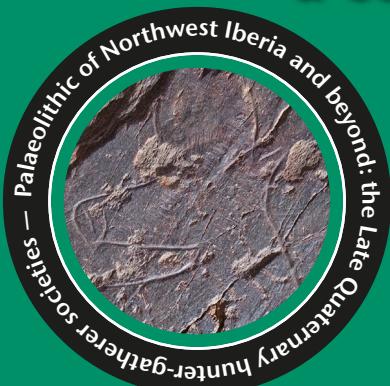


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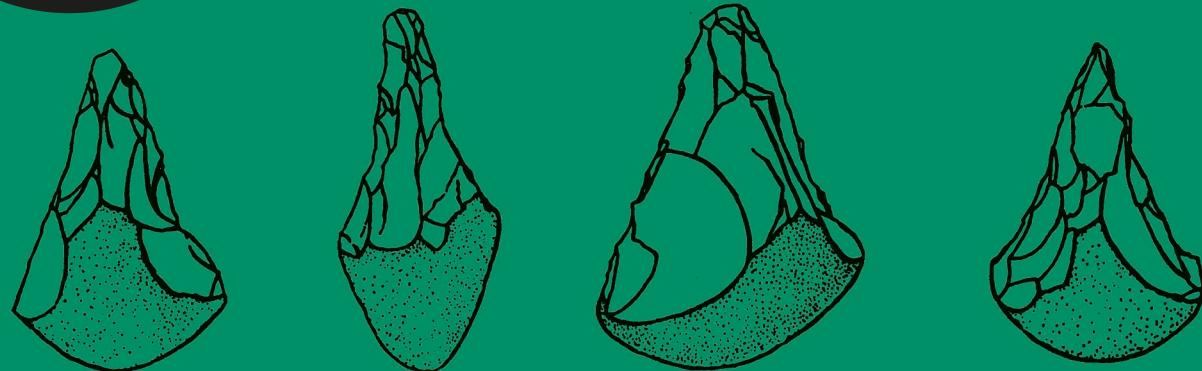
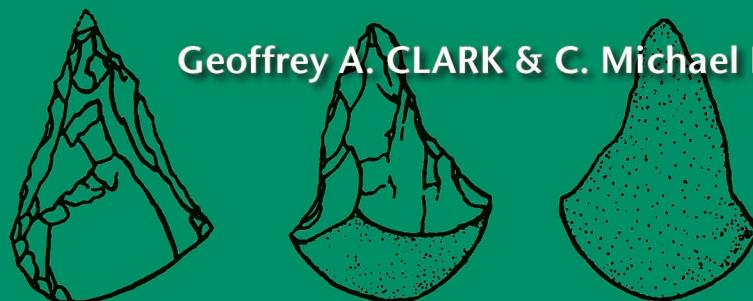
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## The Mesolithic of Atlantic Coastal Spain – a comparison with the Middle Ebro Basin



Geoffrey A. CLARK & C. Michael BARTON



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# The Mesolithic of Atlantic Coastal Spain – a comparison with the Middle Ebro Basin

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## ABSTRACT

This paper compares current evidence for Mesolithic adaptations along the north Spanish coast from Galicia in the west to the Basque Country in the east. Significant questions and issues pertinent to Mesolithic research are reviewed, followed by a brief discussion of advances in method and theory over the past 25 years. Cantabria, País Vasco, and Galicia are compared with each other and *en bloc* with evidence from the middle Ebro over the 12-6 ka BP interval considered to bracket the transition between foraging and domestication economies. Marked differences in the time-space grid, geology, and the resolution of the data hinder these comparisons. A radiocarbon database totaling 610 dates is compiled, cleaned, filtered and analyzed for each region individually using summed calibrated date probability distribution (SPD) curves as a proxy for population density fluctuations over time. Regional curves are then compared with each other and with a global model.

## RÉSUMÉ

*Le Mésolithique de l'Espagne atlantique côtière – une comparaison avec le bassin moyen de l'Èbre.*

Cet article compare les données actuelles d'adaptations mésolithiques le long de la côte nord de l'Espagne, depuis la Galice à l'ouest au Pays Basque à l'est. Les questions importantes et les problèmes liés à la recherche mésolithique sont passés en revue, suivis d'une brève discussion sur les progrès de la méthodologie et de la théorie au cours des 25 dernières années. La Cantabrie, les Asturies, le Pays basque et la Galice sont comparés entre eux, puis avec le registre provenant du bassin moyen de l'Èbre au cours de l'intervalle entre 12 à 6 ka BP, ce qui encadre la transition

**KEY WORDS**  
Spain,  
Mesolithic,  
Atlantic *façade*,  
paleodemography,  
mobility,  
SPD analysis.

**MOTS CLÉS**  
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paléodémographie,  
mobilité,  
analyse SPD.

entre l'économie de la chasse et la cueillette et celle de l'exploitation des plantes et des animaux domestiques. Des différences marquées dans la grille espace-temps, dans la géologie et le niveau de résolution des données entravent ces comparaisons. Une base de données de 610 datations radiocarbone est compilée, nettoyée, filtrée et analysée pour chaque région individuellement, à l'aide de courbes de distribution de probabilité de dates calibrées additionnées (SPD) en tant qu'indicateurs indirects des fluctuations de la densité de population humaine dans le temps. Les courbes régionales sont ensuite comparées entre elles ainsi qu'avec un modèle global.

## INTRODUCTION

The Mesolithic is a concept that has a long history in archaeological research. Populated by the last hunting and gathering societies, it usually refers to the time period between the end of the Upper Paleolithic and the first appearance of plant and animal domesticates in the Neolithic. In northern Spain that interval dates from about 10.4-7.2 ka cal BP (Straus 2018a). Over much of the last century, the Mesolithic was considered the poor stepchild of the Paleolithic, a period of economic, technological, and cultural stagnation – even “devolution” (Childe 1925) – with small bands of impoverished foragers using primitive tools to eke out a living by collecting shellfish and other high-cost, low-yield resources. This was interposed in time between the glories of the late Upper Paleolithic with its spectacular cave art, robust subsistence economies, and hints of social complexity, and the Neolithic, taken as the most significant economic transformation in the human career, and the foundation for all subsequent social evolution (Clark 2009). By the late 1990s, the long accumulation of primary evidence, coupled with the rise of palaeoecological perspectives, had wrought a transformation of the conceptual framework of Mesolithic research so that the current view of the Mesolithic is one of social dynamism and innovation, radical social change, and – in some contexts – emergent social complexity rivaling that of the early Neolithic.

This article consists of five parts. First, we outline four significant questions pertinent to all Mesolithic research – questions that justify studying the Mesolithic as a separate intellectual domain (Clark 2000). Second, we present a brief summary of the methodological and theoretical advances that have taken place in Mesolithic research over the past 25-30 years. These are largely due to generational replacement and also apply to the Paleolithic because the conceptual frameworks, methods, models and often the people involved in the research tend to be the same. Third, we outline what we now know about the Mesolithic in Galicia and in historical Cantabria (the principality of Asturias; the autonomous regions of Cantabria and País Vasco) and compare them with the Mesolithic of the Middle Ebro Basin (Fig. 1). Finally, we compile a large radiocarbon database for the region and deploy summed calibrated date probability distribution (SPD) curves as a proxy for population density fluctuations over time. Regional curves are then compared with each other and with a summary curve for all of Atlantic coastal Spain.

We argue that there were broad similarities in pattern throughout western Europe and, despite differences in timing, the specifics of regional ecologies, and in the tempo and history of research, similar processes were taking place over the six millennia between 12 000 and 6000 years ago. Population-resource imbalances appear to drive most of these changes – climatic fluctuations play only a minor role. We suggest that our data fit comfortably within a general model originally developed by Andrew Christenson (1980) and Richard Redding (1988) that describes and explains four sequential stages in the economic transformations with which all foragers faced with population-resource imbalances must contend. Some lead to the transition from foraging to domestication; others do not. Because these stages have material correlates that can often be traced in an archaeological record, they constitute “middle range” theory useful for addressing process questions of central interest in all forager contexts (see papers in Soffer [1987]).

From an archaeological standpoint, the Mesolithic is an arbitrary “slice” of a temporal continuum – it only makes sense when viewed from the Tardiglacial, on the one hand, and the early Postglacial, on the other. The temporal extent of the Mesolithic varies somewhat from one region to another and, across northern Spain, from Catalunya to Galicia. It is interesting to note that those differences are slight, suggesting a broad consensus on the definition of the Mesolithic. Set against the backdrop of climate change, the salient features of the Mesolithic are: 1) vectored changes in the subsistence economy; 2) the common aspects of the lithic technologies; 3) the disappearance of parietal art; 4) the transition to domestication economies; and 5) fluctuations in population density as both causes and consequences of ecosystemic change. This paper focuses on changes in lithic technology, the subsistence economy, the appearance of domesticated plants and animals, and on demographic change as monitored by radiocarbon databases. We do not discuss the comings and goings of the art, suggesting only that the factors that selected for its expression in the LUP were no longer present in the Postglacial (Barton *et al.* 1994; Clark *et al.* 1996). These aspects are compared across Cantabria, País Vasco, and Galicia, and contrasted with those of the middle Ebro Basin. Differences and similarities are assessed, processes identified, and narratives constructed to describe the trajectory of change in each of them. In these exercises, time is regarded as a reference variable used to measure change due to other causes.

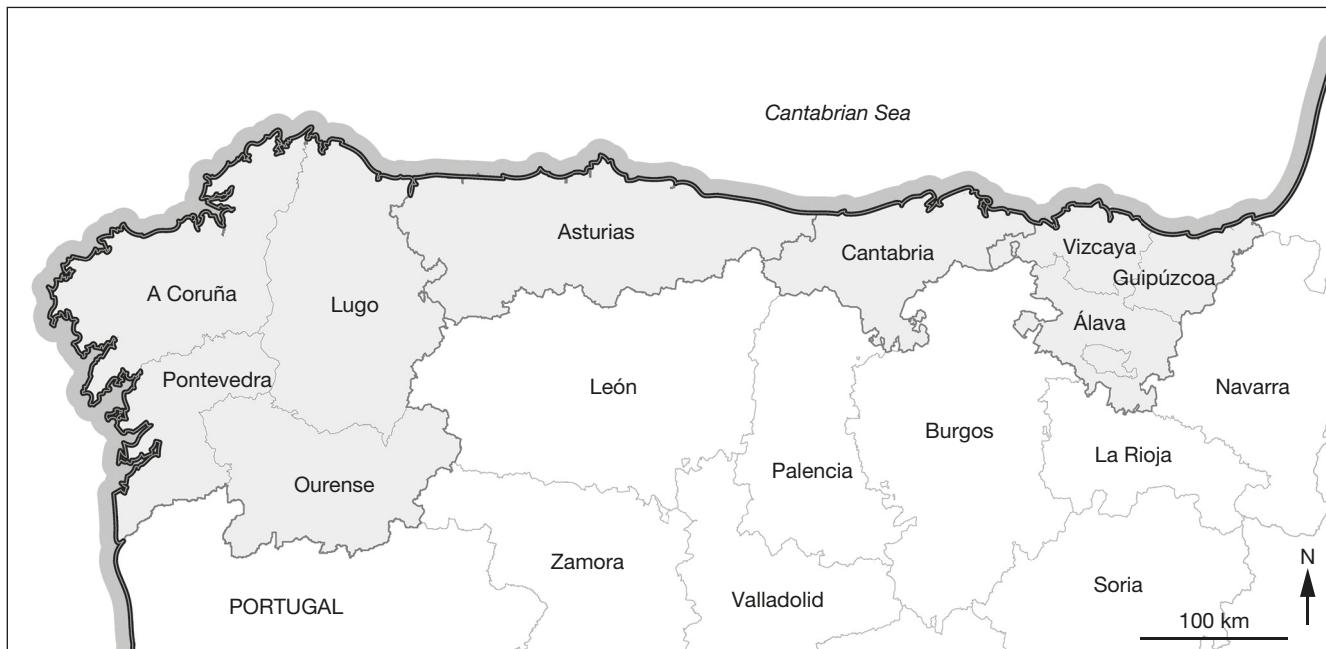


FIG. 1. — The north Spanish Atlantic façade – Galicia (A Coruña, Lugo, Pontevedra, Ourense), Asturias, Cantabria and País Vasco (Vizcaya, Guipúzcoa, Álava; western third of Navarra).

#### PARADIGM CHANGE AND METHODOLOGICAL INNOVATION

After a period of some 30 years of relative inactivity, the late 1970s saw a significant increase in the tempo of research in Cantabria and Asturias that resulted in a 3- or 4-fold increase in the number of known Mesolithic sites (Fano 2007a). That increase continues up to the present. Many workers adopted a loosely-defined paleoecological conceptual framework that constituted a significant departure from the typological approaches that dominated Mesolithic research in Europe from the 1950s to the 1970s. Multidisciplinary research teams appeared for the first time (e.g. González Echegaray & Freeman 1971, 1973). They included geologists, soil scientists, palynologists, lithic specialists, and faunal analysts who replaced the self-taught amateur archaeologists responsible for most Mesolithic research during the first three-quarters of the last century (e.g. Vega del Sella 1914). Refinements of chronology were important in measuring change, mainly through wider application of ever more sophisticated radiometric dating methods. The practice of identifying identity-conscious social units by the appearance of often rare and supposedly diagnostic archaeological tool types was largely abandoned (Clark & Straus 1983). There was a turning away from culture history in favor of culture ecology (Binford & Sabloff 1982; Clark 1993). Landscape-scale environmental reconstruction made its débüt. Efforts to link site and resource distributions over time and space led to a better understanding of how subsistence economies were organized (Freeman 1968, 1973, 1981). Horizontal exposures of occupation surfaces allowed for the detection of different kinds of activities within sites (Clark 1975; Straus & Clark 1986). The earliest models for differentiating site types within settlement systems appeared

(Clark 1983a). New and powerful methods evolved (Barton 1991, 1998; Riel-Salvatore & Barton 2004; Miller & Barton 2008; Barton *et al.* 2011) and were integrated with novel, more sophisticated conceptual frameworks (Barton & Riel-Salvatore 2014; see Kuhn *et al.* [2016] for a more current appraisal). In Galicia and in the Ebro Basin, surveys became an important component of research designs. Research protocols became increasingly quantified (Clark 1982) and, with the widespread use of personal computers, there was a noticeable increase in the application of statistical methods (see, e.g. papers in Wurzer *et al.* [2015] for archaeological applications).

#### THE MESOLITHIC IN NORTHERN SPAIN

Except in Galicia, Mesolithic sites are found along most of the north Spanish coast and to some extent inland in Trans-Cordilleran Álava and Vizcaya (Fig. 2). The densest concentration (*c.* 150 sites) consists of the remnants of Asturian shell middens (*concheros*) found in caves and rockshelters over a 40–50 km stretch of the coast between the Río Deva (Asturias) in the east and the Río Sella in the west. Bedrock in the region is a heavily karstified Carboniferous limestone laid down in a shallow sea and later uplifted, folded, fractured, faulted and eroded creating deep N/S trending gorges that transect a narrow coastal plain some 15–45 km wide. Bounded on the north by the Cantabrian Sea (Bay of Biscay) and on the south by the Cantabrian Cordillera, the region is famous for its many painted caves (e.g. Altamira, Tito Bustillo, La Pasiega). Although there are a few exceptions, Mesolithic sites in eastern Asturias and western Cantabria are seldom found inland, whereas sites in the Basque Country exhibit a bimodal distribution. Coastal sites in Vizcaya and

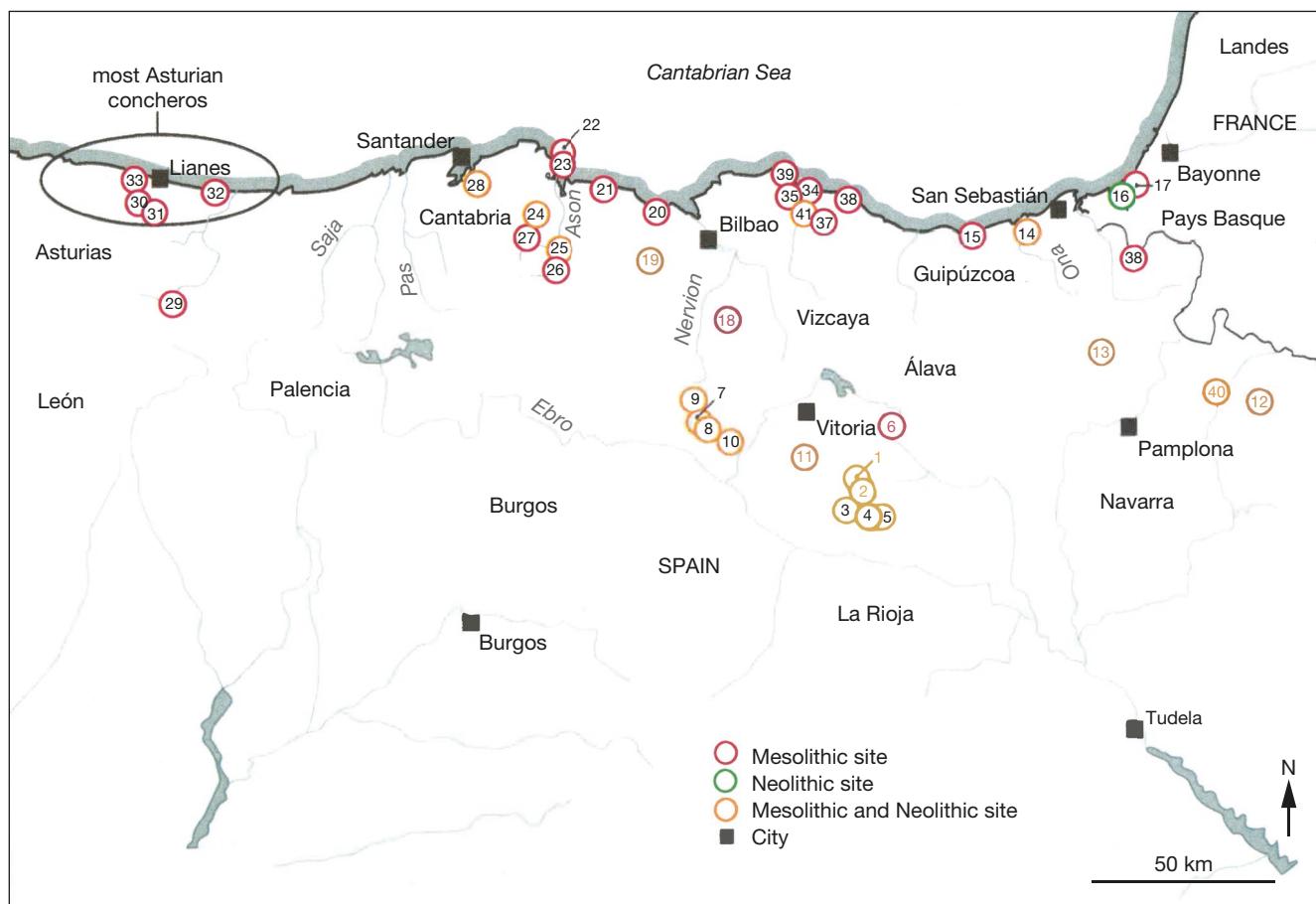


Fig. 2. — Mesolithic and Neolithic sites in Asturias, Cantabria, País Vasco and the Middle Ebro (redrawn from Straus 2008: 303). Sites (numbers): 1, Atxoste Kanpanoste; 2, Kanpanoste Goikoa; 3, Montico de Charratu; 4, Peña Larga; 5, La Peña de Marañón; 6, Kukuma; 7, Socuevas; 8, Fuente Hoz; 9, Berniollo; 10, La Renke; 11, Mendandia; 12, Zatoya; 13, Abauntz; 14, Marizulo; 15, Herriko Barra; 16, Mouligna; 17, Moura; 18, Urratxa; 19, Arenaza; 20, Pico Ramos; 21, La Trecha; 22, La Fragua; 23, El Perro; 24, La Chora; 25, El Mirón; 26, Tarrerón and Las Pajucas; 27, Cubio Redondo; 28, La Garma; 29, La Calvera; 30, Los Canes; 31, Arangas; 32, Mazaculos; 33, La Riera; 34, Santimamiñe; 35, Atxeta; 36, Lumentxa; 37, Kobeaga; 38, Berroberria; 39, Pareko Landa; 40, Aizpea; 41, Kobaederra.

Guipúzcoa are few because a NW/SE trending anticline (the North Biscay Anticline) plunges directly into the sea resulting in a near-total absence of a coastal plain. Inland, in Álava, in the relatively flat alluvial valley of the middle Ebro drainage, both Mesolithic and Neolithic occupations occur.

#### THE MESOLITHIC IN VASCO-CANTABRIA

Although Mesolithic research has a respectable antiquity in all four regions, Cantabria (the principality of Asturias; the regional governments of Cantabria and the Basque Country) has the most “fine-grained” research record and the best chronological controls so it makes sense to start with it here and compare it to the Mesolithic in the Middle Ebro and in Galicia, where research and the time-space grid are not so well developed (see Straus [1986, 1992, 2012] for Cantabria; Díaz-Andreu [2014]; Díaz Andreu & Mora [1995], Díaz Andreu *et al.* [2009] for Catalonia and País Vasco; Aura *et al.* [2011], Fano *et al.* [2015] for the Ebro drainage; Llana Rodríguez [2011], Cano Pan [2012] for Galicia). In Asturias, the Mesolithic is the Asturian. While there are

non-Asturian *concheros* (i.e., those lacking the diagnostic picks) on the coasts of Vizcaya and Guipúzcoa, there are no contemporaneous inland sites, nor do sites with bladelet-dominated industries occur, as is the case in País Vasco and the middle Ebro drainage (Fig. 3). Why this should be the case is one of the enduring mysteries of the region.

#### CANTABRIAN CHRONOLOGY

The Cantabrian late Upper Paleolithic and Mesolithic are relatively well-dated radiometrically, although the chronological boundaries between the phytogeographic associations first defined in Danish peat bogs (i.e., Preboreal, Boreal, Atlantic, etc.) and those in northern Spain continue to be debated (see Neulieb *et al.* 2013 for problems with pollen dating). As anyone who has tried to untangle uncal and cal dates will know, this is a source of almost endless frustration. To be consistent, we use the following equivalencies:

Bølling/Allerød:	13.8-12.7 ka cal BP	
Younger Dryas:	12.9-11.6 ka cal BP	
Pre-Boreal:	10.3-9.0 ka uncal BP	11.7-11.0 kacal BP
Boreal:	9.0-7.5 ka uncal BP	11.0-8.3 ka cal BP
Atlantic:	7.5-5.0 ka uncal BP	8.3-5.8 ka cal BP

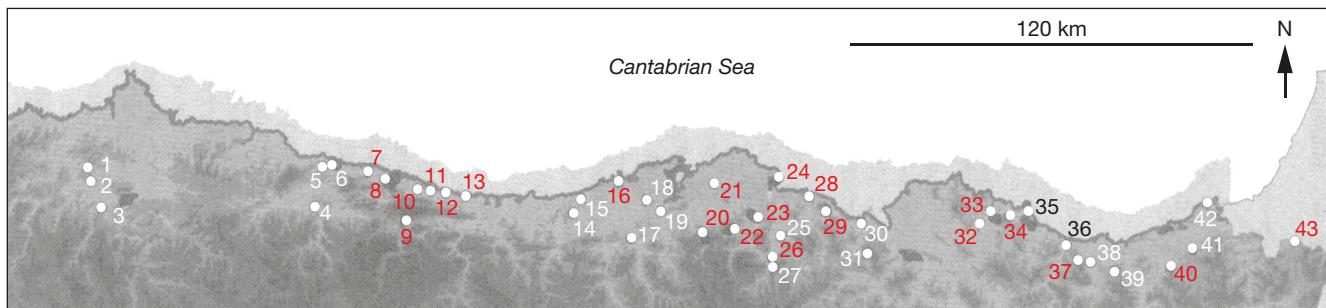


Fig. 3. — Paleolithic, Mesolithic (red) and Neolithic sites along the Cantabrian coast with shell deposits (redrawn from Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009: 62, 364). Sites (numbers): 1, La Paloma; 2, Oscura de Ania; 3, Las Caldas; 4, Los Azules; 5, Les Pedroses; 6, La Lloseta, Tito Bustillo, San Antonio; 7, El Penicial; 8, Coberizas, Poza l'egua, Arnero, Bricia, Cueto de la Mina, La Riera, Lledías, Fonfría, Balmori; 9, Arangas, Los Canes; 10, Cuartamentero; 11, La Llana; 12, Vidiago; 13, Mazaculos; 14, El Linar; 15, Cuvalentes; 16, La Pila; 17, El Castillo; 18, El Pendo; 19, Morin; 20, El Piélagos, Rascaño; 21, La Garma; 22, Cubio Redondo, Cofresneda; 23, El Otero, La Chora; 24, La Fragua, El Perro; 25, El Valle; 26, El Mirón, El Horno; 27, El Tarrerón; 28, La Trecha, Arenillas; 29, El Cráneo, Los Gitanos; 30, Pico Ramos; 31, Arenaza; 32, Atxeta; 33, Santimamiñe, Antoliña, Kobaederra; 34, Kobeaga II, Urtiaga; 35, Santa Catalina, Lumentxa, Abbitaga, Laminak II, Goikolau, Atxurra; 36, Ermittia; 37, Linatzeta; 38, Ekain; 39, Erralla; 40, Marizulo; 41, Aitzbitarte; 42, J3 (Txotxipi); 43, Berroberria.

TABLE 1. — Age of localities in the north Spanish radiocarbon database for the Mesolithic and Early Neolithic: measures of central tendency and dispersion. Northern Spain by zones – Mesolithic dates (334 dates).

Analytical units	No. dates	Mean ± sd		Cal cv	Mean cal BP medians	Mean ± sd		Uncal cv
		cal BP	Range cal BP			uncal BP	Range uncal BP	
<b>Cantabria</b>								
Meso + Neo	168	8055 ± 225	8280-7830	0.029	7973	7223 ± 231	7454-6992	0.030
Meso Only	142	8541 ± 316	8857-8225	0.035	8423	7655 ± 262	7917-7393	0.032
Neo Only	26	5892 ± 99	5591-5793	0.011	5893	5157 ± 71	5228-5086	0.014
<b>Pais Vasco</b>								
Meso + Neo	55	7504 ± 63	7567-7441	0.012	7463	6605 ± 89	6694-6516	0.014
Meso Only	32	8292 ± 93	8305-8199	0.013	8331	7414 ± 90	7504-7324	0.013
Neo Only	23	6497 ± 107	6604-6390	0.016	6495	5688 ± 92	5780-5596	0.017
<b>Middle Ebro</b>								
Meso + Neo	362	7432 ± 60	7492-7372	0.009	7388	6526 ± 58	6584-6468	0.009
Meso Only	150	8077 ± 96	8173-7981	0.030	8281	7412 ± 64	7476-7348	0.029
Neo Only	212	6765 ± 69	6834-6696	0.011	6353	5928 ± 54	5982-5874	0.009
<b>Galicia</b>								
Meso + Neo	25	7439 ± 65	7504-7374	0.011	7394	6533 ± 65	6598-6468	0.010
Meso Only	10	9029 ± 101	9130-8928	0.011	8578	7680 ± 73	7753-7607	0.010
Neo Only	15	6524 ± 76	6600-6448	0.009	6546	5714 ± 58	5772-5656	0.011

We have compiled a database of almost 1000 radiocarbon determinations from north Spanish Upper and Epipaleolithic culture-stratigraphic units identified as such by the original excavators (Clark *et al.* 2019). A subset comprising 610 dates from Mesolithic and early Neolithic contexts in the four study areas is used here (Appendix 1).

The Mesolithic database for Cantabria comprises 142 uncalibrated radiocarbon dates, of which 36 dates from 18 sites pertain to the Asturian. Using a Pleistocene-Holocene boundary date of 11.7 ka cal BP, the Cantabrian sample mean ( $\bar{x}$ ), standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ), coefficient of variation ( $cv = \sigma/\bar{x}$ ) without AAR are  $7655 \pm 262$  uncal  $^{14}\text{C}$  years BP ( $1\sigma$ ), a range of 7917-7393 uncal years BP, and a coefficient of variation of 0.032 (including AAR:  $\bar{x} = 7725 \pm 270$  ( $1\sigma$ ), range = 7995-7455,  $cv = 0.034$ ). The calibrated median date is 8423 BP (Table 1). Regardless of filtering, the uncalibrated dates fall in the second half of the Boreal phase (9.0-7.5 ka uncal BP), whereas the calibrated median falls just before a sharp, very brief cold snap at c. 8.2-8.1 ka cal BP (Boreal/

Atlantic boundary) that apparently had no discernible effect on Mesolithic adaptations (Straus 2018a). The Asturian thus post-dates the Pleistocene-Holocene boundary by about 3100 years and follows the microlithic Azilian (11.9-10.5 ka cal BP), well documented in caves and rockshelters both inland and along the coast, with an apparent chronological gap of c. 1500 years (*pace* Clark [1989, although see below], cf. González Morales *et al.* [1999]; see Gutiérrez-Zugasti [2009: 63-69] for an expanded date list). Based on the uncalibrated means, the corresponding statistics for the early Neolithic (26 dates) and the combined Mesolithic/Neolithic sample (168 dates) indicate that the Cantabrian Neolithic – on average – postdates the Mesolithic by about 2500 years (Table 1).

#### CANTABRIAN SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

We have a pretty good idea of what Asturian settlement patterns looked like – at least those that involved the use of caves – because, by about 6.8 ka cal BP, marine transgression had reached its current level (based on Gutiérrez-Zugasti

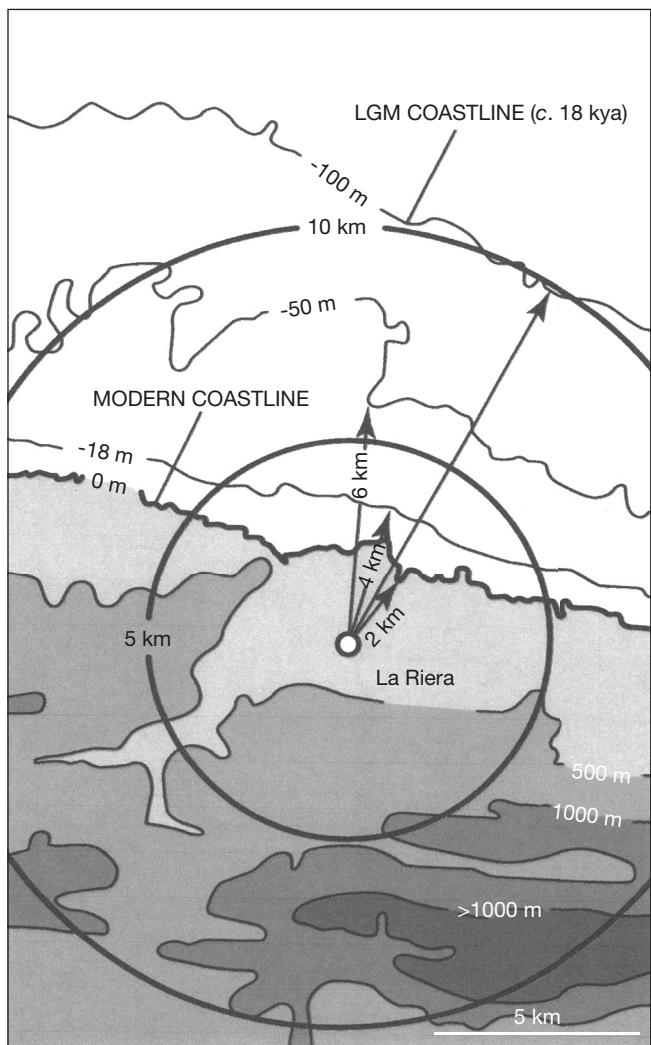


FIG. 4. — La Riera showing simplified topography, bathymetric contours and approximate distance to former coastlines. The -100 m contour approximates the position of the coast at the LGM (c. 18 kya) (redrawn from Bailey & Craighead 2004: 191).

[2009: 77-78]). The continental shelf off the coast of northern Spain is generally quite narrow and falls off to depths greater than -100 m within 3-10 km of the modern shoreline. Figure 4 indicates the position of the modern coast, the -100 m contour line, and La Riera cave, within 4 km of a cluster of Asturian shell midden sites near Llanes in eastern Asturias (Bailey & Craighead 2004). This means that, at least in theory, we can recover the entire settlement-subsistence system of these Mesolithic foragers whereas forager adaptations dating to earlier periods are partially lost to us because of rises in sea level. Although it seems reasonable to expect that Asturian foragers would have utilized inland resources, there is no archaeological evidence for it (Arias Cabal & Fano 2003, 2005; Arias Cabal *et al.* 2009b).

#### ASTURIAN SITE FORMATION PROCESSES

Although mostly unpublished, there are roughly 150 *concheros* now known, concentrated along the eastern coast of Asturias and in western Cantabria (Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009) – many

more than were known than in the early 1970s (Clark 1976) and the early 1980s (González Morales [1982]). Almost without exception they consist of the remnants of once-extensive shell middens preserved as cornices on the walls and ceilings of the caves and rockshelters that are such a prominent feature of the landscape. With little discernible stratigraphy, the *concheros* appear to have been garbage dumps consisting of marine and terrestrial shell, mammal and fish bones, microfauna, sediment; quartzite flakes, cores and large tools (picks, choppers, chopping tools) and, very rarely, human burials. Devoid for the most part of features (hearths, pits), they were associated with open air residential camps constructed of perishable materials (wood, hides, etc.) that have left no archaeological traces. Cueva de Mazaculos, where a small part of a living surface is preserved, is a noteworthy exception (González Morales *et al.* 1980; Marín Arroyo & González Morales 2009). With an exclusively coastal distribution, there are no indications of Asturian use of the piedmont nor of higher elevations in the Cordillera.

The Asturian middens mark the end of a long series of forager use and occupation of coastal Asturias extending back well into the late Pleistocene. The gradual accumulation of shell, bone and other debris eventually filled the entrances to the caves, precluding any further human use. The mountainous interior was only repopulated in the Neolithic, roughly 6000 years ago, when the earliest evidence for megalithic structures appears (Fano *et al.* 2015; Cubas *et al.* 2016). A general model for the formation and destruction of the *concheros* is shown in Figure 5 (Vega del Sella 1923). In many cases, the middens are capped with a stalagmitic crust, indicating an interval between 10-9 ka BP during which karstic processes continued uninterrupted. After about 7500 BP, there was no further use or occupation until the Middle Ages, when most of the caves were emptied of their rich, organic deposits for use as fertilizer (*abono*) and to serve as corrals for sheep and goats.

#### ASTURIAN LITHICS AND BONE TOOLS

What can we say about Mesolithic archaeology, more specifically the stone artifact assemblages? There appear to be two kinds of very different Mesolithic industries in Vasco-Cantabrian Spain. They are the Asturian, a coastal industry found in Asturias and Cantabria and also, arguably, along the coast of Portugal, and industries that resemble those of the late Upper Paleolithic in the Basque Country. The Asturian is a crude industry made almost exclusively on fine-grained metamorphic quartzite cobbles found along the beaches and estuaries in eastern Asturias, and is identified with a particular and distinctive artifact, the unifacial Asturian pick. The function of the picks has been debated for decades and, somewhat implausibly, argued to have been used to detach limpets (*Patella* spp.) from their rocky substrates (Madariaga 1967; Cuenca-Solana *et al.* 2018), an objective more easily accomplished with a toothpick, flake or blade.

The Asturian appears to indicate an abrupt technological break with the preceding Azilian. In contrast, Mesolithic sites in País Vasco, Catalunya and in the Ebro are often dominated by blades, bladelets and Upper Paleolithic tools

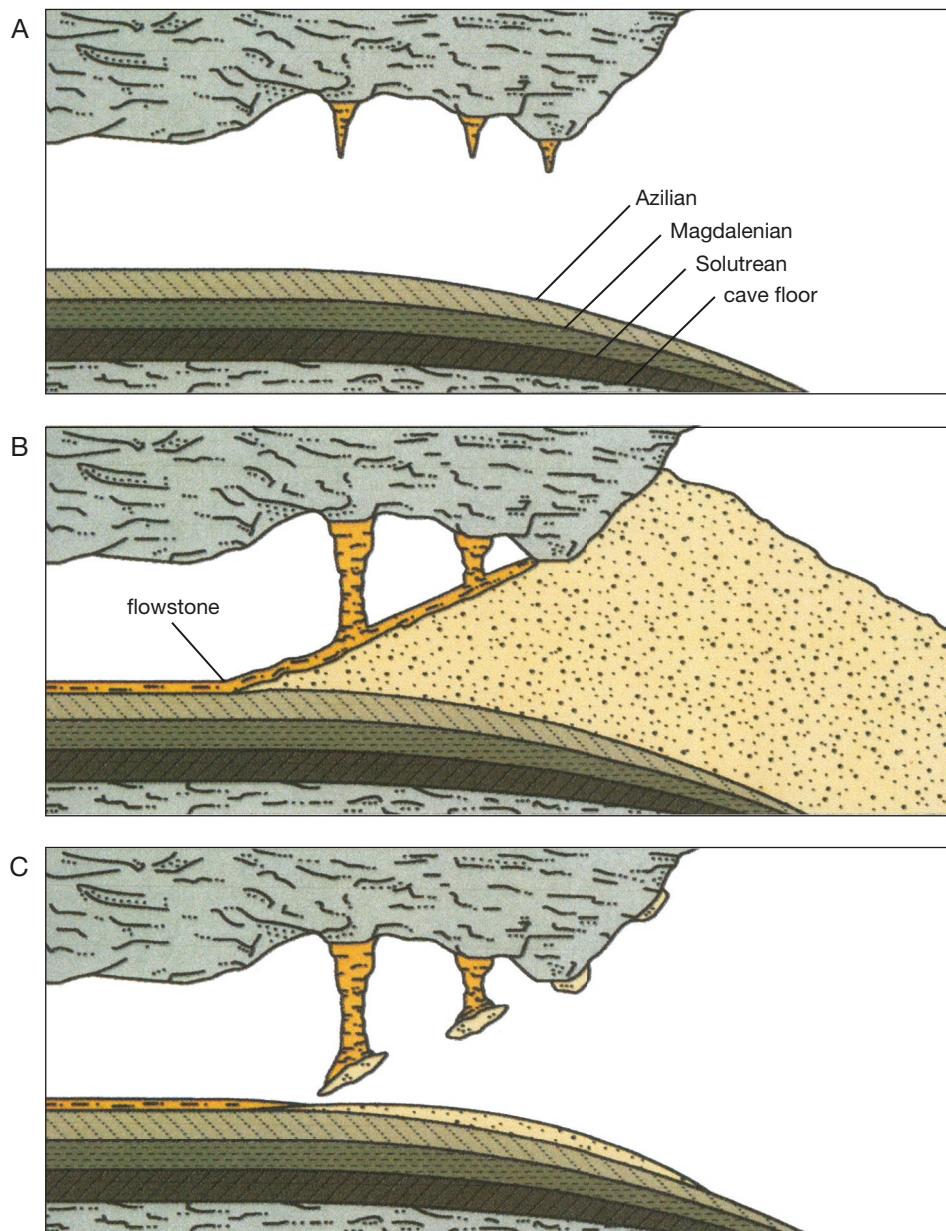


FIG. 5. — Diagram showing the formation and erosion of a typical Asturian *conchero* (based on La Riera, redrawn and modified from Vega del Sella [1923: 8]): **A**, cave at the end of the Upper Paleolithic (Azilian); **B**, bit by bit, the *conchero* fills the entrance to the cave; **C**, erosion takes place and the *conchero* disappears except where cemented to the walls and ceiling of the entrance.

like endscrapers and burins made on flint. They more closely resemble the Epi-Magdalenian Azilian. The difference is striking and might be explained – at least partly – by differences in the kinds of bedrock in the two areas. Metamorphic and igneous rocks dominate the Galician Shield and are exposed along the Cantabrian coast in beaches and estuaries. High quality flint is rare and confined to small pebbles. Sedimentary rocks with good quality flint are more common in the Basque Country and in Catalunya.

Except for the iconic picks, a few heavy duty tools (choppers, chopping tools, both of which could also have doubled as cores), and some steep sidescrapers, the Asturian is a “lithically impoverished” industry, both in general and so far as retouch frequencies are concerned (Fig. 6A, B). The rather uncommon

unmodified flakes were almost certainly the primary cutting and scraping tools. A recent wear pattern study of Mesolithic flakes and blades from northern France and Belgium indicates that many were used on vegetal substrates (Guéret 2017). Rich mammal faunas are associated with many Asturian sites, but the bone and antler industry is confined to a few rudimentary points and/or awls, bone fish gorges, and a single perforated antler *bâton*. Wear and damage patterns on shell suggest that Cantabrian coastal foragers occasionally used gastropod and bivalve shells as tools, especially for making objects from plant matter (probably nets, ropes, etc.) (Cuenca-Solana *et al.* 2013). Mussel shell scrapers occur in early Neolithic levels at Santimamiñe, in Vizcaya, and in many ethnographic contexts (Cuenca *et al.* 2010, 2011; see also Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009).

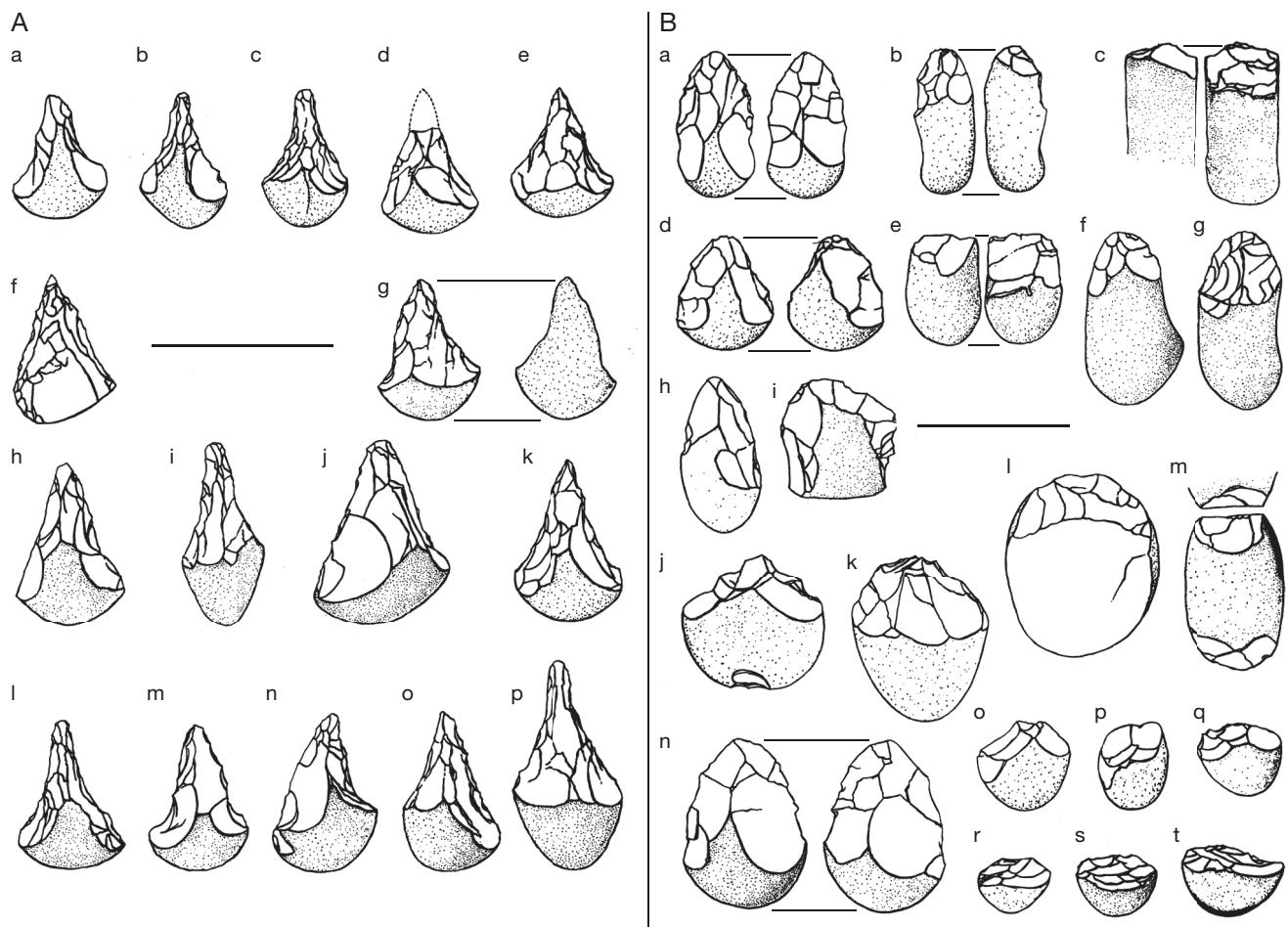


FIG. 6. — **A**, Unifacial quartzite picks, the index type for the Asturian lithic industry (from Clark 1983b: 86): **a**, Amero; **b**, Fonfria; **c**, Colombres; **d**, Cueto de la Mina; **e**, La Loja; **f**, Bricia; **g**, Coberizas; **h**, Balmori; **i**, Penicial; **j**, Liencres; **k**, Lledias; **l**, **m**, La Riera; **n**, Cuartamentero; **o**, Tres Calabres; **p**, Infierno. **B**, Asturian heavy-duty tools from Cantabria made on fine to medium grained quartzite cobbles (from Clark 1983b: 90): **a**, **d**, **n**, partial bifaces; **b**, **c**, chopping tools on elongated pebbles; **e**, chopping tool; **f**, **g**, choppers on elongated pebbles; **h**, partial uniface; **i**, chopper; **j**, **k**, large choppers; **l**, large chopper made on a flake; **m**, chopper-chopping tool, battered along the right edge; **o**-**t**, small choppers or steep endscrapers. Scale bars: 10 cm.

Asturian foragers seem to have depended almost exclusively on wooden bows and arrows, bone gorges, and nets and lines for their hunting and fishing technologies. Except at the controversial open site of Liencres (Clark 1975; Papalas *et al.* 2003; cf. González Morales 1982), flint artifacts are very scarce since the raw material itself is of poor quality and occurs only as small, fractured nodules collected from river beds.

#### LIENCRES REVISITED

Since the mid-1970s, evidence has accumulated that raises some questions about possible relationships among different kinds of Mesolithic adaptations in Cantabria. Guided by a European tendency to juxtapose coastal shell middens and crude quartzite industries, on the one hand, with inland Mesolithic sites and more complex, flint-dominated microlithic assemblages, on the other, patterns of interassemblage variability have usually been explained by recourse to a normative paradigm that equates assemblage differences with distinct and temporally-ordered “cultures.” However, some of these Mesolithic industries are apparently contemporaneous and the possibility arises that the Asturian might represent the

material remains of one of two broadly-defined, yet distinct, activity sets or structural poses within a single adaptive system (Clark 1976; Straus 1979). In Cantabria itself, however, the Asturian postdates the Azilian by almost 1500 years (González Morales 1992). Is there no evidence, then, for a bladelet-dominated Mesolithic in the region? And is it really likely that the Asturian represents, or could represent, the remains of a complete settlement subsistence system?

Liencres is a small open site located in the Rostro de Ciriego about 1 km west of the municipal cemetery for Santander, the capital of the autonomous region of Cantabria. The coastline near the site is characterized by cliffs cut into an old marine platform, the top of which is about 13 m above sea level. The platform, of limestone, has been heavily eroded; sinkholes and other karstic phenomena are common. Erosion has stripped away the vegetation surrounding the edges of the sinkholes, creating patches of bare ground leading to deflation. About 75 cm of sandy loam overlie bedrock (Butzer & Bowman 1979). In 1969 and 1972, artifacts eroding out of these sediments were piece-plotted, collected and analyzed (Clark 1975, 1979; Scheitlin & Clark 1978; Papalas *et al.* 2003) (Fig. 7).

To put Liencres in the context of the north Spanish Mesolithic, it is an “Asturian” site because of the characteristic unifacial quartzite picks although, as noted, it is somewhat unusual among Asturian sites by virtue of a large chert flake and bladelet component (Figs 8; 9). This, and an arrowhead typical of the Bronze Age, has led to the suggestion that it is a mixed site and/or that it is “Upper Paleolithic” or “Azilian” (e.g. González Morales 1982: 89, 90 – four Upper Paleolithic scatters were found in the site vicinity [Clark [1975: 10]]). While *Liencres* is inarguably heterogeneous and polygenic, small tool group indices that compared Liencres (2 levels) with Azilian (12 levels) and Asturian (24 levels) cave sites indicate greater affinity with the Asturian than with the Azilian group (Clark 1989: 592, 593), but these typological comparisons were based on analyses of selected museum collections from excavations in the 1900-1930 era, published for the first time in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g. Clark 1976, 1983b; Fernández-Tresguerres 1980; Hoyos Gomez *et al.* 1980; González Morales 1982). Even the best Asturian collections are generally poor in small retouched tools, reflecting their function as bulk waste disposal areas or dumps, rather than living sites per se (although living sites were certainly nearby). It is hard to believe, though, that the Asturian, as conventionally defined, represents the entire range of stone artifacts associated with the industry, an idea that lends credence to possible complementarity between crude quartzite heavy duty tools and microlithic, blade dominated assemblages (see, e.g. Clark [1989]; Straus [1992]).

Although no evidence of structures was found, Liencres is situated along the edge of a sinkhole where its inhabitants would have been sheltered from the cold north winds coming off the Cantabrian Sea, only a few meters distant. That the site was occupied on multiple occasions by small groups of people for a short periods of time is indicated by the paucity of features and the relatively thin scatter of lithic debris. Primary manufacture of picks and choppers (including refits), and the production of quantities of chert and quartzite flakes are inferred from the scarcity of retouched pieces and the prevalence of chert and quartzite cores and debitage.

No identifiable faunal remains were recovered at Liencres, but the presence of a grinding slab, microscopic shell and bone fragments, and phosphate concentrations all suggest food processing and consumption, and the accumulation of garbage (Butzer & Bowman 1979: 287-291). Pollen analysis indicates a vegetational configuration similar to that of the present (Clark & Menéndez-Amor 1979: 292-295). The site probably dates to the warm, wet Atlantic phase, when climates like those of today prevailed in the region. Radiometric dates for the Asturian available through the early 1980s range from 9.3-6.5 uncal ka BP (mean of seven dates from five sites is  $7817 \pm 223$  uncal BP (Clark 1989: 590, 591). This agrees astonishingly well with the sample of 36 Asturian dates from 18 sites reported here:  $\bar{x} = 7813 \pm 113$  BP (Table 1).

#### *Asturian and Azilian sites compared*

An extensive comparison of 58 Asturian and Azilian sites examined chronology, paleoclimatic data, retouched tool and faunal collections, débitage and raw material characteristics;

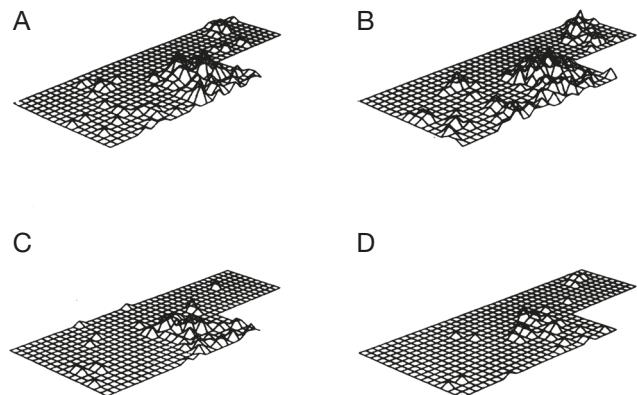


FIG. 7. — Liencres – three-dimensional SURGE 2 flint débitage frequency distribution plots (from Scheitlin & Clark 1978: 11): **A**, all flakes; **B**, primary and secondary decortication flakes; **C**, trimming flakes; **D**, bladelets. Z scale: 0.5.

site sizes, numbers, distributions, and settings (Clark 1989). Evidence was assembled that appeared at the time (the early 1980s) to indicate functional complementarity for the latest Azilian and the earliest Asturian, at least during the millennium (9.5-8.5 ka BP) when they appeared to overlap. However, with the accumulation of more dates over the past 30 years a gap of about 2.0-1.5 millennia has appeared between the two, thus undermining the case for contemporaneity (Appendix 2). That said, given the impossibility of distinguishing between the late Magdalenian and the Azilian in default of their characteristic harpoons, many dates identified by their investigators as “Azilian” could in fact be “Magdalenian” (and vice versa) (Appendix 1). Liencres is so far unique. The widespread dichotomy referred to above has been noted by many workers elsewhere along the coasts of Atlantic Europe. Whatever it might mean behaviorally, surely it must have some empirical credibility. Each assemblage type could pertain to one of two distinct generalized technologies that persisted in Cantabria between c. 21 ka BP and c. 7 ka BP, cross-cutting all the classic culture-stratigraphic subdivisions found during that time interval (Clark 1989).

#### MESOLITHIC MAMMAL AND MARINE FAUNAS

There is good evidence for the kinds of animals exploited by Asturian foragers because fauna are abundant and well-preserved in the *concheros*. By extension from modern dietary preferences, we can also infer a great deal about early Holocene phytogeographic associations (Clark 1976, 1983b). The following observations are typical of the faunas from Cantabria, the Basque Country and Galicia, differing from one another only in detail (Fernández Rodríguez 2011). Although large numbers of rabbit (*Oryctolagus* spp.) and smaller numbers of hare (*Lepus* spp.) occur in some Galician sites (e.g. A Valiña, an EUP site in Lugo) and are ubiquitous in the Ebro Valley, both genera are rare in the archaeofaunas of Vasco-Cantabria. Insectivores (hedgehog, shrews, moles), rodents (squirrel, mice, rats, voles, porcupine), mustelids (weasel, skunk, martens, badger, otter), canids (fox, wolf), felids (wildcat, lynx) and a vast array of bats and birds, round out the smaller mammals.

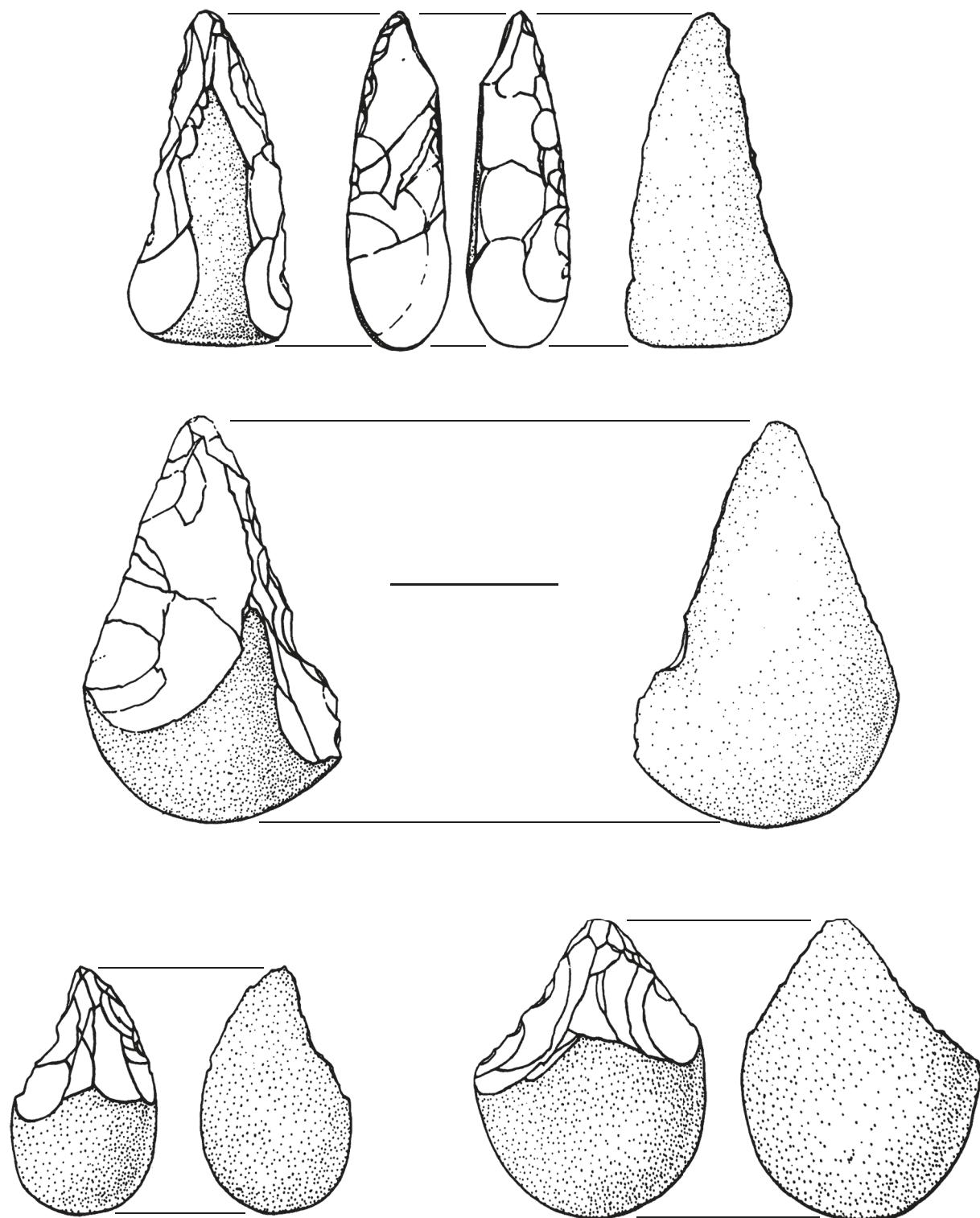


FIG. 8. — Liencres – Asturian picks made on fine-grained quartzite cobbles (from Clark 1983b: 57). Scale bar: 5 cm.

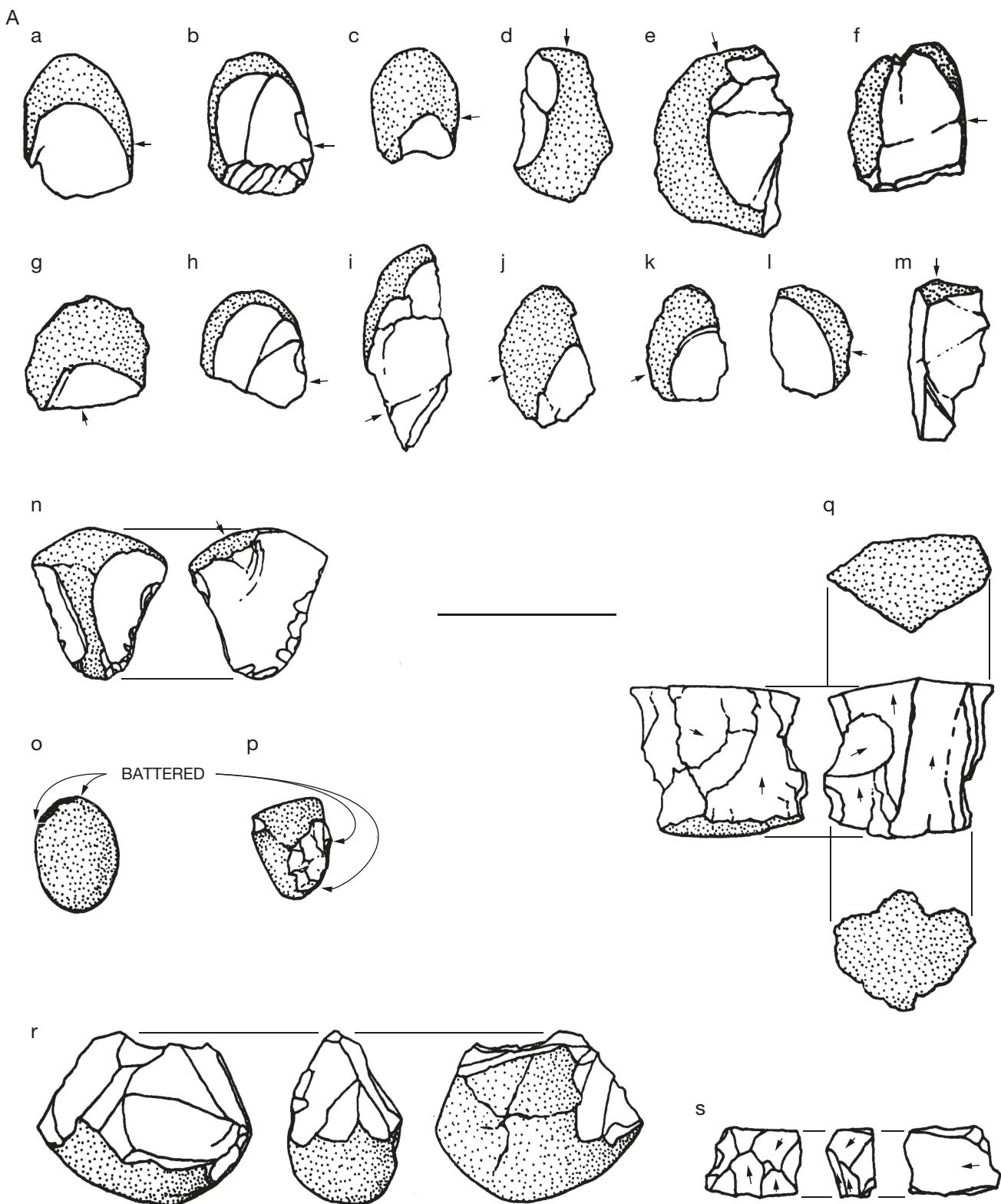


FIG. 9. — A, Liencres – quartzite flakes, nuclei and retouched pieces (surface): a-m, trimming flakes; n, sidescraper; o, p, pebble hammerstones; q, s, nuclei; r, chopping tool (from Clark 1983b: 58). Scale bar: 5 cm.

B

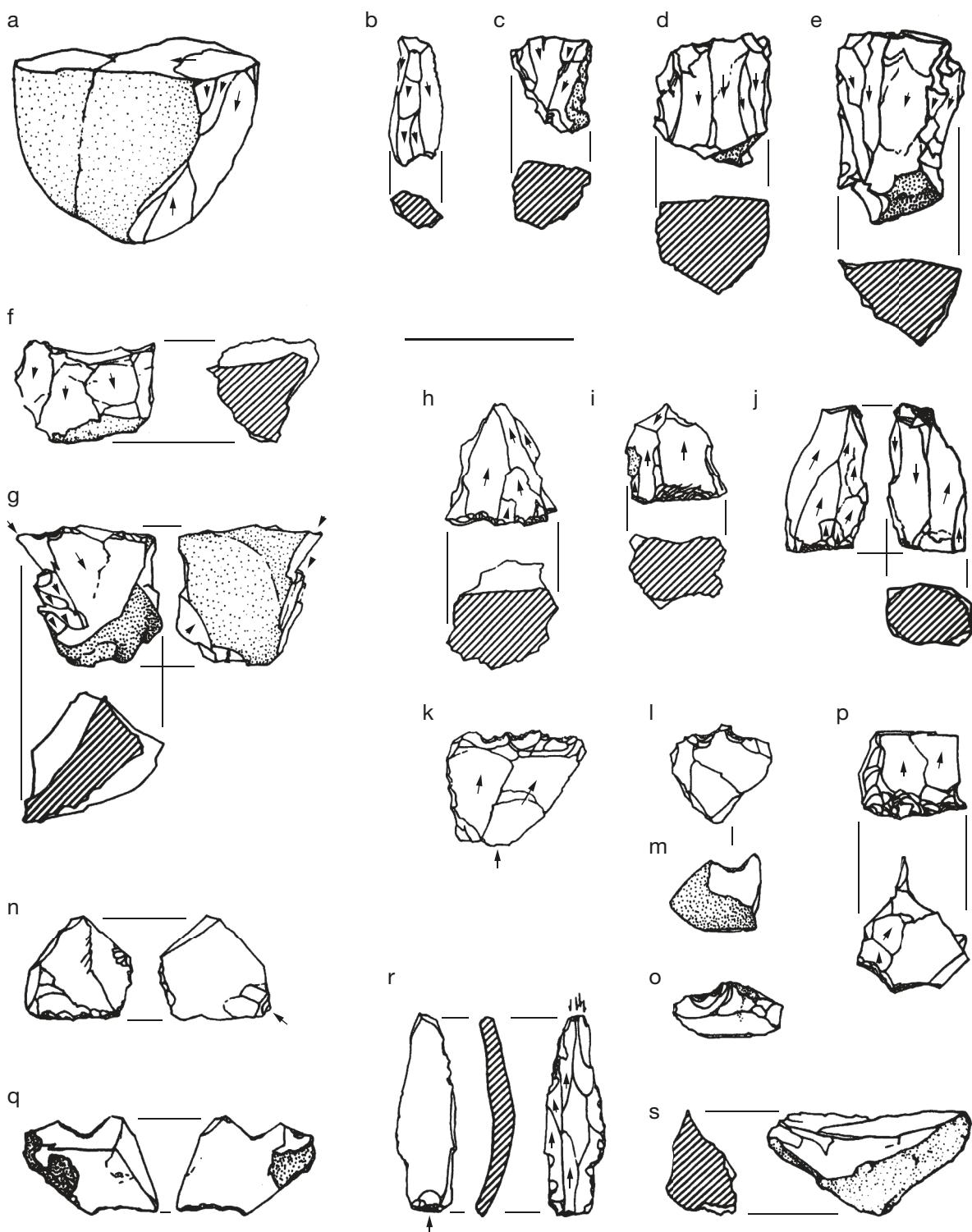


Fig. 9 continuation. — B, Liencres – flint and quartzite nuclei and retouched pieces (surface) (from Clark 1983b: 59): a, quartzite nucleus; b-f, flint nuclei; g, nucleiform burin or nucleus; h-j, p, nucleiform endscrapers and cores; k, denticulate; l, bec; m, o, q, notches; n, CRP-1; r, multiple burin on a blade; s, naturally backed knife. Scale bar: 5 cm.

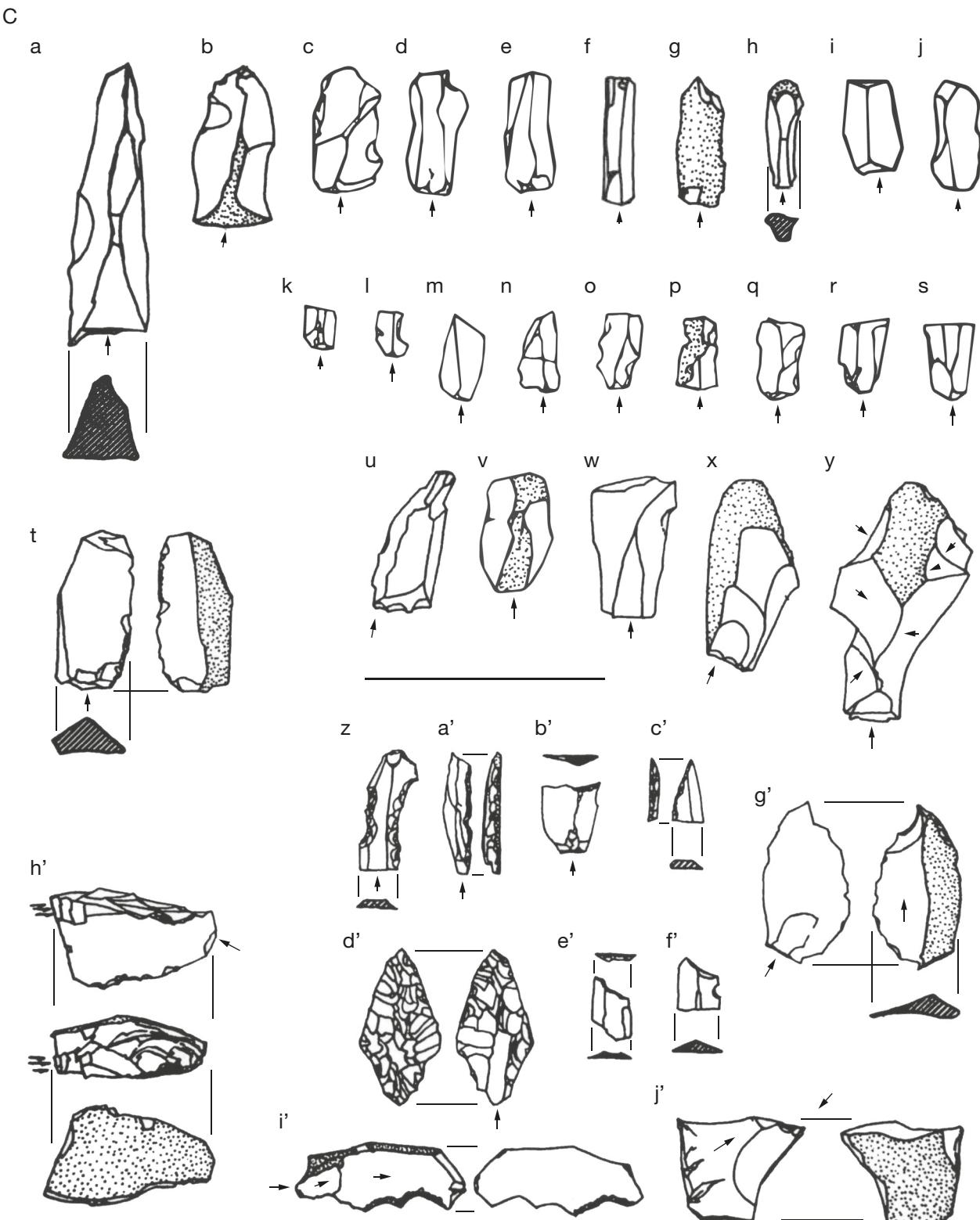


Fig. 9 continuation. — C. Liñecres – flint blades, bladelets and retouched pieces (surface) (from Clark 1983b: 60): a-s, blades and bladelets; t, CRP-2 with inverse retouch; u-y, blade-like flakes; z, strangulated bladelet; a', backed bladelet; b', e', f', truncated bladelets; c', gravette point fragment?; d', Bronze Age (?) bifacial point; g', perforator; h', sidescraper/multiple burin; i', denticulate; j', angle burin on a break. Scale bar: 5 cm.

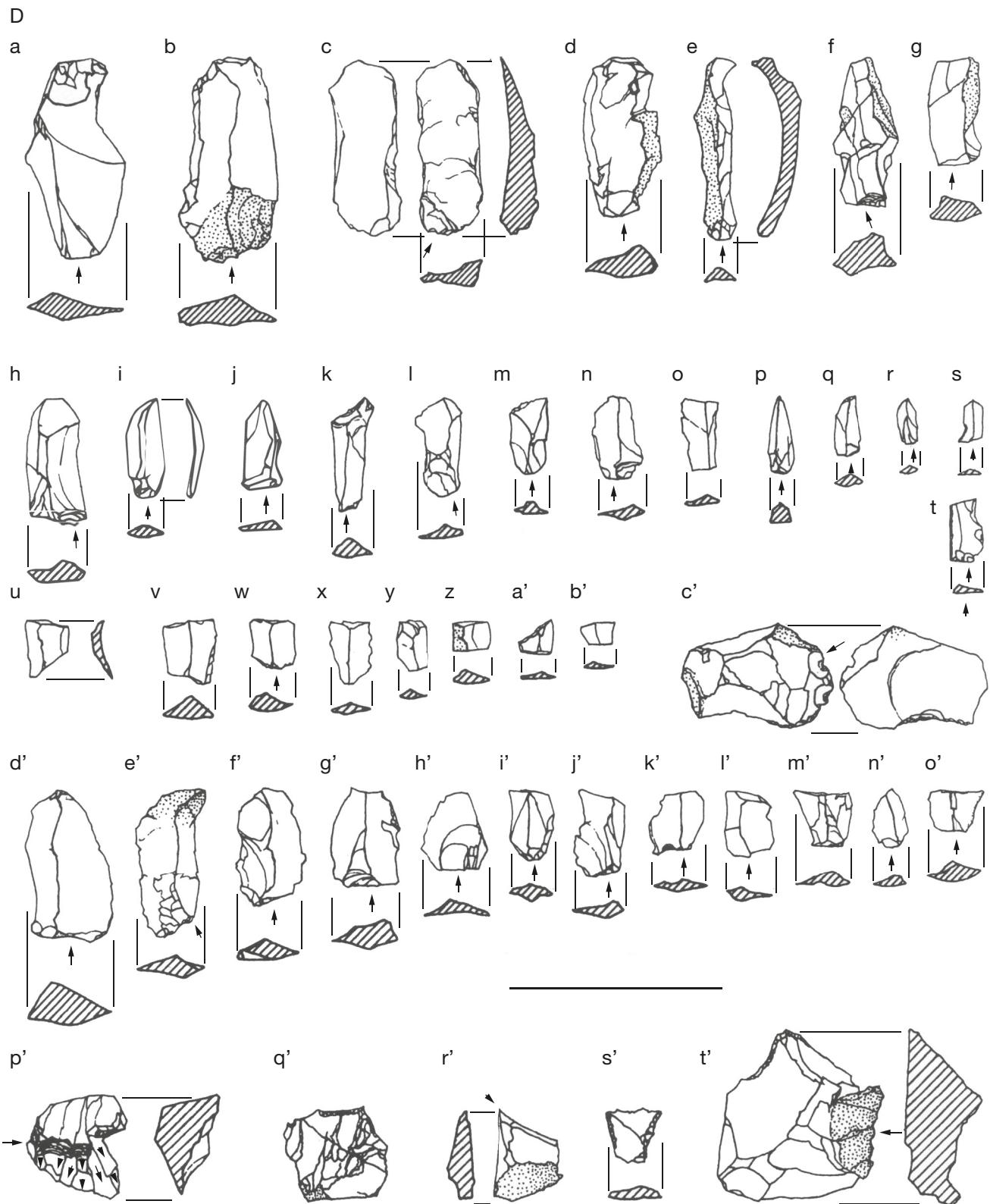


Fig. 9 continuation. — **D**, Liencrez – flint blades, bladelets and retouched pieces (level 1) (from Clark 1983b: 78): **a–r**, blades and bladelets; **s**, notched bladelet; **t**, Dufour bladelet; **u–b'**, bladelet fragments; **c'**, CRP-2 with inverse retouch; **d'–o'**, flakes; **p'**, platform renewal flake; **q'**, perforator or bec; **r'**, burin on a break; **s'**, truncated element; **t'**, notch. Scale bar: 5 cm.

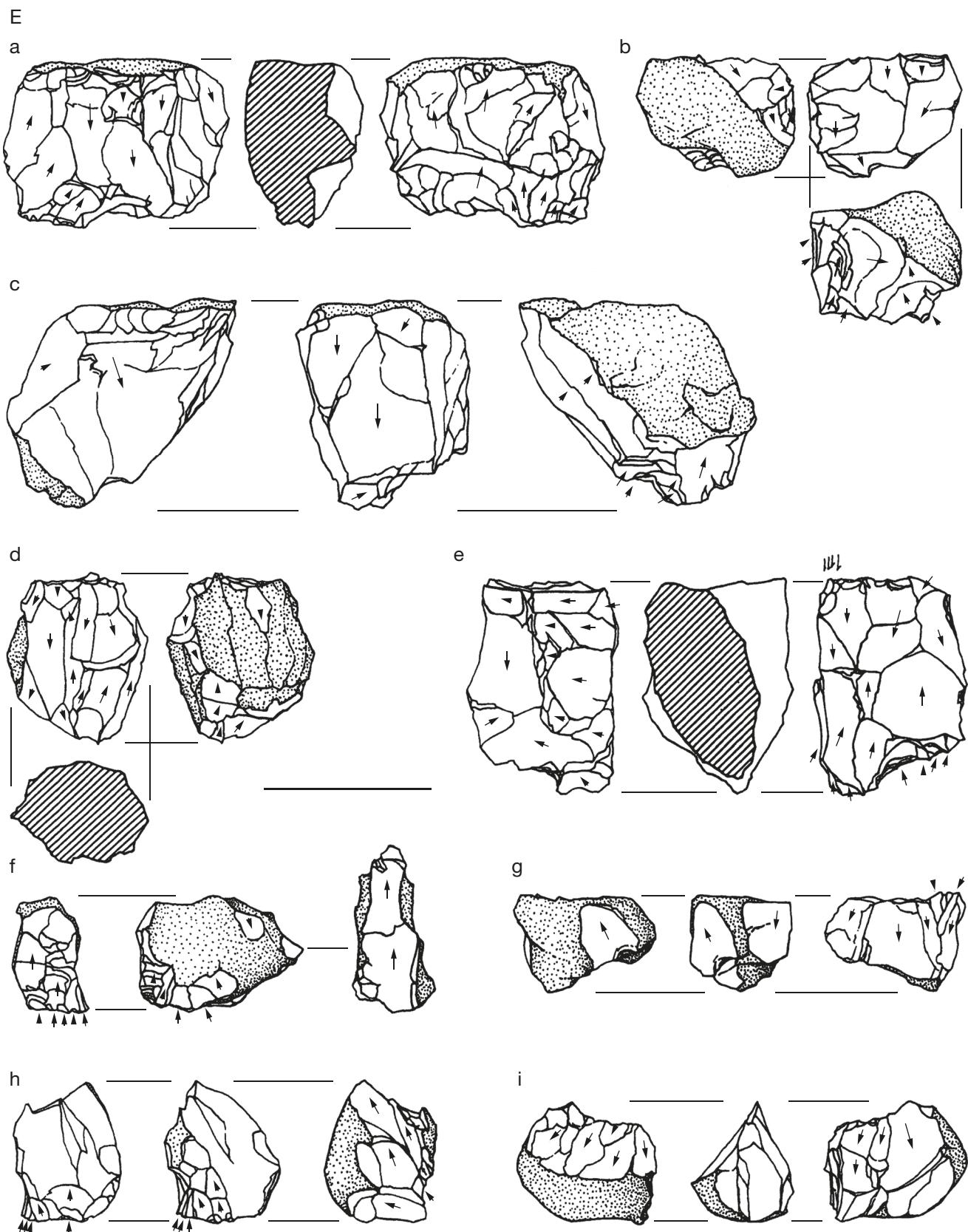


Fig. 9 continuation. — E, Liencres – nuclei and nucleiform endscrapers (level 1) (from Clark 1983b: 75): a-e, g, i, nuclei; f, h, nucleiform endscrapers. Scale bar: 5 cm.

Never of economic importance, some were probably hunted for their fur (the cats, some mustelids). Some of the small rodents and insectivores can shed light on the microhabitats in the immediate vicinity of caves and rockshelters. Bats and raptors (hawks, owls) are natural inhabitants of caves.

#### *North Spanish mammal faunas*

Red deer (*Cervus elaphus* Linnaeus, 1758) is the dominant dietary staple throughout the Asturian and, despite climate change, throughout the entire Upper Paleolithic. Red deer are found most commonly in open, temperate, mixed deciduous/coniferous woodlands, at low to moderate elevations (0–500 m) in areas with adequate moisture regimes (Darling 1963; Van den Brink 1967: 164, 165; Walker 1968). They occur at lower density in mixed woods where conifers predominate. Because of the maritime climate afforded by the Rennell's Current, a branch of the Gulf Stream, the lowland forests of post-Pleistocene Cantabria have always favored deciduous species.

Although catholic in their tastes, most red deer populations are sylvan browsers; deciduous foliage, twigs, and berries are the mainstays of their diets (e.g. *Populus* spp., *Salix* spp., *Betula* spp., *Alnus* spp., *Quercus* spp.). Conifers are usually spurned. During the fall, mosses and lichens are consumed in quantity. Evergreen gorse (*Ulex* spp.), heather (*Calluna* spp., *Erica* spp.), sedges (*Carex* spp.) and broom (*Genista* spp.), all locally available along the coast, are eaten during the winter months. Grasses (*Agrostis* spp.) and fungi are also consumed occasionally. The species can sometimes be found in open grasslands today (e.g. on the island of Hull [Darling 1963]) and are well-represented in the almost treeless environments of Last Glacial Cantabria. Whether a browser or a grazer, red deer was the key to the Asturian subsistence economy, much as it had been since the LGM about 20 000 years ago. Given the dramatic climate changes of the last glacial (c. 120–12.5 ka BP), it might seem strange that this is so but the species is highly adaptable and is found throughout the middle latitudes of Eurasia in a wide variety of environments ever since it first evolved in the Miocene of central Asia nearly 20 million years ago (Clark 1971).

Ibex (*Capra ibex* Linnaeus, 1758) is the other major prey element. For the most part, they are adapted to the steep, rocky terrain of montane regions on barren ground at, or substantially above, the tree line (variable today in the Cantabrian mountains, but usually at about 1600 m). During the winter months, they are driven from these high elevations by adverse weather conditions and by the lack of forage into the open forest transitional zone. These seasonal migrations are a characteristic of the species. Ibex from Asturian sites were probably taken during the winter months when they were most accessible to predation from the coast. There are no highland Asturian sites.

Of secondary importance are chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra* Linnaeus, 1758), roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus* Linnaeus, 1758), and boar (*Sus scrofa* Linnaeus, 1758). Unlike ibex, chamois are more confined to montane woodlands than to open ground; their range extends downslope into deciduous

as well as coniferous forest (Morris 1965: 424; Van den Brink 1967: 165, 166). However, they also occur on rocky slopes at elevations above the tree line, especially during the summer months. Heather, sedge, gorse, broom, lichens, and grasses are consumed by both caprids.

Roe deer prefer young deciduous woodlands where dense undergrowth is present, tending to occupy copses near more extensive woodlands. When in fully wooded country, they favor the forest edge. Stands of birch (*Betula vulgaris* (cf. *pendula*) Roth), if present, are preferred over other deciduous species (Corbet 1966: 16). Roe deer are more tolerant than red deer of areas where no surface water is present (Prior 1968: 67), but this is not a factor in northern Spain.

Wild boar are also present, albeit less common, in Asturian faunas. Usually found in the dense vegetation along streams and rivers, they consume various roots, tubers, bulbs, acorns, fruit and beech mast (*Fagus* spp.) but are also carnivorous to a limited extent. Flesh foods include carrion, insect larvae, rodents, young rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus* Linnaeus, 1758), snails (*Helix* spp.) and birds' eggs.

#### *North Spanish marine faunas*

Limpets (*Patella vulgata* Linnaeus, 1758, *P. intermedia* (cf. *depressa*) Pennant, 1777; rarely *P. aspera* Rüding, 1798, *P. lusitanica* Gmelin, 1798) and the topshell (*Trochocochlea crassa* (cf. *Monodonta lineata*) da Costa, 1778) make up the second major component in the Asturian diet. Both genera are littoral species, most prevalent in the intertidal zone. *Patella* spp. are found on rocks in tidal pools and on the walls of inlets from the high water mark of neap tides to the low water mark of spring tides. They select for areas well exposed to light, but will not tolerate rocks subjected to too much movement. Due to their extraordinary powers of adhesion, exposure to the direct impact of waves is not an important factor; exposure varies from as high as 90% to as low as 5%. Salinities as low as 3‰ can be withstood, so the species thrives in estuaries (Fretter & Graham 1962: 680). Limpets occasionally colonize other environments (e.g. consolidated sands, sheltered pebbly areas) but always in much lower densities than on fixed rocky surfaces. In Cantabria, they occur almost exclusively on the limestones into which the coastal inlets are cut. Water temperatures vary between 10°C (50°F) and 21°C (70°F). Limpets rarely occur below 5 m in depth, although they may be found high on inlet walls, up to 3 m above the low tide mark (Fretter & Graham 1962: 680; Madariaga 1967: 363, 371). They are exposed twice daily by the action of the tides and can easily be collected in great numbers with a minimal expenditure of energy. However, the average Holocene limpet yields only six calories whereas its Pleistocene predecessor, '*P. sautuola*', can yield up to three times that much. A marked decrease in size beginning in the Magdalenian is probably due to overexploitation (Straus et al. 1980; Ortea 1986, but cf. Bailey & Craighead 2004).

The topshell (*Trochocochlea crassa* (cf. *Monodonta lineata*) da Costa, 1778) was a secondary element in the Asturian diet; it occurs in the middens, as it does in nature, in consistently lower frequencies than the limpets. Topshells occupy similar

habitats, but never extend so high as *Patella* spp. because they are less able to withstand prolonged periods without water. Exposure to direct wave action varies from 50% to 60% due to a comparative lack of adhesive power. The species will select for sunny areas on horizontal or vertical surfaces; the latter are occupied in lower frequency. Topshells occur sporadically, but when found are often locally abundant (Fretter & Graham 1962: 673).

Absent during the last glacial, the edible mussel (*Mytilus edulis* Linnaeus, 1758, cf. *provincialis*) reappears in the Boreal period and increases in size and frequency during the post-glacial optimum (c. 7.5-5.0 ka BP). *Mytilus edulis* is a relatively thermophile species; rapid declines in sea water temperature will destroy the beds. Mussels favor brackish water in estuarine situations but also occur attached to rocks on tidal flats and on stable, pebbly or muddy bottoms (Rogers 1920). The species is not commonly found in Asturian *concheros*. It was extensively exploited after about 5000 BP and remains a popular item in the Spanish diet today.

Studies of the oxygen isotope ratios in the growth rings of limpets and topshells indicate they were collected mainly during the winter months, a pattern first identified at La Riera (Deith & Shackleton 1986) and replicated at a few other sites. Since they must be collected in quantity to make a significant contribution to the diet, shellfish are a relatively high cost, low yield resource, usually considered to provide “insurance” in economies primarily dependent on the exploitation of red deer (British archaeologist Geoff Bailey calculated that 40 000 limpets provided the caloric equivalent of one red deer). Although eaten the year round, they were most intensively gathered when dietary staples like red deer were scarce because of overexploitation or because they were depleted of fat during the late winter months (Speth & Spielmann 1983; Speth 1987). Juvenile deer teeth indicate occupation during the spring and summer months suggesting that the middens probably accumulated year-round (Altuna 1986). In addition to the limpets, the *concheros* contain the bones of four species of salmon (*Salmo* spp.), sea trout (*S. trutta* Linnaeus, 1758), *re o ríos river trout* (*S. trutta trutta* Linnaeus, 1758); the carapaces of crabs (*Cancer pagurus* Linnaeus, 1758) and sea urchin shell fragments (*Paracentrotus lividus* Lamarck, 1816) (Noval 1976: 399-413). As indicated by pollen and macrobotanical remains, plant foods like roots, berries, hazelnuts and acorns were also heavily utilized as they became available in the woodland environments of the post-Pleistocene.

#### *Late Upper Paleolithic and Mesolithic dietary trends*

One other aspect of Asturian faunas is worth mentioning. From the perspective of the late glacial, it now seems clear that the Asturian represents the culmination of a long-term process of dietary intensification and diversification that extended back in time to the late Upper Paleolithic and up to the appearance of the Neolithic and beyond (Clark 1987). Although beset with fluctuations, the evidence for this is the progressive addition of more energetically “costly” species over a period of some 20 000 years (see also Marín Arroyo [2013]).

Why would foragers expend more energy to get fewer calories from the animals they hunted? There is much debate as to the cause for this. Some emphasize climate change and consequent changes in the kinds and frequencies of animals and plants present in the environment (e.g. Bailey & Craighead 2004), while others favor population-resource imbalances created by overexploitation of dietary staples (e.g. Altuna 1986; Ortea 1986; Straus & Clark 1986; Clark 1987). Whatever the case, it is important to acknowledge that the two kinds of explanation are not mutually exclusive although in general the north Spanish Mesolithic data show few significant correlations with climate change.

#### ABSENCE OF INLAND SITES

Because seasonal movement up and down the N/S trending rivers in Asturias is well-documented during the late Upper Paleolithic (e.g. Clark 1983a, b; Clark & Straus 1983), the near absence of inland sites contemporary with the Asturian is a curious phenomenon (Arias Cabal *et al.* 2009b). To date, however, there is almost no evidence of a human presence in the Cordilleran foothills and piedmont during the Preboreal (10.3-9.0 ka BP; 11.7-11.0 ka cal BP) and the Boreal periods (9.0-7.5 ka BP; 11.0-9.5 ka cal BP). Except for a very brief cold snap 8200 years ago (the “8.2 ka BP event” – Domínguez-Villar *et al.* 2009), these are all temperate climatic regimes. The south face of the Cordillera also shows very little evidence of Mesolithic habitation. Only six small caves and rockshelters are known (El Espertín, La Mina, La Uña, La Calavera, Los Canes, La Braña-Arintero), two of them burial caves (Los Canes in Asturias, La Braña-Arintero in León) rather than habitation sites (Vidal Encinas & Fuentes Prieto 2008; Neira Campos *et al.* 2016). Some kind of significant behavioral shift clearly took place but just exactly what it was and why it happened is open to question. Several explanations have been proposed to account for it.

Historically, the most plausible one has been that woodlands recolonized the region after the Younger Dryas (12.9-11.6 ka cal BP), perhaps affecting the kinds and quantities of animals hunted, and in consequence the technologies used to hunt them. In the increasingly dense early Holocene woodlands, where edible biomass would have been relatively low and mobility difficult, hunting became a more costly, less productive pursuit when compared to the littoral ecotone. Asturian foragers might simply have congregated in the lowlands along the coast where staple resources (red and roe deer, boar, fish, shellfish) would have been abundant on the interfluves, estuaries, and rivers that transect the coastal plain (Clark 1983a; Clark & Straus 1983). The sheer number of Asturian shell middens lends some credence to this hypothesis. However, with organic technologies, ephemeral structures, casual hearths and little accumulation of trash except for the *concheros* themselves, open air Asturian camps nearby would have left very little to have survived until the present. The near-total lack of systematic surveys in the region has also hindered recognition of surface sites (Snitker *et al.* 2018). Regarding the disappearance of Azilian-like microlithic industries, densification of the forest might have caused changes in hunting practices

and the technologies required to deal with them. But this is highly speculative. It lies beyond the current resolution of the archaeological record and is consequently untestable.

A second hypothesis is that of a gradual increase in population density in Asturias and consequent resource stress led to eastward population movement along the Cantabrian coast through the low mountain passes in Cantabria and Vizcaya into the upper and middle Ebro Valley (see below). Given evidence for long-term dietary intensification in Cantabria, a possible cause for this migration could be overexploitation of dietary staples in the Asturian “heartland” by a growing population that eventually exceeded local carrying capacity and made resource exploitation so “expensive” in terms of caloric cost-benefit ratios that it was no longer sustainable. In Vizcaya and Álava there are at least a dozen sites with both Mesolithic and Neolithic levels (Rojo-Guerra *et al.* 2018). Whatever the differences in the lithic industries might mean, it is pretty clear that the Neolithic in northern Spain, as defined by the presence of pottery and/or domesticates, appeared first along the west Mediterranean coast in Catalunya and in the lower Ebro, followed the Ebro up to its headwaters in the Cordillera and, eventually, through the mountain passes to the Cantabrian coast (Fig. 10). In the Basque Country it was pretty much confined to the intermontane valleys of the Cordillera in Álava and Navarra.

#### ABANDONMENT OF AZILIAN SITES

It is interesting to note that nearly all the Upper Paleolithic caves and rockshelters in Asturias and Cantabria located at moderate elevations not far from the sea were abandoned after the Azilian (e.g. El Mirón, El Horno, La Güelga, Los Azules, El Castillo, El Valle, Rascaño, Las Caldas, La Viña, Collubil) (Straus 2008, 2018a, b). The end of the Azilian coincides with the Preboreal-Boreal boundary at *c.* 10.5 cal ka BP and would suggest a region-wide phenomenon of some kind, but one unrelated to the gradual climatic upturn already underway during the latter part of the Preboreal. This contrasts sharply with the situation in the Basque country where there were fully-developed microlithic industries, perhaps indicating an influx of migrants from Mediterranean France by way of Catalunya and the Ebro valley (Arias Cabal 2007; Arias Cabal & Álvarez-Fernández 2004).

#### THE TRANSITION TO DOMESTICATION ECONOMIES

Compared to Mediterranean Spain, the evidence for the “Neolithization” of Vasco-Cantabria is very partial and late (*c.* 6.5 ka cal BP), and occurred along with continued exploitation of Mesolithic prey species (deer, shellfish, nuts) (Altuna 1980; Clark 1987) (Appendix 3). Domesticated animals included sheep (*O. aries* Linnaeus, 1758), goat (*C. hircus* Linnaeus, 1758), cattle (*B. taurus* Linnaeus, 1758) and pig (*S. domesticus* Erxleben, 1777) which appear separately or in various combinations in a number of sites excavated long ago and/or with equivocal dates and provenances (e.g. Arenaza, Marizulo, Los Husos, Herriko Barra, Pico Ramos, Les Pedroses, Arenillas, Los Canes) (Straus 2018a). Although the Neolithic status of these sites continues to be debated, more reliable data from

recent work at Kobaederra, near the coast in Vizcaya, and at inland montane El Mirón, in Cantabria, indicate domesticated sheep, goats, pig and cattle, along with pottery, by around 6.1 ka cal BP (Zapata *et al.* 1997; Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009; Peña-Chocarro *et al.* 2005a; Peña-Chocarro 2012). Of the domesticates, ovicaprines are numerically most common, although secondary in importance to cattle in terms of meat yield, a trend that continues into the Roman Iron Age. Because of similarities in size and morphology, Altuna (1980) once suggested that early Neolithic cattle and pigs might have been domesticated locally from *aurochs* (*B. primigenius* Bojanus, 1827) and wild boar (*S. scrofa* Linnaeus, 1758), both present in the Mesolithic. This view has been much contested.

Despite screening and flotation, credible morphological evidence for domesticated plants, is extremely rare. A grain of emmer wheat from El Mirón dated to  $5550 \pm 40$  uncal BP (*c.* 6.3 ka cal BP) is currently the earliest directly-dated domesticated plant from the region (Peña-Chocarro *et al.* 2005a, b; Peña-Chocarro 2012). Small numbers of hulled and free-threshing wheats (*Triticum monococcum* Linnaeus, 1758, *T. dicoccum* Schrank, 1781, *T. aestivum/durum* Linnaeus, 1758) and some nuts and fruits (*Corylus avellana* Linnaeus, 1758, *Quercus* sp., *Vitis* sp., etc.) were also recovered. The presence of free-threshing wheat at El Mirón by about 6000 years ago is noteworthy because naked wheats had been absent from the early Neolithic archaeobotanical record of coastal Cantabria. Although not found at El Mirón, barley (*Hordeum vulgare* Linnaeus, 1758) has been reported from early Neolithic contexts at Pico Ramos (*c.* 6.4 ka cal BP), Kobaederra (*c.* 6.1 ka cal BP) and Lumentxa (*c.* 6.0 ka cal BP), all in Vizcaya (Straus 2018b). Herriko Barra, a coastal site in Guipúzcoa, has yielded a trace of unidentified cereal pollen associated with a wild mammal fauna (Mariezkurrena & Altuna 1995) and dated to an unusually early 6.9 ka cal BP (Iriarte-Chiapuso *et al.* 2005). As today, agriculture is more important than pastoralism in the broad floodplain of the Ebro valley than it is in Cantabria where, because of the rugged mountainous terrain, the reverse is true (Clark 1987).

#### OVERVIEW – THE ASTURIAN

In sum, functional explanations of assemblage variability that view culture as a complex adaptive system that exists at a level above that of identity-consciousness “writ small” in the form of retouched stone tools appear more tenable to us than those that depend upon variety-minimizing normative typological paradigms (Binford & Sabloff 1982). The overall character of a chipped stone assemblage is determined by a small set of factors, although those factors can be related to one another in complex ways. Among them are rock mechanics (how tool stone fractures), raw material characteristics (kind, quality, “package size” and availability), and the “grain” of an assemblage (its resolution and integrity) (e.g. Andrefsky 1994, 1998, 2009; Shott 1994, 2003, 2010). In the case of chipped stone assemblages, participation in a tool-making tradition and idiosyncratic behavior might have played small roles (this is much debated) but are much more likely to be overridden by the equifinality that is such a characteristic feature of lithic

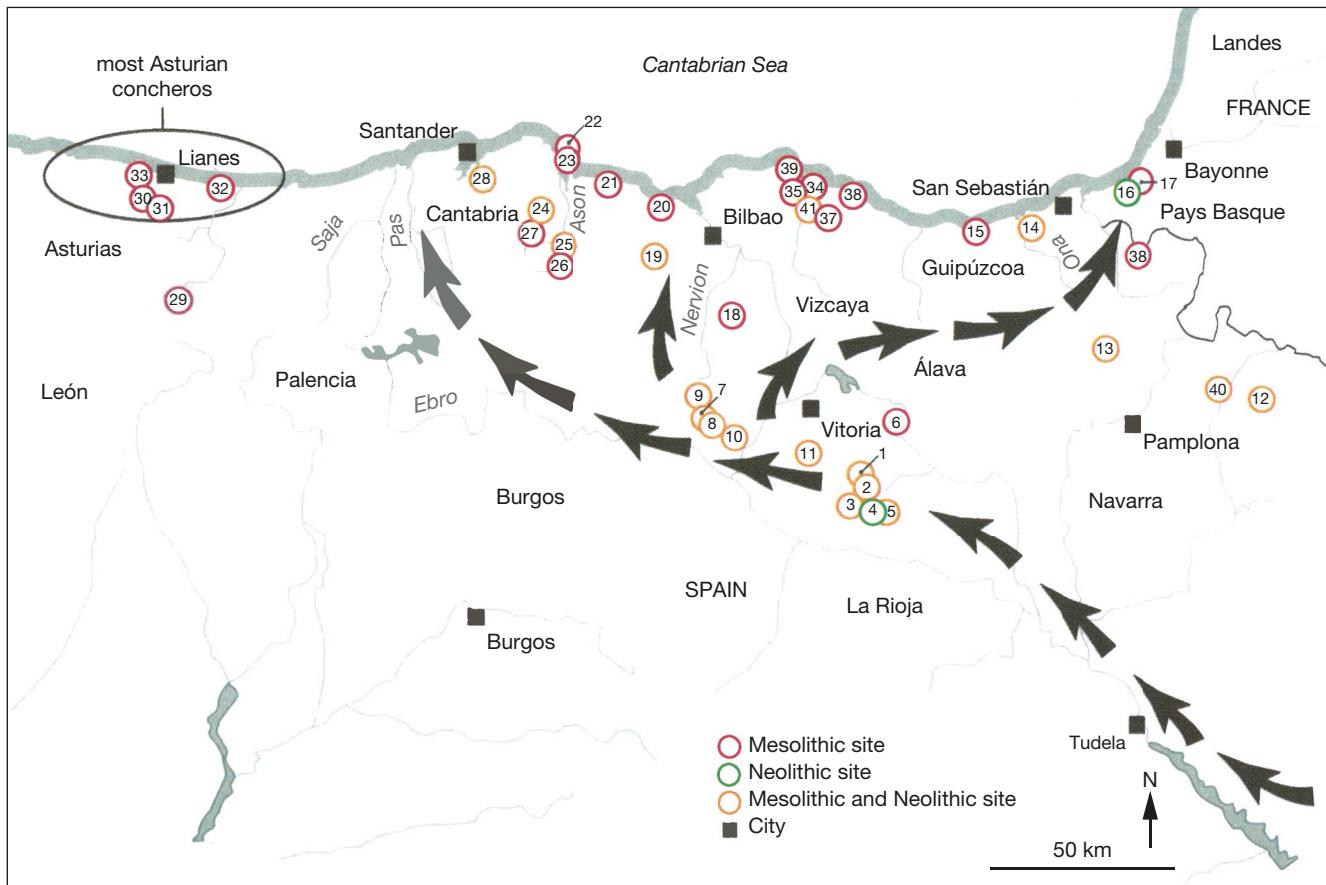


Fig. 10. — Most likely route of domesticated plants and animals originating in the Lower Ebro Valley and in Catalonia (redrawn and modified from Straus 2008: 303). Sites (numbers): 1, Atxoste Kanpanoste; 2, Kanpanoste Goikoa; 3, Montico de Charratu; 4, Peña Larga; 5, La Peña de Marañón; 6, Kukuma; 7, Socuevas; 8, Fuente Hoz; 9, Berniollo; 10, La Renke; 11, Mendandia; 12, Zatoya; 13, Abautz; 14, Marizulo; 15, Herriko Barra; 16, Mouligna; 17, Moura; 18, Urratxa; 19, Are-naza; 20, Pico Ramos; 21, La Trecha; 22, La Fragua; 23, El Perro; 24, La Chora; 25, El Mirón; 26, Tarrerón & Las Pajucas; 27, Cubio Redondo; 28, La Garma; 29, La Calvera; 30, Los Canes; 31, Arangas; 32, Mazaculos; 33, La Riera; 34, Santimamiñe; 35, Atxeta; 36, Lumentxa; 37, Kobeaga; 38, Berroberriá; 39, Pareko Landa; 40, Aizpea; 41, Kobaederra.

technology in general (Clark 2001). Variability in raw material package size and quality is likely to be very important (whence the widely recognized dichotomy noted above), as are the general activity suites of which these artifacts were once a part (Freeman 1994; Clark & Riel-Salvatore 2006). Sampling error and a component of random variation (or “noise”) in artifact form, frequency, and context can also affect assessments of assemblage differences and similarities. It is the task of the archaeologist to try to untangle these interwoven strands of causality, to partition sources of observed variation across one or more of these commonly recognized causal vectors. If successful, this partitioning can result in the identification of differences amongst assemblages that can more probably be related to one or several factors than to others. Explanations achieved in this way become more tenable with the passage of time, as successive attempts to refute them fail.

The Asturian is, admittedly, something of an enigma. However, there are good reasons for regarding it as only a part of a much wider range of subsistence technologies. As Straus (1979) pointed out long ago, the impoverished industry is so simple and incomplete that it is unlikely to represent the technological *repertoire* of an entire adaptive system. Blades

and bladelets do occur in the *concheros*, albeit – except at Liencres – at very low frequencies. It is possible that the same people who were creating the garbage dumps were making, using, losing and discarding blades and bladelets somewhere else. The question is where? The long-standing seasonal transhumance documented throughout most of the Upper Paleolithic seems unlikely to have vanished without a trace with the onset of the Holocene. Keeping in mind the problem of identifying the Azilian in default of the characteristic harpoons, Azilian sites (e.g. Azules, Valle, Mirón) dated to the end of the Bølling oscillation (14.6-14.1 ka BP), persist through the short Dryas II downturn (*c.* 14.0 ka BP), all of Allerød (13.9-12.9 ka BP) and come to an end around 10.6 ka BP. The Azilian thus spans the Pleistocene/Holocene boundary (11.7 ka BP), an event of no apparent behavioral significance. The Asturian (*c.* 9.3-6.5 ka BP) spans the end of the Preboreal (10.3-9.0 ka BP), the Boreal (9.0-7.5 ka BP) period, and may extend into the early Altithermal (7.0-5.0 ka BP). Despite sharp differences in the climate of northern Spain as indicated by microfaunal and pollen diagnostics, and in contrast to the subsistence economies of the Middle and early Upper Paleolithic, there is little evidence for subsistence change

over more than 15 millennia from the end of the Gravettian up until the appearance of the Neolithic. Warm or cold, wet or dry, wooded or open, the two basic staples of the regional forager economy – red deer and ibex – remained the same.

Although climate change seems to have had a minimal impact on forager economies, evidence has been accumulating for changes in population density, broadening of the human food niche, and more intensive exploitation of dietary staples. To cite several examples, an inverse relationship exists between the Azilian, when deer and ibex hunting were primary and shellfish gathering secondary, and the Asturian, when exploitation of shellfish (limpets, topshells) increased dramatically (Straus *et al.* 1980, 1981). Overexploitation of the mollusk fishery is also suggested at La Riera by a sharp decrease in the shell sizes of two limpet species in the late Magalenian, a trend that continues through the Mesolithic and beyond (Ortea 1986; Gutiérrez-Zugasti *et al.* 2011a, b). Marín Arroyo (2013) examined the ratio of ungulate to shellfish weights from the Late Magdalenian to the Asturian and showed that, as the former decreased, the latter increased. In short, overexploitation beginning in the late Magdalenian beginning to look like is a general trend driven by increasing population pressure on a limited resource base in the topographically circumscribed Cantabrian coastal strip following an influx of immigrants from Aquitaine during the LGM. Although the *conchero* remnants preserved today contain ample evidence of hunting, how big the shell mounds originally were is impossible to determine so how quantitatively important shellfish were in relation to ungulates is also impossible to determine. Perhaps they were more of a dietary staple than an “insurance resource.” It is also interesting to note that “Azilian” painted pebbles have been found at Mazaculos and El Pindal, where no other indications of Azilian occupation have come to light (González Morales 1982: 248). This could mean that, despite the dates, there is more continuity (perhaps complementarity) between the Azilian and the Asturian than has so far been recognized.

## THE BASQUE MESOLITHIC

### THE BASQUE MESOLITHIC – CHRONOLOGY

País Vasco can be divided into two regions: 1) the narrow coastal plain in Vizcaya and Guipúzcoa, backed up against the Cordillera Cantábrica; and 2) the interior provinces of Álava and Navarra, a series of E/W trending intermontane valleys, piedmonts and flood plains that make up part of the Río Ebro catchment. The distinction between the inland sites of the Basque provinces and those of the Middle Ebro is an arbitrary one, so that some sites and dates reported here appear in both. Although common in the Middle Ebro, there are relatively few dated Mesolithic sites in coastal Vizcaya and Guipúzcoa. Eleven sites have yielded 55 dates. The sample mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) and standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) for the coastal Basque sites is  $7414 \pm 90$  uncal BP;  $cv = 0.01$ . The range is 7504–7324 kya. The corresponding figures for the calibrated dates are  $\bar{x} = 8292 \pm 93$  ka,  $cv = 0.013$ ; the range

is 8305–8199 kya). The mean of the calibrated medians is 8331 cal BP (Table 1). The uncalibrated dates fall in the early Atlantic pollen phase but are about 300 years younger and much “tighter” (range = 180 years) than those of Cantabria (range = 270 years). The calibrated dates fall on the Boreal/Atlantic boundary (*c.* 8.3–5.8 ka cal BP).

### LITHIC INDUSTRIES – TECHNOLOGY,

#### TYPOLOGY AND RAW MATERIAL

So far as lithic industries are concerned, the Basque coastal Mesolithic (Vizcaya, Guipúzcoa) exhibits both similarities and differences with that of Cantabria. On the one hand, rare shell midden sites found along estuaries and inlets in Vizcaya are “non-Asturian” only because they lack the pointed, unifacial picks that define it (e.g. Santimamiñe, Antolíña, Kobaederra). Dated to *c.* 9.3–7.0 ka cal BP, they contain very few, crude lithic artifacts – mostly unretouched flakes; a few cores, denticulates and notches (Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009). On the other hand, microlithic industries in the Basque interior resemble those in the Ebro Basin, where there is marked technological continuity (i.e., backed bladelets, geometrics, micropoints) from the late Magdalenian through the Mesolithic (Arias Cabal & Fano 2005; Soto *et al.* 2015). Because of the regional lithology in which quartzite is relatively rare, there is a major contrast in raw material types when compared with Asturias. Usable flint tool stone derived from flysch outcrops exposed on cliff faces and valley walls is more common in the Basque country than in Cantabria and Asturias. Nodule size and quality also decrease progressively from east to west where they are replaced by quartzite, limestones and ophite (Straus 2018b). Bone and antler tools are confined to rare awls made from ungulate metapodials, the occasional rudimentary antler “point” and bone fish gorges. Perhaps the most important coastal site is J3 (Txotxipi – Altuna *et al.* 1995), a shell midden in a large rockshelter *c.* 40 m above sea level on Monte Jaizkibel overlooking the Río Bidasoa estuary in eastern Guipúzcoa about 200 m from the modern coast (Iriarte-Chiapusso *et al.* 2005, 2010; Álvarez-Fernández *et al.* 2010). Noteworthy for a rare human burial dated to *c.* 9250 cal BP, its sparse and non-descript lithic industry resembles those of other coastal Mesolithic sites and stands in contrast with those in the interior, typically explained by a dichotomy between hunting and microlithic industries, on the one hand, and marine resource exploitation, requiring only minimal technology, on the other.

In contrast with Cantabria, the Basque Mesolithic is characterized by a bewildering array of classification schemes, and there seems to be little consensus with respect to diagnostics and chronology. In Álava, Alday & Cava (2006) recognize no fewer than eight culture/stratigraphic units that can be roughly divided into: 1) a cohesive macrolithic Notch/Denticulate (N+D) facies; 2) four or five microlithic industries (Sauveterroid Mesolithic, Geometric Mesolithic, Azilian, Aziloid, Laminar Epipaleolithic, indeterminate); and 3) a Sauveterroid/N+D facies with both macro- and microlithic components. On the basis of 52 dates from 14 sites, there is both overlap and some temporal segregation.

The earliest Mesolithic industries in the Basque Country pertain to the Microlithic Mesolithic (MM) and the Sauveterien (S), an industry first defined in southern France (Valdeyron 1994, 2008). Portugain (12.3 ka cal BP), six dates that cluster around 11.0 ka cal BP (Aizpea, Ekain, Abauntz), and an outlier (Mendandia) at 7.5 ka cal BP make up this group, defined by small backed and truncated blades and bladelets. They lack geometrics and a significant macrolithic component. The N+D industries extend in time from c. 10.2-8.3 ka cal BP; the S/N+D dates range from 10.2-9.4 ka cal BP, with an outlier (Pareko Landa) at 7.5 ka cal BP. Both dates fall in the last part of the Boreal (11.0-9.5 ka cal BP). The GM shows a continuous distribution of 21 dates from about 9.1-7.2 ka cal BP, mostly in the Atlantic (c. 8.3-5.8 ka cal BP).

Noting that the N+D dates coincide with an episode of dense oak (*Quercus ilex* Linnaeus, 1758) and hazel (*Corylus avellana* Linnaeus, 1758) forests, Alday & Cava (2006) make the interesting suggestion that the N+D Mesolithic might have been used primarily for woodworking whereas the very different GM reaches its full development during a period marked by a loss of tree cover. Because the raw material is largely flint, edge wear and damage studies could resolve this but, to our knowledge no edge wear studies have been done. The facies are distinguished from one another on a site-by-site basis using index types (e.g. various micropoints, geometrics), type groups, debitage, retouch modes, blank metrics and characteristics, proportional consistency or lack thereof across types and within sequences, and raw material variants. Unlike Cantabria, and in contrast with the coast, there is strong formal continuity in the microlith-dominated facies from the late Magdalenian on to the Neolithic, and an apparent consensus that the ultimate “source” of these facies was in southern France via Catalunya and the Ebro. The overall characteristics of the lithic industries tend to resemble those of the Middle Ebro.

#### MESOLITHIC SUBSISTENCE ALONG THE BASQUE COAST

Little can be added to the subsistence economy in regard to coastal Vizcaya and Guipúzcoa; the species commonly exploited are essentially the same as those found in Cantabria and Asturias (indeed, along the entire north coast). Despite much evidence for climate change over the late Pleistocene and early Holocene, the dietary staples throughout the late Paleolithic and Mesolithic do not change much. Red deer are ubiquitous and dominate in most sites, although boar are a significant dietary element in some levels at Kanpanoste (Cava *et al.* 2004) and roe deer at Mendandia (Alday 2006). Roe deer and chamois typically occur in small numbers, along with ibex, auroch (*Bos primigenius* Bojanus, 1827) and scarce remains of horse (*Equus caballus* Linnaeus, 1758). Reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus* Linnaeus, 1758), strongly dominant in Aquitaine and the Dordogne during the late Upper Paleolithic, are rare in LUP sites in northern Spain, always with very low NISP counts, and are entirely absent in Holocene contexts. Small game (rabbit, hare) were not hunted to any great extent.

So far as shellfish exploitation is concerned, the Basque sites resemble their western counterparts both in species compo-

sition and relative frequency, and in regard to the intertidal zones and substrates from which they were collected. Basque midden sites are rare compared to those in Asturias, perhaps suggesting lower population densities for the region as a whole. As in Asturias, limpets (*Patella vulgata* Linnaeus, 1758, *P. intermedia* Murray, 1857) and topshells (*Monodonta lineata* da Costa, 1778) are most common. Oysters (*Ostrea edulis* Linnaeus, 1758) are important at Kobaederra (6400-6940 cal BP), Santimamiñe (6970-7130 cal BP) and at Pico Ramos (6860-6490 cal BP), although the latter two sites are both disturbed by late Neolithic occupations (Sarasketa-Gartzia *et al.* 2018). Mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis* Lamarck, 1819), a marker of warming seas, are rare in Basque sites, but are common at La Llana, Mazaculos II, and Arenillas, all in Asturias (Álvarez-Fernández 2008). Regardless of location, the economic species (limpets, topshells, oysters, mussels) are collected from rocky substrates either in estuaries (common) or on the open coast (rare). There is no evidence for the consumption of marine molluscs at sites located more than 10 km inland (e.g. El Espertín, Aizpea, Peña 14, El Pontet) and most are found within 3-5 km of the modern coast. About a dozen species of small gastropods (e.g. *Nassaria lapillus* (cf. *Nucella*) Linnaeus, 1758, *Nassarius reticulatus* Linnaeus, 1758, *Littorina obtusata* Linnaeus, 1758) were collected dead from the wave-beaten coast and were used to make beads for pendants, necklaces, bracelets and anklets, an inference supported by their minimal dietary contribution, surface abrasion due to wave action, and the frequent perforation of the apex (Álvarez-Fernández 2008). They tend to occur in burial contexts (Gutiérrez-Zugasti 2009).

#### OVERVIEW – THE BASQUE COASTAL MESOLITHIC

It is difficult to escape the impression that, just as Liencres could be argued to complement the Cantabrian Asturian, the flake industry at J3 and the N+D sites in the interior could complement the microlithic assemblages in Álava and in the middle Ebro drainage. There is a well-documented association between these crude flake assemblages and shell middens although they can also occur inland (e.g. the N+D). That they are rare along the coast is probably due to the topography of Guipúzcoa where the North Biscay Anticline plunges directly into the sea resulting in a near-total absence of a coastal plain. Like the Asturian, the coastal Mesolithic in the Basque provinces appears to represent only part of a regional adaptive system. It is reasonable to expect that foragers were doing a substantial amount of hunting in the Cordillera, but apparently without much use of microlith insets in compound weapons and tools. The missing component could have been replaced by organic technologies, primarily wood, which would have left no archaeological trace. However, bone and antler artifacts are also rare in the coastal sites, perhaps underscoring an emphasis on shellfish gathering, a mode of subsistence that requires little in the way of technology. Based on mid-latitude forager ethnographies (Binford 2001) and, frankly, common sense, the full range of artifacts that one might expect to find in the Mesolithic of mid-latitude Eurosiberia is present in Álava and in the middle Ebro Basin.

TABLE 2. — Ebro Basin Mesolithic Sites – Alava Sub-sample (extracted from Alday *et al.* 2018: 89).

Period date cal BP	Total sites Ebro Basin	Caves and rockshelters	Open air sites	No. 14C dates	Sites per 100 years	Alava Sub-region (14 sites)	Alava no. 14C dates
Neolithic c. 7500-5500	54	41	13	–	2.70	Araico Atxoste Cascajos Husos 1-1 Larrenke N Mendandia Peña Larga San Cristóbal	–
Geometric Mesolithic c. 8000-7500	27	26	1	254	2.25	Atxoste Kanpanoste G Martinari Mendandia Socuevas Urratxa III	45
Denticulate Mesolithic c. 10000-8700	17	16	1	55	1.31	Atxoste Kanpanoste Kanpanoste G Martinari Mendandia	11
Sauveterrian/ Azilian/ Microlaminar c. 13500-10000	20	20	0	32	0.57	Atxoste Martinari Mendandia Portugain Socuevas Urratxa III	11
Late Magdalenian c. 15000-13500	20	20	0	38	1.33	Atxoste Martinari Socuevas	13

## THE MESOLITHIC IN THE MIDDLE EBRO BASIN

### CHRONOLOGY

Because of the likelihood of contact between the Basque coastal sites and the large Ebro catchment south of the Cordillera, we also consider some aspects of the latter here, using data from the provinces of Álava and the western part of Navarra. We do not deal with Catalunya, nor the lower reaches of the Ebro. There are more than 600 dated levels in the Ebro Basin extending in time from the late Magdalenian to the early Neolithic, of which 42% are considered Mesolithic. The Mesolithic of the middle Ebro Basin comprises 362 dates from 44 sites (Alday *et al.* 2018). The uncalibrated sample mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) and standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) are  $7412 \pm 64$ ;  $cv = 0.03$ . The range is 7476-7348 BP. For the calibrated dates, the corresponding figures are  $\bar{x} = 8077 \pm 96$  ka,  $cv = 0.01$ ; the range is 8173-7981 BP. The cal BP median is 8281. Like the Basque coastal Mesolithic, both the calibrated and uncalibrated series date to the Atlantic/Boreal boundary.

As shown in Table 1, both the uncalibrated and calibrated dates from the Basque and Ebro samples are strikingly similar, and imply a consensus view of the time span considered “Mesolithic”, whatever the very different technologies and processes involved in the appearance of domestication economies might mean. This in turn suggests a very rapid appearance of Neolithic indicators, albeit later, more partial and ephemeral along the north coast, marked by the long persistence of mixed economies (Fernández-López & Gómez Puche 2009).

It should be kept in mind that these comparisons are problematic for a number of reasons. One purely mechanical one is that dispersion in the Ebro calibrated sample is sometimes (but not always) expressed in terms of  $2\sigma$  (95% confidence interval) whereas that of the uncalibrated sample is given in terms of  $1\sigma$  (67% confidence interval), thus skewing comparison. Other confounding factors are a significant number of undated open sites in the Middle Ebro and over-representation of dates from a few sites, a bias problem with both the Asturian and the Ebro samples – some sites are very well dated, others not. Examples include Lámpara (18 dates) and Revilla (16 dates) in the Ebro series. In the SDPs we compensate for this kind of overrepresentation. Despite these problems, the means of the calibrated medians are very close to one another (both 8.3 ka cal BP). So far as Cantabria is concerned, the uncalibrated mid-range is 7813 uncal BP (c. 8.7 ka cal BP), not very different from the Basque and Ebro dates. So, no matter how you slice it, the Mesolithic in northern Spain falls into relatively narrow chronological parameters, albeit with significant differences within them.

### LITHIC INDUSTRIES

The lithic industries in the Ebro Basin region have been roughly divided into microlithic assemblages made on flints and cherts that broadly resemble the pan-Cantabrian late Magdalenian/Azilian (Rojo-Guerra *et al.* 2018) and crude, flake-dominated macrolithic industries with lots of denticulates, notches and

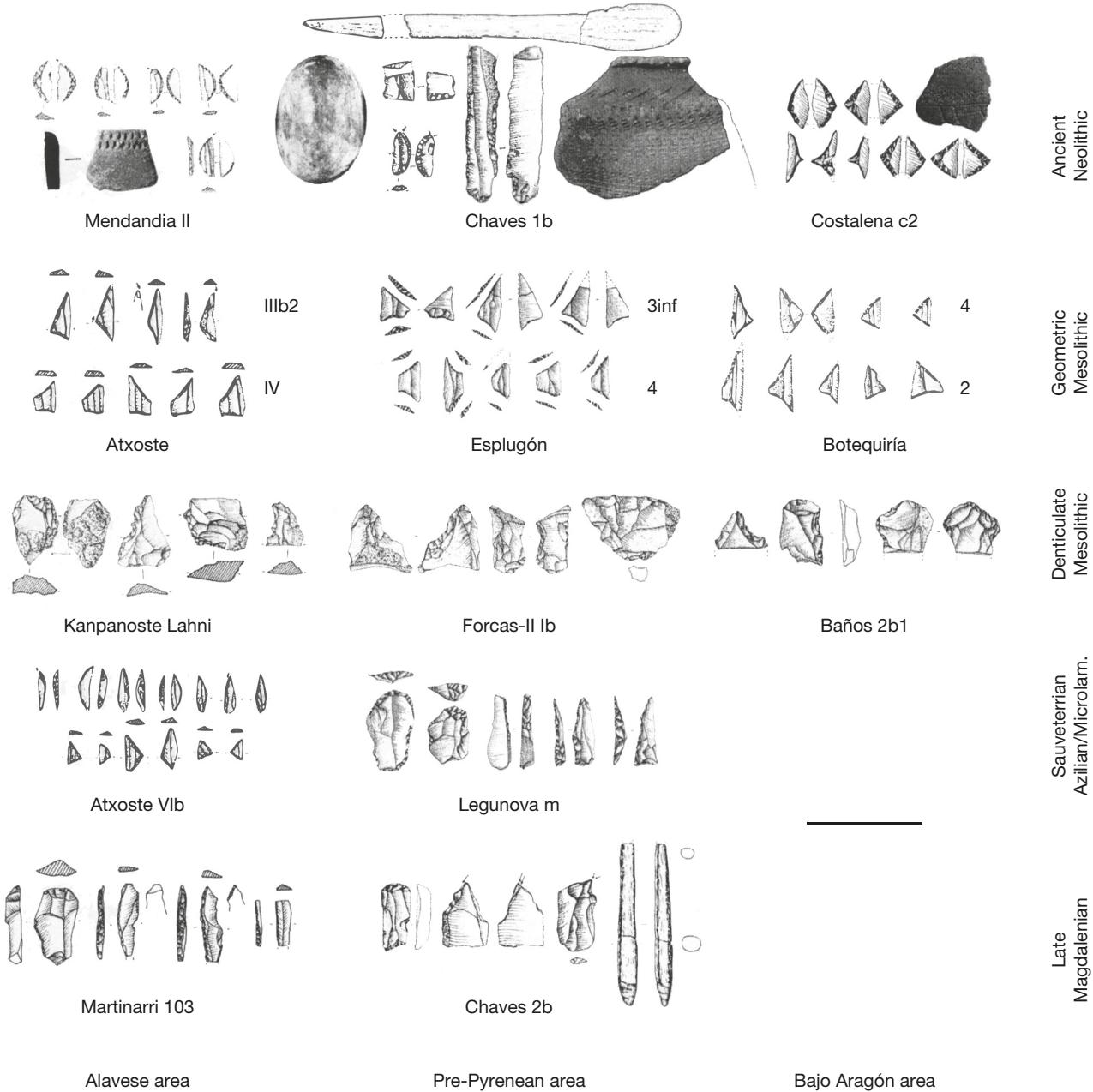


Fig. 11. — Representative archaeological material from three Mesolithic subdivisions (R) and bracketing assemblages in sites in three pilot areas of the Ebro Basin (from Alday *et al.* 2018: 93). Scale bar: 5 cm.

sidescrapers (Alday *et al.* 2018). In addition to the ubiquitous backed and pointed bladelets, geometrics considered to be the tangible remains of compound weapons (arrows, darts) and tools (sickles, knives) slotted into organic foreshafts and hafts occur in some of these sites (Arias Cabal & Fano 2005; Alday & Cava 2006; Soto *et al.* 2015; Straus 2018a). Similar geometric industries, sometimes called “Sauveterrian” or “Sauveterroid,” are also found in Catalonia and Mediterranean France (Plisson *et al.* 2008) but are absent in Asturias and very rare in País Vasco.

In a recent study, Alday and colleagues (2018) erect what appears to be an empirically sound typology comprising three Mesolithic phases bracketed by the late Magdalenian

(c. 15–13.5 ka cal BP) and the early Neolithic (c. 7.5–5.5 ka cal BP), thereby introducing a degree of order in an area where several partly conflicting culture-historical chronological frameworks exist. These phases are the Microlaminar Mesolithic, the Denticulate Mesolithic, and the Geometric Mesolithic (Table 2; Fig. 11). A simplification of the Basque interior typology, a close similarity is obvious since the line between the two regions is essentially an arbitrary one.

#### *The Microlaminar Mesolithic*

The Microlaminar Mesolithic (13.5–10.0 ka cal BP) is known from 20 caves and rockshelters represented by 46 radiocarbon

dates, with a site frequency index (number of sites/100 years) of 0.57. In very broad terms, the SFI suggests a decline in site frequency from the preceding late Magdalenian (1.33), also represented by 20 sites. The MM shows continuous development from an Epi-Magdalenian base, with some sites containing levels with strong Azilian affinities (e.g. Portugain, Irratxa III – Barandiarán *et al.* 2008), while others “evolve” into industries resembling the Sauveterrian of southern France (e.g. Socuevas, Atxoste VI b-c – Alday *et al.* 2018). Whatever the typological diagnostics might mean (the Azilian lacks geometrics; the Sauveterrian has variable numbers of triangular, trapezoidal and lunate microliths), there is technological continuity and a broad similarity across all the Mesolithic industries in the Middle Ebro over 3.5-4.0 millennia. Both facies span the latter half of GI-1, GS-1, and the Pre-Boreal, and show no correlation with climate change (Rasmussen *et al.* 2014).

#### *The Denticulate Mesolithic*

A dramatic technological transformation at the beginning of the Boreal marks the appearance of the Denticulate Mesolithic (10.0-8.7 ky cal BP), known from 17 sites with 55 radiocarbon dates, and with a SFI of 1.31, almost twice that of the preceding MM (0.57), perhaps signaling an increase in population. The Denticulate Mesolithic is a rather non-descript flake industry represented by notches and denticulates made on thick flakes and chunks, and a near-total absence of blades and bladelets (e.g. Kanpanoste Lahni, Forcas-II 1b) (García-Puchol *et al.* 2009; Soto *et al.* 2015). It appears to lack projectile elements, perhaps made in wood, as indicated by a use/wear study on notched pieces (Montes *et al.* 2006). Despite sharp differences in technology, there are no significant changes in raw material types. As the name implies, the DM is virtually identical to the N+D Mesolithic in the Basque interior. It is also somewhat reminiscent of the Asturian because it is so strikingly different from the industries that bracket it and because it appears to be “incomplete”, only a part of a broader adaptive system in which bladelets might also have played a role. However, and again like the Asturian, there are no corresponding microlithic industries in the middle Ebro over the 1300 years allotted the DM. Just what might have caused such an extreme departure from the norm is explored below.

#### *The geometric Mesolithic*

As the name implies, the Geometric Mesolithic (8.7-7.5 ky cal BC) signals a return to the microlithic technologies that dominate in the Ebro from the Late Magdalenian up until (and into) the early Neolithic. Twenty-seven GM sites have been identified, represented by 254 radiocarbon dates. The SFI is 2.25, an apparent continuation of the trend toward increases in population density. So far as technology is concerned, the GM appears to combine a microlithic component in which triangles (e.g. Atxoste III-b2, Botiquería 4), trapezoids (e.g. Esplugón 4) and truncated bladelets (“points”) are common elements, with a flake tool component consisting of notches, denticulates and scrapers reminiscent of the Denticulate Microlithic, a pattern that suggests functional differences within

the technocomplex (Straus 2018a). Geometric technologies continue uninterrupted into the early Neolithic, but lunates (e.g. Mendandia II) and triangles (e.g. Costalena c2) replace trapezoids as the dominant forms. There are also sites (e.g. Chaves 1b) with a significant microblade component.

#### PALEOCLIMATIC CHANGE

Much geoscience, faunal and palynological research complements the recent, intensive archaeological work in the Middle Ebro. Pollen, charcoal and microfaunal assemblages define a succession of paleoenvironmental features that correlates with regional paleoclimatic records. There is little change in subsistence throughout the Mesolithic with the major prey element, red deer, exploited well into the Neolithic, even after agropastoral economies were long established. Site function changes only in the Late Neolithic, when caves and rockshelters ceased to be used as living spaces, and began to be used as corrals and burial sites. Environmental fluctuations during the Holocene caused important landscape changes in the area, a very sensitive region due to its semiarid climate, lithology, and continuous human presence. Although severe erosion hinders palaeoenvironmental reconstruction, throughout most of the Mesolithic strong correlations between human adaptation and climate change are not evident. The late Magdalenian and most of the Microlaminar Mesolithic unfold over a long interval from about 16 to 11.7 ka cal BP encompassing the Tardiglacial, the Pleistocene/Holocene boundary, Allerød interstadial [GI-1], the sharply colder Younger Dryas [GS-1], and part of the early Preboreal; the DM is of Preboreal and Boreal age, and the GM dates to the Boreal and earliest Atlantic. The dramatic shift in technology represented by the appearance of the Denticulate Mousterian occurs around 10.2 ka cal BP, in the middle Boreal, but – again – without correlated climate change.

#### SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

As noted above, the radiocarbon chronology in the Ebro is robust and generally replicates the span allotted the Mesolithic in Asturias and Cantabria. Taken at face value, there are effectively no gaps. Demographically, an SPD frequency curve documents shifts in population density. Except for a sharp but brief increase between 15-14 ka cal BP, a warm phase near the end of the Magdalenian, inferred population densities are low and stable until about 10.5 ka cal BP when an irregular trend toward increase is indicated that corresponds approximately to the time span allotted the Denticulate Mesolithic (10.0-8.7 ka cal BP) (Alday *et al.* 2018) (Fig. 12).

While temporal gaps are not apparent, there are some significant gaps in the spatial distributions of the various Mesolithic phases caused by differences in the factors acting on aspects of the landscape in Álava, the Pre-Pyrenean area, and Bajo Aragón. Alday and colleagues (2018) attribute these factors to various combinations of climate and erosion, distilling from them two hypotheses. The first focuses on sampling error (i.e., human occupation was in fact spatially continuous but appears not to be because samples are not representative of the full range of settlement recorded to date) and erosion

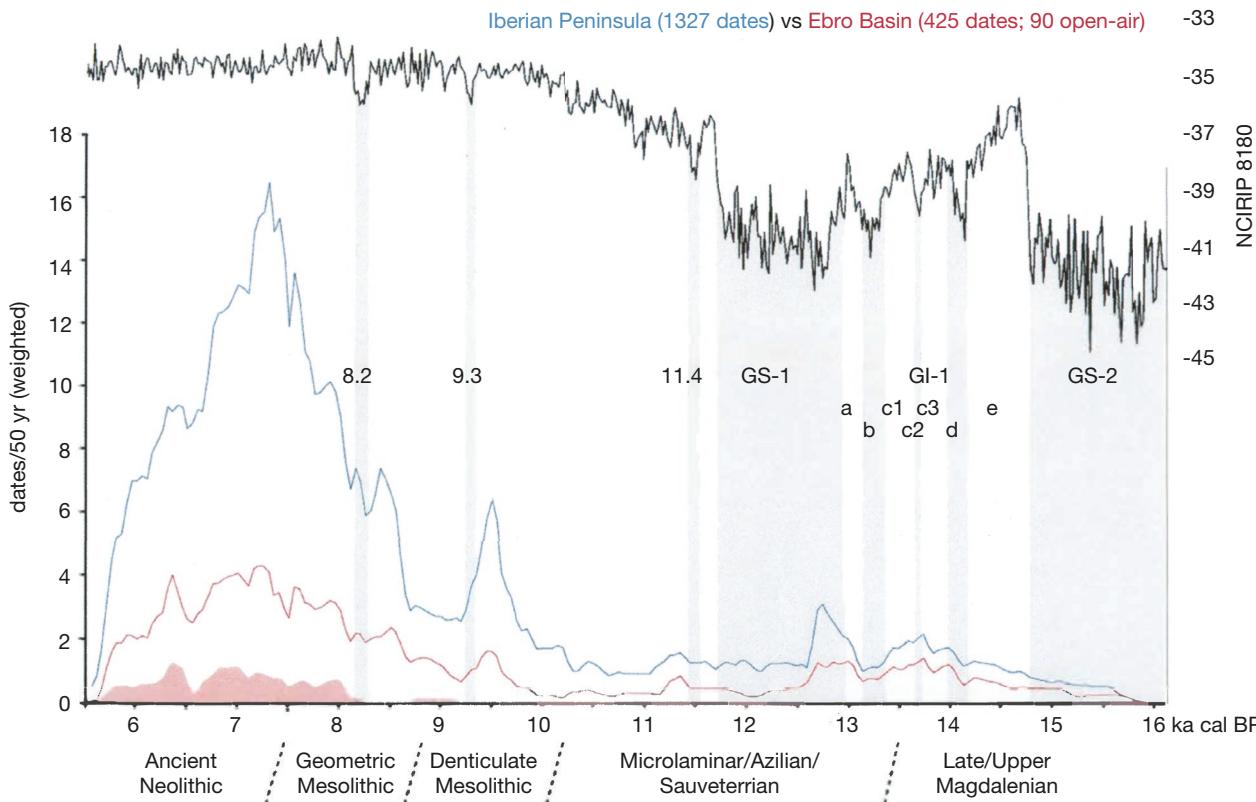


FIG. 12. — Weighted mean dates by 50-year intervals from Iberia and Ebro Basin between 16.0 and 5.5 ka cal BP. Reddish area under Ebro line based on 90 dates from the open-air sites. Note y-axis reversed compared with Figures 18–22 (from Alday *et al.* 2018: 91).

(i.e., differential erosion has created “holes” in the fabric of settlement where none previously existed). The second hypothesis emphasizes climatic factors and socio-economic changes. It proposes that there was no human settlement in parts of the Ebro sub-regions because the climate was too harsh to allow it, and/or an as yet unknown change in the economy forced a change in how humans distributed themselves over the landscape. Erosion is rejected because stratigraphies at several well-dated sites, excavated using modern techniques, evince no hiatuses. Sampling error also seems improbable because of consistency in the stratigraphies found at the 64 cave and rockshelter sites that constitute the Mesolithic sample. Cultural (i.e., behavioral) factors are favored by the authors although just what they were is not clear. Although the gap prior to the Denticulate Mesolithic occurs in all the northeastern Spanish sequences (Montes *et al.* 2006: 213), it does not coincide in time nor with episodes of climate change between regions. The three Mesolithic technocomplexes appear and disappear at around the same time in the different parts of the Basin (Alday *et al.* 2018).

#### THE TRANSITION TO THE NEOLITHIC

In contrast with Vasco-Cantabria, where the early Neolithic is poorly known and dated, defined mostly by the appearance of megalithic monuments (e.g. González Morales *et al.* 2004), there a long history of transition research in the Middle Ebro Basin and much empirical evidence for it (see Rojo-Guerra

*et al.* [2018] for a historiography). Moreover, there are two competing models for the process itself: 1) Maritime Pioneer Colonization (Zilhão 2001, 2011); and 2) what is sometimes called the Dual Model (e.g. and Bernabeu Aubán *et al.* 2015, 2016; Fernández-Eraso *et al.* 2015).

Based on a critical analysis of radiocarbon dates clustering around 7400 cal BP, Zilhão (2001) argues that an extremely rapid colonization by “pioneers” originating in France and Italy is best supported empirically, and that agropastoral economies arrived more or less as a “package” including ceramic vessels (Cardial ware), polished stone axes and village dwelling, spread quickly up the Ebro occupying territory largely devoid of foragers and with whom they appear to have had little contact. The Dual Model is more complex and proceeds by stages (e.g. Bernabeu *et al.* 2014, 2016; Fernández-Eraso 2011; Fernández-Eraso *et al.* 2015; Pardo-Gordó *et al.* 2017). It emphasizes initial colonization of prime agropastoral land, only very tentative contacts with thinly-distributed hunter-gatherers and little or no acculturation, followed by a demographic pulse resulting in expansion into territory less well-suited to farming and stock raising, increased contact with foragers as colonists encroach upon their lands, segregation of forager and farming communities, accelerated acculturation and, eventually, abandonment of the hunting and gathering way of life. At present, both views have their advocates and both are supported empirically. The differences turn on whether or not, and/or to what extent acculturation plays a role in the

establishment of domestication economies. Paleogenetic data are scarce but what is available points to open communities and frequent genetic exchange, a view that tends to support the Dual Model more than the MPC (one is tempted to remark that people exchange their genes much more readily than their cultures...). To our knowledge, there are no genetic analyses for the Neolithization process itself. The early Neolithic in the Ebro valley seems to be characterized by interactions among colonists and indigenes that would have blurred any “pure” Mesolithic and Neolithic lineages present at the initial stages of the process. That said, the genetic evidence definitely confirms the presence of colonists in the middle Ebro, and interaction between them and indigenous foragers (García-Martínez de Lagrán *et al.* 2018).

## OVERVIEW

In contrast with Cantabria and the Basque country, and interrupted only by the Denticulate Mesolithic, there is good evidence for technotypological continuity and similarities in adaptation that cross-cut the late Magdalenian (*c.* 16–13.5 ka cal BP) and Dryas I (*c.* 16.9–14.7 ka cal BP), and the Azilian (*c.* 13.7–10.6 ka cal BP), which first occurs near the end of the Bølling oscillation (*c.* 14.8–13.6 ka cal BP), extended throughout the Dryas II cold phase (*c.* 12.9–11.7 ka cal BP), and came to a close at the end of the Allerød (*c.* 11.8–10.8 ka cal BP). The Mesolithic in the Middle Ebro dates to about 10.4–8.3 ka cal BP. It spans most of the Boreal (*c.* 11.0–9.5 ka cal BP), all of the Atlantic (*c.* 9.5–8.3 ka cal BP), ending just prior to the 8.2 ka cal BP cold event (Rohling & Pälike 2005; Thomas *et al.* 2007). There is an apparent gap of about 1500 years between the Mesolithic and the Neolithic (Table 1).

Compared to the coastal Mesolithic, microlith-dominated Mesolithic industries are most prevalent in the Ebro, perhaps underscoring an emphasis on hunting. However, it should be kept in mind that microliths in general were replaceable elements in both compound weapons and tools. Ethnographically, they were used in several different contexts (e.g. reaping cereal grasses, as elements in knives, saws), not just in hunting technology (Clarke 1978). Although there is considerable overlap, the distinctions between the MM and the GM mostly depend on differences in projective point types, thought to indicate a flexible, longstanding series of forager adaptations, one that cross-cuts all manner of climate change and topographic differences. Overall similarities with the bladelet-dominated Azilian in Cantabria are striking, nor are the non-microlithic components very different. Their prevalence in Azilian sites suggests broad similarities in technology with sites in the middle Ebro.

The extreme rarity of geometrics in Cantabria and their presence in the Ebro is interesting because of its implications for raw material differences between the two areas. Cryptocrystalline rock, often of poor quality, occurs only as small cobbles and pebbles in Cantabria, whereas better quality flints and cherts are found in larger “packages” in the Ebro Basin, perhaps allowing for better control over microlith shapes. Different methods of hafting might also have required different insets (backed bladelets in Cantabria, geometrics in the

Ebro) in order to accomplish the same ends (Straus 2018a, b). Heat treatment is another variable although, so far as we know, whether or not tool stone was ever heat-treated in north Spain is unknown.

The persistence of these lithic industries across roughly eight millennia and six different phytogeographic associations, in a region where the economic faunas are essentially the same, combine to suggest that any simple relationship between macroclimatic and geographical drivers for changes in adaptation cannot be sustained empirically (Fano 2007a, b; Arias Cabal *et al.* 2007a; Straus 2018a; Clark *et al.* 2019). The principal subsistence difference is the importance of marine resources at Cantabrian coastal sites and (obviously) their complete absence inland. The continental shelf off northern Spain is very narrow and deep, with even LGM shorelines displaced no more than 5–10 km north of the present coast. Where the coastal plain is relatively wide, as in Asturias, vestiges of shell middens are common. Where the coastal plain is non-existent or extremely narrow, as in the Basque Country, shell middens are rare. Sea level transgression during the Atlantic phase (the post-glacial climatic optimum) likely destroyed many open air sites on earlier post-glacial shorelines, leaving only the biased remnants available for study today.

The major anomaly in the continuous development of microlithic technologies is the Denticulate Mesolithic, an industry in several ways analogous to the Asturian. Absent only the Asturian picks, both the DM and the Asturian are flake industries dominated by notches and denticulates with a significant “heavy duty” tool component (choppers, chopping tools) made on cobbles and big flakes, some of which were probably also cores. Like the Asturian, the DM appears “incomplete”, only a part of a wider technological system that might also have included laminar technologies. It shows up at roughly the same time throughout the Ebro drainage from the coast to the highlands (Garcia-Puchol *et al.* 2009, 2018). And, like the Asturian, it is preceded by a chronological gap of several millennia. Radical change is apparent suggesting changes in adaptation but correlations with “the usual suspects” (i.e., climate change, changes in resource types and distributions, changes in raw material availability, changes in lithic “traditions”, an influx of immigrants, etc.) remain elusive.

## THE UPPER PALEOLITHIC AND MESOLITHIC IN GALICIA

In contrast to Vasco-Cantabria, and despite a long history of research, data relevant to the Mesolithic in Galicia are meager. The reason is its shield rock geology. Whereas Cantabria is underlain by Carboniferous substrates (limestones, dolomites, shale) upon which alkaline soils have formed that preserve fauna well, Galicia is dominated by Paleozoic (Lower Cambrian) igneous and metamorphic rock (granite, granodiorite, quartzite, gneiss) with acidic soils inimical to the preservation of organics. Caves and rock shelters are relatively common throughout Cantabria, whereas in Galicia they are confined to a narrow, N/S trending strip in the eastern part of the provinces

of Lugo and Ourense constituting a tiny 0.5% of the country. It is in this northeastern corner of Galicia where practically all stratified archaeological and paleontological sites are located (Lombera-Hermida 2011).

#### A BRIEF HISTORY OF RESEARCH

After a period of relative inactivity, the 1980s saw an expansion of interest in the geology, sedimentology, archaeology and paleontology of the region sparked by speleologists and manifest in the formation of transdisciplinary research teams that focused on contexts where Pleistocene sediments were likely to be preserved (e.g. fluvial sequences, hydromorphic soils, road cuts, karstic cavities). The main objective was to describe and date long stratigraphic sequences that could be used to organize in situ archaeological remains, should any be forthcoming. By the 1990s it became apparent that erosion had altered much of the archaeology, making it difficult to link it to the macrostratigraphy. Because of soil acidity, the archaeology consisted almost entirely of stone artifacts. No organic material was preserved, making it difficult to obtain radiometric dates. Consequently, most of what is known about the Stone Age comes mainly from the techno-typology of lithics in open-air sites (e.g. Cano Pan 1997; see Cano Pan [2012] for a historiography of Galician research during the 20<sup>th</sup> century).

#### THE PHYTOGEOGRAPHY OF THE KARST

From the few data so far available, paleobotanical research in Galicia is consistent with the same succession of phytogeographic communities that characterized northern Spain in general (Fig. 13). The 20 000 years spanning the late glacial to the early Holocene was climatically unstable, marked by fluctuations in temperature, humidity and vegetation. The Tardiglacial (*c.* 15.0–10.0 ka BP) was generally cold and humid initially with heathlands that gradually gave way to slightly warmer, substantially drier conditions and the appearance of grasslands with stands of conifers (pine, juniper) in protected locales, along with a scattering of oaks, birches and other deciduous trees. The Bølling interstadial (14.8–13.6 ka cal BP) saw an expansion of mixed deciduous-coniferous woodlands that continued into the very humid, temperate Allerød (13.6–12.9 ka cal BP), interrupted by an episode of woodland regression during the Younger Dryas (12.9–11.7 ka cal BP), followed by recolonization and densification of mixed deciduous woodlands during the Preboreal and Boreal, culminating in the thickly forested environments of the post-glacial optimum (*c.* 7.25–6.25 ka cal BP), with temperatures *c.* 2–4° C warmer than at present (Ramil Rego *et al.* 2005; Roucoux *et al.* 2005; Vidal Romaní & Sanjurjo-Sánchez 2010; Jalut *et al.* 2010; Pérez Alberti 2011; Naughton *et al.* 2016).

In Galicia, two brief episodes of forest regression reconstructed from pollen may be synchronous with the GH-11.2 ka cal BP and GH-8.2 events (Leira & Santos 2002). At mid-elevations, two woodland expansion phases (7000–6000 cal BP, 4000–2500 cal BP) are separated by a phase of heaths and the formation of peat deposits. The 8.2 ka cal event, a very short cold snap lasting at most a couple centuries

(Walker *et al.* 2012), appears to have had little effect on phytogeography, although it roughly coincides with radical technological change between the Azilian and the Asturian in Cantabria (Straus 2018a, b). It should be kept in mind that pollen sequences first defined in Scandinavia and on the north German lowland plain – like a fine wine – don’t “travel well” and are strongly influenced by topography. Even during full glacial conditions, both conifers and deciduous species persisted in refugia – the deeply dissected valleys of Cantabria and other protected locales. They almost certainly did so in Galicia as well (Fig. 13).

#### THE ARCHAEOPALEONTOLOGY OF THE KARST

Although there is scant evidence for a human presence, more than 25 caves and rockshelters have yielded paleontological remains (Grandal-d’Anglade & Romaní 1997). More recently, Lombera-Hermida (2011; Lombera-Hermida *et al.* 2014) has identified nine caves in eastern Galicia that also preserve archaeological material, thus allowing for reconstruction of the mammal communities available to Pleistocene and early Holocene foragers. Systematic study is recent but results indicate the same range of prey species known from Asturias (i.e., red and roe deer, chamois, boar, ibex; rarely horses, *aurochsen*; a single mammoth (*Elephas primigenius* Blumenbach, 1799) from a quarry in Lugo). As in Cantabria the paleontological localities are usually monospecific, dominated by cave (*Ursus spelaeus* Rosenmüller, 1794) and brown (*U. arctos* Linnaeus, 1758) bear, occasionally by hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta spelaea* Goldfuss, 1823). Exceptions are Cova Eirós, Liñares Sur, Valdeabraira and Praducelos which have more diverse faunas (e.g. Grandal-d’Anglade & Romaní 1997). Radiometric dates from these paleontological localities are summarized in Table 3. Site locations are shown in Figures 14 and 15 (Ramil Rego *et al.* 2016). Although Metal Age archaeology occurs in some of the caves, no Pleistocene archaeology was recorded until the late 1980s with the excavation of A Valiña cave where a sparse and non-descript “Châtelperronian” industry was discovered and dated (Llana Rodríguez & Soto Barreiro 1991; Llana Rodríguez *et al.* 1992, 1996; Llana Rodríguez 2011; but cf. Fábregas Valcarce & Lombera-Hermida 2010). Whatever the character of its lithic assemblage and its equivocal dates, A Valiña was important because it was the first example of a transdisciplinary research project in Galicia. It triggered survey and testing programs at a number of caves and rock shelters, some of which yielded Pleistocene lithics, thus demonstrating an ancient human presence in the region.

#### THE GALICIAN UPPER PALEOLITHIC

Fifteen dates from three Upper Paleolithic sites (Cova Eirós, A Valiña, Valdavara 1) range from 35.1 to 12.0 ka uncal BP. They are distributed bimodally, with a gap of about five millennia between an “Early Upper Paleolithic” series (5 dates, 35.1–31.6 ka BP) and a “Later Upper Paleolithic” one (10 dates, 26.7–12.0 ka BP). Although they establish a range for a broadly defined Galician Upper Paleolithic, there is – with two exceptions – little to distinguish the earlier from the later series so far as their lithics are concerned.

TABLE 3. — Galicia – Radiometric dates from Paleontological sites (Fernández Rodríguez 2011; Grandal-d'Anglade *et al.* 2010).

Site	Level	Method	Material dated	Uncal date BP	Std. Dev.	Lab. no.	Comments
Cova Eirós	pasillo	OSL	sediment	c. 117 000		NA	natural accumulation, cave bear bone under stalagmitic crust
Linares Sur	galería pasillo	OSL C14/AMS	sediment bone	c. 97 000 8 dates >38 ka BP		NA NA	see above natural accumulation, dates beyond the limit of radiocarbon
Linares Sur	pasillo	C14/AMS	bone	37 865	2070	Ua-4808	natural accumulation, cave bear bone
Linares Sur	pasillo	C14/AMS	bone	37 690	1955	Ua-4817	see above
Linares Sur	pasillo	C14/AMS	bone	37 320	1910	Ua-4811	see above
A Ceza		C14/AMS	bone	>40 000			natural accumulation, cave bear bone, beyond limits of radiocarbon
A Ceza		C14/AMS	bone	35 230	1430		see above
Linares Sur	pasillo	C14/AMS	bone	35 220	1440	Ua-4593	natural accumulation, cave bear bone
Cova Eirós		C14/AMS	bone	31 680	900		see above
Pala do Rebolal		C14/AMS	bone	4 dates 30.5- 13.5 ka BP			natural accumulation, cave bear bone
Pala do Rebolal		C14/AMS	bone	30 445	795	Ua-24940	see above, = Pala de Zorra
Cova Eirós		C14/AMS	bone	24 090	440		see above
Linares Sur	pasillo	C14/AMS	bone	17 720	185	Ua-4594	see above

The exceptions are the so-far-unique Solutrean open site of Valverde, in the Montforte de Lemos depression, which has yielded fragments of the distinctive bifacial foliates (undated, but probably in the *c.* 22–20 ka BP time range) (Lombera-Hermida *et al.* 2013) and the late Magdalenian/Azilian (e.g. Cova Eirós, lev. B), microlithic industries that date to around 15–12 ka BP. A multicomponent UP open site, Foz do Medal Left Bank (FMLB), at the confluence of the Sabor and Medal rivers in northeast Portugal, also contains Solutrean artifacts (Gaspar *et al.* 2015, 2016). As in other regions, there is a dominant microlithic series characteristic of both the Upper and Epipaleolithic, and a smaller macrolithic one, perhaps more restricted in time to the Epipaleolithic/Mesolithic, suggesting some kind of a broad functional difference that cross-cuts the conventional division between the Epipaleolithic (= Azilian) and the Microlithic Mesolithic. In other words, it is difficult to separate the LUP from the Epipaleolithic/Mesolithic on techno-typological grounds alone, especially when the dominant raw material types (quartz, quartzite) are taken into account.

#### THE GALICIAN MESOLITHIC – CHRONOLOGY

Absolute dates for the Galician Mesolithic can be divided into those from limestone caves and rock shelters and those from open sites. Caution is urged in both cases because there are so few dates. Because of soil acidity and the absence of organics, the age of open sites is established more by artifact morphology and the formation processes involved in the geological contexts from which the artifacts are derived than by radiocarbon dates (Llana Rodríguez *et al.* 1992; Gallejo Lletjós 2013).

There are only eight  $^{14}\text{C}$  dates for the Mesolithic of the caves and rockshelters, and four of them are AMS dates (Fábregas Valcarce *et al.* 2010; Vaquero Rodríguez *et al.* 2011, 2017). Only two are calibrated. There is a single date from Paradero do Reiro, an open site with some shell in an ancient paleosol. Combining them, the sample mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) and standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) are  $7680 \pm 73$  ka uncal BP;  $cv = 0.01$ ; the range is 7753–7607 ka uncal BP. For the two calibrated dates, the

corresponding figures are  $\bar{x} = 9029 \pm 101$  ka cal BP,  $cv = 0.01$ ; the range is 9130–8928 ka cal BP). The uncalibrated dates fall toward the end of the Boreal phase (9.0–7.5 ka uncal BP) and are almost the same as those from Cantabria (7680 vs 7656 BP), whereas those from the Basque sample and the middle Ebro are practically identical (7414 vs 7412 BP). The two calibrated dates fall near the end of the Boreal period. As is usually the case with early Holocene calibrated dates, they are older by almost 900 years (Table 1).

#### THE MESOLITHIC OF GALICIA – LITHIC INDUSTRIES

Recent surveys have identified about 30 open sites, although few have been extensively published (Villar Quintero 1997, 2007; Lombera-Hermida 2011; Ramil Rego *et al.* 2016). “Open site” is something of a misnomer because, in many cases, archaeological material that “looks LUP/Epipaleolithic” has accumulated under the overhangs of jumbles of large granite and quartzite boulders that outcrop in otherwise relatively flat terrain. These are technically rock shelters and are found almost exclusively on the Galician Shield but are considered open air sites in this paper. Lacking stratigraphy, how much compositional integrity these collections have is an open question. Given the hardness of the bedrock, the outcrops existed for tens of millennia and were used episodically, likely for the same activities, for a very long period of time. Some collections are fairly large (e.g. Férvedes II [a Lower/Middle Magdalenian site], 2319 lithics; Pena Lliboi, 3152 lithics) while the percentage of retouched pieces is usually quite small (e.g. Férvedes II, 3.4%; Pena Lliboi, 6.4%) and non-diagnostic (endscrapers, burins, denticulates, etc.) (Fig. 16). These data are summarized in Table 4.

Open sites atop *cuesta* ridges and hills are also reported in the Sierra de Xistral (Lugo), some of them attributed to the Epipaleolithic. One such site, Chan da Cruz, sheds light on how these scatters accumulated (López Cordeiro 2003). Now destroyed by the construction of a windfarm, almost 50 surface scatters and stratigraphic tests indicate that Chan da Cruz, on the top of a hill affording an unobstructed view

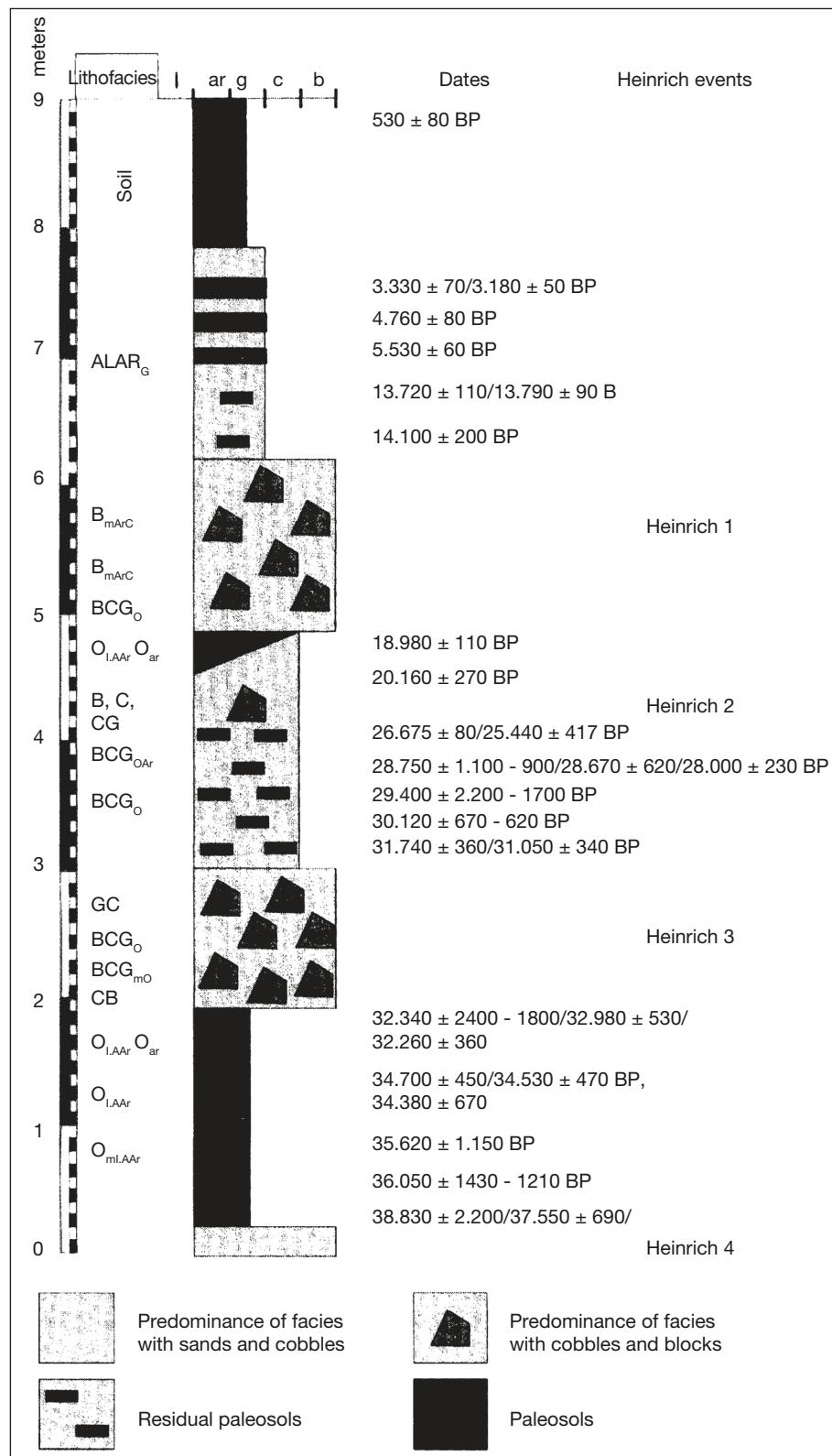


FIG. 13. — Radiometric chronology and Heinrich events for idealized depositional sequence based on Galician coastal deposits (from Pérez-Alberti 2011: 22).

of the surrounding landscape, was occupied and reoccupied for thousands of years by small groups of foragers, probably to monitor the movements of game. Lithics generated by these game lookouts were subsequently deflated and mixed,

resulting in a palimpsest from a number of different time periods. While heterogeneous and polygenic, at loci where there is compositional integrity, it is possible that a somewhat restricted interval of time is represented (i.e., the attribution

TABLE 4. — Galicia – Paleolithic and Mesolithic radiometric dates.

Site/Period	Level	Method	Years BP	Std.	Range years BP
<b>Lower Paleolithic</b>					
Porto Maior	PM4	ESR/TT-OSL	210 700	24 700	235 400-186 000
	PM4	ESR Ti-Li	226 000	10 000	236 000-216 000
	PM3	ESR Ti-Li	266 000	23 000	289 000-243 000
	PM3	TT-OSL	242 000	32 000	274 000-210 000
	PM3	TT-OSL	225 000	31 000	256 000-194 000
Arbo	OC2	ESR Ti-Li	118 000	9 000	127 000-109 000
<b>Middle Paleolithic</b>					
Valdavara 3	B inf.	OSL	112 837	8903	121 740-103 934
Valdavara 3	B inf.	OSL	103 414	6956	110 370-96 458
Cova Eirós	3	OSL	84 807	3554	88 361-81 253
O Regueiral	IV	OSL	69 446	5472	74 918-63 974
As Lamas M2	IIIb	OSL	39 866	3554	43 420-36 312
As Lamas M1	IIIb	OSL	38 947	3150	42 097-35 797
<b>Early Upper Paleolithic</b>					
Cova Eirós	3	C-14/AMS	35 100	700	35 800-34 400
A Valiña	IV	C-14	34 800	1700	36 500-33 100
A Valiña	V	C-14	31 730	2450	34 180-29 280
Cova Eirós	2	C-14/AMS	31 690	240	31 930-31 450
A Valiña	IV	C-14/AMS	31 600	250	31 850-31 350
<b>Later Upper Paleolithic</b>					
Budiño	base	C-14	26 700	350	27 050-26 350
Cova Eirós		C-14	24 090	440	24 530-23 650
A Valiña	IV base	C-14	21 870	745	22 615-21 125
Budiño	top	C-14	18 000	300	18 300-17 700
Cova Eirós	1	OSL	17 020	1321	18 341-15 699
A Valiña	IV base	C-14	16 420	70	16 490-16 350
Valdavara 1	6	C-14/AMS	15 120	70	18 700-17 820
Valdavara 1	4	C-14/AMS	14 630	70	17 890-17 730
Valdavara 1	4	C-14/AMS	13 770	70	17 080-16 880
Cova Eirós	B	C-14/AMS	12 040	50	12 090-11 990
<b>Epipaleolithic/Mesolithic</b>					
Valdavara 1/2	C	C-14/AMS	8920	50	10270-9830
Valdavara 1/2	C	C-14/AMS	8890	60	10250-9770
Chan do Lindeiro	burial ?	C-14/AMS	8236	51	8287-8185
Chan do Lindeiro	burial ?	C-14/AMS	7995	70	8065-7925
O Rei Cintolo	camerín	C-14	7735	60	7795-7675
O Reiro		C-14	7554	89	7643-7465
Xestido III	hearth	C-14	7310	160	7470-7150
A Braña-Arintero (Léon)	burials	C-14	6980	50	7030-6930
Fiales		C-14	6590	70	6660-6520

of the site to the Epipaleolithic). The point, though, is that the topography and the necessity for spotting game combined to identify a locale (the Cuadramón hill) that was used for millennia for short periods of time, and likely for the same purpose. There are no dates.

#### Raw material characteristics

Lithics from open sites are heavily dominated by quartz, quartzite and crystal quartz, with flints and cherts quite rare except in the tiny fragment of karst in the extreme northeast of the province (Lombera-Hermida & Rodríguez-Rellán 2010; Meireles 2009; Gaspar *et al.* 2016; Lombera-Hermida *et al.* 2016). As in Cantabria, the flints and cherts occur in small package sizes and are almost always of poor quality (de Lombrera-Hermida & Rodríguez-Rellán 2016). Quartz is not an ideal raw material, however, and lithic analysts often struggle to identify intentional flaking and retouch on quartz. Analyzing these assemblages is even trickier when bipolar reduction is a dominant reduction strategy, as it is here (Pargeter, pers. comm.).

#### Quartz as tool stone

Crystal quartz is not a “popular” tool stone when more tractable alternatives are available. However, modern experiments show that it can be knapped as well any other cryptocrystalline silicate, but the kind of elongated fracture needed to make blades and bladelets is very difficult to achieve. Longer flakes/blades tend to snap laterally, presumably along crystal boundaries and fracture lines (Rodríguez-Rellán 2016; de Lombrera-Hermida & Rodríguez-Rellán 2016). Bladelets are less problematic because the external facets on quartz crystals enable bladelet production without the need to set up ridges, as in classic platform bladelet cores (Pargeter & de la Peña 2017; Tardy *et al.* 2016). The ease with which quartz can be knapped is heavily dependent on homogeneity and package size (Flenniken 1981; Reher & Frison 1991; Pargeter & de la Peña 2017; Kannegaard 2015). Most of the lithics in Galicia are small, contain bubbles and impurities, are minimally shaped, and were probably mounted serially in organic foreshafts and hafts that have long since disappeared.

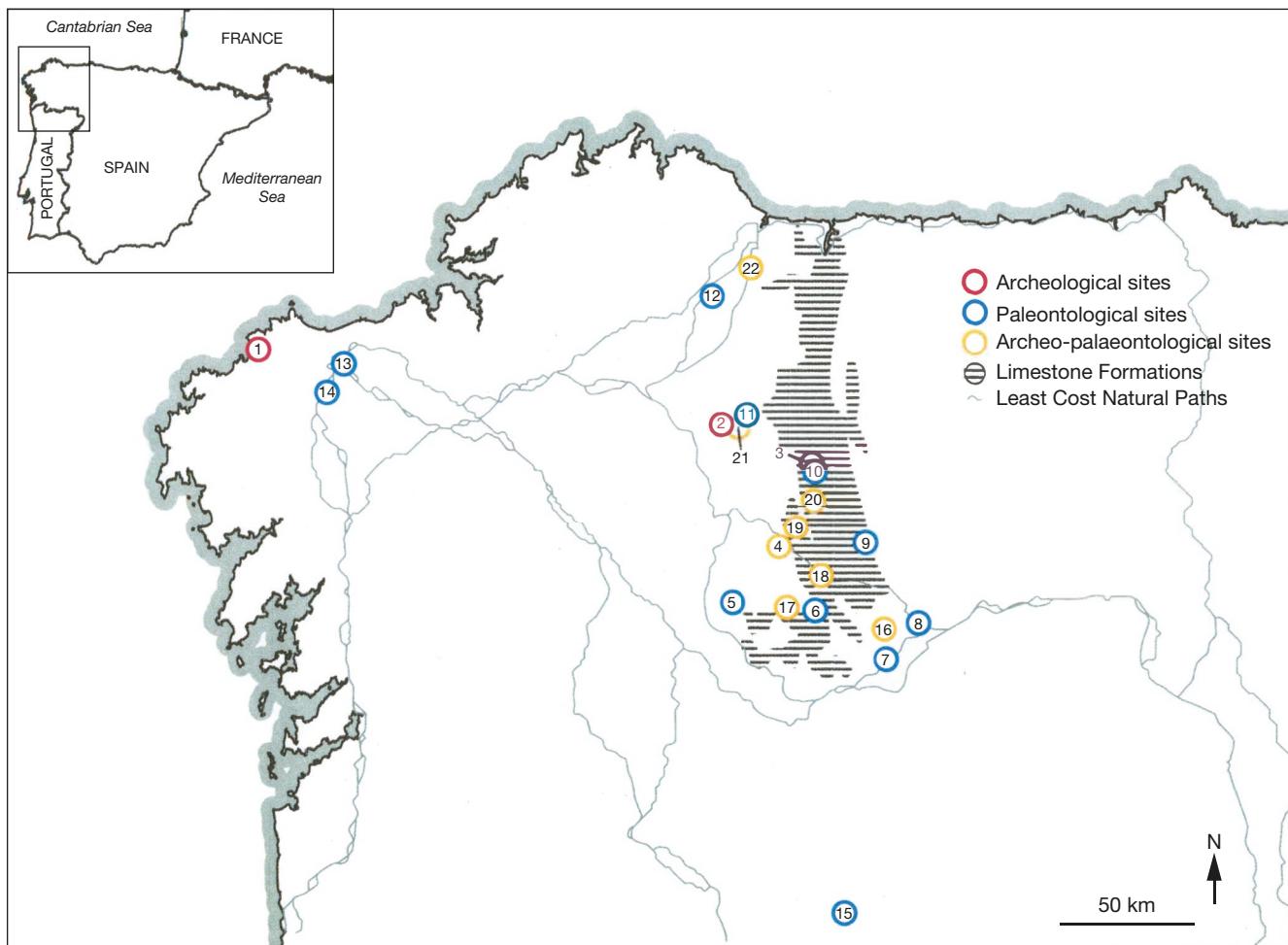


FIG. 14. — Monforte Basin and adjacent regions showing least-cost natural paths, limestone formations, and the distribution of archaeological, paleontological and archaeo-paleontological sites (composite figure redrawn from Fernández Rodríguez 2011: 46; Fábregas Valcarce 2011: 76; Lombera-Hermida 2011: 113; Lombera-Hermida *et al.* 2011: 95): 1, O Reiro; 2, A Valiña; 3, Valdavara; 4, Cova Eirós; Cancela; 5, Buxán; 6, Taro da Lastra, A Ceza; 7, Pala da Vella; 8, La Veguiña; 9, Purruñal; Valdeabraira; 10, Cova do Furco; 11, Praducelos; 12, A Furada dos Cas; 13, Los Baños; 14, Braña Rubia; 15, Lorga de Dine; 16, Serra da Encina da Lastra; 17, Serra do Courel; Cova de Xato; 18, Pedrafita; Liñares Sur; 19, Cova Eirós/Cancela\*; 20, Cova da Valdavara\*; 21, Cova da Valiña\* 22, Cova do Rei Cintolo. An asterisk (\*) indicates a difference between georeferenced and mapped sites.

Raw material studies have also proven useful in determining economic ranges by time and culture/stratigraphic unit. Estimating economic territories by raw material procurement suggests that the early Magdalenian in Galicia was restricted to areas close to sites because procurement was strictly local, required minimal effort and was likely embedded in other activities (Villar Quinteiro 1997). Keeping in mind that most forager gear is organic and would not be preserved, this suggests that most early Magdalenian sites functioned as base camps and fell toward the “expedient” end of the expedient/curated continuum (Clark & Barton 2017). This pattern also characterizes the late Magdalenian although there is a higher incidence of better quality exotic flints, probably derived from areas outside an economic territory. Although the mode of procurement is unknown (e.g. direct procurement, exchange, down-the-line trade), the exotic flint appears in the form of prepared cores, perhaps cached for individual use (Villar Quinteiro 1997). The Azilian/Epipaleolithic and Mesolithic see a reduction in economic territories possibly due to demographic

factors (e.g. population growth, resource competition, territorial defense, and the closing of social boundaries) accompanied by technological changes. Assemblages become “miniaturized” (e.g. Pena Llboi), there is a decline in the incidence of flakes and blades, an increase in imported flint, bladelet production, and a diversification of bladelet forms. Because these trends date to the early Holocene, territorial circumscription might also have been exacerbated by climate change and the well-documented expansion of closed woodlands.

#### *Galicia – the Miño and Louro Terrace Sites*

Crude macrolithic industries on quartzite cobbles resembling the Cantabrian Asturian occur in deflated contexts on *plateaux* above river valleys, in and on top of river terraces, and in Quaternary beach deposits and marine platforms on both banks of the Río Miño estuary and upstream on the north bank of its tributary, the Río Louro (Pontevedra) (Fig. 14). Known for more than a century, the chronological and stratigraphic implications of these discoveries have been much discussed by

many investigators (see Clark [1976]; Arias Cabal [2007] for more recent ones; Cano Pan [2012] for historical references). Cano Pan (2012) provides a lucid discussion of the polygenic nature of these industries; Meireles (1996) puts them into a geomorphological context. In both areas, and in the Río Douro estuary in Portugal, “Asturian”, “Pre-Asturian”, “Proto-Asturian”, “Asturian/Ancorian”, “Pseudo-Asturian”, “Mirian” and “Camposanquian” collections have been reconstituted *post hoc* from collections of mixed and rolled terrace industries by the long-standing practice of using archaeological index fossils (in this case, the iconic picks) to identify and categorize surface sites. The assertion that they are related in some way to the Cantabrian Asturian and, more generally, whether archaeological index types are adequate to identify and discriminate among specific archaeological assemblages, even when raw material consistency, surface texture, degree of rolling, and patination are taken into account, has been considered unwarranted for decades (Cano Pan & Vázquez Varela 1986). Unifacial quartzite picks morphologically identical to those of the Asturian do occur in low frequencies in many of these fossil beaches, mixed with Acheulean bifaces and other diagnostics but, when the geological contexts are taken into account, clearly indicate secondary deposition. Quartzite picks have also been found at Sarelo in easternmost Galicia (Ramil Rego *et al.* 2016), and at Bañugues, Aramar, and l’Atalaya near Gijón in Asturias (Blas Cortina *et al.* 1978; Rodríguez Asensio 1978a, b), raising the possibility that at least some of the artifacts found in surficial cobble and silt deposits on top of fossil beaches might date to the Late Pleistocene or even the early Holocene. The occurrence of picks in Acheulean deposits, unquestionably *in situ*, has been documented at the stratified, open-air Acheulean site of Terra Amata near Nice (Lumley 1966: 41).

Regarding “historicity,” it is an unexamined assumption that formal similarity “maps onto” history in some fairly direct way (Clark 2011). By itself, it implies neither contemporaneity nor historical relationship. In our view, the formal convergence that is such a marked feature of chipped stone technologies makes it much more likely that pattern similarities would express basic functional or activity differences with which all foragers had to contend, rather than historical connectivity (Clark & Riel-Salvatore 2006). In the lexicon of Binford (1981), it is an example of post-hoc accommodation, an explanation arrived at inductively after a pattern search has been completed in order to explain it. Such explanations are basically untestable and can be contested by any competent researcher who takes issue either with the patterns themselves, the causal factors assumed to underlie them, or both (Clark 2011).

#### *Mesolithic Galicia – Atlantic coastal geomorphology*

On its western (Atlantic) shores Galicia features deeply indented coastlines that are the result of gradual subsidence and marine transgression creating the *rías* – elongated, deep, steep-sided drowned valleys (Valcarlos Pagés 2000; Lorenzo *et al.* 2003). Unlike Cantabria, the continental shelf is shallow, varies between 40 and 60 km in width, and the coastline was displaced by at least that much during the LGM (González-Gómez *et al.* 2019). The *rías* are exceptionally productive in marine resources

and it is a near certainty that shell middens were common along the coasts of Galicia during the Mesolithic and probably before. However, the igneous bedrock, the absence of karst, and marine transgression beginning during the Tardiglacial and continuing up to the present combine to explain the apparent absence of Mesolithic *concheros* in the province.

In the Miño drainage the presence of open-air midden sites has sometimes caused confusion in the literature. Most of them, at least, appear to be relatively recent, dating to the Bronze Age and later. Although there are few radiometric dates, one that has been dated by metal objects and pottery is located adjacent to the *castro* site of Santa Tecla (Santa Trega) and is probably contemporary with it (400–200 BC, Iron Age II). There is a *conchero* at Saá near the famed “Chellean” site that is probably also Iron Age (Domínguez Fontela 1925). There are middens associated with Roman and medieval sites. There are no indications that these *concheros* are related in any way to the terrace and beach industries just noted (González-Gómez *et al.* 2019). They only indicate a long-standing Gallegan fondness for seafood!

But just how common or rare are the middens? And, given the known rate of sea level transgression, can we use them to determine when shell middens disappeared from the archaeological record? These questions are addressed in a recent paper aimed at preserving the coastal cultural heritage of Galicia, increasingly threatened by erosion, sea level rise, urban and industrial development (González-Gómez *et al.* 2019). The authors make the interesting (although probably controversial) suggestion that midden deposits are much more common than generally appreciated, and are in fact associated with nearly every coastal town or city. While not obvious features of the landscape, they estimate there are roughly 1000 of them along the Atlantic coast and that, while most are recent, early Neolithic and Mesolithic deposits might underlie some of them. A single Galician open site, O Reiro, has been dated to  $7554 \pm 89$  cal BP (González-Gómez *et al.* 2019).

#### GALICIA – THE NEOLITHIZATION

As is Cantabria, the appearance of domestication economies in Galicia is both partial and late. There is also an apparent hiatus of about two millennia between the Mesolithic and the Neolithic, the latter a very late phase with pottery, domesticated plants (wheat, barley) and animals (ovicapries, cattle, pigs) that might even bracket the transition to the Chalcolithic at around 5.5 ka cal BP (Lombera-Hermida 2011). Until very recently, there did not appear to be an early Neolithic in Galicia, at least as indicated by radiocarbon dates from cave contexts (Ramil Rego *et al.* 2016). But that might be changing. An iconic Cardial decorated jar has recently been unearthed at Cova Eirós (Triacastela, Lugo) (Fábregas Valcarce *et al.* 2019). Although not directly dated, comparisons with dated Cardial finds in southern Iberia suggest a date in the late 8<sup>th</sup> millennium BP. Unique in Galicia, and far to the north of Cardial sites in central Portugal, how it got there is an open question. Down-the-line exchange with Mesolithic foragers, possibly as a prestige item, is perhaps the most likely hypothesis (Fábregas Valcarce *et al.* 2019).

TABLE 5. — Galicia – Upper Paleolithic, Epipaleolithic and Mesolithic Open Sites – Lithic Data (Villar Quintero 1997; Ramil-Rego *et al.* 2016). Abbreviations: **D**, denticulate; **BU**, burin; **ES**, endscraper; **BC**, bec; **CRP**, continuously retouched piece; **BB**, backed bladelet; **N**, notch; **LDF**, lamelle Dufour. \*, open sites.

Major sites	No. lithics	No. Ret'd.	% Ret'd.	Dominant Ret'd. types	Flk/Bld ratio	Qtz/Flt ratio	Attribution		
							Villar Quinteiro (1997)	Ramil Rego <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Comments
A Valiña	130	52	40.0	D>BU>BC	61/16	82/3	Chatelperronian	Initial Upper Paleolithic	macroolithic EUP; 3 bevel-base bone points, Chât. attribution based on dates
Dos Niñas (Os Penedos)	1386	115	8.6	BU=ES>CRP	63/7	3/93	Lower Magdalenian	Lower Magdalenian	macroolithic, >3000 lithics (RR), primary reduction, dates b/w 16–13 ka BP, eroded 11–10 ka BP, poor-quality flint, many flk/bids
Férvedes II	2319	80	3.5	BU>ES>CRP	17/28	42/58	Lower Magdalenian	Upper/Final Magdalenian	microolithic, c. 5000 lithics (c. 3% ret'd), many bladelets; mostly local flint source; LUP steatite pendant; high lithic diversity
Pena Grande	1390	220	15.8	BB>ES>BU	50/31	51/28	Azilian	Upper Magdalenian	microolithic, 41% crystal quartz, much primary reduction
Prado do Inferno	1448	144	9.9	ES>BB>BU	41/33	73/25	Azilian	Upper Magdalenian	microolithic (Azilian points), 56% crystal quartz
Pena de Liboi Xestido III	3152 923	203 145	6.4 15.7	ES>BU>N>LDF N>BU>ES	27/37 69/30	94/4 100/0	Azilian Geometric Mesolithic	Geometric Mesolithic	microolithic MESO, qtz/qtzite dominant, geometrics microolithic MESO, rare geometrics; on corridor to Sierra Xistral; 8471 cal BP (GrN-16839), like Mota do Sebastião (M/Q)
<b>Minor Sites</b>									
Férvedes I									small non-diagnostic collection, LUP/Epi (?)
Piñeiro									LUP knapping station (?), near flint outcrops; raw material
A Veiga									types characteristic of all LUP sites
Trastoi									LUP knapping station (?), near flint outcrops; raw material
Curaceiro Río Arnela (5 sites)									types characteristic of all LUP sites
Valdoinferno I									small non-diagnostic collection, LUP/Epi (?)
Curro Vello (11 sites)	c. 100								game lookouts (?) on terraces above passes to coast, mountains; few artifacts except Arnela III
Curro do Oso (destroyed)									microolithic LUP/Epi inc. points; small non-diagnostic collection; recurring use, location suggest game lookout (?)
Chan da Cruz (destroyed)									microolithic LUP/Epi inc. points; small non-diagnostic collection; recurring use, location suggest game lookout (?)
Sarelo Xestido I & II									microolithic MESO sites on edge of peat bog (4 open, 7 rockshelters); quartz, quartzite dominant tool stone
									macroolithic MESO site; good pollen sequence indicating forest expansion, 10–7 ka BP; destroyed by windfarm
									macroolithic MESO; 35 deflated scatters on cuesta ridge; pollen shows forest expansion, 10–7 ka BP; destroyed by windfarm
									macroolithic MESO coastal site with classic Asturian pick
									small non-diagnostic collections, LUP/Epi (?)

As elsewhere in northern Spain, the first appearance of megaliths has sometimes been equated with the early Neolithic (e.g. González Morales 1992; Suárez Otero 1997) but radiometric dates are few (*c.* 6.4 ka cal BP). However, work over the past 10-15 years shows that many dolmens and tombs in Galicia pertain to the late Neolithic, Chalcolithic or even the Bronze Age, in consequence of which the chronological relationship between the two remains unresolved. Evidence from Galicia itself is sparse, but a radically different (and very sophisticated) view of the Neolithization has been published recently by Fano and colleagues (2015), who argue for a mosaic pattern in neighboring Cantabria, uncoupling the appearance of ceramics, domesticated cereal grasses and fauna from one another using a Bayesian approach (see also Arias Cabal & Fano 2003; Arias Cabal 2007; Cubas *et al.* 2016 for a current overview).

Noting that Mesolithic deposits sometimes underlie Neolithic dolmens (e.g. Peña Oviedo [Diéz Castillo 1995]), Fano and colleagues (2015) use a filtering process (radiocarbon dates ranked for reliability), archaeozoology and archaeobotany (rare evidence for morphological domesticates), and technology (ceramics, found across the whole region) to model the appearance of the Neolithic in Cantabria. They show that the transition from foraging to domestication was a complex and irregular process, pinpointing its origins in the middle Ebro Basin. At some sites (e.g. Kobaederra, in Vizcaya), domesticates existed along with traditional subsistence practices (Zapata *et al.* 2002; Altuna & Mariezkurrena 2009). Only at El Mirón, far to the east in Cantabria, do early Neolithic levels have very high percentages of domestic species from the very start (Altuna & Mariezkurrena 2012). In their view, sustained reliance on foraging and the coexistence of old and new funerary practices indicate the continued presence of indigenous foragers who, sporadically and in different ways, gradually adopted Neolithic agropastoralism after a long-protracted (*c.* 1-2 millennia) "availability" phase (Zvelebil & Rowley-Conwy 1986).

There is some precedent for a mosaic pattern in Galicia as well. O Reiro, on the coast, has pottery and cereal pollen, but is associated with a wild mammal fauna and fish (Ramil Soneira 1973). Arias Cabal (2007) identifies no less than ten "transitional" sites, most of them on or near the coast, with a probable source in central Portugal. The argument for "transitional" status is based on the presence of one or more of the traditional Neolithic indicators (i.e., pottery, domesticated plants, and/or animals). Except for O Reiro, these sites are not radiometrically dated. They include As Pereitas, Parxubeira, Barbanza, As Hozas, A Cunchosa, O Regueiriño, Porto dos Valos and A Gandara. The first four are believed to date to the eighth millennium BP.

In default of radiometric dates, there is controversy about the age of, and criteria for, identifying the transition (Meireles 2009). Suárez Otero (1997) equates the earliest Neolithic in Galicia with the appearance of impressed pottery followed shortly thereafter by megalithic tombs. A Cunchosa, O Regueiriño and Lavapés (now considered Chalcolithic) are cited as examples. Using the same criterion, Prieto Martínez (2005)

argues that the early Neolithic dates to the second half of the fifth millennium cal BC (6.5-6.0 ka cal BP), as documented at Porto dos Valos and A Gándara. Both suggest a coastal route, identify central Portugal as the source, and exchange as the probable mechanism. Close proximity in time between Mesolithic structures underlying or in close association with mounds or megaliths occurs at the controversial mound of Illade O (A Coruña) where a burial pit containing two adults was radiocarbon dated to the end of the 5<sup>th</sup> millennium cal BC or the beginning of the 6<sup>th</sup> (Vaquero Lastres 1999). The relationship between the pit, the mound, and the samples dated is not clear. Other examples of superposition, unfortunately undated, include Pedra de Boi 3 (A Coruña), where a Mesolithic quarry underlies a megalithic tomb; A Gándara, also in A Coruña, where several huts were buried under another mound and Medorras de Roza das Aveas (Pontevedra), where oven-like structures dated elsewhere to the early Neolithic underlie a Chalcolithic village (Fábregas Valcarce & Vilaseco Vázquez 2013). There is some consensus that the adoption of agropastoralism by local foragers dates to the first half of the 5<sup>th</sup> millennium BC (*c.* 7.0-6.5 ka cal BP), the earliest megaliths appear around 6300 BP, followed by a sharp uptick in frequency after 5900 BP. This proliferation of monuments is sometimes equated with a protracted and partial shift to domestication economies (pastoralism) by the local inhabitants but there is little hard evidence to support that. Megaliths are very diverse in form and function, suggesting that their appearance does not necessarily signify the emergence of a single, region-wide symbol system.

#### OVERVIEW – THE EPIPALEOLITHIC AND MESOLITHIC IN GALICIA

Because of acidic soil and sediments, organics directly associated with the archaeology are rare. Consequently there are few radiocarbon dates, although this deficiency is compensated for by a significant amount of geoscience and paleontological research (Table 5; Fig. 15). Generally speaking, there seem to be two kinds of Mesolithic industries in Galicia although they constitute a "fuzzy set" (Willermet & Hill 1997) without sharp boundaries in space, time or composition so far as tool forms, blanks and raw material are concerned. The more common is a microlithic bladelet industry that broadly resembles the late Magdalenian, Azilian and the Microlaminar Mesolithic in the Ebro (e.g. Pena Lliboi, Pena Grande) with strong continuity in technology and typology with the late Upper Paleolithic (Fig. 16). The other kind of industry is macrolithic, flake-based, has few formal tools (mostly endscrapers, burins), almost no laminar elements, microliths or geometrics (e.g. Valdavara 1/2) (Fig. 17). In the absence of marker types, some of which are organic, it is difficult to make a distinction between the LUP, on the one hand, and the Epipaleolithic/Mesolithic, on the other. Within the limits of measurement, however, the LUP and the Mesolithic do not appear to be contemporaneous. There seems to be a 3000 year gap (12-9 ka BP) between the youngest LUP date (Cova Eirós, lev. B) and the earliest dated Mesolithic (Valdavara 1/2, lev. C) during which populations on the Galician shield

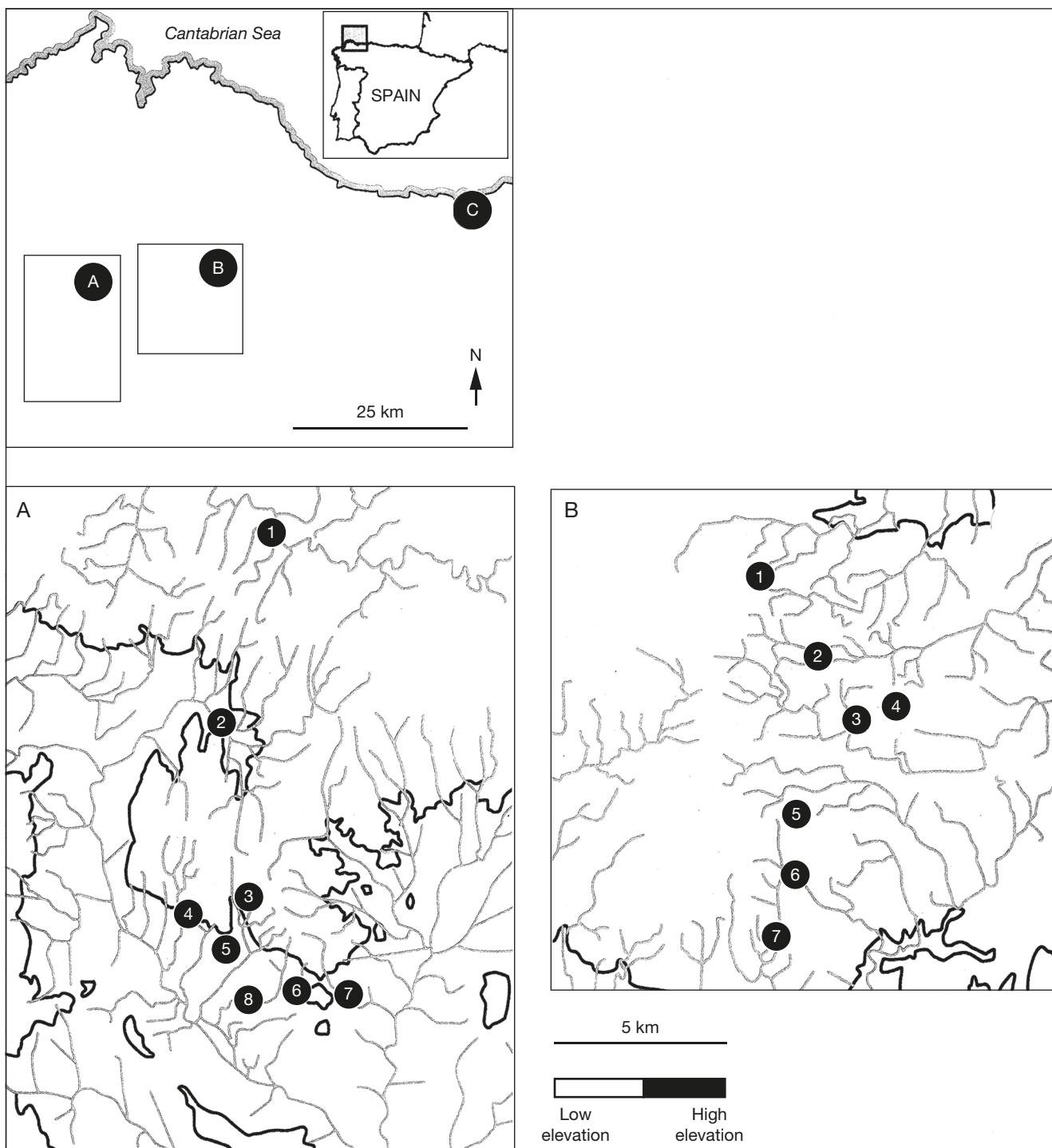


FIG. 15. — Rock shelters and open sites from three survey regions (A-C) in north-central Galicia (redrawn from Ramil Rego *et al.* 2016: 160): A, 1, Prado do Inferno; 2, Férvedes; 3, Pena Grande; 4, Abrigo Curaceiro; 5, Os Penedes; 6, Piñeiro; 7, Trastoi; 8, A Veiga; B, 1, Chan da Cruz, Curro do Oso; 2, área de Curro Vello; 3-5, área de Xestido; 6, 7, área do Arnela; C, Sarello (a single Asturian pick).

appear to have left few traces. Whether real or apparent, the hiatus begins during the height of the Younger Dryas (12.8–11.5 ka cal BP), an abrupt, severe return to extremely cold, dry conditions ( $-2\text{--}7^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) over much of the middle latitudes of the northern hemisphere (Fernández-López *et al.* 2019). It ends in the Boreal phase, at 8.9 ka cal BP. The YD could have resulted in temporary depopulation of highland Galicia

and migration toward the somewhat milder, maritime coast. Repopulation would have ensued after about 11 ka BP, as foragers gradually recolonized the uplands, following the plant and animal communities upon which they subsisted. As the region warmed, the woodlands densified, and eventually the hunting of the dietary staple, red deer, became less efficient, primarily because of difficulties in locating and tracking

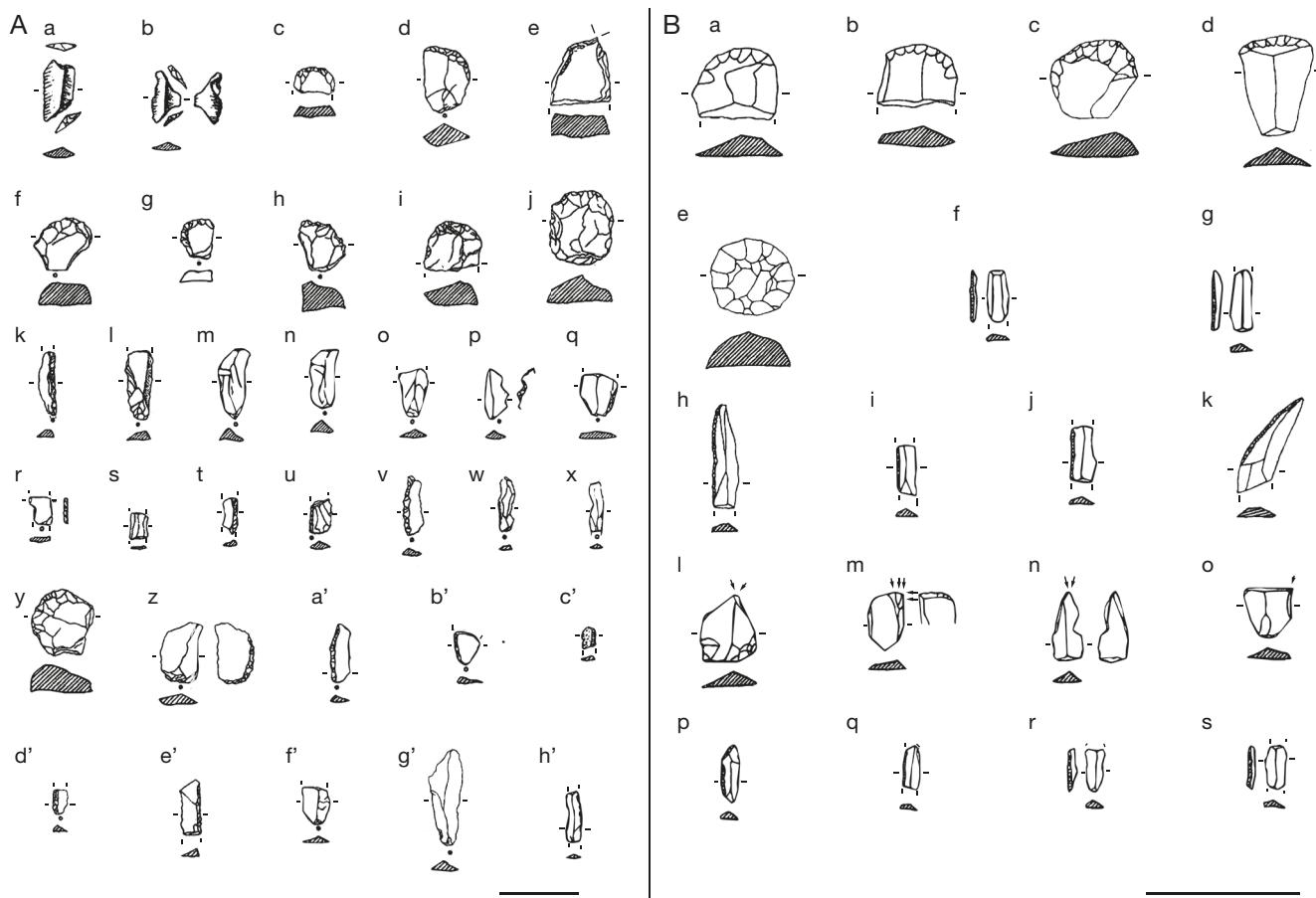


FIG. 16. — **A**, Pena Lliboi – an example of a microlithic Mesolithic industry (from Villar Quintero 1997: 91): **a, b**, trapezes; **c, d, f-j, y**, endscrapers; **e**, burin; **k, l, r-w, a'-e'**, backed bladelets; **m-o, q, f'-h'**, unretouched bladelets; **p, x**, continually retouched piece; **z**, flake with inverse backing; **B**, Pena Grande – an example of a microlithic Mesolithic industry (from Villar Quintero 1997: 85): **a-e**, endscrapers; **f-j, p-s**, backed bladelets; **h, k**, backed points; **l-o**, burins. Scale bars: 3 cm.

wounded animals. Although never totally abandoned, the population receded again, concentrating along the coasts, until Neolithic agropastoralists began to impact vegetation communities through deforestation and the herding of sheep and goats. This apparently occurred quite late in Galicia, which so far lacks much evidence for early domestication economies.

#### Genetic evidence

The past decade has seen the publication of several dozen papers about various aspects of Iberian paleogenomic research focusing on the phylogeography of the different modern populations found on the Peninsula today. At least a dozen of these are concerned with north Spanish populations, notably the Basques, a relict population in modern times but with a former extent over much of Atlantic coastal Spain, and the Galicians, because of their location in the extreme southwest corner of Europe. Research questions turn on aspects of: 1) the range extension of LGM populations packed into the Cantabrian refugium following climatic amelioration in the early Holocene; 2) modeling the genetics of the Neolithization process and possible relationships between indigenous foragers and allochthonous agropastoralists; and 3) the phylogeographical origins of modern subpopulations within Spain itself. While important in their own right, in the context of this paper these

questions offer the opportunity for comparison with models developed in archaeology. That said, genomic pattern searches are relatively new and there is much controversy within the field itself about sampling issues, whether or not different molecular clocks “keep time” at the same or similar rates, what variables are important to measure, how to identify pattern, what is causing it to occur and when it occurred. The last is particularly problematic in regard to the Y chromosome. In short, there is little consensus. To try to dissect paleogenomic research is beyond our competence and is outside the remit of this paper. Nevertheless, some general observations are pertinent here.

The work can be broadly divided into: 1) research on mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA, which tracks the matriline), specifically the H haplogroup and its subgroups, common in modern Europeans but absent in Mesolithic foragers; 2) the Y chromosome (patriline), comparing regions thought to be isolates (e.g. Galicia, the Pasiegos) or relict populations (e.g. the Basques); and 3) the Franco-Cantabrian post-Pleistocene refuge-expansion theory, created by archaeologists but tested against mtDNA and Y-chromosome data with conflicting results (cf. García *et al.* [2011] who see no evidence for it, with Valverde *et al.* [2016] who do). Behar *et al.* (2012) acknowledge a range extension but date it to c. 4000 BP. Iberian research also indicates only clinal geographical patterns along a N/S

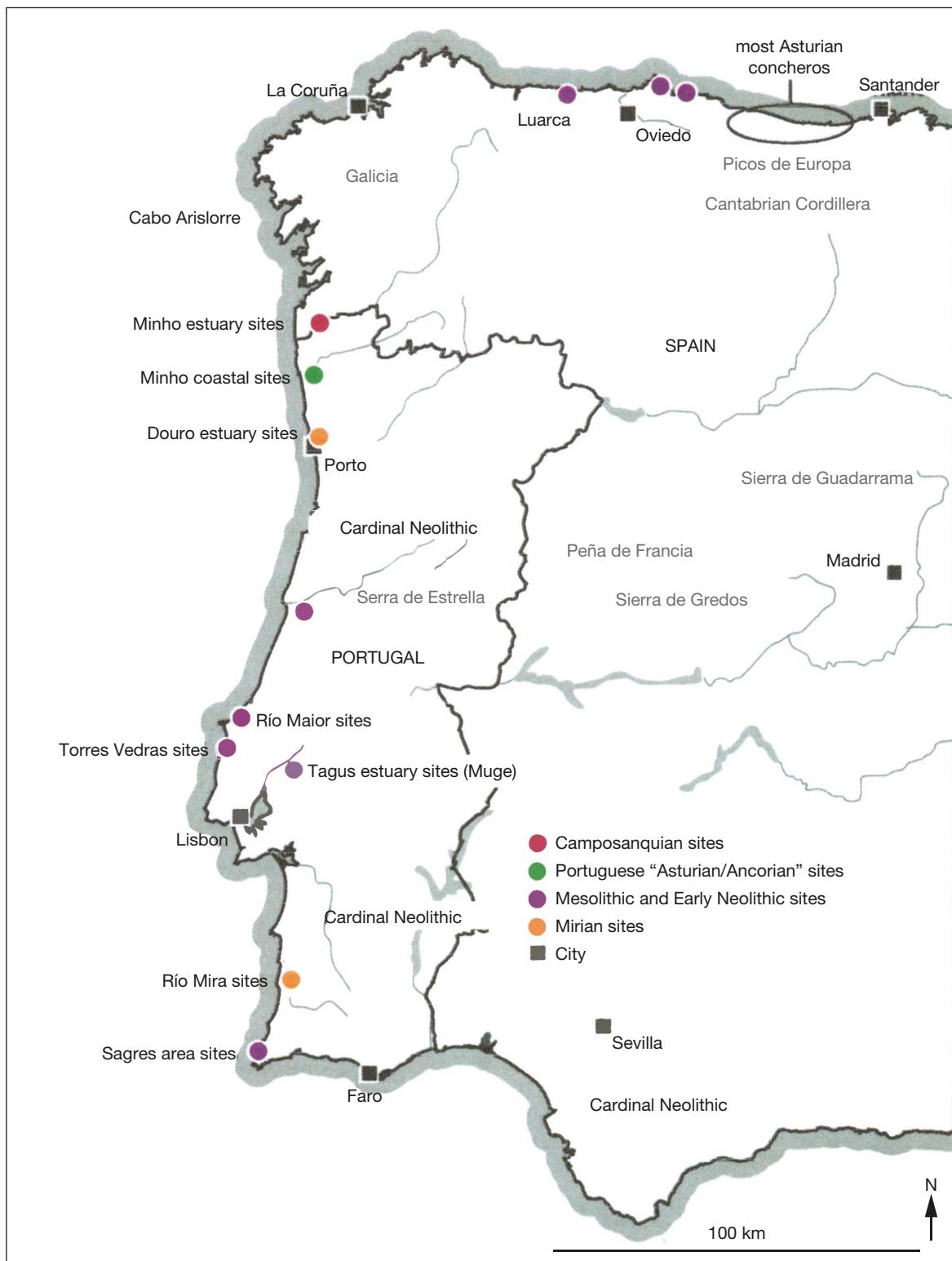


Fig. 17. — Western Iberia showing the distribution of polygenic macrolithic “sites” in river and marine terraces, and estuaries, and the distribution of Cardial Neolithic ceramics (composite figure redrawn from Clark 1983b: 45-47).

axis, a recent phenomenon attributed to the slave trade and the Arab invasion of the Peninsula by Barral-Arca *et al.* (2016), whereas Brotherton *et al.* (2013) argue that the diversity distribution seen today was established after c. 4000 BC during

the middle Neolithic. Still other papers are concerned with N African introgression and back-crossing at points in time extending from the Lower Pleistocene up to the appearance of modern humans and beyond (e.g. Hernández *et al.* 2017).

But what of the Mesolithic itself? Sánchez-Quinto and colleagues (2012) analyzed mtDNA and shotgun genomic data from two exceptionally well-preserved 7000-year-old Mesolithic burials from La Braña-Arintero, a burial cave high in the Cordillera (*c.* 1489 m) in León (Vidal Encinas 2010). The mitochondria of both individuals were assigned to a haplotype common in previously-studied Mesolithic samples from northern and central Europe. This suggested a remarkable genetic uniformity and little phylogeographic structure over a large geographical area in populations clearly pre-dating any construal of the Neolithic. Genetic continuity from the Mesolithic to the Neolithic was poorly supported, however, leading the authors to conclude that the La Braña-Arintero individuals were not related to modern Iberians nor to any populations in southern Europe. These conclusions were subsequently confirmed by Olalde and colleagues (2014) in another study of one of the Braña-Arintero individuals that indicated the existence an ancient genomic signature common to the Upper Paleolithic and Mesolithic samples across all of western Eurasia but distinct from Neolithic populations throughout the same region. Alleles related to skin pigmentation also suggested that the light skin of modern Europeans was not yet ubiquitous in the Mesolithic and that some aspects of pathogen resistance often attributed to Neolithic agropastoralists were already present in the B-A individual's genome. A subsequent paper (Olalde *et al.* 2019) documents high genetic substructure between northwestern and southeastern Iberian foragers before the spread of agropastoralists, sporadic contact with North Africa by *c.* 4500 BP and, by *c.* 4000 BP, the replacement of *c.* 40% of Iberia's ancestry and nearly all of its Y-chromosomes by people from the Central Asian steppes. A particularly interesting finding is that present-day Basques are derived from a typical Iron Age population without evidence for admixture events that later affected the rest of the Peninsula (Olalde *et al.* 2019).

Finally, it is interesting to note that the modern female population of Galicia is extremely homogeneous so far as its mitochondrial DNA is concerned – more homogeneous than that of males. This has been argued to be because of Galicia's geographical position at the extreme NW corner of the Iberian Peninsula, itself a cul-de-sac at the westernmost continental edge. Moreover, there is a striking similarity to the corresponding Basque sample. Several other genetic indices confirm the low variability of the Galician mtDNA when compared with data from other European and Middle Eastern samples (Salas *et al.* 1998). Many questions arise from this research, some of which have been addressed by other workers (e.g. whether or not the genetic data can be squared with the appearance of modern humans [apparently not], the early Upper Paleolithic [no, the LGM, *c.* 18 kya, as in Cantabria], the difference between the sexes [influx of males?], the genetic similarity with the Basques [relict isolates swamped genetically by LUP immigrants over most of their range?]). All these scenarios are both contested and supported, but the overall impression is that Galicia experienced a late modern human replacement that did not coincide with the IUP/EUP, and that there is discordance between the archaeology and the genetics (e.g. Cabrera Valdés & Bischoff 1989; Straus 1992).

## SPD CURVES – A PROXY FOR DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE

Grounded in statistical analyses of large radiocarbon data bases, summed probability distributions of radiocarbon dates (SPD curves) have become an increasingly popular tool with which to reconstruct prehistoric population dynamics (Williams 2012; Chaput & Gajewski 2016). Although pioneered by John Rick (1987) more than 30 years ago, SPD has “caught on” in the profession only after about 2010. New case studies from around the world are now regularly being published (e.g. Johnson & Brook 2011; Fernández-López *et al.* 2019), stimulating the development of novel techniques aimed at solving a wide range of specific methodological and interpretive problems (Crema & Bevan 2018).

SPD curves can be used both in exploratory (pattern searching) and confirmatory (hypothesis testing) modes. In place of the largely inductive regional comparisons that have dominated archaeology for decades, SPDs introduce a deductive component to research protocols that allows for more rigorous hypothesis testing (e.g. assessing the impact of climate change on past human demography [Shennan *et al.* 2013]; testing demographic models for goodness of fit using an information-theoretic approach [Fernández-López *et al.* 2019]). They can also be used, as here, to make spatially explicit inferences about geographic variation over time (Crema *et al.* 2017).

SPD analysis works by combining multiple radiocarbon age estimates, each one of which is itself a probability distribution of the likelihood that a sample is of a given age, into an aggregate probability function (for expanded discussion, see Crema *et al.* 2016; Crema & Bevan 2018). Currently, such aggregation is most often done through a Bayesian procedure that treats the individual radiocarbon estimates as prior probabilities and calculates the aggregate SPD curve as a posterior probability distribution (Parnell *et al.* 2008, 2011; Bronk Ramsey 2009). We use SPDs here as a proxy for population density to compare time/space relationships among the four regional Mesolithic data sets, and in relation to the north Spanish Mesolithic as a whole. All SPD analyses were done using the BChron package to calibrate the dates (Haslett & Parnell 2008). The Intercal 13 curve was used for terrestrial samples and the Marine 13 curve was used for shell dates (Reimer *et al.* 2013). RCarbon was used to create the SPD curves (R Core Team 2016).

## CANTABRIAN DEMOGRAPHY

The SPD graph for the Mesolithic in Asturias and Cantabria is given in Figure 18. It is based on 144 cleaned, filtered and normalized calibrated  $^{14}\text{C}$  dates, with repeated sampling (200 iterations) distributed in 119 100-year-long bins over a 7000 year period (12.0–5.0 ka cal BP). Binning is used here to minimize strong inter-site sampling bias where, for example, a particularly well-funded excavation has yielded an unusually large number of dates compared to other sites in the data set to which it pertains. The location in time of a particular bin is expressed by its median calibrated date in years BP.

Under the assumption of a gradual increase in population over time, the null model (grey band) is generated from the total Cantabrian regional sample. It is a hypothetical SPD expressing what we might expect to find if the number of radiocarbon samples increased at an exponential rate due to formation processes and slow population growth (0.04%/year [Bettinger 2016] – this is substantially higher than most estimates. Hassan [1981] estimates an annual growth rate for Upper Paleolithic foragers of 0.001–0.002%). The confidence interval of the null model is 95% ( $2\sigma$ ), within which variation is not statistically significant. Positive values indicate statistically-significant increases in population growth (red bars); negative values indicate statistically-significant declines (blue bars). The null model is filtered to smooth out statistical artifacts (e.g. duplicate dates, overrepresentation from a single site, coefficients of variation  $>0.05$ ) that might confound underlying patterns. The probability associated with statistical significance for Cantabria and the other regions is  $\leq 0.005$ .

Preceded by approximately 2900 years of slow, irregular, exponential population increase (11.2–8.3 ka cal BP), inspection of the graph shows a single, strongly defined positive mode at 8.2–7.4 ka cal BP, with the probable maximum population density in Asturias and Cantabria at around 7.8 ka cal BP. Population densities lower than expected occur from c. 11.8–11.2, and 5.25–5.15 ka cal BP. The former corresponds almost exactly with the Preboreal phase (11.7–11.0 ka cal BP), while the latter corresponds to the early Neolithic. The sharp drop in population beginning around 7.7 ka cal BP is followed by an irregular but ultimately large-scale decline in the region. The mean of 26 Neolithic dates from Cantabria is  $5157 \pm 71$  uncal BP (range = 5228–5086 uncal BP; cal BP median = 5893), whereas that of the Mesolithic is  $7725 \pm 270$  uncal BP (range = 7995–7455). The calibrated median BP is based on the uncalibrated means and standard deviations, and the date calibration curve for each individual date. In this case, the cal BP median = 8423, suggesting a gap of approximately 2500 years between the measures of central tendency. It is perhaps significant that the ranges do not overlap at all, but the small number of early Neolithic dates urges caution.

#### BASQUE COASTAL DEMOGRAPHY

The SPD analysis for the Basque database is shown in Figure 19. In this case there are 42 bins; the 95% confidence interval was computed using 200 simulations calculated as above ( $p = 0.145$ ). Although there is a short positive local deviation at 6.9–6.7 cal ka BP, and negative ones at >11.5 and 5.3–4.5 cal ka BP, the confidence interval for the null model is only 0.145, suggesting that these minor excursions are probably statistical artifacts attributable to the small number of dates. The last one (5.3–4.5 cal ka BP) is interesting, though, because it postdates by more than a millennium the early Neolithic in the region (median = 6.5 ka cal BP). An apparent decline in population following the introduction of domesticates might be explained by depopulation (i.e., small numbers of agropastoralists displaced indigenous foragers) and/or that early farming and herding practices imported from the Ebro basin were ill-adapted to the quite different environments of the

Basque coast and hinterlands, failed as a viable subsistence regime, collapsed, and eventually resulted in a substantial amount of emigration.

#### MIDDLE EBRO DEMOGRAPHY

The SPD analysis for the Middle Ebro database is shown in Figure 20. In this case there 362 dates, 229 bins; the 95% confidence interval was computed using 200 simulations calculated as above ( $p = 0.005$ ). A single, statistically significant positive deviation at 8.7–6.2 ka cal BP implies a large and prolonged population increase in the Middle Ebro that peaked at c. 7.1 ka cal BP, a pattern that contrasts sharply with that of Cantabria, which peaks at 7.8 cal BP. There are significant negative deviations from >12.0–9.7 ka cal BP and from 5.8–4.5 ka cal BP. The former corresponds to low population densities beginning in the late Magdalenian, the region apparently being unoccupied prior to about 15 000 years ago. As in País Vasco, the latter deviation (5.8–4.5 cal ka BP) postdates by c. 600 years the early Neolithic in the region (median = 6.4 ka cal BP) but could well be a statistical artifact. An apparent decline in population following the introduction of domesticates might be explained by depopulation (i.e., small numbers of agropastoralists displaced more numerous indigenous foragers) by back-migration to the south or onto the Meseta del Norte or, most likely, the failure of agropastoral economies in a region to which they were poorly adapted. Contagion is another possibility. Whatever the case, declining population densities following the early phases of the Neolithic are a conspicuous feature of both graphs, and have also been noted by Shennan and colleagues (2013) elsewhere in mid-Holocene Europe. This suggests that similar processes took place in the Middle Ebro and in the Basque Country, and at about the same time. Except for the coastal sites, both are located in the greater Ebro catchment, so the distinction between the two regions is somewhat arbitrary.

#### THE GALICIAN MESOLITHIC – DEMOGRAPHY

The SPD analysis for Galicia is shown in Figure 21. In this case the sample ( $n = 10$ ) was so small as to preclude even the possibility of statistical significance, so we increased the sample size to 25 by including all Mesolithic and Neolithic dates between 11.0 and 5.0 ka cal BP. There are 20 bins; the 95% confidence interval was computed as before but, even with the larger sample, there are no positive or negative deviations from the null model and all fall short of statistical significance ( $p = 0.363$ ). As was true of the Basque sample, this result is almost certainly a statistical artifact attributable to the small number of dates.

#### SPD ANALYSES – MODEL COMPARISONS

SPD proxies for population density at regional and global scales can shed light on patterns of mobility in the small-scale societies that populated Atlantic coastal Spain and the Middle Ebro drainage south of the Cordillera.

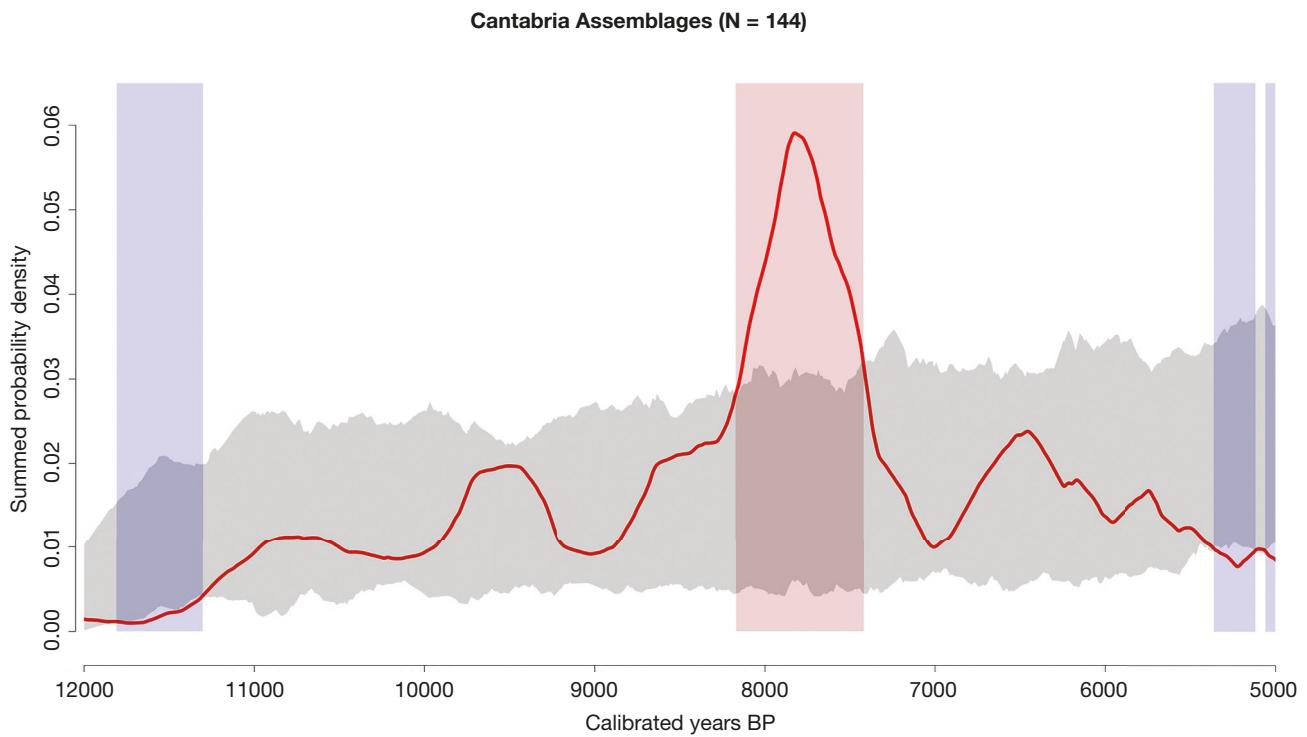


Fig. 18. — SPD graph of 144 Cantabrian Mesolithic radiocarbon dates showing a single, strongly defined positive mode at 8.3-7.4 ka cal BP (red line), with the probable maximum population density in Asturias and Cantabria at around 7.7-7.8 ka cal BP. Population densities lower than expected (blue) occur from c. 11.8-11.2, and 5.25-5.15 ka cal BP.

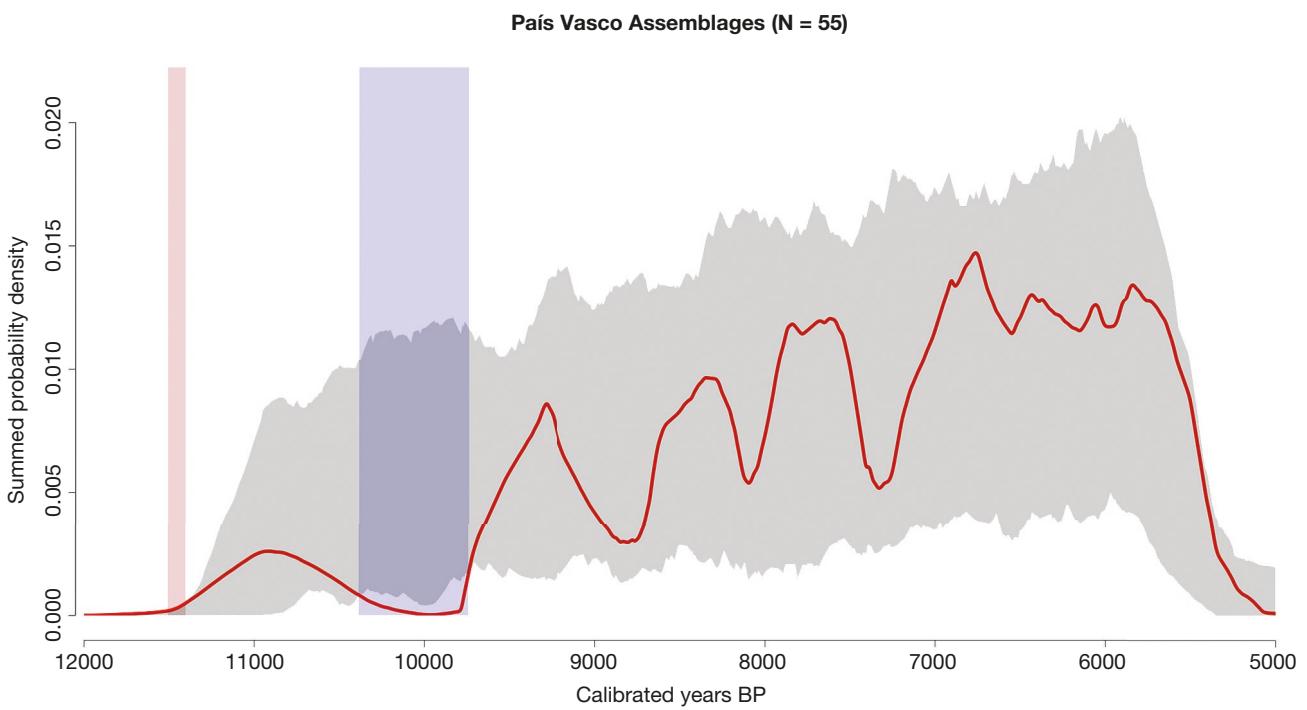


Fig. 19. — SPD graph of 55 Basque coastal Mesolithic radiocarbon dates showing a short positive local deviation at 11.5 cal ka BP, and negative ones at 11.5 cal ka BP. The confidence interval for the null model is only 0.145, suggesting that these minor excursions are probably statistical artifacts attributable to the small number of dates.

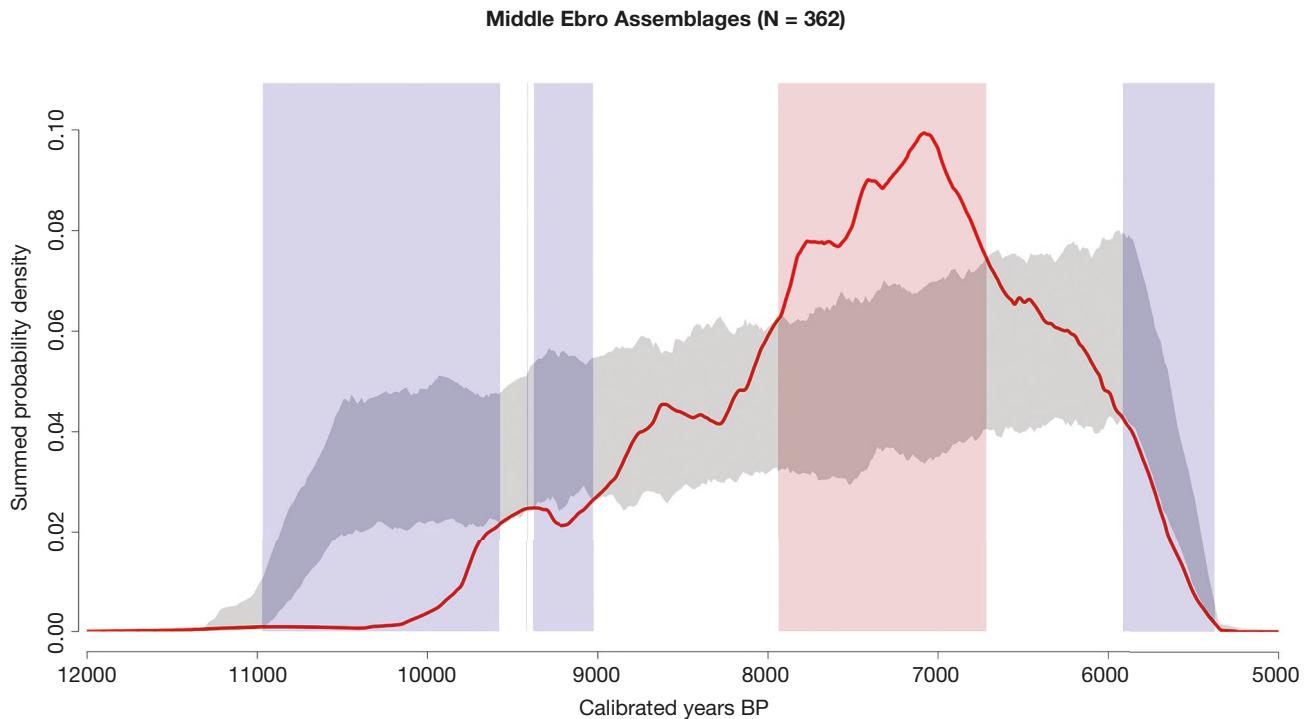


Fig. 20. — SPD graph of 362 Mesolithic dates from the Middle Ebro shows a single, statistically significant positive deviation at 8.7–6.2 ka cal BP that implies a large and prolonged population increase in the Middle Ebro that peaked at c. 7.1 ka cal BP, a pattern that contrasts sharply with that of Cantabria, which peaks at 7.8 cal BP. There are significant negative deviations from >12.0–9.7 ka cal BP and from 5.8–4.5 ka cal BP. The former corresponds to low population densities beginning in the late Magdalenian. The latter postdates by c. 600 years the early Neolithic, an apparent population decline following the introduction of domesticates noted elsewhere in western Europe (Shennan *et al.* 2013).

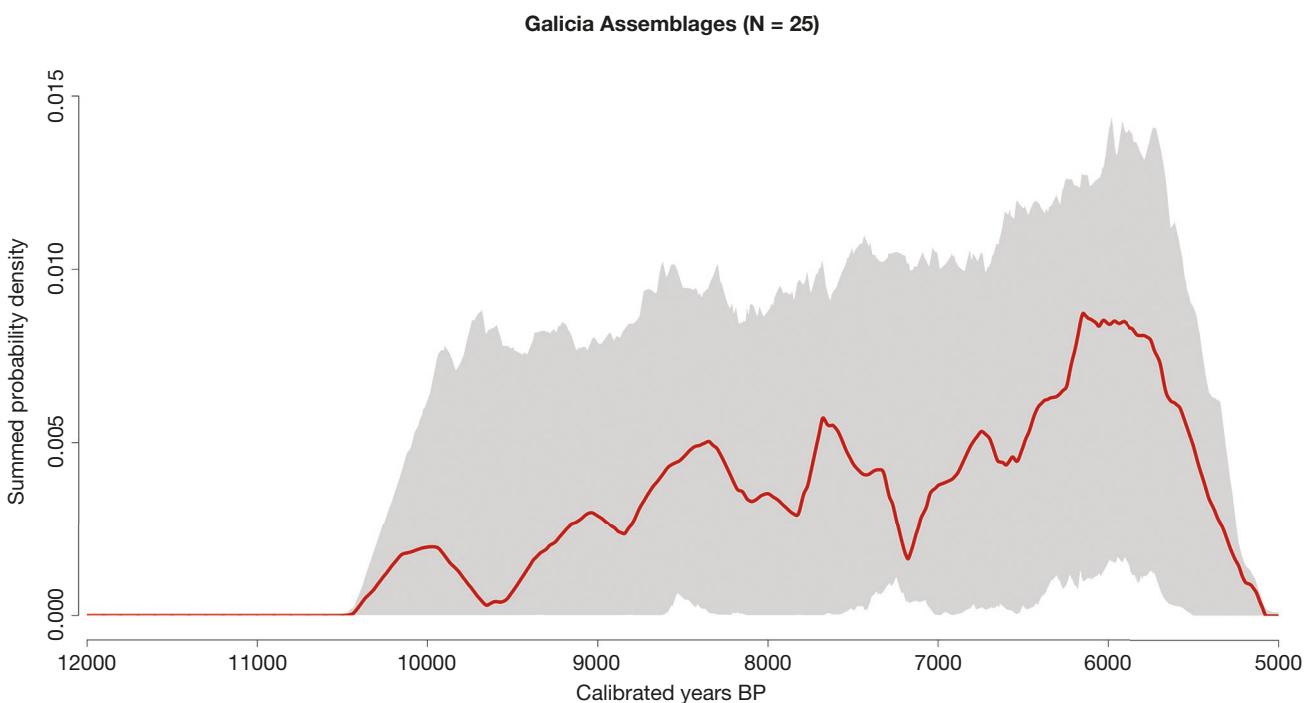


Fig. 21. — SPD graph of 25 Galician Mesolithic dates displaying a sharply irregular pattern trending upwards from 10.5 cal ka BP and marked by steep declines at about 9.65–9.5 ka cal BP and 7.2 ka cal BP, a peak c. 6.25–5.8 ka cal BP, followed by a precipitous decline at 5.7 ka cal BP. There are no statistically significant deviations from the null model ( $p = 0.363$ ). As was true of the Basque sample, this result is almost certainly a statistical artifact attributable to the small number of dates.

These comparisons are made using permutation tests to make more precise regional comparisons that elucidate statistically-significant patterns that might be affected by false positives and negatives at the local scale. The permutation algorithm works by randomly shuffling all sites associated with each local SPD before applying the spatial weights according to the percentage of dates in each local sample, then computing the local growth rate within defined chronological parameters (the aggregate number of bins per test/ $N$ ). This process is iterated  $n$  times (here, 200), so that for each location, there is an observed local growth rate and a vector of simulated growth rates constituting the null model. Local rates are then compared with the null model to identify intervals of positive (hot spots) and negative deviations (cold spots). Statistical significance is determined a priori by the investigator (here,  $p \leq 0.005$ ) (see Crema *et al.* 2016, 2017 for a description of the method).

#### PERMUTATION TESTS – LOCAL AND REGIONAL MODELS COMPARED

In the discussion of the local models above, the Basque and Galician samples did not yield any statistically significant positive or negative deviations. Although increases and decreases in population density are indicated for both and might have empirical validity, we cannot conclude that they do because the associated probabilities are 0.145 and 0.363 respectively. In other words, the local data do not meet the criteria for statistical significance under the exponential growth model expressed in the null hypothesis. In the case of Cantabria and the Middle Ebro, both graphs show statistically significant positive and negative deviations ( $p \leq 0.005$ ). Moreover they stand in an inverse relationship to one another, both in the Epipaleolithic (12.0–10.0 ka cal BP) and Mesolithic (Fig. 22).

The graph for Cantabria shows a weakly positive deviation over the 12.0–10.0 ka cal BP interval (Pre-Boreal, early Boreal), an increase in population that peaks at 7.7–7.8 ka cal BP (Atlantic), followed by a significant decline after 7.4 ka cal BP that continues well into the early Neolithic. Population densities lower than expected occur from c. 7.3 to 5.8 ka cal BP. The sharp drop in population after about 7.4 ka cal BP is followed by an irregular but ultimately large-scale decrease in population, possibly indicating near abandonment. That peak corresponds to the regional Mesolithic – the Asturian. The significant valley corresponds to the apparent near-abandonment of the region following the Asturian. There is a weak positive upturn after about 5.3 ka cal BP and an apparent gap between the Mesolithic and the Neolithic of about 2400 years, at least as indicated by measures of central tendency and dispersion. Not even the ranges overlap (Table 1). As in Figures 18–21, weak deviations are probably statistical artifacts.

The Middle Ebro SPD contrasts sharply with that of Cantabria. It shows a long but weak negative deviation between c. 11.4–9.8 ka cal BP that tends to support the view that the region was essentially unoccupied by humans until the late Upper Paleolithic (González-Sampériz *et al.* 2009), whereas there is much evidence for Azilian foragers in Cantabria during the same interval. This is followed by a long positive

trend beginning around 10.0 ka cal BP, attaining statistical significance at c. 7.4 ka cal BP, with maximum population density at 7.1–7.0 ka cal BP, some 7–800 years after the Cantabrian peak, perhaps explaining the apparent depopulation of Cantabria following the Asturian. The peak at 7.1 ka cal BP is followed by about 1400 years (6.8–5.4 ka cal BP) during which population decline matches expectations under the null model. It only attains statistical significance in the late 6<sup>th</sup> millennium cal BP, when the earliest megalithic structures appear (Fano *et al.* 2015).

The permutation tests for the Basque and Galician dates are inconclusive, although the latter shows a single positive deviation at c. 5.8–5.5 ka cal BP, a result that squares well with the consensus view that the Neolithization in the region was both partial and late, and marked by the appearance of megaliths. The null models are very similar, differing only in detail from one another. Because of the small number of dates, the graphs themselves are essentially uninterpretable, although the coastal Basque coastal sites appear to post-date 10 ka cal BP, whereas Galicia has several early dates.

What is so striking about the demographic analyses is the consistency of pattern, regardless of scale and the shape of the null model, when the Ebro dates are compared with those of Cantabria, all north Spanish coastal dates, and those of northern Spain. *In each comparison there is an inverse relationship between Cantabria and the Middle Ebro. As Cantabria loses population, the Middle Ebro gains it.* Moreover, significant population decline in Cantabria continues for more than a millennium, whereas population increase in the Ebro is confined to about 600 years. Because there is no compelling climatic reason for this shift (Fig. 12), it suggests that Asturian foragers migrated to the middle Ebro valley where they mixed with indigenous hunter-gatherers and early agropastoral colonists from the lower Ebro. The earliest open sites in the Ebro date to around 8.0 ka cal BP (latest Geometric Mesolithic) and become relatively common in the early Neolithic, indicating that caves and rockshelters had become so filled with debris from 7000 years of human use and occupation that they were no longer suitable as living spaces. Something very similar is well-documented in Cantabria (e.g. Vega del Sella 1914; Vega del Sella *et al.* 1923, 1930).

#### THE PAN-IBERIAN POPULATION BOTTLENECK

It is interesting to compare the pan-Iberian SPD model recently published by Fernández-López *et al.* (2019) with our results. Using 907 cleaned and filtered dates and a methodology similar to ours, they propose three episodes or phases of demographic change, ultimately attributed to the aftereffects of the Younger Dryas (see also Straus 2012). In Phase 1 (18–14 ka cal BP), growth rates stay within the parameters of the null model, and are positively correlated with increased precipitation, late-glacial sea level rise, and increased climatic instability during the rapidly warming Bølling/Allerød interstadial (13.8–12.7 ka cal BP). Population grew exponentially, with statistically significant upticks at 18–17.6, 14–13.4 and 13–12.8 kya. Phase 2 begins abruptly with the sharply colder (–6°C) Younger Dryas (c. 12.9–11.6 kya) and extends throughout the Pre-boreal.

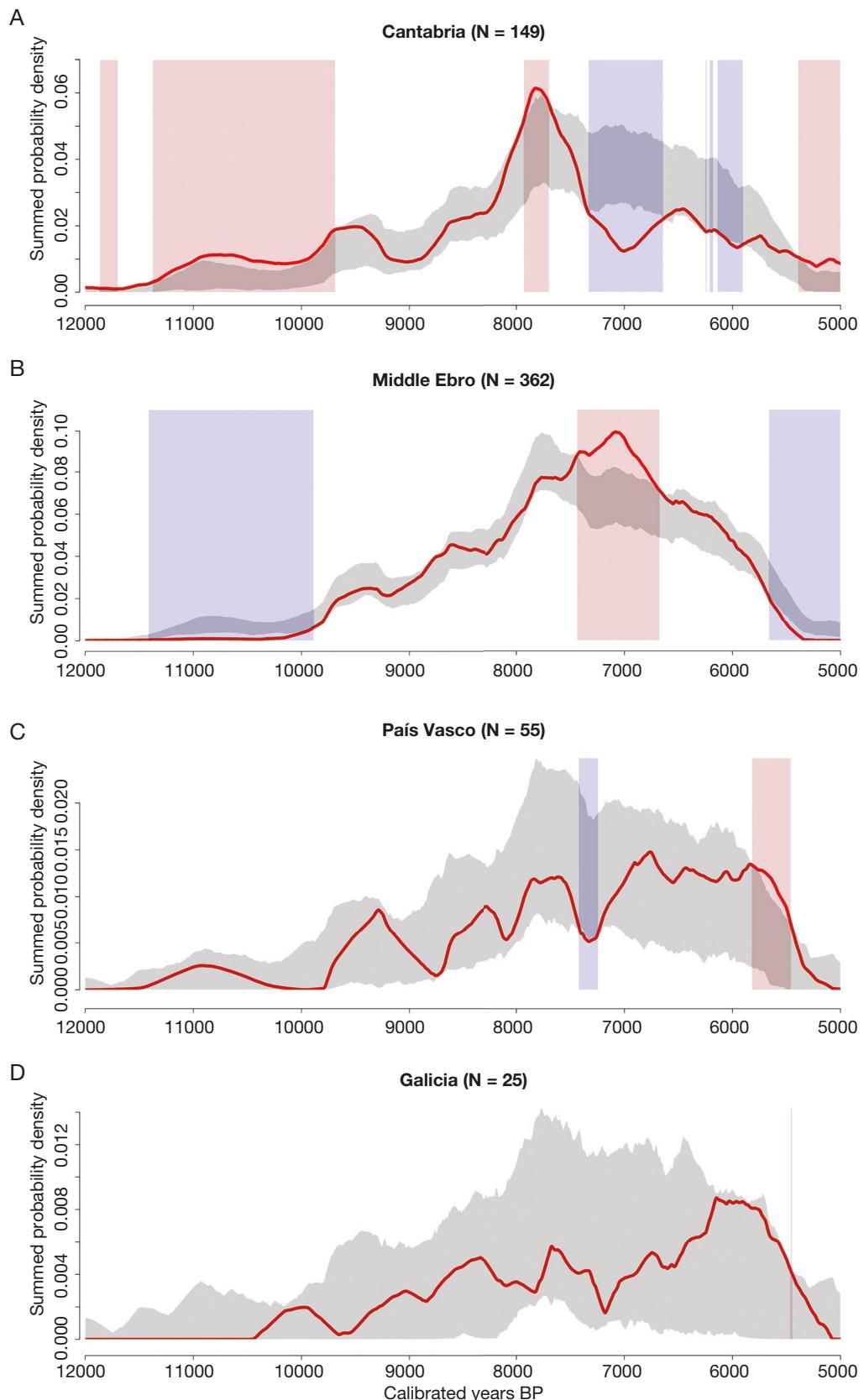


FIG. 22. — Regional SPD permutation test for the four regions comparing local population densities with the null model ( $H_0$ ) to identify intervals of positive (hot spots) and negative deviations (cold spots) with a probability of rejection of  $H_0 \leq 0.005$ . For Cantabria (A) and the Middle Ebro (B), both graphs show statistically significant positive and negative deviations ( $p \leq 0.005$ ), and stand in an inverse relationship to one another in the Epipaleolithic, the Mesolithic, and the early Neolithic. The Basque (C) and Galician (D) samples did not yield any statistically significant positive or negative deviations, because the associated probabilities are 0.145 and 0.363 respectively.

Significant negative deviations occur at 11.8–11.3, 11.1–10.7 and 10.5–9.9 kya, the dramatic change disrupting forager equilibria throughout the Peninsula, creating population/resource imbalances that pushed them beyond the limits of local carrying capacities, triggering a pan-Iberian contraction in population growth rates that amounted to a bottleneck. Phase 3 corresponds to the Boreal (11–9 kya) and Atlantic (9–5.8 kya), a period of logistic growth with population levels stabilizing between 9.3 and 8 kya owing to more stable temperature and precipitation regimes during the second half of the early Holocene. A short but strong uptick is dated to 7.8 kya. It is during this interval that dietary diversification increased to local maxima as foragers sought to reconcile relatively high population density with increasing resource stress. Although matches are inexact because of differences in scale (18–8 vs 12–5 ka cal BP), the Atlantic coastal and Ebro sub-samples are roughly comparable and show the same kind of inverse relationship described above. Significant population decline in north coastal Spain dates to 9.3–8.6 kya, while population increase in the Middle Ebro spikes at 8.7–8.5 kya. Data from an earlier paper (Clark *et al.* 2019) also tend to confirm this shift in population density.

## MISCELLANEOUS ASPECTS OF PATTERN

In the course of this research, several other aspects of pattern became evident, suggesting future research directions. *We hasten to add that the following remarks are just that – unanalyzed, untested, subjective impressions.* Among them is the observation that we need to uncouple the first appearance of domesticates from evidence of dependence upon them. Most of the radiocarbon dates we used mark the former, rather than the latter, but dependence upon domesticates is of far greater behavioral significance than their mere appearance.

Transitional sites (i.e., those with stratified Mesolithic and Neolithic levels) were essentially confined to the middle Ebro where foragers were scarce on the landscape and where there is no evidence of a human presence prior to the late Magdalenian. They don't seem to exist elsewhere in northern Spain. The lower and middle Ebro were easily accessible to Neolithic colonists of coastal origin who encountered a broad corridor of suitable farm and pastureland land uninterrupted by the Pyrenees and the Cantabrian mountains. Early Neolithic sites are rare and later in the other three regions.

We also noticed a hiatus of approximately 1–2 millennia between what is regarded as "Mesolithic" and what is regarded as "Neolithic", probably indicating no more than consensus definitions of these two analytical units, often defined by the appearance of pottery that, in default of rare primary evidence for morphological domesticates, does not necessarily tell us anything about the subsistence economy.

In northern Spain, as in western Europe and the Middle East, there is a suggestion of population decline after the early Neolithic that could signal initially wasteful farming and herding practices that quickly exhausted soil nutrients and game, causing a population crash and a partial reversion

to foraging, as happened in the Rhine and Danube (Shennan *et al.* 2013) and in the central and southern Levant (Rollefson & Köhler-Rollefson 1993). In the latter area, severe damage to the ecology surrounding large villages led to costly changes in farming and herding, greater mobility, decreases in site size and complexity, greater reliance on wild resources, impoverishment of material culture and, after c. 8000 BP, their abandonment, eventually followed by an increase in population – sometimes exponential, sometimes logistic – some 1500 years later (Kuijt & Goring-Morris 2002).

Despite good geoscience, archaeofaunal, archaeobotanical and radiometric data, few direct correlations between culture and climate change were apparent in our study except insofar as climate affects sea level change and changes in the extent of economic territories (cf. Fernández López *et al.* [2019] above). Although the narrow and deep continental shelf off northern Spain minimizes this problem there, the wide and shallow continental shelf off western Galicia was subject to sea level regression during the LGM and Tardiglacial, and transgression after the Holocene transition. Packing in the north Spanish coastal strip due to LGM glacial advance followed by more loss of territory as shallow continental shelves off Aquitaine and the west Galician coast were drowned by marine transgression during the early Holocene might have driven coastal foragers inland in Galicia into thinly populated areas. Consistent with the view that global climate change and local behavioral and environmental constraints are the primary determinants of demographic change, there should be a noticeable increase in Mesolithic sites in A Coruña and Pontevedra after about 8.0 ka cal BP.

Putting empirical "teeth" into these observations is hampered by a lack of data from open sites, the scarcity of faunal data, and differences in the kind, quality and package size of tool stone. Regarding material culture in general, it is logical to think that all forager adaptative systems would have required both heavy (macrolithic) and light (microlithic) tool components and that, given suitable tool stone, an apparently partial system (e.g. the Asturian, the Denticulate Mesolithic) must almost inevitably have been complemented by an as-yet-undiscovered (or unrecognized) component, perhaps an organic one. Except in Galicia, where there are few caves, and the relatively xeric, open environments of the Ebro valley, there is a massive bias against surveys in the regional research traditions of the north coast. Consequently, few open sites are known, raising the possibility that whole components of adaptive systems are "missing" simply because of a reluctance to adopt modern survey methodologies (e.g. Banning 2002; Fernández-López & Barton 2015).

## CONCLUSIONS

Informed by various more or less explicit, mostly ecological, conceptual frameworks, and despite the inevitably uneven resolution of the time-space grid, recent work in northern Spain largely succeeds in shedding a long-standing adherence to culture history that has limited understanding of the

foraging societies that lived within and adapted to a succession of changing landscapes in the millennia following the end of the Ice Age. In striking contrast to the pre-1980s view of cultural stagnation or “devolution” manifest mainly in the disappearance of the art and in simplified technologies, the north Spanish Mesolithic exhibits changes in mobility, inter-regional social organization, population dynamics, and changing subsistence economies that, depending on context and antecedent conditions, both resisted (Galicia, Cantabria, País Vasco) and facilitated (the middle Ebro) the adoption of agropastoralism.

Although the Mesolithic has an internal dynamic all its own, many workers feel obligated to come to grips with the nature of the transition to the Neolithic because of its transcendental importance in the economic history of our species, and because of the long-standing notion (see, e.g. papers in Zvelebil [1986]) that farming and foraging are fundamentally incompatible economic strategies that compete with one another for land, time, manpower, and other resources.

The quantitative model of the north European transition first proposed by Zvelebil & Rowley-Conwy (1986) figures prominently here. It entails an “availability” phase, where knowledge of domesticates is present, but are economically unimportant (<5% net caloric yield); “substitution”, where domestication co-occurs with predation, either because of external factors (farmers colonize forager territories) or internal ones (foragers add domesticates to their range of subsistence practices; 5–50% net caloric yield), and “consolidation”, where domesticates supplant predation, and foraging declines in importance (>50% net caloric yield). Although the ability to make these distinctions “on the ground” is clearly limited by factors of preservation, especially in Galicia, the adoption of farming and stock raising was clearly “patchy” and complementary in both space and time, due to proximate causes that varied from one region to the next, constrained by antecedent environmental, social, and economic conditions (see Clark [1987] for an exegesis of this view). The initial appearance of domesticates and the point at which they become economic staples are often separated by millennia, and foragers were exceptionally resistant to the adoption of domesticates, probably because of the increased labor costs involved (“domestication as a last resort” – Clark [1987]). Scattered evidence for precocious social complexity shows no correlation with an early adoption of either stock raising or agriculture (in fact, quite the contrary), suggesting that sedentism, resource intensification, and logistical collecting strategies do not necessarily pave the way for the transition, at least in northern Spain.

The “colonization wave” model of Ammerman & Cavallii-Sforza (1984) is well-supported only in the Ebro valley and along the western Mediterranean coast, where the introduction of agropastoralism appears to have been relatively rapid, and where domesticates were introduced as a “package” that quickly supplanted foraging economies (and perhaps the foragers themselves!). Even there, where there was essentially no “availability”, and only a short “substitution” phase, it is clear that the transition was never an inevitable consequence of the inherent superiority of domestication economies, as Robert

Braidwood argued long ago, and that understanding it simply involves plotting the distribution of early Neolithic sites in Europe and the Near East. The causes of the transition were multiple, complex and variable from region to region, with demographic factors (especially changes in population density) and, to a limited extent, climatically induced environmental changes affecting pre-existing balances between populations and resources in a mosaic pattern that we are only beginning to perceive. If a general explanation for the salient features of the Mesolithic, or for the Mesolithic-Neolithic transition, were eventually to emerge it will have to take into account many different trajectories for change. Given the lack of consensus about how to assign meaning to pattern, such a general explanation seems a long way off.

Empirical insufficiencies remain, of course, as they do in all archaeological research. Some of them that stand in the way of a better understanding of the north Spanish Mesolithic are: 1) low-resolution, poorly dated paleoenvironmental contexts; 2) inundation of early and middle Holocene shorelines by marine transgression; 3) rapid changes in latitudinally distributed floral and faunal successions along coasts with shallow continental shelves; 4) an archaeological record consisting largely of lithic surface scatters, with little or no stratigraphy, nor organic remains (e.g. Ireland, Scotland, Galicia); and 5) “banal” lithic assemblages, with few or no time-sensitive, stylistic marker types.

The transition to the Neolithic is also affected by a lack of data, and is, in addition, particularly subject to conceptual problems like: 1) strictly narrative models that lack a deductive component; 2) practical difficulties in distinguishing acculturation from immigration; 3) disagreement about how the Neolithic is to be defined (i.e., conflicting criteria, low probability of finding morphological domesticates, poor preservation of organics, etc.); 4) inapplicability of the conceptual frameworks to regions where there is little or no organic preservation; 5) contested definitions of, and test implications for, sedentism, mobility, social organization and social complexity; and 6) an inability to distinguish different “structural poses” (Binford & Sabloff 1982; Binford 2001) of a single group (or palimpsests created by multiple groups with a similar adaptation) from those of several groups with a different adaptation.

## EPILOGUE

There is an equifinality to pattern in the past – different patterns can result from similar processes, and similar patterns can result from different processes. Much of the time-space grid for the north Spanish Mesolithic has been worked out to a satisfactory level of resolution, and great strides have been made over the past 25 years in identifying pattern but we are far from consensus about what is causing it to occur. Little by little, with the painstaking accumulation of more data, we should be able to arrive at better and better approximations of what actually happened in the past. Nevertheless, our conceptual reach should exceed our empirical grasp. A description of

the past, no matter how detailed, is not an explanation of the past. If forced to choose, we tend to favor demographic over climatic explanations as agents for change but it's clear that an understanding of adaptation must take into account the complex adaptive links between natural and cultural systems. The challenge of future work will be to try to unravel the many tangled causal skeins that will allow us to discriminate some causes for pattern from others. How mid-latitude Holocene foragers adapted to their rapidly changing environments, to each other, and to colonizing agropastoralists – how they made the transition from predation to domestication after the end of the Ice Age – is of increasing relevance today as we face some of the unfortunate long-term consequences of that transition.

It might be thought presumptuous of us to have undertaken this survey (in fact, we were asked to do it). Neither of us are regional specialists so it is almost inevitable that we will be taken to task for shortcomings and mistakes by those who are. Nevertheless, the exercise has led to insights that we hope will stimulate discussion, if only because our results do not agree with consensus views in a particular region.

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### Data archive and analysis scripts

All data and analysis scripts used to generate the summed probability distributions (SPDs) in Figures 18–22 are published and openly available on Zenodo at <https://zenodo.org/record/5501599>, and should be cited as Barton & Clark 2021 (see cited references section of this paper for full citation).

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## APPENDIX 1. — Continuation.

Pg.id	Site	Level	C14	C14 S	C14	Lab no.	Material	Calib curve	Cal BP	medianGroup	Region
			Mean	Dev	CV						
1433	Pico Ramos	IV	6040	90	0,015	Beta-193569	shell	marine13	6498	Mesolithic	País Vasco
NA	Pico Ramos	IV	5860	65	0,011	UA-3051	bone	intcal13	6680	Mesolithic	País Vasco
NA	Pico Ramos	IV	6040	90	0,015	NA	NA	intcal13	6884	Mesolithic	País Vasco
NA	Pico Ramos	IV	6840	75	0,011	NA	NA	intcal13	7700	Mesolithic	País Vasco
NA	Urratxa	nivel fértil	6940	75	0,011	UA-11434	bone	intcal13	7790	Mesolithic	País Vasco
NA	Urratxa	nivel fértil	6955	80	0,012	UA-11435	bone	intcal13	7796	Mesolithic	País Vasco
<b>País Vasco:</b>			<b>6605</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>0,014</b>				<b>7463</b>		



















## APPENDIX 3. — Continuation.

Pg.id	Site	Level	C14	C14 S	C14	Lab no.	Material	Calib curve	Cal Bp		Group	Region
			Mean	DEV	CV				Median			
1267	Lumentxa	bed 10 niv. II-III	5095	75	0,02	UA-12663	charcoal	intcal13	5888	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1268	Lumentxa	bed 9. niv. II-III	5180	70	0,01	UA-12662	charcoal	intcal13	5962	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1266	Lumentxa	NA	6122	38	0,01	OxA-18236	human bone	intcal13	6990	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1277	Marizulo	burial	5285	65	0,01	GrN-5992	bone	intcal13	6044	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1276	Marizulo	burial	5315	100	0,02	UA-4818	human bone	intcal13	6052	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1280	Marizulo	nivel 1	5235	75	0,01	UA-10375	bone	intcal13	5978	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1431	Pico Ramos	IV	4790	110	0,02	I-16798	bone	intcal13	5447	Neolithic	País Vasco	
1432	Pico Ramos	IV	5370	40	0,01	Beta-181689	seed	intcal13	6130	Neolithic	País Vasco	