ARRC – Acculturation, Romanisation, Roman Culture: Processes of Integration Across the Roman Empire

Edited by László Borhy, Kata Dévai, Linda Dobosi, and Csilla Sáró

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Edited by
László Borhy – Kata Dévai – Linda Dobosi – Csilla Sáró

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Selected Roman bronze vessels from the Early Roman Period cemetery in Vinár-Cseralja, northern Pannonia

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Abstract: In the graves dated to the first third of the 2nd century AD in Vinár-Cseralja, the deceased were buried with weapons (sword, spear, shield) and dress accessories typical of the Central European Barbaricum, alongside Roman bronze and glass vessels. They can likely be interpreted as the remnants of an armed Germanic group that may have arrived in the territory of the province in connection with the military events of the Domitian Wars. The large number of Roman bronze vessel fragments recovered from the Vinár graves indicates the presence of a specific set. Buckets, together with dippers and strainers were typical grave goods, occasionally supplemented by a casserole or a bowl. The bronze vessels were often deposited only in part, following the *pars pro toto* practice. A particularly noteworthy early find is the Tassinari E 5000-type bronze water jug *(Blechkanne)* produced in Capua, southern Italy, representing one of the most north-eastern occurrences of this object type. The handled dish *(Griffschale)* reflects Mediterranean traditions of ritual handwashing. The Eggers 97-type bowl, dated to the 1st century AD, is rare both in Pannonia and the broader Barbaricum. The predominance of weapons, the types and placement of bronze vessels, and the persistence of traditional barbarian burial practices together indicate that the community maintained its identity despite the presence of provincial artefacts.

Keywords: Pannonia province, cremation burials, Roman bronze vessels, Central European Barbaricum

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Introduction

In the archaeological record of the province of Pannonia between the time of the Roman conquest and the Marcomannic Wars, objects and assemblages of a barbarian Germanic character represent a special category (Fig. 1). Finds discovered around Scarbantia (Sopron/Ödenburg) and the Lake Neusiedl have been known in the literature since the early 20th century. In addition to stray finds and uncertain grave remains (Eisenstadt/Kismarton),[1] we now also know of cemeteries with a larger number of graves, such as the newly excavated site at Kópháza-Széles földek.[2] Research has linked 1st-century AD finds from the area of Lake Neusiedl to the legacy of the Quadic leader Vannius' entourage, settled in Roman territory.[3]

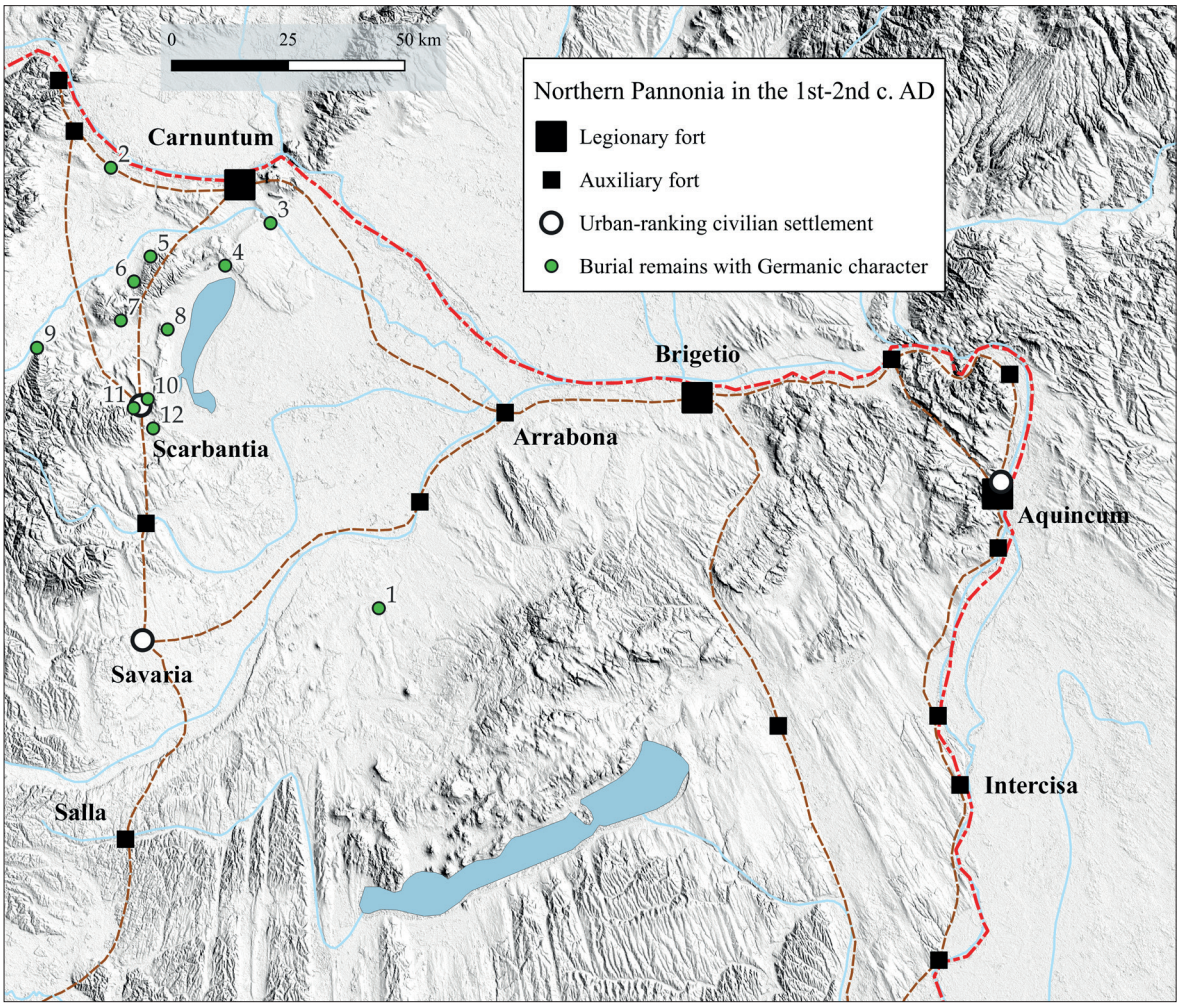


Fig. 1. Pannonia in the Early Roman Period and sites of Germanic character. 1 – Vinár-Cseralja, 2 – Schwechat, 3 – Potzneusiedl, 4 – Neusiedl, 5 – Mannersdorf, 6 – Au, 7 – Eisenstadt, 8 – Oggau, 9 – Katzelsdorf, 10 – Scarbantia, 11 – Sopron-Bánfalvi út (settlement finds), 12 – Kópháza-Széles földek (by E. Soós).

Vinár-Cseralja, a site in Veszprém County where at least 17 cremation burials were documented between 1965 and 1967, stands out among the assemblages of barbarian character in present-day Hungary. The deceased were buried there according to the cremation rite and were provided with accessories commonly found in Germanic cemeteries north of the Danube: bronze and glass ves-

1 Bóna 1963, 255–263.

2 Ujvári 2019.

3 Bóna 1963, 255–263; Adler 1980; Urban 1984; Gassner *et al.* 2002; Ployer 2023, 308.

sels, belt fittings, brooches, iron shears, knives, and weapons. The urn cremation graves contain Roman provincial products, including glass and bronze vessels, while the clothing elements and tools are purely barbarian types. While precious metal finds are sparse, significantly, almost all burials are weapon graves, each containing a sword, a spear, and spurs.[4]

The grave remains from the Vinár site are dated to the first third of the 2nd century AD, corresponding to the B2a phase in the relative chronological framework of the Central European Barbaricum.[5] The cemetery can be interpreted as the legacy of a Germanic group settled in connection with the military events of the Domitian Wars.[6]

The cemetery was excavated by Sándor Mithay, a specialist in prehistoric archaeology, who intended to analyse and publish the finds in collaboration with Ágnes Salamon (Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Institute of Archaeology), a leading researcher into the Germanic Barbaricum in Hungary at that time. However, the joint project was ultimately left incomplete due to Ágnes Salamon's death. S. Mithay published a description of the objects and graves in Hungarian in the late 1980s, accompanied by a brief analysis that primarily referenced Ágnes Salamon's earlier observations.[7] In the published work, the descriptions of the finds and their typo-chronological classifications are often missing or inaccurate, and the analysis refers only to a limited number of archaeological studies published up to the 1980s. In later Hungarian and international literature, references to the Vinár site have relied almost exclusively on drawings from Mithay's publication, which vary in quality.

Norbert Zieling included the shield handle from Vinár into his catalogue in a monographic collection of finds from barbarian regions.[8] Piotr Kaczanowski also mentions the site only briefly in his work on barbarian armed groups within Roman territory.[9] More recently, Jaroslav Tejral analysed the burials in greater detail, linking them—based on the presence of Almgren 77-type brooches—to the horizon of a military elite in Germanic territories during the B2 period.[10]

Due to the high number of weapons recovered from Vinár, the site was also mentioned in Roman provincial archaeological literature on weapon burials from the Early Imperial period. In his work, András Márton included barbarian burials, such as those at Vinár, in a separate group within his summary of armed groups.[11] However, despite the significant number of weapons, he did not analyse them in detail. Other studies on Early Roman weapon graves in northern Pannonia have similarly neglected the specifics of the Vinár cemetery.[12]

A current project aims, among other objectives, to publish and evaluate the Vinár-Cseralja site in detail. In addition to examining the barbarian connections of the finds, its aims include exploring the role that a Germanic community, not particularly wealthy and distinguishing itself through weapons, could have played at a considerable distance from the *limes*. Under what political circumstances could a Germanic group have made its way into the interior of the province, and what conditions allowed them to preserve their mortuary customs and material culture? How do Roman objects appear in the burials, and to what extent does their role differ from contemporaneous

4 Mithay 1989.

5 For relative chronology, see Droberjar 2024, 207, Tab. 1 with further literature.

6 Mithay 1989, 73; Tejral 2001, 227, 239, Abb. 26.

7 Mithay 1989.

8 Zieling 1989, 996.

9 Kaczanowski 1994, 137.

10 Tejral 2001, 227, 239, Abb. 26.

11 Márton 2002, 134–135, cat. nos 32–38.

12 Mráv 2013.

assemblages in areas outside the *limes*? In addition to questions concerning the social history of the province, it is essential to explore the connections between the Vinár site and the Central European Barbaricum. How do individual find types and assemblages relate to the contemporaneous archaeological horizon of the Elbe Germanic circle, the Quadic–Marcomannic region, and the Przeworsk culture?

In our study, we examine some selected bronze vessels from the Vinár-Cseralja site that are outstanding or unique in this context within the Roman provincial or barbarian environment.

Archaeometric analysis was conducted on selected objects to determine their chemical composition using handheld X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (hXRF).[13]

The Vinár-Cseralja site

Vinár is a village within the Pápa District in Veszprém County. The settlement lies on a low hill bordered by the Marcal River and the Hajagos Stream, which flows into the Marcal from the south. The cemetery is situated slightly north of the highest point of the hill, on the western bank of the stream, at an elevation of approximately 132–133 m above sea level. Its known extent is approximately 70 × 100–120 m (Fig. 2).

In the autumn of 1965, the collective farm of Nemesszalók opened a gravel pit south of the railway tracks, discovering Roman Period finds during the works. Sándor Mithay, an archaeologist from the museum of Pápa, conducted rescue excavations in May 1966, and again in the spring and autumn of 1967. Further investigations began on 8 May 1967, when test trenches were laid out perpendicular to the railway tracks in a north-west to south-east direction. Despite covering an area of approximately 250 m², only two pits and traces of minor holes were identified, and most of the few scattered Roman Period finds could not be reliably linked to any archaeological feature (Fig. 3.b).



Fig. 2. Vinár-Cseralja, the site in the map of the First Military Survey.

The exact locations of the first six graves and the association of their finds remain uncertain. Detailed archaeological investigation—including drawings and photographic documentation—was only carried out in the case of Graves 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, and 15. The remaining graves appear to have been disturbed, and the artefacts recovered from their vicinity cannot be securely assigned to specific burials. Assemblage 1 likely includes objects from multiple burials. Based on the preserved material, Assemblages 2, 5, and 6 correspond approximately to individual burial contexts. In the case of Graves 10 and 11, only the urns containing the cremated remains could be examined. According to the documentation, finds from Graves 16 and 17 represent the remains of burials that had already been destroyed prior to the start of mining operations (Fig. 3.a).

13 SPECTRO xSORT Combi type handheld X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (hXRF). Analytical parameters: 15–50 kV, 30–120 μA, Rh anode, Peltier-cooling SDD detector, built-in calibration suitable for analysing metals and alloys ('Alloy Plus including Light Elements'), measurement area 3 mm in diameter, 60 sec acquisition time. The results are normalised to 100%. The measured area was cleaned from corrosion products prior to measurement.

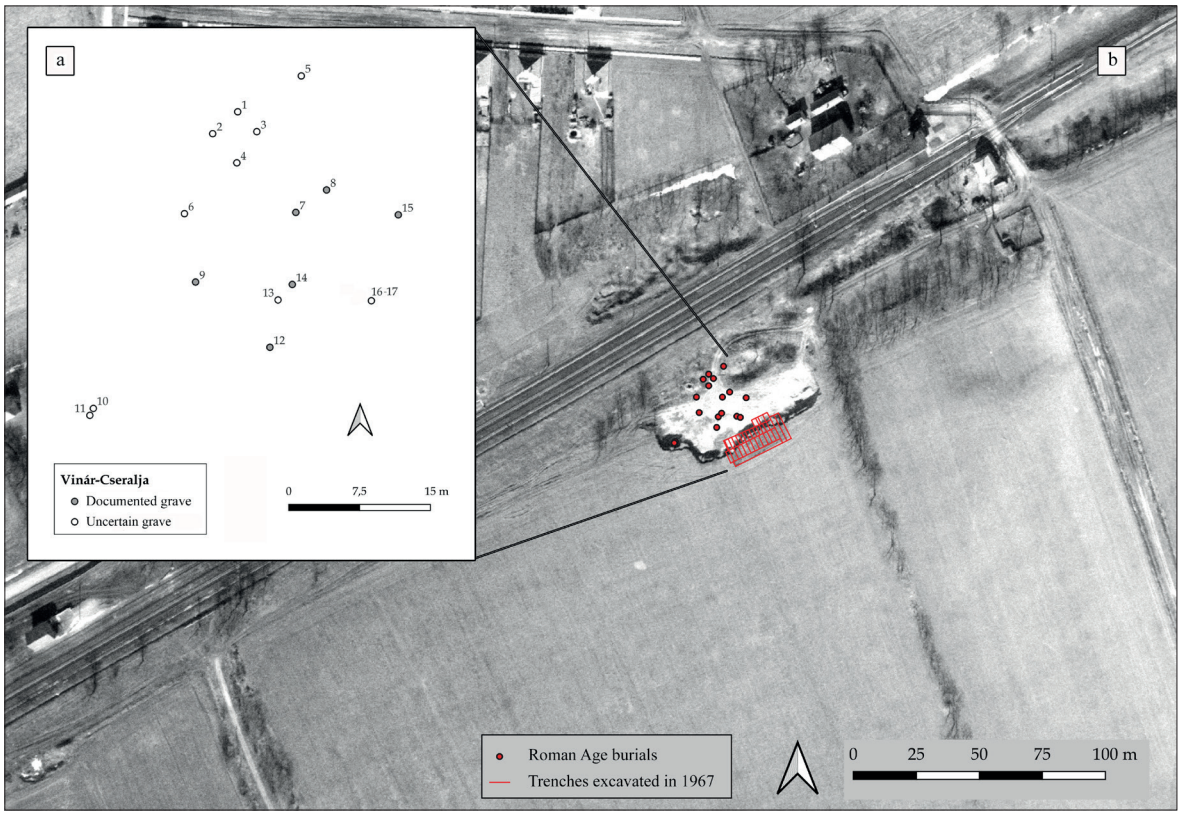


Fig. 3. Vinár-Cseralja. Probable location of the area excavated in 1965–1967 (b) and the Roman Period burials (a) (by E. Soós; base photo: fentrol.hu).

The exact locations of most graves—especially those known only from written accounts—are not precisely known. Furthermore, no clear pattern or regularity can be observed in the arrangement of the documented graves.

Burial customs at Vinár-Cseralja

The graves were dug into the topsoil layer to a depth of approximately 20 cm. In the documented cases, the grave pits were narrow, and the grave goods were placed close to the urn. There is no reliable evidence of the presence of burial mounds above the graves;[14] therefore, the burials at Vinár can be characterised as simple, flat inhumations placed in small grave pits.

In all documented cases, the cremated remains were deposited in ceramic urns. Contrary to some previously published data, there is no evidence to support the practice of scattered cremation at the site.[15] In each case, the ashes were placed in the urn after having been cleaned from pyre debris. The anthropological material from the Vinár cemetery has been lost, so the sex of the deceased was inferred based on the associated grave goods. Based on this typological analysis, only Grave 15 and possibly the disturbed Grave 10 can be interpreted as burials of females; all the other documented graves are considered weapon burials of men.

Cremation in the Vinár cemetery clearly took place in an *ustrinum*, a shared cremation area, as indicated by the absence of traces of burning within the grave pits and the fact that the cremains had been separated from the rest of the pyre before deposition.

14 Mithay 1989, 69.

15 Mithay 1989, 1. kép.

No precious metal artefacts were recovered from the site. Despite that, the burials were relatively well-equipped, containing typically 6–8, richer ones 10–11, objects.

Dress accessories include brooches, belt buckles, belt fittings, and strap ends, which did not make complete sets; typically, only 1–3 items of various types were placed in the graves.

The predominant category of grave goods in the cemetery is weapons. Swords were found in seven burials, with spears accompanying them in four of those. Grave 9, while lacking a sword, contained two spears. The uncertain Assemblage 1 comprises fragments of a complete shield, including the umbo, grip, and the rim fittings.

Spurs were found in every grave that contained spears, typically one per grave. Iron tools—usually including an iron strike-a-light, a pair of shears, and a knife—were present in the graves of every men.

Pottery fragments with traces of secondary burning were identified only in Grave 12; these may be interpreted as grave goods. Burnt fragments of glass vessels were found in five graves, all but Grave 6 weapon burials. Heavily burnt fragments of Roman bronze vessels were found in all documented graves (Fig. 4).

The central element of each grave was the urn containing the cleaned cremated human remains. Grave goods were found outside the urn in every case. Apart from the ashes, the vessels contained only traces of resin, typically above the bone layer or at the bottom of the vessel.

The role of Roman bronze vessels in the burials in Vinár-Cseralja

Heavily burnt fragments of Roman bronze vessels were recovered from all documented burials at the Vinár-Cseralja cemetery. Intact or complete vessels—such as a cylindrical bucket in Assemblage 1, a plate bottle in Assemblage 2, and a strainer in Grave 15[16]—were rare finds on the site.

Based on the quantity of fragments collected, it appears that in most cases, especially with bowls and pans, only a part of the bronze vessel was added, in fragments, to the grave. This phenomenon is widely observed across the Central European Barbaricum, where fragments of Roman bronze vessels are believed to have symbolised the complete vessel through a *pars pro toto* practice.[17]

At the Vinár cemetery, the standard set of bronze vessels typically consisted of a bucket, dippers, and strainers. Fragments of two buckets were identified in Grave 7, while Assemblage 1 and Grave 6 likely also contain similar sets. This basic vessel set was supplemented by a bronze casserole in six cases (Graves 1, 2, 6, 8, 12, and 14). In an additional four graves (Graves 1, 5, 8, and 12), fragments of bronze bowls were also found (Tab. 1).

Graves 8 and 12 contained a complete bronze vessel set, including a bucket, casserole, and bowl, dippers, and strainers. A deviation from this pattern was observed only in Assemblage 2, which contained a plate bottle, although notably, a bucket was absent from this assemblage.

The exact position of the bronze vessels on the pyre cannot be definitively reconstructed. In no case were the large, deformed bucket fragments found burned together with remains of other bronze vessel types, suggesting that the buckets were likely placed separately on the pyre. The dippers and strainers were consistently found nested inside one another.

16 Mithay 1989, 12. kép 15.2, 15. kép 1.1, 17–18. kép, 23. kép.

17 To ensure accurate documentation of this phenomenon, during the analysis of the site, fragments associated with a high certainty with individual bronze vessels were recorded both by count and by weight.



Fig. 4. Vinár-Cseralja, Grave 8. 1.a–d – bronze casserole, 2 – bronze casserole, 3.a–d – bronze bowl, 4.a–d – bronze bucket, 5.a–b – iron spearhead, 6 – bronze buckle, 7.a–b – iron sword, 8 – iron strike-a-light (by E. Soós, drawing by Zs. Varga, photos by R. Szederkényi, P. Hámori).

Tab. 1. Vinár-Cseralja. Minimum number of Roman bronze vessels per type in the graves (grey: documented graves).

Grave no.	Bronze vessels						Total
	Bucket	Casserole	Bowl	Dipper	Strainer	Jug	
1	2	2	1	1	1		?
2		1		1	1	1	4
5	1		3	1	1?		6?
6	2	1		1	1		5
7	2			1?	1		4?
8	1	2	1	1?			5?
9	1			1	1		3
10							?
11							?
12	1	1?	1	1	1		5?
13				1?	1?		?
14	1	1		1	1		4
15	1			1	1		3

Based on the condition and position of the burnt fragments, the dipper and strainer set in Grave 5 appears to have been placed within a large, flat-bottomed bowl, while in Grave 2, likely in a casserole. In the remaining burials, the original positions of the vessels cannot be determined due to the fragmentary and heavily burnt state of the find material.

Specific vessels from Vinár-Cseralja

Handle fragment of a bowl (Assemblage 1)

Type: Eggers 97/Tassinari S 3110. Fragment of a wide, hemispherical bronze bowl. Solid, slightly angular cross-section, curved. Burnt, fragmentary. 1 pc. Weight: 16.5 g. H.: length: 6 cm, diam.: 0.7 × 0.9 cm (Fig. 5).[18] The bowl handle fragment was manufactured from leaded gunmetal (79.8 wt% Cu; 4.1 wt% Zn; 6.3 wt% Sn and 9.2 wt% Pb). A yellowish surface layer with elevated lead content (78.2 wt% Cu; 3.2 wt% Zn; 5.8 wt% Sn and 12.3 wt% Pb) was observed during cleaning (Fig. 8).

Fragment of a handled dish (Griffschale) (Assemblage 1)

Type: Eggers 154–155. Thick, massive, hollow handle. One end terminates in a heavily deformed animal-head finial, in front of which the ring-shaped elements encircling the handle are still visible. The object is strongly burnt and distorted; a fragment of a thicker bronze vessel has fused with the animal head terminal due to intense heat. 1 pc. Weight: 111.6 g, length: 10.5 cm, diameter: 1.7 cm (Fig. 6).[19] Based on the chemical analyses, each fragment was manufactured from leaded bronze with a different composition (bronze vessel: 61.1 wt% Cu; 0.56 wt% Zn; 13.1 wt% Sn and 24.0 wt% Pb; bowl handle fragment: 79.6 wt% Cu; 0.62 wt% Zn; 10.7 wt% Sn and 8.7 wt% Pb) (Fig. 8).

18 Inv. no. 68.37.80. Mithay 1989, 15. kép 1.3.

19 Inv. no. 68.37.86. Mithay 1989, 15. Kép 1.8.

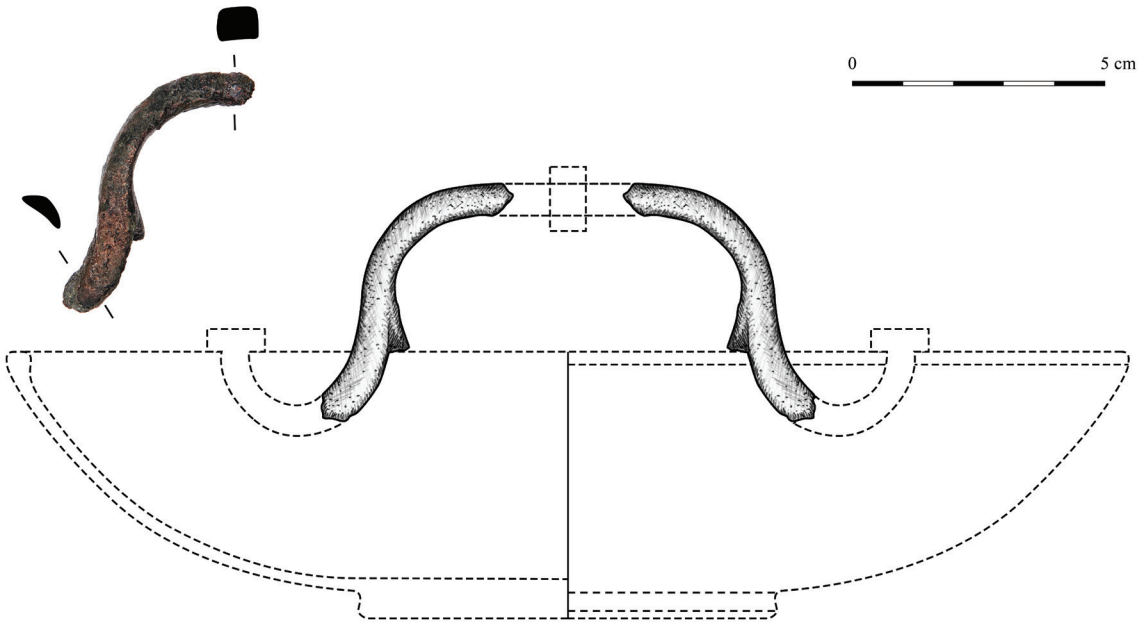


Fig. 5. Vinár-Cseralja, Assemblage 1. Handle fragment of an Eggers 97 type bowl (photo by P. Hámori, drawing by Zs. Varga).

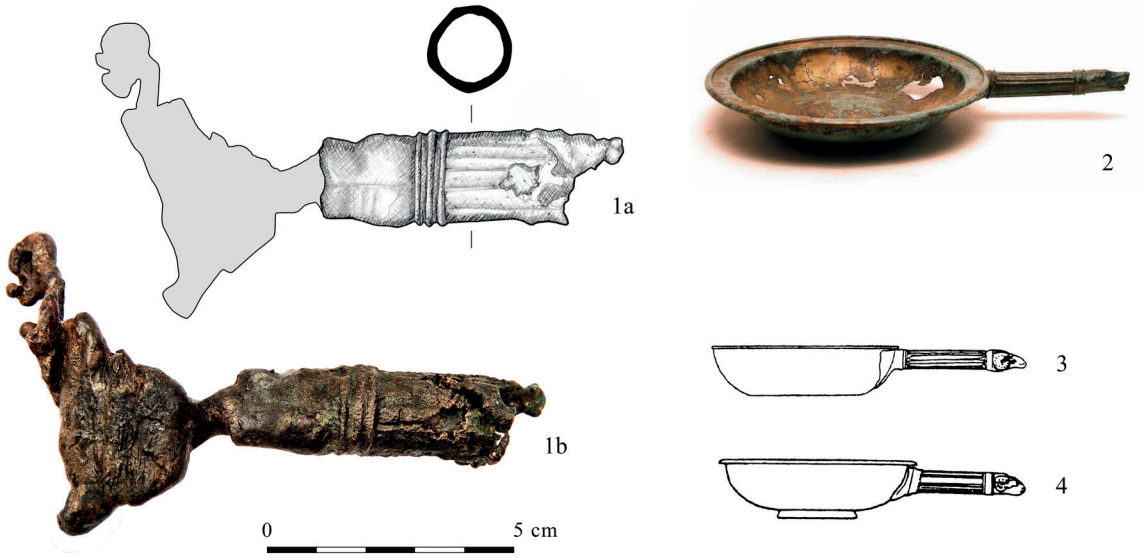


Fig. 6. 1.a–b – Vinár-Cseralja, handle fragment of an Eggers 154–155-type *Griffschale* from Assemblage 1, 2 – the *Griffschale* from Zohor, Grave 5 (after https://www1.leiza.de/transformation/slovakia/zohor/artefakts/zohor_abb6_en.htm), 3 – prototype of Eggers 154, 4 – prototype of Eggers 155 (after Eggers 1951) (by E. Soós, photo by P. Hámori, drawing by Zs. Varga).

Water jug of bronze sheet (Blechkanne) (Assemblage 2)

Type: Tassinari Type E 5000 in general, possibilities E 5120, 5220, 5311 or 5321,[20] Bienert Type 13–14.[21] Water jug made of very thin sheet bronze *(Blechkanne)*, with a long, narrow neck and a narrow, slightly curved rim. The rim has become deformed in prolonged use. The body is wide, oblate spher-

20 See Tassinari 1993, Vol. 2, Pls 79–86; the finds are stored in Parco Archeologico di Pompei under inventory numbers 2655, 2729, 8344, 11170, and 13104.

21 Bienert 2007, 31–33.

ical, made of thin sheet bronze. Narrow, circular, turned lines are visible on the neck, the shoulders, and the lower part of the belly. Only the tubular neck and the body are preserved, while the bottom and the handle are missing. This jug is completely worn, moderately burnt, bent, and fragmentary. 3 pcs. Weight: 203.6 g; height: min. 18 cm, rim diameter: approx. 4.8–5 cm, belly diameter: 18 cm (Fig. 7).[22]

The water jug was manufactured from unalloyed copper with a small amount of tin (2.4 wt%). The lead and zinc content are below detection limit (Fig. 9).



Fig. 7. Vinár-Cseralja, Assemblage 2. Water jug made of sheet bronze *(Blechkanne)* (drawing by Zs. Varga, photo by R. Szederkényi).

Discussion

Bronze vessels in Roman provincial graves in Pannonia

The 1st–2nd century AD graves excavated in Pannonia reflect a diversity of burial customs. The practice of placing bronze vessels or sets of bronze vessels in graves is not uniform. Typically, only a few bronze vessels are found in the Norico-Pannonian tumulus graves, particularly at sites located along the northern and eastern borders of the distribution area of tumuli. A fragment of a disc-handled casselore was discovered at Balf, although the tumulus character of this grave cannot be definitively established.[23] The assemblages placed on the pyres of Kemenesszentpéter-Pagony I and Inota Tumulus 2—including, in addition to bronze vessels, *terra sigillata* and glass vessels—are considered rare in Pannonia for this period.[24]

In eastern Pannonia, burial mounds of the indigenous aristocracy contained not only chariots, horses, and vessels used during the funeral feast, but also luxury items, including sets of bronze

22 Inv. no. 68.37.96. Mithay 1989, 68, 15. kép 2.1, 22. kép.

23 Radnóti 1938, 44, 21. tábla 5; Alföldy 1960, 4.

24 Palágyi – Nagy 2002, 76.

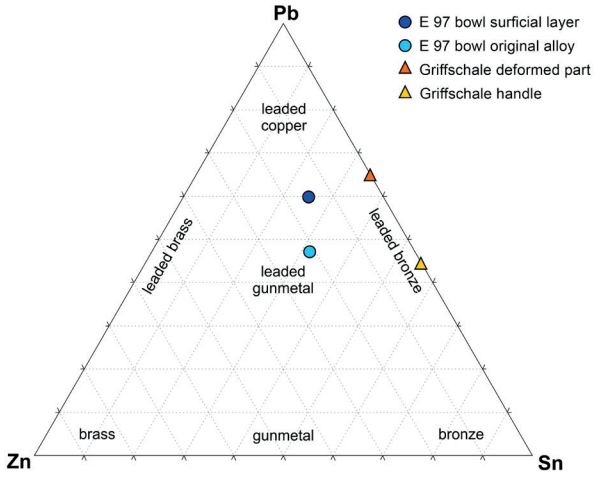


Fig. 8. Chemical composition of the analysed objects from Vinár-Cseralja, plotted on a Sn–Pb–Zn ternary diagram (by V. Mozgai, after Bayley 1989).

vessels. These sets, typically comprising narrow-necked jugs and a handled dish with ram- or dog-headed handles associated with ritual handwashing are attested throughout the Roman Empire from the early Roman period to the 3rd century AD. The earliest known set, of Millingen type, was found in Pannonia at Nagylók and dates to the Early Roman period.[25] Canterbury sets, consisting of handled dishes of Radnóti Type 30 and jugs of Radnóti Type 69 or 71, are known from Somodorpuszta and Aquincum.[26] Based on associated burials at Környe, the practice of adding handwashing sets to graves can be observed until the first half of the 3rd century AD.[27] The majority of the jugs and pitchers discovered in the largely incompletely documented graves were also likely deposited as sets. In Tumulus 2 at Inota, K. Szabó identified one and a half Alikaria sets.[28] The vessels from Grave 1 in Káloz, the burials at Nagytétény and Szomor-Somodorpuszta,[29] and the paired vessels from the inhumation grave at Szőlősgyörök can likewise be interpreted as belonging to such sets (Fig. 10).[30]

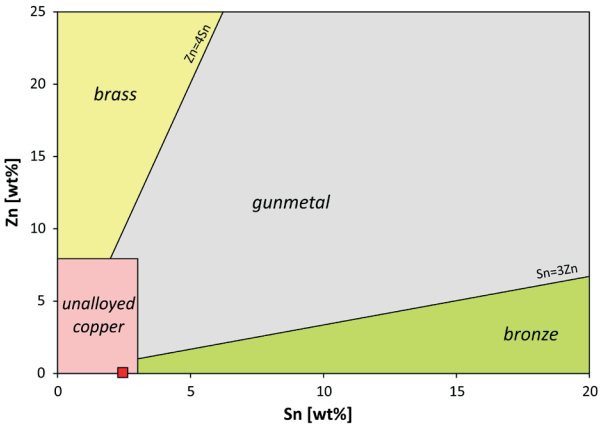


Fig. 9. Chemical composition of the water jug *(Blechkanne)* from Vinár-Cseralja, plotted on a Sn–Zn binary plot used for copper-based alloys with less than 4 wt% lead content (by V. Mozgai, after Bayley 1989).

Dipper-and-strainer sets and buckets, both typical in Vinár graves, are less frequently found in provincial burials. Fragments of dippers and/or strainers, serving as accessories to drinking sets, have been identified only in Tumulus 2 at Inota, Grave 1 at Halimba, Tumulus 1 at Mezőszilas, Rábakovácsi, Szőlősgyörök, and tentatively in some graves at Kemenesszentpéter-Pagony I.[31] Fragments of buckets occur in graves at Halimba, Nagylók, Somor-Somodorpuszta, and Kemenesszentpéter-Pagony I, dating up to the mid-2nd century AD.[32]

Burials in eastern Pannonia usually contain the remains of two to four bronze vessels.

25 Radnóti 1938, 72, Type 29, 71, 123–124; Szabó 1990, 144.

26 Palágyi – Nagy 2002, 76–77.

27 Radnóti 1938, 118–119, 143–144; Bónis 1982.

28 Szabó 1990.

29 Bónis 1978; Bónis 1981, 112–118, Abb. 10–12, Abb. 14, 3; Szabó 1999. It remains a question whether the vessels found at Mezőszilas, Vajta, and Zsámbék, respectively, can be considered sets (Palágyi – Nagy 2002, 77).

30 Horváth 1981, 77–78, 7. kép 1.a–b, 2, 14. kép, 15. kép.

31 Bónis 1960, 93, Fig. 24.2, Pl. 18.8; Horváth 1981, 70, 76, 5. kép 1–2, 10. kép; Palágyi – Nagy 2002, 82.

32 Bónis 1960, 93, Taf. 18.8, Abb. 24.9; Palágyi – Nagy 2002, 82. An intact specimen was found in a grave at Szőlősgyörök (Horváth 1981, 77, 16. kép).

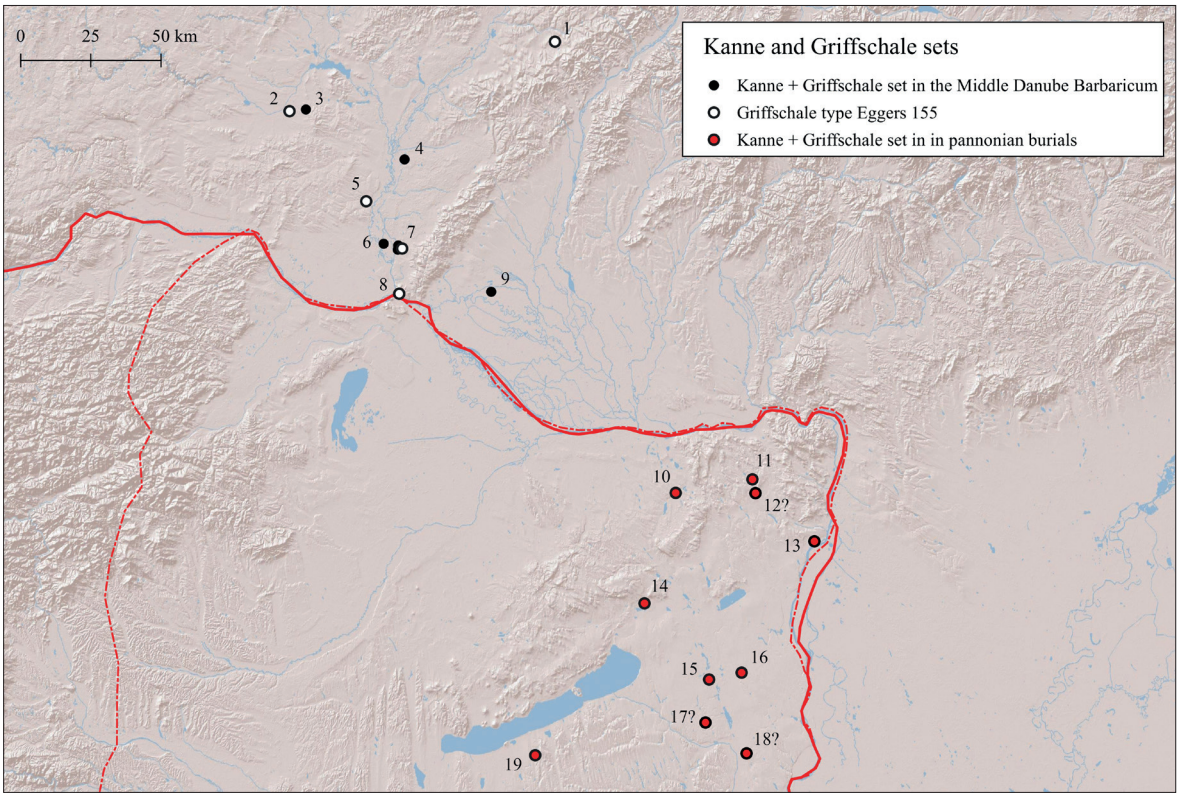


Fig. 10. Spatial distribution of *Kanne* and *Griffschale* sets and separate *Griffschale* finds in the Middle Danube Region in Barbaricum and Pannonia. 1 – Bánov, 2 – Rothenseehof, 3 – Neuruppersdorf, 4 – Sekule, 5 – Waidendorf, 6 – Vysoká pri Morave, 7 – Zohor, 8 – Devín, 9 – Kostolná pri Dunaji, 10 – Környe, 11 – Somodorpuszta, 12 – Zsámbék, 13 – Nagytétény, 14 – Inota, 15 – Káloz, 16 – Nagylók, 17 – Mezőszilas, 18 – Vajta, 19 – Szőlősgyörök (by E. Soós).

A larger number of bronze vessels, between six and ten, have been recorded only in graves at Szőlősgyörök, Káloz, Inota Tumulus 2, and Kemenesszentpéter-Pagony I. The latter burials reflect a closer connection with the Vinár site, as indicated by the presence of weapons. However, the cremation burial rite at Vinár clearly differs from that observed in graves at Inota and Kemenesszentpéter, where the burnt bronze vessels had been placed on the pyre before it was lit, while afterwards, their remains were mixed with the hot remains of the pyre and shovelled in the grave pit together, as well as incorporated into the body of the grave mound.[33]

The spectrum of Roman metal vessels in the Middle Danube Barbaricum and their significance in a funerary context[34]

Most known vessels come from cremation graves and have been damaged by the heat of the pyre. They were probably intact when placed on the pyre, as there is no evidence of prior breaking. After cremation, the mourners could put parts of these vessels into the grave in accordance with a *pars pro toto* ritual. Barrel-shaped buckets are often crumpled or broken into pieces. Important evidence of the accumulation of deformed vessels and fragments thereof at a burial ground is a hoard from the cemetery at Zohor;[35] this assemblage raises the possibility that the fragments were collected

33 Palágyi 1981, 8, 17–18, Abb. 2, Abb. 8.b; Palágyi 1989, 44–45.

34 This part of the article was written by J. Jílek within the frame of a research scholarship at the Römisch-Germanische Kommission (RGK), DAI: project title – *Roman imports in East Bohemia (eastern Elbe region)*.

35 Elschek 2002; Jílek 2016.

to be used as raw material. Inhumation graves usually contain whole bronze vessels (e.g., Zohor Graves 5, 6/2010, etc.), but this rule applies less to silver ones (see, e.g., the royal tomb of Mušov).[36]

In the Middle Danube Barbaricum during the Early Roman Period, a deliberate selection of bronze vessels is observed in funerary assemblages. This selection results in limited sets comprising forms otherwise common in the Roman provinces and Italy, where such vessel sets are more diverse. The reason behind could root in burial customs and the character of funerary feasts. Popular forms in these sets include buckets (especially barrel-shaped/Östland-type variants), sets of dippers and strainers of various types, and diverse pans. Some graves, especially richly furnished ones, held different types of bowls. More rarely, sets were composed of a jug and a handled dish *(Kanne und Griffschale)*; of these sets, sometimes only one vessel of the pair is found in the grave reflecting, again, the *pars pro toto* concept.

In order to complete the picture of the spectrum of metal vessels in the Barbaricum *(Germania Magna)*, it must be mentioned that the number of dippers and strainers known from there significantly exceeds that of similar vessels from Roman civilian and military contexts in the 1st to the mid-2nd century AD.[37] The contrast is less sharp in the case of buckets because those, especially simple barrel-shaped specimens, were particularly popular in the Barbaricum as well as Roman military and civilian contexts; saucepans enjoyed a similar popularity amongst the inhabitants of both the Barbaricum and Roman military and civilian sites. Some pans and buckets also served as part of Roman military equipment,[38] suggesting a connection between the Roman military environment and the Middle Danube Barbaricum. Such a connection could be hypothetically explained by trade contacts where the military environment may have been an intermediary element. The inhabitants of the Barbaricum gained access to markets in military settlements near camps and *castellum* forts. A hypothesis by T. Kolník[39] about the trade activity of the retired centurion and interpreter Quintus Atilius Primus can be mentioned here, who operated in the Middle Danube region after the mid-1st century AD[40]. In this context, there is an important remark in the *Germania* by Tacit[41] about Germans who settled down near the Rhine River and could thus buy wine.[42] Its significance lies in indicating the trade contacts outlined above.

At this point, it should be strictly emphasized that in a barbarian context one cannot talk about a direct adoption of Roman drinkware and dinnerware sets, as it is sometimes suggested inaccurately, but rather an adaptation and the creation of own, specific sets often supplemented with vessels of barbarian provenance (e.g., drinking horns and small bowl-shaped forms in pottery): the so-called 'barbarian drinkware set'.[43] These sets could then play an important role in funerary feasts and the expression of status.

Grave assemblages in the Barbaricum rarely include artefacts of types frequent in elite graves in the territory of the Roman provinces. Examples include the royal tomb of Mušov (bronze lamp, iron objects: kitchen equipment),[44] disturbed, rich cremation graves at Schwechat (parts of a Roman

36 Peška – Tejral 2002.

37 For more details, see Gorecki 2016, 204, Abb. 14–15; Kotzur 2021, Abb. 7–9.

38 Gorecki 2016, 203–208, Abb. 13–18 (Radnóti was on the same opinion).

39 Kolník 2016, 900, Abb. 8.9.

40 Wells 2001, 228; Jílek 2020, 161; Jílek 2022.

41 Tac. *Germ.*, 23.

42 Ingemark 2014, 217.

43 For details, see Kunow 1983, 79–80, 167, Karte 22.

44 Peška – Tejral 2002.

candelabrum),[45] Čáčov (an iron kitchen grate),[46] and Přerov nad Labem (an iron hanger/cauldron suspension chain).[47] They can thus reflect some provincial Roman customs (lamps) or the survival of older, Iron Age traditions (kitchen utensils).

Water jug *(Blechkanne)*

The water jug *(Blechkanne)* is the oldest piece of bronze vessel in Vinár-Cseralja (Fig. 7). It was produced in Capua, south Italy, in the second half of the 1st century AD. Imports from South Italy were rare in Pannonia. At Vinár, only the water jug and some dipper-and-strainer sets originated possibly from there; however, concluding evidence of their provenance has not been found.

The characteristic traits of this jug type include a wide body, a trefoil mouth, and a long cylindrical neck. The bulging belly is covered by double concentric lines, the surface is lathed. The bottom is narrow. Such jugs feature a cast handle and a lid. The upper part of the handle features two short arms, but no spout; its central part is smooth, and the lower end is escutcheon-shaped, resembling an elongated leaf, and decorated with incisions. The two sides of the handle were fastened to the rim of the vessel with wires.

Such vessels are generally 14.2–22.4 cm high without the lid, which is rarely preserved (see, for example, PAP Inv. nos. 3227, 18782, and 18786).[48] Approximately a hundred specimens of the type are known from different sites.[49]

According to a material composition analysis conducted by J. Gorecki's research group, the material of these jugs contains usually about 5% tin.[50]

Analogies from Pannonia include a badly damaged handle fragment (l.: 15.5 cm) with short arms and no spout from a utilitarian feature in the Roman *vicus* at Páty[51] (in this context as antique); a handle with a lid thumb rest from Annamatia/Baracs, Fejér County;[52] a handle from Poetovio/Ptuj, Slovenia;[53] another handle with a thumb rest from the same site;[54] and lid fragments from the same site.[55]

Handled dish *(Griffschale)*

The types of this dish *(Griffschale)* and of the horizontal handle fragment from Assemblage 1 cannot be specified due to the extensive damage caused by the heat of the pyre. In Mediterranean tradition and, later, the Roman world, these vessels were paired with jugs to form handwashing sets used during feasts and for hygiene in general; in a Roman context, they perhaps also played a role in

45 Künzl 1997; the assemblage found within a Roman province is interpreted as the remains of an elite Barbarian funerary equipment.

46 Ondrouch 1957; Pieta 2002, 348, Abb. 2.9; recently, Dragonidesová 2024.

47 Šnajdr 1906.

48 Tassinari 1993, Vol. 2, Pl. 79, 87–88; Tassinari 1993, Vol. 1, Pl. 162.3.

49 Tassinari 1993, Vol. 1, 47.

50 Gorecki *et al.* 2017, 241, Pl. 4, Typs E 5220, E 5311, E 5000; Boesterd 1956 and Boesterd – Hoekstra 1965 for comparison.

51 Szentendre, Ferenczy Museum, Inv. no. 85.2.551 (Ottományi – Gabler 1985, 240–241, Pl. 30.2).

52 Dunaújváros, Intercisa Museum, Inv. no. 74.27.80 (Szabó 1980, 723–724, Fig. 47.5.2). Fragmentary, without a spout.

53 Ptuj, Pokrajinski Museum, Inv. no. 10005 (Breščak 1982, 58, Pl. 15.151).

54 Ptuj, Pokrajinski Museum, Inv. no. 7926 (Breščak 1982, 58, Pl. 15.152).

55 Ptuj, Pokrajinski Museum, Inv. nos 1777, 1781, 8190, 11228, and 11229 (Breščak 1982, 58, Pl. 14.129–139).

religious acts.[56] The tradition of these sets can be traced back to ancient Greece, especially Hellenistic Macedonia, and southern Italy, where they were part of funerary equipment.[57]

Bronze jugs and E 154–155-type handled dishes appear in richly furnished barbarian inhumation and cremation graves as early as the first third of the 1st century AD. Eloquent early examples in Bohemia are known from the horizon of the Empire of Maroboduus (Phase B1a) and the subsequent horizon of Bohemian eye brooches (Phase B1b),[58] while Grave 1841/42 A in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern is somewhat younger.[59] Examples have also been found in the Middle Danube region in Phase B1b to B2b contexts (Fig. 10).[60]

Handled dish *(Griffschale)* and jug sets are also known from the eastern parts of Europe, which have never been occupied by the Romans for long, such as the Crimea, the Kuban Region[61] and Eastern Europe.[62] Graves in the European Barbaricum (Germania and Sarmatia) contain complete sets, as well as single jugs and dishes with a fixed horizontal handle, reflecting perhaps the *pars pro toto* concept or specific regional burial customs.[63]

These complete and partial sets implies that the barbarian population was familiar with the role of such sets and vessels in a funerary context since the beginning of the 1st century AD. The occurrence of jugs and handled dishes in graves in south-western Slovakia may thus prove the survival of burial rituals practiced already at the time of King Maroboduus in Bohemia. However, burial customs from a southern provincial environment may also have played a significant role. These sets probably imply great feasts and the imitation of certain Mediterranean customs in the Barbaricum.

The key finding is the association of jugs and handled dishes with graves containing a more extensive or even a very rich funerary assemblage. The question is the direction of the spread of the custom of adding such vessels to graves—which certainly comes from the Mediterranean and Roman world. Very early examples of this practice, dated to the Augustan period, are known from Gaul,[64] an area distant from Central Europe. The position of the elites in the empire of Maroboduus, who maintained contacts with the Roman elite, could also have played an important role in the spread of the custom and the associated items. Eventually, the custom in focus could have spread on from Bohemia to other regions of *Germania Magna*.

S 3110/Eggers 97-type bowls

Only a handle fragment of a bowl survived in Assemblage 1, yet it allows for a precise typological classification of the object. It should be noted that hemispherical or spherical-segment-shaped bowls of various sizes had been used for purposes of personal hygiene (such as washing the hair,

56 Nuber 1972, 117–120, 125; Nenova-Merdjanova 2002, 202; Nenova-Merdjanova 2011, 115–116, Fig. 1; Hrnčiarik 2013, 50; Gorecki 2023, 278.

57 Nuber 1972; Gorecki 2006, 385; Gorecki 2023, 278.

58 Schulz 1885; Droberjar 1999, 133, 136; Droberjar 2014, 414.

59 Voss 2006, 25, 44, Abb. 5.

60 Slovakia: Devín, Grave B (Kolník 1991, 83); Zohor, Graves 5/1957, 6/2010, disturbed cremation graves (Elschek 2013); Vysoká pri Morave (Ondrouch 1957); Kostolná pri Dunaji, Grave 10 (Kolník 1980; Hrnčiarik 2013); Sekule, Grave G/2008 (Iván *et al.* 2019). Lower Austria, north of the Danube: Neuruppersdorf, Rothenseehof, Waidendorf (Jílek 2012; Preisl *et al.* 2014; Stuppner 2016; Jílek 2016). Moravia: Bánov (Zeman 2017).

61 Loboda *et al.* 2002; Simonenko *et al.* 2008; jug: Pls 77 and 109, handled dish: Pl. 61, but never both.

62 Popa 2015, 130–131, Abb. 14.92–94; most recent and comprehensive publication: Treister 2022, 23–60, with mention of a relatively frequent occurrence of a separate *Griffschalen* in graves.

63 As a contribution to the discussion on the topic, see Blankenfeldt – Schuster 2024, 192.

64 Most recently, Sueur 2018; Barbau 2019.

bathing, or washing the feet) for centuries, even during the Hellenistic period.[65] The distinctive feature of this vessel type is the handle, which is attached to the rim at four points: the two outer points lie beneath the decorated buttons, while the two inner ones are positioned beneath the thick leaves curving forward and backward.

A total of 144 examples of diverse sizes of this type have been found in Pompeii.[66] Based on associated finds from domestic contexts, these bowls could be dated between AD 25/30–35/40 and 70–79.[67] Over time, the leaf and button decoration of the handles disappeared, simplified into a smoother version that nevertheless retained the same appliqué structure.

Early finds from well-dated contexts from the Augustan period, including those from Magdalensberg, Vindonissa, and Kempten, present a particular problem.[68] It may be assumed that the migration of craftsmen during this period led to the establishment of new production centres north of the Alps,[69] which subsequently operated in Roman provinces (e.g., Cambodunum/Kempten and Aventicum).[70] A clear tendency toward simplification can be observed in these workshops, too.

Apart from the bowl handle from Vinár, only one handle fragment of this type and with relief decoration was found in Pannonia, in the military camp at Ács-Vaspuszta. Based on stratigraphic evidence, it could be dated to around AD 150, that is, approximately 170–180 years after the Augustan period.[71]

Important information can be inferred from the analytical results (see the investigations conducted by J. Gorecki's team).[72] The analyses confirm that a different alloy was used for the richly decorated handles—requiring subsequent finishing—than for the sides or the base of the bowl. The lead content exceeds 10 %, indicating that the material is not *aes campanum*.

Such finds are very rare in the Barbaricum. H. J. Eggers[73] mentions only two examples from Hoby in Denmark and Giebułtów in Poland.[74] The richly furnished grave from Hoby was dated recently to Phase B1b, more specifically the Claudian period (Fig. 11.1),[75] while the double cremation grave from Giebułtów (Fig. 11.2–3) falls within the range of Phases B1c and B2a in the Polish chronology.[76]

The focus of current discussion is the classification a bronze bowl handle from Grave II, a cremation burial, in Dobřichov-Pičhora:[77] E. Droberjar proposed the designation E 99–100 type, but

65 Pernice 1925, 10–11, Figs 10–12 as *Knopfhenkelschale*; Riz 1990, 38–39, Pl. 6.4.

66 Tassinari 1993, Vol. 1, 90–97 and Tassinari 1993, Vol. 2, Pls 212–218, Types S 3110, S 3120, S 3200.

67 Particularly PAP Inv. nos 3165 and 7146 in comparison to Petrovszky 1993, 143, 151, 196, 255, dated to AD 25/30–35/40 C. 34.02. beginning, A.16.01, dated to AD 70/75–90.

68 Simonett 1941, 94–95, Grave 33, Fig. 79, Pl. 14.13, dated to AD 15–30; Deimel 1987, 89, 136, no. 65, Pl. 19.3, from the Augustan period, Pl. 19.6–7; Flügel 1993, 73–74, nos 57–60, 62, Pl. 28, dated to the 1st century AD; Kapeller 2003, 88–89, 95, 135–136, nos 63–68, dated to AD 30/40–mid-1st century AD.

69 Borda 1984, 713.

70 Flügel 1993, no. 57–60; Kapeller 2003, no. 66–68; Bienert 2007, 165–167, *Schale Typ* 57; Gorecki 2023, 319–320, no. 341. See distribution map in Sedlmayer 1999, 60, Fig. 8.

71 Gabler 1989; Szabó 1989, 177, 427–428, no. 13, Fig. 73.

72 Type Pompeian S 3110 at Gorecki *et al.* 2017, 273–274: PAP Inv. nos 10728, 13358, 13956; Type S 3120: PAP Inv. no. 12428; general Type S 3200: PAP Inv. no. 12676.

73 Eggers 1951, 169.

74 The handles of two bronze bowls are missing, which makes it difficult to classify them with certainty as Type E 97.

75 Blankenfeldt – Schuster 2024, 195.

76 CRFB – PL 2, 50–52, 28.1.4–5, Taf. 23.1.a–b, Taf. 24.1.a–b.

77 Droberjar 1999, 133, 215, Taf. 5.II.6.

J. Gorecki did not rule out the possibility that it belongs to an E 97-type vessel.[78] In our opinion, the Dobřichov-Pičhora specimen is a handle fragment consistent with bowls of the E 99–100 type; the ornamental design corroborates such a classification. E 97-type bowls have also been found in 1st-century AD burial contexts in Eastern Europe, including early examples with parallels from Pompeii.[79]

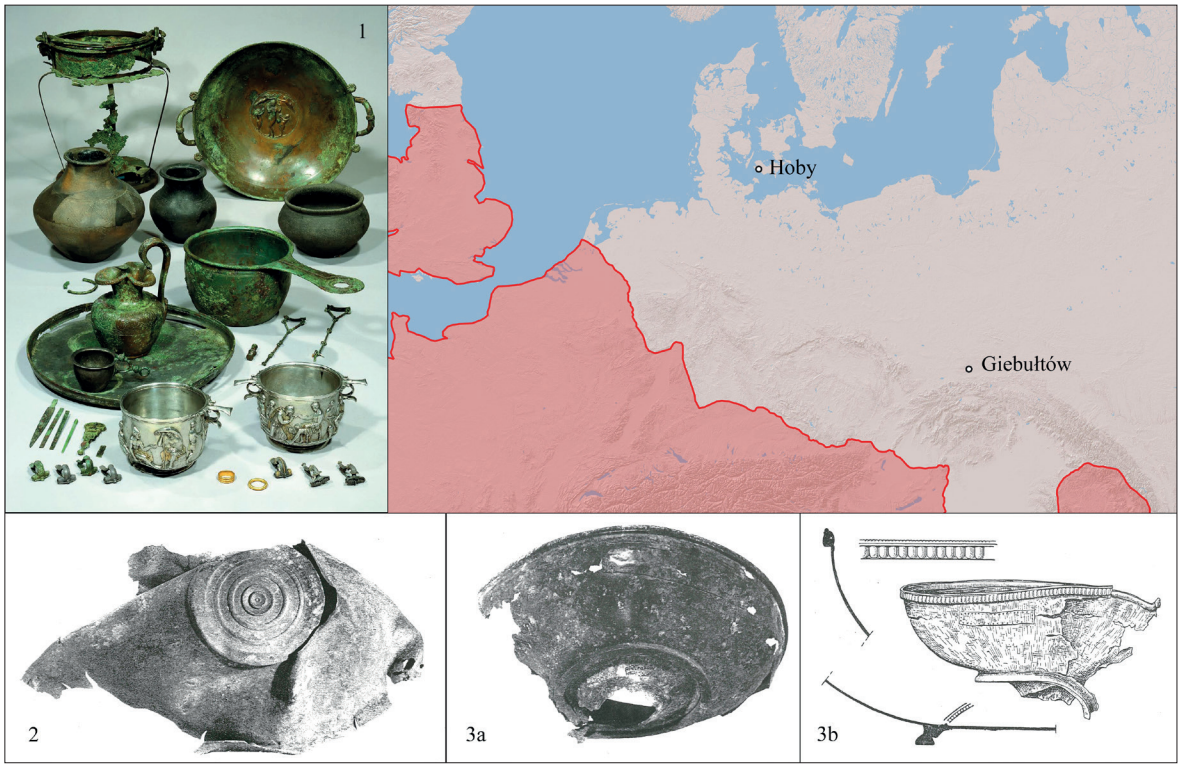


Fig. 11. Eggers 97-type bowls from the Barbaricum. 1 – Hoby, from a richly furnished grave (after Blankenfeldt – Schuster 2024), 2–3.a–b — Giebułtów, fragments of Eggers 97-type bowls (after CRFB – PL 2).

Eggers 97-type bowls were used throughout the Empire mainly for washing feet;[80] however, their role in the Barbaricum remains to be clarified. The insufficient number of finds from primary contexts poses further obstacles to resolving this question. J. Schuster and R. Blankenfeldt[81] discussed it in their study on the chronology of the grave from Hoby, emphasising that the deliberate selection of metal vessels does not suggest the unaltered adoption of significantly more complex Roman customs. In the case of the E 97-type bowl from Hoby, it cannot be ruled out that, together with the E 126-type jug and the E 24-type bucket, they were remnants of a Roman washing set (lacking, for example, a handled dish/*Griffschale*). However, we must critically admit that we do not know whether the remnant of this set was indeed used for personal hygiene. On the contrary, it is better to argue for the status significance of Roman luxury items in a funerary context—especially in the case of silver *skyphoi*, which can be considered antiques already at the time of burial.

Whether the E 97-type bowl the handle fragment of which was found at Vinár served the same function as similar vessels in Italy also complicated to determine. However, it was found in a barbarian cemetery with graves whose composition resembles more closely barbarian than provincial

78 Gorecki 2011, 163, Abb. 55.

79 Tassinari 1993, Vol. 1, 94–97, Pl. 27–29; Gorecki *et al.* 2017, 273–274; Treister 2024, 201–202, 204, 206, 212, Figs 8–10.

80 Gorecki 2023, 319, Cat. no. 341.

81 Blankenfeldt – Schuster 2024, 191–192.

patterns. Based on that, it can be ruled out that the members of the community burying their dead at Vinár used this vessel in the same way as Romans did.

Conclusion

Vinár-Cseralja differs from the provincial burial sites in northern Pannonia due not only burial customs and the predominance of weapons, but also the presence of diverse Roman bronze vessels in the burials and the manner in which they were placed within the graves. In provincial burials of the Early Roman Period in Pannonia, buckets, dippers and strainers, pans, and bowls also occur, although jug-handled dish sets predominate. However, the arrangement of the bronze vessels in the urn graves at Vinár clearly deviates from the prevailing burial customs across the province.

The composition of the set of bronze vessels in the graves (Tab. 1) shows significant similarities with the patterns observed in the territory of the Middle Danube Barbaricum in the Early Roman Period. The high proportion of dippers and strainers, together with buckets and pans, illustrates these tendencies well.[82]

This fact is important for the evaluation of funerary practices. The presence of bronze vessels suggests that the community behind the cemetery followed conservative mortuary traditions, while the provincial environment also facilitated the acquisition of a relatively large number of Roman objects. They retained their customs even after moving to Roman territory, perhaps to preserve their foreign identity.

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82 Gorecki 2016; Jílek 2020.

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