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#### S1. Micromorphological and Scanning Electron Microscope/ Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy Analyses

Materials and Methods. To characterize depositional and postdepositional processes at the site in general and the graveyard in particular, we retrieved 74 samples for micromorphological analyses. These samples were collected from all types of loci. So far we have analyzed 29 samples: 14 samples from the graveyard in the first chamber (some Natufian burial pits were dug into earlier Natufian graves and sediments, several were dug into Middle Paleolithic sediments, and the bottom ones are located directly on limestone bedrock), 11 samples from bedrock mortars in the first chamber and on the terrace, and four samples from tufas and rock crusts (1, 2).

The 29 samples were collected as undisturbed blocks. All samples were processed in the Laboratory of Geology at the University of Haifa. They were impregnated with a polyester resin/ styrene mixture under vacuum, dried, and cut into small cubes. Then petrographic thin sections (30 μm thick) were sliced off in the petrography laboratory of the Department of Maritime Civilizations at the University of Haifa. The thin sections were examined with Olympus BH-2 petrographic microscope in planepolarized (PPL) and cross-polarized (XPL) light using magnifications of 40× to 400×. They are described according to Stoops' method (3), applying concepts accepted in micromorphology of archaeologically related sediments (4, 5). The microstructure and chemical composition studies were performed on a Quanta scanning electron microscope (SEM), Oxford Instruments FEA, linked with an energy-dispersive spectrometer (EDS) INCA 200, in the Materials and Environmental Engineering Department of the Technion-Israel Institute of Technology. The SEM/EDS samples were analyzed uncoated, and all SEM microphotographs were taken in the mode of back-scattered (BS) electrons.

Results. The burial pits were filled during the inhumation process with ash-rich deposits mixed with local soil materials (Fig. S5). The thin-section analyses indicate that bioturbation was common in the upper deposits of the graveyard and decreased substantially downward. Moreover, the articulation of the skeletons and the associated in situ artifacts (e.g., stones set on edge, flint cores near the skulls, selected animal bones in particular locations) clearly reflect contextual preservation of macroscopic remains. Combined with the microscopic studies, the Raqefet Cave burials serve as excellent examples where not only the skeletons and their associated durable material remains were preserved intact but even perishable materials—the impressions of plant linings—were preserved at the bottom of graves. The high phytolith densities in burials and bedrock mortars indicate good preservation conditions as well as distinct and common use of plants in both (see below). Overall, the variety of remains and observations, combined with thin-section analyses, establish that bioturbation and other postdepositional processes had little impact on the location of anthropogenic artifacts within graves or bedrock mortars.

#### S2. Phytolith Analysis

Materials and Methods. Because macroscopic botanical remains are extremely scarce in the southern Levantine Natufian sites (6, 7), phytolith analyses provide one of the few possible direct ways to reconstruct past plant-related activities. To study plant use through the spatial distribution of phytoliths at Raqefet Cave, we analyzed 35 sediment samples retrieved from all types of in situ Natufian features. These samples include 16 samples from eight inhumations, 12 samples from four bedrock mortars, two samples from a deep bedrock basin above which there were three burials, and two samples from Natufian tufa; we also studied a pre-Natufian (Kebaran) tufa and two control samples taken from naturally accumulating soils located 40 m and 100 m from the cave's entrance (Table S2).

The sediment samples were analyzed by R.C.P. at the Institute of Archaeology (University College London, London, United Kingdom) and the Plant Foods Research Group (Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Liepzig, Germany). Phytoliths were extracted following a conventional protocol using gravity sedimentation, dry-ashing, and heavy liquid floatation (8). These phytoliths were treated with 15 mL of 10% HCl to remove any calcium carbonates. HCl then was removed by centrifuging. Clays were dispersed by adding 20 mL of a  $5\%$ solution of sodium hexametaphosphate and distilled water in a cylinder. Water then was added to a height of 8 cm. After 70 min the water was poured off, and the cylinder was refilled with water, which was left to settle for 60 min and then was poured again. This process was repeated until the suspension was clear. The organic matter in the residue was removed by heating to 500 °C in a muffle furnace for 2 h. The samples were transferred into 15-mL centrifuge tubes. Then 3 mL of sodium polytungstate solution calibrated to 2.3 specific gravity was added to each tube. The sample was centrifuged at  $115-120 \times g$  for 10 min. The tubes were removed, and the suspension containing the phytoliths was poured into clean 15-mL tubes. Distilled water was added to the tubes to reduce the specific gravity, and then the tubes were centrifuged at  $721-752 \times g$  for 5 min. After two such treatments, the clean phytoliths were transferred into beakers, dried, and weighed. Entellan (Merck) or Permount (Fisher) was used to mount a weighed aliquot of 2–3 mg of residue from each sample. A wide variety of plant tissue and taxa were identified (Table S3). Phytolith counting was conducted at 400× magnification. Single-cell phytolith morphotypes were counted to 300 or more individuals. Because multicell phytoliths are composed of varying numbers of cells, they were tallied separately. Multicell forms were counted up to 100. The number of phytoliths on the slide was calculated using the following algorithm:

## n phytoliths per slide  $=n$  counted/n slide fields counted  $\times$  total n fields on slide.

This value was used to derive a comparable unit of quantification, the number of phytoliths per 1 g of sediment. This value was calculated with the following formula:

n phytoliths/g=n phytoliths per slide/ total amount of sediment mounted (mg)  $\times$  total phytolith amount  $\frac{mg}{\pi}$ total initial sediment  $(mg) \times 1,000$ .

We used this formula and an Excel spreadsheet (Microsoft) to calculate the number of each phytolith type on each slide and the number of each type per gram (<0.25 mm) of dry sediment.

Results. Control samples taken from outside the cave and in various contexts inside the cave indicate that jigsaw-puzzle phytoliths were rare outside the burial contexts (Table S4). Controls show low levels of all phytoliths and extremely low levels of dicot leaf phytoliths. This finding verifies that the presence of dicot phytoliths is the result of cultural practices associated with burials and not the result of natural processes or contamination. The high correlation between the burials and dicot phytoliths is apparent in the

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- 2. Nadel D, et al. (2012) The 2010 and 2011 seasons of excavation at Raqefet Cave. J Isr Prehist Soc 42:35–73.

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- 3. Stoops G (2003) Guidelines for Analysis and Description of Soil and Regolith Thin Sections (Soil Science Society of America, Madison, WI).
- 4. Courty M-A, Goldberg P, Macphail RI (1989) Soils and Micromorphology in Archaeology. Cambridge Manuals in Archaeology (Cambridge Univ Press, Cambridge, UK).
- 5. Goldberg P, Macphail RI (2006) Practical and Theoretical Geoarchaeology (Blackwell Publishing, Oxford, UK).

burials of Homo 18 and Homo 19, where a set of well-preserved plant impressions was preserved on a vertical chiseled surface (Fig. S4). This finding implies an association between dicot leaf phytoliths and plant impressions in certain burial contexts.

- 6. Rosen AM (2010) Natufian plant exploitation: Managing risk and stability in an environment of change. Eurasian Prehistory 7:117–131.
- 7. Rosen AM, Rivera-Collazo I (2012) Climate change, adaptive cycles, and the persistence of foraging economies during the late Pleistocene/Holocene transition in the Levant. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 109(10):3640–3645.
- 8. Rosen AM (1999) in The Practical Impact of Science on Aegean and Near Eastern Archaeology, eds Pike S, Gitin S, Wiener Laboratory Publication 3 (Archetype, London), pp 86–92.



Fig. S1. Field photographs of stem impressions. All scales are in centimeters. (A) Bones of Homo 31, a 6- to 8-y-old child, directly above impressions of round stems. (B–D) Close-up views of rectangular stem impressions in the grave of Homo 25 and Homo 28. Photographs reproduced with permission from E. Gernstein.



Fig. S2. (A and B) Field photographs of stem impressions in the graves of Homo 25 and Homo 28. The impressions are rectangular in cross-section, as marked by the red line. Photographs reproduced with permission from E. Gernstein. (C) Photographs of a stem segment and its rectangular cross-section (Salvia judaica). (D) Photographs of a stem segment and its rectangular cross-section (Salvia fruticosa). Both Salvia species currently grow near Raqefet Cave. Photographs in C and D reproduced with permission from M. Eisenberg.

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Fig. S3. A section through selected burials discussed in text; see Fig. 1C for location. The presence of plant impressions on a mud veneer is indicated by the green line at the bottom of two graves. Note stones set on edge on top of Homo 28, Homo 25, and Homo 31 (diagonal hatching). The slab on the chest of Homo 25 is in addition to the one set near its skull (to the west of this section, not presented here; see Fig. 2). The shallow pit for the double burial on the left was dug through a Middle Paleolithic layer, down to bedrock. Homo 27 and Homo 30 are only partially preserved.

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Fig. S4. The double burial of Homo 18 and Homo 19 (see location in Fig. 1C). (A) Homo 19 during excavation (skull on right). Note the vertically chiseled bedrock surface at the left with foot bones resting on it. This surface was covered by more than 10 plant impressions. Photograph reproduced with permission from E. Gernstein. (B) An opposite view of the chiseled surface, after removal of the skeleton. Photograph reproduced with permission from E. Bartov. (C) A close-up view of plant impressions found on the vertical chiseled surface. All scales are in centimeters. Photograph reproduced with permission from E. Gernstein.

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Fig. S5. (A) Sample 3, the top of Locus 1: partially fragmented charcoal specimen from a hearth embedded in the clayey anthropogenic deposit; PPL, width of frame 2.4 mm. (B) Sample 4, the top of Locus 1: heterogenic ash-derived deposit encompassing a land snail shell fragment (1) and a yellow chip of bone (2); PPL, width of frame 2.4 mm. (C) Sample 5, Locus 1: fill of the burial of Homo 9, a loose anthropogenic deposit comprising pulverized small, rounded organo-mineral aggregates; PPL, width of frame 0.98 mm. (D) Sample 6, Locus 1, fill of the burial of Homo 9, a channel filled with comminuted organo-mineral aggregates and an elongated phytolith (1); PPL, width of frame 0.98 mm. (E) Sample Raq-11–1, floor of burial Homo 25 and Homo 28: back-scattered image of fractured (arrows), mainly amorphous mass of a crust. (F) Close-up view of E. Square denotes area measured by EDS, arrows indicate rounded pores, asterisk shows tip of Legend continued on following page

idiomorphic hydroxyapatite crystal probably grown on parent calcite. (G) Sample Raq-11–1, floor of burial Homo 25 and Homo 28: Back-scattered image of heterogeneous crust surface dissected with fracture (arrow); note bright area (square 1, phosphate mineral phase) vs. darker area (square 2, alumosilicate phase). (H) EDS graphs of elemental composition in squares 1 and 2 in G. Major peaks of calcium and phosphorus are related to a phosphate phase, whereas silicon, aluminum, potassium, and iron are related to a silicate phase. Parts A-B and E-H reproduced with permission from The Israel Prehistoric Society.



Fig. S6. Three <sup>14</sup>C dates obtained from collagen extracted from skeletons Homo 18 (RTK-6607), Homo 19 (RTK-6480-6540), and Homo 28 (RTK-6638) (following protocol of ref. 1).

1. Yizhaq M, et al. (2005) Quality controlled radiocarbon dating of bones and charcoal from the early Pre-Pottery Neolithic B (PPNB) of Motza (Israel). Radiocarbon 47:193–206.



Fig. S7. The frequencies of single-cell jigsaw-puzzle phytoliths from dicot leaves. Basin sed., basin sediments; C, bedrock mortar; H, Homo.

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n.m., not measured; o, standard deviation. n.m., not measured; σ, standard deviation.





### Table S3. Counted phytolith morphotypes and their highest level of taxonomic identification





#### Table S4. Density (number per gram of sediment) of select phytolith morphotypes organized by provenance