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Charlton, Sophy Jessica Laura, Alexander, Michelle Marie orcid.org/0000-0001-8000-3639, Collins, Matthew James orcid.org/0000-0003-4226-5501 et al. (5 more authors) (2016) Finding Britain's last hunter-gatherers:A new biomolecular approach to 'unidentifiable' bone fragments utilising bone collagen. *Journal of archaeological science*. pp. 55-61. ISSN 0305-4403

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2016.07.014>

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1 Finding Britain's last hunter-gatherers: A new biomolecular
2 approach to 'unidentifiable' bone fragments utilising bone
3 collagen

4
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18 **Keywords:** Mesolithic; Neolithic; collagen; stable isotopes; AMS dating; ZooMS; diet

19 **Abstract**

20 In the last decade, our knowledge of the transition from foraging, fishing, and hunting to
21 agricultural food production has been transformed through the molecular analysis of human
22 remains. In Britain, however, the lack of Late Mesolithic human remains has limited our
23 understanding of this dietary transition. Here, we report the use of a novel strategy to analyse
24 otherwise overlooked material to identify additional human remains from this period.
25 ZooMS, a method which uses bone collagen sequences to determine species, was applied to
26 unidentifiable bone fragments from 5th millennium deposits from the Late Mesolithic site of
27 Cnoc Coig (Oronsay, Inner Hebrides) using an innovative new methodology. All samples bar
28 one produced ZooMS results, with 14/20 bone fragments identified as human, and the
29 remainder a mixture of pig and seal. 70% of bone fragments had sufficient collagen for stable
30 isotope analyses, however none of three human bone fragments analysed had sufficient
31 endogenous DNA. By conducting AMS dating and stable isotope analysis on this identified
32 collagen, we provide new data that supports the view that the exploitation of marine
33 resources partially overlapped with the earliest agricultural communities in Britain, and thus
34 argues against the idea that forager lifeways in Britain were immediately replaced by
35 agriculture c.4000 cal. BC. Unfortunately, we were unable to explore the genetic relationship
36 between contemporaneous farmers and foragers. However, the more persistent bone protein
37 could be used to identify species, determine date, and assess diet. This novel approach is
38 widely applicable to other early prehistoric sites with fragmentary skeletal material.
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42 **1. Introduction**

43 Archaeology, according to Kristiansen (2014), is experiencing its third scientific revolution,
44 driven by the application of new biomolecular methods. One of the most demonstrable signs
45 of this revolution has been to transform our understanding the transition from foraging,
46 fishing and hunting to agricultural food production. Previously, stable isotope analysis of
47 human bone collagen has been used to assess the degree of dietary change associated with the
48 shift to farming, AMS dating of bone collagen has been used to determine the speed and
49 trajectory of this shift, whilst ancient DNA analysis has provided new insights regarding the
50 extent of demographic change. In many parts of Europe, these methods have been applied
51 with spectacular success (e.g. Bramanti et al., 2009; Haak et al., 2010; Lidén et al., 2004;
52 Lightfoot et al., 2015; Michael P. Richards et al., 2003; Rasteiro and Chikhi, 2013; Shennan
53 and Edinborough, 2007) triggering new and better informed debates regarding this key phase
54 in human history (e.g. Richards, 2003; Rowley-Conwy, 2011; Rowley-Conwy, 2004; Tresset
55 and Vigne, 2011). However, in Britain their application has been hampered by the near
56 absence of human remains dating to the period immediately preceding the arrival of farming
57 c.4,000 cal. BC, i.e. the Late Mesolithic. Remarkably, the only directly dated sites from the
58 whole of the 5th millennium BC with human remains are from the small Inner Hebridean
59 island of Oronsay (Meiklejohn et al., 2011), severely restricting meaningful comparisons with
60 more abundant Neolithic remains found across Britain.

61
62 The paucity of human remains from the Late Mesolithic of Britain is puzzling. Although the
63 British Isles may have been less densely populated during this period compared to the
64 Neolithic (Collard et al., 2010), many bone bearing sites have been identified. One possibility
65 is that human remains became disarticulated and highly fragmented through cultural practices
66 (Gray Jones, 2011) that rendered them unidentifiable using conventional osteological
67 methods. Here, we revisit the site of Cnoc Coig, Oronsay, one of the few Late Mesolithic
68 sites with human remains known in Britain. Despite the identification of only six individuals
69 at the site (Meiklejohn et al., 2011, 2005), it has previously been pivotal to the argument for a
70 rapid dietary change with the arrival of agriculture in Britain (Richards et al., 2003; Schulting
71 and Richards, 2002). We apply an innovative method (ZooMS), which uses bone collagen
72 sequences to determine species, to investigate whether additional human remains can be
73 identified amongst 5th millennium deposits of small, fragmentary ‘loose’ bone. The study also
74 aimed to utilise this collagen to conduct AMS dating and stable isotope analysis on any
75 identified bone samples, to enhance our understanding of the diet of Britain’s last forager
76 groups and their chronological relationship to the earliest evidence for agriculture, thereby
77 contributing to larger debates regarding the transition in Britain.

78 **1.1. Cnoc Coig**

79 The site of Cnoc Coig is one of five Mesolithic shell middens on the island of Oronsay, Inner
80 Hebrides. Cnoc Coig was first excavated in 1911-1912 (Wickham-Jones et al., 1982), and
81 then more extensively in 1973-1979 (Mellars, 1987). During the latter excavations, 49 pieces
82 of human bone were recovered, predominantly from the hands and feet, thought to represent
83 at up to six individuals (Meiklejohn et al., 2011, 2005; Meiklejohn and Denston, 1987).

84 Spatial analysis has suggested these human remains fall largely into seven circumscribed
85 bone groups, although none are indicative of primary inhumation (Meiklejohn et al., 2005).
86 Critically, AMS dating of the samples revealed that they date to the late 5th millennium BC,
87 immediately prior to the emergence of agriculture in Britain; although slightly earlier dates
88 (4300 cal. BC) have been proposed for both Neolithic monuments and pottery on the West
89 Coast of Scotland (Sheridan, 2010). Although small and fragmented, the Oronsay remains
90 represent one of the only Late Mesolithic human skeletal assemblages in Britain and, as such,
91 have been subjected to a range of analyses aimed at establishing their date, circumstances of
92 deposition, and diet (e.g. Meiklejohn et al., 2011, 2005; Mellars et al., 1980; Richards and
93 Mellars, 1998; Richards and Sheridan, 2000; Wicks et al., 2014).

94

95 In particular, stable isotope analysis of the human bones from Cnoc Coig has shown a
96 strongly marine isotopic signature, in contrast to the terrestrial signatures observed for
97 humans from early 4th millennium sites along the west coast of Scotland and elsewhere in
98 Britain (e.g. Schulting and Richards, 2002; Hedges et al., 2008; Milner and Craig, 2009). In
99 the absence of other Late Mesolithic human remains, the Oronsay material has been pivotal
100 to the argument for a rapid dietary change with the arrival of agriculture in Britain (Richards
101 et al., 2003; Schulting and Richards, 2002), despite being based on a very small number of
102 individuals. However, from recent recalibration of the dates, it has been suggested the human
103 remains may instead date to the early 4th millennium BC (Milner and Craig, 2009) and are
104 therefore coeval with the earliest evidence for domestic crops and animals in Scotland and
105 other parts of Britain (Brown, 2007; Rowley-Conwy, 2004). Therefore, further identification
106 of human remains for dating and dietary analysis from Cnoc Coig has the potential to greatly
107 clarify our understanding of the transition in Western Scotland and more generally across
108 Britain.

109 **2. Materials and Methods**

110 ***2.1. Samples***

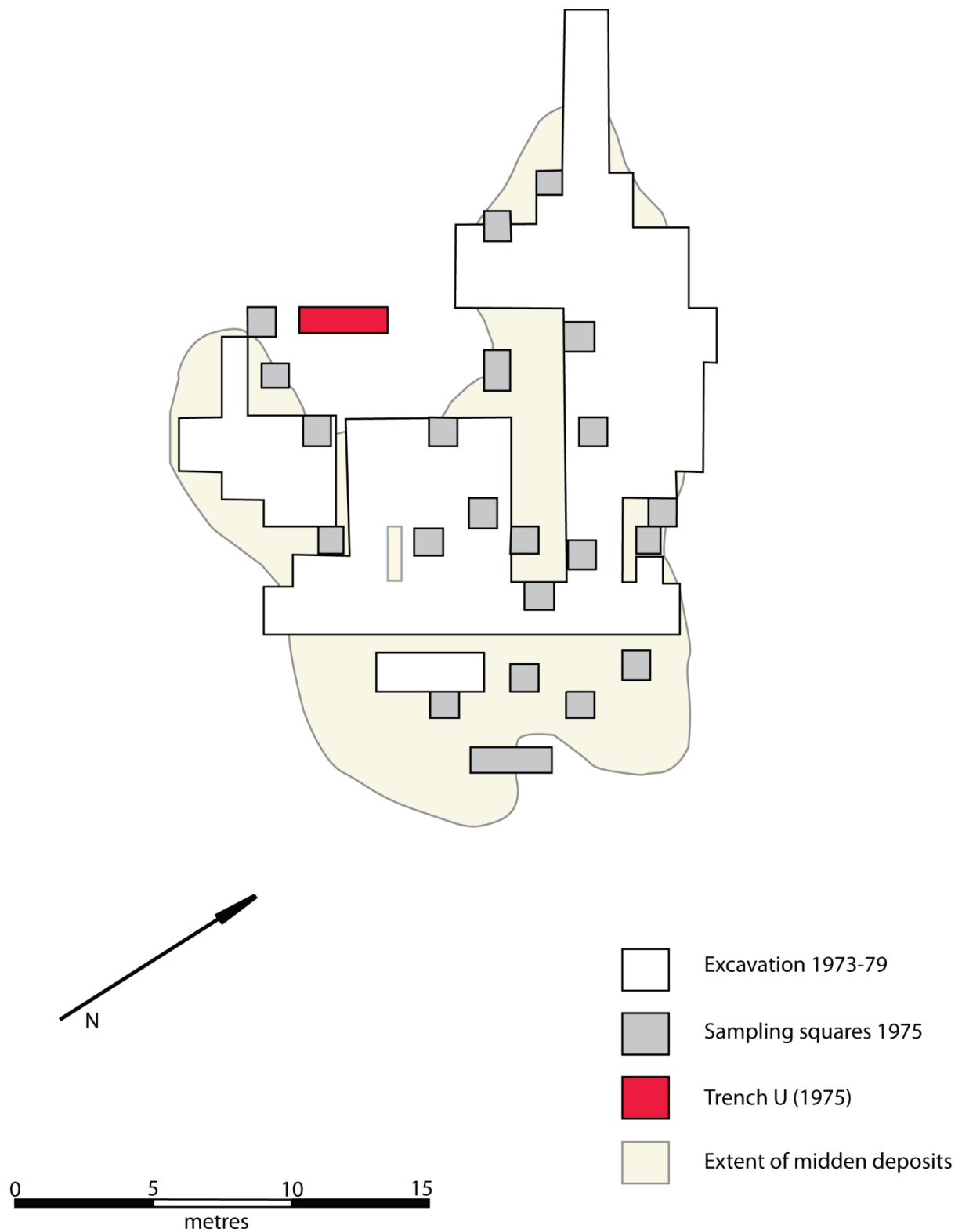
111 New biomolecular techniques have opened up the possibility of the identification of bone
112 fragments to genera using collagen peptide mass fingerprinting (ZooMS; Welker et al.,
113 2015). Twenty fragments of disarticulated and heavily fragmented bone from the 1973-9
114 excavations, originally classified as ‘unidentifiable’ or ‘?human’, and which had therefore
115 remained unstudied, were utilised within this research (Fig. 1). Although the trench number
116 of the remains is known, little other contextual information is available. The majority of
117 fragments (n=15) derive not from the main midden structure, but instead lie just outside in a
118 single outlying trench (Fig. 2). The remaining five ‘unidentifiable’ bones were selected from
119 other areas within the main midden structure. This research was undertaken with permission
120 from National Museums Scotland, to whom the Oronsay assemblage has been allocated.

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Figure 1: Selection of bone fragments from the Cnoc Coig assemblage used within this research; highlighting the range of sizes, elements and preservation. From top, L-R, ZooMS IDs: seal, pig, remainder human



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Figure 2: Plan of excavated areas of Cnoc Coig (adapted from Mellars 1987, 215), indicating the extent of the midden as defined by Mellars. Trench U, where the human remains identified in this study were found, is highlighted in red

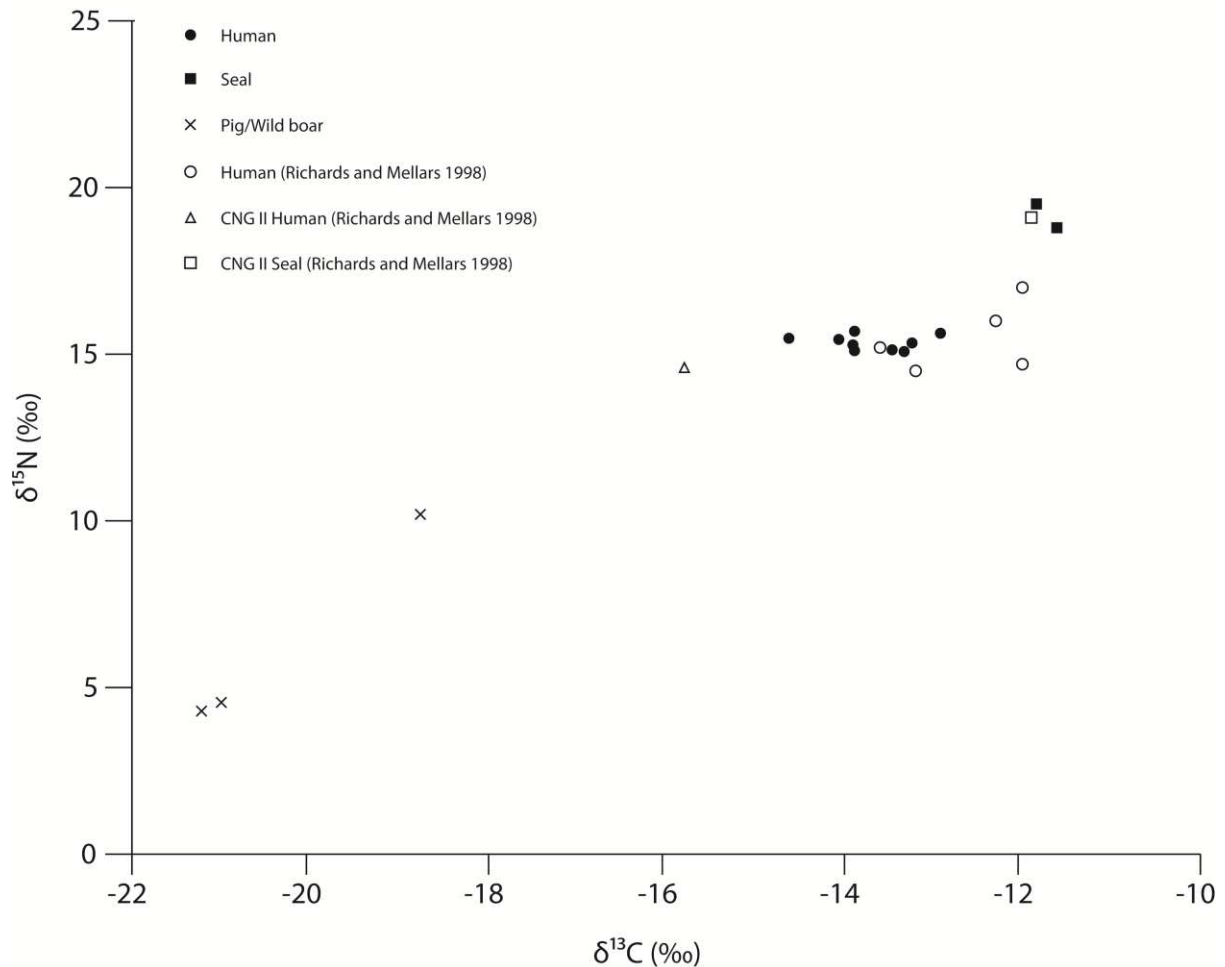
133 **2.2. A Combined Biomolecular Approach**

134 A multi-methodological approach was adopted in the study of these bone fragments,
135 combining ZooMS, stable isotope analysis and AMS dating (Fig. S1). Collagen was extracted
136 and isotopically analysed using published protocols (Richards and Hedges, 1999; Colonese et
137 al., 2015). ZooMS, a qualitative analytical technique for taxonomic identification of
138 archaeological materials (Buckley et al., 2009; 2010), was undertaken on a sub-sample of the
139 extracted collagen (<1mg), using a novel methodology, as outlined below. Four samples with
140 adequate collagen preservation were submitted for AMS dating at the NERC radiocarbon
141 facility (Oxford) and calibrated using the procedure detailed below. Three samples identified
142 as human using ZooMS were also submitted for aDNA analysis. Protocols for each of the
143 methodologies employed in this study are provided in the Supplementary Information.

144 **3. Results and Discussion**

145 Initially, collagen was prepared and extracted from all 20 bone fragments using previously
146 published protocols (Richards and Hedges, 1999; Colonese et al., 2015), but yields varied,
147 with only fourteen having sufficient collagen for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic analysis (Fig. 3). The
148 range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values obtained however indicated samples with both fully marine
149 and fully terrestrial diets. van Doorn et al. (2011) have previously shown that it is possible to
150 undertake ZooMS on samples soaked in ammonium bicarbonate buffer (AmBic), utilising
151 macroscopic amounts of bone collagen. Due to this, we speculated that the emptied 15ml
152 Falcon tubes previously utilised for lyophilisation following collagen extraction would have
153 absorbed sufficient collagen to their surface to allow for ZooMS identification to be
154 undertaken. Lyophilised collagen samples were therefore removed from Falcon tubes, and
155 75 μl 50mM AmBic was added to each 'empty' tube used during ultrafiltration and digested
156 with 1 μl trypsin. Identification was based upon peptide matching as outlined in Welker et al.
157 (2015). Nineteen of the twenty samples yielded identification information, including six that
158 had insufficient collagen to undertake stable isotope analyses. Two fragments identified as
159 *Pinnipedia* (seal) using ZooMS had $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values indicative of a typical
160 marine based diet expected of these animals. Indeed, all the seal bones analysed from
161 Oronsay (Richards and Mellars, 1998; this study) are within analytical error (Pestle et al.,
162 2014) and could therefore even be from the same skeleton.

163



164
 165 *Figure 3: Stable carbon and nitrogen isotope values from Cnoc Coig and Caisteal nan Gillean*
 166 *human and fauna. The analytical error on data obtained in this study was <math><0.2\text{‰}</math> (
 167 *168**

169 Of the three bone fragments identified as *Sus scrofa* using ZooMS, two samples (at least one
 170 individual) showed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values indicative of a terrestrial herbivorous diet, whilst the
 171 third had isotope values consistent with a more marine/omnivorous diet, possibly deriving
 172 from the consumption of refuse from the shell midden, or being purposively fed marine foods
 173 by humans. Biometrically identified as wild boar (Grigson and Mellars, 1987), these animals
 174 are likely to have been purposively brought to Oronsay from the mainland or larger
 175 surrounding islands. As they had differential diets prior to death, we may hypothesise that
 176 they inhabited different areas, derived from two (geographically) distinct populations, or
 177 were managed differently prior to their death, mirroring interpretations of deer at the site
 178 (Grigson and Mellars, 1987).

179
 180 Remarkably, fourteen of the fragments were identified as human, increasing the number of
 181 known human bone fragments from all five Oronsay middens from 55 (Meiklejohn et al.,
 182 2005) to 74 (including five fragments recently recovered at NMS) (Sheridan, *pers. comm.*).
 183 Of the fourteen bone fragments identified as human, nine yielded sufficient amounts of
 184 collagen for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic analysis (Fig. 3). Generally, the isotope values of the

185 human samples are similar to those from previous study, confirming marine protein rich diets
186 (Fig. 3; Table S1). However, variation in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values indicates that the human
187 bone samples are unlikely to be from the same individuals as previously analysed. At least
188 two of the new human samples are outside the error expected by replicate analysis of a single
189 individual (Pestle et al., 2014). Conservatively, if we use these errors, combining this new
190 human isotopic data with previous analysis (Richards and Mellars, 1998) suggests a potential
191 minimum of seven human individuals are represented isotopically, from thirteen pieces of
192 bone (Fig. 3).

193

194 Given the scarcity of British Late Mesolithic human remains and the unique nature of these
195 samples, aDNA analysis was attempted at two independent laboratories on three fragments of
196 bone identified as human here using ZooMS. Unfortunately, this was unsuccessful due to low
197 endogenous DNA content and inhibition of the samples (Barnes & Brace, *pers. comm.*; Reich
198 & Harney, *pers. comm.*; see Supplementary Information). However, this does highlight that in
199 sites which do not yield DNA, the bone protein collagen can still provide useful biomolecular
200 information, through identifying species, determining date, and assessing diet.

201

202 Finally, importantly, all the human remains identified here originate from outside the main
203 midden structure (Fig. 2) and may represent a different depositional event. This raises
204 interesting questions as to whether deposition in this location was intentional, or is a product
205 of taphonomic processes – and can perhaps contribute to discussions surrounding the
206 deposition of human remains in the late 5th-early 4th millennium BC in Britain. Given the
207 ubiquitous nature of disarticulated human remains with the Mesolithic burial record, potential
208 degrees of intentionality with regards to these kinds of deposits have previously been
209 discussed. Gray Jones (2011), for example, has suggested that ‘loose bone’ or disarticulated
210 remains may in fact be the result of deliberate acts, and thus a part of, rather than separate
211 from, other types of mortuary practice. Additionally, only one of the bone fragments
212 identified here as human appears to originate from the hands or feet, which have previously
213 been noted to be the dominant element types within the midden deposits, and have led to
214 suggestions of excarnation at the site (Meiklejohn et al., 2005).

215 ***3.1. Re-dating human remains at Cnoc Coig***

216 Previous AMS dates on human remains dated Cnoc Coig to 4300-3800 cal. BC (Milner and
217 Craig, 2009; Richards and Sheridan, 2000). However, the marine carbon isotope signatures of
218 the human remains mean they are subject to uncertainties associated with the marine
219 reservoir effect (MRE). Additional ^{14}C dates previously obtained from bulk charcoal (Switsur
220 and Mellars, 1987) could have derived from ‘old wood’ (Schiffer, 1986), adding to the
221 uncertainty regarding the dating of the site. The first dates on short-lived terrestrial mammals,
222 as identified by ZooMS, were therefore undertaken here, along with dates on the newly
223 identified human remains (Table 1).

224

225

226

227

Sample Number	Trench	ZooMS ID	Lab Ref. No.	¹⁴ C Date BP	Date cal. BC (95.4%)
8257	U III	Human	OxA-29939	5391 ± 30	3991-3702
8267	U III	Human	OxA-29938	5379 ± 29	3944-3649
10494	P (E)	Pig	OxA-29937	5122 ± 30	3982-3803
17050	H/ 13	Pig	OxA-29936	5117 ± 29	3977-3803

228 *Table 1:* AMS dates obtained within this study from newly identified humans and fauna. A
229 ΔR value of 47 ± 52 was used to calibrate samples 8257 and 8267

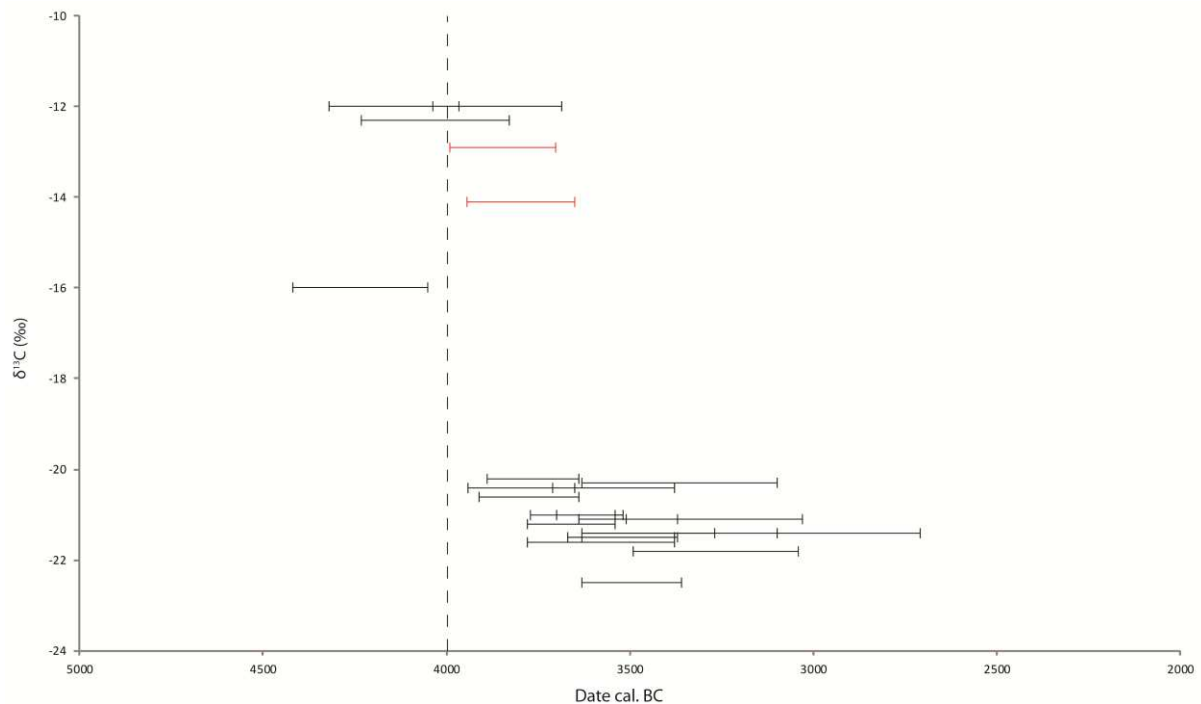
230

231 Calibration of all dates was undertaken using OxCal v.4.2 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009). As the
232 human samples had marine isotopic signatures however, they were calibrated using a mixed
233 marine-terrestrial curve (Marine13/IntCal13, Reimer et al., 2103) in a proportion determined
234 by marine/terrestrial carbon contribution to collagen (as in Barrett and Richards 2004;
235 following best practice outlined in Cook et al. 2015). The latter was estimated for each
236 individual from their $\delta^{13}C$ values following linear interpolation from the observed marine and
237 terrestrial endpoints after Schulting and Richards (2002) (-12‰ and -21‰ respectively;
238 Table S1). We placed a 10% error on this value following Hedges (2004). Calibration of
239 AMS dates from Cnoc Coig using this approach has previously been successfully undertaken
240 by Gordon Cook (Milner and Craig 2009). MRE and ΔR values are known to vary both
241 temporally and geographically, caused by palaeoclimatic, environmental and oceanographic
242 changes (Ascough et al., 2007, 2004). As the MRE has not been assessed at Oronsay itself, a
243 calculated mean ΔR value for Scotland was utilised ($\Delta R = 47 \pm 52$ 14 C yr) (Russell et al.,
244 2015) following best practices (Cook et al., 2015). Although this value is calculated for the
245 west coast of Scotland 3500 BC onwards, it is at present the most conservative and suitable
246 ΔR offset to utilise for these samples (Ascough, pers. comm.). The two pig samples dated
247 were calibrated using only the terrestrial (IntCal13) calibration curve.

248

249 Intriguingly, the dates on two pig bone samples with purely terrestrial diets fall within the 4th
250 millennium BC at 95% confidence (Table 1). After calibration of both new dates presented
251 here and those previously obtained from Oronsay using the approach outlined above, it is
252 clear that all the humans overlap with the terrestrial fauna and fall within the early part of the
253 4th millennium BC (Tables 1 and S1; Fig. 4). This is a significant result as the Oronsay
254 human dates, with marine isotope signatures, overlap with humans from other parts of
255 Western Scotland with fully terrestrial isotope signatures (Fig. 4) and with the earliest
256 evidence for domesticated animals and plants in Britain. We suggest that there was
257 considerable heterogeneity in human diets in the early part of the Neolithic reflecting
258 specialisation in subsistence practices across the landscape, and the continuity of foraging,
259 hunting and fishing into the period traditionally associated with agriculture and pastoralism.
260 Sheridan (2010) argues for the arrival of a ‘Breton Neolithic’ in this region from around
261 4300-4200 cal. BC, and Collard et al. (2010) suggest that farming emerged in western
262 Scotland c.6100 cal. BP. These dates, combined with the data obtained here, would imply

263 that both hunter-gatherer-fisher and farming lifestyles potentially co-existed on the West
264 Coast of Scotland for several hundred years. However, it should be noted that we have very
265 little isotopic evidence for human subsistence practices in 5th millennium Britain.
266



267
268 *Figure 4:* Plot of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values against radiocarbon dates for humans from Scottish West Coast
269 sites, c.4500-3000 cal. BC (data from this study (Tables 1 and S1); Richards and Sheridan,
270 2000; Schulting and Richards, 2002). New human data obtained for Cnoc Coig within this
271 study is highlighted in red

272 4. Conclusions

273 This study adopted an innovative biomolecular approach to bone fragments from the site of
274 Cnoc Coig, and highlights the archaeological information which can be obtained from bone
275 protein alone. By combining a variety of scientific techniques (all of which target bone
276 collagen) and applying them in tandem to the same samples, this research has aimed to
277 illustrate the information which can be obtained from previously overlooked fragmented
278 material. As such, this study importantly highlights the research potential currently dormant
279 within osteologically unidentifiable bone fragments from prehistoric contexts. There is
280 consequently significant potential for future application of the method to other prehistoric
281 sites with fragmentary or loose bone, such as caves and middens. We therefore call for
282 widespread application of ZooMS to similar Mesolithic assemblages across Britain.
283

284 As demonstrated here for the first time, the ability to be able to obtain taxonomic information
285 from ‘empty’ tubes previously utilised within the collagen extraction process also appears to
286 hold great future potential - particularly as it does not require the use of collagen reserved for
287 isotopic analysis or AMS dating. It also presents a potential opportunity to retrospectively

288 analyse empty tubes previously utilised within collagen extractions to gain taxonomic
289 information. This may be of particular use with samples which produce AMS dates or
290 isotopic values that are distinctly different from what is anticipated.

291

292 Overall, this research has detected extremely rare human bones from the Mesolithic-Neolithic
293 transition which can be used to further elucidate issues surrounding the period. In total,
294 fourteen new fragments of human bone have been identified, increasing the number of known
295 human bone fragments from the five Oronsay middens from 55 (Meiklejohn et al., 2005) to
296 74 (including five fragments recently recovered at NMS) (Sheridan, *pers. comm.*). The
297 human remains identified here provide additional data comparable to isotopic analyses
298 undertaken previously at Cnoc Coig. The isotopic results also provide additional evidence of
299 a high marine protein diet along the west coast of Scotland – but AMS dates obtained from
300 these samples suggest that this marine diet may have extended into the 4th millennium BC
301 and the ‘Neolithic’ period. However, the presence of a marine isotopic signature within one
302 *Sus scrofa* sample suggests the need for better characterisation of faunal baselines within the
303 British Mesolithic, in particular when considering interpretations of marine resource
304 consumption by humans.

305

306 Finally, unfortunately, insufficient endogenous DNA content within the samples analysed
307 here meant that it was not possible to explore the genetic relationship between the Cnoc Coig
308 humans and the earliest known agricultural communities in Britain. In future, analysis of the
309 single human petrous bone known from Cnoc Coig may be worth exploration, as this element
310 is known to provide significantly higher endogenous DNA yields (Pinhasi et al., 2015).

311

312 **Acknowledgements**

313 We thank Alison Sheridan and National Museums Scotland for providing permissions &
314 comments on the manuscript, Frido Welker for assistance with ZooMS, Peter Rowley-Conwy
315 for discussions on Mesolithic pigs, Emily Hellewell for discussions on the site & human
316 remains, and Philippa Ascough & Nicola Russell for assistance with determining ΔR values.
317 DNA data and methods were kindly provided by Selina Brace & Ian Barnes (Natural History
318 Museum) and David Reich & Eadaoin Harney (Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical
319 School). This research was funded by NERC (Ref.NE/K500987/1), and radiocarbon dates
320 were funded by the NERC-AHRC National Radiocarbon Facility (NRCF).

321

322

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Supporting Information

SI Materials and Methods

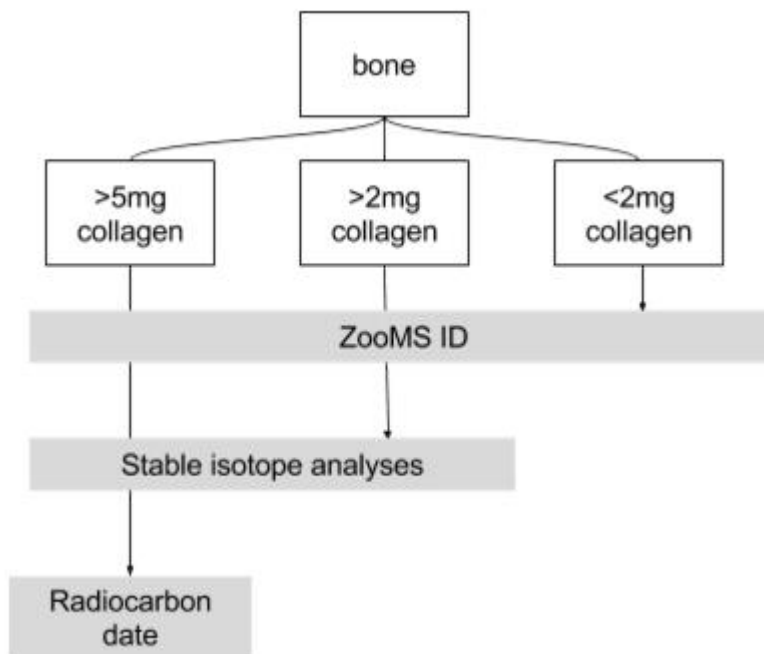


Figure S1: Schematic of analyses

ZooMS Analysis

The ZooMS methodology utilised involved a standard collagen extraction from *c.*500mg of bone (see below), followed by ZooMS analysis (as in Welker et al., 2015) being undertaken on the ‘empty’ tubes used for the lyophilisation of collagen – thereby utilising the macroscopically invisible amounts of collagen left adhering to the tube. The benefit of this novel ZooMS methodology lies in the fact that it can determine species identification from samples without the utilisation of collagen reserved for isotopic analyses. In effect, taxonomic information is being obtained from ‘empty’ tubes previously used within the collagen extraction process of these samples.

Briefly, lyophilised collagen samples (see below) were removed from falcon tubes and transferred into eppendorfs. 75µl 50mM AmBic (ammonium bicarbonate buffer, pH8.0) was added to each ‘empty’ tube used during ultrafiltration, vortexed and then centrifuged. 1µl trypsin (Promega) was then added to each sample, and digested for 16h at 37°C. Following this, samples were centrifuged at 13k RPM for 1 min and then 1µl 5% TFA was added to stop enzymatic digestion. Peptides were then extracted using C₁₈ ZipTips (Agilent), which were eluted using 50µl 50% ACN in 0.5% TFA.

MALDI-TOF-MS analysis, using 1µl eluted peptides and 1µl α-cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid matrix solution (Buckley et al., 2009; Welker et al., 2015) spotted onto a ground steel

plate, was undertaken in triplicate for each sample on a Bruker Ultraflex III MALDI-TOF/TOF at the University of York. Spectral analysis was performed using the open-source cross-platform software mMass (Strohalm et al., 2010). Replicates were averaged for each sample and manually analysed for peptide markers following the protocol detailed in (Welker et al., 2015).

All samples bar one provided sufficient taxonomic information using this modified ZooMS protocol to allow for species identification (Table S1). Two samples (17050 and GEN1) however required the initial ZooMS identification obtained from the empty tubes to be clarified via secondary ZooMS analysis using the standard protocol (Welker et al., 2015) on 0.5mg of extracted collagen.

Isotopic Analysis

Isotopic analyses of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were undertaken following a modified Longin collagen extraction protocol using ultrafiltration on *c.*500mg of bone (Brown et al., 1988; Colonese et al., 2015; Richards and Hedges, 1999). Briefly, samples were initially cleaned manually using a scalpel, and then were demineralised in 0.6M aq. HCl solution at 4°C, and the resulting insoluble fraction gelatinised in pH3 HCl for 48h at 80°C. The supernatant solution was then ultrafiltered (30kDa MWCO, Amicon) to isolate the high molecular weight fraction, which was then lyophilised. Purified collagen samples (1mg) were analysed in triplicate by EA-IRMS on a Sercon GSL analyser coupled to a Sercon 20-22 Mass Spectrometer at the University of York. The analytical error, calculated from repeated measurements of each sample, a bovine control, and international standards, was <0.2‰ (1 σ) for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Stable isotope values are presented here relative to the internationally defined standards of VPDB for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and AIR for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

Collagen quality fell within prescribed quality ranges (DeNiro, 1985; van Klinken, 1999). However, some variability was seen in the yields obtained from the samples, generally ranging from over 1% to over 3.5%. Only two samples fell below the 1% collagen yield from the retentate sample alone (samples 8260 and 8266), but both samples showed acceptable C:N ratios and so were still included within this study (Table S1). Furthermore, it has previously been noted that collagen yields calculated from retentate samples following ultrafiltration, as was undertaken here, contain only high molecular weight fractions and therefore quality criteria are actually more important than yields (Sealy et al., 2014). All samples with reported $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in this work have atomic C:N ratios of between 3.3-3.6 (Table S1).

Sample Number	ZooMS ID	Possible Element	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	Atomic C:N Ratio	% Collagen Yield	Estimated % contribution of marine C to collagen
8254	Human	Cranial frag?	-13.8	15.1	3.4	2.4	79%
8255	Human	Long bone?	-13.4	15.1	3.4	3.2	84%
8256	Human	Radius?	-13.3	15.0	3.3	2.1	85%
8257	Human	Cranial frag?	-14.1	15.4	3.3	3.6	77%
8258	Human	Cranial frag	-13.9	15.3	3.3	1.2	79%
8260	Human	Vertebrae	-14.6	15.5	3.6	0.9	71%
8266	Human	Vertebrae	-13.9	15.7	3.6	0.6	70%
8267	Human	Unknown	-12.9	15.6	3.3	1.4	90%
General Find 1 (GEN1)	Human	Metacarpal?	-13.2	15.3	3.2	3.7	86%
10420	Seal	Unknown	-11.8	19.5	3.5	1.2	-
10494	Pig	Long bone?	-21.2	4.3	3.4	2.9	-
10502	Seal	Long bone?	-11.6	18.8	3.3	2.9	-
17050	Pig	Long bone?	-21.0	4.6	3.3	2.3	-
'Unknown' (General find)	Pig	Unknown	-18.8	10.2	3.4	2.7	-
8259	Human	Rib	-	-	-	0.5	-
8261	Human	Vertebrae	-	-	-	0.8	-
8262	Unidentifiable	Unknown	-	-	-	0.5	-
8263	Human	Vertebrae	-	-	-	0.1	-
8265	Human	Rib	-	-	-	0.2	-
8268	Human	Vertebrae	-	-	-	0.8	-

Table S1: ZooMS species ID and collagen stable isotope values obtained. Estimated % marine carbon contribution to collagen for humans calculated from isotopic data after

Schulting and Richards (2002) using marine and terrestrial carbon end-points of -12‰ and -21‰ respectively, with an error $\pm 10\%$

AMS Dating

AMS dating of four bone fragments identified using ZooMS and with associated isotopic information was also undertaken in an attempt to elucidate information about the chronology of the skeletal remains at Cnoc Coig. Dating of terrestrial faunal samples was undertaken to provide valuable reference points to evaluate the overall date of the site, which is currently based on marine and charcoal samples (Table S2), and to identify if the fauna studied were contemporaneous to the human remains. There have previously been no dates (or isotopic values) for terrestrial fauna from Cnoc Coig.

All AMS data were generated by the NERC radiocarbon facility based in the Oxford Radiocarbon Acceleration Unit. Calibration of dates (both those undertaken in this study, and dates previously obtained) was undertaken using OxCal v.4.2. As many of the bone fragments utilised in this study showed high marine isotopic values however (Table S1), this suggested the need for calibration of radiocarbon dates adjusted for a marine reservoir correction, with the appropriate ΔR offset. To do this, mixed marine/atmospheric calibration curves (Marine13/IntCal13, Reimer et al., 2103) were used in a proportion determined by marine/terrestrial carbon contribution to collagen (as in Barrett and Richards, 2004); following best practice as outlined in Cook et al. (2015). The latter was estimated for each individual from their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values following linear interpolation from the observed marine and terrestrial endpoints (Table S1), with an error $\pm 10\%$. A ΔR value of 47 ± 52 was also applied to human samples with marine isotopic signatures (Tables S1 and S2). This is a mean ΔR value calculated for the entirety of Scotland (Russell et al., 2105; Ascough, *pers. comm.*).

Material Dated	Lab Ref. No.	^{14}C Date BP	Original Published Date cal. BC	New Date cal. BC (with MRO) (95.4%)	Reference
<i>Arctica islandica</i> shell	Birm-326Z	7240 ± 200	6400-5100	6144-5354	(Jardine, 1978; Mellars, 1987)
<i>Arctica islandica</i> shell	Birm-326Y	7290 ± 120	6200-5450	6011-5527	(Jardine, 1978; Mellars, 1987)
<i>Arctica islandica</i> shell	Birm-326X	7610 ± 150	6500-5650	6399-5760	(Jardine, 1978; Mellars, 1987)
Bulk charcoal	Q-1352	5430 ± 130	4520-3970	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)
Bulk charcoal	Q-1351	5495 ± 75	4510-4070	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)

Bulk charcoal	Q-1354	5535 ±140	4690-4040	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)
Bulk charcoal	Q-1353	5645 ±80	4690-4340	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)
Bulk charcoal	Q-3006	5675 ±60	4690-4360	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)
Bulk charcoal	Q-3005	5650 ±60	4660-4350	-	(Switsur and Mellars, 1987)
Human bone (sample no. 17203)	OxA- 8014	5495 ±55	4000-3800	4036-3686	(Richards and Sheridan, 2000)
Human bone (sample no. 17157)	OxA- 8019	5615 ±45	4200-4000	4232-3830	(Richards and Sheridan, 2000)
Human bone (sample no. 18284)	OxA- 8004	5740 ±65	4300-4000	4320-3966	(Richards and Sheridan, 2000)

Table S2: Radiocarbon dates previously obtained for Cnoc Coig. It is important to note that the previous dates on human bone were undertaken on collagen which had not been ultrafiltered. Also note the large standard deviations on both previous shell and charcoal BP dates. New calibration of dates was undertaken using mixed marine/atmospheric calibration curves (Marine13/IntCal13, Reimer et al., 2103), in a proportion determined by marine/terrestrial carbon contribution to collagen following linear interpolation from the observed marine and terrestrial endpoints, with an error $\pm 10\%$. A ΔR value of 47 ± 52 was also applied

DNA analysis

Sample 8256:

DNA extraction and library preparation were carried out in a dedicated ancient DNA laboratory at The Natural History Museum, London. 50mg of finely drilled bone powder was utilised, and DNA extracted following Dabney et al. (2013), but with the the Zymo-Spin V column binding apparatus replaced with a high pure extender assembly from the High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid Large Volume Kit (Roche). Library preparations followed a modified version of the Meyer and Kircher (2010) protocol: the initial DNA fragmentation step was not required; all clean-up steps used MinElute PCR purification kits (Qiagen). The index PCR step used AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase and the addition of 0.4mg/mL BSA. The index PCR was set for 20 cycles with three PCR reactions conducted per library. The library was sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq platform (The Natural History Museum, London) using a NextSeq 500/550 Mid-Output v2 Kit (150 cycles).

Bioinformatics

AdapterRemoval (Lindgreen, 2012) was used to trim residual Illumina adapter sequences and low quality bases, with paired end reads longer than 25 bases merged with a minimum overlap of 11 bases. Quality trimmed, merged only reads were then aligned to a human reference genome (hg19) using BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009), with minimum base quality set to phred scale 15. SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) was used to further filter the mapped reads by map quality value 30 and remove all duplicates. Endogenous DNA content was determined through the number of filtered, quality (30), non-duplicate reads aligning to the human genome divided by the total number of reads. The endogenous DNA content of sample 8256 was found to be 0.02% (Barnes and Brace, *pers. comm.*).

Samples 8257 and 8267:

DNA extraction and library preparation were carried out in dedicated ancient DNA facilities at Harvard Medical School, Boston, following a standard screening process previously reported (Haak et al., 2015). Samples were cleaned by removing the outer layer of bone using a Dremel sanding disk, followed by overnight exposure to UV light. Powder was produced by crushing the cleaned bone using a mortar and pestle. 75mg of powder was utilised, and DNA extracted following Dabney et al. (2013) but with the the Zymo-Spin V column binding apparatus replaced with a high pure extender assembly from the High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid Large Volume Kit (Roche). Library preparations were performed following Rohland et al. (2015), using a partial UDG treatment. This treatment repairs C->U damage in the interior of the DNA molecule, while leaving a fraction of damage intact at the terminal nucleotides of the molecule in order to enable tests of ancient DNA authenticity.

Following amplification, libraries were evaluated on a BioAnalyzer to assess library preparation success. Both samples exhibited signs of inhibition during library preparation, demonstrated by flat BioAnalyzer traces. The libraries were therefore not brought forward in the ancient DNA screening process, as inhibition of the library prevents the acquisition of useful DNA sequences from samples. Thus, no informative genetic data could be obtained from either sample (Reich and Harney, *pers. comm.*).