

Ages and Abilities:
The Stages of Childhood and their
Social Recognition in Prehistoric
Europe and Beyond

edited by

Katharina Rebay-Salisbury
and Doris Pany-Kucera



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Chapter 1

Introduction. Children's developmental stages from biological, anthropological and archaeological perspectives

Katharina Rebay-Salisbury and Doris Pany-Kucera

'Ages and abilities: the stages of childhood and their social recognition in prehistoric Europe and beyond' is a collection of essays that aims to identify and describe the most important age thresholds during childhood and adolescence in the past. By combining bio-anthropological and archaeological data, often from graves, the chapters interpret how and when life was considered to begin in past societies, how developmental stages were recognised, and how childhood transitions were marked and celebrated. This volume grew from the 11th Annual International Conference of the Society for the Study of Childhood in the Past held at the Natural History Museum in Vienna from September 20–22, 2018. The conference theme 'Pregnancy, birth, early infancy and childhood: life's greatest transitions in the past' attracted scholars from the US, UK, Mediterranean and Central Europe.

The chapters present an extraordinary chronological and geographical coverage. For the first time, age and gender structures in late Neolithic to Classical societies in Central Europe are discussed in a way that allows comparison. The presentation of childhood stages includes both bio-archaeological recognition of age and the challenges of placing individuals in meaningful age classes, and cultural elaboration of developmental stages. Papers from outside the scope of later European prehistory expand the theoretical and methodological framework in a complementary manner. The chapters address their own themes and prioritise individual aspects of childhood, e.g. access to weaponry, toys, one particular transition, children's agency, rank and social status.

At the conference, discussions centred on the difficulties of cross-cultural comparison of developmental stages and important life transitions when using different conventions and terminologies with regard to naming age groups. In this volume, authors use the terminologies in the cultural context they study, but define them clearly.

The process of maturing throughout childhood to adulthood necessitates definitions of individuals' ages. The concept of age, however, encompasses various dimensions and may refer to chronological age, i.e. days, months and years counted from birth, physiological age, which focuses on biological signs of maturation, and social age, which responds to the growing abilities and capabilities of the individual (Ginn and Arber 1995; Sofaer 2006, 119).

Contemporary societies most often anchor a person's beginning of life at the date of birth, but ethnographic examples clearly demonstrate that we should not impose our modern, Western conceptions of social life stages on past cultures. A classic example is Margaret Mead's argument that coming of age differs dramatically in different cultural contexts (Benedict 1934; Mead 1928); all children go through similar physical developments, but various cultures treat these changes differently (Prout and James 1990). In archaeological contexts, the physiological and social ages are commonly explored, compared and interpreted, as reliable information on chronological age is rare.

Reflections on childhood and social age from an anthropological (e.g. Lancy 2008; LeVine and New 2008; Montgomery 2008), bio-archaeological (e.g. Halcrow and Tayles 2008; Lewis 2007; Mays *et al.* 2017; Thompson *et al.* 2014) and archaeological (e.g. Crawford *et al.* 2018; Derricourt 2018; Finlay 2013; Romero and López 2018; Sofaer-Derevenski 2000) point of view have contributed a nuanced cross-cultural picture; this book, however, presents case studies from regions that often do not find their way into standard textbooks.

Bio-archaeological age assessment

Osteologists differentiate between physiologically immature skeletons (sub-adults) and fully mature skeletons (adults) using a range of different markers of biological development. These include primarily changes in dentition (AlQahtani *et al.* 2010) and body height inferred through the length of bones, as well as morphological changes such as the fusion of ossification centres and epiphyseal union (Cunningham *et al.* 2016). Dental age is generally less variable than skeletal age, as the latter is more susceptible to the body's response to environmental challenges, and is usually prioritised (Cardoso 2007). Tooth cementum annulation (Blondiaux *et al.* 2016; Roksandic *et al.* 2009; Wittwer-Backofen 2012) relies on combining the average age of dental eruption with counting light and dark bands of dental cementum, the formation of which is thought to correspond to chronological years. Nevertheless, it remains unclear in how far the use of modern reference populations is problematic for age estimations of individuals from prehistoric and ancient populations.

From a biological point of view, the development of primary dentition is an important developmental step that enables a dietary change from nursing to solid food intake. The deciduous dentition consists of 20 teeth and, in contrast to adult dentition, does not include premolars and the third molar. The milk teeth are already present in the jaws at birth, and the incisors may erupt first from the fourth month of life onwards. At that time, dental buds of the permanent dentition are already present in the jawbones, with the first permanent molars usually erupting at around the age of 6 years (AlQahtani *et al.* 2010; Ubelaker 1987). This event coincides with the beginning of the loss of primary dentition, entailing a period of mixed dentition with deciduous and permanent teeth. The occurrence of the second dentition is largely resistant against environmental influences and therefore a reliable feature in estimating age at death (Grupe *et al.* 2015). The second permanent molar erupts at the age of c. 11 years, usually

reaching the masticatory plane around the age of 14 years. Following paediatric definitions, this important event falls into the age of puberty, which girls usually reach between 10-13 years, and boys between 12-16 years (Cunningham, Scheuer, and Black 2016). The hormonally determined growth spurt in adolescence leads to skeletal maturity, which is reached earlier in girls compared to boys of the same age. Recently, techniques used in clinical contexts to assess the pubertal stage at the skeleton relating to hamate hook development, cervical vertebrae maturation (CVM), canine mineralization, iliac crest ossification, and radial fusion in radiographs have been adapted by osteologists for archaeological skeletal remains (Shapland and Lewis 2014). This adjusted method has implications for expanding our knowledge of adolescent maturation across different time-periods and regions. Reaching puberty is of wider significance, as from that age, individuals can biologically reproduce.

Individuals are biologically fully mature with adulthood. In a skeletally adult individual, long bone growth is finished and all epiphyses are fused. Growth cessation is determined hormonally and genetically, and is usually reached for females at the age of 18, and for males at the age of 19 or 20 years. The last epiphyses close at the age of 24-25 years, e.g. in the pelvis, generally later in male individuals (Cunningham *et al.* 2016; Martin, Harrod, and Pérez 2013).

How individuals are grouped into age classes varies according to academic traditions. Most papers in this collection that concern Central Europe follow the German anthropological convention that uses the age categories Fetus/Neonatus (neonate: up to three months old), Infans 1 (early childhood, 0-6 years), Infans 2 (late childhood, 8-14 years), Juvenis (adolescence, 15-20), Adultus (adult, 21-40 years), Maturus (41-60 years) and Senilis (over 60 years, Grupe *et al.* 2015: 267; Knussmann *et al.* 1993; Teschler-Nicola 1985, 205; for a discussion on age group terminology in English, see Cunningham *et al.* 2016, 473-474). Scholars with a focus on the Mediterranean follow alternative age categorisations. Whichever classification scheme is used, it is important to specify the age ranges to facilitate knowledge exchange between different cultures and research traditions.

The study of childhood is an interdisciplinary matter (Baxter *et al.* 2017). From an archaeological point of view, age classes provided by the osteological evaluation are both a useful tool and a hindrance of analysis (Rebay-Salisbury, in this volume). On one hand, using a set of pre-defined age classes can give first insights into associations of age with material objects, funerary and other practices; on the other hand, they make it more difficult to explore the social relevance of age classes that do not align with the modern definitions and identify important age thresholds of the past. This book contributes to improving our interpretations of the meaning of ages, as our authors find social categories that cross-cut these age classes and search to understand social emphasis and significance.

Social responses to ages and maturing

How exactly people in the past determined the right time to mark age transitions socially is an unresolved question, as we often do not understand how time was conceptualized and counted (Lucas 2005). If a calendric understanding of time was established, birthdays may have been counted. Alternatively, biological signs of maturation, such as dental eruption, may have been used as references, or alternatively, signs of mental maturity and the growth of abilities and capabilities.

Maturing occurs in stages, and whilst biological growth is comparable cross-culturally, social responses and categorisations of childhood stages vary across time and space. Definitions of adulthood range particularly widely, and may be very different for girls and boys (Baxter 2005; Crawford *et al.* 2018; Lillehammer 1989). The volume accounts for the variability of how a range of chronologically and geographically diverse communities understood childhood, and at the same time, discloses universal trends in child development in the (pre-)historic past.

Van Gennep's (1909) rites of passage, famous for their in-depth analysis of the phases of separation, liminality and incorporation that constitute the transition from one stage of life to the next, focussed primarily on the beginning of life, maturity, and the end of life. In this book, we are concerned with a more fine-grained appreciation of life course transitions during childhood.

Chapters address how age classes can be recognised archaeologically, which age classes were socially recognized for sub-adults, and identify approximated ages as cut-off-points. They investigate at what point individuals are understood as adults, and if this differs for women and men. Primary sources of information include burial practices and material culture associated with each group; inclusion or exclusion of young children in cemeteries, objects associated with child rearing such as feeding vessels and toys, and gradual or staged access to adult material culture are topics that cross-cut many chapters.

One problem in interpreting the association of grave goods in context with the age of the deceased is that the objects may refer to either the social position the child had achieved shortly before death, or alternatively, to the social position the girl and boy would have achieved if s/he had lived longer. In the latter case, funerary objects reference an age class older than the deceased individual in the grave.

The organisation of the book

Kathryn Kamp and John Whittaker's chapter 'Weaponry and children: technological and social trajectories' opens with an investigation into how children participate in weapon-based activities and learn how to hunt and participate in warfare. Playing with weapons occurs at an early age in many societies, but that does not necessarily mean that children are integrated in the communities of hunters and warriors – an important caveat for the archaeological interpretation of children's weapon graves. The authors scrutinize both ethnographic information and modern learning curves for target spear throwers and conclude that contrary to popular belief, early introduction to weapons does not contribute to an adult's hunting and warfare skills.

The following chapters drawing their data from prehistoric funerary contexts in Europe are organized broadly chronologically. Ekaterina Alexandrova Stamboliyska-Petrova's chapter 'How and when life is considered to have begun in past societies: child burials at the cemetery of Durankulak in northeast Bulgaria' investigates sub-adult burials in Balkan Chalcolithic communities (c. 4900-4200 BC). The cemeteries Varna and Durankulak are extraordinarily rich in metal. The author investigates the inclusion and exclusion of children in the cemeteries per chronological phase and discusses children's access to metal. The latter is seen as an indication of an individual's social status, which raises the question if status was hereditary. The identified variability suggests that status transmission was not automatic, but depended on community decision-making.

Daniela Kern also tackles the question of inherited rank in her chapter ‘Own abilities and inherited rank: status and prestige of children in third millennium BC Austria’. However, she sees children as active members of societies, contributing their abilities and skills. This changes the way in which richly equipped child graves with tools and weapons are interpreted. In particular, Kern shows that different types of axes were used in different ways and challenges the prevailing view that they generically symbolize power and status. The author further draws attention to tools less often appreciated as such, for example flint flakes and bone awls; children older than eight seem to share the same tools as adults, suggesting that they participated in adult work. Noteworthy is Kern’s presentation of a doll and whistle – rare evidence for childhood specific material culture at the dawn of the European Bronze Age.

The wealth of data brought together by Lucie Vélková, Katarína Hladíková and Klaudia Daňová for their chapter ‘The little ones in the Early Bronze age: fetuses, newborns and infants in the Únětice culture in Bohemia, Moravia and Slovakia’ is extraordinary. For the first time, the find contexts of Early Bronze Age (c. 2200-1600 BC) remains of fetuses, newborns and infants under one year are presented and discussed in detail. Although the 66 contexts are primarily from modern rescue excavations, their frequency demonstrates that evidence for children of such young age are more common in Early Bronze Age societies than previously thought. The paper highlights children’s presence in settlement, single and multiple burial contexts, and describes funerary objects found with the remains.

Katharina Rebay-Salisbury’s chapter on ‘Children’s ages and life stages at the Middle Bronze Age cemetery of Pitten, Lower Austria’ takes one of the key sites in which the transition from inhumation to cremation can be directly observed as a case study to question using pre-set age categories for the analysis of childhood stages. New-borns and under one-year-olds were included in the cemetery in very low numbers, and burials of under three-year-olds are rarely placed in prominent positions or well equipped. From that age, however, children appear to gain a firm position within society – as children, evidenced by child-specific material culture and miniaturized objects – and as persons with growing access to status indicators.

‘Children in the territory of western Hungary during the Early and Middle Bronze Age’ are under study in the chapter by Eszter Melis, Kitti Köhler and Viktória Kiss. The cultural contexts compared include the Kisapostag, Gáta-Wieselburg, Encrusted Pottery and Nagyrév/Vatya culture groups and paint a rich portrait of the variability of treating children after death in the area. The authors use the age categories babies (under one year), toddlers (1-4 years) and young children (4-8 years), children during middle childhood (8-12 years) and adolescents (12-20 years) for a detailed evaluation. From young childhood onwards, funerary treatment suggests the social inclusion of children in all of the discussed social contexts, whereas gendered objects become more common from middle childhood. The heritability of rank and status is again a point of discussion in this chapter.

Dealing exclusively with cremation burials, Daria Ložnjak Dizdar and Petra Rajić Šikanjić use the age categories 0-5, 6-11 and 12-18 years at death in their chapter on ‘Childhood in the Late Bronze and Early Iron Ages in the southern Carpathian Basin’. Between 1400 and 600 BC in today’s Croatia and Bosnia, children were buried as full members of the community. Early graves were sometimes richly equipped, whilst later burials appear to have adjusted the size of the urns used to contain the cremated remains to the body size of the deceased.

The next set of chapters is in the fortunate position to draw on written records as well as archaeological evidence. Beata Kaczmarek combines information from Linear B tablets and iconography with archaeological data in her chapter on 'Mycenaean childhood'. Her research demonstrates children's routine participation in craftwork at palaces, and the importance of skill acquisition and training. Food rations described in Linear B differentiate several age classes, separately for girls and boys. The author concludes, however, that the position of children in Mycenaean society (c.1400-1200 BC) was defined based on hierarchy and origin more than on sex and age.

Nadia Pezzulla takes a similar methodological approach in her chapter 'Developmental Stages in Ancient Mesopotamia: Dumu.gaba, šiḫru e Guruš/sal.Tur.tur'. It is significant that a range of terms for foetuses, newborns and small children illustrate how children enter the social world in the second and first millennium BC. Ration texts and the iconography of sub-adults in reliefs and figurines help to identify the stages of childhood, and in some cases, the rites and rituals accompanying the transition from one stage to the next. The author describes five phases of childhood: the newborn to c. 2-year-old, early childhood, a phase of entering the work and school environments at c. 4-6 years, a fourth phase from c. 7 to 12 years, and adolescence leading to independence in adulthood.

The age transition at around three years is central to Francesca Fulminante's chapter 'Identifying social and cultural thresholds in Sub-Adult Burials of Central Italy during the 1st Millennium BC'. She considers ethnographic accounts and psychological studies in addition to archaeological data and literary sources to draw attention to this particular threshold, which was likely of great social significance. By investigating the archaeological burial record in detail, she finds that children below this age threshold generally lack gender and status role indicators in burials between the end of the Final Bronze Age and the end of the Orientalizing Age (c. 1050-509 BC), whilst older children's identity is indicated by inclusion of certain types of material culture.

Elisa Perego, Rafael Scopacasa and Veronica Tamorri, discuss in how far foetuses, newborns and children were understood as individuals with full membership in society in their chapter 'Child personhood in late prehistoric Italy: implications from bioarchaeology, archaeoethnology and archaeological theory'. Using the cemetery Padua Emo as a starting point, they investigate the representation of age and gender groups as well as abnormal mortuary treatment – in this case inhumation rather than the prevailing cremation rite – in the context of Iron Age Veneto (c. 900-450 BC).

Anna Serra's chapter 'The recognition of children and child-specific burial practices at the necropolis of Spina, Italy' follows with an analysis of grave goods and burial rites to identify age groups and markers of childhood transitions in an Etruscan city near the Po Delta (c. 600-200 BC). The necropolis of Valle Trebba of Spina, organized in family plots, gives ample evidence of the inclusion of children in funerary rituals, although the low numbers suggest a selection for burial in the family graveyard. The author discusses the significance of childhood-specific material culture such as bullae, choes and toys in the conceptualisation of developmental stages in the Etruscan world.

Choes, miniature wine jugs used during children's first religious festival in Classic Greece (c. 500-300 BC), play an important role in Hanna Ammar's chapter 'Greek children and their wheel carts on classical Greek vases'. The wine jugs are frequently decorated with depictions of

playing children. In some of the pictures, a small cart with wheels, manipulated by a stick, can be seen – a toy that symbolizes growth and learning during childhood. The author considers the significance of this object as a marker of age and gender, and its role in religious festivals marking and celebrating childhood age transitions.

Alexandra Syrogianni aims to explain the high rates of infant mortality in Ancient Greece by comparing ancient to modern medical practices in her chapter ‘Teeny-tiny little coffins: from the embrace of the mother to the embrace of Hades in Ancient Greek Society’. Noteworthy is that the extremely slim body ideal for women fashionable at the time might have led to fatal complications during pregnancy and birth. The author further discusses the exposure of infants, care practices including breastfeeding, and childhood deaths in their social context.

Irene Mañas Romero and José Nicolás Saiz López detail the rites and rituals surrounding birth in the last chapter ‘Pueri nascentes: rituals, birth and social recognition in Ancient Rome’. Their rich description of what exactly happened between birth and the name giving ritual is exemplary for ancient societies for which this information is usually lost. Regulated social practices include an examination of the newborn, the cutting of the umbilical cord, the first bath, stimulating massages, clothing and the first meal, all of which transform the baby into a social being in the first days of life.

Final comments

In this book, we collected papers on the rituals surrounding births and the question of whether the process of social recognition of newborns as members of the community is immediate (upon birth) or gradual. We see a period of dependence during the breast-feeding relationship with the mother, which ends with entering a new stage of childhood at around three years of age. Subsequently, children constantly learn and build their skills, and appear to be integrated into the routine work life from a young age in all of the societies studied in this book. This is reflected in burials, where children’s graves include a range of tools that were used during their lifetimes. Grave goods, in the form of gender, status and other identity markers are gradually added with age. This raises the question if and how status was heritable, and how families built on biological relationships interacted with other institutions such as communities and states.

There is little to suggest in the studies presented in the book that adulthood coincided with full physical maturation; rather, it appears that participation rights and obligations to society were conferred during adolescence. This may be in sharp contrast to our own society, where child labour is outlawed, formal schooling required, and adulthood with full financial and organisational independence begins later and later, sometimes not before one’s thirties.

The lesson to be learned for future archaeological studies is perhaps not to rely solely on the osteological distinction between sub-adults and adults; there is much more social nuance to be explored in the interdisciplinary study of the childhood-adulthood transition when biological, anthropological and archaeological perspectives are taken into consideration.

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