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Early sheep herd management in the inland of the Iberian Peninsula: results of the incremental isotopic analyses of dental remains from El Mirador cave (Sierra de Atapuerca, Spain)

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Abstract

The beginning of husbandry in the Iberian Peninsula has been documented from the second half of the 6th millennium BCE and was based on the breeding of domestic caprines, mainly sheep. The first evidence of these practices comes from the Mediterranean region, but they quickly expanded inland. Previous studies have reported on the importance of the El Mirador sheepfold cave (Sierra de Atapuerca, Burgos, Spain) for understanding the process of the adoption of a farming economy in this inland region. In this study, we focus on husbandry and sheep management occurring in the 6th and 5th millennium cal BCE occupations of El Mirador cave by means of sequential oxygen (δ^{18} O) and carbon (δ^{13} C) isotope analyses in sheep molar tooth enamel. The results show a rapid adaptation and adoption of domestic sheep in the inland of the Iberian Peninsula. In El Mirador cave, well-organised sheep breeding was developed based on the concentration of births at the end of winter and early spring, for a period of ~2.64 months, which made husbandry more compatible with other economic activities. In 5th millennium levels, autumn births were also documented and may be indicative of the intervention of the sheepherd in the reproductive cycle of the sheep and of a progressive adaptation of these animals to the interior of the Peninsula. All these strategies may have been supported by the recurrent occupations of the sheepfold, flocks grazing in the areas surrounding the cave and the possible use of leaf fodder in winter.

Keywords Husbandry · Neolithic · Stable oxygen and carbon isotopes · Reproductive seasonality · Animal diet

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Introduction

The oldest evidence of Neolithic occupations with agropastoral economies in the Iberian Peninsula comes from open-air sites and caves along the Mediterranean coast and date to around the mid-6th millennium cal BCE (e.g. Esquembre-Bebiá et al. 2008; Bernabeu et al. 2009; Cortés Sánchez et al. 2012; Oms et al. 2016; García-Puchol et al. 2017). Traditionally, it has been suggested that the introduction of these economic and technological innovations in inland Iberia, and specifically towards the Submeseta Norte (the northern subplateau) region, was slow, based on the scarcity of evidence and its recent chronology (5th millennium cal BCE) (Maluguer 1960; Fernández-Posse 1980). We now know that the early evidence for the Neolithic in inland Iberia can be dated to the second half of the 6th millennium BCE (e.g. Baldellou Martínez 2011; Fernández-Eraso and Mujika-Alustiza 2013; García-Martínez de Lagrán 2014; Fernández-Eraso et al. 2015; Villalba-Mouco et al. 2018). Most of these inland sites are located around the Ebro valley,

which suggests that this river was one of the main routes of communication and diffusion of the new economic system from the coast towards the inland (Arias 2007). The presence of Cardial pottery in these sites establishes a clear link to the settlements on the coast (Baldellou Martínez 2011; Fernández-Eraso et al. 2015).

These inland communities had a fully consolidated agricultural and livestock economy that was adapted to inland climatic and environmental conditions, as these diverged from those of the Mediterranean coastal region. Currently, Mediterranean region has temperate climate ('Csa' following the Köppen climate classification), with dry summers. Inland of the Iberian Peninsula has cold and different temperate climates (with and without dry seasons) (AEMET 2011). The aforementioned Ebro Valley has a cold steppe ('BSk,' following the Köppen climate classification) climate, with average annual temperatures below 18°C and with low rainfall levels spread throughout the year (AEMET 2011) that were higher during the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE (Penalba 1994; Pérez-Obiol et al. 2011). Currently, it is an area of Mediterranean landscape in which open areas of scrubland predominate. Whereas, the Submeseta Norte has a temperate oceanic climate 'Cfb,' (following the Köppen climate classification), without dry season and with moderate temperatures in winter and cool in summer (less than 22°C average). This region is dominated by wooded vegetation (mixed forests) and scrub.

The adaptation of new domestic species to different environmental conditions of the Iberian Peninsula was particularly evident in crops. Thus, the importance of the most common species, hulled or naked wheat and barley, varied in different areas of the Peninsula, depending on environmental conditions (López et al. 2003; Zapata et al. 2004, 2005; Peña-Chorarro et al. 2018).

Regarding husbandry, there is a clear predominance of domestic caprine breeding, both in coastal and inland regions, especially in cave sites (e.g. Castaños 1997; Castaños 2004; Morales and Martín 2003; Altuna and Mariezkurrena 2009; Saña 2013; Davis and Simões 2016; Saña et al. 2020). There is body size homogeneity in both coastal and inland caprine populations (Antolín et al. 2018; Sierra et al. 2019). Amongst domestic caprines, sheep outnumber goats, indicating the importance of sheep as the basis of husbandry in the Early Neolithic period in the Iberian Peninsula. These factors seem to indicate that animal species were more plastic in response to environmental variability than plants (Saña et al. 2020).

Beyond the composition of the herds, in Iberian Peninsula assemblages, there are few studies on mortality profiles that would provide information on different aspects of management and exploitation of these species. Although it is difficult to generalise, the few published zooarchaeological studies would indicate a tendency to slaughter immature animals (0–24 months) with the intention of using the meat and/or milk (Castaños 2004; Iborra and Martínez 2009; Saña 2011; Sierra et al. 2019; Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021). Milk use was also documented by means of lipid residue analysis (Debono Spiteri et al. 2016; Cubas et al. 2020).

One of the most poorly understood features of Neolithic sheep management in the Iberian Peninsula is the breeding and lambing periods. Until now, only data on the Neolithic sheep in the Els Trocs cave is available (Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021) where winter/spring and autumn births were documented.

In temperate latitudes, maximum sexual activity of ewes occurs in mid autumn and births occur at the end of winter or the beginning of spring, after 5-5.5 months of gestation (Hafez 1952; Jewell and Grubb 1974; Cambero 1997; Malpaux et al. 1996; Santiago-Moreno et al. 2006). This reproductive seasonality is under photoperiodic control as a response to climatic variability and the seasonal availability of resources (Dwyer 2008). But although photoperiodic control remains important, the process of domestication and/or environmental factors (e.g. temperature, nutritional status, timing of births, or social interactions), whether or not they are controlled by the herder, have contributed to modifying reproductive seasonality (e.g. Poulton and Robinson 1987; Forcada et al. 1992; Rose and Bryant 2003; Gómez-Brunet et al. 2012). Earliest pieces of evidence of this sheep lambing deseasoning in the Western Mediterranean were documented in southern France (Tornero et al. 2020) and in the already mentioned Iberian Peninsula sheep of Els Trocs cave, by means of sequential oxygen (δ^{18} O) and carbon (δ^{13} C) isotope analyses.

The δ^{18} O values measured in sheep molars mainly come from ingested water and the consumption of plants. These δ^{18} O values are in turn related to the original signatures in meteoric water. In temperate areas, δ^{18} O values in meteoric water vary according to ambient temperature. In mid and high latitudes, the highest values of δ^{18} O occur in the warmest months and the lowest values in the coldest months (Gat 1980). Thus, sequential series of δ^{18} O values in sheep tooth enamel can provide evidence for changes in temperature means that occurred during the formation of the tooth (Bryant et al. 1996; Fricke and O'Neil 1996); although low inter-individual variability is noted during transient events (Green et al. 2017); this can be used to determine the seasonality of birth of the analysed individuals. This is an approach with great temporal precision of the isotopic signal because the period of tooth formation is very similar across individuals (Hillson 2005). Further, tooth enamel is not remodelled once formed and this tissue is less susceptible than others to diagenetic alterations during fossilization (Lee-Thorp et al. 1989; 1991; Shahack-Gross et al. 1999).

In addition, sequential series of δ^{18} O values from modern sheep specimens facilitates both comparisons with our archaeological assemblages and the determination of a precise season of birth and duration of the lambing period (Balasse et al. 2012a, 2012b; Tornero et al. 2013). These data are important, not only for understanding the management of herds but also the cycles of occupations at archaeological sites. Furthermore, the combination of these data with information regarding ageat-death and mortality profiles from sheep faunal remains can help detect seasonal occupations of the settlements.

These can be also complemented by an analysis of δ^{13} C values from dental enamel, which can provide information on the diet of the sheep and herd feeding strategies. δ^{13} C values are incorporated into sheep enamel from consumed plants. Plants differ on its δ^{13} C values depending on whether they are classified as C₃ or C₄. At present, in Iberia, C₃ plants (trees, shrubs, most herbaceous dicotyledonous plants and most grasses) are the most common species and C₄ are residual (Mateu 1993). An average δ^{13} C value of -13% in bioapatite tooth enamel indicates that C₃ were the predominant types of plants consumed by sheep (Cerling and Harris 1999; Kohn 2010).

The composition and seasonal variation of herds' diets can be estimated by investigating the covariation of both isotopic curves of δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values (Balasse et al. 2002). The δ^{13} C values of plants vary according to their photosynthesis strategies and environmental conditions (Bender 1971). Thus, the plants of closed areas, present more negative values of δ^{13} C, due to the forest depletion of ¹³C or 'canopy effect' (van der Merwe and Medina 1991; Drucker et al. 2008; Tornero et al. 2020).

Synchronous rises and falls in δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values mark a dietary seasonality in which individuals ingest ¹³C-enriched water-stressed graze in the hottest and driest months of the summer (Fraser et al. 2008). In addition, when δ^{13} C values are especially depleted during specific seasons, this could be related to the use of leaf fodder from a dense forest for animal feeding (Balasse et al. 2012b).

In this paper, we present an isotopic analysis (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) of the sheep from the oldest Neolithic occupations of El Mirador cave.

El Mirador cave has become a paradigmatic site for understanding the adoption and development of husbandry practices in the Submeseta Norte region. Firstly, it is strategically located between the Ebro and Duero basins, along the natural communication routes that could have served to spread the Neolithic package in these areas. Secondly, the first Neolithic occupations of El Mirador date from the second half of the 6th millennium BCE (5210-5170 cal BCE), and are some of the oldest in inland Iberia (Vergès et al. 2016a). Thirdly, El Mirador is a sheepfold cave, where domestic caprines are abundant, being sheep the most numerous (Angelucci et al. 2009; Martín 2015; Vergès et al. 2016a). In particular, the abundance of perinatal caprines suggests that the cave was used especially as a fold for pregnant females and their offspring (Martín et al. 2016). This pattern of occupation is especially intense in older levels (6th and 5th millennia) where perinatal individuals were more abundant.

The main objective of this research is to study the reproductive seasonality and seasonal dietary patterns of sheep reared during the earliest occupations of El Mirador cave. This information will help us address the following issues of early livestock management in inland Iberia:

- the seasonality of births and the length of the lambing period;
- strategies for the supply of animal feed;
- the use of El Mirador cave in relation to husbandry practices.

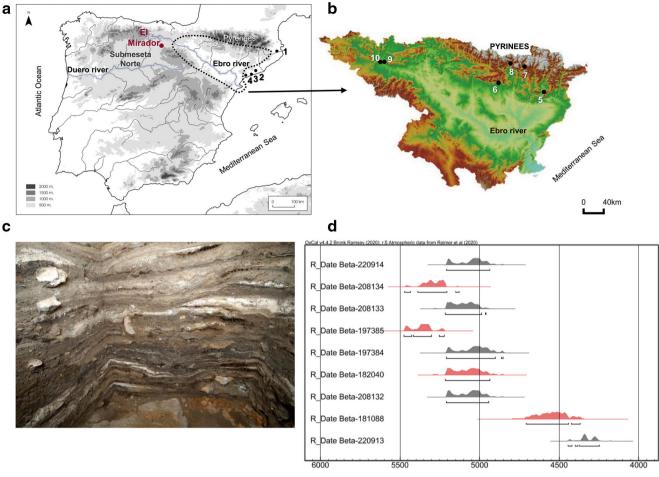
Archaeological context

El Mirador cave (Sierra de Atapuerca, Burgos) is in the Submeseta Norte region of the Iberian Peninsula (Fig. 1), a wide plain with an altitude above sea level of more than 600 m. El Mirador cave is located at 1033 m.a.s.l. Its geographical coordinates are 42° 20'58" N, 03° 30' 33" W.

The cave was mainly used as a sheepfold from the Early to Late Neolithic and during the Middle Bronze Age (Vergès et al. 2016a), although waste remains from domestic activities performed in the cave have also been documented. The faunal remains studied here come from the base levels (MIR24, MIR19, MIR16, MIR15 and MIR14) of a 6m² test pit sequence, dated to the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE. Archaeologically, the use of the cave as a sheepfold is well supported by the successive sedimentary layers formed by dung and plant remains, referred to by the French term *fumier* (Brochier 2002; Angelucci et al. 2009). Unburned layers of dung, which accumulated during herd stabling, were alternated with layers of dung which were burned to sanitize the area. The combustion process is affected by several important variables (Vergès et al. 2016b) that generate a high complexity fumier stratigraphic sequences with vertical and lateral variability and sedimentary discontinuity (Angelucci et al. 2009; Vergès et al. 2016a).

As discussed above, a mixed crop and livestock economy was practiced at El Mirador cave site (Martín 2015; Martín et al. 2016; Rodríguez et al. 2016; Bañuls et al. 2017; Expósito et al. 2017). These two activities were documented both inside and outside the cave. Palynological analyses showed the proximity of crop fields, based on cereal production (mainly *Triticum aestivum/durum* and *T. dicoccum*) (Rodríguez et al. 2016; Expósito et al. 2017). Crop threshing took place inside the cave and was most common at the base of the sequence (MIR19–MIR24), where higher percentages of synanthropic species and parts of cereal crops were documented (e.g. rachis fragments, spikelet forks and fork fragments) (Rodríguez and Buxó 2008; Rodríguez et al. 2016).

Husbandry was focused on sheep and goats, complemented with cattle and pig. Some wild species were



Calibrated date (calBC)

Fig. 1 Location of El Mirador cave (**a**) and of the main Early Neolithic of sites of the NE of the Iberian Peninsula and of the basin of the Ebro (with domestic fauna) (**b**). *Fumier* sequence of El Mirador cave (**c**). Radiocarbon dates (cal BC) from 6th and 5th millennium occupations of El Mirador (short-lived dates in black; long-lived dates in red) (Vergès et al. 2016a) (**d**). The calibration of radiocarbon dates using OxCal v.4.4.2 (Bronk Ramsey 2009, 2017). List of the Early Neolithic sites: 1. La Draga (5314–5209) (Terradas-Batlle et al. 2015); 2. Les

also included in the diet of the people inhabiting El Mirador cave, but they were of secondary importance (Martín et al. 2009; Martín 2015; Martín et al. 2016). Amongst sheep and goats, there is a predominance of perinatal individuals (foetuses and neonates) (75–41.7% of total sheep/goat MNI) (Fig. 2). Although the high degree of fracturing and the abundance of these perinatal individuals have made it difficult to distinguish between goat and sheep species, there is a slight predominance of sheep, especially in the Neolithic occupations (Martín 2015) (Fig. 2).

The pollen signal has also yielded information about husbandry pressure around the site, with the presence of nitrophilous plants that are common in livestock areas (e.g. *Plantago* spp. or Urticaceae, amongst others) (Expósito et al. 2017). These areas were composed of a vegetal mosaic of open prairies, fields and woody areas (deciduous and

Guixeres de Vilobí (5660–5500/5510–5350) (Oms et al. 2014); 3. El Cavet (5740–5630) (Fontanals et al. 2008); 4. Cova de la Font Major (5390–5190) (Cebrià et al. 2014); 5. Cova Colomera (5614–5479) (Oms et al. 2013); 6. Chaves (5614–5479) (Baldellou Martínez 2011); 7. Els Trocs (5315–5215) (Rojo-Guerra et al. 2014); 8. Coro Trasito (5322–5207) (Clemente-Conte et al. 2016); 9 Peña Larga (5710–5610/ 5590–5560) (Fernández-Eraso 1989); 10. Los Husos I (5320–5040) (Fernández-Eraso and Mujika-Alustiza 2013)

evergreen oak, *Fraxinus* sp., *Pinus Sylvestris* and *Corylus avellana*) (Euba et al. 2016; Rodríguez et al. 2016; Expósito et al. 2017). Based on the presence of young deciduous branches or fragments of *Quercus* spp. in the sequence of El Mirador cave, anthracological studies point to the possibility that people used resources from woody areas to obtain fodder for the herd (Allué and Euba 2008; Euba et al. 2016).

Materials and methods

Eight M2 of *Ovis aries* were selected for this study, five of which came from mandibular dental series and three of which were isolated teeth (Table 1). Because M3 generally show more inter-individual variability in the timing of enamel formation, M2 were used (Blaise and Balasse

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Fig. 2 Synthesis data provided by the study of the faunal remains of El Mirador from the occupations of the 6th and 5th millennia BC (Martín 2015; Martín et al. 2016). These data include the distribution of the NIM by age; where possible, it is noted whether it is a sheep (O) or a goat (C). The determination of the age of foetal and neonatal individuals was done following the criteria of Martín and García-González (2015). Postnatal age classification was performed using Payne's methodology (1973)

								V						
	MIR24	MIR23	MIR22	MIR21	MIR20	MIR19	MIR18	MIR17	MIR16	MIR15	MIR14	MIR13	MIR12	MIR11
NR	80	130	110	630	425	740	762	91	1386	303	269	352	465	1364
NISP	34	45	46	277	140	229	276	35	434	96	138	135	130	179
MNI	5	5	4	12	11	16	22	5	19	8	10	12	12	18
				-				·			a.			
Domestic caprine representation														
85 -	- 89	- 83	- 8				90 77	01	. 02 -	- 98	- 96 -	- 95		
F7 60 F7 61 71 75 70 73 71														
			-	-	50	52		<u> </u>	-	-	-		54	- 49 36
MIR24	MIR2	3 MIR2	22 MIR	21 MI	R20 M	IR19 I	MIR18	MIR17	MIR16	MIR15	MIR14	MIR13	MIR12	2 MIR11
					-	<u> </u>	NISP	%	MNI					
				1	Dom	estic	caprine	es: perina	tal rat	ios	1			
				1.00				<u></u>						
MIR18	3 🖛							MIR11				_		
MIR19	, 🛑			_				MIR12	2					
MIR20) 🕳			_				MIR13	3 🖛				_	
MIR21	_					_		MIR14		_		_	_	
MIR22						_		MIR15					_	
								MIR16						
MIR23														
MIR24				>				MIR17				2		
	0%		5	60%		10	0%		0%		50)%		100%
				■ Fet	tus		□ Neon	atus	Oth	ier grou	ips of a	ade		

General zooarchaeological data

Distribution of MNI by age at death

Period	G	estation							
Phases	1		- 111	Α	В	С	D	E and others	Total
Levels	End 3th	4th	5th	0-1	1-6	6-12	12-24	>24	
MIR24		1 O/C	1 O/C	1 O/C			1 C		3
MIR23			2 O/C	10				1 O + 1 C	5
MIR22			1 O/C	1 O/C				10+1C	4
MIR21	1 O/C	1 O/C	3 O/C	3 O/C		20		3 O	13
MIR20		1 O/C	1 O/C	2 O/C			10	1 O/C + 1 O	7
MIR19	1 O/C	2 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C	1 O/C + 1C	10	1 O/C + 1 O	2 C	13
MIR18	1 O/C	2 O/C	5 O/C	5 O/C	10 +1C	2 O/C	1 O + 2 C		20

Period	G	estation			Postnatal						
Phases	l l	II	=	Α	В	С	D	E and others	Total		
Levels	End 3th	4th	5th	0-1	1-6	6-12	12-24	>24			
MIR17	1 O/C	1 O/C	1 O/C					1 O/C	4		
MIR16	1 O/C	3 O/C	5 O/C	2 O/C	2 C		1 O/C + 1 C	2 O + 1 C	18		
MIR15	1 O/C	1 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C				2 O/C	7		
MIR14	1 O/C	1 O/C	1 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C	20	1 C	1 O/C + 1 O	11		
MIR13	1 O/C	3 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C	1 C			20	10		
MIR12		1 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C	1 C	10		1 O/C	7		
MIR11		1 O/C	2 O/C	1 O/C	1 O/C + 1 O	10		1 C	8		

2011; Tornero et al. 2013; Balasse et al. 2020). M2 are mainly formed during the first year of life, from 2–3 months to 12 months of age (Weinreb and Sharav 1964; Milhaud and Nezit 1991).

Sampled teeth came from eight different individuals that came from five archaeological levels dating to the second half of 6th and 5th millennium cal BCE (Table 1).

The identification of the remains as *Ovis aries* was carried out using morphological criteria established by various authors (Payne 1985; Helmer 2000; Halstead et al. 2002; Zeder and Pilaar 2010; Gillis et al. 2011). Individuals were identified by examining tooth laterality and dental age. Dental age was determined using criteria of eruption and tooth wear (Ducos 1968; Payne 1973; Deniz and Payne 1982; Payne 1985; Gourichon 2004; Jones 2006; Greenfield and Arnold 2008) and root development (Hillson 2005) (Table 1).

Tooth enamel was sampled horizontally and in sequential bands. Firstly, tooth surfaces were cleaned with a tungsten Table 1 Description of the specimens (M2) analysed: laboratory acronym, level of origin of the sample, description of the dental series, dental wear stage of the specimen after Pavne criteria (1973), age estimation (years) according Payne's dental stage.

Individuals	Level	Dental series description	M ₂ wear stage	Age estimation
MIR Ovis 01	MIR16	P ₄ -M ₂	DE	2–3
MIR Ovis 02	MIR16	dP ₄ -M ₂	D	2
MIR Ovis 03	MIR16	M ₂	DE	1–2
MIR Ovis 05	MIR15	M_2	DE	1–2
MIR Ovis 06	MIR14	P ₄ -M ₃	EFG	3–4
MIR Ovis 07	MIR15	M_2	DE	1–2
MIR Ovis 08	MIR24	M ₁ -M ₃	D	1–2
MIR Ovis 09	MIR19	P ₄ -M ₂	EFG	3–4

abrasive drill bit. Then, sequential samples of enamel were removed from the anterior lobes and the buccal sides of the teeth by drilling with a diamond bit. The distance of each drilled sample from the enamel-root junction (ERJ) was recorded (in mm). In total, 124 tooth enamel bands were sampled for oxygen and carbon isotopic analyses.

Powdered enamel samples were chemically treated at the Biomolecular Laboratory of the Institut Català de Paleoecologia Humana i Evolució Social (IPHES).

Samples weighed from 3.3 to 8.8 mg. Chemical treatment of samples was based on protocols originally proposed by Koch et al. (1997) and later modified in Tornero et al. (2013). Samples were treated for 4 h in 0.1 M acetic acid [CH₃COOH] (0.1 ml solution/0.1 mg of sample), neutralized with distilled water and freeze-dried. As a result, the samples lost an average of $39 \pm 8.9\%$ of their weight.

Treated enamel powder samples were analysed on a GasBench II coupled with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan Delta V) at the Stable Light Isotope Laboratory of the University of Cape Town, in South Africa. They were reacted in a vacuum with 100% phosphoric acid [H₃PO₄] at 70°C in individual vessels and purified in an automated cryogenic distillation system. δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values are expressed in the Vienna-Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB) standard. Accuracy and precision of the measurements were checked using an internal laboratory calcium carbonate standard (Marbre CM normalised to NBS 18 and NBS19 international standards). Over the period of analysis, a total of 20 Marbre CM samples were measured (expected values +0.34% for δ^{13} C and -8.95% for δ^{18} O) (SI 1). Mean analytical precision of Marbre CM within each series was $+0.13 \pm$ 0.071% for δ^{13} C and $+0.06 \pm 0.043\%$ for δ^{18} O values.

Finally, in order to eliminate inter-individual variability in tooth size, sequences of δ^{18} O values were modelled following the cosine function proposed by Balasse et al. (2012a). The model includes the following parameters: X (period of the cycle in mm that corresponds to the length of the crown formed over a year); A (max-min)/2; amplitude of stable isotope signal measured in enamel in $\%_0$; M (mean in $\%_0$); and x_0 (delay, i.e. position in tooth crown where δ^{18} O is the highest).

The model's fit was estimated using Pearson's correlation coefficient (Siegel and Castellan 1988).

Normalised X₀/X values from El Mirador cave specimens were compared with data from modern sheep dataset references with known lambing seasons to fit the season of birth on the archaeological specimens. These reference data included individuals born in late winter/early spring (Blaise and Balasse 2011; Balasse et al. 2012a; Balasse et al. 2017) and autumn (Blaise and Balasse 2011; Tornero et al. 2018).

Results

Results from δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O analyses are summarised in Table 2 and fully presented in the Supplementary Information (SI2).

The mean δ^{18} O value of all samples was $-3.6\pm1.6\%$ and values ranged from 0.1% to -6.6%. Mean values for each specimen ranged from -2.1 to 4.7%, maximum values ranged between 0.1 and -2.8%, and minimum values ranged between -4.1 and 6.6%.

The mean δ^{13} C values of all samples was $-12.5\pm0.62\%$ and values ranged from -10.91 to -14.17%. Mean values for each specimen ranged from -11.8 to -13.7%, maximum values ranged from -10.9 to -13.2%, and minimum values varied between -12.3 and -14.2%.

Whole sequences of δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values are presented in Fig. 3. Both δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O sequences showed high intra-tooth variation that followed a sinusoidal pattern. These distributions demonstrate maximum and minimum peak events in the sequences. Maximum δ^{18} O peak events were related to the warmest seasonal episodes and minimum peak events to the coldest seasonal episodes. The duration of the sequences was variable for each sampled specimen because of differences in crown heights due to wear stage and diminution of the tooth crown. Some specimens were about 1 year old (i.e. MIR Ovis 07 and 08), others about 6 to 9 months (MIR Ovis 01, 02, 03, 05, and 09), and MIR Ovis 06 was younger than 6 months. Based on histological studies, the presence of longer sequences in specimens MIR Ovis 07

Table 2Summarised $\delta^{18}O_{V-}$ PDB‰ and $\delta^{13}C_{V-PDB}$ ‰ data foreach analysed individual

Individuals	Ν	$\delta^{18}O_{V-P}$	$_{ m DB}\%_{o}$			$\delta^{13}C_{V-PDB}$ %0				
		Mean	Range	Max.	Min.	Mean	Range	Max.	Min.	
MIR Ovis 01	16	-3.3	1.6	-1.7	-5.0	-12.1	0.5	-11.8	-12.3	
MIR Ovis 02	17	-2.1	4	0.1	-4.1	-11.8	1.4	-10.9	-12.3	
MIR Ovis 03	17	-4.4	3.9	-2.4	-6.3	-12.7	1.3	-11.9	-13.2	
MIR Ovis 05	17	-4.7	4.7	-1.9	-6.6	-13.0	1	-12.6	-13.6	
MIR Ovis 06	12	-2.8	3.8	-1.6	-5.4	-13.7	1	-13.2	-14.2	
MIR Ovis 07	16	-4.2	2.9	-2.8	-5.7	-11.9	0.8	-11.5	-12.3	
MIR Ovis 08	18	-3.1	4.7	-0.9	-5.6	-12.4	1.6	-11.7	-13.3	
MIR Ovis 09	11	-3.8	4.4	-1.3	-5.7	-12.8	0.6	-12.4	-13.0	

and 08 is expected given the length of the period of enamel formation in sheep M2 teeth (Weinreb and Sharav 1964; Hillson 2005; Green et al. 2017).

Inter-individual variability in the distance from the ERJ to the maximum δ^{18} O peak within the crown of the M2 may be a consequence of differences in birth seasonality. Following this observation, sampled specimens can be grouped into two different categories: (a) those specimens whose maximum δ^{18} O value peaks between 3.41 and 9 mm from the ERJ; and (b) a two specimens (MIR_Ovis_06 and MIR_Ovis_07) whose maximum sequence peaks are between 11 and 22 mm from the ERJ. To estimate differences in birth seasons between sampled specimens, these oxygen sequences were modelled following the cosine function in Balasse et al. (2012a). Results from the calculation of the best fit are presented in Table 3. The specimen MIR_Ovis_06 was not selected for this process due to its short isotopic sequence. In all specimens, Pearson's correlation coefficients were higher than 0.97, indicating that the models were accurate (Table 3). Normalised x₀/X values from El Mirador cave ranged from 0.13 to 0.93 (Fig. 4). Excluding value 0.93 of MIR_Ovis_07, the rest of the individuals showed values similar to those observed in modern sheep born between late winter and mid-spring. Indeed, within this group,

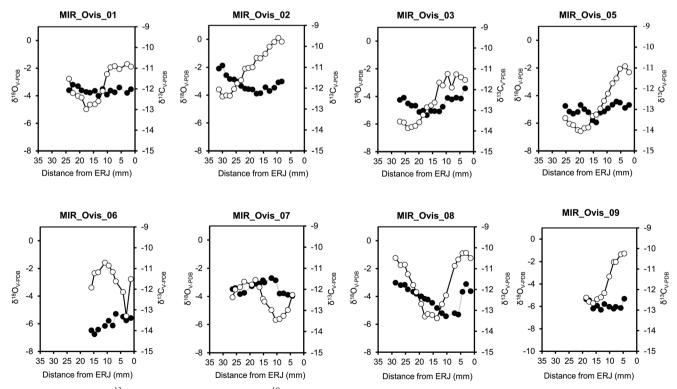


Fig. 3 Stable carbon (δ^{13} C) (black symbols) and oxygen (δ^{18} O) (white symbols) isotope values measured in El Mirador sheep M2

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Table 3Results from the calculation of the best fit (by method of leastsquares) for combined variation of X (period), A (amplitude), x0 (delay),and M (mean). The Pearson's correlation coefficient (R) was alsocalculated

Specimens	X (mm)	A (‰)	<i>x</i> ₀ (mm)	M (‰)	R	<i>x</i> ₀ / <i>X</i>
MIR Ovis 01	24.61	1.6	4.74	-3.1	0.972	0.19
MIR Ovis 02	33.01	1.8	11.54	-2.0	0.973	0.35
MIR Ovis 03	33.65	1.8	6.68	-4.4	0.981	0.20
MIR Ovis 05	31.40	2.2	4.01	-4.4	0.991	0.13
MIR Ovis 07	22.36	1.4	20.75	-4.1	0.976	0.93
MIR Ovis 08	25.29	2.2	3.21	-3.3	0.991	0.13
MIR Ovis 09	22.15	2.3	4.88	-3.5	0.996	0.22

all sheep were born in late winter and early spring and the duration of the lambing period can be estimated to about 2.64 months (0.22 year) (max-min x0/X values: 0.35 in MIR_Ovis_02, 0.13 in MIR_Ovis_08 and MIR_Ovis_05). Conversely, MIR_Ovis_07 is similar to modern sheep specimens born in mid-autumn. The unmodelled MIR_Ovis_06 sheep could also represent a birth occurring in autumn (Fig. 4).

Discussion

In this study we carried out an isotopic study (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) of several individuals of sheep coming from the earliest occupations of El Mirador, with the aim of deepening our understanding of the beginning of livestock practices at this site and in inland Iberia. We focused on the observation of the reproductive seasonality of sheep, their management and exploitation.

Seasonality of births and lambing period length

Isotopic data from El Mirador cave confirm the general trend for Neolithic sheep with a predominance of births in late winter and early spring (Tornero et al. 2016a, 2016b; Balasse et al. 2017, 2020).

Caprine reproduction is seasonal, with periods of ovulation and periods of anoestrus. This reproductive behaviour is regulated by photoperiodic control in both wild and domestic species. In temperate latitudes, the birth period occurs at the end of winter and during the spring (e.g. Hafez 1952; Santiago-Moreno et al. 2000; Cassinello 2017). This even is the case in some current Iberian domestic herds in which the shepherd does not intervene in the reproductive cycle (Violant i Simorra 2001; Miralles and Tutusaus 2005).

However, the process of domestication itself caused changes in the reproductive cycles of these animals such as those linked to management by the shepherd, for example via control of diet or in males' sexual access to females (Hafez 1952; Dwyer 2008). One of the consequences of this process was an increase in the variability of the length of the birthing period, which is directly linked to an extension of the ovulation period of the ewes. For example, populations of modern mouflon, located in the Near East or the Iberian Peninsula, show a lambing period of 1-2 months (Valdez 2008; Cassinello 2017) but populations bred in captivity in the Iberian Peninsula present more extended lambing periods (Santiago-Moreno et al. 2000). The Early Neolithic domestic sheep of the Middle East (8th millennium) (Tornero et al. 2016a) and Europe (6th millennium) had a longer lambing period than wild sheep (Balasse et al. 2017, 2020).

The winter/spring birthing season of El Mirador cave sheep extended over 2.64 months (Fig. 4). This is similar to the lambing period observed at Tell Halula (PPNB, Syria; early evidence of domestic sheep) (Tornero et al. 2016a), and is

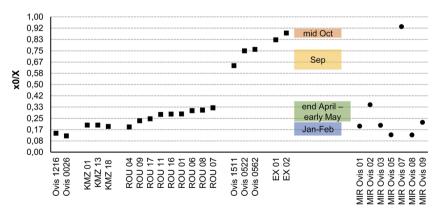


Fig. 4 Results from normalisation of the position in the M2 crown for the highest δ^{18} O value (x₀), using the period (X) of the cycle. Comparison of El Mirador datasets with modern reference sets. Raw data of domestic ewes from the primitive 'southern pre-Alps' breed, raised on the Carmejane farm (France) (Ovis 1216, Ovis 0026, Ovis 1511, Ovis 0522, Ovis 0562) after Blaise and Balasse (2011); raw data of sheep form

a OuessantxLandes de Bretagne cross, raised on the island of Kemened (KMZ) after Balasse et al. (2017); raw data of sheep from a Shetland cross, from the island of Rousay in Orkney (ROU) after Balasse et al. 2012a, 2012b); raw data of Xisqueta sheep raised on a working farm in the Ebro Valley (Spain) (XT) after Tornero et al. (2018).

slightly shorter than the 3–4 month duration of the Neolithic sites of the early 6th millennium in the Balkans and Central Europe (Balasse et al. 2017, 2020), characterised by a mixed farming economy that was fully consolidated (e.g. Nikolov 2007).

The case of El Mirador cave could be one more evidence of the relationship between domestication and the extension of the period of sexual activity of the sheep, suggested by other authors (Hafez 1952; Balasse et al. 2017).

In El Mirador cave, there is also a particularity, with the presence of the individual MIR_Ovis_02 that was born in late April or early May. This individual is an outlier in the group of El Mirador winter/spring births since he was born in a late date, more similar to the one presented by the sheep of higher latitudes, such as the Orkney sheep (Hafez 1952; Balasse et al. 2017). The other three winter/spring individuals were born in period more reduced to 1.08 months (0.09 year) (max min x0/ X values; 0.22 in MIR_Ovis_09, 0.13 in MIR_Ovis_08).

The decisions of the herder could have been of great importance both for the achievement of these four births. The birth of the individual MIR_Ovis_02 means a breeding season in a time of harsh weather conditions in late autumn so it would be necessary a good nutritional state of the ewe. The concentration of the other three births in 1 month could have been of benefit to the herder.

To concentrate births into a relatively short timeframe would have helped herder have greater control over and provide better care to newborns and ewes who had just given birth at a complex time in the annual livestock cycle (Represa 1998). It would also help to make sheep breeding compatible with other domesticates' breeding cycles and with other activities there. Based on available ethnographic and zootechnical data, control over lambing cycles may have been exerted in various ways without chemical intervention (Hammond 1940; Hjort and Dahl 1991; Seguí 1999). Some of the most common traditional techniques are the separation of males and females into different herds or the covering of male genitals, which causes males to become sexually aroused by contact with the females when the cover is removed ('male effect') (Owen et al. 1994; Gómez-Brunet et al. 2012). The practice of separating the herds by sex at El Mirador has already been proposed (Martín 2015) on the basis of a series of criteria shared with other sheepfold caves (Beeching et al. 2000; Helmer et al. 2005a, 2005b; Miracle and Forenbaher 2005; Miracle 2006; Bréhard et al. 2010): (1) similar specialised use of the caves as folds, (2) the clear predominance of domestic caprines over other domestic species, and (3) the abundance of perinatal individuals amongst domestic caprines.

Archaeological and isotopic evidence indicates a fast adaptation of domestic sheep in the inland of the Iberian Peninsula during the Early Neolithic (Saña et al. 2020; Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021). This is the reason why, although the influence of natural factors (such as climatic conditions) cannot be ruled out to explain the seasonality of the births at El Mirador and a larger sample is needed, it is reasonable to hypothesise the intervention should also be assessed.

The intervention of the shepherd in the reproduction of the flock could also be related to the presence of the two autumn births at El Mirador cave. The two identified specimens came from archaeological levels MIR 14 (MIR_Ovis_06) and MIR 15 (MIR_Ovis_07), dated to the second half of the 5th millennium cal BCE. As mentioned above, although the reproductive seasonality of sheep is regulated by photoperiodic control, other factors can influence it as well (Rose and Bryant 2003; Gómez-Brunet et al. 2012). In fact, under the management of the herder, current sheep breeds in the Iberian Peninsula (e.g. Manchega, Rasa Aragonesa, or Merino breeds) have a long breeding season (from summer to winter) with seasonal anoestrus that lasts about 3–4 months (Santiago-Moreno et al. 2000; Gómez-Brunet et al. 2012).

For this to occur, the adaptation of the sheep to their environment and the intervention of the shepherd's care are very important. This intervention can be more or less intense and focus on different areas of herd management, which are usually interrelated, e.g. feeding supplements, sexual stimulation, or weaning decisions (Rose and Bryant 2003).

Earliest isotopic evidence of archaeological sheep born in autumn has been documented in Cyprus, in occupations of Cypro-Late PPNB (7600-6900 cal BCE) of Parekklishia-Shillourokambos and Kritou Marottou-Ais Yiorkis. The authors note that this is the birth period currently recorded in ethnozooarchaeological studies, because the arid Cypriot climate links to a period of greater pasture availability (Hadjíkoumis et al. 2019). However, the cases of El Mirador present some differences. In the El Mirador region, pastures shrink drastically in mid-autumn, although the availability of other foods, such as acorns, increases. In addition, autumnal weather is harsher, with an increase in humidity and a decrease in temperatures (Fig. 5). Moreover Parekklishia-Shillourokambos and Kritou Marottou-Ais Yiorkis are located at a lower latitude (34°N) than El Mirador (42°N); this shifted periodicity may have affected sheep reproduction there (Hafez 1952).

Recent publications evidence autumn sheep births from the Early Neolithic in southern France (6th millennium cal BCE) (Tornero et al. 2020) and the southern slopes of the Central Pyrenees, in the Iberian Peninsula (6th–4th millennium cal BCE) (Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021) sites. In both cases, the success of these births is attributed to human intervention and shepherding activities. Els Trocs cave data (Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021) are especially interesting because of its location in the inland of the Iberian Peninsula. These pieces of evidence, together with that of El Mirador, would confirm the process of adaptation of the sheep to the climatic and environmental conditions of the Iberian interior and the rapid consolidation of husbandry practices in this area.

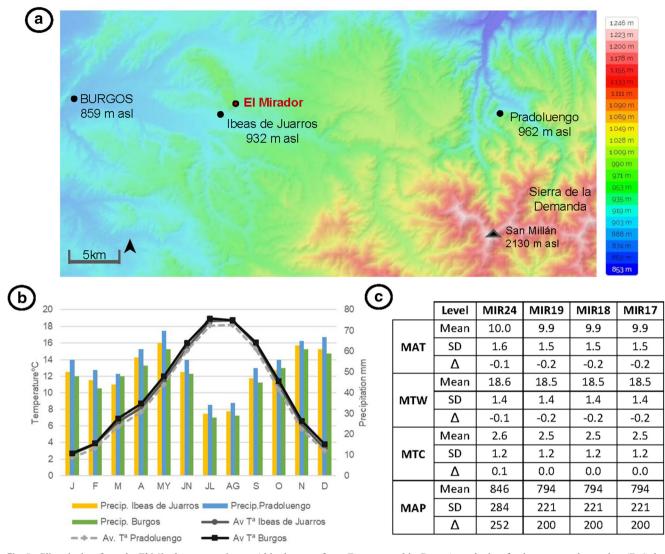


Fig. 5 Climatic data from the El Mirador cave region. a. Altitude map of the areas surrounding El Mirador cave with the climatic reference points used for the climate graph. b. Climate graph with current data (1982-2012), average temperatures/month and average rainfall/month (source: climate-data.org). c. Temperatures and precipitation from the 6th millennium (MIR24, MIR19, MIR18) and 5th millennium (MIR17) occupations of El Mirador cave, obtained from the MER (Mutual

Ecogeographic Range) analysis of micromammal remains (Bañuls-Cardona and López-García 2016). MAT (mean annual temperature): MTW (mean temperature of the warmest month); MTC (mean tempera-García (2016)

The dietary and mobile management of sheep herds at El Mirador cave

The potential schedule and modification of the reproductive sheep cycle at El Mirador would imply, at least and amongst other factors, that the nutritional state of the flocks was good, especially the females (i.e. Hafez 1952; Forcada et al. 1992; León et al. 2005). In this sense, the shepherds of the Iberian Peninsula have traditionally used different techniques to provide food to the herds throughout the year, e.g. through the provisioning of foraging or the practice of seasonal movements, amongst others (e.g. Cambero 1997; Violant i Simorra 2001; Miralles and Tutusaus 2005).

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ture of the coldest month); MAP (mean annual precipitation); SD (standard deviation); Δ (difference in relation to the current means at meteorological stations) (Table modified from Bañuls-Cardona and López-At El Mirador, sheep samples show a small range of δ^{13} C

values (max-min δ^{13} C values) within sequential series. This could be an indicator that these animals ate in a fairly homogeneous environment throughout the annual cycle. Furthermore, the oscillation of the δ^{13} C sequences seems to follow the same pattern as that recorded in δ^{18} O sequences in many specimens, hence the same climatic variation.

These data are in accordance with the climatic and paleoclimatic information of the region. The areas surrounding the Sierra de Atapuerca have a temperate oceanic climate 'Cfb,' (following the Köppen climate classification). Unlike the Mediterranean 'Csa' climate and Ebro Valley 'BSk' climate, 'Cfb' climate regions do not have dry seasons, rather they

have temperate summers with rainfall evenly distributed throughout the year, though with a slight decrease during the summer (AEMET 2011). Currently, the environment of El Mirador would be similar to that documented through the archaeological record (Rodríguez et al. 2016), although with a greater extension of open areas, due to urbanization and crop fields. The studies on micromammals recovered from the occupations from the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE of El Mirador indicate that climatic conditions were also similar to those of the present, although with slightly higher rainfall levels (Bañuls-Cardona and López-García 2016) (Fig. 5). These climatic characteristics and the vegetal mosaic that surrounded the cave of El Mirador could have provided resources for feeding the flock throughout the year without the sheep having to move large distances in search of pastures. This use of the nearest territory for feeding has also been documented in the Early Neolithic sheep at La Draga (northeastern Iberian Peninsula), also using combined δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O (Navarrete et al. 2019).

Another noteworthy aspect of El Mirador is the low δ^{13} C values (lowered to -12.8%) observed in some individuals (MIR_Ovis_03, 05, and 08) but, especially in MIR_Ovis_06, coinciding, again, with a time of falling temperatures marked by low δ^{18} O values (Fig. 3). In temperate latitudes, some studies have shown that the δ^{13} C values in tree species are more negative, especially in thicker forests, due to the so-called 'canopy effect' (van der Merwe and Medina 1991; Drucker et al. 2008). Similar low δ^{13} C values to those of El Mirador cave have also been documented in the Early Neolithic sheep of southern France sites of Täi and Gazel (Tornero et al. 2020). These could reflect a contribution of leaf fodder in sheep diet.

At El Mirador, these data could be evidence of the development of two techniques for feeding herds, which are not mutually exclusive: (1) the consumption by sheep of tree resources found in areas surrounding the cave, and (2) dietary supplementation with leaf fodder brought into the fold by the shepherd. At El Mirador, archaeobotanical studies have already suggested the possibility of using fodder to supplement herd feeding in the winter (Allué and Euba 2008; Euba et al. 2016; Rodríguez et al. 2016). The use of leaf fodder to reinforce herd feeding has also been supported by anthracological studies carried out in several sheepfold caves in Mediterranean contexts (Badal 1999; Thiébault 2005; Delhon et al. 2008; Allué et al. 2009). At El Mirador, a high percentage of charcoal from deciduous oak young branches has been documented. They presented tree rings with a rapid growth rate which could indicate that the trees were regularly shredded that could be related to their collection as fodder for livestock (Allué and Euba 2008; Euba et al. 2016). This would complement the use of evergreen oak leaves and herbaceous forage and seeds, that appear in fields and pastures (e.g. Bromus spp., Lolium spp., Mendicago spp., Melilotus spp., *Trifolium repens* and *Trifolium* spp.), which have also been identified at these levels in El Mirador (Rodríguez et al. 2016).

In addition, although the unmonitored consumption of woody plants is related to goats, who are eminent browsers, the use of woody forage for feeding sheep is also documented ethnographically (Solecki 1979; Halstead 1998; Seguí 1999; Zapata et al. 2003) and by ecological and agrarian studies (Ramos 2009). This option would also leave open the possibility that the low δ^{13} C values could be related to the free consumption of woody plants by the sheep of El Mirador.

Regarding shepherding movements, we also found three individuals (MIR_Ovis_02, 06 and 07) with an almost inverse relationship between their carbon and oxygen curves. The inverse relationship between δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O sequences has been interpreted as evidence of seasonal movements of the herds towards different ecological niches, for example from altitudinal locations in the mountains to the valley basins (Tornero et al. 2016a, 2016b, 2018; Makarewicz et al. 2017; Isaakidou et al. 2019; Tejedor-Rodríguez et al. 2021).

In all three cases of El Mirador sheep, the relationship between the two curves shows that the periods of highest humidity (lowest carbon values) coincide with ones when the oxygen curve begins to fall from the highest to the lowest values, i.e. periods when temperatures decreased (Fig. 3), that is the fall months (Fig. 5). Based on the seasonality of occupations, it is unlikely that these δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O patterns were due to seasonal movements of the herds at El Mirador. The pastures of the Sierra de Atapuerca or the neighbouring Sierra de la Demanda were traditionally occupied in the summer by those shepherds who opted for seasonal displacement of their herds for food maintenance. This is due to the altitude of this area (above 1000 m a.s.l.) and its humid conditions, which support quality pasture in summer, as opposed to other more arid areas of the Iberian Peninsula (Moreno Fernández 1996). However, in levels MIR 16, MIR15 and MIR14, where individuals Ovis 02, 06 and 07 came from, there is evidence of occupation of the fold at least in winter, and also in autumn, in the last case. In other words, presence inside the cave has been confirmed during seasons that, a priori, would not be optimal if seasonal movements of the flock were being carried out.

Economic use of sheep

Controlling the seasonality of sheep breeding has a direct impact on their economic use. The shorter the anoestrous phase of ewes, the greater the availability of resources from the herd, especially milk (Gómez-Brunet et al. 2012).

At El Mirador, mortality profiles of sheep and goats have been used to understand herd management (Fig. 2) because the high degree of fracture of the remains and the abundance of immature individuals makes it difficult to distinguish between the two species. In addition to the high proportion of perinatal individuals (Martín et al. 2016), there are adults (>24 months), juveniles (6–24) and infants (1–6 months) at El Mirador (Fig. 2). This mortality pattern has been linked to an economic system in which the exploitation of milk is prioritised over the specific use of meat (Martín et al. 2016). Perinatal deaths are likely the result of natural mortality (episodes of stress, disease, adverse cold/humidity conditions, etc.), but this does not mean that these phenomena are not taken advantage of for dairy or meat consumption by humans. We have found evidence of processing and consumption in foetal and neonatal meat (Martín et al. 2016).

According to this interpretation, the birth of most individuals at the end of winter/early spring would allow for the development of this economic system. Births would coincide with the beginning of the temperature rise in these latitudes that would favour the access to grasses of quality, for both females and their young. Thus, lambs could incorporate vegetables into their diet at 4 or 5 weeks, facilitating the human use of at least part of the milk production of females (Cambero 1997; Folch et al. 2007). Further, adequate access to pastures would favour the ewes' milk production since it requires that they be in a good nutritional state (Hammond 1940; Cambero 1997; Hjort and Dahl 1991). Finally, it would allow both females and calves to be prepared for possible summer displacements that may also require significant energy expenditure for these animals (Violant i Simorra 2001; Miralles and Tutusaus 2005).

The presence of two individuals whose birth season was in autumn was also documented in this study. These births may have been related to an attempt to optimise herd maintenance and milk production throughout the year by the shepherd. As discussed earlier, autumn-born individuals came from 5th millennium cal BCE occupations (MIR14 and MIR15). In addition, in MIR15 level, two individuals were sampled: aforementioned lamb, born in autumn and another born at the beginning of February. This could be a phenomenon of double births in a single year or even a cycle of three births in 2 years, which has also been documented in ethnographic studies (Cambero 1997). These same studies show the benefits of this practice of diversifying the seasonality of births, especially those which promote a cycle of three births in two years, as it is safer for the maintenance of the herd (especially if it is extensive) in various ways. Firstly, it allows the weakest or less prolific females to forgo a birthing cycle. Secondly, it benefits the reserve of lambs that have just reached puberty (around 6 months) and which have difficulty going into heat for the first time (Dahl and Hjort 1976; Santiago-Moreno et al. 2004; Folch et al. 2007). Thirdly, this practice would also alleviate any issues in achieving coverage if the lactation anoestrous periods and the seasonal anoestrous periods coincide (Folch et al. 2007). Finally, it helps reduce the risk of overcrowding and problems of neonatal death, as newborns are cared for by the shepherd (Martín-Gómez et al. 2009).

Seasonality of El Mirador occupations

At El Mirador cave, understanding sheep birth seasonality can elucidate additional information about the duration occupations of the site and herd management. The abundance of foetuses at this site introduces a higher degree of precision of mortality profiles than that observed at other contemporaneous sites. This is because the skeletal development of foetal individuals is less affected by agents that affect the skeleton. This is because the same agents affect foetal individuals less than they do postnatal ones (Martín and García-González 2015).

The stratigraphic sequence of *fumier* deposits reflects a pattern of cyclical occupation with periods of abandonment. Periodic dung burning was necessary to keep the space clean. Key questions remain regarding the duration of each of the occupations and whether burning took place immediately before or after the departure of the herd. Ethnographic studies have documented burning taking place in late summer or early autumn, a few months after the herd abandonment of the sheepfolds (Brochier et al. 1992; Acovitsioti-Hameau et al. 2000; Brochier 2002), which allowed dung and urine to dry prior to burning (Vergès 2011; Vergès et al. 2016b).

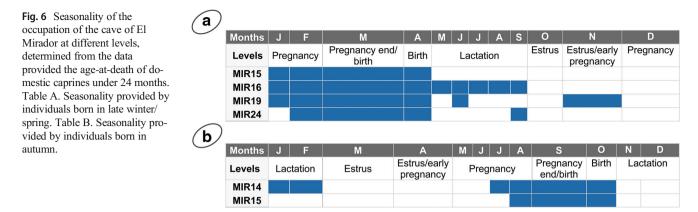
The *fumier* levels of El Mirador cave correspond to events limited in time and the materials recovered from each of them are those that were deposited during the occupation or set of occupations that took place between one burning process and another (Vergès et al. 2016a).

This isotopic study, in combination with data provided from the mortality profiles (Fig. 6) (Martín 2015), showed a general trend of cave occupation from winter to early summer. Likewise, at some levels (MIR16, MIR19 and MIR24), individuals were present during or at the end of summer. The MIR14 level, with autumnal birth seasonality, presented an occupation of late summer and early autumn and during the winter months (Fig. 6). The MIR15 level, with evidence of autumn and spring births, presented an almost annual occupation (Fig. 6).

In the rest of the levels from the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE, on which it has not been possible to perform isotopic analyses, occupations were also observed in the months immediately before and after births, regardless of whether these occurred in spring or in autumn.

Thus, the cave was occupied by the herds at different times of the year, although there was a preference for spring and winter months, evidenced by the abundance of foetal and neonatal individuals and births that occurred in the winter-early spring. These characteristics have all been documented in current sheepfolds (Violant i Simorra 2001).

Although, sheepfold summer occupations were less intense, there is other evidence of the cave's use by humans during the summer. Cereal harvesting in these latitudes takes place during the early-mid summer. Based on the remains of



rachis, herringbone bases, or phytolites of cereals documented from the levels from the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE, it appears that cereal was cleaned inside the cave (Rodríguez and Buxó 2008; Rodríguez et al. 2016).

The less intense occupation of the cave as a sheepfold in the summer could have been because herds grazed in the surrounding areas to take advantage of the good weather and the availability of pasture. This practice would have also made it possible to leave the sheepfold temporarily so that the dung accumulation could be dried on the cave and burned.

The discontinuous but constant presence of sheep in the cave and their surroundings throughout the year could also be an indication of the absence of seasonal long displacements. In favour of this hypothesis are the data provided by isotopic studies. The inverse relationship between δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values that show possible vertical movements of the herds was not clearly observed in the specimens studied (Tornero et al. 2016b; Makarewicz et al. 2017; Tornero et al. 2018). However, regional isotopic studies would be necessary to confirm these data, considering the great influence that rainfall has on δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O sequences (Tornero et al. 2018).

In the Mediterranean context, caves, especially sheepfold caves and caves located in inland/mountain areas, have been interpreted as seasonal settlements, related to livestock movements and the annual search for pasture. By contrast, open-air settlements, usually located in the lowlands, have been interpreted as permanent occupations (Helmer et al. 2005a, 2005b). However, recent studies located in northeastern Iberia and the Pyrenean region suggest possible multiple patterns of occupation (Antolín et al. 2018), based on agricultural and livestock evidence and statistical criteria. This would have been a much more complex system, beyond the duality of cave/mountain/livestock/seasonality and open-air site/lowland/agriculture/stability. These first Neolithic occupations of the Iberian Peninsula would have been organised economically according to the characteristics of the terrain (climatic, altitudinal, environmental, etc.). Thus, occupations of cave sites were likely to be have been permanent, even in the Pyrenean environment, such as Chaves (640 m a.s.l.) and Espluga de la Puyascada (1300 m a.s.l.) (Sierra et al. 2019). Chaves also presents possible evidence of *fumier* deposits and use as a sheepfold (Utrilla and Laborda 2018). By contrast, seasonal use of other sheepfold caves has been documented, such as at Coro Trasito (Clemente-Conte et al. 2016) and Els Trocs (Rojo-Guerra et al. 2014).

Given the data presented on El Mirador cave, the first Neolithic occupations follow this same pattern showing a certain continuity. This would be in accordance with the compatibility of agricultural and livestock practices.

Conclusions

Sheep have been the main domestic animal raised in the Iberian Peninsula since the arrival of a husbandry economy around the second half of the 6th millennium BCE. In this paper, we presented a study of the management of domestic sheep in the inland of Iberian Peninsula during the early stages of livestock practices, during the 6th and 5th millennia cal BCE. For this purpose, an isotopic study (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) of the bioapatite from the dental enamel of sheep of El Mirador cave was conducted.

Results support the rapid adoption and adaptation of sheep in the inland of the Iberian Peninsula that has been proposed by other authors using different criteria with El Mirador providing one the first isotopic evidence. The sheep found there were adapted to a colder and rainier climate than both the Mediterranean climate of the Near East domestication nucleus and the initial reception area of these new practices in the Iberian Peninsula.

 δ^{18} O values show that the sheep of El Mirador cave were born mainly in late winter and early spring, following the same pattern as those at other European and Near East Neolithic sites. The duration of the birth season was relatively short at El Mirador cave (2.64 months). This could have been related to the control of reproduction by shepherds with the objective of concentrating births and favouring other tasks related to the mixed farming economy. This same control could have been related to the presence of two individuals, from the occupations of the 5th millennium (ca. 4400–4200 cal BCE) born in autumn, outside the period set by photoperiodic control. This phenomenon may have been related to a second phase of the adoption of husbandry in the Iberian Peninsula, during the 5th millennium, when there was a diversification in the exploitation of the species (Saña et al. 2013). A larger sample size would be required to obtain additional isotopic information about this process.

Ranges of variation in δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O sequences indicate a probable year-round feeding of the herd in the areas surrounding the cave. In addition, the low δ^{13} C values in some individuals could be linked to the use of woody fodder to feed the herd; at El Mirador, this has already been supported by archaeobotanical studies. These data are in line with those obtained on the seasonal occupation of the cave. The combination of the mortality profiles and the results of the isotopic analyses indicate that the cave would have been used intensively for a large portion of the year. This supports recent studies that argue for abandoning the traditional idea of defining caves as sites for seasonal use.

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