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1 **Genomic history of Neolithic to Bronze Age Anatolia, Northern Levant and Southern**  
2 **Caucasus**

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39 **SUMMARY**

40

41 Here we report genome-wide data analyses from 110 ancient Near Eastern individuals spanning  
42 the Late Neolithic to Late Bronze Age, a period characterised by intense interregional interactions  
43 for the Near East. We find that 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE populations of North/Central Anatolia and the  
44 Southern Caucasus shared mixed ancestry on a genetic cline that formed during the Neolithic  
45 between Western Anatolia and regions in today's Southern Caucasus/Zagros. During the Late  
46 Chalcolithic and/or the Early Bronze Age more than half of the Northern Levantine gene pool was  
47 replaced, while in the rest of Anatolia and the Southern Caucasus we document genetic continuity  
48 with only transient gene flow. Additionally, we reveal a genetically distinct individual within the  
49 Late Bronze Age Northern Levant. Overall, our study uncovers multiple scales of population  
50 dynamics through time, from extensive admixture during the Neolithic period to long-distance  
51 mobility within the globalised societies of the Late Bronze Age.

52

53

## 54 INTRODUCTION

55

56 Since the beginnings of agriculture, the Near East has been an influential region in the formation  
57 of complex and early state-level societies, and has drawn considerable research interest in  
58 archaeology since the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Killebrew and Steiner, 2014; McMahon and Steadman, 2012).  
59 Developments in the field of ancient DNA (“aDNA”) over the last decade have shed light onto  
60 questions related to the process of Neolithisation. Near Eastern farmers from South-Central  
61 Anatolia, the Southern Levant and Northwestern Iran were descended from local foragers, and the  
62 transition from foraging to farming in these areas was shown to have been a biologically  
63 continuous process with only minor gene flow among them (Broushaki et al., 2016; Feldman et  
64 al., 2019; Lazaridis et al., 2016).

65 Almost two millennia later, this situation had changed. In contrast to these Early Holocene  
66 populations, Chalcolithic/Eneolithic and Bronze Age populations from Western and Central  
67 Anatolia, the Southern Levant, Iran (Zagros) and the Caucasus show less genetic differentiation  
68 from each other, suggesting that these later periods were characterised by an extensive process of  
69 gene flow spanning a large area (Allentoft et al., 2015; de Barros Damgaard et al., 2018; Haber et  
70 al., 2017; Harney et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2015; Lazaridis et al., 2017; Lazaridis et al., 2016; Wang  
71 et al., 2019). However, the spatiotemporal scope of this process is poorly understood because of  
72 the lack of ancient genomes from areas that bridge these distant regions, i.e. Central and Eastern  
73 Anatolia, which in turn requires denser sampling. To date, the spatial distribution of features  
74 attributed to the ‘Neolithic package’ across Anatolia suggests a heterogenous multiple-event  
75 process that correlates with broader geographical zones (Özdoğan, 2014). However, whether  
76 population movement played a prominent role in the formation of these zones within Anatolia  
77 remains an open question.

78 Throughout Western Asia, archaeological evidence for the movement of peoples, material, and/or  
79 ideas is well documented (Figure 1). In the Southern Caucasus, archaeological research indicates  
80 relations with Northern Mesopotamia during the Late Neolithic (Halaf and Samarra cultures)  
81 (Badalyan et al., 2010; Nishiaki et al., 2015), and in Eastern Anatolia a network of cultural  
82 connections marked by several expansive events, mostly related to the Mesopotamian world, is  
83 attested. These include an early intrusion of the South Mesopotamian Ubaid culture into Upper  
84 Mesopotamia as far as the Taurus mountains of Southeastern Anatolia during the 5<sup>th</sup> millennium  
85 BCE (Frangipane, 2015a; Carter and Philip, 2010). It was followed, in the Southern Caucasus by  
86 a strong influence at this time from Upper Mesopotamia during the late 5<sup>th</sup>- mid 4<sup>th</sup> millennium  
87 (Lyonnet, 2007; Lyonnet, 2012). From the middle to the end of the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium, another  
88 Southern Mesopotamian influence (the so-called ‘Middle and Late Uruk expansion’) reached  
89 Upper Mesopotamia and the upper stretches of the Euphrates and Tigris river valleys in Eastern  
90 Anatolia (Rothman, 2001). At the same time, during the second half of the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE,  
91 the Kura-Araxes culture, which is generally thought to originate in the Southern Caucasus,  
92 expanded outwards around 3000-2900 BCE, spreading westwards to Eastern Anatolia and the  
93 Northern and Southern Levant (Palumbi, 2017; Palumbi and Chataigner, 2014), and eastwards to

94 Iran (Rothman, 2011). Evidence of these events comes from numerous excavations and is  
95 especially apparent in the long and extensively excavated sequence of occupations at Arslantepe  
96 in the Malatya plain of Eastern Anatolia. In the Northern Levant, material connections with  
97 Northern Mesopotamia start appearing in the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE and have been attributed to  
98 either extensive cultural contacts or population movements.

99 The major question is, therefore: what was moving? Was this a movement of populations, material  
100 culture, ideas, or some combination? These earlier developments lead to the increasing  
101 ‘globalisation’ in the Eastern Mediterranean basin from the Middle Bronze Age (MBA) onwards,  
102 which is characterised by an intensification of resource exploitation and management through  
103 connected sea and land routes (Akar, 2013; Feldman, 2006; Hodos, 2017). However, the role of  
104 human mobility is unclear and a challenging question to address due to the scarcity of Middle and  
105 Late Bronze Age (LBA) burials. In this regard, the site of Alalakh in the Amuq Valley (Turkey),  
106 with more than 300 burials dated to that period, represents an exceptional case for the application  
107 of aDNA studies.

108 Understanding the nature of this movement was the primary motivation behind this study. Here,  
109 we present a large-scale analysis of genome-wide data from key sites of prehistoric Anatolia, the  
110 Northern Levant and the Southern Caucasian lowlands. Our goal was to reconstruct the genomic  
111 history of this part of the Near East by systematically sampling across this transition from the  
112 Neolithic to the interconnected societies of the MBA and LBA. Our new ancient genome-wide  
113 dataset consists of 110 individuals and encompasses four regional time transects in Central/North  
114 Anatolia, East Anatolia, the Southern Caucasian lowlands, and the Northern Levant, each spanning  
115 2000 to 4000 years of Near Eastern prehistory. We find that mid-6<sup>th</sup> millennium populations from  
116 North/Central Anatolia and the Southern Caucasian lowlands were closely connected; they formed  
117 a genetic gradient (cline) that runs from Western Anatolia to the Southern Caucasus and Zagros in  
118 today’s Northern Iran. This cline formed after an admixture event that biologically connected these  
119 two regions ca. 6500 BCE. Chalcolithic and Bronze Age populations across Anatolia also mostly  
120 descended from this genetic gradient. In the Northern Levant, by contrast, we identified a major  
121 genetic shift between the Chalcolithic and Bronze Age periods. During this transition, Northern  
122 Levantine populations experienced gene flow from new groups harboring ancestries related to both  
123 Zagros/Caucasus and the Southern Levant. This suggests a shift in social orientation, perhaps in  
124 response to the rise of urban centers in Mesopotamia, which to date remain genetically unsampled.

125

126

## 127 **RESULTS**

128

### 129 **Sample corpus and data compilation**

130 We report genome-wide data from a targeted set of ~1.24 million ancestry-informative single  
131 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) for 110 individuals from Anatolia, the Northern Levant and the  
132 Southern Caucasian lowlands spanning ~4000 years of prehistory. Nine of these individuals date  
133 to Late Neolithic/Early Chalcolithic (“LN/EC”; 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE) and come from three

134 different geographic sectors: the Central/Northern Anatolian Boğazköy-Büyükaya, the Amuq  
135 Valley in Southern Anatolia/Northern Levant (Tell Kurdu) and the Southern Caucasian lowlands  
136 (Mentesh Tepe and Polutepe) (Figure 2A). The remaining 101 individuals date from the Late  
137 Chalcolithic to the Late Bronze Age (“LC-LBA”; 4<sup>th</sup>-2<sup>nd</sup> millennia BCE) and were collected from  
138 the following archaeological sites: Alalakh (modern Tell Atchana), Alkhantepe, Arslantepe, Ebla  
139 (modern Tell Mardikh), Çamlıbel Tarlası, İkiztepe and Titriş Höyük (Figure 2A).  
140 For in-depth population genetic analyses, we excluded a total of 16 individuals that did not meet  
141 quality requirements (e.g., SNP coverage, absence of damage patterns, contamination). All the  
142 remaining individuals showed damage patterns expected for ancient samples and had low  
143 contamination estimates ( $\leq 5\%$  for all but one, which has 10%). Overall, we performed genetic  
144 analyses on genome-wide data from 94 individuals, and 77 of these were AMS-radiocarbon dated  
145 (Figure 2B; Table S1). We grouped the individuals by archaeological site or area and  
146 archaeological period applying a nomenclature scheme that preserves this information (see STAR  
147 Methods and Figure 2C). We also identified seven cases of 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> degree relative pairs (Figure  
148 S1; Table S2) and restricted group-based genetic analyses for these groups (*f*-statistics,  
149 *qpWave/qpAdm* and DATES) to 89 unrelated ( $\geq 3^{\text{rd}}$  degree) individuals (Figure 2C).  
150 We merged our dataset with genetic data from ca. 800 previously published ancient individuals  
151 (Table S3 and STAR methods). Among these, 17 Anatolian individuals from the following  
152 archaeological sites overlap with our time transect and were co-analysed with the Anatolian groups  
153 from our study: Tepecik-Çiftlik (Kılınç et al., 2016) (“Tepecik\_N”), Barcın (Mathieson et al.,  
154 2015) (“Barcın\_C”); Gondürle-Höyük (Lazaridis et al., 2017) (“GondürleHöyük\_EBA”),  
155 Topakhöyük (de Barros Damgaard et al., 2018) (“Topakhöyük\_EBA”), and Kaman-Kalehöyük  
156 (de Barros Damgaard et al., 2018) (“K.Kalehöyük\_MLBA”) (Figure 2A).

157  
158

### 159 **The Late Neolithic/Early Chalcolithic genetic structure in Anatolia, Northern Levant and** 160 **Caucasian lowlands**

161 So far, our knowledge of the gene pool of Neolithic Anatolia has been limited to individuals from  
162 Barcın and Menteşe in Western Anatolia (abbreviated here as “Barcın\_N”) (Mathieson et al.,  
163 2015), Boncuklu from the Konya Plain in Central Anatolia (Feldman et al., 2019; Kılınç et al.,  
164 2016) and Tepecik-Çiftlik in Southern Anatolia (Kılınç et al., 2016). These individuals date from  
165 the 9<sup>th</sup> to the 7<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE, and are succeeded by LN/EC individuals of this study. To  
166 overview the genetic structure in this Near Eastern region from the Neolithic to the Bronze Age,  
167 we first performed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Patterson et al., 2006; Price et al., 2006)  
168 of present-day West Eurasians populations and projected ancient individuals onto the top PCs  
169 (Figure 3A). Overall, LN/EC individuals are scattered along PC2 between Barcın\_N and ancient  
170 individuals from Iran/Caucasus (Figure 3B). TellKurdu\_EC are slightly shifted along PC1 towards  
171 Neolithic and Chalcolithic Levantine individuals. Büyükaya\_EC is positioned further away from  
172 any Neolithic Anatolian reported to date and towards the direction of Neolithic and Chalcolithic

173 Iranian individuals. Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN (two individuals from Polutepe and Mentesh Tepe)  
174 are positioned upwards along PC2, between Büyükkaya\_EC and Chalcolithic Iran.

175 To formally test the qualitative differences observed in PCA, we compared the genetic affinity of  
176 LN/EC groups to earlier populations in Western Eurasia by computing  $f_4$ -statistics (Patterson et  
177 al., 2012) of the form  $f_4(Mbuti, p2; p3, X)$  (Figure 4). The statistic deviates from zero if a pair of  
178 Anatolian/Levantine/Caucasian groups ( $p3$  and  $X$ ) differ from each other in their genetic affinities  
179 to Epipaleolithic and Neolithic populations ( $p2$ ). We observe that Büyükkaya\_EC and  
180 Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN differ from Barcin\_N by sharing more alleles with Caucasus hunter-  
181 gatherers (CHG; Satsurblia and Kotias Klde caves) and Iran\_N (Ganj Dareh site in Zagros  
182 mountains) than with Barcin\_N (+2.2 to +5.5 SE, standard error), while sharing less alleles with  
183 hunter-gatherers from Western Europe (WHG) ( $\leq -4.3$  SE), Early European Farmers (EEF) ( $\leq -$   
184 3.6 SE), the Epipaleolithic Pınarbaşı individual from Anatolia ( $\leq -6.8$  SE), and with the  
185 Neolithic/Epipaleolithic Levant (-1.3 to -9.4 SE). By summarizing the  $f_4$ -statistics using  $qpAdm$   
186 (Haak et al., 2015), we can adequately model both Büyükkaya\_EC and Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN  
187 as a two-way mixture of Barcin\_N and Iran\_N as source populations ( $p \geq 0.083$ ; 24-31% from  
188 Iran\_N; Figure 4). Tepecik\_N, which occupies an intermediate position between Barcin\_N and  
189 Büyükkaya\_EC in the PCA, also fits the same model ( $p=0.975$ ; 22% from Iran\_N). By replacing  
190 Iran\_N with CHG, we still obtain a good model fit for Büyükkaya\_EC ( $p \geq 0.825$ ; 24% from CHG),  
191 but not for Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN ( $p=0.0001$ ).

192 Consistent with their positions on the PCA plot, TellKurdu\_EC does not fall on this cline of mixed  
193 Barcin\_N-Iran\_N ancestries but shows extra affinity with ancient Levantine populations.  
194 Accordingly,  $f_4$ -statistics of the form  $f_4(Mbuti, Levant_N; X, TellKurdu_EC) \geq 3.3$  SE, show that  
195 TellKurdu\_EC has more affinity with the pre-pottery Neolithic Levantines (“Levant\_N”) than with  
196 any other Neolithic-Early Chalcolithic (“N-EC”) Anatolian population including an almost 1000-  
197 year younger individual from the same area (TellKurdu\_MC). When compared to Barcin\_N,  
198 TellKurdu\_EC has significantly ( $< -4$  SE) less affinity with Mesolithic hunter-gatherers from  
199 Western, Eastern and Southeastern Europe (WHG, EHG, and Iron\_Gates, respectively). The  
200 admixture model with Barcin\_N+Iran\_N/CHG used above is not supported for TellKurdu\_EC  
201 ( $p < 1.47 \times 10^{-5}$ ). Instead, we can successfully model TellKurdu\_EC as a three-way mixture of  
202 Barcin\_N, Iran\_N (or CHG) and Levant\_N ( $p=0.298$ ;  $15.5 \pm 3.7\%$  from Iran\_N and  $36.6 \pm 7.1\%$   
203 from Levant\_N; Figure 4).

204

205

### 206 **Neolithic admixture and a common genetic profile of Chalcolithic and Bronze Age groups**

207 In contrast to the LN/EC individuals, LC-LBA individuals form a dense cloud in the West Eurasian  
208 PCA, roughly falling mid-way along the LN-EC cline that is delimited by ancient groups from  
209 Iran, the Caucasus, the Levant and Western Anatolia. We hypothesize that LC-LBA groups from  
210 Central/North and Eastern Anatolia may have descended from this older genetic structure and  
211 therefore share the same ancestry profile.

212 Consistent with PCA, outgroup- $f_3$  and  $f_4$ -statistics suggest a common genetic profile of the LC-  
213 LBA groups that is similar to that of the LN-EC cline. First, outgroup  $f_3(Mbuti; LC-LBA, Test)$ ,  
214 which measures the average shared genetic drift between LC-LBA and *Test* from their common  
215 outgroup Mbuti (Patterson et al., 2012), reached highest values when *Test* were Neolithic and  
216 Chalcolithic populations from Europe, Anatolia, and Northern Levant, such as *Barcin\_N*,  
217 *TellKurdu\_EC*, and *Büyükkaya\_EC* (Table S4). Second, using *Barcin\_N* and additionally  
218 *TellKurdu\_EC* as local baselines, we computed  $f_4(Mbuti, Test; Barcin_N/TellKurdu_EC, X)$  to  
219 characterise the difference between *Barcin\_N* or *TellKurdu\_EC* and the LC-LBA groups (*X*) with  
220 respect to a set of ancient *Test* populations from West Eurasia (Table S5). Iran Neolithic and/or  
221 CHG consistently show excess affinity to LC-LBA when compared to *TellKurdu\_EC* and  
222 *Barcin\_N*. The Chalcolithic and Bronze Age populations from Iran (*Iran\_C* from the Seh Gabi  
223 site) and the Caucasus (Allentoft et al., 2015; Lazaridis et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019) – temporally  
224 closer to LC-LBA and located between *Iran\_N/CHG* and LC-LBA in the PCA – also occasionally  
225 only share more alleles with some of the LC-LBA groups when compared to *Barcin*.  
226 We further explored the temporal aspect of the shared admixed profile of LC-LBA groups by  
227 estimating their admixture dates using the recently developed method DATES [(Chintalapati et  
228 al.);STAR Methods]. As we previously described the LN-EC cline as varying proportions of  
229 *Barcin\_N* and *Iran\_N/CHG* ancestries, we selected both as source populations. However, given  
230 the small sample size of both *Iran\_N* and CHG and the large number of missing SNPs in *Iran\_N*,  
231 we also considered modern Caucasians (Armenians, Georgians, Azerbaijanis, Abkhazians and  
232 Ingushians) as proxies of the second source population.  
233 We focused on the three Late Chalcolithic groups with sufficiently large sample size and who are  
234 the earliest in time among the LC-LBA groups: *ÇamlıbelTarlası\_LC* (n=9), *İkiztepe\_LC* (n=11)  
235 and *Arslantepe\_LC* (n=17). Taking individual estimates from all these individuals together  
236 (“Anatolia\_LC”), we obtain a robust admixture date estimate of  $105 \pm 19$  generations ago when we  
237 use *Barcin\_N* and modern Caucasians as proxies of the source gene pools (Figure 5A). Using a  
238 generation time of 28 years (Moorjani et al., 2016), this estimate equates to an admixture event  
239 ~3000 years before the time of the LC-LBA individuals, corresponding to ~6500 years BCE  
240 (Figure 5B). We observe similar but noisier estimates from individual groups *ÇamlıbelTarlası\_LC*,  
241 *İkiztepe\_LC* and *Arslantepe\_LC*. Admixture dates estimated by two alternative methods, ALDER  
242 and rolloffp (STAR Methods), overall matched our estimates with DATES (Figure S2).  
243 Encouraged by these results, we extended the analysis to other ancient populations that are on the  
244 Early Chalcolithic cline, including *Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN* and *Büyükkaya\_EC*, published Early  
245 Bronze Age (EBA) individuals from the Caucasus (cluster a; (Wang et al., 2019; Lazaridis et al.,  
246 2016); see Table S3 for group labels), as well as *Iran\_C*. For the Caucasus EBA individuals  
247 (“Caucasus\_a\_EBA”), dated to ~3100 years BCE, which is similar to the Late Chalcolithic  
248 Anatolian individuals, we obtain a similar admixture date of  $121 \pm 35$  generations. Importantly, the  
249 earlier two *Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN* and the one *Büyükkaya\_EC* individuals yielded more recent  
250 admixture dates of  $34 \pm 15$  generations before the age of the individuals (~5600 years BCE) (Figure



251 5A). The converted calendar date of ~6500 years BCE matches the timing of the admixture event  
252 estimated from the Late Chalcolithic individuals (Figure 5B).

253

### 254 **Admixture modelling of the Chalcolithic and Bronze Age groups**

255 Although we showed that it requires both Barcin\_N and Iran\_N-related ancestries to explain the  
256 ancestry composition of the LC-LBA groups, alternative combinations of ancient populations,  
257 which may be temporally and spatially more proximal to the LC-LBA groups, may also provide  
258 equally fitting models. To obtain a plausible admixture model that more likely reflects the true  
259 demographic history, it is crucial to precisely distinguish between closely related candidate source  
260 populations. We used *qpAdm* to model all LC-LBA groups as a mixture of two sources, one related  
261 to the Neolithic Anatolian ancestry and the other related to Iran and the Caucasus populations  
262 (Tables S6 and S7). For the former, we used three Neolithic or Early Chalcolithic groups  
263 (Barcin\_N/TellKurdu\_EC/Büyükaya\_EC). For the latter, we used Iran\_N and CHG, as well as  
264 more recent Chalcolithic and Bronze Age populations from the same region (Allentoft et al., 2015;  
265 Lazaridis et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019). Although the admixture signal in LC-LBA is older than  
266 these later populations, we nonetheless used them as a proxy because they might represent a gene  
267 pool which is not yet sampled but had contributed to LC-LBA individuals.

268 We find that Barcin\_N+Iran\_N adequately explain many LC-LBA groups, but it fails for  
269 Alalakh\_MLBA, Ebla\_EMBA, Arslantepe\_LC, Barcin\_C and Caucasus\_lowlands\_LC ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
270 Iran\_N-related contribution varies from  $21 \pm 4\%$  to  $38 \pm 6\%$  (Figure 6A). The alternative model of  
271 Barcin\_N+CHG provides slightly higher estimates for CHG-related contribution from  $27 \pm 13\%$  to  
272  $41 \pm 7\%$ , although most groups (8/12) cannot be modelled with CHG. For the Chalcolithic and  
273 Bronze Age groups, Iran\_C provides similar results with Iran\_N but with a higher contribution  
274 (34-53%;  $p \geq 0.05$  for 8/12 groups). Iran\_C itself can be modeled as a mixture of Iran\_N and  
275 Barcin\_N ( $p = 0.365$ ;  $37 \pm 3\%$  from Barcin\_N), which corresponds well with the modelling results  
276 for LC-LBA. In contrast, those from the Caucasus, specifically the Eneolithic to Bronze Age  
277 (\_En/BA) groups, mostly fail to fit LC-LBA.

278 We repeated our admixture modelling by replacing Barcin\_N with TellKurdu\_EC. Models with  
279 TellKurdu\_EC in general provide a good fit to the LC-LBA groups, although we caution that it  
280 may be an artifact of reduced statistical power for detecting discrepancies between the model and  
281 the actual target groups, due to the much smaller sample size of TellKurdu\_EC ( $n=5$ ) compared to  
282 Barcin\_N ( $n=22$ ). While models with ancient Iranian populations fail for multiple LC-LBA groups  
283 ( $p < 0.05$  for 5/12 with Iran\_N and for 3/12 with Iran\_C), TellKurdu\_EC+CHG can model all LC-  
284 LBA groups with varying level of CHG contribution ranging from  $28 \pm 3\%$  to  $40 \pm 9\%$ , except for  
285 Barcin\_C. Replacing CHG with a later Caucasus group (“G.Caucasus\_a\_En”) provides the same  
286 pattern with a higher Caucasus-related contribution (40-67%;  $p \geq 0.05$ , also with the exception of  
287 Barcin\_C). When we repeated the analysis after adding Barcin\_N to the outgroup set, most results  
288 remained similar. However, two LC-LBA groups from the same region with TellKurdu\_EC, i.e.  
289 Ebla\_EMBA and Alalakh\_MLBA, became deviant from the model ( $p < 0.03$ ), suggesting that  
290 TellKurdu\_EC may not be a good local proxy in a simple two-way admixture model. Therefore,

291 it seems to hold that ancient Iranian groups overall serve as a better proxy than the Caucasus  
292 groups, although higher resolution data are necessary to compare them further.  
293 Büyükkaya\_EC is the earliest individual in our dataset with a genetic profile similar to the LC-  
294 LBA groups within Anatolia. Therefore, we also tested a scenario in which the later LC-LBA  
295 groups had descended from the same gene pool without further external contribution.  
296  $f_4(\text{Mbuti}, X; \text{Büyükkaya\_EC}, \text{LC-LBA})$  suggests that Büyükkaya\_EC shares more alleles with the  
297 European/Anatolian Farmers (e.g. Boncucklu, LBK, Barcin\_N) than LC-LBA groups do (Table  
298 S5). Likewise, most LC-LBA groups cannot be modeled in *qpAdm* as a sister group with  
299 Büyükkaya\_EC when Barcin\_N is included in the outgroups ( $p < 0.05$  for 1-way model for 10/12).  
300 Most LC-LBA groups are adequately modeled by adding the second ancestry of ancient  
301 Iran/Caucasus populations, while Alalakh\_MLBA and Ebla\_EMBA require a substantial  
302 contribution from ancient southern Levantine populations (Figure 6B).  
303 Overall, the inference of the same admixture date drawn from both Late Neolithic and Late  
304 Chalcolithic populations combined with the *qpAdm* analyses suggest that the LC-LBA populations  
305 also derived from the Neolithic genetic cline but were substantially more homogenised than their  
306 predecessors (Figure 6A). While the ancient groups from Iran are a better proxy for the eastern  
307 source than those from the Caucasus, we caution a naïve literal interpretation of our results, as yet  
308 unsampled proxies from within Mesopotamia may represent true historical sources of this  
309 Iran/Caucasus-related ancestry.

310

### 311 Genetic turnover in the Bronze Age Northern Levant

312 The Northern Levant, represented by the sites Tell Kurdu, Ebla and Alalakh, showcases the most  
313 noticeable genetic turnover among our four time transects. Within two millennia after the last  
314 Middle Chalcolithic Tell Kurdu individual (TellKurdu\_MC), the genetic profile of the populations  
315 in and around the Amuq valley (Alalakh\_MLBA and Ebla\_EMBA) changed to largely resemble  
316 contemporaneous Anatolians. However, the *qpAdm* modelling with Büyükkaya\_EC suggests that  
317 Alalakh\_MLBA and Ebla\_EMBA are still distinct from the other Anatolian groups with respect  
318 to their connection to the ancient Southern Levant. Their distinction is also captured by  $f_4$ -statistics  
319 whereby Ebla\_EMBA and Alalakh\_MLBA differ from the other LC-LBA groups with respect to  
320 their relation with older populations such as Barcin\_N and Caucasian groups (Figure S3). In  
321 addition, Barcin\_N/TellKurdu\_EC and/or ancient Caucasian groups cannot successfully model  
322 Ebla\_EMBA and Alalakh\_MLBA in *qpAdm* (Tables S6 and S7), suggesting that these sources do  
323 not represent good proxies of their true ancestries. Alternative models with the predecessor  
324 TellKurdu\_EC as a baseline ancestry and the geographically close Arslantepe\_LC as a potential  
325 proximal source did not improve the fit either ( $p \leq 1.3 \times 10^{-5}$ ; Table S8). However, admixture models  
326 become adequate by adding a southern Levantine population as the third source, with significant  
327 Levantine contributions: e.g., 27-34% TellKurdu\_EC + 36-38% G.Caucasus\_a\_En + 28-38%  
328 Levant\_EBA ( $p \geq 0.492$ ).

329 Consistent with the extra gene flow after the time of TellKurdu\_EC, we obtain younger admixture  
330 dates in Alalakh\_MLBA than the other LC-LBA groups when we use either Anatolian or

331 Caucasian gene pools as sources:  $78 \pm 27$  generations ( $3880 \pm 746$  years BCE) with Anatolia\_LC  
332 and  $44 \pm 8$  ( $3060 \pm 224$  years BCE) with Caucasus\_a\_EBA. No exponential decay could be fitted  
333 when we used either Anatolia\_LC or Caucasus\_a\_EBA as one source and Levant\_C as a second.  
334  
335

### 336 **Evidence for individual mobility in Alalakh**

337 All genetic analyses of Alalakh\_MLBA were conducted at the exclusion of one female (ALA019)  
338 because of her outlier position in the PCA (Figure 3B). Discovered at the bottom of a well, the  
339 archaeological and anthropological context suggest that the skeletal remains of this woman, C14-  
340 dated to 1568-1511 cal BCE (AMS; 2-sigma), represent an irregular burial with evidence of several  
341 healed skeletal traumata (Figure 7; STAR Methods). We have ruled out the possibility of modern-  
342 day contamination based on the characteristic aDNA damage profile, low mitochondrial  
343 contamination and reproduction of the PCA coordinates after discarding all sequence reads without  
344 damage (STAR Methods). In the Eurasian PCA (Figure S4), ALA019 falls genetically closer to  
345 Chalcolithic and Bronze Age individuals from ancient Iran and Turan (present-day area of Iran,  
346 Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Afghanistan) (Narasimhan et al., 2019). These populations  
347 represent a west-east genetic cline with varying proportions of ancestries related to Barcin\_N,  
348 Iran\_N and WSHG (hunter gatherers from Western Siberia). We confirmed the genetic affinity of  
349 ALA019 observed in the PCA with an *outgroup-f<sub>3</sub>* test (Figure 7A). Other ancient populations  
350 from the Caucasus and the Western steppe also produced high affinity but *f<sub>4</sub>(Mbuti, X; Turan<sub>x</sub>,  
351 ALA019)* suggest that ALA019 differs from other Turan individuals by occasionally sharing more  
352 or less alleles with either Iran\_N or WSHG (Figure 7B), which agrees with the presence of a  
353 genetic cline in this area. In the absence of ancient genomes from nearby regions such as Southern  
354 Mesopotamia, the most likely ancestral origin of this individual was somewhere in Eastern Iran or  
355 Central Asia.  
356  
357

## 358 **DISCUSSION**

### 360 **Genetic homogenisation across Anatolia and the Southern Caucasus prior to the Bronze Age**

361 Our study covers time transects of  $\sim 4000$  years of Syro-Anatolian and  $\sim 2000$  years of Southern  
362 Caucasian history, both starting from the 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE. In addition, our admixture date  
363 estimates allow us to infer a millennium further back in time to the Neolithic period. We describe  
364 a Late Neolithic/Early Chalcolithic (6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE) genetic cline stretching from Western  
365 Anatolia (i.e. area around the Sea of Marmara) to the lowlands of the Southern Caucasus that was  
366 formed by an admixture process that started at the beginning of Late Neolithic (ca. 6500 years  
367 BCE). The eastern end of this cline extends beyond the Zagros mountains with minute proportions  
368 of Anatolian (i.e., Western Anatolian-like) ancestry reaching as far as Chalcolithic and Bronze  
369 Age Central Asia (Narasimhan et al., 2019). To the south, Anatolian ancestry is present in the  
370 Southern Levantine Neolithic populations (Lazaridis et al., 2016), and to the north, in the

371 Chalcolithic and Bronze Age populations from the Caucasus (mainly mountainous area) (Allentoft  
372 et al., 2015; Lazaridis et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019), most likely as a result of the Late Neolithic  
373 admixture.

374 Evidence for genetic homogenization across larger geographic distances also comes from the  
375 uniparentally inherited Y-chromosome lineages (Table S9). We observe the most common male  
376 lineages J1a, J2a, J2b and G2a in all spatio-temporal groups of the region. Alongside the less  
377 frequent lineages H2 and T1a, these all form part of the genetic legacy that dates to the Neolithic  
378 or was already present in the region during the Upper Paleolithic (Wang et al., 2019; Lazaridis et  
379 al., 2016; Jones et al., 2015; Feldman et al., 2019; Broushaki et al., 2016). A few notable exceptions  
380 provide rather anecdotal but nonetheless important evidence for long distance mobility and  
381 extended Y-haplogroup diversity. For example, individual ART038 carries Y-haplotype R1b-  
382 V1636 (R1b1a2), which is a rare clade related to other early R1b-lineages, such as R1b-V88 that  
383 was found in low frequency in Neolithic Europe [e.g., Haak et al. (2015)] and R1b-Z2103 – the  
384 main Y-lineage that is associated with the spread of ‘steppe ancestry’ across West Eurasia during  
385 the early Bronze Age. However, R1b-V1636 and R1b-Z2103 lineages split long before (ca. 17  
386 kya) and therefore there is no direct evidence for an early incursion from the Pontic steppe during  
387 the main era of Arslantepe. Lineage L2-L595 found in ALA084 (Alalakh) has previously been  
388 reported in one individual from Chalcolithic Northern Iran (Narasimhan et al., 2019) and three  
389 male from the Late Maykop phase in the North Caucasus (Wang et al., 2019). These three share  
390 ancestry from the common Anatolian/Iranian ancestry cline described here, which indicates a  
391 widespread distribution that also reached the southern margins of the steppe zone north of the  
392 Caucasus mountain range.

393 Dating the formation of the west-to-east cline during the 7<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE enables the  
394 contextualisation of these genetic signals observed on both autosomal and uniparental markers  
395 with archaeological evidence of human mobility and changes in socio-cultural practices. The time  
396 around 6500-6400 years BCE marks a significant junction in the Anatolian Neolithic because it  
397 saw a sudden and massive expansion of sedentary communities into areas that had previously  
398 supported no or very few food-producing communities before (Brami, 2015; Düring, 2013).  
399 Subsequently, in the Southern Caucasus, the abrupt appearance of a Neolithic lifestyle and the  
400 introduction of exogenous domesticated animal and plant species ca. 6000 BCE suggests some  
401 type of interaction with, and eventually intrusion of Neolithic populations from the neighboring  
402 regions, among which Southeastern Anatolia - along with Zagros and the Caspian belt - could be  
403 one of the most suitable candidates (Chataigner et al., 2014). Related to these events, the genetic  
404 structure of domesticated caprine populations within the Near East began to break down, and by  
405 the Chalcolithic period goat herds across the region were found to harbor ancestries both from  
406 eastern and western Neolithic populations (Daly et al., 2018; Kadowaki, 2017). While the exact  
407 timing of this admixture is not known, the parallel between human and livestock genetic histories  
408 suggests that livestock moved not only through trade networks but also together with people, as  
409 well as their material culture, ideas and practices. This is indicated, for instance, by the circular  
410 Neolithic architecture of the Southern Caucasus (Baudouin, 2019; Lyonnet et al., 2016), which is

411 reminiscent of the Halaf traditions, that were developing during the early 6<sup>th</sup> millennium in North  
412 Mesopotamia and along the Anatolian stretches of the Tigris and Euphrates river valleys.

413 In the subsequent millennia and until the Late Bronze Age, genetic continuity persisted in North-  
414 Central and Eastern Anatolia, which is supported by the genetic similarity of these later  
415 populations and the absence of new ancestry sources after the Neolithic period. This contradicts  
416 prior hypotheses for population change based on archaeological evidence of intense cultural  
417 interactions during this period. For example, the site of İkištepe on the Turkish Black Sea Coast  
418 contains a material culture with strong Balkan affinities, and this has been argued to signify direct  
419 contact with populations across the Black Sea [e.g., Thissen (1993)], but these contacts do not  
420 seem to be accompanied by gene flow.

421 The site of Arslantepe provides another representative example. At the beginning of EBA,  
422 archaeological evidence at the site strongly suggests the presence of a disruptive socio-political  
423 conflict that led to the occupation of Arslantepe by pastoral populations with a connection to the  
424 Caucasus. In PCA and  $f_4$ -statistics, two individuals dating to this period show excess affinity with  
425 populations from the Caucasus and the Pontic steppe compared to their peers, while later  
426 Arslantepe\_EBA individuals do not share this Caucasian affinity (Table S10). This implies that  
427 the postulated demic interaction must have been transient and of small scale, although the small  
428 sample size from Arslantepe\_EBA (n=4) may not be sufficient to detect it. Subtle gene flow is  
429 consistent with recent findings from the site, suggesting that the EBA pastoralists occupying the  
430 site were more likely well-established local groups moving around the mountains rather than  
431 intrusive groups from the Caucasus (Frangipane, 2014).

432 The genetic landscape of Arslantepe also has important implications with respect to the  
433 interactions with the Mesopotamian world. Archaeological evidence indicates that in the 4<sup>th</sup>  
434 millennium BCE Mesopotamian populations established colonies in Southeastern Anatolia and  
435 Northern Syria (e.g., Habuba Kabira, Jebel Aruda, Hacinebi) during a period referred to as the  
436 Uruk Expansion (Algaze, 2005). However, the Uruk expansion was also a very complex and deep  
437 process of socio-cultural transformation that reoriented the economic, political and cultural  
438 interests of indigenous elites towards Southern Mesopotamia. Artefacts in Arslantepe reflect this  
439 complexity, and the genetic continuity shown here supports the notion that indigenous populations  
440 adopted these broader Uruk features and ideas without the transmission of genes.

441

#### 442 **Population and territorial state dynamics in the Northern Levant**

443 In contrast to the rest of Anatolia, the Northern Levant stands out as a region of the Near East with  
444 traceable post-Neolithic changes in the genetic structure. We found that the gene pools at Ebla and  
445 Alalakh can only be explained by more complex models that require additional contributions both  
446 from the Caucasus and Southern Levant. The inclusion of a source related to the Caucasus in our  
447 proposed model raises the question whether this turnover could be linked to the expansion of the  
448 Transcaucasian Kura-Araxes material culture to the Levant. This expansion is recorded in the  
449 region of the Northern Levant ca. 2800 BCE and could be associated with the movement/migration  
450 of people from Eastern Anatolia and the Southern Caucasian highlands (Greenberg and Palumbi,

451 2015; Greenberg et al., 2014). However, our results do not support this scenario for a number of  
452 reasons: a) we do not find any substantial increase of Caucasus-related ancestry in the populations  
453 of the primary expansion area of Kura-Araxes (e.g., Eastern Anatolia), b) populations from the  
454 highlands of the Southern Caucasus – including individuals from a Kura-Araxes context  
455 (“L.Caucasus\_EBA”) – as secondary source populations also fail, and c) so do models with  
456 Arslantepe from Eastern Anatolia, a population located mid-way along the proposed expansion  
457 route from the Southern Caucasus to the Northern Levant.

458 Consequently, these interpretative caveats call for consideration of alternative historical scenarios,  
459 including scenarios of multiple gene-flow events that could have taken place in the intervening  
460 two millennia between the Tell Kurdu population and those of Bronze Age Ebla and Alalakh.  
461 However, written sources, archaeological, and paleoclimatic evidence suggest that a narrower time  
462 period – the end of the EBA – had been very critical with respect to political tensions and  
463 population mobility. It was during this period, for example, that Ebla was destroyed twice and re-  
464 established at the beginning of MBA. There are extensive textual references from the end of the  
465 EBA through the LBA referring to groups of people arriving into the area of the Amuq Valley.  
466 Although these groups were named, likely based on designations (e.g., Amorites, Hurrians), the  
467 formative context of their (cultural) identity and their geographic origins remain debated. One  
468 recent hypothesis (Weiss, 2014; Weiss, 2017; Akar and Kara, 2020) associates the arrival of these  
469 groups with climate-forced population movement during the “4.2k BP event”, a Mega Drought  
470 that led to the abandonment of the entire Khabur river valley in Northern Mesopotamia and the  
471 search of nearby habitable areas.

472 Taking the above into consideration, we suggest that the ancestries we inferred for Alalakh and  
473 Ebla might best describe the genetic make-up of the EBA populations of unsampled Northern  
474 Mesopotamia. During the following MBA and LBA, we find no evidence of genetic disruption,  
475 even though shifts in territorial control dynamics between kingdoms/empires affected Ebla’s and  
476 Alalakh’s socio-cultural development (see STAR Methods). Nevertheless, the case of the Alalakh  
477 individual with likely Central Asian origin is a finding that can be interpreted within the context  
478 of nascent internationalism of the Middle and Late Bronze Age Eastern Mediterranean societies.  
479 Also, it calls for future research on the various societal features of this phenomenon and how these  
480 are reflected on the individual life histories.

481

482

### 483 **Conclusions**

484 Overall, our large-scale genomic analysis reveals two major genetic events. First, during the Late  
485 Neolithic, gene pools across Anatolia and the Southern Caucasus mixed, resulting in an admixture  
486 cline. Second, during the Early Bronze Age, Northern Levant populations experienced gene flow  
487 in a process that likely involved yet to-be-sampled neighboring populations from Mesopotamia.  
488 Even though we could detect subtle and transient gene flow in Arslantepe, we acknowledge that  
489 disentangling questions related to local-scale population dynamics within the homogeneous  
490 Chalcolithic and Bronze Age Anatolian gene pool might be beyond the resolution of current

491 analytical tools. Furthermore, while our sampling expands in number and geographic range on  
492 previous studies, the critical area of Mesopotamia remains unsampled; thus, although our picture  
493 of the genetic landscape of the Near East is highly suggestive, it remains incomplete. Nevertheless,  
494 the cumulative genetic dataset of Anatolia, the Southern Caucasus, and the Northern Levant  
495 between the Early and Late Bronze Age indicates that, following the genetic events of the Late  
496 Neolithic and Early Bronze Age, there was no intrusion of genetically distinct populations in this  
497 region. This conclusion is of great importance with respect to our understanding of the formation  
498 of complex Bronze Age socio-political entities.

499  
500

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502

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517

## 518 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

519

520 J.K., W.H., P.W.S., C.J. and C.W. conceived the study. C.J., W.H. and J.K. supervised the genetic  
521 work. Y.S.E., M.F., K.A.Y, F.P., P.M., R.Ö., F.G., T.A., B.L., E.L.H., S.E.N. and U.D.S. provided  
522 archaeological material. P.W.S., Y.S.E., M.F., F.B.R., K.A.Y, T.I., M.A., R.S., R.Ö., G.P., F.G.,  
523 B.L., E.L.H, U.D.S. and S.E. advised on the archaeological background and interpretation. Y.S.E.,  
524 M.F., F.B.R., K.A.Y, T.I., M.A., R.S., R.Ö., T.A., B.L., U.D.S, M.D’A. and E.S. wrote the  
525 archaeological and sample background section. E.S., M.B., G.N. and S.P. performed the laboratory  
526 work. E.S. performed the data analyses with C.J. and W.H. providing guidance. A.B.R performed  
527 analyses on the Y-chromosome markers and assignment of Y-haplogroups. E.S., C.J. and W.H.  
528 wrote the manuscript with input from all co-authors.

529

530

531 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

532 The authors declare no competing interests.

533

534

535 **MAIN FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS**

536

537 **Cultural developments and territorial state formation in Western Asia (Near East) from the**

538 **6<sup>th</sup> to the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennia BCE. (A)** Approximate areas where important material cultures mentioned

539 in the text developed between the 6<sup>th</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> millennia BCE. Approximate expansion range of

540 these cultures outside of their proposed original land is given (dashed lines). Archaeological sites

541 related to our study which have been influenced by these cultures are plotted in corresponding

542 colours. **(B)** Territorial shifts between Bronze Age kingdoms from the 16<sup>th</sup> to the 13<sup>th</sup> centuries

543 BCE and location of studied sites Alalakh and Ebla.

544

545 **Figure 2. Overview of location, ages and data generation of analysed individuals. (A)**

546 Geographic location of archaeological sites with respective number of individuals with genetic

547 data. **(B)** Age of analysed individuals in years BCE. Age is given as mean of the 2-sigma range of

548 calibrated <sup>14</sup>C date (black horizontal lines) or mean of their proposed archaeological range when

549 direct <sup>14</sup>C dates not available (coloured thick lines). **(C)** Grouping of individuals (after quality

550 filtering) according to their location, time period and genetic profile. Number of individuals before

551 and after removal of biological relatives is given when applicable. **(D)** Distribution of SNP

552 coverage across individuals. Only individuals within a certain coverage range (marked with red

553 dotted lines) were included in downstream analyses. See also Tables S1 and S2 and Figure S1.

554

555 **Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA).** PCA was computed on the Human Origins

556 (HO) SNP panel data of present-day West Eurasian populations (grey symbols) and ancient

557 individuals were projected on them. **(A)** PC1 and PC2 for ancient individuals from the present

558 study and selected from previous publications. **(B)** PC1 and PC2 for individuals by archaeological

559 time or geographic sector (a-d) with some of the important findings annotated.

560

561 **Figure 4. Genetic affinity of Late Neolithic/Early Chalcolithic populations with Early**

562 **Holocene populations from Iran, Caucasus and Levant measured with  $f_4$ -statistics and**

563 **quantified with  $qpAdm$ .**  $f_4$ -statistic tests whether either p3 or X have excess affinity with p2 and

564 becomes negative or positive accordingly, as shown in the simplified tree. SE for  $f_4$ -statistics are

565 estimated by 5 cM block jackknifing and values that do not deviate from 0 in the  $\pm 3$  SE are

566 represented in grey colour. All three groups have more affinity with Iran compared to Barcin\_N

567 (green bar), and TellKurdu\_EC has the more Levantine affinity compared to all (purple bar).

568 These affinities are reflected in the inferred  $qpAdm$  models on the right. Ancestry proportions are

569 plotted with  $\pm 1$  SE.

570

571 **Figure 5. Dating of admixture in Anatolian and Caucasian populations from the Late**

572 **Neolithic to the Early Bronze Age. (A)** Decay of ancestry covariance estimated by DATES for



573 Anatolia\_EC (Büyükkaya\_EC) and Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN grouped together and the three Late  
574 Chalcolithic populations Arslantepe\_LC, ÇamlıbelTarslası\_LC and İkiztepe grouped as  
575 “Anatolia\_LC”. (B) Conversion of admixture dates into calendar dates (upper part of plot) after  
576 including both the age range for each population calculated from direct <sup>14</sup>C dates (lower part of  
577 plot) and the ±1 SE from DATES. Average population and admixture dates are shown with black  
578 dot. Average admixture date for the three populations with grouped individuals (bold letters) is  
579 6500 years BCE. Admixture dates for individual populations from Anatolian\_LC span a wider  
580 time range.

581  
582 **Figure 6. qpAdm modelling of ancient Anatolian, Northern Levantine and Southern**  
583 **Caucasian populations from the present and previously published (\*) studies. (A)** When we  
584 model the ancient populations as Western Anatolia (Barcın\_N) and Zagros (Iran\_N), LN/EC  
585 populations fall on a spatial gradient of Iran\_N-like ancestry which is attenuated in the subsequent  
586 LC-LBA populations. Vertical bars represent ±1 SE estimated by 5 cM jackknifing. (B) LC-LBA  
587 can be modelled as the geographically proximal source Büyükkaya\_EC from Central Anatolia,  
588 with contribution from Iran\_N that ranges from 0% in GonrdürleHöyük\_EBA from Western  
589 Anatolia and ~30% in Caucasus\_lowlands\_LC. In order to model Ebla\_EMBA and  
590 Alalakh\_MLBA with Büyükkaya\_EC and Iran\_N extra contribution from a source like Levant\_N  
591 is necessary. See also Tables S4-S8 and Figure S3.

592  
593 **Figure 7. Individual ALA019 from Alalakh has high genetic affinity to the ancient**  
594 **contemporaneous populations from Eastern Iran and Turan (Central Asia). (A)** Shared  
595 genetic drift measured with outgroup  $f_3$ -statistics between ALA019 and ancient Eurasian  
596 (diamonds) and worldwide modern (circles) populations. The highest five values of the test are  
597 produced by populations from Turan which are labelled. (B) Symmetry  $f_4$ -statistics show variable  
598 affinity to Iran\_N and WSHG among Turan<sub>x</sub> and ALA019. Horizontal bars represent ±3 SE  
599 estimated by 5 cM jackknifing. Photo of “Well Lady” (ALA019): Murat Akar, Alalakh  
600 Excavations Archive. See also Figure S4.

601

602

## 603 SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

604

605 **Figure S1. Pairwise mismatch rate for the three sites with first and second-degree related**  
606 **individuals, related to Figure 2.** Pairwise SNP mismatch rates (pmr; the proportion of  
607 mismatching SNPs out of the total number of pairwise-overlapping SNPs) and their associated  
608 standard errors were estimated with READ (Monroy Kuhn et al., 2018). The baseline of  
609 unrelatedness ( $\geq$  third degree) in pmr was estimated as the mean of all pairwise comparisons within  
610 every site. The relatedness classification cut-offs were estimated by multiplying the baselines by  
611 0.90625 ( $\geq$  third degree, dashed lines), 0.8125 and 0.625 for second and first degree, respectively  
612 (dotted lines).

613  
614 **Figure S2. Summary of admixture dates estimated with ALDER and rolloffp, related to**  
615 **STAR Methods (Test of recent admixture) . (A)** Alder admixture dates on all pair combinations  
616 from 27 Anatolia\_LC individuals. Pairs include individuals from the Arslantepe\_LC and  
617 ÇamlıbelTarlası\_LC groups. Estimates for which computation of SE failed are not plotted. The  
618 average admixture date from the 241 independent tests (red dot) is very close to the estimation  
619 from DATES on Anatolia\_LC (~100 generations). **(B)** rolloffp estimates of admixture dates  
620 overlap with DATES within  $\pm 1$  SE.

621  
622 **Figure S3. Genetic differences among analyzed Chalcolithic and Bronze Age groups, related**  
623 **to Figure 6.** Heatmap of  $f_4$ -statistics of the form  $f_4(Mbuti, p_2; p_3, p_4)$ , where  $p_3$  and  $p_4$  are all  
624 possible pairs of LC-LBA groups from the present study and published contemporaneous (\*), and  
625  $p_2$  a selection of ancient populations from West Eurasia.  $f_4$ -statistics that do not deviate  
626 significantly from 0 (i.e.  $|SE| \leq 3$ ) are represented with grey-coloured tiles. Significant  $f_4$ -statistics  
627 are coloured in red and blue scale according to the direction of allele sharing.  $f_4$ -statistics estimated  
628 on less than 50,000 SNPs are not plotted resulting in some missing tiles from the heatmaps.

629  
630 **Figure S4. Eurasian PCA with Neolithic to Bronze Age individuals from Iran and Turan and**  
631 **the genetic outlier individual from Alalakh (ALA019), related to Figure 7.** PCA computed on  
632 modern-day Eurasian populations (grey points) shows that the Alalakh\_MLBA\_outlier (ALA019)  
633 is genetically closer to individuals from Chalcolithic and Bronze Age Iran/Turan. Coloured labels  
634 and points refer to ancient populations and black labels to modern-day populations.

635

636

## 637 STAR METHODS

638

## 639 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

640

### 641 Lead contact

642 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be addressed to and will be  
643 fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Johannes Krause (krause@shh.mpg.de).

644

### 645 Materials Availability

646 This study did not generate new unique reagents.

647

### 648 Data and Code Availability

649 Aligned sequence data (BAM format) data is available through the European Nucleotide Archive  
650 under accession number PRJEB37213. Haploid genotype data for the 1240K panel is available in  
651 eigenstrat format via the Edmond Data Repository of the Max Planck Society  
652 (<https://edmond.mpdl.mpg.de/imeji/collection/TK8fGmyupapy9Mre?q=>).

653

654

655 **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**

656

657 **Description of origin, archaeological and anthropological context of analysed individuals**

658

659 *Alkhantepe, Azerbaijan*

660 39.3607139°N, 48.4613556°E

661 Excavation: Mughan Neolithic-Eneolithic expedition of the Institute of Archaeology and  
662 Ethnography of Azerbaijan National Academy of Sciences, 2006-2017, directed by Tufan Isaak  
663 oglu Akhundov

664 The site of Alkhantepe is situated on a plain without visible water ways, 4 km north of the Uchtepe  
665 village, in the Jalilabad district of Azerbaijan. It is a narrow belt of the eastern part of the Mughan  
666 steppe limited by the spurs of Brovary Range from the west and the Caspian Sea from the east.  
667 Presently, the topography of the site is flat with its north-eastern part slightly refracting and  
668 lowering. The surface of the settlement has been surveyed for many years and samples of ceramic  
669 vessels and stone objects have been found. Test trenches and expanded excavations show that the  
670 area occupied by the ancient settlement was about 4 ha in size and the thickness of cultural layers  
671 is up to 3 m. Materials recovered from the surface surveys as well as the excavation of cultural  
672 layers are identical and give the opportunity to relate this settlement to the Leilatepe tradition.

673 The cultural layers below the modern-day surface of the site consisted of seven construction  
674 horizons which can be divided into two distinct units. As it became clear in the process of  
675 excavation, the upper 1.2 m. cultural layer was formed in ancient times due to an earthquake which  
676 resulted in a period of abandonment (at least of the excavated parts of the site). Settlement activity  
677 resumed shortly afterwards. Judging from the material evidence, this new settlement equally  
678 represents a new stage in the history of the site with distinct features in architecture and building  
679 techniques.

680 In contrast to the preceding time when adobe was widely used, buildings of the younger settlement  
681 stage were light constructions of rectangular form made of reeds and poles covered with clay and  
682 with a hearth in the middle.

683 For the first stage of settlement, excavations revealed round and rectangular mud-huts with subsoil  
684 walls and walls constructed from adobe, altars, different household hearths and production  
685 furnaces, pits, and partition walls of adobe. The burials of the settlement's inhabitants were found  
686 on different levels among these constructions. The burials included individuals of all age groups,  
687 from new-borns and teenagers to adults. Only one exception was observed: babies were buried in  
688 ceramic vessels.

689 Survey and excavation uncovered a rich archaeological material consisting mainly of ceramics of  
690 Leilatepe tradition that is also represented by tools and objects of stone and bone. Additionally,  
691 metal objects, metallic slag and tools of metallic production were found (Akhundov, 2014;  
692 Akhundov, 2018).

693 One individual from Alkhantepe was analysed for aDNA and is included in genetic analyses.

694  
695       ▪ ALX002 (Alkhantepe Burial N2) is the individual from a burial that was revealed in a  
696 distance from the eastern wall in the south square of the excavated area at a depth of 1,48  
697 m. The remains of this individual were buried in a shallow oval pit and they, as well as the  
698 pit, were poorly preserved. However, judging from the preserved remains, the deceased  
699 was put into the pit in a crouched position, lying on his/her left side with the head placed  
700 on a north-east orientation. A lead ring with unclosed ends, made of round wire, was found  
701 lying on the shin's bone. Dating of human tooth: 3776-3661 cal BCE (4950±23 BP,  
702 MAMS-40330)

703  
704

705 *Arslantepe, Turkey*

706 38.381944°N, 38.361111°E

707 Excavation: Sapienza University of Rome, 1961-present, directed by Marcella Frangipane  
708 The site of Arslantepe is a 4.5 ha mound located in the highland fertile Malatya plain of Eastern  
709 Anatolia, 12 km from the western bank of the Euphrates river. From the point of view of  
710 Mesopotamian archaeology, the site is at a geographical and cultural border zone, in the northern  
711 highlands outside Mesopotamia proper and along pathways that potentially connect the alluvium  
712 of the Euphrates with different worlds, from the Caucasus to the Pontic regions and Central  
713 Anatolia. The uninterrupted and extensive excavation of the site since 1961 brought to light a four  
714 millennia long occupation starting around 4700 BCE, but possibly even earlier, as testified by the  
715 presence of Neolithic and Chalcolithic pottery on the surface of the mound. Amongst this are Ubaid  
716 ceramics and we know that the Malatya plain was directly involved by the expansion of  
717 Mesopotamian Ubaid culture, also by the Ubaid presence at the neighbouring site of  
718 Değirmentepe. The finding of Halaf period ceramics suggests that this contact was strong in  
719 Neolithic phases too. During the fourth millennium, Arslantepe undergoes developments that  
720 structurally resemble those of Mesopotamia, even though it shows its own peculiarities, with a  
721 clear and steady growth in economic and social development, which brings the site to develop a  
722 primary state system towards the end of the millennium, parallel to that of Mesopotamia, but with  
723 features of its own (Frangipane, 2018). In the earlier phases of this period (Arslantepe Period VII,  
724 3900-3400 BCE) contacts with Central Anatolia are also evidenced, but material culture shows  
725 that the strongest relations of the site are with the south-west towards the Amuq and Quoeiq  
726 (Balossi Restelli et al., In press). The moment of proper state development (Arslantepe Period VI  
727 A, 3400-3200 BCE) is revealed by the foundation of a precocious palace complex with a  
728 sophisticated bureaucracy and control over the economy of the populations, which shows an  
729 increase in contacts with Mesopotamia proper, but also with other mountainous regions of North-  
730 Central and North-Eastern Anatolia and the Caucasus (Frangipane, 2012b). The contacts with the  
731 north-eastern regions further increase at the collapse of this early state system, when pastoral  
732 groups that were already living in the area and moving along the mountains with their flocks of  
733 sheep and goats briefly settle at the site, by building huts and fences for animals directly on the

734 ruins of the palace (period VI B1, 3200-3100 BCE), giving rise to a period of profound instability  
735 characterised by meetings and clashes of various populations contending the site. In the course of  
736 their seasonal occupations, the pastoral groups of Period VIB1 also built more durable structures,  
737 among which a large mud-brick communal building, probably used a reception hall for meetings  
738 and feasting (Frangipane, 2012a; Frangipane, 2014; Frangipane, 2015b; Siracusano and Palumbi,  
739 2014). This is a period of unrest and fast changes: Following the less permanent occupation of  
740 Period VI B1, an imposing fortification wall was built on the top of the mound, surrounding a large  
741 open area and with a series of rooms adjoining it on the interior (period VIB2, early phase). In this  
742 phase, only the remains of post-holes, probably belonging to temporary huts and fences, were  
743 found outside the wall, and the dates obtained from charcoals and seeds from the rooms adjoining  
744 the wall indicate an approximate date of about 3100 BCE. In a second phase of Period VIB2, a  
745 village of farmers was extensively brought to light along the slope, outside the fortification wall  
746 that was not in use anymore, and was dated between 3000 and 2850 BCE. The frequent overlapping  
747 of the C14 dates from all these periods, as well as the features of the archaeological evidence  
748 suggest that all the events occurred at Arslantepe from the destruction and collapse of the Palace  
749 to the establishment of the VIB2 village of farmers seem to have succeeded one another in a very  
750 fast and dramatic way, in the course of a short period of time.

751 Occupation at Arslantepe continues uninterruptedly throughout the whole 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium with an  
752 initial return to mobility (VI C, 2750-2500 BCE), followed by the presence of competing small  
753 policies in the whole plain, of which Arslantepe was probably one of the largest (VI D, 2500-2000  
754 BCE) (Frangipane, 2012a; Conti and Persiani, 1993). This was a period of greater stability and an  
755 apparent decrease in external contacts, as material culture shows a remarkable continuity for  
756 several centuries.

757 During the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium the site comes under Hittite influence (first with the Hittite reign and  
758 then the Empire) (Manuelli, 2013) and will eventually become capital of a Neo-Hittite reign at the  
759 collapse of the Empire. Arslantepe is eventually abandoned after the Assyrian king Sargon II  
760 conquers and destroys the site in 712 BCE.

761 Human remains at Arslantepe have been found both as burials and as scattered human remains  
762 within pits and fills of buildings. Period VII is the one with the most finds, predominantly formed  
763 by burials related to domestic occupation, thus dug under the floors of houses. Buried individuals  
764 are mostly infants and adult women (Erdal and Balossi Restelli, In press). Rarely sparse human  
765 bones are found, but are probably due to disturbances of burials that must have taken place already  
766 in antiquity. In the latest level of occupation in Period VII a burial ground has also been identified,  
767 outside a Temple structure, where possibly special burials were positioned: 2 infant jar burials  
768 were identified, one infant stone cist and ad adult inhumation.

769 The following VI A period is the period in which Arslantepe becomes the centre of a primary state  
770 system, testified by a monumental palatial complex. No burials belonging to this phase have been  
771 found, but in one of the two temples of the complex (Temple A) a human skull was lying on the  
772 floor at the centre of the building together with the skull of a wild pig. Both must have been part  
773 of a ritual practice, taking place in the room.

774 Yet different is the situation of human bones found in Period VI B1, when most remains are partial  
775 skeletons, found in pits or scattered within fills covering the collapsed palace ruins, thus not proper  
776 burials.

777 In the following VI B2 village of Early Bronze Age very interestingly the practice of burying  
778 infants under the house floors appears to have disappeared. An interesting group of human bones  
779 have been however found in a pit cut into the floor of the open space inside the fortification wall  
780 in the early phase of the period. These belong to a minimum number of 16 partial individuals not  
781 in anatomical connection, mostly male and adults, found in this pit together with some animal  
782 bones (Erdal, 2012b).

783 To a period in between the end of VI B1 and the beginning of VI B2 belongs the so-called ‘royal  
784 tomb’ (Frangipane et al., 2001), an imposing cist grave built at the bottom of a large pit, which  
785 was very atypical for the local culture. It was an extremely rich tomb containing an adult man with  
786 plenty of funerary gifts among which 65 metal objects, and with a complex funerary practice  
787 including the possible sacrifice of 4 adolescents (almost all female) on the stone slabs covering the  
788 cist (Palumbi, 2011; Frangipane et al., 2001). Ceramic materials in the tomb are perfectly in  
789 keeping with what was found in the early phase of Period VIB2, as well as in the communal  
790 building of Period VIB1, that is a mixture of local light-coloured wares with Reserved Slip  
791 decoration in the Uruk tradition and Red-Black handmade ware of Caucasian and Anatolian  
792 inspiration.

793 The rest of the Early Bronze Age period sees rare human remains, and only one of a male burial  
794 from the vicinities of the domestic area has been included in this work.

795 Twenty-two individuals from Arslantepe produced genome-wide data and are included in genetic  
796 analyses.

797

798 • ART001 (H156 S138) is a female in pit burial from Period VI D2. Evidence of  
799 epicondylitis was observed on both humeri. The remains also exhibit evidence of severe  
800 osteoarthritis. Dating of human bone: 2470-2301 cal BCE (3908±26 BP, MAMS-33533).

801

802 ■ ART004 (H238 S156) is an old male in a pit dug under and sealed by the floor of a house.  
803 Period VII. Dating of human bone: 3758-3642 cal BCE (4906±26 BP, MAMS-33534)

804

805 ■ ART005 (H250 S169) is an old female buried in a domestic area of the settlement from  
806 Period VII. The relation with the overlying architecture is not preserved. A red slipped and  
807 burnished beaker were held in her hands and traces of red ochre were found on and next to  
808 the knees. Evidence for the following pathological conditions was present on the remains:  
809 osteoporosis, hyperostosis frontalis interna, severe osteoarthritis on joints, severe  
810 osteoarthritis on cervical and lumbar vertebra, dental diseases such as dental carries,  
811 periapical abscess, periodontitis, dental calculus, and linear enamel hypoplasia. Dating of  
812 human bone: 3770-3654 cal BCE (4934±27 BP, MAMS-33535).

813

- 814       ▪ ART009 (H326) is an adult male represented by a skull and disarticulated bones found on  
815 the floor of a dwelling from Period VI B2, together with other bones from at least two  
816 individuals. No pathology was found on the preserved bones. Dating of human bone: 2834-  
817 2497 cal BCE (4069±20 BP, MAMS-33536)  
818
- 819       ▪ ART010 (H327 S220-2) is a ca. 7-year-old child represented by a skull and disarticulated  
820 long bones found on the floor of a dwelling from Period VI B2, together with other bones  
821 from at least two individuals. The cranium exhibits evidence of a possible perimortem  
822 trauma on left parietal bone and infectious lesions on the endocranial surface of the  
823 occipital. Linear enamel hypoplasia was observed on the permanent upper central incisors  
824 and the deciduous canines display evidence of non-alimentary use. Dating of human bone:  
825 2857-2505 cal BCE (4095±26 BP, MAMS-33537)  
826
- 827       ▪ ART011 (S220-1) is a ca. 30-year-old female represented by a skull and disarticulated long  
828 bones found on the floor of a dwelling from Period VI B2, together with other bones from  
829 ART009 and ART010. No pathology was found on preserved cranial bones. Dating: 2839-  
830 2581 cal BCE (4103±26 BP, MAMS-33538)  
831
- 832       ▪ ART012 (H331) is a young adult female represented by a skull found on the floor of central  
833 room of Temple A (palatial complex of Period VI A) lying next to the skull of a wild pig.  
834 No pathology was found on this skull. Dating of human bone: 3338-3031 cal  
835 BCE (4479±27 BP, MAMS-33539)  
836

837 S216 is a simple pit containing a collective burial of human remains belonging to a minimum of  
838 16 individuals. The pit is partly sealed by a VI B2 floor surface and cuts VI B1 levels of occupation  
839 of Arslantepe. There are also bone fragments of animals. This pit is not a burial type that is  
840 encountered in this period in Anatolia or neighboring areas. The human remains in this secondary  
841 burial consist of unarticulated cranial and post-cranial bones. Some small bones such as  
842 metacarpals, metatarsals and phalanges are also present but they are very few compared to the long  
843 bones and crania. Bioarchaeological studies of the human remains suggest that there are at least  
844 13 adult crania. Moreover, three sub-adults are also present among the human remains. A total of  
845 eight out of the 13 adult crania have signs of perimortem blunt forced traumas (Erdal, 2012b).  
846 Petrous bones from the following eleven individuals were analysed for DNA:

- 847
- 848       ▪ ART014 (S216 Cr2) is the cranium of a male individual. Dating of human bone: 3492-  
849 3119 cal BCE (4573±27 BP, MAMS-33540)  
850
- 851       ▪ ART015 (S216 Cr3) is the cranium of a male individual with a perimortem and two healed  
852 traumas. Dating of human bone: 3369-3110 cal BCE (4557±25 BP, MAMS-33541)  
853

- 854       ▪ ART017 (S216 Cr8) is the cranium of a male individual. No pathology was observed.  
855       Dating of human bone: 3351-3103 cal BCE (4516±25 BP, MAMS-33542)  
856
- 857       ▪ ART018 (S216 Cr9) is the cranium of a male individual. No pathology was observed.  
858       Dating of human bone: 3491-3122 cal BCE (4573±25 BP, MAMS-33543)  
859
- 860       ▪ ART019 (S216 Cr10) is the cranium of a male individual. No pathology was observed.  
861       Dating of human bone: 3499-3355 cal BCE (4623±24 BP, MAMS-33544)  
862
- 863       ▪ ART020 (S216 Cr11) is the cranium of an individual with one healed and one unhealed  
864       trauma on the left parietal bone. Dating of human bone: 3362-3105 cal BCE (4536±25, BP  
865       MAMS-33545)  
866
- 867       ▪ ART022 (S216 Cr13) is the cranium of an individual with one perimortem trauma on the  
868       right parieto-temporal region. Dental diseases were also detected. Dating of human bone:  
869       3642-3137 cal BCE (4681±75 BP, MAMS-33546)  
870
- 871       ▪ ART023 (S216 Cr14) is the cranium of a male individual with one healed trauma on the  
872       right parietal and one perimortem trauma on the left parietal. Dating of human bone: 3486-  
873       3117 cal BCE (4563±25 BP, MAMS-33547)  
874
- 875       ▪ ART024 (S216 Temp1) is an isolated temporal bone of a male individual. Dating of human  
876       bone: 3497-3352 cal BCE (4614±24 BP, MAMS-33548)  
877
- 878       ▪ ART026 (S216 Temp3) is an isolated temporal bone of a female individual. Dating of  
879       human bone: 3340-3096 cal BCE (4491±26 BP, MAMS-33549)  
880
- 881       ▪ ART027 (S216 Temp4), temporal bones of a male individual. Dating of human bone: 3365-  
882       3108 cal BCE (4546±25 BP, MAMS-33550)  
883
- 884       ▪ ART032 (A1335 rP4 B) is represented by sparse human bones found under the floor of  
885       entrance of a communal building from Period VI B1. Dating of human bone: 3484-3124  
886       cal BCE (4568±21 BP, MAMS-34110)  
887
- 888       ▪ ART038 [S150 (H221)] is a young female from Period VI B1/VI B2 lying on top of stone  
889       slabs closing the Royal tomb. Probably sacrificed. Dating of human bone: 3361-3105 cal  
890       BCE (4534±27 BP, MAMS-34112)  
891
- 892       ▪ ART039 [C7-D7 (H378)] is represented by a disturbed mandible stratigraphically  
893       contemporary to the burial ground of the end of Period VII. Dating of human tooth: 3762-



894 3646 cal BCE (4916±27 BP, MAMS-34116)

895

896 ■ ART042 [S254 (H382)] is an infant in a jar burial from burial ground belonging to the end  
897 of Period VII. Dating of human bone: 3941-3708 cal BCE (5014±29 BP, MAMS-34119)

898

899

900 *Boğazköy-Büyükkaya, Turkey*

901 40.022056°N, 34.620611°E

902 Excavation: Boğazköy Expedition of the German Archaeological Institute (Istanbul Section),  
903 1996-1998, directed by Jürgen Seeher

904 The settlement on the rock massif Büyükkaya (Çorum Province), within the boundaries of the later  
905 Hittite capital Hattuša, is, so far, the oldest known settlement in North-Central Turkey (Schoop,  
906 2005; Schoop, 2018). A small hamlet-sized village was situated on the uppermost plateau of  
907 Büyükkaya, high above the later city area, from where it overlooked the southern end of the  
908 Budaközü Valley. Although detailed information about the palaeo-environment of the area is  
909 lacking, this area must have been covered by forest in the past and offered few of the open spaces  
910 which are more typical for other parts of Anatolia.

911 Later use of the location is responsible for the fragmentary preservation of the site. Covering an  
912 area of ca. 300 sqm at the southern end of the plateau, a number of floors, hearths and storage pits  
913 were found which indicated the (probably short-lived) existence of a few small wooden structures  
914 above a fill consisting of burnt *pisé* material. At the western limit of the site, the segment of a  
915 narrow ditch was found. A single grave, belonging to a young child, was found beneath a strip of  
916 flooring, not far from one of the hearths.

917 Very few small finds were recovered, including a number of sickle blades made from local flint, a  
918 few heavy stone pounders and a series of fragments of polished marble bracelets. The pastoral  
919 economy relied predominantly on the exploitation of cattle, sheep and goats (von den Driesch and  
920 Nadja, 2004).

921 The pottery of this small settlement displays the dark-faced, burnished surfaces which are typical  
922 for the Anatolian north of this time. A small number of sherds are decorated in stab-and-drag  
923 technique or painted on a white slip. Although the assemblage is certainly representative of a  
924 discrete cultural entity which has not yet discovered elsewhere, there are clear morphological links  
925 towards contemporary Early Chalcolithic societies further to the west (Eskişehir area) and the  
926 south (Cappadocia/the Central Anatolian Plain).

927 Two radiocarbon dates, taken from human bone (see below) and from charcoal recovered from  
928 one of the pits, indicate a chronological position of the settlement within the second quarter of the  
929 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BC (Schoop et al., 2012).

930 The single individual from Boğazköy-Büyükkaya produced genome-wide data and is included in  
931 genetic analyses.

932

- 933       ▪ CBT018 (Grave 347/410-315) is an infant aged 6-12 months (Thomas, 2012; Schoop et al.,  
934       2012) buried in a pit grave without any goods. The skeleton was found in contracted body  
935       position. In all probability, this grave represents an intramural burial below a house floor.  
936       Dating of human bone: 5626-5515 cal BCE (6635±30 BP, SUERC-36800 [GU25423]).  
937

938

939   *Çamlıbel Tarlası, Turkey*

940   40.019745°N, 34.586129°E

941   Excavation: Boğazköy Expedition of the German Archaeological Institute (Istanbul Section) /  
942   University of Edinburgh, 2007-2009, directed by Ulf-Dietrich Schoop

943   Çamlıbel Tarlası is a small settlement situated on a low plateau within a narrow lateral valley  
944   branching off the southern end of the main Budaközü Valley (Çorum Province), approximately  
945   2.5 km west of the earlier site on Büyükkaya (Schoop, 2015). The site was the location of a small  
946   hamlet which never comprised more than three to five contemporary houses. There are three  
947   distinctive and relatively short periods of permanent human presence at Çamlıbel Tarlası. In  
948   between these habitation phases, the site continued to be visited on a seasonal bases, probably by  
949   the same community, as shown by the remnants of continued agricultural and other activities  
950   during these times.

951   One attracting factor of the location appears to have been the presence of copper ore outcrops  
952   further into the valley. Within the settlement, fragments of copper ore, slag and crucibles show  
953   metallurgical as well as other pyrotechnical activities such as the production of enstatite (artificial  
954   steatite), quicklime and charcoal-burning. Beginning environmental degradation in the  
955   surroundings may have been a consequence of these fuel-intensive activities (Marsh, 2010).

956   Houses had walls constructed from stamped *pisé* on stone bases. Many had domed bread ovens in  
957   their interiors, standing on floors made from stamped earth or lime plaster. One ÇBT III building  
958   (S3 “Burnt House”) clearly had a special, probably ritualistic purpose. Notable finds include a  
959   casting mould for ring-shaped figurines, enstatite micro-beads, Cappadocian obsidian and blades  
960   made from exotic flint. The pastoral economy showed an emphasis on cattle and pig-raising, with  
961   evidence of secondary product use for cattle and caprines (Bartosiewicz and Gillis, 2011). The  
962   plant-based economy suggests the working of small, intensively tended agricultural plots, with a  
963   high importance of legumes (Papadopoulou and Bogaard, 2012).

964   A total of 17 graves were retrieved during excavations. The majority belonged to infants and  
965   children (Thomas, 2011; Thomas, 2017). Most of the stratigraphically attributable graves belong  
966   to ÇBT II and a small number to ÇBT III. Two adults seem to have been buried at times when the  
967   site was uninhabited. Babies and younger children (up to two years) were found in large pottery  
968   containers, within which their bones were not usually encountered in articulated arrangement.  
969   Elder children and adults, by contrast, were buried in narrow pits, as intact skeletons in contracted  
970   body position. With the possible exception of Graves 4 and 13, none of the burials contained any  
971   grave goods. Most children were encountered in exterior spaces, in close proximity to the house  
972   walls. Deviating from this scheme, three graves (2,16 and 17) were found below the floors of two

973 separate structures. Remarkably, DNA analysis has shown these three individuals to be siblings  
974 (see Figure S1). Human remains and a large set of animal bones were subjected to stable-isotope  
975 analysis (Pickard et al., 2017; Pickard et al., 2016).

976 Radiocarbon analysis conducted on plant seeds and human bone show a short chronological span  
977 of the whole sequence of 70 to 140 years toward the middle of the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE (3676/3535  
978 to 3634/3508 cal BCE cal; 17 samples) (Schoop et al., 2009). Çamlıbel Tarlası and the nearby site  
979 of Yarikkaya constitute a variant of a larger cultural entity whose best-known representative is the  
980 Late Chalcolithic settlement at the base of Alişar Höyük (Schoop, 2011).

981 Twelve individuals from Çamlıbel Tarlası produced genome-wide genetic data and are included  
982 in genetic analyses.

983

984 ■ CBT001 (Grave 1, ÇBT 204-1103) is a 9-15 months-old infant in a jar burial in  
985 juxtaposition to the west wall of building S9 (ÇBT II), under a strip of external flooring.  
986 Dating of human bone: 3632-3378 cal BCE (4725±20 BP, MAMS-41627).

987

988 ■ CBT002 (Grave 2, ÇBT 327-921) is a 9-15 months-old infant in an intramural jar burial  
989 within one of two immediately juxtaposed pits under ÇBT II building S11. The outlines of  
990 the neighbouring empty pit were marked and visible on the surface of the floor. Traces of  
991 red ochre were found on some of the bones. This grave also contained a few bones of a  
992 second individuum, a second trimester foetus. Dating of human bone: 3652-3525 cal BCE  
993 (4809±30 BP, MAMS-41630).

994

995 ■ CBT003 (Grave 3, ÇBT 80-1086) is a 2-4 years-old infant, probably buried in contracted  
996 body position. The burial was fragmentary and came from a disturbed ÇBT II-III context  
997 but is possibly associated with the “Burnt House” S3 (ÇBT III). No grave goods were found.

998

999 ■ CBT004 (Grave 4, ÇBT 406-3224) is a 8-10 years-old infant buried in a pit grave from a  
1000 ÇBT II/III context. The skeleton was recovered in an extremely contracted body position.  
1001 Copper staining on the upward-facing mandible and disturbance of vertebrae suggest that  
1002 the grave was re-opened and that a metallic artefact was recovered at some point after the  
1003 burial. Dating of human bone: 3636-3521 cal BCE (4765±20 BP, MAMS-41628).

1004

1005 ■ CBT005 (Grave 5, ÇBT 464-4072) is a 6-8 years-old child in a pit grave with the skeleton  
1006 in contracted body position. This grave was found close to a major ÇBT IV building (S6),  
1007 dug into virgin soil and covered by topsoil (context ÇBT I-IV). Dating of human bone:  
1008 3630- 3377 cal BCE (4713±21 BP, MAMS-41629).

1009

1010 ■ CBT010 (Grave 10, ÇBT 923-5423) is a 2<sup>nd</sup>-3<sup>rd</sup> trimester foetus in a jar burial cut into  
1011 bedrock, associated with a fragmentary ÇBT III building above.

1012

- 1013       ▪ CBT011 (Grave 11, ÇBT 970-6074) is a 7-9 years-old child buried in a pit grave with the  
1014 skeleton in contracted body position. The grave was in an external area, in juxtaposition to  
1015 the southeast wall of building S21 (ÇBT II).  
1016
- 1017       ▪ CBT013 (Grave 13, ÇBT 950-6118) is a 6-8 years-old child buried in a pit grave with the  
1018 skeleton in contracted body position. The burial was found under an auxiliary structure to  
1019 the building S21 (ÇBT II). A bent copper perforator was found underneath the skull bones.  
1020 Dating of human bone: 3643-3526 cal BCE (4796±23 BP, MAMS-41631).  
1021
- 1022       ▪ CBT014 (Grave 14, ÇBT 971-6144) is a 4-5 years-old child buried in a pit grave with the  
1023 skeleton in contracted body position. The burial was found in an external area close to the  
1024 building S29 (ÇBT II). Dating of human bone: 3640-3385 cal BCE (4767±28 BP, MAMS-  
1025 41632).  
1026
- 1027       ▪ CBT015 (Grave 15, ÇBT 978-6140) is a foetus - 3 months-old infant in a jar burial below  
1028 the building S21 (ÇBT II). Dating of human bone: 3643-3522 cal BCE (4787±28 BP,  
1029 MAMS-41633).  
1030
- 1031       CBT016 (Grave 16, ÇBT 894-5819) is a 1.5-2.5 years-old infant in a jar burial below the  
1032 east room of the building S25 (ÇBT II). The location of the grave was marked by a circle  
1033 of stones set in the floor. This grave also contained a rib from a second individuum, a foetus.  
1034 Dating of human bone: 3692-3527 cal BCE (4828±29 BP, MAMS-41634).  
1035
- 1036       ▪ CBT017 (Grave 17, ÇBT 1010-5876) is a 12-15 months-old infant whose skeletal remains  
1037 were poorly preserved. The burial was possibly a pit grave found under a strip of flooring  
1038 under the west room of building S25 (ÇBT II).  
1039

1041 *İkiztepe, Turkey*

1042 41.6136944°N, 35.8711361°E

1043 Excavation: Istanbul University, from 1974 to 2012, directed by late U. Bahadır Alkım and Önder  
1044 Bilgi

1045 İkiztepe is a prehistoric site in the Black Sea Region in Anatolia, Turkey. The site is located 7 km  
1046 west of modern town of Bafra in Samsun province, on a hilly area, 9 km north of actual seashore  
1047 of Black Sea (Bilgi, 2004; Özdemir and Erdal, 2012). İkiztepe means twin mounds in Turkish,  
1048 however it actually consists of four mounds (I-IV). All these mounds were settled from the Early  
1049 Chalcolithic period up to the Early Hittite period. A total of 700 simple pit graves, dated to the  
1050 Late Chalcolithic period and belonging to the dwellers of Mound III, were excavated in the  
1051 extramural graveyard in Mound I (Bilgi, 2004). Human remains, which are extremely well

1052 preserved in terms of bone and collagen contents, are housed in the Hacettepe University Skeletal  
1053 Biology Laboratory (Husbio-L).

1054 İkiztepe is surrounded by modern Bafra plain formed by the alluvial deposits of Kızılırmak and  
1055 some lagoons on the sea shore (Alkım et al., 1988). It is suggested that the settlement was located  
1056 on the edge of the Black Sea during the time it was settled (Bilgi, 2000). Kızılırmak, 7 km to the  
1057 east of the site at the present time, was running close to the settlement. The lifestyle of İkiztepe  
1058 people was dependent on agriculture. However, the studies on animal remains and human mobility  
1059 suggest that pastoral lifestyle might have also been important for these people (Welton, 2010).  
1060 Dietary habits of the people were mainly based on the terrestrial C3 food sources (Irvine, 2017).  
1061 Sulfur and nitrogen isotopes do not support a nutrition model that is composed of seafood and  
1062 freshwater food sources.

1063 Almost all the individuals at İkiztepe were excavated in simple pit burials without a standard  
1064 tendency concerning the direction of the bodies. Except for the other Anatolian Late Chalcolithic  
1065 and Early Bronze Age settlements, İkiztepe individuals were buried in supine position with the  
1066 arms parallel to the body. Plenty of metal objects such as spearhead, dagger, harpoon, hook, spiral,  
1067 ring and bracelet were found together with burials (Bilgi, 2004). Metal objects were produced by  
1068 arsenical copper alloy. However, golden and silver rings, earrings, amulets, and pendants were  
1069 also found. The number of grave goods tends to increase with the age of individuals. Moreover,  
1070 there are some important differences between genders: males were buried mostly with weapons  
1071 such as spearheads and quadruple spirals, on the other hand, females were buried with jewellery,  
1072 pottery and daggers.

1073 A total of eleven individuals from İkiztepe produced genome-wide data and are included in genetic  
1074 analyses.

1075

- 1076 ■ IKI002 (IT SK528) is a 50 to 60-year-old female in a primary simple pit burial. The  
1077 individual was buried in supine position with the legs extended and the arms parallel to the  
1078 body. The skeleton was well preserved except from some missing long bones (right and  
1079 left ulna and tibia, right radius). Grave goods include a stone necklace and a spearhead.  
1080 The remains displayed evidence of a possible dermoid cyst on the skull, a healed fracture  
1081 on a rib, moderate osteoporosis, moderate osteoarthritis on the vertebra and caries on upper  
1082 third molar. Small amount of dental calculus and mild were also observed. Dating of human  
1083 tooth: 3338-3095 cal BCE (4488±22 BP, MAMS-40673)

1084

- 1085 ■ IKI009 (IT SK552) is a 18 to 28-year-old female in a primary simple pit burial. The  
1086 individual was buried in supine position, extending southeast to northwest with the legs  
1087 extended, the arms parallel to the body, and the skull facing left. The left arm, the pelvis  
1088 and both femur bones are missing. Among the grave goods three spearheads were found.  
1089 The remains display evidence of infection on the maxillary sinus (sinusitis), mild porotic  
1090 hyperostosis, small amount of calculus and enamel hypoplasia on the anterior teeth. Dating  
1091 of human tooth: 3366-3115 cal BCE (4552±22 BP, MAMS-40674)

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- IKI012 (IT SK567) is a 25 to 46-year-old female in supine position, extending east to west with the legs extended, the right arm on the abdominal cavity, the left arm on the chest, and the skull facing right. The preservation of the skeleton was very good. Grave goods included a spearhead. The remains exhibit presence of two healed depression traumas on the skull, mild osteoarthritis on thoracic vertebra. Small amount of calculus and enamel hypoplasia on anterior teeth were also observed. Dating of human tooth: 3368-3118 cal BCE (4557±22 BP, MAMS-40675)
  - IKI016 (IT SK581) is a 45 to 70-year-old female in supine position, extending west to east with the legs extended, the arms parallel to the body, and the skull facing left. All bones are present. Grave goods include two daggers, a spearhead, a bowl, two gold earrings, a frit necklace and a lead pendant. The remains exhibit presence of an unhealed fracture on a rib, mild osteoarthritis on joints and vertebra, Schmorl's nodes on thoracic and lumbar vertebra, and small amount calculus. Dating of human tooth: 3518-3371 cal BCE (4671±22 BP, MAMS-40676)
  - IKI017 (IT SK593) is a 63 to 70-year-old female in supine position, extending southeast to northwest with the legs extended and the arms parallel to the body. The skeleton is well preserved except from some missing long bones (right forearm, right tibia). A spearhead and earrings are among the grave goods. The remains exhibit presence of moderate osteoarthritis on the joints and the lumbar vertebra, caries on the upper second molar, small amount of calculus, enamel hypoplasia on both anterior and posterior dentition and moderate periodontitis. Dating of human tooth: 3494-3124 cal BCE (4580±26 BP, MAMS-40677)
  - IKI024 (IT SK635) is a 25 to 35-year-old male, in supine position. All bones are complete and well preserved. The remains of this individual exhibit a number of pathologies: a healed fracture on left radius, a healed fracture on fifth metacarpal, periostitis on anterior surfaces of tibia and fibula, moderately developed porotic hyperostosis, severe osteoarthritis on the distal end of left ulna possibly because of the fracture on left radius, mild osteoarthritis on thoracic and lumbar vertebra, three dental caries on both upper and lower posterior dentition, small amount of calculus, linear enamel hypoplasia on the upper anterior dentition, periapical abscess on the lower third molar and mild periodontitis. Dating of human tooth: 3958-3799 cal BCE (5080±27 BP, MAMS-40678)
  - IKI030 (IT SK652) is a 45 to 60-year-old female, in supine position. The skeleton is complete and well preserved. The remains of this individual exhibit a number of pathologies: a healing fracture on a rib, infection on the internal surface of a rib, severe osteoporosis, mildly developed osteoarthritis on thoracic and lumbar vertebra, antemortem

1132 loss of upper second molar, 4 dental caries on posterior dentition, moderate calculus,  
1133 periapical abscess on upper first molars and severe periodontitis. Dating of human tooth:  
1134 3512-3357 cal BCE (4536±26 BP, MAMS-40679)

1135  
1136 ■ IKI034 (IT SK665) is a 14 to 15-year-old child in supine position, extending west to east.  
1137 The state of the skeleton's preservation was fair. No grave goods were found. The remains  
1138 exhibit evidence of a healed depression trauma on skull, small amount of dental calculus  
1139 on the anterior dentition and linear enamel hypoplasia on both anterior and posterior  
1140 dentitions. Dating of human tooth: 3500-3352 cal BCE (4623±26 BP, MAMS-40680)

1141  
1142 ■ IKI036 (IT SK668) is a 30 to 40-year-old female in supine position, extending west to east  
1143 with the skull facing right. The skeleton was well preserved except from distal ends of tibia  
1144 and feet which were missing. Grave goods consist of a frit necklace and a ring. The remains  
1145 exhibit the following pathologies: a healed depression trauma on skull, mildly developed  
1146 osteoarthritis on lumbar vertebra, nine dental caries on both upper and lower posterior  
1147 dentitions, small amount of dental calculus and linear enamel hypoplasia on all teeth.  
1148 Dating of human tooth: 3627-3374 cal BCE (4700±26 BP, MAMS-40681)

1149  
1150 ■ IKI037 (IT SK675) is a 35 to 40-year-old male, extending south to north, scattered. The  
1151 skeleton was found complete. Grave goods include a spearhead and a frit necklace. The  
1152 following pathologies were detected on the remains: three healed depression traumas on  
1153 skull, both healed and unhealed fractures on carpals and phalanges, healed green stick  
1154 fractures on three ribs, small sized auditory exostoses on both ear holes, mild osteoarthritis  
1155 on carpals and metacarpals, Schmorl's nodes on thoracic and lumbar vertebra, two dental  
1156 caries on upper posterior dentition, small amount of calculus, linear enamel hypoplasia on  
1157 both upper and lower anterior teeth. Dating of human tooth: 3635-3382 cal BCE (4748±29  
1158 BP, MAMS-40682)

1159  
1160 ■ IKI038 (IT SK677) is a 45 to 50-year-old female in supine position, extending south to  
1161 north. The preservation state of the remains was very good. No grave goods were found.  
1162 The remains exhibit multiple healed and unhealed fractures on ribs, a small sized button  
1163 osteoma on frontal, mildly developed osteoarthritis on joints, thoracic and lumbar vertebra.  
1164 Dating of human tooth: 3633-3381 cal BCE (4738±26 BP, MAMS-40683)

1165  
1166

1167 *Mentesh Tepe, Azerbaijan*

1168 40.9418889°N, 45.8327778°E

1169 Excavation: French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, CNRS and French-German ANR, 2008-2015,  
1170 directed by Bertille Lyonnet and Farhad Guliyev

1171 The small mound of Mentesh Tepe on the lower fan of the Zeyem Chaj – an affluent of the left  
1172 bank of the Kura River, originally probably covered 0.5 ha but had been totally destroyed recently  
1173 or lays beneath modern houses. Remains of its lower/main occupations were preserved under the  
1174 surface. Three main periods interrupted by gaps of several centuries have been identified. The  
1175 earliest (period I) is related to the Late Neolithic Shomu-Shulaveri Culture (SSC) with circular  
1176 architecture both above ground and partly dug into it, and is dated by radiocarbon dates between  
1177 ca. 5770-5600 BCE (Lyonnet et al., 2016). However, being on the most eastern edge of the SSC,  
1178 it also presents some specific features, and relations with areas further east in the Mil'-Karabagh  
1179 Steppe have been underlined (Lyonnet, 2017). This period provided several infant burials and an  
1180 exceptional collective grave most probably dug into an abandoned circular house with 30  
1181 individuals of mixed ages and sexes in primary position, with no evidence of trauma, enamel  
1182 hypoplasia or other pathology indicating a violent episode or starvation (Pecqueur and Jovenet,  
1183 2017). After a long abandonment, a very light reoccupation probably by mobile groups is dated to  
1184 ca. 4600 BCE (period II). It was followed ca. 4350-4100 BCE by an important settlement (period  
1185 III) with a totally new rectangular, and possibly tripartite, architecture. This with several other  
1186 features in the material culture point at relations with the eastern areas of the Mugan Steppe and  
1187 with Northern Mesopotamia (Lyonnet, 2012). Copper-based metallurgy shows a quick  
1188 development (Courcier et al., 2016). This period at Mentesh clearly announces the further  
1189 development and tighter relations between Southern Caucasus (Leilatepe culture) and Northern  
1190 Mesopotamia (LC2-3) in the first half of the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE (Akhundov, 2007; Lyonnet,  
1191 2007). Not very far from Mentesh, on the right bank of the Kura River, the same team excavated  
1192 kurgans at Soyuq Bulaq dating to this first half of the 4<sup>th</sup> millennium, with one rather richly  
1193 furnished with a copper knife, a stone scepter, lapis, gold and silver-copper beads. These kurgans  
1194 are clearly related on the one hand to those of Sé Girdan on the south of Lake Urmia and on the  
1195 other to those of the Maykop culture (Lyonnet et al., 2008), as well as to the Leilatepe culture.  
1196 Mentesh Tepe was abandoned during all this period and later only used for burials (period IV). A  
1197 first kurgan was built for collective/ successive inhumations (at least 39 individuals) and used  
1198 during the early phase of the Kura-Araxes culture in the second half of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC. The  
1199 kurgan was put to fire at the end, leaving the human bones in a very bad state of preservation  
1200 (Lyonnet, 2014; Poulmarc'h et al., 2014). The site was possibly short-term occupied after that,  
1201 until a second kurgan was built ca. 2500-2400 BCE, containing three individuals and a four-wheel  
1202 cart. Its rather rich material – gold and carnelian beads and ring, an imported shell ring, spirals of  
1203 tin-bronze, a silver small casket and a good amount of pottery – relate it to the Martkopi phase of  
1204 the so-called Early Kurgan Culture (Pecqueur et al., 2017), a period when long distance  
1205 connections develop (Lyonnet, 2016).  
1206 Extensive genetic characterisation of the Late Neolithic population of Mentesh Tepe is being  
1207 conducted by CNRS UMR 7206/MNHN USM 104. Here, we analysed one individual from the  
1208 Late Neolithic collective burial of Mentesh Tepe which produced genome-wide data and was  
1209 included in the genetic analyses.  
1210



1211       ▪ MTT001 (Grave 342 20 7,12; Individual 1) is an immature individual aged between 10 and  
1212       14 years buried in the Late Neolithic collective grave. The skeleton, the last to be buried of  
1213       a group of 30 individuals, was found lying face down with the legs twisted. In this  
1214       collective grave, the imbrication of some of the skeletons tend to point at simultaneous  
1215       inhumations, while a layer of sediment covers others indicating a possible lapse of time  
1216       between them. The good bone preservation and their excavation by a group of  
1217       anthropologists provided many details. They show a not natural distribution of sexes (more  
1218       women than men) and ages (no infant less than one year, many immatures (65%)). For  
1219       more details see Pecqueur and Jovenet (2017). Dating of human bone: 7010±45 BP (Sac  
1220       A 41508/Gif-13016); dating of human tooth: 5717-5670 cal BCE (6802±23 BP, MAMS-  
1221       40333)

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1223

1224 *Polutepe, Azerbaijan*

1225 39.5186111°N, 48.6500000°E

1226 Excavation: Mughan Neolithic-Eneolithic expedition of the Institute of Archaeology and  
1227 Ethnography of Azerbaijan National Academy of Sciences, 2006-2017, directed by Tufan Isaak  
1228 oglu Akhundov

1229 The site of Polutepe is situated on the south coast of Injachay river, on the territory of Uchtepe  
1230 village, in the Jalilabad district of Azerbaijan. It is a narrow belt (zone) of the eastern part of the  
1231 Mughan steppe limited by the spurs of Brovary Range to the west and the Caspian Sea to the east.  
1232 Presently, the settlement is represented by a 6-ha ashy hill of up to 6 m high. Its central part is  
1233 occupied by the modern cemetery of Uchtepe village. Extensive excavations have revealed cultural  
1234 layers of 7 m thick. The upper layer of the site's deposits is 1 m thick and is represented by the  
1235 remains of a Medieval settlement related to the IX-XI centuries CE. It is saturated with a large  
1236 number of simple and glazed ceramics characteristic of the above-mentioned time.

1237 The lower 6 m layer of cultural deposits of the settlement belongs to the Neolithic period. It  
1238 contains various remains of Neolithic material culture characteristic of other Neolithic settlements  
1239 of this region and which were defined by us as "Mughan Neolithic" culture. A large number of  
1240 remains of ceramic utensils, bone and stone tools and other objects, burials of Neolithic inhabitants  
1241 of this settlement, remains of different constructions from adobe and kilns for baking of ceramics  
1242 were revealed in the different construction horizons of this layer. The greatest part of the excavated  
1243 area represents a productive sector of the settlement and the revealed constructions are mainly  
1244 represented by the remains of different round-planned, oval and rectangular barriers.

1245 The unearthed burials of the settlement's inhabitants included individuals of mixed sex and all age  
1246 groups, from babies to old adults aged several dozen years. The burial rituals had been performed  
1247 in shallow pits on different plots among the constructions. The deceased were placed in crouched  
1248 position of different degrees. Often, they were covered by red ochre and were decorated with beads  
1249 that were furnished by ceramic bowl. The lower horizons of the cultural layers revealed a cult  
1250 hearth and more than two dozen small stylised female clay figures.

1251 In the stretch between the Medieval and Neolithic layers ruins and separate findings of ceramics  
1252 belonging to Kura-Araxes culture and different stages of the Middle Bronze Age have been  
1253 revealed as well (Akhundov, 2011; Akhundov et al., 2017).

1254 One individual from Polutepe was analysed for aDNA and is included in genetic analyses.

1255

- 1256 ■ POT002 (Polutepe Burial N2) is an infant buried in a pit in a crouched position and the  
1257 head orientated to the north-west. The burial was unearthed at 2.4 m depth from the  
1258 Neolithic layer (approximately 10 m below the earth). The remains of the infant were very  
1259 poorly preserved. Dating of human tooth: 5508-5376 cal BCE (6491±26 BP, MAMS-  
1260 40331)

1261

1262

1263 *Tell Atchana (Alalakh), Turkey*

1264 36.23778°N, 36.38472°E

1265 Excavation: Trustees of the British Museum, 1937-1939 and 1946-1949, directed by Sir Leonard  
1266 Woolley; Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2003-present, directed by Kutlu Aslıhan Yener  
1267 Tell Atchana is located at the southward bend of the Orontes River in the Amuq Valley in the  
1268 modern state of Hatay, Turkey (Yener, 2005; Yener, 2010). The latest chronology [see Yener  
1269 (2013a), Yener et al. (2019)] puts the foundation of the site in the terminal Early Bronze Age or  
1270 the earliest Middle Bronze Age (ca. 2200-2000 BCE) and the abandonment of the city in the Late  
1271 Bronze Age at ca. 1300 BCE, with an Iron Age re-occupation constituting Level O (ca. 1190-750  
1272 BCE). Three hundred and forty-two burials have been documented to date, although 151 of these  
1273 were excavated in the initial excavations in the 1930s and 1940s, conducted by Sir Leonard  
1274 Woolley (Woolley, 1955), and the skeletal remains were not preserved. The remaining 180 graves  
1275 have been discovered since 2003 as part of the renewed excavations directed by K. Aslıhan Yener.  
1276 Of these, 134 were found in an extramural cemetery just outside the city fortification wall in Area  
1277 3 on the northeast slope of the mound (Akar, 2017a; Ingman, 2017; Yener and Yazıcıoğlu, 2010),  
1278 while the remaining 57 were within the city in various locations, e.g. in abandoned buildings, in  
1279 courtyards, etc., 26 of which were found in 2015-2019 in Area 4 in what seems to be a designated  
1280 cemetery area. The overwhelming majority of the graves are single, simple pit burials, although  
1281 multiple burials, cist graves, pot burials, secondary burials, and cremations have also been found  
1282 in smaller numbers, as well as two constructed tombs, the Plastered Tomb in the extramural  
1283 cemetery and the Shaft Grave in the Level VII (Middle Bronze II) palace (Woolley, 1939;  
1284 Woolley, 1955). The preservation of the burials varies widely, with those in the extramural  
1285 cemetery often badly preserved and heavily disturbed, due to proximity to topsoil, slope wash, and  
1286 other post-depositional processes (Akar, 2017a; Ingman, 2017) and those which are within the city  
1287 walls typically much better preserved. Types and numbers of grave goods also varies with burial  
1288 context, with grave goods being much rarer in the extramural cemetery, typically consisting of one  
1289 or two ceramic vessels and perhaps a single piece of jewellery [typically either a metal pin or a

1290 beaded bracelet/necklace; (Ingman, 2017)]. In the burials within the city, though, grave goods  
1291 generally are much more numerous and varied (Ingman, 2020).  
1292 Little is known about the city's early history, given the very small areas exposed to date, but he  
1293 material culture recovered belongs largely to the Northwest Syrian so-called Amorite horizon,  
1294 including especially Syro-Cilician Ware ceramics (Bulu, 2016; Bulu, 2017; Heinz, 1992; Woolley,  
1295 1955). Sometime during this period, Alalakh and Mukish became subservient to the Amorite  
1296 kingdom of Yamhad, based in Aleppo, and the kings of Alalakh had close familial ties to the kings  
1297 of Yamhad (Klengel, 1992; Lauinger, 2015). Most of our understanding of Middle Bronze Age  
1298 Alalakh comes from the end of the period, in Period 7, where a large palace with an archive and  
1299 an attached temple, as well as a tripartite city gate, the city's fortification wall, and another  
1300 potential temple have been found (Woolley, 1955; Yener, 2015a; Yener, 2015b). This period  
1301 marks the first real evidence of a nascent internationalism at Alalakh (Akar, 2017a), and it ends  
1302 with a large-scale fire that burned the Royal Precinct (Klengel, 1992; Woolley, 1955), often  
1303 attributed to the Hittite king Hattušili I in the course of his campaigns into Syria against Yamhad  
1304 (Bryce, 2005). Although the precise date of the Period 7 destruction has not yet been fixed, it marks  
1305 a shift in material culture and is therefore taken as the end of the Middle Bronze age at the site, ca.  
1306 1650 BCE.

1307 The succeeding Late Bronze I, consisting of Periods 6-4 at Tell Atchana, can generally be  
1308 described as having a Hurrian/Mitannian character. This period is unclear not only at Tell Atchana,  
1309 but also across Syria more generally: the destruction of Aleppo and the kingdom of Yamhad by  
1310 the Hittites, accomplished shortly after the destruction of Alalakh, was followed by their  
1311 destruction of Babylon (Bryce, 2005; Klengel, 1992), ending the Amorite kingdoms and  
1312 apparently causing no small amount of chaos in the region (Akkermans and Schwartz, 2003). By  
1313 the early fifteenth century BCE, however, the kingdom of Mitanni, based at Washukanni in the  
1314 Upper Khabur [identified as Tell el Fekheriye;(Bartl and Bonatz, 2013)] had emerged from the  
1315 territories once controlled by Yamhad (Akkermans and Schwartz, 2003), and Alalakh became a  
1316 vassal to this new regional power. This period is most well-documented in Period 4 at the site,  
1317 which is characterised by a palace with archives documenting a Hurrian-style class system and  
1318 many Hurrian names (von Dassow, 2008), a temple, and other administrative buildings, such as  
1319 Woolley's Level IV Castle (Woolley, 1955). The material culture of Late Bronze I shows affinities  
1320 with the Hurrian world to the east, such as Nuzi Ware (Woolley, 1955; Yener et al., 2019), as well  
1321 as strong contacts with other, more far-flung regions, such as Cyprus (Woolley, 1955; Yener et al.,  
1322 2019). This period, like Period 7, ends with a site-wide burning ca. 1400 BCE that may be  
1323 associated with Tudhaliya II (Akar, 2019).

1324 Late Bronze II, Periods 3-1, represents the last stages of Mitanni vassalhood (Period 3) and the  
1325 take-over of the city by the Hittites and its incorporation into their empire [Periods 2-1;(Yener,  
1326 2013a; Yener et al., 2019)]. The major construction in this period were the Northern and Southern  
1327 Fortresses in Period 2 (Akar, 2013; Akar, 2019), which blend characteristics of Egyptian and  
1328 Hittite defensive architecture. The scale of the construction projects, the unusual building  
1329 techniques, and the hints of possible Hittite administration from this period, in the form of grain

1330 distribution tablets from probable late Period 3/early Period 2 contexts (von Dassow, 2005), all  
1331 suggest that Hittite Great King Suppiluliuma I took over the site, installing a vassal to rule as  
1332 governor [perhaps the Tudhaliya depicted on the basalt orthostat found by Woolley in the Level  
1333 Ib temple; (Woolley, 1955) and that either the king or his governor initiated the Fortresses'  
1334 construction (Yener et al., 2019). The arrival of the Hittites is also visible in the material culture  
1335 of the site at this time, with the introduction of several types of North Central Anatolian (NCA)  
1336 ceramics, typical of the Hittite homeland (Akar, 2017b; Horowitz, 2015; Horowitz, 2019), as well  
1337 as Hittite seals and sealings (Woolley, 1955), and a Hittite-style shaft hole axe (Yener, 2011).  
1338 Contacts with the Aegean world apparently increased, judging from the large quantities of  
1339 Mycenaean wares found in these periods, and the Mitannian Nuzi Ware developed into a local  
1340 style termed Atchana Ware which also continues to be found in great numbers (Yener et al., 2019).  
1341 The Late Bronze II occupation ends ca. 1300 BCE, when the city was abandoned, except for the  
1342 temple and perhaps several buildings around it, which continued in use into the mid-13th century  
1343 BCE (Yener, 2013a; Yener et al., 2019). Early Iron Age ceramics date partial architectural remains  
1344 to the mid-twelfth century BCE, testifying to a small-scale re-settlement in this period  
1345 (Montesanto, 2020; Pucci, 2020; Yener, 2013a). Another structure dating to Iron II has also  
1346 recently been identified above the Northern Fortress, demonstrating that small-scale occupation  
1347 continued, at least sporadically, at Tell Atchana, even while the main settlement moved to Tell  
1348 Tayinat, the Iron Age capital of the area, only 713 m away (Yener, 2013a).  
1349 A total of 26 individuals from Alalakh produced genome-wide data and are included in genetic  
1350 analyses.

1351  
1352     ▪ ALA001 (Square 45.71, Locus 03-3017, Pail 257, Skeleton 04-9), Burial 4 in the Plastered  
1353 Tomb (Yener, 2013b) in the Area 3 extramural cemetery, is the adult man [auricular age  
1354 estimation of 40-45 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] in the bottom layer of this  
1355 tomb. The remains exhibit the presence of Diffuse Idiopathic Skeletal Hyperostosis  
1356 (DISH), a joint disease characterised by the formation of new bone in the shape of flowing  
1357 melted wax found on the right side of thoracic vertebrae 4-10. DISH etiology is unclear,  
1358 but it is believed to be related to obesity and diabetes (Waldron, 2001). Several of the joints  
1359 and vertebrae exhibit signs of degenerative joint disease in the form of marginal  
1360 osteophytes and enthesophytes (Waldron, 2001). Examination of the dentition exhibited  
1361 two episodes of dental enamel hypoplasia correlating to the ages of 1.9/2.1 years and  
1362 4.5/4.7 years old, thus indicating two health disturbances that occurred during childhood  
1363 growth periods (Hillson, 2014). A piece of plaster had been inserted into his mouth. His  
1364 head was propped up with an s-curve jar, and in the area of his torso and pelvis were found  
1365 seven bronze pins and a silver toggle pin. Eight gold appliques stamped with rosettes were  
1366 around his head and chest, and a gold foil was to the left of his head. A Cypriot Base Ring  
1367 I jug was along the southeast wall of the tomb and another was near his right forearm; two  
1368 spindle bottles (one Red Lustrous Wheelmade Ware and one locally made in Red  
1369 Burnished Ware) were found, one placed in the south corner of the tomb and one at his left

1370 elbow; a Syrian Brown-Grey Burnished Ware cylindrical cup was in crook of his right arm  
1371 and another was found just above his left elbow; and, a Red Slipped narrow-necked jug  
1372 was along the southwest wall of the tomb. An amber pendant was found on his legs, along  
1373 with a bone spindle whorl, several pieces of chert, and beads of carnelian, bone, faience,  
1374 and glass were also discovered with the body. Two haunches of beef had been placed near  
1375 his left arm and left femur, and a caprid molar was also found with his remains, indicating  
1376 that food had been deposited with him. This is the single richest assemblage of grave goods  
1377 ever found with an individual at Tell Atchana. Dating of human bone: 1496-1325 cal BCE  
1378 (3151±24 BP, MAMS-33675).

1379  
1380 ■ ALA002 (Square 45.71, Locus 03-3017, Pail 246, Skeleton 04-8), Burial 2 in the Plastered  
1381 Tomb (Yener, 2013b) in the Area 3 extramural cemetery, is the young adult male [age  
1382 estimation of 19-21 years based on the different degrees of epiphyseal plates fusion  
1383 (Schaefer et al., 2009)] in the top layer of this tomb. The orbital bones exhibit *cribra*  
1384 *orbitalia*, along with porotic hyperostosis on both parietal bones located medially along  
1385 the coronal suture, indicating the body's response to a pathological condition (Rothschild  
1386 et al., 2002). Both humeri have the non-metric trait of Septal Aperture (Barnes, 2012). A  
1387 vertical bone had been placed inside his mouth. Six bronze pins were found around his  
1388 torso, along with a bone needle. Several gold appliques stamped with rosettes (one with  
1389 red pigment preserved on the stamped side) were found near his head, and he was wearing  
1390 an *in-situ* necklace of alternating gold, carnelian, and vitreous white beads. Additional  
1391 beads of the same materials were also found with this individual. A gold ring was found *in*  
1392 *situ* on his left thumb. Several clay pellets and pieces of chert, as well as two lumps of  
1393 vitrified material (one placed under his chin), were also found with this individual. Dating  
1394 of human bone: 1496-1401 cal BCE (3158±22 BP, MAMS-33676).

1395  
1396 ■ ALA004 (Square 45.72, Locus 03-3002, Pail 40, Skeleton 04-25) is an adult male [age  
1397 estimated as 40-45 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] found in a bone scatter that  
1398 likely represents a disturbed primary burial in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. The remains  
1399 are half complete and mixed with other individuals' remains. Both fibulae and the right  
1400 tibia all exhibit well-healed Periostitis (indicating an episode of infection or trauma) along  
1401 the medial shafts (Mann and Hunt, 2005). Marginal osteophytes and enthesopathy are  
1402 found on the pelvis and left shoulder (Waldron, 2001), a condition that is typical of old age.  
1403 The skull exhibits a well-healed trauma located on the left side of the frontal bone (Byers,  
1404 2011). No grave goods were recovered. Dating of human bone: 1895-1752 cal BCE  
1405 (3507±23 BP, MAMS-33677).

1406  
1407 ■ ALA008 (Square 45.44, Locus 133, AT 17652) is represented by an adult skull [with  
1408 features indicating a male, age estimation of 25-35 years (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)]  
1409 and several finger bones, although the simple pit grave continued into the east baulk, in the

- 1410 Area 3 extramural cemetery. No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1881-  
 1411 1700 cal BCE (3473±23 BP, MAMS-33678).  
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- 1413 ■ ALA011 (Square 45.44, Locus 146, AT 18960) is a child [3.5-4 years old (Schaefer et al.,  
 1414 2009)] buried in a simple pit grave inside a casemate within the Area 3 fortification wall  
 1415 (Ingman, 2014; Ingman, 2017). Only the legs and feet were within the square, as the grave  
 1416 extended into the north baulk. A Simple Fine Ware shoulder goblet was found in the baulk  
 1417 near the child's pelvis. Dating of human bone: 1741-1624 cal BCE (3382±23 BP, MAMS-  
 1418 33680).  
 1419
  - 1420 ■ ALA013 (Square 45.44, Locus 152, AT 19260) is an infant [dental age of 1.5-2 years old  
 1421 (Schaefer et al., 2009)] found in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. Age estimation based on  
 1422 skeletal long bone growth gave an age of 6-8 months (Schaefer et al., 2009), thus indicating  
 1423 that the child had stunted growth of around 1 year. The upper first molars exhibit the dental  
 1424 morphology feature of Carabelli's cusp (Scott and Irish, 2017). A bronze ring and a silver  
 1425 ring, two beaded necklaces, a Simple Ware biconical cup (at the left elbow), a Simple Ware  
 1426 globular juglet (at the left side of the pelvis), a Simple Ware short-neck jar (at the left  
 1427 elbow), and a piece of lead wire were found. Dating of human bone: 1878-1693 cal BCE  
 1428 (3457±24 BP, MAMS-33681).  
 1429
  - 1430 ■ ALA014 (Square 45.45, Loci 8 and 9, AT 8836) is an adult [age estimation of 35-55 years  
 1431 (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] found in a simple pit grave in the Area 3 extramural  
 1432 cemetery. There were no grave goods. Dating of human bone: 1743-1630 cal BCE  
 1433 (3392±23 BP, MAMS-33682).  
 1434
  - 1435 ■ ALA015 (Square 45.45, Loci 18 and 19, AT 15741) is an adult found in the Area 3  
 1436 extramural cemetery in a simple pit grave. A shell pendant was found in the grave. Dating  
 1437 of human bone: 2014-1781 BCE (3566±26 BP, MAMS-33683).  
 1438
  - 1439 ■ ALA016 (Square 32.54, Locus 85, AT 17541) is an adult female [age estimation of 65-75  
 1440 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] buried in a simple pit grave in a temporarily  
 1441 abandoned building in the Royal Precinct below a subsequent floor. The skeletal remains  
 1442 exhibit evidence of degenerative joint disease (osteoarthritis - OA) found on the majority  
 1443 of the joints, such as knees and hand phalanges, with eburnation (Waldron, 2001).  
 1444 Vertebrae joints exhibited fusion, in addition to OA, with the cervical 7 and thoracic 1-4  
 1445 all fused. There is the rare presence of adventitious bursa on lumbar 4 and 5 (Kwong et al.,  
 1446 2011). The frontal bone exhibited *hyperostosis frontalis interna* on the ventral surface  
 1447 (Roberts and Manchester, 1995). Examination of the dentition showed two episodes of  
 1448 dental enamel hypoplasia correlating to the ages of 2.8/3.1 years and 4.2/4.9 years old  
 1449 (Hillson, 2014), thus indicating two health disturbances that had occurred during childhood

- 1450 growth periods. A bronze pin was next to the skull, and several bone and vitreous beads  
 1451 were in the area of the neck. Dating of human bone: 1617-1506 cal BCE (3566±26 BP,  
 1452 MAMS-33683).
- 1453
- 1454 ■ ALA017 (Square 32.57, Loci 160 and 164, AT 10070) is a young adult female [dental age  
 1455 of 17-25 years old (Brothwell, 1981)] buried in a simple pit burial dug into a street in the  
 1456 Royal Precinct. Only the top of the skull was found within the excavation area, as the rest  
 1457 of the burial extended into the east baulk. The nuchal crest is score 4, as a male (Buikstra  
 1458 and Ubelaker, 1994); thus indicating the use of the neck muscles for carrying heavy material,  
 1459 possibly on the head. The upper first molars exhibit the dental morphology feature of  
 1460 Carabelli's cusp (Scott and Irish, 2017). The skull and the deposit above it were both burnt,  
 1461 likely as a result of a post-deposition burning episode unrelated to the burial. Three Grey  
 1462 Burnished Ware vessels (a narrow-necked jug, a long-necked globular juglet, and an  
 1463 omphalos bowl) were grouped above the head, and a conch shell pendant was also  
 1464 recovered from the burial. Dating of human bone: 1614-1466 cal BCE (3264±23 BP,  
 1465 MAMS-33685).
- 1466
- 1467 ■ ALA018 (Square 42.29, Locus 44, AT 19127) is a child (dental aged at 4.5-5.5 years)  
 1468 buried in a simple pit grave in an accumulation fill not far outside the Royal Precinct.  
 1469 Skeletal growth gave the age estimation of 3.5-4 years (Schaefer et al., 2009), thus  
 1470 indicating a stunted growth by around 1 year. Examination of the dentition exhibited two  
 1471 episodes of dental enamel hypoplasia correlating to the ages of 1.5/1.7 years and 2.0/2.3  
 1472 years old (Hillson, 2014), thus indicating two health disturbances during childhood growth  
 1473 periods. A string of vitreous beads was around the neck, a Nuzi Ware goblet was behind  
 1474 the feet, and an astragalus was also found in the grave. Dating of human bone: 1497-  
 1475 1326 cal BCE (3154±26 BP, MAMS-33686).
- 1476
- 1477 ■ ALA019 (Square 32.57, Locus 247, AT 15878) is an adult female aged 40-45 years old  
 1478 (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) found at the bottom of a very deep well [hence, dubbed “the  
 1479 Well Lady”; (Shafiq, 2020)]. The remains exhibit presence of osteoarthritis with eburnation  
 1480 (OA) on the cervical vertebrae between C1 and C2 (Waldron, 2001), along with the rare  
 1481 presence of adventitious bursa (Kwong et al., 2011) on lumbar 3 and 4. The individual  
 1482 shows evidence of healed trauma on the frontal bone of the skull (Byers, 2011) and two  
 1483 healed fractured ribs (Shafiq, 2020). Enthesophytes were found on both calcaneal bones  
 1484 (Waldron, 2001). The upper lateral incisors exhibit the dental morphology feature of  
 1485 shoveling, score 5 (Scott and Irish, 2017). Her dentition exhibited multiple episodes of  
 1486 dental enamel hypoplasia, starting from 1.3 years old up to 4.6 years old, with a total of  
 1487 twelve childhood growth disturbances (correlating to the ages of 1.3/1.5, 1.7/1.8, 1.9/2.0,  
 1488 2.0/2.3, 2.6/2.8, 2.7/3.0, 2.8/3.1, 3.1/3.4, 3.5/3.7, 3.7/4.2, and 4.0/4.4-4.6 years old)  
 1489 (Hillson, 2014). She was discovered facedown with her limbs splayed, indicating that she

1490 had been carelessly thrown into the well while it was still in use (probably for  
1491 domestic/craft purposes or for animals). As this individual's deposition was the result of  
1492 misadventure, rather than deliberate burial, there are no accompanying grave goods. Dating  
1493 of human bone: 1625-1511 BCE (3298±23 BP, MAMS-33687).

1494  
1495 ■ ALA020 (Square 44.86, Loci 18 and 22, AT 15460) is a young adult female [age estimation  
1496 of 25-35 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] buried in a simple pit grave dug into a  
1497 debris layer in Area 2, although bones of another individual, a male, based on the pelvic  
1498 features, were mixed into the debris. The frontal bones exhibit *cribra orbitalia*, indicating  
1499 a stressful health condition at the time of death (Rothschild et al., 2002). The dentition  
1500 exhibits dental enamel hypoplasia occurred at the ages of 1.7/1.8 and 2.2/2.4-2.7 (Hillson,  
1501 2014). No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1502-1395 BCE (3167±29 BP,  
1502 MAMS-33688).

1503  
1504 ■ ALA023 (Square 45.44, Locus 65, AT 6029) is a child [dental age of 6.5-7 years (Schaefer  
1505 et al., 2009)] in a simple pit grave -part of a cluster of three burials in the Area 3 extramural  
1506 cemetery (with ALA025 and Locus 67)- whose skull was placed directly over that of  
1507 ALA025. The skull exhibits the non-metric feature of Apical Bone on the occipital bone  
1508 (Barnes, 2012). A lead ring was found in the fill above the remains. Dating of human bone:  
1509 1921-1763 BCE (3520±25 BP, MAMS-38610).

1510  
1511 ■ ALA024 (Square 45.44, Locus 68, AT 6572) is a child [2-3 years old (Schaefer et al., 2009)]  
1512 in a simple pit grave in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. A Simple Ware short-neck jar was  
1513 found above her head. Dating of human bone: 2111-1779 BCE (3586±39 BP, MAMS-  
1514 33690).

1515  
1516 ■ ALA025 (Square 45.44, Locus 66, AT 6032) is an adolescent female aged 13-14 years old  
1517 in a simple pit grave directly under ALA023 in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. The  
1518 skeletal growth of long bones gives an age of 11 years old (Schaefer et al., 2009), indicating  
1519 stunted growth of two years. The frontal bones exhibit *cribra orbitalia* (Rothschild et al.,  
1520 2002) in the healing process at the time of death. Dentition exhibit two health disturbances,  
1521 with dental enamel hypoplasia at the ages of 3.3/3.4 and 4.3/4.8 years (Hillson, 2014). A  
1522 Simple Fine Ware short-neck jar was placed on her crossed arms. Dating of human bone:  
1523 1877-1686 BCE (3443±25 BP, MAMS-33691).

1524  
1525 ■ ALA026 (Square 45.44, Locus 70, AT 6931) is a child aged 3.5-4 years in a simple pit  
1526 burial in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. However, the skeletal age gives 2.5 years  
1527 (Schaefer et al., 2009), indicating in stunted growth of 1 year. A Syrian Brown-Grey  
1528 Burnished Ware piriform juglet was placed near the mandible. Dating of human bone:  
1529 1744-1628 BCE (3390±25 BP, MAMS-33692).



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- ALA028 (Square 45.44, Locus 73, AT 7395) is an adult female aged 30-40 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) represented by disarticulated remains in simple pit grave in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. This grave was directly above the pit grave of ALA029, with the pelvis of ALA028 resting on the skull of ALA029. This burial likely represents a primary burial that was disturbed; the disturbed remains were collected and then reburied. No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1877-1666 BCE (3440±26 BP, MAMS-33693).
  
- ALA029 (Square 45.44, Locus 79, AT 7695) is an adult female aged 20-30 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) represented by the skull in a simple pit grave directly below ALA028. The skull was partially crushed by the pelvis of ALA028, which rested directly on top of it. Although the majority of the bones were in anatomical position, the grave was clearly reopened/disturbed in antiquity, as both femurs had been turned upside-down. This may have occurred at the same time as ALA028's burial. A Simple Ware short-neck jar was under her chin, a Syrian Brown-Grey Burnished Ware piriform juglet was behind her skull, and a toggle pin was found during screening. Dating of human bone: 1880-1695 BCE (3465±26 BP, MAMS-33694).
  
- ALA030 (Square 45.44, Locus 105, AT 10669) is an adult female, aged 30-35 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994), who seems to have been killed during the destruction of the building next to the fortification wall in Area 3. The remains indicate a rather small-sized female, with a collapsed vertebra body of L1 (Waldron, 2001) on the left side of the vertebral body, a possible case of carrying heavy weights, along with bone growth on lower thoracic T11 and T12. The left shoulder exhibit a condition of *osteochondritis dissecans*, a joint pathology (Waldron, 2001). Both humeri exhibit the non-metric trait of Septal Aperture (Barnes, 2012). The upper incisors show the dental morphology feature of shoveling (Scott and Irish, 2017). Evidence of six health disturbances during the growth period are visible as dental enamel hypoplasia at the ages of 1.3/1.5, 1.7/2.0, 1.9/2.1, 2.6/2.8, 2.8/3.1, and 3.2/3.3 years (Hillson, 2014). Found in a burnt room context, she was discovered on her back with her arms pulled up to her chin and her legs disappearing into the west baulk. Because this individual met with her death, and was subsequently buried, by misadventure, there were no grave goods. Dating of human bone: 1612-1457 BCE (3256±25 BP, MAMS-33695).
  
- ALA034 (Square 45.45, Locus 6, AT 8830) is an adult female aged between 25-35 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) whose simple pit grave in the Area 3 extramural cemetery remains mostly within the west baulk. No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1874-1666 BCE (3436±24 BP, MAMS-33696).

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- ALA035 (Square 45.45, Locus 7, AT 7940) is an adult male aged between 25-35 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) whose remains were found in the Area 3 extramural cemetery in a simple pit containing the dense and highly disarticulated remains of three other adults (two males and one female). ALA035 appears to have been a primary burial, and the remains of the three other adults were likely redeposited with this individual after having been disturbed. The lower limbs, femur, and tibia exhibit *periostitis* along the shafts (Mann and Hunt, 2005), and joint disease of the scapula was also identified (Waldron, 2001). There is one line of dental enamel hypoplasia at the age of 1.9/2.1 years old (Hillson, 2014). No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1948-1774 BCE (3542±24 BP, MAMS-33697).
  - ALA037 (Square 45.45, Loci 30 and 31, AT 11452) is a concentration of bones containing the disturbed remains of multiple individuals in the Area 3 extramural cemetery. The long bones are oriented northeast-southwest, parallel to the slope of the mound in this area, which may be the result of post-depositional slope wash or deliberate secondary repositioning. Given the high degree of disturbance in this area generally due to post-depositional processes (Ingman, 2017), the former is perhaps more likely. No grave goods were found. Dating of human bone: 1882-1701 BCE (3477±24 BP, MAMS-33698).
  - ALA038 (Square 45.71, Locus 03-3017, Pail 236, Skeleton 09-07), Burial 1 in the Plastered Tomb (Yener, 2013b) in the Area 3 extramural cemetery is an adult female [aged 35-45 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994)] in the top layer of this grave and the final individual deposited in the tomb. Both humeri exhibit the non-metric trait of Septal Aperture (Barnes, 2012). Although, this burial was disturbed, probably due to its proximity to the topsoil, in the area of her head and torso were found several bronze pins, as well as beads made of gold, metal, amber, and stone. Two Simple Ware bottle jugs were placed with her, one atop her torso and one along her left femur, and two Simple Ware globular pitchers were found, one near her skull and one at her right hip. A Simple Ware lamp was under the right side of her pelvis. A cattle humerus and a sheep haunch were above the right side of her pelvis, indicating that food offerings were deposited with this individual. Dating of human bone: 1613-1461 cal BCE (3260±24 BP, MAMS-33699).
  - ALA039 (Square 44.85, Locus 15, AT 14466) is represented by a skull of an adult female aged 50-60 years old (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994) and was placed upright with a human pelvis (presumably belonging to the same individual, but this is uncertain) next to it. These remains were found in a simple pit dug into an accumulation layer with *tandirs* and trash pits in Area 2. The skull shows evidence of blunt trauma located on the right parietal bone in a circular shape, with the bones fractured ventrally. There are no radiating fracture lines and no signs of healing, termed *perimortem*. The fracture size measures 16.2 x 15.3 mm with a depth inside the bone of 2.5 mm, suggesting that this was most probably the cause

1610 of death, indicating a violent death (Byers, 2011). Under the skull was a chunk of iron  
1611 oxide. This is likely a secondary burial, given the iron oxide and the non-random  
1612 positioning of the skull, but it could also have been disturbed from an unpreserved (or as-  
1613 yet-undiscovered) grave. Dating of human bone: 1448-1303 BCE (3125±24 BP, MAMS-  
1614 33700).

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1616 ■ ALA084 (Square 45.72, Locus 03-3065, Skeleton 04-19) is an adult female aged 25-30  
1617 years (Buikstra and Ubelaker, 1994), buried in a simple pit grave in the Area 3 extramural  
1618 cemetery. The ventral surface of the occipital, parietal, and frontal bones all exhibit  
1619 meningeal reaction, indicating a case of infection or trauma (Schultz, 2003), and porotic  
1620 hyperostosis was also observed (Rothschild et al., 2002). No grave goods were found.  
1621 Dating of human tooth: 2006-1777 BCE (3556±25 BP, MAMS-41108).

1622  
1623 ■ ALA095 (45.72, L03-3013/3016, pail 54) is represented by a tooth that was part of a heap  
1624 of bones and teeth from a minimum of three individuals (2 mature and 1 immature) lying  
1625 on top of a single pit grave of an adult male from the Area 3 extramural cemetery. No grave  
1626 goods were found. Dating of human tooth: 1913-1756 BCE (3516±25 BP, MAMS-41109)

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1629 *Tell Mardikh (Ebla), Syria*

1630 35.798°N, 36.798°E

1631 Excavation: Italian Expedition of the Sapienza University of Rome (Missione Archeologica  
1632 Italiana in Siria - MAIS), 1964-2010, directed by Paolo Matthiae

1633 Tell Mardikh, ancient Ebla is an archaeological site located in the Idlib Governorate, 56 km  
1634 southwest of Aleppo, on the limestone plateau of Northern Syria. The excavations revealed a long  
1635 occupation sequence, spanning from at least Early Bronze Age III until the Iron Age, with later  
1636 occupation or frequentation in the Hellenistic/Roman, Byzantine, and Crusader Periods [for an  
1637 overview, see (Matthiae, 2010)].

1638 Although stray archaeological materials dating from the Chalcolithic period were found at Ebla,  
1639 the earliest settlement uncovered thus far at Tell Mardikh dates from Early Bronze III (ca.  
1640 2750/2700-2550 BCE) and is represented by the remains of non-residential structures with  
1641 facilities for crop storage uncovered on the Acropolis Italian Expedition of the Sapienza University  
1642 of Rome (Matthiae, 1993b; Mazzoni, 1991; Vacca, 2015). This evidence documents a formative  
1643 phase of urbanisation that puts the developmental trajectory of Ebla in line with the development  
1644 of other archaeological site in western inland Syria, such as Hama and Qatna, and with  
1645 neighbouring regional areas, such as the Middle Euphrates Valley and the Jazirah (Vacca, 2015).  
1646 The process towards increasing social, economic, and political complexity continued during the  
1647 initial stage of Early Bronze IVA [ca. 2550-2450 BC; (Vacca, 2014-2015; Vacca, 2015)]. It  
1648 culminated, in the developed phase of the Early Bronze IVA (ca. 2450-2300 BCE), in the  
1649 formation of an archaic state ruled by Ebla (Matthiae, 2013b), documented by the archives of

1650 cuneiform tablets discovered in the destruction layer of the Royal Palace B dating from this period.  
1651 It is estimated that the territory controlled by Ebla extended from around Hama, to the south, to  
1652 Karkemish, to the north. At this time, Ebla had diplomatic and commercial relationships with  
1653 equivalent kingdoms located along the Euphrates River Valley, in Upper Syria and in Upper  
1654 Mesopotamia, as well as with Byblos and with Egypt. A fierce destruction put an end to this  
1655 flourishing phase (Matthiae, 2009a), which is placed in the interval between 2367 and 2297 cal  
1656 BCE by the average weight of available radiometric determinations (Calcagnile et al., 2013).  
1657 After this dramatic event, during Early Bronze IVB (ca. 2300-2000 BCE) Ebla lived a stage of  
1658 initial crisis and following reorganisation during the initial and central stages of the period,  
1659 respectively, followed by a phase of new growth, represented by the reappearance of public,  
1660 monumental architecture at the site, during the late phase of the period, during the 21th century  
1661 BCE (D'Andrea, 2014-2015; Matthiae, 2006; Matthiae, 2007; Matthiae, 2009b). At this time, Ebla  
1662 had commercial relations with the Ur III Dynasty in southern Mesopotamia. Another destruction  
1663 put an end to this phase of the settlement (Matthiae, in press; Matthiae, 2009a), followed by a short  
1664 squatters' reoccupation (Matthiae, in press; D'Andrea, 2014-2015; D'Andrea, 2018) and by a  
1665 substantial reconstruction of the city of the Middle Bronze Age at the onset of the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium  
1666 BCE, when an Amorite dynasty seized power.  
1667 It seems more and more possible that some of the cultural developments of the Middle Bronze Age  
1668 (ca. 2000-1600 BCE) started earlier, during Early Bronze IVB and elements of continuity between  
1669 Early Bronze IV and the Middle Bronze Age have been noticed in material culture, architecture,  
1670 iconography, and royal ideology (D'Andrea, 2019; Matthiae, 2002; Matthiae, 2013a; Pinnock,  
1671 2009). However, the reconstruction of the Middle Bronze Age city was marked by substantial  
1672 changes in the urban layout. The new 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium BCE city comprised the massive earthen  
1673 rampart fortifications with four city-gates and several forts and fortresses; a Royal Citadel with a  
1674 royal palace and dynastic temple on the Acropolis (Matthiae, 2011), encircled by an inner  
1675 fortification; and a belt of temples, sanctuaries, and palaces around the Acropolis uncovered on  
1676 the north, west and south sides.  
1677 Epigraphic data allowed determining that the new Middle Bronze Age city was the seat of Amorite  
1678 leaders since the beginning. From circa 1800 BCE, Ebla was subjugated by the kingdom of  
1679 Yamhad, centred on Aleppo, but remained a major regional centre, with a flourishing and  
1680 sophisticated urban culture, as testified, for example, by the jewellery and metalwork found in the  
1681 Royal Hypogea or the bone and ivory Egyptianizing inlays discovered in the Northern Palace  
1682 (Scandone Matthiae, 2002), as well as with far-reaching interregional relations. A third, final,  
1683 destruction brought also the Middle Bronze Age settlement of Ebla to an end; from a bi-lingual  
1684 Hittite-Hurrian text called Song of Release, it seems that the site was destroyed by a coalition of  
1685 Hittites and Hurrians led by an otherwise unknown personage called Pizikarra of Nineveh  
1686 (Matthiae, 2009a).  
1687 After this major destruction, the site never recovered as a regional centre, although it was  
1688 continuously occupied during the Late Bronze Age (ca. 1600-1200 BCE), as demonstrated by the  
1689 archaeological investigations on the Acropolis (Matthiae, 2011). The site was occupied by a rural

1690 village during Iron Age I-III (ca. 1200-535 BCE), and was the seat of a palace during the  
1691 Persian/Hellenistic Period (ca. 535-55 BCE). Subsequently, it was occupied by a monastic  
1692 community during the Roman/Byzantine Period (ca. 55 BCE- AD 600), and, after this, it was never  
1693 permanently settled again; at the time of the First Crusade, at the end of the 11<sup>th</sup> century AD, the  
1694 troops of Godfrey of *Bouillon* shortly stopped at the site on their way to Jerusalem (Matthiae,  
1695 2010).

1696 A total of eleven individuals from Ebla produced genome-wide data and were including in genetic  
1697 analyses.

1698

1699       ▪ ETM001 [individual from TM.82/79.G.400, Dep K (A+B) or Tomb D1 (Baffi Guardata,  
1700 1988)] is a 5 to 7-year-old child represented by a fragmentary skull and a few fragmentary  
1701 skeletal remains in a multiple pit burial. The pit was cut through the layers associated with  
1702 the EB IVA Palace G and is dated to the Middle Bronze I (ca. 2000-1800 BCE). Funerary  
1703 goods included 19 pottery vessels, a bronze bracelet, and animal bones (Baffi Guardata,  
1704 1988).

1705

1706       ▪ ETM004 (TM.98.V.538, D.7417, Skull A) is a child aged between 6 and 12 years whose  
1707 remains were identified by a skull in a pit burial with multiple mixed disarticulated  
1708 inhumations (e.g., ETM005 and ETM006). The burial is dated to the Middle Bronze Age  
1709 I (ca. 2000-1800 BCE). Funerary goods were represented by 16 pottery vessels, either  
1710 complete or almost complete.

1711

1712       ▪ ETM005 (TM.98.V.538, D.7417, Skull B; same burial as ETM004) is an adult aged  
1713 between 30 and 40 years identified by the skull. Dental pathologies were observed.

1714

1715       ▪ ETM006 (TM.98.V.538, D.7417, Skull C; same burial as ETM004) is an adult aged  
1716 between 30 and 40 years identified by the skull. Dental pathologies were observed.

1717

1718       ▪ ETM010 (TM.98.CC.113, D.7278) is a macroscopically possible male individual, aged  
1719 between 30 and 40 years in a pit grave from the Early Bronze III Period (ca. 2700-2500  
1720 BCE). The skeletal remains were fragmentary and disarticulated. Dental pathologies and  
1721 osteological conditions at the lower limbs were observed.

1722

1723       ▪ ETM012 (TM.91.P.853/2) is an infant aged 6-12 months, possibly buried in a jar. The  
1724 skeletal remains were found in room L.5021 of Building P4 [for the archaeological context  
1725 and pottery assemblage of the building see Marchetti (2013); Marchetti and Nigro (1995-  
1726 1996); Matthiae (1993a)], a workshop area, lying on the floor of the room, along with a  
1727 large amount of pottery sherds, suggesting that this might have originally been a jar burial.  
1728 In spite the fragmented condition of the burial, almost the complete skeleton of the infant

1729 was recovered. No evidence of pathologies was present and no associated funerary goods  
1730 were found. Dating of human bone: 2572-2470 cal BCE (3997±25 BP, MAMS-41114)

1731  
1732 ■ ETM014 (TM.95.V.491, D.6371) is an individual aged between 30 and 35 years in a poorly  
1733 preserved pit burial (Baffi Guardata, 2000). The skeletal remains were also very  
1734 fragmentary. Caries were observed on one of the preserved teeth. The tomb was identified  
1735 in the area of the Middle Bronze Age I (ca. 2000-1800 BCE) rampart; funerary goods were  
1736 represented by a single combed jar (Baffi Guardata, 2000).

1737  
1738 ■ ETM016 (TM.95.V.497, D.6384) is a male individual aged 20-30 years, buried in a  
1739 crouched position in a pit that dates to the Late or terminal Middle Bronze IB (ca. 1850  
1740 BCE). The pit burial was possibly originally lined with mud bricks. The complete skeleton  
1741 was preserved (Baffi Guardata, 2000) and did not display any evidence of pathologies.  
1742 Funerary goods included five pottery vessels: a miniature cup in Cooking Ware fabric, a  
1743 cooking pot, a combed jar, a miniature trefoil-mouthed juglet, and a carinated bowl (Baffi  
1744 Guardata, 2000). Dating of human bone: 2026-1896 cal BCE (3605±25 BP, MAMS-41116)

1745  
1746 ■ ETM018 (TM.98.AA.310, D.7363) is a macroscopically possible male individual, older  
1747 than 45 years who was identified by an incomplete skull. He was buried with at least two  
1748 more individuals in a pit burial that was covered by mud bricks and was dated to the Middle  
1749 Bronze I (ca. 2000-1800 BCE). His dental condition is consistent with the age at death.  
1750 Funerary goods included a fragmentary clay figurine, a shell, and eight pottery vessels: a  
1751 jar, two collared jars/bowls, a piriform jar, an ovoid jar, and three carinated bowls. Presence  
1752 of animal bones was associated with the burial. Dating of human tooth: (2135-1964 cal  
1753 BCE, 3667±26 BP, MAMS-41635)

1754  
1755 ■ ETM023 (TM.82.G.438, D. μ TM.83.G.438) is an individual aged 15-18 years that was  
1756 found in pit seemingly intruding into the Early Bronze IVA layers of Palace G. The skeletal  
1757 remains of this individual were incomplete and exhibited visible signs of burning. The skull  
1758 was recovered complete. The chronology is not determined, although the anthropological  
1759 report refers to an EB IVA date for the bones (ca. 2350/2300 BCE).

1760  
1761 ■ ETM026 [TM.83.G, D.3620 or D.22 in (Baffi Guardata, 2000)] is a male individual aged  
1762 25-30 years, in a primary crouched burial. The pit burial is dated to the Middle Bronze I  
1763 (2000-1800 BCE), possibly to its earliest phase (Nigro, 2002). The skeletal remains were  
1764 well preserved, though incomplete and fragmentary. The dentition displayed evidence of  
1765 tartar and enamel hypoplasia. Funerary goods include a jar with double-everted rim and a  
1766 cooking pot (Baffi Guardata, 1988) and the skull of an ovine was associated with the human  
1767 bones (Baffi Guardata, 1988)

1768

1769  
1770 *Tell Kurdu, Turkey*  
1771 36.329405°N, 36.444255°E  
1772 Excavation: University of Chicago, Oriental Institute, 1995-2001, directed by Kutlu Aslıhan  
1773 Yener. The site of Tell Kurdu is located in the Amuq Plain in the Turkish province of Hatay in  
1774 southern Turkey (Özbal et al., 2004). The roughly triangularly shaped Amuq Plain measures about  
1775 35 x 40 km and is covered with fertile agricultural soils. The plain is surrounded on all sides by  
1776 upland ranges including the Amanus Mountains, Kurt Dağ, Jebel Zahwiye and Jebel al-Aqra and  
1777 is fed by three rivers: the Kara Su, the Afrin and the Orontes. The mound of Tell Kurdu, located  
1778 centrally in the plain, was occupied in the 6<sup>th</sup> and the 5<sup>th</sup> millennia BCE and is the largest prehistoric  
1779 site known in the valley. The 6<sup>th</sup> millennium levels at the site correspond to the Amuq C Phase  
1780 contemporaneous with the North Mesopotamian Halaf Period, while the 5<sup>th</sup> millennium levels  
1781 correspond to the Amuq E Phase, which based on the Northern Mesopotamian chronological  
1782 periods equates with the Ubaid Period. All of the six burials from Tell Kurdu analyzed for this  
1783 project come from the 2001 excavations which were concentrated on the north of the mound  
1784 (Özbal, 2006). Excavations here yielded a neighbourhood of densely packed small structures  
1785 separated by streets and alleys that date to the Amuq C Phase of the 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE. Based  
1786 on stratigraphy, one of the burials analyzed (KRD001) was securely dated within the architectural  
1787 phase while most of the other burials in this study including KRD003, KRD004, KRD005,  
1788 KRD006 were stratigraphically unclear and were assumed to date to just after the architecture had  
1789 been abandoned. However, the radiocarbon dates suggest that they fall squarely within the main  
1790 architectural phase or were buried very briefly following abandonment. Even though it essentially  
1791 came from the same area, KRD002 dates to about a millennium later when this part of the mound  
1792 functioned as a cemetery during the Amuq E Phase. The main occupation in this phase was  
1793 concentrated on the southern parts of the mound. The age descriptions and sex designations for the  
1794 burials described below come from an unpublished study by Lorentz and supersede those  
1795 published in (Özbal et al., 2004).  
1796 A total of six individuals from Tell Kurdu produced genome-wide data and are included in the  
1797 genetic analyses.  
1798  
1799     ▪ KRD001 (TK\_12:81) is an adolescent aged 10-12 years. The burial was securely dated to  
1800 the Amuq C Phase related to the main architectural phase. No burial gifts were found  
1801 associated with the skeleton which was discovered in a tightly flexed position. The  
1802 inhumation was found cut into the lowest excavated floor of Room R06 and sealed by an  
1803 overlying floor. Dating of human bone: 5710-5662 cal BCE (6783±23 BP, MAMS-40663).  
1804  
1805     ▪ KRD002 (TK\_24:3) is a relatively well-preserved mature adult. The burial included one  
1806 small Amuq E Phase painted cup which was placed not far from the individual's head.  
1807 Unlike other burials which are typically found in simple pits, this one was placed in a

1808 rectangular mudbrick box of which the bottom row of bricks was preserved. Dating of  
1809 human bone: 4991-4911 cal BCE (6044±22 BP, MAMS-40664).

1810

1811 ■ KRD003 (TK\_22:2) is a mature adult placed in a simple pit in a tightly flexed position.  
1812 The burial included a small painted necked-jar placed near the head as well as a Dark Faced  
1813 Burnished globular jar discovered by the feet. Dating of human bone: 5661-5630 cal BCE  
1814 (6739±23 BP, MAMS-40665).

1815

1816 ■ KRD004 (TK\_25:80) is an adult male placed in a pit in a tightly flexed position. A small  
1817 Dark Faced Burnished necked-jar was discovered by the head. A partial cattle mandible  
1818 had been left just over the neck of the jar. Dating of human bone: 5703-5639 cal BCE  
1819 (6766±25 BP, MAMS-40666).

1820

1821 ■ KRD005 (TK\_25:89) is an infant buried in a flexed position. A small unpainted vessel was  
1822 directly by the infant's head. The burial's stratigraphic relationship to the architecture is  
1823 not clear but it was placed in room R45 either when the room was in use or shortly after  
1824 abandonment. Dating of human bone 5739-5676 cal BCE (6738±24 BP, MAMS-40667).

1825

1826 ■ KRD006 (TK\_26:12) is an infant placed in a large bowl. Near the infant and possibly  
1827 associated with the burial, excavations yielded a small painted miniature vessel, which  
1828 based on decoration and style must be considered Amuq C in date. Given the location of  
1829 the burial inside room R54 and the motifs on the nearby vessel, we expect this burial to be  
1830 contemporaneous with the others analyzed here (with the exception of KRD002) and that  
1831 it dates to approximately 5700 cal BCE.

1832

1833

1834 *Titriş Höyük, Turkey*

1835 37.4759306°N, 38.6783333°E

1836 Excavation: University of California San Diego 1991-1999, directed by Guillermo Algaze

1837 Titriş Höyük, situated in the lower Euphrates basin, is located 45 km north of Şanlıurfa, Turkey  
1838 (Matney and Algaze, 1995). On the basis of C14 dating, three culture levels were identified at the  
1839 site; Early EBA (ca. 2900–2600 BCE), Mid EBA (ca 2600/2500–2400/2300 BCE) and Late EBA  
1840 (ca. 2300–2200/2100 BCE) (Algaze et al., 2001; Algaze et al., 1995; Algaze et al., 1996; Matney  
1841 et al., 1997; Matney et al., 1999). Spread over a 43-hectare area, Titriş Höyük has an acropolis in  
1842 the center, the Lower Town surrounding the acropolis, and the Outer Town which consists of  
1843 sparsely scattered suburban areas (Matney and Algaze, 1995).

1844 The settlement expanded from the acropolis to the Lower Town during the Early EBA. In the Mid  
1845 EBA, the Lower Town developed further and spread towards the Outer Town. There is an  
1846 extramural cemetery dating to this period 400 m. west of the settlement. The settlement had  
1847 undergone significant changes with the Late EBA; the houses in Outer Town were abandoned and



1848 the city was surrounded by a large fortification wall. Titriş Höyük people who started to live behind  
1849 this wall in the Late EBA stopped using the extramural cemetery and began to bury their dead in  
1850 housing areas, beneath the floors of rooms or courtyards (Laneri, 2007).

1851 Since the excavations in the Early EBA level were limited to a small area, only one cist grave  
1852 could be unearthed. On the other hand, there are 50 and 67 graves dating to Mid and Late EBA  
1853 respectively. These graves consist of simple pits, stone cists and pithoi. Multiple burials were  
1854 found in both Mid and Late EBA graves. While some individuals were articulated, some others  
1855 completely lost their articulation. The skeletal remains which have no articulation, are represented  
1856 only by skull and a few postcranial bones. It is stated that all the bones except skulls were removed  
1857 to make room for the last deceased (Laneri, 2007; Matney et al., 2012). For this reason, the  
1858 preservation condition of Titriş Höyük skeletal remains is not good and the individuals are  
1859 represented only by fragments. Pots in various forms, bronze pins, bronze/silver earrings and rings,  
1860 necklaces of stone beads are among the grave goods of both Mid and Late EBA graves. However,  
1861 unlike Mid EBA graves, daggers and spearheads were found in Late EBA graves (Laneri, 2007).  
1862 The most remarkable burial among Titriş Höyük graves is the burial made on a plaster basin.  
1863 Chemical analyses carried out with the samples taken from these plastered platforms found in most  
1864 of the Late EBA houses demonstrate that these platforms might have been used in wine processing.  
1865 The circular and slightly concave plastered platform, 140 cm in diameter, consist of a floor where  
1866 small and medium-sized limestone is combined with muddy plaster at the bottom, pebbles in the  
1867 middle and a thick limestone powder which was also used for the floor of the houses at the top  
1868 (Laneri, 2002; Matney and Algaze, 1995). Skeletal remains belonging to minimum 19 individuals  
1869 were found on one of these platforms during the 1998 excavation season (three subadults, three  
1870 adult females, 13 adult males). At this unique burial, while postcranial bones were piled up at the  
1871 center of the plaster basin, the crania were placed on the top of the postcranial bones at the edges  
1872 without a unity of direction. 13 of the 16 adult individuals have perimortem traumas caused by an  
1873 axe, dagger and spearhead on their skulls. Based on the presence of skeletal remains of each age  
1874 and sex groups in this grave and the high frequency of perimortem traumata on the skulls, it was  
1875 concluded that these individuals were victims of a possible massacre (Erdal, 2012a).

1876 One individual from Titriş Höyük produced genome-wide data and is included in genetic analyses.

1877

1878     ▪ TIT021 (TH80084) is one of the 16 skulls on the plaster basin. Since it is a secondary burial,  
1879 its relationship with scattered postcranial bones could not be established. Considering the  
1880 morphological structure of the skull, the individual was estimated to be male. According  
1881 to the ectocranial suture closure, it is estimated that the individual is a middle adult aged  
1882 35-40 years. There are two healed depressed traumas on the skull. In addition, two  
1883 perimortem traumas were identified, one caused by a penetrating or a sharp object and the  
1884 other by a sharp object. Due to the lack of healing marks around these penetrating and  
1885 sharp force traumas on the left side of the skull, it was determined that the individual died  
1886 as a result of these traumas. Dating of human tooth: 2331-2143 cal BCE (3799±25 BP,  
1887 MAMS-40684)

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### **Abbreviations**

E=Early, M=Middle, L=Late, EP=Epipaleolithic, N=Neolithic, C=Chalcolithic, BA=Bronze Age, Eneolithic=En.

### **Grouping of individuals and nomenclature**

For the purpose of this study, we mainly used as group designation the name of the archaeological site and the archaeological period (Eisenmann et al., 2018). We caution here that period-based cultural divisions such as "Chalcolithic" and "Neolithic" vary from region to region and must be considered artificial boundaries instead of absolute chronological markers. For example, 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE is considered Early Chalcolithic in Anatolia and Late Neolithic in Southern Caucasus. Tell Kurdu, albeit located in Northern Levant, is a site that displays a mixture of both Anatolian and North Mesopotamian elements with regards to its architecture and material culture. Therefore, its 6<sup>th</sup> millennium BCE levels are more usually referred to as Early Chalcolithic based on the Anatolian chronological designations.

Sites for which samples covered more than one archaeological period were Arslantepe and Tell Kurdu. Given the temporal distribution of the samples at Arslantepe (Figure 2B), we grouped together all individuals from the Late Chalcolithic and the very beginning of Early Bronze Age as "Arslantepe\_LC" and those from Early Bronze age as "Arslantepe\_EBA".

Genetic information (PCA-based) was also taken into consideration for outlying individuals (i.e., Alalakh\_MLBA\_outlier). Also, in order to maintain information about intragroup variability, we measured with  $f_4$ -statistics whether any individuals systematically shared more alleles with other populations compared to other individuals from the group.

Exception to the archaeological site-period nomenclature were the two Neolithic sites in the Southern Caucasian lowlands (Mentesh Tepe and Polutepe), each represented by only one individual (MTT001 and POT002 respectively). We grouped these two individuals as Caucasus\_lowlands\_LN (in agreement with  $f_4$ -statistics suggesting no breaks in their cladality). For consistency, we refer to the Chalcolithic site of Alkhantepe (ALX002) as Caucasus\_lowlands\_LC. Accordingly, published individuals/groups from Anatolia were renamed applying the same scheme, i.e. name of archaeological site "underscore" archaeological period.

For other ancient groups relevant to our study we applied a nomenclature system of area and archaeological time period (ex Levant\_EBA) provided that this does not contradict genetic evidence. Especially, for the area of Caucasus where genetic characterisation has been carried on a big number of ancient individuals (Allentoft et al., 2015; Lazaridis et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019), we used a combined nomenclature of ecogeographical area, archaeological time and genetic clustering. All new group labels are given in [File S2](#).

### **METHOD DETAILS**

1928

1929 **Direct AMS radiocarbon dating**

1930 All individuals with newly-reported genetic data and without direct dating previously performed  
1931 on them were dated at the radiocarbon dating facility of the Klaus-Tschira-Archäometrie-Zentrum  
1932 at the CEZ Archaeometry gGmbH, Mannheim, Germany using a MICADAS-AMS and ~1gr of  
1933 bone material. With a few exceptions, we dated a sample from the same skeletal element that was  
1934 sampled for the DNA extraction. Collagen was extracted from the bone samples, purified by  
1935 ultrafiltration (fraction >30kD) and freeze-dried. Collagen was combusted to CO<sub>2</sub> in an Elemental  
1936 Analyzer (EA) and CO<sub>2</sub> was converted catalytically to graphite. <sup>14</sup>C ages were normalized to  
1937 δ<sup>13</sup>C=-25‰ and were given in BP (before present) meaning years before 1950. The calibration  
1938 was done using the dataset INTCAL13 (Reimer et al., 2013) and the software SwissCal 1.0 (L.  
1939 Wacker, ETH-Zürich).

1940

1941 **Preparation of aDNA**

1942 We extracted DNA and prepared next generation sequencing libraries from 174 samples in a  
1943 dedicated aDNA facility in Jena following established protocols for DNA extraction and library  
1944 preparation.

1945 Prior to sampling of petrous bones, we carefully wiped the bone surface with 10% bleach and  
1946 water and then UV-irradiated the surface for 30 min. Sampling targeted the inner-ear portion of  
1947 the petrous bone (Pinhasi et al., 2015), but the method varied based on the preservation conditions  
1948 of the sample and/or the destructive constraints as follows:

1949 a. Well preserved samples without constraints in destructive sampling: a bone wedge was cut out  
1950 around the region of the cochlea using an electric saw (K-POWERgrip EWL 4941), removed the  
1951 surface and ground it to fine bone powder.

1952 b. Poorly preserved samples: cutting in the middle with a jeweler's saw and drilling bone powder  
1953 (K-POWERgrip EWL 4941) from one side directly at the osseous labyrinth.

1954 c. Minimally invasive method: removal of surface layer and drilling from outside targeting the  
1955 area of the inner ear.

1956 After UV-irradiation step (30 min) teeth were cut at the cemento-enamel junction and then sampled  
1957 by drilling from the inner pulp chamber of the crown. Whenever this sampling method could not  
1958 yield a minimum of 50 mg of bone powder, we complemented with bone powder drilled from the  
1959 pulp of the root.

1960 We used 50-100 mg of bone powder for the DNA extraction. First, we incubated the bone powder  
1961 in a lysis buffer containing 0.45 M EDTA, pH 8.0 and 0.25 mg/ml Proteinase K with overnight  
1962 rotation at 37° C. After centrifugation, we transferred the supernatant to a new 15ml tube  
1963 containing 10.4 ml of binding buffer of 5 M Guanidine hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich), 40%  
1964 Isopropanol (Merck) and 400 µl of 3 M Sodium Acetate pH 5.2 (Sigma-Aldrich). We spun the mix  
1965 through a silica column (High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid Large Volume Kit; Roche) at 1,500 rpm  
1966 for 8 min. We dry-spun the column with centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 2 min and washed the  
1967 DNA bound to the column twice with 450 µl of wash buffer (High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid Large

1968 Volume Kit; Roche) and spinning at 8,000 rcf for 1 min. After two dry-spin steps of 30 sec, we  
1969 incubated the columns for 3 min with 50 µl Tris-EDTA elution buffer (High Pure Viral Nucleic  
1970 Acid Large Volume Kit; Roche) containing 0.05% of Tween 20% (Sigma- Aldrich) and spun for  
1971 2 min at 14,000 rpm. We repeated this elution step, and collected the 100 µl of eluted DNA in a  
1972 LoBind collection tube (Eppendorf). All DNA extracts were stored at -20° C. At every extraction  
1973 experiment we included one blank control (extraction buffer) and bone powder of cave bear as a  
1974 positive control.

1975 We prepared double-stranded libraries from 25 µl of DNA extract using the partial Uracil-DNA-  
1976 glycosylase (UDG) protocol, which removes most of the deaminated cytosines – aDNA damage  
1977 occurring post-mortem – but maintains some molecules with terminal damage (Rohland et al.,  
1978 2015). We performed the partial UDG-treatment by adding 25 µl of mastermix consisting of 0.07  
1979 USER enzyme, 0.2 mg/ml BSA, 1.2 mM ATP (all NEB), 0.1 mM dNTP mix (Thermo Fisher  
1980 Scientific), 1.2X Buffer Tango (Life Technologies), and finally incubating for 30 min at 37 °C and  
1981 1 min at 12 °C. We then added 0.13 U UGI (Uracil Glycosylase inhibitor) and repeated the  
1982 incubation step. For the blunt-end repair of the double-stranded molecules we added 0.5 U T4  
1983 Polynucleotide Kinase, 0.08 U T4 DNA Polymerase (both NEB), and incubated for 20 min at 25  
1984 °C for 20 min and then 10 min at 10 °C. We purified the product with a standard MinElute PCR  
1985 purification Kit (Qiagen) eluting in 18 µl of EB containing 0.05% of Tween (EBT). The ligation  
1986 of Illumina adaptors was carried out with 1X Quick Ligase Buffer (NEB) and (0.25 µM adapter  
1987 mix) in a total reaction volume of 40 µl and 1µl of 0.125 U Quick Ligase followed by an incubation  
1988 at 22 °C for 10 min and another MinElute purification step. The fill-in of the ligated adaptors  
1989 included 1X isothermal buffer, 0.4 U/µl Bst-polymerase (NEB), 0.125 mM dNTP mix and an  
1990 incubation at 37 °C for 30 min followed by 10 min at 80 °C. A negative library control (H<sub>2</sub>O) was  
1991 taken along at every experiment.

1992 We evaluated the success of library preparation by quantifying the number of unique molecules in  
1993 an aliquot from each library with qPCR performed on a LightCycler 96 (Roche) installed outside  
1994 the clean room and using IS7/IS8 primers and the DyNAmo SYBP Green qPCR kit (Thermo Fisher  
1995 Scientific). We assigned unique combinations of two 8bp-long indices at every library and attached  
1996 them with an amplification reaction using *Pfu-Turbo Cx Hotstart DNA Polymerase* (Agilent  
1997 Technologies) and 10 cycles of 30 sec at 58 °C and 1 min at 72 °C followed by an elongation step  
1998 at 72°C for 10 min. We purified the amplified product with a MinElute kit (Qiagen) and then eluted  
1999 in 50 µl EBT. We re-quantified an aliquot from every indexed library with qPCR using IS5/IS6  
2000 primers and we reamplified to 10<sup>13</sup> copies with Herculase II Fusion Polymerase following the  
2001 manufacturer's protocol. After another purification step with final elution at 50 µl of EBT, we  
2002 measured an aliquot at an Agilent 4200 TapeStation in order to check fragment length and  
2003 concentration.

2004

### 2005 **Human genome enrichment, sequencing and haploid genotype sampling**

2006 We pooled libraries equimolarly to 10nm and submit them for sequencing in one of the in-house  
2007 sequencing platforms HiSeq 4000 or NextSeq500 using a paired-end (PE 2x50) or a single-read

2008 (SR 75) kit. After initial shotgun sequencing of 5-10 million reads (or 10-20 for PE sequencing)  
2009 and demultiplexing, all libraries were processed through EAGER (Peltzer et al., 2016), a modular  
2010 pipeline that streamlines the raw sequence data from FastQC and quality filtering to mapping and  
2011 duplicate removal and outputs important quality information such as complexity of libraries,  
2012 percentage of endogenous DNA damage, and fragment length. Sequencing adapters were clipped  
2013 with AdapterRemoval (*v2.2.0*) (Schubert et al., 2016) and merged (paired-end sequencing) while  
2014 all fragments shorter than 30 bp were discarded. Mapping was performed with BWA (*v0.7.12*) (*Li*  
2015 *and Durbin, 2009*) with a quality filter of q30 against the hs37d5 sequence reference. For the  
2016 removal of PCR duplicates we used dedup (*v0.12.2*) (Peltzer et al., 2016), which considers both  
2017 beginning and end of the merged reads with the same orientation. C to T and G to A mis-  
2018 incorporations were evaluated with the tool mapdamage (*v2.0.6*) (Jónsson et al., 2013). Libraries  
2019 that passed the thresholds of quality control (>0.1% of endogenous DNA, > ~5% C to T mis-  
2020 incorporation at terminal 5' base) were subjected to an in-solution hybridisation enrichment that  
2021 targets at 1,233,3013 genome-wide and ancestry-informative SNPs (“1240K SNP capture”)  
2022 (Mathieson et al., 2015). Libraries were not pooled prior to this enrichment experiment. Whenever  
2023 the mitochondrial reads from either the shotgun sequencing or the 1240K capture were not  
2024 sufficient for the reconstruction of the whole mitochondrial genome, the call of mitochondrial  
2025 haplotypes and the estimation of mitochondrial contamination, we carried out another in-solution  
2026 enrichment which targets at the whole mitochondrial DNA (“mito capture”) (Fu et al., 2015).  
2027 Captured libraries were sequenced at the order of 20 million reads (or 40 million for PE) and were  
2028 streamlined through EAGER with the same parameters as for shotgun sequencing data. We ran  
2029 preseq (*v2.0*) (Daley and Smith, 2013) on 1240K data, a tool that uses a histogram of targeted sites  
2030 and the number of unique and duplicated reads in order to compute an extrapolation of the library  
2031 complexity for bigger sequencing experiments. Subsequently, we deeper-sequenced the captured  
2032 libraries to maximise the use of each library’s complexity. We merged bam files across libraries  
2033 from the same individual and re-run dedup. When merging libraries from SR75 and PE50  
2034 sequencing runs, we treated as duplicates the reads with same beginning position between SR75  
2035 and PE50 and whose length was more than 73 bp. We generated masked versions of the bam files  
2036 in which we masked the ends of the reads until the nucleotide with misincorporation frequency  $\leq$   
2037 1% using trimBam ([https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/BamUtil:\\_trimBam](https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/BamUtil:_trimBam)). To minimize the  
2038 reference bias in low-coverage data, after generating the pileup (with -q30 and -Q30 filters), we  
2039 extracted haploid genotypes with the tool pileupCaller  
2040 (<https://github.com/stschiff/sequenceTools/tree/master/src/SequenceTools>), which randomly  
2041 chooses a single read at every SNP position and generates pseudo-diploid genotypes. We  
2042 performed the random calling both on the original and the masked bam files of each library. For  
2043 the final genotypes we kept the transitions from the masked and the transversions from the original  
2044 bam files.

2045

2046

2047 **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

2048

2049 **Quality control and test of kinship**

2050 We only included individuals with  $\geq 40,000$  SNPs of the potential 1240K SNPs covered for  
2051 downstream population genetics analysis. We estimated contamination on these individuals based  
2052 on the mitochondrial heterozygosity (Renaud et al., 2015) and on the heterozygosity at the  
2053 polymorphic sites on the X chromosome on the males with ANGSD (Korneliussen et al., 2014).  
2054 Samples from same individual or samples from genetically related individuals are relatively  
2055 common cases when working with bone material from archaeological sites. To test for biological  
2056 kinship, we estimated the pairwise mismatch rate (pmr) (Kennett et al., 2017) among all possible  
2057 pairs of individuals from within an archaeological site by counting the number of SNPs for which  
2058 the two individuals had a mismatch on genotype (0-2 or 2-0) and dividing with the total number  
2059 of overlapping SNPs (SNPs without missing data in either individual).

2060 It is known that two genomic libraries produced from the same individual or two identical twins  
2061 (coefficient of relatedness  $r=1$ ) will exhibit a pmr which should be half of that of a pair of unrelated  
2062 individuals ( $r=0$ ) and the pmr will be a linear function of  $r$  (Jeong et al., 2018). Assuming no  
2063 inbreeding within the population, the pmr of unrelated individuals (UI) can be empirically  
2064 estimated by the distribution of pmr of multiple individuals. When we detected pairs with IT pmr,  
2065 we cross-checked with the archaeological context whether these can be attributed to cases of  
2066 samples from the same individual and, subsequently we merged the data under the name of one  
2067 individual. For pairs with  $IT < pmr < UI$  we calculated the coefficient of relatedness  $r$  as  $(UI-$   
2068  $pmr)/IT$ . For statistically robust estimates of the coefficient we used READ (Monroy Kuhn et al.,  
2069 2018) which computes pmr in non-overlapping windows of 1 Mbps and also calculates standard  
2070 errors.

2071

2072 **PMDtools**

2073 We used PMDtools (Skoglund et al., 2014), a statistical framework for the evaluation and isolation  
2074 of aDNA reads based on their damage profile, on the one genetic outlier individual from Alalakh.  
2075 To reduce reference bias, we provided a reference masked for 1240K SNP positions.

2076

2077 **Dataset**

2078 We merged our final dataset with publicly available datasets of ancient and modern individuals  
2079 (de Barros Damgaard et al., 2018; Feldman et al., 2019; Fu et al., 2016; Gamba et al., 2014;  
2080 González-Fortes et al., 2017; Günther et al., 2015; Haber et al., 2017; Harney et al., 2018;  
2081 Hofmanova et al., 2016; Jeong et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2015; Lazaridis et al., 2017; Lazaridis et  
2082 al., 2016; Lazaridis et al., 2014; Lipson et al., 2017; Martiniano, 2017; Mathieson et al., 2018;  
2083 McColl et al., 2018; Meyer et al., 2012; Mittnik et al., 2018; Mondal et al., 2016; Olalde et al.,  
2084 2018; Olalde et al., 2019; Olalde et al., 2015; Pickrell et al., 2012; Prüfer et al., 2017; Raghavan et  
2085 al., 2014; Rasmussen et al., 2014; Seguin-Orlando et al., 2014; Skoglund et al., 2016; Skoglund et  
2086 al., 2017; Vyas et al., 2017) (see [Table S3](#)). We also merged with datasets of worldwide modern

2087 populations genotyped on the Human Origins array by keeping the intersection of SNPs. Both  
2088 1240K and HO datasets were restricted to the autosomal portion.

2089

### 2090 **Sex determination and uniparental haplotypes**

2091 We used “samtools depth” from the samtools (*v1.3*) (Li et al., 2009) providing the bed file with  
2092 the 1240K SNPs to calculate the coverage on X, Y and autosomal chromosomes. We normalized  
2093 X and Y coverage by the autosomal coverage (X-rate and Y-rate respectively). For females without  
2094 contamination we expect X-rate  $\approx 1$  and Y-rate  $\approx 0$ . Accordingly, for uncontaminated males we  
2095 expect both X-rate and Y-rate to be  $\approx 0.5$ .

2096 In order to determine the Y haplogroups of the male individuals, we first used pileups from the  
2097 bam files Rsamtools package (Morgan et al., 2019) and called the Y chromosome SNPs from reads  
2098 with mapping and base qualities  $\geq 30$ . We manually assigned Y-chromosome haplogroups by  
2099 manually inspecting the derived SNPs in the pileups included in the ISOGG SNP index (*v.14.07*)  
2100 (last downloaded 7 January 2019) (Table S9).

2101 The mitochondrial consensus sequences were inferred from the mito-capture data using Schmutzi  
2102 (Renaud et al., 2015) and mapping with CircularMapper (Peltzer et al., 2016) against the rCRS  
2103 with mapping quality filter of  $q30$  and consensus quality score  $Q30$ . The mitochondrial haplotypes  
2104 of the consensus sequences ( $\geq 5X$  coverage) were assigned by Haplogrep (Kloss-Brandstätter et  
2105 al., 2011) after visual inspection of bam pileup in Geneious (*v11.0.4*) (Kearse et al., 2012) (Table  
2106 S9).

2107

### 2108 **Principal component analysis**

2109 We performed principal component analysis on two subsets of the Human Origins Dataset: (a) 171  
2110 West Eurasian populations (2,343 individuals), and (b) 85 West Asian and East Mediterranean  
2111 populations (1,221 individuals) using the smartpca program of EIGENSOFT (*v6.01*) (Patterson et  
2112 al., 2006; Price et al., 2006) with default parameters and the options lsqproject: YES,  
2113 numoutlieriter: 0, to project ancient individuals onto the first two components.

2114

### 2115 ***f*-statistics**

2116 We computed outgroup  $f_3$ -statistics using the program qp3Pop from the package ADMIXTOOLS  
2117 (*v5.1*) (Patterson et al., 2012) and looked for evidence of maximized shared drift. We also  
2118 computed  $f_4$ -statistics using qpDstat from the same package that provide evidence of gene flow  
2119 based on allele frequency sharing. We applied default parameters and the options f4mode: YES.

2120

### 2121 **Modelling of ancestry proportions**

2122 We used the programs *qpWave* and *qpAdm* (version 810) from ADMIXTOOLS to model the  
2123 studied populations (targets) as a combination of ancestry proportions from putative selected  
2124 source populations (references). This method does not require explicit knowledge about the  
2125 phylogeny of the populations but harnesses the fact that if the target is related to a set of right  
2126 populations (outgroups) through the references (left populations) and the references relate

2127 asymmetrically to the outgroup populations, then the target can be modelled as a combination of  
2128 the references and the admixture proportions can be estimated by solving a matrix of  $f_4$ -statistics  
2129 (Haak et al., 2015). Therefore, the choice of outgroups and references is of major importance. We  
2130 used a set of outgroups that represents past and modern global genetic variation (Mbuti.DG,  
2131 Ami.DG, Mixe.DG, Kostenki14, EHG, Villabruna, Levant\_EP) and provides a good resolution for  
2132 distinguishing populations from Iran, Levant Caucasus and Anatolia. Prior to the ancestry  
2133 modelling we used *qpWave* to test whether our outgroup choice can distinguish the tested  
2134 references.

2135

### 2136 **Test of recent admixture**

2137 We tested for signal of recent admixture events applying the recently developed method DATES  
2138 [<https://github.com/priyamoorejani/DATES>; Chintalapati et al. (In prep.)] with the following  
2139 parameters: binsize=0.001, and fit of decay curve from 0.0045 (lovalfit) to 1 (maxdist) distance  
2140 bins (all in Morgan units). DATES is based on the algorithm of the rolloff program, which is  
2141 specifically designed to test admixture in low-coverage ancient genome data where genotypes are  
2142 typically haploid and missing rate is high (Narasimhan et al., 2019). For each individual in the  
2143 admixed target population, it first estimates the global admixture proportion by simply fitting the  
2144 genotype vector of the target individual as a linear combination of the allele frequency vectors of  
2145 the two source populations. Then it calculates the genotype residual by subtracting the expected  
2146 genotype value, a weighted mean of source allele frequency and the corresponding global  
2147 admixture proportion, from the target genotype. Finally, it multiplies the allele frequency  
2148 difference between the two sources to the genotype residual to correct for the arbitrariness of the  
2149 allele coding as zero or one. The weighted genotype residual performs a crude estimate of local  
2150 ancestry (i.e. whether a genomic segment descends from the first or the second source), and thus  
2151 the correlation between a pair of SNPs within a single individual is expected to exponentially  
2152 decay as a function of the genetic distance between SNPs and the number of generations since  
2153 admixture. For each genetic distance bin, DATES calculates a correlation of the weighted genotype  
2154 residual across all SNP pairs within that bin and estimates admixture date in a single individual by  
2155 fitting the exponential decay curve against the genetic distance. It can also easily accumulate  
2156 information across target individuals without information loss, by simply using all SNP pairs from  
2157 all individuals to calculate the correlation coefficient in each distance bin. Estimated times are  
2158 given in generations assuming 28 years per generation (Moorjani et al., 2016). Compared to  
2159 admixture LD methods such as ALDER (Loh et al., 2013) and *Rolloff* (Moorjani et al., 2011;  
2160 Patterson et al., 2012), which require a minimum number of samples and coverage of the target  
2161 population in order to estimate LD with precision, DATES can perform on a single sample from  
2162 the admixed population. We further tested results where DATES detected a signal of admixture  
2163 by computing two-reference weighted LD and decay fit with ALDER (*v1.03*) and rolloff  
2164 (<https://github.com/DReichLab/AdmixTools/blob/master/src/rolloffp.c>) from ADMIXTOOLS.  
2165 Since ALDER allows only a small fraction of missingness for a SNP position across the individuals  
2166 of the target population, grouping individuals with variable coverage decreases the resolution of



2167 the analysis. Therefore, we performed ALDER on all possible pairs of individuals within the target  
2168 population, excluding individuals with less than ~10% coverage and parameters binsize=0.0005,  
2169 mindist=0.005 (all in Morgan units), mincount=2, checkmap=NO and use\_naive\_algo=NO. For  
2170 rolloffp we used parameter binsize= 0.0005, fitted the exponential curve using data between 0.005  
2171 and 0.5 distance bins (all in Morgan units). The exponential fit was performed using the nls  
2172 function in R. Standard errors were calculated using a leave-one-chromosome-out approach.

2173

### 2174 **Visualisations**

2175 We produced all graphs in Rstudio (v1.1.383) and Adobe Illustrator CC 2020 (24.0.2). Maps were  
2176 created in QGIS using the Natural Earth dataset. We produced all graphs in Rstudio (v1.1.383) and  
2177 Adobe Illustrator CC 2020 (24.0.2). Maps were created in QGIS using the Natural Earth dataset.  
2178 We consulted Breniquet (1996); Greenberg and Palumbi (2015); Roaf (1998); Sagona (2017),  
2179 Carter and Philip (2010) and Wittke (2010) for the creation of maps in Figure 1.

2180

2181

### 2182 **SUPPLEMENTAL EXCEL TABLE TITLES AND LEGENDS (excel tables)**

2183

2184 **Table S1. Details of AMS radiocarbon dating on selected 95 individuals after quality**  
2185 **filtering, Related to Figure 2.**

2186

2187 **Table S3. List of ancient populations published by previous studies which are used in our**  
2188 **analyses, Related to STAR Methods (Grouping of individuals and nomenclature; Dataset).**

2189

2190 **Table S4. Outgroup  $f_3$ -statistics, Related to Figure 6.** Shared genetic drift between each of the  
2191 Late Chalcolithic/Bronze Age (LC-LBA) groups of the present study and a panel of *Test*  
2192 populations compared to the distal population Mbuti. *Test* populations consist of 300 ancient and  
2193 modern worldwide populations.  $f_3$ -statistics were estimated on autosomal portion of the Human  
2194 Origins (HO) SNPs with a minimum total  $N_e$  SNP per test of 50,000. The highest 40  $f_3$ -statistics  
2195 are presented per LC-LBA group.

2196

2197 **Table S5. Genetic differences between Neolithic-Early Chalcolithic (N-EC) populations and**  
2198 **the Late Chalcolithic-Late Bronze Age (LC-LBA) with respect to a Test population**  
2199 **measured by  $f_4(Mbuti, Test; Barcin\_N/Büyükkaya\_EC/TellKurdu\_EC, LC-LBA)$ , Related to**  
2200 **Figure 6.** *Test* populations include European and West Asians ancient populations.  $f_4$ -statistics  
2201 were estimated on the on the autosomal portion of the 1240K SNP panel and standard errors were  
2202 estimated by 5 cM block jack-knifing. Significant values ( $|z\text{-score}| \geq 3$ ) indicate that *Test* shares  
2203 more alleles with the LC-LBA than N-EC (positive sign) or vice versa (negative sign) and are  
2204 annotated in bold. Results important for our interpretations are annotated in *Italics*.

2205

2206 **Table S9. Assignment of Y-chromosome and mitochondrial haplogroups, Related to STAR**  
2207 **methods (Sex determination and uniparental haplotypes).**

2208  
2209

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