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1 **Regional asynchronicity in dairy production and processing in early farming**
2 **communities of the northern Mediterranean**

3
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28
29 Keywords: archaeology, Neolithic, lipid residue analyses, archaeozoology, milk.

30
31 **Significance Statement**

32 This unique research combines the analyses of lipid residues in pottery vessels with slaughter
33 profiles for domesticated ruminants to provide compelling evidence for diverse subsistence
34 strategies in the northern Mediterranean basin during the Neolithic. Our findings show that the
35 exploitation and processing of milk varied across the region, although most communities
36 began to exploit milk as soon as domesticates were introduced between 9-7,000 years ago.
37 This discovery is especially noteworthy as the shift in human subsistence towards milk

38 production reshaped prehistoric European culture, biology and economy, in ways that are still
39 visible today.

40

41 **Abstract**

42 In the absence of any direct evidence, the relative importance of meat and dairy productions to
43 Neolithic prehistoric Mediterranean communities has been extensively debated. Here, we
44 combine lipid residue analysis of ceramic vessels with osteo-archaeological age at death
45 analysis from 82 northern Mediterranean and Near Eastern sites dating from the 7th-5th
46 millennia BC to address this question. The findings show variable intensities in dairy and non-
47 dairy activities in the Mediterranean region with the slaughter profiles of domesticated
48 ruminants mirroring the results of the organic residue analyses. The finding of milk residues
49 in very early Neolithic pottery (7th millennium) from both the east and west of the region
50 contrasts with much lower intensities in sites of northern Greece where pig bones are present
51 in higher frequencies compared to other regions. In this region, the slaughter profiles of all
52 domesticated ruminants suggest meat production predominated. Overall, it appears that milk
53 or by-products of milk was an important foodstuff, which may have contributed significantly
54 to the spread of these cultural groups by providing a nourishing and sustainable product for
55 early farming communities.

56

57 In southwestern Asia, domestication of sheep, goats and cattle started between 8,500 and
58 8,000 cal. BC, with morphological traits of domestication being detected in some
59 archaeozoological records from 8,500 cal. BC (1, 2). However, as domesticates started to
60 provide the majority of the meat at Pre-Pottery Neolithic (PPN) sites only one millennium
61 later (3, 4), it has been argued that milk might have been one of the initial attractions of
62 domesticating ruminants (4). The development of archaeozoological methods for
63 reconstructing herd structures allows herd management practices to be inferred from the
64 archaeological faunal record (4-6). Subsistence strategies can thus be understood, providing
65 evidence for the production of meat and milk from ungulates. In parallel to archaeozoology,
66 the characterisation of animal lipids extracted from pottery vessels used in cooking has been
67 demonstrated to be a powerful method for detecting the processing of carcass and dairy
68 products (7, 8). Archaeozoological studies have demonstrated that milk production in the Near
69 East started early in the domestication process in “stock-herding hunter-cultivator”
70 communities (PPN; ref. 3, 4), while dairy residues have been detected in early ceramic
71 containers dating to the 7th millennium (9). Dairying practices developed largely in lactase
72 non-persistent communities, providing the base for the selection of the allele responsible for
73 lactase persistence (LP) in Europe (10). The spread of farming practices westwards along the
74 northern Mediterranean sea-board is believed to have been taken place by ‘punctuated
75 maritime pioneer colonisation’, with subsequent adoption of agrarian practices by indigenous
76 populations (11-13). However, the material culture associated with agriculture is much more
77 abundant in the western and central Mediterranean regions (14) compared to the Levant and
78 Near East (15-17), suggesting different agricultural and husbandry practices across the region.

79

80 Here we synthesise new and published evidence to produce a broad regional and
81 chronological perspective on domestic animal exploitation during the 7th to 5th millennium BC
82 across the Northern Mediterranean and Anatolia (Fig. 1). We specifically examine whether
83 dairying arose in response to particular environmental characteristics or whether it was driven
84 by cultural traditions introduced in the Neolithic. The results of new lipid residue analyses
85 carried out on 567 sherds from this study are combined with previously published results from
86 the eastern Mediterranean basin (9, 18-20, 21; Table S11). Lipids were analysed using
87 chromatographic, spectrometric and isotopic methods to characterise their source and identify
88 dairy and carcass residues. Osteo-archaeological age at death (AtD) data for cattle and
89 caprines were collected and mortality profiles were assessed using correspondence analyses
90 (CA) bi-plots, in order to assess slaughter practices (Table S12). These complementary data

91 sets are combined to provide a comprehensive regional perspective of prehistoric animal
92 exploitation.

93

94 **Results**

95 *Overview of biomarker and isotopic analyses*

96 Interpretable residues (>5 µg of lipids per g of sherd) were extracted from only 27% ($n = 153$)
97 of the 567 vessels analysed (Table S1); a frequency of preservation consistent with previous
98 studies of eastern Mediterranean prehistoric pottery (9). In most cases, molecular
99 compositions of total lipid extracts were consistent with degraded animal fats, with C_{16:0} and
100 C_{18:0} fatty acids generally predominating the lipid assemblage, while the presence of branched
101 chain fatty acids (C_{15:0} and C_{17:0}) supported a ruminant origin (22). Ninety-eight potsherds
102 produced sufficient concentrations of *n*-alkanoic acids (C_{16:0} and C_{18:0}) for determination of
103 their δ¹³C values by GC-C-IRMS (Table S3). The δ¹³C values of the C_{16:0} and C_{18:0} fatty acids
104 reflect their biosynthetic and dietary origin, allowing non-ruminant and ruminant adipose and
105 ruminant dairy fats to be distinguished (23, 24, 25; Fig. 2).

106

107 *The Levant and Anatolia, a review of published organic residue analyses and AtD studies*

108 Dairy ruminants were originally domesticated (1, 26) in this region where European Neolithic
109 cultures originated (15). Caprines dominated Pre-Pottery Neolithic B (PPNB) and PN (Pottery
110 Neolithic) assemblages (27); previous analysis has indicated that caprine dairy management
111 was practised during the PPNB whereas during the Pottery Neolithic (PN) periods, there was
112 a development towards mixed subsistence practices (3). Indeed, PN Near Eastern sites display
113 herd structures dominated by adult animals of prime meat age (Fig. 3c). In the absence of
114 ceramics, there is of course no lipid data for the PPN, but lipids were only detected in around
115 10% of the PN sherds from sites investigated (second half of the 7th to 6th millennium BC:
116 Tell Sabi Abyad (21), Sha'ar Hogolan: (9); al-Basafîn: (19)). For example, at Tell Sabi Abyad
117 around 11% of the sherds contained animal fats of which 13% were dairy in origin (Fig. 2a-b).
118 Ruminants were managed for numerous products, and the use of non-ceramic containers for
119 milk processing (20) could explain the apparent low frequency of dairy residues in ceramic
120 pots from the region.

121

122 In central and western Anatolia, caprines dominate faunal assemblages (28) and the
123 identification of dairy husbandry from AtD is hampered by the lack of published information
124 for both caprines (3 sites) and cattle (1 site). However, previous faunal assessments and our

125 CA suggest that caprines were managed for dairy (Fig. 3c-d; Erbab Höyük: (29); Ulucak
126 Höyük: (30)). Milk use was not particularly evident at Çatalhöyük, where only 8% of the
127 animal fats detected were of dairy origin ((9); Fig. 1, 2a-b). The analysis of post-cranial AtD
128 from the site suggests that cattle were slaughtered after 24 months (28), and if cattle were
129 managed for milk, it would have been shared between the herders and the growing calf (31).
130 In contrast, extensive sampling of potsherds ($n = 537$; 6 sites) around the Sea of Marmara
131 revealed that milk was used extensively in the area from the second half of the 7th millennium
132 BC (9), as more than 70% of the animal fats extracted were identified as dairy fats (Fig. 2c).
133 This coincides with an increase in cattle herds in the region (9), although there is growing
134 evidence of the important role of caprines as milk producers (30). Since cattle dental remains
135 are highly fragmented it is difficult to assess whether they were the main dairy producers in
136 this region (32).

137

138 *Northern Greece and Aegean seaboard*

139 Neolithisation of Greece is thought to have happened (i) by land from NE Anatolia to Thrace
140 and the Balkans and/or (ii) by sea from the Aegean Anatolian coast or the Levantine coast
141 (33-36). Lipid residues characterised from 421 potsherds (116 sherds from this study; 305
142 sherds from ref. 9) from 6 Middle and Late Neolithic northern Greek sites dating to the 6th-5th
143 Millennium BC showed that less than 10% of the sherds with animal fats contained dairy fats
144 (Fig. 2d). However, the potential processing of pig products, suggested by the presence of
145 extensive pig remains at the sites, could have prevented identification of milk residues in pots,
146 since mixtures of porcine and dairy fats have similar $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values as ruminant adipose fats.
147 Nevertheless, the low incidence of dairy fats in pottery is echoed by the results from the
148 faunal analysis, as both the caprine and cattle CA (Fig. 3) show that meat was the main focus.
149 The primary meat exploitation is consistent with previous faunal research, which has
150 demonstrated its important role in the Early Neolithic societies (36-38). Neolithic settlements
151 on the smaller Aegean islands were not established until the end of the Middle Greek
152 Neolithic (~5300 BC), probably due to the need for communities to adapt to the inhospitable
153 nature of the islands, i.e. in terms of poor water supply and lack of forest cover (39). These
154 communities relied more on caprines compared with mainland sites, due to the adaptability of
155 caprines to marginal landscapes (39, 40). The Cycladic island sites (Kalythine cave, Rhodes;
156 Ftelia, Mykonos) are characterised by an abundance of caprines of young age classes
157 associated with dairy husbandry (Fig. 3c), which would have provided Neolithic communities
158 with an important protein source in a marginal environment. To our knowledge, the

159 archaeozoological evidence is the sole proxy currently available for milk exploitation in this
160 region.

161

162 ***Adriatic / Central Mediterranean regions (Slovenia, Malta, Croatia and Italy)***

163 The first *Impressa* Ware culture was identified in the Adriatic region around 6,000 cal. BC,
164 introduced together with domesticates by pioneer sea-faring farming communities (16, 41).
165 Archaeozoological analyses suggest that both caprines and cattle were managed for milk, with
166 specialised intensive husbandries for the former (4, 42-44). Ages at death for caprines from
167 *Impressa* sites group around the post-lactation, prime meat and adult classes suggesting mixed
168 husbandries, possibly including milk production (Fig. 3c-d). Cattle were intensively
169 slaughtered during infancy and post-lactation, probably associated with dairying (Fig. 3a-b;
170 44). Analyses carried out on 189 *Impressa*/EN sherds collected from 14 early farming sites
171 from the region (including 36 sherds from ref. 18), identified dairy residues in almost half of
172 the sherds containing animal fats, indicating a high prevalence for the use of dairy products
173 (Fig. 2e). Both lipid residues and archaeozoological information thus provide complementary
174 evidence for milk exploitation in this region during the 7th to 5th millennium BC.

175

176 ***Southern France and the Iberian Peninsula***

177 The first Neolithic settlements in southern France appear during the first half of the 6th
178 millennium BC and are associated with the Italian *Impressa* culture, with the distinctive
179 Franco-Iberian Cardial tradition developing at the end of the 6th millennium BC (45). Cave
180 and open-air sites played an important role in husbandry strategies, with caprines dominating
181 archaeozoological assemblages (43, 46). Ages at death of caprines for open-air sites are
182 centred close to prime meat production age classes (1-4 years; Fig. 3c-d) whereas cave sites
183 are closely associated with young age classes related to dairy production. For the cattle CA,
184 sites cluster between infant, post-lactation, and prime meat age classes, with a trend towards
185 dairy husbandry in open-air sites (Fig. 3a-b). A third of the sherds analysed from rock-shelters
186 and caves in southern France and the Iberian Peninsula (Grotte Gazel, Font Juvénel and Can
187 Sadurni) contained animal fat residues of which 60% were dairy in origin (Fig. 2f), correlating
188 with the findings of the archaeozoological study. Rock-shelters and caves provide natural
189 stalls that would have been ideal as birthing stations and dairies, and would have been integral
190 to the stock herding seasonal cycle (47). To date, no sherds from open-air sites from this
191 region have yielded lipid residues.

192

193 **Statistical analysis of the data set**

194 Statistical analyses were carried out to assess the correlation between the presence/absence of
195 evidence for dairying (based on faunal mortality evidence and/or presence of dairy lipids), and
196 Köppen-Geiger climate type (48), altitude, site location (coastal/inland) and ceramic cultural
197 affiliations. The dataset contains 82 sites dating from the 8th-5th millennium BC; evidence for
198 dairy is based on the ORA and AtD data (Fig. 1, Table S4). The variables that were
199 statistically significant using ANOVA were *region* (ANOVA, DF=6, F=6.69, p<0.001), *site*
200 *type* (ANOVA, DF=3, F=5.09, p<0.001) and *cultural affiliation* (ANOVA, DF=5, F=5.64,
201 p<0.001; Table S5). There was no significant difference in the presence/absence of dairy
202 products in *Impressa*/Cardial ware communities living in central and western Mediterranean
203 regions ($\chi^2=0.07$; $p>0.05$). However, a strong relationship between PPNB, PN of the Marmara
204 region and *Impressa*/Cardial ware cultures and evidence for dairying production and
205 processing is demonstrated (Fig. 1, 4).

206

207 The Köppen-Geiger codes used to define the climate regions were not found to be very
208 significant (ANOVA, DF=6, F=2.1, $p=0.05$), nor were groupings based on overall climate
209 type, precipitation and temperature. Previous research has also shown this lack of correlation
210 between prehistoric faunal evidence and modern climatic data (49). Around 8,200 BP, the
211 Mediterranean basin witnessed serious climatic fluctuations and therefore modern proxies
212 may not adequately define prehistoric climates (50). However, it is clear that the external
213 environment did play an important role in animal management practices, for example the
214 correlation between caprine dairying and cave sites obtained for the *Impressa*/Cardial ware
215 communities in the rugged terrain of France and the Iberian Peninsula. In contrast, well-
216 watered open landscapes such as southern Italy and northwestern Spain appear more suitable
217 for specialised cattle dairy husbandry (44). Consequently, the influence of the external
218 environment cannot be dismissed; however, better climate proxies are needed to test this.

219

220 **Discussion**

221 The early PPN communities of the Levant and Anatolia managed caprines for dairy products
222 (3, 4) and ceramic vessels were used to process milk from the very beginning of pottery
223 production, as it is evident in the Sea of Marmara region (9). However, in Europe milk
224 exploitation varied from East to West along the northern Mediterranean seaboard, as seen in
225 the quasi-absence of dairy residues in ceramic vessels from northern Greece, in contrast to the
226 strong evidence for dairying in the northwestern Mediterranean. The former cannot be solely

227 explained by the potential use of perishable containers for milk processing or mixing with
228 porcine fats, because age at death profiles have shown that husbandry was focused on meat
229 production in these communities. Moving westwards, osteo-archaeological age at death
230 profiles and lipid residue findings strongly demonstrated that early Neolithic communities
231 were both actively managing animals for milk and processing milk in ceramic vessels (Fig. 1).
232 Combined evidence from faunal and lipid residue analyses therefore unequivocally show that
233 the production and use of dairy products was widespread across the breadth of the northern
234 Mediterranean except in mainland Greece, from the onset of agriculture.

235 It has been proposed that environmental factors play an important role in the observed
236 differences in Early Neolithic faunal abundances, more so than the cultural context (49).
237 Indeed the choice of dairy animals would have been heavily influenced by the external
238 environment as it is crucial to the growth and stability of dairy herds. From our analysis, we
239 also suggest that the cultural context could possibly also have influenced whether or not
240 dairying was practised, as seen in the difference between northern Greek communities and the
241 wider Mediterranean seaboard. This should be tested further using well-defined geographical
242 and ecological models that reflect prehistoric environments. These data need also to be
243 incorporated into milk production models to generate new approaches to examining the
244 evolution of domestic animal herds across different regions and within cultural groups. The
245 observed differences in the frequency of dairy versus non-dairy exploitation between
246 contemporary groups in Europe during the 7th-5th millennium BC is intriguing and may be the
247 result from different cultural traditions, environments or dairying abilities of the ruminant
248 lineages.

249

250 **Materials and Methods**

251 **Organic residue analysis.** For this study, a total of 567 potsherds were sampled from 21
252 Neolithic and Chalcolithic sites across the Mediterranean area (Fig. 1; Table S1). Lipid
253 analysis and interpretations were performed using established protocols described in detail in
254 earlier publications (51, 52). Briefly, ~2 g of potsherd were sampled following cleaning of the
255 vessel surfaces with a modelling drill to remove any exogenous lipids. Powdered sherds were
256 solvent extracted by ultrasonication. Aliquots of the total lipid extract (TLE) were
257 trimethylsilylated using *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) and submitted for
258 analysis by gas chromatography (GC) and GC-mass spectrometry. Further aliquots of the TLE
259 were hydrolysed and methylated to obtain fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES). FAMES were
260 then analysed by GC and GC-combustion-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS).
261 Instrument precision was $\pm 0.3\%$.

262

263 **Age at death data collection and processing.** Osteo-archaeological age at death (AtD) data
264 were collected from ruminant mandibles and isolated teeth from well-dated sites, where
265 sampling strategies focused on defined contexts. Correspondence analysis (CA) bi-plots were
266 used to elucidate trends in the data and generate hypotheses concerning slaughter practices
267 (3). This was performed on cattle and caprine AtD frequencies collected from published
268 reports comprising 50 sites from the study regions dating between 7th-5th millennium BC (Fig.
269 3; Table S2). The open access CA program as described in Nenadić and Greenacre (53) for R
270 program (V2.15.2) was used to process the AtD and plots row and column points representing
271 individual site AtD frequencies and age classes, respectively, as two data clouds on the same
272 bi-plot. The position of the individual sites relative to the age classes indicates the dominant
273 slaughter strategy, allowing the overall husbandry strategies practiced to be proposed.

274

275 **Statistical analysis.** A suite of statistical analyses (ANOVA; Chi-squared; Kruskal-Wallis)
276 were carried out on a data set comprising the presence/absence of evidence for dairying,
277 which includes Köppen-Geiger climate type (48), site type, altitude, region and cultural
278 affiliation (Table S3). These were carried out using the R program (V2.15.2).

279

280

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443
444 **Author contributions**

445 C.D.S., R.E.G. and M.R.-S. contributed equally to this work. C.D.S., R.E.G., M.R.-S., O.E.C., J.-D.V.
446 and R.P.E. planned the project and wrote the paper. R.E.G. performed the statistical archaeozoological
447 analyses and C.D.S. and M.R.-S. the lipid residue analyses. Statistical analyses of the dataset were
448 performed by R.E.G. and C.D.S. The other co-authors directed sampling of archaeological material,
449 directed excavations, helped with the archaeozoological studies or carried out lipid residue analyses.
450 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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454 **Figure 1.** Map of the Mediterranean basin showing the location of the sites in which organic residue
455 analysis and archaeozoological studies were carried out, including data from the present study and
456 published literature. The ceramic vessels and faunal remains tested date to the 7th-5th millennium BC.
457 The map highlights the geographical evidence of dairying during this time. [1: Shiqmin, 2: Al-Basatîn,
458 3: Sha'ar Hagolan, 4: Aswad, 5: El Kown 2 (lower levels), 6: Qdeir, 7: Umm el Tlell, 8: Seker (PN), 9:
459 Sotto, 10: Çayönü Tepesi, 11: Tell Sabi Abyad, 12: Akarçay Tepe, 13: Halula 25, 14: Halula 26, 15:
460 Mezraa Teleitat, 16: Domuz Tepe, 17: Tepecik Çiftlik, 18: Shillourokambos, 19: Çatalhöyük, 20:
461 Er Baba Höyük, 21: Suberde, 22: Hoyucek, 23: Knossos, 24: Ftelia, 25: Lerna, 26: Kalythies cave, 27:
462 Ulucak Höyük, 28: Barcın Höyük, 29: Hoca Çesme, 30: Yarimburgaz, 31: Toptepe, 32: Pendik, 33:
463 Fikir Tepe, 34: Aşagi Pinar, 35: Makri, 36: Sitagroi, 37: Stavroupoli, 38: Paliambela, 39: Makriyalos,
464 40: Prodomos, 41: Dispilio, 42: Ritini, 43: Toumba Kremastis Koiladas, 44: Apsalos, 45: Nakovana
465 Cave, 46: Pupincina, 47: Mala Triglavca, 48: caves of Trieste Karst (Edera, Mitero, Zingari), 49:
466 Masseria La Quercia, 50: Canne - Sette Ponti, 51: Palata 1, 52: Trani - Seconda Spiaggia di Colonna,
467 53: Fondo Azzollini, Pulo di Molfetta, 54: Serri - San Gabriele, Bari San Paolo, 55: Masseria Maselli,
468 56: Balsignano, 57: Ciccotto, 58: Trasano, 59: Torre Sabea, 60: Grotta San Michele, 61: Favella della
469 Corte, Corigliano Calabro, 62: Skorba, 63: Colle Santo Stefano, 64: La Marmotta, 65: Araguina-
470 Sennola, 66: Arene Candide, 67: Grotte Lombard, 68: Baume de Fontbrégoua, 69: Abri II du
471 Fraischamp, 70: Abri de Saint-Mitre, 71: Barret de Lioure, 72: Combe Obscure, 73: Baume d'Oullen,
472 74: Pont de Roque-Haute, 75: Grotte Gazel, 76: Font-Juvéanal, 77: Abri Jean Cros, 78: Can Sadurní,
473 79: La Draga, 80: Cova de Chaves II, 81: Caserna de Sant Pau, 82: Cova de la Sarsa, 83: Los
474 Castillejos, 84: Cueva de Nerja]. Dating of the sites can be found in [Table S6](#).

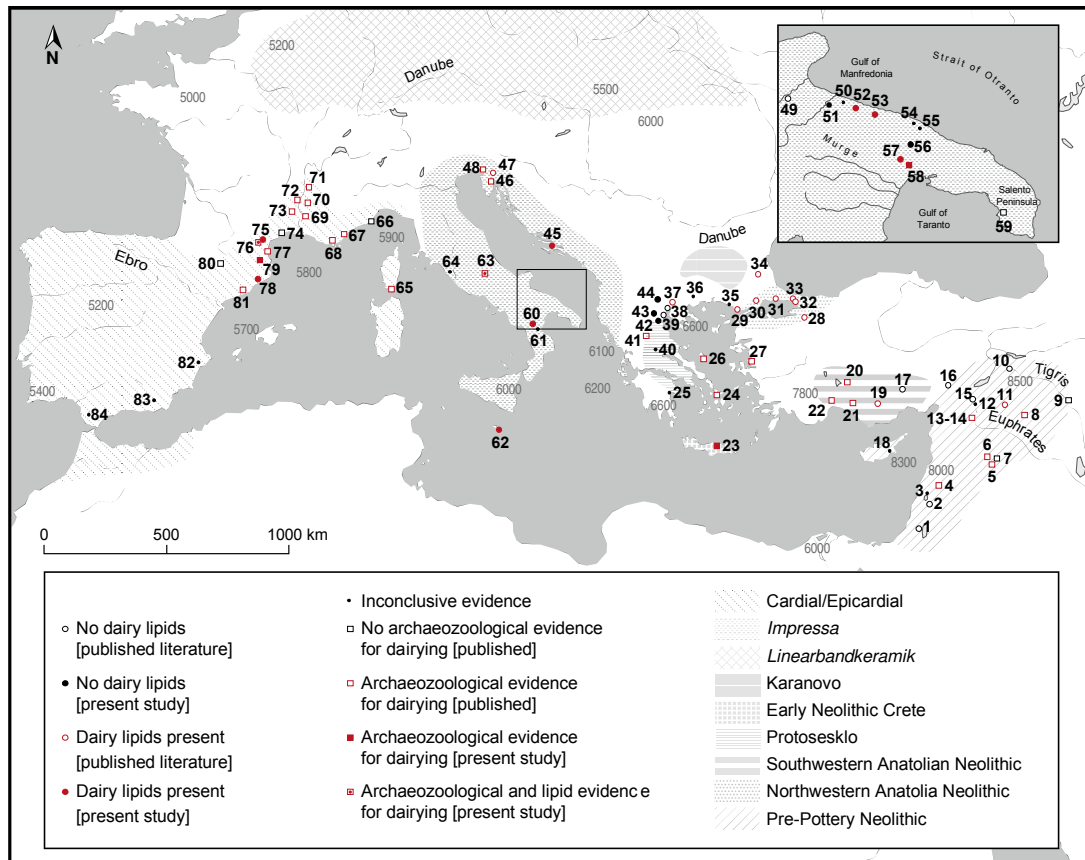
476 **Figure 2.** $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for archaeological animal fat residues in Neolithic pottery from (a) The Levant
477 (9, 19), 3 sites; (b) Central and eastern Anatolia (9), 8 sites; (c) Northwestern Anatolia (around the sea
478 of Marmara; (9)), 7 sites; (d) Northern Greece (this study and (9)), 6 sites; (e) Italy, Slovenia, Croatia
479 and Malta (this study and (18)); 8 sites and (f) Southwestern France and Spain (this study); 3 sites.
480 The ranges shown here represent the mean \pm 1 standard deviation of the $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for a global
481 database comprising modern reference animal fats (24)).

483 **Figure 3.** F1 x F2 biplot correspondence analysis (CA) for (a-b) cattle, based on the minimum number
484 of individuals (MNI) and the number (Nd) of dental fragments, respectively; and (c-d) sheep/goats
485 based on MNI and Nd, respectively. CA plots were constructed using dental fragments analyses for 43
486 sites from Anatolia (PN sites; green); Near East (PN sites from: Syria and Iraq dark blue); Greece
487 (EN-LN, 8th-6th millennium BC: dark grey); Italy and Croatia (*Impressa*, EN, 7th-6th millennium BC:
488 yellow); Southwestern France and Spain (Cardial, EN, 7th-6th millennium BC: light blue), Open
489 circles: cave and rock shelter sites; Closed circles: open air and tell sites. The triangles represent the
490 age classes, and their size reflects the influence on the data. For caprines: age class A: 0-2 months, B:
491 2-6 months, C: 6-12 months, D: 1-2 years, EF: 2-4 years, G: 4-6 years, HI: + 6 years. Sites that are
492 positioned close or between infant/juvenile age classes (cattle: 0-12 months; caprines: 0-6 months) and
493 mature adults (4+ years) could be an indication that dairy husbandry was practised. Numeration for the
494 sites as in [Figure 1](#).

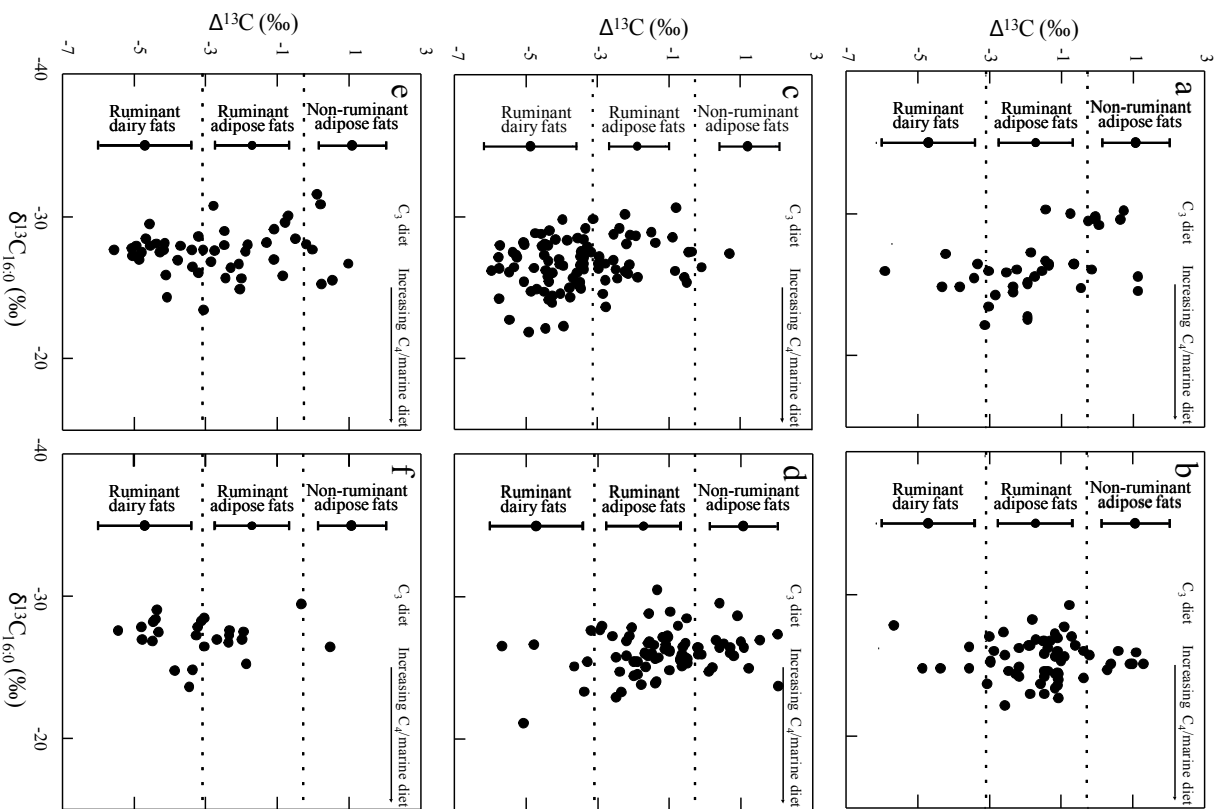
497 **Figure 4** Bar charts for the presence (white) and absence (dark grey) of dairying for (a) site types, (b)
498 cultural groups (with ICW: *Impressa*/Cardial ware, PNG: Pottery Neolithic Greece, PNM: Pottery
499 Neolithic Marmara, PNA: Pottery Neolithic Anatolia, PNL: Pottery Neolithic Levant, PPNB: pre-
500 pottery Neolithic B), (c) climate types (abbreviations according to Köppen-Geiger climate types (48))
501 and (d) regions ([Tables S4-5](#) for complete dataset).

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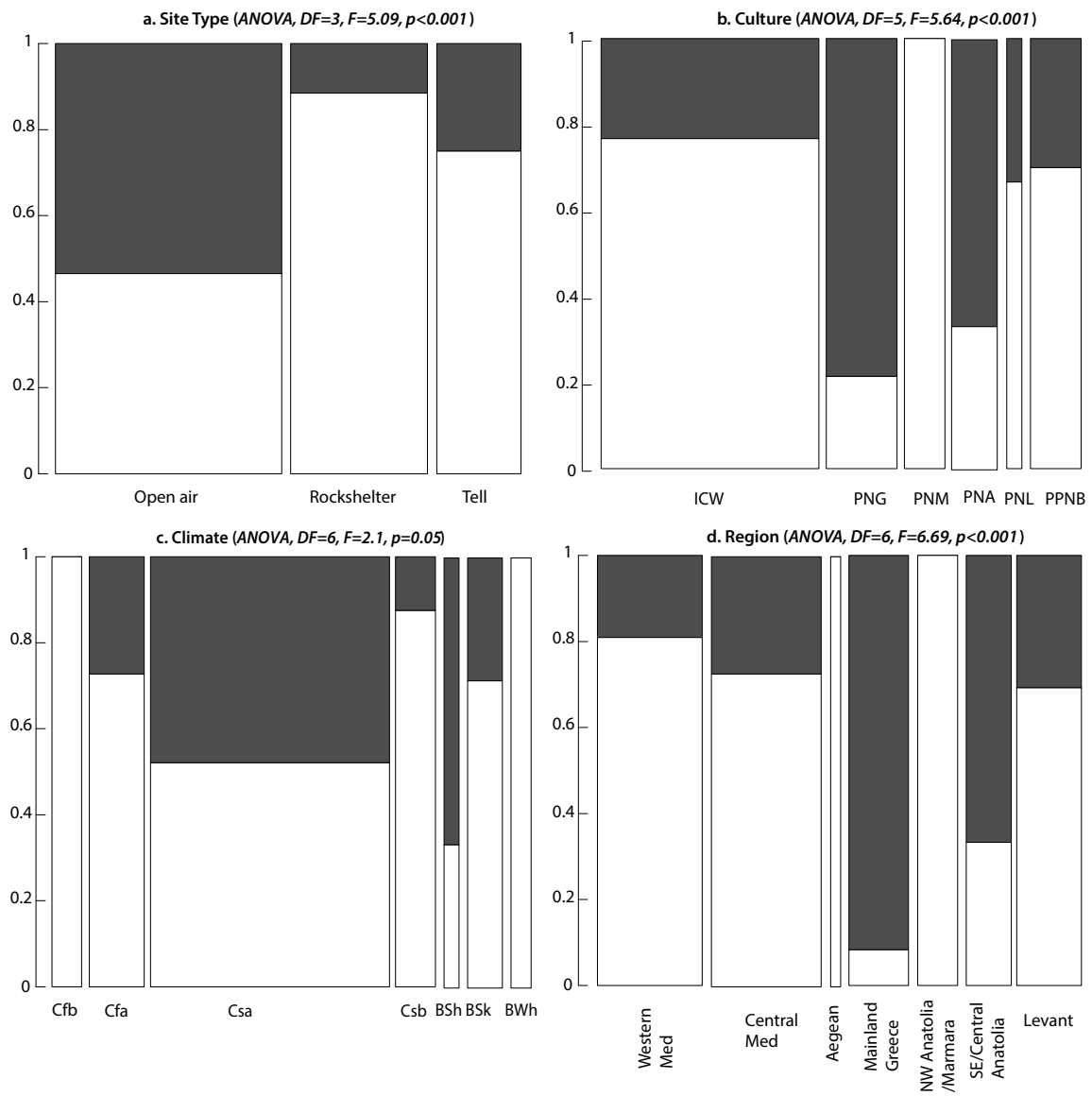
504 **Figure 1**



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517 **Figure 4**
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521 **Table S1**
522 Details of the sites from which lipid residue analyses of pottery sherds were carried out. [EN:
523 Early Neolithic; MN: Middle Neolithic; SW: Stamped Ware; TP: Temple Period; EPC: Epi-
524 Cardial; PC: Post-Cardial]. Mean of the lipid concentrations are calculated from the sherds
525 with > 5 µg of lipids per gram of sherd.
526

527 **Table S2**
528 Osteo-archaeological age at death (AtD) data for the caprines (O/C) and cattle.
529

530 **Table S3**
531 Details of the sherds submitted analysed by GC-C-IRMS, the different classes of lipids
532 identified using HT-GC, GC and GC-MS, and the isotopic measurements obtained. [EN:
533 Early Neolithic; MN: Middle Neolithic; SW: Stamped Ware; EPC: Epi-Cardial; FFA: Free
534 fatty acids; ALC: Alcohols; K: Ketones; MAG; Monoacylglycerols; DAG: Diacylglycerols;
535 TAG: Triacylglycerols; WE: Wax ester; C: Cholesterol; APAA: ω-(*o*-alkylphenyl)alkanoic
536 acids].
537

538 **Table S4**
539 Summary of the dataset used for the statistical analysis [period in millennia].
540

541 **Table S5**
542 Results of the statistical analysis.
543

544 **Table S6**
545 Details of published radiocarbon dates for the sites investigated in this study.
546