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1 **Abstract**

2 The zooarchaeological research presented here investigates Neolithic and Chalcolithic
3 (ca. 6500-5000 cal. BC) animal exploitation strategies at Uğurlu Höyük on the Turkish island of
4 Gökçeada in the northeastern Aegean Sea. Toward this end, we first discuss the results of our
5 analysis of the zooarchaeological assemblages from Uğurlu Höyük and then consider the data
6 within a wider regional explanatory framework using a diachronic approach, comparing them
7 with those from western and northwestern Anatolian sites. The first settlers of Gökçeada were
8 farmers who introduced domestic sheep, goats, cattle and pigs to the island as early as 6500 years
9 BC. Our results align well with recently published zooarchaeological data on the westward
10 spread of domestic animals across Turkey and the Neolithization of southeast Europe. Using an
11 island site as a case study, we independently confirm that the dispersal of early farming was a
12 polynucleated and multidirectional phenomenon that did not sweep across the land, replace
13 everything on its way, and deliver the same “Neolithic package” everywhere. Instead, this
14 complex process generated a diversity of human-animal interactions. Thus, studying the
15 dispersal of early farmers from southwest Asia into southeast Europe via Anatolia requires a
16 rigorous methodological approach to develop a fine-resolution picture of the variability seen in
17 human adaptations and dispersals within complex and rapidly changing environmental and
18 cultural settings. For this, the whole spectrum of human-animal interactions must be fully
19 documented for each sub-region of southwest Asia and the circum-Mediterranean.

20 21 **Introduction**

22 The revolutionary economic and social transformation of societies from foraging to
23 farming in Southwest Asia shortly after 10,000 calibrated years BC (BC hereafter) and the

24 subsequent spread of new genes, languages, ideologies, and domesticated cereals and livestock
25 into Europe via a process called *Neolithization* from 10,000- 7000 BC have been the subjects of
26 extensive scholarly debate since the 1970s (e.g., Ammerman & Cavalli-Sforza, 1971, 1973).
27 Various models have drawn on multiple lines of converging evidence including genetics,
28 linguistics, and archaeology to explain the global dispersal of early farming populations with
29 fully developed agropastoral lifeways from primary to secondary centers of agricultural origin
30 (e.g., Arbuckle et al., 2014; Bellwood, 2009; Borić & Price, 2013; Hofmanová et al., 2016;
31 Orton, Gaastra, & Vander Linden, 2016; Özdoğan, 2005, 2011; C. Perlès, Quiles, & Valladas,
32 2013; Pinhasi, Fort, & Ammerman, 2005; Price, 2000b; Zeder, 2008, 2015).

33 Uğurlu Höyük is a Neolithic settlement on Gökçeada (Imbros in Greek), the largest
34 Turkish island situated between Anatolia and the European continent in the Aegean Sea, and
35 currently the only site with an early Neolithic component in the eastern Aegean. Thus, with its
36 key geographical location between Southeast Europe and Southwest Asia and its early Neolithic
37 strata, the results of zooarchaeological research presented here may have implications reaching
38 beyond Anatolia and contribute to our understanding of the spread and development of
39 agricultural societies in southeast Europe in general and the eastern Aegean in particular.

40 More specifically, this paper focuses on animal exploitation strategies at Uğurlu and adds
41 new zooarchaeological data to the existing body of research on the spread of domesticated
42 animals across Neolithic western Anatolia. We address the following specific questions:

43 (1) Did the islanders have a diverse subsistence strategy, including foraging and marine
44 resource exploitation, or did they heavily rely on livestock management? How did the animal
45 economy change through time?

46 (2) How did island habitation affect animal management decisions compared to the mainland
47 Anatolia? Did the islanders manage cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs differently?

48 This paper employs an analytical approach similar to that of Arbuckle and colleagues
49 (2014) in an attempt to (1) add a new site to the ‘big data’ corpus, (2) extend the scope of that
50 database spatially to go beyond the mainland Anatolia, and (3) include an island settlement to
51 compare and contrast animal exploitation strategies between the mainland Anatolia and the
52 island of Gökçeada. Toward these goals, this paper compares the results of zooarchaeological
53 analyses at Uğurlu Höyük with those from western and northwestern Anatolian sites such as
54 Ulucak Höyük, Menteşe Höyük, Çukuriçi Höyük, Ilıpınar, Barçın Höyük, Fikirtepe, and Hoca
55 Çeşme (See Fig 1 for site locations).

56 **Fig 1. Location of the sites mentioned in the text.**

57 **Conceptual framework and theoretical background**

58 In studying the dispersal of agricultural economies from southwest Asia to southeast
59 Europe, archaeologists have used a dichotomized framework. The colonization or demic
60 diffusion model entails replacement of foragers by advancing waves of farmers (Cunliffe, 2008;
61 Deguilloux, Leahy, Pemonge, & Rottier, 2012; Catherine Perlès, 2003), whereas the indigenous
62 adoption or cultural diffusion model argues for a process of acculturation instead of endemic
63 population movement and replacement (Price, 2000b and references therein). The colonization or
64 demic diffusion model hinges on the basis of the materialistic similarity with Anatolia, the
65 general absence of Mesolithic occupation on the eastern Mediterranean islands, and clear genetic
66 presence of the descendants of Near Eastern colonists in extant European populations (e.g.,
67 Cunliffe, 2008; Deguilloux et al., 2012; Özdoğan, 2007; Catherine Perlès, 2003; Price, 2000a).

68 The proponents of the latter model place emphasis on the explicit evidence for pre-pottery
69 Neolithic with Mesolithic affinities (Price, 2000a and references therein).

70 There has been a recent movement, however, toward a consensus acknowledging the
71 complexity of the processes that spread the Neolithic across Europe. Toward this end, it is now
72 recognized that farming spread into Europe by a mixture of expansion, diffusion, and adoption as
73 the predominant mechanisms (Gkiasta, Russell, Shennan, & Steele, 2003; Özdoğan, Başgelen, &
74 Kuniholm, 2012, 2013; Catherine Perlès, 2014; Robb & Miracle, 2007; Souvatzi, 2013).
75 Özdoğan (2011, 2013), Souvatzi (2013), and Perlès (2014) concur that different regions in
76 southeast Europe followed different rates of adoption of agriculture and that multiple Neolithic
77 packages successively spread from central and northwestern Anatolia to Europe.

78 **Site description and Chronology**

79 The island of Gökçeada lies about 17 km from the Gelibolu (Gallipoli) Peninsula of the
80 Anatolian mainland, and covers an area of 289.5 square km. During the Last Glacial Maximum
81 (ca. 20.000-18.000 BC), sea levels were about 120 m lower than the present sea level (Özbek,
82 2012; Van Andel & Lianos, 1983). The site of Uğurlu Höyük is a low mound covering an area of
83 approximately 250 x 200 m on a gentle slope at the eastern foot of Mount Isa (Doğanlı) on the
84 western part of the island. The site was first discovered in 1998 and a long-term project was
85 started in the summer of 2009 by Burçin Erdoğan (Erdoğan, 2011). During the six excavation
86 seasons, six main cultural phases, designated as I-VI from top to bottom, and at least 12 layers of
87 occupation have been revealed (Erdoğan, 2016). The earliest three phases (VI-IV) date to the
88 Neolithic period. Phase III is marked by the Neolithic-Chalcolithic transition, while the
89 succeeding Phase II dates to Chalcolithic. Scattered sherds from the Early Bronze Age and

90 Medieval times have been found on the surface, Phase I. Thanks to a rigorous dating program,
91 we have a well-dated and established chronology for the cultural sequence (Table S1). The
92 earliest stratum Phase VI is dated to between 6700 and 6500, Phase V between 6500 and 6000,
93 Phase IV between 5900 and 5500, and Phase III between 5400 and 4900 BC.

94 **Zooarchaeological methodology**

95 Permission to carry out the archaeological fieldwork that yielded the datasets used in this
96 project was provided by the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism. All the zooarchaeological
97 specimens involved are under the auspices of the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism and
98 are permanently stored in the Uğurlu Höyük Excavation Project Dig House on the island.

99 **Recovery and sampling**

100 Despite the lack of systematic dry- or wet-screening, all the excavated sediments were
101 scrutinized to ensure full recovery of macro and microfaunal remains and to minimize the effects
102 if recovery biases. Faunal assemblages from a total of 20 archaeological contexts representing
103 strata V, IV, and III (9, 7, and 4 contexts, respectively) were sampled randomly, generating 6061
104 bone fragments. Of the three strata, Phase V has generated the largest sample (N=3967), as the
105 faunal remains were densely packed in a small area of 2 x 4 m, enabling effective hand-picking.

106 **Recording**

107 The recording protocol employed in this work entailed general documentation of the
108 entire assemblage for the purpose of characterization and included every element, element
109 portion, and nonidentified splinter recovered (N=6061). No pre-sorting was practiced and all of

110 the bones were packed and stored together in the storage area of the Uğurlu Höyük dig house.
111 Every fragment was examined first by naked eye and then with a 10-15 x hand lens under strong
112 light, if necessary, for bone surface modifications, while sub-samples were randomly chosen for
113 recording variables such as fracture platform angle and percussion and notches. All the
114 fragments were identified to the maximum degree possible, refitted and mended when possible,
115 weighed, counted, labeled, assigned unique individual specimen numbers, measured when
116 appropriate, and entered into an automated FileMaker database (Levent Atici, 2011). Recording
117 took place at the project's facilities near the site on the island during field seasons 2011, 2013,
118 and 2014 by Levent Atici, and in 2015 by Levent Atici and Suzanne Pilaar Birch.

119 **Identification**

120 Taxonomic and skeletal element identifications were carried out partly using a modern
121 comparative reference collection assembled by the authors and partly using published manuals
122 describing identification criteria. When the degree of certainty of identification was high,
123 specimens were identified to the highest taxonomic category possible, i.e., species. When
124 identification to a higher taxonomic category such as species, genus, or family was not possible,
125 methodological categories, such as “medium artiodactyl” were used.

126 **Quantification**

127 Number of Fragments (NF), Number of Identified Specimens (NISP), Minimum Number
128 of Elements (MNE), and Bone Weight (BW) were quantitative measures employed in this paper
129 (Lyman, 2008). NF was used to document entire assemblages including non-specific skeletal part
130 categories and NISP was used when fragments could be identified to skeletal element and at least

131 to a taxonomic or size category (Lyman, 1994, 2008). For MNE, a combination of discrete
132 landmarks (Morlan, 1994) and manual overlap approach (Bunn & Kroll, 1986) were used.

133 Following the age data, we present biometric data from Uğurlu Höyük following the
134 standards (i.e., von den Driesch, 1976). We compare data from multiple western Anatolian
135 Neolithic sites using primary data or raw measurements directly taken from the open access, peer
136 reviewed data publishing system Open Context (<http://opencontext.org>), and/or the Logarithmic
137 Size Index (LSI) values following Richard Meadow (1999). All the datasets used in this paper
138 have citable DOIs/persistent identifiers that are listed in the appropriate supporting data tables
139 and cited accordingly in the bibliography (Levent Atici, Released 2013-02-26, Released 2013-
140 03-02; Buitenhuis, Released 2013-08-17; Canan Çakırlar, Released 2013-08-16; Galik, Released
141 2013-06-04a, Released 2013-06-04b; Gourichon & Helmer, Released 2014-05-12).

142 **Results**

143 **Assemblage formation**

144 Table S2 presents the general characteristics of the assemblages. The first step of the
145 analysis reveals the taphonomic history. Bone surface modification analysis systematically
146 included scrutiny of all skeletal parts for traces of carnivore gnawing, acid corrosion, and marks
147 left by rodents, weathering, and root etching. The analysis of 6061 fragments weighing about 26
148 kg suggests that faunal assemblages from the three strata were all accumulated, modified, and
149 destroyed largely by cultural processes.

150 A detailed analysis of bone surface modifications has revealed that rodent marks,
151 weathering, and traces of root etching are extremely rare, indicating rapid burial events and

152 intensive occupation and maintenance activities at the site. Direct and indirect traces of carnivore
153 ravaging are almost absent from the Neolithic strata (V and IV), while the Neolithic-Chalcolithic
154 transition phase (III) shows slightly increased carnivore activity at the site. The marginal number
155 (N=5) of red fox bones from Phase V and a single dog bone from Phase III independently
156 support the lack of carnivore involvement in the assemblage formation processes and can
157 partially help account for the lack of their impact as a taphonomic agent. The lack of carnivore
158 impact, in turn, indicates human processing as the primary taphonomic filter.

159 **Taxonomic composition and species trends**

160 Table S3 elaborates taxonomic composition and relative abundance of taxa based on NF,
161 MNE, and BW counts. The Uğurlu Höyük assemblages reveal that the Neolithic and Chalcolithic
162 inhabitants of the island exploited a wide range of taxa in varying proportions. The remains of
163 bovids dominate the entire cultural sequence, whereas specimens representing suids, cervids,
164 leporids, carnivores, and avifauna are present in varying and insignificant proportions and are not
165 ubiquitous. Hunted or wild taxa include large-bodied (red deer, fallow deer, and wild boar) and
166 small game (European hare). Most of the game animals identified at Uğurlu Höyük come from
167 the Neolithic strata, with level V yielding a majority of this subset. The wild cat, great bustard,
168 and mackerel shark are each represented by a single specimen from stratum IV, whereas a
169 duck/goose specimen from stratum V and a dog specimen from stratum III account for other one-
170 of-a-kind ecofacts from Uğurlu Höyük.

171 The faunal assemblages from Uğurlu are dominated by three principal food animals—
172 sheep, goats, and cattle—as their bones comprise ca. 95% of the Neolithic and 90% of the
173 Neolithic-Chalcolithic strata (Fig 2). Among the three livestock species, caprines seem to be the

174 primary focus of pastoral economy when NF and MNE counts are taken into account, as they are
175 represented in a much higher proportion (varying from 75 to 83% of all the identified bones)
176 than cattle are (varying from 10 to 20% of all the identified bones). When the bone weight data
177 presented in Table S3 are taken into account, however, the patterning changes in favor of cattle,
178 which provide the largest dietary contributions varying from 30 to 53%. Sheep outnumber goats
179 throughout the sequence, although the latter progressively increase from 6% in stratum V to 22%
180 in stratum III, whereas the exploitation of sheep and cattle visibly decline.

181 **Fig 2. Ratio distribution of principal taxa at Uğurlu Höyük using NISP counts.**

182 **Fig 3. Ternary graph showing ratio distribution of principal taxa in western Anatolia**
183 **faunal assemblages.**

184 Ulucak VI, with strata dating to 7000-6500 BC range, represents the earliest Neolithic in
185 the northern Aegean region. As Figs 6 and 7 show, Ulucak VI has a relatively even taxonomic
186 composition compared to Öküzini V, with cattle represented by ca. 16% and pigs at about 7%,
187 which indicates a multitaxic yet monodominant assemblage (sensu L. Atici, 2014). Thus, the
188 earliest phase of Ulucak Höyük is also characterized by a specialized, caprine-focused pastoral
189 economy.

190 **Fig 4. Species trends in western Anatolian faunal assemblages (%NISP).**

191 Figs 3 and 4 demonstrate a trajectory in the Aegean region toward progressively
192 increasing taxonomic evenness during the 6500-6000 BC range. At Ulucak V, while there is a
193 slight increase in the proportion of cattle from about 16 to 18%, the sharp increase in the
194 proportion of pigs from about 7 to 19% is notable and at the expense of a similarly notable drop
195 in caprine representation. Slightly later in date, Çukuriçi VIII, too, confirms the departure from a

196 caprine-dominated pastoral economy in the Aegean region. Here, the remains of cattle and pigs
197 account for about 47% (27 and 20%, respectively) of the three-tiered animal economy. When we
198 move to the northwestern region, the three Marmara sites, Fikirtepe, Barçın Höyük, and Menteşe
199 Höyük mirror this trajectory towards increased evenness in the taxonomic composition. Here,
200 too, the departure from heavy reliance on caprine management is evident. But unlike the Western
201 Anatolian region, the focus in the Marmara region shifts to cattle, not to pigs, whose
202 representation drops back to 2%.

203 **Animal exploitation: carcass management, demography of** 204 **mortality, and body size**

205 Table S5 shows that all main caprine and cattle body parts are present in the assemblages
206 in varying proportions except for the total absence of axial elements for both taxa in stratum III.
207 This could be a product of small sample size and/or density-mediated attrition targeting less
208 dense axial elements, but even so, this does not indicate any clear patterning, nor does it suggest
209 selective removal, transport or processing of carcasses to primarily focus on more nutritious and
210 meaty skeletal elements. Thus, the analysis of body part distributions indicates that full caprine
211 carcasses were accessed, processed, and consumed. However, small sample sizes and disparities
212 among MNE counts do not permit meaningful body part ratio comparisons between caprines and
213 cattle, pigs, wild boars, fallow deer, and red deer (Table S5).

214 With this caveat in mind, the frequency distribution of game contrasts with that of
215 domesticates. Stratum V, with the highest NF (3,967) and MNE (954) counts among the three
216 strata, may provide the most representative picture of body part distribution for game taxa. Here,
217 the elements of forelimb and hind limb comprise 71% of all boar bones, 73% of all fallow deer

218 bones, and 50% of all red deer bones, while the elements of cranial and axial skeletons are either
219 completely absent or significantly underrepresented. Though a smaller sample, Stratum IV, too,
220 mimics the same pattern with the forelimb and hind limb elements comprising 100% of all boar
221 bones, 100% of all hare bones, and the forelimb elements making up 80% of all red deer bones.

222 For cattle, the small sample size (N=87) imposed a cut-off point and permitted the
223 assignment of cattle long bone epiphyseal specimens into either younger or older than 24 month
224 age categories. The analysis of available epiphyseal fusion data for the small sample indicates
225 that less than 30% of cattle survived beyond two years of age during stratum V with an upsurge
226 in age at death to 70% and 50% during the succeeding strata IV and III, respectively. This may
227 be due to the changing role of cattle in subsistence economy and a shift from a primary to
228 secondary animal product-oriented pastoral economy with the institutionalization and
229 intensification of farming during the late Neolithic and early Chalcolithic.

230 Although mean sheep LSI values from different Anatolian sub-regions vary
231 conspicuously, the island populations from Gökçeada during the earlier two phases, V and IV,
232 seem to align well with those from Barçın Höyük VI, Çukuriçi Höyük VIII, and Ulucak Höyük
233 VIb (Fig 5; Table S6). When placed into a longer and wider spatiotemporal framework, it
234 becomes even clearer that Uğurlu Höyük sheep represent one of the more intensively managed
235 domestic phenotypes during the Neolithic. In contrast, sheep populations during the ensuing
236 transitional Chalcolithic phase, III, must have gone through a selective process locally on the
237 island that led to further size reduction to the extent that they sit at the lowest end of the size
238 distribution.

239 **Fig 5. Distribution of *Ovis* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.**

240 A glance at Fig 6 (see also Table S7) reveals a similar patterning for goats with slightly
241 greater variation. Similarly, goat populations from Gökçeada fit in the range, overlapping in size
242 with other sub-regions and not representing the smallest size. Thus, it is plausible to assume that
243 Neolithic goats from Gökçeada originated from western Anatolia.

244 **Fig 6. Distribution of *Capra* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.**

245 For cattle, two proximal metacarpus III + IV breadth measurements, one from stratum V
246 and one from stratum IV, provide us with a glimpse into the *Bos* size range across western
247 Anatolian sites and where Uğurlu Höyük specimens fall within that range. Although neither
248 significant nor conclusive, the two specimens from Uğurlu Höyük are rather large, implying the
249 presence of either large domestic males or aurochs transported from the mainland (Fig 7).

250 **Fig 7. *Bos* spp. size distribution based on the measurement of proximal breadth (BP in mm)**
251 **in metacarpus III + IV.**

252 The biometric data presented here for Suidae are rather complicated and must be
253 interpreted with caution. On the basis of the mean LSI distributions presented in Fig 8 (see also
254 Table S8), it is hard to accurately discriminate between wild boars and domestic pigs, since
255 Epipaleolithic Öküzini V and the Cypriot Pre-Pottery Klimonas data attest to the presence of
256 wild boars whose smaller phenotypes overlap with domestic pigs. The amount of variability
257 within and among populations seems pronounced and the degree of overlap between wild boar
258 and domestic pig sizes is large. Based on the LSI patterning, we would postulate that
259 phenotypically wild and large hunted boar populations appear in the assemblages from the
260 Marmara region: at the earliest level of Ilıpınar (X), early level of Menteşe Höyük, Barçın
261 Höyük, and Fikirtepe. In contrast, all the other sub-regions indicate managed domestic pig

262 populations. This patterning, however, would be an artifact of pooling all the measurements from
263 multiple elements to overcome sample size-related biases at the expense of losing resolution.
264 Alternatively, the presence of very large male phenotypes and female-focused hunting strategies
265 may converge to skew the size distribution and make the wild, smaller female individuals fall in
266 the domestic end of the continuum. In this case, a closer look at the osteometric analysis of a
267 single element such as astragalus, which is shown in the box & whisker plot in Fig 9, could be
268 useful. The plot shows suid astragali identified as domestic, wild, and domestic or wild from
269 Ulucak Höyük, Çukuriçi Höyük, Ilıpınar, and Uğurlu Höyük. Data from the Aceramic Neolithic
270 Klimonas from the island of Cyprus (Vigne et al., 2012) are also included to present an island
271 wild boar population as a comparative reference. We must emphasize that the range of size
272 distribution in domestic pigs at Ilıpınar covers domestic pigs from Ulucak Höyük and Çukuriçi
273 Höyük and wild populations from the Cypriot Pre-Pottery Neolithic site of Klimonas and both
274 domestic and wild individuals from Uğurlu Höyük. Therefore, the degree of overlap between the
275 wild and domestic populations presented in the plot confirms that the biometric data are indeed
276 nuanced, calling for careful interpretations.

277 **Fig 8. Distribution of *Sus* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.**

278 **Fig 9. *Sus* spp. size distribution based on the measurement of greatest lateral length (GLL in**
279 **mm) in astragalus.**

280 **Concluding discussion**

281 The zooarchaeological research presented here has addressed the following specific
282 questions to probe animal exploitation strategies at Uğurlu and to add new data to research in the
283 spread of domesticated animals across Neolithic western Anatolia:

284 1. *Did the islanders have a diverse subsistence strategy, including foraging and marine*
285 *resource exploitation, or did they heavily rely on livestock management? How did the animal*
286 *economy change through time?*

287 Although the Neolithic and Chalcolithic inhabitants of Gökçeada exploited a wide range
288 of taxa in varying proportions, remains of three principal food animals—sheep, goats, and
289 cattle—dominate the three Uğurlu Höyük assemblages. Of the taxa, caprines in general and
290 sheep in particular were the primary focus of pastoral economy throughout the cultural sequence.
291 Sheep outnumber goats in all phases although the latter progressively increase and the
292 exploitation of sheep and cattle visibly decline by Chalcolithic.

293 During the earliest phase of the Neolithic between 7000 and 6500 BC, a more
294 specialized, caprine-dependent animal management regime seems to be represented by both sides
295 of the Aegean Sea; on the mainland Anatolia as documented at Ulucak Höyük VI and Öküzini
296 Cave V.

297 Between 6500 and 6000 BC, Gökçeada (Uğurlu V) had a three-tiered pastoral economy
298 with a primary focus on caprines and a secondary focus on cattle; pig exploitation was marginal
299 with a proportion around 2%. In contrast, a four-tiered pastoral economy with a primary focus on
300 caprines and secondary, dual focus on cattle and pigs characterizes Çukuriçi VIII and Ulucak
301 Höyük V in the western region. Here, the ratio of pigs increases sharply as a part of
302 progressively increasing taxonomic evenness. A three-tiered animal management system with an
303 equal focus on caprines and cattle, or a shifting primary focus on either caprines or cattle is
304 evident in the Marmara and Turkish Thrace, two sub-regions of northwestern Anatolia, as
305 documented at Fikirtepe, Barçın Höyük VI, Menteşe Höyük early and late levels from the former

306 and Hoca Çeşme from the latter. The suids are represented in marginal proportions in both sub-
307 regions.

308 During the latest phase of the Neolithic, between 6000-5500 BC, the species trend in the
309 western region shows a conspicuous continuity with a four-tiered animal husbandry, whereas the
310 sites in the Marmara Region show a greater taxonomic diversity with a sharp drop in cattle and
311 increase in caprine exploitation. The fluctuations in the reconfiguration of taxa in each region
312 and sub-region of western Anatolia mark changing roles of the four vital livestock species
313 through time and across space. This, in turn, may reflect the transformation of Neolithic societies
314 and their agropastoral economies following multiple pathways within a rapidly changing
315 physical and sociopolitical world. As far as the changes identified at Uğurlu Höyük (IV) are
316 concerned, slight but progressive increase in the exploitation of goats and decrease of sheep and
317 cattle most likely reflect the realities of resource management and impacts of environmental
318 circumscription on an island setting. Factors such as mobility, transhumance, and penning, as
319 well as availability, accessibility, predictability, and quality of grazing pastures, water, and
320 fodder must have determined animal management strategies that seem to have varied across taxa.
321 For instance, spatial constraints of islands and resource availability and abundance may pose
322 challenges when herding cattle.

323 *2. How did island habitation affect animal management decisions compared to the mainland*
324 *Anatolia? Did the islanders manage cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs differently?*

325 The analysis of body part distribution reveals nuanced and complicated data that need to
326 be interpreted cautiously. Due to sample size-related analytical biases, it is not possible to
327 present a diachronic analysis of carcass management for each livestock and game species. Still,

328 with a closer look at the earliest phase of Neolithic, Uğurlu Höyük V, somewhat representative
329 interpretations can be inferred.

330 Based on the archaeologically documented material exchanges between early farming
331 populations, it is plausible to hypothesize a process in which animals and their parts and products
332 were traded for goods among early farmers across western Anatolia. To further complicate the
333 matter, as archaeologically documented for pigs, hundreds of years of introgression between
334 feralized domestic stock and wild herds would manifest itself in the form of variable mix of traits
335 and sizes (Rowley-Conwy & Zeder, 2014: 836). This, in turn, further exacerbates the situation,
336 since a mixture of wild and domestic genetic and morphological characteristics would be
337 osteologically reflected in the zooarchaeological record. As Albarella, Dobney, and Rowley-
338 Conwy (2009) have documented, using biometry alone to accurately discriminate between wild
339 and domestic forms will not generate comparable and consistent results due to population-
340 specific intra-species size variation (see also Rowley-Conwy & Zeder, 2014: 837). Albarella and
341 colleagues (2006) note that in the islands of Corsica and Sardinia wild, feral, free-range and fully
342 domestic pigs interbreed regularly and thus create a biological continuum that could not possibly
343 be identified morphologically or biometrically, but behaviorally. As such, they treat all
344 specimens from the family Suidae as a single biological entity without attempting to assign them
345 “wild” or “domestic” status (U. Albarella et al., 2006: 292). In addition, application of multiple
346 exploitation strategies, hunting, and seasonal mobility and transhumance, may lead to distorted
347 biometric and demographic patterning that further complicates our understanding of Neolithic
348 animal management systems and obscure zooarchaeological signatures (Arbuckle & Atici,
349 2013).

350 The clarification of the family Suidae's status on the island of Gökçeada and particularly
351 the verification of the presence of domestic pigs may potentially shed new light on the timing
352 and directionality of the dispersing farming populations. All four livestock species, including
353 domestic pigs with distinctively small phenotypes, are documented in the Aegean region at
354 Ulucak VI during the early seventh millennium BC, alluding to a rapid westward movement of
355 domestic animals across southern Turkey following a coastal route by sea or land (Arbuckle et
356 al., 2014).

357 Arbuckle and colleagues (2014 :8) further argue for the presence of two distinct
358 colonization pathways corresponding with distinctive animal economies and ceramic technology:
359 1) caprines, cattle, and pigs and the initial Aceramic expansion of Neolithic lifeways and with
360 later Red Slipped Burnished Ware horizon during the late eight-seventh millennium BC into
361 coastal and inland SW and western Turkey; and 2) domestic caprines and cattle associated with
362 Dark Faced Burnished Ware tradition from the interior Anatolian Plateau. Thus, would the
363 presence of domestic pigs alone place Uğurlu Höyük within the first colonization pathway and
364 directly link it to southwest and western Anatolian domain? Or would the absence of domestic
365 pigs suffice to establish spatiotemporal relationships between the Marmara and Thrace regions
366 and Gökçeada? The answers to these questions are nuanced and would have to incorporate more
367 than presence or absence of taxa and/or ceramic techno-typology.

368 Domestication of animals is a complex phenomenon that involves a continuum between
369 resource management, domestication or morphological changes associated with management,
370 and fully-developed animal husbandry or intentional and intensive human management of
371 animals (e.g., Arbuckle, 2013; Zeder, 2015). The study of this phenomenon, in turn, requires
372 approaches beyond binary status assignment and using single lines of evidence and/or

373 monocausal explanatory frameworks. It is difficult to clearly establish domestic status when a
374 full suite of morphological and genetic characteristics is unavailable. In the same vein, studying
375 the dispersal of early farmers from southwest Asia into southeast Europe via Anatolia requires a
376 rigorous methodological approach to develop a fine-resolution picture of the variability seen in
377 human adaptations and dispersals within complex and rapidly changing environmental and
378 cultural settings. For this, the whole spectrum of human-animal interactions must be fully
379 documented for each sub-region of southwest Asia and circum-Mediterranean. Building upon
380 and adding to the high-resolution regional-scale project spearheaded by Arbuckle and colleagues
381 (2014) to document the westward spread of domestic animals across Neolithic Turkey, Uğurlu
382 Höyük on the island of Gökçeada in the northeastern corner of the Aegean Sea, an area
383 previously underinvestigated and neglected, offers us an additional piece of evidence and new
384 data elaborating the nature of the Neolithic dispersals.

385 The results of zooarchaeological research presented here align well with the findings of
386 Arbuckle and Atici (2013) and Arbuckle and colleagues (2014) in that the initial diversity in
387 animal management systems of the Pleistocene-Holocene transition in southwest Asia continued
388 deep into the Neolithic and Chalcolithic with the dispersal of fully developed agropastoral
389 lifeways of early farming populations into southeast Europe. The first settlers of Gökçeada were
390 agriculturalists and they introduced domestic sheep, goats, cattle and pigs to the island as early as
391 6500 years BC. The early Neolithic has signs of continuity, but the cultures of island and
392 mainland clearly diverge. Differences in material culture may be deliberate expressions of local
393 identities within a wider cultural setting.

394

395 **Supporting information**

396 **Table S1.** Radiocarbon dates from Uğurlu Höyük with lab references numbers, sample numbers,
397 materials dated, and BC calibration limits for one standard error (XLSX).

398 **Table S2.** General characteristics detailing the taphonomic histories of the three Uğurlu Höyük
399 assemblages (XLSX).

400 **Table S3.** Taxonomic composition in the three Uğurlu Höyük assemblages using Number of
401 Fragments, Minimum Number of Elements, and Bone Weight in grams (XLSX).

402 **Table S4.** List of sites used in this paper with data including region, phase, chronology, author,
403 and relative abundance of *Ovis*, *Capra*, *Bos* and *Sus* based on %NISP (After Arbuckle et al.
404 2014) (XLSX).

405 **Table S5.** Frequency distributions of body parts based on %MNE counts in main taxa (XLSX).

406 **Table S6.** Mean LSI values and standard deviations for sheep from late Pleistocene-early
407 Holocene sites in western Anatolia. Author information and links to online databases are also
408 included (XLSX).

409 **Table S7.** Mean LSI values and standard deviations for goats from late Pleistocene-early
410 Holocene sites in western Anatolia. Links to online databases are also included (XLSX).

411 **Table S8.** Mean LSI values and standard deviations for *Sus* from late Pleistocene-early Holocene
412 sites in western Anatolia. Author information are also included (XLSX).

413 **List of figures**

414 **Fig 1.** Location of the sites mentioned in the text: 1=Uđurlu Hyk, 2=Hoca eŐme, 3=Yeni
415 Kapı, 4=Fikirtepe, 5=Ilıpınar, 6=MenteŐe Hyk, 7=Barın Hyk, 8=Orman Fidanlıđı,
416 9=Ulucak Hyk, 10=ukurii Hyk, and 11=Karain B and kzini caves.

417 **Fig 2.** Ratio distribution of principal taxa at Uđurlu Hyk using NISP counts.

418 **Fig 3.** Ternary graph showing ratio distribution of principal taxa in western Anatolia faunal
419 assemblages. Assemblages represented are as follows: OK5=kzini Cave V; UG 5, 4, 3=
420 Uđurlu Hyk V, IV, III, respectively; UL 6, 5, 4=Ulucak Hyk VI, V, IV, respectively; IPX=
421 Ilıpınar X; HC= Hoca eŐme; MHE=MenteŐe Hyk Early; MHM=MenteŐe Hyk Middle;
422 MHL=MenteŐe Hyk Late; BH6=Barın Hyk VI; CH8=ukurii Hyk VIII; FT=Fikirtepe.

423 **Fig 4.** Species trends in western Anatolian faunal assemblages (%NISP).

424 **Fig 5.** Distribution of *Ovis* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.

425 **Fig 6.** Distribution of *Capra* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.

426 **Fig 7.** *Bos* spp. size distribution based on the measurement of proximal breadth (BP in mm) in
427 metacarpus III + IV.

428 **Fig 8.** Distribution of *Sus* mean LSI values for western Anatolian sites.

429 **Fig 9.** *Sus* spp. size distribution based on the measurement of greatest lateral length (GLL in mm)
430 in astragalus.

431

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