"DOMINGO FLETCHER VALLS"

PREHISTORY MUSEUM

DIPUTACIÓN DE VALENCIA

CENTRE CULTURAL LA BENEFICÈNCIA

"Domingo Fletcher Valls"
PREHISTORY MUSEUM

VALENCIA PROVINCIAL COUNCIL
1995

DIPUTACIÓN DE VALENCIA

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"Domingo Fletcher Valls" PREHISTORY MUSEUM

by

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PERE PAU RIPOLLÉS ALEGRE AND VALENTÍN VILLAVERDE BONILLA.

Translated by

SIMON STEPNEY

INTRODUCTION

In the long and fruitful history of the Prehistory Research Service (S.I.P.) and the Prehistory Museum of the Valencia Provincial Council, we can now affirm with deep satisfaction that we have begun a new stage. Quite a few years have passed since the year 1982, when the archaeological materials then on exhibit at the present-day headquarters of the Council, the Batlia Palace, were patiently and carefully removed from their cases and transferred to a new building known as the Casa de Beneficència (Valencia's 'Charity House'). Both hopes and concerns were voiced to similar degrees at the time of the move, as the sheer magnitude of the undertaking was evident to all. Only now, at the end of the road, is it possible to say with surety that it was thoroughly worth the effort.

Throughout all this time, and ever since its creation in 1927, the Prehistory Museum has actively maintained its research activities and its concern for the protection and preservation of our archaeological heritage. Above all, it has made every effort to continue to be a forum in which members of Valencian society can come face to face with our important archaeological heritage. Out of this concern, and through the support of the Provincial Council, all the exhibits dedicated to varying periods of our prehistory have successively come into being, following a waiting period which has now been brought to a happy conclusion. And this same concern and support gave rise to the privileged framework of the Prehistory Museum today in the La Beneficència Cultural Centre, where the footprints left behind by our forebears again shine under the soft lights of our rekindled interest, after various hundreds of thousands of years have utterly changed the face of our lands.

The archaeological collections and the intense labours of the Prehistory Research Service and the Prehistory Museum are now being associated with the name of Domingo Fletcher Valls, under whose directorship the Museum achieved its maximum splendour. It is in his memory that we want to fuse together so many efforts undertaken for the benefit of our archaeological heritage, made by a great number of scholars, and all those who have felt a kinship with this institution over the length and breadth of the Valencian region, from the museum's founder Isidro Ballester Tormo to its last director Enrique Pla Ballester, and so many, many others. We therefore have a valuable heritage before us in which aspirations and endeavours have been fully intertwined, a heritage we all feel to be part of ourselves, and of which we can feel rightfully proud.

MANUEL TARANCÓN FANDOS
President of the Valencia Provincial Council

FOREWORD

The Prehistory Museum of the Valencia Provincial Council occupies a prominent position among our cultural institutions. Characterized by rigorous work methods and remaining faithful to its threefold concern to conserve, study and promote our archaeological heritage, the museum's special interest in presenting us with all its collections has led to that marvellous reality which has now been inaugurated. The new exhibition rooms of the Prehistory Museum, the fruit of long labours made by a group of Valencian researchers who combined their forces at the Prehistory Research Service in 1927, now give us a close-up view of the life and labours of the first human societies living in this territory thousands of years ago. Mixed in with the surprise and admiration that archaeological collections always seem to produce, the names of important settlements contribute to the creation of a complete tour of Valencia's geography, while the major milestones in the development of human society take concrete forms and contents that change with the times to produce new material cultures and artistic creations, providing us with a basis for understanding or at least for the enjoyment of the aesthetics presented by these fruits of prehistoric man's achievements. They also inspire us to make new efforts to protect and preserve such a fragile heritage from the past.

This concern to provide an appropriate showcase for all members of Valencian society, from the smallest schoolchild capable of discovering the vast expanses of time occupied by man's past, to the trained expert seeking to deepen his or her knowledge of the past, is the main characteristic of this institution, which now crosses a new threshold while maintaining its traditional line of development. This is a major motive for satisfaction at the Cultural Area of the Valencia Provincial Council, as we feel we are part of this effort which has enabled these excellent new installations at the La Beneficència Cultural Centre to be used by the museum, offering an appropriate framework in which we can conveniently re-encounter our past and enjoy an important cultural legacy that goes back from late Roman times into the depths of time.

ANTONIO LIS DARDER
Deputy-President for the Cultural Area
of the Valencia Provincial Council

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THE S.I.P. AND ITS PREHISTORY MUSEUM

Prehistory Research Service (S.I.P.) and the Prehistory Museum are two inseparable parts of the same institution whose origins go back to 1927, when a small group of people interested in Valencia's archaeological heritage contributed to its creation under the auspices of the *Diputación*, the Valencia Provincial Council. The principle promotor of the institution was Isidro Ballester Tormo, who gave a clear outline of the course to be followed by these two sides of the same coin: first the S.I.P., with its efforts, excavations, studies and publications, would bring about the growth of the Prehistory Museum, and later, when the Museum had become an operative reality, it would be this body which would serve as the framework for the S.I.P.

The decades prior to 1927 had witnessed a gradual increase in the number of archaeological excavations being undertaken in Valencia, particularly from the time these were regulated in 1912 by the Higher Council for Excavations and Antiquities. It was therefore necessary to create a centre, like those already formed in Madrid and Barcelona, providing the necessary means with which to study and recover Valencia's archaeological heritage. Thanks to a donation from Fernando Ponsell Cortés granting the Valencia Provincial Council the collection of archaeological materials which he had collected at excavations of the Iberian settlements of Xarpolar de Margarida and above all the Bronze Age village of Mas de Menente in Alcoi, I. Ballester was able to give shape to the Prehistory Research Service, with its excavation department, laboratory and specialized library, and museum and publications sections.

The S.I.P. and its Prehistory Museum were installed on rather small premises at the Palau del Temple, the seat of the Council at that time, although

Prehistory Museum exhibition room at the Palau de la Generalitat. 1946. (Photo: Sanchis)

by the end of 1927 they were moved to the Golden Rooms of the Palau de la Generalitat. From the outset, the institution boasted a list of important names: Lluis Pericot García, who had recently become head professor at the University of Valencia and was appointed assistant manager of the institution, F. Ponsell, Mariano Jornet Perales and Gonzalo Viñes Masip, in addition to Salvador Espí Martí, who became chief reconstructor for over three decades. Excavations began immediately at sites as significant as the Cova Negra in Xàtiva, the basis for current understanding of Valencia's Middle Palaeolithic, the Iberian settlement of La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent, where a magnificent collection of Iberian Culture objects was initiated, and in 1929, the Parpalló Cave in Gandia, whose importance for Upper Palaeolithic studies, and portable art in particular, was to acquire immediate acclaim. By 1931, these sites had been complemented by the Petxina Cave in Bellús and the Sarsa cave in Bocairent, restoration work at the Muntanyeta de Cabrera hill site, a commission for life-size replicas of rock shelter paintings from the Araña caves in Bicorp, among others. It was also at that time when new collaborators were incorporated, such as Emilio Gómez Nadal, Domingo Fletcher Valls, Ernesto Jiménez Navarro, Julián San Valero Aparisi and Manuel Vidal López; followed some years later by Francisco Jordá Cerdá, José Chocomeli Galán, José Alcácer Grau and Enrique Pla Ballester.

Purchases during the initial years were to increase the museum's holdings significantly: a collection belonging to Federico Motos, an excavator at diverse sites in Almería, Granada and Murcia, specializing in the El Argar Culture; materials gathered by Manuel Cazurro Ruiz, including an extensive group of vases and miscellaneous Greek and Roman objects from Empúries, and bronze wares from the Huertas de Arriba mortuary chamber near Burgos, which consisted of shaving implements, bracelets and other objects belonging to so-called Atlantic Bronzes; and finally the collection of Arturo Pérez Cabrero, comprising Punic implements and some Roman and Medieval wares, mostly from Puig des Molins, showing some terracotta from Es Cuieram.

Prehistory Museum exhibition room at the Palau de la Batlia. 1960s.

As a result of the explorations undertaken by collaborators, we can see how a series of site names which would later be acquiring fame began to appear in archaeological references as of 1932, such as the Iberian settlements of Cova Foradada, and Monravana in Llíria, Torre Seca in Casinos, or the prehistoric sites of the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés, the Turche rock shelter, and Venta Mina cave in Buñol, among others. Of major importance was El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, where excavation work was begun in 1933. The rooms and halls of the Museum were established in 1936 at the Palau de la Generalitat, continuing until 1950 with only minor modifications owing mostly to the incorporation of new materials in the exhibition halls.

In February 1937, the Valencia Provincial Council, known at the time as the *Consell*, founded the Institut d'Estudis Valencians, incorporating the Prehistory Research Service and its Prehistory Museum under a History and Archaeological Department headed by I. Ballester, of which D. Fletcher was secretary, although because he had been given a leave of absence it was Felipe Mateu i Llopis who acted as stand-in secretary. A magazine was published in Valencian called *Sèrie de Treballs Solts* and the first four issues were incorporated with the existing *Archives of Levantine Prehistory* and the institute's annual report. Museum holdings were increased with two important collections: a terracotta figure collection from Ibiza gathered together by the Valencian scholar Francisco Martínez y Martínez, and a collection built up by Ernesto Botella Candela at excavations of the Valencian Bronze Age settlement of Mola Alta de Serelles in Alcoi. The prolonged stay in Valencia of the delegation of the National Natural Science Museum enabled palaeontological materials from the Cova Negra and the Parpalló cave to be cleaned and classified.

As of 1941, the S.I.P. slowly recommenced its prospection and excavation tasks following the Spanish Civil War. The El Tossal de Sant Miquel site in Llíria continued to receive special attention, and new excavations were undertaken at the Cocina cave in Dos Aguas, the Aeneolithic multiple burial chamber at the Pastora cave in Alcoi, the settlement and cave at Mal Paso in Castellnovo, Ereta del Pedregal in Navarrés,

Prehistory Museum exhibition room at the Palau de la Batlia. 1970s.

the Mallaetes cave in Barx, the Llatas cave in Andilla, the Peña de la Dueña in Teresa, and the Atalayuela in Losa del Obispo, among others. At the end of the decade, the Service and its Prehistory Museum had been consolidated, and there was a great deal of documentation on Valencia's archaeological heritage, a specialized library and a series of in-house publications. The institute had become part of the Higher Council for Scientific Research in 1945 as the Valencia Prehistory Section and later became part of the Alfonso el Magnánimo Institution.

In 1950 D. Fletcher became head of the S.I.P. management team, with E. Pla as assistant manager. Both men had collaborated for many years with I. Ballester. At this time the decision of the provincial authorities to install their offices in the Palau de la Generalitat brought about a split-up of the premises of the Prehistory Museum, and this precarious situation continued until 1955, when a considerable portion of the Palau de la Batlia was given over to the museum. Installation continued until 1958, and the exhibition rooms opened at that time were kept more or less as they were for the next twenty-five years. Under the directorship of D. Fletcher, the Prehistory Museum enjoyed its most fruitful period.

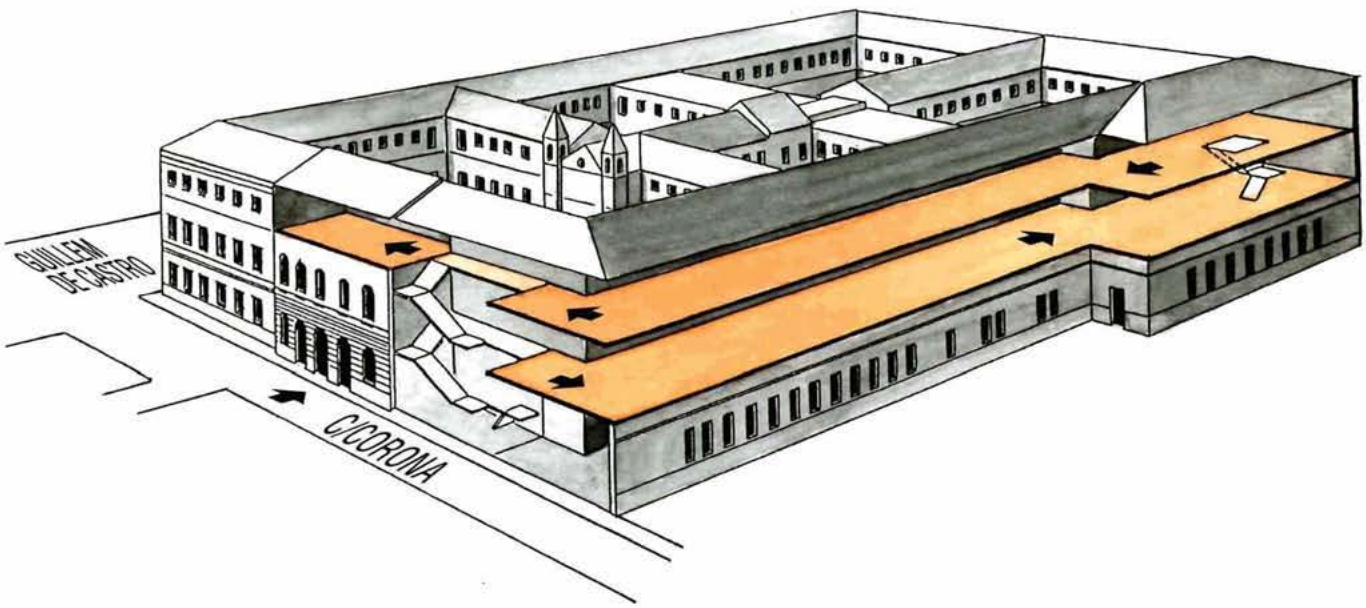
During this period, ordinary recovery operations and excavation campaigns were punctuated by works at both old and new sites. Among the former were El Tossal de Sant Miquel, the Cova Negra in Xàtiva or the Parpalló cave; among the latter were the Iberian settlements of Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes and Monravana in Llíria, the Late Roman settlement at Punta de l'Illa in Cullera and the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés, an exceedingly fruitful Neolithic site. The Museum incorporated much of the material pertaining to these new campaigns in its exhibition halls, as well as a few donations such as those made by M. Jornet and Juan Pablo Pérez Caballero. In 1960 Rubén Antonio Vela donated an extensive collection of South American archaeological findings to the Museum, particularly from the Tiahuanaco Bolivian culture. In 1963, room was made for a fine bronze statue found on Pinedo beach near Valencia, possibly a representation of Apollo.

Prehistory Museum exhibition room at the Casa de Beneficència. 1987.

At this time, a large group of collaborators worked with the S.I.P., spread throughout the Valencian region: Gandia, Villar del Arzobispo, Cullera, Oliva, Requena, Borriana, Benicarló, Castelló de Rugat, etc. Continual actions were undertaken to defend and recover the region's archaeological heritage in the face of destruction and losses caused by earth movers and builders. These activities were consolidated in the sixties with the help and collaboration of many new researchers, usually connected with university departments, converting the S.I.P. into an essential institution linked to the future of Valencian archaeology.

Some years later, in 1982, a new period began in the long history of the S.I.P. The headquarters of the Valencia Provincial Council moved from the Palau de la Generalitat to the Palau de la Batla, which had serious consequences for the Museum. It was forced to make a new move, this time to the building of the former House of Charity (*Casa de la Beneficència*), now under the direction of E. Pla. The consequences for the day-to-day life of the institution were important, but activities by no means came to a halt: a new library was opened, field work continued, as did storeroom labour for archaeological materials, documentation tasks and studies. One year later, in 1983, the Museum re-opened to the public at the Casa de la Beneficència, with a monographic exhibition dedicated to Iberian Culture. In 1984 an exhibition of Hunter Societies in Valencian Prehistory was inaugurated, forming the basis for the Palaeolithic, Palaeolithic Art and Epipalaeolithic rooms. In 1987 the main exhibits for the Neolithic room were brought together, with B. Martí now director of the S.I.P.

The decision of the Valencia Provincial Council in 1993 to completely restore the Casa de la Beneficència so as to make it more suitable for museum use brings us down to the present day. The S.I.P. and its Prehistory Museum closed their doors for a short period and then re-opened to the public in 1995 in the present framework of the La Beneficència Cultural Centre, with the aim of preserving what has been its main object and underlying spirit for so many years: serving as a forum for both the local population and visitors to this region so as to provide a picture of the land's most remote history, the story of Valencia's archaeological heritage.



THE EXHIBITION ROOMS

The exhibition rooms of the Prehistory Museum occupy the first and second floors of the right wing of the La Beneficència Cultural Centre. Exhibited here are some of the most outstanding testimonies of human societies having settled in this region—from the earliest vestiges of man's presence, until the days of the late Roman empire, plus a small coin collection from later ages. These material remains, considered to be of great relevance, are presented chronologically and within each of the periods established by current standards of historical research. Occasionally, they have also been arranged in accordance with the archaeological site where they were found, as many of these sites have been given individual treatment in view of the special information they have been capable of providing.

FIRST FLOOR

ROOM I: VALENCIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

ROOM II: THE LOWER AND MIDDLE PALAEOLITHIC

ROOM III: THE UPPER PALAEOLITHIC

ROOM IV: PALAEOLITHIC ART

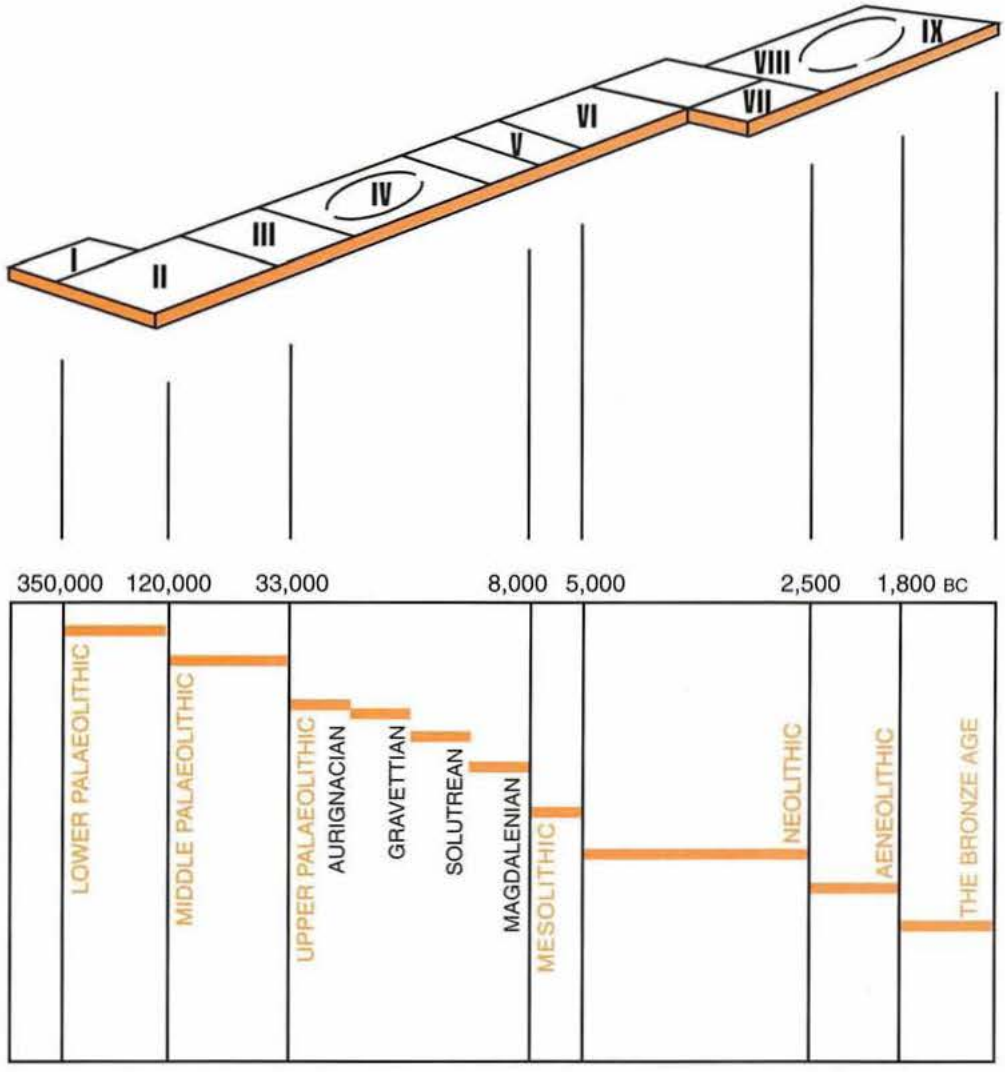
ROOM V: THE MESOLITHIC

ROOM VI: THE NEOLITHIC

ROOM VII: POST-PALAEOLITHIC ART

ROOM VIII: THE AENEOLITHIC

ROOM IX: THE BRONZE AGE



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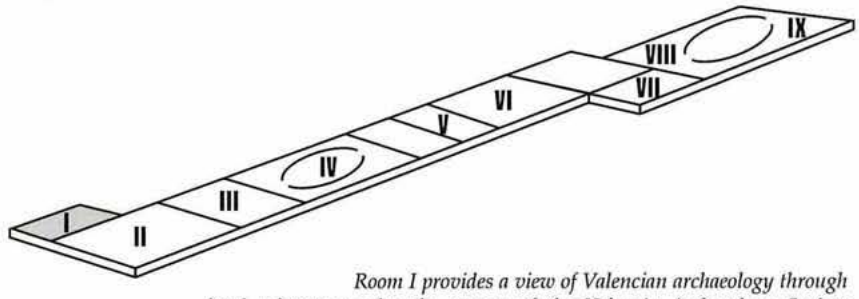
S.I.P. excavations
in the Parpalló cave (Gandia),
around 1930.



Room I provides a view of Valencian archaeology through local reference works: the reports of the Valencia Archaeology Society published in 1871, and one of the manuscripts written by Juan Vilanova y Piera (b. 1821 in Valencia, d. 1893 in Madrid), who popularized prehistory studies in Spain in the 19th century. Major archaeological sites known at present are indicated on an interactive map of the region of Valencia. A schematic model of an archaeological excavation site shows the basics of the archaeological method, evidencing some of the difficulties of preserving our sometimes very fragile cultural heritage.

I. VALENCIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

Valencian archaeological research has a long tradition. As of the Renaissance, studies on the ancient world began to inspire the founding of Antiquities Departments, bringing about the birth of Archaeology as a scientific method of recovering cultural material from societies predating the present. In Valencia, interest in works of art and monuments from the past began to appear in the days of the Enlightenment, in the 18th century. Well-known sites today, such as Alcúdia in Elx, Tossal de Manises in Alicante, Banyets de la Reina in Calp, El Puig or Sagunt, became related to relevant personalities of the age such as F. Pérez Bayer, J.A. Mayans, A. de Valcárcel or A.J. Cavanilles. We also have reports that in the last third of the 18th century a collection of antiquities of some importance was brought together at the archbishop's palace in Valencia. In 1792, E. Palos y Navarro dedicated a room in the town hall of Sagunt to Iberian and Roman inscriptions. Almost half a century later, as a consequence of the sale of church property initiated by the Spanish government in 1835, Valencia founded an antiques museum in the Convento del Carmen under the directorate of the San Carlos Academy with the aim of ensuring the preservation of quite a number of artistic objects. One last reference is the year 1871, when the Valencia Archaeological Society was created, among whose founding members were outstanding researchers such as R. Chabás, subsequent founder and director of the magazine *El Archivo*, and S. Moreno, A. Ibarra and A. Chabret.

It was around this time, well into the second half of the 19th century, when archaeological activities widened their scope to include Prehistory, whose birth as a new science had much to do with the development of Geology and the acceptance of the theory of the evolution of the species, fostering the acknowledge-

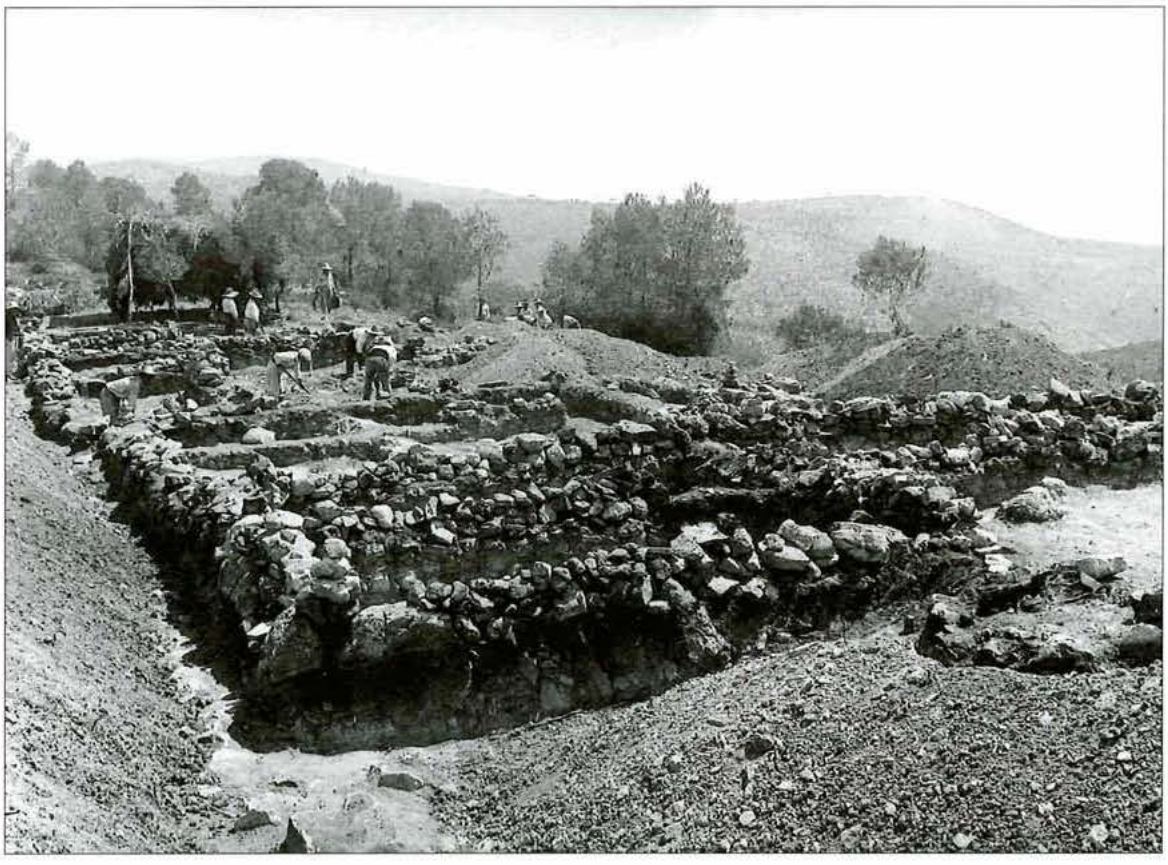
ment of man's remote origins. Worthy of mention as a popularizer of Prehistory studies in Spain was J. Vilanova y Piera, who brought his influence to bear in the excavation of the Llometes cave in Alcoi by E. Vilaplana in 1884, in addition to carrying out other activities and editing publications. Not long afterwards, at the start of the 20th century, archaeological activities began to multiply in the Valencian region: J. Furgús explored sites in Orihuela, M. Rico supervised digs into the subsoil of Alicante with meticulous care, I. Ballester began excavating Covalta in Albaida around 1910, H. Fornés excavated the Rotxina settlement in Sot de Ferrer in 1913 and 1914, C. Visedo discovered La Serreta in Alcoi in 1917, J. Belda started explorations of the Torre de les Maçanes, etc.

Thus, quite a few years of research and discovery, plus the unearthing of outstanding discoveries in the first decades of the 20th century, called for the creation of a Valencian archaeological museum that would help to preserve these treasures and prevent their dispersion or even their export from this region. Immediately preceding this endeavour, in the 1920s, an Archaeology Laboratory was created at the University of Valencia, and the Valencian Cultural Centre was founded. Although these did not contribute to the appearance of institutions with a capacity for undertaking archaeological excavations, they did play an important role in the development of archaeological studies and the systematic prospection of certain districts. The next step forward would be the creation of the S.I.P. and, a little later, the Archaeology Museum in Alicante in 1931.

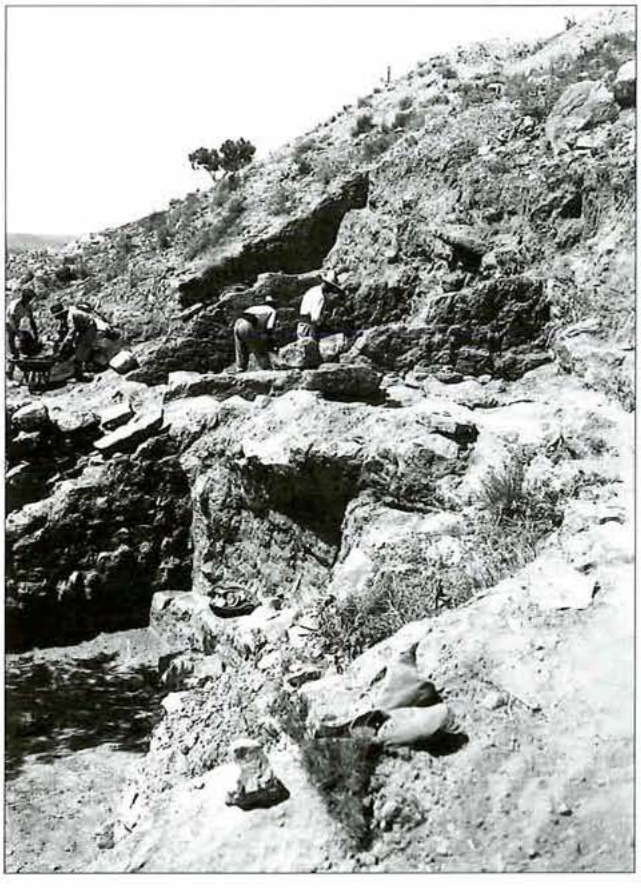
Archaeological patrimony is a fundamental part of our cultural heritage, ie, the sum total of manifestations reflecting the collective personality of a given society and its past development. Archaeological sites are part of this heritage. They are highly important legacies that enable us to expand our knowledge of societies which have left no written documents.

Our archaeological heritage in Valencia is an inalienable asset, an asset which should be preserved and protected in all manner of ways, from both expoliation and indiscriminate manipulation. Large-scale public works—part and parcel of urban development—and important transformations of agricultural lands should be compatible with respect for cultural vestiges from the past. Our archaeological heritage should never be considered as an obstacle to economic development today. Public institutions such as the regional government, *La Generalitat*, town councils, universities and museums are called upon to foster the study of this heritage, its preservation and diffusion, ensuring that future generations will also have the opportunity to see what we have preserved from the past so that it can be enjoyed both today and tomorrow.

Archaeological excavation is the method used by Archaeology, the science that attempts to reconstruct the history of human society by using material remains from the past. Excavation techniques vary depending on the nature of the site and the medium in which vestiges are found. Excavations cannot be the same, for instance, in a cave, on an open hill site, in the urban environment, or at an underwater site. Nevertheless, there are certain basic principles which always remain the same. All archaeological interventions start with the determination of the area to be investigated and the precise delimitation and identification of the zones, sectors or grids to be excavated. Thereafter, the sediments or deposits covering or surrounding the remains are extracted following artificial or natural layers. It is essential to adopt a precise measuring and reference system which can later be applied to the positions of the finds, permitting their exact localization and enabling the extraction process to be reconstructed. Each site is a unique and unreplaceable document which unfortunately has to be partially destroyed in order to be interpreted. This is why it is so important that archaeological investigation should be undertaken only by a sufficiently large interdisciplinary team permitting all information to be recovered and preserved for the future.

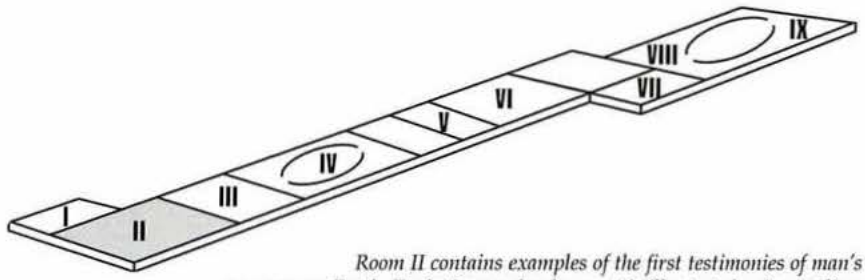


S.I.P. excavations
at La Bastida de les Alcuses (Moixent), around 1929.



S.I.P. excavations
at El Tossal de Sant Miquel (Llíria), around 1936.

◁
Silex tools from the Cova Negra (Xàtiva). Mousterian spearpoint, denticulate, scraper and flake. Middle Palaeolithic: between 120,000 and 35,000 years BP (before the present). Length of largest piece 6.9cm.



Room II contains examples of the first testimonies of man's presence on Earth. Evolutionary development is illustrated using replicas of fossilized hominid craniums found in Africa and Europe. These can be compared with a Homo sapiens sapiens *cranium found in the Parpalló cave in Gandia, dating from the beginning of the Upper Palaeolithic. The oldest traces of the presence of man in the Valencian region are a series of stone implements and animal remains from the lower levels of the Bolomor cave in Tavernes de Valldigna, dated at over 350,000 years before the present. Artifacts and animal remains from the Middle Palaeolithic have been unearthed in the Cova Negra in Xàtiva, the Petxina cave in Bellús and the Salt cave in Alcoi, dating from 120,000 to 35,000 years before the present. Of particular note are the Neanderthal remains discovered in the Cova Negra and the Bolomor cave.*

II. THE LOWER AND MIDDLE PALAEOLITHIC: THE FIRST INHABITANTS

The first stages in the process of man's development go back over 4 million years before the present. According to present-day knowledge, the stages corresponding to various types of Australopithecus man and *Homo habilis* were limited to African regions alone. But approximately one million years ago *Homo erectus* embarked upon the first expansion of mankind into Asia and Europe, bringing about the development of various evolutionary processes of a regional nature. This is why it is difficult today to consider *Homo erectus* as a definite type of man with universal characteristics. Instead, current scientific knowledge accepts the theory of a complex and heterogeneous evolutionary process in which certain African types, formerly classified as archaic *Homo sapiens*, played a central role in the process of the appearance of modern man in the anatomical sense.

In Europe and the Near East, regional evolutionary patterns resulted in *Homo erectus* populations developing into Neanderthals, characterized by their high cranial capacity and their strong facial features. The evaluation of their role in the process of the appearance of modern man in Europe is controversial. Some scientists think their influence was decisive, others maintain that their inability to mate with new human forms led to their extinction.

The Quaternary is the geological period in which man arose and developed. It is divided into the Pleistocene and the Holocene (or Recent) epochs or series. Despite the brevity of this period in geological terms, climatic phenomena producing the successive advance and retreat of the polar icecaps and the rise and fall in the level of the seas, bringing about changes in humid and arid zones, had great consequences for the development of man, both in respect of continental colonization and man's adaptation to varying surroundings.

The **Bolomor Cave (Tavernes de Valldigna, La Safor** district) is a key site for the study of the **Lower Palaeolithic** in the region. It overlooks a large expanse of the tectonic depression of La Valldigna and has sedimentary deposits over 7 metres in depth. It is therefore a prime source of information on the palaeo-environment and the cultural manifestations of the Middle Pleistocene, thanks to an abundance of remains of large and small mammals, and rock collections (flake tools) of pre-Mousterian and Lower Mousterian manufacture. In addition, the sequence of layers and their anthropic contents have been subjected to thermoluminescence dating. The oldest traces of inhabitation by man reach back to the Middle Pleistocene, perhaps at the time of the advance of the Mindel glaciation, over 350,000 years ago. The species of mankind existing at that time was *Homo erectus*, responsible for the majority of cultural manifestations in the Lower Palaeolithic. Valencian sites, however, have not yet provided fossil evidence of this precursor of modern man.

During the stages in which the Neanderthal culture was widespread, the Middle Palaeolithic, from 200,000 to 35,000 years before the present, findings of human fossils increase considerably. The rise of funeral rites explains this increase in documentation, amounting to some two hundred individuals found throughout Europe and the Near East. In the Valencian region, three sites have offered up bone remains corresponding to diverse anatomical parts of individuals of different ages. In Xàtiva's Cova Negra, remains of at least five individuals have been found, including both adults and children. The Bolomor cave has provided us with a child's molar. The Tossal de la Font site in Vilafamés provided a coxa and a humerus. All these are from Neanderthals, as evidenced by their chronological positions and their morphological characteristics, thereby confirming the importance of this group of humans along Spain's Mediterranean region.

The **Cova Negra (Xàtiva, La Costera** district), an impressive cavity overlooking the Albaida river, was one of the first archaeological sites to be researched in the region of Valencia. It was mentioned as far back as 1872 by J. Vilanova y Piera, and the continued attention it has received is fully justified by the rich potential of its sedimentary deposits, the wide time span it covers, the excellent preservation of the bone remains it contains and the exceptional importance of the human remains discovered there to date. The Cova Negra has enabled present-day researchers to determine the kind of fauna having existed in this region during the first stages of the Würm glaciation, the most recent Ice Age; both large herbivorous and carnivorous animals, and others of a smaller size—birds, bats, rodents. Thus, two significant associations can be described between animals on the one hand and temperature and humidity changes on the other, with reference to Würm I and Würm II. The first period shows remains of species pertaining to a relatively humid, arboreal environment, such as the ancient elephant (*Paleoloxodon antiquus*), Merck's rhinoceros (*Dicerorhinus kirchbergensis*), the fallow deer (*Dama sp.*), an equine (*Equus caballus*), a macaque (*Macaca sylvana*), the hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*) and a feline resembling the tiger (*Panthera spelaea*). The second period provides us with remains of species which were better adapted to life on the steppes, such as the steppe rhinoceros (*Dicerorhinus hemitoechus*), the deer (*Cervus elaphus*), the wild goat (*Capra pyrenaica*), the tahr (*Hemitragus sp.*), a leopard (*Panthera pardus*), the wolf (*Canis lupus*) and the dhole (*Cuon alpinus*).

The silex flakes found at excavation sites are practically the only evidence of commonplace tools having reached us from the Lower and Middle Palaeolithic. In all probability, these flakes were fixed to wooden handles using resin, then bound with vegetable fibre, animal tendons or strips of leather, as replicated even in our day in the technologies of existing hunting societies. These silex flakes were used to perform various domestic and subsistence tasks, as can be confirmed today by a microscopic analysis of their signs of usage and wear.

During the Middle Palaeolithic stone industries throughout Europe concentrate less attention on the production of core tools and show a clear preference for using flakes which have been retouched or having undergone a secondary working. Various methods were used to rework these flakes, and the choice seems to have been related to the characteristics and abundance of the existing raw material around a given site. Middle Palaeolithic industries cover a time-span close to two hundred thousand years, during which time no significant changes were shown in the type of manufacture and the shape of the instruments employed. This lack of evolution, the technical and morphological uniformity

Silex, quartz and limestone tools from the Cova de Bolomor (Tavernes de la Valldigna). Core, scrapers, notched pieces and denticulates. Lower Palaeolithic: over 250,000 years old. Length of largest piece 6.3cm.

Fossilized parietal bone of a *Homo sapiens neanderthalensis* found at Cova Negra. Outer and inner surface. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 BP. Length 12.0cm. (Photo: Liébana).

observed in the materials recovered from widespread geographical zones, and the lack of variety in tool types produced all seem to indicate that stone tools must have played a limited role as a means for man's adaptation to the environment. Despite this, the variety of the procedures used shows a certain amount of technological advancement and a capacity for adaptation to the nature of the raw materials available, and probably, to the conditioning factors derived from the provisional nature of the habitat and the type of food sources available.

Based on these and other data we can deduce that European Neanderthal populations were characterized by their highly adaptable economies, capable of integrating food sources derived from hunting and scavenging, and also by their high mobility. This capacity to move from place to place seems to have offset technological deficiencies and the lack of planning for obtaining resources.

At the Cova Negra, the taphonomic study of the bones—their marks, the variations shown in different skeletal remains having been documented, their dispersion, etc.—enables us to conjecture that both Neanderthal inhabitants and carnivores often carried the remains of herbivores to the cave. Among the carnivores, the hyena was the most active during Würm I, whereas the dhole and wolf were more important during Würm II and the beginning of III, concentrating on the capture of medium-sized mammals such as the tahr and wild goat. On the other hand, the remains of small prey, such as rabbits, were mostly contributed by birds of prey using the walls of the cave as perches and regurgitating onto the cave floor. Signs of habitation by man, alternating with the carnivores, show that deer, goats and equines were captured and taken to the cave as food for Neanderthal man.

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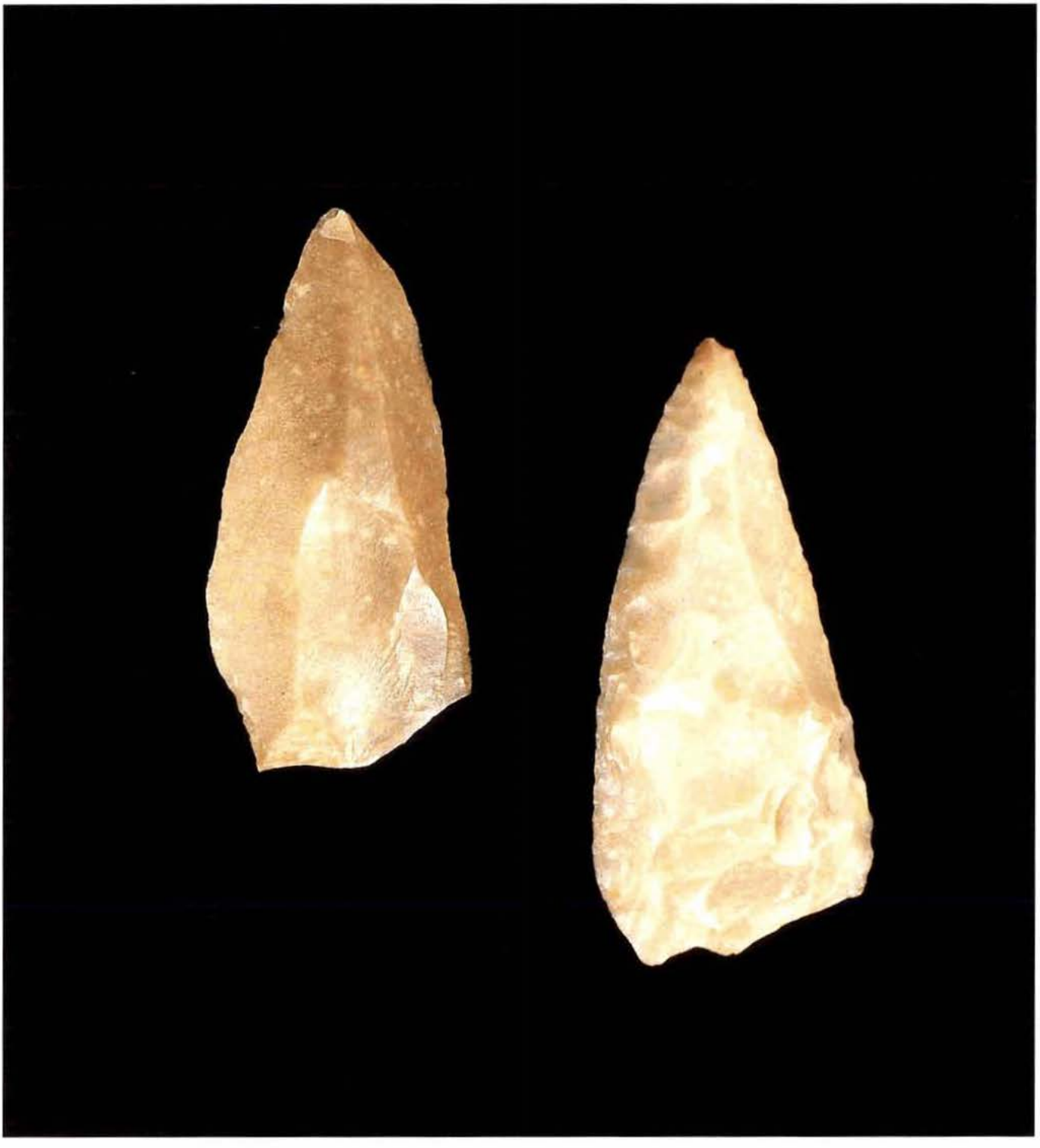
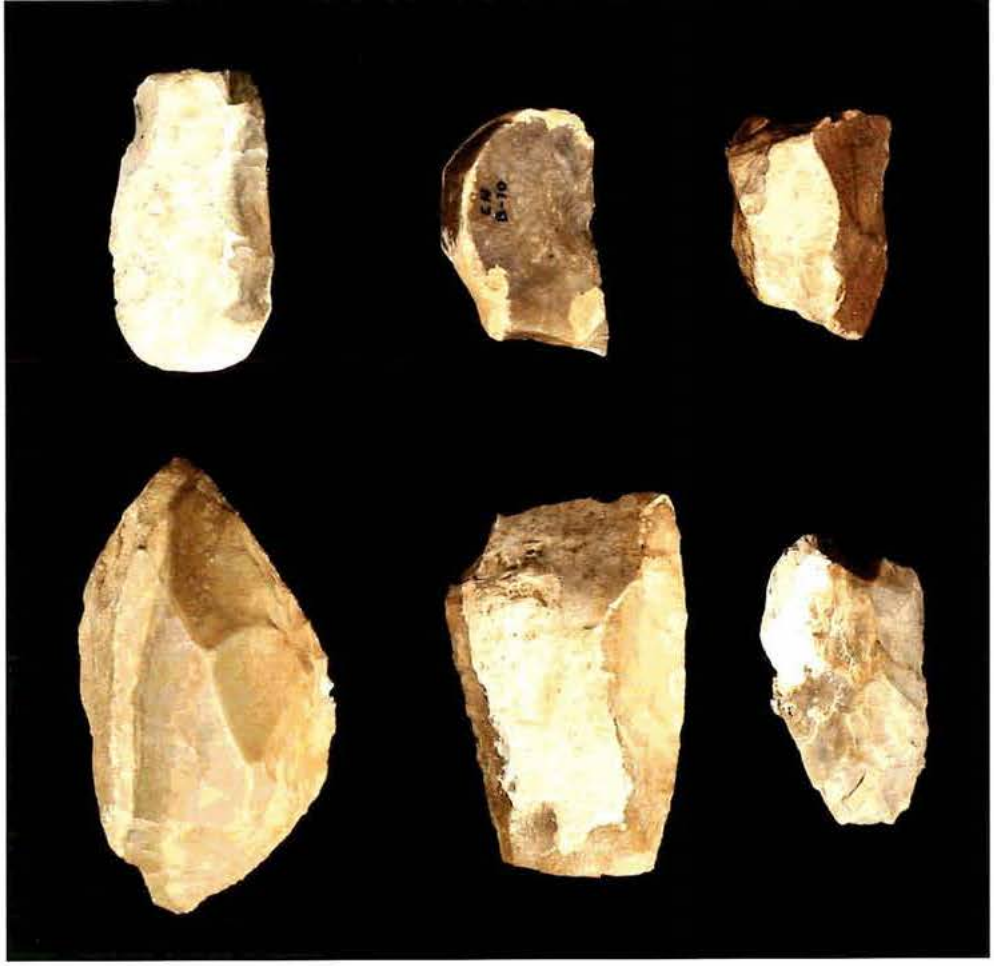
Remains of Pleistocene animals from the Cova Negra. Left to right: Molars of Merck's rhinoceros (*Dicerorhinus kirchbergensis*), metacarpal and phalangeal bones of a steppe rhinoceros (*Dicerorhinus hemitoechus*), tusk and molar of an ancient elephant (*Palaeoloxodon antiquus*). Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Length of tusk: 27.0cm.

Bifacially flaked siliceous limestone tools from Cova Negra. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 12.5cm.

Silex, quartzite and siliceous limestone tools from Cova Negra. Para-Charentian-industry denticulates and scrapers. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 8.5cm.



Silex points from Cova Negra. Soyons point and Mousterian point. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Lengths 4.8 and 5.3cm.



Silex tools from Cova Negra. Scrapers and piece with Clactonian notch from a Quina-type industry. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 7.0cm.

Remains of Pleistocene animals from Cova Negra. Metapodial and phalangeal bones of various felines. Right to left: lynx (*Felis [lynx] pardina*), leopard (*Panthera pardus*) and cavern lion. Middle Palaeolithic: from 120,000 to 35,000 years BP. Length of largest bone 13.5cm.

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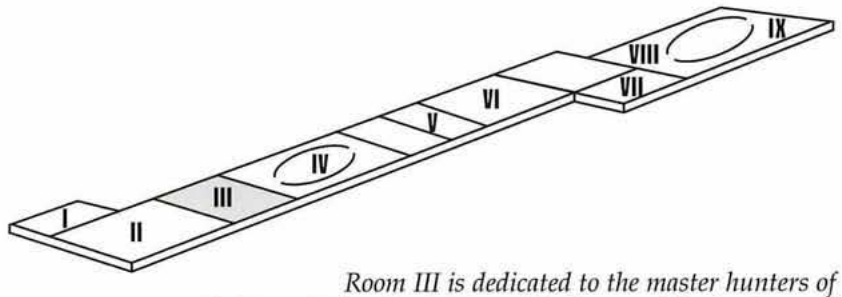
Doubled-pointed and single-pointed antler javelin tips from Cova de les Mallaetes (Barx). Aurignacian bone industry: from 35,000 to 25,000 years BP. Lengths 22.0 and 13.0cm.



Room III is dedicated to the master hunters of the Upper Palaeolithic. Materials discovered in the Parpalló cave in Gandia, the Mallaetes cave in Barx, Cendres cave in Moraira, Volcán cave in Faro de Cullera, Ratlla del Bubo cave in Crevillent and the Senda Vedada rock shelter in Sumacàrcer all correspond to the appearance of modern man. Stone and bone implements evolved, man's activities widened and his hunting methods became more perfected. New patterns of territorial occupation can be seen, and there is also evidence of climatic changes and variations in the coastline occurring during the Upper Palaeolithic, between 35,000 and 10,000 years before the present.

III. THE UPPER PALAEOLITHIC: THE MASTER HUNTERS

The Upper Palaeolithic is the age when modern man makes his appearance. This is the most complex and documented stage of man's prehistoric development, the age of skilled hunters and food gatherers. The process began some 35,000 years ago, starting with Würm III, and continued for 25,000 years during which a variety of cultures spread across Europe, constituting a magnificent example of the degree of social and cultural complexity that can be achieved by groups which are perfectly adapted to the resources offered by their environment, going far beyond mere subsistence levels.

A great many advances were made during the Upper Palaeolithic with respect to the Middle Palaeolithic. Hunting became much more efficient, thanks to the refinement of hunting techniques and the use of blades which could be thrown; raw materials were used more efficiently, implying a gradual decrease of dependency on localized sources of supply; more specialized tools were incorporated and greater diversity was shown in toolmaking. New concepts in stone working brought about by the development of the blade-making industry (blades which were longer rather than wider) enabling the cutting edge of the material to be increased considerably with respect to its weight in silex. In addition to the use of wood as in former times, bone and antler were brought into play. Complex funeral rites became widespread, and greater attention was paid to structuring dwellings, and both wall painting and portable art were introduced.

In the region of Valencia, the first Upper Palaeolithic industries correspond to the late **Aurignacian** period—the typical Aurignacian period in which javelins with bone blades were used, as we can see in the Mallaetes cave in Barx—, meaning that *Homo sapiens sapiens* was present here, although the extent of his occupation of local territories was still limited to only a few settle-

ments. Slowly but surely, however, during the Gravettian period, some 25,000 years before the present, the number of sites began to increase, showing characteristic Gravette points, pieces with abrupt retouching, and scrapers, all of which presented a series of specifically Mediterranean characteristics showing great originality and dynamics.

Around 21,000 years ago, in the last stages of Würm III and during the Würm III-IV interstadial, Western Europe, and particularly the Iberian peninsula and France, was the site of the Solutrean culture, which marked the true turning point in Palaeolithic times. The **Solutrean** signified a notable change in the composition and type of stone implements, something which is shown in the use of flat retouching techniques that gave rise to a type of point with no known antecedents. It was a technical procedure for the improvement of stone materials intended to make points for darts or spears, as the flat retouching work propitiated the obtention of good-sized points with straight-edged longitudinal sections. Each phase of the Solutrean produced its own specific type of point, giving rise to the so-called **Iberian facets** found at Valencian sites. Perhaps the points that best represent the uniqueness of these facets are those showing a peduncle and wings from the Upper Solutrean, documented in great number and variety of forms in the Parpalló cave of Gandia. Appearing together with these are eared points, which were more original than their successors in the local Solutrean.

Finally, more than in any other stage of the Palaeolithic, it is in the **Magdalenian**, starting about 16,000 years before the present and developing over approximately six millennia until the end of the last glaciation, that a veritable treasure-horde of objects and utensils in bone and antler were produced. The shapes of these objects do not present much doubt concerning the uses to which they were put, and we can therefore find points for javelins, pins, sewing needles, spatulas, retouchers, pestles, etc., or necklaces, whistles, rattles, harpoons, slings, hooks, etc. When the shapes of objects do not clearly indicate their use, we can think of them as simple adornments, or tool handles or perforated sticks, or as ritual objects and others which are exclusively artistic, such as rods and plaques.

The **Mallaetes cave (Barx, La Safor** district) is located in one of the northernmost peaks of the Mondúver massif. It has a stratigraphic sequence that covers a good part of the Upper Palaeolithic and also includes the initial phases of the Mesolithic, supplementing at certain points in time the finds from the neighbouring Parpalló cave, owing especially to its Aurignacian levels showing the first manifestations of modern man. Another interesting feature of this site is that it helps to reconstruct the palaeoenvironment at the end of the Würm glaciation, complementing studies undertaken using the methods of sedimentology and palynology. Thus, the Mallaetes cave, Cova Negra and the Bolomor cave cover practically 300,000 years of climatic and cultural events having occurred in the prehistory of the region of Valencia.

The **Parpalló cave (Gandia, La Safor** district), located in the rocky southern side of the Mondúver massif, owes its discovery as a prehistoric site to J. Vilanova y Piera in 1866. Major excavations of the site were undertaken in 1929 and 1931 under the supervision of Ll. Pericot. The results were published in 1942, in a now classic work that permitted Valencian Upper Palaeolithic sequences and characteristics to be established for the first time, while proving their similarity with other European Palaeolithic sites. This was possible thanks to excellent stratigraphic deposits measuring over 8 metres in depth and to the wealth of materials unearthed here, including important stone and bone implements, adornments, and human and animal remains, plus other testimonies of occupation of the cave by human populations down through the ages. But above all, the Parpalló cave became famous for its 5,000 engraved and painted limestone plaques which were found on all levels of the site, offering a broad overview of artistic sequences in Upper Palaeolithic art.

Hunting societies were at the forefront of a continual search for improvements in **weapons** with the aim of achieving both greater precision in shooting and a more lethal effect when weapons were launched, and also a simpler process of manufacture and repair. Apart from the new developments registered at the beginning of the Upper Palaeolithic with the appearance of points which were lighter than those of the Mousterian, possibly de-

Juvenile *Homo sapiens sapiens* cranium, probably female, found in the Parpalló cave (Gandia). Lower Solutrean level: from 21,000 to 19,000 years BP. (Photo: Liébana).

Silex tools from Cova de les Mallaetes. Gravette points and Gravettian leafs and backed points: from 25,000 to 21,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 6.2cm.

signed for use with throwers, there were others revealing manufacturing techniques increasingly adapted to more precise functions, in which greater efficacy was progressively observed. This is the case of the first documented thrower hooks from the Solutrean, made from antler for assembly on wooden handles; or the rods and javelins with channels cut into them for the insertion of microliths to create barbed points; or harpoons and fishhooks for the improvement of fishing techniques.

Compared to the uniform nature of Mousterian instruments, Upper Palaeolithic stone and bone industries present differences of a regional character indicating that material culture played an important role in adaptation to local surroundings, as each type of resource seems to have generated its own class of implement and each group adopted its own stylistic features, signifying a deliberate search for identity. These changes affected the habitat and the economy, and man developed new ways to occupy territories and more sophisticated systems of using natural resources.

With respect to the **habitat**, the idea that caves constituted the only place of habitation of Palaeolithic man is not entirely true, as although in glacial times man did take advantage of the shelter they offered as protection against inclemencies, it is also true that he frequently built camps in the open air when the circumstances arose. Cavities were never occupied directly; instead they were used for mounting tents, windbreaks and palisades that would help to maintain habitable conditions. It can be stated generally that in areas occupied by Upper Palaeolithic hunters there were different functional orientations for each particular site, with considerable differences being observed between base camps, occupied during longer periods by a larger group of people, and specialized camps used for hunting or food-gathering work, being occupied by a smaller number of persons. Evidence of fires, remains of food and material workmanship and other vestiges of human activities all enable us to deduce the structure and layout of these camps, with indications as to their function and their seasonal occupation.

In the Parpalló cave and the Mallaetes cave, ie, throughout the majority of the Upper Palaeolithic, goats and deer are the species providing most of the meat eaten by hunting societies, with horses, aurochs and rabbits providing additional though less copious provender. Economies at the end of the Upper Palaeolithic show a greater amount of specialization. Sites from this period such as the **Cendres cave (Teulada-Moraira, La Marina Baixa** district) provide animal references dominated by only one species of hoofed animal: either the deer or the goat. Complementing this species are the

Silex points from the Parpalló cave. Laurel-leaf style from the Middle Solutrean: from 19,000 to 17,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 7.3cm.

Silex points from the Parpalló cave. Peduncle and winged points from the late Solutrean: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 5.3cm.

remains of rabbits, abundant in number but of course providing less food than hoofed animals. These food resource patterns correspond to a certain type of territorial occupation in which Magdalenian peoples inhabited different zones in accordance with the seasonal habits of certain animals. Deer and goats are species covering short migrational areas, they are territorial and have mating and reproductive patterns which are fairly foreseeable. Hunting for young animals at times when they will provide the maximum amount of food and the alternate use of coastal flatlands and the mountainous areas ensured that both deer and goats could be used for food without endangering their reproductive cycles. The rabbit, on the other hand, a gregarious animal characterized by a high reproduction rate but limited to a narrower territory, was a complementary food resource for times of greater nutritional stress.

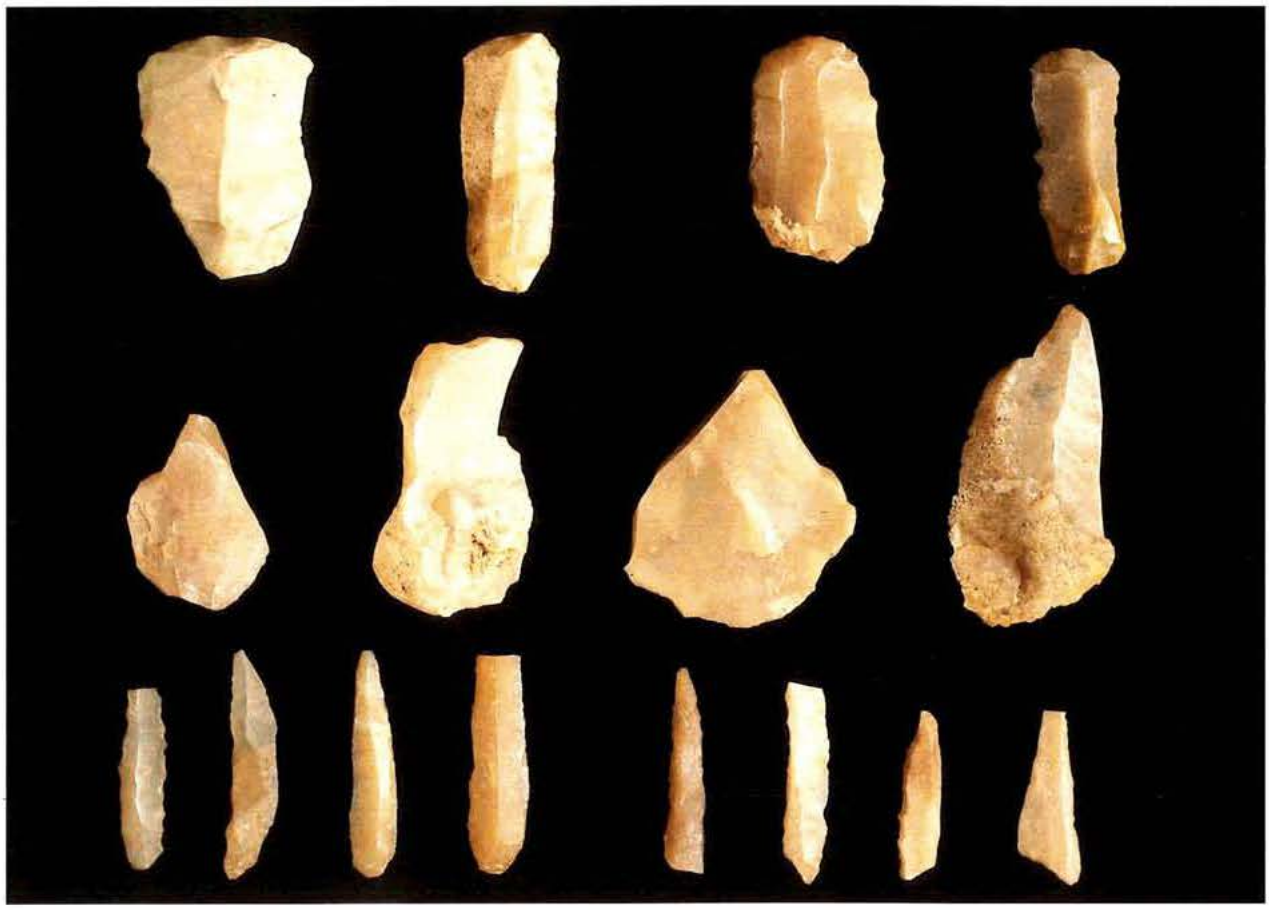
With the appearance of modern man came the first objects used for adornment. Burials and remains recovered at sites inhabited by men from the Aurignacian pay testimony to the fact that hunters from Europe's Upper Palaeolithic wore a variety of pearls, shells and perforated teeth on their clothing, and in addition possessed small sculptures, which together with collars and other types of pendants, contributed to their personal ornamentation.

The amount of attention which must have been paid to these elements, their standardization and layout on visible parts of the body seem to indicate a function linked to communication, capable of facilitating identification of the roles played by different individuals or sexes and their group identity. A predilection for shells or teeth of certain animals and of certain shapes, like the representation of animals and signs of artwork, demonstrate the existence of symbolism. Art and adornment came about at practically the same time and confirm early man's capacity for developing a system of communication which, owing to its widespread geographical distribution, must have had an adaptive character, linked to the maintenance of the necessary social networks guaranteeing survival of Palaeolithic groups in a sparsely populated habitat.

Double points and monobevelled javelins with decorated bases, in bone and antler, from the Parpalló cave. Solutrean-Gravettian bone industry: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 10.5cm.

Silex tools from the Parpalló cave. Scrapers, pieces with abrupt and over-elevated retouching and denticulate flakes from the Lower Magdalenian: between 16,000 and 14,000 years BP. Length of largest piece 3.7cm.

Bone needles, decorated antler and bone shafts from the Parpalló cave. Upper Magdalenian bone industry: between 14,000 and 10,500 years BP. Length of largest piece 7.9cm.



Silex tools from the Parpalló cave.
Scrapers, burins and backed flakes from the Upper Magdalenian: between 14,000 and 10,500 years BP.
Length of largest piece 3.7cm.

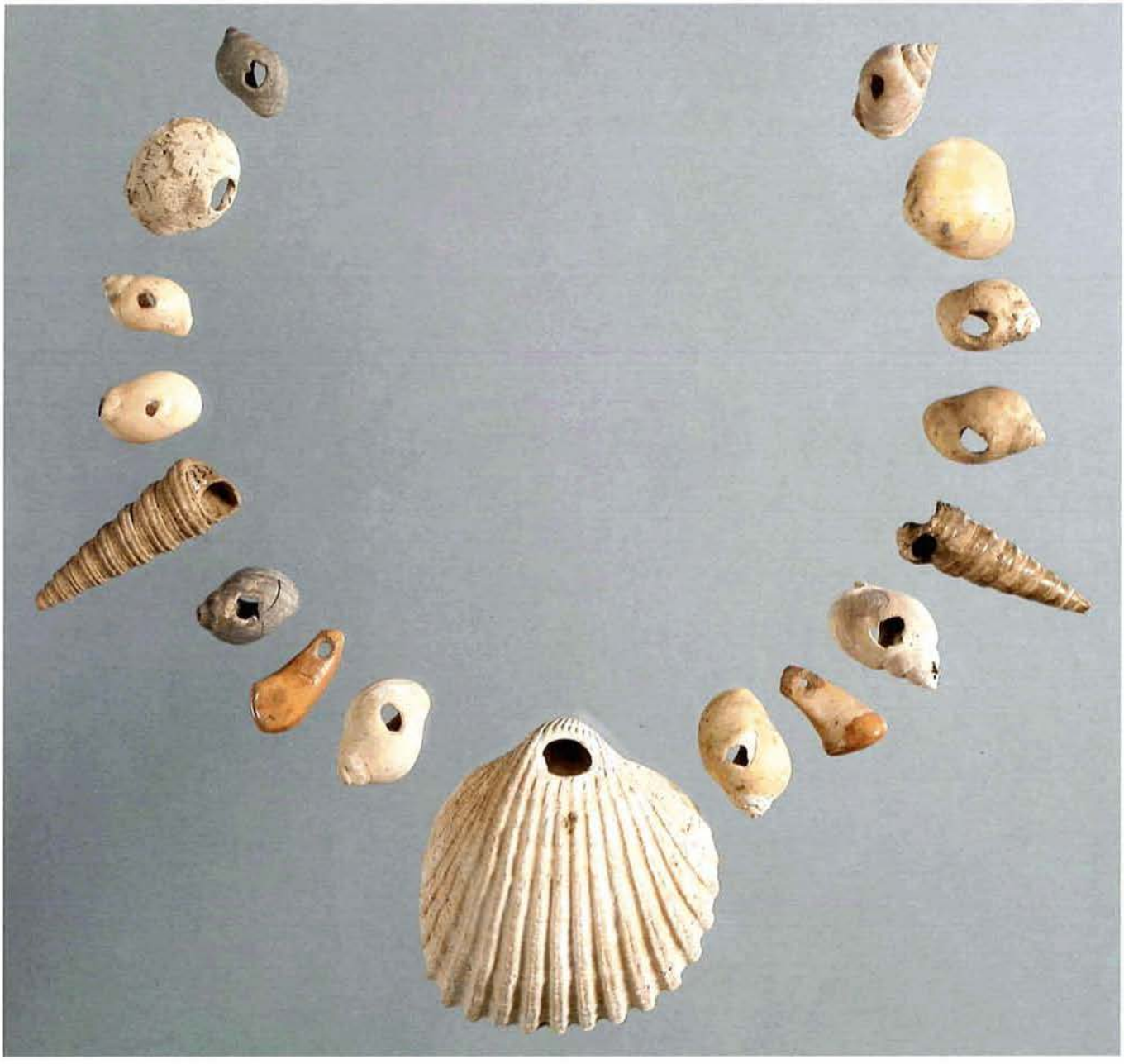
Well-developed harpoons with rounded barbs, double point and bevelled javelins in antler and bone, from the Parpalló cave.
Upper Magdalenian bone industry: between 14,000 and 10,500 years bp.
Length of largest piece 9.1cm.

Denticulate-edged silex laurel leaf from the Volcán cave in Faro (Cullera).
Upper Solutrean: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP.
Length 5.5cm.

Perforated bone staff from the Volcán cave in Faro (Cullera).
Magdalenian bone industry: between 15,000 and 10,000 years BP.
Length 24.0cm.

Silex and bone tools from the Senda Vedada rock shelter (Sumacàrcer). Scrapers, burins, backed flakes and a javelin point fragment from the Magdalenian: between 15,000 and 10,500 years BP. Length of javelin point: 6.9cm.

Perforated *Pecten jacobeus* shells with remains of ochre from the Parpalló cave, possibly used as colour palettes. Upper Palaeolithic: between 25,000 and 10,500 years BP. Lengths 10.0, 10.5 and 10.7cm.



Personal adornments from the Parpalló cave.
Different types of shells and teeth used as pendants or to form a necklace.
Upper Palaeolithic: between 25,000 and 10,500 years BP. Length of largest piece 7.3cm.

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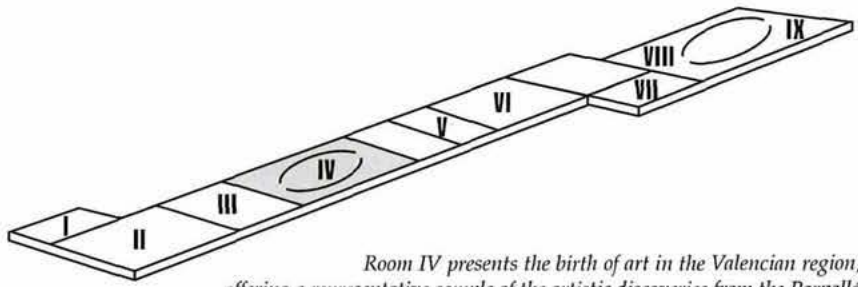
Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave. Tree-shape painted in red and separate, superimposed straight lines. Upper Magdalenian: between 14,000 and 10,000 years BP. Size: 10.9 x 6.6cm.



Room IV presents the birth of art in the Valencian region, offering a representative sample of the artistic discoveries from the Parpalló cave of Gandia, where stone plaques were engraved and painted throughout the Upper Palaeolithic. These exhibits summarize the evolution of techniques and the development of both animal and sign motifs, covering more than 15,000 years. The Parpalló cave is an essential reference point for European prehistoric art.

IV. PALAEOLITHIC ART: ANIMALS AND SIGNS

Throughout the 25,000 years of the **Upper Palaeolithic** culture, European hunters and food gatherers produced diverse types of artistic manifestations. Of note among these were the artistic creations drawn and painted on cave walls and the faces of rock overhangs and shelters, and also on portable flat slabs of stone, on which animals are associated with signs in a strongly symbolic display. This initial art created by man coincides with the appearance of modern man, marking yet another milestone in the evolutionary process of the species.

Various continents have provided evidence of palaeolithic art, although Europe, particularly its westernmost regions, has the largest concentration of prehistoric sites where artwork has been found. Technical, stylistic and thematic characteristics enable us to define an evolutionary cycle whose origins go back to the Aurignacian and whose endpoint comes at the start of the Holocene.

The Parpalló cave near Gandia, as we have mentioned before, covers the largest part of the Upper Palaeolithic, from the Gravettian to the Magdalenian. The fifteen millennia to which its 5,612 stone plaques can be dated provide a summary of the evolution of techniques and themes, and because they refer to stratified and industrial sequences they enables us to serialize European palaeolithic art and assign dates of manufacture which are much more precise than stylistic methods.

The plaques are decorated using graffito or painting, or a combination of these techniques. Graffito was done using silex instruments, apparently without a sketch being performed before the actual drawing. Painting, which is truly exceptional in portable Palaeolithic art, offers examples of both plain colours and linear patterns, using natural mineral colorants such as hematites and ochres.

In summary, two large temporal groups can be distinguished at the Parpalló cave: an ancient period,

encompassing stages of the Solutrean, and another more recent period including certain moments of the Magdalenian. In the earliest times, graffito techniques were simple lines, double lines and multiple lines, with painting of great importance; animal figuration is somewhat out of proportion, perspectives are archaic, and signs are very rudimentary. As of the Middle Solutrean the first structured signs being to appear, with an abundance of rectangular and reticulated themes; at the same time, we can see zoomorphic shapes in which disproportions are attenuated and for the first time there are signs of attention to detail, such as mottled skin and volumes in some scenes.

At the beginning of the Magdalenian, paints disappear in animal drawings and engraving techniques begin to change, giving rise to simple but deep lines and the practical disappearance of all other types of lines. Animals are often represented using one single profile, with only the front leg being shown, and signs become more complicated and are frequently combined on one single plaque. At the end of the Magdalenian figures acquire a certain degree of perfection both in proportion and in perspective, with more attention being given to anatomical details—mouths, lips, eyes—, signs show more preference for geometrics and there is a tendency to make use of the entire plaque.

In general, **Palaeolithic art** offers an important lineup of animals, an appreciable number of signs, with only very rare attention being paid to the human figure. In the Parpalló cave, as we have seen, the species contributing the largest number of individuals are the bovines, the equines, deer and goats, with more infrequent appearances being put in by wild boars, foxes, lynxes, a few canines of uncertain identity, a partridge and a member of the duck family. We should bear in mind that the distribution of certain species is subject to climatic imperatives, which therefore limits the themes used in art in Spain's Mediterranean region, where there were no mammoths, rhinoceroses or bisons or large cats. The signs show an evolution featuring two important moments: one characterized by the predominance of rectangular themes, pertaining to the Solutrean, and another, the Magdalenian, in which manufacturing is complicated by the combination of ladder-like shapes, bands of lines cut in parallel and bands formed by little crosses in parallel lines. As for the human figure, there are only marginal references in the art found at the Parpalló cave and it is so simplified as to lie on the limits of the identifiable.

Independently of the meaning these creations may have had for their creators, Palaeolithic art can be valued in accordance with its themes and the role it may have played depending on hunting societies. In the present case, as stated above, themes are reduced in essence to animals and signs. The former coincide with the herbivores most frequently used as sources of food, yet the way they are represented is not linked to hunting scenes, their surroundings or their group behaviour, and can be interpreted as having a symbolic value. The signs, showing a repetition of themes, associated ideas and positions within rock shelter animal groups, also indicate the existence of definite rules of expression.

Concerning the role of such art, the changes taking place in Upper Palaeolithic societies had their impact on the function of art, as artwork prior to 18,000 years before the present can be differentiated from later work as of the Upper Solutrean. In the first period there are few stylistic or thematic features when compared to other regions of western Europe. The location of artistic finds tends to be in the higher parts of caves, perhaps functioning as a means of communication between highly mobile groups at times of low population levels. The representations, easily discernible and using themes of a universal character, would tend to favour contact between groups with well-knit social networks.

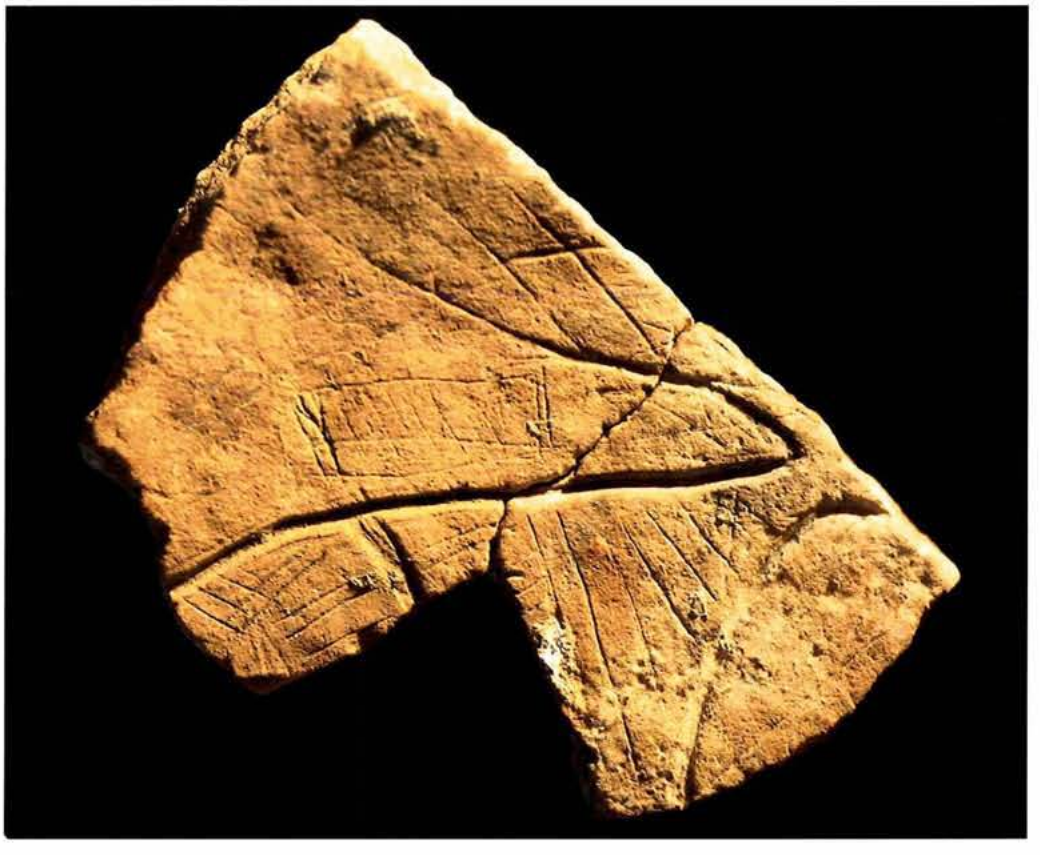
During the end of the Solutrean and above all in the Lower Magdalenian period, coinciding with times of maximum climatic rigour, European Palaeolithic art shows a process of regionalization affecting both the themes of artwork, using signs which are specific to each separate territory, and the style of the works, evincing a strong relation between representational modes and territorial units. It is at this time that the strongest trend can be observed towards locating wall paintings in areas well removed from the light and from what look like living quarters. This seems to indicate that art played a cohesive role within the group executing it, combining the transmission of information with the establishment of group identity bonds, and coinciding with the development of closed social networks composed of hunting groups moving over short-radius territories.

Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave. Doe painted in black, superimposed with two incised equine figures, partially re-using the original representation. Lower Solutrean: between 21,000 and 19,000 years BP. Size: 19.1 x 12.9cm.

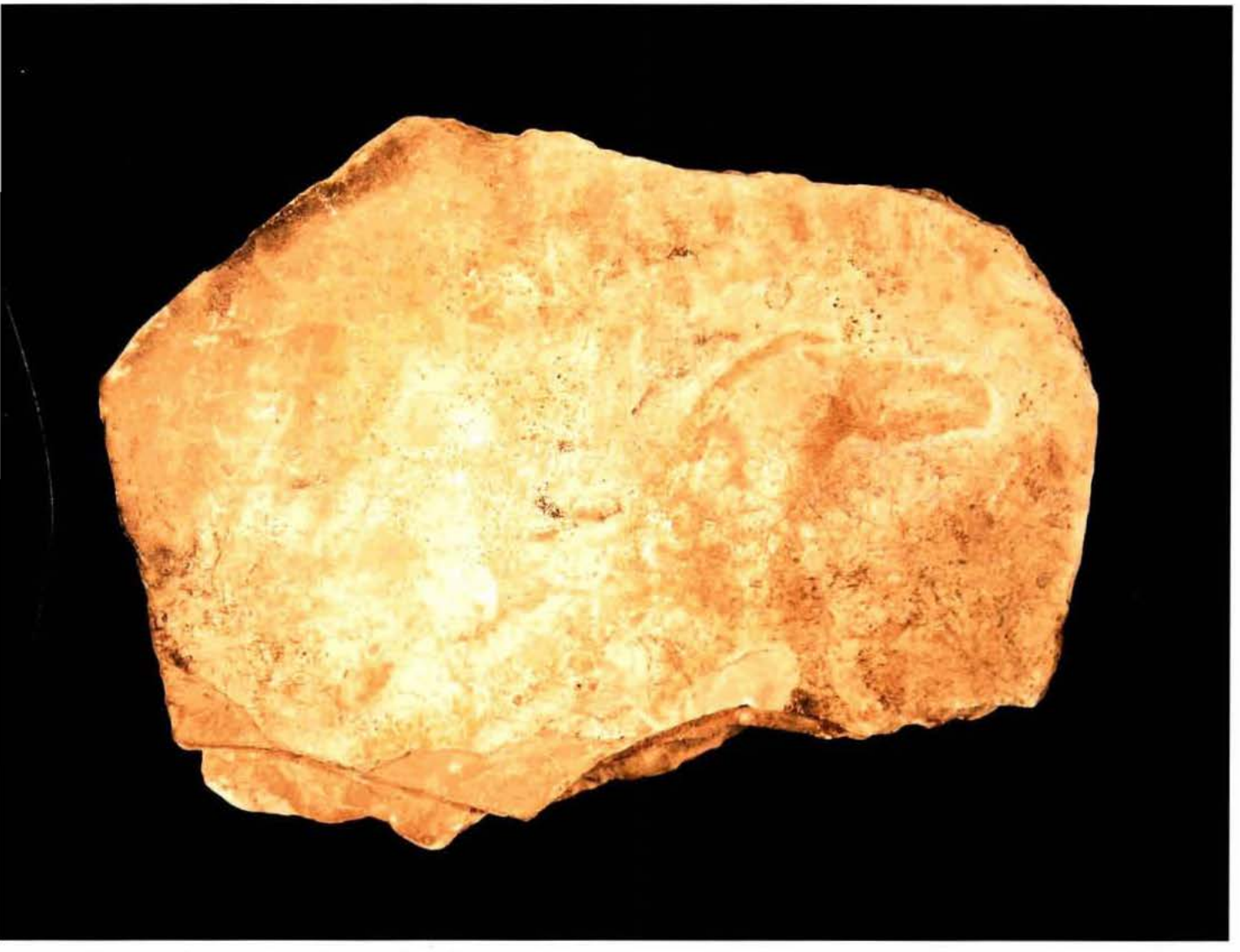
Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave. Doe incised with simple lines. Middle Solutrean: between 19,000 and 17,000 years BP. Size: 10.5 x 6.5cm.

Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave. Doe outline incised with simple lines and filled in with parallel lines. Outside the figure are parallel lines articulated with the infill lines. Upper Solutrean: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP. Size: 10.5 x 12.2cm.

Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave, showing a doe with two fawns under her legs, incised with multiple lines, and a superimposed, single-line equine figure. Solutrean-Gravettian I: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP. Size: 8.8 x 4.2cm.



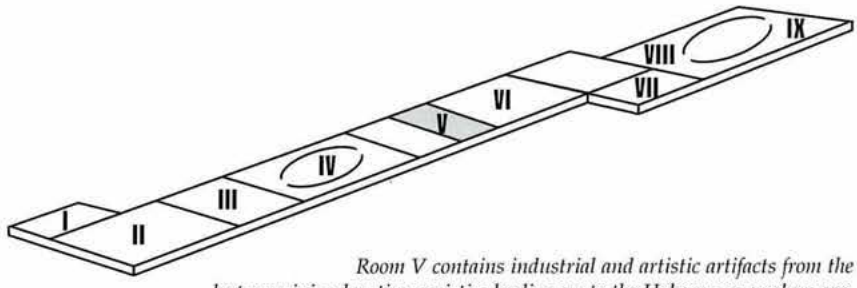
Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave, showing a caprine figure, repeated, and a non-naturalistic infill forming a gridwork; over the animal's shoulder is a rectangular sign. Upper Solutrean: between 17,000 and 16,000 years BP. Size: 8.3 x 5.9cm.



Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave, showing an equine figure painted in red, with mane partially scraped off and band of short painted strokes. Solutrean-Gravettian III: between 17,000 and 16,000 years bp. Size: 37.5 x 27.1cm.

Decorated limestone plaque from the Parpalló cave, showing superimposed bovines incised with compound lines and an equine engraved with simple line. Lower Magdalenian: between 16,000 and 14,000 years bp. Size: 7.9 x 5.6cm.

◁
Limestone plaque decorated with engraved geometric motifs from the Cocina cave (Dos Aguas). Geometric Epipalaeolithic: approximately 7,000 years BP. Length: 7.2cm.



Room V contains industrial and artistic artifacts from the last remaining hunting societies leading up to the Holocene or modern age, from 10,000 to 7,000 years before the present. The materials shown here were unearthed in the Mallaetes cave in Barx, the Llatas cave in Andilla, and above all, the Cocina cave in Dos Aguas, where a series of small plaques engraved with geometric motifs were discovered.

V. THE MESOLITHIC: THE LAST HUNTERS

The end of the Palaeolithic, leading up to the Recent of Holocene age, did not bring about the end of hunting societies. From 10,000 to 7,000 years before the present, up until the time of the first agricultural societies along the western Mediterranean, the way of life continued to consist of traditional activities of hunting and gathering. During this period temperatures increased abruptly, producing a thermal maximum about 7,000 years ago which was higher than today, bringing about a rapid recession of the glaciers and the spread of the forests, as well as a pronounced rise in the sea level, producing the flooding of the coastline.

This is the period that corresponds to the last of the great hunters of the Stone Age, and we call it the Mesolithic or the Epipalaeolithic. The concept of the Epipalaeolithic is used to express continuity with the techniques and economy of the Palaeolithic, as is the case in the Valencian region. The Mesolithic, on the other hand, has a chronological meaning, referring to the intermediate stage between the Palaeolithic and the Neolithic, or New Stone Age, which also has an economic meaning in that it can be applied to groups of hunters who initiated the transition to food production techniques in areas such as the Near East.

Testimonies of the last hunters in this region can be grouped into two cultural complexes, known as the **Microlaminar Epipalaeolithic** and the **Geometric Epipalaeolithic**. Material examples corresponding to these two phases of development have been found in the Mallaetes cave in Barx, and the Cocina cave in Dos Aguas, respectively. Their names were derived from the type of points used for making arrows and javelins. Microlaminar points were almost exclusively used for small silex points made from shards that

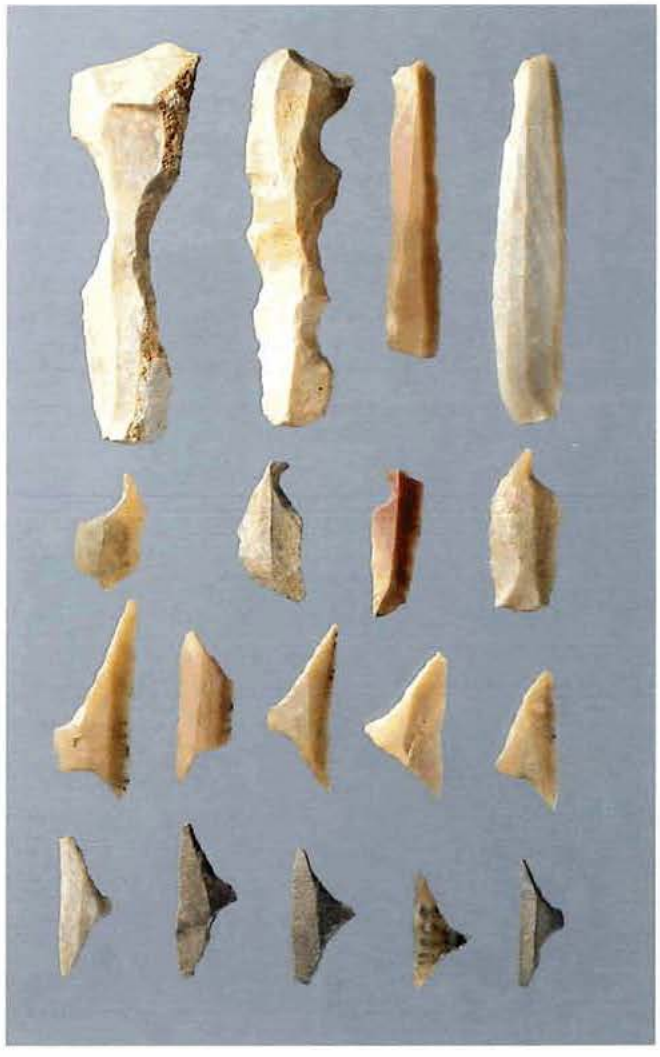
rarely exceeded 3 centimetres in length. Geometric points, on the other hand, might have been formed from small shards, but they were always geometric in shape (trapezoids, triangles or segments of circles) and were obtained using a special fracturing technique of the laminar supports.

In this phase the bow was certainly used, permitting precision shooting that was much greater than ancient spear or arrow throwing. The microlithic character of the industries, a technical feature which was common to Holocene hunters, is linked to the generalization of compound tools, as both arrows and javelins are made up of various denticulated silex insertions in the same wooden shaft.

The Cocina cave (Dos Aguas, la Hoya de Buñol) is the most representative site of the Geometric Epipalaeolithic period along the Mediterranean coastline of the Iberian peninsula, having provided an important amount of information on the climate, scenery and economic activities of the people who inhabited this grotto between 8,000 and 5,000 years before the present. One of the most outstanding finds in this cave was the artwork, including both portable and mural varieties, which has been preserved. This artwork comprises a series of portable stone slabs bearing incised lines corresponding to a time immediately before the appearance of the first ceramic remains at this site. Abstraction, linearity, geometrics and bilateral symmetries are clearly shown in some examples, yet their meaning remains a mystery. These examples of portable art are complemented by a series of remains of paintings of broken lines done in red ochre on the walls of the cave, which were covered by layers of sedimentary deposits. This artwork receives the name of **linear-geometric art**. All indicatations seem to point to an artistic episode whose initial phase coincides with the first impacts from the Neolithic age.

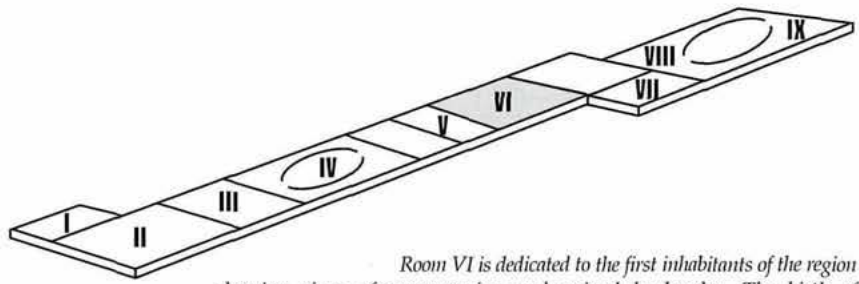
Silex tools from the Cocina cave. Scrapers, notched blades and trapeziums from the Cocina I phase. Geometric Epipalaeolithic: between 8,000 and 7,500 years BP. Length of largest piece: 4.8cm.

Silex tools from the Cocina cave. Blades with signs of use, notched blades, microburins, trapeziums, triangles and "Cocina"-type triangles from the Cocina II phase. Geometric Epipalaeolithic: between 7,500 and 7,000 years BP. Length of largest piece: 4.9cm.



Silex tools from the Covacha de Llatas cave (Andilla). Blades with signs of use, notched blades, trapeziums, triangles and doubled-edged segments. Geometric Epipalaeolithic: between 7,000 and 6,500 years BP. Length of largest piece: 3.8cm.

◁
Globular-bodied ceramic jug with elongated neck and cardial impressions from the Cova de l'Or (Beniarrés). Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BC. Height: 28.3cm.



Room VI is dedicated to the first inhabitants of the region showing signs of crop-growing and animal husbandry. The birth of agriculture is a phenomenon of Mediterranean origin which is well documented in this area as of 7,000 years before the present. It was at this time that new materials were introduced, particularly ceramics, new plants were grown and animals were domesticated. The materials furnished by the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés and the Sarsa cave in Bocairent reflect changes in lifestyle, with new implements in stone flake, polished stone, bone, and most particularly, the perfection of the first ceramic wares decorated using cardium shell impressions prior to firing.

VI. THE NEOLITHIC: THE FIRST FARMERS

Tilling the soil to plant crops and breeding domesticated animals is the natural way to obtain food today, but these activities were completely unknown to men of the Palaeolithic and the Mesolithic. By adapting to this new way of life, human societies initiated a new stage of development which we now call the **Neolithic**. This term originally had a chronological and technological meaning, because the Stone Age was separated into an old period, or Palaeolithic, and another newer stage, the Neolithic, characterized by the appearance of new tools made using polished stone, a development which occurred in what is called the Recent period in geological terms. The word Neolithic today, however, has come to mean a period in which man's economic activities changed primarily from hunting and gathering to planting and harvesting and animal husbandry, bringing with it sedentary populations, an increase in the number of human groups, more complex social structures and new religious beliefs.

It was in the Near East, specifically in the area of Syria and Palestine and in the foothills of the Zagros Mountains in Iraq and Iran, where the first steps towards the production of food from the soil were made in the tenth and eleventh millennia before Christ. The favourable biogeographical conditions of this region, with an abundance of vegetable and animal resources which were easily exploitable and potentially tamable, in addition to the intensification of food gathering and storage practices, propitiated man's settlement in villages comprising groups of mesolithic or epipalaeolithic hunters and the initial development of agricultural and livestock-raising economies.

The incorporation on the Iberian peninsula of this new lifestyle, based on wheat and barley growing and the rearing of goats and sheep, formed part of a pro-

cess that extended throughout coastal areas of the Mediterranean, from east to west, throughout the sixth millennium. In the region of Valencia, approximately 5,000 years before Christ, there are numerous archaeological sites, the majority of which are caves, showing a material cultural including ceramic recipients, silex axes, bone spoons and rings, bracelets and axes of polished stone, among many other elements which were formerly unknown, plus the remains of cultivated cereals and domestic animals. These are the testimonies of the first farming communities which shared the territory with the last groups of hunter-gatherers, albeit for a relatively short time.

Pottery is one of the new arrivals in the Neolithic. The oldest ceramics in the Mediterranean zone present a special type of decoration placed on the objects before they were fired using mainly one type of instrument, the edge of the *Cardium edule* shell, giving rise to the name of cardial ceramics. The distribution of these ceramic wares along the coasts of the Mediterranean, corresponding to the time of impressed pottery cultures, together with the settlement of the islands and the gradual influx of Neolithic lifestyles from east to west, reinforce the concept of the Mediterranean having always been an important source of culture.

The study of decoration styles on ceramic wares and of stratigraphic layers at archaeological sites are the major references used for establishing the **evolution of the Neolithic in the region of Valencia**. The first stage, the Lower Neolithic, is characterized by the predominance of cardial pottery and spans the fifth millennium before Christ. The next period, called the Middle Neolithic, is associated with the disappearance of cardial ornamentation, which was replaced by incised, channelled and printed decorations made using a variety of instruments. This style, although it was known in the former period, became dominant at this time. The final stage, or Upper Neolithic, started in the fourth millennium before Christ, and is marked primarily by scratchwork decorations, although ceramic production soon became dominated by undecorated vases, giving rise to a renovation in style that served as a prelude to the next stage, called the Aeneolithic or "bronze and stone" age.

New domestic and artisan production activities produced changes in traditional **stone flake** techniques, and experimentation began to occur. Although the tradition was still of an eminently laminar character, carefully selected cores were now extracted and appropriately prepared to form blades with flakes which were much longer than they were wide. They were used to make implements and weapons for daily use, particularly knives, hole punches, drills and scythe and javelin blades. Bone manufacturing, another traditional industry, also provided all kinds of utensils required for daily activities, such as spoons, tubes, hole punches, needles, spatulas, chisels, planers, plus other objects such as rings, pendants, hairpins, and beads for collars, all used for personal adornment. Lastly, stone polishing technology represented a new step forward in the development of prehistoric stone industries, with new techniques becoming fully generalized throughout the Neolithic. Polished stone was used above all for the manufacture of axes and adzes, tools which were closely related to forest clearing activities and woodworking, in addition to objects of personal adornment, represented by pendants, bead collars and bracelets.

Economic activities are basic to a specific culture, and this is why Neolithic communities were qualitatively different from those of the Palaeolithic. Neolithic man was a farmer, living in a more or less settled community, and he began to leave increasing vestiges of his presence in the territories in which he lived and worked. The main testimonies to the practice of agriculture are the remains of carbonized seeds found at archaeological sites. Pollen analyses are also used to indicate the existence of crops and the tilling of new soil for agricultural use. At the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés, for example, an abundance of carbonized seeds were found, revealing the cultivation of various types of wheat, such as scandula, a small variety of spelt, and common wheat, and also of various types of early barley. Wheat and barley were unknown to this territory before this time, and therefore these cereals must have been introduced from abroad.

The remains of animals, mostly leftovers from animals used as food, reveal the importance of

Polished stone axeheads from the Sarsa cave (Bocairent).
Neolithic: between 5,000 and 3,000 BP. Length of largest piece: 12.8cm.

domestic animals, particularly goats and sheep, as well as the cow, pig and dog. In the ovine and caprine families, sheep were the most common animals, and it seems that they were mainly used for the obtention of meat rather than milk or wool, and the same use was made of cows and swine. And just like wheat and barley, the agriotypes, or "wild" ancestral forms, of modern-day sheep and goats did not exist in this region as in the rest of Europe, so once again they must have been introduced in their domesticated forms during the neolithization process.

Abundant remains of deer and rabbits, and to a lesser extent those of roebucks, mountain goats, wild boar, horses and aurochs, with a few birds and reptiles too, attest to the importance of hunting activities for the supply of furs, leather and antlers, in addition to meat. The gathering of wild fruits and honey is documented in certain rock-shelter or cave paintings, although direct evidence through physical remains is limited to acorn eating. Fishing was important in sites near the coast, such as the Cendres cave in Moraira, where the remains of monkfish, porgy, pandora, gilthead, sea bass, and others have been found, in addition to vestiges signifying that much use was made of sea mollusks, such as limpets and winkles.

Apart from providing information on **ambient conditions**, sedimentology, palynology, or the study of fossilized pollen and plant spores, and anthracology coincide in reflecting the progressive influence of man on the environment during the Neolithic age. Agriculture and farming caused important changes in man's relation to his surroundings. Whereas Palaeolithic and Mesolithic populations used the forest as a means of subsistence, using its resources in a controlled or limited fashion, crop-growing and animal grazing produced a situation that was to become progressively more aggressive with respect to the environment,

Silex tools from the Cova de l'Or. Trapeziums and triangles, drills and polished blades used as scythe teeth. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Length of largest piece: 6.9cm.

resulting in the creation of larger treeless spaces. It was at this time that the felling of trees and slash-burning techniques were unbridled and accompanied the practice of agriculture and livestock rearing until only recently. In this way, man, since the Neolithic, became an active agent in ecological degradation, initiating a course that has continued practically unabated down to the present time.

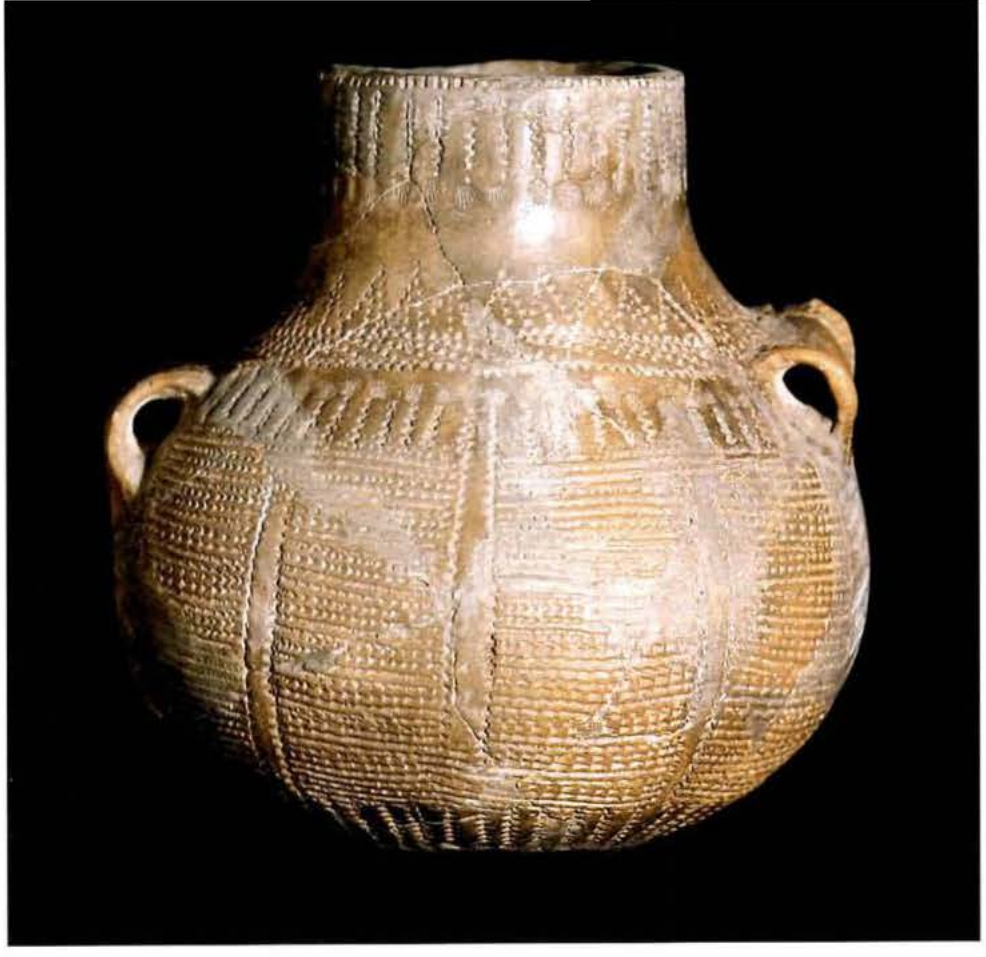
The **Cova de l'Or (Beniarrés, el Comtat** district) is situated on the eastern spurs of the Benicadell sierra, dominating the valley of the Alcoi, or Serpis, river. Excavations done here have shown a stratigraphic sequence that covers many of the developments of the Neolithic. Very important ceramic collections were unearthed here, as well as utensils, arms and adornments manufactured in bone, silex, polished stone, shells and other materials. As in other cases, carbonized grains of wheat and barley were found, dated using carbon-14 to 4,315 and 4,770 years BC. Interdisciplinary studies performed at the site, mainly including sedimentologists, palynologists and anthracologists, have enabled the evolution of the climate and scenery to be reconstructed during the Valencian Neolithic. Landscape is thought to have been comprised of a Mediterranean-type forest with thermophile undergrowth, with an abundance of pines, kermes oaks or gall oaks depending on local conditions at different stages, with episodes of colder and drier weather or hotter and more humid conditions.

The **Sarsa cave (Bocairent, la Vall d'Albaida** district) is located on the northwestern spurs of the Serra Mariola. Materials having been recovered here comprise a rich assembly showing that it was used as a settlement like many other caves down until the end of the Neolithic. It also served as a burial site, with at least seven individuals having been inhumed here, with two buried together in a narrow crack in the interior, separated from the inhabited zone. Together with the osseous remains of these two humans were a vase with cardial decoration and some pieces of bone and silex, interpreted as mortuary offerings. These burials indicate the existence of funeral rites in the early Neolithic and prove that cave burial traditions in the region of Valencia reach back as far as that time.

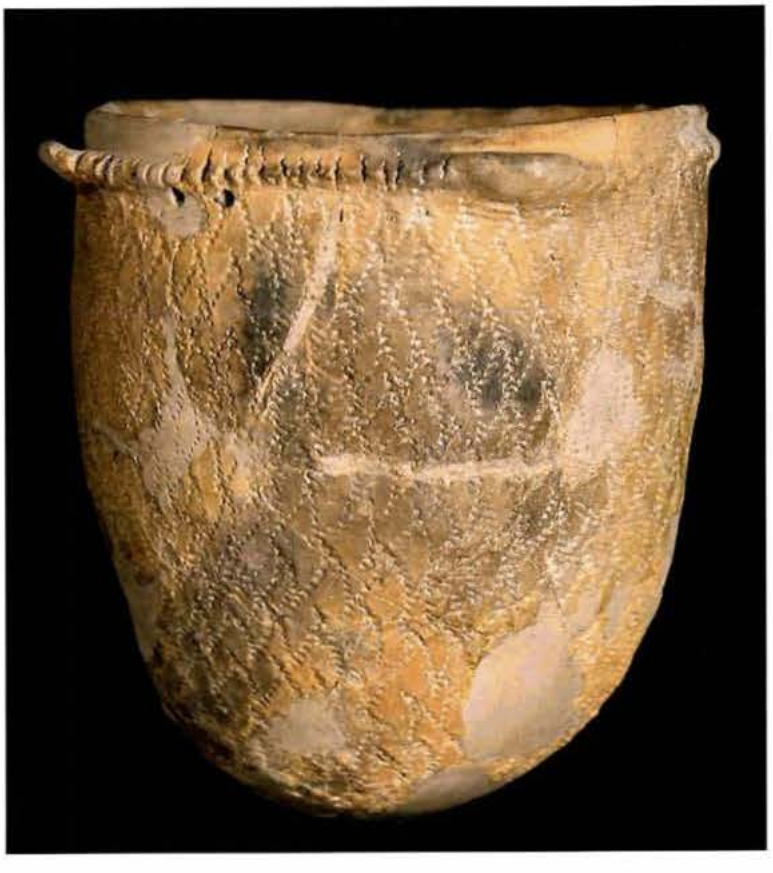
Polished stone bracelet from the Sarsa cave. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Diameter: 10.1cm.

Twin jug with impressed cardial designs from the Cova de l'Or. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Length: 14cm.

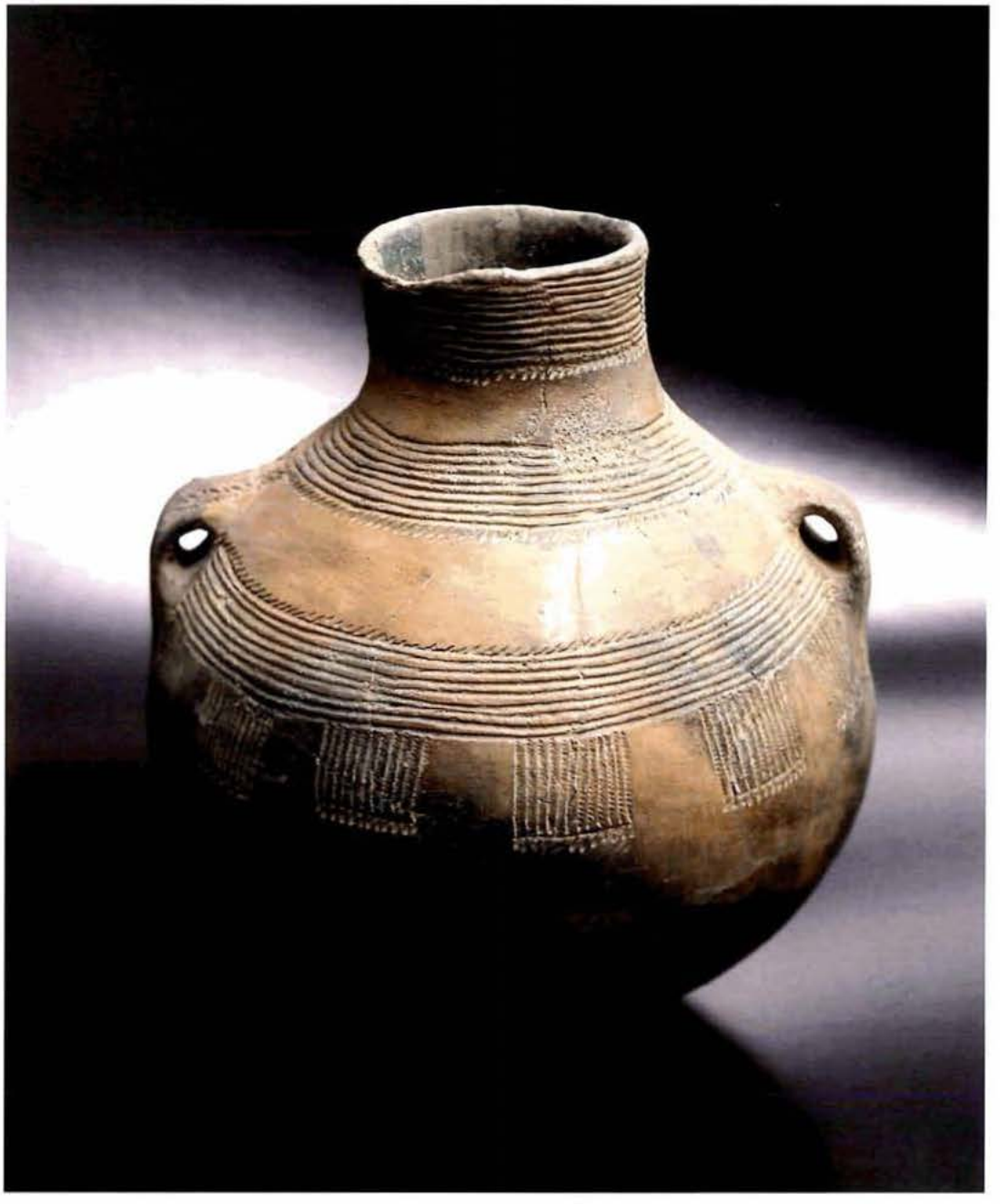
Small cask-shaped jug with impressed combtooth designs from the Cova de l'Or. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Height: 8.8cm.



Globular-bodied ceramic jug with neck and cardial impressions from the Cova de l'Or. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Height: 16.3cm.



Vase with impressed cardial decoration from the Cova de l'Or. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Height: 23.2cm.



Globular-bodied ceramic jug
with neck and impressed combtooth
decorations from the Cova de l'Or.
Lower Neolithic:
between 5,000 and 4,200 BP.
Height: 22.4cm.

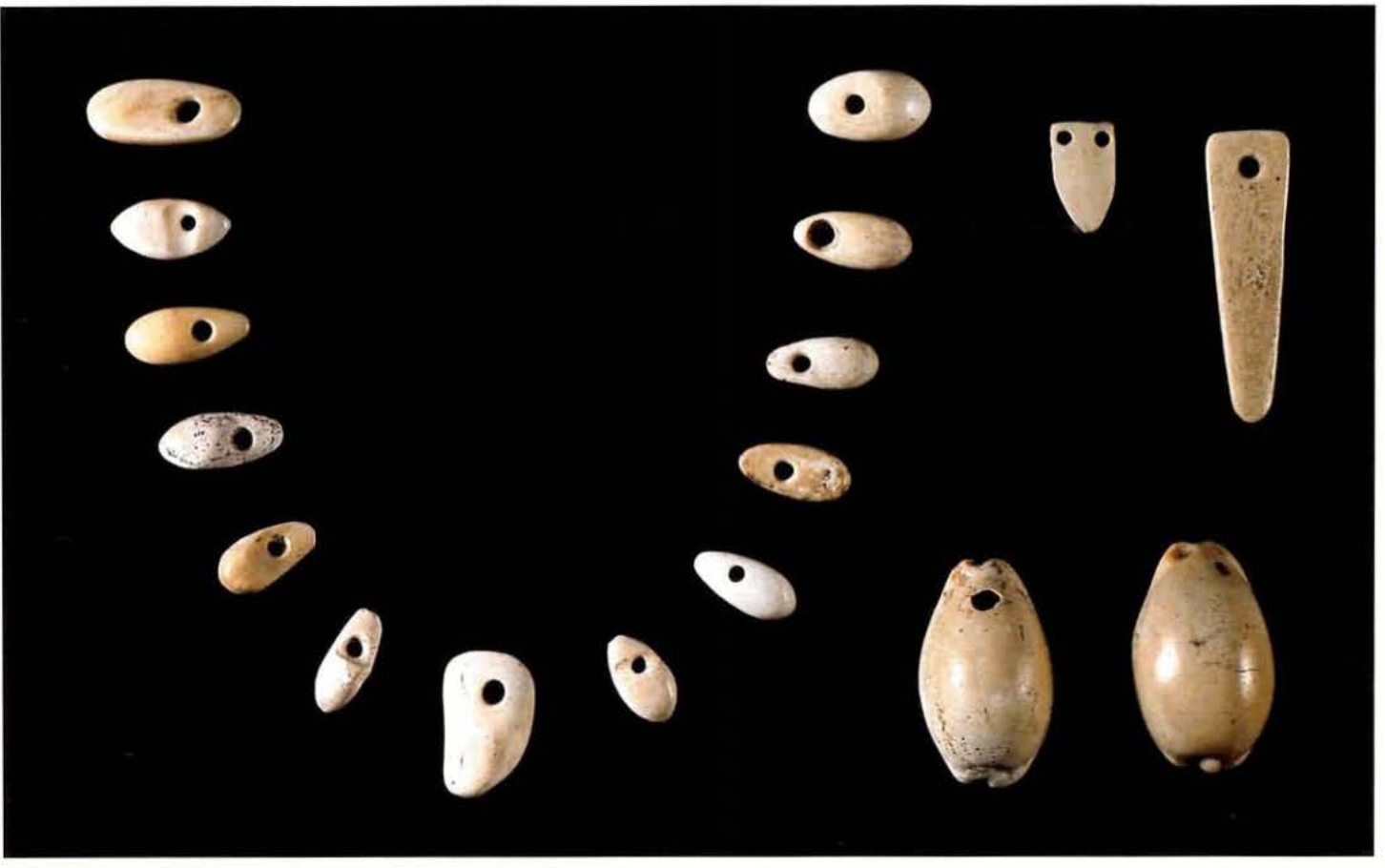
◁

Large cylindrical ceramic vase
with impressed cardial designs
from the Cova de l'Or.
Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP.
Height: 48.5cm.

Bone ring
from the Cova de l'Or.
Lower Neolithic:
between 5,000 and 4,200 BP.
Diameter: 2.9cm.

Bone needles and punches
from the Cova de l'Or. Neolithic:
between 5,000 and 3,000 BP.
Length of largest piece: 12.2cm.

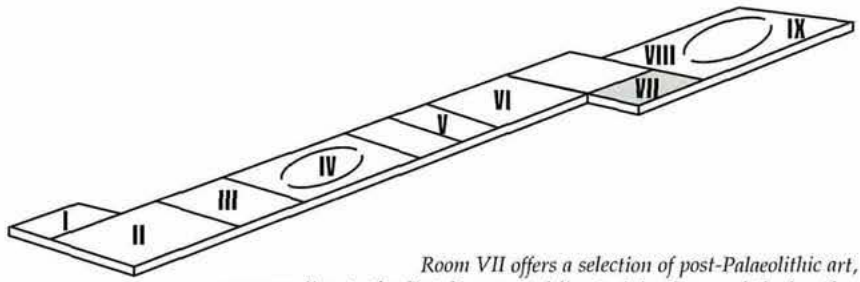
Bone spoons
from the Cova de l'Or. Lower Neolithic:
between 5,000 and 4,200 BP.
Length of largest piece: 20.8cm.



Ornamental pieces from the Cova de l'Or. Necklace beads and pendants made from shell and hone. Neolithic: between 5,000 and 3,000 BP. Length of largest piece: 5.0cm.

Sandstone hand mill from the Cova de l'Or. Neolithic: between 5,000 and 3,000 BP. Length: 50cm.

◁
Fragment of ceramic vase with impressed cardial decoration from the Cova de l'Or. The central motif shows two figurines with uplifted arms in an attitude of prayer. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Height: 7.2cm.



Room VII offers a selection of post-Palaeolithic art, corresponding to the first farmers and livestock herders, and the hunting groups still active at the start of the Neolithization process. The selection has been taken from the rock shelters of Pla de Petracos in Castell de Castells, the Sarga in Alcoi, the Valltorta ravine in Tírig, Albocàsser and Coves de Vinromà, the Gasulla ravine in Ares del Maestrat, and the Araña caves in Bicorp, among others. In addition to parietal or mural art, there are examples of portable art on ceramic wares found in the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés and the Sarsa cave in Bocairent. These have been dated to the seventh millennium before the present in view of the fact that they share the same motifs and probably the same symbolism as their rock shelter counterparts.

VII. POST-PALAEOLITHIC ART IMAGES AND BELIEFS

New artistic currents arise at the end of the Palaeolithic in the region of Valencia with so-called Linear-Geometric Art, pertaining to more recent epipalaeolithic stages and using incisions on small stone slabs or plaques and paintings in red on the walls of certain caves. Almost simultaneously, as of the fifth millennium BC, at the outset of the Neolithic, other artistic cycles begin to appear responding to the name of Macroschematic Art, Levantine Art and Schematic Art. These are always paintings executed on the walls of rock shelters or overhangs, although they do present a striking similarity with the decorative motifs used on some ceramic wares, providing a clue to their chronology. In addition to these artistic cycles, there are other series of engravings on rock showing fusiform and geometric shapes with more imprecise cultural and temporal references; they have also been found in depressions excavated in rock, sometimes joined by narrow channels.

Macroschematic Art can be found mainly in the rock shelters of the districts of the Marina Alta, el Comtat and l'Alcoià, in the same territory formerly occupied by farming and herding communities, and whose religious concerns were clearly indicated in their art, which is exclusive to Valencian lands. The human figure is the dominant theme, shown in various shapes and positions, such as with raised arms and splayed fingers or in an attitude of prayer. Also abundant are snake-like forms tipped with lines looking like fingers, which occasionally jut out from concentric circles, along with other geometric motifs which are more difficult to interpret, always in large sizes and in a dark red colour. The presence of the same motifs on ceramic vases with cardial impressions enables us to date these artistic manifestations to the fifth millennium BC.

These rock-shelter paintings and ceramic vases, which in some cases must have been religious sanctuaries and cult objects, respectively, hold the keys to the new magico-religious ideas penetrating into Valencian territories with the first groups of crop-growers and during the subsequent process of neolithization over the Mesolithic substrata.

Levantine Art is characterized by pronounced naturalism in its representations, always painted on the walls of shallow rock shelters. Men, women, animals and commonplace objects and hunting articles are the principle themes that can be found either in isolation or forming part of generalized scenes. Among the latter are hunting scenes and some war scenes, with processions and executions. Men are usually armed with bow and arrow, and animals frequently appear with arrow wounds. Women form part of day-to-day scenes and others of possible religious content.

Because it can be found superimposed on macroschematic paintings in the rock shelters of La Sarga in Alcoi and the Benialí ravine in Castell de Castells, and in view of the similar motifs used on ceramics found at the Cova de l'Or in Beniarrés, Levantine Art in the region of Valencia can be dated to the final stages of the fifth millennium BC. It is therefore part of the Neolithic chronology and helps us to understand the processes of cultural change that began here as a consequence of the appearance of agriculture and livestock breeding.

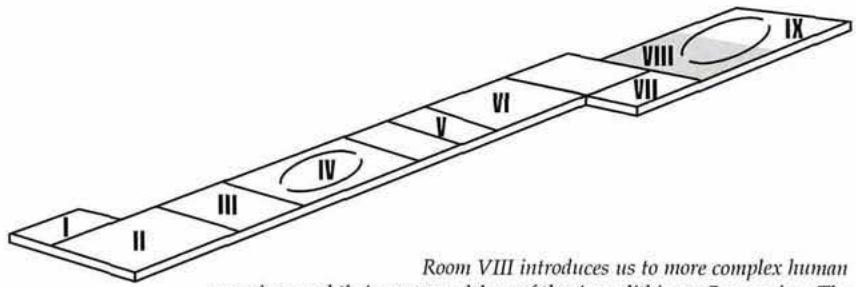
Schematic Art consists of a highly elaborate form of artistic manifestation from the conceptual viewpoint using the colour red and only exceptionally the colour black to depict on the walls of shallow rock shelters either schematic human figures or geometric motifs which are always simple in shape. Anthropomorphic shapes are usually reduced to simple stick figures to indicate the trunk, occasionally prolonged to indicate the head or the sexual organ in males. Zoomorphic figures consist of a horizontal line for the body and stick legs, with the occasional addition of horns identifying certain species. Geometric motifs are more abundant, with an array of bars, points and circles. Also characteristic of this kind of art are astral motifs and representations of idols, a clear expression of the symbolic character of this kind of art which was begun in the fifth millennium BC and reached its moment of maximum development coinciding with the multiple burial epoch of the Aeneolithic, or Copper Age.

Cask-shaped vase with impressed cardial decoration from the Cova de l'Or. Between the ring-shaped handles is an anthropomorphic "X"-shaped motif. Lower Neolithic: between 5,000 and 4,200 BP. Height: 7.4 cm.

Fragment of ceramic vase with impressed combtooth decoration from the Cova de l'Or. Figurative head and upper portion of horned goat. Lower Neolithic: between 4,500 and 4,000 BP. Height: 10.3cm.

Fragment of ceramic vase with incised decoration from the Cova de l'Or, showing schematic drawing of a deer and part of two others underneath. Upper Neolithic: between 3,500 and 3,000 BP. Height: 5.6cm.

◁
Antler idol with eye engravings
from Ereta del Pedregal (Navarrés).
Possible representation of the "Mother Goddess".
Aeneolithic: Approximately 2,500 BP.
Length: 18.0cm.



Room VIII introduces us to more complex human groupings and their cave sepulchres of the Aeneolithic, or Copper Age. The generalization of agricultural life brings about the proliferation of settlements next to croplands, such as Ereta del Pedregal in Navarrés, with sequences that encompass the entire 3rd millennium before Christ, the period during which the first copper implements appear. Funeral rites acquire major importance, and natural caves are used as collective necropolises, such as the Pastora cave in Alcoi, where funerary offerings and religious objects and idols were placed next to bodies of the deceased. Of special interest are the trepanated skulls found in this same cave. The final part of the period is known for its campaniform, or bell-shaped, ceramics and the characteristic articles included in funeral and wedding offerings. The Cova dels Gats in Alzira provided abundant materials, and other important sites from this period are the Puntal settlement over the Castellarda ravine in Llíria, the Castle Slope cave in Chiva, the Camí Reial d'Alacant cave in Albaida, the Barranc del Castellet cave in Carrícola, and the Pedrera chasm in Benicull, among others.

VIII. THE AENEOLITHIC: THE COPPER AGE

Agriculture and livestock rearing leads to a life of fixed abodes. Farming communities settle near their croplands, erecting houses and providing social structures which are progressively more complex, while making man's presence in the territory much more noticeable. It is a process which was initiated in the Neolithic and became more intensive at this time, particularly as of the middle of the 3rd millennium BC, when the first metal instruments appear. These tools were made of copper, giving their name to the new period: the **Aeneolithic** or **Copper Age**. Also characteristic of the age is the use of natural caves in the vicinity as large-scale necropolises, reflecting permanent settlements in the area, and changing social relations and religious ideas.

Newly-founded **settlements** seek proximity to watercourses. In general, the only remains of these settlements having been found are the structures which were excavated in the subsoil: round-walled silos for storing cereals, and moats in V-shapes cut into the ground, interpretable as defensive or drainage structures for nearby croplands. Huts were made of wattle and daub and have therefore left very few remains. These settlements were distributed over the entire Valencian region, the most outstanding of which are Jovades in Cocentaina, Niuet in Alqueria d'Asnar, Atarcó and Benipri in Bèlgida, Arenal de la Costa in Ontinyent, Macolla in Villena and Vil·la Filomena in Vila-real.

Nevertheless, **Ereta del Pedregal (Navarrés, La Canal de Navarrés** district) is the best known example of a Copper Age settlement. Discovered in the 19th century by J. Vilanova y Piera, it is located in a marshy area known as La Marjal, in which the groundwater

table reaches the foundations of the settlement. During the initial phase of occupation, towards the end of the Neolithic and the beginning of the Aeneolithic, constructions were wattle and daub huts on stone foundations. Later, coinciding with the appearance of metal tools during the Mid-Aeneolithic and the Campaniform horizon, stone was used to erect socles or plinths on which the walls were then erected.

Archaeological materials found at this site show that **everyday life** in the farming communities revolved around food preparation, ceramic manufacturing, fabric and basket weaving, and bone and silex tool manufacturing, plus the production of adornments and religious objects which would later be used as funeral offerings. As new farmlands were ploughed, the forests receded, and expanses of croplands extended outwards from each settlement, with mountain lands being used as pastures for animal grazing. The most important farm animals were sheep and goats, but hunting still conserved its importance as a means of protecting crops against large herbivores, for contributing to the food supply and providing complementary materials such as furs and antlers.

During the Aeneolithic, silex instruments came up against a strong competitor in the form of copper tools. The arrival of this new material forced manufacturers of silex implements to develop and perfect their techniques, and knives and arrow points began to rival their metal counterparts. The abundance of arrowheads found in settlements and funeral offerings point to the importance of the bow and arrow as a personal weapon, although they may also indicate unrest and armed conflict between groups. Silex-tipped arrows were initially lozenge shaped or bore small side stubs at the beginning of the period, whereas peduncle shapes with wings dominated at the end of the period.

The oldest evidence of **copper making** on the Iberian peninsula corresponds to the first half of the 3rd millennium BC. The pioneers were the centres of the Millares culture in the southeast and on the lower course of the Tagus river on the Atlantic coast. At Ereta del Pedregal the appearance of the first metal objects corresponds to the height of the Aeneolithic, in the second half of the 3rd millennium BC. These new objects were punches, arrowheads, axes and a few copper slag fragments, with minimum amounts of other elements such as arsenic, which were only impurities inherent to the metal used for foundry work, ie, they were not alloys of any kind.

Ideas about life and death showed signs of evolution among farming communities. A new **funeral rite** indicated that religious beliefs had changed, and in most of western Europe, the dead were now placed in megalithic chambers. In the Valencian region, megalithic tombs were substituted by natural caves, as in the case of the **Pastora cave (Alcoi, l'Alcoià** district), which has provided over seventy-five individuals whose remains had been grouped together to form funeral packages following de-boning, with offerings and idols or images being left by their sides, indicating some sort of belief in an afterlife. The idols buried with the dead, bearing a central eye motive accompanied by bands of curved lines forming a facial tatoo and an indication of gender, have been encountered all over the Iberian Peninsula and can be identified with the Mother Goddess cult.

The sheer number of burials in some caves indicated that they were used as necropolises for a nearby settlement over a long period of time. The most important of these are the Llometes cave of Alcoi, providing over fifty adult individuals; the Barcella cave of Torre de les Maçanes, thirty; the Camí Reial d'Alcant cave in Albaida, nineteen; the Lechuzas cave in Villena, over eighteen. In various skulls found in the Pastora cave the practice of trepanation or intentional perforation was evidenced, and no signs of pathological alterations can be appreciated to justify an operation of this kind. Experts are therefore of the opinion that these were ritual or empirical practices with no real therapeutic effect. The survival of some of these individuals was demonstrated in three cases owing to signs of bone regeneration, whereas others can be classified as posthumous trepanations.

At the end of the Aeneolithic one particular type of ceramic ware was distributed throughout a large part of Europe, called the **Campaniform Vase**. It was present in settlements and above all in burials. The name campaniform is a description of the vase's profile in

Diverse types of silex arrowhead from Ereta del Pedregal.
Aeneolithic: between 2,700 and 2,200 BP. Length of largest piece: 6.5cm.

the shape of a bell or tulip. They are fine-paste ceramic wares fired at high temperatures with surfaces decorated with the impression of a comb or using incised lines, forming horizontal bands, triangles and gridworks. Pots, pans and goblets completed the repertoire of forms. Their wide diffusion, and the association of the Campaniform Vase with the generalization of metal in funeral offerings, were at first interpreted as proof of the existence of a prospecting and metal-making settlement with excellent ceramists and metallurgists, moving throughout Europe in the second half of the 3rd millennium BC. At present, however, this explanation has given way to the existence of campaniform elements over such a large territory due to a growing desire for social and ceremonial prestige in funeral traditions.

The term Campaniform Horizon is used to highlight the new developments of the last two centuries of the 3rd millennium BC and the beginning of the 2nd. Coinciding with campaniform ceramics a new model of settlement began to consolidate itself: villagers began to prefer high mountain peaks, although huts and silos were still maintained on the lowlands.

El Puntal over the **Castellarda Ravine (Llíria, el Camp de Túria district)** is an example of a new Aeneolithic village occupying the summit of a mountain and part of its slopes. Documented structures indicate there was a wall, a circular tower at the highest point, and independent dwellings of an oval

Silex tools from Ereta del Pedregal. Scrapers, dagger blade fragment and large sickle teeth. Aeneolithic: between 2,700 and 2,200 BP. Length of largest piece: 17.0cm.

shape with stone foundations and socles and mud brick walls. In the interior of these brick huts, large sized stones laid horizontally and vertically marked the bases for posts that held up the roofs. Signs of material culture testify to manufacturing activities such as ceramics and weaving, silex working, with the production of numerous arrowheads, and the presence of campaniform ceramics. All this situates this mountain village in the Full Aeneolithic and the Campaniform horizon.

Funeral rites remained the same as hitherto, with caves being used as burial sites, as indicated by the Cova dels Gats in Alzira and the Pedrera chasm in Polinyà-Benicull, but the number of inhumations progressively decreases, with some burials taking place in silos, such as those discovered at the settlement of l'Atarcó in Bèlgida. Funeral offerings and ex-votos show that the most representative articles were daggers with tongues for insertion in the handle, arrowheads or spearheads and punches, all three in copper; also of note are bone buttons with V-shaped perforations and stone armplates for archers. Silex working sparks up for one last time with the presence of noteworthy knife-blades and arrowheads.

Flat copper axeheads
from Ereta del Pedregal.
Aeneolithic: approximately 2,200 BP.
Lengths: 15.0, 8.6 and 13.2cm.

Ornaments from funeral
offerings found
at the Pastora cave (Alcoi).
Stone and bone collar beads
and pendants, and a long
"Pastora"-type bone needle.
Aeneolithic: between
2,500 and 2,200 BP.
Length of largest piece: 16.0cm.

Flattened bone needles from funeral offerings in the Pastora cave. Aeneolithic: between 2,500 and 2,200 BP. Lengths: 22.0, 17.2 and 15.7cm.

Bone idols with eye engravings and anthropomorphic shapes from the Pastora cave. Aeneolithic: between 2,700 and 2,200 BP. Length of largest piece: 17.6cm.

Trepanated cranium, with signs of bone regeneration, from the Pastora cave. Aeneolithic: approximately 2,500 BP. Length: 19.0cm.

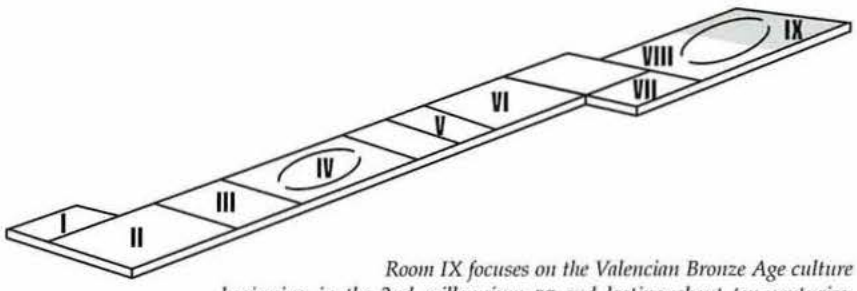
Silex dagger point showing base work for handle insertion. Large silex plaque with worked edge. Both from the Castle slope cave in Chiva. Funeral offering pieces. Aeneolithic: between 2,700 and 2,200 BP. Lengths: 13.0 and 14.3cm.

Ceramic pot with impressed decoration from Camí de l'Algofàs (Bèlgida).
Campaniform horizon: between 2,200 and 2,000 BP.
Height: 10.0cm. Mouth diameter: 26.0cm.

Campaniform jug, bowls and vases with various types of decoration, from the Cova dels Gats (Alzira). Ceramic funeral offering ware.
Campaniform horizon: between 2,200 and 1,800 BP.
Height of largest vase: 12.0cm. Mouth diameter: 20.3cm.

Funeral offering objects from the Sima de la Pedrera (Benicull-Polinyà de Xúquer) and Cova dels Gats (Alzira).
Copper Palmela-type arrowhead, tongued dagger blade and punches; polished stone adze and archer's armplate;
silex arrowheads; bone buttons with V-shaped perforations; collar beads and flattened needle in bone.
Campaniform horizon: between 2,200 and 1,800 BP.
Height of dagger: 14.5cm.

◁
Flat copper axeheads
from Mas de Menente (Alcoi)
and La Lloma de Betxí (Paterna).
Valencian Bronze culture:
between 1,800 and 1,400 BP.
Length of smallest piece: 8.8cm.



Room IX focuses on the Valencian Bronze Age culture beginning in the 2nd millennium BC and lasting about ten centuries. During this time, new settlements were founded, with mountain-top sites still being inhabited throughout the region. The use of metal became generalized. Midway through the period the use of bronze, an alloy of copper and tin, became widespread. The materials on display here correspond to early excavations such as Mas de Menente in Alcoi, Mola Alta de Serelles in Alcoi (providing a notable collection of foundry moulds), and Muntanyeta de Cabrera in Vedat de Torrent. Also shown are materials gathered from recent excavation campaigns undertaken at Lloma de Betxí in Paterna and the Muntanya Assolada in Alzira, in addition to miscellaneous objects from other settlements such as large storage jars from Ereta del Castellar in Vilafranca. Since southern Valencian lands pertained to the El Argar culture, the museum has a representative collection of objects taken from sites in Murcia and Almería. Metallurgy techniques at the end of the Bronze Age are shown in comparison to a deposit found at the Huerta de Arriba site in Burgos, northern Spain.

IX. THE BRONZE AGE: THE DIVERSITY OF CULTURES

As of the 2nd millennium BC the region was extensively populated, with an abundance of settlements located in high places. As building techniques in stone and mud progressed, being adapted for use in mountainous settings, these settlements began to show signs of urbanization, with terraced platforms, walls and rectangular-shaped compartments, often placed on either side of a central street. Material culture now incorporated a full range of metal utensils, initially of copper and later of a copper and tin alloy to form bronze, with stone industries being relegated almost exclusively to silex scythe teeth. As for burials, these now tended to be either individual or including only a small number of individuals, perhaps signifying an incipient increase in social hierarchies.

The archaeological sites of **Mas de Menente** and **Mola Alta de Serelles (Alcoi, l'Alcoià** district) were the first Valencian Bronze Age villages to be excavated, a task that was undertaken in the 1920s. Those early findings unearthed high-altitude, walled villages, with an abundance of materials such as large storage vases, cooking pottery, wooden scythes with silex teeth, bone hole punches and, above all, metal blades for daggers, punches and axes. Economic activities were basically wheat and barley growing and sheep and goat herding.

At Mola Alta de Serelles, **metalwork** must have been particularly important, as documented by the presence of nine foundry moulds, all of which were found in the same compartment. This is the largest find having been made, although foundry work must have been done in other villages, to judge by the remains of slag, melting pots, moulds and a variety of remains of other metals. Despite this, metallurgy in the

Valencian Bronze Culture was seemingly held back by the scarcity of mineral deposits in the region; it was the southern El Argar Culture where metallurgy was much more important, and, being located in a more southerly area, villages in the present-day Alcoià district certainly played a role in the dissemination of techniques. A lack of tin deposits converted bronze into a metal which was highly prized, being used primarily for adornment and arms, and becoming widely used only towards the end of the period.

La Muntanyeta de Cabrera (Torrent, l'Horta district) is another noteworthy village in the history of research into the Valencian Bronze Age. It was discovered by N. Primitiu and excavated in 1931 by M. Jornet, although work only affected the upper section of the hill where this settlement was located. Structures having been studied include a village wall and a compartment butting against this wall. Discoveries range from decorated pottery, metal, silex and bone objects with triangular prism shapes, used to manufacture buttons. Near the settlement was a small burial cave.

A very significant collection of materials was recovered from the village of **Ereta del Castellar (Vilafranca, l'Alt Maestrat** district). Excavations carried out here in 1957 unearthed three rooms separated by clay and stone walls, beaten-earth floors and wooden posts used to support roofs, and inside these dwellings were large storage vases decorated profusely with raised filleting. Other elements provide proof of a variety of economic activities: truncated cone-shaped cheese moulds with open ends and a perforated body, used to separate curds and whey; round, earthenware loom weights with four perforations; and a spindle whorl, indicative of textile making. Remains of carbonated cereals again evidence wheat and barley growing, as do silex-toothed scythes.

During the last two decades, new excavations of these villages have enabled us to deepen our knowledge of these stone constructions. In some cases they reached notable proportions. Raised terraces, access systems and in general, much transformation of the surrounding areas can be interpreted as a sign of substantial levels of social cohesion. Our understanding of these small settlements has therefore been updated thanks to discoveries made at La Muntanya Assolada in Alzira and La Lloma de Betxí in Paterna, which were both villages with a long history.

La Lloma de Betxí (Paterna, l'Horta district) is situated next to the river Turia on a low-lying hillock. The excellent conservation of these archaeological remains provided interesting data on building techniques and home utensils. Typical constructions showed two upper rooms with a lateral passageway measuring over 30 metres in length, 10 metres wide and up to 4 metres high, with stone walls dressed with mud, and a sod roof over a layer of tree branches supported by wooden beams. Household utensils consisted of ceramic, metal, stone and bone objects, plus ornamental articles, distributed in a storage zone and a cereal milling zone equipped with an oven and work benches in stone and mud; remains of fabric pieces evidence textile weaving, and esparto grass debris testify to basketry work. Hammers, chisels and mallets were found next to a wall. In all probability, it must have been a large communal building, possibly a warehouse, complete with cistern next to the access road and tall walls built using raised terraces along the slopes, in addition to other individual dwellings on the higher part of the hill.

La Muntanya Assolada (Alzira, la Ribera Alta district) is representative of settlements located at considerable heights, dominating in this case a large part of the Xùquer river valley. The upper sections show rectangular compartments closed off by natural cliff walls or by man-made walls, with a complex system of accesses and various lines of raised earthwork around the settlement to form terraces. Studies have given us a good picture of socio-economic aspects and daily life among Bronze Age peoples in this region. The remains of animals provide evidence of a farming community with a predominance of sheep and goats. The ox was used as a draught animal, in addition to providing meat and milk, and pigs were also raised. Crow hunting seems to have been undertaken as a means of protecting grain-producing crops, which can therefore be considered to be extensive.

Sandstone mould and cover for flat axehead and chisel making, from Mola Alta de Serelles (Alcoi). Valencian Bronze culture: between 1,800 and 1,400 BP. Length: 20.0cm.

A burial cave in the proximity of the Muntanya Assolada village shows signs of continuity in its use as a necropolis, as observed in the Campaniform horizon. But one individual burial has also been found in the interior of the village, as at the Peña la Dueña site in Teresa, and at Altico de la Hoya in Navarrés, and Atalayuela in Losa del Obispo, showing the diversity obtaining during the Bronze Age as far as **funeral rites** are concerned, perhaps evidencing social differences.

Present-day Alicante districts to the south of the Vinalopó river can be classified within the **El Argar Culture**, which was a brilliant manifestation of the peninsular Bronze Age extending over present-day Murcia, Almería and Granada. Important sites are San Antón in Orihuela, the castle slopes in Callosa de Segura, or El Tabaià in Aspe. These villages show highly developed urbanization, with constructions of a public nature and facilities for storing all sorts of goods required for community life, in addition to strategic outposts and fortification systems overlooking farmlands and controlling what appear to be trade routes. During the El Argar Culture, necropolises increasing appear inside dwelling places. These are usually individual or double tombs, generally located in graves lined with stone slabs, called cists, or in urns or large earthenware jars called *pithoi*. Among funerary offerings frequently placed next to the dead are blades, halberds, and metal ornaments, as well as ceramic vases, objects made of bone and others in stone, signifying, in some individuals, wealth, prestige, or power, and therefore clear signs of existing social hierarchies.

The end of the 2nd millennium BC brought about an intermediate period between the Bronze Age and the Iberian Culture. Decorated ceramics originating in neighbouring regions and certain new forms of material culture indicate the beginning of a new stage. Nevertheless, one of the most significant changes at this time was a restructuring of the population, with the majority of high-altitude villages being abandoned in favour of occupation on flatlands or mountain

Sickle with silex tooth flakes and wooden handle found at Mas de Menente. Valencian Bronze culture: between 1,800 and 1,400 BP. Length: 48.0cm.

Globular-body ceramic vase with one handle from Muntanya Assolada (Alzira). Valencian Bronze culture: between 1,800 and 1,400 BP. Height: 14.5cm; Mouth diameter: 14.0cm.

slopes. These newly created villages were oval in shape and were often constructed using perishable materials. The economy continued to be fueled by farming and livestock rearing, but it was complemented in some districts by bronze manufacturing. Thus, in the **final days of the Bronze Age**, there are well-documented mining sites in the Valencian region showing extensive activities: Penya Negra in Crevillent, and Mola d'Agres, which have both produced foundry moulds used in Atlantic Bronze tool manufacturing, meaning that there was a fair amount of commerce, probably carried out via the sea route. Also pertaining to Atlantic Bronze manufacture are the articles found at the Huerta de Arriba site in Burgos

Ceramic bowl with serrated edge from Castillarejo de los Moros (Andilla). Valencian Bronze culture: between 1,800 and 1,400 BP. Mouth diameter: 22.4cm.

Earthenware spindle whorl from the Valencian Bronze culture sites of Mas de Menente and Ereta del Castellar (Vilafranca). Between 1,800 and 1,000 BP. Length of largest piece: 24.0cm.

Ceramic wares from
Lloma de Betxí.
Household pots,
bowl and flared vases.
Valencian Bronze culture:
between 1,800 and 1,400 BP.
Mouth diameter of largest pot:
14.5cm. Height: 12.0cm.

Ceramic and metal materials
from eastern Andalusian
sites at Puerto Lumbreras,
Vélez Blanco and Guadix.
Bowl and flanged vases, blade
with rivets and bronze spirals
from bronze funeral offerings.
El Argar culture:
between 1,800 and 1,400 BP.
Length of largest blade: 20.0cm.

Arms and metal objects from the Huertas de Arriba site in Burgos (northern Spain). Bronze lance tip, dagger blades and bracelets. Atlantic Bronze: between 1,200 and 800 BP. Length of largest piece: 19.5cm.

Large storage vase with cord decorations in relief from Ereta del Castellar. Valencian Bronze culture: between 1,400 and 1,000 BP. Height: 74.0cm.

SECOND FLOOR

ROOM I: The Mediterranean World

ROOM II: The Iberians

ROOM III: Large Iberian Settlements

ROOM IV: The Iberian Home

ROOM V: Iberian Funeral Rites and Religion

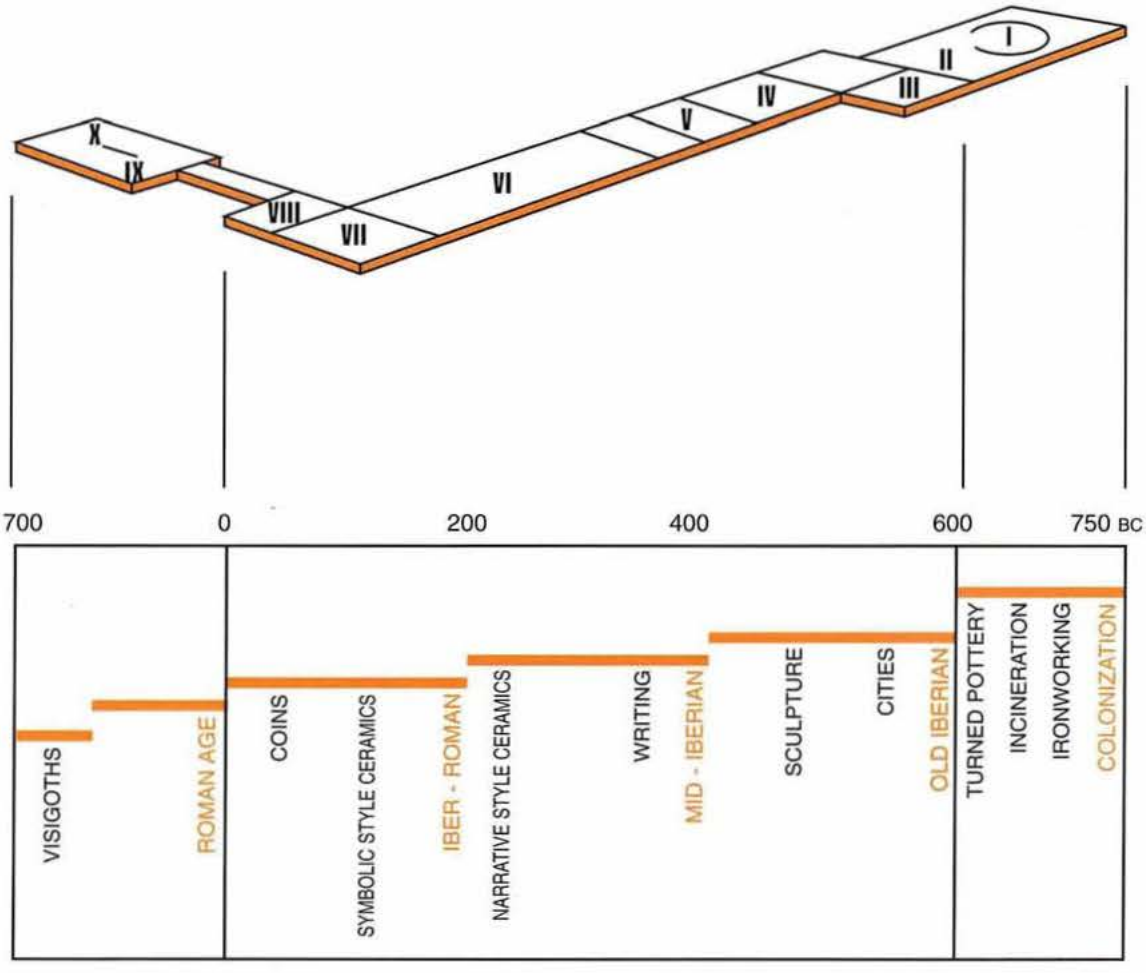
ROOM VI: Edeta and its Environs

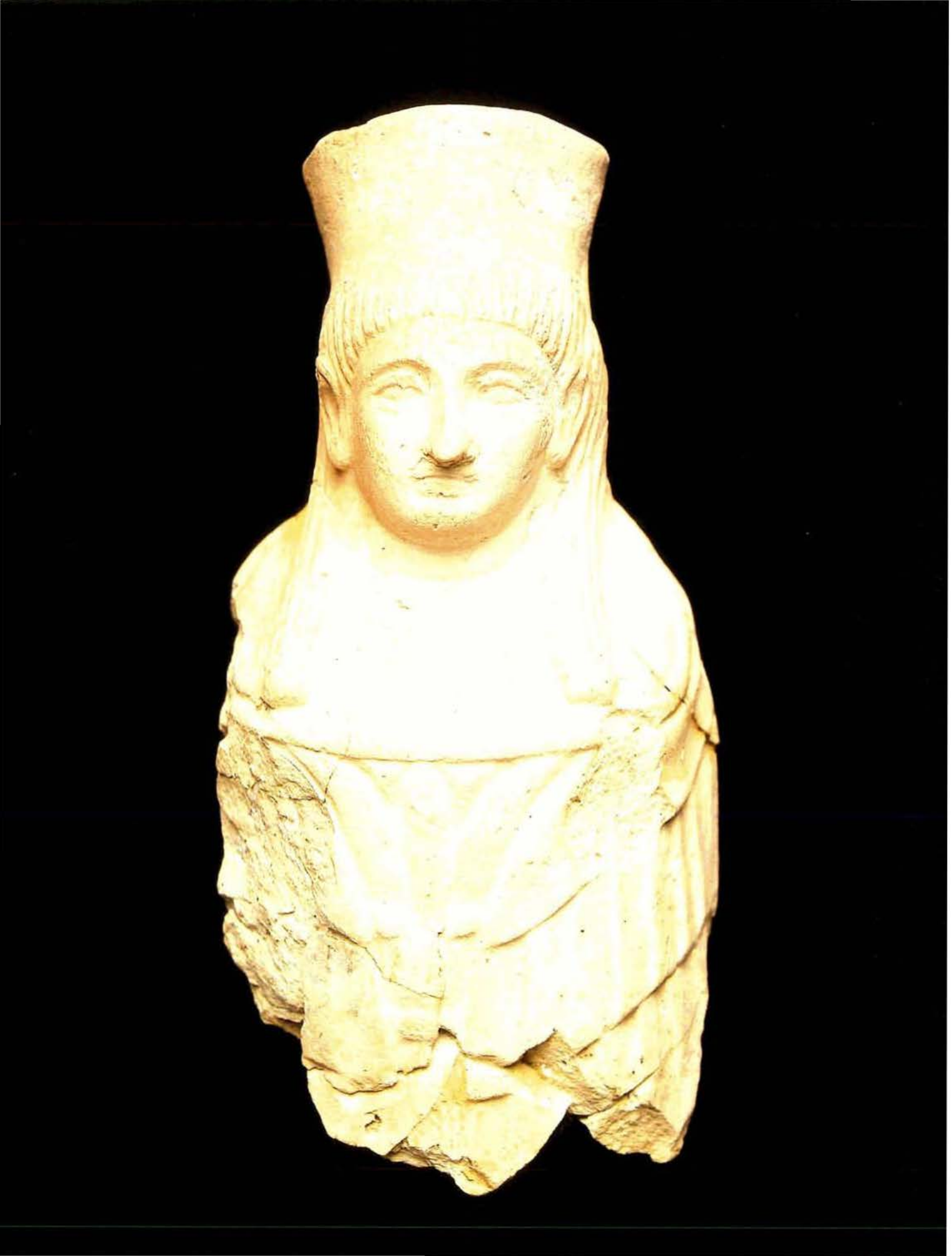
ROOM VII: Iberian Writing

ROOM VIII: Iberian Coins

ROOM IX: The Roman Epoch

ROOM X: Valencian Coins - 10th-11th C.





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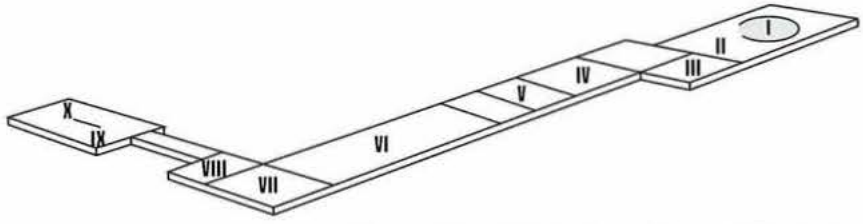
Punic terracotta from the sanctuary of La Cova des Cuieram (Sant Joan, Ibiza) representing the goddess Tanit. 3rd C BC.
Height 16.2cm.



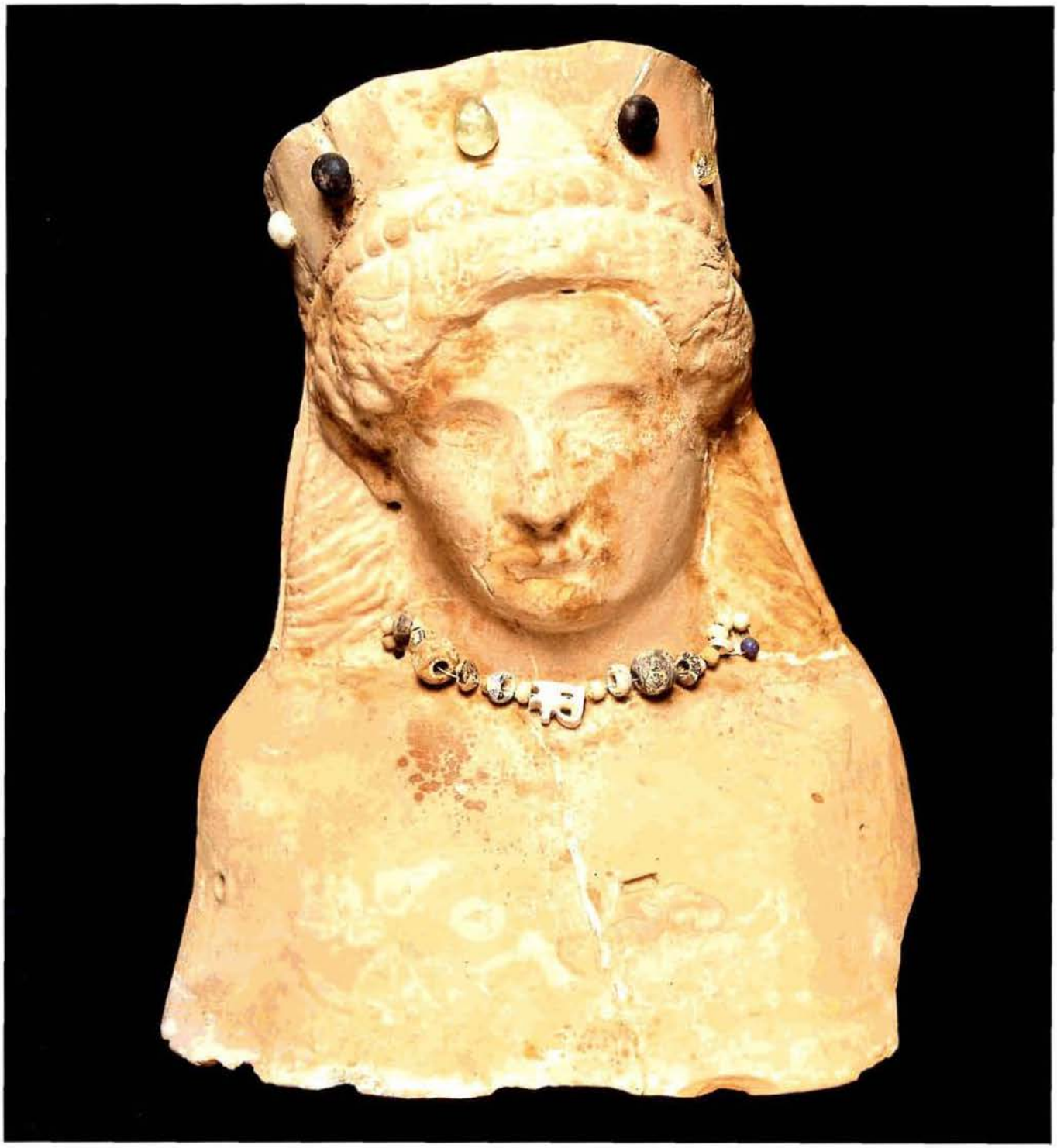
The second floor dedicates Rooms I through VIII to Iberian culture, Room IX contains Roman exhibits and Room X shows the Museum's coin collection. Room I serves as a presentation of the colonization era, ie, from the 8th to 6th centuries BC. Set in a Mediterranean background are numerous amphoras from various epochs, brought to this region thanks to the busy trade relations between coastal peoples and traders from abroad. There are also interesting collections from the Greek colony of Empúries and the Punic colony of Ibiza.

I. THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

Ever since prehistoric times the **Mediterranean Sea** has provided a means of communication and acculturation between the peoples inhabiting its shores. Over a geography measuring 4,500 kilometres, from Gibraltar to the Syrian coast, similar landscapes and crops reflect ways of life which are common to the majority of people in the region. Navigation, which has been documented since the Neolithic, increased in frequency and in number of destinations as of 800 BC, when the Phoenicians and Greeks came westwards in search of metals and new lands to cultivate. The Mediterranean was a stage for continual rivalry among Phoenicians, Etruscans, Greeks and Carthaginians, until the Romans finally imposed their authority and dubbed the entire sea as simply *Mare Nostrum*.

During the Iberian epoch in the region of Valencia, Phoenician, Greek, Etruscan, Punic and Roman amphoras reveal the importance of trade in products such as oil and wine throughout the Mediterranean region. The Iberian peninsula exerted an attraction over Eastern Mediterranean colonists and traders, who came in search of metals, and, to a lesser extent, agricultural products and other raw materials. The installation of Phoenician factories in Ibiza, Cádiz, Málaga or Almuñécar as of the 8th century BC, and the founding of Greek colonies some time later, as of 600 BC, in Emporion and Rhodes (Catalonia), were determining factors in the acculturation process of local inhabitants, who began to assimilate new influences little by little until they gave rise to what we now know as the Iberian Culture.

The island of **Ibiza**, strategically situated on the route from the Orient to the legendary sites of Tarshish gold and silver, was occupied by Phoenicians until the mid-7th century BC. It was here that one of the most original manifestations of **Punic Culture** came to flourish in western lands. Of note among the many settlements founded on the island is the rock-shelter sanctuary of Es Cuieram, where hundreds of terracotta models of the punic goddess Tanit were unearthed. Also important was the cemetery of the city of Ebussus, called El Puig dels Molins, where thousands of tombs have provided a wealth of funerary offerings.



Empúries, located on the northern coast of Girona province, is undoubtedly the best documented Greek colony on the Iberian peninsula. Emporion *[marketplace]* was founded by Hellenic traders around 600 BC and became a doorway for the entry of new people, products, customs and ideas from the Hellenic states, and its influence over the indigenous Iberian world was significant. Although the colony of Emporion is best known for its architecture of Roman origin, this was erected over the original Greek ruins, with the original Greek quay in the port and its necropolis having been found. Tombs excavated in the early 20th century have provided a wealth of remains.

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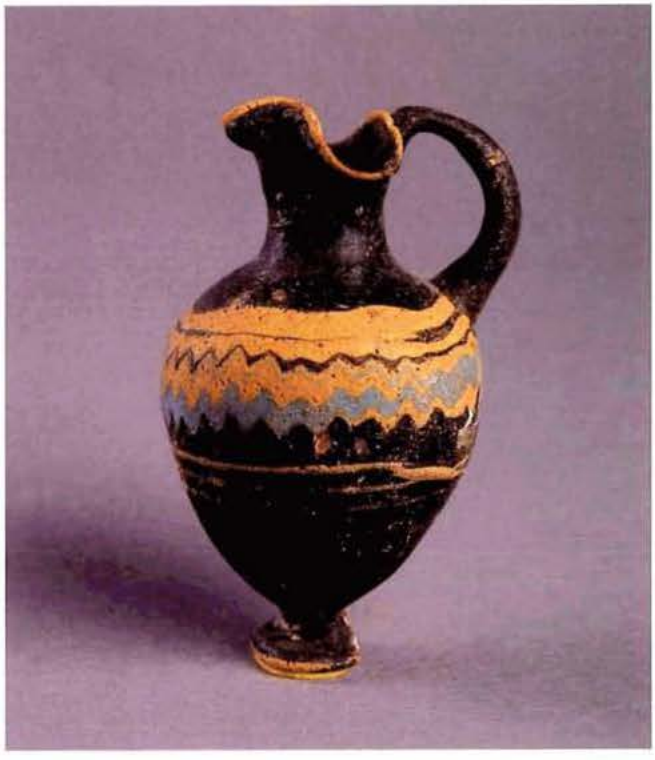
Terracota púnica de la necrópolis del Puig dels Molins (Ibiza). Busto femenino. Siglos IV-III a.C. Alt. 23'0 cm.

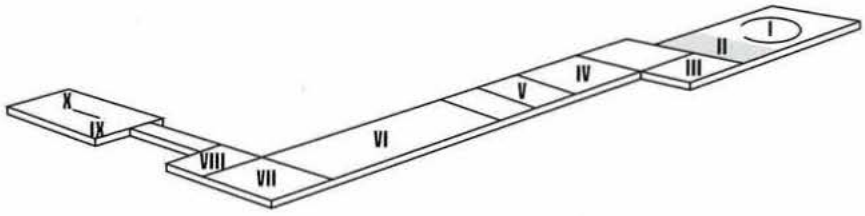


Oenochoe púnico de pasta vítrea del Puig dels Molins. Siglo V a.C. Alt. 7'3 cm.

Attic Lekythos from the necropolis of Empúries (Girona). 5th-4th C BC. Height 10.6cm.

Greek terracotta from the necropolis of Empúries. Woman with bare torso. 5th-4th C BC. Height 17.1cm.

◁
Iberian ex-voto in bronze
from the sanctuary
of Peal Becerro (Jaén).
Woman wrapped in long cloak.
6th-4th C BC.
Height 12.0cm. de



Room II starts with a general introduction to Iberian culture, which developed on the peninsula between the 6th and the 2nd century BC. Presiding the Room is a hologram of the Dama de Elx, complemented by ceramics, votive offerings in bronze, and a mill wheel. The origins of this culture are reflected in various sites pertaining to the initial stages, such as Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes, Altea la Vella, La Solivella in Alcalà de Xivert, El Boverot in Almassora or El Puntalet, and the Cavall cave in Llíria.

II. THE IBERIANS: ONE CULTURE, MANY SETTLEMENTS

The discovery of the Dama de Elche in 1897 and subsequent excavations undertaken in the Alcúdia settlements in Elx, the Covalta de Albaida, La Serreta in Alcoi, La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent and Sant Miquel in Llíria converted the Valencian region in a pioneering zone for knowledge of the Iberian Culture.

Classical Greek and Latin authors gave the name of **iber-iberes** to the inhabitants of the Mediterranean coastal regions stretching from Andalusia to the Hérault River in France. The Iberians, like the Greeks, never achieved political unity, nevertheless, they shared many features in common. These formed part of the so-called Iberian Culture described by researchers, which developed from the 6th to the 2nd or 1st century BC, with traits comparable to those of other Mediterranean cultures.

The existence of cities, where the ruling classes lived, is the most characteristic feature of the Iberians' political and social organization. The widespread use of metal and the potter's wheel marks their technological development. Similarly, the use of writing, the existence of a system of weights and measures, and last but not least, the minting of coin all give an idea of the degree of complexity achieved by Iberian society.

Settlements in the region of Valencia have been quoted in classical texts. The **Ilercavones** inhabited lands extending from the Ebro river to the Millars, and their most important settlements are Moleta dels Frares in Forcall, Puig de la Nau in Benicarló, Puig de la Misericórdia in Vinaròs and Torre la Sal in Cabanes. The **Edetanos** lived in an area ranging southwards from the Millars river to the Xúquer river, with important towns such as Solaig in Betxí, Punta d'Orleyl in Vall d'Uixó, and the cities of Sagunt/*Arse* and Tossal de Sant Miquel/*Edeta* in Llíria, Carència in Turís or the

Pico de los Ajos in Yátova. The **Contestanos**, with settlements such as Xàtiva/*Saiti*, La Serreta in Alcoi, Tossal de Manises in Alicante, Monastil in Elda, La Alcúdia in Elx/*Illici*, La Escuera and El Oral in San Fulgencio, occupied the territory between the Xúquer and the Segura rivers.

Iberian Culture was the result of a process of formation that first started in the 8th century BC with the founding of the first Phoenician colonies in the south of the peninsula. From these coastal colonies the initial stimulus was provided, giving indigenous tribes access to new products and new techniques. Thus, for example, the grapevine, whose remains are documented in the Alt de Benimaquia in Dénia dating from the 6th century BC, was introduced for the benefit of the local elite, who were increasingly interested in emulating colonial lifestyles. In the Los Villares settlement in Caudete de las Fuentes, in Vinarragel in Burriana and El Torrelló in Almassora, it is clear that there was a progressive substitution of hand-made ceramics by wares manufactured on the newly introduced potter's wheel. These developments contributed to greater stability within settlements, as new technology brought growth and a greater concentration of populations, and new building methods as well. In Los Saladares in Orihuela, and above all, in Penya Negra in Crevillent, organized town construction completely changed the face of former primitive huts from the end of the Bronze Age.

The discoveries from the spurs of the Tossal de Sant Miquel hill, known as **El Puntalet** and **El Collado de la Cova del Cavall (Llíria, Camp de Túria** district) belong to this formatory period of the Iberian Culture. In 1947, two burial areas dating from the end of the 7th century and the mid-6th century BC were excavated. The remains of five incinerations were found inside a number of burial urns, which turned out to have been made both by hand and on the wheel. One of these was a Phoenician storage vessel with painted decoration. The funeral offerings found along with the urns were negligible.

Similarly, two handmade urns containing incinerated remains were found in pit tombs at El **Boverot (Almassora, La Plana Alta** district) in 1932. These belong to the end of the Bronze Age, the 8th century BC, just before the spread of colonial influences. These burials probably formed part of a necropolis dating back over a longer time and linked to the nearby settlement of Torrelló (Almassora).

Other archaeological sites and characteristic materials of the period include **Cabezo de Monleón** (Caspe, Zaragoza prov.), a village with stratigraphic sequences dating from the 10th to the 7th centuries BC. This settlement showed no signs of having used the potter's wheel, and only hand-made ceramics with channelled and incised decorations typical of the end of the Bronze Age have been found.

Los Villares (Caudete de las Fuentes, la Plana de Utiel district), a large-scale site excavated as of 1956, shows stratigraphic sequences facilitating the study of how the Iberian Culture was formed. Over a substrate belonging to the Late Iron Age, characterized by handmade pottery, new influences from the coastal Phoenician and Greek colonies were superimposed during the 7th-5th centuries BC. The best documented developments were ceramic wares made on potters' wheels and objects made in iron.

The necropolis of **La Solivella (Alcalà de Xivert, Baix Maestrat** district), where the dead were incinerated, dates from the 6th to the first half of the 5th century BC. This was excavated in 1961, when a total of 28 sepulchres were discovered, laid out in pit tombs. All ceramics recovered from these sites were made locally, on wheels, and the offerings accompanying the incinerated remains were metal objects used for personal adornment and arms.

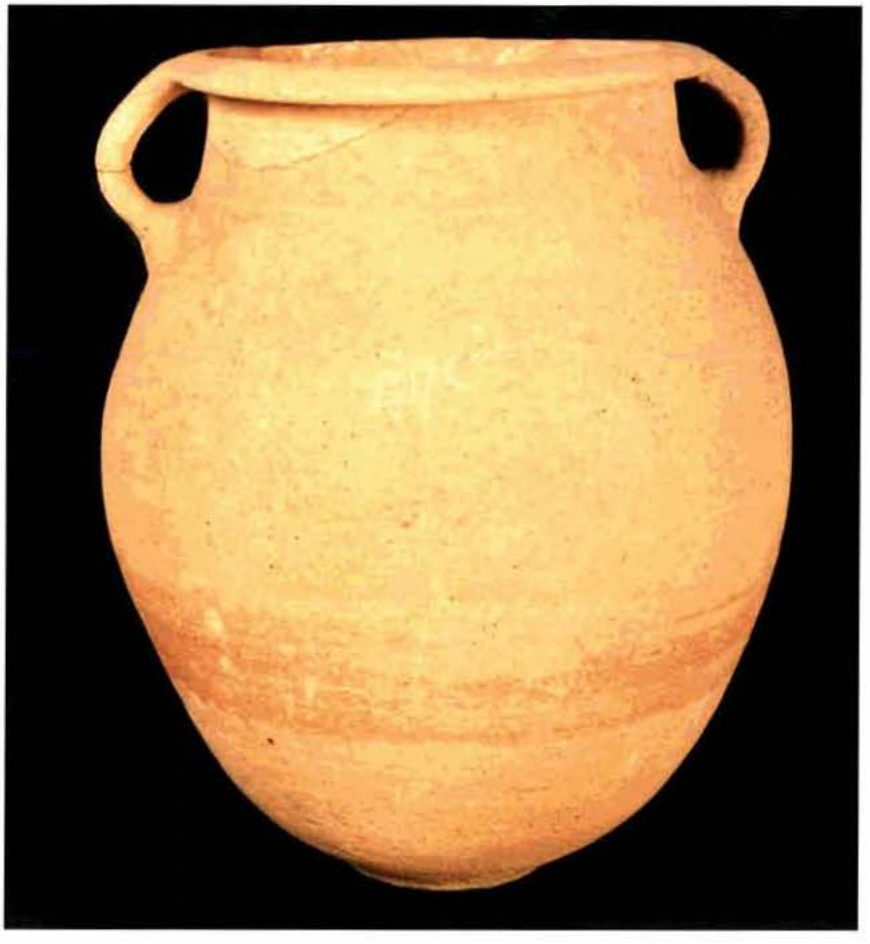
The necropolis of **Altea la Vella (Altea, Marina Baixa** district), discovered in 1972, provided a number of incinerations with only a few funeral offerings composed mainly of belt brooches and adornments. All funerary urns had small handles and were characteristic of the Old Iberian horizon, ie, the 6th-5th centuries BC. One of the tombs was marked with a stele on which a clothed and armed warrior is shown.

"Urnas de orejetas" (lidded cinerary urns with perforated handles) from the Iberian necropolis of Altea la Vella (Altea). 6th C BC. Height of tallest urn 33.5cm.

Iberian ex-voto in bronze from the sanctuary of Despeñaperros (Jaén). 4th C BC.
Height 6.0cm.

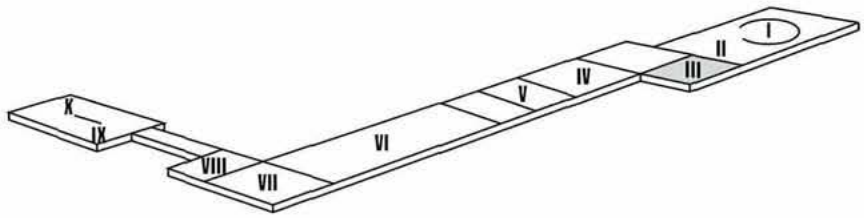
Iberian vase decorated with banding and fillets from the Los Villares settlement (Caudete de las Fuentes). 6th C BC. Height 36.7cm.

Ionian cup from the Los Villares settlement. From 530-500 years BC. Height 6.5cm.



Phoenician vase from La Cova del Cavall (Llíria). 7th-6th C BC. Height 35.0cm.

◁
The "Warrior of Moixent",
an Iberian ex-voto in bronze found
at La Bastida de les Alcuses (Moixent).
4th C BC. Height 7.3cm.



Room III presents finds from large-scale Iberian settlements, with their complex gridwork of streets and fortifications, using as an example the citadel of La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent. Of note here are iron implements, adornments, arms, imported pottery varnished in black, and particularly, a diminutive yet impressive bronze votive offering known as the 'Warrior of Moixent'. Completing the room is a display of jewellery gathered from various sites, a woman's necklace, a small polychrome glass matrix head from La Covalta de Albaida and a gold earring from Penya Roja in Llíria.

III. LARGE IBERIAN SETTLEMENTS AND THEIR SURROUNDINGS: ECONOMIC ASPECTS

During the Iberian Culture the shape of the environment and the structure of the population changed dramatically in comparison to preceding periods. For the first time, true cities began to exist, centres of activity that exercised political and economic control over the surrounding territory, which contained its own fabric of farmlands, villages and towns. The land was protected by fortresses, which were placed at strategic locations to control the "frontiers" of each individual territory.

Excavations show that this society was unmistakably sedentary in nature. It was organized in such a way as to ensure appropriate defence. Iberian settlements such as La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent, La Covalta de Meca in Ayora, El Puig in Benicarló, or La Illeta dels Banyet in Campello, located on meseta-topped hills or on flat lands, present a square-shaped urban layout with large houses, surrounded by a walled enclosure with sturdy towers. Of a more complex nature were the hillside settlements such as El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, El Tossal de la Cala in Benidorm or La Serreta in Alcoi, where the topography called for more resourcefulness in planning streets, with block layouts rising terrace-like up the hill. Other types of layouts are known, such as small villages with one central street, unfortified settlements and isolated towerhouses which were used for a variety of purposes. The discovery of multiple-floor buildings and religious enclosures are some of the lesser known aspects of Iberian urbanization.

La Bastida de les Alcuses (Moixent, La Costera district) was partially excavated between 1928 and 1931. This was a settlement of Contestanos that only seems to have lasted a short 100 years, being violently destroyed in the second half of the 4th century BC. It has a strategic location on one of the natural routes from the coast to the inland meseta, known in Roman times as the Augustus Road, and the course of the Vinalopó river flowing

through Alicante province. It had a walled enclosure containing as much as six hectares, with four portals, one of which was soon closed off, and three towers. Inside the walls, the town is laid out in blocks with large buildings facing onto a broad central street. Lead tablets with Iberian script, a bronze figurine known as the "Warrior of Moixent", a collection of Greek ceramic wares and a set of farm and traders' implements are some of the more important finds unearthed here.

Agriculture and animal husbandry were the major **economic activities** of the Iberians. The variety of farm implements in iron, comprising ploughshares, ploughstaffs, spades, adzes, sickles, billhooks and picks, reveal the importance of dryland farming where the emphasis was on cereals. Other metal tools such as saws, chisels, drills, whistles, trowels and needles reflect the importance of craftsmanship in the fields of quarrying, woodworking and leather-making.

Herds of sheep and goats were fundamental for the supply of meat and milk, and also for obtaining hides and wool. Pigs were also raised for meat, whereas oxen where mainly work animals, and the horse was groomed as a mount. Hunting wild animals, particularly deer, the wild boar or the mountain goat, was a complement to the diet of noblemen, as was fishing or gathering wild fruits.

Clothing is only known indirectly through statues and ceramics. Women appear to have worn underskirts and long tunics adorned with trimmings, over which long thick cloaks, usually in purple, were worn as protection against the cold. Footwear consisted of leather slippers. Ceremonial raiment included elaborate headdresses resting on coifs and comprising veils, tall mitres and diadems, and jewellery such as necklaces, earrings, bracelets and rings. Men wore breeches and a short tunic belted around the waist and long cloaks leaving the right arm free, clasped over the shoulder using a metal brooch. Men also wore personal adornments such as earrings, rings and bracelets. For battle, they used helmets, a pectoral clipeus fastened with leather straps, and greaves or shin armour.

Bronze tools, objects and instruments from La Bastida de les Alcuses.
Ring brooches, bell, tweezers, articulated compass, hook, button and pendant. 4th C BC.
Tweezer length 8.3cm.

Iberian ceramic tableware with painted geometric decoration
from La Bastida de les Alcuses. Jug, vases, kylix, oenochoe and cup.
4th C BC. Height of tallest piece 17.1cm.

Attic oenochoe with black varnish
from La Bastida de les Alcuses.
4th C BC. Height 13.7cm.

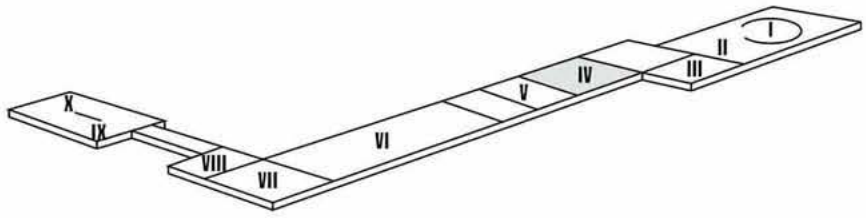
Iron farm implements from La Bastida de les Alcuses. Billhook, axe, pickhead, spade and ploughshare. 4th C BC. Length of biggest piece 25.2cm.

Gold hair needle with chain of 8 braided gold cords from La Bastida de les Alcuses. 4th C BC. Length 29.3cm.

Gold pendant earring from the Penya Roja settlement (Llíria). Decorated gold disc with central rosette surrounded by a circle of 18 faces, embossed and stippled. 5th C BC. Diameter 4.5cm.

Polychrome glass matrix pendant of Punic workmanship from the Covalta settlement (Albaida). Bearded man's face. 4th-3rd C BC. Height 3.7cm.

◁
Ceramic foot-shaped guttas from the Los Villares settlement. Oil or perfume holder. 3rd C BC. Height 10.0cm.



Room IV gives us a picture of domestic life at the time of the Iberian culture. Part of a reconstructed Iberian dwelling shows idealized areas for activities such as cooking, weaving, milling and storage. Independently, there is also a display of beekeeping and oil extraction activities. Tableware, imported luxury vessels and large storage recipients brought from Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes complete this overview of typical Iberian household goods.

IV. THE IBERIAN HOME

Materials employed in the construction of Iberian houses included mud, stone and wood. Homes usually had a stonewall foundation or plinth, over which adobe walls were erected. These were faced with mud and whitewashed, or occasionally, painted in reddish or bluish colours. Roofs were flat, serving as terraces and were composed of a thick gridwork of branches and vegetable fibre set on beams and covered with a thick layer of clay. These homes were the centrepoint for all domestic, craft and social activities. In large-scale settlements, houses were divided into compartments used for different purposes: the living quarters, or family rooms, occupied the main area, where cooking and textile work were carried out; storerooms containing amphoras and other vessels were kept separately in smaller, darker rooms. Other rooms were used for sleeping, milling work or as workshops.

Household goods were mainly composed of ceramic recipients of one kind or another. Basketry or wooden implements existed, but evidence is limited to a few carbonized remains. Thanks to the potter's wheel, many different kinds of ceramic wares were produced in varying sizes and shapes for storing, preserving and serving food and drink. Finds include a table service comprising plates, cups, jars and bottles; small recipients for spices, ointments and perfume; occasional pieces such as covers, strainers, bases and mortars; and ritual vessels which are clearly imitations of imported ware such as kraters (wine mixing bowls) and kylixes (wide, shallow drinking bowls). For cooking purposes, earthenware pots, bowls and dishes were made; these were crude-looking but resistant, as they could be exposed to the flames directly without cracking.

Los Villares (Caudete de las Fuentes, La Plana de Utiel district) is a prime example of an Iberian regional capital. It was known in its day as **Kelin**, the largest settlement in the area. Excavations were first started in 1956, and show the evolution of the site from the 7th century BC until its decadence and final abandonment between the years 88 and 77 BC. It was located at an intersection of the road from the coast to the interior and the inland route to Teruel, and served as a channel for

the distribution of commercial products, growing to become the most important settlement in the area on which smaller ones depended for their livelihood. In the section having been excavated there is an urban layout with large compartmented houses facing streets on which horse or oxen-drawn carts could circulate freely. The term "regional capital" is justified in view of the fact that the town occupied some 10 hectares, it traded in a variety of farm produce, it produced inscribed lead tablets and produced its own coinage.

At **La Seña (Villar del Arzobispo, La Serranía** district) and **El Castellet de Bernabé (Llíria, Camp de Túria** district) a number of whitewashed dugout pools were found in which carbonized olive stones were present. These were obviously used as olive curing tanks, proof of the existence of olive oil production before the arrival of the Romans. **Oil** was used in the preparation and preservation of food, for lighting purposes and in the elaboration of creams and ointments. For processing, olives were packed into hemp nets, and these were packed between stone millwheels, which were pressed using a screw system employing a wooden beam turned by counterweights. The pressing ran out along radial channels cut into the stone wheels, being deposited in a sedimentation tank where the pure oil came to the surface. This pure oil was run off into a second tank, while the water and impurities were left in the first tank.

Honey was used as a sweetener in ancient times. Although there are painted references to honey gathering dating back to Prehistoric times, as shown in rock-shelter art, there is no physical or archaeological evidence of beekeeping until the Iberian epoch. Settlements in the Camp de Turia district seem to have frequently used a system of cylindrical ceramic vessels as beehives, with the potter's ribbing left in relief on the insides. Examples of these have been found at **Puntal dels Llops (Olocau, Camp de Túria** district) and at **Monravana** and **El Tossal de Sant Miquel (Llíria, Camp de Túria** district). This type of beehive, which is still in use in Greece, Cyprus, Egypt and Jordan today, and used until recent days in Majorca and Andalusia, Spain, was considered by Roman writers to be of very poor quality, as "they ignite with the heat of the summer and freeze with the cold of winter" (Columella, *Agricultura*, IX, VI). They were stacked on the ground horizontally, sealed with cork or earthenware lids in which holes were made to enable the bees to enter and exit. The ribbing inside facilitated honeycomb adherence.

Attic kylix-skyphos, with red figures, from the Los Villares settlement, showing Eros facing a youth wearing a himation. 4th C BC. Mouth diameter 12.5cm.

Iberian iron keys from the El Xarpolar (Magarida-Planes) and Puntal dels Llops (Olocau) settlements. 3rd C BC. Length of largest piece 11.5cm.

Iberian kitchen ceramics from Los Villares. Pot, cups, pan and perforated charcoal holder. 3rd C BC. Pan diameter 29.0cm.

Ceramic beehive containers from the settlements of Puntal dels Llops, El Tossal de Sant Miquel (Llíria) and La Monravana (Llíria). 3rd-2nd C BC. Length of largest piece 59.2cm.

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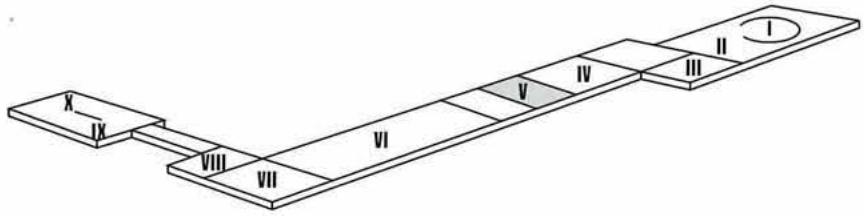
Terracotta perfume burner from Puntal dels Llops. Representation of the goddess Demeter/Tanit. 3rd C BC. Height 15.2cm.



Room V concentrates on funerary customs. From the Corral de Saus necropolis in Moixent come a variety of sculptures and architectural elements once forming part of Iberian tombs. The Peñas de Zarra and Casa del Monte necropolises in Valdeganga (Albacete prov.) give us a view of funeral urns and offerings for the deceased, who were incinerated, as well as warriors' arms. Also shown are child burials from Castellet de Bernabé in Llíria, ex-votos from Despeñaperros, terracotta from Puntal dels Llops in Olocau and votive offering jars from Puntal del Horno Ciego cave in Villargordo del Cabriel, all corresponding to places of worship.

V. IBERIAN FUNERAL RITES AND RELIGION

The Iberians incinerated their dead, a process which was accompanied by the burning of aromatic herbs. The ashes of the deceased were then carefully collected and deposited in a *loculus*, with or without an urn. Together with these incinerated remains, funeral offerings were placed in tombs. These offerings were objects that indicated the social status of the deceased, such as luxury ceramics, weapons or tools; personal ornaments such as brooches or necklace beads, and in some cases figurines, amulets or food offerings. Any number of ceremonies could be held during the celebration, such as libations, funerary games, processions or cortèges, and banquets. Common graves in Iberian necropolises or cemeteries were mere pit tombs, or holes dug in the ground covered with a mound of earth or stone. Luxury sepulchres were stone or adobe barrows, marked by pillars or stelae or tower-shaped monuments, expressing princely status. Tombs, in any case, were anonymous and only after the Roman conquest did funerary stones begin to bear any engravings, as evidenced by the Sinarcas gravestone.

El Corral de Saus (Moixent, La Costera district) is a necropolis which was excavated in the 1970s, revealing two large stone burial mound monuments known as the *Damitas tomb* and *Sirenas tomb*, and over 15 cremated corpses buried in pits. Among the funerary offerings deposited here were Iberian ceramics, imported ceramics dated between the 5th and 1st centuries BC, metal objects, glass matrix objects, terracottas, and calcified bones, evidence of cremation. A funerary monument corresponding to the oldest phase of this necropolis, between the 6th-5th centuries BC, has been reconstructed as a pillar/stele thanks to the sculpted remains used in tumulus structures dating from a later phase, between the 3rd-2nd centuries BC.

The elements forming part of the pillar/stele-type monument from the Corral de Saus are: stepped base,

square pillar, cyma with scotia and beading, topped with a zoomorphic sculpture on a pedestal, measuring between 2 and 3 metres in height. These monuments, dating from the 6th-4th centuries BC, are known from necropolises in Pozo Moro in Chinchilla (Albacete); Monforte del Cid (Alicante); and Coimbra del Barranco Ancho and El Prado in Jumilla, Fuentecica del Tío Garrulo in Coy-Lorca, Los Nietos in Cartagena, and El Cigarralejo in Mula (all in Murcia province).

Excavations in the necropolis of **Las Peñas (Zarra**, Valle de Cofrentes) have provided a total of 20 incinerations dating from the 6th-4th centuries BC. The majority of these tombs were simple pits dug in the ground, either circular or rectangular, with a layer of stone lining the base or one of the sides. Only four of the tombs were constructed using stone wall techniques, similar to a cist or a full stone lining. Except in two cases, the pits contained a cinerary urn holding the calcified bones and remains of the deceased and sometimes a small metal object. All other household goods or adornments employed as offerings, such as arms, vases or necklace beads, were placed around the urn and the whole ensemble was usually covered with the ashes and carbons left over from incineration.

The presence of weapons is common in funeral offerings, as observed at the necropolis of **Casa de Monte (Valdeganga**, Albacete prov.). This confirms the importance of warrior ideologies sustained by the higher levels of society. This is also observable in combat scenes shown in paintings on vases from El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria or from La Serreta in Alcoi, evidencing a military hierarchy: riders with spurs and plumed helmets seem to be directing the infantry equipped with cuirasses, simple helmets and shields either round (*caetra*) or elongated (*scutum*). The arms borne by the riders are usually the *soliferreum*, an iron lance in one single piece, or the *pilum*, a wooden shaft shod with an iron ferrule and point. The horses wear headbands and propitiatory bells. The infantry soldiers combat with *falcatas*, single-edged swords with protected hilts, or straight, double-edged swords with antennae hilts.

One of the best documented funerary discoveries in recent years are the child burials in Iberian houses, such as those found at **Castellet de Bernabé (Llíria, Camp de Túria** district). Both newborns and babies only a few months old are thought not to have shared in the customary funerary traditions and sites reserved for adults. They were not incinerated or buried in cemeteries, but rather incarcerated under the floors of Iberian houses. These customs lead researchers to believe that there were strict rites of passage according to age, and only the fulfilment of these enabled the deceased to become honoured as full members of society. In some cases there is evidence suggesting that these child burials were home-founding or home abandonment sacrifices.

In addition to evidence from necropolises, the religious life of the Iberians is manifested in specific places of worship. From remote prehistoric times there seem to be telluric beliefs, ie, associated with the earth itself, whose continuance in the Iberian epoch can be inferred from deposits regularly made in certain caves. These cave sanctuaries have provided collections of materials such as numerous caliciform vases and dishes used as lamps or recipients for libations, such as those found in **Cueva del Puntal del Horno Ciego (Villargordo del Cabriel**, La Plana de Utiel).

Sanctuaries were often far removed from villages and towns, and were associated with collective cults which were possibly dedicated to reinforcing tribal identity. Terracotta ex-votos were often deposited at these sites, such as those found at La Serreta in Alcoi, or the stone and bronze objects representing worshippers or animals found at Cigarrelejo de Lua (Murcia prov.) or Despeñaperros (Jaén prov.). The temples of La Illeta dels Banyets in Campello, of El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, or of L'Alcúdia in Elx show signs of the complex nature of Iberian religion as well as the existence of household chapels inside villages.

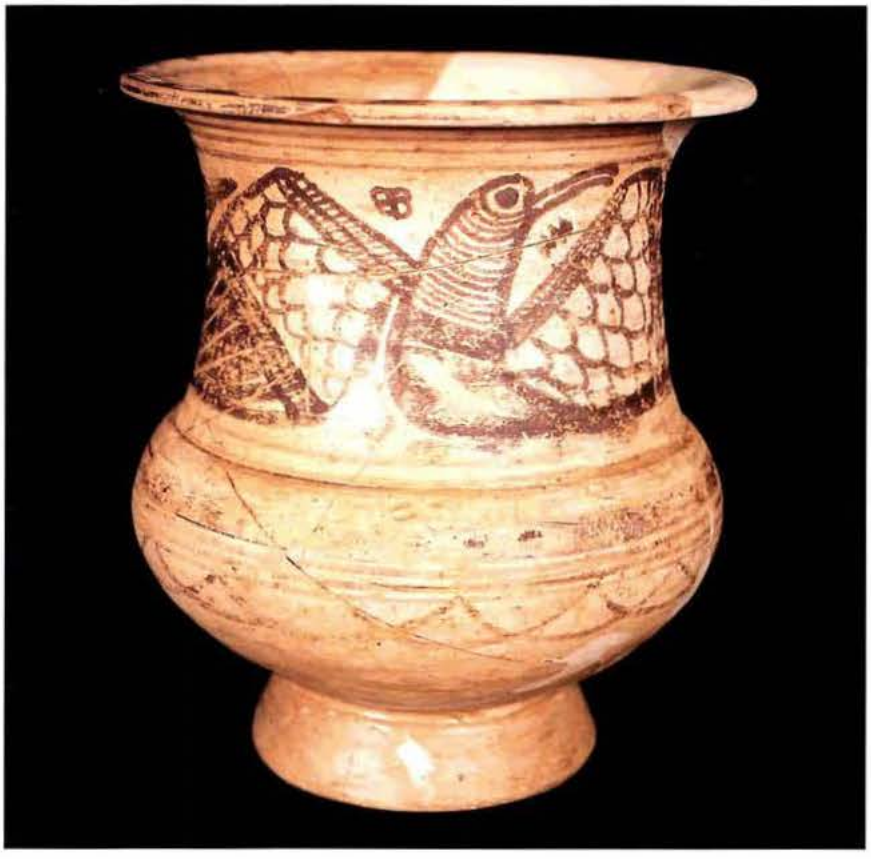
▷

Sculpted female head in limestone belonging to a funerary monument from the Iberian necropolis of Corral de Saus (Moixent). 5th-4th C BC. Height 20.4cm.

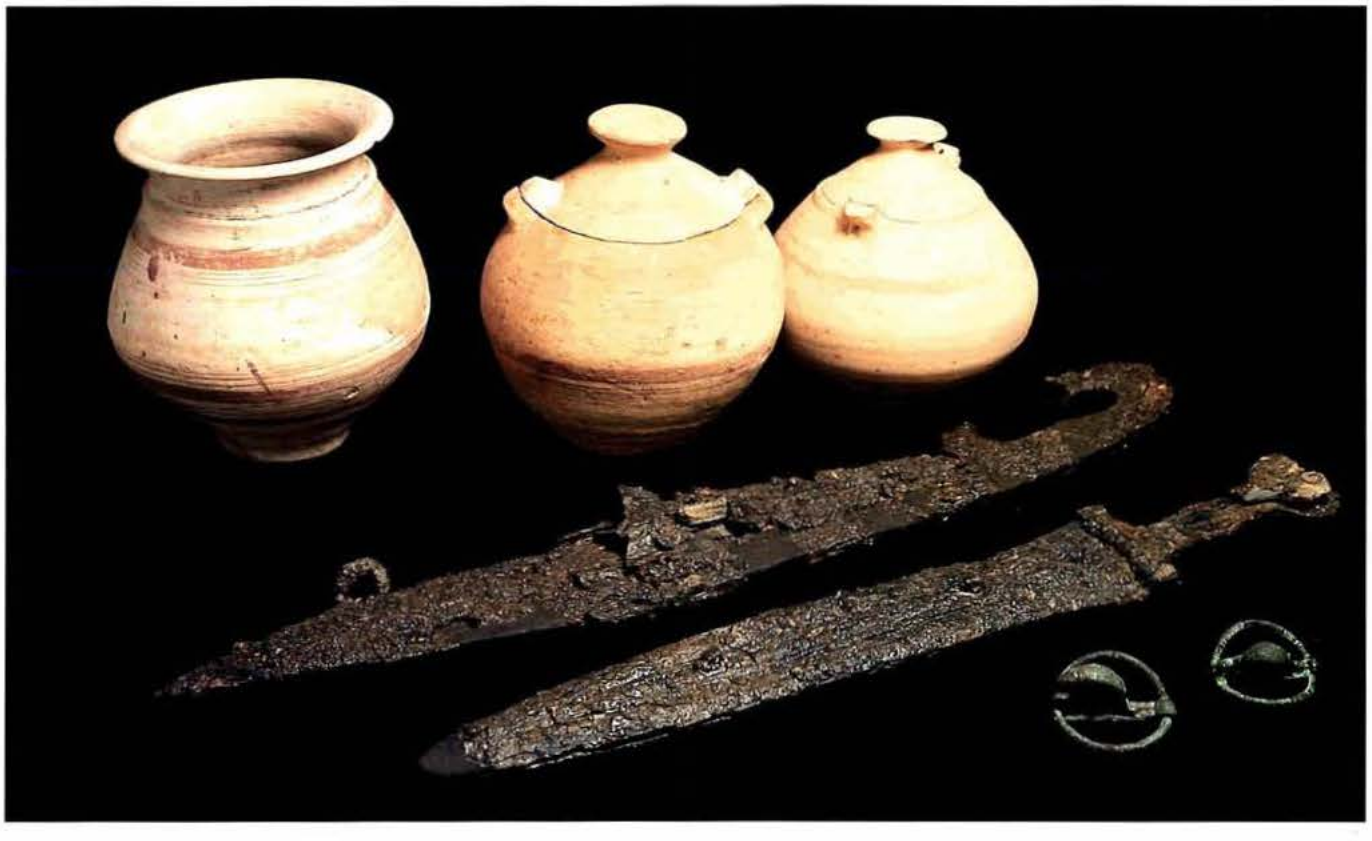
Siren's body in limestone from a funerary monument at the Iberian necropolis of Corral de Saus.
5th-4th C BC. Length 52.0cm.

Lady of the Corral de Saus. Sculpted limestone female figures used as architectural elements forming part of a funerary monument at the necropolis.
5th-4th C BC. Height 60.2cm.

Calciform jar decorated with a bird with outstretched wings from the Corral de Saus necropolis. 2nd C BC. Height 13.4cm.

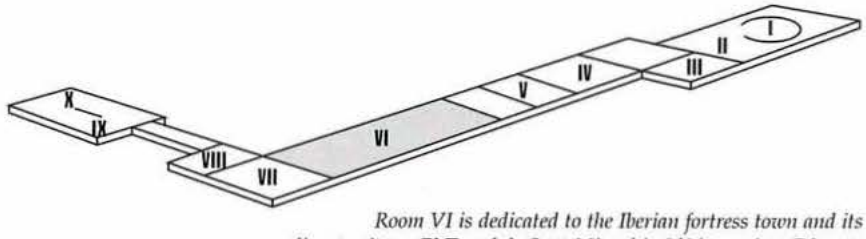


Materials from the Iberian necropolis of Las Peñas (Zarra). "Urnas de orejetas", falcata and iron sword, bronze clasps. 6th C BC. Height of tallest urn 18.1cm.



Falcata and double-headed sword in iron from the Iberian necropolis of Casa del Monte (Valdeganga, Albacete prov.). 6th C BC. Lengths 56.3 and 50.2cm.

◁
Jar or albarello, decorated with geometric and floral motifs from El Tossal de Sant Miquel. End of 3rd C and beginning of 2nd C BC. Height 25.0cm.



Room VI is dedicated to the Iberian fortress town and its surrounding territory. El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, ancient Edeta to the Iberians, is an example of a large-scale site, from which there is a rich collection of Iberian ceramics with painted figurative themes, such as the Vas dels Guerrers, the 'Warriors Vase'. Edeta was the capital of substantial territory subdivided into various categories of settlements: villages, such as La Seña in Villar del Arzobispo, Monravana in Llíria; estates such as Castellet de Bernabé in Llíria, which is shown in a scale model in addition to contributing articles; and fortresses, such as El Puntal dels Llops in Olocau. This is all explained on a large interactive model showing the entire modern-day Camp de Túria district with additional help from an audiovisual.

VI. EL TOSSAL DE SANT MIQUEL: THE CITY OF EDETA AND ITS ENVIRONS

El Tossal de Sant Miquel (Llíria, Camp de Túria district) was excavated between the years 1933 and 1953, and is well-known for its collection of decorated vases, with scripts accompanying many objects. In fact, this site has provided the largest register of Iberian epigraphics on the peninsula. The Iberian regional capital, identified as *Edeta* by the Roman geographer Strabus, occupied a total of 10 hectares at its time of maximum splendour, between the 4th and 2nd C BC, surrounding the entire hill. It has a layout which is typical of hillside settlements, with buildings backed against the slope facing outwards in a series of artificial terraces over which the streets ran. The terracing of the slope was accentuated by the fact that houses had multiple stories and flat roofs. In the 2nd C BC, following the Roman conquest, the town was set aflame and destroyed, and for the rest of the century and the following it gradually fell into disuse and was abandoned. As of the 1st C AD the Roman city, constructed in the area known as the Pla de l'Arc, grew to reach a new age of splendour.

Decorated Iberian vases can be grouped into two very different pictorial styles depending on local geography and chronology: the Llíria-Oliva narrative style, with figurative scenes composed in friezes and often accompanied by written texts, dating from the end of the 3rd C BC; and the Elx-Archena symbolic style, characterized by isolated images and illustrations of mythological beings on central panels, dating from the 2nd-1st C BC. In prestige works of this kind, which usually seem to have been commissioned, the role of the specialized painter stands out from that of the potter. The subdivision of work among potters and painters, with commissions coming from above, confirms that Iberian society was a hierarchy in which artisans and workshops served the ruling urban classes.

The scenes painted on ceramics from *Edeta*, composed on friezes and always showing a variety of characters, reflect specific activities belonging to the aristocratic level of society. They show leisure pursuits such as hunting and competitive games, and military feats, battles and duels, indicating the social importance of the high-ranking warrior. Seated ladies, processions and dances reflect well-established festivities and religious activities in ceremonies in which women always took part, and judging by their garments and attributes, they represented high-ranking ladies. Scenes depicted on ceramic wares therefore show the urban world of the privileged classes at the end of the 3rd C and beginning of the 2nd C BC, immortalized by specialized artisans and artists rendering services to the privileged. The lower level of society was made up of farmers, who worked in the country and villages surrounding the regional capitals, and were never reflected in Iberian iconography.

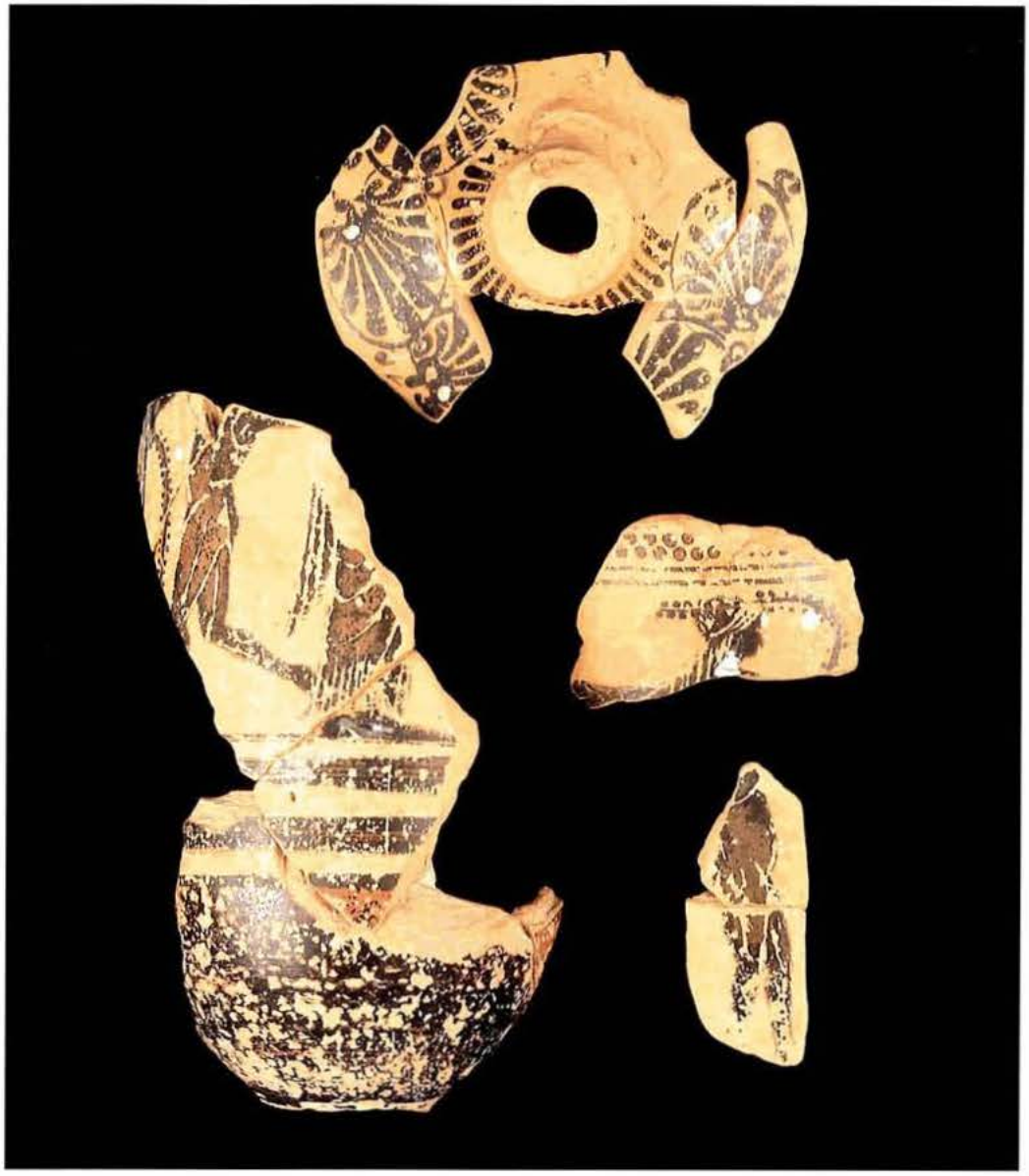
Recent research at *Edeta*-Llíria shows that this city played a role as capital of an extensive and well-defined territory between the Sierra Calderona to the north, the Turia river to the south, the Mediterranean coast to the east and the mountainous Serranía zone to the west. This predominance began around the year 400 BC, when the population began to occupy four types of settlements: hamlets and villages located in farming areas, both of which provided basic foodstuffs, fortresses manned to defend the territory, and finally, the capital city of *Edeta*, the seat of government and the major marketplace for products grown and traded in the region.

Hamlets and villages were the centres for agricultural production in Edetan territory. Measuring almost one hectare in size, Monravana near Llíria, Torreseca near Casinos and La Seña near Villar del Arzobispo were villages peopled with farmers occupied in supplying the city with food. Hamlets such as Castellet de Bernabé near Llíria, were areas of about 1,000m² in size where it can be supposed that the landowner organized work in the immediate vicinity. The locations of these small settlements near the most fertile terrains, and the presence of structures used for processing agricultural products, such as winepresses and oil mills, indicate their use for agricultural purposes. Carpological samples confirm that multiple crops were produced in the usual Mediterranean tripartite manner: cereals, olives and grapevines. Livestock associated with these dryland crops were mainly sheep and goats, with a predominance of the latter. Deer, wild boar and mountain goat hunting not only served to complement the diet, but was obviously a leisure pursuit of the ruling classes.

La Seña (Villar del Arzobispo, La Serranía district) was a walled village measuring some 8,000m² located on flat lands. Excavations have unearthed a winepress, a section of houses backed against the main walls and a stratigraphic sequence dating from the 6th to the 2nd C BC. The village of **Monravana** (Llíria, Camp de Túria district), measuring approximately 6,000m², still conserves its walled enclosure and housing sector within the interior. In addition to houses, the northernmost area contained two oilpresses and flour milling facilities. The mills and presses in these two villages confirm without any doubt the importance of winemaking and oil extraction before the arrival of the Romans.

El Castellet de Bernabé (Llíria, Camp de Túria district) is a hamlet of some 1,000m² located at the foot of the Tres Pics fortress, on the spurs of the Sierra Calderona. Built at the beginning of the 4th C BC, it seems to have been violently destroyed at the start of the 2nd C BC. The layout was simple: one central lane separated two distinct areas: a large house with a hallway and five rooms where the owner and his family probably lived, and a series of smaller constructions with compartments for storing products, milling cereals, a blacksmith's or ironworks and an oilpress, all of which had two storeys. The blacksmith's was a single groundfloor room with a workbench strewn with iron refuse and a number of pieces of slag from a forge, reflecting ample ironworking activities in the settlement, which also provided evidence of a lead foundry, with a furnace, woodpile, a stone used as an anvil and a crude pot for melting lead.

Around the year 400 BC the regional capital of *Edeta* was provided with a network of forts to protect its frontiers. These were built in the form of small-scale settlements, from 500 to 4,000m² in size, with walls and at least one tower, located in prominent positions which



Fragments of an Attic lekythos with black figures from El Tossal de Sant Miquel. About 500 years BC. Length of largest fragment 11.1cm.

were difficult to access, while commanding a wide view over the surrounding land. They were sited on the natural gateways to the routes leading into the Camp de Túria district from the Palància valley and the Serranía district, as well as along the Turia river. They were all within sight of each other and of the headquarters in *Edeta*, enabling them to communicate in the event of danger. This defensive network, the symbol of Edetan power, was dismantled at the beginning of the 2nd C BC, when the Roman domination had begun to be effective.

El Puntal dels Llops (Olocau, Camp de Túria district) is one of the fortresses or lookout towers belonging to this network, little more than 600m² in size, and located at a strategic point commanding a view over the Camp de Túria district and the natural pass through the Carraixet ravine. It is bordered by a defensive wall from whose northern face a square-based watchtower rises. Within the walls, seventeen compartments are distributed on either side of a narrowish central street. The groundfloor underwent no modifications since its initial construction at the end of the 5th C BC until the beginning of the 2nd C BC. A study of the articles found in each of the compartments reveals that complementary activities were carried out in each, and the entire settlement can be considered as an outpost whose major concern was the defence and control of the outlying territory.

"Vase of the Warriors". A lebes decorated with a procession of infantrymen
and riders from El Tossal de Sant Miquel.
Between the end of the 3rd C and the beginning of the 2nd C BC. Height 42.6cm.

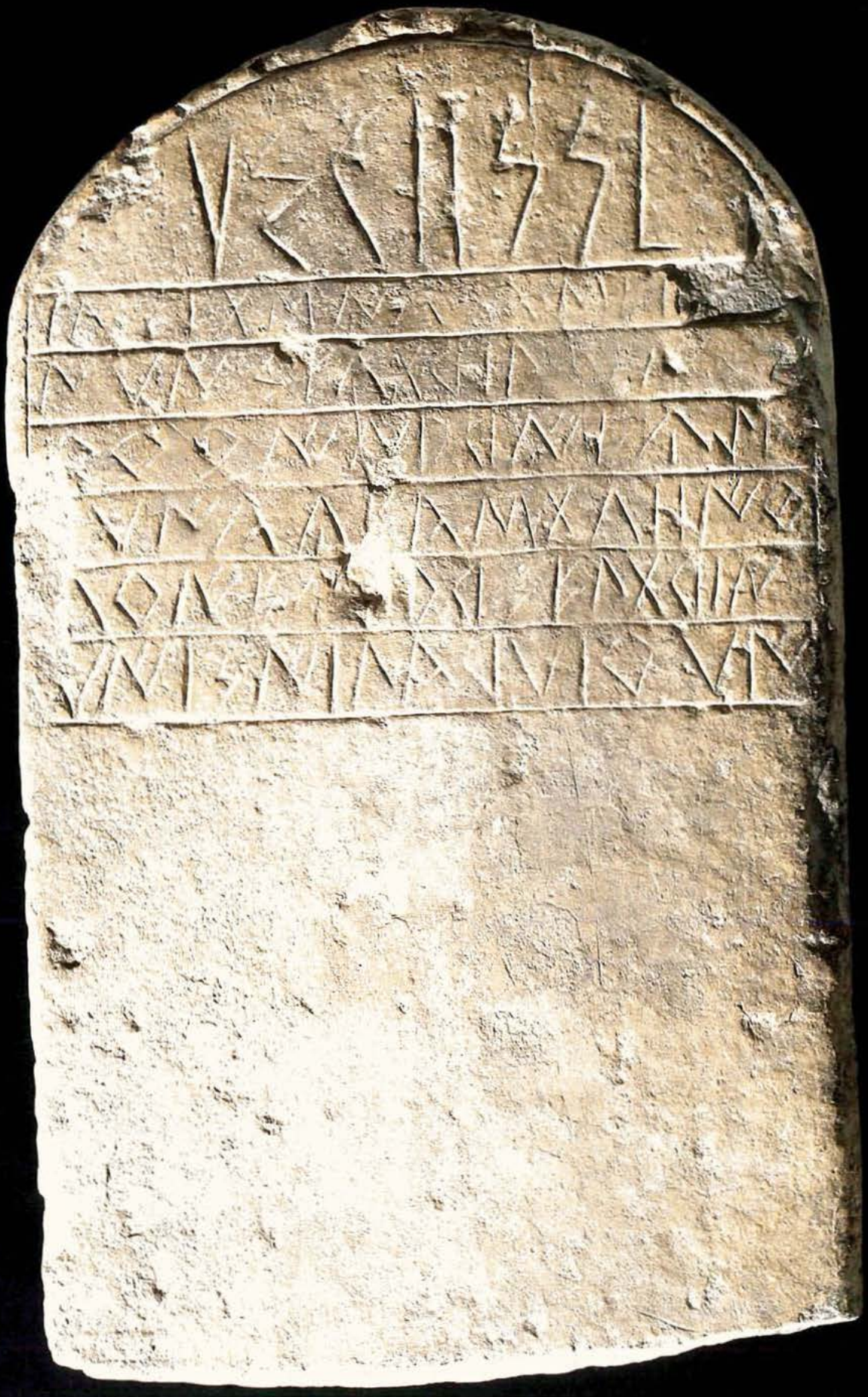
Lampbase-shaped ceramic guttas from El Tossal de Sant Miquel. Oil or perfume holder. Early 2nd C BC. Maximum diameter 11.0cm.

Kalathos or "top hat" jar, decorated with scenes of dancers and musicians, from El Tossal de Sant Miquel. Between the end of the 3rd C and the beginning of the 2nd C BC. Height 14.0cm.

Child burial in an urn found under the floor of a house in the Castellet de Bernabé settlement (Llíria). 4th C BC. Urn diameter 31.2cm.

Black-varnished, foot-shaped ceramic guttas from the Puntal dels Llops settlement. Oil or perfume holder. 3rd C BC. Length 16.0cm.

Iberian ceramic wares with painted decorations, characteristic of Camp de Túria settlements (Puntal dels Llops, Castellet de Bernabé and El Tossal de Sant Miquel). 3rd-2nd C BC. Height of tallest piece 33.2cm.



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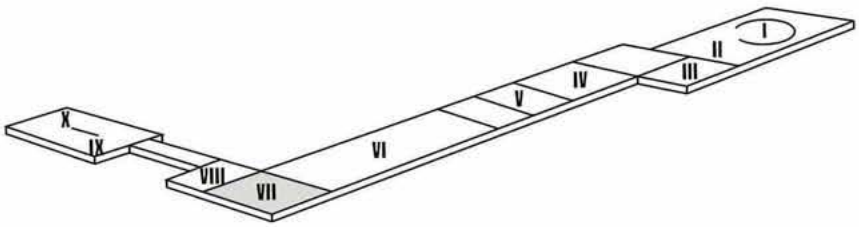
Funerary stela stone with Iberian inscription, from Sinarcas. 1st C BC. Height 78.3cm.



Room VII contains a collection of Iberian objects bearing writing and graphics, comprising incised lead tablets from La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent, El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes, and Pico de los Ajos in Yátova, among others; bronze objects bearing writing from Sant Antoni de Betxí, texts on ceramics from El Tossal de Sant Miquel in Llíria, graffiti on ceramics imported from Tossal de la Cala in Benidorm, an incised bone from La Peña de las Majadas in El Toro, and the funerary stele from Sinarcas, among other objects.

VII. IBERIAN WRITING

Iberian is a pre-Indo-European language grouped amongst Mediterranean linguistic variants, showing certain similarities and parentage with the Berber, Sardinian and Etruscan languages, and with today's Basque, which is the only pre-Indo-European language still spoken on the Iberian peninsula. The first signs of language being written in this region date from the 4th century BC. The symbols used in Iberian writing are derived from the eastern Mediterranean, from the Phoenician-Greek alphabet, adapted to the phonetic values of the Iberian language, resulting in what was originally a semi-syllabic alphabet. Our ignorance of the language spoken by the Iberians prevents us from translating their texts, but some proper names, potter's marks and property signs are known.

Most documents appear to have been written in one of three different alphabets: the Southern alphabet, ranging across eastern Andalusia, the region of the present-day provinces of Albacete, Murcia and Alicante; the Eastern alphabet, extending along the coastal plains; and the Ionic alphabet, limited to the district around Alcoi westwards to the Alicante coast.

Our most useful sources of information are **lead tablets** which have never been translated, but appear to be lists of figures, ie, they are probably administrative files of accounts. At present as many as forty lead tablets have been documented; of note among these are the series found at settlements such as La Serreta in Alcoi, Punta d'Orleyl in Vall d'Uixó, Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes, La Bastida de les Alcuses in Moixent, or Pico de los Ajos in Yátova.

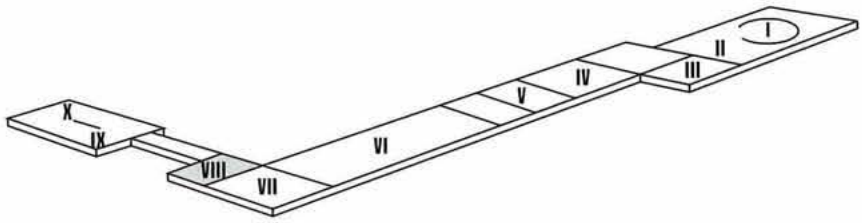
The narrative form of Iberian writing seems to have appeared towards the end of the 3rd century BC, when the same artists who painted figurines on their ceramic wares present explanations of the events they depict by writing dedications or by signing their works. This eminently urban style of craftsmanship enables us to associate the rise of writing with the development of the city and the urban aristocracy.

Lead sheet inscribed with letters of the eastern Iberian alphabet, found at the Pico de los Ajos settlement (Yátova). 4th C BC. Length 18.8cm.

Lead sheet inscribed with letters of the eastern Iberian alphabet, found at the Pico de los Ajos settlement (Yátova). 4th C BC. Length 18.8cm.

Iberian text from GUDUR DEISDEA with painted battle scenes on a vase from El Tossal de Sant Miquel. Between the end of the 3rd C and the beginning of the 2nd C BC

◁
Small treasure horde found at the Los Villares Iberian settlement. Bronze and silver coins, gold ring and silver earrings in a ceramic jar. Between the end of the 3rd C and the beginning of the 2nd C BC.
Height of jar 7.8cm.



Room VIII is devoted to Iberian numismatics, with a display of products from four Valencian minting centres: Arse-Saguntum, Saiti-Xàtiva, Kelin-Los Villares and Kili. In addition, a number of other objects related to trading activities are shown, plus the cache of Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes, including an Ampurian drachma, Carthaginian coin and a sampling of Iberian coin from various mints around the Peninsula.

VIII. IBERIAN COINS

Around 600 years before the birth of Christ, coinage was first made on the Turkish coast of the Aegean sea, but it took two and a half centuries for it to be minted in some of the settlements on the Iberian peninsula. Coins were simply another form of exchange, but they were eventually to become more important than all others. During the 5th to the 3rd centuries BC there is evidence in Iberian settlements of coinage minted in Syracuse, Messana, Massalia and Emporion. At this time, coins played a sub-ordinate or practically insignificant role in exchanges, as barter or gross metal were the predominant means of exchange.

The first coins minted in the Valencian region came from **Arse** (Sagunt) during the second half of the 3rd century BC. A little later coins were minted in **Saitabi** (Xàtiva). As of the 2nd century BC workshops in the towns of **Kelin** (Los Villares in Caudete de las Fuentes) and **Kili** (unidentified with a specific settlement to date) came into existence. The Second Punic War between Romans and Carthaginians served as the cause of a substantial expansion of the use of coins in the region. What seems to have been an enormous quantity of coinage was put into circulation as payment of war costs, and as wages (*stipendium*) paid to mercenaries. *Arse* and *Saitabi* were the centres of important issues of coin, with high production levels in the 2nd and 1st centuries BC. Both made silver coins, although Valencian mints with the exception of *Arse* were mostly involved in producing bronze coins called *ases* and *divisores*, ie, money used in small transactions. Parallel to these mintings from Iberian production centres came three issues of bronze coin from the newly founded Roman city of valiant soldier veterans called **Valentia**.

Ampurian fractional coins from El Collado de la Cova del Cavall (Llíria). Face and back. 4th C BC. Weight 0.5gr, diam. 1.1cm. Photo García Rosell.

In the Iberian world, coins were accepted far beyond the territory in which they were originally issued, being used as currency in many different centres of population. During the 2nd and 1st centuries BC the Iberian people in the region of Valencia used coins from a wide variety of minting centres. Bronze coins made in Valencian towns possibly comprised as much as one half of the money supply, with the remainder coming from Rome and other Iberian cities such as *Cástulo, Ikalesken, Bolskan* and *Kelse*. The need for silver coin was covered in part by production at *Arse*, but mostly by coin brought from Rome and other mints on the peninsula.

Drachma from Arse (Sagunt)
Face and back. End of 3rd C BC. Weight 3.4gr, diam. 1.7cm.

Bilingual As from Saiti-Saetabi (Xàtiva)
Face and back. Mid-1st C BC. Weight 16gr, diam. 2.8cm.

Monetary unit from Kili (mint unlocated as yet, but probably in the interior of Valencia province). Face and back. Mid-2nd C BC. Weight 11.7gr, diam. 2.5cm.

Monetary unit from Kelin (Los Villares). Face and back. Mid-2nd C BC.
Weight 9.4gr, diam. 2.7cm.

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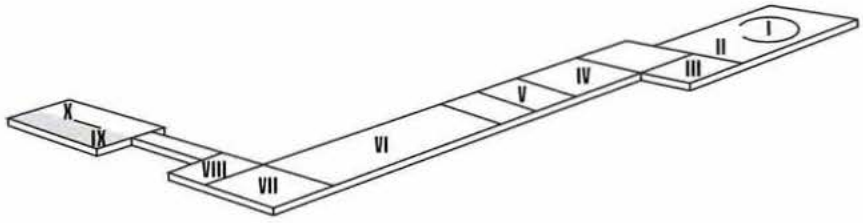
Sculpted marble female form found at València la Vella (Riba-roja de Túria). 2nd-3rd C AD. Height 30.0cm.



Room IX corresponds to the Roman and Visigoth ages. The exhibits on display only provide an initial approach to the way Valencian lands were romanized, with a special focus on certain exceptional archeological sites such as Edeta-Llíria, La Punta de l'Illa in Cullera and El Pla de Nadal in Riba-roja, the latter two pertaining to the end of the period. Among the materials of note are Roman ceramics and bronzes from various sites, and in particular, a bronze statue of Apollo found at Pinedo.

IX. THE ROMAN EPOCH

For Iberian folk, the process of **romanization** involved eating, drinking, dressing, building houses and burning funeral pyres as the Romans did. This new way of life, ranging from the production of goods for commercial purposes, to speaking Latin, celebrating Roman feasts and worshipping Roman deities, and organizing political and administrative powers following the Roman legal system, began quite early in the coastal regions of Valencia. As of the 3rd century BC commercial contacts were maintained with Italy and Sicily. Between 219 and 202 BC it is known that *Saguntum* was won over to the Roman side in the Second Punic War. In the aftermath, ruined areas were restored in Roman style, with the incorporation of Roman-type buildings. If fact, *Saguntum* became a symbol of friendship and fidelity for the Romans. In 138 BC the founding of *Valentia* south of *Saguntum* reinforced Roman influence over the local Iberian population. After this, the farming of coastal lands, with organized irrigation and the improvement of land and sea links, contributed to an increase in living standards among the population spread along the coast.

Cities, of course, were the centrepoints for the organization of Roman municipal areas (*territorium urbis*). Valencia's economic and strategic distribution had already been organized in preceding centuries by the Iberians. This geographical phenomenon was described by Pliny as a *Regio*.

In the *Regio* of Valencia we know of the existence of eight **Roman cities**: **Lesera**, a city founded during the High Empire, is identified with a settlement at Moleta dels Frares, in the hinterlands near Forcall; **Saguntum**, a federated city since the Second Punic War until in Augustus' day it became a *municipium* of Roman

citizens; **Edeta**, a *municipium* under Latin law, at the site of what is now the town of Llíria; **Valentia**, a Latin colony founded in 138 BC and later re-populated under Augustus with soldiers licenced from the Roman army, explaining the mention made in inscriptions in two *ordines*: *Valentini veterani et veteres*; **Saitabi**, a municipium under Latin law in the epoch of Augustus, is the present-day town of Xàtiva, then famous, according to Pliny, for its fabulous linen goods; **Dianium**, the Roman city of Dénia, also deserved a mention by Pliny as a stipendium-payer which only later rose to the rank of a *municipium*; **Lucentum** has been identified as the Roman *municipium* built at Tossal de Manises near Alicante; lastly, **Ilici**, is recognized as the Roman colony founded at Elx by Caesar or Augustus.

For the Romans, *territorium* was a juridical concept subject to fiscalization and the authority of a magistrate, in addition to being a geographical notion. The centre-point was the city itself, which controlled the surrounding territory of farm and pasturelands, and the population of the territory was structured into groups of varying size, each of which comprised production units for farming and fishing which were usually called *villae rusticae*. Water was captured and channelled to cities in large-scale hydraulic engineering feats, of which some are still standing today. Aqueducts such as that of **Peña Cortada (Calles-Chelva, la Serranía** district), subterranean channels and other achievements enabled Roman engineers to bridge geographical accidents and keep the Latin waters flowing smoothly.

Founded in 138 BC, Valentia ranks as the first fully Roman city founded in the region of Valencia, and one of the first in Hispania, as the peninsula was known by Roman geographers. Since its beginning, it was an important urban nucleus, with thermal baths, a forum, defensive walls, and public buildings. It minted its own coin on which the Latin alphabet was used. The city was destroyed by Pompey in 75 BC, and was reborn in the 1st century AD to become, along with *Ilici*, one of the only two Roman colonies located in the Valencian region. Private homes often seem to have had a luxurious aspect. An extensive cemetery was located in the south-eastern section of the city (present-day Central Market), and along the stretch of the main southern road out of the city, the Augustus Road, (calle San Vicente Mártir). One curious fact, extant in very few cities of the Empire, is that citizens were divided into two groups, the *veterani* and the *veteres*, a division that corresponded to two different times of repopulation.

The **Pinedo Apollo** was found in the waters off Pinedo beach on December 8th 1963. Four divers discovered the sculpture of a reclining nude youth identified as the god Apollo, son of Zeus and Leto, and therefore one of the major deities in the Olympian pantheon. The final destination of the sculpture has never been discovered, as it was probably on board a ship that wrecked off the coast. It may have been intended for a religious or civic building, or been commissioned for an urban or rustic villa. Judging from its similarity with other sculptures, the Pinedo Apollo is probably from the Imperial epoch.

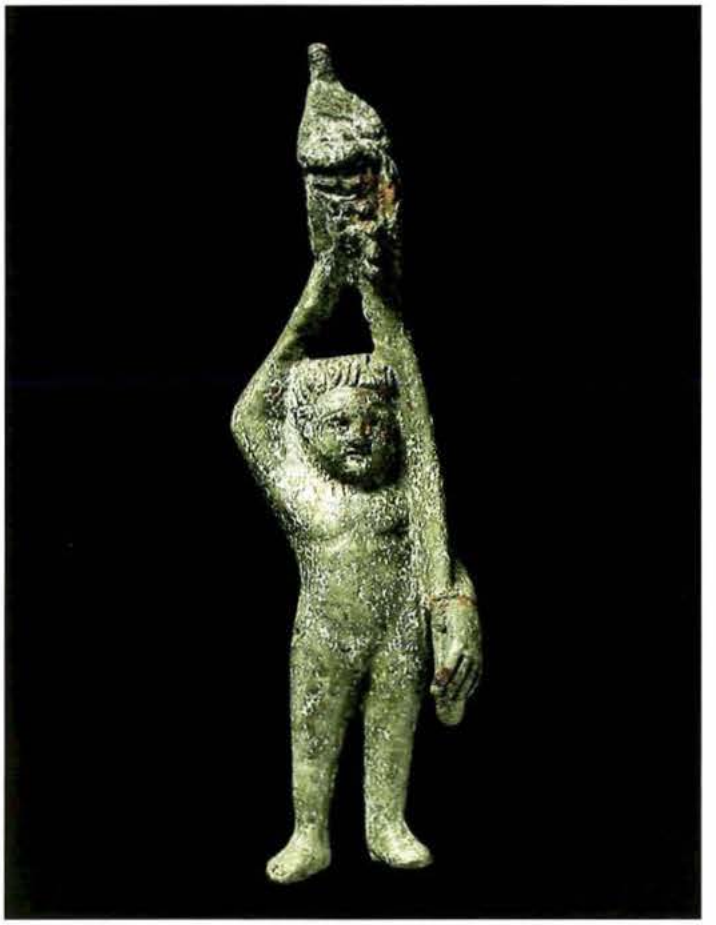
Civitas Edetanorum, present-day Llíria, was a city under Latin law located around the hill known as El Tossal de Sant Miquel. Its name conserves that of the ancient Iberian capital. It is therefore an example of the transfer of the population from the slopes of the hill to the area around its skirts on flatter land. A two-building public thermal complex in the proximity of a temple invites speculation on the religious and salutary functions of this area near Romanized Edeta, perhaps coinciding with a temple to the Nymphs. One section of the road which seems to have been bordered by tombs indicates that it had adopted the usual layout of necropolises typical of Roman urban conglomerations. And the discovery of a number of wells choked with ceramic tableware and kitchenware seems to evidence some sort of Roman ritual. To all appearances, *Edeta* was a flourishing city between the age of the Flavians and the 5th century AD.

Literature tells us of the social consequence of certain personages having been born in *Edeta*. Near the end of the 1st century AD, Marcus Valerius Propinquo Grattio Cerealis became the *Flamen* of the Hispanic Citerior province, and Marcus Cornelius Curatio Nigrino Materno

▷

Pinedo Apollo. Bronze Roman statue found off the Valencia coast at Pinedo. Copy of Hellenistic model dated between the 1st C and the first half of the 2nd C AD. Height 145.0cm.

Hispanic terra sigillata bowl, and common Roman jar and stirrup vases from Plá de l'Arc (Llíria). Between the end of the 1st C and the middle of the 2nd C AD. Height of tallest piece 10.5cm.



Small bronze figurine possibly representing an Eros, from the funerary monuments of Edeta (Llíria). 1st-2nd C AD. Height 16.2cm.

Italian terra sigillata bowl from Arezzo, found at Empúries (Girona). End of 1st C AD. Mouth diam. 15.0cm.

achieved promotions to successive posts as procurator to become one of the highest ranking procurators in Roman politics.

Ceramics were the materials most frequently used by Romans in their daily lives. In addition to table jars made in fine metals, there were well-made ceramic jars which are known as *terra sigillata*, a name they were given because of the manufacturer's stamp, or *sigillum*, inscribed on the bottom of the inside surface. Occasionally, these were decorated with moulded motifs in relief. These jars were produced in large pottery workshops and were marketed throughout the Empire. During the entire Imperial Age, production centres of these jars varied, and in consequence, so did their technical and decorative features.

Apart from the jars used at the table, the Romans made other ceramic recipients and objects to contain, prepare or cook food. Because of the use they were put to, they were mainly lacking in decoration and quality finishes. There were normally made in places close to consumer centres, in order to keep costs to a minimum. In the region of Valencia, a number of kilns where these goods were fired have been discovered.

The **Roman monetary system** was a tri-metallic system (gold, silver and copper) with a fixed correspondence between all coins, which lasted until the 3rd century AD: 1 aureus = 25 denarii = 100 sesterce = 200 dupondii = 400 asses = 800 semes = 1600 quadrantes. The fundamental characteristic of all coins in the Roman world was the use of the Emperor's portrait, which was the most powerful symbol of authority, present in all economic transactions throughout the Empire. The quality of these coins (weight and alloys) and the size of the issue varied over time in accordance with the needs of the state, which eventually attempted to produce more coins with the same limited amount of metal, leading to inflation. The progressive increase in prices brought about the elimination of coins of smaller denomination, making sesterce and dupondii the commonest coins in the 2nd century and the first half of the 3rd century BC.

Throughout all Hispania supplies of bronze ran out during the second half of the 1st century BC, in answer to which colonies and municipia began minting their own coins in bronze. In the Valencian region, only the cities of *Ilici* (colony) and *Saguntum* (municipium) had their own mints, but production levels were low, insufficient to cover the needs of a growing urban population. Following the reign of Caligula, cities in Hispania stopped producing coin. As of this time, all

Statera or Roman scale in bronze from Vélez Blanco (Almería). Length 34.3cm.

Roman lanterns from Empúries. 1st-3rd C AD. Diam. of largest piece 8.9cm.

provinces in the western Mediterranean had a unified monetary system, as all coins in circulation came from Imperial mints. In the middle of the 3rd century there was a progressive deterioration of the Roman monetary system, which never again experienced the stability of the preceding centuries.

Roman society underwent a slow but progressive transformation during the **last few centuries of the Empire**. Following the division of the Empire by Theodosius in the year 395 AD, the disintegration of the western Empire in 476 brought a new political and organizational reality. The creation of the German kingdoms in western Europe (Valencia became part of the Visigoth realm), however, did not bring an end to the historical tradition and the values of Roman society under the Lower Empire.

During this period Christianity and the Church played a predominant role in the political and ideological life of society, completely displacing the pagan deities of the 4th century and replacing the Imperial political system in the 5th. In major cities, where urban life had remained active, episcopal centres began to exercise real control over the territory, intimately linked as they were with the new civil powers.

La Punta de l'Illa (Culla, la Ribera Baixa district) was excavated in the years 1955, 1957 and 1966. Documented remains include a series of defensive walls, a religious building and three compartments devoted to storage space. Ancient texts, chronology and the religious character of the materials found here make it reasonable to suppose that this was the site where the bishop Justinian commanded a monastery to be built in memory of the arrival of St Vicente the Martyr's body. Among the notable materials found at La Punta de l'Illa are amphoras, recipients full of oil from Africa and Syria, and wine from oriental markets such as Palestine and the lands around the Black Sea. The settlement was abandoned around the middle of the 6th century or somewhat later.

El Pla de Nadal (Riba-roja de Túria, el Camp de Túria district) contains a building from the days of the Visigoths which is one of the most unique finds in Valencian archaeology in recent years. It is a civil building built in the 7th century that must have been a nobleman's home, to judge from its proportions. It is the oldest building to use the horseshoe arch in the region of Valencia. The construction is presided by a central nave which is accessed through a small portal with four buttresses on each side. This bay is flanked by two angular towers. Fundamentally, the building still preserves its southernmost façade, as the rest was destroyed due to the transformation of the terrain into arable cropland. At this settlement over 800 architectural items have been found, the majority of which are decorated with bevelled-edged relief work showing a threefold theme: plant volutes, trifolia or lotus flowers and scallops.

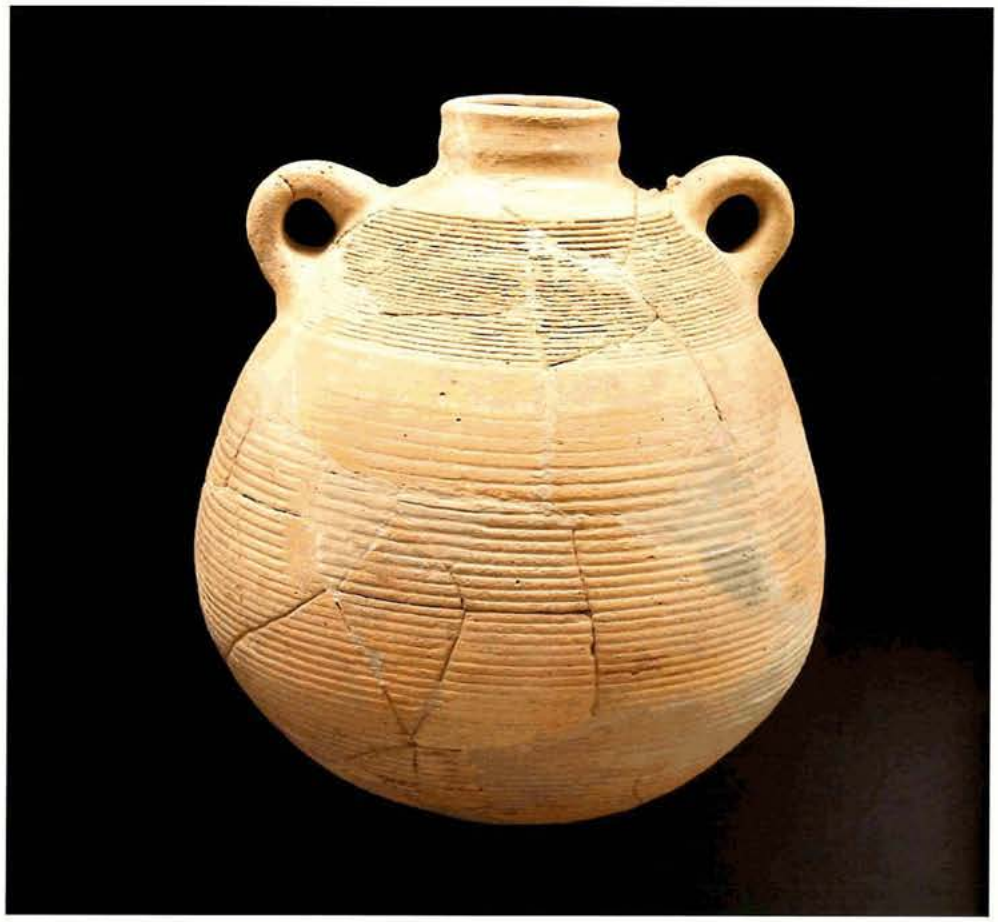
Bronze canteen girth decorated with glass matrix, from the Bèlgida area. 2nd-3rd C AD. Width 6.0cm.

Bronze canteen girth decorated with glass matrix, from the Bèlgida area. 2nd-3rd C AD. Width 6.0cm.

Visigoth ceramic bottles
from the Pego area.
6th-7th C AD.
Height 25.5cm.

Ceramic jar and bottle
from Visigoth burial sites
in Els Xarcons (Montserrat)
and El Romaní (Sollana).
6th-7th C AD.
Bottle height 26.5cm.

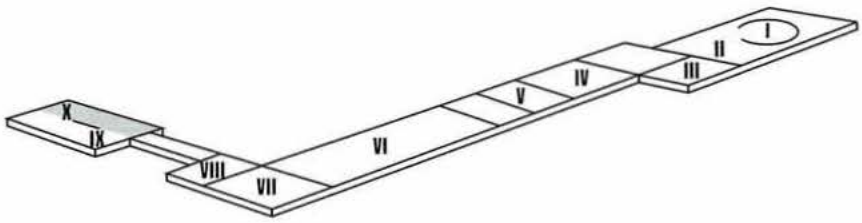
Bronze Visigoth cross
from Punta de l'Illa (Cullera).
6th C AD. Height 15.8cm.



Amphora from Palestine found at
Punta de l'Illa. 6th C AD.
Height 42.0cm.

Visigoth capital in Cornithian tradition,
from Pla de Nadal (Riba-roja de Túria).
7th C AD. Height 29.0cm.

◁
Dinar from Al-Zahir, coined at al-Mansuriya in the year 417 of the Hegira (1026-27). From the Las Suertes treasure (Sinarcas). Weight 4.03gr., diam. 2.4cm.



Room X shows a small coin collection dating from after the Roman age. It includes caches found in a wide variety of sites, such as Oliva, Sinarcas, Monforte, Benifairó de la Valldigna, Valencia, Requena or Xàtiva. The coins correspond to the Moorish, Christian and modern ages, and have been left on permanent deposit at the Museum.

X. NUMISMATICS: VALENCIAN FINDS IN THE 10TH-11TH CENTURIES

People accumulated wealth in a number of forms. Among these, coins minted in gold, silver, bronze and copper were a sign of pertaining to the more well-to-do social classes. Before the creation of banks, the easiest way to store money was to bury it or keep it in a safe hiding place. Some coin collections set aside for special uses, or perhaps as a financial fund for the future, were never recovered by the owners. Surfacing much later in time, they can now be called treasure hordes or caches, sometimes containing valuable coins and objects. Occasionally, treasure hordes contained very valuable coins purposely safeguarded by the owners, whereas at others there were simple collections of frequently used coins, such as the petty cash box used at a tavern.

During the Visigoth reign the monetary system was somewhat lop-sided, with an emphasis on gold-coins called *triens*. These had a high value, as reports affirm that three gold coins sufficed for a man to feed himself for an entire year, but this system raises doubts about the monetization of Visigoth society. The start of the Andalusian Moorish reign brought about a significant change in the monetary aspect, bringing back a stable tri-metallic system which was finally comparable to that of the Roman High Empire having disappeared five centuries before.

Valencian Moorish society was fairly well monetized, with gold coins (dinar), silver coins (dirhem) and coppers (felús). Coin was issued by the rulers to finance war expenses, administration, municipal buildings, etc. and when it finally got to the hands of the farmers, who sold their produce in exchange for money, it was then reincorporated to the state via tax collection, closing the circle in which coins were an instrument of fiscal control. They were also used in trade, as shown by the fact that silver coins were sometimes fragmented into smaller triangles to facilitate local small-scale exchanges.

Diner de tern coined in Valencia
in 1247-49 under Jaime I.
From the treasure of the Moorish Queen
(Benifairó de la Valldigna).
Face and back.
Weight 0.71gr., diam. 1.8cm.
Photo: Alcántara.

Diner de tern coined
in Barcelona in 1258 under Jaime I.
Treasure of the Moorish Queen.
Face and back.
Weight 1.04gr., diam. 1.8cm.
Photo: Alcántara.

Diner coined during
the War of the Germanías,
in Xàtiva in 1521-23. Treasure of Santa
Anna (Xàtiva).
Face and back.
Weight 0.5gr., diam. 1.3cm.
Photo: García Rosell.

8-escudo coin minted under
Fernando VI in Popayán (Colombia)
in 1758. Requena Treasure.
Face and back.
Weight 27.0gr., diam. 3.6cm.

The **Elca treasure** (**Oliva, la Safor** district) is composed of dirhams from the age of the Caliphate, between 933-951 AD. The coins in the **Las Suertes treasure** (**Sinarcas, la Plana de Utiel-Requena** district) were minted between the years 331-428 of the Hegira, ie, from 942-1037 in Christian reckoning. The **Monforte treasure** (middle **Vinalopó** district), stored away some time in the 12th-13th C, is mainly composed of Almohad dirhams.

In 1247, Jaime I minted the first coin belonging exclusively to the Kingdom of Valencia, and it was called the *ral* or *diner de tern*. It was a copper/silver coin containing about 25% of silver with a weight of approximately one gram. Despite the fact that this Valencian coin was the only legal tender in the Kingdom, finds from this age (13th-15th C) confirm that the money actually in use came from outside the realm. As of 1369, gold florins began to be minted in Valencia, and when King Juan I (1387-1896) inaugurated the minting of silver coins of precise weight, the *ral d'argent*, with a value of "one wage and a half" (= 18 *diners* or *rals menuts*), this equivalency was later maintained until the 17th century. The monetary system in the Kingdom of Valencia was: 1 *lliura* (pound) = 20 *sous* = 240 *diners* = 480 *malles/òbols*, but only the diners and òbols existed as actual coin, whereas the rest were simply units of measurement.

The **Moorish Queen's treasure** (**Benifairó de la Valldigna, la Safor** district) was found in the so-called castle of the "Reina Mora", containing a collection of copper and silver coins minted by Jaime I in Barcelona and Valencia, which were hidden at the end of the 13th century. The **treasure of Santa Anna** (**Xàtiva, la Costera** district) was made up of small-denomination copper coin with no special legends which are supposed to have been minted in Xàtiva itself at the time of the Germanías revolts under Carlos I (1519-22). The **Riba-roja de Túria treasure** (**el Camp de Túria** district) contains Valencian *dinerets*, or "small dinars", many of which appear to be falsifications. These were hidden sometime in the second half of the 17th century, as the most modern coins in this collection are attributed to Carlos II (1665-1700).

During the 17th century in the Kingdom of Valencia falsifications of *diners/menuts* seem to have been widely prevalent. The literature of the day attributed these to the Moriscos (converted Moors), just before their expulsion from Spain, but the Christians also made counterfeit coin and continued to do so throughout the century. The *dinar* or *menut* was the smallest denomination coin of all those minted in Valencia, and falsifications seem to have been made in a variety of locations, as evidenced by finds in numerous caves. Of all those known to exist today, materials have been found in the **Cova dels Estudiants** (**Nàquera, el Camp de Turia** district), the **Soterraña** cave (**Chella, la Canal de Navarrés** district), and the **Cova de l'Àguila** (**Picassent, l'Horta** district).

The **Requena treasure** was found in an old house belonging to the Ferrer de Plegamans family of Requena and comprises coins worth 8, 4 and 2 escudos, minted on the peninsula and also overseas. Chronologically, they cover an ample period, as the oldest coin is a piece of eight from the days of Ferdinand VI (r.1746-1759) and the most recent is an 80-real piece from the reign of Isabella II (r.1833-68). They must have represented the family savings, and provide information on the origin of gold coins in circulation in Valencian lands at the time, enabling us to appreciate the value of production and supplies from American mints.

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Ceremonial kero with polychrome decoration. Central American Presto-Punto culture between 800-1200. Height 17.0cm. Photo: Liébana.

In addition to the materials on exhibit in the rooms of the museum described in this book, the Prehistory Museum has other notable archaeological collections which will be placed on display in the future.

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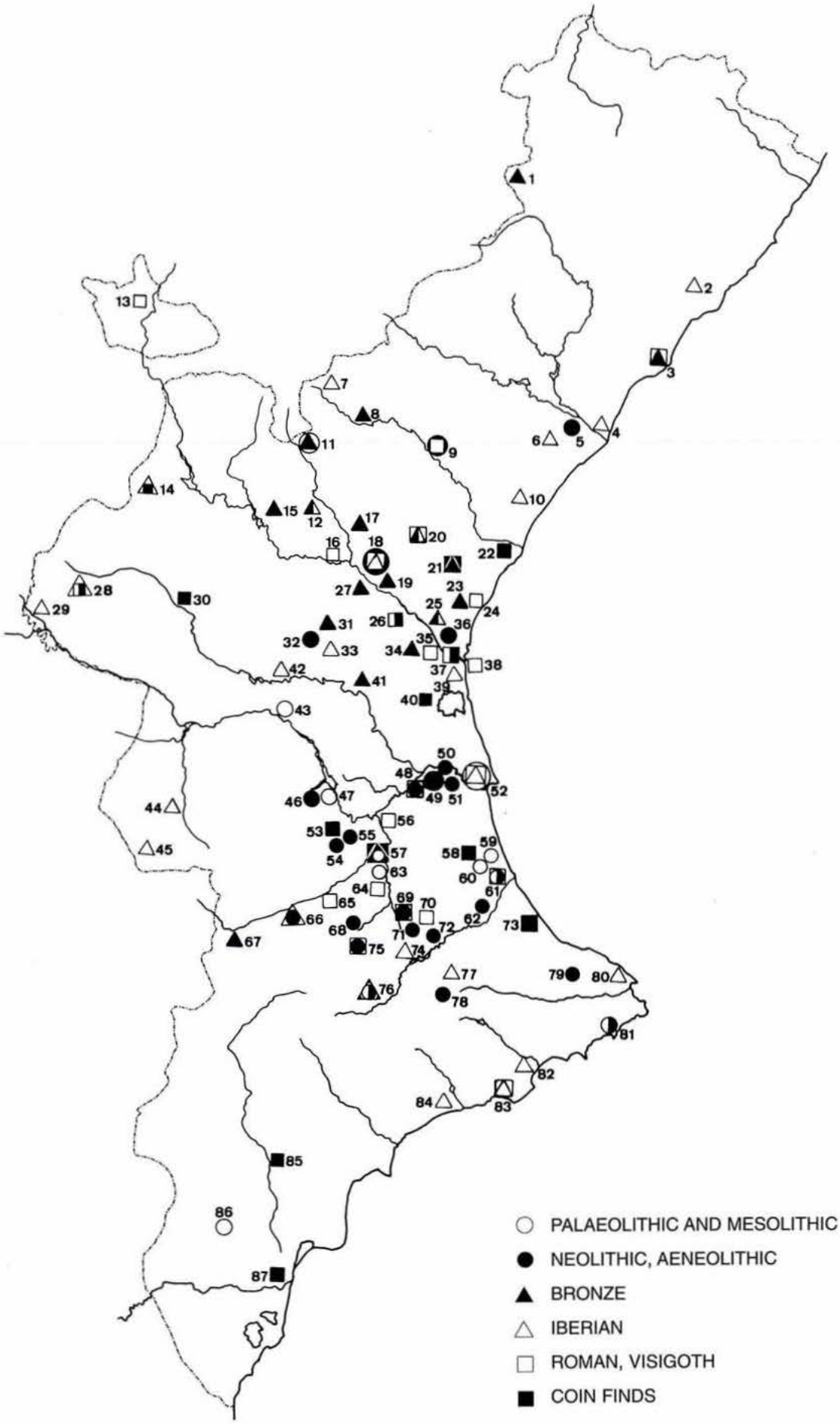
PALAEOLITHIC AND MESOLITHIC
NEOLITHIC, AENEOLITHIC
BRONZE
IBERIAN
ROMAN, VISIGOTH
COIN FINDS

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES IN VALENCIA HAVING PROVIDED MATERIAL FOR MUSEUM EXHIBITS

•**1.** Vilafranca
Ereta del Castellar (Bronze)
•**2.** Alcalà de Xivert
La Solivella (Iberian)
•**3.** Oropesa
Oropesa la Vella (Bronze)
Submarine find (Roman)
•**4.** Almassora
El Boverot (Iberian)
•5. Vila-real
Vil·la Filomena (Aeneolithic)
•**6.** Betxí
Sant Antoni (Iberian)
•**7.** El Toro
Peña de las Majadas (Iberian)
•**8.** Teresa
Peña la Dueña (Bronze)
•**9.** Castellnovo
Torre del Mal Paso
(Aeneolithic, Roman)
•**10.** La Vall d'Uixó
Punta d'Orleyl (Iberian)
•**11.** Andilla
Covacha de Llatas
(Epipalaeolithic)
Castillarejo de los Moros
(Bronze)
12. Villar del Arzobispo
Puntal de Cambra (Bronze)
La Seña (Iberian)
•**13.** Castielfabib
Los Santos (Roman)
•**14.** Sinarcas
Epigraphic find (Iberian)
Las Suertes (Coin find,
10th-11th C)
•**15.** Losa del Obispo
La Atalayuela (Bronze)
•**16.** Pedralba
Epigraphic find (Roman)
•**17.** Casinos
Cabeçol de la Casa de Camp
(Bronze)
•**18.** Llíria
Puntal Sobre la Rambla
Castellarda (Aeneolithic)
El Tossal de Sant Miquel
(Iberian)
Castellet de Bernabé (Iberian)
La Monravana (Iberian)
El Puntalet (Iberian)
Penya Roja (Iberian)
Cova del Cavall (Iberian)
Collado de la Cova del
Cavall (Iberian)
Edeta (Roman)
•**19.** Benaguasil
Llometa del Tio Figuetes
(Bronze)
•**20.** Olocau
Puntal dels Llops (Bronze, Iberian)
La Cargadora (Roman)
•**21.** Nàquera
Els Trencalls (Bronze)
Cova dels Estudiants
(Coin find, 17th-C)
•**22.** Sagunt
Coin mint of Arse (Iberian)
•**23.** Rafelbunyol
Els Germanells (Bronze)
•**24.** El Puig
Submarine find (Roman)
•**25.** Paterna
Lloma de Betxí (Bronze)
Despenyaperros (Iberian)
•**26.** Riba-roja de Túria
Valéncia la Vella (Roman)
Pla de Nadal (Visigoth)
Coin find (17th-C)
•**27.** Vilamarxant
El Gargao (Bronze)
•**28.** Caudete de las Fuentes
Los Villares (Iberian, Roman)
Mint of Kelin (Iberian)
•**29.** Villargordo del Cabriel
Cueva del Puntal del Horno
Ciego (Iberian)
•**30.** Requena
Coin find (18th-19th C)
•**31.** Cheste
El Castillarejo (Bronze)
•**32.** Chiva
Cueva de la Ladera del
Castillo (Aeneolithic)
•**33.** Torís
La Caréncia (Iberian)
•**34.** Torrent
Muntanyeta de Cabrera
(Bronze)
•**35.** Aldaia
Ereta dels Moros (Roman)
•**36.** Rocafort
Cova de Rocafort
(Aeneolithic)
•**37.** Valéncia
Valentia (Roman)
Mint of Valentia (Roman)
•**38.** Pinedo (Valéncia)
Submarine find (Roman)
•**39.** El Saler (Valéncia)
Submarine find (Iberian)
•**40.** Picassent
Cova de l'Aguila
(Coin find, 17th-C)
•**41.** Montserrat
El Castellet (Bronze)
•**42.** Yátova
Pico de los Ajos (Iberian)
•**43.** Dos Aguas
Cueva de la Cocina
(Epipalaeolithic)
•**44.** Zarra
Las Peñas (Iberian)
•**45.** Ayora
Castellar de Meca (Iberian)
•**46.** Navarrés
Ereta del Pedregal
(Aeneolithic)
•**47.** Sumacàrcer
Senda Vedada rock
shelter (Upper
Palaeolithic)
•**48.** Carcaixent
Cova de Xarta (Aeneolithic)
Cau Raboser (Aeneolithic)
Benibaire Alt (Roman)
•**49.** Alzira
Cova dels Gats (Aeneolithic)
Cova de les Aranyes
(Aeneolithic)
Muntanya Assolada (Bronze)
•**50.** Benicull-Polinyà de
Xúquer Sima de la Pedrera
(Aeneolithic)
51. Corbera
Cova de la Mallada Verda
(Aeneolithic)
•**52.** Cullera
Cova del Volcán del Faro
(Upper Palaeolithic)
Alt del Fort (Iberian)
Punta de l'Illa (Visigoth)
•**53.** Chella
Cueva de la Soterraña
(Coin find, 17th-C)
•**54.** Anna
Covacha Barrina
(Aeneolithic)
•**55.** Estubeny
Cova del Barranc de les
Meravelles (Aeneolithic)
•**56.** Manuel
Les Foies (Roman)
•**57.** Xàtiva
Cova Negra (Middle
Palaeolithic)
Penya de Sant Diego
(Bronze)
Mint of Saiti (Coin find)
Santa Anna
(Coin find, 16th-C)
•**58.** Benifairó de la Valldigna
Castell de la Reina Mora
(Coin find, 13th-C)
•**59.** Tavernes de la Valldigna
Cova de Bolomor (Lower
and Middle Palaeolithic)
•**60.** Barx
Cova de les Mallaetes (Upper
Palaeolithic, Epipalaeolithic)
61. Gandia
Cova del Parpalló (Upper
Palaeolithic)
Cova de les Meravelles
(Aeneolithic, Roman)
•**62.** El Real de Gandia
Cova del Barranc del Nano
(Aeneolithic)
•**63.** Bellús
Cova de la Petxina (Middle
Palaeolithic)
•**64.** Guadasséquies
El Cara-sol (Roman)
•**65.** Vallada
Els Horts (Roman)
•**66.** Moixent
Cova del Barranc de Palop
(Aeneolithic)
Bastida de les Alcusses
(Iberian)
Corral de Saus (Iberian)
•**67.** La Font de la Figuera
Cova Santa (Bronze)
•**68.** Ontinyent
Cova del Garrofer
(Aeneolithic)
•**69.** Bélgida
Beniprí (Aeneolithic)
Camí de l'Alfogàs
(Aeneolithic)
L'Atarcó (Aeneolithic)
Isolated find (Roman)
•**70.** Otos
Epigraphic find (Roman)
•**71.** Carrícola
Cova del Barranc del
Castellet (Aeneolithic)
•**72.** Beniarrés
Cova de l'Or (Neolithic)
•**73.** Oliva
Sant Antoni (Bronze)
Elca (Coin find, 10th-C)
•**74.** Albaida
La Covalta (Iberian)
•**75.** Bocairent
Cova de la Sarsa (Neolithic)
Tossal de Sant Antoni
(Roman)
•**76.** Alcoi
El Salt (Middle Palaeolithic)
Cova de la Pastora
(Aeneolithic)
Mas de Menente (Bronze)
Mola Alta de Serelles
(Bronze)
•**77.** Margarida-Planes
El Xarpolar (Iberian)
•**78.** Quatretondeta
Penya Roja (Aeneolithic)
•**79.** Ràfol d'Almúnia
Isolated find (Aeneolithic)
•**80.** Dénia
Alt de Benimaquia (Iberian)
•**81.** Moraira-Teulada
Cova de les Cendres
(Upper Palaeolithic,
Neolithic)
•**82.** Altea
Altea la Vella (Iberian)
•**83.** Benidorm
Tossal de la Cala (Iberian,
Roman)
•**84.** La Vila Joiosa
Isolated find (Iberian)
•**85.** Monforte del Cid
Coin find (12th-13th C)
•**86.** Crevillent
Ratlla del Bubo rock shelter
(Upper Palaeolithic)
•**87.** San Fulgencio
La Escuera
(Coin find, Iberian)


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