

1 **EPHEMERAL ARCHAEOLOGY SOUTH OF THE CENTRAL PYRENEES: AN**  
2 **ASSEMBLAGE OF WOODY PLANT-BASED MATERIALS FROM CUEVA**  
3 **DEL MORO DE ALINS (HUESCA, NE IBERIA).**

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12  
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14  
15 Abstract

16 *Plant-based materials in archaeological contexts are exceptional finds. Although forest*  
17 *resources would have constituted a basic raw material for the economy of past societies,*  
18 *our knowledge of their use is limited by their perishability, and the conservation problems*  
19 *that make them almost entirely invisible in the archaeological record. In the Iberian*  
20 *Peninsula, the evidence of plant resource consumption is limited to a few contexts with*  
21 *exceptional conditions of preservation, such as the extreme dryness that occurs in some*  
22 *caves or shelters in the central Ebro basin. This region is emerging in recent years as a*  
23 *highly important locality for the archaeology of “short-lived materials” or Ephemeral*  
24 *Archaeology. This work presents the results of taxonomic, typological and technical*  
25 *studies, including previously unpublished work, regarding the assemblage of wooden*  
26 *objects and basketry from the Cueva del Moro de Alins (NE Iberia) burial cave, including*  
27 *direct radiocarbon dating. Radiocarbon dating has been vital for the contextualisation of*  
28 *the entire assemblage, which was illegally despoiled in the early 90s, and contains three*  
29 *well-differentiated moments of occupation: Neolithic, Bronze Age and Late Antiquity.*

30 **1. INTRODUCTION**

31 Non-charred plant finds are surprising in archaeological contexts. However, specific  
32 anoxic conditions such as waterlogging or extreme aridity sometimes allow the  
33 exceptional preservation of these biodegradable raw materials in Mediterranean  
34 environments. The scant amount of plant-based artefacts recovered in archaeological  
35 contexts further complicates their interpretation due to the lack of references for  
36 typological classification, in addition to the difficulty in assessing their role in material

37 culture (Hurcombe, 2014). In recent years the central Ebro basin (NE Iberian Peninsula)  
38 has emerged as an important region for the recovery of plant-based materials in both  
39 historical and prehistoric contexts, more specifically certain cave localities within this  
40 region (Alcolea, 2018; Domingo et al., e.p.). The current study presents the results of  
41 taxonomic, typological and technical studies of the woody plant-based materials from  
42 Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca), as well as their direct radiocarbon dates, which have  
43 been key in the contextualisation of the entire archaeological assemblage.

44 The unexpected discovery in Cueva del Moro de Alins of an assemblage of woody plant-  
45 based materials originating from Bronze age to Late Antiquity demonstrates the use of  
46 wood as a raw material for personal and domestic objects and furniture in the central  
47 Pyrenees over time.

48 Plant-based materials (wooden objects, fragments and basketry fragments) have been key  
49 in the interpretation of this assemblage not only because of their uniqueness, but also  
50 because they permit direct radiocarbon dating, which has contributed to the sequencing  
51 of the different human occupations of the cave that otherwise lack a well-defined  
52 archaeological sequence. This has also confirmed the contemporaneity of these plant-  
53 based remains to the other archaeological materials from this site (pottery, lithic and  
54 metallic objects and a large amount of human remains) (Rodanés, 2017).

## 55 **2. ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FRAMEWORK**

56

### 57 **2.1. Location and site description**

58

59 Cueva del Moro de Alins (UTM 277759E 4654896N) is located on the southern slope of  
60 a tributary valley of the Barranco de las Carboneras cliff, near the municipality of Alins  
61 del Monte (Huesca, Spain). It forms part of the Sierra de la Carrodilla southern slope, a  
62 limestone mountain range that marks the beginning of the Aragonese Pre-Pyrenees at its  
63 boundary with the Ebro depression. This range presents a complex topography through  
64 the presence of faults and small folds, the highest points being Buñero (1109 masl) and  
65 San Quílez (1084 masl) (Figure 1). This strategic location, between the valley lowland  
66 and the Pyrenean Mountains, provides a plethora of contexts and palaeoeconomic  
67 resources.

68

69 The access to the cave is a narrow horizontal gallery facing northeast, about 700 meters  
70 above sea level. Access to the cave is extremely challenging; many areas of the cave can  
71 only currently be accessed through the use of speleology equipment. The gallery opens  
72 between irregularly shaped limestone blocks that lead to a long passage, at the end of  
73 which is a trapezoidal room with a vertical well 15 m deep and less than half a meter wide  
74 at the top (Figure 1). The lower level of the cave is formed by another horizontal gallery.  
75 The geomorphological characteristics of the cave complex strongly suggest that the  
76 inhabitability of the space would have probably restricted the types of past human  
77 activities to those of a mainly sepulchral nature, in addition to providing the conditions  
78 for the exceptional conservation of perishable materials.

79

## 80 **2.2. Biogeographical framework**

81

82 This area is currently characterised by a continental Mediterranean climate with long, dry  
83 summers, an average annual temperature between 12 and 14 °C, and 500 mm of annual  
84 precipitation. The vegetation is characteristic of the transitional zone between the meso-  
85 Mediterranean and sub-Mediterranean biogeographic belts (Rivas Martínez, 1982).

86

87 Present-day flora is influenced by the altitudinal gradient, orography, calcareous lithology  
88 and the high levels of anthropic impact. Vegetation surrounding the cave is mainly  
89 composed of holm oak (*Quercus rotundifolia*, *Quercus coccifera*) (Braun-Blanquet y  
90 Bolos, 1987), as well as green olive (*Phillyrea latifolia*, *Phillyrea angustifolia*), terebinth  
91 (*Pistacia terebinthus*), wayfarer (*Viburnum lantana*), snowy mespilus (*Amelanchier*  
92 *ovalis*) and phoenicean juniper (*Juniperus phoenicea*). These sclerophyllous plant  
93 communities create the typical Pyrenean oak forest (*Quercus faginea*, *Quercus*  
94 *cerrioides*) that also includes boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens*) in higher altitudes, shaded  
95 zones and ravines (Fernández Palacio, 2008). There are also extensive plantations of  
96 Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis*) in this region, which is a native meso-Mediterranean  
97 species that has been re-introduced for wood production (Chevalier, 1995). The flora that  
98 makes up the undergrowth is extremely varied. *Ceterach officinarum* and *Chaenorium*  
99 *origanifolium* stand out in sunny spots, while shaded areas are dominated by *Ramonda*  
100 *miconi*, *Umbilicus rupestris* or *Polypodium cambicum* (Fernández Palacio, 2008).

101

## 102 **2.3. Historical and archaeological context**

103

104 This region has been populated since Prehistory. Although the first evidence of human  
105 settlement in the region dates to the Palaeolithic (Rovira et al., 1991; Montes and Utrilla,  
106 2014), occupation intensified during the Neolithic when cave occupations became  
107 common, either as intensive and persistent habitations as is the case of Cueva de Chaves  
108 (Baldellou, 2011, Rodanés y Picazo, 2005) or as exceptional occupations in otherwise  
109 inhabitable cavities, indicative of funerary functions, such as Cueva de los Moros de  
110 Gabasa (Laborda and Gisbert, 2016) or Cueva del Moro de Olvena (Rodanés et al., 2016)  
111 (Figure 2). Occupations in caves then gave way to the characteristic small open-air  
112 settlements of the Late Neolithic and Chalcolithic (Gallart et al., 2017).

113

114 During the transition to the Bronze Age, changes occurred in the palaeoeconomic model,  
115 and there was an acceleration in the processes that precipitate greater social complexity  
116 (Rodanés, 1992). A greater number of identified archaeological sites originate from the  
117 Bronze Age than from previous periods. A novel feature of this period is the prevalence  
118 of open-air settlements located on plains and gentle slopes, occasionally occupying  
119 natural rock shelters, and occupying places close to permanent or seasonal water courses  
120 (rivers or seasonal torrents in ravines) where the land is suitable for agricultural practices  
121 and there is pasture for livestock feeding (Gallart et al., 2017, 32-42). During this period  
122 burial caves become very common in the Spanish Pre-Pyrenees, many being used

123 repeatedly, and possibly replacing the megalithic phenomenon that predominates in other  
124 Pre-Pyrenean areas (Rodanés, 1999). Prominent examples of such sites include Drolica,  
125 Los Cristales (Montes and Martínez Bea, 2006), San Juan de Loarre (Pastor y Vicente,  
126 2009), Paco Pons (Montes et al., 2016) and Cueva de los Moros de Gabasa (Figure 2). At  
127 the end of this period during the Late and Final Bronze Age, coinciding with the  
128 appearance of the Urnfield culture, significant changes occur in the material culture.  
129 Populations then became concentrated in larger communities during the Iron Age,  
130 resulting in a lower number of archaeological sites recovered from this period (Rodanés  
131 and Picazo, 2018).

132

133 The changes in human settlement patterns are notable during the Roman period. An  
134 important portion of the population became concentrated in urban centres such as *Oscá*,  
135 *Labitolosa* or *Barbotum*, which maintained control and imposed a hierarchy over their  
136 *territorium* (Navarro et al., 2000; Magallón and Sillières, 2013). Rural settlements were  
137 organised into farms and *villae* (Chasseigne, 2002) that supplied the urban centers (Figure  
138 2). However, evidence of human activity with a funerary function in Pyrenean and Pre-  
139 Pyrenean caves or rock shelters remains common during the Roman occupation.  
140 Examples include Cueva de los Moros de Gabasa and Cueva del Moro de Olvena (Utrilla  
141 and Baldellou, 1996), Els Trocs (Rojo et al., 2012) and Cova Colomera (Oms et al., 2008).  
142 During the Late Antiquity (4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> centuries), a period of social instability in this region  
143 (Diarte-Blasco, 2016), the caves were primarily used as refuges, for hiding treasure, or  
144 for pastoral uses (Utrilla et al., 2014), largely replacing the funerary function (Domingo  
145 et al., e.p.).

146

#### 147 **2.4. History of the archaeological assemblage**

148

149 This study presents the results of the analysis of the woody plant-based materials from an  
150 archaeological assemblage that has been stored in the Museum of Huesca since 1992,  
151 originating from the despoiling of Cueva del Moro de Alins. The illegal removal of this  
152 material and the resulting destruction of the stratigraphic contexts occurred at an unknown  
153 date before the summer of 1992. The archaeological assemblage is composed of ceramic,  
154 lithic and metallic materials as well as a large amount of human remains. The woody  
155 plant-based materials are the subject of this paper. The existence of an archaeological site  
156 inside this cavity was verified and communicated to the local authorities by a group of  
157 archaeologists lead by J.M. Rodanés in 1991. The circumstances of the discovery and its  
158 stratigraphic de-contextualisation has led to a considerable delay in the study of this  
159 assemblage, and has represented a consequential handicap in its interpretation.

160

161 In 2015 the study of the various material types that compose the archaeological  
162 assemblage was undertaken by different specialists. The case of the woody plant-based  
163 materials (basketry and wooden objects) was particularly controversial. Until very  
164 recently considerable doubt existed regarding the origin and the age of these materials.  
165 Given i) their exceptional state of conservation, ii) the limited evolution of the artisanal  
166 technological processes in the production of these types of objects between Prehistory

167 and the present day, and iii) the lack of typological references due to their infrequent  
168 preservation in archaeological contexts, meant that for years these objects were  
169 considered to be modern, possibly attributed to the Maquis resistance movement in the  
170 Spanish Pyrenees. Therefore, the first step in their analysis was the direct radiocarbon  
171 dating of several objects, which confirmed their origins as dating from Prehistory and  
172 from the Classical period. The cave where these objects were discovered was revisited  
173 with the logistical support of the Centre of Speleology of Aragon in order to describe the  
174 topography of the cave and to characterise its biogeographic environment.

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## 178 **2.5. Phases of occupation**

179 The radiocarbon dates, six from woody plant-based materials and three from the abundant  
180 anthropological remains recovered from the cavity (Table 1, Figure 3), in combination  
181 with the entire material assemblage recovered from the site, has allowed us to reconstruct  
182 the extensive sequence of human activity in the cave, in which three different phases can  
183 be clearly distinguished that correspond with settlement patterns described by other  
184 archaeological studies in the region. The various identified functions of Cueva de los  
185 Moros de Alins have undoubtedly been strongly influenced by the cave's inhabitability.  
186 The identified phases are:

187 i) Neolithic: although we lack radiocarbon dates for this period, some of the materials  
188 recovered such as decorated pottery fragments, variscite beads and what are probably  
189 polished stone tools suggest that the first human activity at this site was during the  
190 Neolithic. Funerary use of such cavities was common during the Neolithic (Rodanés and  
191 Picazo, 2005; Ramón, 2006; Rodanés 2007).

192 ii) Bronze Age: this occupation is the most thoroughly documented at Cueva del Moro de  
193 Alins due to eight radiocarbon dates obtained from wooden objects, basketry and human  
194 bone remains. Although the radiocarbon dates of the human bones are restricted to a  
195 narrow range of time around 3800 cal BP (Table 1, Figure 3), those from woody plant-  
196 based materials indicate a broader timespan across almost four centuries, suggesting a  
197 prolonged funerary use of the cave during the Bronze Age. Other materials that probably  
198 belong to this phase based on their typology are pottery, bone arrowheads or flint blades  
199 with a cereal patina, and several metal objects such as a rivet dagger, flat axe, arrowhead  
200 and a needle. Burial caves were also very common in the Spanish Pre-Pyrenees during  
201 this period (Rodanés et al., 2016).

202 iii) Finally, a number of the archaeological artefacts made of metal, glass and wood are  
203 assigned to historical periods (Rodanés and Aranda, 2015; Rodanés et al., 2015). Direct  
204 radiocarbon dating of a wood fragment places this activity during the Late Antiquity  
205 (Table 1, Figure 3) instead of the early Roman Empire, as was initially proposed (Rodanés  
206 and Aranda, 2015). In Cueva del Moro de Alins, since there are no historical radiocarbon  
207 dates from human remains, we maintain the hypothesis that the cave would not

208 necessarily have been used as a burial site during this period, but as a cache (Rodanés,  
209 2017).

### 210 **3. MATERIAL AND METHOD**

211 The assemblage of woody plant-based materials presented in this paper is composed of  
212 29 elements: 11 recognizable wooden objects or fragments, 10 unidentified fragments of  
213 worked wood, 7 basketry fragments and 1 knot made from a hazel switch (Table 2).

214 The first stage of the analysis was the direct AMS radiocarbon dating of some of these  
215 artefacts (Table 1 and 2). Taking destructive samples for radiocarbon dating presented  
216 some problems because of the high museographic value of the objects. The samples were  
217 always taken on less visible sections or on existing breakages, with the objective of  
218 avoiding compromising the physical integrity of the objects. It was important to develop  
219 the sampling processes for radiocarbon dating and for the techno-typological study in  
220 parallel in order to avoid damaging the object, while simultaneously selecting the parts  
221 of the wood that were the most suitable for dating. The latter includes narrow branches  
222 or the outer rings of large trunks in order to minimize the influence of the "old wood  
223 effect" as much as possible.

224 During the macroscopical analysis, each object was photographed, drawn and measured.  
225 When possible, the portions of the plants supplying the raw material were identified, as  
226 well as some aspects of the manufacturing process, the typological classification and the  
227 possible function of the object. Broken and/or burned parts have been also documented  
228 and reconstructed when possible.

229 In respect to taxonomic analysis (the identification of the plant species used as the raw  
230 material), the methodology has consisted of the manual extraction of semi-thin sections  
231 with a blade on less visible parts or on existing breakages. Due to the aforementioned  
232 important museographic value of some of these objects, the use of a microtome was  
233 avoided. The sample slices were then moistened with a solution of water and glycerine  
234 and placed on a slide.

235 The observation of the cellular wood structure was made with a double light microscope  
236 (optical and dark-field functions), Leica DM2700M, through which different ocular lens  
237 allow between x100 and x1000 magnification factors. The images accompanying this text  
238 have been taken using the digital camera Leica MC190 HD coupled to the microscope  
239 and the software Image Builder XYZ from the Leica Application Suite (LAS) (Figure 4).  
240 The taxonomic identification is based on the comparison of the observed elements with  
241 different atlases specialised in the anatomy of wood (Schweingruber, 1990; García  
242 Esteban et al., 2003) and slice samples from present-day wood. Nomenclature follows the  
243 guidelines in *Flora europaea* (Tutin et al., 1964).

244 The remains of pigments in some of the basketry fragments have been analysed by X-ray  
245 fluorescence (XRF) using an INNOV-X Alpha equipped with an X-ray tube and silver  
246 anode, in working conditions: 35kW, 2 mA, with the aim of verifying the presence of iron

247 oxides as the source of a reddish coloration. Photographs of the basketry fragments were  
248 digitally treated using the specific software DStretch for imageJ in order to determine the  
249 extent and design of these pigments.

## 250 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

251 Among the 29 woody plant-based materials studied in this paper, 28 of them presents  
252 traces of being worked. They can be separated into several categories: recognizable  
253 wooden artefacts or fragments (11), unidentified fragments of worked wood (10),  
254 basketry fragments (7) and a knot (1). Despite the fragmentation and decay of the woody  
255 plant-based materials, some utilitarian objects can be recognised. The typology of these  
256 objects is related to the function of the site in each occupation phase documented.

### 257 **4.1. Basketry fragments**

258 Basketry refers to artefacts made out of vegetable fibres of a limited length. All plant  
259 parts may be commonly used materials, from leaves or herbaceous stems to tree bark or  
260 roots. The seven basketry fragments recovered in this site are made of the same materials  
261 using the same technique and have corresponding dimensions, so they are probably  
262 different parts of a single object (Table 2).

263 All fragments are made of the same types of materials, however within the fragments the  
264 different structural components are made of different species. The fragments comprise  
265 two sets of elements, consisting of interwoven strands (Adovasio, 1978; Wendrich, 1991).  
266 Passive elements, which form the basket's structure without a connective function, are  
267 made from unidentified monocot stems. Active elements, that wrap around the monocot  
268 stems, are made from willow fibres (*Salix* sp.). The willow material, although deformed,  
269 preserves the main diagnostic anatomical characteristics of the secondary xylem,  
270 observed during the microscopic analysis (Figure 4).

271 In respect to technique, the coiled baskets can be described as moving clockwise or  
272 counterclockwise as they work their way outwards from the centre. While the active  
273 element is a vertical stitch, the passive element is a bundle of separate, and probably  
274 shorter, fibres (Harvey, 1986). The stitches wrap around the horizontally oriented  
275 foundation as it spirals outward and upward, holding the working end against the previous  
276 row, forming a V-shaped design (Leroi-Gourham, 1943; Alfaro, 1984). These elements  
277 create the basket's form and structure.

278 Regarding the morphology of the conserved fragments, six of them are flat and one is  
279 rounded (Figure 5). All flat fragments are composed of several rows (Table 1). Our  
280 interpretation is that this is a single object, formed by the six wall or border fragments.  
281 The rounded element (11084) is probably also related, being part of a kind of cover or  
282 base, although we cannot disregard the possibility that it was an independent element,  
283 such as a rug or a lathe.

284 We suggest as a hypothesis that on certain parts of this object, which is presumably a  
285 basket, that there were some simple decorative motifs in red pigment. The presence of a

286 pigment composed of iron oxides amongst the woody willow fibres has been confirmed  
287 by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis. Although the digital treatment of the images  
288 (DStretch for ImageJ) supports the presence of this decoration, we are unable to determine  
289 either its extent or design.

290 The oldest examples of basketry and cordage in the Iberian Peninsula come from the  
291 Neolithic deposits of Los Murciélagos de Albuñol (Granada) (Alfaro, 1980) and La Draga  
292 (Gerona) (Piqué et al., 2018; Romero-Brugués et al., 2018). A greater number of  
293 examples of these types of objects have been recovered from later archaeological periods.  
294 In the Iberian peninsula notable examples include Cueva Sagrada (Lorca) (Ayala, 1987)  
295 and Terlinques (Villena, Alicante) (Jover et al., 2001), as well as various Bronze Ages  
296 sites in the Iberian SE such as Cabezo Redondo, Castellón Alto, Cerro de El Cuchillo,  
297 and La Ceñuela (Jover and López Padilla, 2013). Other important European finds include  
298 those from the stilt-house settlements typical to Central Europe, such as those located  
299 around Neuchatel (Robenhhausen, Niederwil, Murtensee, Wauwilermoos and St. Aubin),  
300 Egolzwil Lu, Auvernier, and Fiavé in northern Italy (Alfaro, 1980; Cacho et al., 1996;  
301 Ramseyer, 2000; Perini, 1987); also, Chalain-Clairvaux (Masurel, 1985), and Charavines  
302 (Isère), the latter including possible remains of pigments (Bocquet, 1994, 57, 76-81). As  
303 a technology, coiled baskets seems to be common in European prehistory. In respect to  
304 the raw materials, herbaceous plants such as flax (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) and esparto  
305 (*Stipa tenacissima* L.) appear to be dominant, while examples of woody plants, such as  
306 the case of Cueva del Moro de Alins, are much more rare (Médard, 2008).

307 The “knot” (11077), made of a twisted switch of common hazel (*Corylus avellana*), is an  
308 element that is difficult to classify (Figure 7). Hazel typically grows as a shrub, common  
309 in many European woodlands, reaching 3–8 m tall. Hazel wood is a traditional material  
310 used for basketry, fabrics and cordage, among other uses. It was traditionally grown as a  
311 coppice, so that regenerating shoots may be harvested every few years, narrow and large  
312 poles being used for different purposes.

#### 313 **4.2. Wooden objects and Unidentified fragments**

314 Probably the most exceptional and recognizable wooden object recovered at the site is a  
315 little comb (11074) made of boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens*). The comb has a rectangular  
316 body with a straight base with two parallel and holes 10 mm in diameter, and a  
317 quadrangular section with rounded edges. A single row of thin teeth takes up more than  
318 half of its length (Figure 6). Although it is not intact (the row of teeth being the most  
319 affected area by breakages), it is very well-preserved. The direct radiocarbon date of  $3550$   
320  $\pm 30$  BP places this object within a Bronze Age funerary context (Table 1). Combs are  
321 common, particularly in association with this type of archaeological context in the Iberian  
322 Peninsula and the Balearic Island, where the examples are numerous: Càrritx (Lull et al.,  
323 1999), Menut (Veny 1982, 369), Can Martorellet (Pons Homar, 1999), Son Maimó  
324 (Picornell, 2012) or Son Ferragut (Buxó and Piqué, 2008), among others. Nevertheless  
325 the interpretation of this object remains problematic. Its function may have been related

326 to textile activities or personal hygiene, while other authors suggest that it has a symbolic  
327 meaning and a ritual function.

328 An important category of objects in this assemblage includes various fragments of  
329 polypode (multi-footed) plates or trays. The most complete of these fragments (10101) is  
330 another one of the most outstanding objects of this assemblage. It consists of a plano-  
331 convex section, but the original shape of the complete object cannot be determined as the  
332 edges of the fragment suffer from fire damage. There are four well-preserved cone-shaped  
333 supporting feet that have a circular cross-section and a small base (12 - 14 mm diameter).  
334 The surface of the feet are polished, but distinctive faceted work marks may be observed  
335 on the rest of the object. It is made of Scots pine type wood (*Pinus* sp. *sylvestris*). Direct  
336 radiocarbon dating (3600±30 BP) indicates that this object also belongs to the Bronze  
337 Age funerary context (Table 1). Another large polypode container may be reconstructed  
338 from two fragments, included in the collection of fragments that lack an identified context  
339 (s/n 1-2). In this case, only one oval, cylindrical foot 59 mm wide and 29 mm high is  
340 preserved. The species identification of both wooden fragments as oak (*Quercus*  
341 deciduous) suggest that they originally come from the same artefact. There are two other  
342 fragments that are also interpreted as the feet of containers. One of them is quite similar  
343 to the object described above (10101) and manufactured from the same wood (11415.2).  
344 The other (11415.1), whose origin is less easy to interpret, is made of ash wood (*Fraxinus*  
345 sp.).

346 Containers form a typical category of artefacts present in the types of archaeological sites  
347 where plant-based material may be preserved. They are present in both domestic and  
348 funerary contexts, and the containers documented in the Mediterranean display a variety  
349 of different types and sizes. In some cases these objects emulate the shapes of pottery.  
350 The manufacturing process is simple, and similar in all cases, consisting of interior  
351 carving and external and internal polishing. Cueva del Moro de Alins containers and  
352 fragments would have had a funerary function associated with the multiple burials from  
353 the Bronze Age. Examples of containers exist in many Iberian sites (Maluquer, 1954, 12;  
354 Veny, 1982; Ayala, 1987, 16; Lull et al., 1999, 339-346; Piqué, 1999, 506-507), however  
355 none of these objects display any notable similarities to those from Cueva del Moro.  
356 Similar types of containers exist in more distant localities in Northern Italy from the  
357 palafitic cultures during the Middle Bronze Age, in particular the trays from Fivá (Perini  
358 1987, 288 and 289, Fig. 119 and 120, Lam 41 and 181). The most notable has a slightly  
359 concave surface which is supported by two wide parallel feet, although the woodwork  
360 may be unfinished and intended design may have been four separate legs. It is a unique  
361 specimen that has no parallels in similar subalpine cultural localities, and is reminiscent  
362 of the oldest European ceramic types of the GBK group.

363 The spindle-shaped object (11076) made of ash wood (*Fraxinus* sp.), which despite a  
364 breakage and some fire marks is mostly complete, is enigmatic in terms of its typology  
365 and function. This elongated instrument has a clearly wider in the central part, and two  
366 rectangular perforations; one in the centre in the wider area, and the other, broken, at the  
367 edge. It is perfectly polished and does not retain any appreciable indications of the method

368 of manufacture (Figure 6). In the inventory of the Huesca Museum it is classified as a  
369 handle. It is difficult to determine its function and, consequently, to find similar  
370 specimens. Spindle-shaped objects with rectangular or square perforations are found in  
371 the palafito of Fiavé, the so-called *Spolette* (Perini 1987, 332-333, fig. 159). The main  
372 difference between these and the Cueva del Moro artefact is that the latter does not show  
373 use-wear traces, while the Italian examples present clear traces of contact between textile  
374 elements and the wood. The most plausible hypothesis is that this object is part of a  
375 composite tool into which other pieces of wood (or other materials) could be inserted,  
376 perhaps used for the treatment of textile or vegetable fibres. None of the other remains  
377 from the cave match the holes.

378 There are also objects recovered from the cave that have no function or category assigned  
379 to them. In this archaeological assemblage from Cueva del Moro there are different  
380 categories of unclassified objects; in several cases the finds may be utilitarian objects that  
381 were broken or burned, or that have deteriorated. In other cases these may be unfinished  
382 objects, parts of a larger object constructed from several pieces, or simply carving chips.  
383 Some of these objects could be related to funerary culture, as deposits of this type in the  
384 Peninsula and the Balearic Islands often contain wooden stretchers or the remains of  
385 coffins (Picornell et al., 2008; Picornell, 2012; Romero-Brugués et al., 2018).

386 The final hypothesis in respect to this assemblage is related to plant-based materials from  
387 the Late Antiquity. The only radiocarbon date for this period ( $1690 \pm 30$  BP) comes from  
388 a fragment initially classified as an unidentified fragment without context (s/n 3). A  
389 detailed study of the unidentified fragments that lack context led us to connect this  
390 fragment with two others (s/n 4 and s/n 5), reconstructing what is possibly a broken and  
391 incomplete handle from the three fragments. This reconstructed artefact was made of  
392 Aleppo pine wood (*Pinus halepensis*), as were four other objects in this assemblage: a  
393 cramp (11075), two wooden planks (11091-11092) and a carving chip (s/n 7). The  
394 “cramp” (11075) consists of a small oval fragment of wood with a bronze clip (Figure 7).  
395 The metal sample was analysed by X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (INNOV-X Alpha)  
396 in addition to a total of 22 bronze and iron metal objects from the deposit (Rodanés et al.,  
397 2016). Some of these objects consisted of alloys and compositions that belong to the  
398 Roman period, and would have been the durable parts of larger elements that were made  
399 mainly of perishable materials. All of these findings lead us to cautiously suggest the  
400 possible presence of a wooden chest in the cave during Late Antiquity, of which only  
401 some parts have been preserved. There exist some similar finds in the Ebro basin (NE  
402 Iberia), such as the *Arca ferrata* (Tarazona, Zaragoza) (Beltrán, 2004, 143), and the chest  
403 from Calahorra, (La Rioja) (Tudanca and López de Calle, 2000, 53). The exceptional  
404 conditions that permit the conservation of plant-based materials outside caves are almost  
405 exclusively restricted to waterlogged wells (Carrión & Rosser, 2010; Fernández Ochoa et  
406 al., 2015; Piqué et al., 2016; Costa-Vaz et al., 2016).

#### 407 **4.3. Woody plant resources as a raw material**

408 Of all the archaeological remains recovered in the Cueva del Moro those made of plant-  
409 based raw materials are undoubtedly the most striking for their exceptional preservation,  
410 given the usual tendency for these types of objects to decompose in the archaeological  
411 record. The raw material of all of these objects is derived from woody plants - xylem  
412 being one of the most resistant parts of plants - while no remains of herbaceous plants  
413 have been found, not even in the construction of the basketry.

414 A total of eight woody taxa have been identified in this archaeological assemblage: box  
415 (*Buxus sempervirens*), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), ash (*Fraxinus* sp.), juniper (*Juniperus*  
416 sp.), Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis*), Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* tp.), oak (*Quercus*  
417 deciduous) and willow (*Salix* sp.). This list constitutes a considerable variety of raw  
418 materials, especially considering the small size of the plant-based assemblage studied in  
419 this paper. We have documented the use of hard- and softwood species (wood types with  
420 different properties) that are also representative of different ecological plant communities.  
421 The use of each type of wood as a raw material could be the consequence of ecological  
422 factors and/or technological choices.

423 Based on available chronological information and our current knowledge of the  
424 associations between certain plants and different biotopes, we have documented the  
425 exploitation of three different types of landscapes for the procurement of wood as a raw  
426 material (Figure 8). Among the wooden objects belonging to the Bronze Age the wood  
427 of sub-Mediterranean trees was used as a raw material, such as Scots pine (*Pinus* tp.  
428 *syvestris*) and oak (*Quercus* sp. deciduous), as well as shrubs such as box (*Buxus*  
429 *sempervirens*). This leads us to believe that the wood was obtained from the mixed pine-  
430 oak sub-Mediterranean forest that dominated the Pre-Pyrenean mid-mountain areas  
431 during this period (Montes et al., 2016; González-Sampériz et al., 2017). Riparian  
432 vegetation was also exploited during the Bronze Age as indicated by the direct  
433 radiocarbon dates of ash (*Fraxinus* sp.) and willow (*Salix* sp.). Hazel (*Corylus avellana*)  
434 could certainly be part of the undergrowth of the mixed pine-oak sub-Mediterranean  
435 forest, although it also sometimes accompanies riparian vegetation (San-Miguel-Ayanz  
436 et al., 2016). On the other hand, with regards to the raw materials of the objects assigned  
437 to the Roman period, there is a clear predominance of Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis*), a  
438 thermophilous tree species that still grows around the site, forming a typical  
439 Mediterranean pine forest.

440 Vegetable fibres used as raw material for basketry elements and the “knot” would  
441 probably have been deliberately selected due to their pliability and strength among the  
442 available species. Willows (*Salix* sp.) belongs to a genus including around 400 species of  
443 deciduous trees and shrubs of which the secondary xylem (wood) cannot be distinguished  
444 to species on the basis of the variation of its anatomical features. They are found primarily  
445 on moist soils, as an important part of the European riparian forests. Either bast or thin  
446 rods from willow can be woven into wicker, this species being greatly valued as it is less  
447 likely to split while being woven than many other woods. Willow is often gathered for  
448 this purpose during the spring when young shoots are still pliable and have not yet  
449 developed new growth. It must therefore be taken into account that the ease of procuring

450 sufficient quantities of this raw material depends on the time of year. Hazel (*Corylus*  
451 *avellana*) is a shrub common in many European woodlands reaching 3 – 8m in height.  
452 The wood of hazel is a traditional material used for basketry, fabrics and cordage, among  
453 other uses. It is traditionally grown as a coppice, so that regenerating shoots may be  
454 harvested every few years, with narrow and regular poles being used for different  
455 purposes. The use of both willow (*Salix* sp.) and hazel (*Corylus avellana*) wood bast  
456 fibres is traditionally common, and well-documented in Prehistory and Antiquity.  
457 Northern Europe, containing a high number of localities that permit the conservation of  
458 plant material, contains the best examples (Bennike et al., 1986; Myking, 2005; Russell  
459 et al., 2007; Andersen 2013; Harris and Jones, 2017). A particularly ancient example of  
460 this technology is the remains of a Stone Age (9140±135) fishing net, often called the  
461 “Antrea Net Find” (Karelian Isthmus, Finland), made of willow bast (Salicaceae)  
462 (Miettinen et al., 2014).

463 As previously stated, wood selection was probably made following two principal criteria:  
464 its availability in the environment, and its technical and morphological characteristics.  
465 Tree species such as pine (*Pinus* sp. *sylvestris*) and oak (*Quercus* sp. deciduous) generally  
466 produce straight trunks, and are therefore appreciated as materials for carpentry and  
467 building. The votive containers that we find in this funerary context would also have been  
468 highly suitable for a utilitarian use, as very common species are used, probably selected  
469 for the high density of their wood, especially in the case of oak, and for their resistance  
470 to transversal compression (Castroviejo et al., 1986-2012). The other objects that  
471 undoubtedly involve a more complex manufacturing process, in this case the comb and  
472 the spindle-shaped object, are made of woods that are exceptionally easy to work. Both  
473 ash (*Fraxinus* sp.) and box (*Buxus sempervirens*) are greatly valued for the manufacture  
474 of small utilitarian objects due to the density and weight of their wood, as well as its  
475 resistance to splitting and decay (Castroviejo et al., 1986-2012).

476 The use of boxwood as a raw material in the manufacture of the Moro de Alins’ comb  
477 deserves a special mention. The use of different varieties of boxwood as the raw material  
478 for the manufacture of this type of object has been documented in archaeological contexts  
479 from very diverse periods and with a surprising geographical range. The Balearic combs,  
480 made of *Buxus balearica*, are well known due to their exceptional preservation and fairly  
481 frequent presence in burial caves (Veny 1982; Pons Homar 1999; Lull *et al.* 1999; Buxó  
482 y Piqué 2008; Picornell 2012). The oldest known examples, such as the Neolithic comb  
483 of La Draga (Banyoles) (Palomo et al., 2013), have also been made with boxwood, as is  
484 the case for the few known examples from the Roman and medieval periods (Pugsley,  
485 2003; Derks and Vos, 2010; Mumcuoglu and Hadas, 2011; Costa-Vaz et al., 2016). We  
486 also find interesting examples of combs made of respective local varieties of boxwood in  
487 more distant locations, from Egypt (Derks and Vos, 2010) to the Jomon and Kofun  
488 cultures in Japan (Kizawa, 2011). There has been much speculation about the selection  
489 of this raw material for the manufacture of this specific object. Beyond the suitability of  
490 boxwood for the manufacturing of small and intricate objects, other hypotheses related to  
491 a ritual use of this species have been raised. It is also the case that boxwood combs

492 sometimes appear far from the presumed natural distribution areas of this species. The  
493 case of the Moro de Alins' boxwood comb is also striking. This cave is located in the  
494 centre of one of the European regions most heavily populated by this species (San-  
495 Miguel-Ayaz et al., 2016), but the occurrence of boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens*) in this  
496 assemblage is scarce, except for the small comb.

## 497 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

498 This study provides new information on the subject of the archaeology of “short-lived  
499 materials” or Ephemeral Archaeology, for which data is generally scarce given the  
500 perishability of these materials. The lack of information about the perishable material  
501 culture of the past affects knowledge of both the raw materials and the woodworking  
502 technology and tools, as well as the types of objects produced. The study of this woody  
503 plant-based material assemblage from Cueva del Moro de Alins has significantly  
504 contributed to establishing the chronocultural periodisation of the prehistoric and  
505 historical activity within the cave. The majority of the plant-based materials studied were  
506 assigned to the Bronze Age, some of which probably had a funerary function. Others have  
507 been assigned to a cache deposited during the Late Antiquity. We have documented the  
508 use of local woody plant raw material that has contributed to understanding the Pre-  
509 Pyrenean environment, the evolution of the vegetative cover, and the forest resource  
510 availability in the surroundings of the cavity. When these materials are compared to other  
511 European contexts, the existence of recognizable classes of objects present over a large  
512 geographical range is revealed, for example in the case of the wooden combs commonly  
513 associated with funerary contexts. However, the limited number of these types of objects  
514 prevents a typological evolution of these products to be established, as is possible with  
515 manufactured objects made of common and durable materials such as pottery, flint or  
516 metal. Based on available archaeological research, in respect to woody plant-based  
517 materials, there is a continuity of object type, raw materials, and woodworking  
518 technology, observed from Prehistory to the handcrafted productions of the 20th century.

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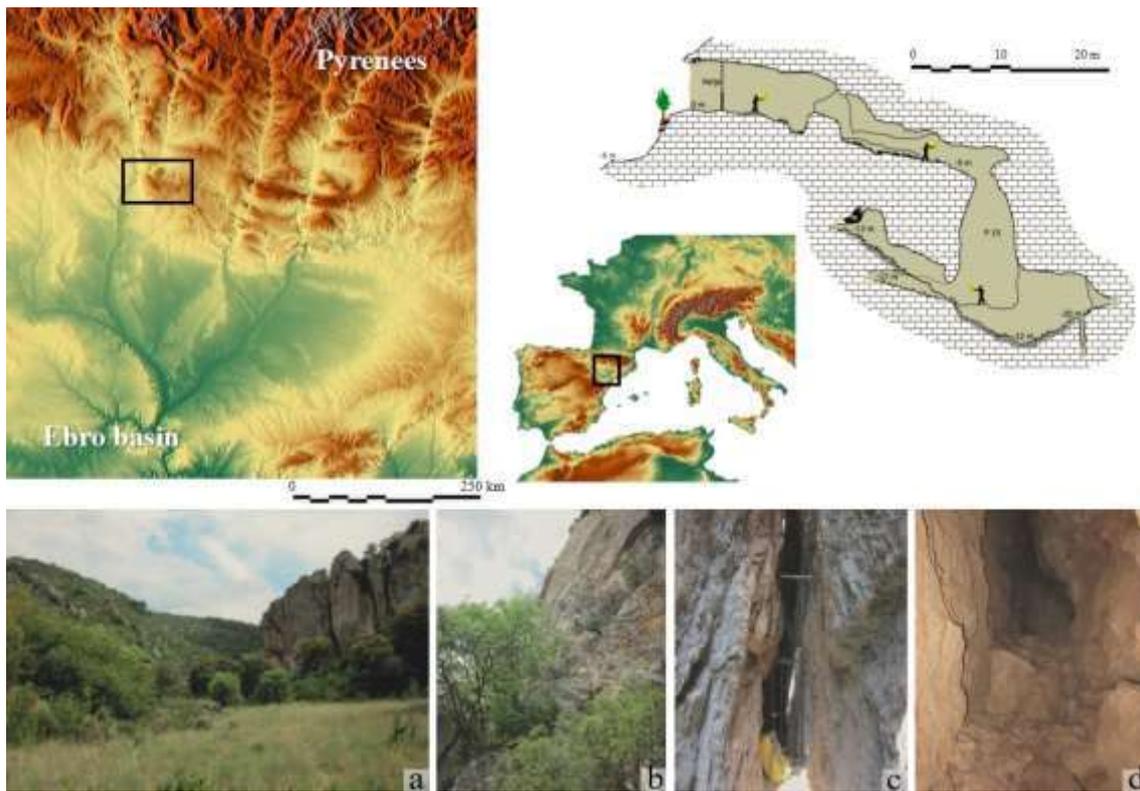
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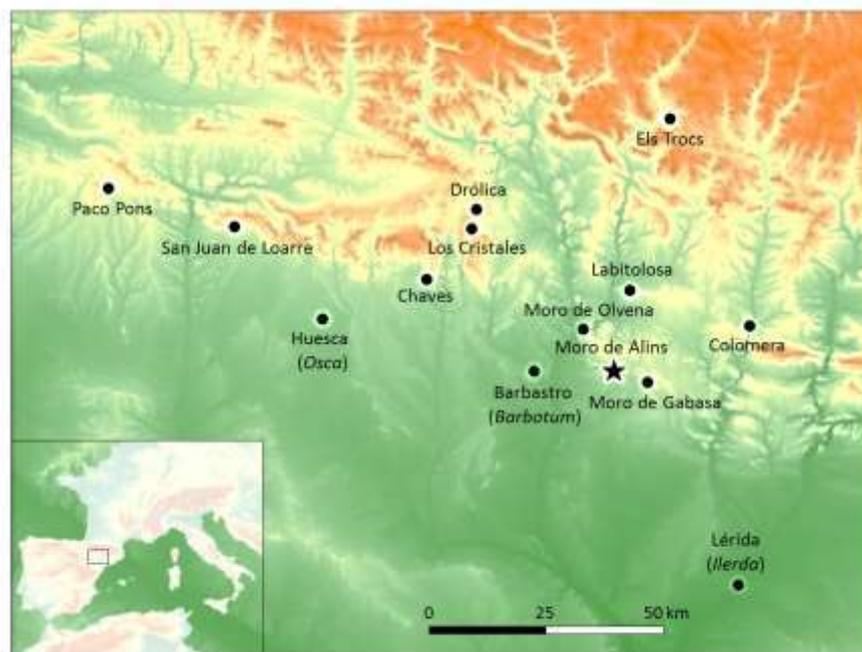
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778 **Figure captions**



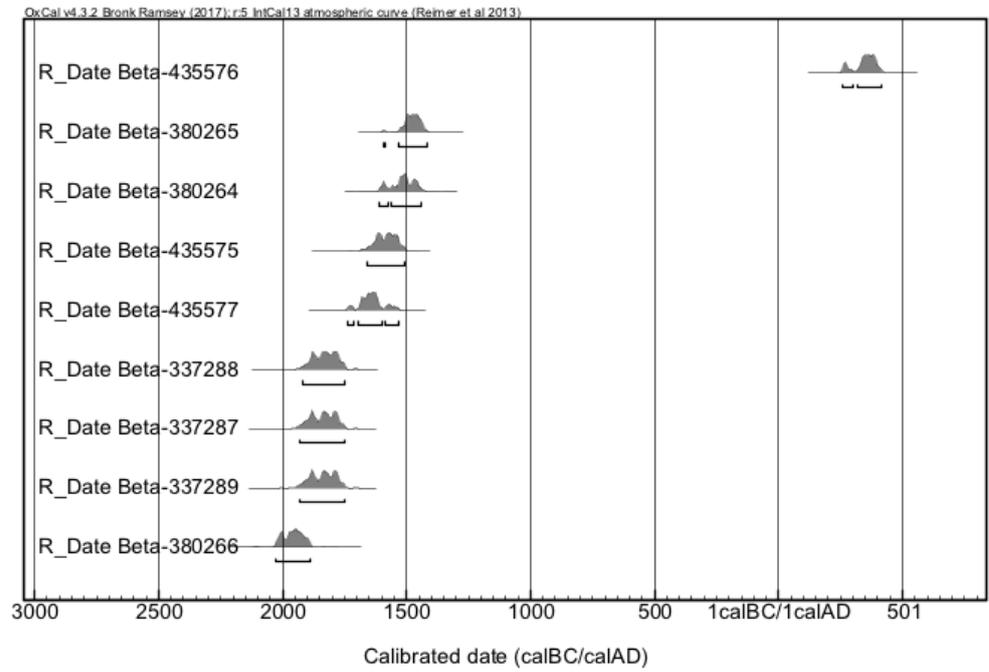
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780 Figure 1. Location of Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca): (a) Barranco de las carboneras  
781 Cliff; (b) escarpment with the entrance of the cave (behind and to the right of the tree);  
782 (c) entrance of the cave and gate; (d) eastern end of the lower gallery. Topography and  
783 photographs: Aragon Speleology Centre (CEA).



784

785 Figure 2. Location of the main archaeological sites mentioned in the text.



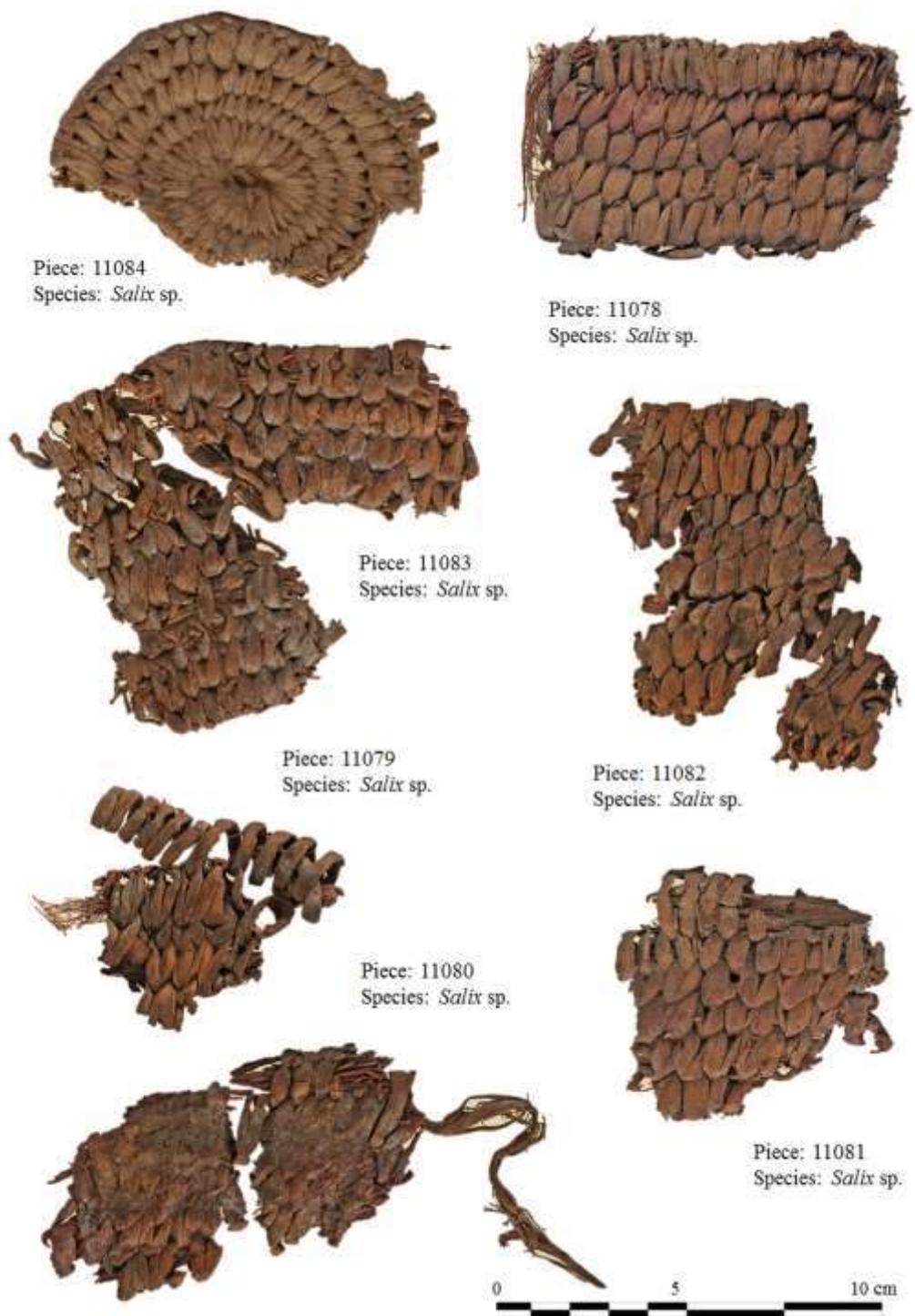
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787 Figure 3. Calibrated radiocarbon dates from Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca). Multiplot  
 788 was generated in Oxcal version 4.3 with IntCal13 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009).

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 791 Figure 4. Microscopic observation of wood anatomical features for taxa determination.  
 792 A. *Salix* sp. Tangential section. Incident light microscope (100x). B. *Salix* sp. Radial  
 793 section. Incident light microscope (100x). C. *Pinus* tp. *sylvestris*. Tangential section.  
 794 Optical microscope (400x). D. *Pinus* tp. *sylvestris*. Radial section. Optical microscope  
 795 (400x). E. *Quercus* sp. deciduous. Tangential section. Optical microscope (100x). F.  
 796 *Quercus* sp. deciduous. Tangential section. Optical microscope (200x). G. *Corylus*  
 797 *avellana*. Radial section. Optical microscope (200x). H. *Corylus avellana*. Radial section.  
 798 Optical microscope (200x).  
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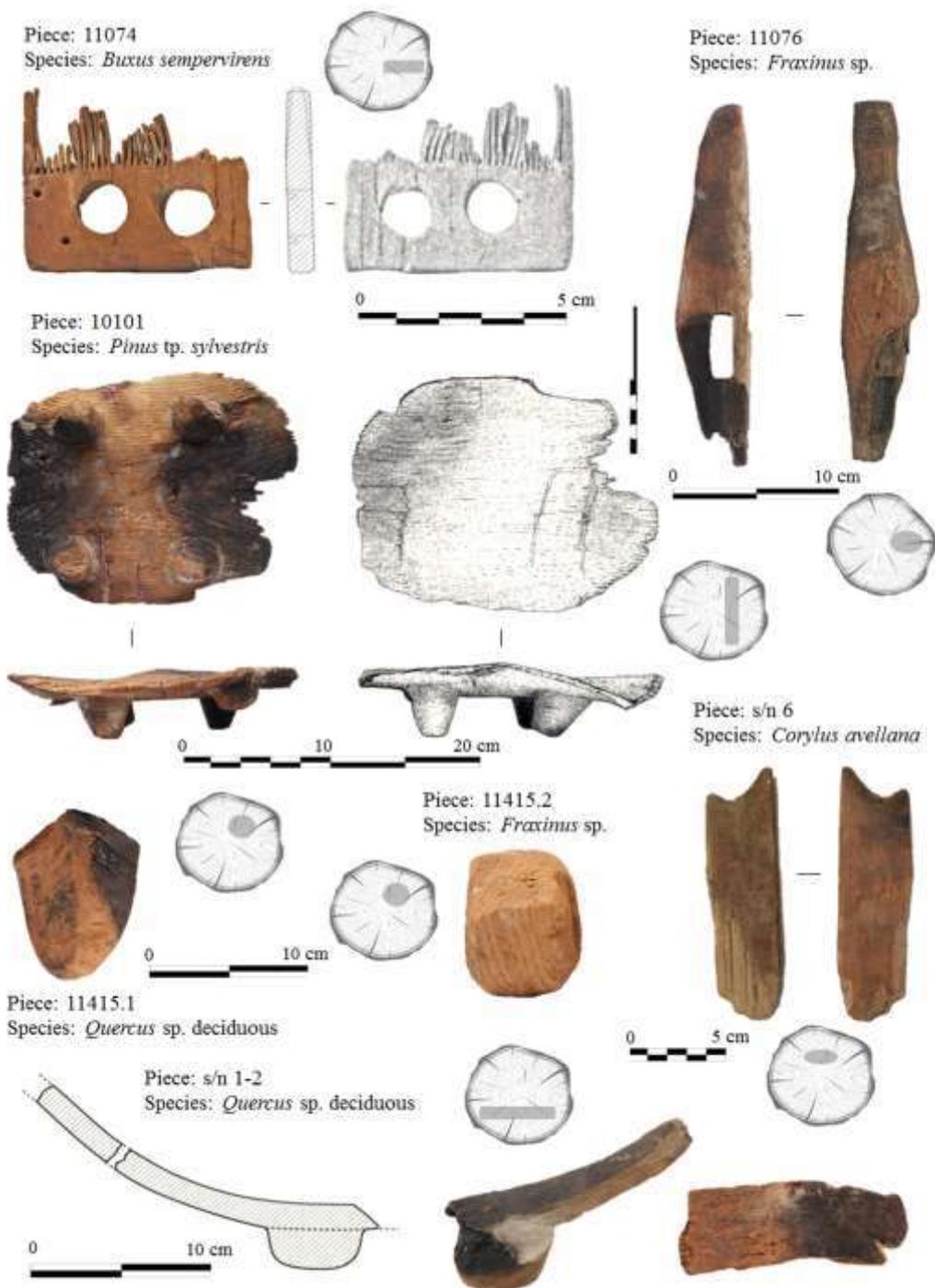


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802 Figure 5. Basketry fragments from Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca). Photographs: M.  
803 Bea.

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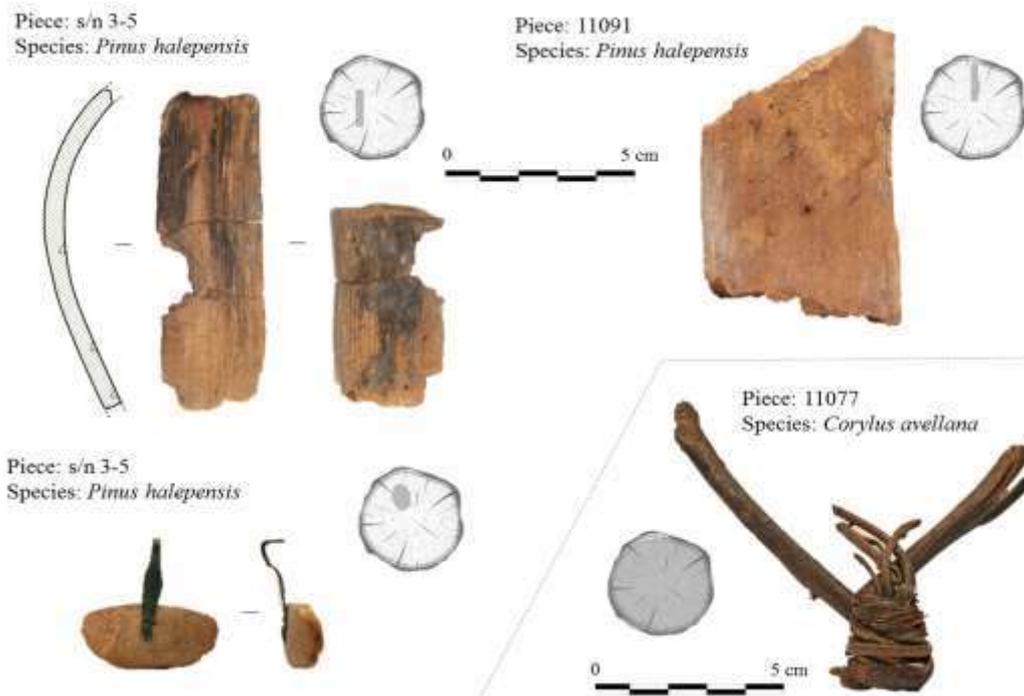


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807 Figure 6. Wooden artefacts and hazel knot from Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca).  
808 Photographs: M. Bea / C. Mazo. Draws: M.C. Sopena.

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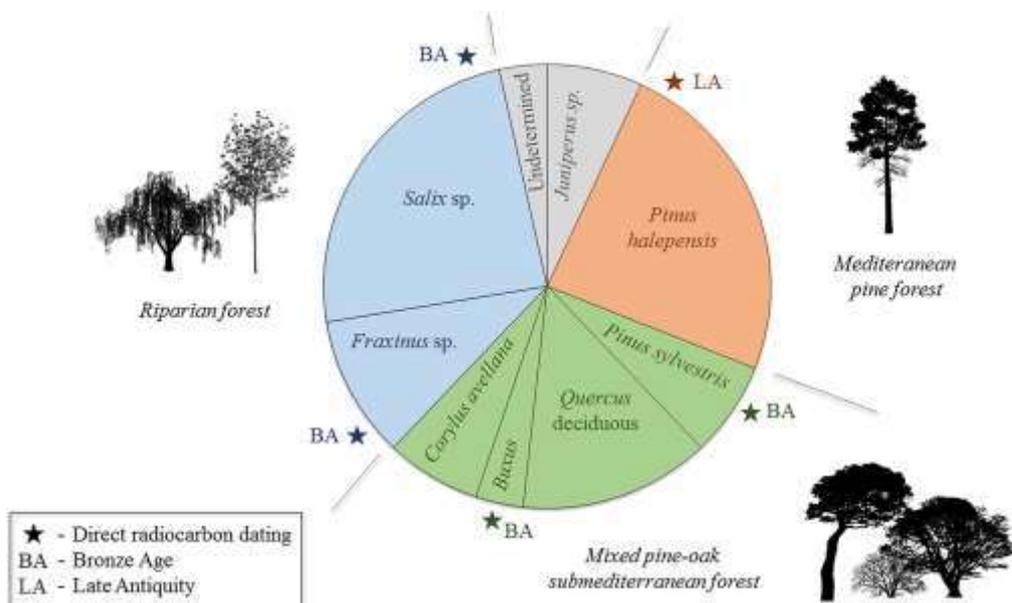
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812 Figure 7. Wooden artefacts from Cueva del Moro de Alins (Huesca). Photographs: M.  
813 Bea / C. Mazo. Draws: M.C. Sopena.

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815

816 Figure 8. Reconstruction of exploited plant communities for the procurement of wood  
817 as a raw material.