

Raman spectra database of the glass beads excavated on mapungubwe hill and k2, two archaeological sites in South Africa

Aurélie Tournié, Linda C Prinsloo, Philippe Colomban

▶ To cite this version:

Aurélie Tournié, Linda C Prinsloo, Philippe Colomban. Raman spectra database of the glass beads excavated on mapungubwe hill and k2, two archaeological sites in South Africa. 2010. hal-00543867

HAL Id: hal-00543867

https://hal.science/hal-00543867

Preprint submitted on 7 Dec 2010

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.





RAMAN SPECTRA DATABASE OF THE GLASS BEADS EXCAVATED ON MAPUNGUBWE HILL AND K2, TWO ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Aurélie Tournié Linda C. Prinsloo Philippe Colomban

About two hundred coloured glass beads (red, yellow, green, blue, white, black, pink, plum) were selected among the thousands of beads excavated on Mapungubwe hill and at K2, archaeological sites in the Limpopo valley South Africa, and have been studied with Raman scattering. The glass matrix of the beads was classified according to its Raman signature into 3 main sub-groups and corroded glass could also be identified. At least seven different chromophores or pigments (lazurite, lead tin yellow type II, Ca/Pb arsenate, chromate, calcium antimonate, Fe-S "amber" and a spinel) have been identified. Many of the pigments were only manufactured after the 13th century that confirms the presence of modern beads in the archaeological record. This calls for further research to find a way to reconcile the carbon dating of the hill, which currently gives the last occupation date on the hill as 1280 AD with the physical evidence of the modern beads excavated on the hill.

2009-2010

1. DATABASE

This work was conducted at the University of Pretoria in the Physics department during a post-doctorate contract (2009 - 2010).

The aim of this investigation was to compile a database of the beads excavated at the Mapungubwe and K2. This Raman spectral database compiled incorporates the results from previous studies (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008; Tournié *et al.*, JRS, 2010) and can be used as a guide to identify beads with a fast and non-destructive technique.

An assemblage of 175 beads that appeared to be different in shape, size and colour were selected from the formal Mapungubwe collection under the stewardship of the Department of UP Arts. The accessioned bead collection is extensive and has accumulated over a 75 year period of archaeological excavation. A majority of the beads are provenanced material, whilst many others have identifying labels and containers providing information that can be linked to archival catalogue entries and field notebooks. Only beads excavated on Mapungubwe hill and K2 sites were selected and most of the beads selected are from the older excavations (1934-1938) and include the M3 beads series (Gardner, 1963) not analysed by Davison, Saitowitz and Wood.

The database is classified by colour: blue (Figure 1), red (Figure 2), yellow (Figure 3), green (Figure 4), black (Figure 5), white (Figure 6) and other beads like pink, striped, quartz and tiny (Figure 7). All the beads were analysed in different spots to make sure that the spectra are reproductible. This catalogue compiles: photographs of each of the beads analysed, museum reference number, site (Mabungubwe hill or K2), baseline corrected Raman spectrum, type of glass matrix (Na₂O or Na₂O/CaO) and the pigment identified. The approximate quantity for some of the more unusual beads found in the collection is also indicated.

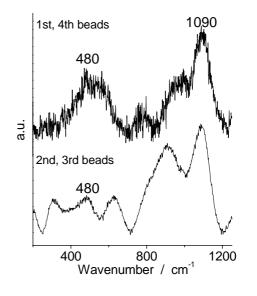
After these figures we're going to present the Mapungubwe and K2 sites, then the experimental part will be described and the glass matrix and pigments will be classified and compared to those established using morphological and technological parameters. The pigments will be classified according to the period of manufacture, which can be related to the date the beads were exported to Africa and therefore provide an approximate date of the site where it was excavated.

Figure 1: **BLUE BEADS** REF. **RAMAN SPECTRA GLASS BEADS MATRIX MUSEUM** (after baseline subtraction, (scale=1mm) (quantity) a.u. = arbitrary unit) **PIGMENT** 1087 Accession: C/4354 607 Box C0241 a.u 480 Na₂O/CaO 720 Map. Hill Copper (~ 30) bb1_4354 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 400 1097 Accession: C/952 570 **Box C0046** Na₂O/CaO Map. Hill Cobalt (~ 100) C952blue2nd 1200 800 400 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ * T64000 533 Accession: C/740Box C0038 1092 Lazurite 488 986/ 19th c. Map. Hill 302 635 $(\sim 300-400)$ 1200 400 800 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹



Accession: C/952
Box C0046
Map. Hill

 (~ 800)

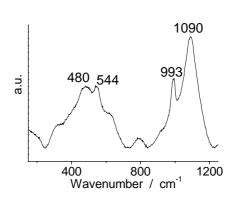


Na₂O Cobalt

Beads 1,3 and 4 looks like copper



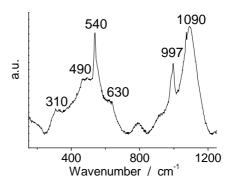
Accession: **C/4333**Box 0241
Map. Hill
(~10)



Na₂O
Lazurite
19th c.



Accession: C/762
Box 0041
Map. Hill



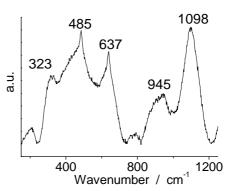
Lazurite 19th c.



Accession: C1846
Box C0055

Map. Hill, Southern Terrace

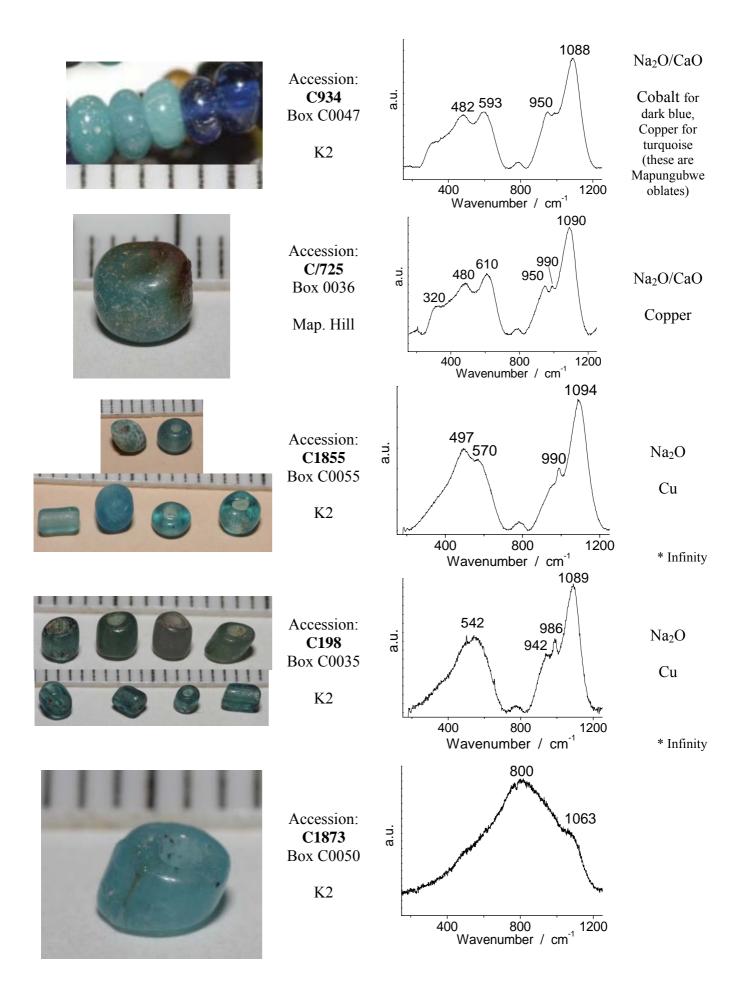
(~153)



Na₂O

Ca₂Sb₂O₇ European 17-18th c.

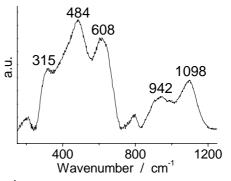
> Cu Cobalt





Accession: C1515
Box C0054

Southern Terrace



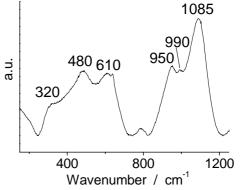
 Na_2O

Cu



Accession: **C1497**Box C0053

Southern Terrace



Na₂O

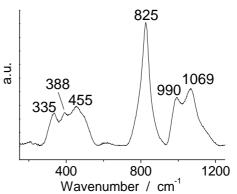
Cu



Accession: C743
Box C0038

K2

(~400)



Na₂O

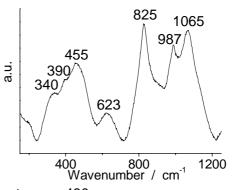
Ca and Pb Arsenate 16th c.



Accession: C1550

Box C0054

K2



Na₂O

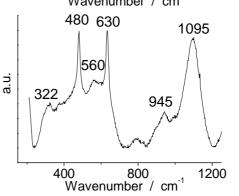
Ca and Pb Arsenate 16th c.



Accession: C723
Box C0036

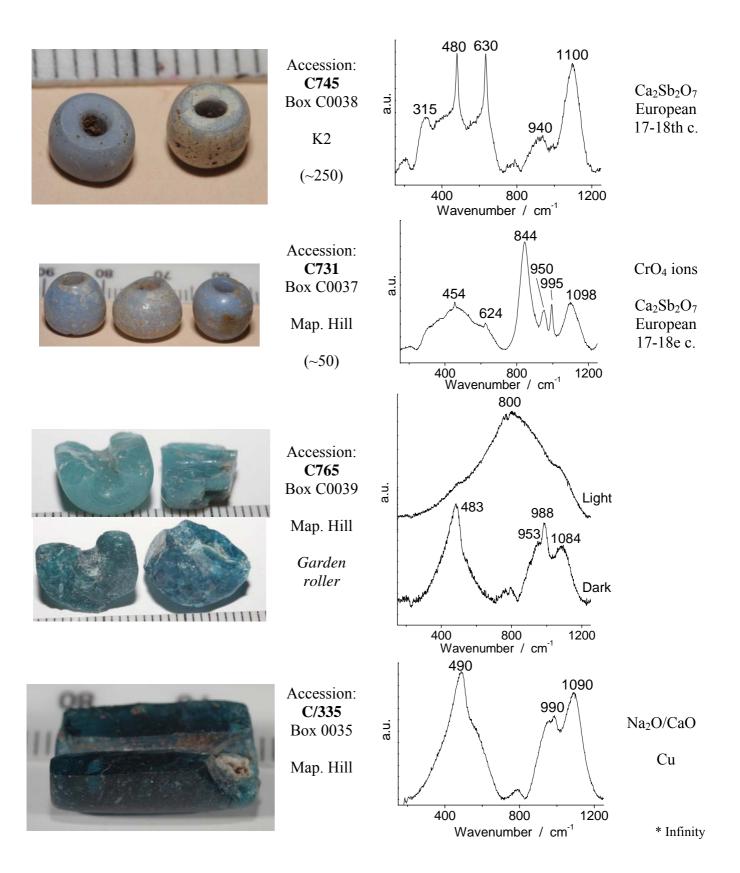
K2

 (~ 10)



Na₂O/CaO

Ca₂Sb₂O₇ European 17-18th c



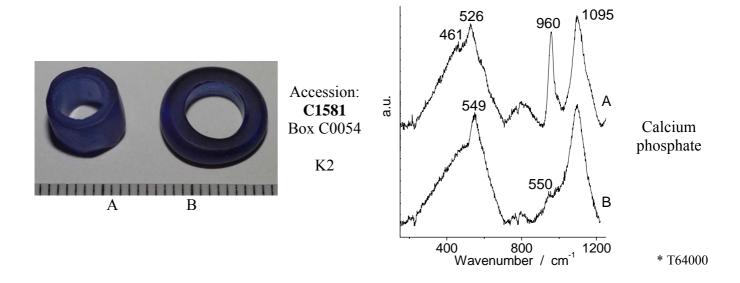
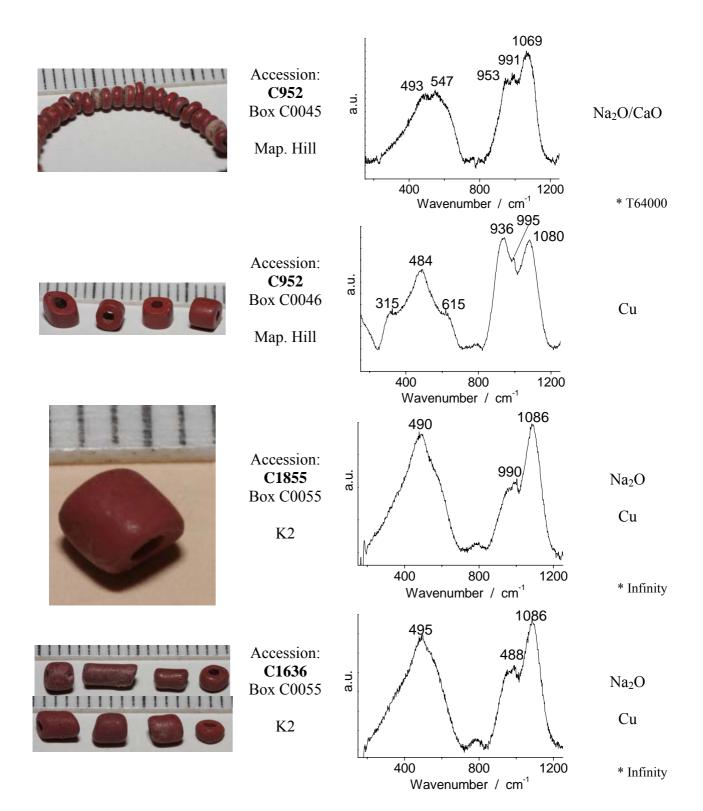


Figure 2: **RED BEADS** REF. **RAMAN SPECTRA GLASS BEADS MUSEUM** (after baseline subtraction, **MATRIX** (scale=1mm) a.u. = arbitrary unit) **PIGMENT** (quantity) 1085 Accession: 990 a.u. C/4354 Box C0241 Na₂O/CaO Map. Hill 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ * T64000 1082 Tube 538 Accession: 1090 a.u. C/762 Na₂O/CaO Box 0041 573 Oblate 987 Map. Hill 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ * T64000 1081 476 562 Accession: C1515 Box C0054 Na₂O/CaO Southern Terrace 0 800 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 1200 * T64000 1075 989 493 547 Accession: C952 Box C0046 Map. Hill 400 800 1200 * T64000 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹



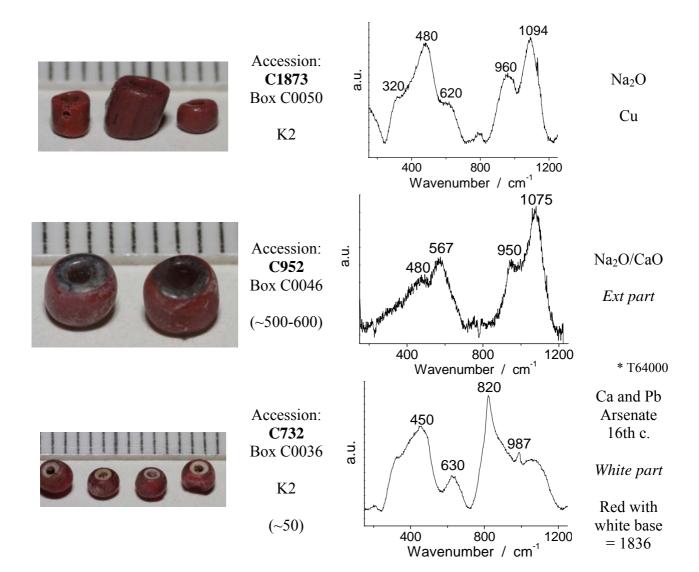
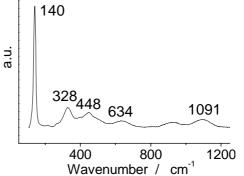


Figure 3: YELLOW / ORANGE **RAMAN SPECTRA** REF. **GLASS BEADS MUSEUM** (after baseline subtraction, **MATRIX** (scale= 1mm) a.u. = arbitrary unit) (quantity) **PIGMENT** 800 Accession: ?? 138 C/4354 a.u. Box C0241 Pb₂Sb₂O₇ Naples Yellow Map. Hill Renaissance (~ 10) 800 1200 400 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 135 Accession: Na₂O Box a.u. Pb₂Sb₂O₇ Map. Hill Naples Yellow 324448 1087 Renaissance Large orange after XRF 1200 400 800 *T64000 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 140 972 Accession: $Pb_2Sb_2O_7$ a.u. C952 Naples Yellow Box C0046 Renaissance 338 507 Stannate Map. Hill CaSb₂O₆/ $(\sim 50-100)$ PbSnO₄ 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹



Accession: C2378 Box C0054



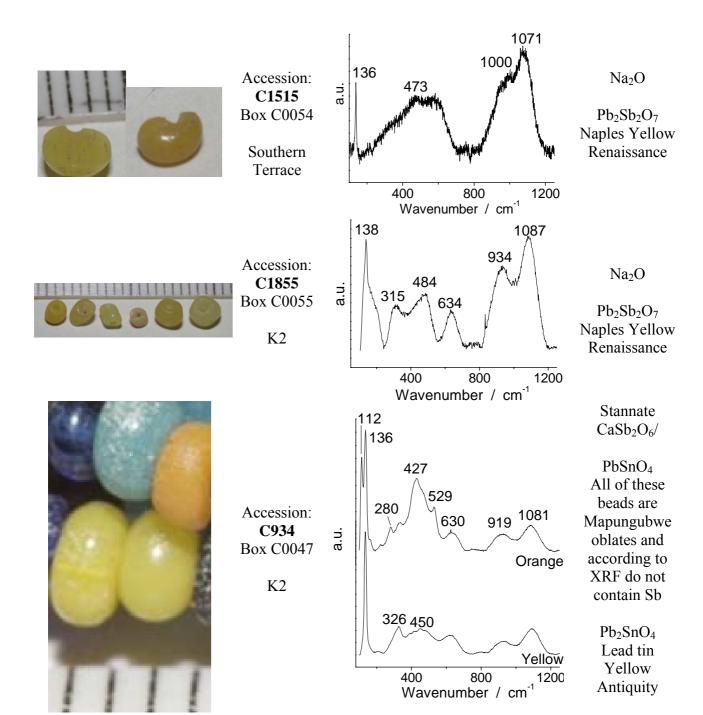
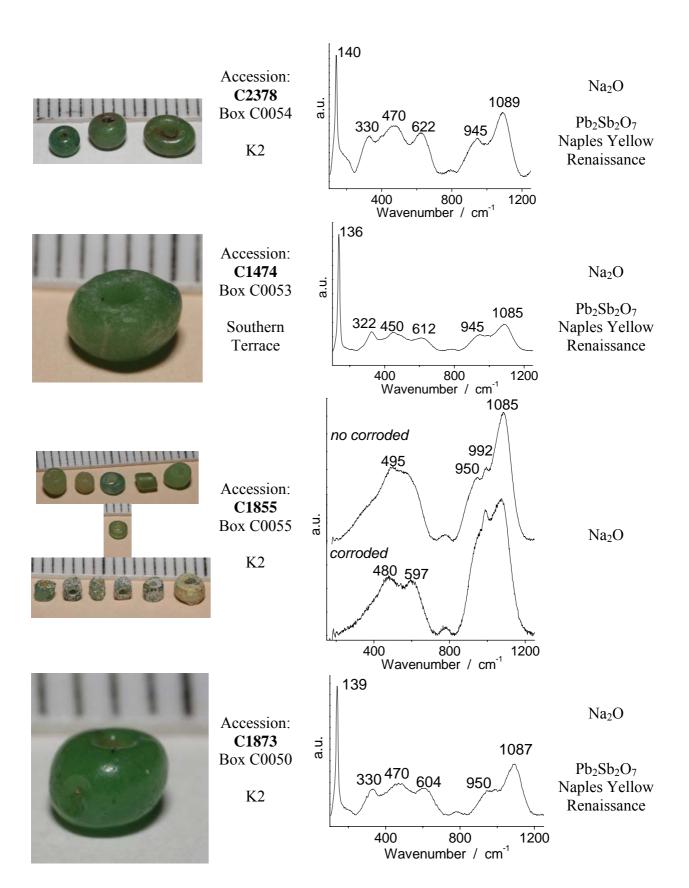


Figure 4: **GREEN BEADS RAMAN SPECTRA** REF. **GLASS BEADS MUSEUM** (after baseline subtraction, **MATRIX** (scale=1mm) a.u. = arbitrary unit) **PIGMENT** (quantity) 982 1060 138 514 Stannate Accession: CaSb₂O₆/ C/4333 635 PbSnO₄ 480 Box 0241 a.u. 1065**A** 985 640 Map. Hill Na₂O 320 A D (~ 10) Ca₂Sb₂O₇ D European 17-18th c. 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 144 Na₂O/CaO 1085 Accession: 990 C/144 330 470 620 Pb₂Sb₂O₇ 950 Box 0049 Naples Yellow Renaissance Map. Hill 1200 800 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 480 1080 Accession: 640 980 C/1546 315 Ca₂Sb₂O₇ a.u. Box 0054 European 17-18th c. Map. Hill (~ 10) 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 1081 ⁴⁸⁰ 624 Accession: 943 a.u. 395 **C878** Na₂O Box C0045 328 Clinopyroxene diopside Map. Hill 400 800 1200

Wavenumber / cm⁻¹



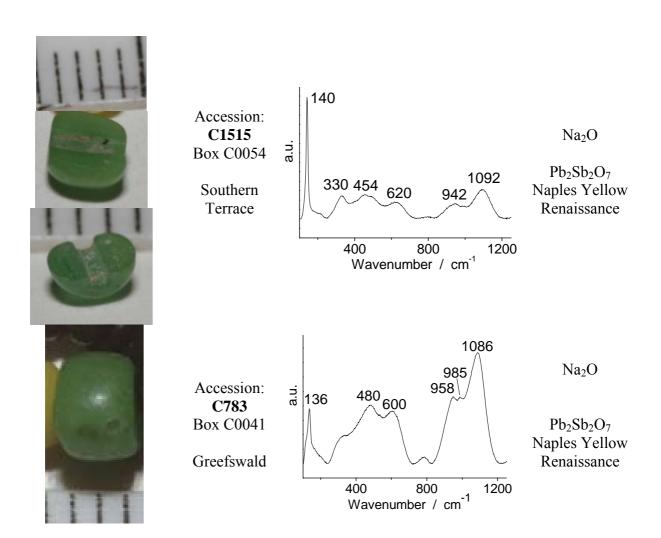
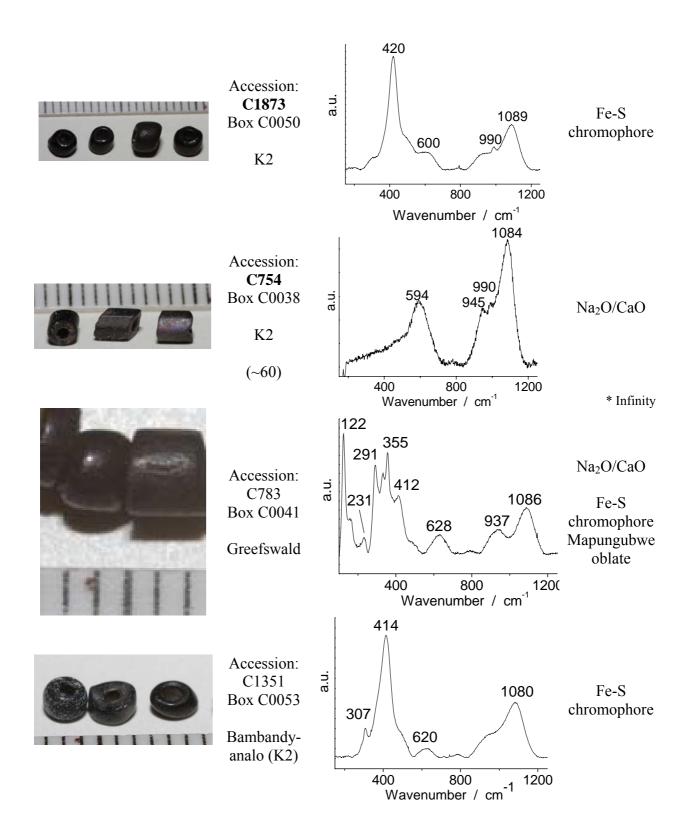
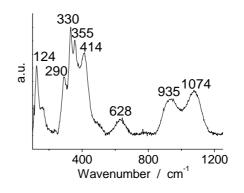


Figure 5: **BLACK BEADS** REF. **RAMAN SPECTRA GLASS BEADS MUSEUM** (after baseline subtraction, **MATRIX** (scale= 1mm) a.u. = arbitrary unit) (quantity) **PIGMENT** 644 Accession: C/762Box 0041 Fe₃O₄ spinel or Co, Cr, Zn Map. Hill 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ 1094 552 479. * Accession: 990 a.u. C2378 **Box C0054** Na₂O/CaO **K2** 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ * T64000 415 Accession: a.u. 1080 Fe-S C1515 **Box C0054** chromophore Southern Terrace 400 800 1200 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹ * T64000 Fe-S 1082 Accession: chromophore 940 / 628 C952 Box C0046 a.u. Map. Hill 309 Na₂O/CaO 1200 400 800 Wavenumber / cm⁻¹





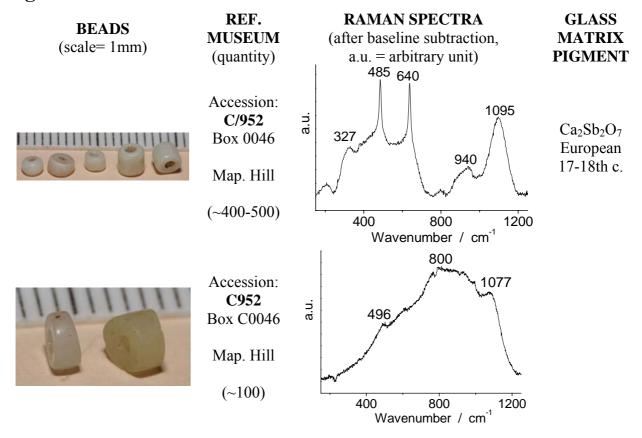
Accession: C934 Box C0047

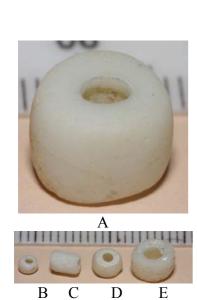


Fe-S chromophore Mapungubwe oblate

Figure 6:

WHITE BEADS



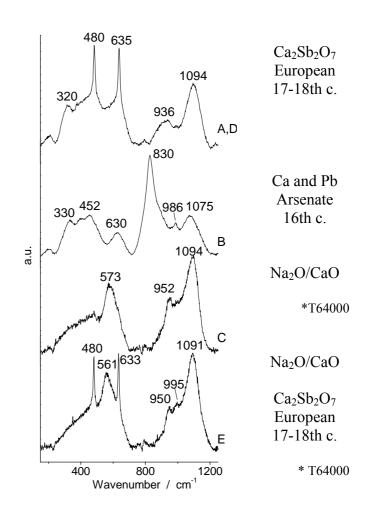


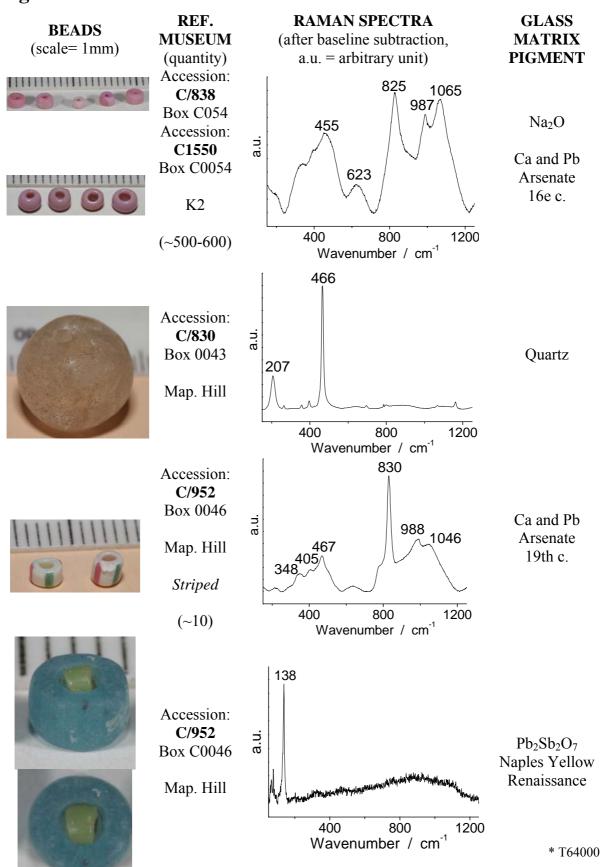
 \mathbf{C}

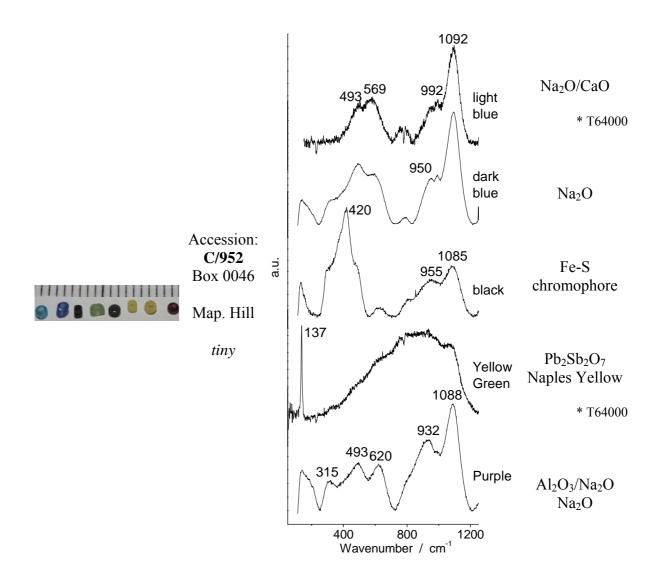
D

Е

Accession: C836 Box C0054 Map. Hill



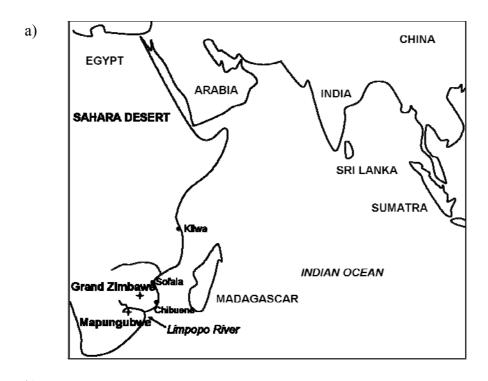




2. MAPUNGUBWE AND K2 ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

Mapungubwe is a small flat-topped sandstone plateau situated in the Limpopo valley close to the present-day borders of South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe (Figure 8). Excavations on Mapungubwe hill during 1933-1934 exposed three "royal" burials in which gold funerary objects, gold beads and bangles, were found together with imported glass beads (Fouche, 1937). The sheer volume of beads recovered is remarkable; from one burial alone 26 037 glass beads were counted (Saitowitz, 1996). Shortly after the discovery of Mapungubwe another archaeological site, namely Bambandyanalo (later renamed K2), approximately 1 Km to the southwest of Mapungubwe hill, was also discovered. During subsequent excavations at both sites (1934-1940) thousands more glass beads were found (Gardner, 1963).

The excavations on Mapungubwe uncovered several strata of occupation which were clearly separated by layers of ash indicating that the settlements were burnt down between occupations (Gardner, 1963). Pottery styles and bead types varied between the layers and made it possible to classify the beads into three different periods of time namely M1, M2 and M3, with M3 being the top layer (Gardner, 1963). This stratification provided a link to the K2 site as the type of beads that was excavated at K2 is the same as those found in the M1 layer, which is proof that this period of time of occupation on Mapungubwe coincides with the settlement at K2. It also showed that burials at K2 associated with M2 style beads are intrusive from the hill as M2 style beads were not found in the occupational material at K2 (Gardner, 1963). The M3 type of bead excavated in the uppermost layers was regarded as quite modern, some dating from the 18th-19th centuries (Beck, 1937; Gardner, 1963). Based on this and other information, such as the re-growth of plant species, the last occupation date on the hill was estimated to be the middle of the 19th century (Gardner, 1963). Further excavations at the site 1960-1975 used carbon dating to re-date the last occupation date on the hill as 1280 AD (Meyer, 1998; Vogel, 1998; Woodborne *et al.*, 2009).



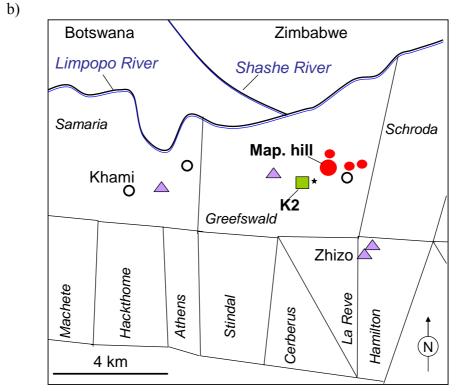


Figure 8: a) Location of the Mapungubwe sites at the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe rivers; b) details of the different excavation spots at Mapungubwe.

Raman and XRD analyses of the glaze of Chinese celadon shards, excavated in 1934 in the M3 layer on Mapungubwe hill, re-dated the shards from its original classification as the Song dynasty (1127-1279 AD) to the Yuan (1279-1368 AD) or early Ming (1368-1644 AD)

dynasties, which was an indication that the last occupation date of Mapungubwe may have been one to two centuries later than 1280 AD (Prinsloo *et al.*, 2005). In order to obtain supportive evidence for these results, which will have an impact on the chronology of the whole region, a Raman spectroscopic study of the thousands of glass trade beads, excavated at the same site was initiated. An in-depth study, utilizing Raman spectroscopy and supportive techniques, was conducted on the Mapungubwe oblates, the beads associated with the gold-bearing graves and representing the M2 time period (Prinsloo and Colomban 2008). Although very precise information about the technology used to produce and colour the glass was obtained, the provenance of the beads could not be established.

3. ORIGIN OF GLASS BEADS

Exotic imports, when found in an archaeological context, are clear proof of international trade and if the provenance of the object can be determined, light can be shed on trade routes and even roughly date the site. To unravel the early history of sub-Saharan Africa this is of cardinal importance since only a few written records of the pre-Portuguese era exists in western literature and up to the 19th century this is also sparse. Glass beads are the most abundant of the imported trade goods that have been conserved and excavated at archaeological sites all over Africa. The central position of Mapungubwe hill, situated at the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe rivers, made it from the earliest time accessible through old caravan routes to Central Africa (e.g. Great Zimbabwe), Egypt and the Mediterranean world (Saitowitz, 1996). The Limpopo River also connected Mapungubwe to the African east coast (outposts of the Swahili Kilwa Sultanate: Sofala, Catembe (now Maputo), etc.) and by sea trade as far as the Red sea, Arabic gulf, India, Champa and China (Saitowitz, 1996, Colomban, 2005). Furthermore, trade along the African west coast was accessible via the interior through Botswana and Angola, where Portuguese mariners traded in beads from Europe 150 years before they rounded the Cape of Storms and also dominated the African east coast trade (Saitowitz, 1996). Possible trading partners therefore were numerous and the potential origin of the beads widespread.

Not all the beads were imported. "Garden roller" beads (Figures 1, 9a) shaped like the heavy rollers used to press grass lawns were discovered at Bambandyanalo (K2) in 1934. The blue-green beads were unlike any bead previously excavated at South African Iron Age archaeological sites and the discovery of broken (and one whole) clay moulds at K2, into which the beads fit perfectly proved that the beads were manufactured on site (Gardner,

1963). Garden rollers were also excavated on Mapungubwe (layer M1), but not one clay mould (Figure 9a) was found, indicating that the beads were manufactured at the K2 site and traded to Mapungubwe. It is the most southern site in Africa where evidence of glass-reworking has been discovered and it was shown that the beads were manufactured by heating smaller glass trade beads found in association with the large "Garden Rollers" up to the temperature required for sintering and glass formation (Davison, 1973; Saitowitz, 1996; Wood 2000).

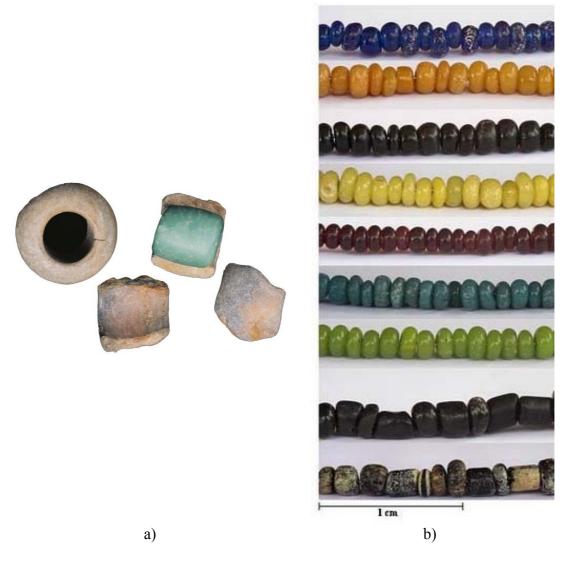


Figure 9: a) Garden Roller clay moulds and bead. (bead diameter ~ 12-15 mm; photograph Mapungubwe museum files.), b) Mapungubwe oblates (photograph A. Carr)

Initial studies on the beads found during the early excavations classified them according to morphological appearances, specific gravity tests and fluorescence measurements (Beck, 1937; Van Riet Lowe, 1955; Van der Sleen 1956; Gardner, 1963).

India, Fustat (Egypt) and Venice were proposed as origin for the older beads, whilst some beads such as the large cobalt blue annular ("Dutch Dogons" made in Germany) and hexagonal ("Russians" made in Czekoslovakia) beads were recognized as originating from Europe. The beads associated with the burials (in particular the three gold-bearing skeletons) comprise 80% of the collection. Davison (1974, 1979) found these Mapungubwe beads to be chemically different to the beads that occur at archaeological sites in southern and eastern Africa and at that time known as "trade wind beads" (after Van der Sleen, 1956). She named the beads the Mapungubwe Oblates and also found that the beads from the K2 site (M1 layer at Mapungubwe) were chemically in a separate group (XRD measurements) and after Gardner named it the M1 group (Davison and Clark 1974; Davison 1979). Extensive studies using XRD, REE and XRF measurements of the burial beads and the beads excavated by Meyer and Eloff (later excavation) were undertaken by Saitowitz who proposed Fustat as the origin of some of the beads based upon REE analysis, but gave inconclusive scientific evidence (Robertshaw *et al.*, 2010; Wood 2000, 2005).

Wood proposed a classification system for the beads excavated in Southern Africa before contact with the west, according to their morphological and technological attributes and dated each series by reference to established radiocarbon chronologies (Wood, 2000, 2005). Table 1 summarizes the bead series, which was also identified by her as occurring at Mapungubwe and K2. She named the earliest beads Zhizo (after excavation site where they were first excavated), K2 (after the K2 site and the same as the M1 beads of Gardner and Davison), Garden rollers (after Gardner), Indo-Pacific (after Francis, 2001 who replaced "trade wind beads" of van der Sleen) and Mapungubwe oblates (after Davison). A few large Islamic beads were found at Mapungubwe, but not analysed in this study. She also described a Zimbabwe and Khami beads series, of which she did not find examples amongst the beads she studied from the Mapungubwe and K2 sites. Not many of the oldest type of beads, namely the Zhizo bead series (Figure 9b), occur at Mapungubwe and they are usually heavily corroded.

The colouring elements used in beads imported into southern African before the 14th century were determined by elemental analysis: iron, lead, tin, copper and cobalt (Robertshaw *et al.*, 2010). The association of Pb with Sn in yellow glass indicated that lead stannate (lead tin yellow type 1 or 2) was the preferred yellow pigment, particularly for plant ash glasses (Tite *et al.*, 1998) Iron dissolved as Fe³⁺ was used to obtain yellow (Perreira *et al.*, 2009) and acts as a reducing agent for copper so that it precipitates as metal or cuprite in brownish-red

glasses. (Nassau, 2001; Colomban, 2009; Colomban and Schreiber, 2005). Copper was used to make blue-green and green glasses and cobalt generally for deep blue.

Bead series	Traded period in southern Africa	Method of manufacture	Size	Colour	Shape
Zhizo	ca. 8-10 AD	Drawn	2.5-13 mm diameter up tp 20 mm long	Cobalt, yellow, blue- green, green	Tubes
K2	ca. AD 980- 1200	Drawn	-Small -2-3.5 mm diameter 1.2-4 mm long	Transparent to translucent blue-green to light green	Tubes, cylinders
K2 Garden Roller	ca. AD 980- 1200	Reheated K2 series beads in single-use clay mould	-Large -10 to14 mm diameter to 7 to 15 mm long	Transparent to translucent blue-green to light green	Barrel-shaped
Indo-Pacific	ca. AD 1000-1250	Drawn with ends rounded through reheated	Vary but most are 2.5 to 4.5 mm diameter	Black and brownish- red beads are opaque; yellow, soft orange, green and blue-green are translucent	Vary but most are cylindrical
Mapungubwe oblate	ca. AD 1240-1300	Drawn, Heat rounded	Uniform 2 to 3.5 mm diameter	Opaque black the most common Cobalt blue, green, plum, turquoise, bright orange	Uniform Oblate or cylindrical with well- rounded end
Islamic	Ca. AD 1250-1300	Not well defined	large	Decorated with patterns made up of glasses of several colours	Not well defined

Table 1: Bead series classification based on morphological attributes and elemental analysis according to Wood.

A comparison of the chemical composition of the main bead types are given in Table 2, the values are given in oxide percentages (Robertshaw *et al.*, 2010). The bead series are all soda-lime silica beads. The K2-type, K2 Garden Roller and Indo-Pacific beads are characterized by mineral soda and a high quantity of alumina (Table 2). The K2 series contains the largest quantity of soda (~ 16 %) and the Indo-pacific series is rich in Fe₂O₃ (~ 2 %). The Mapungubwe oblate series is distinct from the K2 and Indo-Pacific series because of the high quantity of manganese (~ 6 %) and calcium (~ 7 %).

Site	<i>K</i> 2	K2	Indo-Pac	Map oblate
Assignment	GR			Wood
Na_2O	14.36	16.22	14.75	13.47
MgO	0.37	0.43	0.59	5.8
Al_2O_3	16.63	11.85	13	7.67
SiO_2	61.05	64.51	63.08	61.88
K_2O	3.39	3.34	3.46	3.47
CaO	2.85	2.34	2.85	6.66
Fe_2O_3	1.35	1.3	2.27	104
Type		2		3

Table 2: Average composition of the main beads series (K2, Garden Roller (K2GR), K2, Indo-pacific and Mapungubwe) excavated at Mapungubwe and K2 according to Wood and Robertshaw et al.

It has been established that Raman spectroscopy is an excellent and non-invasive method to characterise glasses as both the type of glass matrix and pigments used as colouring agents can be determined from a Raman spectrum (Burgio and Clark, 2001; Colomban, 2003a; Colomban *et al.*, 2003c; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009a). The Raman spectra and XRF analysis of the Mapungubwe oblates confirmed the glass to be typical soda/lime/potash glass similar to Islamic glass from the 8th century (Ommayad) (Colomban *et. al*, 2004a), but with higher levels of aluminium, iron and magnesium. The turquoise, bright green, bright yellow and orange colours were obtained by utilizing a combination of cassiterite (SnO₂) and lead tin yellow type II (PbSn_{1-x}Si_xO₃). Doping with cobalt and manganese produced dark blue and plum coloured beads. The Fe-S chromophore was detected through its resonance enhanced spectrum in the black beads. Corrosion of the black beads was investigated and an organic phase detected on the beads, which might have influenced the corrosion process. We have shown that Raman spectroscopy can classify the glass matrix and provide unique information about the pigments used that is not possible with other analytical techniques.

4. EXPERIMENTAL

Micro-Raman spectroscopy was performed with HR 800, T64000 and Labram Infinity micro-Raman spectrometers from HORIBA Scientific, Jobin Yvon Technology (Villeneuve d'Ascq, France).

All the beads were analysed with the HR 800 with a 514 nm Argon exciting laser (50mW at laser exit), a x50 objective and 600 t/mm grating with recording times ranging between 50-300s. The T64000 and Labram Infinity Raman spectrometers (514 nm laser) was used later to record spectra on some beads where no Raman signature or spectra of very poor

quality were obtained with the HR 800 (~10% of the spectra). In many cases where the Raman signal of the beads was low the edge filter of the HR 800 caused interferences in the form of a wavy background and as the T64000 spectrometer uses a triple monochromator system to eliminate contributions from the Rayleigh line, this aspect is eliminated. In the database an asterisk indicates the spectra recorded with the T64000 or Infinity, without asterisk means that we used the HR 800.

The Raman signature of an amorphous silicate is composed of two massifs, one centered around 500 cm⁻¹ and the other one around 1000 cm⁻¹ (Furukawa *et al.*, 1981; McMillan and Piriou, 1982). The first represents bending vibrations of the SiO₄ tetrahedron and the second stretching vibrations. It has been shown that the second peak can be decomposed into five components following the Q_n model, namely Q₀, Q₁, Q₂, Q₃ and Q₄ which are attributed to stretching vibrations of SiO₄ tetrahedra with 0, 1, 2, 3 or 4 bridging oxygens. Because the SiO₄ tetrahedron is a very strong chemical and vibrational entity, the Raman signature of silicates depends on their nanostructure and can be directly correlated to the glass composition. The wavenumber maxima of the Si-O bending and stretching massives are well-established tools for the classification of amorphous silicates (Colomban, 2003a; Colomban *et al.*, 2006a; Tournié *et al.*, 2008).

The analyses were made, where it was possible, on a clean part of the bead in order to obtain the Raman signature of the original glass without interference of corrosion products. In order to compare and identify the silicate glasses according to their Raman signatures, the fluorescence background was subtracted and Raman parameters extracted from the spectra such as the maximum position of the bending and stretching massifs respectively (δ_{max} SiO₂ and ν_{max} SiO₂) to use for the classification of the glass matrix.

5. GLASS MATRIX CLASSIFICATION

The glass matrix of the beads was classified according to the main parameters extracted from the Raman signature of the SiO_4 vibrational unit: the maxima position of the bending (δ_{max} SiO_2) and stretching massifs (v_{max} SiO_2). This classification tool has proved its efficiency in the study of many glasses and enamels (Colomban *et al.*, 2006a; Colomban and Tournié, 2007, Kirmizi *et al.*, 2010a,b; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009a,b). The spectra used are free of significant bands originating from pigments, which could disturb the glass matrix. In some cases a decomposition treatment (Colomban, 2003a; Colomban *et al.*, 2006a; Ricciardi *et al.*,

2009a,b) was used that makes it possible to extract the requested Raman parameters even when the pigment signature superimposes on that of the glass matrix.

In Figure 10a the maximum positions of the bending $(\delta_{max} SiO_2)$ and stretching massifs (v_{max} SiO₂) of a very large collection of glass, varying in technology used, production period and origin, are plotted against each other. Specific areas on the plot represents different groups, in some instances compositions are also indicated. In Figure 10b the data for the selection of beads excavated at Mapungubwe hill and K2 are added to the figure. All the beads fit into two main groups, namely soda (Na₂O) and soda-lime (Na₂O/CaO) glasses, which is in agreement with previous chemical analysis of the beads (Davison and Clark 1974; Davison, 1979; Saitowitz, 1996; Robertshaw et al., 2010). Only one spectrum corresponds to a PbO-rich composition. According to previous studies (Colomban et al., 2006a; Kirmizi et al., 2010a,b; Ricciardi et al., 2009a,b), when the quantity of alumina increases the position of the bending massif shifts towards lower wavenumbers while an increase in the quantity of lead shifts the maximum position of the stretching massif downwards. Lixiviation also induces a wavenumber shift and a decrease in intensity (Tournié et al., 2008). The large scattering of the data shows a variability of composition, which are related to the raw materials used (mineral or sea plant ash for soda glass, continental plant ash for potash-lime glass), the workshop technology or the recycling of glass of different origins. Pigment addition can also shift the position of the bands. The beads excavated on Mapungubwe hill are well distributed into Na₂O and Na₂O/CaO groups while the majority of beads excavated at K2 are in one group Na₂O. The diversity of the Mapungubwe hill beads arises from the longer occupation time of the site in comparison to the K2 site and indicates diverse origins of the beads.

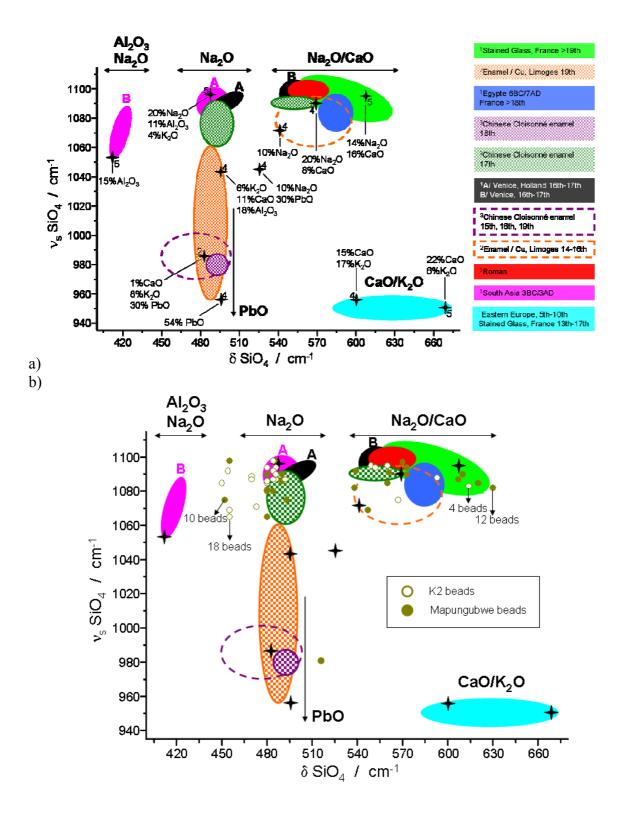


Figure 10: Classification using the SiO₄ bending massive versus stretching massive plot a) of a large glass corpus (1, Ricciardi et al., 2009b; 2, Kirmizi et al., 2010a,; 3, Kirmizi et al., 2010b; 4, Colomban et al., 2006a, ; 5, Tournié, 2009) and b) plus the data of the beads excavated at Mapungubwe hill and K2.

In Figure 10b it can be seen that the K2 and Mapungubwe beads, with bending massif around 450 cm⁻¹, form a new group outside the established groups related to the Na₂O group. The other beads fall into the established groups. The majority of beads from the K2 site (stretching massif around 1090 cm⁻¹) are typical of South Asian glass (3BC/3AD) and beads with stretching massif around 1080 cm⁻¹ are similar to Chinese *Cloisonné* enamel and glass from Venice and Holland (16th-17th c.) with a composition close to 20% of Na₂O, 11% of Al₂O₃ and 4% of K₂O wt. The beads excavated at Mapungubwe hill, which belong to the Na₂O/CaO group, exhibit bending massifs between 540 and 630 cm⁻¹ and are more scattered between groups than the beads from the Na₂O group. The beads with bending massif around 570 cm⁻¹, are included in the Roman and Chinese *Cloisonné* enamel (17th c.) areas with a composition close to 20% of Na₂O and 8% of CaO wt. Mapungubwe beads with spectra with bending massif around 615 cm⁻¹ fall into the area of the stained glass windows from 19th c. with a composition close to 14% Na₂O and 16% CaO. The Zhizo beads (Figure 9b) are corroded to a great extent, but it was possible to record spectra on both a corroded part of the glass and an original piece. The spectrum of the corroded part has a stretching massif at 1075 cm⁻¹ and falls into the group for corroded glass and the spectrum of the original glass (568, 1094 cm⁻¹) falls into the sodium group.

A more detailed classification of the glass types can be made by examining the shape of the vibrational signature that is directly related to the glass nanostructure and hence not only to the composition but also the production technology. In Figure 11, five representative Raman signatures of the glass matrix of all the collected spectra (details available in Tournié *et al.*, 2010) are shown. *Type 1* is characterized by three bands more or less equal at 320, 497 and 595 cm⁻¹ for the bending massif and three bands (2 small and 1 big) respectively at 952, 991 and 1092 cm⁻¹ for the stretching massif. *Type 2* is also characterized by 3 bands for the bending massif, but only two bands for the stretching massive at 943 and 1084 cm⁻¹. *Type 3* is a typical Roman glass (Colomban *et al.*, 2006a).

Type 1 can be considered as an intermediate between Type 2 and Type 3 and Type 4 is due to corrosion by acidic water. Previous studies (Colomban et al., 2006b; Tournié et al., 2008) have demonstrated that K⁺/H⁺ substitution (lixiviation) induces an increase in intensity of the ~480 cm⁻¹ component in the bending multiplet and a downshift of the stretching maximum. Comparing the spectra of types 3 and 4 it is clear that the intensity of the 492 cm⁻¹ component has increased in Type 4, which indicates a modification of the O-Si-O angle in the SiO₄ polymeric framework due to proton insertion (Scanu et al., 1994; Sharma et al., 1983). Also, a downshift from 1090 to 1075 cm⁻¹ is observed for the stretching component and

corresponds to a lengthening of the Si-O bond due to the interaction of the oxygen atoms with the inserted protonic species. Finally *Type 5* is a lead-rich glass easily identified by a strong stretching mode at 972 cm⁻¹. A narrow component at ~985 cm⁻¹ could correspond to sulphate traces (Konijnendijk and Buster, 1977; Lenoir *et al.*, 2009).

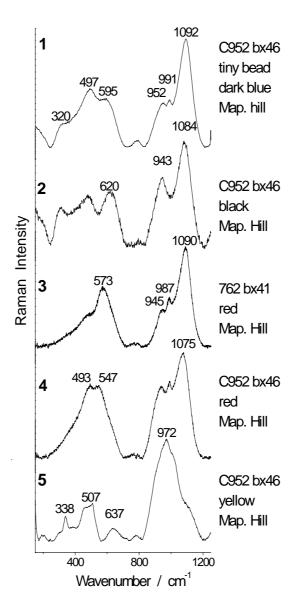


Figure 11: Representative Raman signatures of the five types glass matrix observed among the corpus of glass beads. The type 2 is a soda glass. The type 3 is soda-lime glass, the type 4 is a corroded glass and the type 5 corresponds to the lead. The type 1 seems to be an intermediate between the type 2 and 3.

Figure 12 focus only on the data from beads excavated at the Mapungubwe hill and K2 sites. When it is possible the type of glass series according to the Wood and Gardner classifications are indicated. The glass matrix of the majority of K2 beads are *Type 2* and the data scattering is weak; however two spectra belong to *Type 1* and three to *Type 4*. In

contrast, the beads from the Mapungubwe hill excavation are distributed among all the types of glass with a small majority of *Type 2*. These observations confirm the previous results obtained from Figure 10 namely that the data of the assemblage of beads from Mapungubwe hill is scattered broadly and may be related to many different origins and periods of production.

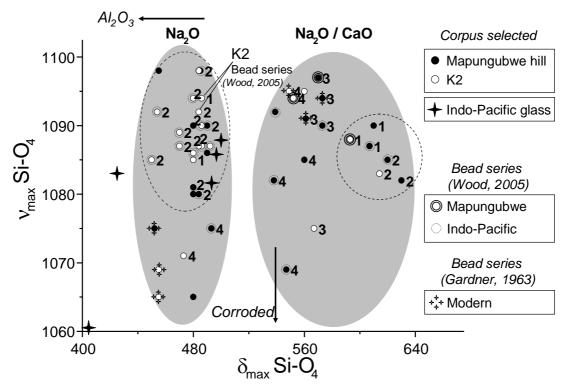


Figure 12: Classification of the glass beads from Mapungubwe hill and K2 sites according to the bending and stretching massive of SiO₄. The type of glass matrix (Na₂O and Na₂O/CaO), the tendency of glass matrix (Al₂O₃, PbO or corroded) and the bead series (K2, Mapungubwe, Indo-Pacific and European) are also indicated.

If we compare the bead series from the Wood classification, we notice that among the Mapungubwe excavated beads there is Indo-Pacific beads (mostly, *Type 2*) and modern European beads (*Type 3* and corroded *Type 4*). Down shift is due to lead addition and/or corrosion. *Types 1* and 2, both from Mapungubwe hill and K2 sites, fit into both glass matrixes, Na₂O and Na₂O/CaO, while *Type 3* is concentrated in one group Na₂O/CaO. Note previous elemental analysis does not consider the corrosion and this induces a systematic error in the comparison of the compositions. The Raman parameters of these glasses are in the same area of *Type 1* and 2 beads classified by Wood as Indo-Pacific.

6. PIGMENTS

Raman spectrometry is a very efficient method to determine the type of pigment or chromophore used to colour glass and we have illustrated how Raman spectroscopy combined with XRF measurements can characterise the precise technology that was used to colour a group of beads (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008). Table 3 summarises the pigments and other crystalline phases identified in this study and incorporates the results of the study of the Mapungubwe Oblates. Bead colour, main Raman peaks, first production or origin and some references are also indicated.

Pigment	Colour bead	Phases	Raman peaks /	1 st production origin	References
			cm ⁻¹		
Lazurite	turquoise	S ₃ and S ₂ in	540	Synthetic from	Burgio and Clark,
		Na ₈ (Al ₆ Si ₆ O ₂₄)S _n		1828	2001
Calcium	Blue,	CaSb ₂ O ₇	480, 634	Antiquity	Gedzeviciûtë et al.,
antimoniate	green,				2009
G (D)	white			th	Mass <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Ca / Pb	Blue,	CaAs ₂ O ₆	830	16 th c. in Italy	Verità, 2000
Arsenate	white,				
	pink, striped				
Chromate	blue	CrO ₄ ions	844	18 th c.	Colomban <i>et al.</i> ,
Cinomate	blue	CI O4 IOIIS	077	10 (.	2004 Edwards <i>et</i>
					al., 2004
Copper	Blue, red	Cu	490	Antiquity	u, 200 .
Cobalt	blue	Co	605	Antiquity	
Yellow Naples	Yellow,	$Pb_2Sb_2O_7$	144	1 st synthesis	Kirmizi et al., 2009
	green	pyrochlore		1570-1293 BC	
				in ancient	
				Egypt	
Stannate	Yellow,	PbSnO ₄	129, 196		Bell <i>et al.</i> , 1997
	green	pyrochlore	457		Burgio and
Clinamanana		?			Clark2001
Clinopyroxene diopside	green	•			
Pb-Sn solid	orange	pyrochlore	112,		Prinsloo,
solutions	orunge	pyrocmore	136,		Colomban, 2008
			280,		2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
			427, 528		
Amber	Black	Fe-S chromophore	415	From India, Sri	Prinsloo and
				Lank,	Colomban, 2008
				Mapungubwe	
Amber	Black	Fe-S chromophore	290,	Mapungubwe	Prinsloo and
		Mapungubwe	332,		Colomban, 2008
C	Dlasla	Oblate	355, 410		
Spinel	Black	Fe_{3-x} [Co, Cr, Zn] _x O ₄	640		

Table 3: Pigments and their main Raman signature observed in the glass beads.

6.1 Blue

Eight different Raman signatures were observed for the blue beads (Figure 1). The lazurite signature, due to the sulphide ion chromophore, typical of natural lapis lazuli (Colomban, 2003b) or of synthetic ultramarine (Picquenard *et al.*, 1993, Burgio and Clark, 2001) is observed for several glass beads (Figure 1, Table 3). Differentiation between lapis lazuli and ultramarine is not possible from their Raman spectra. Lapis lazuli was identified in some Iranian ceramic glazes made during the 13th/14t^h c. (Colomban, 2003b) and is very common in Mameluk glasses from 13th-15th c., (Colomban *et al.*, to be published, Ward, 1998; Brill, 2000). The use of lapis lazuli in these beads as pigment led us to assign them to an Islamic (Fustat or Iran) production.

The Raman spectrum of the blue bead with an intense peak at 844 cm⁻¹ is typical of chromate (CrO₄) ions (Figure 1, Table 3) as found in Iznik chromites (Colomban *et al.*, 2004a) and in some 18th century porcelain pigments (Edwards *et al.*, 2004). The peak at 995 cm⁻¹ is assigned to a Ca/Al silicate (Colomban, 2004). Actually some Iranian and Asian cobalt sources consist of Co-Cr (Fe) or Co-Mn (Fe) ores (Colomban, 2003b; Colomban *et al.*, 2004b; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009b; Gratuze *et al.*, 1992).

In some the spectra of Figure 1 a pair of peaks at 454 and 624 cm⁻¹ appears, which is typical of calcium antimonate (Gedzeviciûtë *et al.*, 2009; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009a). This pigment was used from antiquity (Mass *et al.*, 1998; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009a) as opacifier or white pigment in Egypt. In Europe a transition was made from tin-rich to antimony-rich opacifiers during the 17th century, which was again replaced by arsenic in the 18th and 19th centuries (Sempowski *et al.*, 2000).

A Raman signature of arsenate was observed (Figure 1, Table 3) for milky blue beads. The use of arsenate was developed in Italy (Venice) during the 16th c. (Verità, 2000) to make *lattimo* glass but the use only spread out during the 19th c. we assign this production to a 19th c. import. The transition from Sn to Sb to As is then clearly illustrated in the beads found on Mapungubwe hill (Sempowski *et al.*, 2000) and indicates a long trading period.

The Raman spectrum of a large cobalt blue hexagonal bead shows a narrow peak at 960 cm⁻¹, characteristic of calcium phosphate as observed in Islamic glazes and glazed Medici porcelain (Colomban *et al.*, 2004a). These beads were produced in Czekoslovakia (Bohemia) and used during the slave trade. Examples occur at many archaeological sites in Africa and are popularly known as "Russians".

The Garden Roller (Figures 1, 9) bead analysed in this study are of the light green variety and some Raman spectrum in Figure 1 shows a sulphate signature (SO₄⁻ stretching peak at ~988 cm⁻¹, Lenoir *et al.*, 2009; Konijnendijk and Buster, 1977) characteristic of a glass melt that have not been sufficiently annealed. This Raman signature is very close to a Raman signature of glass containing a high quantity of alumina. It has been shown that the Al content of the Garden Rollers are more that the small beads that they were made of and it was attributed to contamination from the clay mould in which the beads were fired (Wood, 2000). This spectrum is also very similar to that of a corroded glass (*Type 3*) because of the peaks at 480 and 988 cm⁻¹ previously attributed to corroded glass (Tournié *et al.*, 2008). This spectrum is not representative of the Garden Roller beads as there is a very large variation in colour and degree of vitrification between the beads and some spectra closely resembles a *Type 3* glass (Roman) (Prinsloo *et al.*, 2007).

In some spectra of Figure 1 there is no Raman signature of a pigment but only that of the glass matrix. Spectrum a in Figure 1, characterized by an intense bending band at 548 cm⁻¹, is observed both for the blue (light, transparent, oblate, Figure 3 c6,9, when Cu ions are dissolved in the glass, the Raman signature of the glass matrix is preserved) and red beads (tube and cylinder, Figure 2). The blue beads belong to the K2 series and the red beads to the Indo-Pacific series according to the Wood classification.

Spectra of the deep cobalt blue beads show an intense bending band at 605 cm⁻¹ (Figure 1). The absence of a pigment signature indicates that the colour was obtained by dissolution of the Co transition metal ions (Colomban *et al.*, 2001).

The turquoise colour of Mapungubwe oblate beads was obtained by adding CuO to a small presentation of lead tin yellow type II and cassiterite as opacifier (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008).

6.1 Yellow and green

The bright yellow, for the Mapungubwe oblates, was obtained with lead tin yellow type II, as identified through Raman spectroscopy as well as XRF measurements. The Raman spectrum has bands at 138 (vs), 324 (m, br), which is very close to that of Naples Yellow (lead antimonite) (both pigments have the same pyrochlore structure) with bands at 140 (vs), 329 (m, br) and 448 (w, br) (Bell *et al.*, 1997), so it is not possible to distinguish unambiguously between the two pigments through their Raman spectra. Naples yellow as pigment was developed during the renaissance but it has been claimed that it was already present on tiles in Babylon from 16th c. BC (Mass *et al.*, 2002; Burgio and Clark, 2001).

Raman signatures of yellow beads are shown in Figure 3 and green beads in Figure 4. The position of the strongest peak in the spectra varies between 136-144 cm⁻¹ (Figures 3, 4), which shows that the pigments are all Pb–Sn-based pyrochlore solid solutions (Krimizi *et al.*, 2010a). Lead (II) stannate, Pb₂SnO₄ (lead tin yellow Type 1) with two very strong peaks at 129 and 196 cm⁻¹ was not observed.

Another type of Pb-Sn solid solution was identified (Figure 3) for the bright orange beads that forms part of the Mapungubwe oblates (Prinsloo and Colomban 2008). Raman bands originating from lead tin yellow type II can be distinguished, but in addition a very strong signal at 113 cm⁻¹ and a peak at 529 cm⁻¹ are observed (Figure 3). The orange colour was obtained by adding lead to the mix and the extra peaks occur at wavenumbers very near to that of red lead oxide (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008). A similar spectrum has previously been reported in Islamic ceramics from Dougga in Ifriqiya, one sample dating from the 11th-12th century (Zirides period), the other from the 17th-18th century (Ottoman period). (Colomban *et al.*, 2001a)

The bright green of the small opaque Mapungubwe oblates was obtained by a combination of lead tin yellow type II and copper ions (Prinsloo and Colomban 2008). Two other Raman signatures were observed for green beads (Figure 4). One is assigned to calcium antimonate, which confers to the bead a milky aspect, and the colouring element is certainly copper because copper ions do not form specific phases that can be recognised in a Raman spectrum.

The second one corresponds to a large wound bead (Figure 4) found on Mapungubwe hill and the sharp peaks at 326, 363, 391, 669 and 1014 cm⁻¹ is characteristic of the clinopyroxene diopside. The Raman signature of diopside has previously also been detected in a glass paste vase from Egypt (6th–5th century BC) (Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009b).

6.3 Black and white

The Raman signatures of black beads are shown in Figure 5. The black pigment of the thousands (>100 000) of black beads associated with the middle period of Mapungubwe was identified as a Fe-S chromophore (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008). The majority of the black beads are Mapungubwe Oblates ,which vary in shape on different positions on the bead. For larger cylindrical and round beads the peak at 415 cm⁻¹ (Table 3) is assigned to the resonance enhanced Fe-S chromophore (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008), a chromophore used to produce amber glass. The chemical composition of the round and cylindrical beads differs from the oblates and therefore have different origins. A similar spectrum of the Fe-S chromophore of

the large cylindrical and round beads is also obtained for black South Indian and Sri Lanka glasses (Prinsloo and Colomban, 2008). In this study we identified another pigment for black beads corresponding to the spinel Fe₃O₄ or Co, Cr, Zn-substituted homologues (Colomban *et al.*, 2008) and this is an indication that the black beads had even a fourth production centre.

Two pigments were detected for the white beads; calcium antimonite and Ca/Pb arsenate (Figure 6, Table 3). The arsenate were also detected on the pink (Figure 7) and striped beads (Figure 7) which are typical European beads and in agreement with Gardner's classification

7. GLASS MATRIX, PIGMENTS AND PLACE/PERIOD OF PRODUCTION

The glass matrixes of the lazurite coloured beads (glass *Types 2* and *3*, Figure 11) and beads containing calcium antimonite are distributed into both the Na₂O and Na₂O/CaO (Figure 13) groups. This implies that these blue beads have two different origins or periods of production. The glass matrixes of the arsenate-based blue beads and copper blue beads fit into the Na₂O groups with a majority displaying the *Type 1* Raman signature. The cobalt blue beads fit in the Na₂O/CaO groups (Figure 13) with a majority of *Types 1* and 2 and a few of *Type 3* Raman signatures.

The red beads belong in both groups Na₂O and Na₂O/CaO and the majority of the Raman spectra is *Type 4* (corroded glass, Figure 13). A red coloured glass was obtained from Neolithic times (Colomban, 2009) by distributing copper nanoparticules in a glass matrix and very large quantities of red glass was produced during Roman times (Ricciardi *et al.*, 2009a) and continued in Islamic productions. Copper corrosion is easy and explains the beads degradation.

The green and yellow beads with Ca antimonate and Naples yellow / lead tin yellow type 2 belong to the Na₂O group except one green bead (Figure 13). For other beads also coloured with Naples yellow / lead tin yellow type 2, the Raman signature of the green bead is type 2 and the yellow one is type 4 (Roman like glass corroded).

The white beads coloured with arsenate fit into to the Na₂O group while Ca antimonate white beads belong to the Na₂O/CaO group (*Type* 3). Finally, the black beads belong to the Na₂O/CaO groups.

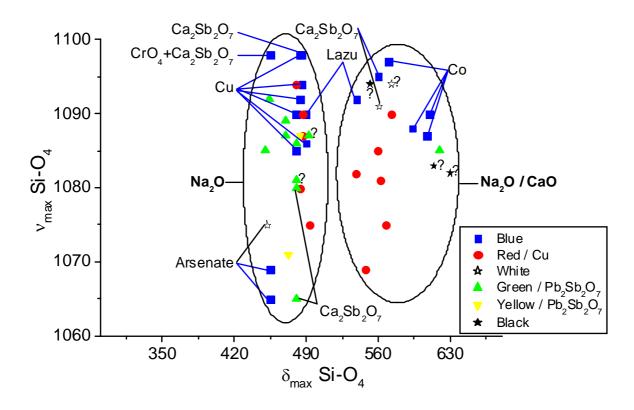


Figure 12: Classification of the glass beads from Mapungubwe hill and K2 sites.

The colours and pigments of the beads are indicated.

Table 4 summarizes the results of this study according to colouring agent (pigment/chromophore), the glass matrix, the Raman signature type and when possible the origin and period of production with the assignment of Wood classification (Wood 2000, 2005). The quantity of beads found in the Mapungubwe Museum collection for the more modern beads (M3 Gardner) is also reported. Using this Table it is possible to speculate about the number of possible origin and/or period of production for each colour of Mapungubwe hill and K2 beads. Concerning the blue beads, 6 pigments were used and among the pigment some have two different glass matrixes, for example lazurite and blue antimonate. So, in total there might be approximatly 8 possible origins or periods of production for blue beads spread between Europe, Indo-Pacific and Middle East. Regarding the white beads, 2 pigments were observed with Raman spectrometry. Everyone is agreed to say that these bead are modern and come from Europe. We can guess as well that pink and striped beads made from arsenate originate from the same location as the white beads containing arsenate.

Pigment/Chromophore	Quantity	Glass matrix			Origin and/or traded period	
		Na ₂ O	Na ₂ O/CaO	Type	Assignment	Previous
					this work	classification*
Blue/Lazurite	400	X	X	3, 2	Fustat, Iran	Indo-Pacific
Blue/Arsenate	400	X			Italy, 19th	European, 19th
White/Arsenate	50	X			Italy, 19th	European, 19th
Striped/Arsenate	10				Italy, 19th	European, 19th
Pink/Arsenate	550				Italy, 19th	European, 19th
Blue/copper		X		1, 2	Indo-Pacific	Indo-Pacific
Red/copper		X	X	2,3,4	Indo-Pacific	Indo-Pacific
Blue/Cobalt	930		X	1, 2, 3		
Blue/chromate	50				Middle	
					East, Iran	
Blue/Ca antimonate	450	X	X	2		European
Green/Ca antimonate	10	X				European
White/Ca antimonate	500		X	3		European
Green/Lead Tin		X	only 1	2		Mapungubwe
yellow Type II						/ Indo-Pacific
Yellow/Lead tin	100	X		4		Mapungubwe
yellow Type II						/ Indo-Pacific
Black/Spinel			X			Mapungubwe
Black/Fe-S			X			Mapungubwe
chromophore						

Table 4: Summary of beads analysed in this study regarding colour, glass matrix, Raman signature type and quantity of beads that do not fit into the Wood classification Wood, 2000, 2005, Robertshaw et al., 2010.

The beads that we analysed in this work that we found that did not fit into the Beads Series defined by Wood Table 4 amount to almost 2000 beads. This is a significant quantity and indicates a longer occupation time on the hill which lasted well after the 14th c. and at least until the 19th c.

8. CONCLUSION

It was possible to classify the beads into two groups using the parameters extracted from their Raman signatures, namely soda and soda/lime glass. The classification is in accordance with previous work where other analytical techniques were used to determine the

type of glass matrix. It provides an easy non-destructive method for archaeologist to discriminate non-destructively between bead types, when it is not possible to differentiate between beads on morphological factors alone.

The strength of Raman spectroscopy was illustrated in identifying the pigments used to colour the beads. Many of them was first used after the 13th century some even dating from the 19th century. This supports our previous results, which found that the celadon shards excavated on the hill dates from a later period than the original classification and indicates a later occupation date for the hill. This calls for more research to find a way to reconcile the carbon dating of the hill with the physical evidence of the modern beads excavated on the hill. A few pigments were identified that is typical of Islamic productions and is supportive of previous authors who claimed Fustat to be a possible production site.

The information obtained from identifying both pigments and type of glass matrix of the beads indicates a large number of production sites and therefore a considerable quantity of trading partners over a long period of time. Future, more in-depth studies of the beads, where other parameters extracted from their Raman signatures such as polymerisation index are also used might even reveal more production origins.

To complement this first study of beads excavated in Africa, which focussed on the K2 and Mapungubwe sites, we plan to analyse beads from the same period from other sites in Africa such as Great Zimbabwe. After the Portuguese rounded the Cape of Good Hope and the scramble for Africa began - millions of beads were brought into Africa as trade goods and ended up in artefacts made by the various tribes of Africa. Such as initiation dolls, aprons and every imaginable utensil. We plan to analyse these artefacts, which are part of museum collections all over the world. In this we hope to trace the beads to the country of origin and so make a contribution in reconstructing the early history of Africa.

9. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank Ms Sian Tiley and Ms Isabelle Barrier, Curator and Assitant Curator of the Mapungubwe Museum for their help and advice. Dr Leskey Cele and the <u>Tshwane University of Technology</u> are kindly acknowledged for the permission to use their Raman facilities.

We also thank Dr Alan Carr for the photographs of the bead samples. Dr B. Gratuze and L. Dussubieux are kindly acknowledged for the glass references.

10. REFERENCES

Beck HC, 1937, The beads of the Mapungubwe District. In: Mapungubwe (ed Fouché, L), p. 104-113, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Brill R.H., 2000, in Glass of the Sultan, S. Carboni, D. Whitehouse Eds, Yale University Press, New Haven, CT, 15.

Bell I. M., Clark R. J. H and Gibbs P. J. 1997, Raman and spectroscopic library of natural and synthetic pigments (pre- ~ 1850 AD) Spectr. Acta Part A, 53, 2159-2179.

Burgio L., Clark R. J. H., 2001, Library of FT-Raman spectra of pigments, minerals, pigment media and varnishes, and supplement to existing library of Raman spectra of pigments with visible excitation, Spectr. Acta PartA, 57, 1491-1521.

Colomban Ph., Sagon G., Faurel X., 2001, Differentiation of Antique Ceramics from the Raman Spectra of their Colored Glazes and Paintings, J. Raman Spectr. 32, 351-60. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.704/pdf

Colomban Ph, Sagon G, Louchi A, Binous H and Ayed N, 2001a, Identification par Microscopie Raman des Tessons et Pigments de Glaçures de l'Ifryqiya (Dougga: XI-XVIIIe sièccles)., Revue d' Archeometrie; 25: 101-112.

Colomban Ph., 2003a, Polymerization degree and Raman identification of ancient glasses used for jewellery, ceramic, enamels and mosaics, J. Non-Cryst. Solids, 323, 180-187,

Colomban Ph., 2003b, Lapis Lazuli as unexpected blue pigment in Iranian Lâjvardina ceramics, J. Raman Spectrosc., 34, 420-423.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1014/pdf

Colomban Ph., March G., Mazerolles L., Karmous T., Ayed N., Ennabli A., Slim H., 2003c, Raman Identification of Materials used for Jewellery and Mosaics in Ifriqiya, J. Raman Spectrosc., 34, 205-215.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.977/pdf

Colomban Ph., 2004, Glasses, glazes and ceramics-Recognition of the ancient technology from the Raman spectroscopy in Archaeology and art history, Edwards H.G.M., Chalmers J.M.(Eds), Royal Society of Chemistry, UK, ch.13, p.192.

Colomban Ph., Milande V., Lucas H., 2004a, On- site Raman analysis of Iznik pottery glazes and pigments, J. Raman Spectrosc., 32, 68-72.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1163/pdf

Colomban Ph., Sagon G., Huy L.Q., Liem N.Q., Mazerolles L., 2004b, Vietnamese (15th century) blue-and-white, tam thai and "luster" porcelains/stoneware: glaze composition and decoration techniques, Archaeometry, 46, 125-136.

Colomban, Ph., 2005, Editor, China-Mediterranean Sea: Routes and Exchange of Ceramics prior to 126th century, Taoci, [4], , SFECO –Editions Findakly, Suilly-la-Tour, ISSN 1624-4842 ISBN 2-86805-128-6

Colomban Ph., Schreiber H., 2005, Raman signature modification induced by copper nanoparticles in silicate glass, J. Raman Spectroscopy 36, 884-890, http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1379/pdf

Colomban Ph, Tournié A., Bellot-Gurlet L., 2006a, Raman identification of glassy silicates used in ceramics, glass and jewellery: a tentative differentiation guide, J. Raman Spectrosc, 37, 841-852.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1515/pdf

Colomban Ph., Etcheverry M.-P., Asquier M., Bounichou M., Tournié A., 2006b, Raman identification of ancient stained glasses and their degree of deterioration, J. Raman Spectrosc., 37, 614-626.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1495/pdf

Colomban Ph., Tournié A., 2007, On-site Raman identification and dating of ancient/modern stained glasses at the Sainte Chapelle, J. Cult. Herit., 8, 242-256.

Colomban Ph., Cherifi S., Dexpert G., 2008, Raman identification of corrosion products on automotive galvanized steel sheets, J. Raman Spectrosc., 39, 881-886.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1927/pdf

Colomban Ph., 2009, The use of metal nanoparticles to produce yellow, red and iridescent colour, from Bronze Age to Present Times in Lustre pottery and glass: Solid state chemistry, spectroscopy and nanostructure., J. Nano Research 8, 109-132.

Colomban Ph., G. Fellinger, S. Sakariou, to be published, Raman study of Mameluk Mosquee lamps.

Davison, C.C. 1973. Chemical resemblance of garden roller and M1 glass beads. *African Studies* **32**:247-257.

Davison CC & Clark JD, 1974. Trade wind beads: an interim report of chemical studies. *Azania*, 9, 75-86.

Davison, C.C. 1979. Three chemical groups of glass beads at the Greefswald sites. In: Eloff, J.F. (ed.) *Die kultuur van Greefswald*. Unpublished report for the Human Sciences Councils., 2: 1-39. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Edwards H. G. M., Colomban Ph., Bowden B., 2004, Raman spectroscopic analysis of an English soft-paste porcelain plaque-mounted table, J. Raman Spectrosc., 35, 656-661. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1211/pdf

Fouche L. 1937, Mapungubwe: ancient Bantu civilization on the Limpopo. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 1.

Furukawa T. Fox K.E., White W.B., 1981, Raman spectroscopic investigation of the structure of silicate glasses.III Raman intensities and structural units in sodium silicate glasses, J. Chem. Phys., 75, 3226-3237.

Francis, P., Jr. 1990. Bead-making in Asia, Part II, Indo-Pacific beads Asian Perspectives, 29(1), 1-24.

Gardner GA, 1963. *Mapungubwe*, II. P. 1-25, 32-35, 81-92, J. L. van Schaik, Pretoria.

Gedzeviciûtë V., Welter N., Schüssler, Weiss C., 2009; Chemical composition and colouring agents of Roman mosaic and millefiori glass, studied by electron microprobe analysis and Raman microspectroscopy, Achaeol. Anthropol. Sci., 1, 15-29.

Gratuze B., soulier I., Barrandon J.-N., Foy D., 1992, De l'origine du cobalt dans les verres, Revue d'Archéometrie, 16, 97-108.

Kirmizi B., Colomban Ph., Quette B., 2010a, On-site analysis of Chinese Cloisonné enamels from fifteenth to nineteenth centuries, J. Raman Spectrosc., 41, 780-790

Kirmizi B., Colomban Ph., Blanc M., 2010b, On-site analysis of Limoges enamels from sixteenth to nineteenth centuries: on attempt to differentiate between genuine artefacts and copies, J. Raman spectrosc., ., 41, 1240-1247...

Konijnendijk W.L., Buster J.H.J.M., 1977, Raman scattering measurements of silicate glasses containing sulphate, J. Non-Cryst. Solids, 23, 401-418

Lenoir M., Grandjean A., Poissonnet S., Neuville D.R., 2009, Quantitation of sulfate solubility in borosilicate glasses using Raman spectroscopy, J. Non-Cryst. Solids, 355, 1468-1473.

Mass J. L., Stone R. E., Wypyski M. T., 1998, The mineralogical and metallurgical origins of roman opaque colored glasses, The prehistory and history of glassmaking technology, Kingery W.D. and P. McGray Eds, Ceramics and Civilization VIII. Westerville, Ohio, 121-144.

Mass J. L., Wypyski M. T., Stone R. E., 2002, Malkata and lisht glassmaking technologies: towards a specific link between second millennium BC metallurgists and glassmakers, Archaeometry, 44, 5-29.

McMillan P., Piriou B., 1982, The structure and vibrational spectra of crytals and glasses in the silica-alumina system, J. Non-Cryst. Solids, 53, 279-298.

Meyer A, 1998, The archeological sites of Greefswald: Stratigraphy and chronology of the sites and a history of investigations. V&R Printing Works (Pty) Ltd.

Nassau K., 2001, The physics and chemistry of color: the fifteen causes of color, second ed. John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Pereira M., de Lacerda-Aroso T., Gomes M.J.M., Mata A., Alves L.C., Colomban Ph., 2009, Ancient Portuguese Ceramic Wall Tiles (« Ajulejos »): Characterization of the Glaze and Ceramic Pigments, J. Nano Research 8, 79-88.

Picquenard E., El Jaroudi O., Corset, 1993, J., Resonance Raman spectra of the S3 molecule in sulphur vapour, J. Raman Spectrosc. 24, 11-19.

Prinsloo L. C., Wood N., Loubser M., Verryn S. M. C., Tiley S., 2005, Re-dating of Chinese celadon shards excavated on Mapungubwe Hill, a 13th century Iron Age site in south Africa, using Raman spectroscopy, XRF and XRD, J. Raman spectrosc., 36, 806-816. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1367/pdf

Prinsloo L. C, Colomban Ph and Tournié A, 2007 The unique "Garden Roller" beads excavated in the Limpopo valley, South Africa. 4th International Conference on the Application of Raman Spectroscopy in Art and Archaeology, Modena, 3 – 7 Sept. 2007.

Prinsloo L. C., Colomban Ph, 2008, A Raman spectroscopic study of the Mapungubwe oblates: glass trade beads excavated at an Iron Age archaeological site in South Africa, J. Raman Spectrosc., 39, 79-90.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.1816/pdf

Ricciardi P., Colomban Ph., Tournié A., Macchiarola M., Ayed N., 2009a, A non-invasive study of Roman age mosaic glass tesserae by means of Raman spectroscopy, J. Archaeo. Sc., 36, 2551-2559.

Ricciardi P., Colomban Ph., Tournié A., Milande V., 2009b, Non-destructive on-site identification of ancient glasses: genuine artefacts, embellished pieces or forgeries? J. Raman Spectrosc., 40, 604-617.

http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/jrs.2165/pdf

Robertshaw P., Wood M., Melchiorre E., Popelka-Filcoff Rachel S., Glascock M. D., 2010, Southern African glass beads: chemistry, glass sources and patterns of trade, J. Archaeological. Sci., 37, 1898-1912.

Saitowitz SJ, 1996. Glass beads as indicators of contact and trade in southern Africa ca. AD 900-AD 1250. Unpub. PhD Thesis, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.

Saitowitz SJ, Reid DL & Van der Merwe NJ, South African Journal of Science, 1996; 92: 101

Scanu T., Guglielmi, Colomban Ph., 1994, Ion exchange and hot corrosion of ceramic composites matrices: A vibrational and microstructural study, Solid State Ionics, 70-71, 109-120.

Sempowski, S. L., Nohe A. W., Moreau 2000, On the transition from tin-rich to antimonyrich European white soda-glass trade beads for the Senecas of Northeastern North America., Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry 244 (no. 3) 2, 559-566.

Sharma S. K., Simons B., Yoder H. S., 1983, Raman study of anorthite, calcium Tschermak's pyroxene, and gehlenite in crystalline and glassy states, Am. Mineralogist, 68, 1113-1125.

Tite M. S., Freestone I., Mason R., Moleara J., Vendrell-Saz M., Wood N., 1998, Lead glazes in Antiquity-Methods of production and reasons for use, Archaeometry, 40, 241-260.

Tournié A., 2009, Analyses Raman sur site de verres et vitraux anciens : modélisation, procedures, lixiviation et caractérisation, Thèse Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Paris http://www.ladir.cnrs.fr/pages/theses/These_Aurelie_Tournie.pdf

Tournié A., Ricciardi P., Colomban Ph., 2008, Glass corrosion mechanisms: a multiscale analysis, Solid State Ionics, 179, 2142-2154.

Van der Sleen WGN, 1956. Trade-wind beads. Man, 56, 27-9

Van Riet Lowe C, 1955. *The Glass Beads of Mapungubwe*, Archaeological Series No. 9. Union of South Africa: Archaeological Survey.

Verità M., 2000, In Medieval mosaics: light, colour, materials, G.S.F. Borsook E., Pagliarulo G., Florence.

Vogel J.C, Radiocarbon dating of the Archaeological sites on Greefswald in Meyer A, 1998, The archaeological sites of Greefswald: Stratigraphy and chronology of the sites and a history of investigations. V&R Printing Works (Pty) Ltd, p. 296-301.

Ward R., Ed., 1998, Gilded and enamelled glass from the Middle-East, British Museum Press, London,

Wood M., 2000, Making connections: relationships between international trade and glass beads from the Shashe-Limpopo Area. South Africa Archaeological society, Goodwin Series 8, 78-90.

Wood M., 2005, Glass beads and Pre-european trade in the Shashe-Limpopo-region, Unpublished MsC Thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

Woodborne S, Pienaar M and Tiley-Nel S, 2009 Dating the Mapungubwe gold. Journal of African Archaeology, 7(1),