

1           **A SOUTHERN REFUGIUM FOR TEMPERATE TREE SPECIES IN THE**  
2           **MEDITERRANEAN MOUNTAINS OF EL PORT MASSIF (NE IBERIA):**  
3           **CHARCOAL ANALYSIS AT COVA DEL VIDRE**

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12          Holocene, *Taxus baccata*, *Fagus sylvatica*, *Abies alba*.

13  
14          Abstract

15  
16          This study focuses on the analysis of wood charcoal from Cova del Vidre (Roquetes,  
17          Tarragona, Spain). This cave, located at an altitude of 1,000 m a.s.l., is a key site for  
18          understanding the transition from hunting and gathering to farming in a mountainous  
19          region of north-eastern Iberia so far unexplored by archaeobotany. The anthracological  
20          study is based on four archaeological levels from the Epipalaeolithic to the Early  
21          Neolithic dated between 12.9 and 6.8 kyr cal BP, i.e. from the Late Glacial period to the  
22          Middle Holocene. During the Younger Dryas, the record is dominated by a little varied  
23          spectrum of cryophilous pines (*Pinus* sp. *sylvestris*) and thorny shrubs revealing an open  
24          landscape where *Prunus* may prefigure the spread of temperate taxa. In the Early  
25          Holocene, a significant change in temperature and precipitation is evidenced, which  
26          promoted successional changes in plant communities, with a decline of pine and the  
27          sudden rise of temperate/Mediterranean taxa, such as *Prunus* and *Quercus coccifera/ilex*.  
28          During the Middle Holocene, other temperate taxa appear, such as *Quercus* deciduous,  
29          *Buxus sempervirens* and *Taxus baccata*, with yew finally dominating the anthracological  
30          record. The appearance and early development of temperate or Mediterranean species as  
31          early as the Younger Dryas and the Early Holocene periods, in a mountain context that  
32          had long been favourable for Scots pine, allows us to argue the local existence of a glacial  
33          refugium. Differences with the nearby sites in the lowlands demonstrate that altitudinal  
34          differences in vegetation were already established in the Holocene. Furthermore, the site  
35          helps to define the palaeodistribution of *Taxus baccata*, *Abies alba* and *Fagus sylvatica*  
36          in southern Europe.

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## 44 1. INTRODUCTION

45

46 A gradual succession of plant communities occurred in the western Mediterranean during  
47 the Late Glacial period and Early to Middle Holocene. The global warming trend had a  
48 significant impact on vegetation cover, increasing biodiversity and affecting the  
49 geographical distribution of existing species. Pollen records from lakes and peat bogs  
50 generally provide a regional view of plant landscape transformations (Miras et al., 2007;  
51 Vegas et al., 2009; Ejarque et al., 2010; Pérez-Obiol et al., 2012; Cunill et al., 2013; Pérez-  
52 Sanz et al., 2013; Aranbarri et al., 2014; Revelles et al., 2015). Wood charcoal analyses  
53 at prehistorical archaeological sites supply good local indicators, as wood was collected  
54 in the vicinity of the settlements, providing evidence of the woody species and plant  
55 communities present in their surroundings (Chabal, 1997; Heinz and Thiébault, 1998;  
56 Chabal et al., 1999; Piqué, 1999; Allué, 2002; Chabal and Heinz, 2021). Furthermore, the  
57 implementation of wood charcoal analysis in archaeological sequences provides  
58 diachronic information on forest management by prehistoric groups. The archaeological  
59 record at Cova del Vidre, containing successive Epipalaeolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic  
60 occupations, allows us to understand the local evolution of the vegetal landscape and its  
61 human exploitation in the southern mountains of north-eastern Iberia. The aims of this  
62 work are to characterise the environmental conditions in which late hunter-gatherers and  
63 first farmers developed, and to reconstruct the impact of their economic practices on the  
64 landscape. The main questions addressed are vegetation history, climate change and  
65 human impact from the Late Glacial to the Middle Holocene in the Mediterranean  
66 mountains of El Port massif (NE Iberia).

67

## 68 2. ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND BIOGEOGRAPHICAL CONTEXT

69

### 70 2.1. Archaeological background

71

72 The Ebro valley is a key region for understanding the Epipalaeolithic-Neolithic transition  
73 in north-eastern Iberia. South of the Ebro River, human settlements extended from the  
74 coast and inland plains of the Ebro Delta and the Bajo Aragón to the Maestrazgo and El  
75 Port mountains (Bosch, 1989; 2001; 2015; Mazo and Montes, 1992; Bosch et al., 1996;  
76 Utrilla et al., 2009; 2017; Utrilla and Bea Martínez, 2012; Laborda 2019) (Figure 1). This  
77 location allowed the management of different biotopes: forests for hunting, gathering, and  
78 wood supply, and the plains for agriculture and livestock breeding since the beginning of  
79 the Neolithic.

80

81 The late hunter-gatherers of the western Mediterranean benefited from abundant, reliable,  
82 and seasonal resources derived from climate improvement at the end of the Last Glacial  
83 Period (Gramsch, 1981; Thévenin, 1981). Indeed, the beginning of the Neolithic in north-  
84 eastern Iberia around 7.8-7.5 cal kyr BP brought about a radical change in the relationship  
85 between human groups and the environment, due to new needs related to the stability of  
86 settlements linked to crops and livestock management (Antolín et al., 2015; 2018;  
87 Revelles, 2017), as well as the beginning of the anthropic disturbance of the  
88 Mediterranean ecosystems (Roberts et al., 2011).

89

90

## 91 2.2. Biogeographical setting

92

93 The Cova del Vidre cave (Roquetes, Tarragona) (31T 273434 4517052) is a habitat  
94 located around 1,000 m a.s.l. in El Port massif (Tortosa-Beceite), a mountain environment  
95 in the southern Catalan Pre-Coastal Ranges connected to the Iberian Range (NE Iberia)  
96 (Figure 1). Rugged Mesozoic limestone lithology results in steep local relief with  
97 pronounced slopes and deep ravines. The highest altitude is reached in the Caro Mountain  
98 (1,447 m a.s.l.) while the Mediterranean Sea is located less than 50 km from the site. The  
99 mouth of the cave, facing east-northeast, offers a wide panoramic view including the  
100 Lower Ebro Basin and the Ebro Delta (Bosch, 2015; 2016).

101

102 The current vegetation in this massif is unique, as if it were an island of vegetation. The  
103 high diversity of ecosystems and biotopes results from the transition between the  
104 Mediterranean coastal and continental mountain climates, shaped by the complexity of  
105 the orography (Senar Lluch, 2011). Above 1,000 m a.s.l., a sub-humid or even humid  
106 climate enables the presence of Supramediterranean forests mainly formed by Scots  
107 (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Salzmann pines (*Pinus nigra* subsp. *salzmannii* (Dunal) Franco)  
108 and Portuguese (*Quercus faginea* Lam.) and Pyrenean oaks (*Quercus pyrenaica* Willd.),  
109 occasionally accompanied by yew (*Taxus baccata* L.), holly (*Ilex aquifolium* L.) and even  
110 beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.).

111

112 Patches of Mediterranean yew trees grow in isolation in search of shady places in ravines  
113 and valleys and inside forests of pine, beech and holm oak (Costa et al., 2001). Locally  
114 the yew can dominate dense understorey layers of boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens* L.), as  
115 in the case of some calcareous cliffs in the Maestrazgo (Camprodon et al., 2014). Small  
116 beech forests grow in the Vallcaneres ravine around 1,200 m a.s.l., interspersed with pine  
117 forests, occupying the shady areas at the foot of the cliffs and the stream banks, where the  
118 water deficit of the Mediterranean climate is balanced. They grow besides  
119 Mesomediterranean or Supramediterranean shrubs such as boxwood and various  
120 Rosaceae such as *Amelanchier ovalis* Medik., *Crataegus monogyna* Jacq., *Rosa canina*  
121 L. and *Rubus ulmifolius* Schott (Costa et al., 2001). These small populations constitute  
122 one of the southernmost beech forests in Europe, representing the climatic tolerance limit  
123 of the European beech together with those of Italian peninsula, Sicily and Balkans.

124

## 125 2.3. Site description

126

127 Cova del Vidre consists of a main cave with a surface area of 43x30 m and 14 m high,  
128 and a smaller chamber next to it, to the north, 15x11 m in size and 2 m high. The entrances  
129 of both caves face east-northeast. In the main cave, longitudinal joints are frequent,  
130 including a zenithal one that allows water to enter the cave without flooding it, thus  
131 contributing to its habitability (Bosch, 2001; 2015; 2016).

132

133 The presence of prehistoric occupations at Cova del Vidre has been known since the 19th  
134 century. Archaeological work undertaken in the 1940s revealed the existence of a  
135 stratified archaeological sequence ranging from the late Upper Palaeolithic to the Early  
136 Neolithic. More recent archaeological excavations, conducted by J. Bosch's team in 1992,  
137 accomplished the absolute radiocarbon dating of the occupations in the cave (Bosch,

138 2001). Systematic sampling of archaeozoological, archaeobotanical and sedimentary  
139 materials was also performed at the site to obtain palaeoenvironmental and  
140 palaeoeconomic information. Two main excavation areas were sampled in the large cave.  
141 The inner area (named *int*) in the deepest part of the cave and the central area (named  
142 *cent*) in the middle part (very close to the small cave) provided two complementary  
143 stratigraphic sequences (Bosch, 2015; 2016).

144

#### 145 2.4. Archaeological sequence

146

147 At Cova del Vidre, four main human occupations have been documented (Bosh, 2001,  
148 2015; 2016) in accordance with the cultural processes known in the region (Soto et al.,  
149 2015; Oms et al., 2018). Three of them are related to late Pleistocene and early Holocene  
150 hunter-gatherer occupation (Epipaleolithic-Mesolithic). The oldest occupation (layer  
151 2 *int*) belongs to the Microlaminar Epipaleolithic tradition. Radiocarbon dating situates it  
152 during the Younger Dryas (Table 1). Above it, layer 1 *int*, with some geometric  
153 microliths, belongs to the Early Holocene Sauveterroid tradition in the Mediterranean  
154 region. The most recent hunter-gatherer occupation (layer 4 *cent*) belongs to the  
155 Geometric Mesolithic. Radiocarbon dating places it at the onset of the Middle Holocene,  
156 around the 8.2 kyr event (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2007). The Neolithic  
157 occupation (layer 2 *cent*) offers the most abundant and varied material, attributed to the  
158 Early Neolithic Cardial culture. Radiocarbon dating supports its belonging to the Middle  
159 Holocene (Table 1) (Bosh, 2001; 2015; 2016).

160

### 161 3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

162

#### 163 3.1. Materials.

164

165 All the analysed samples came from the archaeological excavation in 1992. Hand-picking  
166 of charcoal fragments was favoured for radiocarbon dating, while a systematic sampling  
167 strategy was carried out for anthracology (Bosch, 2001, 2015; 2016). 947 charcoal  
168 fragments, covering the whole described archaeological sequence, have been analysed  
169 (Table 2). Most of the charcoal belongs to materials scattered in the sediment (n = 649).  
170 The synthetic nature of these deposits makes them good records of the vegetation in the  
171 surroundings of the site during its successive human occupations (Chabal et al., 1999;  
172 Piqué, 1999; Badal et al., 2003; Chabal and Heinz, 2021). The contents of a large  
173 combustion structure (n = 298) from the Early Neolithic occupation (in layer 2 *cent*) were  
174 also studied, providing a snapshot of its last use and enabling a palaeoeconomic  
175 interpretation (Théry-Parisot et al., 2010).

176

#### 177 3.2. Methods.

178

179 Each charcoal fragment was observed in the three anatomical sections (transverse,  
180 longitudinal tangential, and longitudinal radial) using a metallographic dark/bright field  
181 incident-light microscope, allowing magnification factors from x50 to x1000.  
182 Comparisons with current charred wood samples and wood anatomy atlases made it  
183 possible to identify taxa (Greguss, 1955; Jacquot et al., 1973; Schweingruber, 1990;  
184 Vernet et al., 2001; García Esteban et al., 2003). The nomenclature used follows the

185 guidelines in *Flora iberica* (Castroviejo, 1986-2012). The relative frequencies of the  
186 determined taxa are represented in the form of an anthracological diagram with the data  
187 from the layers (Figure 2), made with the software Tilia 2.6.1<sup>1</sup>.

188

189 Photographs of the most interesting taxa (Figure 3) were taken with an Environmental  
190 Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM)<sup>2</sup>. Maps showing site locations and taxa  
191 distribution have been developed in Quantum GIS software v.3.4.13 Madeira.  
192 Chorological maps for the main European woody species are developed by Caudullo et  
193 al., 2017. Digital Elevation Models are available from the Spanish National Geographic  
194 Institute (IGN MDT200). Modern distribution maps and regions of provenance of  
195 European species have been provided by the CIFOR-INIA Department of Forest Ecology  
196 and Genetics of the Spanish Government (Alía et al., 2009).

197

## 198 4. RESULTS

199

### 200 4.1. Quantifications

201

202 Out of the 947 charcoal fragments studied, 13 taxa were determined, of which four belong  
203 to conifers and nine to hardwoods, both trees and shrubs (Table 2). The anthracological  
204 diagram shows the diachronic evolution of the landscape exploited by the inhabitants of  
205 Cova del Vidre (Figure 2). Taxon richness increases significantly from the Late Glacial  
206 period (Microlaminar Epipalaeolithic) to the early Atlantic (Early Neolithic), in  
207 correlation with climate warming. Conifers adapted to cold or temperate climates  
208 constantly predominate, with a decreasing participation of *Pinus* sp. *sylvestris* in favour  
209 of *Taxus baccata*, which co-dominates at the end of the sequence. The appearance and  
210 progressive diversification of hardwoods mainly involves species of the deciduous oak  
211 forest. Weak representations of *Abies alba* at the beginning, and of *Fagus sylvatica* at the  
212 end of the sequence are observed, in accordance with the altitudinal conditions.

213

214 The differences between the contents of the large combustion structure and the scattered  
215 charcoal from the contemporary level (layer 2 *int*) are mainly quantitative, due to a more  
216 random or short-lived deposition in the hearths. An over-representation of yew and under-  
217 representation of Scots pine type and boxwood are observed in the combustion structure,  
218 as well as the presence of the only fragment of *Vitis vinifera* at the site. These differences,  
219 which do not allow the use of the fire structure to interpret the environment, are consistent  
220 with the 'snapshot' character usually observed in such deposits and may signify either a  
221 random use of wood or an unknown intentionality (Kabukcu and Chabal, 2021).

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<sup>1</sup> License belonging to the Archeobotanical Laboratory of the Autonomous University of Barcelona.

<sup>2</sup> Electron Microscopy Service of Biological Systems of the Research Support Service of the University of Zaragoza.

228 5. DISCUSSION

229

230 5.1. Stages in the vegetation dynamics at Cova del Vidre

231

232 5.1.1. *The Pleistocene hunter-gatherer environment*

233

234 At Cova del Vidre, the layer 2 *int* reveals that during the Younger Dryas (Microlaminar  
235 Epipalaeolithic occupation) *Pinus* sp. *sylvestris* was the most abundant species in the  
236 surroundings of the site. Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) cannot be differentiated on the  
237 basis of wood anatomy from Black pine (*Pinus nigra* Arnold.). In any case, one or two of  
238 these cold-climate pines abounded in the surroundings of the site during this period. Since  
239 the Younger Dryas is a period of severe climate cooling, Scots pine, better adapted to a  
240 cold climate, is the most likely pine species in this area. Nevertheless, Black pine  
241 subspecies are drought resistant and competitive in the absence of dense hardwood forest  
242 vegetation. Salzmänn pine, *Pinus nigra* subsp. *salzmannii* (Dunal) Franco, is the only  
243 subspecies, among Black pines, attested in the macro-remains from the Eemian  
244 travertines of Beceite (Teruel) (Martínez-Tuleda et al., 1986) and also the only one  
245 currently present in mixed stands with Scots pine in north-eastern Spain; for this reason  
246 it should be considered in the present study.

247

248 Other trees and shrubs are very scarcely represented by one charcoal fragment per taxon,  
249 including *Abies alba* and *Juniperus* sp. and a single hardwood, *Prunus* sp. This last  
250 genus includes a large number of trees and shrubs (whose fruits may be edible) that grow  
251 in open forest under cool and dry conditions. It may signal the early presence of temperate  
252 taxa at the site, in a refugium situation. Conifers, especially cryophilous pines and  
253 junipers, are the dominant taxa in anthracological records from north-eastern Iberia  
254 during the 13th millennium cal BP, often associated with *Prunus* (Allué, 2002; Alcolea,  
255 2017). Some sites, such as the Molí del Salt, the Font Voltada, and the Filador (Allué,  
256 2002), also reveal an open landscape, where pines formed the tree cover accompanied by  
257 shrubs well-adapted to the dry and cold climate that prevailed in Iberia during the Late  
258 Glacial period.

259

260 5.1.2. *The Holocene hunter-gatherer environment*

261

262 At the start of the Early Holocene (Preboreal), *Pinus* sp. *sylvestris* continues to be  
263 predominant in layer 1 *int*, testifying to a vegetal environment quite similar to during the  
264 previous occupation. However, pines are decreasing significantly and *Prunus* acquires a  
265 remarkable frequency of nearly 20% in the record. The most noticeable feature about this  
266 period, especially given the altitude of the site, is the appearance of evergreen *Quercus*  
267 as early as in the plains and middle altitudes (Badal et al., 2017). Together with the fairly  
268 high frequency of *Prunus*, this is an indicator of the milder climatic conditions during the  
269 onset of the Holocene (Preboreal). The early and rapid rise of these species probably  
270 reflects their previous presence in the area. Kermes/holm oak is scarce in anthracological  
271 records at this time. It can occasionally be found at coastal, such as La Catiuera (Allué et  
272 al., 2007), and Pre-Pyrenean sites, such as El Parco (Allué et al., 2013) and El Esplugón  
273 (Alcolea et al., 2021), until becoming widespread from the 9th millennium cal BP, in

274 association with other Mediterranean taxa in the lowlands of the Ebro valley and in  
275 coastal Catalonia.

276

277 In layer 4 cent during the middle Holocene (at least 2000 years after layer 1 int), Scots  
278 pine type remains the dominant taxon associated with a significant proportion of yew  
279 (*Taxus baccata*) and a small percentage of such Supramediterranean taxa as boxwood  
280 (*Buxus sempervirens*) and deciduous oak (*Quercus* deciduous). The appearance of new  
281 temperate taxa indicates climate amelioration, certainly associated with the beginning of  
282 the Atlantic period. The frequency of yew of almost 20% (*Taxus baccata*) in layer 4 cent  
283 (further increasing in layer 2 cent) testifies an increase in humidity at least from the end  
284 of the 9th millennium to the end of the 8th millennium cal BP. In this mountain area,  
285 around the 8.2 kyr cold event, there was thus no lack of moisture; this situation contrasts  
286 with the Central Ebro Basin where at the same time populations deserted the sites during  
287 a crisis of aridity (González-Sampériz et al., 2009). This difference highlights a spatial  
288 shift in climate. Besides, at the end of the 10th millennium *Pinus* sp. *sylvestris* forest was  
289 already rare in the anthracological records at coastal sites in Catalonia (e.g. at La Catiuera,  
290 65 m a.s.l.) and absent from the 12th millennium further south at medium altitudes, (e.g.  
291 at Santa Maira, 650 m a.s.l.) being replaced by thermophilous or mesothermophilous taxa,  
292 such as *Pinus halepensis* or deciduous and evergreen *Quercus* (Allué 2002; Allué et al.  
293 2012; Buxó and Piqué 2008; Badal et al. 2017) reflecting altitudinal and latitudinal  
294 dependence of climate.

295

### 296 5.1.3. The first farmers' environment

297

298 In layer 2 cent, i.e. the Early Neolithic occupation, new changes occur in the  
299 anthracological record. The surroundings of the cave were still dominated by conifer  
300 forests. *Taxus baccata* reached its highest values, in the scattered charcoal as well as in  
301 the large combustion structure, sharing prominence with *Pinus* sp. *sylvestris*, which  
302 remains suitable due to the altitude, while *Juniperus* maintains a discrete presence in the  
303 record. However, the taxonomic diversity of hardwoods, such as *Acer*, *Quercus*  
304 deciduous, *Buxus sempervirens* and the Rosaceae Maloideae, must be highlighted. The  
305 abundance of yew indicates a significant increase in rainfall and soil moisture, but the  
306 temperate and Supramediterranean trees and shrubs reflect the improvement in the  
307 climate during the Middle Holocene. *Vitis vinifera*, the wild grapevine, may have grown  
308 in oak groves or in riparian areas. The discrete presence of Mesomediterranean taxa, such  
309 as *Quercus coccifera/ilex* and Ericaceae, suggest the persistence, since the Early  
310 Holocene, of favourable areas for their growth near the site. These thermophilous species  
311 also exist at lower altitudes, as documented in the Bajo Aragón (Alcolea, 2017; 2018),  
312 and the Ebro Delta (Bosch, 1989; Ros, 1996). The large combustion structure reflects the  
313 same pattern of fuel procurement, with quantitative differences of no environmental  
314 significance (which may be due to one-off or intentional collection of yew wood in the  
315 last fire events before the structure was abandoned) (see 5.3).

316

### 317 5.2. The abundance of *Taxus baccata*: increased moisture and leaf-foddering

318

319 One of the most remarkable results of the anthracological study of Cova del Vidre is the  
320 high values of yew (*Taxus baccata*) in the middle Holocene layers. Today, its presence

321 in Europe and the Iberian Peninsula is limited due to the impact of human action and  
322 climate change that has led to its replacement by more competitive plants. Yew is  
323 common in northern Iberia under an Atlantic climate (Figure 4) although the species has  
324 been exploited for its wood throughout history. For instance, in the Montseny Mountains  
325 in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula, the genetics of current yew populations can be  
326 explained by the long-term exploitation of forest species for firewood and charcoal  
327 production, during the 15th-19th centuries (Dubreuil et al., 2010). It is also present in  
328 more southern mountain ranges such as in the El Port massif, and is not rare around the  
329 site. Mediterranean yew trees, probably isolated during the Last Glacial period (Carrión  
330 et al., 2003) and currently in decline, grow in small, isolated populations. In  
331 Mediterranean environments yew finds adequate moisture above 1,000 m a.s.l. In lower  
332 areas, it prefers the protection of shaded valleys, ravines and cliffs. As long as it finds  
333 moisture, it can withstand high temperatures (Costa et al., 2001).

334

335 Due to the low preservation of yew in Holocene pollen records, contrasting with its  
336 abundance in charcoal, anthracology is key to understanding its past distribution. *Taxus*  
337 *baccata* might have had a wide distribution in Europe in the past. Although the first  
338 archaeobotanical occurrences of yew have been recorded at 12-8 kyr cal BP, its spread  
339 throughout the Iberian Peninsula coincides with the deciduous forest colonization (7-3  
340 kyr cal BP) (Martin and Thiébault, 2010; Pérez-Díaz et al., 2013; Uzquiano et al., 2014;  
341 Vidal-Matutano, 2015). During the Early-Middle Holocene, yew appears sporadically in  
342 the anthracological records of north-eastern Iberia, rarely exceeding 5% of the remains,  
343 such as at Plansallosa, Cova 120, Cova de l'Avellaner (Ros, 1995, 1996), La Prunera  
344 (Ferré and Piqué, 2000), La Draga (Caruso and Piqué, 2014), Cova del Frare (Ros, 1996),  
345 Balma Margineda (Heinz and Vernet, 1995) and the Moncayo natural park (Aranbarri et  
346 al., 2018). Only three sites, Cova de la Guineu (Allué et al., 2009), Camp del Colomer  
347 (Piqué, 2016), and Cova del Vidre (this article), record high yew frequencies in charcoal.

348

349 At Cova del Vidre, yew appears for the first time (layer 4 cent) around 8.3-8 kyr cal BP.  
350 During the Early Neolithic occupation (layer 2 cent), it reaches almost 40% of the studied  
351 remains, becoming the plant most used as fuel in the site and certainly a very widespread  
352 taxon in the surroundings. As mentioned in section 2.2, this conifer still grows in the El  
353 Port massif (Tortosa-Beceite) today (Figure 4) (Costa et al., 2001; Senar Lluch, 2011;  
354 Camprodon et al., 2014). Its importance in the territory was probably much greater during  
355 the Neolithic.

356

357 If we consider the large combustion structure contemporary with the 2 cent layer,  
358 showing its last use or uses, the percentage rises to 86%. Random use cannot be ruled out,  
359 but it is also possible that yew was voluntarily sourced for specific uses. Among these,  
360 uses as fuel and fodder or for sanitary purposes in sheepfolds have been mentioned. The  
361 leaves, despite their known toxicity due to the presence of an alkaloid (particularly  
362 harmful to horses) are still occasionally used as fodder for livestock (Costa et al., 2001).  
363 These practices have been considered in archaeological sites in Mediterranean  
364 mountainous areas, in cases when the taxon is abundant among the charcoal (Delhon et  
365 al., 2008; Allué et al., 2009; Martin and Thiébault, 2010; Martin et al., 2012, Piqué et al  
366 2018). At Cova del Vidre, Neolithic leaf-foddering of livestock may have taken advantage  
367 of the natural abundance of this species. Its wood was then reused as fuel for fire.

368

### 369 5.3. The unexpected presence of *Abies* in the eastern Iberian Range

370

371 The find of *Abies* during the Epipaleolithic occupation of Cova del Vidre (10,740 BP) is  
372 very interesting, as fir is currently absent from the area. The silver fir (*Abies alba*) is  
373 native to the mountains of Europe. Its current southern limit coincides with the Parc  
374 Natural del Montseny (Barcelona) in the Spanish Pyrenees. The former distribution of  
375 *Abies* in Europe has been addressed by several authors in recent years (Terhürne-Berson  
376 et al., 2004; Muller et al., 2007; Liepelt et al., 2009; Pèlachs et al., 2009; Alba-Sánchez  
377 et al., 2010; Cunill et al., 2015).

378

379 According to Terhürne-Berson et al. (2004) to date there is a lack of *Abies* macroremains  
380 between 11500 and 10500 BP, whereas the records from Italy and Greece indicate more  
381 than 10% of *Abies* at this time. Based on pollen records (Pérez-Obiol and Julià, 1992)  
382 these authors proposed a potential long-lasting refugia for *Abies* in the eastern Pyrenees,  
383 joining those proposed by Huntley and Birks (1983) and Bennett et al. (1991). The  
384 hypothesis of an isolated refugium area that has not played any role in the spread of *Abies*  
385 is supported by the results of isozyme studies on genetic markers (Konnert and Bergmann,  
386 1995) indicating that they are clearly separate from those in other European regions.

387

388 Alba-Sánchez et al. (2010) proposed the use of SDMs in conjunction with palaeoclimatic  
389 models and fossil-pollen records to locate Quaternary Iberian refugia for *Abies* from the  
390 Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) to the present day. The results suggest a wider Quaternary  
391 distribution of *Abies* across the Pyrenees Range and also identify habitable areas in the  
392 Cantabrian Range and even reaching the eastern Iberian Range towards inland Iberia.

393

394 The study of *Abies* dynamics in Europe has been strongly associated with other species,  
395 mainly *Fagus sylvatica* (Pèlachs et al., 2009). The two trees coincide in their climatic and  
396 edaphic requirements. They give rise to mixed forests in equilibrium or competition, that  
397 usually resolves itself in favour of, the more aggressive and pioneering beech which has  
398 spread widely across Europe since the Subatlantic period (Costa et al., 1997). The finding  
399 of an *Abies* macroremain (probably *Abies alba*) during the Late Glacial in El Port massif  
400 (NE Iberia) supports the hypothesis of an Iberian Quaternary refugium in the Iberian  
401 Range. The disappearance of the fir and the appearance of beech are consistent with the  
402 Holocene vegetation dynamics in Europe.

403

### 404 5.4. New data about the early appearance of *Fagus sylvatica* in the eastern Iberian Range

405

406 The presence of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) is also noteworthy, although it is a minority  
407 taxon in the record. The European beech is currently one of the most important forest  
408 trees in Europe. However, its presence in this territory is relatively recent according to  
409 palaeobotanical data (Magri et al., 2006). Charcoal fragments, seeds, fruits, and leaves  
410 are parts of plants with a limited dispersion which were probably collected in the  
411 immediate vicinity. Hence, when investigating the location of glacial refugia and species  
412 migration, macrofossils are the most useful records reflecting local vegetation.

413

414 Palaeobotanical data suggest a late and rapid migration of beech forests in central, eastern,  
415 and northern Europe from the Carpathians Mountains only after 4.5 kyr cal BP (Huntley  
416 and Birks, 1983). Nevertheless, the history of beech begins long before the establishment  
417 of the beech forests in Europe. Some beech trees, which require wet summers and mild  
418 winters, survived during the Last Glacial period and the Early-Mid Holocene in glacial  
419 refugia (Carrión et al., 2003). Most of the glacial refugia were in mountainous territories  
420 of the southern peninsulas (Iberian, Italian and Balkan), where the residual populations  
421 could find sheltered and humid places to survive (Magri et al., 2006), avoiding continental  
422 areas, plains, and valleys.

423

424 Macrofossil evidence suggests that relict beech populations existed in the Iberian  
425 Peninsula since the Last Glacial period, in the western Pyrenees-Cantabrian Mountains  
426 (Ruíz-Alonso et al., 2018) and the north-western Iberian Range (López-Merino et al.,  
427 2008). In the eastern Pyrenees the evidence is very scarce (Vernet, 1980; Ros, 1992;  
428 Allué, 2002). Its presence had not been documented until now in the Iberian Peninsula  
429 below 41° N latitude (Figure 5 and 6).

430

431 The archaeobotanical record at Cova del Vidre shifts the southern limit of the European  
432 beech at the Middle Holocene to the east of the Iberian Range, confirming the existence  
433 of a vegetation refugium in El Port massif (Tortosa-Beceite), at least from 7.3 kyr cal BP.  
434 The site is currently very close to small relict beech forests (Figure 6). The topography  
435 generates a particular environmental situation that may have been favourable for the  
436 maintenance of beech patches accompanied by boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens*) (Costa et  
437 al., 2001; Alía et al., 2009), like the Pyrenean beech forests. According to genetic data  
438 and accepted migration routes, Mediterranean refugia are thought to have contributed to  
439 the colonization of central and northern Europe (Magri et al., 2006; Bradshaw et al., 2010;  
440 Giesecke and Brewer, 2018). This attestation of the presence of the beech so far south is  
441 thus an interesting new element.

442

443 5.5. The mountain palaeobotanical record at Cova del Vidre: a Late Glacial refugium?

444

445 The anthracological sequence at Cova del Vidre between the 13th and 6th millennia  
446 cal BP shows a vegetation dynamic that fits into the regional framework proposed on the  
447 basis of pollen records in the NE Iberian Peninsula, with fairly large spatial differences  
448 due to elevation and latitude (Riera and Esteban, 1994; Follieri et al., 2000; Pérez Obiol,  
449 2007; Burjachs et al., 2016). These data reflect the regional response of vegetation during  
450 the transition from the Late Glacial period to the Early Holocene, global warming, and  
451 the effects of human activity. At the more local geographic scale of the El Port massif and  
452 its surroundings, anthracology shows the existence of conifers adapted to the cold within  
453 the predominance of Supramediterranean vegetation, characteristic of montane  
454 environments in Mediterranean Iberia.

455

456 The anthracological record from Cova del Vidre has many distinctive features compared  
457 to other sites in different environmental contexts in north-eastern Iberia, despite their  
458 geographical proximity, i.e. the Bajo Aragón and the Ebro Delta sites (Figure 1). In the  
459 lowlands, thermo-Mediterranean vegetation dominates the anthracological records. In the  
460 Ebro Delta, a typically Mediterranean maquis shrubland is highlighted by the

461 predominance of olive tree (*Olea europaea*), holm/kermes oak (*Quercus coccifera/ilex*)  
462 and heather (Ericaceae) as revealed by archaeobotanical records of Barranc d'en Fabra  
463 (Bosch, 1989) and Molló de la Torre (Ros, 1996). In the Bajo Aragón, continental  
464 conditions are evidenced by the presence of drought-resistant conifers such as Aleppo  
465 pine (*Pinus halepensis*) and junipers, also accompanied by *Quercus coccifera/ilex* as  
466 revealed by archaeobotanical records of Plano del Pulido and El Pontet (Alcolea, 2017;  
467 2018; Aranbarri et al., 2020). In the nearby mountainous sites of the Maestrazgo in the  
468 Iberian Range, cold-climate pines dominate mid mountain areas during the whole period  
469 as revealed by archaeobotanical records of Los Baños (Badal, 2004) and Arenal de  
470 Fonseca (Alcolea, 2017). Supramediterranean elements are important above 1,000 m.  
471 a.s.l. since the beginning of the Middle Holocene (7.2-6.7 cal kyr BP) in El Port massif  
472 as well as in the Maestrazgo as revealed by archaeobotanical records of Cova del Vidre  
473 (this paper) and Mas Cremat (1,270 m.a.s.l.) (Vicente et al., 2009; 2010).

474

475 Therefore, a comparison of Cova del Vidre (this paper) with nearby sites (Ros, 1996;  
476 Bosch, 1989; Badal, 2004; Vicente et al., 2009; 2010; Alcolea, 2017; 2018; Aranbarri et  
477 al., 2020) shows the existence of rather different plant communities in the surroundings  
478 of the sites. The local differences in forest composition emphasize the importance of  
479 altitudinal factors and the Mediterranean influence in the composition of bioclimatic  
480 belts. These differences only become noticeable at the Early-Middle Holocene transition  
481 being already well-established by the Early Neolithic.

482

483 These observations show that the global climate that determined vegetation prior to the  
484 Holocene shaped the plant communities of these nearby sites roughly equally. From the  
485 Holocene onwards, differences in local conditions become decisive, such as (i)  
486 differences in precipitation and temperature due to orography, (ii) differences in water  
487 and heat retention due to geological features, (iii) Mediterranean influences due to the  
488 proximity to the sea and (iv) finally, differential human activities that have completed the  
489 shaping of the landscapes.

490

491 El Port massif currently has the appearance of an island of vegetation containing forest  
492 species that probably originated during the Last Glacial period. Indeed, at Cova del Vidre,  
493 the presence of *Prunus* during the Younger Dryas, followed by its abrupt increase in the  
494 Early Holocene, accompanied by *Quercus coccifera/ilex*, and later during the Middle  
495 Holocene by other temperate species, like *Quercus* deciduous, *Buxus sempervirens* and  
496 *Fagus sylvatica*, echoes the presence of the same taxa today, at more than 1,000 m a.s.l.,  
497 under limiting conditions for these species. We believe that during the Late Glacial, these  
498 taxa found suitable local thermal conditions that allowed them to resist and to restart  
499 rapidly in the Early Holocene. Then, during the Middle Holocene, precipitation  
500 conditions were favourable for their maintenance until today.

501

502 According to Carrión et al. (2003), there is a common misapprehension that Iberian  
503 glacial refugia were confined to southernmost parts of the peninsula, as palaeobiological  
504 and genetics information shows that numerous viable Quaternary refugia did exist for  
505 woodland species in the mountain ranges, both in continental central Spain and northern  
506 Spain. Thus, even if the main refugia for deciduous trees lay further east in the Italian and

507 Balkan Peninsulas, the Iberian Peninsula may have retained sclerophyllous and some  
508 broad-leaved species.

509

510 According to the suggestions of Bennett et al. (1991), in southern Europe trees that  
511 survived in mid-altitude refugia during cold stages probably also persisted during warm  
512 Quaternary stages, constituting long-term refugia with a suitable climate. Trees could  
513 easily have survived at densities too low to escape detection in the pollen record of any  
514 site so far analysed.

515

516 Based on the very early Holocene dynamics of deciduous trees and the current  
517 maintenance of thermophilic taxa in the El Port massif, the surroundings of Cova del  
518 Vidre seem to be a very good candidate as a refuge during the Last Glacial period.

519

## 520 6. CONCLUSIONS

521

522 The present study fills an important gap in palaeobotanical information on medium-high  
523 altitudes in the eastern Iberian Range. Until now, the available records were limited to the  
524 Mediterranean lowlands of the Bajo Aragón and the Ebro Delta. Conclusions have been  
525 drawn regarding (i) the vegetation dynamics in Mediterranean mountain environments,  
526 (ii) the uses of forest resources by the last hunter-gatherers and the first farmers, (iii) the  
527 beginning of local differences in vegetation as a function of altitude-dependent factors,  
528 and (iv) the palaeodistribution of some European trees. The most important points of these  
529 findings are summarized below:

530

531 (i) The Cova del Vidre data cover a period between the 13th and 6th millennia  
532 cal BP. During the Late Glacial and Early Holocene, the anthracological  
533 record is dominated by a spectrum of cold-climate pines and thorny shrubs,  
534 with a diversification of taxa underway. They suggest an open landscape  
535 formed by pioneering, opportunistic, fast-growing, and well-dispersed plants.  
536 During the Atlantic period, an important shift in temperature and precipitation  
537 regime promoted successional changes in plant communities on a long-term  
538 scale. The Scots type pine never disappeared given the altitude of the site but  
539 acquired a secondary role with the gradual establishment of a mixed deciduous  
540 forest, increasing in biodiversity over time, reflecting the consolidation of  
541 climatic improvement that began in the Early Holocene.

542 (ii) Firewood was supplied mainly from the surroundings of the cave. Changes in  
543 fuel use reflect the evolution of vegetation cover. During the hunter-gatherer  
544 occupations, cold-climate pines persistently dominated the anthracological  
545 spectrum, as in the case of Ebro valley records at that time. The extensive use  
546 of yew by the last hunter-gatherers and early farmers reflects an increase in  
547 humidity that favoured the species. In the context of an environment poor in  
548 hardwood species until the end of the sequence, we cannot rule out a  
549 preferential use of this species for livestock feed, with the remaining wood  
550 then being burnt.

551 (iii) A comparison with archaeobotanical data from nearby sites in the lowlands  
552 suggests that altitudinal differences in vegetation were already well-  
553 established by the late Mesolithic (Early Atlantic). While cold-climate

554 conifers and Supramediterranean vegetation predominated in the mountains,  
555 Mediterranean trees and shrubs were already dominant in the plains. Local  
556 differences occurred within a small geographical area due to altitudinal factors  
557 and Mediterranean influence. Soil aridity appears to be one of the main factors  
558 limiting vegetation in the Mediterranean mountains.

559 (iv) Macrofossil evidence of fir, yew and beech is relevant for the reconstruction  
560 of the ancient distribution of these species and sheds light on the influence of  
561 human impact on their current distribution. It supports the existence of a  
562 potential long-lasting refugia in the El Port massif (NE Iberia) where relict  
563 populations of *Taxus baccata* and *Fagus sylvatica* still exist today.

564

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578

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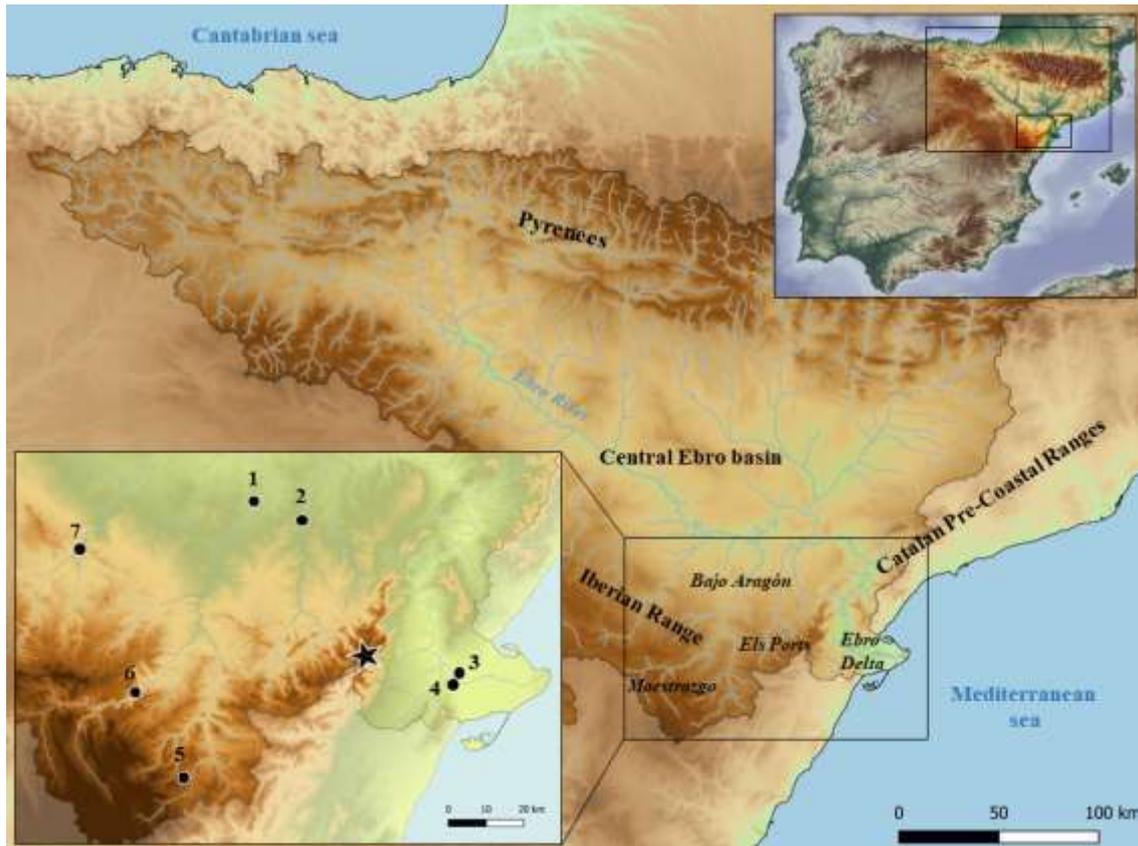
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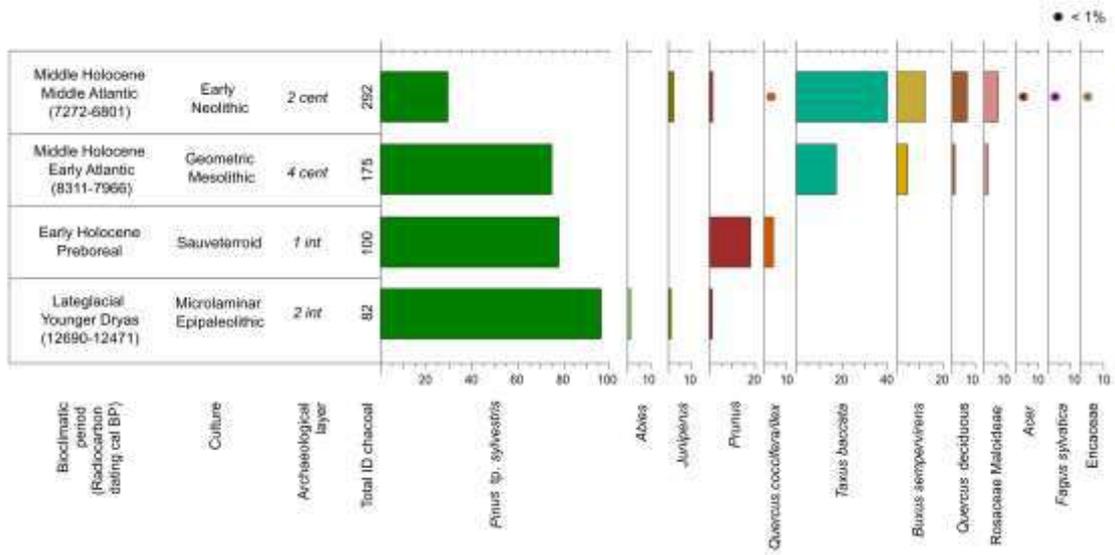


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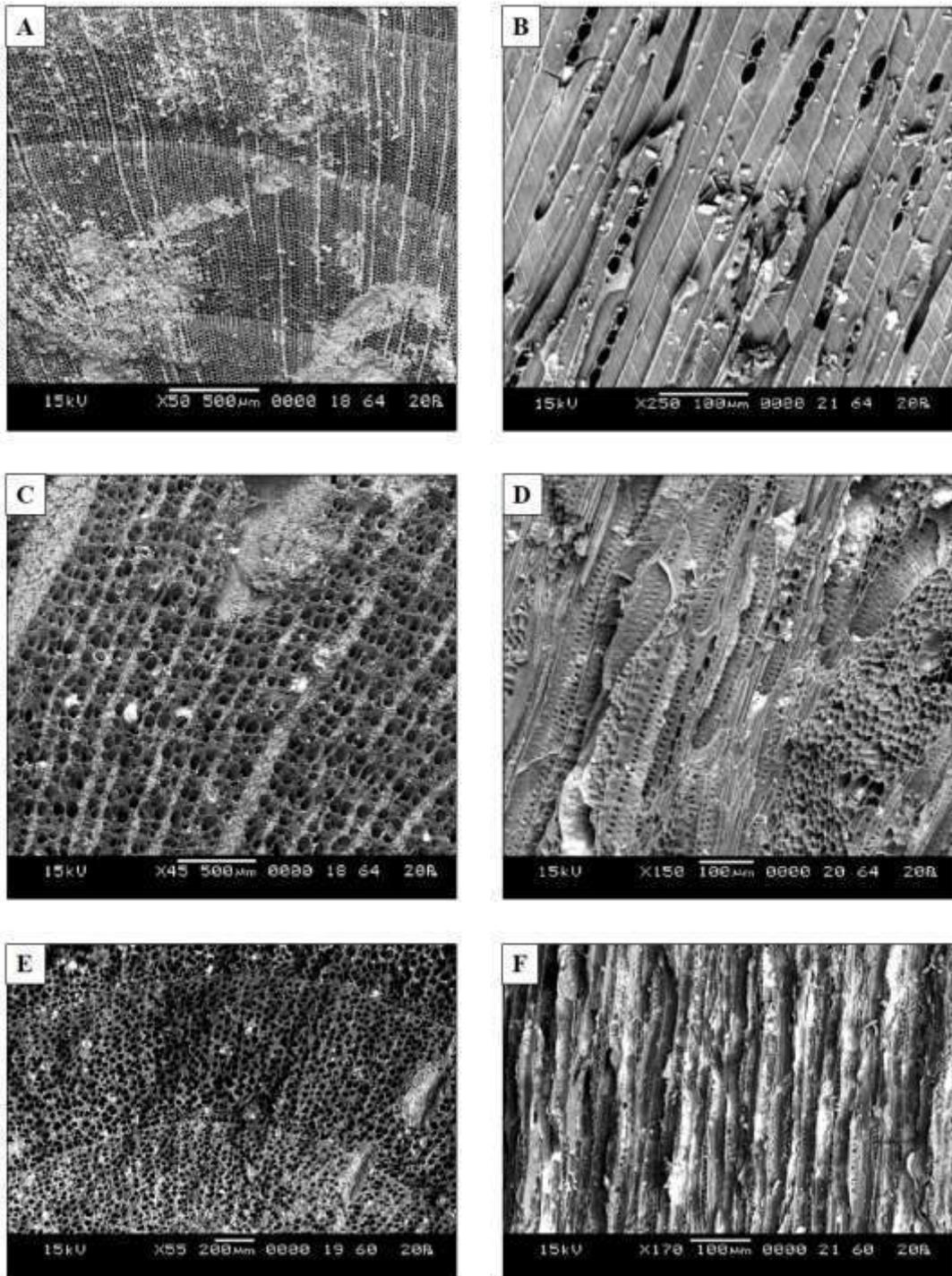
1027 Figure 1. Geographical setting and site location. Black star: Cova del Vidre. Black points  
1028 (nearby sites providing archaeobotanical data mentioned in the text): 1. Plano del Pulido  
1029 (Caspe, Zaragoza), 2. El Pontet (Maella, Zaragoza), 3. Molló de la Torre (Amposta,  
1030 Tarragona), 4. Barranc d'en Fabra (Amposta, Tarragona), 5. Mas Cremat (Portell de  
1031 Morella, Castellón), 6. Arenal de Fonseca (Castellote, Teruel), 7. Los Baños (Ariño,  
1032 Teruel). Base: MDT50 IGN (Spanish Government). Prepared by the authors.

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Figure 2. Frequency diagram of anthracological remains from Cova del Vidre.



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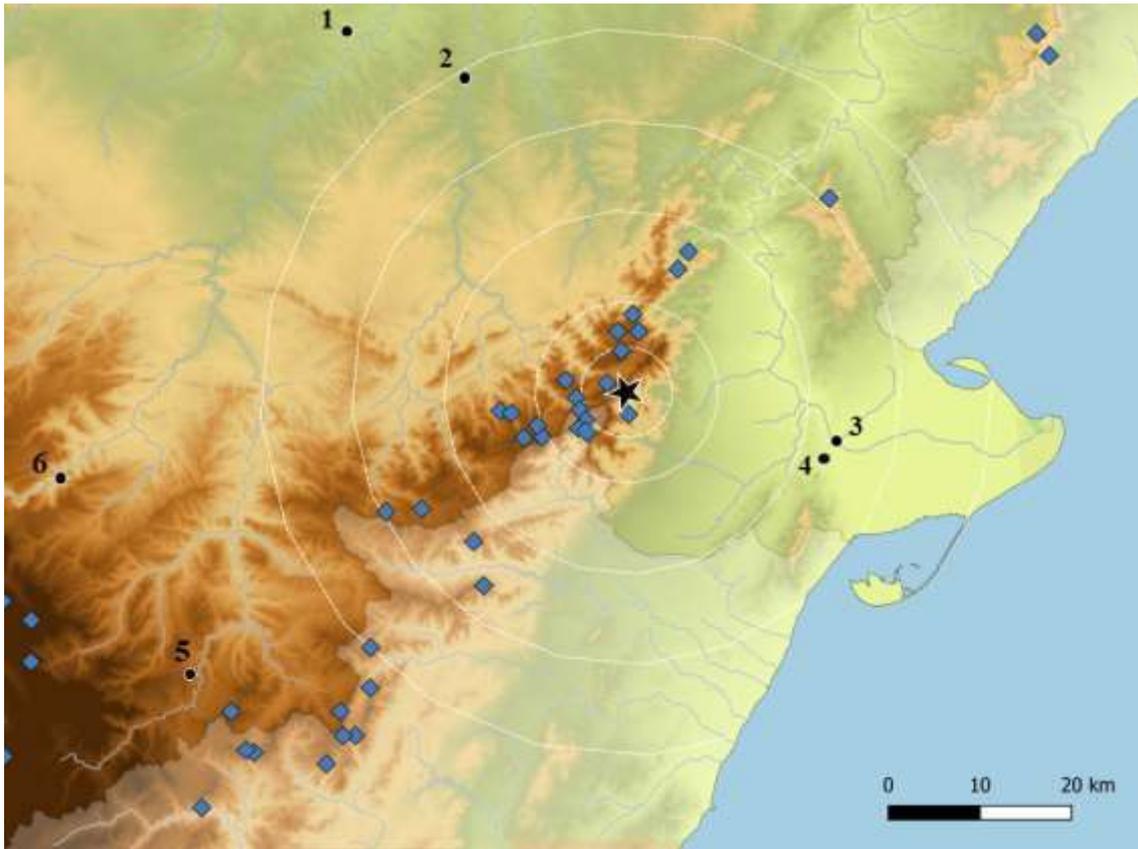
1040 Figure 3. ESEM images of selected taxa: A) *Taxus baccata*. Transverse section, B) *Taxus*

1041 *baccata*. Radial section, C) *Fagus sylvatica*. Transverse section, D) *Fagus sylvatica*.

1042 Radial section, E) Rosaceae Maloideae. Transverse section, F) Rosaceae Maloideae.

1043 Radial section.

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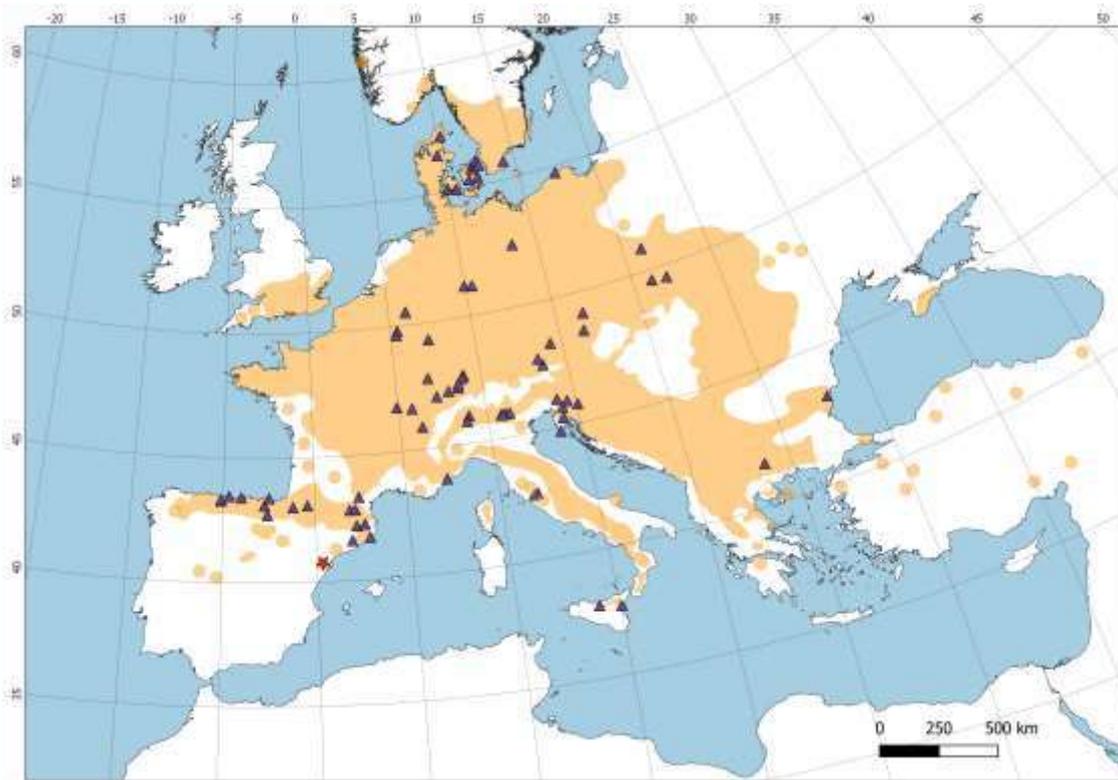
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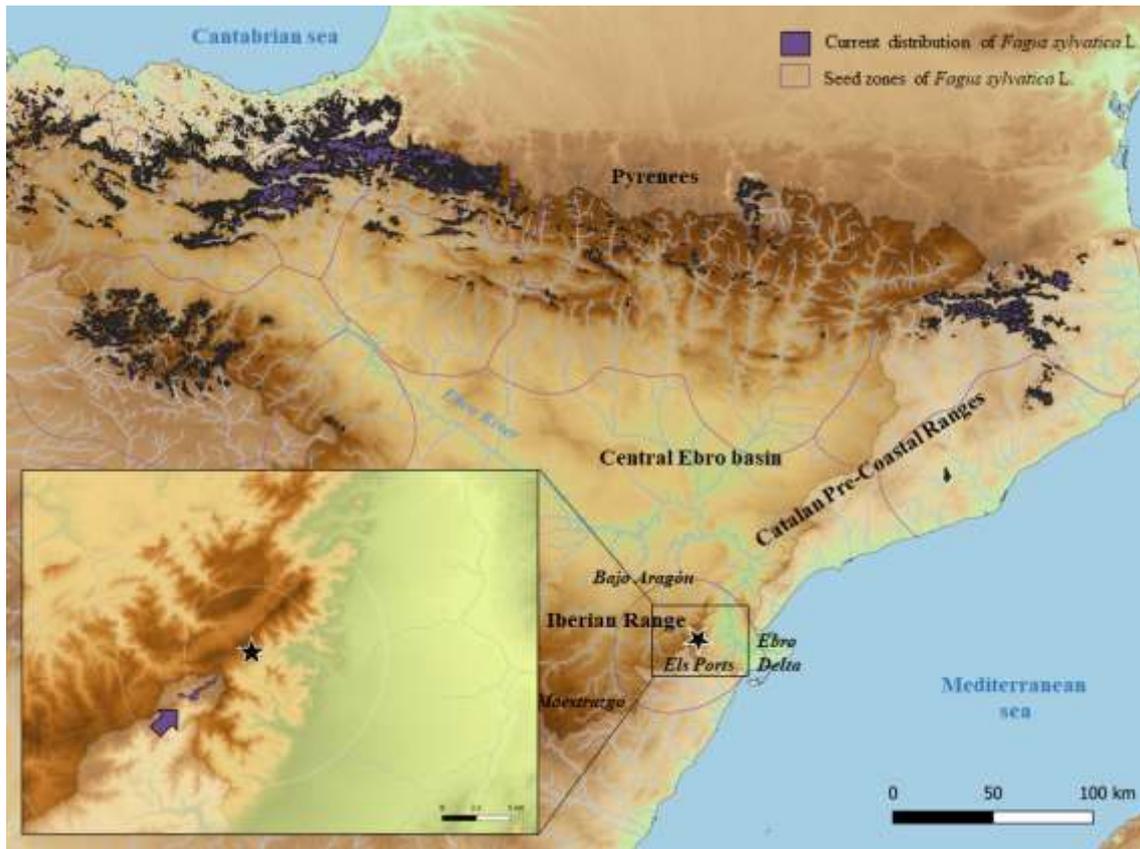
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Figure 4. Current distribution of *Taxus baccata* L. in El Port massif and Ebro Delta (NE Iberia) (blue diamonds). Data from CIFOR-INIA (Auñón-García et al. 2011). Black star: Cova del Vidre. Black points (nearby sites providing archaeobotanical data mentioned in the text): 1. Plano del Pulido, 2. El Pontet, 3. Molló de la Torre, 4. Barranc d'en Fabra, 5. Mas Cremat, 6. Arenal de Fonseca. Dashed white circles: distance from the site of 10, 20, 30, and 40 km. Base: MDT50 IGN (Spanish Government). Prepared by the authors.



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Figure 5. Map of the modern and past distribution of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) in Europe. Orange area: modern distribution after Alía et al., 2009 CIFOR-INIA. Purple triangles: geographical distribution of records containing macrofossil evidence (see references in Magri et al., 2006 supplementary material). Red star: Cova del Vidre site. Prepared by the authors.



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Figure 6. Current distribution and seed zones of *Fagus sylvatica* L. in NE Iberia. Data from CIFOR-INIA (<http://www.inia.es/genfored.html>) (Auñón-García et al. 2011). Black star: Cova del Vidre within the area containing small relict forests of *Fagus sylvatica* L. in El Port massif (*Buxo sempervirentis-Fagetum sylvaticae*) (Costa et al., 2001) Base: MDT50 IGN (Spanish Government). Prepared by the authors.