the Scandinavian Ice Sheet	91
	Down the river. Agriculture and trade in the dynamic floodplain of Basses Terres, Rhône River during late antiquity	92
	Streamlined water networks. Spring capture, irrigation and terracing in the Valley of Ricote, al-Andalus, Spain	92
	Boom and burst. Terraced agriculture in Minorca through the Medieval Climatic Anomaly and the Little Ice Age	94
	What's next? Trends and potential for geoarchaeology in fluvial landscapes, and beyond	94
<i>Chapter 5</i>	Challenges of geoarchaeology in wetland environments	97
	CRISTIANO NICOSIA	
	Wetland sediments	98
	Wetland sediments in archaeological contexts	100
	Conclusions	105
<i>Chapter 6</i>	Soil pollen analysis: a waning science?	107
	ROB SCAIFE	
	Introduction: a background to soil pollen analysis	107
	Taphonomy of pollen in soil	108
	The pollen method	111
	Research archaeological and experimental studies	113
	Conclusion	114
<i>Chapter 7</i>	Making thin sections for geoarchaeology	117
	TONKO RAJKOVACA	
	Soils and micromorphology in archaeology	118
	Sampling soils and sediments	118
	Thin section making	120
	Sawing of samples	123
Part II	Peoples, landscapes and lifeways	127
<i>Chapter 8</i>	Modelling, mimicking and fighting waters: Lower River Great Ouse and Ouse Washlands investigations	129
	CHRISTOPHER EVANS	
	Tracing waters (and islands) – fathoming lands	129
	Bringing the Fens to Cambridge – the Ouse Tidal Model	134
	The 'Big Straight' and the Hovertrain	137
	Flat earths – engineerings and follies	140
	Multiple strands and reclamations	141
<i>Chapter 9</i>	Speculations on farming development during the early Iron Age of southern Norway (500 BC–AD 550), focusing on the Dobbeltspor Dilling Project	145
	RICHARD I. MACPHAIL, JOHAN LINDERHOLM & LARS ERIK GJERPE	
	Archaeological context of settlement and farming in Norway, with special attention to Iron Age southern Norway	146
	The Dilling site	147
	Methods	149
	Results	149
	Discussion and conclusions	153

<i>Chapter 10</i>	A geoarchaeological agenda for Tyrrhenian central Italy	157
	SIMON STODDART & CAROLINE MALONE	
	The state of geoarchaeology in central Tyrrhenian Italy	160
	Studies of urban centres	163
	A model for Tyrrhenian central Italy	163
	Testing the model	163
	Conclusions	164
<i>Chapter 11</i>	Landscape sequences and Iron Age settlement in southern Africa: managing soils and water in the Greater Mapungubwe landscape	167
	FEDERICA SULAS, BONGUMENZI NXUMALO & INNOCENT PIKIRAYI	
	Mapungubwe landscapes, ecologies, and cultures	169
	Geoarchaeological work	170
	Characterizing the Mapungubwe landscapes through time	172
	Building local landscape sequences for Mapungubwe	179
	Discussion and conclusions	180
<i>Chapter 12</i>	Tracking down the house: the contribution of micro-geo-ethnoarchaeology to the study of degraded houses in arid, temperate and humid tropical environments	183
	DAVID E. FRIESEM	
	Micro-geo-ethnoarchaeology	183
	Case study 1 – arid environment	184
	Case study 2 – temperate environment	186
	Case study 3 – humid tropical environment	188
	Discussion	190
<i>Chapter 13</i>	Soil micromorphological observations of construction techniques at Százhalombatta-Földvár Bronze Age tell settlement, Hungary	193
	GABRIELLA KOVÁCS & MAGDOLNA VICZE	
	Methods	195
	Results and discussion	195
	Conclusions	206
<i>Chapter 14</i>	Cursus complexity: results of geophysical survey on the Dorset Cursus, Cranborne Chase, Dorset	209
	MARTIN GREEN, MICHAEL GILL & ROY LOVEDAY	
	Back to the field – 2018 onwards	209
	The geophysical survey in Cursus and Fir Tree Fields	211
	Discussion (Roy Loveday)	213
	Implications (Roy Loveday)	216
<i>Chapter 15</i>	Three wettings and a funeral: monument construction, land use history, and preservation at Skelhøj and Tobøl I round barrows, Denmark	219
	HELEN LEWIS & ANN-MARIA HART	
	Methods and sites	221
	Results	222
	Comparing preservation environments	228
	Discussion	231
	Conclusions	234
	References	235
	Appendix to Chapter 11	271
	Appendix to Chapter 15	275

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Figures

0.1	<i>Charles McBurney Laboratory for Geoarchaeology thin section facility.</i>	2
0.2	<i>Charly measuring soil particle size using the hydrometer method at East Karnak.</i>	6
0.3	<i>The opening of the Charles McBurney Laboratory for Geoarchaeology.</i>	6
0.4	<i>Charly and Fraser Sturt at the Dorset Cursus.</i>	7
0.5	<i>Charly relaxing at a seaside bar near Alcatrazes, Santiago Island, Cape Verde.</i>	7
0.6	<i>Charly augering at Las Plassas, Sardinia, Italy.</i>	8
0.7	<i>Main sites and site regions covered by Charly French in his research.</i>	9
0.8	<i>Laura Wilson's Deep, Deepen, Deepening performance.</i>	29
0.9	<i>Cleaning an irrigation ditch section at Çatalhöyük.</i>	34
0.10	<i>Location of British sites noted in the text against a background of Holocene coastal sediments.</i>	45
0.11	<i>Cattle and sheep footprints around a Bronze Age rectangular building at Redwick, Severn estuary.</i>	46
0.12	<i>Human footprint in laminated silts of later Mesolithic date at Goldcliff, Severn estuary.</i>	46
0.13	<i>Crane footprints in laminated silts of later Mesolithic date at Goldcliff, Severn estuary.</i>	47
0.14	<i>Wareham, Dorset. Experimental earthwork burying a 33-year-old buried soil overlain by bank.</i>	48
1.1	<i>Geoarchaeology in publishing.</i>	55
1.2	<i>Word clouds drawn from keywords given by authors for the articles drawn on in Figure 1.1.</i>	56
1.3	<i>Tree diagram for keywords used in articles identified in search of the Web of Science on geoarchaeology.</i>	57
2.1	<i>Map of the DISPERSE study area in Jizan and Asir Provinces, southwestern Saudi Arabia.</i>	63
2.2	<i>Localities surveyed and artefacts observed between 2012 and 2017.</i>	64
2.3	<i>Location of observed lithic artefacts and unsupervised surface sediment classification.</i>	65
2.4	<i>Landform map of the L0106/0130 recording grid, and photos showing surface conditions.</i>	66
2.5	<i>Recorded artefact counts per 5 x 5 m square and landforms across the recording grid at L0106, Wadi Dabsa.</i>	67
2.6	<i>Summary of the Haua Fteah's sedimentological facies and cultural sequence from McBurney (1967).</i>	68
2.7	<i>Exemplar photomicrographs of features in the Haua Fteah sediments.</i>	70
3.1	<i>Schematic palaeo-catena model for the development of soils of southern England.</i>	74
3.2	<i>Schematic colluvial-alluvial landscapes.</i>	75
3.3	<i>Dynamic archaeological-palaeoenvironmental GIS-based simulation model.</i>	77
3.4	<i>Smith's environmental reconstructions of the Avebury landscape.</i>	79
3.5	<i>1988 land-use reconstruction for the Dorchester environs.</i>	80
3.6	<i>The 1990 changing prehistoric landscape from the 'Stonehenge Environs Project'.</i>	81
3.7	<i>The 1997 land-use maps and underlying DTM.</i>	82
3.8	<i>Reconstruction of the Avebury landscape.</i>	83
3.9	<i>Examples of the 2008 land-use reconstructions.</i>	85
4.1	<i>Reconstructive map of the now-submerged Adriatic Plain, exposed during the LGM.</i>	90
4.2	<i>Short-lived plant materials, recovered from riverside sedimentary sequences, support accurate chronologies.</i>	91
4.3	<i>Aerial photograph used for reconstructions of the ancient course of the Rhône River across Basses Terres.</i>	92
4.4	<i>A snapshot of the central portion of the Ricote irrigated terrace system during high-resolution mapping.</i>	93
4.5	<i>Preparation of the sampling site for the recovery of the main sedimentary sequence from Algendar.</i>	94
5.1	<i>Wetlands are particularly suited for hand auger observations.</i>	98
5.2	<i>Transition from carbonate muds to foliated peat, viewed in thin section.</i>	99
5.3	<i>Section through the fill of a small ditch in the medieval settlement of Nogara.</i>	100
5.4	<i>The Bronze Age embanked site of Fondo Paviani (Veneto, northeast Italy), surrounded by a 'moat'.</i>	101
5.5	<i>Layer of plant detritus ('detrital peat') as viewed in thin section, showing plant organ and tissue residues.</i>	102
5.6	<i>Waste heap from a pile dwelling phase of the middle Bronze Age site of Oppeano-Palù.</i>	104
5.7	<i>Scanned thin section from a waste heap in the early Bronze Age pile dwelling of Lucone di Polpenazze.</i>	105
6.1	<i>Dimbleby's much-published soil pollen diagram from Iping Common, Sussex, illustrating his style.</i>	112
7.1	<i>Professor Charly French taking soil micromorphology samples.</i>	119

7.2	<i>Example of micromorphology block unpacked and placed in a plastic container.</i>	120
7.3	<i>Impregnation.</i>	121
7.4	<i>Curing of impregnated blocks.</i>	122
7.5	<i>Sawing.</i>	123
7.6	<i>Thin sectioning using a Brot machine.</i>	124
8.1	<i>Barleycroft/Over investigations, environs and location plans.</i>	130
8.2	<i>Areas of excavation, 1994–2020 (Barleycroft/Over).</i>	131
8.3	<i>Ouse palaeochannels, Channel I photographs.</i>	133
8.4	<i>Ouse Tidal Model in demonstration ‘flow’ and under construction.</i>	135
8.5	<i>Ouse Tidal Model, with Fenland river systems and Brownshill Staunch.</i>	136
8.6	<i>The Hovertrain aerial photograph along the trackway, and model renderings.</i>	138
8.7	<i>Moore’s 1658 map showing the southern length of The Level and aerial photograph of the same.</i>	139
8.8	<i>The Hovertrain trials photograph, The Gulls, and reconstruction of the Hovertrain in operation.</i>	140
8.9	<i>Account of a late-era Bedford Level Flat Earth ‘experiment’, as published in The Earth.</i>	141
8.10	<i>Proposed ‘Fenland Engineering Ambitions’ monument.</i>	142
9.1	<i>Location of Dilling, Rygge Municipality, Østfold, Norway, showing excavation areas.</i>	148
9.2	<i>Geological map of Dilling.</i>	149
9.3	<i>Plot of PQuota and %LOI.</i>	150
9.4	<i>Map of features excavated and sampled for soil micromorphology in Area 6.</i>	151
9.5	<i>Map of Area 6, showing geochemical sampling, often correlated with soil micromorphology sampling.</i>	151
9.6	<i>Field photo of Pit House 100, Area 6, showing basal fills.</i>	152
9.7	<i>Colluvial soil profile between Areas 3 and 4, showing depth, %LOI and PQuota data.</i>	152
9.8	<i>M270909B scans and photomicrographs.</i>	153
9.9	<i>M289442 photomicrographs.</i>	154
9.10	<i>M280000 scan and X-ray backscatter image.</i>	154
10.1	<i>Location of field sites mentioned in the text.</i>	158
10.2	<i>The alluvium of the Fiume Sotto Troina (Sicily).</i>	159
10.3	<i>Charly French in Malta.</i>	159
10.4	<i>The Mousterian red terraces (à la Vita-Finzi) of Ponte d’Assi with the limestone escarpment of Gubbio.</i>	161
11.1	<i>Map of southern Africa, showing distribution of major archaeological sites in the middle Limpopo valley.</i>	168
11.2	<i>Map of the Shashe-Limpopo basin showing the location of geoarchaeological survey transect.</i>	171
11.3	<i>Mapungubwe landscapes.</i>	172
11.4	<i>Floodplain profiles GA8 and DS/1.</i>	173
11.5	<i>Micromorphology of floodplain soils.</i>	176
11.6	<i>Valley profiles Leokwe and K2.</i>	177
11.7	<i>Micromorphology of valley soils.</i>	178
12.1	<i>Arid environment – Gvulot, western Negev, Israel.</i>	185
12.2	<i>Temperate environment – Kranionas, northern Greece.</i>	187
12.3	<i>Tropical environment – rock shelter, south India.</i>	189
13.1	<i>Százhalombatta-Földvár.</i>	194
13.2	<i>House wall and silty clay floor, wall remains, installation.</i>	194
13.3	<i>Micrographs of silty clay floors.</i>	198
13.4	<i>Pseudomorphic plant voids.</i>	199
13.5	<i>Composition of the analysed silty clay and earthen floors.</i>	199
13.6	<i>Silty clay floor and the underlying earthen floor of house ID 3147.</i>	200
13.7	<i>Silty clay floors of house ID 3700.</i>	201
13.8	<i>Silty clay floor of house ID 3147 and the underlying ‘extra’ silty clay layer.</i>	202
13.9	<i>Silty clay floor of house ID 3147 and its local renovation.</i>	203
13.10	<i>Microphotographs of earthen floors.</i>	203
13.11	<i>Microphotographs of earthen floors.</i>	204
13.12	<i>Earthen and silty clay floor in the northern part of house ID 1818.</i>	205
13.13	<i>Daub and series of re-plastering layers in thin section.</i>	206

13.14	<i>Inner structure and surface of daub fragment in thin section.</i>	207
13.15	<i>Composition of daub and re-plastering.</i>	208
14.1	<i>Senior Management Team. Dorset Cursus, Fir Tree Field 2018.</i>	210
14.2	<i>The location of the geophysical survey, shown on a LiDAR backdrop.</i>	210
14.3	<i>Magnetometry survey results.</i>	211
14.4	<i>Magnetometry features. Detail of features located in the geophysical survey.</i>	212
14.5	<i>Cursus excavation, Fir Tree Field 2018, looking west to Gussage Down with step/gang junction visible.</i>	212
14.6	<i>Comparison of excavated cursus ditch sections.</i>	214
14.7	<i>The length of the cursus ditch excavated on Down Farm nearly two years after completion of the work.</i>	215
15.1	<i>The location of Skelhøj and Tobøl 1 burial mounds in southwest Jutland, Denmark.</i>	220
15.2	<i>Profiles through part of the Skelhøj mound, the Tobøl I mound, and a typical profile from the area.</i>	220
15.3	<i>Plan of Skelhøj showing sampling locations.</i>	223
15.4	<i>Criss-cross ard marks under Skelhøj and visible in profile in the base of the buried A horizon.</i>	224
15.5	<i>Two views of the sand layers at the base of the Skelhøj barrow mound; these overlay compacted sods.</i>	225
15.6	<i>Iron pans and redox conditions at the Skelhøj barrow.</i>	227
15.7	<i>Line graphs: percentage total Fe, redox potential, percentage volumetric water content.</i>	229
15.8	<i>Line graphs: LOI for moisture content, LOI for organic matter content, and electrical conductivity.</i>	230

Tables

0.1	<i>Representative list of PhDs and MPhils who had Charly French as supervisor or advisor.</i>	11
0.2	<i>List of selected post-doctoral researchers mentored by Charly French, affiliated scholars and visiting scholars and students.</i>	14
3.1	<i>Number of maps and vegetation/land-use categories deployed in the environmental reconstructions.</i>	84
10.1	<i>Tabulation of geoarchaeological research in Tyrrhenian Central Italy: alluvial systems, estuaries, tectonic valleys, cities.</i>	158
11.1	<i>Sites, contexts and samples.</i>	170
11.2	<i>Floodplain profiles: field records and selected ICPAES trends.</i>	174
11.3	<i>Valley profiles: field records and selected ICPAES trends.</i>	177
13.1	<i>List of the samples analysed.</i>	196
13.2	<i>Summary of micromorphological observations.</i>	197
15.1	<i>Samples taken from Skelhøj and Tobøl I Bronze Age barrow mounds.</i>	221
15.2	<i>Summary of samples from 'wash' layers.</i>	224
15.3	<i>Interpreting individual mound sod samples.</i>	226
15.4	<i>Moisture readings from sampling locations.</i>	228
A11.1	<i>Selected ICPAES concentrations.</i>	272
A11.2	<i>Archaeological soil micromorphology description.</i>	273
A15.1	<i>Soil micromorphology descriptions of buried topsoil profiles compared to the modern soil profile.</i>	276
A15.2	<i>Soil micromorphology descriptions of buried B/C horizon characteristics compared to the modern soil profile.</i>	277
A15.3	<i>Micromorphology descriptions of profiles of turves and 'wetting' layers in lower construction sequence at Skelhøj.</i>	278
A15.4	<i>Skelhøj core micromorphology: upper.</i>	280
A15.5	<i>Skelhøj core micromorphology: central.</i>	281
A15.6	<i>Skelhøj core micromorphology: lower.</i>	282
A15.7	<i>Thin section descriptions of sods from Skelhøj mound.</i>	283

Chapter 3

Landscapes of scale or scales of landscape: patterns of land use and landscape

Michael J. Allen

The presentation and interpretation of geoarchaeological, and often environmental archaeological, work can be difficult to assimilate and comprehend by others outside that field of expertise, and more importantly by the archaeological audience with whom we should always be engaging. While clear and unambiguous narrative always helps, this paper illustrates the value of committing land-use reconstructions to maps, where a geoarchaeological and environmental team cannot hide. This requires land use to be defined, and that ambiguous locational descriptions be replaced by clearly mapped and defined areas. Importantly, it requires much greater engagement, interpretation and reconstruction. Assumptions need to be made explicit and a number of land-use parcels clearly defined, and then mapped. This in itself is an important valuable learning and research process omitted from many projects. Although this clearly exposes the team to criticism and critique, it is testable – the addition of new results enables models to be modified and revised in a dynamic and iterative process. This paper takes the reader through this journey.

Geoarchaeological investigation often includes field-work (augering and test-pitting) beyond the confines of the ‘excavation’ (aka ‘the landscape’) to map the current soils and sediments (cf. French *et al.* 2007, fig. 2.2). These sequences are often the basis for environmental archaeologists and geoarchaeologists to provide data and interpretations that look beyond the confines of the ‘site’. These data are the ideal basis to reconstruct *patterns* or distributions of land-use (i.e. human activity) over a study area (e.g. Smith 1984; Allen *et al.* 1990, fig. 155; Allen 1997a, pls 1–5; Allen 1997b, fig. 120; Gillings *et al.* 2008, figs 5.5–5.12; see Table 3.1). These graphic reconstructions are invaluable, but perhaps have not been attempted as widely as they could. This paper indicates some of the potential difficulties, but more importantly illustrates the potential gains in both academic, and public, comprehension. This paper follows similar

lines to Allen (2000) but takes onboard to a much greater extent the role of soils, sediments and geoarchaeological aspects which it largely neglected, and re-examines some of the baseline assumptions used in previous reconstructions.

Environmental archaeologists and geoarchaeologists have become increasingly good at examining the environment of the past, especially from sites and single loci within a defined landscape. Interpretation has often been increasingly high-definition and sophisticated, but often driven by defining ‘place’, and a long time-trajectory of change. In many ways this still harks back to pollen diagrams with long records of climate and vegetation change (cf., Godwin 1940; 1956), and to land snail histograms of deeply stratified sediments and long environmental histories (e.g. Brook and Devil’s Kneadingtrough, both in Kent, England; Kerney *et al.* 1964).

Interpretation needs to develop away from a one-dimensional narrative-driven interpretation or reconstruction of the environment of a place over time, and illustrations need to examine the *pattern* of the environmental landscape mosaic and land-use over space and time. For decades archaeologists have commonly plotted the development of monumental and site histories over landscapes. When they have realized the biases in a monument and site-based interpretation, they have filled in the blanks with data from large fieldwalking campaigns of areas between the sites, such as that at Stonehenge in the 1980s (Richards 1990), and on Bullock Down on the South Downs and Beachy Head near Eastbourne, England, in the 1970s (Drewett 1982), or geophysics, aerial reconnaissance, LiDAR, etc. Environmental archaeologists are, in particular, adept at obtaining and utilizing offsite data to obtain wider landscape interpretation, rather than site-specific and human-activity biased interpretations from site.

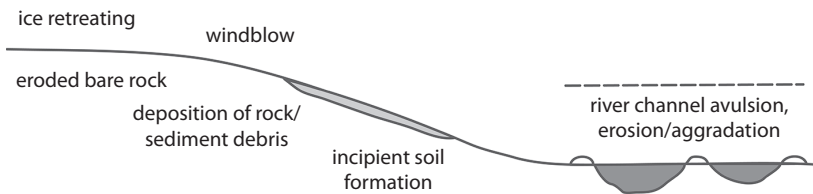
Land-use patterns (a proxy for human activity)

Often, project reconstructions are based on a single pollen diagram and palynological narrative, or on a few site-based land snail histograms, from which a two-dimensional transect of the landscape is typically represented with vegetation defined by topographic zones (Fig. 3.1; see also e.g. Bell 1981, fig. 5.1; Bell & Walker 2005, fig. 7.1). The result is, however, a schematic figure and conceptual reconstruction narrative, which is geographically generic and not location- or point-specific. Attempts to look at landscape dynamics

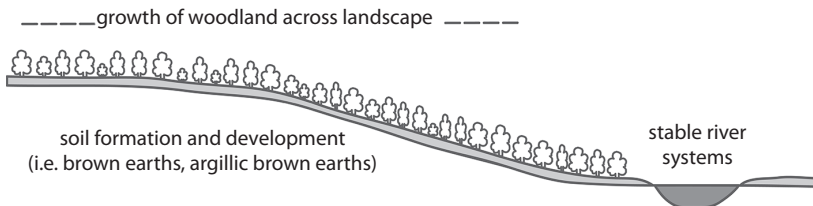
in a more three-dimensional view are often too location-specific, cover too small an area, or are conceptually based (Fig. 3.2). Even when several key pollen diagrams are obtained from a single project they are often used in a confirmatory manner, rather than to significantly advance spatial patterning of vegetation to accompany the vegetation history.

To really move forward we need to attempt, however difficult, to create testable patterns of land use with which to assist in interpreting human activity and use of landscape over time. This should include both offsite and on-site data, but more importantly it requires

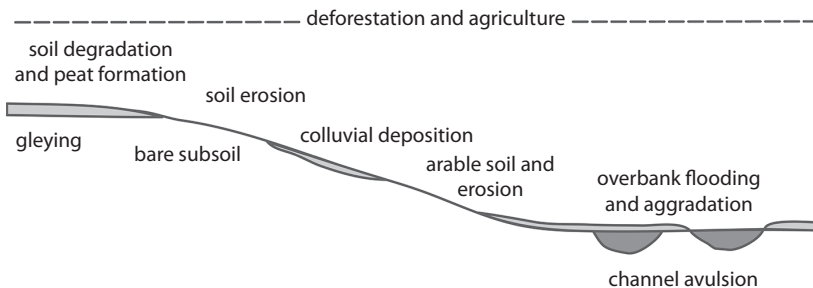
A Late glacial / periglacial conditions: cold and dry



B Early Holocene: warming and temperate



C Middle Holocene: human influence and possible climate change



D Management by humans

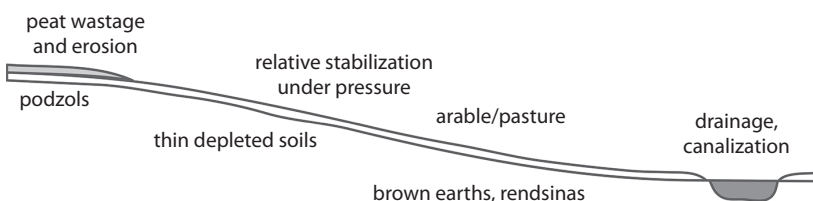


Figure 3.1. Schematic palaeo-catena model for the development of soils of southern England from French (2015, fig. 23). Image: Charles French.

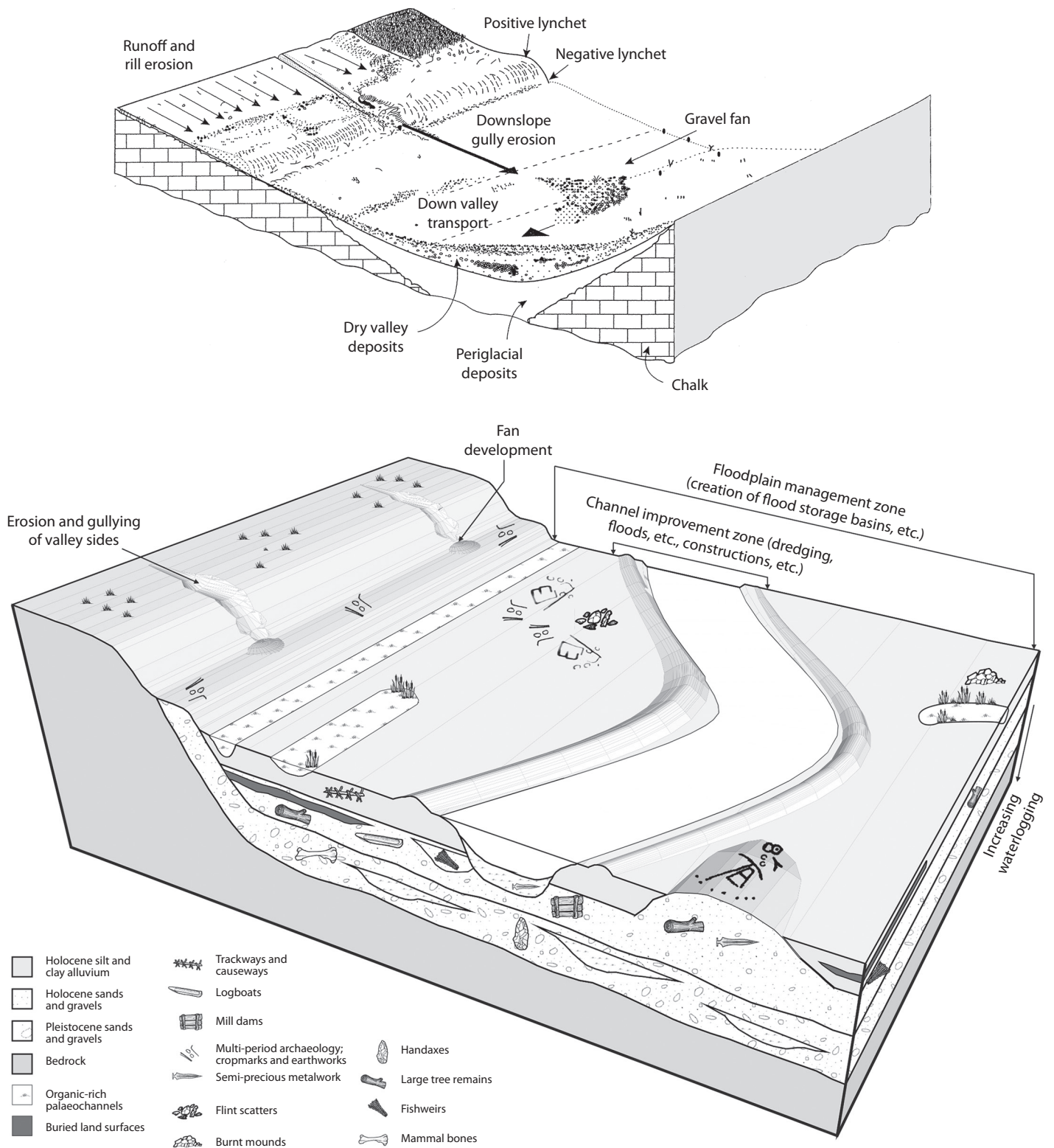


Figure 3.2. Schematic colluvial-alluvial landscapes. Top: schematic diagram of the colluvial landscape-field and valley erosion (French 2015, fig. 6, after Allen 1988a, fig. 6.5; 1991, fig. 5.2); bottom: schematic diagram of an alluvial landscape (French 2015, fig. 7, by D. Redhouse, adapted from Brown 1997, fig. 1.1).

multiple data sets within the defined project landscape (Allen 2000). Where previously one or two long pollen diagrams have provided a useful time-transgressive history, in order to look at this over space and place multiple data sets are required, including representative portions of each topographic, pedogenic, sedimentological and hydrological zone, and encompassing any defined archaeological zones or divisions. Only when this is achieved can we even consider the generation of useful maps and visualization of patterns of land-use.

Mapping patterns of land use

Archaeologists regularly visualize and interrogate time-specific data by mapping the *distribution* of the occurrences of different data sets (artefact types, site, or monument types), the combination of which gives a sense of the use of the landscape, and of the actions of past communities within that landscape. In environmental archaeological terms, achieving something similar is more difficult because we do not wish to map the presence or occurrence of data (which might reflect preservation bias or fieldwork limitations). Instead, I wish to record or map the *interpretation* of a set of palaeoenvironmental data, or multiple sets of different proxy data, over the landscape. Palaeoenvironmental landscape reconstruction requires, therefore, a series of stages before any land-use distributions can be mapped. This has only recently been potentially achievable for a relatively small number of landscapes where a large number of proxy datasets have been acquired across a project study area. Examples from the U.K. include the Allen Valley, Cranborne Chase, Dorset (French *et al.* 2007), Dorchester, Dorset (Allen 1997b), Stonehenge, Wiltshire (Allen 1997a), and ongoing work (with Charly French) in the Avebury environs in the AHRC-funded projects 'Between the Monuments and Living with Landscapes', led by Josh Pollard and Mark Gillings and colleagues.

It is relatively easy to provide a narrative of land-use and landscape change as this is only abstract, and although it provides an excellent picture it is, unlike much of the combined archaeological monument, site and artefact distributions, not ground-located, nor landscape or point specific. In the past, however, environmental archaeologists have fought shy of placing interpretations of vegetation type and land use over specific project geographies. This involves combining scientifically obtained data (in various forms) and interpreting this in terms of a series of individual ecologies or land-use practices, and then placing and stretching them over a real landscape in what may be seen as an unscientific manner. This paper will show that if used with rigour and exactitude this is far from that. Moreover, this may include computer-generated

modelling of ecosystem behaviour (Ludeke *et al.* 1999; Ares *et al.* 2003) and palaeoecology (Heiri *et al.* 2006; Samarasundera 2007).

One of the difficulties of creating a visualized prehistoric landscape reconstruction, rather than an 'artist's impression', is that it needs to be based on data which themselves are spatially and temporarily restricted, often derived from excavated sites (single points) with samples representing limited chronologies. Interpretation has to be stretched over huge spatial and temporal gaps in these imagined landscapes, a process many archaeologists have felt uncomfortable with. Other ways of presenting prehistoric land use and landscape other than maps include via describing the journey of an alter ego through that prehistoric landscape (cf. Allen 2002 and see below).

The land-use or environment maps described below are principally derived from land snail and pollen data, in the first instance used to define the main vegetation and land-use type. Land snails provide an excellent indication of the vegetation character at a local scale (Allen 2017a, and fig. 1.1), while pollen provides the vegetation ecology and species composition, and a wider picture of the vegetation cover (Dimbleby 1985). Information from charred plant remains, wood charcoal and animal bones, when available, provides a flavour of the environment, land-use, and other human activities. These palaeoenvironmental datasets are, however, often derived from archaeological 'sites' which are themselves the focus of prehistoric activity. Consequently, the interpretation of the local environment may be biased towards that created by human activities, and reflect less the wider more generic local landscape. The methods and processes employed in interrogating the data and creating these maps are described by Smith (1984) and Allen (1997a; 2000).

Geoarchaeology has, encouragingly, made an increasing impact upon and contribution to archaeology in the last forty years (Butzer 1982; Courty *et al.* 1989; French 2003; 2015; Goldberg & Macphail 2006; Macphail & Goldberg 2018a), and one way for further integration and improvement is to use a combination of proxy environmental data (e.g. pollen, land snails) and underpin and unite these interpretations through geoarchaeology, i.e. the distribution and character of soils and sediments together with information from buried soils. The integration of snails, pollen and other environmental information provides site-based, and at best local land-use environments within a broader/wider palaeoenvironmental background. One clear way of linking these datasets and underpinning local interpretations is the unification and mapping of the soils and sediments across a whole study area (Fig. 3.3), i.e. defining and characterizing land-use packets/

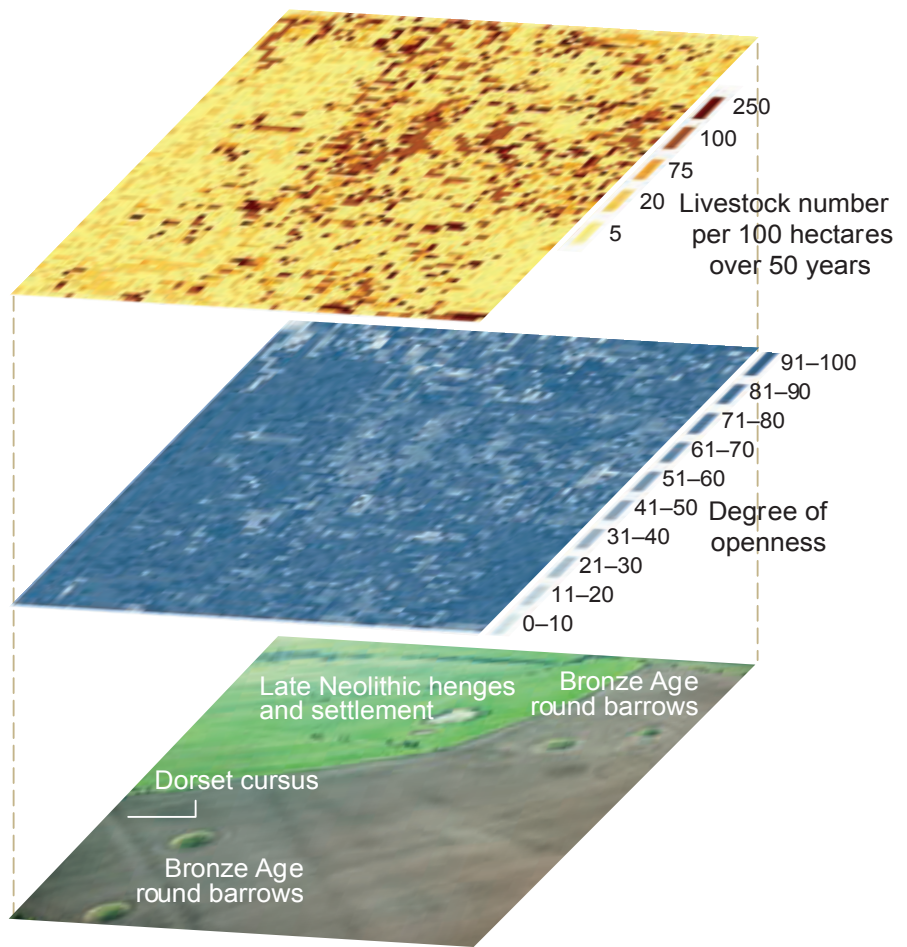
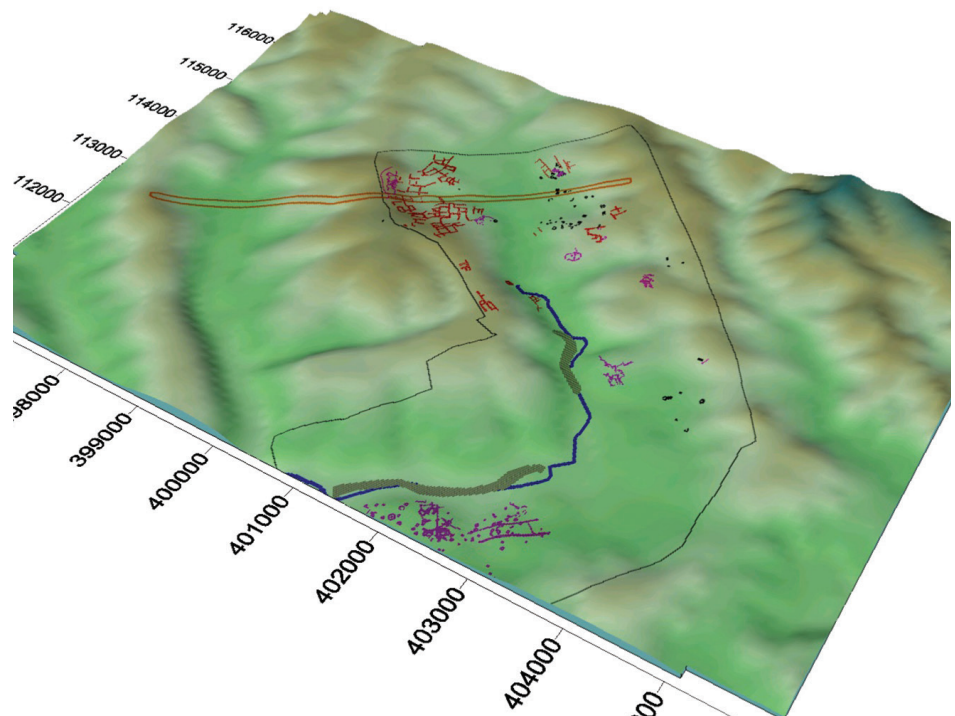


Figure 3.3. a) Dynamic archaeological-palaeoenvironmental GIS-based simulation model: lower aerial view of Wyke Down, Cranborne Chase, overlain by model of earlier Neolithic openness, and superimposed with model of associated grazing intensity (French 2015, fig. 20, by D. Redhouse after Samarasundera 2007); b) A digital elevation, or terrain, model (DTM), of the prehistoric sites in the upper Allen value of Cranborne Chase, Dorset (French 2015, fig 11, by C. Begg).



packages (*sensu* Needham & Macklin 1992), combined with a deep geoarchaeological understanding of the soil and sediment history. The latter requires identification of archaeological soil or sediment parcels or packets placed within a map of the modern soils and deposits as a proxy for past environments and environmental histories. Overall, this more geoarchaeological approach mitigates/minimizes some of the pitfalls of limited data sets in large areas (Allen 1997a, table 2; 2000, table 2.2; 2005, table 7.3). More recently, reconstruction, interpretations, and current projects (e.g. Avebury environs 'Between the Monuments and Living with Monuments' projects – works in progress) have included more information from geoarchaeology (presence and type of soils and sediments, and data from soil micromorphology).

Providing a land-use map and plotting the *patterns* of land-use require an exponentially larger number of datasets from within each chosen timeframe, and an in-depth comprehension of the whole project landscape at the ground level, i.e. for the project team to have walked a large portion of and visited most of the areas within each project landscape. Beyond that, it requires weaker interpretation, or even imagination or guesswork in the areas where data are limited – and this is where many archaeological scientists find a loss of 'scientific rigour' worrying, and retreat to the safety of computer assistance. Land-use modelling often then fails due to lack of data, resulting in low density of the spatial and temporal information in relation to the size, geography and topography of the landscape. Areas of limited evidence, or guesswork, are less problematic if they are made overtly explicit rather than unacknowledged.

These reconstructions allow much greater engagement with archaeological audiences at an academic and interpretational level, as well as with the general public at a broader educational level. Without environmental archaeologists' direct input, we are often left with generalized artists' impressions, which tend to be based on general notions rather than real data, and other archaeologists' uninformed interpretation of our data, rather than developing these in a better and more nuanced way ourselves, or better still, in collaboration. The strength of such reconstructions is that they provide maps that can subsequently be checked and modified with the emergence of new datasets. Data-poor areas can be specifically targeted for fieldwork, and in these ways the maps are iterative and directly inform future fieldwork.

Normally the interpretational development would be progressive and successional – the framework being set, and the interpretations and reconstructions being tweaked, modified and developed with each new raft of archaeological and analytical (palaeoenvironmental

or geoarchaeological) data obtained. Greater improvement would be expected especially in areas or for periods where the data are limited or poorly understood. We would hope that these are precisely the areas (geographic, chronological or thematic) which are being targeted by new fieldwork and research.

Patterns of land use

One of the first really successful examples of analytically mapping prehistoric vegetation and land-use patterns in Europe was Smith's series of pen and ink reconstructions of the early, mid- and late Neolithic of the Avebury area in England, which were based on the careful, elegant and critical assessment of the snails, pollen and faunal data, and three accompanying maps summarizing the data (Smith 1984, figs 2, 3, 8–10; Smith 1985, 44–52), combined with the record of archaeological monuments. Together these provided the basis for both land-use interpretation and for mapping of location and extent of its component mosaic (see Allen 2000; 2005).

Smith's maps (Fig. 3.4) of the early and late Neolithic offer a land-use reconstruction of the extent and pattern of land-use through the entire depicted landscape (c. 35 sq. km), as well as change through time. The areas of different land-use were extended well beyond the location of the datasets, nevertheless they provide a pleasing and analytically derived holistic landscape map. It is perhaps worth noting that Smith had an interest in environmental archaeology, but was not an environmental archaeologist himself, and perhaps that is why he was able to think outside the box and the traditional diagrammatic ways of presenting environmental information. These illustrations had a profound influence on my own approaches to creating land-use maps for both the Dorchester and Stonehenge areas in England.

Maps of the prehistoric land-use for the Dorchester area in Dorset (Fig. 3.5) were soundly based on environmental data (principally land snails) from the research excavations at Mount Pleasant (Wainwright 1979) and Maiden Castle (Sharples 1991), and commercial archaeological investigations at Greyhound Yard (Allen 1993; Woodward *et al.* 1993), Alington Avenue (Allen 2002; Davies *et al.* 2002), and along the Dorchester southern by-pass and western link (Allen 1988b; 1997b; Smith *et al.* 1997). The individual environmental interpretations for each site (derived from the proxy dataset/s) were defined and characterized in terms of vegetation type and land-use character and plotted to obtain a 'flavour' of the distribution and pattern of the different environments. Strongly influenced by Evans' concern about extending land-use interpretation over

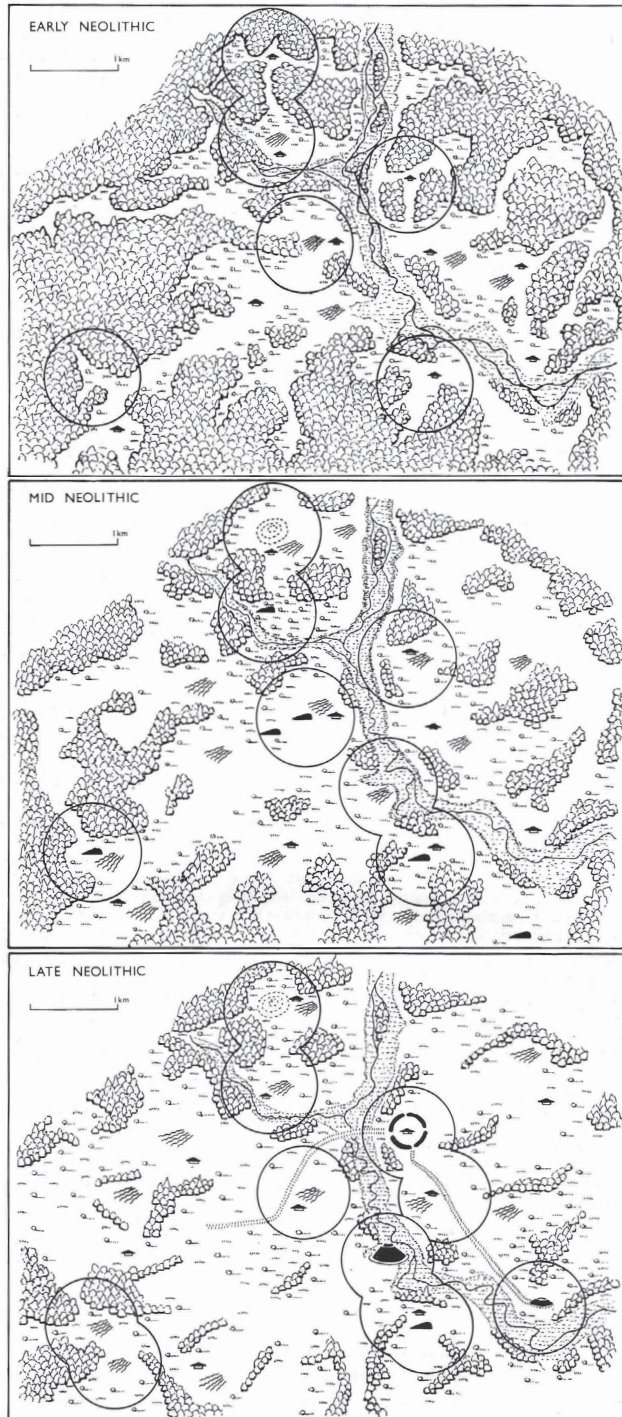


Figure 3.4. Smith's environmental reconstructions of the Avebury landscape (Smith 1984). Images reproduced with permission of the Prehistoric Society.

the whole landscape window as Smith had done, the reconstructions for the Dorchester area (initially presented in 1988), were more conservative. Two maps were generated: one for the mid-Neolithic and

the other representing the late Neolithic/early Bronze Age, in line with the focus of many of the excavated sites. Interpretation of land-use and environment only extended over the areas from which data had been obtained (Allen 1988b).

Large areas of the landscape window were left unmapped, resisting the temptation to fill in the rest of the map, and keyed as 'no data', leaving the reader to guess (Fig. 3.5; Allen 1997b, fig. 120). Subsequently, working at the end of the 'Stonehenge Environs Project', and just before completion of the polished volume, there was an opportunity to review the environmental data from the project (Richards 1990). This was undertaken explicitly following Smith's critical approach (1984; and pers. comm.) but employing a slightly more relaxed conservative approach than for the Dorchester environs. Four maps were generated (Fig. 3.6) reflecting the same periods used in Cleal's (1990) summary of the pottery sequence over the landscape, and used by Richards (1990) for his review of the entire project. The environmental data from each site, and the presence of a significant archaeological monument or group of monuments, were considered to reflect the area surrounding and beyond them. Throwing caution to the wind, the palaeo-environment was extended for half a kilometre around each significant site, making a one kilometre environmental 'bubble' around each set of environmental data.

Palaeo-environments were then also inferred around each significant archaeological monument (as they had been for the Dorchester environs). Although excited by the first environmental reconstruction based on data rather than informed archaeological supposition, and in spite of the 1 km environmental bubbles, the resultant maps still looked blank and echoed the problems/weakness of those from the Dorchester environs. Although the Dorchester (Allen 1997b) and Stonehenge environs (Allen *et al.* 1990) maps presented environmental interpretation over only the parts of the landscape from which data were obtained, the honest 'blanks' unfortunately effectively looked like open areas of cleared woodland, where in reality at the time it was thought they represented the opposite: dense woodland with little archaeological activity and thus little archaeological and palaeoenvironmental evidence. Consequently, one has to question the value of these to (successfully) communicate land-use patterns and changes. Although critical of Smith stretching the extent of his environmental reconstruction beyond the limits of his data, his illustrations are bold, archaeologically more useful, and are ultimately spatially testable.

Surprisingly, although the large 'Stonehenge in its Landscape' project provided some key datasets (especially the Mesolithic post pits), my environmental

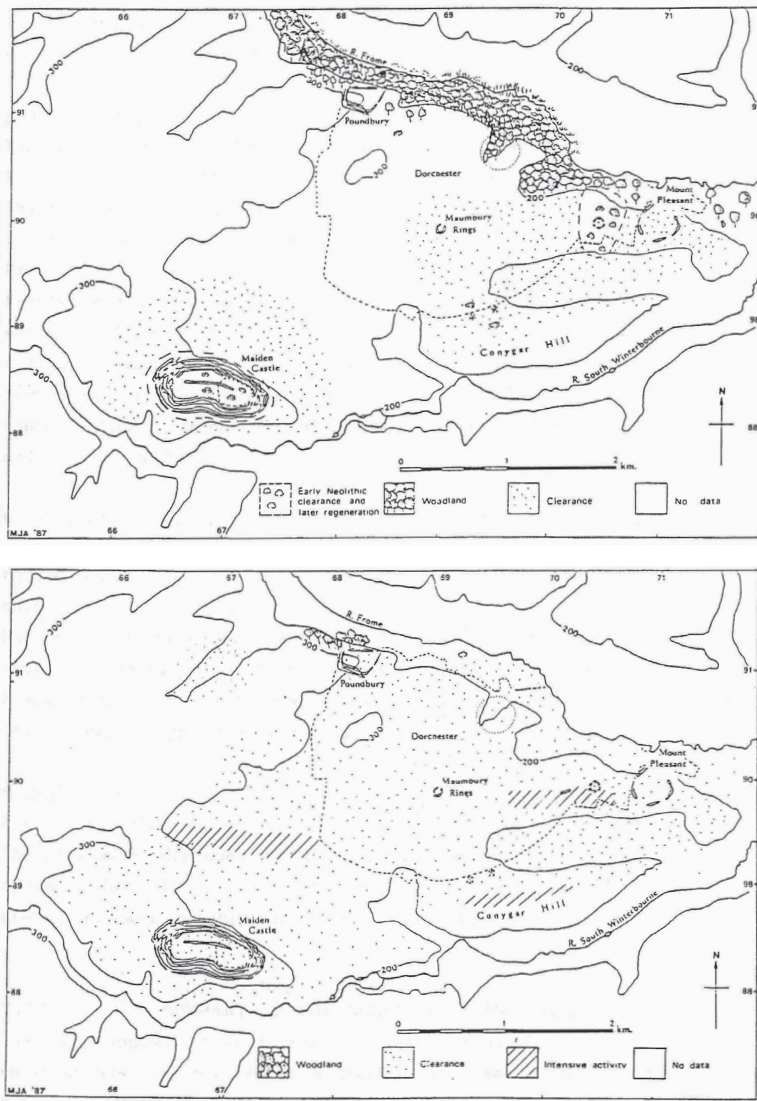


Figure 3.5. 1988 land-use reconstruction for the Dorchester environs (Allen 1994; fig. 98; 1997b, fig. 120). Images: Mike Allen.

discussion was restricted to text narrative (Allen 1995a,b). An opportunity to provide new palaeoenvironmental maps of the land-use and revise those produced for the preceding 1990s 'Stonehenge Environs Project' (Richards 1990) did not form part of the project design, as it was principally centred around the publication of previous twentieth-century, largely unpublished, excavations of the monument and associated adjacent monuments. Nevertheless, the Royal Society and British Academy hosted a two-day conference to celebrate the completion of this 'definitive publication' (Cunliffe & Renfrew 1997). That enabled the publication of additional, personal research together with a review of the important Mesolithic (and other) data. The opportunity was taken to create what were then much more sophisticated illustrations of the land-use patterns, to assist our comprehension of the use of the whole landscape.

It was realized that the reconstructions from the Dorchester and Stonehenge environs were academically and ethically strong. Interpretation was constrained to specific areas from which the data were obtained and to the immediately adjacent, and probably over-exaggerated 'bubbles', to which the data were considered to refer. However, as we have seen, the resultant 'truthful' images were not as informative as initially perceived. To overcome the 'blankness' of the 1988 Dorchester and 1990 Stonehenge reconstruction maps, and to provide a more holistic reconstruction for the Stonehenge landscape, the interpretational envelopes for each vegetation type were stretched (Fig. 3.7). Their extent was moderated principally by using geographical parameters (topography and hydrology) in a digital terrain model (DTM), combined with the distribution of both archaeological sites and artefact scatters. These parameters allow a more nuanced



Figure 3.6. The 1990 changing prehistoric landscape from the 'Stonehenge Environs Project' from Richards (1990, fig. 155). Images reproduced with permission from Historic England.

'stretching' of the environmental land-use interpretations, to cover the entire block of land with the map.

It was possible to identify five crude and relatively general land-use categories from the palaeoenvironmental data: i) oak, hazel, elm woodland, ii) secondary open woodland, iii) floodplain, iv) grazed grass, and v) arable plot. The land-use 'envelopes' (parcels of land with the same land-use characteristics; Allen 2000) were centred on the data, and manually draped over a DTM, creating an environmental reconstruction of the land use for the entire mapped area. The shape and extent of these envelopes were manually modified and manipulated in light of the environmental and archaeological data (collated, respectively, by myself and Ros Cleal), using the topography provided by the DTM, and the distribution of archaeological monuments, sites and artefact scatters as guides. More detailed description of this process is in Allen (1997a; 2000).

This process was essentially a slightly more informed and rigorous version of that used by Smith (1984; 1985) for Avebury. The maps were divided into pixels, and site and near-site archaeological and environmental data, and land-use interpretation listed for each. The level of confidence in that land-use ascription, on a scale of 1–10, was recorded against the pixel data. In so doing, the interpretations were rigorous, justified and quantified, the ideal basis on which to enter into an interactive GIS and for remodelling in the future.

Returning to Avebury, my 2005 review of the Avebury area (Allen 2005), although lacking new illustrative suggestions of the land-use, did publish three environmental maps by Smith (1984), and reproduced four extant artist's reconstructions by Jane Brayne, which provided the then new consideration of the changing land-use patterns (Fig. 3.8). Finally, as a result of the 'Landscape of the Megaliths' project,

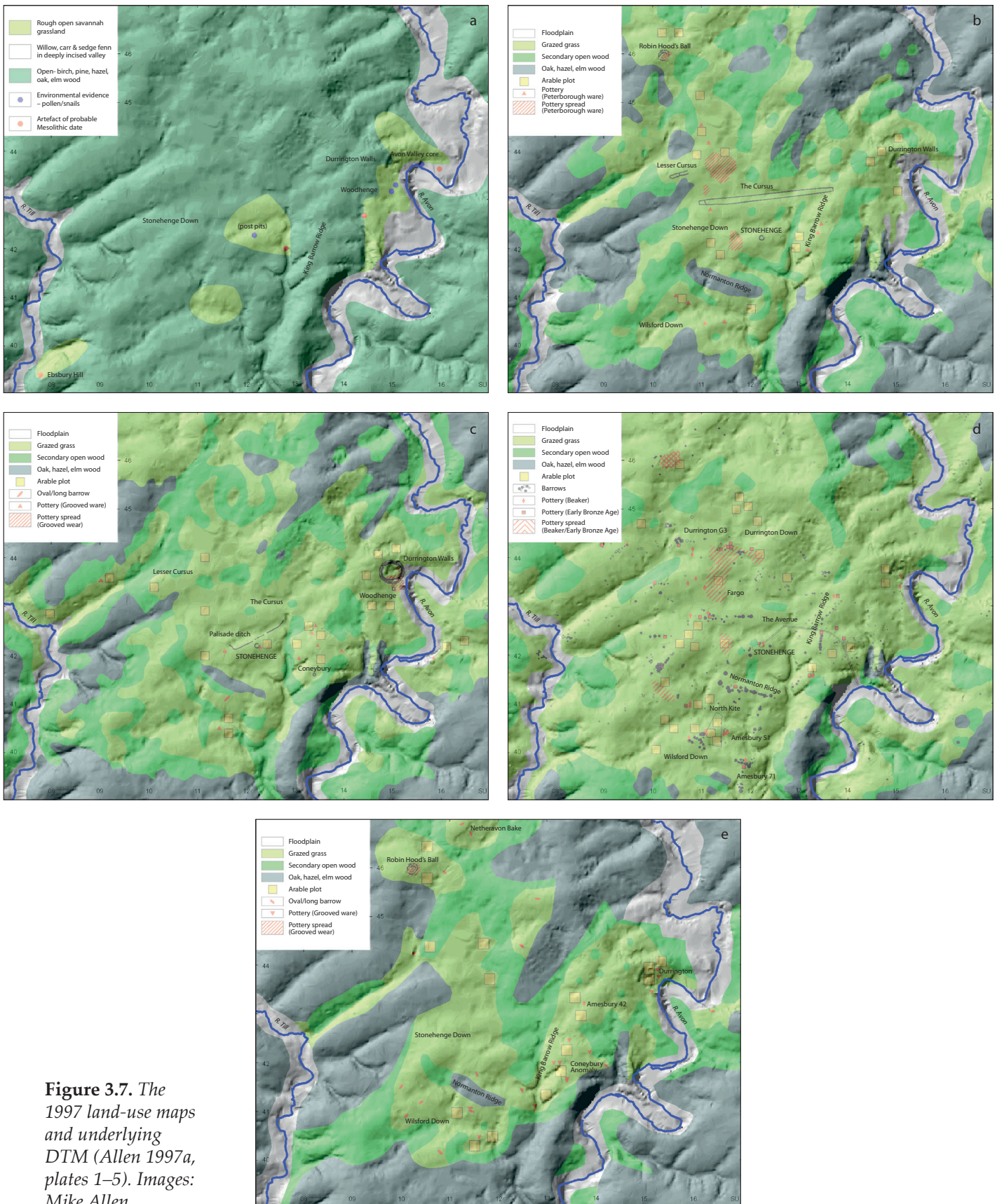


Figure 3.7. The 1997 land-use maps and underlying DTM (Allen 1997a, plates 1–5). Images: Mike Allen.

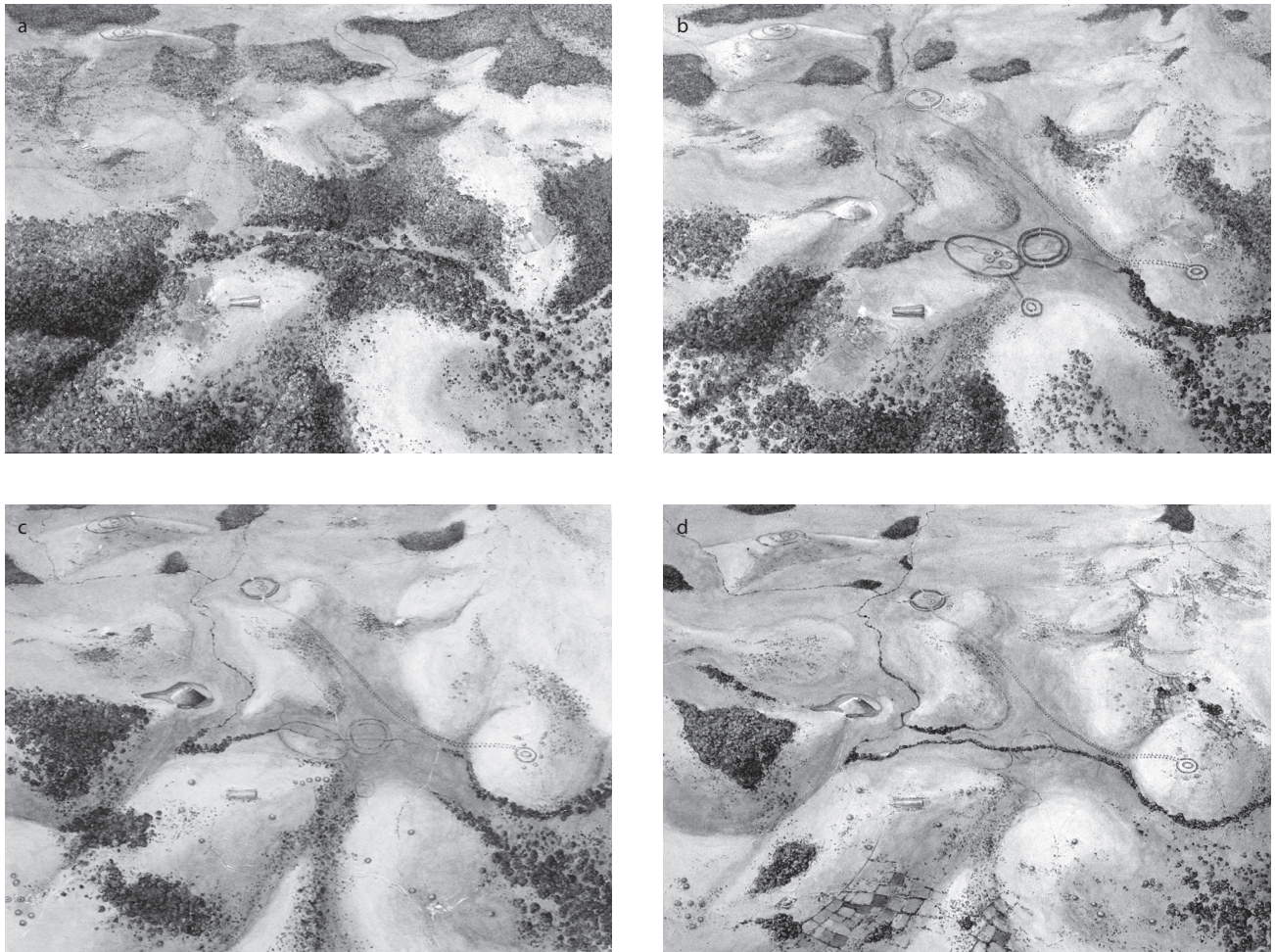


Figure 3.8. Reconstruction of the Avebury landscape: a) mid-Neolithic c. 3400 BC, b) final Neolithic c. 2200 BC, c) Early Bronze Age c. 1700–1600, and d) mature Bronze Age c. 1000 BC. Images: Jane Brayne.

Gillings *et al.* (2008, figs 5.4–5.15) produced nine masterful, detailed and critiqued reconstructions of the Avebury landscape from the pre-Neolithic to the late Bronze Age, derived conceptually in a similar way to those described above, but they were significantly more sophisticated. The data were held within a GIS to assist manipulation, interrogation, output and visualization, and, importantly, included much stronger plant community associations. This enabled them to subdivide the generic ‘woodland’ label into four separate ecologies, and the floodplain into two (Table 3.1). As advocated strongly for earlier reconstructions, these are ‘accurately georeferenced and highly structured’ (Gillings *et al.* 2008, 174, table 5.3), and directly based on the palaeoenvironmental, archaeological and geographical data.

These reconstructions can inform both the academic and general public, as seen in the Stonehenge interpretation diorama in the new visitor centre opened

in 2013. Unfortunately, just as the long-awaited video (based on my interpretations and advice) was being completed, I realized that we needed to re-think and restart the whole thing from scratch (see below). Although not possible then, this is something that should remain high on the agenda, even though it is more difficult to explain that most of the prehistoric landscape was enveloped in a woodland of some kind before being cleared for living, pasture, and monument building.

An excursion

Land-use reconstruction images are generated to assist in understanding people in the past and how and where communities lived and operated in the landscape: What was the landscape like? How did they modify and utilize that landscape? Was it changed though definite constructs, or inadvertently by everyday activity? A graphical representation clearly brings

Table 3.1. Number of maps and vegetation/land-use categories deployed in the various environmental reconstructions discussed.

Avebury	Dorchester	Stonehenge	Stonehenge	Avebury
Smith 1984	Allen 1988b; 1997	Allen <i>et al.</i> 1990	Allen 1997a	Gillings <i>et al.</i> 2008
2 maps Early Neolithic– Late Neolithic	2 maps Early Neolithic–Late Bronze Age	4 maps Early Neolithic–Later Bronze Age	5 maps Mesolithic– Later Neolithic/Early Bronze Age	9 maps Pre-Neolithic–Late Bronze Age
Woodland	Woodland	Woodland	Woodland	Dense oak, elm woodland of clay with flints
				Thinner oak, elm woodland on steeper clay slopes
				Oak elm woodland on greensand and gaults
				Mixed oak elm woodland on chalk
	Secondary woodland	Scrubland	Secondary woodland	Secondary woodland
River margins			Floodplain	Low woodland and carr
				Woodland prone to flooding
General open grassland	Clearance, aka general open grassland	Grassland	Grazed grass	Cleared pasture and herbaceous scrub
Arable plot	Intensively farmed land	Arable	Arable plot	Cultivated plots

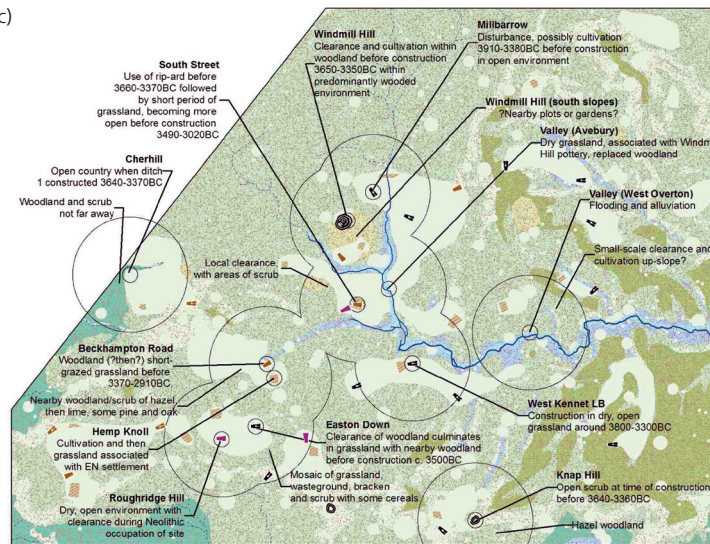
the archaeologist closer to the landscape, resources and processes of the past. But I was reminded that this is not the only way to ‘get into’ some of these past landscapes. If our palaeoenvironmental information is so good, and the archaeologist really understands the landscape, the geography and space, and empathizes with the place, it is possible to view that landscape in another way: one that is more difficult to share, but that helps refine and improve our interpretation. One way to test your own comprehension (strengths and weaknesses) of our reconstructions is to visually imagine the landscape as a reality; so real that you could walk through the imagined prehistoric landscape and describe it as you go. Not only is this self-informative, but areas that can and cannot be visualized and described well are the areas of strengths or weakness that require, if not attention, certainly recognition of their existence. One of the best studied areas, certainly in terms of size and data gain, is Cranborne Chase and the Allen Valley in England (Allen 1998; Allen & Green 1998; Green 2000; French *et al.* 2003; 2007). Ironically, although detailed soil mapping was undertaken in combination with palaeoenvironmental analysis, no full interpretive reconstruction map was produced. However, the landscape was visualized and described from the perspective of a middle Neolithic inhabitant of the landscape, ‘Cranborne lady’ (Allen 2002). Not only is the landscape described as viewed from the Gussage Down long barrow, but the reader is led on a journey which describes the countryside and vegetation, and they travel down the hillslope, across the Dorset Cur-sus monument into the Allen Valley and then up the

northern valley side to Wimborne-up-Monkton, where the human remains of a middle Neolithic woman were found (Green 2000; Montgomery *et al.* 2000).

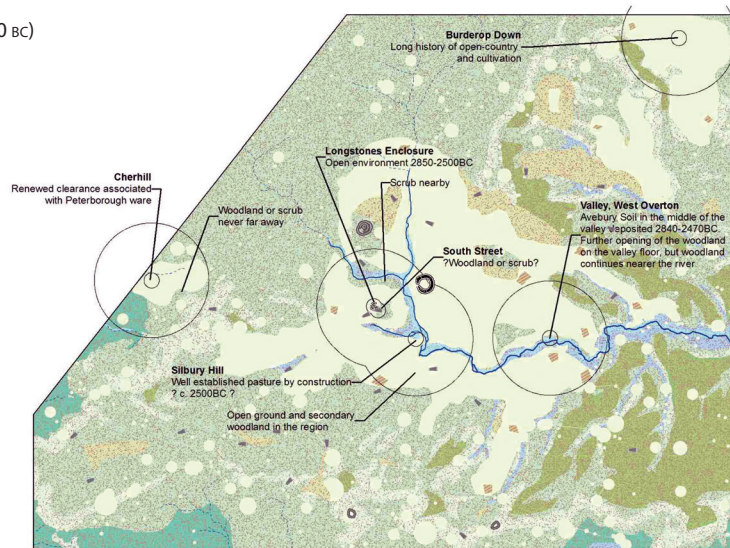
All change: a new geoarchaeology and palaeo-environment to consider

The illustrations above and presented in Figs. 3.4–3.9, have largely been discussed through the philosophy and mechanics of their generation, rather than the interpretation or re-interpretation they bring to the landscape they describe. All of the above, from 1984 to 2008, were predicated upon the concept of pan-European post-glacial/early prehistoric vegetation succession and the development of a widespread mixed oak deciduous wood (Tansley 1939) by the mid-Holocene (early Neolithic in the U.K.). This succession included human interaction, modification and ultimately domination. On this basis, mapping the land-use and vegetation history required the identification of localized and successive clearings leading during prehistory to the almost wholesale removal of the post-glacial woodland cover over large areas of the U.K. Reconstruction maps were largely based on mapping the removal of that woodland, and the progressive opening of the landscape. Many reconstruction maps, therefore, started with a full woodland cover, with patches being ‘rubbed out’ where archaeological sites were constructed and where woodland clearings were identified in the environmental data. The Avebury environmental maps by Smith (1984; Fig. 3.4), the artist reconstructions by Brayne (Fig. 3.8; Allen 2005, figs 7.3a,b, 7.4a,b), Gillings *et al.* (2008,

Early Neolithic (3700–3400 BC)



Later Neolithic (3000–2600 BC)



Final Neolithic (2600–2200 BC)

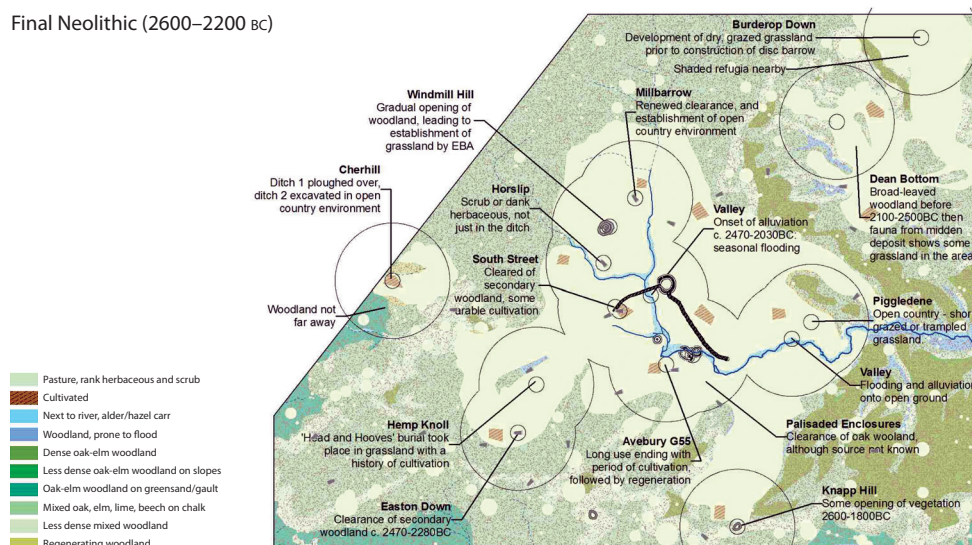


Figure 3.9. Examples of the 2008 land-use reconstructions (Gillings et al. 2008, figs 5.6, 5.8–5.9, 186–9). Images reproduced with permission from Gillings et al. and Oxbow Books (see also Acknowledgements).

figs 5.4–5.12), and mine for Dorchester (Allen 1988b; 1997b) and Stonehenge (Allen *et al.* 1990; Allen 1997a) were all based on this premise. However, subsequent research in Cranborne Chase (French *et al.* 2007), the Stonehenge and Avebury areas (Allen & Gardiner 2009; Allen 2017b) and previous research around Dorchester (Allen 1997b) allows us to realize for the first time that the post-glacial woodland cover was not as complete, nor as widespread, as previously surmised. Neither Cranborne Chase nor Stonehenge was densely wooded (French *et al.* 2003; 2007; Allen & Gardiner 2009; Allen 2017b; and see Alexander *et al.* 2018). This has fundamental and profound implications for our interpretations of these prehistoric landscapes, but also for the understanding of the ecology of the British countryside (Alexander *et al.* 2018; see also Whitehouse & Smith 2010; Allen 2017b).

As a uniform continuous post-glacial woodland cover can no longer be assumed (see also Bell this volume), the premise of all previous palaeoenvironmental landscape and land-use maps is therefore false. New interpretations have to rely more on actual data points within the landscape, each with their own small geographical and variable chronological points of reference, rather than assuming a widespread woodland backdrop. This has huge and fundamental implications for environment and land-use reconstructions, and for our understanding of the communities who inhabited them (Allen & Gardiner 2009). Although full analysis of all the new data is not yet complete, we will be able to provide new general images/visualizations of the nature of the Stonehenge and Avebury landscapes, and, significantly, they will be (some of) the first to be based on the post-Tanseyan hypotheses presented by French *et al.* (2003; 2007) and Allen (2017b).

Conclusions: concepts and communicating patterns of land use

With the significantly increased level of analysis through space and time, as exemplified by Charly French's own work in collaboration with the author and other colleagues on Cranborne Chase, the Stonehenge Riverside Project, and at Avebury, what is now needed is a more concerted attempt to tentatively but assuredly apply science-based and more rigorous ecological modelling and interpretation of defined land-use 'packets' (as Gillings *et al.* 2008 attempted), and map these patterns over whole landscapes. Whilst we must admit that we have less confidence in the spatial distribution of extent of some land-use envelopes, this can be mitigated in part by palaeo-ecological modelling, a topic being investigated by a number of research projects (e.g. Caseldine *et al.* 2008; Bunting *et*

al. 2013; 2016; 2018; Bunting & Farrell 2018; Farrell *et al.* 2020). Unless we take these bold steps, environmental archaeological interpretations of lived-in ancient, especially prehistoric, landscapes will be restricted to just more detailed but still two-dimensional abstract landscape interpretations, while our colleagues in other branches of archaeology look more clearly at patterns of occupation, settlement and activity in and across those landscapes.

Armed with these new data and interpretations, generated through a strong geoarchaeological approach with Charly French (French *et al.* 2003; 2007; Allen & Gardiner 2009), the concept of less wooded post-glacial environments is being extended into the Stonehenge landscape and the Avebury area (French *et al.* 2012; Allen 2017b). The new plank of interpretations for, in particular, the Avebury area will combine the archaeological and geoarchaeological information and manipulate it via GIS and realistic computer visualization models, to create a new generation and the next stage in visually interrogatable models. By using a gaming engine (Unity), a 3D reconstruction of the Avebury landscape can be built. This is undertaken in a traditional way, using GIS to map heights, soils and sediments, and builds on the approach used by Wheatley (in Gillings *et al.* 2008). This is augmented with extra data taken from augering, geophysics and excavations, to which any other information, such as land snail, soil micro-morphology, palaeobotany, or faunal remains can be added, and provides a set of basic areas that we can overlay on the landscape and assign different biome identifiers. The 3D nature of the landscape is built using elevation data, which can be imported into the gaming engine and turned into 3D terrain in which we can walk. The properties of the different biomes are coded, including, e.g. 'grassland', 'woodland', 'riparian', etc. We can assign a specific suite of plants, groundcover, trees, creating the palaeo-ecology, with the animals and birds (even with their bird song), as informed by the GIS model. These data are taken by the gaming engine and overlaid on the 3D terrain, which effectively populates it with the right plants in the right places, as well as the hydrology and river levels, including 're-wetting' some valleys. It is then possible for the viewer to wander around a virtual landscape using either a VR headset or just a 'normal' computer game screen (Stu Eve, pers. comm.). As each of these biomes is dynamic and assigned a crude timescale, it is not only possible to walk through the virtual landscape, but to see the biomes change through the various defined phases ... walking through time!

This will undoubtedly assist us in the new re-interpretation of the Avebury area in the first instance, and new palaeoenvironmental and geoarchaeological

datasets will then be available for scholars to engage with both as information increases, and as the basis of interpretations changes again, as will the entire GIS and gaming model.

This paper is being written as visual computer-generated aids are increasing in complexity and ability at a pace, and becoming more widely available to the skilled, trained and untrained operator. Although this offers fantastic opportunities, we must also be wary and vigilant not to be fooled by visually impressive, beautifully rendered computer-generated images of the past, masquerading as 'reconstructions', rather than the 'operator's impression' that they are. What these computer-aided systems allow is the visual manipulation of the vegetation patterns, hydrology and water levels, and landscape views. As I complete this paper, we are just about to enter this world with the 'Living with Monuments' (Avebury) project where, using our new data, a new generation of maps, or worlds, will be generated.

Postscript

I have been lucky enough to work closely with Charly French on projects from Cambridgeshire to Dorset, encompassing Stonehenge and Avebury on the way. As these projects have been completed, and others approach their conclusion, it has been a great journey, and behind us we can see that excellent intuitive field geoarchaeology and concerted strong communal fieldwork, followed by in-depth analysis, have led to not just modification and improvement of old

interpretations, but new ideas, new landscapes and new worlds, all led, imbued and encouraged by Charly. Perhaps in hindsight one of the failures or weaknesses of the Cranborne Chase project and publications was not to attempt to visualize or map the new and novel land-use reconstruction. This was not explicitly in our original research design; perhaps it should have been, but now the opportunity exists to go back to the data and revisit that world, virtually.

Acknowledgements

This paper, and my own environmental and geoarchaeological work and fieldwork has been strongly influenced by Charly for the past twenty-five years, during which time we have been colleagues, friends, teachers and students to each other – long may all of that last.

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Inspired geoarchaeologies

Geoarchaeological research captures dimensions of the past at an unprecedented level of detail and multiple spatial and temporal scales. The record of the past held by soils and sediments is an archive for past environments, climate change, resource use, settlement lifeways, and societal development and resilience over time. When the McDonald Institute was established at Cambridge, geoarchaeology was one of the priority fields for a new research and teaching environment. An opportunity to develop the legacy of Charles McBurney was bestowed upon Charles French, whose 'geoarchaeology in action' approach has had an enormous impact in advancing knowledge, principles and practices across academic, teaching and professional sectors. Many journeys that began at Cambridge have since proliferated into dozens of inspired geoarchaeologies worldwide. This volume presents research and reflection from across the globe by colleagues in tribute to Charly, under whose leadership the Charles McBurney Laboratory became a beacon of geoarchaeology.

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