

1 The role of lithic bipolar technology in Western 2 Iberia's Upper Paleolithic: the case of Vale Boi 3 (southern Portugal)

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8 **Abstract**

9 Scaled or splintered pieces are one of the most common lithic artifacts type in Upper Paleolithic
10 assemblages throughout Europe, especially in its westernmost regions. Despite this, and even
11 after one century of being identified there is still no consensus on how to define, analyze or
12 interpret these tools. In western Iberia, there is a clear lack of comprehensive studies regarding
13 this type of artifacts at a regional scale. In this paper, we present a first techno-morphological
14 analysis of a sample of scaled pieces from the Upper Paleolithic site of Vale Boi. Our first aim
15 was to build upon existing analytical models in order to identify function and possible reduction
16 strategies for these artifacts. Our second goal was to critically evaluate the role of these artifacts
17 within western Iberia's Upper Paleolithic. Our results showed that functional identification of
18 scaled pieces is still not clear. By comparing our data with other author's we found that current
19 models could not be applied to the archaeological record, as the attribute variability is too high.
20 Furthermore, in this region, we found that higher frequencies of bipolar technology can be found
21 related to residential sites due to both functional and cultural patterns. While we still cannot
22 define a specific function for these artifacts (intermediate pieces or wedges for working hard raw
23 materials or cores for the extraction of chips and small bladelets), it is clear that they had a major
24 role in the variability and intensification of resource exploitation during the Upper Paleolithic in
25 western Iberia.

26 **Keywords**

27 Stone tools; Bipolar technology; Upper Paleolithic; Western Europe

28 **Introduction**

29 Bipolar technology is generically classified into two types of lithic artifacts - bipolar cores and
30 scaled pieces (also known as splintered pieces or *pièce esquillée*), this latter being the main focus
31 of this paper. Their distinction, however, has not always been consensual (Hayden 1980).
32 Besides the fact that bipolar cores are often confused or lumped with scaled pieces (de la Peña
33 2011; Villa et al. 2018), the definition of scaled piece has suffered significant changes ever since

34 its initial identification in the early 20th century and, to this day, there still seems to be no world-
35 wide accepted clear definition for this type of artifact. The first definition of scaled pieces was
36 proposed by Bardon and Bouyssonie (1906), describing them as a result of bipolar knapping
37 through direct percussion, with the “core” resting on a hard surface, originating splintering in
38 both ends of the tool. Since then, several other definitions were adopted and adapted by
39 researchers for a very diverse set of contexts across the world (e.g. Hayden 1980; MacDonald
40 1985; Octobon 1938; Shott 1989; Sonnevile-Bordes and Perrot 1956).

41 Beyond the classification debate, the biggest issue with this type of tools comes from a
42 functional standpoint, a problem that has also been largely debated (e.g. Binford and Quimby
43 1963; de la Peña 2011; Flood 1980; Igreja and Porraz 2013; LeBlanc 1992; Lucas and Hays
44 2004; Shott 1999; Tixier 1963). The issue surrounding this problem lies within the functional
45 equifinality of these artifacts. Contrary to bipolar cores, that are exclusively part of a
46 technological reduction sequence with the goal of blank extraction (e.g. Binford and Quimby
47 1963; Crabtree 1972; Leaf 1979), scaled pieces have been associated with two distinct types of
48 activities: (1) as intermediate pieces or wedges for working hard organic raw materials
49 (e.g. bone, ivory, antler); and (2) as cores for the extraction of chips, small flakes and bladelets
50 (Brantingham et al. 2004). Although largely debated, the ambiguity of this classification has,
51 however, been ignored in some of the most recent literature, with some authors not
52 acknowledging that bipolar evidence in stone tools might also result from other activities other
53 than only reduction strategies (see e.g. Hiscock 2015).

54 Many current studies on scaled pieces apply use-wear methods (e.g. Bader et al. 2015; de la Peña
55 2011, 2015a, 2015b; de la Peña and Wadley 2014; Gibaja et al. 2007; Igreja and Porraz 2013;
56 Lucas and Hays 2004; Sano 2012), focusing on the identification of polishes and use-wear
57 patterned stigmas, through both micro and macroscopic analysis of splintered surfaces and its
58 comparison with experimental assemblages. Frequently, these studies coincide in interpreting
59 scaled pieces as intermediate elements for the work of hard organic raw materials. The study by
60 P. de la Peña (2011, 2015b) is one of the most recent and relevant references in this regard. The
61 author presents the results of an experimental program aiming to identify specific wear patterns
62 in the use of bipolar techniques that allow the distinction between different types of activities and
63 worked materials. Results indicate that while no visible differences can be identified in the
64 percussion area, significant variation can be observed in the morphology of the areas in contact
65 with the worked material.

66 As in many other regions and Stone Age periods across the world (e.g. Diez-Martín et al. 2009;
67 Igreja and Porraz 2013; Langejans 2012; White 1968), evidence of bipolar technologies are quite
68 ubiquitous in European Upper Paleolithic contexts. In many sites, bipolar elements classified as
69 scaled pieces have been associated with different functionalities (see e.g. de la Peña 2011; Sano
70 2012; Zilhão 1997).

71 In the case of the westernmost regions of Iberia, scaled pieces are commonly found in
72 archaeological contexts ranging from the Upper Paleolithic to the Neolithic (e.g. Bicho 2000;
73 Carvalho 1998; Zilhão 1997). While scarce, the majority of Portuguese Paleolithic studies (e.g.
74 Almeida 2000; Gonçalves 2012) have not presented, so far, any context-specific interpretations
75 for the presence of scaled pieces. Most references broadly interpret these as bipolar cores for the
76 extraction of small flakes, bladelets and chips to be used in composite tools (e.g. Zilhão 1997), or
77 as intermediate pieces for working hard materials (Gibaja et al. 2007; Marreiros 2009). Zilhão

78 (1997), for example, argues that the presence of scaled pieces throughout the Upper Paleolithic
79 sequence of central Portugal is inversely proportional to the presence of “carinated cores”, and
80 thus it is likely that the former should have worked as a flexible substitute for the latter. Carvalho
81 (1998) agrees with this interpretation and considers it also valid for the Portuguese early
82 Neolithic.

83 While we agree that some of the elements might have been used as cores, these interpretations
84 seem simplistic, and those studies seem to have little to no analytical evidence to back those
85 hypotheses, other than the inverse relationship mentioned above. This results, in part, from the
86 lack of comprehensive studies regarding this type of artifacts at a regional scale. Additionally,
87 the contexts from where most of these artifacts were recovered did not have good organic
88 preservation or dedicated use-wear studies and, thus, no direct association between these tools
89 and the exploitation of hard organic raw materials is possible, and, in face of the nonexistence of
90 any absolute dates, their precise chronological attribution is also, frequently, unreliable.

91 In this paper, we present a first approach to the characterization of the morpho-technological
92 variability and consequent role of scaled pieces during the Upper Paleolithic of the westernmost
93 regions of Iberia (c. 32–10 ka cal BP). Using data from the multi-component, thoroughly dated,
94 site of Vale Boi, located in southern Portugal, we present the analysis of a series of technological
95 and morpho-functional attributes of a relatively large set of scaled pieces coming from one of the
96 areas of the site. Using these data as a starting point, we then explore the relationship between
97 the variability detected in the production and use of these artifacts with inter-site lithic
98 technological patterns, and with the striking evidence for an intensification and diversification of
99 faunal resources exploitation during the time-span under consideration.

100 **Vale Boi**

101 The archaeological site of Vale Boi is located in the western edge of the Algarve region
102 (southern Portugal) (Figure 1). The site can be found in a small valley following a river north-
103 south for 2 km until it reaches the Atlantic Ocean. Archaeological deposits occupy an estimated
104 area of over 10 000 sq. meters across a stepped slope marked at the top by a 10 meter-high
105 limestone cliff face (Bicho et al. 2012, 2010).

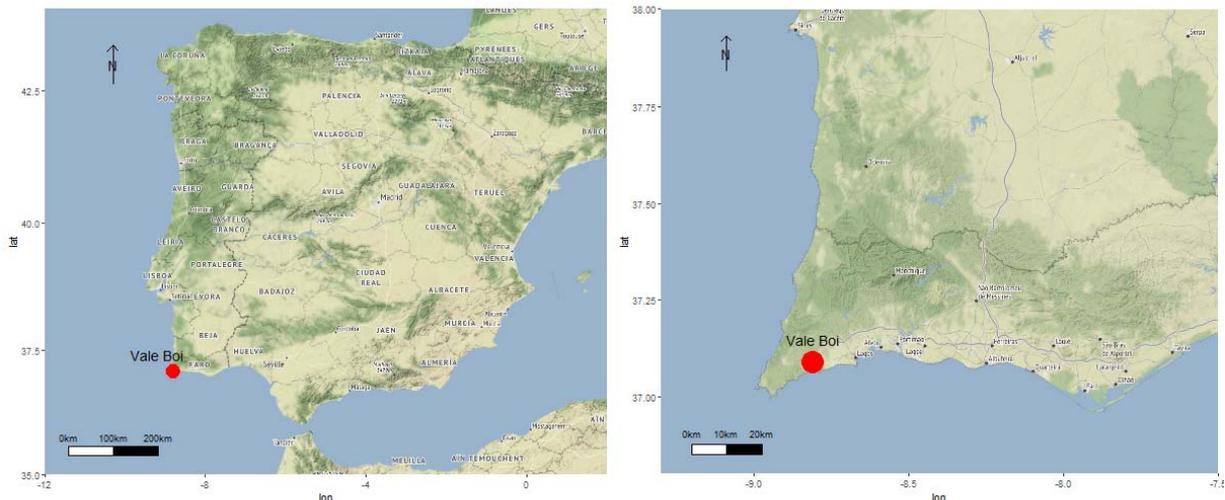
106 A rather complete Upper Paleolithic sequence has been identified at Vale Boi, with all the
107 traditionally-defined techno-complexes (Gravettian, Proto-Solutrean, Solutrean and
108 Magdalenian) being identified across the three main excavation areas: the Terrace, the
109 Rockshelter, and the Slope.

110 The Terrace area is located in the lower part of the hill. In this area, the longest archaeological
111 sequence of the site can be found, including the complete Upper Paleolithic sequence but also
112 three Holocene horizons, corresponding to Neolithic, Mesolithic and Epipaleolithic occupations
113 (Bicho et al. 2012; Cascalheira et al. 2017). From within the lower levels of this area, an Early
114 Gravettian occupation was discovered, dated to c. 32 ka cal BP, being one of the earliest
115 radiocarbon dates for anatomically modern humans in Southern Iberia (Bicho et al. 2013;
116 Marreiros et al. 2015).

117 The Rockshelter area is a collapsed rock shelter located in the upper part of the slope, a couple of
118 meters below the limestone cliff. This collapse would have occurred after the Last Glacial

119 Maximum, since below the collapsed debris, several Solutrean occupations can be found,
120 overlaying a sequence of very ephemeral Gravettian horizons (Cascalheira et al. 2012; Manne et
121 al. 2012; Marreiros 2009). The Solutrean is dated to between c. 20 ka and 25 ka cal BP
122 (Cascalheira and Bicho 2015), while the Gravettian is dated between 26 ka and 32 ka cal BP
123 (Marreiros et al. 2015).

124 Finally, the Slope section, from where the assemblage here presented is coming from, is
125 composed of a series of excavation areas opened across the mid-hill sector of the site. These
126 areas exhibit heterogeneous conditions in terms of site formation processes and archaeological
127 preservation (Manne et al. 2012), but all revealed the presence of occupations attributed to the
128 Gravettian, Proto-Solutrean, Solutrean and Magdalenian. Like in the previous areas, remains are
129 well preserved, and high frequencies of lithic artifacts, malacological and mammalogical fauna
130 and bone tools were recovered. No habitation features were identified in this area and based on
131 the conditions and type of artifacts found, it has been suggested that this area would have mostly
132 functioned as a midden deposit (Bicho et al. 2012, 2010).



133
134 *Figure 1 Location of the site of Vale Boi. Map data are from Stamenmap (<http://maps.stamen.com>), using the*
135 *ggmap package Kahle and Wickham (2013).*

136
137 Lithic technology

138 Vale Boi's lithic studies have revealed a general tendency for stable technological and functional
139 patterns throughout the Upper Paleolithic (e.g. Bicho et al. 2012; Bradtmöller et al. 2016;
140 Cascalheira 2013; Cascalheira et al. 2017, 2012; Gibaja and Bicho 2011; Marreiros and Bicho
141 2013; Marreiros et al. 2015, 2018; Marreiros 2009). This can be explained, partially, by raw
142 material availability. Most raw materials were procured locally, or regionally from deposits
143 located at no more than 20 km away from the site (Bicho et al. 2010). Chert was the most used
144 rock type for more complex retouched tools production, while quartz and greywacke were
145 mostly used for flake extraction and simple retouched tools production. Other raw materials can

146 be found at the site, but much more restricted, both diachronically and functionally, within each
147 techno-complex. Schist, for instance, shows up in some occupations almost exclusively
148 connected to mobile art. Dolerite is only found in the Proto-Solutrean levels (Belmiro et al.
149 2017), while chalcedony is mostly limited to the Proto-Solutrean and Solutrean levels
150 (Cascalheira et al. 2012).

151 Chert is the most abundant knapped rock type in Vale Boi. Throughout the several occupations,
152 chert was considered the preferred rock type for knapping, which is evident by the way it was
153 explored with much more complex strategies than either greywacke or quartz. While it can be
154 said that chert exploration strategies were more elaborate, the most common strategies were still
155 simple unidirectional or bidirectional reduction sequences, producing mostly flakes (Marreiros et
156 al. 2012). Elongated products are found at low frequencies across all chronologies. When
157 present, retouched tools are mostly notches, denticulates, end-scrapers, and, although not
158 retouched artifacts *per se*, scaled pieces. One possible reason for these simplistic strategies seems
159 to be an overall low knapping quality, since nodules are quite small, and frequently show a high
160 degree of tectonically derived fractures (Pereira et al. 2016).

161 Two distinct types of quartz were identified at the site. The first is a thick grain, low-quality type,
162 mostly inadequate for knapping. Still, this kind of quartz is present in large quantities and is most
163 likely associated with stone boiling and grease rendering activities (Bicho et al. 2012; Manne
164 2010, 2014; Manne and Bicho 2009; Manne et al. 2012). The second type of quartz is
165 characterized by finer-grain small pebbles with yellowish cortex. This type of quartz was
166 knapped using rather simple strategies, mostly for small flake production, which in turn were
167 used to produce simple and versatile tools.

168 Greywacke is the third most frequent raw material at Vale Boi, showing up in the site mostly in
169 the form of large slabs, in which the identification of concavely shaped impact marks is thought
170 to result from their use as anvils. The importance of greywacke anvils is indicated by its high
171 frequency, with hundreds of slabs found in many levels throughout all occupations (Bicho et al.
172 2012; Manne et al. 2012). Greywacke was also knapped for flake extraction, using expedient
173 unidirectional reduction strategies (Cascalheira 2013; Marreiros 2009).

174 Subsistence patterns

175 Organic preservation is fairly good at Vale Boi. Faunal remains can be frequently found in all
176 occupations, both of terrestrial and marine resources. Marine fauna at the site is marked by the
177 presence of mollusks, crustaceans, some fish vertebrae and, in rare occasions, marine mammal
178 remains (Manne 2010). Regarding terrestrial fauna, three species dominate the vertebrate group:
179 rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*), red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) and horse (*Equus caballus*). Smaller
180 amounts of wild ass (*Equus hydruntinus*), aurochs (*Bos primigenius*), ibex (*Capra pyrenaica*)
181 and wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) are also present (Manne 2010, 2014; Manne et al. 2012). One of the
182 most interesting patterns within the faunal assemblages is that a large portion of ungulate
183 remains present specific types of fracture that have been associated with bone marrow extraction
184 activities. Red deer and horse remains frequently show evidence of opposed cone fractures,
185 trituration and smashing (Manne 2010, 2014; Manne and Bicho 2009; Manne et al. 2012).

186 Ungulates would have been hunted and processed in a similar fashion throughout the Upper
187 Paleolithic. While there were conditions for the whole bones to be preserved, these bones are

188 frequently anthropically broken. These fragmentation patterns seem to be linked to grease
189 rendering activities (Manne 2010, 2014; Manne et al. 2012). The main goal of grease rendering
190 is to obtain grease, through heat exposure from animal bones, as it has a very high caloric value.
191 Other than this, this grease could have many uses with the addition of being easily stored and
192 transported (Manne et al. 2012). The spongy bone parts would be fragmented and deposited
193 in a hole, covered with animal pelts full of water, after which, pre-heated rock fragments were
194 added. The high temperature of the rocks would make the water boil and therefore separate the
195 grease from the spongy bones creating a highly nutritional stew. After being cooled the
196 grease would accumulate at the top where it could be easily removed, transported and stored.
197 Unlike simple bone marrow extraction, this method involved large preparation, including water
198 transport, fire, and heat production, rock heating, and finally the storing of the grease (Manne
199 2014).

200 These grease rendering techniques are thought to be quite common at the site since the parts of
201 the bones with higher amounts of fat are missing despite the good preservation of the rest of the
202 remains. Fragmented ungulate remains show up in the site connected to large amounts of
203 thermo-altered quartz, anvils, hard hammers and scaled pieces. This suggests that red deer and
204 horse bones were processed and afterward intensively grease rendered. To confirm this, a single
205 scaled piece was found stuck to a cracked phalanx in a Gravettian horizon (Manne 2010, 2014;
206 Manne and Bicho 2009; Manne et al. 2012).

207 **Methods**

208 Scaled pieces attribute analysis

209 Based on previous works (e.g. Hayden 1980) here we define scaled pieces as artifacts of variable
210 size and morphology, showing traces of crushing and splintering of edges at opposite ends,
211 caused by direct percussion at one end, and subsequent crushing of the other for being rested on
212 a hard surface. Scaled pieces present always two opposite surfaces, just like a flake or blade
213 would, but at least one of them shows signs of crushing. Crushing traces can be bifacially or
214 unifacially distributed. Some scaled pieces do not present crushing in opposed platforms, but are
215 still classified as scaled pieces here. This detail has been previously referred by Villa et al.
216 (2018) who noted that some edges may present a flat (instead of intensively shattered) platform.
217 Our criteria does not include a particular type of blank because, as we will show in later sections
218 of the paper, these artifacts can originate from flakes, blades or debris.

219 On the contrary, following mostly Hayden (1980) and Leaf (1979), bipolar cores are not marked
220 by bifacially opposed surfaces. Their shape is more blocky and angular, showing evidence of, at
221 least, one flaking surface with two opposed platforms (the striking platform and the base) with
222 typical crushing and flake removal on one or both ends. The striking platform is the surface that
223 is struck with a hammerstone to produce blanks. Typically, it exhibits little crushing except near
224 the point of impact. Large flake scars tend to originate at the striking platform. The base is the
225 surface that rests on the anvil, from where small flake scars can also originate.

226 All lithic artifacts recovered from the Slope area of Vale Boi that fit the scaled piece definition
227 presented above were considered for this study, independent of raw material or technological
228 class.

229 Attribute analysis was split into two main groups, each corresponding to two distinct types of
 230 features: (1) technological attributes (Table 1) and (2) morpho-functional attributes (Table 2). In
 231 the first group, a series of variables traditionally used in lithic studies (e.g. Andrefsky Jr 2005;
 232 Inizan et al. 1999) were recorded, aiming to characterize patterns of blank choice for the
 233 application of bipolar technology. For the second group of variables, a macroscopic approach
 234 building upon the work of de la Peña (2011) and Fischer et. al (1984) was adopted. Studies by
 235 Sano (2012), and Gibaja et al. (2007) indicate that, since use-wear traces are formed before the
 236 splintering, the removal of small chips removes most of the polishes and use-wear traces left by
 237 the contact with the static element (either a stone anvil or hard-organic materials). This, together
 238 with the large presence of quartz artifacts in our sample, prevented us to pursue a microscopic
 239 use-wear approach for this study in particular.

240

241 *Table 1 Technological attributes used for the analysis of scaled pieces included in this study.*

Variable	Variable name in database	Values	Observations
Raw Material	RawMaterial	Quartz Chert Greywacke Chalcedony Others	
Type of blank	Blank	Blade BladeFragment Bladelet BladeletFragment Core Flake FlakeFragment Nodule Non_Identifiable	
Length of the typological axis	TypologicalAxisLength	mm	Typological axis is defined as a vector that proceeds perpendicular to the two opposed damaged platforms, bisecting them
Length of the technological axis	TechnologicalAxisLength	mm	Same as axis of flaking in Debénath and Dibble (1994)
Width of the typological axis	TypologicalAxisWidth	mm	Distance at a mid-point between two edges of the artifact, as measured perpendicularly to the typological length
Width of the technological axis	TechnologicalAxisWidth	mm	Distance at a mid-point between two edges of the artifact, as measured perpendicularly to the technological length
Thickness	Thickness	mm	Measured at the intersection of the typological length and width
Axes coincidence	AxisCoincident	Yes	Coincidence between the typological and technological axes
Retouch presence	Retouch	Absent	Presence of retouch in artifact's edges

Percentage of cortex	Cortex	Present	See Inizan et al (1999) for description of each value
		No_Cortex	
		>25%	
		25-50%	
		50-95%	
Platform type	Butt	>95%	
		Absent	
		Cortical	
		Dihedral	
		Faceted	
Profile	Profile	Pointed	
		Flat	
		Straight	
		Curved	
		Irregular	
Cross-section morphology	CrossSection	Twisted	
		Other	
		Irregular	
		Rectangular	
		Trapezoidal	
Longitudinal section morphology	SideSection	Triangular	
		Elliptical	
		Irregular	
		Other	
		Rectangular	
Blank edge morphology	BlankShape	Semicircular	
		Trapezoidal	
		Triangular	
		Biconvex	
		Circular	
Scar dorsal pattern	DorsalScars	Converging	
		Diverging	
		Irregular	
		Others	
		Parallel	
		Bidirectional-Alternating	
		Bidirectional-	

		Parallel
		Bidirectional-Perpendicular
		Non_Identifiable
		Parallel-Distal
		Parallel-Proximal
		Parallel-One-Side
		Radial
		Other
Fire traces	Fire	Burnt
		No_traces
		Thermal-Treatment

242

243

244 *Table 2 Morpho-functional attributes used for the analysis of each damaged platform of scaled pieces included in*
 245 *this study. *Adapted from Gonzalez-Urquijo and Ibanez-Estévez (1994). **Adapted from de la Peña (2011).*

Variable	Variable name in database	Values	Observations
Number of damaged platforms	DamagePlatforms	1	
		2	
		3	
		4_or_more	
Platform Width	Width	mm	
Number of scars	NScars	N	
Platform Angle	Angle	<45°	
		>45°	
Platform Delineation*	ScarEdgeDelineation	Platform	>90° angle
		Concave	
		Convex	
		Irregular	
		Oblique	
		Pointed	
Degree of damage**	DamageDegree	Straight	
		High	No traces of the original platform are visible
		Medium	Some traces of the original platform are visible
Scar Shape**	ScarShape	Low	Original platform is visible
		Half-Moon	
		Irregular	
		Mixed	
		Quadrangular	
		Semicircular	

		Trapezoidal	
		Triangular	
Scar Distribution*	ScarDistribution	Central	Scars are limited to the central area of the platform
		Lateral	Scars are limited to one of the sides of the platform
		Total	Scars completely cover the platform
Scar Disposition*	ScarArrangement	Aligned	Scars are parallel and next to each other without overlapping
		Isolated	Scars are isolated
		Overlapped	Scars overlap
Scar Extension**	ScarExtension	Invasive	Scars extent to a maximum of 49% of the typological axis length
		Marginal	Scars extent to a maximum of 20% of the typological axis length
		Mixed	Scar extension is both invasive and marginal
Scar Facial Distribution**	ScarFacialDistribution	Bifacial	Scars are present in both faces of the platform
		Unifacial	Scars are present in only one face of the platform

246

247 Macroscopic morpho-functional attributes were separately analyzed for each damaged platform,
 248 aiming to detect patterns of morphological change that occurred in artifacts during use.
 249 Following the work of de la Peña (2011, 2015b) and Gonzalez-Urquijo and Ibanez-Estévez
 250 (1994), we expected that these attributes would be indicative of which function the artifacts had.
 251 For instance, according to de la Peña (2011, 2015b), for pieces used as wedges, the delineation of
 252 the damaged platforms are constantly asymmetrical and only the hammered edge clearly shows
 253 the typical *écaille* retouch. Furthermore, these pieces would have irregular shapes, variable scar
 254 size, and irregular scar distribution. On the other hand, pieces used as bipolar cores would have
 255 squared or rectangular shapes, symmetric straight damaged platforms, and a higher frequency of
 256 scars on the hammered edge than on the opposed edge. The addition of other attributes drawing
 257 upon the work by Gonzalez-Urquijo and Ibanez-Estévez (1994) was made following the same
 258 reasoning. We expected, thus, to be able to differentiate pieces used as wedges from pieces used
 259 as cores, as both groups would show distinct combinations of attributes. To assist us with this
 260 differentiation we tested the presence of the referred patterns within our assemblage using
 261 descriptive and multivariate statistical analysis and comparing it with the data described by the
 262 referred authors.

263 Analysis, reproducibility and open source materials

264 All analyses and data processing were accomplished in R (version 3.5.1) (R 2013). Following
 265 recent concerns on the reproducibility of archaeological analysis, we include the entire R code
 266 used for all the analysis and visualizations contained in this paper in our online research
 267 compendium at <https://dx.doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/WPXGH>. To produce those files we
 268 followed the procedures described by Marwick et al. (2017) for the creation of research
 269 compendiums to enhance the reproducibility of research. The files provided contain all the raw

270 data used in our analysis as well as a custom R package (Wickham 2015) holding the code used
271 for all analysis and to produce all tables and figures. To enable maximum re-use, our code is
272 released under the MIT license, our data as CC-0, and our figures as CC-BY, (for more
273 information see Marwick 2016).

274 **Results**

275 A total of 139 scaled pieces were analyzed, of which 42.45% come from Gravettian, and 45.32%
276 from Solutrean levels, as shown in Table (3). In terms of raw materials, the great majority of
277 pieces were either made on quartz or chert, with chalcedony being represented only by 5
278 artifacts.

279

280 *Table 3 Frequencies of scaled pieces used in this study, by raw material and chronological period. Percentages*
281 *are shown in parentheses.*

	Chert	Quartz	Chalcedony	Total
Gravettian	20 (32.8)	39 (53.4)	0 (0.0)	59 (42.4)
Proto-Solutrean	6 (9.8)	4 (5.5)	1 (20.0)	11 (7.9)
Solutrean	32 (52.5)	27 (37.0)	4 (80.0)	63 (45.3)
Magdalenian	3 (4.9)	3 (4.1)	0 (0.0)	6 (4.3)

282

283 As previously mentioned, concerning technological data, one of our main objectives was to
284 characterize the choice of blanks involved in bipolar technology. Overall, the technological
285 analysis revealed some trends that lasted throughout the Upper Paleolithic, in agreement with the
286 general patterns of lithic technology recorded for the site. Across all techno-complexes, blanks
287 used were either flakes (based on the recognition of dorsal and ventral surfaces) or unclassifiable
288 fragments, but the choice seems to be different for each raw material. For quartz, in the
289 Gravettian assemblage, the blank types are almost equally split between flakes and unclassifiable
290 pieces (Table 4). In other periods, flakes were the preferred type of blank (Tables 6, 5 and 7).
291 Regarding chert, in every occupation flakes dominate the assemblages, followed by a reduced
292 number (n = 12) of unclassifiable blanks. The small sample of chalcedony blanks is exclusively
293 represented by flakes.

294 Technological and morphological characteristics of the flake blanks present very similar patterns
295 across time and among raw materials. The blanks sought after would have straight profiles,
296 parallel edges, no cortical surfaces, and trapezoidal or triangular shaped cross-sections.

297 Other characteristics of the assemblage are the low frequency of retouch found in the non-
298 damaged edges (n = 2), fire alterations (n = 4), and the presence of original striking platforms (n
299 = 8). Still, when present, retouch is located in the lateral part of the artifacts, similar to what
300 would define a side-scraper. In a very small number of cases, when striking platforms are
301 present, these are mostly flat. The absence of the original blank platforms is to be expected in
302 this type of artifact, mostly due to the functional use of the pieces, and consequent removal of the
303 platform, rather than an actual choice. The large absence of platforms may, also, be the result of
304 the use of the technological axis as the main functional axis. In fact, when identifiable,

305 technological and typological axes coincide in 50.5% of the cases. The longitudinal sections
 306 show a large variability of shapes, independent of raw materials or chronologies. Similarly, the
 307 dorsal pattern of previous removals was rarely identified, although this, like with the case of
 308 platform absence, might occur due to the functional stigmas and be dependent on the intensity of
 309 use for each artifact.

310

311 *Table 4 Technological attributes frequencies by raw materials for the Gravettian sample.*
 312 *Percentages are shown in parentheses.*

	Chert	Quartz	Total
Blank			
CompleteFlake	6 (33.3)	7 (30.4)	13 (31.7)
FlakeFragment	12 (66.7)	15 (65.2)	27 (65.9)
Non_identifiable	0 (0.0)	1 (4.3)	1 (2.4)
AxisCoincident			
No	9 (50.0)	7 (30.4)	16 (39.0)
Yes	9 (50.0)	16 (69.6)	25 (61.0)
CrossSection			
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Rectangular	1 (5.6)	3 (13.0)	4 (9.8)
Trapezoidal	10 (55.6)	15 (65.2)	25 (61.0)
Triangular	7 (38.9)	5 (21.7)	12 (29.3)
SideSection			
Elliptical	4 (22.2)	5 (21.7)	9 (22.0)
Irregular	1 (5.6)	1 (4.3)	2 (4.9)
Other	2 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.9)
Rectangular	1 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.4)
Semi_Circular	1 (5.6)	6 (26.1)	7 (17.1)
Trapezoidal	8 (44.4)	7 (30.4)	15 (36.6)
Triangular	1 (5.6)	4 (17.4)	5 (12.2)
Profile			
Curved	2 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.9)
Straight	16 (88.9)	23 (100.0)	39 (95.1)
BlankShape			
Biconvex	0 (0.0)	2 (8.7)	2 (4.9)
Circular	2 (11.1)	2 (8.7)	4 (9.8)
Converging	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Irregular	2 (11.1)	2 (8.7)	4 (9.8)
Other	1 (5.6)	1 (4.3)	2 (4.9)
Parallel	13 (72.2)	16 (69.6)	29 (70.7)
Cortex			
<25%	2 (11.1)	1 (4.3)	3 (7.3)
>95%	0 (0.0)	1 (4.3)	1 (2.4)

25-50%	2 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.9)
50-95%	2 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.9)
No_Cortex	12 (66.7)	21 (91.3)	33 (80.5)
ButtType			
Absent	14 (77.8)	23 (100.0)	37 (90.2)
Flat	4 (22.2)	0 (0.0)	4 (9.8)
Retouch			
No	17 (94.4)	23 (100.0)	40 (97.6)
Yes	1 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.4)
Fire			
Burnt	1 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.4)
No_Traces	17 (94.4)	23 (100.0)	40 (97.6)

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Table 5 Technological attributes frequencies by raw materials for the Proto-Solutrean sample. Percentages are shown in parentheses.

	Chert	Quartz	Chalcedony	Total
Blank				
CompleteFlake	3 (60.0)	2 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (50.0)
FlakeFragment	2 (40.0)	2 (50.0)	1 (100.0)	5 (50.0)
Non_identifiable	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
AxisCoincident				
No	3 (60.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (100.0)	5 (50.0)
Yes	2 (40.0)	3 (75.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (50.0)
CrossSection				
Other	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Trapezoidal	4 (80.0)	4 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	9 (90.0)
Triangular	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
SideSection				
Semi_Circular	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Trapezoidal	5 (100.0)	2 (50.0)	1 (100.0)	8 (80.0)
Triangular	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Profile				
Straight	5 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	10 (100.0)
BlankShape				
Circular	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Irregular	1 (20.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (100.0)	3 (30.0)
Other	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Parallel	2 (40.0)	3 (75.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (50.0)
Cortex				
<25%	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
No_Cortex	4 (80.0)	4 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	9 (90.0)
ButtType				

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Absent	5 (100.0)	3 (75.0)	1 (100.0)	9 (90.0)
Flat	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
Retouch				
No	5 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	10 (100.0)
Fire				
No_Traces	5 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	10 (100.0)

Table 6 Technological attributes frequencies by raw materials for the Solutrean sample. Percentages are shown in parentheses.

	Chert	Quartz	Chalcedony	Total
Blank				
CompleteFlake	4 (16.7)	7 (33.3)	2 (50.0)	13 (26.5)
FlakeFragment	20 (83.3)	14 (66.7)	2 (50.0)	36 (73.5)
Non_identifiable	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
AxisCoincident				
No	15 (62.5)	12 (57.1)	2 (50.0)	29 (59.2)
Yes	9 (37.5)	9 (42.9)	2 (50.0)	20 (40.8)
CrossSection				
Other	1 (4.2)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.1)
Rectangular	4 (16.7)	3 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	7 (14.3)
Trapezoidal	8 (33.3)	12 (57.1)	3 (75.0)	23 (46.9)
Triangular	11 (45.8)	5 (23.8)	1 (25.0)	17 (34.7)
SideSection				
Elliptical	3 (12.5)	4 (19.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (14.3)
Irregular	3 (12.5)	1 (4.8)	1 (25.0)	5 (10.2)
Rectangular	2 (8.3)	4 (19.0)	1 (25.0)	7 (14.3)
Semi_Circular	2 (8.3)	5 (23.8)	0 (0.0)	7 (14.3)
Trapezoidal	9 (37.5)	3 (14.3)	2 (50.0)	14 (28.6)
Triangular	5 (20.8)	4 (19.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (18.4)
Profile				
Straight	24 (100.0)	21 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	49 (100.0)
BlankShape				
Biconvex	0 (0.0)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)
Circular	2 (8.3)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	3 (6.1)
Converging	1 (4.2)	3 (14.3)	1 (25.0)	5 (10.2)
Irregular	6 (25.0)	3 (14.3)	1 (25.0)	10 (20.4)
Other	2 (8.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.1)
Parallel	13 (54.2)	13 (61.9)	2 (50.0)	28 (57.1)
Cortex				
<25%	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)
>95%	1 (4.2)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.1)

25-50%	4 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (8.2)
No_Cortex	18 (75.0)	20 (95.2)	4 (100.0)	42 (85.7)
ButtType				
Absent	22 (91.7)	21 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	47 (95.9)
Flat	2 (8.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.1)
Retouch				
No	23 (95.8)	21 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	48 (98.0)
Yes	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)
Fire				
Burnt	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	2 (4.1)
No_Traces	23 (95.8)	21 (100.0)	3 (75.0)	47 (95.9)

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Table 7 Technological attributes frequencies by raw materials for the Magdalenian sample. Percentages are shown in parentheses.

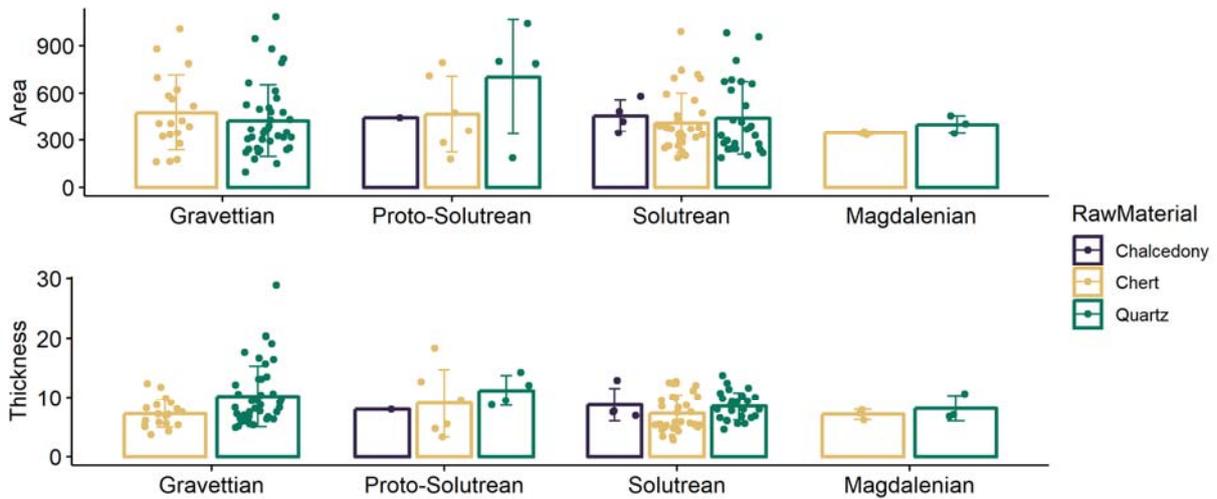
	Chert	Quartz	Total
Blank			
FlakeFragment	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
Non_identifiable	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
AxisCoincident			
No	0 (0.0)	2 (66.7)	2 (40.0)
Yes	2 (100.0)	1 (33.3)	3 (60.0)
CrossSection			
Rectangular	0 (0.0)	2 (66.7)	2 (40.0)
Trapezoidal	1 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (20.0)
Triangular	1 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	2 (40.0)
SideSection			
Elliptical	1 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (20.0)
Semi_Circular	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (20.0)
Trapezoidal	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (20.0)
Triangular	1 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	2 (40.0)
Profile			
Straight	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
BlankShape			
Circular	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (20.0)
Converging	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (20.0)
Irregular	1 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (20.0)
Parallel	1 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	2 (40.0)
Cortex			
No_Cortex	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
ButtType			
Absent	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
Retouch			

No	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
Fire			
No_Traces	2 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	5 (100.0)

322

323 As in other classes of stone tools, scaled pieces' metric attributes are impacted by both the initial
 324 blank size as well as by the intensity of their use. Specifically, because some scaled pieces are
 325 used in multiple axes, direct comparisons for length and width of the typological axes cannot be
 326 straightforwardly performed. Since the majority of the analyzed pieces presented a rectangular
 327 outline, we use the area of a rectangle (i.e. typological Length x Width) as an approximation for
 328 the overall dimensions of the artifacts. Area calculations revealed a maximum of 1082.03 mm²
 329 and a minimum of 94.86 mm². For thickness, the maximum is 28.81 mm and the minimum is
 330 2.79 mm. In general, mean values tend to be similar between raw materials, with some
 331 differences occurring within the Proto-Solutrean and Magdalenian assemblages, most certainly
 332 as a result of the small samples analyzed for each of these periods (Figure 2). Across techno-
 333 complexes, however, no significant statistical differences were detected when using an ANOVA
 334 test for both Area ($F(3, 132) = 1.1761119, p = 0.3213952, d = 0.1634926$), and Thickness ($F(3,$
 335 $134) = 1.6205801, p = 0.1875711, d = 0.1904774$).

336



337

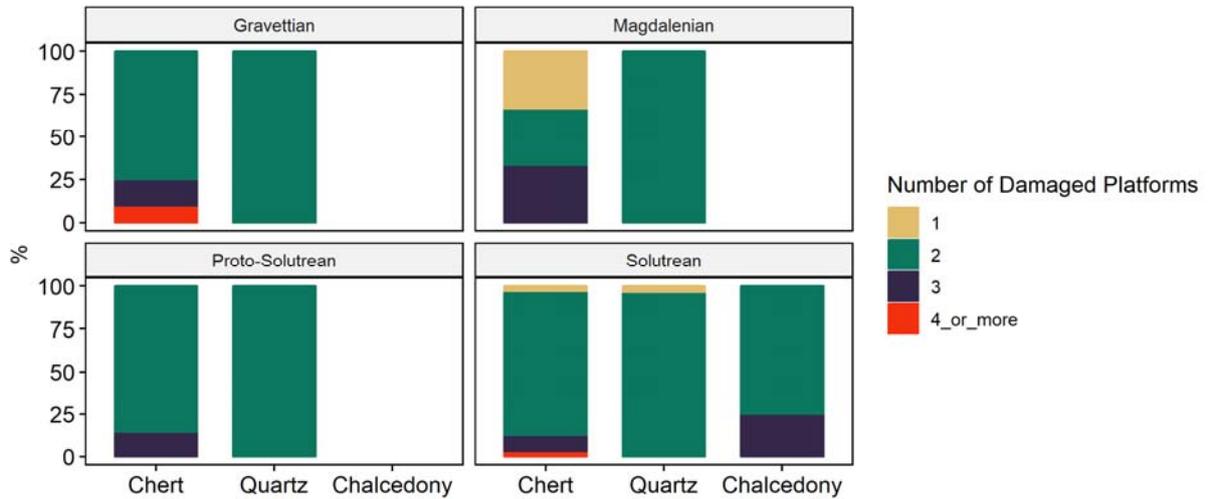
338 *Figure 2 Barplots of means for Area (Length x Width) and Thickness of scaled pieces, by raw material and across*
 339 *the four chronological phases. Error bars represent standard deviations.*

340

341 The patterns of use and rotation of damaged platforms seem to be the same across all
 342 chronologies. In every assemblage quartz pieces were exclusively used in one single axis,
 343 exhibiting only two damaged platforms. On the other end, a small number of chert and
 344 chalcedony artifacts (n = 12) exhibit multiple functional axes, with three or four damaged
 345 platforms (Figure 3). This seems to indicate different strategies of curation for coarse (quartz)
 346 and fine grain (chert and chalcedony) raw materials, with fine grain materials being rotated when

347 the first used axis becomes too small and/or the edges get useless for that specific activity.
 348 However, when plotted against metric data (Figure 4), results for the Area variable reveal that
 349 pieces with four damaged platforms are among the largest in all assemblages and that there is not
 350 a visible difference between the thicknesses of the pieces comprising each group. This seems to
 351 attest that the use of several axes in the same piece is not correlated with curation occurring in
 352 later phases of artifact use, but instead to a probable difference in raw material performance.

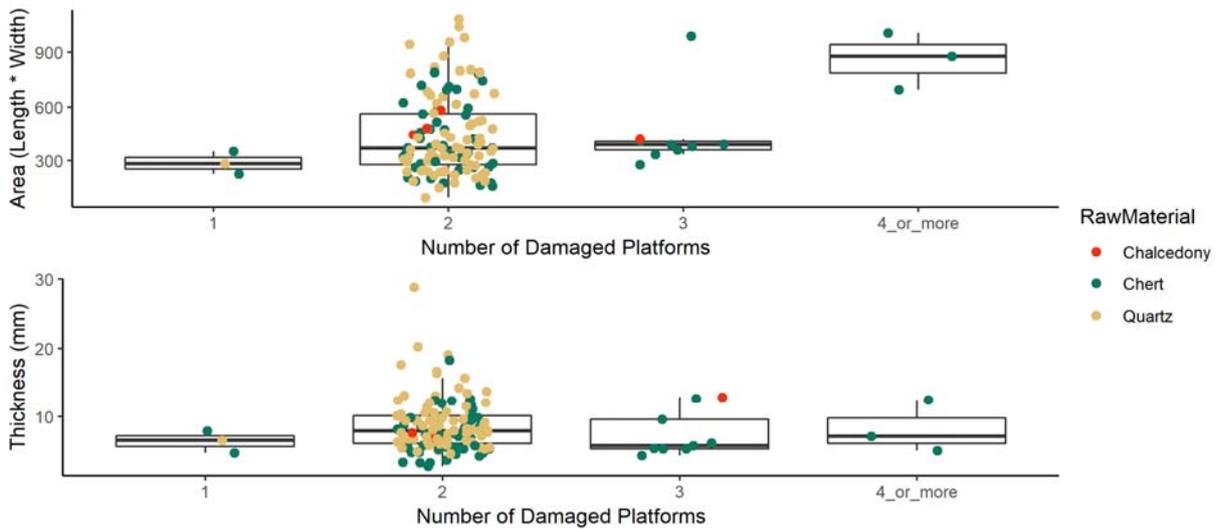
353



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355 *Figure 3 Number of damaged platforms by raw material and chronology.*

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358 *Figure 4 Boxplot of Area (Length x Width) and Thickness distribution for each raw material.*

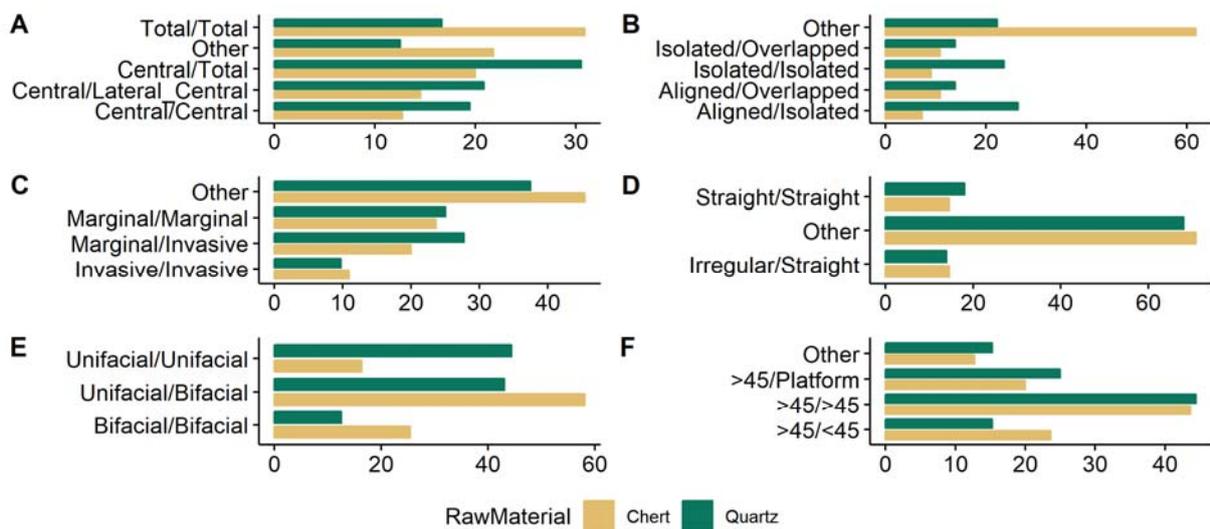
359

360 With few exceptions, most of the morpho-functional attributes show a fairly high degree of
 361 variability. Similarly to what was registered for the technological attributes, most of the
 362 differences occur between raw materials rather than between chronologies. For this reason, the
 363 results presented below focus only on overall and between raw materials variability. Figure 5
 364 shows the relative frequencies of all qualitative variables recorded for each damaged platform.
 365 To simplify representation, and to avoid wrong comparisons between hammered and active
 366 platforms, opposed damaged platforms were grouped into pairwise categories. When present, the
 367 category 'Other' represents the cluster of attributes which frequency was less than 10% within
 368 each variable.

369 In three (Scar Arrangement, Scar Extension, and Edge Delineation) of the six represented
 370 variables, the category 'Other' is one of the most frequent (above 35%) for both quartz and chert,
 371 revealing a very high variability for the combination of attributes within each variable. A chi-
 372 square test with modified alpha level (Bonferroni correction) to adjust for multiple testing and
 373 reduce type-I error, shows significant differences in the quartz and chert Scar Arrangement
 374 categories ($X^2 [4, N = 127] = 22.94, p = < 0.001, phi = 0.43$), and in Scar Faciality categories (X^2
 375 $[2, N = 127] = 11.94, p = 0.003, phi = 0.31$). The effect size statistic (Phi) suggests, however, a
 376 medium practical significance for both variables.

377 For quartz artifacts, the most common patterns are the combination of central/total scar
 378 distributions, both platforms with angles wider than 45°, and a combination of either
 379 unifacial/unifacial or unifacial/bifacial scar distribution. Chert pieces, on the other hand, more
 380 typically present opposed platforms with damage occupying the whole platform width, and a
 381 weaker presence of unifacial/unifacial scar edge facial distribution. Still, with exception of Angle
 382 and Scar Facial Distribution, the overall trend for the morpho-functional variables is one of high
 383 variability, with a very large set of combinations appearing at very low frequencies.

384



385

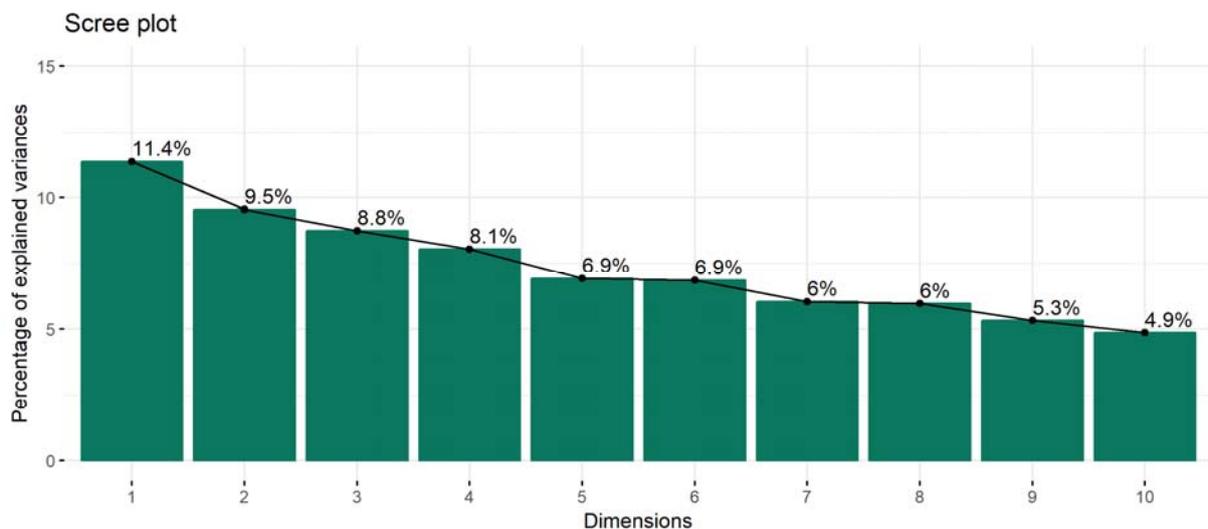
386 *Figure 5 Frequency of morphological attributes for each raw material. Opposed damaged platforms were*
 387 *grouped so that each artifact was only counted once and to avoid wrong comparisons between active and*
 388 *hammered platforms. A - Distribution of damage; B - Arrangement of scars; C - Extension of scars; D -*
 389 *Delineation of damaged platforms; E - Facial distribution of scars; F - Angle of damaged platforms.*

390

391 To identify possible patterns of association among the qualitative variables used in our analysis,
392 a Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) was performed. In this analysis, raw material was
393 used as a qualitative supplementary variable.

394 The first two dimensions of the MCA express 20.92% of the total dataset inertia, meaning that
395 only that percentage of the total variability is explained by the plane combining the first two
396 dimensions. An inspection of the screeplot presented in Figure 6 suggests restricting the analysis
397 to the description of the first 4 dimensions. These dimensions present an amount of inertia
398 slightly greater than that obtained by the 0.95-quantile of random distributions (37.74% against
399 34.37%). Still, it is a rather small percentage, somehow attesting the high variability suggested
400 by our interpretation of Figure 5, and suggesting that patterns identified by previous studies (e.g.
401 de la Peña 2015b, 2011), in which certain combinations of attributes were used to discriminate
402 scaled pieces functionalities, are difficult to apply to the assemblage used in this study.

403



404

405

Figure 6 Multiple Correspondence Analysis screeplot.

406 Discussion and conclusions

407 Bipolar technology clearly had an important role on the adaptive systems of the first modern
408 humans in Western Iberia, as well as in other European regions (see e.g. Villa et al. 2018; de la
409 Peña 2011; Sano 2012; Zilhão 1997). In Europe, there is a considerable rise in the use of bipolar
410 technologies after the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transition, and some authors consider scaled
411 pieces as one of the most common lithic morphotypes in European Upper Paleolithic
412 assemblages (de la Peña 2011). A rise in bipolar technologies cannot be dissociated from the
413 diverse set of factors that made Anatomically Modern Humans thrive. Changes in mobility
414 patterns (Shott and Tostevin 2015), or the development of a “generalist specialist” ecological
415 approach (Roberts and Stewart 2018), with particular emphasis on the diversification and
416 intensification of resources use, are among some of those traits. It is in the context of this latter

417 point that bipolar technology may have played a major role. In Vale Boi, since the earliest
418 occupations at c. 32 ka cal BP, scaled pieces show up in the archaeological record connected to
419 evidence related to an intensification and diversification of resource exploration, particularly the
420 aforementioned grease/marrow obtention techniques. These have been shown by the constant
421 presence of impact fractures in ungulate bones, low percentage of bone areas related to higher
422 amounts of grease, and the presence of red deer bone fragments from bones with considerably
423 higher marrow and grease contents (Manne 2010, 2014; Manne and Bicho 2009; Manne et al.
424 2012). Other indicators are both the constant presence of thermally altered quartz fragments that
425 might be linked to stone boiling activities, and a large number of greywacke slabs with impact
426 marks revealing their use as anvils (Casalheira et al. 2017). For carcass processing and bone
427 marrow extraction, the use of scaled pieces would allow for a better control of bone fracture. In
428 fact, this should be significantly better than using a hard hammer directly on the bone, since the
429 latter technique may either over fracture the bone or even crush it due to the lack of precision.
430 The use of a wedge for these activities provides more control, avoiding complete crushing of the
431 bone, making it much easier to cleanly extract bone marrow.

432 In addition, scaled pieces in Vale Boi may also be associated to bone tool production, given that
433 Vale Boi is one of the Portuguese Upper Paleolithic sites with significant evidence for onsite
434 production and use of bone tools (Évora 2013). According to both Leblanc (1992) and Shott
435 (1999) wedges are needed to work bone, antler, and wood, and stone wedges are preferable than
436 other types of material. For hunter-gatherers, these artifacts would provide multifunctionality
437 from a single piece that could be continuously used until losing their optimal morphological
438 characteristics.

439 Importantly, our results show that the use of scale pieces at Vale Boi reveals techno-functional
440 patterns that seem to stay fairly similar across all Upper Paleolithic horizons. One relevant trend
441 is the fact that while quartz pieces were only explored in a single axis, chert pieces were,
442 sometimes, explored in multiple axes. One possible reason for these patterns might be the fact
443 that quartz would be more easily available than chert, and thus tool economy would have been
444 different between both materials. Another possibility for this is the difference in the physical
445 properties of each raw material. While with quartz it may be possible to continuously use a
446 single axis in a piece, reducing it in only one axis without losing its efficiency, with chert it may
447 be necessary to rotate it more often in order to continue obtaining usable edges. On the other
448 hand, the higher number of axis could simply suggest that chert was differently managed and
449 economized. Nevertheless, the simple fact that most of the pieces with multiple axes are on
450 average larger than the rest, suggests that this hypothesis is likely incorrect. From an economic
451 standpoint, the ideal would be to continuously use the same piece without any risk of loss of the
452 features that made it ideal for this kind of use. Throughout the use of these pieces, they suffer
453 successive violent blows, even the platform that rests on a surface suffers some sort of heavy
454 impact. In this specific case, we argue that there is little to no control on how the piece's features
455 change over its lifetime use.

456 Several researchers argued that scaled pieces were used as cores for the extraction of chips or
457 small bladelets (e.g. Carvalho 1998; de la Peña 2011; LeBlanc 1992; Shott 1989, 1999; Zilhão
458 1997). Based on our data we find that this concept does not seem to fit in Vale Boi. First, with
459 the single exception of the early Gravettian (during which very small backed bladelets are
460 present - see Marreiros et al. (2018)), the site's technology shows no evidence of manufacture or
461 use of tools with such small dimensions as the ones recorded from the scars of scaled pieces (5-8

462 mm). Second, although the most common interpretation is that these chips/bladelets would be
 463 inserted in composite throwing tools, there is no evidence of bone or antler tools with grooves
 464 that might be used for the insertion of stone implements even though Vale Boi has a very rich
 465 assemblage of organic tools (Évora 2013). However, we still do not discard the hypothesis that
 466 these may have been made from perishable organic materials. Third, although previous
 467 ethnographic studies (e.g. Flenniken 1981; Shott 1989) support the use of small flakes, bladelets,
 468 and chips for these types of implements and other activities such as scraping, boring and cutting,
 469 we currently have no use-wear data that can support this hypothesis at the site. Finally, as
 470 previously mentioned, Vale Boi stone tool technological analyses revealed that every phase of
 471 the *chaîne opératoire* is present, which means that knapping was mostly occurring at the site,
 472 which is attested by the high number of chips found. Considering that most knapping activities
 473 originate chipage, the need of a specific tool for the sole purpose of extracting them does not
 474 seem viable. By putting all these factors in context, the hypothesis that these pieces were used for
 475 carcass processing, bone marrow extracting (Manne et al. 2012) and other similar activities, such
 476 as working hard, organic materials with the goal of producing tools seems, thus far, to be the
 477 most reasonable interpretation. The use of scaled pieces as wedges would allow for further
 478 enhancement of the effectiveness of these activities and has been identified in modern human
 479 occupations all over the world (Igreja and Porraz 2013; Langejans 2012; LeBlanc 1992; Sano
 480 2012; Shott 1989). In fact, this technique would be extremely useful in periods of greater
 481 environmental stress and in periods when communities needed higher mobility. Despite this, we
 482 do not discard the possibility that some scaled pieces might have been used for bipolar reduction
 483 strategies. In addition to the amount of stone anvils at the site, bipolar cores are also present
 484 across all techno-complexes (Cascalheira 2010; Marreiros 2009). There may even be the case
 485 that blanks from bipolar cores were transformed into scaled pieces by using them for further
 486 bipolar or wedging activities. Unfortunately, due to the nature of the damage present in scaled
 487 pieces, this is a very hard point to prove. Still, open hypotheses clearly attest the value and
 488 versatility of bipolar technologies for early modern human groups in the region.

489 Taking this into consideration, in Table 8 we present current data on Upper Paleolithic bipolar
 490 technology in Portugal. It is important to note that aside from Vale Boi, all scaled pieces and
 491 bipolar cores counts in this table were made according to each author's typological definitions
 492 and classifications, and not the ones we propose for this paper. Although the number of scaled
 493 pieces and bipolar cores is considerably low in most of the sites, a significant number of *loci*
 494 present some kind of bipolar technology evidence. Moreover, it is clear a discrepancy when
 495 comparing the presence of scaled pieces versus bipolar cores, the latter being well
 496 underrepresented than the first. It is also clear that scaled pieces show on average a higher
 497 representation in Vale Boi's assemblages than on most other sites. Further, of the three bipolar
 498 cores in all sites, two of these come from Vale Boi. While currently there are no definitive data
 499 on the representation of scaled pieces within the retouched tool assemblage of the Slope area, it
 500 is fairly safe to assume that it should be a particularly high value.

501

502

Table 8 Frequencies of scaled pieces and bipolar cores in Portuguese Upper Paleolithic sites.

Chronology	Sites	Scaled Pieces (N)	Scaled Pieces (%)	Bipolar Cores (N)	Bipolar Cores (%)	Total (%)	Source
Gravettian	Casal do Felipe	12	5.91	0	0.0	2.33	Zilhão (1997)

Gravettian	CPM III	1	0.81	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Gravettian	Fonte Santa	105	12.49	0	0.0	20.43	Zilhão (1997)
Gravettian	Gato Preto	3	3.13	0	0.0	0.58	Zilhão (1997)
Gravettian	Gruta do Caldeirão	1	11.11	0	0.0	0.00	Zilhão (1997)
Gravettian	Salto do Boi – Cardina I	1	2.7	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão et al. (1995)
Gravettian	Vale Boi - Terrace	12	37.5	1	0.0	2.33	Cascalheira (2009); Marreiros (2009)
Gravettian	Vale Boi – Slope	59	NA	0	0.0	11.48	Horta, 2016
Gravettian	Vale Comprido - Barraca	10	2.6	0	0.0	1.95	Zilhão (1997)
Gravettian	Vales da Senhora da Luz	1	0.32	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Proto-Solutrean	Terra do José Pereira	4	1.91	0	0.0	0.78	Zilhão (1997)
Proto-Solutrean	Terra do Manuel (1940-1942)	9	1.03	0	0.0	1.75	Zilhão (1997)
Proto-Solutrean	Terra do Manuel (1988-1989)	1	2.13	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Proto-Solutrean	Vale Boi Slope	13	?	0	0.0	2.53	Horta (2016)
Proto-Solutrean	Vale Comprido - Encosta	9	0.9	0	0.0	1.75	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Casal do Cepo	6	1.43	0	0.0	1.17	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Gruta de Salemas II	1	1.69	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Gruta de Salemas UP Mixed	1	1.16	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Lagar Velho 09	1	3.45	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Vale Almoinha	26	5.9	0	0.0	5.05	Zilhão (1997)
Solutrean	Vale Boi Rockshelter	24	11.7	1	2.3	4.67	Marreiros (2009)
Solutrean	Vale Boi Terrace	5	13.51	0	0.0	0.97	Cascalheira (2009)
Solutrean	Vale Boi Slope	66	NA	0	0.0	12.84	Horta (2016)
Magdalenian	Areiro I	8	4	0	0.0	1.56	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Areiro III área 1	16	2.9	0	0.0	3.11	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Areiro III área 2	10	2.9	0	0.0	1.95	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Areiro Teste	6	1.4	0	0.0	1.17	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Carneira I	2	0.35	0	0.0	0.39	Zilhão (1997)
Magdalenian	Carneira II	17	9.9	1	4.3	3.31	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Cerrado Novo	5	0.93	0	0.0	0.97	Bicho (2000)

Magdalenian	CPM I Inferior	1	0.5	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Magdalenian	CPM I Superior	18	1.2	0	0.0	3.50	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	CPM II Middle	4	3.4	0	0.0	0.78	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	CPM II Superior	2	1.1	0	0.0	0.39	Zilhão (1997)
Magdalenian	CPM IIIS	5	1.3	0	0.0	0.97	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	CPM III Superior	2	1.1	0	0.0	0.39	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	CPM V	2	1.3	0	0.0	0.39	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Olival da Carneira	3	1.11	0	0.0	0.58	Zilhão (1997)
Magdalenian	Pinhal da Carneira	2	1	0	0.0	0.39	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Quinta da Barca	9	10.23	0	0.0	1.75	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Quinta da Barca Sul	22	42.31	0	0.0	4.28	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Quinta da Granja	3	13.04	0	0.0	0.58	Bicho (2000)
Magdalenian	Rossio do Cabo	1	1.14	0	0.0	0.19	Zilhão (1997)
Magdalenian	Vale da Mata	6	0.45	0	0.0	1.17	Zilhão (1997)

503

504 Bipolar technology is quite common in Upper Paleolithic contexts of Western Iberia, but current
505 interpretations are based on empirical observations, rather than on more solid analytical
506 evidence. This, of course, stems in part from the lack of dedicated studies on bipolar technology
507 in the region, an issue that can be also argued to be true for all of the European Upper
508 Paleolithic. We argue that all factors mentioned in this study must be considered while
509 interpreting each site in this region. While in Vale Boi there is clear evidence that the use of
510 these artifacts would not be primarily for bipolar knapping, in other sites the picture may be
511 different.

512 As our results show, the low presence of bipolar cores is quite evident in these sites, while scaled
513 pieces are more often present. It can also be argued that the number of pieces in the overall
514 picture is also low, although presenting an accurate picture for each site since most of these sites
515 have been extensively studied.

516 Higher degrees of representation of scaled pieces in sites can be originated by factors such as site
517 function, but also by cultural patterns. Regarding site functionality, if we look at the *loci* with
518 higher counts of scaled pieces (Vale Boi's Terrace and Slope and Fonte Santa), all are open-air
519 residential sites. One example outside of this region is the Magdalenian site of Gönnersdorf in
520 Southwestern Germany, where according to Sano (2012) scaled pieces were the second most
521 frequent tool types within the site's retouched tools assemblage (257 from a total of 1501
522 utensils, corresponding to c. 17,12%). This frequency is as high as both Vale Boi's and Fonte
523 Santa's, and like both of these sites Gönnersdorf is an open-air residential site. However, these
524 data can be misleading, as Casal do Felipe (5,91%), Terra do Manuel 1940-42 (1,03%), Terra do
525 Manuel 1988-89 (2,13%) and Vale Comprido – Encosta (0,9%) are also open-air multifunctional
526 sites with much smaller representations of scaled pieces.

527 It seems reasonable that scaled pieces should be linked mostly with residential sites since the
528 activities for which they are applied are conducted in a residential scenario rather than a hunting
529 station, quarry, workshop or temporary shelter. While we cannot fully discard the fact that scaled
530 pieces can be used as a single representation of site functionality, they can be a tool for such
531 ends, as argued by Jeske and Sterner-Miller (2015). We, thus, argue that in this region, bipolar
532 technology in the Upper Paleolithic may be also linked to cultural traditions rather than just
533 simply functional ones. By considering that most sites aforementioned show similarities from a
534 functional, chronological, faunal, floral and climate standpoints, there is no clear reason for the
535 presence of different relative numbers of scaled pieces at each site other than a combination of
536 both cultural and functional patterns.

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