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Old Traditions and New Innovations. The Late Middle Neolithic in Scania, the Southernmost Part of Sweden

Lars Larsson[a]

The Corded Ware Culture complex in Sweden involves a special form of social structure called the Battle Axe Culture. Among well-known features, such as single graves, there are also other forms of expression. A special form of find is illustrated by a place with a significant accumulation of deliberately burned or otherwise destroyed objects. This mass deposit includes both well-known object forms and items indicative of far-reaching contacts. This kind of deposit practice has continuity dating back more than a millennium.
The earliest part of the Late Middle Neolithic (Younger Neolithic I) appears to be a period of multicultural elements that included a continuation of the Funnel Beaker Culture with evident influences from the Pitted Ware Culture. Another form of expression relates to the so-called palisade constructions. Aspects of relations within southern Scandinavia, involving influences from the Corded Ware Culture and older cultural forms, are discussed. It is suggested that a tradition based on Funnel Beaker Culture has a longer existence in parts of Scania, the southernmost part of Sweden, than in the rest of southern Sweden.

KEY-WORDS: southern Scandinavia, Middle Neolithic, Battle Axe Culture, Funnel Beaker Culture, Single Grave Culture

INTRODUCTION

The various manifestations of the Corded Ware Complex in Sweden and Denmark have been exceptionally well presented in several publications by Forssander (1933), Glob (1944), Oldeberg (1952), and Malmer (1962; 2003). More recent research has resulted in several publications, such as Hübner (2005), Ebbesen (2006), and Nielsen and Johannsen (2024), concerning the Danish Single Grave Culture (SGC), as well

[a] Institute of Archaeology and Ancient History, Lund University, Box 192, 221 00 Lund, Sweden; e-mail: Lars.Larsson@ark.lu.se; ORCID: 0000-0002-0669-6761

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as Brink (2009b), Edenmo (2008), and Å. Larsson (2009) and von Hackwitz (2009), about the Battle Axe Culture (BAC) in Sweden.

In Denmark, the SGC is represented mainly in Jutland, western Denmark, and is dated to the period 2800–2200 cal BC. The influence of SGC on the eastern part of Jutland and the islands to the east is later and occurs in a somewhat different context (Iversen 2015a; 2015b; 2016; 2024). The phase of the BAC in parts of Sweden seems to cover the same time interval as the SGC. However, the material culture, especially the pottery and battle axes, as well as the burial practices, are somewhat different.

This paper will address the BAC, as well as its relationships to other social expressions during the same phase. It will begin with an unusual phenomenon of mass destruction of objects, using this as a basis for studying social elements and cultural relationships.

MASS DESTRUCTION BY FIRE

Studies on the production of material culture as well as technology are well represented in the archaeological literature. The ways in which artefacts go out of use should be as interesting and important an aspect as how they are made. The socially embedded processes of deposition are often a precondition for the rising demand for new raw materials and the need for new tools. Demand is also of great significance from a broader societal perspective, specifically for maintaining contacts and a high level of craft competence, as the demand for new tools meant that distribution and skills in different technologies could be sustained.

In the late 1990s, a survey of prehistoric sites in Scania, Sweden's southernmost region, was conducted. Fire-damaged flint artefacts were found in a field at Kverrestad, about 15 km from the sea (Larsson 2000a; 2000b; Fig. 1). The site is located in a specific setting: in a valley with a brook running from east to west, where the upper part of the southern slope ends in a ridge. The site is on a small plateau on the southern side of the river valley, with gentle slopes on three sides. The bedrock at the site consists of slate. In the main part of the excavated area, the bedrock is covered by only a thin layer of clayey sand, which constitutes the plough zone. Fire-damaged flints could be found on the plateau within an area of approximately 70×70 m (Fig. 2).

The site was surveyed on several occasions, during which every find was recorded to determine patterns of spatial distribution. Based on the distribution of finds, the topsoil within an area of 3000 sq m was removed mechanically to examine whether any features could be detected.

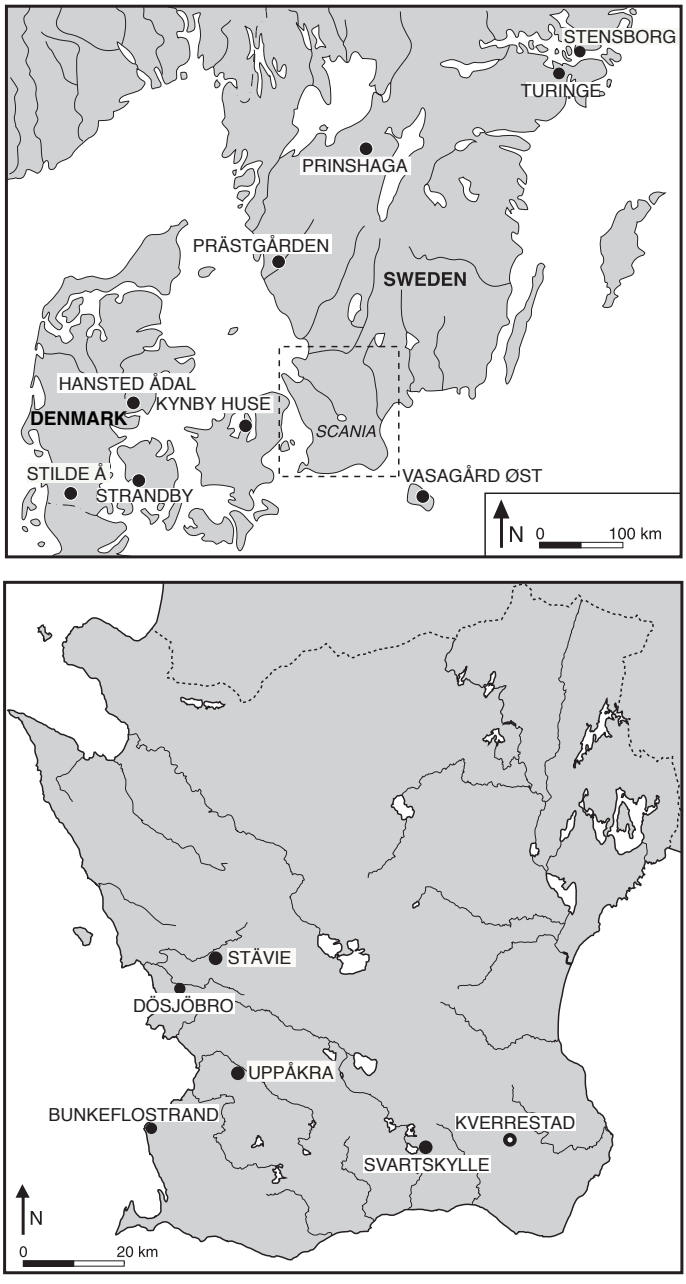

Fig. 1. The location of the sites mentioned in the text.

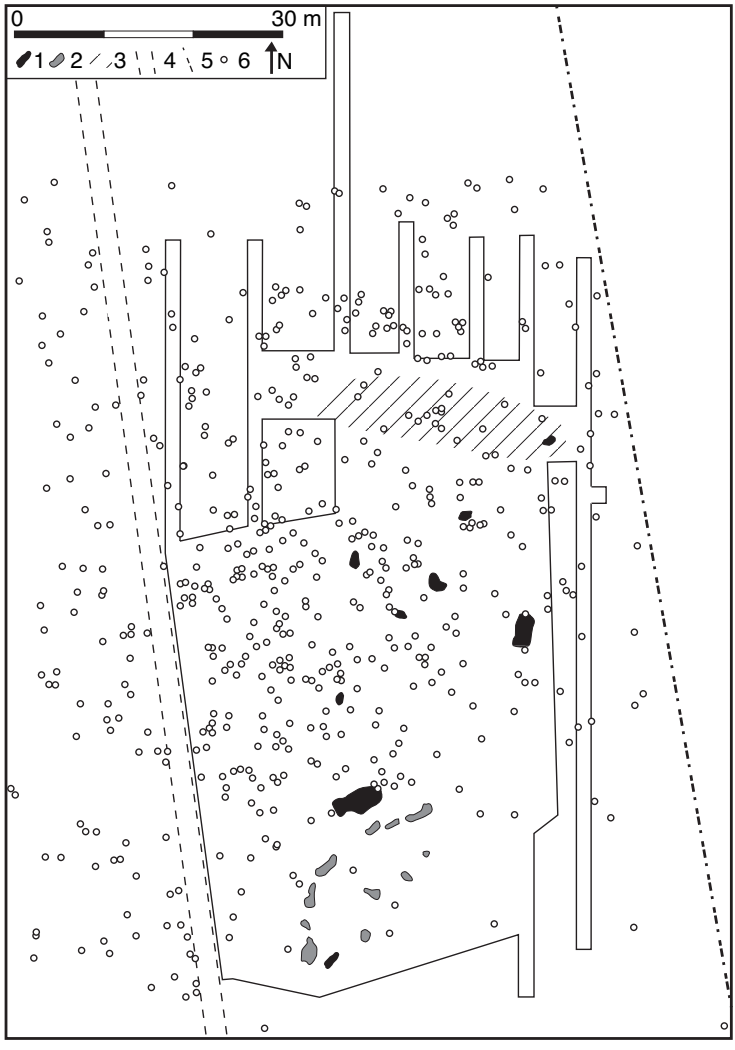

Fig. 2. The spread of finds at Kverrestad recorded on the surface, the area with topsoil removal and features. Legend: 1 – features with deposited finds, 2 – features without finds, 3 – area with topsoil removal, 4 – field road, 5 – property boundary, 6 – recorded surface finds. Drawing: B. Piltz-Williams.

During the excavation, several pits of varying sizes and depths were found, in which damaged flint and stone artefacts had been deposited, along with pottery. The largest pit was approximately 4 m long, while the smallest was less than 0.5 m

(Fig. 2). The depth varied from more than a metre to less than ten centimetres. Finds were made throughout the fill, indicating that the artefacts were deposited during the entire process of filling the pits.

The distribution of surface finds does not coincide with the spread of pits filled with deposited remains (Fig. 2). Those pits that had been cut into the soft bedrock were protected during later ploughing. At the northern edge of the site, an area has been protected from deep ploughing because of the presence of a number of large stones in the till just below the present surface. In this part, a layer, probably part of the Neolithic fossil surface, has been preserved. When excavated, it gave an insight into the deposition conditions. Artefacts were found in small pits, which seem to have been dug just ten to twenty centimetres below the original surface. In other parts of the site, the shallow pits have been destroyed by ploughing. Fragments from about one hundred thick-butted hollow-ground axes and chisels have been found (Fig. 3:1, 2), as well as a small number of thin-bladed axes. There is variation in the degree of final polishing of the axes. The depositions also include axes from earlier manufacturing stages, which are not yet polished. Among the arrowheads, tanged pieces of the so-called D-type have been identified (Fig. 3:4), as well as pressure-flaked projectile points. Some are leaf-shaped (Fig. 3:5), while others have a marked tang (Fig. 3:5). Fragments of flint "food knives" – a prototype for daggers (Nielsen 1976; Madsen 2024) – have been identified as well (Fig. 3:10). Flake scrapers (Fig. 3:11) and large blades have also been damaged by fire (Fig. 3:12). Non-flint tools, such as thick-butted axes (Fig. 3:3) and battle axes (Fig. 3:7), have been exposed to fire. Cracks due to intense heat facilitated the subsequent fragmentation of these stone tools. The find material also includes a small number of slate objects, such as tanged arrowheads and a chisel. Pottery sherds, mainly from vessels with a semicircular cross-section, decorated with horizontal lines and large zigzags, corresponding to types G–J (Malmer 1962), are also present (Fig. 3:8, 9). Due to their deliberately fragmented state, the number of vessels is difficult to calculate. At least 20 vessels were included.

Burnt bones of human origin, intentionally cracked into small pieces, were also found. The discovery of human bones was made throughout the fill of the largest pit, indicating that the artefacts had been deposited during the entire process of filling. Due to the fragmented state of the bones, it is not possible to estimate the number of individuals. Only skull fragments from adults have been identified.

The late types of the vessels, as well as the radiocarbon dates, serve to relate the finds to the later part of BAC.

There is sparse information about the activity of the BAC age in the surroundings of the site at Kverrestad. A few flint axes have been identified in nearby fields.

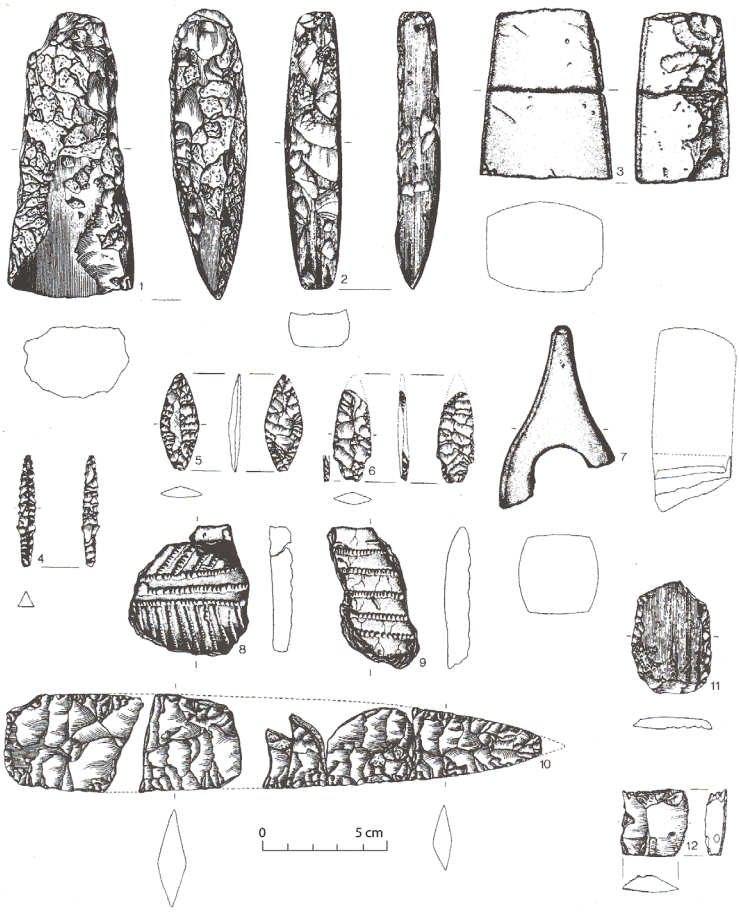

Fig. 3. Tools found at Kverrestad. 1 – thick-butted hollow-ground axe, 2 – hollow-ground chisel, 3 – thick-butted stone axe, 4 – tanged arrowhead, 5–6 – pressure-flaked projectile points, 7 – battle axe, 8–9 – pottery, 10 – food knife, 11 – flake scraper and 12 – blade fragment. Drawings: B. Wallebom.

DESTRUCTION OF WEALTH

The large number of axes and chisels must in themselves have had great value to the society that left the depositions. The flint type is non-local, originating from the southwestern part of Scania, some 70 km or even further away. However, some of the tools have much more distant origins.

Pressure-flaked projectile points, which at Kverrestad include some leaf-shaped examples, have not previously been identified in southern Sweden. However, a small number have been found in Denmark (Ebbesen 1980; 2006; Hübner 2005). They are present in the Corded Ware Culture of the upper Oder area and even further south (Schröder 1951; Behrens and Schlette 1967; Beran 1990; Schultrich 2022). The finds from Kverrestad, comprising altogether some thirty pieces, form the largest collection of such points in Scandinavia. Fragments of food knives are very rare in southern Sweden. As the best parallels exist in the same area as the projectile points, they might have been introduced through the same distribution contacts.

Among the finds of battle axes, at least one is a typical example from the late SGC, a form well-known in the SGC of western Denmark, but also within the west Baltic coastal area in present-day Germany (Ebbesen 2006). The slate objects are well-known in the central and northern parts of Sweden (Taffinder 1998). This confirms that some of the deposited artefacts arrived via distant networks of contacts and were therefore of exotic origin, probably ranked as artefacts of very high value. It seems to be the highest-valued items of the material culture that have been fragmented and deposited.

This type of mass deposition of rare objects, using fire, may have been practised on special occasions. It could be an act primarily intended to legitimate power (Larsson 2000a; 2000b; 2019).

DESTRUCTION BY FIRE OF TOOLS AND HUMANS

One must keep in mind that this type of flint burning is not equivalent to throwing flint tools directly onto a fire. Experiments have shown that, to preserve a flint tool as intact as possible, it is first necessary to undergo heat treatment and then expose it directly to fire (Larsson 2020).

Of special interest is the degree of destruction by fire exhibited by the different tool types. While more than 90% of the axe finds show changes from fire, about 75% of the scrapers, about half of the tanged arrowheads and one third of the arrowheads made by pressure-flaking have the same kind of alteration by fire. These marked differences indicate intentional selection of which tool type to put in the fire and which not to. However, except for a small number of pressure-flaked arrowheads, all of the tools are in a fragmentary state. This relationship agrees well with the situation on settlement sites, where axes have the highest percentage of fire traces, while other tool types show less fire damage. However, at Kverrestad, the percentage of fire damage is significantly higher than at other sites, where values of fire damage exceeding 20% are considered high (Karsten 1994).

Examples in southern Scandinavia of destruction by fire of one or a few axes are well known; however, the mass destruction of large numbers of artefacts seems to be rare. No other site from the same period in southern Scandinavia has a composition of artefacts equal to that of Kverrestad. However, three sites with mass fire destruction of flint tools have been found in Scandinavia, all dated to the transition between the Early and Middle Neolithic, *c*. 3500–3300 BC, almost a millennium earlier. One is Svartskylle, situated some 15 km to the east of Kverrestad (Larsson 1989); another is Strandby, southern Funen, Denmark (Andersen 2009); and the third, Stensborg, lies some 30 km south of Stockholm in central Sweden (Larsson and Broström 2011; Fig. 1). The last also included features, namely shallow pits of different sizes, similar to those at Kverrestad. There are at least five examples of mass destruction of mainly flint objects from the late FBC: one from the island of Bornholm, Vasagård Øst, one in the western part of Sweden, Prinshaga, another on Zealand, Kyndby huse, and two in Jutland, Hansted Ådal and Stilde Å (Fig. 1) – so the knowledge of damage using fire was being kept alive (Larsson 2015).

CREMATION OF HUMANS

Cremated human remains are not only found on the site. However, they are also mixed with fragmented tools, which promotes a view of complexity in the relationships between social perspectives and material culture. However, a couple of sites, both regarded as mortuary houses, might give a better understanding.

At Prästgården in western Sweden, charcoal marked the limits of a wooden structure measuring 4×3 m (Fig. 4). Cremated human bones were found within this delimited area, as well as in the centre of the building, at both locations mixed with charcoal, burnt flints and daub, along with two vessels dated to the late BAC (Särlvik and Jonsäter 1974; Nordqvist 1997).

A construction measuring 5×3.3 m was erected at Turinge, central Sweden, belonging to the late BAC (Lindström 2006; Fig. 4). In the trench for the walls, several small pits contained the cremated bones of at least 16 individuals, including both new-born children and adults. Typical grave goods, such as battle axes, flint axes, flint blades, and vessels, were found together with the bones. However, only a flint scraper and some bones of sheep exhibit traces of fire. The position of the human remains, as well as the evidence of the rite of cremation, indicates that this building was not an ordinary mortuary house. However, it has some similarities to the structures found above ordinary graves in southernmost Sweden (Larsson 1988) as well as in Jutland, Denmark. In Jutland, the construction surrounding the grave may be rectangular

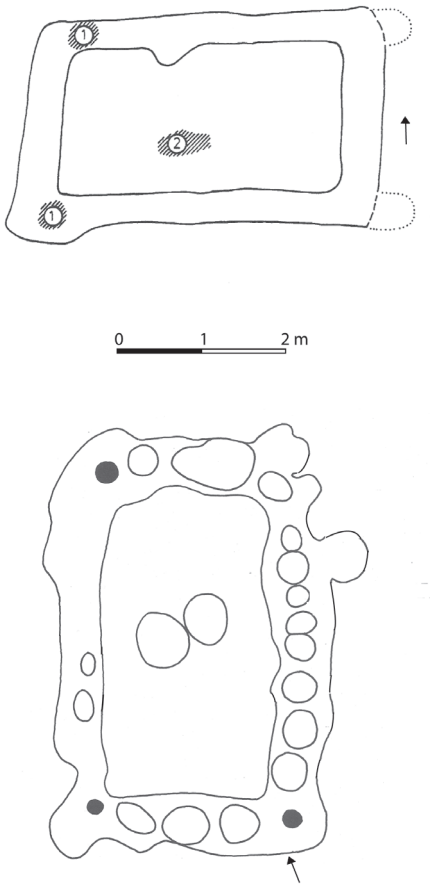

Fig. 4. Mortuary buildings from Prästgården (above) and Turinge (below). After Särlvik and Jonsäter 1974; Lindström 2006.

or round and may include massive posts that indicate a tower-shaped building surrounding the grave (Hübner 2005). Graves from the BAC with cremated bones do exist, but they are rare (Larsson 2009).

The finds and features from the two structures mentioned above demonstrate that cremation of humans occurred in other places during the BAC, and even in conjunction with artefacts affected by fire. However, the bones are too infrequent at Kverrestad, compared with any other site, for it to be regarded as an actual cremation

burial. Could this mean that the human bones were intermixed simply as part of the deposition? We are aware of cremated human bones, for example, in causewayed enclosures from earlier in the Neolithic period, where only a small number of bones have been deposited (Andersen 1999). This might mean that the mortuary practices included the possibility of depositing the body at more than one place. Such a practice is very difficult to identify, as cremation might destroy body parts or make accurate osteological analyses difficult. It might also include inhumations with poor preservation. It is possible that the practice of depositing body parts at two or more locations was relatively frequent.

AN "ORDINARY" MORTUARY PRACTICE?

The structures from Prästgården and Turinge are interpreted as mortuary buildings. The burial practices of the BAC in Sweden have been discussed in several publications and will not be addressed in this presentation.

The mortuary practices are based on strict rules (Malmer 1962). A rectangular or funnel-shaped pit was dug, with a stone frame in several layers supporting a wooden coffin and larger stones placed on the lid of the coffin. Both sexes were placed in a crouched position, facing east. Specific rules govern the location and placement of grave goods in relation to the body. This practice is well known, especially in the graves from the early BAC. However, the practice appears to be less time-restricted (Olausson 2015).

In a society that observes strict practices regarding not only the position of the body but also the grave goods, individual characteristics may be hidden in minor departures from regular practice. This could be the case if the axe was placed with the edge towards or away from the body, or if the hollow-edged side of the axe was placed downwards or upwards, or how the battle axe was positioned in relation to the deceased (Malmer 1962; Berggren and Brink 2010). These are elements that were not documented in graves excavated decades ago, but might be important for understanding social signals in a strictly organised society.

Another divergence from the "ordinary" burial customs is exemplified by the finds within a grave from the southernmost part of Sweden. A funnel-shaped grave of the ordinary type was found, featuring several rows of stones that constituted an outer frame and larger stones placed initially on the lid of a wooden coffin (Söderberg 1990). A female had been placed in a crouched position with a flint axe with a hollowed edge, two awls made of sheep bones, a flint scraper, a blade, a couple of waste pieces and a pottery vessel (Fig. 5). The grave was dated to 3730±50 BP, 2308–2020 cal BC (Ua-5361). The most interesting feature is that a total of sixteen phalanges from

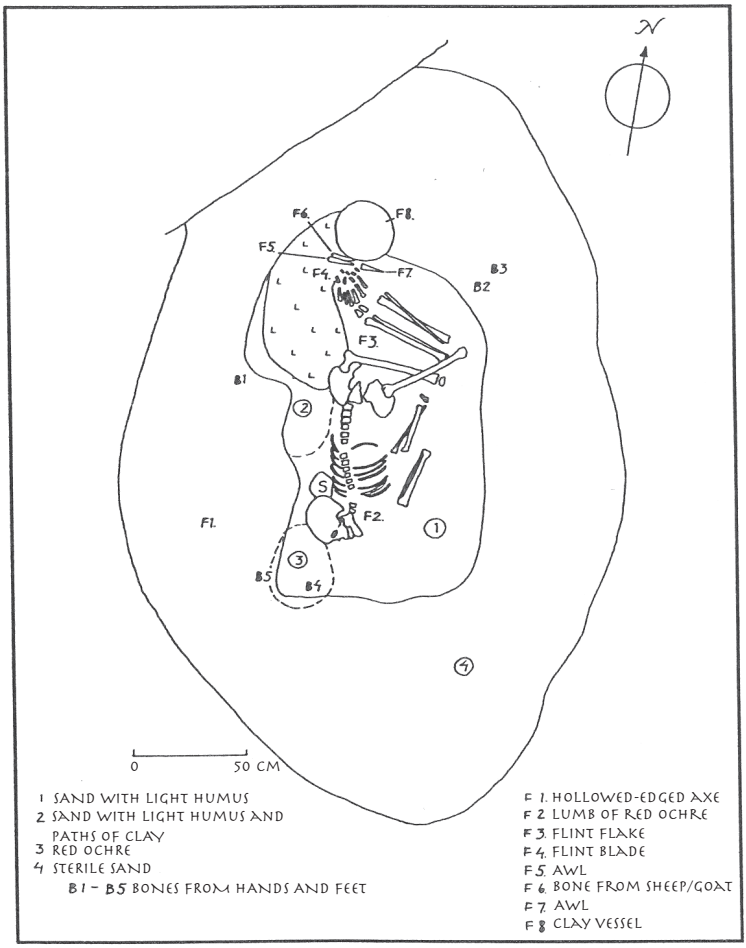

Fig. 5. A grave from the Battle Axe Culture found at Vellinge, in the furthest southwestern part of Scania, Sweden. After Söderberg 1990.

hands as well as feet had been placed at regular distances around the body. A detailed study of the hands and feet of the interred shows that the phalanges originate from both of the buried woman's hands and one of the feet (Arcini 1990). No cut marks were documented, which means that the woman must have been in a rather decomposed state before being buried. All other phalanges were found in the right position.

In this grave, the intention had been to recover all parts of the body and place them around the interred at a distance of a few decimetres.

PALISADE ENCLOSURES

Over recent years, several enclosures featuring palisades have been identified in the eastern part of southern Scandinavia. Within the southwestern part of Scania, five palisade enclosures have so far been excavated, four of them situated so close together as to be intervisible. They vary in length from 175 to 300 m, with an enclosed area of between 3 and 5.5 hectares (Svensson 2002; Nielsen 2004; Brink 2009b; Klatt 2009; Larsson 2012). The enclosures consist of one to four rows of posts (Fig. 6). Most of them have produced relatively few finds. In most cases, there are a few features within the enclosure. The exception, Bunkeflostrand, has a large number of pits, but their contents, namely antlers and a small amount of pottery, differ from ordinary settlement material (Brink *et al.*, 2009; Fig. 1).

There is an interesting link between flint axes and palisades. Flint axes have been found in post-holes, usually associated with an entrance. In most palisades, several post-holes contain flakes characteristic of refuse from axe or chisel production. In some cases, the number of flakes may be significant. In one case, Dösjebro, flint flakes from axe production, except for a large number of finds in some post-holes, were found in large quantities within an area about 150 m from the palisade (Svensson 2008; Runcis 2008; Fig. 1). It seems that in several cases, axe production was directly or indirectly related to palisades. That flakes have deliberately been deposited in the palisades indicates a ritual connection with the "birth" of axes. On the other hand, palisades could be regarded as sites where many people assembled, and it might have been reasonable to locate the production of axes at a site excellent for trade and exchange during short but intensive meetings when flintknapping experts were present.

Another aspect relating to axes at Kverrestad is the fact that a considerable amount of the flint found in post-holes or features connected with palisades has been burnt. This could mean that waste from axe production could not be used for any purpose after being exposed to heat.

At Dösjebro, another link, in this case not chronological, between axes and humans can be discerned. The area between the palisade and the axe production site contained at least three graves typical for the late BAC (Lagergren 2008). These were located more or less in a line. Cemeteries with a linear system are well known in the BAC. Because excavation areas were formerly small, rarely including examination of the surroundings of a grave, the number of linear cemeteries might have been much larger.

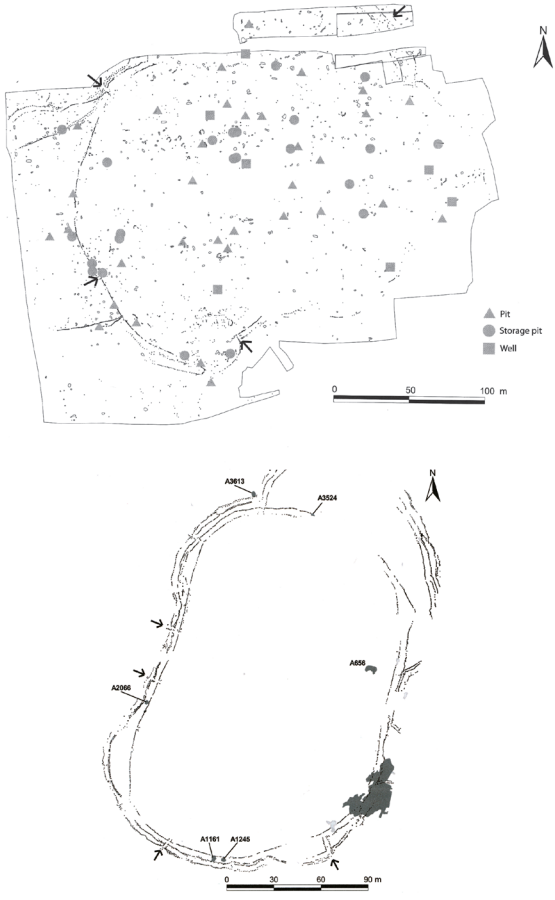

Fig. 6. The palisade enclosures at Hindby and Bunkeflostrand. The entrances are specially marked. After Brink *et al.*, 2009.

CHRONOLOGICAL RELATIONS

The chronology of these palisades is problematic. Based on finds as well as radiocarbon dates, one palisade from southwestern Scania is dated to the late FBC (Forssblad 2003). The rest have provided dates relating to the phase 2800–2600 BC, corresponding to Younger Neolithic I. However, few finds in post-holes and features relating to the palisades have been dated to that phase.

The situation in the eastern part of Denmark and the southernmost part of Sweden seems to be complicated. The graves in the southwestern part of Scania, with grave goods typical of the BAC, date to between 2600 and 2100 BC (Brink 2009b; Fornander 2011). Graves from the early part of the BAC occur in the northeastern part of Scania. Unfortunately, we do not have dates from these graves. Previously, the earliest part of the BAC was considered to be represented in southern Sweden (Malmer 1962). However, new research places the earliest part of the culture in central Sweden with a link to Finland (Larsson 2009).

Based on the dates from the palisades and graves, there appears to be a time difference of some centuries between the erection of the palisades and the deposition of the graves. There may have been a presence of both late FBC and early BAC in southern Sweden for a couple of centuries (Larsson 1992).

Genetic analyses provide a picture of the migration of groups from the southeast (Egfjord *et al.*, 2021). In the western part of Denmark, immigrants appear to be carrying out a rapid takeover, particularly in areas suitable for sheep farming (Iversen 2015b). It is evident that this immigration, likely originating from Finland and moving to central Sweden and southwards (Larsson 2009), had consequences for the southernmost part of Sweden. Theoretical considerations have been presented (Högberg *et al.*, 2025). However, it remains to be understood how this change was implemented and over what time period it occurred.

The situation in eastern Denmark is equally complicated. The late FBC appears to continue for some centuries after the SGC became established in western Denmark (Ebbesen 2006; Iversen 2015b; 2016; Madsen 2020). The palisade enclosures are either dated to the late FBC by the find material or to the phase 2900–2600 BC by radiocarbon dates (Nielsen 1998; Klatt 2009). Later, at approximately 2600 BC, a material culture similar to the late SGC is established, but the old megalithic tombs continue to be used as burial sites. Therefore, the mortuary practices of the SGC are not accepted, and the megalithic tombs continue to be used for burials as before. The markedly individualistic treatment shown by the graves in the SGC is not exemplified in eastern Denmark.

The dating of human bones from megalithic tombs in Scania indicates that they were used during the time corresponding to the BAC (Tornberg 2025). As mentioned, the chronological relationship between the FBC, BAC, and Pitted Ware Culture (PWC) is somewhat uncertain (Iversen *et al.*, 2021).

At the site of Stävie in western Scania, a combination of FBC and PWC is proven by the pottery, which is very late FBC, and the flint technique, typical for the PWC (Larsson 1982; Fig. 1).

The relationship between the BAC and what is characterised as the Late Neolithic is unclear. The boundary has been set at 2200 BC, but several graves of late BAC

age are dated later (Brink 2009b). A grave in Uppåkra, western Scania, consisted of a square paving surrounded by a round ditch (Larsson *et al.*, 2015a; 2015b; Fig.1). This is a typical grave form of the SGC in Jutland (Nielsen and Johannsen 2024). However, the grave in question was dated to the Late Neolithic.

During the previous part of the Neolithic, there appears to be a significant connection between eastern Denmark and southern Sweden, which are topographically divided by the Strait of Öresund, with a maximum width of 50 km. The distance from eastern Denmark to the central part of the SGC in the west is at least six times as long.

The exchange of battle axes could be an indication of the intensity of the exchange. About ten "Swedish" battle axes have been found in eastern Denmark and about the same number in western Denmark (Glob 1944). However, the number of "west Danish" battle axes in Scania is at least three times as large as that of "Swedish" battle axes found in eastern Denmark (Malmer 1962). This suggests that the connection with the more distant SGC to the west was more intensive, despite visible contact between the easternmost parts of Denmark and western Scania. The best-represented types are K–L in Scania, but these are not well represented within the central area of the SGC (Ebbesen 2006). However, these types are common in the German Baltic coastal area, with a concentration at the mouth of the River Oder. This might indicate that most of the exchange between Scania and the other version of the Corded Ware Culture was directed to the opposite coast of the Baltic, not to eastern Denmark. The finds at Kverrestad, including pressure-flaked arrowheads and food knives, point in the same direction.

SETTLEMENTS AND HOUSES

Our knowledge of the Younger Neolithic I in Scania is based on finds from palisades and settlements. Pigs are less numerous than earlier, while sheep become more common. The finds from the palisade at Bunkeflostrand, situated near the former seashore, provide an interesting insight, as the preservation of bones is better than on most other sites. Several red deer antlers are regarded as relating to the construction of the enclosure or the digging of pits. Most of the bones belong to fish, with cod as the most important, which is only to be expected in view of the short distance to the sea (Brink *et al.*, 2009). The number of bones from wild animals on Neolithic sites tends to be low. However, in the passage at Bunkeflostrand, they constitute 41% of all mammal bones, with red deer and roe deer as the most important. Among the domesticated animals, sheep/goat clearly shows an inevitable

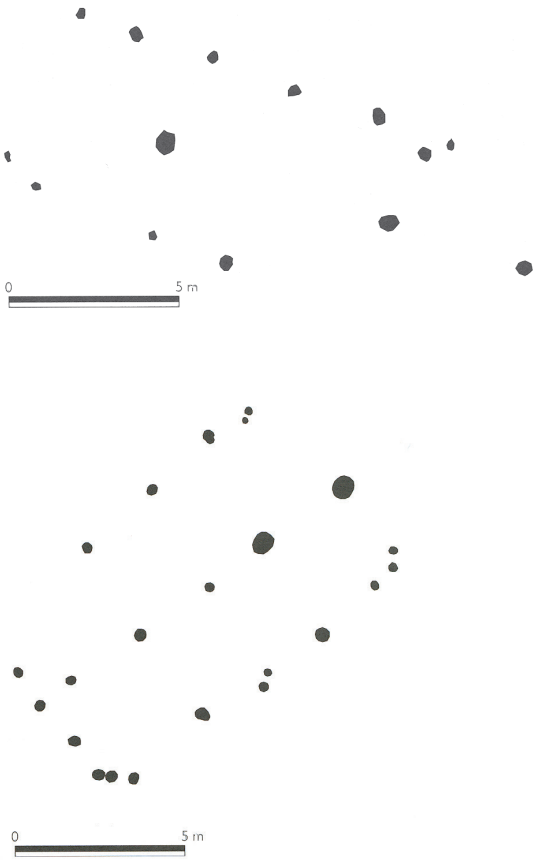

Fig. 7. Documentation of houses from the Battle Axe Culture found in the southwestern part of Scania, Sweden. After Brink 2009.

dominance over cattle. Seasonal indicators demonstrate the use of the area during several months of the summer and early autumn.

The macrofossil remains from layers and imprints include naked barley, emmer, and oats, the first of which is the most common (Brink 2009a).

For decades, knowledge of the BAC's settlement sites and houses was limited. This has partly improved. Few regions, if any, have been as intensively investigated as the areas in the outskirts of the town of Malmö in the southwestern part of Scania

(Brink 2009b). Within the waste areas of several hectares, the topsoil has been removed, and all features have been excavated. In this region, the sites are still difficult to identify, as the find material is very limited. A tendency towards small sites and restricted material culture is already evident during the late FBC and becomes even more pronounced during the BAC. The restrictive attitude concerning the handling of waste is also related to the decoration of the pottery. Objects are rarely found in the post-holes.

The houses are identified as a row of 3–5 post-holes (Brink 2009b; Fig. 7). In a few cases, the posts for the rectangular walls are present. The indoor area is calculated to be between 65 and 120 sq. m. These buildings are dated to a late part of the BAC. During the Late Neolithic, the house structures grew larger, but were based on the same building tradition (Artursson 2009; Brink 2009a; Larsson and Brink 2013).

The lack of bones from most settlement sites has made it difficult to get a good hold of the livelihood and diet of the people of the BAC. Since graves are the most characteristic remains from the BAC, there is a significant possibility of gaining knowledge about humans, as a number of skeletons are well-preserved. These studies are currently in the initial stages. Trace elements have provided interesting values. ^{13}C values from inhumations, most of which have been found in a coastal environment, vary within Scania between -22 o/oo and -18.6 o/oo (Fornander 2011). A terrestrial diet was the most important, but fish also contributed a certain proportion of the food intake.

DISCUSSION

The site at Kverrestad, southern Sweden, presented a mass destruction by fire that at first sight seemed most exotic within the BAC. The large deposits and cremations of tools, as well as humans, are, in combination, still unique. However, the elements taken separately are well represented within the social context. The mass destruction by fire also includes a perspective into the past that linked the BAC to phenomena within the FBC several centuries before. The erection of palisade enclosures appears to be a link between the cultures. In eastern Denmark and the southernmost part of Sweden, the relationship between the FBC and the variations of the Corded Ware Culture appears to be complicated, with a parallel existence for centuries.

Settlements are still relatively few, although the number has increased. The society turns out to have avoided refuse accumulation. However, this is also a behaviour that can be traced back to the late FBC of southern Sweden. Even if the introduction of the BAC marks the introduction of a new material culture and presumably a different worldview, there are still obvious links to the past.

The fact that elements of the SGC in eastern Denmark are very limited during the period from 2800 to 2600 BCE is well known. A community with traditional elements from the FBC remained. However, the question is whether a similar situation prevailed in parts of southernmost Sweden? Early graves from the BAC are missing. The old megalithic tombs are still used for burial. As in eastern Denmark, palisades are also found. A precise combination of FBC and PWC is discernible. A delayed immigration of BAC is highly likely.

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