

Spaces of funeral meaning.

Modelling socio-spatial relations in burial contexts

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Abstract

Burials have long been one of the most important sources of archaeology, especially when studying past social practices and structure. Unlike archaeological finds from settlements, objects from graves can be assumed to have been placed there for a certain purpose. The same logic holds true for *where* these object were placed: We must also understand the (ritual) acts of deposition and construction as intentional practice that moves the spatial configurations created by their placements into focus. Indeed, since the advent of the spatial turn, ideas of space as a social and cultural construct have also affected how archaeologists research and think about graves. However, the spatiality of burials as an expression of social structure has yet to be explored by means of digital methods. The paper wants to take a first step in filling this gap by conceptualizing a data model drawing on the sociology of space by Martina Löw that can then be used to facilitate computational analyses of socio-spatial relations. For this purpose, it introduces a first version of a model created using the CIDOC CRM, the compatible models CRMinf and CRMsoc, as well as additional custom classes to extend the model to adequately represent the social actions making up the construction of these relationships.

Introduction

Burials have long been one of the most important sources of archaeology, especially when studying past social practices and structure. Unlike archaeological finds from settlements, objects from graves can be assumed to **have been placed there** for a certain purpose. Therefore, the way the deceased are presented is not to be understood as a “mirror image” (Haffner 1989) of their lives but instead as an intentional selection of artefacts and architectural features materializing different social identities (Saxe 1970) or a “social persona” (Binford 1971) to be communicated through their burial.

The same logic holds true for *where* these object were placed: We must also understand the (ritual) acts of deposition and construction as intentional practice that moves the spatial configurations created by their placements into focus. In the same way as the typochronological characteristics of grave goods allow inferences on status, gender, or even age, the arrangements of the burial space must be assumed to carry a variety of communicative meanings which, while not always reconstructable, can still – at least in parts – be observed.

This focus on space as a social variable is not new but in line with a number of ideas connected to the so-called spatial turn (for example, Lefebvre 1974; Simmel 2009; Werlen 1993) that understands space as a social and cultural construct and considers “space’s key role in the process by which people construct their understandings of the world” (Blake 2007, 230). As such, the spatial turn has also affected how archaeologists research and think about graves (among others, Arnold 2002; Bejko 2016; Hofmann and Attula 2017). As Helaine Silverman summarises in the introduction to a special issue of the *Archaeological Papers of the American*

47 *Anthropological Association* on “the Space and Place of Death”, studies now deal with “issues
48 such as the siting of mortuary facilities; the interplay of agency and expressive style in the
49 funerary context as these relate to the physical space and taking place of mortuary custom;
50 and the recognition, cultural reconstruction, and explanation of death landscapes” (Silverman
51 2002, 1).

52
53 Mostly, these phenomena have been studied with approaches of **traditional archaeology**,
54 focusing on a comparison of individual finds and sites. In fact, there seems to be a gap in
55 applying these **theories** to analyses by means of digital methods which in this paper, includes
56 formal, quantitative approaches, for example network analysis, but does explicitly not rule out
57 qualitative applications. Still, especially if focused on the second aspect mentioned by
58 Silverman, i.e. “the interplay of agency and expressive style”, a relational perspective on and
59 analysis of the subject matter promises large potential for research on a variety of topics: For
60 example, the analysis of associations between grave goods, or between grave goods and the
61 body could lead to insights into functions and socio-political significances of these artefacts;
62 relational deposition patterns could be identified and connected to ritual activities or indicate
63 zones materializing different aspects of identities; which, in general, could allow inferences on
64 social practices and processes.

65
66 However, to exploit these potentials of formal analysis, basic questions of knowledge
67 management have yet to be addressed. To begin with, ontologies and exemplary data models
68 that allow for the expression of non-geodetic conceptions of space are needed which have not
69 yet been widely explored.

70
71 This paper wants to introduce a first version of a data model representing the construction of
72 social space in a burial context. For this purpose, the paper draws on theories by Martina Löw
73 on the sociology of space which will be explained further below. Then, it introduces a specific
74 case study of elite burials of the Late Urnfield Period which motivated this research. After a
75 review of existing standards and their suitability to model this type of spatial configuration,
76 focusing on the CIDOC CRM and its compatible models, it suggests a possible model and an
77 exemplary mapping which, in a next step, can be tested against a larger dataset and extended
78 or adapted as needed. In doing so, the paper centres on one specific spatial configuration,
79 namely the placement of objects in relation to each other in the grave. Finally, next steps and
80 challenges are discussed.

81

82 **Materials and methods**

83

84 *The Sociology of Space*

85

86 To create a model representing socially constructed spaces, it is first necessary to understand
87 and conceptualize exactly what should to be modelled. Many theories exist that could serve
88 as a starting point, yet, in this study, the “Sociology of Space” as developed by Martina Löw
89 has been chosen (Löw 2001; 2016; cited in this paper is the English translation). This was
90 mainly because of her emphasis on social practice, and her understanding of space as
91 inherently relational. She identifies two processes or social actions involved in the constitution
92 of space: the “placing of social goods and people or [...] the positioning of markings that are
93 primarily symbolic to identify ensembles of goods and people”, which she calls *spacing*; and

94 an *operation of synthesis* in which these arrangements are “amalgamated to spaces by way
95 of processes of perception, imagination, and memory” (Löw 2016, 134–35).

96

97 For mortuary studies, it is important to note that Löw acknowledges the unconscious nature of
98 the *spacing* process but also emphasizes how „people are able to understand and explain how
99 they create spaces“ (Löw 2016, 137). This corresponds to the intentionality assumed for
100 funeral assemblages as detailed above: While the concrete materialization of social identities
101 of the deceased follows unconscious knowledge of social structures and structure of the burial
102 community, their selection is performed with intent and purpose.

103

104 Another benefit of this theory is that, coming from modern sociology, it asks questions about
105 people and societies archaeologists might not be able to answer, but which are important to
106 consider and reflect upon nevertheless to arrive at more thorough conceptions of the past.
107 Some examples include the role of people as arranging spaces but also as being arranged or
108 arranging themselves to become part of these spaces, or the external effectuality of objects
109 and people, for example scent and sound, which can critically influence the outcome of the
110 *synthesis* (Löw 2016, 165–66, 188).

111

112 *Elite burials of the Late Urnfield Period*

113

114 The other starting point for this paper was a case study analyzing representations of elite
115 identities in burials of the Late Urnfield period (Deicke 2021). The area of research covers a
116 region north of the Alps that stretches from the East of France to the entrance of the Carpathian
117 Basin. Here, the custom of elaborate burial re-emerges at the dawn of the Bronze Age after a
118 period when depositional activity predominantly manifested in hoards. While the main focus of
119 this study was on a network analysis of grave goods and features and their entanglements in
120 extraordinary burials, a first foray into modelling and analysing spatial relationships was also
121 undertaken. Basic relations, i.e., “next to”, “above”, “under” etc., were experimentally added to
122 the existing graph database. This tentative exploration resulted in insights that enriched the
123 original study: The explicit and formal documentation of spatial arrangements showed that
124 knives, which were before seen as a monolithic category, could be differentiated in function
125 based on their material. Bronze knives were placed mainly in or on top of ceramic vessels and
126 accompanied by animal bones (most likely a meat offering or remains of a funeral feast), while
127 iron knives showed a distinctive association with the remains of the body, independent of its
128 actual treatment as cremation or inhumation (Deicke 2021, 152–53). As far as can be
129 observed, this pattern showed in some form at all sites in the dataset where iron knives
130 appeared¹. While these findings might seem trivial at first, the different treatment of the same
131 type of object depending on its material ties into the increasingly widespread adoption of iron
132 at the transition from Bronze to Iron Age. The deposition of the iron knife not in a utilitarian

¹ Those sites consist of (from West to East): France: Saint-Romain-de-Jalionas (dép. Isère), „Les Tâches“, Tumulus Géraud: iron knife to the right of the inhumation, bronze knife across animal bones (Brun 1987, 216–17). – Austria: Franzhausen, Gde. Nußdorf ob der Traisen (Bez. Sankt Pölten-Land), Franzhausen-Kokoron, grave 119: fragments of two iron knives inside urn, bronze knife across remains of a vessel with animal bones (Lochner and Hellerschmid 2016b, table 71); Stillfried an der March (Bez. Gänserndorf), grave 6: fragment of an iron knife, possibly inside urn (table 7 and 8 of the original publication show differing placements), bronze knife next to animal bones (Kaus 1984, table 7–8). – Slovakia: Senica (okr. Senica), Grab 1: iron knife by body (Romsauer 1999, 169, fig. 2,3). – Czech Republic: Brno-Obřany (okr. Brno-město), grave 169: iron knife on top of sword pointing at human remains (Adámek 1961, 95 fig. 99); Hostomice (okr. Teplice), Hostomice 2: three iron knives and a bronze knife, placement not documented (Kytlicová 2007, 263–64).

133 context but as part of the personal accoutrements of the deceased hints at the important role
134 of this new technology in elite strategies of preservation, consolidation, and attainment of
135 power. Additionally, this pattern could not consistently be observed in graves which contained
136 only bronze knives²: While it held true at sites where iron knives had already been introduced³,
137 at the cemetery of Künzing, bronze knives – where they appeared – were placed with the
138 ashes of the cremation⁴.

139
140 These emerging patterns reveal a complexity that requires a large scale analysis to study
141 further: Based on this experimental approach, a research process can be derived that would
142 ideally result in similar insights into function and meaning of other grave goods or architectural
143 elements. First, contexts of spatially connected objects and features would be identified, as in
144 this case the associations of bronze knives with animal remains and iron knives with the body.
145 Next, functional interpretations and semantic meanings would be attributed to these spatial
146 contexts, i.e., connotations of (ritual) feasting or personal items, possibly connected to an
147 elevated socio-political status. Finally, these attributions would allow inferences on socio-
148 political, -economical or -cultural practices and phenomena, exemplified here in the rise of iron
149 metallurgy and the emergence of new forms of status representation.

150
151 However, as outlined above, to realize and further develop this methodology, more formal and
152 standardized ways to encode the processes of *spacing* and *synthesis* in the burial context as
153 data structures have to be considered.

154

155 *Modelling space: a short review of existing standards*

156

157 When modelling data from the domain of cultural heritage, the CIDOC CRM⁵ and its compatible
158 models⁶ are the obvious starting points. The main model as well as, for example, CRMgeo
159 (Hiebel et al. 2015) or CRMba (Ronzino et al. 2016) provide ample possibilities to understand
160 and express location and relations between locations. Additionally, the focus of the CIDOC
161 CRM on events as “central [...] and essential for almost all modelling tasks” (Bekiari et al.
162 2022, 33) corresponds well with the emphasis on social actions and processes put forth by
163 Löw’s theories. Yet, before applying these classes and properties to a data model of the social
164 construction of space, it has to be evaluated to which extent their semantics are in accordance
165 with this purpose. As an ontology is commonly understood as “an explicit, formal specification
166 of a shared conceptualization” (Studer, Benjamins, and Fensel 1998, 184), non-semantic use
167 of these models contradicts their logic and limits the potentials arising from the use of a well-
168 known standard ontology such as interoperability or the potential application of reasoning-
169 approaches. Therefore, a short review of existing standards in regards to their ability to
170 describe space and spatial relationships has to be conducted.

171

² However, it has to be noted that for most of the graves in the dataset containing bronze knives, detailed documentation was not available.

³ Austria: Franzhausen-Kokoron, grave 31: bronze knife with animal bones placed on ceramic bowl (Lochner and Hellerschmid 2016b, table 15); Stillfried an der March (Bez. Gänserndorf), grave 38: bronze knife in assemblage with animal bones and ceramic sherds (Kaus 1984, table 7).

⁴ Grave 2 (Schopper 1995, 195 fig. 17, 4); grave 141 (Schopper 1995, 269 fig. 36, 6); grave 143 (Schopper 1995, 269 fig. 36, 2).

⁵ In this paper, version 7.1.2 as the last official version of the CRM is referenced (Bekiari et al. 2022).

⁶ <https://www.cidoc-crm.org/collaborations> (accessed 2023-08-10).

172 The CIDOC CRM itself focuses on “positioning in space of what has happened and the things
173 involved, as well as reasoning about respective spatial relations”. As such, it covers the
174 documentation of geometric expressions of place, relations between places, and the history of
175 object or actor locations, among others. Central to the CRM’s understanding of space is the
176 class *E53 Place* which can be specified by *E94 space primitive*, e.g. coordinates. Temporal
177 changes of location can be expressed through the *E9 Move* of a *E18 Physical Thing*. To
178 express relations between places, a range of properties can be applied, namely *P189*
179 *approximates*, *P89 fall within (contains)*, *P122 borders with*, and *P121 overlaps with* (Bekiari
180 et al. 2022, 37–38). Noticeably, in this understanding it is not objects that have spatial relations,
181 but the places that these objects occupy. While this necessity to define individual places for all
182 elements of a grave might appear slightly unwieldy at first, it is consistent with theories of the
183 spatial turn that differentiate between place and space. As Löw phrases it, “[p]laces emerge
184 through placements, but are not identical with the placement [...]” (Löw 2016, 167).
185

186 However, while these properties are able to encode the type of relation, they do not necessarily
187 carry directional meaning, i.e., to which side the place of an object borders another one. This
188 might be due in part to the fact that the choice of directional categories (right and left, or West
189 and East, for example) is bound to depend on the goals and theoretical framework of a specific
190 project. On the other hand, relations such as “under”, “above”, or “inside” can already be
191 expressed by the precise application of these properties.
192

193 Some of the compatible models build on this condensed envisioning of space and spatial
194 relations. Yet, most of them are clearly intended for the documentation of different cases and
195 research questions than presented in this paper. For example, the CRMgeo states as its
196 primary purpose “integrating all kinds of geoinformation that is available in GIS formats into
197 CIDOC CRM representations” (Hiebel et al. 2015, 4) which constitutes precisely the perception
198 of spatial information that this exercise intends to move away from. The CRMarchaeo focuses
199 on “describing stratigraphic genesis and modifications and the natural phenomena or human
200 intervention that led to their creation [...]” While its understanding of stratigraphy as the result
201 of a production event potentially induced by human intentions carries definite potential for the
202 analysis of the production of socially configured spaces, the original intent of describing “the
203 nature and shape of existing stratifications and surfaces” in the context of the archaeological
204 excavation process must be respected and prohibits its application to the semantics of space
205 (Doerr u. a. 2020, 5). The same holds true for the CRMba that contains additional properties
206 dedicated to the description of spatial relations as well, but explicitly deals with the
207 documentation of archaeological buildings (Ronzino et al. 2016).
208

209 While these models deal with the factual characterization of space and spatial relations, other
210 models can also be considered to add encodings of prehistoric social processes or reasoning
211 decisions by modern researchers. The CRMinf or “argumentation model” aims to document
212 “the management, integration, mediation, interchange and access to data about reasoning by
213 a description of the semantic relationships between the premises, conclusions and activities
214 of reasoning” (Stead et al. 2019, 3). As such, it seems especially suited to integrate the
215 processes of assigning meaning and of interpretation that infer various spatial contexts from
216 social *spacings* into the model.
217

218 Understanding a burial as the result of social practice and ritual actions further suggests the
219 inclusion of these underlying processes into the modelling. While the case study presented in
220 this paper has not yet reached the phase to deduce these types of social relations, potentially,

221 their encoding could be provided by the CRMsoc. This model aims to “document social
222 phenomena and constructs”, and to “represent and relate social facts and life” (Alamercery et
223 al. 2019, 2). As of the writing of this paper, the specification is published as version 0.1 and in
224 its draft stage. Still, the model might serve as a fruitful addition to formally express the
225 hypothesised social structures behind the finds and architecture of the burial.
226

227 Finally, the question must be asked if for such a specific research question that seems to lie
228 beyond the intended applications of the CIDOC CRM and its compatible model, other
229 ontologies or schemata could prove useful. To this end, some standards were evaluated, for
230 example the Basic Formal Ontology (BFO), an upper ontology mainly used in the biomedical
231 domain (Smith 2015). Yet, this evaluation shows that as the case study is clearly situated in
232 the domain of cultural heritage, centring archaeological finds and features as the basis for its
233 interpretative acts, the advantages of using a domain ontology such as the CIDOC CRM
234 outweigh the disadvantages represented by the gaps identified in the process. Therefore, a
235 first version of a data model was created by drawing on the CIDOC CRM which will be
236 presented in the next chapter.
237

238 **Results**

239

240 *A formal model of funeral spatial arrangements*

241

242 While in many cases from business applications, data modelling focuses not only on a
243 purposeful description of the domain but also on usage aspects such as “balancing the needs
244 of the application, the performance characteristics of the database engine, and the data
245 retrieval patterns”⁷, in research-driven database design, the structure of the data will generally
246 aim to express the structure of the domain from the perspective of a specific research question
247 or purpose.⁸ In this case, this means that while the model should support a certain degree of
248 interoperability, for example by using a widely known standard ontology as a common frame
249 of reference, the specific research purpose of modelling space as a social structure takes
250 precedent.
251

251

252 Furthermore, in this case, the exercise of creating a data model can also be understood as
253 ontological work in the original philosophical sense: identifying entities and conceptualizing
254 their relationships in the process of constructing social spaces and spatial arrangements (Arp,
255 Smith, and Spear 2015, xxi). Accordingly, three components can be identified to map out the
256 construction of social space according to Löw (2016, 132–35):
257

257

- 258 1. The “building blocks of space”, i.e., living beings and social goods
- 259 2. Their relationships with each other
- 260 3. The acts of *spacing* and *synthesis*

261

262 Additionally, a fourth components needs to be added: as the interpretation of the spatial
263 arrangements, of *spacings*, and even more so of *synthesis* and semantic meaning is highly

⁷ See also documentation of the popular database solution MongoDB
(<https://www.mongodb.com/docs/manual/core/data-modeling-introduction/>, accessed 2023-08-10).

⁸ See also Flanders’ and Jannidis’ distinction between curation- and research-driven modelling
(Flanders and Jannidis 2019, 86).

264 subjective, this process, its actor(s) and their reasoning for arriving at these conclusions should
265 also be added to the model:

266

267 4. Interpretative process

268

269 As a first result of the modelling exercise⁹, it turned out that the CIDOC CRM proved to be
270 largely sufficient to represent the processes of *spacing* and *synthesis* as conceptualised by
271 Löw, supplemented by classes from the compatible models CRMInf and CRMSoc. Merely
272 some classes and one property had to be added to satisfy the requirements of the specific use
273 case, creating a first suggestion of a custom ontology.

274

275 In this process, the four components listed above were not translated one-to-one into modules
276 of the model (fig. 1). Rather, the “building blocks” are represented by archaeologically
277 observable phenomena (purple) as well as the assumed actors of the burial community and
278 ritual (green); their relationships are manifested in properties of the CIDOC CRM, but also in
279 the class *socE Relationship*; for the acts of *spacing* and *synthesis* additional classes were
280 created which make up the process of the constitution of space (red); and the interpretative
281 process was mapped out as a first experiment by adding classes of the CRMInf (blue).
282 Following, some considerations that went into the model will be explained in more detail.

283

284 As mentioned above, the social processes and rituals surrounding the burial itself were not yet
285 the focus of the research project, so this part of the model presents only a rough outline of the
286 burial community, the relationship between its members, and their actions. The *E69 Death* of
287 a person motivates an *E39 actors* to initiate the *SC1 Spacing*-activity that constitutes the first
288 step of the construction of the burial space. It is important to note that in accordance with the
289 CRM specification (Bekiari et al. 2022, 83), this node can signify one or more actors as it is
290 unclear how many persons were effectively involved in the construction of an Urnfield burial.
291 To account for the probability of further ritual actions surrounding the burial, another *E7 Activity*
292 is added, though this part of the model should certainly only be seen as a stand-in for a more
293 thorough exploration of ritualistic practice.

294

295 The person(s) constructs the grave by adding elements through *SC1 Spacing*, which
296 constitutes an *E9 Move-event*, to *E53 places* that in their entirety constitute the burial space
297 itself. These elements can be *E22 Human-Made Objects*, i.e., grave goods, *E20 Biological*
298 *Objects*, i.e., animal bones, even *E21 Persons* itself as cremation or inhumation, but also *E25*
299 *Human-Made Features*. This accounts for the fact that architectural elements of the grave are
300 understood as carriers of semantic meaning as well. Examples are the close links of sword
301 depositions, tumuli, and inhumation rites that evolve in the late Urnfield and early Hallstatt
302 Culture (Deicke 2021, 151; Kurz 1997, 108–9, 119; 123), or the association of elaborate grave
303 architecture with the concept of energy expenditure, implying political control over human
304 labour forces (Tainter 1975, 2; Wason 2004, 137–38). For Löw, living persons themselves are

⁹ The model presented in this paper is an updated version of the one presented at the conference itself. Changes were made according to discussions in and around the session.

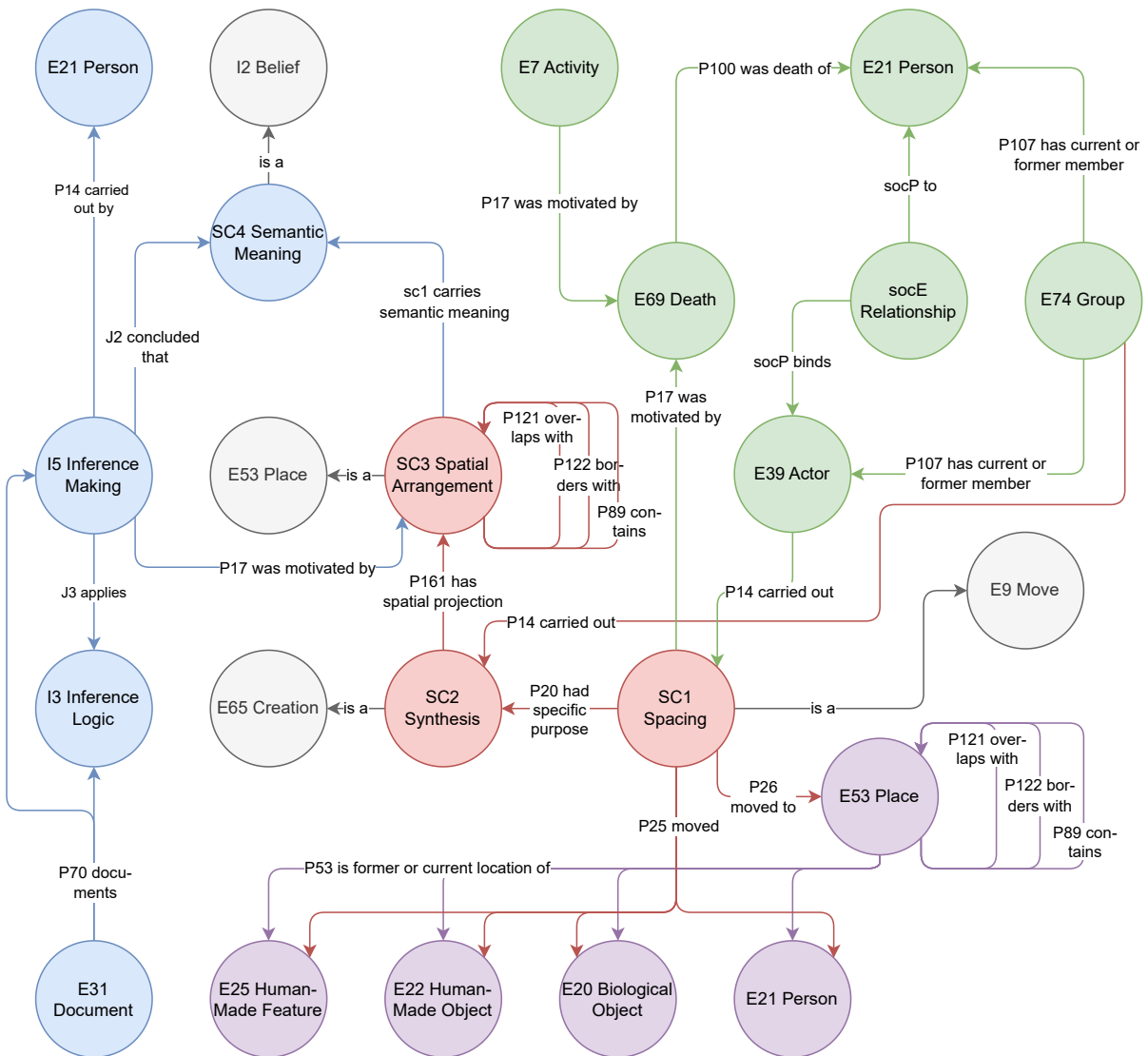
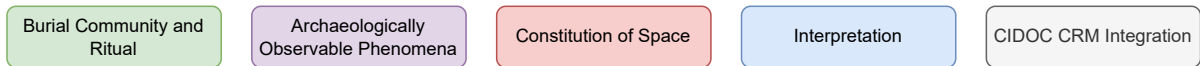



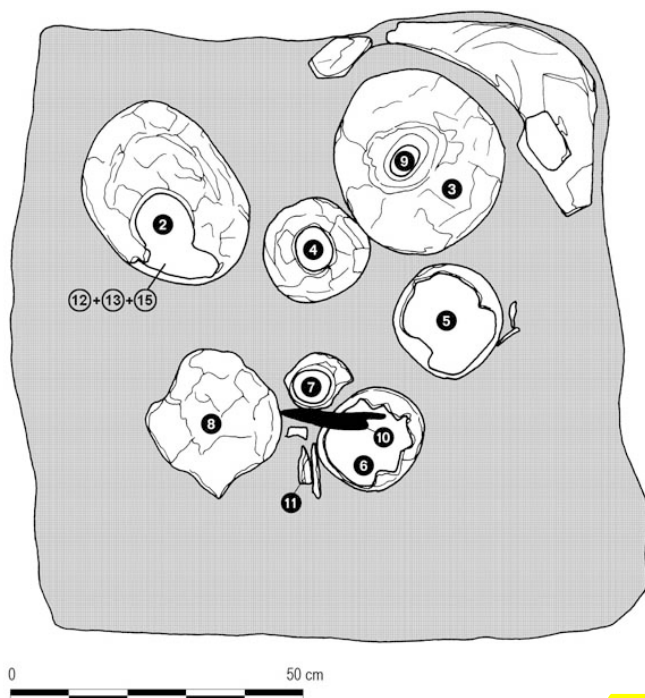
fig. 1: Conceptual model of the construction of social space through the acts of spacing and synthesis according to Martina Löw (2016). Created with diagrams.net.

305 also a part of the spatial arrangement, yet, while this can be expressed by the model, it is not
 306 expressively considered due to the challenges in accounting for contributions by living actors
 307 to the funeral placements with archaeological means.

308
 309 One or more *SC1 Spacing*-events correspond to a *SC2 Synthesis* which is seen as heavily
 310 influenced by social routines, norms and structure of the burial community (Löw 2016, 144),
 311 and therefore, is carried out by the respective *E74 Group*. It is conceptualized as a subclass
 312 of *E65 Creation*. Yet, to some extent, *E81 Transformation* could fit better in this context as the
 313 *SC1 Spacing* also marks a transformation, moving living beings or social goods from the
 314 context of the living to the context of the dead (see also Deicke 2020, 44–50). Yet, according
 315 to the CRM specification, *E81 Transformation* only applies to *E18 Physical Thing*, not to
 316 abstract ideas such as spatial conceptions (Bekiari et al. 2022, 103). The two actions of *SC1*

317 *Spacing* and *SC2 Synthesis* lead to the creation of a *SC3 Spatial Arrangement* that carries
 318 *SC4 Semantic Meaning*. This meaning is concluded in an interpretative act expressed through
 319 classes from the CRMinf. In a sense, modelling *SC4 Semantic Meaning* as a *I2 Belief* and as
 320 the product of a *I5 Inference Making* positions it as an inversion of the *synthesis* – the
 321 interpretative act that gave meaning to a certain spatial configuration of objects has to be
 322 retraced by today's scholars to decipher this meaning. Both *I5 Inference Making* as well as the
 323 *I3 Inference Logic* that was applied to arrive at this conclusion can be documented by *E31*
 324 *Document*, if already published, and should otherwise be explained directly in the database.
 325 Lastly, it should be mentioned that just as the places inhabited by individual objects can
 326 overlap, border or contain each other, so can the composite spaces of the *SC3 Spatial*
 327 *Arrangements*, to form new *spacings* and *syntheses*.
 328

329  *Example mapping: Grave 119 of Franzhausen-Kokoron*



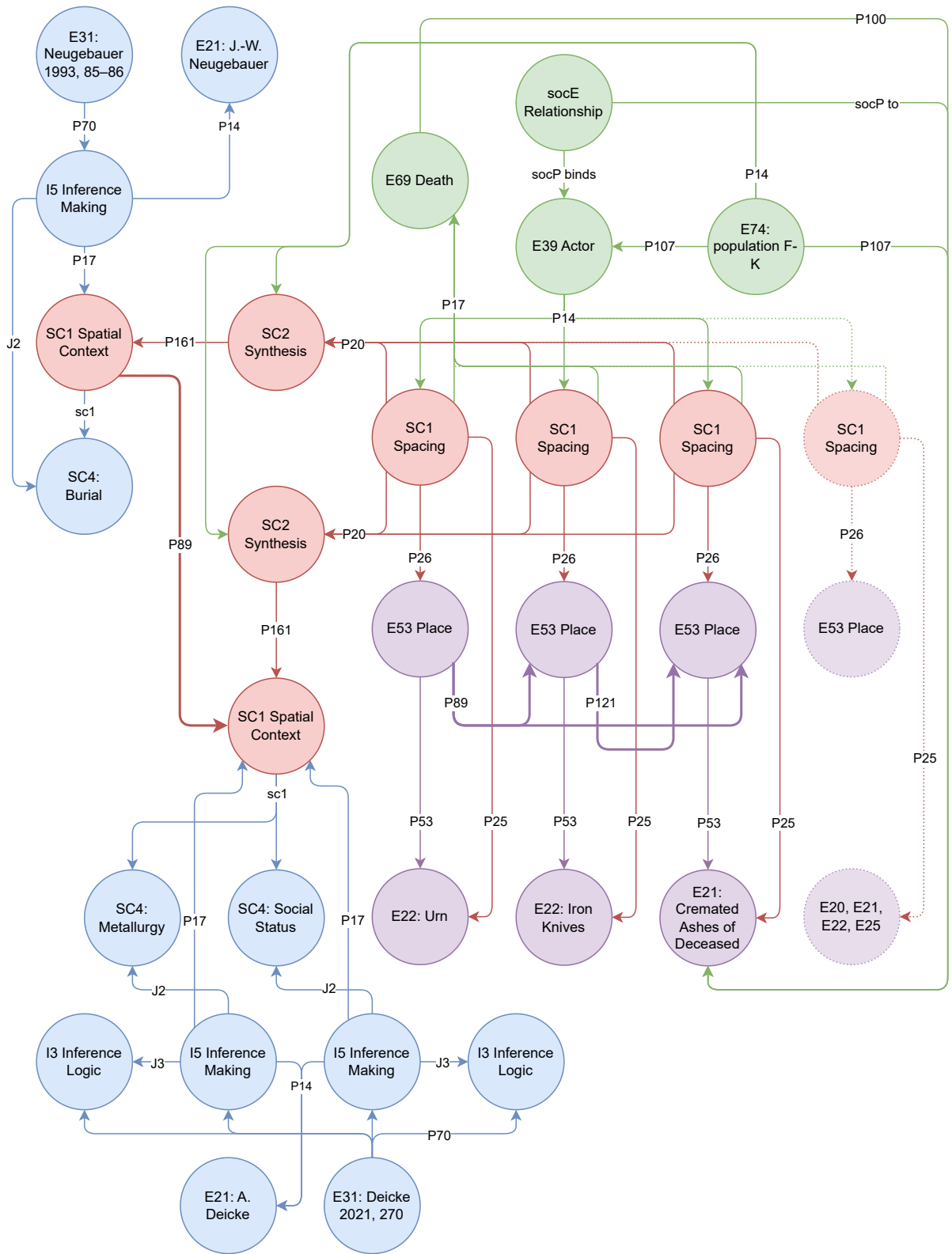
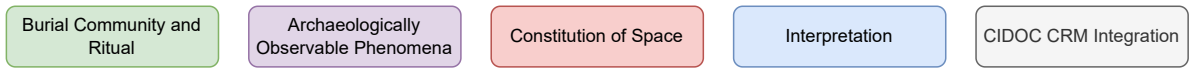
349
 fig. 2: Grave 119 of Franzhausen-Kokoron. 2 – urn; 6, 7 – ceramic vessel; 10 – bronze knife; 11 – animal bones (sheep); 13, 15 – fragments of two iron knives (Lochner and Hellerschmid 2016b, table 71)

Technically, the next step of the knowledge engineering process would be the creation of a logical data model to reduce complexity and to facilitate implementation in a database, data entry, and querying. Yet, to better illustrate the intentions of the conceptual model, an exemplary partial mapping of a burial containing iron as well as bronze knives is presented below. Grave 119 of the cemetery of Franzhausen (Nußdorf ob der Traisen, Lower Austria) contained fragments of two iron knives placed inside the urn alongside the ashes of a cremated body, and a bronze knife that was laid across the remains of a vessel and accompanied by animal bones (fig. 2; Lochner/Hellerschmid 2016, Grab 119).

Due to the complexity of the model, the mapping (fig. 3) incorporates only

354 those entities of the inventory connected to the iron knives and their possible functions, namely
 355 the urn (*E22*), the iron knives (*E22*, combined into one node), and the cremation as the remains
 356 of the person of the deceased (*E21*). This last *E21*-node also represents the *E21 Person*
 357 whose death motivates the acts of *spacing and synthesis*, who is part of the burial community
 358 of Franzhausen-Kokoron (*E74*), and who can be assumed to have had a specific relation to
 359 the *E39 Actor* performing the placement.
 360

361 At the centre of the mapping are the three *SC1 Spacing* events referring to the placement of
 362 the urn, iron knives, and cremation, and the spatial relations between them. They are
 363 connected to two events of *SC2 Synthesis* which in turn, create three specific *SC3 Spatial*
 364 *Contexts* with different *SC4 Semantic Meanings*. One of those presents the initial decision of



365

fig. 3: Mapping of the constitution of the spatial arrangements of grave 119 of Franzhausen-Kokoron. Bold: Spatial relations; dotted: stand-in for the other entities making up the burial space. Created with diagrams.net.

366 the original excavator, Johannes-Wolfgang Neugebauer, to define this assemblage of finds
367 and features as a burial (Neugebauer 1993, 85–86). The second and third one document the
368 interpretative acts of ascribing these arrangements meaning for the expression of social status
369 and a connection to iron metallurgy by the author, documented in the study introduced above.

370
371 In summary, the mapping documents which groupings of *spacing*-events different researchers
372 understand as meaningful, and in which way. In making these processes explicit and their
373 interpretation transparent, they facilitate their analysis and ensure the reproducibility of the
374 results gained.

375

376 Discussion and Outlook

377

378 In summary, a general model of the construction of burial spaces was created using the CIDOC
379 CRM, the compatible models CRM_{inf} and CRM_{soc}, as well as additional custom classes to
380 extend the model to adequately represent the social actions behind this construction process.
381 While the model contains substantial complexity, the decision of how much of this complexity
382 is necessary to implement depends on the specific research project; certainly parts such as
383 the interpretative process or the representation of the burial community and rituals could be
384 substituted by a careful qualitative contextualization and description. As was said in the
385 beginning, part of this exercise was aimed at philosophical ontological work, to envision which
386 entities and relationships are participating in the process of the construction of social spaces.

387 In this regard, it has to be noted that not all elements of Martina Löw's theories have been
388 included in this version of the model, as, for example, the "external effectualities" mentioned
389 above are not yet represented.

390

391 In a next step, the model will be transferred into a logical data model for a graph database
392 containing the data from the case study. Two approaches are considered for quantitative
393 analysis: (a), to develop algorithms on the basis of the extended CRM that allow for the
394 querying of this knowledge base and could point researchers to other patterns such as the one
395 described above; (b), to export selected relationships and to analyse them using methods and
396 measures of network analysis.

397

398 As mentioned above, the ensuing research pipeline will be tested and, if necessary, the model
399 will be adapted accordingly. For this process, some challenges remain to be considered. For
400 example, the question remains if the existing properties of the CIDOC CRM that describe
401 spatial relations are expressive enough to adequately illustrate the arrangements between
402 grave goods, architecture and organic remains, or if it will prove necessary to develop a more
403 detailed controlled vocabulary. Also, it might be fruitful to integrate further categories into the
404 model that potentially influence *spacing* and *synthesis*, for example, gender or age of the
405 deceased, or the materiality of objects which is now subsumed into the respective *E22 Human-*
406 *Made Object*-nodes.

407

408 Still, with this first modelling effort, an important step has been taken to lay a foundation for the
409 study of socially constructed space by means of digital methods. It opens up a wide range of
410 potentials for future studies to detect patterns of mortuary spatial arrangements, to contribute
411 to a more detailed understanding of past funeral norms, function and meaning of grave goods
412 and architecture, and consequently, to draw inferences on the social structure of the burial
413 community in which these spaces were produced.

414

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416

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420

421 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

422

423 The author declares that she complies with the PCI rule of having no financial conflicts of
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425

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