### **Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology**

# Anthropogenic impacts on vegetation landscapes and environmental implications during the Middle-Late Holocene in the Iberian Central Pre-Pyrenees: an anthracological approach --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	PALBO-D-21-00150R1	
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Keywords:	Landscape transformations; Anthracology; Cova Colomera; Middle-Late Holocene; Northeastern Iberian Peninsula	
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Abstract:	Cova Colomera is one of the most important archaeological sites to explain early herding activities in the Central Pre-Pyrenees (Iberian Peninsula). Fieldworks have provided a stratigraphy that shows short occupations of the cave by Neolithic and Bronze Age human groups. The sedimentological description has revealed fumiers deposits, that are characteristic of husbandry activities. In this paper, we provide the anthracological results based on 1,117 charcoal fragments. The results allow to characterise the Mediterranean vegetation landscape and its transformation, from a local perspective, related to climatic changes and anthropogenic activities. Climate changes and human activities have played a significant role in Mediterranean landscapes dynamics. However, the incidence or impact of both agents on the vegetation landscape occurred unequally among the Mediterranean region. The anthracological results from Cova Colomera suggest that the Central Pre-Pyrenees was dominated by an oak forest ecosystem, with sub- and supra-Mediterranean deciduous taxon and coniferous forest during the Middle Holocene. This ecosystem remained more or less stable during the Late Holocene, although evergreen oak showed a slight increase, and coniferous forest showed a slight decrease. The orographic characteristics of the Central Pre-Pyrenees were able to maintain temperate and humid conditions, with less impact of aridity events recorded in Mediterranean environments. From a diachronic point of view, the herding activities of Neolithic human and Bronze Age human groups do not appear to have affected highly the landscape development of the Central Pre-Pyrenees. Human activities were probably not intensive in terms of forest clearing or land use.	
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Response to Reviewers:	We have corrected and reviewed all the reviewer's comments, and we have provided	

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an answer or comment to each request. We sincerely believe that both reviewers have contributed to enrich our research. We would like to make some general comments. Firstly, about the quality of the pictures, we send all figures in high quality (TIFF format), although the quality seems poor in the generated pdf. In the other hand, we have modified the order of the discussion in section 4.2 and we have also improved the section 4.1, as the second reviewer suggested. Finally, we have improved the English
idiomaticity throughout the manuscript, as a native Englishman has corrected the grammar mistakes and the style.



Tarragona, January 27th, 2022

Dear Editor,

We are submitting a revised version of the manuscript entitled "Anthropogenic impacts on vegetation landscapes and environmental implications during the Middle-Late Holocene in the Iberian Central Pre-Pyrenees: an anthracological approach", co-authored by Bàrbara Mas, F. Xavier Oms and Ethel Allué, for publication. The submission includes the manuscript, 2 tables and 7 figures.

We have corrected and reviewed the manuscript according to all the two reviewer's comments. We attach a document with all the answers and comments, the clean version of the manuscript, and the manuscript with control changes. We sincerely believe that the reviewer's suggestions have contributed to enriching our first draft. As reviewer 2 suggested, a native English speaker has corrected the English language of the manuscript. We have edited, also, Figures 1 and 6 and Table 2, and, finally, we have improved the Abstract and the highlights.

Hence, we consider this paper as appropriate for submission to the Review of Palaeobotany & Palynology

We hope you find our work suitable and interested for its publication

We look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Bàrbara Mas



We have corrected and reviewed all the reviewer's comments, and we have provided an answer or comment to each request. We sincerely believe that both reviewers have contributed to enrich our research. We would like to make some general comments.

Firstly, about the quality of the pictures, we send all figures in high quality (TIFF format), although the quality seems poor in the generated pdf. In the other hand, we have modified the order of the discussion in section 4.2 and we have also improved the section 4.1, as the second reviewer suggested. Finally, we have improved the English idiomaticity throughout the manuscript, as a native Englishman has corrected the grammar mistakes and the style.

Reviewer comments:

Reviewer #1: The paper submitted by Barbara Mas and co-authors to Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology presents new anthracological data that show regional forest transformations in the Central Pre-Pyrenees (Iberian Peninsula) during the Middle to Late Holocene. The study provides a complete anthracological sequence at Cova Colomera (Mont-rebei Gorge, Central Pre-Pyrenees). This paper is a very nice illustration of the interest of palaeobotany to contribute to the development of such scientific themes. This impressive contribution will be very appreciated by the scientific community, among them researchers working on Holocene. The paper fit well with the standards of Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology. The text is well organized, very easy to read and the topic is clearly developed. Therefore, I strongly recommended RPP publication in with only minor revisions.

I suggest only a few minor changes:

### Line 31: Replace semicolon by coma after 2007.

Done

### Line 193: Write in italics Acer, Fraxinus, Juniperus and Prunus.

Ok. Probably, a M.Word's mistake.

### Line 200: Write in italics Sorbus and Crataegus.

Done. Probably, a M.Word's mistake

## Line 204: Use the same criteria with the numbers, or dot or coma. See 1.117 and 1,038.

Done, thanks!

### Line 357: Add coma after Médail.

Done.

Line 362: Delete dot after m a.s.l.

Done.

### FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 6 and Table 2. Write the first p of Phillyrea in capital letters. Done.

Reviewer #2: General comments

The title is very ambitious. Consider adapting it to the data presented in this study. The data is mainly from one cave site, Cave Colomera that was discontinuously used from the Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze Age. The anthracological information from the cave is not integrated in a comprehensive manner with other anthracological data from the area in order to present what the title implies. Some sites are mentioned throughout the text but in a rather random manner. Sites with relevant data are pointed in figure 1 but they are not mentioned in the caption. Neither are their anthracological data synthesized in the text so that to create an anthracological record for the area in order to discuss anthropogenic impact and vegetation change.

The discussion is in general difficult to follow. I suggest a reorganization based on

1. Clear presentation of the anthracological characteristics of Cave Colomera, vegetation types, specific importance of certain taxa, interpretation of the anthracological diagram

Synthesis of other anthracological data from the area that show differences/similarities through time between hinterland and coastal areas
 Broader climate changes of the Holocene and how can these be correlated to the anthracological data from archaeological sequences. This part is challenging and should be touched upon with caution, due to the discontinuity of the archaeological record

4. Anthropogenic involvement: Firstly it is necessary to discuss the case of the cave, what uses of the vegetation, how continuous or discontinuous these were and what does the anthracological data reveal for the local area. In continuation the broader area can be discussed making a clear differentiation between cave sites for animal penning and other open air sites.

In the conclusions some issues appear rather controversial, maybe it is a matter of the use of the English language (see next)

It is necessary that a native English speaker corrects and does the editing of the manuscript

For the references and citations: in general when there are 2 surnames in the references they should both be used in the citations in the text

We have made changes in the discussion according to the suggestions of the reviewer, this has helped to clarify the organization on the different subjects we are discussing. Although the discontinuity of the sequence, Cova Colomera is one of the most complete in the area recorded to date. We consider that although this paper focus on Cova Colomera offers a broader perspective on the analyses considering the title according to the content. In this aspect, the bias of Middle Neolithic data and the evidence of shorts occupations have been included in the discussion. We have edited the English of the manuscript to correct and clarify some misleading sentences in the discussion.

Abstract

In the first paragraph:

"The anthropogenic footprint" would be the result; Maybe the authors mean human activities?

Yes, we have changed it.

In the abstract it should be specified the time range of the study, Middle and Late Holocene is too long. Please specify at least which millennia after Early, Late Neolithic, Early, Middle Bronze Age. Transformation in landscape changes? not understandable In the second paragraph: Subsequently to what? In the part of the paragraph before subsequently specify to what period you refer to. In some specific places? This is too vague, please clarify what you mean

We have improved this section according with the suggestions.

In the main text

### Line 18: Late instead of late

Done.

Line 23 to 25: The whole sentence needs to be changed and corrected

Done.

Line 27: several proxies, mainly pollen and charcoal? Which 3ret he proxies?

We have revised and changed the sentence.

Line 29: give time range for the Early Holocene

Done.

Line 34: give time range for Middle Holocene

Done.

Line 42: fumiers are related to human activities such as stabling animals? I think it is the result of stabling animals. What other activities could be involved?

You are right. The expression was probably inaccurate. We have corrected it

Line 50: Chabal 1999 does not exist in references, maybe Chabal et al 1999 or Chabal 1997

Done. Chabal et al., 1999.

Line 51: Kabukcu and Chabal 2021 not 2020, change also in references

Done.

Line 57: local dynamics could be relevant. Can you please explain what you mean in relation to the diversity at a regional scale?

Done. We have changed the sentence.

Line 62: because of the possibility of connecting near sites? Check English

Done.

Line 66: from Early Neolithic to middle Bronze Age: give time ranges at least in millennia

Done,

Lines 68-70: assess the impact of what? vegetation change? Its causes? It is not clear to me what the sentence means

Done. We have changed the sentence and included more details.

Lines 92-93: The northern slope of the range, the Tremp-Graus basin,

Better, thanks!

Line 96: in a local area? Locally?

We have corrected it.

Lines 99-105: I think the vegetation of the Ager area should go directly after the description of that part of the range. That would directly facilitate comparison

We agree. Done.

Line 101: the area is located in biome? Maybe better "The biome of the area...."

It's better, thanks

Line 103: in a local area? Locally?

Done.

### Line 117: a gallery? Maybe the authors mean a chamber?

Done, it was a translation mistake.

## Line 137: a narrow concentration? Is it a layer? Maybe the authors mean a thin layer/concentration?

We have improved the sentence.

## Line 139: part of their diet? You mean leaf fodder? And also how do you know this is a Holocene layer? Which layer is it? Is there a date? What is the material culture?

Done. We have improved the sentence.

## Line 144: Veraza and Veraza-Ferrières cultures. Not all readers are familiar with local /regional sequences. Can you provide chronologies for these cultures?

Table 1 shows the dates of archaeological layers. These two cultures constitute two horizons of ceramic assemblages. As this article does not discuss ceramics, reference is made to paper that includes the ceramic material.

### Line 160: why is it 3.1? there is no 3.2, please change

It's true. Thanks!

Line 163: a previous work

Done.

Lines 164-166: the results from both studies should be included in Table 2. There should be correlation between what is written here, what is shown in the diagram (Figure 6) and what is included in table 2

You are right. We have included the analysis of 300 samples from silo EE1 (Oms et al., 2009) in Table 2.

Line 168: maintaining the arrangement of the facies (Z-Z1)? What does this mean? Please explain. Also in the same line place the mesh size together with the flotation method used

Done, we have changed and improved the sentence.

Line 169: why is it mentioned here the method for the small-mammal remains? irrelevant? Or maybe more wood charcoal was collected from those samples? Please clarify and organize

We have clarified the reference.

Line 174: are they saturation curves? See Kabukcu and Chabal 2021. Why were they established? Later on they are used to refer to the taxonomic variability of layers. Is this why they are used for in anthracology? See also below comment for figure 5

We have clarified the reference. It was a language translation mistake.

### Line 176: analysis

Done.

Lines 186 to the end of section: check English language and clarify what taxa you define. What does "are regrouped in terms of species" "mean?

We have clarified this section.

## Line 193, 197 and 200: Acer, Juniperus, Fraxinus, Prunus, sorbus, Crataegus not bold but Italics

Done,

### Line 199: but for the discrimination between Amygdalus and Prunus spinosa see the criteria established in Scweingruber 1990, 643

Yes, we have deleted Amygdalus in our assemblage because we have not observed ring-porus wood character in *Prunus* samples. However, we have followed your recommendation and the description of Prunus type has been improved.

### Line 199: Rosaceae/Maloideae not capital

Done.

RESULTS

Line 204: 1117 recovered? Maybe 1117 studied and 1038 identified

Done.

Line 205: 22 woody species? Here and throughout the text replace species by taxa. Not all identified material corresponds to species

Done.

Line 206: of the current sub-Mediterranen climatic type. I think this is interpretation and it should go in the discussion where it should be integrated in the description of the conditions in the study area in the past relative to the presence of the identified taxa

We have clarified the sentence.

Line 206: what is ubiquity of frequency? There is no ubiquity analysis of the taxa in this study

We have clarified the sentence.

Line 209: The curves in Figure 5 were obtained to show taxa richness in different layers? What is the purpose of accumulation curves?

To explain the anthracological assemblage richness of Cova Colomera. In the discussion, the diversity of taxa is explained.

Lines 213-218: this is inaccurate, the woody taxa listed are deciduous and evergreen and to my knowledge Fagus sylvatica is neither thermo nor meso-Mediterranean

It's true. Done.

### Line 218: Rosaceae/Maloideae

Done.,

Line 222 and 224: shrubby is interpretation. How can it be known that these small trees had a shrubby form? And how can it be known that junipers were shrubby and not tree-like?

You are right. We have changed these lines.

Lines 232-235: Other taxa..... not continuously". If the sentence describes the presence of taxa in one layer and this is what is shown in Table 2 how can "continuity" be perceived. This could only be possible through comparison of consecutive layers

It was an editingmistake. We have changed it.

Line 237-238: Please explain in the caption what the curves show in relation to the results and the anthracological method in general? Or otherwise clarify in the methods section

Done.

Line 244: boxwood

Done.

**DISCUSSION**.1.

Line 269: is Arbutus sub-Mediterranean?

We have changed it with "circum-Mediterranean".

Line 276: Why is it holm oak here and elsewhere evergreen Quercus? Also which are the associate elements? They should be named. And shouldn't there be Arbutus and Rhamnus/Phillyrea among them?

We have clarified and improved it.

Lines 280-289: what are Mediterranean forests? All information about Mediterranean, sub-mediterranean and Atlantic should be explained. However, it would be preferable to make all the necessary comparisons in relation to what is depicted in figure 2. I believe it serves better the purposes of the manuscript than other general descriptions. All the section needs thorough revision. Which are the taxa typical of the Holm oak forest? In cases the same taxa appear as deciduous, sclerophyllous (i.e. Arbutus) sub-mediterranean, or Mediterranean.

We have improved this section.

Line 289: what are percentages of ubiquity value? Relative frequency of fragment counts per layer/per period are presented in Table 2 and figure 5

We have clarified the sentence.

### Line 290: what is a secondary position?

We have clarified and improved this section.

Lines 292-294: What are the results from the study of small vertebrates. If it is mentioned it should be explained to show how it supports the anthracological results

We have improved this explanation.

Line 305: starting with "however" it should correlate with something. What is it? Is it something about the changes of the Late Holocene seen through other proxies? If so these should be described first and then make the comparison with the Bronze Age at Cave Colomera

We have reorganized and improved this section.

Line 316: what ubiquity values and in comparison to what? Other antrhacological results from Iberia?

Translation Language mistake. Done and clarified.

### Line 305-335: Revise and organize the data so that they are meaningful

We have reorganized and improved this section.

## Line 337: how can you discuss about the 8.2 event? It is not represented in your sequence

We have not discussed the 8.2 event. We have only used it as a starting point for explaining the Middle-Holocene scenario.

Line 338-339: this is not seen in the anthracological sequence. Which are the xerophilous shrubs that start to expand? Arbutus, Pistacia, Phillyrea are not present, Quercus evergreen increases slightly. Contrary to that Quercus deciduous shows increasing trend throughout

We have reorganized, clarified and improved this section.

### **DISCUSSION** .2.

Line 361: specify in which period of the Middle Holocene you refer because later on you compare with the Early Bronze Age (line 367).

Done. We were referring to the Middle-Late Holocene.

Line 362-364: I do not understand the comment. What is wood consumption? Fuel? Timber? And are these the only means that may affect the vegetation of an area? What about animal herding, forest fires for pasture, woodland management for leaf fodder, etc. Please explain what you mean.

We have improved this section,

### Line 370: Ros 1995 a or b

Thanks, is 1995b

## Line 391-392: How does this observation correlate with the uses of wood distinguished through the antrhacological study?

Several of the taxa identified are recurrent in ovicaprine diets. This point has already been discussed.

### Line 399: what wood? of juniperus and boxwood?

Thanks for the observation, is boxwood. Done.

### Line 408-409: from the Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze Age

Done

From 408 to the end the information relates to the characteristics of the broader area but this is not clearly structured. From the specific uses of the taxa at Cave Colomera the focus turns to vegetation dynamics from the Middle to the Late Holocene in the Pre-Pyrenees without a clear definition of what has to be compared.

We have improved this section. We compare, from a local point of view, the dynamics of vegetation with the low impact of human activities.

## Line 411: how permanent is defined? Can the anthracological data show that? How could the exploitation be permanent if the archaeology of the caves shows long periods of no use?

This is a translation mistake, we were referring to reiterated or recurrent exploitation.

### Line 419: mixed oak taxa?

We changed this sentence for oak taxa.

### Line 427: Diaz Polo et al. 2014?

Done.

### Line 430: "with any differences"? Maybe "with no differences"

Done

### Line 440: the retreat of conifers only briefly mentioned in the discussion

We have improved this question,

## Line 444-445: at the local scale of Cave Colomera the expansion of xerophytic shrubs and Quercus is not obvious

True, we have improved this sentence.

Line 451-452: to conclude: is there evidence of some pressure in inland areas in the Neolithic? How should "incipient pressure" be understood? "No pressure" or "the beginning of pressure"? I understand the second but in the discussion the arguments are against it

We have improved this sentence.

Line 456: what is the specialized selection pattern of forest resources? How is it justified in the discussion? An in particular about herding at Cave Colomera?

We have improved this sentence.

### References Allue 2009, not found in references

### Badal 1999, not found in references

Both references are et al. Thanks for your observation. We have corrected the reference in text.

Figures – Tables

Figure 1: consider using subepoch without hyphenation as in Walker et al. 2019, Journal of Quaternary Science 34(3): 173-186 <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/jqs.3097you</u> In the caption the names of the sites should be mentioned and correlated with the numbers. If no mention to the sites is made what is the point of numbering them? Some sites are mentioned in the text and it would be useful to see which and where they are located. Also, the time range of the Middle and Late Holocene is long. To which part of the Late Holocene do the sites correspond. Consider adapting the caption of figure 1 to include all this information e.g. for the Lower Holocene the sites correspond only to the 2nd millennium BC

We have modified the figure and included the name of the sites, reference and archaeological period in the caption.

Figure 2: The quality is not good, but I am not sure if this is due to low resolution conversion for the pdf file. It should be very clear and probably used to make comparisons instead of using other general information (see also comment for lines 280-289)

The poor quality is due to the generation of the pdf. All figures in this paper were sent in tiff format and at high resolution.

Figure 4: Please explain in the caption what is c facies (layers base) = layers base

## of what? Of fumier? tf facies (indeterminate origin) = indeterminate origin relative to what?

These acronyms correspond to the excavation methodology of a fumier, and identify the origin and composition of different layers, according to the study by Angelucci and others (2009). Given the confusion that this can generate, we have improved the caption of the figure.

## Figure 5: explain what does it show? Is it a saturation curve or an accumulation curve? See the discussion in Kabukcu and Chabal 2021, 12-13

We have improved this section.

## Figure 6: The first column from left should be Cultural Period instead of Age. In Table 2 it is Archaeological Period

Done, we changed as Archaeological Period.

### Second column from left should be Identified fragments, what is determinated?

Agree. We have changed for Identified fragments.

## For the Early Neolithic the total identified fragments in Table 2 are 447. Why 446 in Figure 6?

Done, the correct are 447.

### For the Late Neolithic the total identified in Table 2 are 401. Why 402 in figure 6?

Done, the correct are 401.

## For the Early Bronze Age there is a huge difference in total identified between Table 2 (57) and figure 6 (344)

In Table 2 only the results of the new anthracological analysis were included, while in the diagram in figure 6 the published results of silo EE1 (Oms et al, 2009) were included. We agree with your comments and have included in Table 2 the results of Oms et al, (2009).

### Phillyrea with P capital.

Done

### Add sp. to Tilia?

It's true! Done

### Hedera helix ssp?

We have changed to Hedera helix

What is the significance of the colours? It should be explained. As I understand it the red are the thermophilous ones and the orange the more temperate? But is it really like that for Tilia (red) and Arbutus (orange)?

Done.

### Figure 7. Nice synthetic figure but poor quality

The poor quality is due to the generation of the pdf.

## Table 2. Capital P for Phillyrea. Why ROSACEAE/MALOIDEAE in capital? Please change

Done.

### Change determined with identified

Agree. Done.

Have the % been calculated based on the totals? I believe they should be calculated on the basis of the total identified (cf. Chabal 1997) In the caption of Table 2: what does "Absolute (n) and relative frequencies (%) of charcoals fragments analyzed with species recorded."? Do the author(s) mean "Absolute and relative frequencies of taxa based on fragment counts" An as elsewhere, species should be replaced by taxa

We have changed and improved the caption.

	1	Anthropogenic impacts in vegetal landscapes and environmental implications
	2	during the Middle-Late Holocene in the Iberian Central Pre-Pyrenees: an
I	3	anthracological approach
	4	Bàrbara Mas <sup>1</sup> ; F. Xavier Oms <sup>1</sup> ; Ethel Allué <sup>2,3</sup>
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1	6	
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1	.7	Keywords
1	.8	Landscape transformations; Anthracology; Cova Colomera; Middle-Llate Holocene;
1	9	Northeastern Iberian Peninsula
2	0	
2	1	1 Introduction
2		
2	2	The impact of general Holocene climate dynamics was unequal in past
2	3	Mediterranean landscapes. Mainly in the first stages of the Holocene (11.7 ka years BP

to 4.2 ka years BP), the influence of climatic agents on landscape transformation was 24 25 more evident than the impact of human activities. However, since the Middle-Late Holocene Boundary (4.2 ka years BP), discerning which of the two agents, natural 26 27 factors or the anthropogenic footprint, was the main contributor to landscape transformation, or whether it was a combination of both, is controversial or less obvious 28 29 Mainly, from the Early Holocene, natural changes in landscapes and a period of predominantly anthropogenic change are difficult to discern until the Late Holocene 30 (see Jalut et al., 2000; Roberts et al., 2011). Past-Holocene Mediterranean vegetation 31 woodland history and landscapes changes landscapes and their transformation during 32 33 the Holocene have been studied using a several proxiespalaeoecological proxy, mainly pollen and charcoal data (see e.g. Jalut et al., 2009; Woodbridge et al., 2018; Roberts et 34 al., 2019; Picornell-Gelabert et al., 2020), mainly pollen and charcoal data. According to 35 36 the available palaeobotanical sequences in the NE Iberian Peninsula, at the end of the 37 Late Pleistocene and the beginning of the Early Holocene, deciduous oak forest, 38 broadleaf trees and pine forests were dominant in the area (Riera-Mora and Esteban-Amat, 1994; Burjachs et al., 1997; Riera et al., 2007; Allué et al., 2007, 2017; Carrión 39 40 et al., 2010a; Pérez-Obiol et al., 2011; Fletcher et al., 2012; Revelles et al., 2015, 2018; González-Sampériz et al., 2017; Allué and Mas, 2020; Mas et al., 2021). 41 42 SubsequentlyFurther, during the Middle Holocene sub-epoch (8.2 ka years BP to 4.2 ka years BP), warmer and more humid climatic conditions prevailed as precipitation 43 regimes increased, favoring the expansion of deciduous forests and the retreat of pine 44 forests and grasslands (Badal et al., 1994; Jalut et al., 2009; Allué et al., 2012; 45 González-Sampéritz et al., 2017). Simultaneously, from the Early Holocene, 46 Neolithisation throughout the Mediterranean involved agricultural expansion and 47 herding associated with the development of a sedentary lifestyle. Herding activities are 48

evidenced in archaeological sites by fumier deposits, which have been documented from 49 50 the Early Neolithic to the Iron Age (see Angelucci et al., 2009). Fumiers are the result of human activities, such as stabling animals (usually flocks of goat and sheep) within 51 52 the entrance areas of caves and rock-shelters. The deposits are mainly derived from the 53 combustion of organic waste, such as the accumulation of animal dung. Plant material 54 in this type of deposit has different origins related to such human practices as foddering, animal beds, fuel, refuse or fencing (Brochier, 1983, 1991, 1996; Polo-Díaz et al., 2014, 55 2016; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020). 56

57 Anthracology, besides being an important proxy for detecting different past local landscapes, is also able to identify changes in human-forest relationships in terms of 58 59 wood exploitation and consumption (see Chabal, 1992; Chabal et al., 1999; Kabukcu, 2018; Asouti and Kabukcu, 2021; Kabukcu and Chabal, 20210; Asouti and Kabukcu, 60 2021). Anthracological data available for the NE Iberian Peninsula during the Middle 61 62 Holocene and the Late Holocene sub-epochs (i.e. Senabre and Socias, 1993; Heinz and 63 Vernet, 1995; -Ros, 1995a, 1995b; 1996, 1998; Piqué, 1999, 2005; Allué, 2007, 2010; Martín and Piqué, 2008; Allué et al., 2009; Vila and Piqué, 2012; Antolín et al., 2013; 64 Alcolea, 2017; Daura et al., 2019) indicate that the configuration and distribution of 65 66 vegetation landscapes were diverse at regional scale. As, and as consequence, research based on a local approach may be relevant to reconstructing the regional variabilitylocal 67 dynamics could be relevant (Figure 1). 68

PLACE HERE FIGURE Colomera 69 1. Location Cova and  $\mathbf{of}$ archaeologicalArchaeological sites with available Middle-Late Holocene 70 anthracological data in the from NE Iberian Peninsula. Early Neolithic: 1) La Draga 71 (Piqué, 2005); 2) Cova d'en Pau III (Ros, 1996; Piqué, 2005); 3) Cova 120 (Ros, 1995a: 72 73 Piqué, 2005); 4) Bauma del Serrat Pont (Piqué, 2005); 5) Plansallosa (Ros, 1995a;

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74	Piqué, 2005); 6) Cova de l'Avellaner (Ros, 1996); 10) Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué,
75	2020); 11) Cova del Frare (Ros, 1996); 12) Cova Bonica (Daura et al., 2019); 13) Can
76	Sadurní (Antolín et al., 2013); 15) La Serreta (Allué, 2010); 17) Cova de la Guineu
77	(Allué et al., 2009); 18) Camp del Colomer (Piqué et al., 2015); 19) Bauma Margineda
78	(Heinz, 1995); 20) Coves del Fem (Alcolea, 2017); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper);
79	25) Barranc d'en Fabra (Ros, 1996); 26) Cova del Vidre (Alcolea, 2017). Late
80	Neolithic-Chalcolithic: 3) Cova 120 (Ros, 1995a; Piqué, 2005); 4) Bauma del Serrat
81	Pont (Piqué, 2005); 7) La Prunera (Piqué, 2005); 14) Santa Maria dels Horts (Senabre
82	and Socias, 1993); 17) Cova de la Guineu (Allué et al., 2009); 21) Cova Gran de Santa
83	Linya (Allué, unpublished); 22) Auvelles (Martín and Piqué, 2008); 23) Cova Colomera
84	(in this paper); 24) Roques del Sarró (Vila and Piqué, 2012). Early Bronze age: 8)
85	Institut Manlleu (Ros, 1995b); 9) Can Roqueta (Piqué, 1999); 10) Cova del Toll (Mas
86	and Allué, 2020); 16) Mas d'en Boixos (Allué, 2007); 17) Cova de la Guineu (Allué et
87	al., 2009); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper). Middle Bronze age: 21) Cova Gran de
88	Santa Linya (Allué, unpublished); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper); 27) Genó (Vila
89	and Piqué, 2012); 28) Punta Farisa (Ros, 1998).
90	The <u>Ceentral Pre-Pyrenees (southern Pyrenees, Iberian Peninsula)</u> is remarkable for its
91	evidence of herdingherding's evidence activities in the NE Iberian Peninsula, as
92	documented at Cova Colomera (see Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Martín and Oms, 2021),
93	and also because of the possibility of connecting nearin other archaeological sites with
94	available anthracological data (i.e. Polo-Díaz et al., 2016; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020). A
95	new anthracological sequence from a fumier deposit in Cova Colomera (Serra del
96	Montsec, Central Pre-Pyrenees), with human occupations from the Early Neolithic to
97	the Middle Bronze Age (mid-6 <sup>th</sup> millennium cal BC to 3th millennium cal BC), has
98	focused on a diachronic perspective in order to understand the role of anthropogenic

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activities and climate change in the transformation of local environments and shaping 99 100 the cultural landscape. Therefore, the main objectives are to understand vegetation change and its causes, and thus to estimate the impact that the Neolithisation process 101 102 may have had on vegetation landscapes. Therefore, the main goals are to comprehend 103 vegetation change and its causes, and thus assess its impact on landscapes during the 104 Neolithisation process.

- 105
- 106 1.1.

### Geographical area and landscapes

107 The study area is located in the Montsec range, in the Central Pre-Pyrenees (southern Pyrenees, Iberian Peninsula), between the Tremp-Gaus and Ager drainage 108 109 basins. This range, rising through the passage of the Pre-Pyrenees towards the Ebro basin, is formed by Cretaceous bioclastic limestones. The topography is the result of a 110 series of monoclinal mountain ranges along 40 km, in an area of 186.96 km<sup>2</sup>, oriented 111 from west to east. Three rivers, Boix River, Noguera Pallaresa River and Noguera 112 Ribagorçana River, cut through the ridge from north to south. When crossing the 113 Montsec range, these water courses have eroded and shaped narrow gorges and routes, 114 115 like Pas Nou, Terradets and Mont-rebei. At some points, the range exceeds 1600 m a.s.l. 116 in its central sector (e.g., Sant Alís is at 1676 m a.s.l.) and loses height towards its ends.

The southern slope of the range, the Ager Basin, is characterized by longer 117 summer drought and, therefore, drier climate conditions. Ager basinLocally, the area is 118 under the influence of a sub-Mediterranean climate type, although with a continental 119 trend (sensu Carreras and Ferré, 2014). Climatic conditions of sub-Mediterranean 120 climate type are differentiated from the general Mediterranean regime by cooler 121 temperatures and higher rainfall, while a short and irregular summer drought may occur 122 in some years (see Jalut et al., 2000). The mean annual rainfall ranges from 400 to 600 123

mm with the maximum precipitation occurring in autumn (October with mean 124 125 precipitations of around 40 mm) and a minimum in summer (July with precipitations of 126 less than 13 mm). The mean annual temperature oscillates between 11 and 13°C, with a 127 maximum of 31°C in July and a minimum of 0°C in January (Meteocat data 2020 from 128 Camarasa municipality) (Figure 2). The biome of the area is characterized by Mediterranean forests, woodlands and scrub, which belongs to the Iberian 129 sclerophyllous and semi-deciduous forests (Dinerstein et al., 2017). In a local area, 130 holm-oak forests (Quercus ilex subsp. ilex) and Aleppo pine forests (Pinus halepensis) 131 132 expand

The northern slope of the range, -(Tremp-Graus Basin,) is rainier and shadier, 133 134 and consequently the climate is more temperate and could present a Eurosiberian trend. 135 The biome is characterized by a temperate broadleaf and mixed forest, which belongs to the Pyrenees conifer and mixed forest ecoregion (Dinerstein et al., 2017). In a local 136 areaLocally, beech forest and oak forests are predominant (Quercus faginea, Quercus 137 138 cerroides and Quercus pubescens with the presence of Acer sp. and Buxus sempervirens). Likewise, in the higher areas of the range, pine forests expand (Pinus 139 140 nigra subsp. salzmanii and Pinus sylvestris). However, the southern slope of the range 141 (Ager Basin) is characterized by longer summer drought and, therefore, drier climate conditions. The area is located in a biome characterized by Mediterranean forests, 142 143 woodlands and serub, which belongs to the Iberian sclerophyllous and semi deciduous 144 forests (Dinerstein et al., 2017). In a local area, holm oak forests (Quercus ilex subsp. 145 ilex) and Aleppo pine forests (Pinus halepensis) expand.

PLACE HERE FIGURE 2. A) Map of forest communities in the study area, according
to the vegetation series of Spain (Rivas-Martínez, 1987); B and C) Principal bioclimatic
variables in the NE Iberian Peninsula. "Mean annual Temperature" (B) and "Mean

annual Precipitation" (C) according to Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación
(Spanish government), by geostatistical interpolation methods from actual AMET data
(http://wms.mapama.es/sig/Agricultura/CaractAgroClimaticas/wms.aspx?).

152

#### 153 2. Cova Colomera cave

Cova Colomera is located in the Mont-rebei gorge, Serra del Montsec (Central PrePyrenees, NE Iberian Peninsula). The cave is located 670 m a.s.l., 150 m above the left
bank of the Noguera Ribagorçana river, a tributary of the Segre River (Oms et al., 2008,
2009a) (Figure 3). The cave entrance is 70 m high and 30 m wide, and leads to a gallery
chamber about 180 m long and 10-12 m wide (Oms et al., 2013).

PLACE HERE FIGURE 3. 3D Location map of Cova Colomera, at N42°4'40.892",
E0°40'54.487" (WGS 84).

From 2005 to 2011, an interdisciplinary team from the Seminari d'Estudis i 161 Recerques Prehistòriques (SERP-UB) excavated the cave, allowing the description of 162 163 the stratigraphic sequence (Oms et al., 2015). Two 26 m<sup>2</sup> test pits were excavated during 164 the fieldwork: one in the eastern sector of the cave, "Colomera Est (CE)", and the second, "Colomera Vestíbul (CV)", in the highest sector of the cave entrance. The CV 165 test pit revealed thin stratigraphic layers up to the top of a carbonate crust. Under the 166 167 crust, a series of overlapping anthropogenic structures (silos, hearths, post-holes) were documented. Six Holocene and one Late Pleistocene archaeological layers and a Late 168 Pleistocene one-were registered in CE test pit (Table 1). 169

170

PLACE HERE TABLE 1. Compilation of published radiocarbon and calibrated dates
from the Holocene sequence <u>in of</u> the Cova Colomera test pit CE.

173

174 Lower unit CE15 (CE15a, b and c), corresponding to the Pleistocene, was not 175 anthropic in origin, but many micro- and macrofauna remains were recovered from the excavation and sediment sieving (López-García et al., 2010). The Pleistocene unit was 176 separated from the Holocene sequence by a narrow concentration thin concentration of 177 boxwood leaves and white-colored branches, that corresponds to Holocene's top unit, 178 179 layer CE14 (7163-6964 cal. years BP). Plant-Boxwood remains, such as branches and leaves, were documented in a primary position, which have been interpreted as a bed for 180 181 the herd or part of their diet (i.e. Oms et al., 2013; Bergadà and Oms, 2021). Layers CE14-(7163-6964 cal. years BP), CE13 (7164-6909 cal. years BP) and CE12 (7146-182 6737 cal. years BP) are ascribed to a late phase of the regional Early Neolithic (Oms et 183 al., 2008, 2009a, 2010, 2013, 2015). Layers CE10 (5305-5041 cal. years BP) and CE9 184 185 (4863-4621 cal. years BP) are ascribed to the Late Neolithic, with horizons associated with the Veraza and Veraza-Ferrières cultures respectively (Oms et al., 2010, 2015). In 186 turn, EE1 (4084-3839 cal. years BP, 4086-3896 cal. years BP) is an Early Bronze Age 187 188 silo-shaped negative structure cutting through the Early Neolithic layers (Oms et al., 2009b, 2010, 2015). Lastly, the layer CE8 (3579-3395 cal. years BP, 3561-3400 cal. 189 190 years BP) corresponds to the Middle Bronze Age. All Holocene layers correspond to an in-situ sedimentary facies of fumier type (sensu Brochier, 1983, 1991, 1996), which 191 formed by a continuous accumulation of preserved fumier deposits. Therefore, the 192 eastern sector of the cave (CE) would correspond to an area related to herd stabling and 193 husbandry practices (Oms et al., 2008; Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Martín and Oms, 2021) 194 (Figure 4). 195

197	PLACE HERE FIGURE 4. A: Cave plan; B: Stratigraphic profile and grid-square	
198	(2008-2009) of the Cova Colomera test pit CE (Oms et al., 2013: modified). According	
199	to Angelucci and others (2009), <u>c facies</u> relates to the accumulations of charcoal	Forr
200	fragments and <i><u>if facies</u></i> refers to silt with abundant ash and varied color, sometimes with	Forr
201	platy structure and moderate cementation.	
202		
203	3. Materials and methods	
204		
205	3.1. Anthracological analysis	
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207	Anthracological analysis of Middle and Late Holocene archaeological layers at	
208	Cova Colomera is based on the study of 1.117 charcoal fragments. A previously work	
209	consisted of the anthracological identification of 300 fragments from EE1 silo (Oms et	
210	al., 2009b), but in the present study, this assemblage has been completed with the	
211	identification of an additional 60 fragments. To recover the archaeobotanical remains,	
212	all the excavated sediment (from 2005 to 2011) was manually floated using bucket	
213	flotation, maintaining the <u>spot heights</u> arrangement <u>measurements (in 5 cm ranges</u> $Z-Z_1$ )	
214	of the sedimentary facies, and <u>using a 0.2 mm mesh sieve. To recover the small-</u>	
215	mammal remains, the sediment was water-sieved with two superimposed meshes of 5	

Identification and quantification were performed according to the standard methodology used in anthracological studies (see Kabukcu and Chabal, 20210; Asouti 

and 0.5 mm (García-López et al., 2010).

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220 and Kabukcu, 2021). The charcoal remains have been quantified in number of 221 fragments per taxon and, to evaluate the optimal sample size of the layers, the accumulation curves were established (Chabal, 1997; Kabukcu and Chabal, 2021)to 222 223 evaluate the homogeneity of the sample, and taxonomic saturation curves were 224 established (Chabal, 1997). Anthracological analysies was accomplished using reflected light microscopy, both light- and dark-field (Olympus BX41) with magnifications of 225 x50, x100, x200 and x500. The identification was based on anatomical features 226 described in the atlas of European woods (Schweingruber, 1990) and was supported by 227 the reference collection of modern charcoal at the IPHES (Institut Català de 228 229 Paleoecologia Humana i Evolució Social), Tarragona (Spain). The unidentifiable charcoal fragments were assigned to broader categories based on their anatomical 230 231 features. Undetermined fragments were classified as Undetermined angiosperm or 232 Undetermined conifer. Fragments that retained some distinguishable anatomical feature, but did not allow attribution to species level, were numbered (e.g., Indeterminate 233 234 angiosperm 1). Anthracological analysis does not always allow charcoal fragments to be discriminated to species level (Chabal, 1992, 1997; Chabal et al., 1999), and therefore 235 236 in those cases other taxonomic groups were used (types, cf., genera or species). These specific taxa identified in the anthracological sample were regrouped (e.g., 237 238 Populus/Salix; Pinus sylvestris type includes Pinus sylvestris/nigra; and Quercus sp. evergreen includes Quercus ilex and Q. coccifera), since the anatomical distinction 239 between two or more species is not possible (Schweingruber, 1990). Some genera, such 240 241 Acer, Fraxinus, Juniperus and Prunus only occasionally display differences in 242 specific anatomical criteria, therefore Undefined species "sp" of some genera have been grouped, such as Acer sp., Fraxinus sp., Lonicera sp., and Juniperus sp., are regrouped in 243 terms of species "sp", usually accepted by anthracological researchersSome species of 244

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245 the same genus have distinct specific anatomical criteria that may constitute different 246 categories or types. - Some of the characters allow certain species to be regrouped into different types (Heinz and Barbaza 1998; Alcolea, 2017; Allué et al., 2018a). Based on 247 Heinz and Barbaza (1998), for European woods from the Mediterranean basin, the 248 genusera Prunus can be classified into three types, which depend on the number of cells 249 wide in the rays. The rays of Prunus type 1 have no more than two cells (includes 250 Prunus avium/padus). Prunus type 2 has three or four cells wide in rays (includes 251 252 Prunus spinosa/mahaleb), and Prunus type 3 has more than five cells wide (includes Prunus spinosa). as Prunus type 2, including Prunus spinosa/mahaleb, and Prunus type 253 254 corresponding spinosa/amygdalus. Finally, the family 3 Prunus to Rosaceae/MaloideaeROSACEAE/MALOIDEAE\_\_\_\_corresponds to several species, 255 including, for example, Sorbus and Crataegus, that do not always share the same 256 257 ecological adscription.

258

### 259 **4. Results**

260	The anthracological record from Cova Colomera has been A total of 1.117*
261	charcoal fragments, and were recovered at Cova Colomera and 1.,038 of them were were
262	identified (Table 2A and 2B). Accumulation curves show an optimal sample size
263	analysed in all layers (Figure 5). The charcoal record shows a wide diversity of taxa,
264	including broadleaves and lianas, such as Acer sp (maples), Arbutus unedo (strawberry
265	tree), <u>Buxus sempervirens (boxwood), Clematis vitalba (Traveller's joy), Corylus</u>
266	avellana (common hazel), Fagus sylvatica (common beech), Fraxinus sp. (ash), Hedera
267	helix (iyy), Lonicera sp. (honeysuckle), Pistacia lentiscus (lentisk), Populus/Salix
268	(poplar/willows), Prunus type 2 and type 3 (plums), Quercus sp. evergreen and sp.
269	deciduous (evergreen and deciduous oaks), Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea (buckthorn),

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270	Rosaceae/Maloideae	(rosales and	pomes), In	determinate	angiosperm	and cf.	Sambucus
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271 (elderberry), and conifers, such as *Pinus sylvestris* type (scot's pine and black pine),

272 <u>*Taxus baccata* (yew) and *Juniperus* sp. (juniper). The taxa richness remains more or</u>

273 less homogeneous throughout the sequence, although taxa variability was higher in the

274 <u>Late Neolithic layers, especially in Layer CE9.</u>

275	Throughout the sequence, 22 woody species are identified, of the current sub-
276	Mediterranean climatic type. The ubiquity of taxa frequencies remains more or less
277	homogeneous in the sequence, although species variability is higher in the Late
278	Neolithic layers. The recorded species are more variable in Layer CE9, compared to the
279	other layers (Figure 5). The most represented taxa in all archaeological layers are
280	Quercus sp. deciduous (oak), Buxus sempervirens (box) and Acer sp. (maple). Conifer
281	trees and shrubs are also well represented, including Pinus sylvestris type (Scots pine),
282	Juniperus sp. (junipers) and Taxus baccata (English yew). Other woody taxa are less
283	frequent, like deciduous trees belonging to thermo- and meso-Mediterranean taxa, such
284	a <del>s Arbutus unedo (strawberry tree), Clematis vitalba, Corylus avellana (common hazel),</del>
285	Fagus sylvatica (common beech), Fraxinus sp. (ash), Hedera helix (ivy), Lonicera sp.
286	(honeysuckle), Pistacia lentiscus (lentisk), Populus/Salix (aspen/willow), Prunus sp.,
287	evergreen Quercus (holm oak), Rhamnus (buckthorns) and
288	ROSACEAE/MALOIDEAE.
289	PLACE HERE TABLE 2AMiddle Holocene anthracological record from Cova
290	Colomera.
291	PLACE HERE TABLE 2B. Late Holocene anthracological record from Cova

292 <u>Colomera.</u>

293 Anthracological results for Cova Colomera by archaeological layers. Absolute (n) and

294 relative frequencies (%) of charcoal fragments analyzed with species recorded.

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295 Early Neolithic layers CE12, CE13 and CE14 are-showed domination of dominated by shrubby Buxus sempervirensboxwood, with 296 Quercus sp. deciduousdeciduous oak and Pinus sylvestris type subsequently. Acer sp.Maple and 297 298 Juniperus sp. maintain continuouslyshows low values in the three Early Neolithic layers 299 (no more than 8.5%). Nevertheless, the shrubbyIn the other hand, -juniper increases in 300 the CE13 layer, although it displays a low presence in the subsequent CE14 layer. Sporadic fragments (≤5%), of other taxa-such as Arbutus unedo, Corylus avellana, 301 *Quercus* sp. evergreen oak, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Prunus* sp., *Rhamnus* 302 alaternus/Phillyrea, Rosaceae/Maloideae and Taxus baccata are-were present in 303 304 different layers (Table 2A). In the same way, Buxus sempervirensboxwood, Quercus sp. deciduousdeciduous oak and Pinus sylvestris type are were continued to 305 dominedominant in the Late Neolithic layers CE9 and CE10. However, Acer sp.maple 306 307 has higher recorded values compared to the previous period, mainly detected in CE10 308 layer. Also, juniper shows a decreased In this layer, Juniperus sp. decreases. Other taxa, 309 such as Fraxinus sp., Lonicera sp., Pistacia lentiscus, Populus/Salix, Prunus sp., 310 evergreen oak Quercus sp. evergreen, Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea, Indeterminate angiosperm 1, Taxus baccata and cf. Sambucus are-were\_also present, although not 311 312 continuously. Likewise, Taxus baccata and Prunus sp. are-were documented in both 313 layers.

PLACE HERE FIGURE 5. Taxonomic saturation <u>Taxon accumulation</u> curves for <u>of</u> the
Holocene layers <u>from of</u> Cova Colomera.

Early Bronze Age silo EE1 shows high values of <u>Quercus sp.</u> deciduous<u>oak</u>.
Furthermore, and <u>Buxus sempervirensboxwood</u> and <u>Pinus sylvestris typepine</u> are well
represented (<u>Table 2B</u>). Sporadic fragments of other taxa (<5%), such as <u>Acer sp.maple</u>, *Fraxinus sp.ash*, <u>Juniperus sp.juniper</u>, and <u>Quercus sp. evergreen oak</u> are

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320	were also documentedidentified. Finally, Middle Bronze Age layer CE8 is-was	
321	characterized by a dominant presence of Quercus sp. deciduousdeciduous oak and	Formatted: Font: Not Italic
322	Buxus sempervirensboxwood although, compared to the older layers, the values of	Formatted: Font: Not Italic
323	boxwood have decreasedwas lower. Likewise, scarce appearances of Acer sp. Corylus	
324	avellana, Fagus sylvatica, Fraxinus sp., Hedera helix, Pinus sylvestris type, Prunus sp.,	
325	Quercus sp. evergreen <u>evergreen oak, Rosaceae/</u> Maloideae and Taxus baccata have been	Formatted: Font: Not Italic
326	documentedidentified.	
327		
220		
328	5. Discussion	
329		
330	5.1. Vegetal landscape transformation and environmental conditions around	
331	Cova Colomera	
332	The anthracological results from Cova Colomera have provided key data that	
333	allow us to describe the local-scale environment in the Central Pre-Pyrenees, from	
334	the <u>during the</u> Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze AgeMiddle-Late Holocene.	
335	Anthracological analysis of 1.4117 charcoal fragments from Cova Colomera shows the	
336	taxa diversity and changes in the representativeness of the relative values along the	
337	sequence (Figure 6). Although the anthracological sequence is very homogeneous in	
338	terms of the richness and ubiquity of woody taxa, there is a tendency towards a	
339	predominance and progressive increase of deciduous forest elements. However, a slight	
340	increase of evergreen oaks has been detected in the top of the anthracological	
341	sequence. Although the anthracological sequence is very homogeneous in terms of	
342	diversity, 22 different woody taxa have been identified.	

PLACE HERE FIGURE 6. Diagram with anthracological results for Cova Colomera.
 <u>Results from Early Bronze age silo EE1 (Oms et al., 2009b) have been included.</u>

In accordance with the anthracological results obtained, the local area of Cova 345 Colomera remained relatively stable and dominated by forest communities of deciduous 346 Quercusoaks, with a significant presence of Buxus sempervirens and Acer sp. This 347 assemblage of taxa is usually associated with sub- and supra-Mediterranean deciduous 348 oak formations. The presence of mesophilic taxa such as Acer sp., Prunus sp., 349 Maloideae, Rhamnus cathartica/saxatilis and Buxus sempervirens would indicate 350 351 temperate and humid climatic conditions. Other shrubby vegetation and small trees, such as Juniperus sp. and Rhamnus/Phillyrea, could also develop in more open spaces, 352 indicating the existence of clearances. These opened forest formations under a humid 353 climate may well correlate with the results from the study of the small vertebrates in the 354 Holocene layers at Cova Colomera (López-García et al., 2010), which indicates 355 chorotype of micromammals with mid-European requirements, which currently found at 356 357 higher altitudes from the Pyrenes. Sub-Mediterranean thermophilic elements requiring more humidity, such as Tilia and Pistacia cf. terebinthus, have been identified in the 358 359 silo EE1 at Cova Colomera, dated in the Early Bronze Age, and Acer sp. appears 360 throughout the anthracological sequence. Riverine taxa, such as Populus/Salix, and Fraxinus sp., have been documented, although their presence is always low. These 361 362 elements are likely to have been part of the riparian vegetation, occupying the river 363 banks in Montsec mountain range, or in shadier and more humid locations, such as deep 364 narrow gorges. The other represented subcircum- and sub-Mediterranean small trees, shrubs and liana, such as Arbutus unedo, Corylus avellana, Ilex aquifolium, Hedera 365 helix and Clematis vitalba appear in lower frequencies. The occurrence of Pinus 366 sylvestris type suggests the presence of conifer forests which suffered a slight decline in 367

the course of the anthracological sequence, mainly during the Middle Bronze Age. 368 369 These formations would probably be growing at higher altitudes in some nearby areas of the Pre-Pyrenees. -Taxus baccata would probably develop in shadier areas. Holm 370 371 oakEvergreen oaks and associated sclerophyllous elements, like Arbutus unedo and 372 <u>*Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea*</u>, showed a low relative frequency throughout the anthracological sequence. However, from a diachronic point of view, a slight increase in 373 374 evergreen Quercus sp.oak wasis detected, especially during in the Middle Bronze Age. 375 At present

376 Currently, in Northeastern Spain and Southern France, Mediterranean forests form an ecoregion in transition between the Western European temperate broadleaf and 377 378 mixed forest ecoregion and the Iberian sclerophyllous and semi-deciduous forest ecoregion (Dinerstein et al., 2017). Therefore, Mediterranean forests display ecological 379 characteristics of Mediterranean, sub Mediterranean and and Atlantic climatevegetation 380 (Blanco et al., 1997; Carreras and Ferré, 2014). Likewise, the plant community that 381 382 includes the holm oak (Quercus ilex)evergreen oak forest and other an evergreen understory of low trees and high shrubssclerophyllous evergreen taxa (such as Olea 383 384 europea, Arbutus unedo, Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea, Erica sp. and Pistacia lentiscus) 385 are also identified as ecoregionbioclimatic markers of the Mediterranean climate 386 Mediterranean biome, which currently dominates the area. In this aspect, in the area 387 surrounding Cova Colomera, the Mediterranean taxa typical these sclerophyllous taxa 388 of the holm oak forest display low percentages representation of ubiquity values in 389 throughout the anthracological recordsequence of Cova Colomera. The 390 sclerophyllous These taxa may have occupied secondary positions in more drier or 391 sunnier places, probably in deciduous oak forest degradation areas.-formations-would 392 probably occupy secondary positions in drier or sunnier places, while open and humid

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deciduous *Quercus* forests could be dominant in the landscape surrounding Cova
 Colomera. These open forest formations may well correlate with the results from the
 study of the small vertebrates in the Holocene layers at Cova Colomera (López García
 et al., 2010).s

In Central Pre-Pyrenees, from the Early-Middle Holocene boundary (8.2 ka 397 398 years BP event), the deciduous oak forest would occupy a more extensive territory than at present, favored by a temperate and humid climate (Figure 7). Paleoclimate records 399 400 from Ppre-Pyrenean ranges, such as Estanya Lake (Morellón et al., 2008), indicate 401 greater water availability in three periods during the Holocene: Early Holocene: 8.5-8.2 ka year BP and Middle Holocene: 6.7-5.9 ka year BP and 4.9-4.2 ka year BP. Although 402 403 these periods correspond to more humid conditions in the Mediterranean area, brief arid events also occurred at 8.2 and 7.5 ka year BP (Jalut et al., 2009; Bergadà et al., 2018). 404

405 PLACE HERE FIGURE 7. Calibrated radiocarbon dates of Cova Colomera in relation406 of different climate proxies.

However, Sub Mediterranean thermophilic elements requiring more humidity, such as *Tilia* and *Pistacia* cf. *terebinthus*, have been identified in the silo EE1 at Cova
Colomera, dated in the Early Bronze Age, and *Acer* sp. appears throughout the
anthracological sequence. Riverine taxa, such as *Populus/Salix*, and *Fraxinus* sp., have
been documented, although their presence is always low. These elements are likely to
have been part of the riparian vegetation, occupying the river banks in Montsee
mountain range, or in shadier and more humid locations, such as deep narrow gorges.

*Taxus baccata* records have very low values in pollen sequences, probably
owing to the poor pollination rates and morphology difficulties (Chybicki and Oleksa,
2018), although it is well represented in Middle Holocene anthracological records in the

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Northern Iberian Peninsula (see Uzquiano et al., 2015), especially in mid-mountain 417 418 areas. Differences in Taxus baccata values between anthracological and pollen data Differences in ubiquity values of Taxus baccata may correspond to variable humidity 419 420 conditions at higher altitudes, which would probably be dominated by coniferous 421 forests. Additionally, the high relative frequency of Buxus sempervirensboxwood in the 422 Cova Colomera anthracological record is noteworthy. Boxwood is a sub-Mediterranean taxon, which currently grows in the montane and subalpine zones and in some southern 423 locations in the Iberian Peninsula, in altitudinal ranges from 26 m. to 2.500 m- a.s.l. 424 (Bolòs and Vigo, 1984; Carreras and Ferré, 2014). In some places, especially in 425 426 disturbed oak forests, boxwood can play a pioneer role and can form extended shrubby formations, although it is most often associated with undergrowth in the deciduous oak 427 forest (Rivas-Martínez, 1984; Carreras et al., 2015; Pascual, 2015) and can be 428 429 considered an indicator of degraded or cleared areas (Pascual, 2015). In the local area around Cova Colomera, woodland formed by deciduous oaks and including maple and 430 431 boxwood are currently found as part of the forest structure, especially in more temperate 432 or Eurosiberian areas in the Pyrenees and Pre-Pyrenees, under temperate and humid 433 climate conditions. The association of the tree taxa These taxa is are common in Middle 434 Holocene anthracological sequences in the from NE Iberian Peninsula, including littoral 435 sites as well as the inner Pre-littoral ranges, such as in Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué, 2020), Cova de l'Avellaner (Ros, 1996), Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished), Cova d'en 436 Pau III and Plansallosa (Ros, 1996; Piqué, 2005), La Draga (Piqué, 2005), Cova del 437 Frare (Ros, 1996), Bauma del Serrat Pont and La Prunera (Piqué, 2005). 438

<u>According to our results, vegetation transformation dynamics during the Middle-</u>
 <u>Late Holocene were more or less homogeneous in the Central Pre-Pyrenees. From a</u>
 <u>local scale, global aridity events would not have affected the vegetation landscape</u>

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442 structure, and deciduous oak forests, temperate taxa and montane conifers would have 443 developed well in the area. According to our results, it might be suggested that, in the 444 Central Pre-Pyrenees, the 8.2 and 7.5 ka arid events did not cause major changes in the 445 vegetation cover. However, later, during the Late Holocene, xerophilous shrubs and evergreen Quercus sp. began to expand in the landscape near Cova Colomera. Rapid 446 global climate change detected in the 4.2 to 3.8 ka event (Mayewsky et al., 2004) and 447 the aridification trend that affected the Mediterranean basin (Fletcher and Sánchez, 448 2008; Allué et al., 2009; Jalut et al., 2009; Carrión et al., 2010b; Bergadà et al., 2018) 449 could have been more influentialless influential in forest changes towards 450 451 Mediterranisation of the Central Pre-Pyrenees-than former climate events. Likewise, a slight increase of the evergreen oak forest was detected in the Middle Bronze Age layer 452 453 of Cova Colomera. -Taxus baccata, Acer sp. and Buxus sempervirens continued to be 454 well represented in Bronze Age layers from Cova Colomera and Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished). However, the vegetation composition deduced from these anthracological 455 456 assemblages shows a continuing dominance of deciduous oak forests, with montane 457 conifers and temperate taxa. 458 Subsequently, during the Late Holocene, Taxus baccata, Acer sp. and Buxus 459 sempervirens continued to be well represented in Bronze Age anthracological sequences 460 at Cova Colomera, Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished), Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué, 461 2020) and Institut de Manlleu (Ros, 1995b). The vegetation composition deduced from 462 these anthracological assemblages shows a continuing dominance of mesophilic taxa, 463 with deciduous Quercus forests and associated sub Mediterranean elements, such as 464 Acer sp., Buxus sempervirens and Rosaceae. Nevertheless, deciduous oak forest and the

arboreal vegetation cover retreated slightly, indicating larger clearances. Finally, low

465

466 percentages of sclerophyllous taxa occurred and *Pinus sylvestris* type has also been
 467 documented.

468

469	5.2. Anthropogenic <u>impacts: human and environment interactions</u> involvement
470	The archaeological record at Cova Colomera is associated with short-term
471	occupations, related to herding activities, like foddering, litter-bedding, etc. (Oms et al.,
472	2013; Bergadà and Oms, 2021). The systematic burning of these fumier deposits often
473	provides rich vegetal remains (see Angelucci et al., 2009; Euba et al., 2016; Vergès et
474	al., 2016; Polo-Díaz et al., 2016; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020), and Cova Colomera is not
475	an exception. The anthracological sequence shows high taxonomic diversity, including
476	29 woody taxa. Some of them, could have been part of the herd's fodder diet. However,
477	we cannot exclude the use of some woody taxa as fuel, such as pine, juniper or yew, or
478	as objects and tools that were thrown to the fire after their use. Moreover, ovicaprine
479	herds are a potential agent to reduce undergrowth vegetation. During the winter,
480	browsing is focused on evergreen and semi-deciduous species, while in spring and
481	autumn herbaceous grasses are also browsed (Bartolomé et al., 1998; Osoro et al.,
482	2013). High protein woody species such as Clematis vitalba, Acer opalus, Quercus sp.,
483	Pistacia lentiscus or Arbutus unedo are currently consumed by ovicaprine herds in
484	Mediterranean areas (Rogosic et al., 2006; Bartolomé, 2014). Other taxa such as
485	junipers and boxwood are rejected by the herds as fodder (Bartolomé, 2014). However,
486	the boxwood's wood is also of good quality: hard, fine and compact, easy to polish and
487	dye, and could have been used for manufacturing objects. The wood produces a slow
488	combustion, a property much appreciated for its use as fuel (Caruso-Ferme and Piqué-
489	Huerta, 2014). Examples such as the Neolithic settlement of La Draga (Banyoles,
490	Girona) show the use of boxwood in the production of agricultural tools (Palomo et al.,

<u>2011; Piqué et al., 2018). In this sense, archaeological work in some of the phases of the</u>
<u>fumier documented the preservation and accumulation of leaves and branches of</u>
<u>boxwood, possibly for the adaptation of beds or spaces for livestock (Bergadà and Oms,</u>
<u>2021; Oms et al., 2013).</u>

Cova Colomera has provided no evidence of human occupation during the 495 496 Middle Neolithic, although the cave was used by humans in the Early Neolithic and from the Late Neolithic to Bronze Age cultural periods. Two possible scenarios can be 497 discussed. In the NE of the Iberian Peninsula, evidence of occupation by Middle 498 499 Neolithic populations has only been documented in burial contexts or in the open-air 500 settlement of Ca n'Isach (Palau-saverdera, Girona) (Tarrús et al., 2016) while no 501 evidence of occupation of caves and rock-shelters has been found (see Oms and Martín, 502 2018). A first hypothesis could be the non-preservation of evidence of human occupation due to erosion in karst systems and on mountainsides (see Polo-Díaz et al., 503 2014; Bergadà et al., 2018). Alternatively, the second hypothesis postulates the 504 505 intentional abandonment of caves and rock-shelters due to changes in livestock grazing 506 practices.

507 Attending to human impact on forest communities in a local scale, from the-508 Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze Age, the forest cover does not seem to have 509 changed significantly in terms of either recovery or degradation. This could indicate that 510 human groups carried out a reiterated but a non-intensive exploitation of the forests. In this sense, little evidence of intense human activities on the landscape can be found in 511 the Iberian Central Pre-Pyrenees, although the exploitation of the plant resources has 512 513 been documented since the Upper Pleistocene and Early Holocene (Allué et al., 2012, 2018b). At lower altitudes and similar to Cova Colomera, Neolithic layers or structures 514 at Les Auvelles (Oms et al., 2019), Cova Gran (Mora et al., 2011) and Forat de 515

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Conqueta (Mora et al., 2009; Allué, 2011) show slight differences and similarities in the 516 517 composition of the vegetation landscape. On one hand, the open-air archaeological site of Auvelles has yielded an anthracological record of oak taxa in which, although 518 519 dominated by deciduous oak, evergreen oak is also represented with high ubiquity 520 values (Martín-Seijo and Piqué, 2008). According to the authors, this assemblage could be influenced by specific fuel and wood selection patterns. On the other hand, 521 anthracological data from the cave of Forat de Conqueta and the rock-shelter of Cova 522 Gran (Allué, unpublished) indicate an assemblage similar to that of Cova Colomera. 523 Archaeological research identified livestock practices in the Holocene layers of Cova 524 525 Gran, especially for livestock enclosure, and interpreted the use of the cave in relation to the transhumance routes through the southern Pyrenees (Polo-Díaz et al., 2014; 526 Burguet-Coca et al., 2020; Martín and Oms, 2021), and also in some mountain Pyrenees 527 528 areas (Gassiot et al., 2017; Knockaert et al., 2018; Tejedor-Rodríguez et al., 2021). The 529 forest formations were probably the same in the different Pre-Pyrenees valleys with no 530 differences related to human pressure causing more open forests in some areas.

Profound transformations of natural landscapes into cultural landscapes are 531 currently the result of human pressure (Butzer, 1989; Quézel and Médail, 2003; 532 533 Blondel, 2006; Pérez-Obiol et al., 2011). Humans exploited forest wood resources and interfered with the natural development and distribution of woody plants for millennia. 534 535 However, evidence of the anthropogenic footprint in the landscape during the Middle\_ 536 Late Holocene is not homogeneous in the Iberian Peninsula. For example, it seems to be 537 less intense in mountainous areas (e.g., Carrión et al., 2010b). In these areas above 538 2.000 m- a.s.l., Neolithic populations could consume more or less wood according to the functionality and location of settlements (i.e. Obea et al., 2021). Therefore, the 539 archaeological sites show no evidence of extensive agriculture or substantial 540

modification of the landscapes. In contrast, the transformation of the vegetation 541 542 landscape appeared to be more intense in Mediterranean coastal areas (e.g., Riera and 543 Esteban-Amat, 1994; Revelles et al., 2015). Nevertheless, there is no uncertainty that 544 anthropogenic activities were important at the local scale particularly in the Late 545 Holocene. Tthe anthropic impact on landscapes during the Early Bronze Age has also been interpreted by the increase in microcharcoal particles associated with the 546 recurrence of fire events in mountain areas (i.e. Carrión et al., 2010b), more intensive 547 land-use dynamics (Rull et al., 2021) and more specialized fuel gathering patterns (i.e. 548 Ros, 1995b, 1998; Piqué, 1999; Allué, 2007; Allué et al., 2009; Vila and Piqué, 2012; 549 550 Obea et al., 2021).

551 Cova Colomera has provided no evidence of human occupation during the Middle Neolithic, although the cave was used by humans in the Early Neolithic and 552 from the Late Neolithic to Bronze Age cultural periods. Two possible scenarios can be 553 discussed. In the NE of the Iberian Peninsula, evidence of occupation by Middle 554 555 Neolithic populations has only been documented in burial contexts or in the open air settlement of Ca n'Isach (Palau saverdera, Girona) (Tarrús et al., 2016) while no 556 557 evidence of occupation of caves and rock shelters has been found (see Oms and Martín, 558 2018). A first hypothesis could be the non-preservation of evidence of human occupation due to erosion in karst systems and on mountainsides (see Polo et al., 2014; 559 560 Bergadà et al., 2018). Alternatively, the second hypothesis postulates the intentional abandonment of caves and rock-shelters due to changes in livestock grazing practices. 561

The archaeological record at Cova Colomera is associated with short term
occupations, related to herding activities, like foddering, litter bedding, etc. (Oms et al.,
2013; Bergadà and Oms, 2021). The systematic burning of these fumier deposits often
provides rich vegetal remains (see Badal, 1999; Angelucci et al., 2009; Euba et al.,

566	2016; Vergès et al., 2016; Polo Díaz et al., 2016; Burguet Coca et al., 2020), and Cova
567	Colomera is not an exception. The anthracological sequence shows high taxonomic
568	diversity including 22 woody taxa, which could have been part of the herd's fodder diet.
569	However, we cannot exclude the use of some woody species as fuel or as objects and
570	tools that were thrown to the fire after their use. Moreover, ovicaprine herds are a
571	potential agent to reduce undergrowth vegetation. During the winter, browsing is
572	focused on evergreen and semi-deciduous species, while in spring and autumn
573	herbaceous grasses are also browsed (Bartolomé et al., 1998; Osoro et al., 2013). High
574	protein woody species such as Clematis vitalba, Acer opalus, Quercus sp., Pistacia
575	lentiscus or Arbutus unedo are currently consumed by ovicaprine herds in
576	Mediterranean areas (Rogosic et al., 2006; Bartolomé, 2014). Other species such as
577	Juniperus sp. and Buxus sempervirens are rejected by the herds as fodder (Bartolomé,
578	2014). However, the wood is also of good quality: hard, fine and compact, easy to
579	polish and dye, and could have been used for manufacturing objects. The wood
580	produces a slow combustion, a property much appreciated for its use as fuel (Caruso-
581	Ferme and Piqué Huerta, 2014). Examples such as the Neolithic settlement of La Draga
582	(Banyoles, Girona) show the use of boxwood in the production of agricultural tools
583	(Palomo et al., 2011; Piqué et al., 2018). In this sense, archaeological work in some of
584	the phases of the fumier documented the preservation and accumulation of leaves and
585	branches of Buxus sempervirens, possibly for the adaptation of beds or spaces for
586	livestock (Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Oms et al., 2013).

587 Attending to human impact on forest communities, during the Early Neolithic 588 and Middle Bronze Age, the forest cover does not seem to have changed significantly in 589 terms of either recovery or degradation. This could indicate that human groups carried 590 out a permanent but a non intensive exploitation of the forests. In this sense, little

591	evidence of intense human impact on the landscape can be found in the Iberian Central
592	Pre-Pyrenees, although the exploitation of the plant resources has been documented
593	since the Upper Pleistocene and Early Holocene (Allué et al., 2012, 2018b). At lower
594	altitudes and similar to Cova Colomera, Neolithic layers or structures at Les Auvelles
595	(Oms et al., 2019), Cova Gran (Mora et al., 2011) and Forat de Conqueta (Mora et al.,
596	2009; Allué, 2011) show slight differences and similarities in the composition of the
597	vegetation landscape. On one hand, the open air archaeological site of Auvelles has
598	yielded an anthracological record of mixed oak taxa in which, although dominated by
599	deciduous oak, evergreen oak is also represented with high ubiquity values (Martín-
600	Seijo and Piqué, 2008). According to the authors, this assemblage could be influenced
601	by specific fuel selection patterns. On the other hand, anthracological data from the cave
602	of Forat de Conqueta and the rock-shelter of Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished) indicate
603	an assemblage similar to that of Cova Colomera. Archaeological research identified
604	livestock practices in the Holocene layers of Cova Gran, especially for livestock
605	enclosure, and interpreted the use of the cave in relation to the transhumance routes
606	through the southern Pyrenees (Polo et al., 2014; Burguet Coca et al., 2020; Martín and
607	Oms, 2021), and also in some mountain Pyrenees areas (Gassiot et al., 2017; Knockaert
608	et al., 2018; Tejedor Rodríguez et al., 2021). The forest formations were probably the
609	same in the different Pre Pyrenees valleys with any differences related to human
610	pressure causing more open forests in some areas.

611

#### 612 6. Conclusions

The anthracological analysis of Cova Colomera has documented changes in the vegetation landscape in the Central Pre-Pyrenees, and these are related to specific climatic dynamics and a low anthropogenic impact, especially as regards herding and

livestock management activities. The anthracological sequence shows how the local 616 617 area of Cova Colomera, from the Middle to Late Holocene, remained in the long term 618 dominated by deciduous Quercus oak forest ecosystems associated with sub- and supra-619 Mediterranean deciduous formations, while the coniferous forest gradually receded. 620 According to our results, it seems that in the Central Pre-Pyrenees aridity events did not cause major changes in vegetation cover, since the environmental conditions in the area 621 of study included certain particularities that favored the establishment of a temperate 622 and humid climate. However, during the Late Holocene, xerophytic shrubs and 623 evergreen Quercus oaks began to spread on a local scaleshow a slight increase, mainly 624 625 during the Middle Bronze Age.

626 The evidence of the anthropogenic footprint on the landscape during the Middle Holocene is not homogeneous in the NE Iberian Peninsula, as some areas would have 627 displayed certain particularities. Neolithic human groups who settled in the open air and 628 took advantage of the caves and rock-shelters to carry out specialized activities were 629 630 well aware of the potential of the landscapes. However, the evidence of herding activities during the Neolithic seems to have left an a slightincipient pressure on the 631 structure of the different landscapes, especially in inland areas of the NE Iberian 632 633 Peninsula, like the Central Pre-Pyrenees. -Therefore, human presence in this area was probably not intensive. In this sense, we do not observe such intensive exploitation of 634 635 forest resources, in contrast to the areas near the coast. Finally, the Bronze Age populations to which more intensive exploitation of forest resources is attributed on a 636 637 regional scale do not seem to be intensive at the local scale of Cova Colomera. The differences in the intensity of forest exploitation may be due to the different 638 functionalities of the occupations as well as the different places of settlement. Finally, 639 during the Late Holocene, Bronze Age populations seem to show a more specialized 640

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641	selection pattern of forest resources, although with differences in intensity, according to
642	the functionality of the occupations and the place of settlement.
643	

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- Fumier deposits of Cova Colomera are the earliest evidence of herding activities among the Central Pre-Pyrenees (Iberian Peninsula), that related by short occupation periods by Neolithic and Bronze Age human groups.
- The new anthracological data from Cova Colomera shows local peculiarities about the structure of the oak woodland ecosystem, and its slight change, related to climatic dynamics, geographic features and activities of herding management.
- In terms of landscape development, human activities do not appear to have affected highly, in contrast to the areas near the Mediterranean seacoast of the NE Iberian Peninsula.

## Abstract

Cova Colomera is one of the most important archaeological sites to explain early herding activities in the Central Pre-Pyrenees (Iberian Peninsula). Fieldworks have provided a stratigraphy that shows short occupations of the cave by Neolithic and Bronze Age human groups. The sedimentological description has revealed fumiers deposits, that are characteristic of husbandry activities. In this paper, we provide the anthracological results based on 1,117 charcoal fragments. The results allow to characterise the Mediterranean vegetation landscape and its transformation, from a local perspective, related to climatic changes and anthropogenic activities.

Climate changes and human activities have played a significant role in Mediterranean landscapes dynamics. However, the incidence or impact of both agents on the vegetation landscape occurred unequally among the Mediterranean region. The anthracological results from Cova Colomera suggest that the Central Pre-Pyrenees was dominated by an oak forest ecosystem, with sub- and supra-Mediterranean deciduous taxon and coniferous forest during the Middle Holocene. This ecosystem remained more or less stable during the Late Holocene, although evergreen oak showed a slight increase, and coniferous forest showed a slight decrease. The orographic characteristics of the Central Pre-Pyrenees were able to maintain temperate and humid conditions, with less impact of aridity events recorded in Mediterranean environments. From a diachronic point of view, the herding activities of Neolithic human and Bronze Age human groups do not appear to have affected highly the landscape development of the Central Pre-Pyrenees. Human activities were probably not intensive in terms of forest clearing or land use.

1	Anthropogenic impacts on vegetation landscapes and environmental implications	
2	during the Middle-Late Holocene in the Iberian Central Pre-Pyrenees: an	
3	anthracological approach	
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14	Keywords	
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16	Northeastern Iberian Peninsula	
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18		
19	1. Introduction	
20	The impact of general Holocene climate dynamics varied among past	
21	Mediterranean landscapes. Above all in the first stages of the Holocene (11.7 ka BP to	
22	4.2 ka BP), the influence of climatic agents on landscape transformation was more evident	

than the impact of human activities. However, it is more controversial, or less obvious, 23 24 which of the two agents, natural factors or the human activities, has been the main contributor to landscape transformation since the Middle-Late Holocene Boundary (4.2 25 26 ka BP), or indeed whether it has been a combination of both (see Jalut et al., 2000; Roberts et al., 2011). Holocene Mediterranean woodland history and landscape changes are here 27 28 studied using a palaeoecological proxy, mainly pollen and charcoal data (e.g., Jalut et al., 2009; Woodbridge et al., 2018; Roberts et al., 2019; Picornell-Gelabert et al., 2020). 29 According to the available palaeobotanical sequences in the NE Iberian Peninsula, at the 30 end of the Late Pleistocene and the beginning of the Early Holocene, deciduous oak 31 32 forest, broadleaf trees and pine forests were dominant in the area (Riera-Mora and Esteban-Amat, 1994; Burjachs et al., 1997; Riera et al., 2007; Allué et al., 2007, 2017; 33 Carrión et al., 2010a; Pérez-Obiol et al., 2011; Fletcher et al., 2012; Revelles et al., 2015, 34 2018; González-Sampériz et al., 2017; Allué and Mas, 2020; Mas et al., 2021). Further, 35 during the Middle Holocene sub-epoch (8.2 ka BP to 4.2 ka BP), warmer and more humid 36 37 climatic conditions prevailed as high-precipitation regimes increased, favouring the expansion of deciduous forests and the retreat of pine forests and grasslands (Badal et al., 38 1994; Jalut et al., 2009; Allué et al., 2012; González-Sampéritz et al., 2017). 39 Simultaneously, from the Early Holocene, Neolithization throughout the Mediterranean 40 resulted in the expansion of agriculture and herding associated with the development of 41 a sedentary lifestyle. Herding activities are evidenced in archaeological sites by fumier 42 deposits, which have been documented from the Early Neolithic to the Iron Age (see 43 Angelucci et al., 2009). Fumiers are the result of stabling animals (usually flocks of goat 44 and sheep) within the entrance areas of caves and rock-shelters. The deposits are mainly 45 derived from the combustion of organic waste, such as accumulations of animal dung. 46 Plant material in this type of deposit has different origins related to practices and needs 47

associated with human settlements such as foddering, animal beds, fuel, refuse and
fencing (Brochier, 1983, 1991, 1996; Polo-Díaz et al., 2014, 2016; Burguet-Coca et al.,
2020).

51 In addition to being an important proxy for detecting different past local 52 landscapes, anthracology is also able to identify changes in human-forest relationships in terms of wood exploitation and consumption (see Chabal, 1992; Chabal et al., 1999; 53 54 Kabukcu, 2018; Asouti and Kabukcu, 2021; Kabukcu and Chabal, 2021). Anthracological data available for the NE Iberian Peninsula during the Middle Holocene and Late 55 Holocene sub-epochs (Senabre and Socias, 1993; Heinz and Vernet, 1995; Ros, 1995a, 56 57 1995b, 1996, 1998; Piqué, 1999, 2005; Allué, 2007, 2010; Martín and Piqué, 2008; Allué et al., 2009; Vila and Piqué, 2012; Antolín et al., 2013; Alcolea, 2017; Daura et al., 2019) 58 indicate that the configuration and distribution of vegetation landscapes were diverse at 59 regional scale. As a consequence, research based on a local approach may be relevant to 60 reconstructing the regional variability (Figure 1). 61

62 PLACE HERE FIGURE 1. Archaeological sites with available Middle-Late Holocene anthracological data from NE Iberian Peninsula. Early Neolithic: 1) La Draga (Piqué, 63 2005); 2) Cova d'en Pau III (Ros, 1996; Piqué, 2005); 3) Cova 120 (Ros, 1995a; Piqué, 64 65 2005); 4) Bauma del Serrat Pont (Piqué, 2005); 5) Plansallosa (Ros, 1995a; Piqué, 2005); 6) Cova de l'Avellaner (Ros, 1996); 10) Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué, 2020); 11) Cova 66 67 del Frare (Ros, 1996); 12) Cova Bonica (Daura et al., 2019); 13) Can Sadurní (Antolín et al., 2013); 15) La Serreta (Allué, 2010); 17) Cova de la Guineu (Allué et al., 2009); 18) 68 Camp del Colomer (Piqué et al., 2015); 19) Bauma Margineda (Heinz, 1995); 20) Coves 69 70 del Fem (Alcolea, 2017); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper); 25) Barranc d'en Fabra (Ros, 1996); 26) Cova del Vidre (Alcolea, 2017). Late Neolithic-Chalcolithic: 3) Cova 120 71 72 (Ros, 1995a; Piqué, 2005); 4) Bauma del Serrat Pont (Piqué, 2005); 7) La Prunera (Piqué,

2005); 14) Santa Maria dels Horts (Senabre and Socias, 1993); 17) Cova de la Guineu 73 (Allué et al., 2009); 21) Cova Gran de Santa Linya (Allué, unpublished); 22) Auvelles 74 (Martín and Piqué, 2008); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper); 24) Roques del Sarró (Vila 75 76 and Piqué, 2012). Early Bronze age: 8) Institut Manlleu (Ros, 1995b); 9) Can Roqueta (Piqué, 1999); 10) Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué, 2020); 16) Mas d'en Boixos (Allué, 77 2007); 17) Cova de la Guineu (Allué et al., 2009); 23) Cova Colomera (in this paper). 78 Middle Bronze age: 21) Cova Gran de Santa Linya (Allué, unpublished); 23) Cova 79 Colomera (in this paper); 27) Genó (Vila and Piqué, 2012); 28) Punta Farisa (Ros, 1998). 80

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The Central Pre-Pyrenees (southern Pyrenees, Iberian Peninsula) is remarkable 82 for the evidence of herding activities that occurred there, as documented at Cova 83 84 Colomera (see Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Martín and Oms, 2021) and also at other archaeological sites where anthracological data are available (Polo-Díaz et al., 2016; 85 86 Burguet-Coca et al., 2020). The present study of a new anthracological sequence from a 87 fumier deposit in Cova Colomera (Serra del Montsec, Central Pre-Pyrenees), with human occupations from the Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze Age (mid-6th millennium cal 88 BCE to 3rd millennium cal BCE), assumes a diachronic perspective in order to understand 89 90 the role of anthropogenic activities and climate change in the transformation of local environments and the shaping of the cultural landscape. The main objectives are to 91 understand vegetation change and its causes, and thus to estimate the impact that the 92 Neolithization process may have had on vegetation landscapes. 93

94

95 1.1. Geographical area and landscapes

The study area is located in the Montsec range, in the Central Pre-Pyrenees, 96 97 between the Tremp-Graus and Ager drainage basins. This range, rising through the passage of the Pre-Pyrenees towards the Ebro Basin, is formed by Cretaceous bioclastic 98 99 limestones. The topography is the result of a series of monoclinal mountain ranges over 40 km, covering an area of 186.96 km2, oriented from west to east. Three rivers, the Boix, 100 101 the Noguera Pallaresa and the Noguera Ribagorcana, cut through the ridge from north to 102 south. Crossing the Montsec range, these water courses have eroded and shaped narrow 103 gorges and routes such as Pas Nou, Terradets and Mont-rebei. At some points, the range exceeds 1600 m a.s.l. in its central sector (e.g., Sant Alís is at 1676 m a.s.l.), but it loses 104 105 height at either end.

106 The southern slope of the range, the Ager basin, is characterized by a longer 107 summer drought and therefore drier climate conditions. Locally, the area is under the 108 influence of a sub-Mediterranean climate type, albeit with a continental trend (sensu Carreras and Ferré, 2014). Climatic conditions of sub-Mediterranean climate type are 109 110 differentiated from the general Mediterranean regime by cooler temperatures and higher rainfall, although a short and irregular summer drought may occur in some years (see 111 112 Jalut et al., 2000). The mean annual rainfall ranges from 400 to 600 mm, with the 113 maximum precipitation occurring in autumn (October showing mean precipitation of around 40 mm) and the minimum in summer (July showing precipitation of less than 13 114 mm). The mean annual temperature oscillates between 11 and 13°C, with a maximum of 115 116 31°C in July and a minimum of 0°C in January (Meteocat data 2020 from Camarasa 117 municipality) (Figure 2). The biome of the area is characterized by Mediterranean forests, 118 woodlands and scrub belonging to the Iberian sclerophyllous and semi-deciduous forests (Dinerstein et al., 2017). In some areas, holm-oak forests (Quercus ilex subsp. ilex) and 119 120 Aleppo pine forests (Pinus halepensis) expand.

PLACE HERE FIGURE 2. A) Map of forest communities in the study area, according to
the vegetation series of Spain (Rivas-Martínez, 1987); B and C) Principal bioclimatic
variables in the NE Iberian Peninsula. "Mean annual Temperature" (B) and "Mean annual
Precipitation" (C) according to *Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación* (Spanish
government), by geostatistical interpolation methods from actual AMET data
(http://wms.mapama.es/sig/Agricultura/CaractAgroClimaticas/wms.aspx?).

127

The northern slope of the range, the Tremp-Graus Basin, is rainier and shadier, 128 and consequently the climate is more temperate and could be interpreted as Eurosiberian 129 130 in tendency. The biome is characterized by a temperate broadleaf and mixed forest, which belongs to the Pyrenees conifer and mixed forest ecoregion (Dinerstein et al., 2017). 131 132 Locally, beech forests and oak forests are predominant (Quercus faginea, Quercus cerrioides and Quercus pubescens, with the presence of Acer sp. and Buxus 133 134 sempervirens). Likewise, in the higher areas of the range, pine forests expand (Pinus 135 nigra subsp. salzmannii and Pinus sylvestris).

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### 137 2. Cova Colomera

Cova Colomera is located in the Mont-rebei gorge, Serra del Montsec (Central Pre-Pyrenees, NE Iberian Peninsula). The cave is located 670 m a.s.l., 150 m above the left bank of the Noguera Ribagorçana River, a tributary of the Segre River (Oms et al., 2008, 2009a) (Figure 3). The cave entrance is 70 m high and 30 m wide and leads to a chamber about 180 m long and 10-12 m wide (Oms et al., 2013).

PLACE HERE FIGURE 3. 3D Location map of Cova Colomera, at N42°4'40.892",
E0°40'54.487" (WGS 84).

From 2005 to 2011, an interdisciplinary team from the Seminari d'Estudis i 146 Recerques Prehistòriques (SERP-UB) excavated the cave, resulting in the description of 147 148 the stratigraphic sequence (Oms et al., 2015). Two 26 m2 test pits were excavated during the fieldwork: one in the eastern sector of the cave, "Colomera Est (CE)", and the second, 149 150 "Colomera Vestíbul (CV)", in the highest sector of the cave entrance. The CV test pit 151 revealed thin stratigraphic layers up to the top of a carbonate crust. Under the crust, a series of overlapping anthropogenic structures (silos, hearths, post-holes) were 152 153 documented. Six Holocene archaeological layers and one Late Pleistocene layer were 154 registered in the CE test pit (Table 1).

PLACE HERE TABLE 1. Compilation of published radiocarbon and calibrated datesfrom the Holocene sequence of the Cova Colomera test pit CE.

157 The lowest unit CE15 (CE15a, b and c), corresponding to the Pleistocene, was not anthropic in origin, but many micro- and macrofaunal remains were recovered from the 158 159 excavation and sediment sieving (López-García et al., 2010). The Pleistocene unit was 160 separated from the Holocene sequence by a thin concentration of boxwood leaves and white-coloured branches that corresponds to the top unit of the Holocene sequence, layer 161 162 CE14 (7163-6964 cal. years BP). The boxwood remains, such as branches and leaves, 163 were documented in a primary position and have been interpreted as a bed for the herd or 164 as part of their diet (Oms et al., 2013; Bergadà and Oms, 2021). Layers CE14, CE13 165 (7164-6909 cal. years BP) and CE12 (7146-6737 cal. years BP) are ascribed to a late phase of the regional Early Neolithic (Oms et al., 2008, 2009a, 2010, 2013, 2015). Layers 166 167 CE10 (5305-5041 cal. years BP) and CE9 (4863-4621 cal. years BP) are ascribed to the Late Neolithic, with horizons associated with the Veraza and Veraza-Ferrières cultures 168 respectively (Oms et al., 2010, 2015). In turn, EE1 (4084-3839 cal. years BP, 4086-3896 169

cal. years BP) is an Early Bronze Age silo-shaped negative structure cutting through the 170 171 Early Neolithic layers (Oms et al., 2009b, 2010, 2015). Lastly, layer CE8 (3579-3395 cal. years BP, 3561-3400 cal. years BP) corresponds to the Middle Bronze Age. All the 172 Holocene layers correspond to an in-situ sedimentary facies of a fumier type (sensu 173 Brochier, 1983, 1991, 1996), which formed through a continuous accumulation of 174 preserved fumier deposits. Accordingly, the eastern sector of the cave (CE) can be 175 176 interpreted as corresponding area related to stabling and husbandry practices (Oms et al., 177 2008; Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Martín and Oms, 2021) (Figure 4).

PLACE HERE FIGURE 4. A: Cave plan; B: Stratigraphic profile and grid-square (2008-2009) of the Cova Colomera test pit CE (Oms et al., 2013: modified). According to
Angelucci and others (2009), *c facies* relates to the accumulations of charcoal fragments
and *tf facies* refers to silt with abundant ash and varied color, sometimes with platy
structure and moderate cementation.

183

# 184 **3.** Materials and methods

The anthracological analysis of the Middle and Late Holocene archaeological 185 186 layers at Cova Colomera is based on the study of 1,117 charcoal fragments. A previous work consisted of the anthracological identification of 300 fragments from the EE1 silo 187 188 (Oms et al., 2009b), but in the present study this assemblage is complemented with the identification of an additional 60 fragments. To recover the archaeobotanical remains, all 189 the excavated sediment (from 2005 to 2011) was manually floated using bucket flotation, 190 191 maintaining the spot height measurements (in 5 cm ranges) of the sedimentary facies and 192 using a 0.2 mm mesh sieve.

193

Identification and quantification were performed according to the standard 194 methodology used in anthracological studies (see Kabukcu and Chabal, 2021; Asouti and 195 196 Kabukcu, 2021). The charcoal remains were quantified as the number of fragments per 197 taxon and, to evaluate the optimal sample size of the layers, the accumulation curves were established (Chabal, 1997; Kabukcu and Chabal, 2021). The anthracological analysis was 198 accomplished using reflected light microscopy, both bright- and dark-field (Olympus 199 BX41), with magnifications of x50, x100, x200 and x500. The identification was based 200 201 on anatomical features described in the atlas of European woods compiled by Schweingruber (1990) and was supported by the reference collection of modern charcoal 202 203 at the IPHES (Institut Català de Paleoecologia Humana i Evolució Social), Tarragona 204 (Spain). Unidentifiable charcoal fragments were assigned to broader categories based on their anatomical features. Undetermined fragments were classified as undetermined 205 angiosperm or undetermined conifer. Fragments that retained some distinguishable 206 207 anatomical feature, but did not allow attribution to species level, were numbered (e.g., 208 indeterminate angiosperm 1). Anthracological analysis does not always allow charcoal fragments to be discriminated to species level (Chabal, 1992, 1997; Chabal et al., 1999), 209 so in those cases other taxonomic groups were used (types, cf., or genera). Some specific 210 211 taxa identified in the anthracological sample were regrouped (e.g., *Populus/Salix; Pinus* 212 sylvestris type includes Pinus sylvestris/nigra; and Quercus sp. evergreen includes Quercus ilex and Quercus coccifera) where the anatomical distinction between two or 213 214 more species is not possible (Schweingruber, 1990). Undefined species ("sp.") of some 215 genera were grouped together, such as Acer sp., Fraxinus sp., Lonicera sp., and Juniperus sp. Some species of the same genus have distinct specific anatomical criteria that may 216 217 constitute different categories or types (Heinz and Barbaza, 1998; Alcolea, 2017; Allué 218 et al., 2018a). Following Heinz and Barbaza (1998), for European woods from the Mediterranean basin, the genus *Prunus* can be classified into three types according to how many cells wide the rays are. The rays of *Prunus* type 1 (which includes *Prunus avium/padus*) are no more than two cells wide. The rays of *Prunus* type 2 (which includes *Prunus spinosa/mahaleb*) are three or four cells wide, and the rays of *Prunus* type 3 (which includes *Prunus spinosa*) are more than five cells wide. Finally, the family Rosaceae/Maloideae corresponds to several species, including, for example, *Sorbus* and *Crataegus*, which do not always share the same ecological adscription.

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227 **4. Results** 

The anthracological record from Cova Colomera incorporated 1,117 charcoal 228 229 fragments, of which 1,038 were identified (Table 2A and 2B). Accumulation curves show 230 an optimal sample size analysed in all layers (Figure 5). The charcoal record shows a 231 wide diversity of taxa, including broadleaves and lianas such as Acer sp. (maples), Arbutus unedo (strawberry tree), Buxus sempervirens (boxwood), Clematis vitalba 232 (traveller's joy), Corvlus avellana (common hazel), Fagus sylvatica (common beech), 233 Fraxinus sp. (ash), Hedera helix (ivy), Lonicera sp. (honeysuckle), Pistacia lentiscus 234 (lentisk), *Populus/Salix* (poplar/willows), *Prunus* type 2 and type 3 (plums), *Quercus* sp. 235 236 evergreen and Quercus deciduous (holm-oaks and oaks), Rhamnus sp. 237 alaternus/Phillyrea (buckthorn), Maloideae (pomes), indeterminate angiosperm and cf. 238 Sambucus (elderberry), and conifers such as *Pinus sylvestris* type (Scots pine and black 239 pine), Taxus baccata (yew) and Juniperus sp. (juniper). The taxon richness remains more or less homogeneous throughout the sequence, although taxon variability is higher in the 240 241 Late Neolithic layers, especially in layer CE9.
242 PLACE HERE TABLE 2A. Middle Holocene anthracological record from Cova243 Colomera.

244 PLACE HERE TABLE 2B. Late Holocene anthracological record from Cova Colomera.245

246 The Early Neolithic layers CE12, CE13 and CE14 show a predominance of boxwood, with deciduous oak and *Pinus sylvestris* type subsequently. Maple shows low 247 values in the three Early Neolithic layers (no more than 8.5%). On the other hand, juniper 248 249 increases in layer CE13, although it displays a low presence in the earlier layer CE14. 250 Sporadic fragments ( $\leq$ 5%), such as *Arbutus unedo*, *Corylus avellana*, holm-oak, *Pistacia* lentiscus, Prunus sp., Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea, Rosaceae/ Maloideae and Taxus 251 252 baccata are present (Table 2A). By the same token, boxwood, deciduous oak and Pinus sylvestris type continued to predominate in the Late Neolithic layers CE9 and CE10. 253 254 However, maple has higher recorded values compared to the previous period, detected mainly in layer CE10. Juniper shows a decrease. Other taxa, such as Fraxinus sp., 255 Lonicera sp., Pistacia lentiscus, Populus/Salix, Prunus sp., holm-oak, Rhamnus 256 257 alaternus/Phillyrea, indeterminate angiosperm 1, Taxus baccata and cf. Sambucus, are 258 also present. Likewise, Taxus baccata and Prunus sp. are documented in both these layers. 259

260 PLACE HERE FIGURE 5. Taxon accumulation curves of the Holocene layers of Cova261 Colomera.

The Early Bronze Age silo EE1 shows high values for deciduous oak. Furthermore, boxwood and pine are well represented (Table 2B). Sporadic fragments of other taxa ( $\leq$ 5%), such as maple, ash, juniper and holm-oak, are also identified. Finally, the Middle Bronze Age layer CE8 is characterized by a predominance of deciduous oak and boxwood although, compared to the older layers, the values of boxwood are lower. Likewise, scarce appearances of *Acer* sp., *Corylus avellana*, *Fagus sylvatica*, *Fraxinus*sp., *Hedera helix*, *Pinus sylvestris* type, *Prunus* sp., evergreen oak, Rosaceae/Maloideae
and *Taxus baccata* are identified.

270

## 271 **5. Discussion**

5.1. Transformation of the vegetation landscape and the environmental conditionsaround Cova Colomera

274 The anthracological results from Cova Colomera provide key data for describing 275 the local-scale environment in the Central Pre-Pyrenees during the Middle-Late 276 Holocene. Anthracological analysis of 1,117 charcoal fragments from Cova Colomera shows the taxon diversity and changes in the relative values along the sequence (Figure 277 278 6). Although the anthracological sequence is very homogeneous in terms of the richness and ubiquity of woody taxa, there is a tendency towards a progressive increase and 279 280 predominance of deciduous forest elements. However, a slight increase in evergreen oaks is detected at the top of the anthracological sequence. 281

PLACE HERE FIGURE 6. Diagram with anthracological results for Cova Colomera.
Results from Early Bronze age silo EE1 (Oms et al., 2009b) have been included.

According to the anthracological results obtained, the local area of Cova Colomera remained relatively stable over the period in question, dominated as it was by forest communities of deciduous oaks, with a significant presence of *Buxus sempervirens* and *Acer* sp. This assemblage of taxa is usually associated with sub- and supra-Mediterranean deciduous oak formations. The presence of mesophilic taxa such as maple, *Prunus* sp., Maloideae, common buckthorn and boxwood can be taken to indicate temperate and humid climatic conditions. Other shrubby vegetation and small trees, such as *Juniperus* 

sp. and *Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea*, could have also developed in more open spaces, 291 292 indicating the existence of clearances. These open forest formations under a humid climate may well correlate with the results from the study of the small vertebrates in the 293 294 Holocene layers at Cova Colomera (López-García et al., 2010), which indicated the chorotype of micromammals with mid-European requirements, currently found at the 295 higher altitudes of the Pyrenees. Sub-Mediterranean thermophilic elements requiring 296 more humidity, such as *Tilia* and *Pistacia* cf. *terebinthus*, are identified in the silo EE1 at 297 298 Cova Colomera, dated to the Early Bronze Age, and maple appears throughout the anthracological sequence. Riverine taxa, such as Populus/Salix, and Fraxinus sp., are 299 300 documented, although their presence is always low. These elements are likely to have 301 been part of the riparian vegetation, occupying the riverbanks in the Montsec mountain 302 range or shadier and more humid locations such as deep narrow gorges. The other 303 represented circum- and sub-Mediterranean small trees, shrubs and liana, such as Arbutus 304 unedo, Corylus avellana, Ilex aquifolium, Hedera helix and Clematis vitalba, appear in 305 lower frequencies. The occurrence of Pinus sylvestris type suggests the presence of 306 conifer forests, which underwent a slight decline in the course of the anthracological sequence, mainly during the Middle Bronze Age. These formations would have probably 307 308 been growing at higher altitudes in nearby areas of the Pre-Pyrenees and *Taxus baccata* 309 would have probably developed in shadier areas. In the other hand, holm-oaks and sclerophyllous elements such as Arbutus unedo and Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea show a 310 low relative frequency throughout the anthracological sequence of Cova Colomera. 311 312 However, from a diachronic point of view, a slight increase in holm-oak is detected, especially in the Middle Bronze Age. 313

In northeastern Spain and southern France, Mediterranean forests currently forman ecoregion in transition between the western European temperate broadleaf and mixed

forest ecoregion and the Iberian sclerophyllous and semi-deciduous forest ecoregion 316 317 (Dinerstein et al., 2017). Mediterranean forests thus display ecological characteristics of both the Mediterranean and Atlantic climate (Blanco et al., 1997; Carreras and Ferré, 318 319 2014). Likewise, the plant community that includes the evergreen oak forest and an evergreen understory of low trees and high shrubs (such as Olea europaea, Arbutus 320 321 unedo, Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea, Erica sp. and Pistacia lentiscus) is also identified 322 as an ecoregion of the Mediterranean biome that currently dominates the area. These 323 sclerophyllous taxa display low representation throughout the anthracological sequence of Cova Colomera. They may have occupied secondary positions in drier or sunnier 324 325 places, probably in areas of deciduous oak forest degradation.

In the Central Pre-Pyrenees, from the Early-Middle Holocene boundary (8.2 ka 326 BP), the deciduous oak forest would have occupied a more extensive area than at present, 327 favoured by a temperate and humid climate (Figure 7). Palaeoclimate records from Pre-328 Pyrenean ranges, for example from Estanyá lake (Morellón et al., 2008), indicate greater 329 330 water availability in three periods during the Holocene: the Early Holocene: 8.5-8.2 ka BP; and the Middle Holocene: 6.7-5.9 ka BP and 4.9-4.2 ka BP. Although these periods 331 332 correspond to more humid conditions in the Mediterranean area, brief arid episodes also 333 occurred at 8.2 and 7.5 ka BP (Jalut et al., 2009; Bergadà et al., 2018).

PLACE HERE FIGURE 7. Calibrated radiocarbon dates of Cova Colomera in relation of
different climate proxies.

*Taxus baccata* records have very low values in pollen sequences, probably owing
to the poor pollination rates and morphological difficulties (Chybicki and Oleksa, 2018),
although the species is well represented in Middle Holocene anthracological records in
the northern Iberian Peninsula (see Uzquiano et al., 2015), especially in mid-mountain
areas. Differences in *Taxus baccata* values between anthracological and pollen data may

correspond to variable humidity conditions at higher altitudes, which are probably 341 342 dominated by coniferous forests. Additionally, the high relative frequency of boxwood in the Cova Colomera anthracological record is noteworthy. Boxwood is a sub-343 344 Mediterranean taxon, which currently grows in montane and subalpine zones and in some southern locations in the Iberian Peninsula, within an altitudinal range from 26 m to 2,500 345 m a.s.l. (Bolòs and Vigo, 1984; Carreras and Ferré, 2014). In some places, especially in 346 347 disturbed oak forests, boxwood can play a pioneer role and can form extended shrubby 348 formations, although it is most often associated with undergrowth in the deciduous oak forest (Rivas-Martínez, 1984; Carreras et al., 2015; Pascual, 2015) and can be considered 349 350 an indicator of degraded or cleared areas (Pascual, 2015). In the local area around Cova Colomera, woodland formed by deciduous oaks and including maple and boxwood is 351 currently found as part of the forest structure, especially in more temperate or 352 353 Eurosiberian areas in the Pyrenees and Pre-Pyrenees, under temperate and humid climate 354 conditions. These taxa are common in Middle Holocene anthracological sequences from 355 NE Iberian Peninsula, including littoral sites as well as sites in inner pre-littoral ranges, 356 such as Cova del Toll (Mas and Allué, 2020), Cova de l'Avellaner (Ros, 1996), Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished), Cova d'en Pau III and Plansallosa (Ros, 1996; Piqué, 2005), 357 La Draga (Piqué, 2005), Cova del Frare (Ros, 1996), Bauma del Serrat del Pont and La 358 359 Prunera (Piqué, 2005).

According to our results, the dynamics of vegetation transformation during the Middle-Late Holocene were more or less homogeneous in the Central Pre-Pyrenees. On a local scale, global aridity events would not have affected the vegetation landscape structure, and deciduous oak forests, temperate taxa and montane conifers would have developed well in the area. The rapid global climate change detected in the 4.2 to 3.8 ka period (Mayewsky et al., 2004) and the aridification trend that affected the Mediterranean

basin (Fletcher and Sánchez, 2008; Allué et al., 2009; Jalut et al., 2009; Carrión et al., 366 367 2010b; Bergadà et al., 2018) may have been less influential than elsewhere in bringing about the Mediterraneanization of the Central Pre-Pyrenees landscape. Likewise, a slight 368 369 increase in the evergreen oak forest was detected in the Middle Bronze Age layer of Cova Colomera. Yew, maple and boxwood continued to be well represented in Bronze Age 370 layers from Cova Colomera and Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished). However, the 371 372 vegetation composition deduced from these anthracological assemblages shows a 373 continuing predominance of deciduous oak forests, with montane conifers and temperate 374 taxa.

# 375 5.2. Anthropogenic impacts: human and environment interactions

376 The archaeological record at Cova Colomera is associated with short-term 377 occupations related to herding activities such as foddering, litter-bedding, etc. (Oms et al., 2013; Bergadà and Oms, 2021). The systematic burning of such fumier deposits often 378 379 provides rich vegetal remains (see Angelucci et al., 2009; Euba et al., 2016; Vergès et al., 380 2016; Polo-Díaz et al., 2016; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020), and Cova Colomera is no exception. The anthracological sequence shows high taxonomic diversity, including 29 381 woody taxa. Some of these could have been part of the herd's fodder diet. However, we 382 383 cannot rule out the use of some woody taxa as fuel, such as pine, juniper or yew, or as objects and tools that were thrown into the fire after use. Moreover, ovicaprine herds are 384 385 a potential agent for reducing undergrowth vegetation. During the winter, browsing is 386 focused on evergreen and semi-deciduous species, whereas in spring and autumn 387 herbaceous grasses are also browsed (Bartolomé et al., 1998; Osoro et al., 2013). High-388 protein woody species such as Clematis vitalba, Acer opalus, Quercus sp., lentisk and strawberry tree are currently consumed by ovicaprine herds in Mediterranean areas 389 390 (Rogosic et al., 2006; Bartolomé, 2014), whereas other taxa such as junipers and boxwood

are rejected by herds as fodder (Bartolomé, 2014). However, the wood of the boxwood is 391 also of good quality: hard, fine and compact, easy to polish and dye, and it could have 392 been used for manufacturing objects. The wood produces slow combustion, a property 393 394 much appreciated for its use as fuel (Caruso-Ferme and Piqué-Huerta, 2014). Examples such as the Neolithic settlement of La Draga (Banyoles, Girona) show the use of boxwood 395 396 in the production of agricultural tools (Palomo et al., 2011; Piqué et al., 2018). 397 Accordingly, archaeological work on some of the phases of the fumier documented the 398 preservation and accumulation of leaves and branches of boxwood, possibly for the adaptation of beds or spaces for livestock (Bergadà and Oms, 2021; Oms et al., 2013). 399

400 Cova Colomera has provided no evidence of human occupation during the Middle 401 Neolithic, although the cave was used by humans in the Early Neolithic and from the Late 402 Neolithic to the Bronze Age cultural period. Two possible scenarios can be weighed up. 403 In the NE of the Iberian Peninsula, evidence of occupation by Middle Neolithic 404 populations has only been documented in burial contexts or in the open-air settlement of 405 Ca n'Isach (Palau-saverdera, Girona) (Tarrús et al., 2016), whereas no evidence of occupation of caves and rock-shelters has been found (see Oms and Martín, 2018). A first 406 407 hypothesis could be the non-preservation of evidence of human occupation due to erosion 408 in karst systems and on mountainsides (see Polo-Díaz et al., 2014; Bergadà et al., 2018). 409 A second, alternative hypothesis postulates the intentional abandonment of caves and rock-shelters due to changes in livestock grazing practices. 410

With respect to the human impact on forest communities at a local scale, the forest cover from the Early Neolithic to the Middle Bronze Age does not seem to have changed significantly in terms of either recovery or degradation. This could indicate that human groups carried out a reiterated but non-intensive exploitation of the forests. Accordingly, little evidence of intense human activities on the landscape can be found in the Iberian

Central Pre-Pyrenees, although the exploitation of plant resources has been documented 416 417 since the Upper Pleistocene and Early Holocene (Allué et al., 2012, 2018b). At lower altitudes and similar to Cova Colomera, Neolithic layers or structures at Les Auvelles 418 419 (Oms et al., 2019), Cova Gran (Mora et al., 2011) and Forat de Conqueta (Mora et al., 2009; Allué, 2011) show similarities as well as slight differences in the composition of 420 their vegetation landscape. On the one hand, the open-air archaeological site of Les 421 422 Auvelles has yielded an anthracological record of oak taxa in which, although dominated 423 by deciduous oak, evergreen oak is also represented, with high ubiquity values (Martín-Seijo and Piqué, 2008). According to the authors, this assemblage could be influenced by 424 425 specific fuel and wood selection patterns. On the other hand, anthracological data from the cave of Forat de Conqueta and the rock-shelter of Cova Gran (Allué, unpublished) 426 427 indicate an assemblage similar to that of Cova Colomera. Archaeological research has 428 identified livestock practices in the Holocene layers of Cova Gran, especially involving 429 livestock enclosure, and has interpreted the use of the cave in terms of the transhumance 430 routes through the southern Pyrenees (Polo-Díaz et al., 2014; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020; 431 Martín and Oms, 2021), and also some mountainous Pyrenees areas (Gassiot et al., 2017; Knockaert et al., 2018; Tejedor-Rodríguez et al., 2021). The forest formations were 432 433 probably the same in the different Pre-Pyrenean valleys, without any differences in human pressure causing more open forests in some areas. 434

Profound transformations of natural landscapes into cultural landscapes are
currently the result of human pressure (Butzer, 1989; Quézel and Médail, 2003; Blondel,
2006; Pérez-Obiol et al., 2011). Humans have exploited forest wood resources and
interfered with the natural development and distribution of woody plants for millennia.
However, evidence of the anthropogenic footprint in the landscape during the MiddleLate Holocene is not homogeneous in the Iberian Peninsula. For example, it seems to be

less intense in mountainous areas (e.g., Carrión et al., 2010b). In these areas above 2,000 441 442 m a.s.l., Neolithic populations would have consumed varying amounts of wood according to the functionality and location of the settlements (Obea et al., 2021). Therefore, these 443 444 archaeological sites show no evidence of extensive agriculture or substantial modification of the landscape. In contrast, the transformation of the vegetation landscape appears to be 445 more intense in Mediterranean coastal areas (e.g., Riera and Esteban-Amat, 1994; 446 447 Revelles et al., 2015). Nevertheless, there is no doubt that anthropogenic activities were 448 important at a local scale particularly in the Late Holocene. The anthropic impact on landscapes during the Early Bronze Age has also been inferred from the increase in 449 450 microcharcoal particles associated with the recurrence of fire events in mountain areas (Carrión et al., 2010b), more intensive land-use dynamics (Rull et al., 2021), and more 451 specialized fuel-gathering patterns (Ros, 1995b, 1998; Piqué, 1999; Allué, 2007; Allué et 452 453 al., 2009; Vila and Piqué, 2012; Obea et al., 2021).

454

### 455 **6.** Conclusions

The anthracological analysis of Cova Colomera documents changes in the 456 vegetation landscape in the Central Pre-Pyrenees; these changes are related to specific 457 climatic dynamics and a low anthropogenic impact, especially associated with herding 458 459 and livestock management activities. The anthracological sequence shows how from the 460 Middle to Late Holocene the local area of Cova Colomera continued to be dominated in the long term by deciduous oak forest ecosystems associated with sub- and supra-461 Mediterranean deciduous formations, while the coniferous forest gradually receded. 462 463 According to our results, arid episodes in the Central Pre-Pyrenees did not cause major changes in vegetation cover, since the environmental conditions in the area of study 464 included certain particularities that favoured the establishment of a temperate and humid 465

466 climate. However, the Late Holocene began to show a slight increase in evergreen oaks,467 mainly during the Middle Bronze Age.

468 The evidence of the anthropogenic activities on the landscape during the Middle 469 Holocene is not homogeneous in the NE Iberian Peninsula, as some areas displayed 470 certain particularities. Neolithic human groups who settled in the open air and took 471 advantage of the caves and rock-shelters to carry out specialized activities were well 472 aware of the potential of the landscapes. However, the herding activities in evidence during the Neolithic seem to have exerted slight pressure on the structure of the different 473 474 landscapes, especially in inland areas of the NE Iberian Peninsula such as the Central Pre-475 Pyrenees. The human presence in this area was therefore probably not intensive. 476 Accordingly, we do not observe such intensive exploitation of forest resources as in the areas near the coast. Finally, the Bronze Age populations to which more intensive 477 exploitation of forest resources is attributed on a regional scale do not seem to exert such 478 an intensive influence at the local scale of Cova Colomera. The differences in the intensity 479 480 of forest exploitation may be due to the different functionalities of the occupations as well as the different locations of the settlements. 481

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897





















Table 1. Compilation of published radiocarbon and calibrated dates from the Holocene sequence of the Cova Colomera test pit CE.

Layer	Туре	Cultural attribution	Sample	Recovered	Radiocarbon	Ref. Lab	Date B.P.	cal yr B.C. 2σ	Cal yr B.P. 2σ	Published
CE8	Fumier	Middle Bronze age	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	OxA-23633	3260±26	1630-1470	3561-3400	Oms et al., 2015
CE8	Fumier	Middle Bronze age	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	Beta-140550	3280±40	1660-1440	3579-3395	Oms et al., 2015
EE1	Silo	Early Bronze age	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	OxA-17732	3659±30	2170-1930	4086-3896	Oms et al., 2009b
EE1	Silo	Early Bronze age	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	Beta-241704	3630±40	2130-1890	4084-3839	Oms et al., 2009b
CE9	Fumier	Late Neolithic	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	Beta-265439	4230±40	2960-2680	4863-4621	Oms et al., 2015
CE10	Fumier	Late Neolithic	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	OxA-17331	4500±32	3400-3040	5305-5041	Oms et al., 2015
CE12	Fumier	Early Neolithic	Buxus sempervirens	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	Beta-248523	6020±50	5060-4780	7146-6737	Oms et al., 2013
CE13	Fumier	Early Neolithic	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	Beta-240551	6150±40	5250-4960	7164-6909	Oms et al., 2013
CE14	Fumier	Early Neolithic	Triticum aestivum/durum	Manual flotation	AMS <sup>14</sup> C	OxA-23634	6170±30	5250-5010	7163-6964	Oms et al., 2013
Archaeological period	Early Neolithic						Late Neolithic			
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Layer	CE12		CE13		<b>CE14</b>		CE9		<b>CE10</b>	
ТАХА	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Acer sp.	9	7.50	11	7.33	17	8.42	24	7.12	14	14.00
Arbutus unedo	-	-	3	2.00	4	1.98	2	0.59	-	-
Buxus sempervirens	43	35.83	37	24.67	76	37.62	83	24.63	25	25.00
Clematis vitalba	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.30	-	-
Corylus avellana	-	-	1	0.67	-	-	1	0.30	-	-
Fraxinus sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.19	-	-
Juniperus sp.	4	3.33	27	18.00	11	5.45	22	6.53	5	5.00
<i>Lonicera</i> sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.00
Pinus sylvestris type	14	11.67	17	11.33	30	14.85	37	10.98	10	10.00
Pistacia lentiscus	-	-	1	0.67	-	-	1	0.30	-	-
Populus sp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.00
Prunus type 2	1	0.83	5	3.33	6	2.97	8	2.37	3	3.00
Prunus type 3	1	0.83	1	0.67	3	1.49	4	1.19	5	5.00
Quercus sp. deciduous	35	29.17	34	22.67	35	17.33	91	27.00	19	19.00
Quercus sp. evergreen	5	4.17	3	2.00	5	2.48	5	1.48	1	1.00
Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea	-	-	-	-	1	0.50	1	0.30	-	-
Rosaceae/Maloideae	-	-	1	0.67	1	0.50	-	-	-	-
Taxus baccata	2	1.67	-	-	2	0.99	18	5.34	6	6.00
Indeterminated angiosperm 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.00
cf. Sambucus	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.89	-	-
Total taxa	9	)	1	2	1	2	1	6	1	2
cf. Arbutus unedo	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.89	-	-
cf. Pinus	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.30	1	1.00
cf. Prunus	-	-	-	-	1	0.50	-	-	-	-
Total identified	11	14	14	41	19	92	3	)9	9	2
Indeterminable angiosperm	6	5.00	6	4.00	6	2.97	18	5.34	6	6.00
Indeterminable conifer	-	-	-	-	2	0.99	-	-	-	-
Undetermined	-	-	3	2.00	2	0.99	10	2.97	2	2.00
Total sample	120	100	150	100	202	100	337	100	100	100

## Table 2A. Middle Holocene anthracological record from Cova Colomera.

## Table 2B. Late Holocene anthracological record from Cova Colomera.

Archaeological period	E	Early Bronze A	Middle Bronze Age		
Layer		EE1	CE8		
ТАХА	n	Oms et al 2009b	%	n	%
Acer sp.	2	23	6.94	11	7.43
Arbutus unedo	-	5	1.39	-	-
Buxus sempervirens	14	92	29.44	29	19.59
Corylus avellana	-	4	1.11	1	0.68
Fagus sylvatica	-	-	-	1	0.68
Fraxinus sp.	1	1	0.56	2	1.35
Hedera helix ssp.	-	2	0.56	1	0.68
Ilex aquifolium	-	4	1.11	-	-
Juniperus sp.	5	16	5.83	9	6.08
Pinus sylvestris type	14	25	10.83	9	6.08
Pistacia cf. terebintus	-	2	0.56	-	-
Prunus type 2	-	-	-	1	0.68
Quercus sp. deciduous	18	95	31.39	53	35.81
Quercus sp. evergreen	2	4	1.67	7	4.73
Rhamnus alaternus/Phillyrea	-	2	0.56	-	-
Rhamnus cathartica/saxatilis	-	3	0.83	-	-
Rosaceae/Maloideae	-	1	0.28	1	0.68
Taxus baccata	-	7	1.94	5	3.38
<i>Tilia</i> sp.	-	1	0.28	-	-
cf. Ribes	-	1	0.28	-	-
Total taxa		18			13
cf. Acer	1	1	0.56	-	-
cf. Corylus avellana	-	-	-	1	0.68
cf. Lonicera	-	1	0.28	-	-
Pinus sp.	-	1	0.28	-	-
Prunus sp.	-	2	0.56	2	1.35
Quercus sp.	-	1	0.28	-	-
Rhamnus sp.	-	1	0.28	-	-
Total identified		352			133
Indeterminable angiosperm	2	4	1.67	6	4.05
Indeterminable conifer	1	1	0.56	1	0.68
Undetermined	-	-	-	8	5.41
Total sample		360	100	148	100

## **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: