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Combining dental calculus with isotope analysis in the Alps: New evidence from the Roman and medieval cemeteries of Lamon, northern Italy

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1 **Combining dental calculus with isotope analysis in the Alps: New evidence from the Roman and**
2 **medieval cemeteries of Lamon, northern Italy**

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17
18 **Abstract**

19
20 This study presents the results of complementary isotopic and dental calculus analyses of a number
21 of individuals buried in two cemeteries of Roman and medieval chronology in Lamon, northern Italy.
22 Eleven individuals from the Roman cemetery of San Donato and six from the medieval cemetery of
23 San Pietro are presented and discussed. The results suggest a distinctive stability of the two
24 populations, with most of the analysed individuals showing a local or regional origin. Carbon and
25 nitrogen isotopes are indicative of a diet based on a mixed C₃/C₄ plant consumption and rich in
26 animal proteins, with no significant difference between the Roman and the medieval populations.
27 The consumption of C₄ plants, more resilient to the Alpine climate, is consistently documented both
28 by isotopes and dental calculus. Dental calculus results permit the characterisation of the typology
29 of the crop consumed, namely millet, barley/wheat and legumes and may also suggest differing
30 cooking processes between the Roman and the medieval periods. Phytoliths, vascular elements,
31 fungal spores and animal remains from dental calculus provide new insights into the diet of the
32 analysed individuals but also, hypothetically, into possible medicinal treatments. The presence of

33 birds such as fowls and ducks in the medieval diet of some individuals from San Pietro has also
34 emerged. Overall, the results of this study open a new window into the biographies of the individuals
35 analysed, their diet, mobility, habits, and environment, thus stimulating further and more
36 systematic investigation on the populations occupying an Alpine sector which is still poorly
37 understood from an archaeological perspective.

38
39 **Keywords:** Dental calculus; Isotopes; Roman period; Middle Ages; Alps

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 This study illustrates the results of a combined isotopic and dental calculus analysis of two
44 populations from the municipality of Lamon in northern Italy. Excavations undertaken in this area
45 from the 2000s onward have targeted a Roman necropolis located near the hamlet of San Donato
46 di Lamon and the medieval parish church of San Pietro Apostolo. Despite the significance of these
47 cemeterial sites, representing two of the largest funerary sites for the Italian eastern Alps, no in-
48 depth analysis of the skeletal remains has been conducted. Questions around the mobility, diet,
49 environment and health of such communities living in this Alpine area during the Roman and
50 medieval periods remain unanswered. This paper presents the outcome of an integrated isotopic
51 and dental calculus analysis conducted on a sample of the aforementioned populations, namely
52 eleven individuals from the Roman necropolis of San Donato and six individuals from the medieval
53 cemetery of the San Pietro parish church. Novel data is presented and discussed, showing how the
54 application of combined isotopic and dental calculus methodologies is beneficial for the
55 understanding of past mobility, diet, habits, health, as well as possible medicinal treatments.
56 Information about dental calculus and principles of isotope analysis are included in Annex A.

57

58 **1.1 The geographical setting and the sites under analysis**

59

60 The municipality of Lamon (46° 2'50.55" N; 11°44'54.75" E; 610 m above sea level) lies along the
61 southern flank of the Dolomites in northern Veneto (Figure 1). Its territory is delimited towards the
62 north by Mount Coppolo (2069 m above sea level), a mountain relief of grey limestone; the narrow
63 gorges of the streams Senaiga and Cismon, a tributary of the Brenta river, border the many sub-
64 horizontal terraces and hillslopes characterising the Lamon plateau towards the south-west and east

65 (Tessari 1973). Prehistoric frequentation of this Alpine sector is attested at Riparo Villabruna, a rock
66 shelter located along the Cismon gorge occupied during the late Upper Palaeolithic (Aimar et al.,
67 1992), as well as on the terraces of Lamon, which produced abundant surface finds suggesting a
68 widespread presence of permanent settlements during the Neolithic and Copper Age (Curto, 2017-
69 18). Since ancient times, the area of Lamon belonged to a region which played a peculiar role
70 connecting two of the most strategic valleys of the eastern Italian Alps: the Piave valley in the east
71 and the Adige valley in the west. In the Roman period this role was marked by the presence of an
72 E-W route connecting the Veneto plain to the Adige basin through Feltre (corresponding with the
73 Roman town of *Feltria*), the Lamon and Tesino plateaus and eventually the upper Brenta valley. Such
74 a route may be identified with the Roman road *Opitergium-Tridentum* attested by the 3rd century
75 *Itinerarium Antonini* and running from Oderzo (Opitergium) in southern Veneto to Trento
76 (*Tridentum*) in the Adige basin (Cavada, 2002; Ciurletti and Pisu, 2006; Pesavento Mattioli, 2003).
77 From an administrative perspective, during the Roman period and the Middle Ages Lamon is framed
78 within the territory of the *municipium* and then bishopric of Feltre. The bishop of this town formally
79 recognised the village of Lamon as an autonomous community in AD 1177 (Conte, 1983; Forlin et
80 al., 2020). Up to the 16th century AD, there is very little documentary evidence for such a
81 geographical context, but recent archaeological investigations enabled a new window to be opened
82 on the communities who settled in this area during the Roman and the medieval periods. In
83 particular, this information is provided by two cemeteries excavated respectively at the place
84 *Piasentot* of San Donato, a hamlet located over the Senaiga stream about 5 km NW of Lamon, and
85 at the parish church of San Pietro installed on a hill located immediately to the south of the village.

86

87

88 **1.2 The Roman necropolis of San Donato - Piasentot**

89 The Roman cemetery at the locality of *Piasentot* (46° 3'38.38" N; 11°42'7.53" E; 760 m above sea
90 level) was identified at the southern margin of a steep slope occupied by the settlement of San
91 Donato in 2000, in a field where Roman burials have previously been discovered (*Carta*
92 *Archeologica*, 1988, 82)(Figure 2A). The site is located not far from a historic path known locally as
93 the *Via Pagana*, meaning the road of the *pagus* (this Latin term designating a rural settlement and
94 its territory), very likely representing the local tract of the aforementioned Roman road *Opitergium-*
95 *Tridentum*. The Roman cemetery of San Donato consists of around 120 inhumations dating between
96 the 1st and 4th centuries AD (D'Inca and Rigoni, 2016; Casagrande, 2006) (Figure 2B). The individuals

97 were buried in very small simple earthen pits, no wider than 1 - 1.5 meter in diameter. The limited
98 dimensions of the burial pits reflect the anomalous position adopted by most of the bodies, which
99 were positioned crouched or seated with their backs vertical against the pit edge and legs flexed,
100 bent or sometimes straight (Figure 2C). Only a few burials, usually dating to a later chronology and
101 occupying the northernmost portion of the cemetery, were deposited with a supine position. A
102 gender-based differentiation in the grave goods' composition was observed. Male burials were
103 usually furnished with knives, circular belt elements, and belt buckles; female burials typically
104 produced brooches, characteristic B-shaped earrings and necklaces beads made of glass sometimes
105 coated with golden foil. On the other hand, coins, brooches and rings were indistinctively found
106 both in male and female burials (for an overview on the numismatic finds, see Callegher, 2020).
107 Apart from a small number of new-born infants, only adult individuals were interred here
108 (*unpublished report*) or at least in the sector of the cemetery investigated so far. Moreover, the
109 remains of a young cow radiocarbon dated to the early Roman imperial era was identified at the
110 very centre of the cemetery (Reggiani and Rizzi Zorzi, 2010). The animal was laid down with legs
111 bent and the head carefully placed over a large pillow-stone, suggesting this was a ritual burial
112 possibly associated to the 'sacralisation' of the funerary site.

113

114 **1.3 The medieval cemetery of San Pietro**

115 The second population considered comes from the excavation of the parish church of Lamon (46°
116 2'39.48" N; 11°44'48.88"E; 651 m above sea level). The church of San Pietro is located on the top
117 area of a hill immediately to the south of the settlement and conforms to a 16th century building
118 (Figure 3A). The southern slope of the relief was devoted to funerary use since ancient times, as
119 testified by the discovery, during the 19th and early 20th centuries, of several inhumations producing
120 Roman items and coins (Conte, 2003; *Carta Archeologica*, 1988, 82).

121 The archaeological investigation of the site identified early occupation of the hilltop area dating to
122 the late Iron Age as well as the evidence for a possible fortification from the late Roman or early
123 medieval period (Forlin, et al. 2020). Although the church is attested by archival records only since
124 the 14th century AD, the presence of an earlier church has been indirectly supported by the recovery,
125 at the very centre of the actual building, of two burials radiocarbon dated to late 7th – 9th centuries
126 AD (SPT_47: AD 690-886; SPT_48: AD 661-777, both at 95.4% probability). These two burials
127 produced the bodies of a female and a male individual (respectively SPT_47 and SPT_48) laid upon
128 two parallel graves cut into the bedrock, partially lined with plaster and, in the case of the male

129 burial, provided with a small structure functioning as a pillow stone (Figure 3B). The two burials
130 were respectively accompanied by a temple ring of the so-called Köttlach culture, an archaeological
131 culture originating in the eastern Alps between Italy, Austria, and Slovenia during the late
132 Carolingian period (Possenti, *forthcoming*) and a fragmented bone comb. Based on the chronology
133 of the inhumations and their location in relation with the earliest religious building, it is possible
134 they represent the founders or patrons of the church. From the early medieval phase onward, the
135 church attracted several burials in both the internal and external areas. Within the interior, the
136 excavated areas intercepted the medieval burial of a subadult, found in front of the gothic door
137 connecting the church and the bell tower, and a group of graves located underneath the early
138 modern presbytery. Originally located outside the church, they were later surmounted by the 16th
139 century building. One of these burials (SPT_49) produced a radiocarbon age dating to the 15th– early
140 16th centuries AD, thus representing one the latest inhumations deposited here before the
141 enlargement of the church in the 16th century (AD 1416-1524 at 74.9% probability). In fact, the
142 construction of the post medieval church resulted in the lowering of the medieval levels which
143 erased much of the structural remains of the older church. In the external area, a group of late
144 medieval burials radiocarbon dated to the 13th-14th centuries was excavated in the graveyard to the
145 north of the church (burial SPT_25 has a radiocarbon date of AD 1220-1400 at 95.4% probability)
146 (Figure 3C). Such burials were laid down without burial goods in earthen pits E-W oriented. In the
147 early modern period (18th-19th centuries), this northern graveyard was surmounted by burials of
148 adult individuals showing a different N-S direction compared to the earliest E-W orientation (see
149 the right section on Figure 3C). These later burials testify the wide adoption of grave goods in the
150 form of rosaries, medals, rings and coins. During the same phase, the external spaces located around
151 the apse were exclusively reserved to the inhumation of infants or subadults, all deposited again
152 with no grave goods. Overall, 60 burials were dug at this site.

153

154 **2. Material and Methods**

155 For this pilot study, isotopic analysis targeted seventeen individuals, six from the medieval skeletal
156 collection of San Pietro (SPT_18, 20, 46, 47, 48, 49) and eleven from the Roman necropolis of San
157 Donato (SDN_18, 20, 39, 60, 66, 67, 75, 97, 103, 107, 108) (Table 1). Dental calculus was sampled
158 from the same group of individuals, with the exception of two Roman skeletons (SDN_103 and
159 SDN_108) not included due to the insufficient amount of tartar. Ribs were sampled at the stores of
160 the 'Soprintendenza Archeologia, Belle Arti e Paesaggio per l'Area Metropolitana di Venezia e le

161 province di Belluno, Padova e Treviso (Italy)' whereas maxillae and mandibles were moved to the
162 Department of Archaeology at Durham University (United Kingdom) where the sampling and the
163 analyses of dental calculus and isotopes were conducted. Additional anthropological data such as
164 sex, and age at death, were reported in Forlin et al. (2020) and other unpublished anthropological
165 reports. The modern reference collection of plants stored at DANTE laboratory and previous
166 published literature were employed for comparison (Carnelli et al., 2004; Madella et al., 2005; Dove
167 and Agreda, 2007; Dove and Koch, 2011; Yang et al., 2012; Mariotti Lippi et al., 2015; Cristiani et al.,
168 2018; Gismondi et al., 2019; (icpt) et al., 2019; Zeisler-Diehl et al., 2020). Appendix A includes
169 detailed information about the methods employed by this study with reference to both dental
170 calculus and isotope analysis.

171

172 **3. Results**

173

174 **3.1 Dental calculus analysis**

175

176 **San Donato, Roman period**

177 A summary of the micro-remains found in the San Donato dental calculus is presented in Table 2.

178 From the nine individuals analysed more than 168 starch grains were observed. Based on their
179 morphological feature, grains were divided into four different morphological types.

180 **Type 1** was only detected in SDN_39 (N=114) (Table 2, Figure 4e, f, g). The grains have a 2D oval or
181 reniform shape and 3D reniform shape, with elongated hilum and a deep longitudinal fissure. The
182 extinction cross is bilaterally symmetrical. Lamellae are barely visible, but, when present, they can
183 be seen near the border of the grains. The main axis ranges between 10 and 27 μm . Some of the
184 grains were damaged or embedded in the calculus along with tissue fragments and micro-charcoals.
185 They can be attributed to plants of the Fabaceae family.

186 **Type 2** was found in the tartar of SDN_39, SDN_60, SDN_67, SDN_75, and SDN_107 (N= ca. 45)
187 (Table 2, Figure 4a, b). These grains are irregularly polyhedral with a centric hilum and radial fissures;
188 sometimes the hilum is open. The extinction cross is radially symmetrical. The grain size ranges
189 between 15 and 24 μm . They can be identified with Panicoideae.

190 **Type 3** is a lump of bimodal starch grains only found in SDN_66 (Table 2). The small grains have a
191 2D oval/circular shape and a 3D spherical/ovoidal shape, the large grains have a 2D oval/circular
192 shape and a 3D lenticular shape. The hilum is centric, closed. The extinction cross is radially

193 symmetrical. In the large grains, lamellae are concentric and distinct. The diameter/main axis ranges
194 between 6 and 12 μm in the small grains, between 24 and 44 μm in the large grains. These features
195 are characteristic of Triticeae.

196 **Type 4** is represented by two grains observed in individual SDN_39. The grains are ovoid with a small
197 'tail' at the end. They have a centric hilum and a longitudinal fissure. The extinction cross is
198 bilaterally symmetrical. The main axis measure around 17 μm . They can be attributed to plants of
199 the Fagaceae family (cf. *Quercus*).

200 Other starch grains were not identified due to a lack of diagnostic features (i.e., the lump of small
201 grains, as observed in the individual SDN_18). These types of grains may belong to several varieties
202 of plants which are not possible to identify with certainty.

203 Phytoliths were observed in two individuals (SDN_18 and SDN_75). In SDN_18 several multi-cell
204 phytoliths were embedded in flecks of calculus (Figure 4n, o, p). These elongate sinuate/lobate
205 phytoliths could belong to the Poaceae family.

206 Isolated fibers, non-diagnostic vegetal tissue fragments as well as micro-charcoal residues were
207 present in all the samples. In particular, the highest number of micro-charcoals were found in the
208 adult female SDN_39 (Table 2).

209 Uncharred vascular elements were observed in five individuals (SDN_18, 20, 39, 75, 107) (Table 2).

210 Tracheids with uniseriate bordered pits as occur in numerous Cupressaceae and Pinaceae were
211 observed in SDN_75 and SDN_20. A wood fragment with a portion of cross-field pitting was found
212 in the tartar of the adult female SDN_20. Cross-fields are the areas where the horizontal walls of
213 the ray cells are in contact with the vertical walls of the tracheids. They present a structure of
214 diagnostic value. In SDN_20, the pit apertures are one or two oblique, quite vertical ellipses,
215 ascribable to the Cupressoid type (Figure 4m). Cupressoid cross-field pitting occurs in the members
216 of the Cupressaceae family (for example *Cupressus* and *Juniperus*) but may also be present in few
217 genera of Pinaceae and Taxaceae. Among the plants of the Northern Italian flora, it may be found
218 in *Abies alba* and *Taxus baccata*, but *Taxus* may be ruled out because its tracheid walls show a spiral
219 thickening that was not observed here (Greguss, 1955). Concerning *Abies*, cross-fields may display
220 cupressoid, piceoid, and taxodioid pits.

221 Fungal spores, with different shapes and sizes, and fragments of hyphae occur in numerous
222 individuals (Table 2, Figure 4p-v). Many of them (Figure 4r, 4t) recall morphologies observed in
223 Glomeromycota, which are arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Walker et al., 2018). Roughly ovoid spores
224 (Figure 4v), with a rather smooth wall surface, were also found, often attached to a fragment of the

225 subtending hypha. They may be attributed to the Non-Pollen Palynomorph HdV 207 (Miola, 2012),
226 also belonging to the Glomeromycota.

227

228 **San Pietro, medieval period**

229 Micro-remains found in the San Pietro dental calculus are summarised in Table 3.

230 Samples from six individuals belonging to the early and late medieval phases of the cemetery were
231 analysed (Table 3). Starch grains detected within the tartar of individuals SPT_20, SPT_47 and
232 SPT_48 were very small or damaged, with no diagnostic features (Figure 4d).

233 Isolated vascular elements were observed in three individuals. Pitted vessel fragments from sample
234 SPT_47 and SPT_49 are common to numerous Angiosperms, whereas tracheids with uniseriate
235 bordered pits (like those from Cupressaceae and Pinaceae) were found in SPT_48. Unfortunately, a
236 detailed identification is not possible here. In the same sample, a bilobate phytolith diagnostic of
237 leaves and stems of Panicoideae was found (Out and Madella, 2016). In addition, other phytoliths
238 with a morphology like those of Poaceae and Cyperaceae were detected in the same individual
239 (SPT_48). Additional evidence of Poaceae comes from SDN_18, whose dental calculus produced
240 several long cells' silica skeletons with Π ornamentations (Madella et al., 2016; Out et al., 2016;
241 Santiago-Marrero et al., 2021).

242 Among the animal remains, three barbules (elements of bird feathers) on samples SPT_18, SPT_47,
243 and SPT_48 were observed. The morphology and the features of the barbule belonging to the young
244 individual of grave SPT_18 is consistent with those of the Anatidae family (i.e., geese and ducks)
245 (Figure 4i). The other two fragments found in SPT_48 (embedded in the calculus matrix, Figure 4l)
246 and SPT_47 may be attributed to those of Galliformes (i.e. chickens). In the other two cases the
247 fragments are too small to permit a clear identification. Fungal spores like those observed in the
248 Roman samples, were observed only in SPT_48.

249

250 **3.2 Stable Isotopes analysis**

251 **Carbon and nitrogen**

252 The carbon and nitrogen isotope data are presented in Table 4. The San Donato bone samples had
253 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging between -17.0‰ and -15.1‰ (mean = $-15.9 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$, 1 sd) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
254 ranging between 7.3‰ and 8.9‰ (mean = $8.1 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$, 1 sd). The San Donato dentine had $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
255 values ranging from -19.1‰ to -15.3‰ (mean = $-16.8 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$, 1 sd) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ranging between
256 7.1‰ and 10.3‰ (mean = $8.4 \pm 0.8\text{‰}$, 1 sd). The San Pietro bone samples had $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging

257 between -18.8‰ and -12.6‰ (mean = $-15.8 \pm 2.1\text{‰}$, 1 sd) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ranging between 6.9‰
258 and 9.4‰ (mean = $8.3 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$, 1 sd). The San Pietro dentine values were very similar, with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
259 values ranging from -19.5‰ to -13.4‰ (mean = $-16.2 \pm 2.1\text{‰}$, 1 sd) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ranging between
260 8.2‰ and 9.8‰ (mean = $9.2 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$, 1 sd). Whilst most individuals show no significant difference
261 in diet from early childhood to later life, one individual from San Donato (SDN_75) and three
262 individuals from San Pietro (SPT_18, SPT_48 and SPT_49) demonstrate a significant change in diet
263 of $>3\text{‰}$ in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. The atomic ratios for all of the bone and dentine samples fall within the range (2.9
264 – 3.6) suggested by DeNiro (1985) as indicative of well-preserved collagen.

265

266 **Strontium and oxygen**

267 The strontium and oxygen isotope data are presented in Table 5. The strontium isotope data for the
268 San Donato individuals range from 0.708272 to 0.708609 (mean = 0.708439 ± 0.000115 , 1 sd) and
269 the San Pietro individuals range from 0.708432 to 0.709248 (mean = 0.708703 ± 0.000296 , 1 sd).
270 The San Pietro individuals exhibit a wider range in strontium isotope ratios than the San Donato
271 individuals. Additionally, the San Pietro individuals also have significantly higher strontium isotope
272 ratios than the San Donato individuals ($t(17) = 2.66829$, $p = 0.008769$). San Donato is situated on
273 carboniferous limestones and marls, and although the underlying geology surrounding San Pietro
274 also contains carboniferous limestone the local area predominantly consists of interglacial
275 conglomerates (Forte et al., 2019). Therefore, the higher and more varied strontium isotope ratios
276 observed in the San Pietro individuals are likely due to the more complex geology at the site.

277 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$ values for the San Donato individuals range from 23.2‰ to 25.0‰ (mean = $24.0 \pm$
278 0.6‰ , 1 sd) and the San Pietro individuals range from 23.6‰ to 24.8‰ (mean = $24.2 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$, 1 sd).
279 There was no statistically significant difference in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values measured at either site ($t(17) =$
280 0.82392 , $p = 0.211448$). The wider range in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values seen in the San Donato individuals compared
281 to the San Pietro individuals could be a function of the smaller sample size from San Pietro ($n = 6$).

282

283 **Lead**

284 The lead isotope data are presented in Table 6. The lead concentrations for the San Donato
285 individuals range from 0.1 to 0.6 ppm with a median of 0.2 ppm, while the lead concentration for
286 the San Pietro individuals range from 0.1 to 3.8 ppm with a median of 0.8 ppm. The San Pietro lead
287 isotope ratios range between $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 17.9854$ to 18.5746 , $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.6128$ to 15.6635 ,
288 and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 37.9799$ to 38.7026 and the San Donato lead isotope ratios range between

289 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.5423$ to 18.8341 , $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.6561$ to 15.6762 , and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 38.8276$ to
290 38.8276 .

291

292 **4. Discussion**

293

294 The results summarised above entangle the mobility, diet and lifestyle of the two populations within
295 this study. In addition, the cross-reference of the results from dental calculus analysis and isotope
296 analyses proves to be beneficial in order to augment the resolution of the evidence identified, in
297 particular in regard to the dietary habits of the analysed individuals.

298

299 **4.1 Dental Calculus**

300 Starch grains found in San Donato samples provide a direct insight into the plant foods consumed
301 by this Roman community.

302 Evidence of starch grains belonging to plants of the Poaceae family were found in five individuals of
303 both sexes belonging to the different phases of the necropolis (1st – 4th centuries AD). Based on the
304 morphological features of the starch grains, it is possible to suppose that broomcorn millet (*Panicum*
305 *miliaceum*) and/or foxtail millet (*Setaria italica*) were usually consumed at San Donato, as in other
306 Italian sites (Rottoli and Castiglioni, 2011; Mariotti Lippi et al., 2017). As seen above, evidence of
307 Poaceae was also found in SDN_18. In particular, phytoliths indicate the consumption of
308 Panicoideae and other C₄ grasses inflorescence. Interestingly, with millet being a C₄ plant, this find
309 appears consistent with the results of the isotopic analysis discussed below.

310 In terms of plant identification, broomcorn millet and foxtail millet seem to be more plausible than
311 sorghum (*Sorghum vulgare*) which is only sporadically attested in archaeobotanical assemblages in
312 northern and central Italy during the Roman period (Castiglioni and Rottoli, 2010). Moreover,
313 sorghum as a crop seems to have been introduced to Italy in the second half of the first century AD
314 (Bostock and Riley, 1855). Even in the early medieval period, sorghum is rarely attested, whereas
315 evidence for broomcorn millet and foxtail millet is widespread (Moser, 2006; Castiglioni and Rottoli,
316 2010; Vanni et al., 2019).

317 Evidence of Triticeae consumption was found in only one adult male individual (SDN_66). Examples
318 of these types of starch grains are attested by other studies suggesting the usual consumption of
319 barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) or/and *Triticum* spp. (D'Agostino et al., 2019; Gismondi et al., 2020a;
320 2020b). Finally, starch grains belonging to the Fabaceae family were detected in one adult female

321 (SDN_39). In a review of the plant offerings from Roman cremations in northern Italy, Rottoli and
322 Castiglioni (2011) report the presence of pulses such as lentil (*Lens culinaris*), fava bean (*Vicia faba*
323 var. *minor*), and common vetch (*Vicia sativa*) particularly in two urban contexts not far from to the
324 archaeological site under discussion here, namely Padua and Verona. The same authors also
325 identified the presence of *S. italica*, *P. miliaceum*, and *Triticum aestivum* in those contexts. There
326 are other indicators for pulses crops in the Alps nearby San Donato: at Mezzocorona (Trento), a
327 Roman site in the Adige valley, carpological remains of fava bean, lentil, common vetch, and bitter
328 vetch (*Vicia ervilia*) were found (Castiglioni and Rottoli, 1994). However, the authors of this study
329 suggest that fava bean (*Vicia faba* var. *minor*) was exclusively used as a fodder for livestock.

330

331 Regarding the medieval site of San Pietro, apart from the presence of a bilobate phytolith possibly
332 belonging to leaves and stems of Poaceae (perhaps Panicoideae), the few starch grains observed in
333 the dental calculus of the individuals buried here are generally damaged or very small and lacking
334 diagnostic features. This does not mean that cereals and pulses were rarely included in the diet but
335 the paucity of remains might be fortuitous or perhaps the result of heavy cooking processes such as
336 those adopted for the preparation of soups. In fact, when boiled in water starch grains gelatinize.
337 Starch gelatinization is an irreversible hydrothermal process involving the breakdown of
338 intermolecular bonds within starch granules, resulting in swelling that damages the granules original
339 shape, i.e. the loss of their diagnostic features, and ultimately their preservation (Hoover, 2010;
340 Wang and Copeland, 2013; Edwards et al., 2015).

341 The presence of barbules in three individuals (SD_18, 47 and 48) suggests the birds (domestic or
342 wild) which were possibly consumed or processed by the medieval community buried at San Pietro.
343 According to our finds, we suggest the presence of domestic fowl (*Gallus gallus*), geese (*Anser* spp.),
344 and ducks (*Anas* sp.). These species are largely attested in northern Italy by both historical and
345 zooarchaeological studies (for example Montanari, 1979; Baker, 2000). However, archaeologically,
346 ducks were less documented than geese in early medieval Italy (Baker, 2000).

347 Minute fragments of charcoals occurred in all the analysed samples and can be indicative of food
348 consumption, work activities that involve fire or environmental (domestic) pollution.

349 The vascular elements found in the dental calculus generally do not display sufficient characters for
350 wood identification. However, in the calculus of the adult female SDN_20 from the Roman
351 necropolis of San Donato, a wood fragment presented diagnostic features which are typical of the
352 wood of Cupressaceae, even if they may also occur in *Abies*. Considering Cupressaceae the most

353 probable source, Juniper (*Juniperus* spp.) is an evergreen conifer widely diffused in the Alpine area
354 with the species *Juniperus communis* L. and *Juniperus sabina* L. By contrast, the Italian cypress
355 (*Cupressus sempervirens* L.) does not grow in the Alps. Although it is impossible to rule out the
356 importation of Cypress wood to the Lamon area, its presence is less likely that of *Juniper*.

357 In general, wood fragments preserved in dental calculus may have very different origins. In our case,
358 we first suggest excluding that the find come from wood used as fuel or to smoke food since the
359 fragment is uncharred.

360 Romans employed juniper wood for domestic supply but also as a natural aromatic for their resinous
361 scent as well as medicinal plant (see for instance Bouchaud et al., 2018; Charles, 2012; Ziegler, 1932).
362 As a medicine, juniper was used to treat abdominal and digestive disorders, as an anti-inflammatory,
363 contraceptive, abortifacient, and uterine stimulant, both orally or applied externally (Riddle, 1991;
364 Ernst, 2002). This aspect is particularly interesting in the fact that the remains of juniper wood were
365 found in SDN_20, an adult female buried together with a newborn positioned between her bended
366 legs. A postmortem fetal extrusion should be considered by further studies.

367 Fungal spores of Glomeromycota are attested in the individuals from the Roman community of San
368 Donato. The presence of a noteworthy number of fungal spores and hyphae is not common in dental
369 calculus and thus deserves an accurate consideration about the possible origin. The spores of
370 Glomeromycota - often called chlamydospores - are responsible for the reproduction of these soil
371 fungi which form the most common arbuscular mycorrhizas affecting the roots of about 80% of land
372 plants (Moore et al., 2011). For this reason, these spores are frequently encountered in the soil,
373 even if they are particularly susceptible to the damage caused by the necrotrophic parasites (Gams
374 et al., 2004). The precise identification of isolated spores is difficult (Douds and Millner, 1999),
375 making it challenging to attribute them to a species when found in an archaeological context. From
376 a methodological standpoint, it is necessary to rule out the fungal remains as coming from the soil
377 where individuals were buried or from contamination during subsequent storage and study. Based
378 on the decontamination procedure adopted by the present study, we can exclude that the presence
379 of those fungi is the result of a post-depositional intrusion. Moreover, the spores are not airborne
380 and are not recorded in aerobiological monitoring and therefore we can also exclude that they come
381 from air pollution in the laboratory. Hence, we suggest they were originally embedded by plaque
382 formation as a result of the consumption of edible plant underground storage organs (such as leek,
383 onion, carrot, turnip) or other poorly washed vegetables which still preserved traces of soils.

384

385 4.2 Isotopes

386

387 The crown dentine and enamel apatite $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from the San Donato and San Pietro individuals
388 are presented in Figure 5 alongside the dietary regression lines adapted from Froehle et al., (2010).
389 As both tissues form during the same period of life, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values represent the whole diet
390 between the ages of 4 to 8 years. The majority of the San Donato and San Pietro individuals plot
391 slightly above the C_3 protein line. Their shift above and towards the right of this line suggests that
392 their diets contained a significant proportion of C_4 or marine resources. However, two individuals,
393 SDN_75 from San Donato and SPT_48 from San Pietro, plot tightly on the C_3 protein line to the left
394 of the majority of individuals, suggesting a predominantly terrestrial C_3 diet with very little C_4 or
395 marine input in their early childhood diets. Both these individuals show a shift towards higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
396 bone values indicating increased C_4 consumption in later life and bringing them inline with the rest
397 of the population.

398 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values from the San Donato and San Pietro bone samples are presented in Figure
399 6 alongside contemporaneous faunal data from San Donato. Published human $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data
400 from Roman and medieval sites from across northern Italy are also included for comparison. Studies
401 into past diets in Italy have demonstrated that there is a general trend for increased C_4 consumption
402 the further north a population is located (Tafari et al., 2009; Iacumin et al., 2014; Milella et al., 2019),
403 this trend can also be seen in the comparative data plotted in Figure 6. The San Donato and San
404 Pietro individuals plot to the right of the majority of data from northern Italy, with high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
405 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values consistent with a mixed C_3/C_4 diet. These values are very similar to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
406 observed in Friuli-Venezia Giulia, which have also been interpreted as indicative of a mixed C_3/C_4
407 diet (Iacumin et al., 2014).

408 The cow and sheep bone fragments from San Donato have low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values indicating a
409 diet entirely based on C_3 plants. The low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values seen in these animals compared to
410 the humans indicates that the animals were not fed the C_4 plants being eaten by the local population
411 but were most likely left to graze on the temperate C_3 grasses local to the region. Using the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
412 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values from these animals as a herbivore baseline for the region, it is clear that the San Donato
413 and San Pietro individuals had diets rich in animal protein (eggs, milk, cheese, meat etc.) as they
414 exhibit a mean ^{15}N enrichment of 5‰. This degree of trophic level shift has been seen in other Italian
415 populations with diets containing high proportions of animal products (Craig et al., 2009). From this,

416 it is evident that the C₄ component of the San Donato and San Pietro individuals' diet is not derived
417 from animal protein, as they were exclusive C₃ feeders. It is likely that C₄ crops such as millet were
418 an important component of these people's diets. Evidence for the consumption of these grains in
419 northern Italy have been shown in populations dating back as early as the Bronze Age (Tafari et al.,
420 2009).

421 Although the majority of the San Donato and San Pietro individuals plot within 2 sd of the population
422 means, there are two outliers from the San Pietro population (see Figure 6). Individual SPT_49 has
423 a much lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value than the rest of the population, indicating a predominantly terrestrial C₃
424 diet, which is to say a diet based on C₃ plants (wheat, barley etc) and animals grazing on or fed C₃
425 plants, with very little C₄ input. C₃ crops such as wheat were considered high quality foods, unlike
426 C₄ crops such as millet and sorghum, which were only suitable for making soup or polenta, not bread
427 (Iacumin et al., 2014). Therefore, with a diet dominated by C₃ resources it is possible that SPT_49
428 can be regarded as a high-status individual who had access to higher quality foods. However, the
429 early childhood $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value for SPT_49 is -13.4‰ indicating consumption of a high level of C₄ plants
430 in childhood may therefore be indicative of acquired status in later life. Conversely, in later life
431 individual SPT_18 had a higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of -12.6‰ indicating a predominantly terrestrial C₄ diet
432 which contrasts sharply with their early childhood value of -17.0‰ when a mixed C₃/C₄ protein diet
433 was consumed. It is possible that SPT_18 is an individual with limited access to higher status C₃ foods
434 in their diet, possibly due to episodes of food scarcity.

435 The San Pietro and San Donato strontium isotope ratios are presented in Figure 7 alongside
436 comparative data from Medieval (Milella et al., 2019) and Bronze Age (Cavazzuti et al., 2019) sites
437 located across northern Italy. There is currently no published Roman data for northern Italy,
438 however as strontium is predominantly derived from bedrock there is unlikely to be any changes to
439 regional strontium isotope ratios over archaeological timescales. Therefore, data from any
440 archaeological human samples recovered from northern Italy make useful comparators. The
441 underlying predominantly limestone and glacial conglomerate geology at San Pietro and San Donato
442 are expected to produce a bioavailable strontium isotope range of 0.7072 to 0.7096 (Emery et al.,
443 2018). As can be seen in Figure 7, all of the San Pietro and San Donato individuals have strontium
444 isotope ratios consistent with limestone and the local area. However, there is one outlier within the
445 San Pietro group (SPT_46). This individual has a high strontium isotope ratio in comparison to the
446 remainder of the population and plots close to the precipitation/seawater value. Sea-spray effect,

447 whereby human or faunal strontium isotope ratios closely reflect seawater values, has been
448 observed in populations up to 50 meters inland of coastal regions (Whipkey et al., 2000;
449 Montgomery and Evans, 2006). There is no evidence to suggest that SPT_46 originated in a coastal
450 region, as this individual has similar carbon, nitrogen and oxygen isotope ratios to the rest of the
451 San Pietro population. However, precipitation is also derived from seawater, therefore areas with
452 heavy rainfall can also produce strontium isotope ratios similar to seawater (Evans et al., 2010). It is
453 possible that SPT_46 originated in a region prone to heavy rainfall or runoff, such as the uplands,
454 which would have contributed to the local bioavailable strontium.

455 The low lead concentrations observed in the San Pietro, and particularly amongst the San Donato
456 individuals suggests a childhood spent in regions with low environmental lead pollution and limited
457 access to lead-containing products. The rural locations of these two villages, in the foothills of the
458 Alps, may account for the low lead concentrations observed. A comparison of the San Donato and
459 San Pietro individuals with data from Italian lead ore, slag, coins and artefacts (Butcher et al., 2014;
460 Dolfini et al., 2020; Carroll et al., 2021) (OXALID) of known provenance demonstrates how this
461 individuals group within the expected lead isotope field for Italy (see Figure 8). The San Pietro
462 individuals show tighter clustering than the San Donato individuals, which may be due to the
463 significantly higher lead concentrations seen in the San Pietro assemblage (Kruskal-Wallis: $H =$
464 5.5783 , $p = 0.01818$). It is common for the lead isotope ratios of a population to become increasingly
465 homogenous the higher their lead concentrations become. This phenomenon is termed 'cultural
466 focusing' (Montgomery, 2002; Montgomery et al., 2005) and has been observed in archaeological
467 populations across Europe (Montgomery et al., 2010; Shaw et al., 2016). Both populations plot
468 closely with the Italian artefact and coin lead isotope data. Generally, post-prehistoric human lead
469 isotope ratios are culturally focused, clustering together in a narrow range reflecting the lead ore
470 sources used by a population (Montgomery, 2002; Montgomery et al., 2005; 2010). To some extent
471 metals used in artefacts and coins are also culturally focused due to the reworking of ores and mixing
472 of metals (Harl, 1996; Montgomery et al., 2010; Shaw et al., 2016). Therefore, it is expected that
473 data from artefacts of known provenance would provide a more realistic representation of the
474 expected human lead isotope compositions in populations engaging in anthropogenic lead use. The
475 fact that the San Donato and San Pietro individuals plot closely with the Italian artefact datasets
476 suggests that, although their lead concentrations are low, there may be some degree of
477 anthropogenic contribution to their lead isotope compositions.

478 In relation to their lead isotope ratios, the San Donato and San Pietro individuals separate into two
479 distinct groups, with the San Donato individuals exhibiting lower $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ values
480 than the San Pietro individuals. The disparity in lead isotope ratios between the two populations
481 could represent a temporal shift in the dominant lead ore source exploited in the region. Lower
482 $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ values are consistent with the younger Alpine ore sources in northern
483 and central Italy, while older, Variscan ore sources found in southern and Sardinian regions of Italy
484 tend to produce higher $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ values (Muechez et al., 2005). The earlier, Roman
485 population at San Donato may have relied upon predominantly local lead resources, with the later
486 medieval population at San Pietro utilising more resources from further afield. Alternatively, it could
487 also be that the very low lead levels (i.e. < 0.7 ppm) observed in the San Donato individuals are
488 indicative of natural lead exposure from the rock and soil with only a small or no contribution from
489 anthropogenic ore sources. Lead in marine carbonates such as limestone has low $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and
490 $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratios and the San Donato individuals, particularly SND_60 and SND_108, have similar
491 lead isotope ratios to prehistoric individuals from regions of chalk and limestone with no evidence
492 for anthropogenic lead exposure (Montgomery et al. 2010).

493 Although all individuals are consistent with the expected range for Italy, there are three outliers
494 within these populations. The two individuals from San Donato (SND_60 and SND_108) mentioned
495 above and one individual from San Pietro (SPT_47) who has significantly higher $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and
496 $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ values than the rest of the San Pietro population (see Figure 8). Although these
497 individuals plot within the Italian ore field, the lead level in SPT_47 is very low (i.e. 0.1 ppm)
498 suggesting little exposure to anthropogenic ore sources. It is possible that this individual originates
499 from another rural region of Italy or beyond. In particular, it is worth noting that this female
500 individual, buried in a privileged grave within the earliest church of San Pietro, has produced a
501 temple ring of the Köttlach culture characterizing the eastern Alpine area of Slovenia and Austria,
502 which may suggest an allochthonous origin for this member of the medieval community at Lamon.
503 San Pietro individual SPT_18 stands out due to their high lead concentration of 3.8 ppm, this value
504 is over three times higher than the population mean. The significant difference in SPT_18's lead
505 concentration suggests that they spent their childhood in a more polluted environment such as a
506 nearby urban context like Trento, Feltre or Verona. Also the significant shift in diet between early
507 childhood and later life described above may reflect a change in residential origins, e.g. from a city
508 to a rural mountain region with more C4 foods.

509 5. Conclusion

510

511 Isotopic and dental calculus analysis allowed better understanding of the diet, mobility and lifestyle
512 of two archaeological populations from Lamon, Italy. The results suggest a limited mobility of the
513 two groups, with the vast majority of the individuals analysed showing a local or regional origin.
514 Only a few individuals may be incomers both at San Pietro and San Donato, and the isotopic lead
515 analysis has improved the resolution of the mobility among the members of such communities. In
516 particular, the female individual SPT_47 buried in a privileged grave at San Pietro, may come from
517 a close, possibly eastern area of the Alpine Arc, as furthermore suggested by the Köttlach temple
518 ring found in her grave.

519 Isotopes are indicative of a diet based on a mixed C₃/C₄ plants consumption and rich in animal
520 proteins, with no significant difference between the Roman and the medieval populations. The
521 consumption of C₄ plants, more resilient to the Alpine climate, are consistently documented both
522 by isotopes and dental calculus. Moreover, dental calculus results permit to better characterise the
523 typology of the crop consumed, namely millet, barley/wheat and legumes. Phytoliths, vascular
524 elements, fungal spores, and animal remains were also found embedded in the dental calculus. In
525 particular, the fungal spores found on some Roman individuals from San Donato might provide
526 evidence for the consumption of plant underground storage organs and, in general, poorly washed
527 vegetables. The remains of uncharred conifer wood, very likely juniper, in the dental calculus of a
528 young female buried with a newborn in the Roman cemetery of San Donato proved to be of
529 particular interest. Even though its provenance from wooden tools is likely, we stress the possibility
530 this find may be evidence for the use of juniper for medicinal purposes given the particular
531 characteristics of the burial context. Among the results relating to the diet of the medieval
532 individuals buried at San Pietro, the consumption of birds such as fowls and ducks emerge as an
533 additional find. From a methodological perspective, we believe that this study stresses the benefits
534 coming from a complementary and comparative application of both isotopes and dental calculus
535 analysis on the same skeletal assemblage. If the isotopic study is essential in the understanding of
536 the mobility of the communities here under scrutiny, when it comes to the diet the combination of
537 dental calculus with this methodology has demonstrated to be very effective in augmenting the
538 resolution of the results. Overall, it is thanks to these conjunct methods that the outcomes of this
539 study open a new window into the biographies of the individuals here analysed, their diet, mobility,
540 habits, and environment, thus stimulating further and more systematic investigation on the ancient

541 populations occupying an Alpine sector which remains poorly understood from an archaeological
542 perspective.

543

544 **Author contributions**

545 Conceptualization: **EF, PF**; Data curation: **EF, JOM, JAM, MML, PF**; Formal analysis: **EF, JOM, JAM,**
546 **GN**; Funding acquisition: **PF**; Investigation: **EF, JOM, JAM, MML, PF**; Methodology: **EF, JOM, JAM,**
547 **GN, PF**; Project administration: **EF, PF**; Roles/Writing - original draft: **EF, JOM, JAM, MML, GN, PF**;
548 Writing - review & editing: **EF, JOM, JAM, MML, PF**.

549

550 **Data availability**

551 Data presented in this manuscript is available on request.

552

553 **Declaration of competing interest**

554 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

555

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801 **Figure captions (color should be used for all the figures)**

802

803 **Figure 1.** Map showing the location of the funerary sites of Lamon here presented (SDN = San
804 Donato; SPT = San Pietro). Red dotted lines show historic routes crossing the area during the Roman
805 and medieval periods (Map by Paolo Forlin).

806

807 **Figure 2.** The location of the Roman cemetery of San Donato (red circle) (A). The cemetery under
808 excavation in 2003 (B). The Roman burial SDN_75 which shows the typical crouched position
809 adopted by the bodies at San Donato (C) (Photos by Paolo Forlin [A] and Davide Pacitti [B, C]; Photos
810 B and C, © Archaeological Superintendence of Veneto).

811

812 **Figure 3.** The parish church of San Pietro, Lamon (A). The early medieval burials SPT_47 (right) and
 813 SPT_48 (left) (B). Late medieval burials excavated outside the church in the northern portion of the
 814 cemetery (C). SPT_20 (above) and SPT_18 (below) are visible (Photos by Paolo Forlin; Photos B and
 815 C, © Archaeological Superintendence of Veneto).

816

817 **Figure 4.** Scale bars are 20 μm apart from a couple of them which are specified in the caption. (a,
 818 b) Type 2 starch grains from SDN_39 and SDN_75 possibly belonging to Panicoideae; (c) Starch
 819 grains of *Panicum miliaceum* from experimental reference; (d) Damaged starch grain from SPT_48;
 820 (e, f, g) Type 1 starch grains from SDN_39 possibly belonging to Fabaceae; (h) Starch grains of *Vicia*
 821 *faba* from experimental reference; (i) Fragment of barbule from SPT_18 (scale bar 50 μm); (l)
 822 Fragment of barbule embedded in dental calculus from SPT_48; (m) Fragment of wood from
 823 SDN_20 possibly belonging to Cupressaceae; (n) Single elongated lobate phytolith from SDN_18;
 824 (o) Several multi cell phytoliths embedded in the calculus of SDN_18 (scale bar 50 μm); (p) Multi
 825 cell phytoliths, fungal spores and hyphae embedded in dental calculus of SDN_18; (q, r, s, t, u, v)
 826 Fungal spores and hyphae possibly attributed to Glomeromycota observed in several individuals of
 827 SDN (Photos by Elena Fiorin).

828

829 **Figure 5.** Crown dentine collagen and tooth enamel apatite $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from the San Donato ($n =$
 830 11) and San Pietro ($n = 6$) individuals. (Regressions lines from Froehle et al., (2010), adapted by Jay,
 831 M.)

832

833 **Figure 6.** Comparison of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for the San Pietro and San Donato individuals.
 834 Comparative data from Friuli-Venezia Giulia, NE Italy (Iacumin et al., 2014), Eppon Altenburg,
 835 Montan Pinzon and Terfan (Paladin et al., 2020) and Bologna (Milella et al., 2019).

836

837 **Figure 7.** San Donato and San Pietro strontium and oxygen isotope data alongside regional
 838 comparative data (Cavazzuti et al., 2019; Milella et al., 2019). The shaded grey box represents the
 839 local strontium and oxygen isotope ranges for the Lamon region as defined by Emery et al., (2018)
 840 and Giustini et al., (2016). The analytical error for strontium isotope ratio analysis is within the
 841 symbol size.

842

843 **Figure 8.** Comparative data from OXALID (Italian Pb ore), Butcher and Pointing, 2014 (Italian coins),
844 Dolfini et al., 2020 (Italian artefacts), Italian Roman slag (Carroll et al., 2021) and Montgomery et al.,
845 2010 (Italian humans). The analytical error is within the symbol size.

846
847

848 **Table captions**

849

850 **Table 1.** Table showing the burials sampled for dental calculus analysis, sex, estimated age, tooth
851 and the position of the calculus as well as its weight obtained before (WBC) and after (WBA) the
852 manual cleaning.

853

854 Legend: WBC: weight before cleaning, WAC: weight after cleaning, - = the calculus' fleck was too
855 small to be weight. The weigh is expressed in mg.

856

857 **Table 2.** Description of the micro-remains found within the calculus of the individuals of San Donato.

858

859 Legend: PHYT= phytoliths, T/F= tissues and fibers, CHARC= charcoal, VE= vascular elements, the
860 symbol '>' is used when micro-remains cannot easily be counted (i.e., when embedded in dental
861 calculus), GSM= group of small grains.

862

863 **Table 3.** Description of the micro-remains found within the calculus of the individuals of San Pietro.

864

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866 symbol '>' is used when micro-remains cannot easily be counted (i.e., when embedded in dental
867 calculus), GSM= group of small grains.

868

869 **Table 4.** Results and quality control parameters of carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) analysis.

870

871 **Table 5.** Results of the strontium oxygen (carbonate) isotope analysis with calculated V-SMOW
872 values.

873

874 **Table 6.** Results of the lead isotope analysis.

875

SAN DONATO (ROMAN)						
GRAVE	SEX	AGE	TOOTH	POSITION	WBC	WAC
SDN_18	M	21-29?	URC	BUCCAL	6.35	4.82
			LLI1	BUCCAL	4.44	3.16
			LLI1	LINGUAL	1.30	-
SDN_20	F	25-35?	ULI1	BUCCAL	48.75	30.1
			URM2	LINGUAL	1.90	-
SDN_39	F	Adult	LRPM2	BUCCAL	3.99	2.30
			LRM1	BUCCAL	2.78	1.49
SDN_60	M	25-35?	ULM3	BUCCAL	8.29	4.79
			LLM1	BUCCAL	12.15	9.32
			ULC	BUCCAL	0.89	-
SDN_66	M	21-29?	LLI2	BUCCAL	3.23	2.25
			LLI1	MESIAL	1.56	-
SDN_67	M	21-29?	ULC	BUCCAL	4.48	2.73
			LLPM2	LINGUAL	2.83	1.99
SDN_75	F	25-35?	LRI1	BUCCAL	3.11	1.80
			ULMR3	BUCCAL	1.40	-
			ULI2	BUCCAL	1.53	1.05
SDN_97	M	35-45?	LLI1	BUCCAL/MESIAL	6.12	4.10
SDN_107	F	25-35?	LLI2	DISTAL	4.40	2.74
			LRI1	LINGUAL	11.34	3.26
			LRM2	LINGUAL	8.51	4.29
SAN PIETRO (MEDIEVAL)						
GRAVE	SEX	AGE	TOOTH	POSITION	WBC	WAC
SPT_18	I	10-13	URPM1	BUCCAL	1.33	0.95
			URM1	BUCCAL	2.09	-
SPT_20	I	9-11	LLM1	DISTAL	1.19	0.91
			LRM1	DISTAL	0.45	-
SPT_46	I	25-35	ULPM2	MESIAL	0.7	-
			ULM1	LINGUAL	1.13	0.82
			URI2	MESIAL	11.7	9
SPT_47	F	≥35/40	LRI1	MESIAL	12.97	11.26
			LRI1	LINGUAL	4.33	3.66
			ULM2	DISTAL	1.56	0.77
			ULPM2	DISTAL	3.18	1.70
SPT_48	M	25-35	LLI2	LINGUAL	21.65	19.23
			LRI2	BUCCAL	15.07	11.7

			LRM1	LINGUAL/DISTAL	4.85	2.97
			LRC	BUCCAL/MESIAL	20.14	16.1
SPT_49	F	35-45	LLPM2	DISTAL	2.12	1.88
			LRI1	DISTAL	1.48	1.25
			LRI1	BUCCAL/MESIAL	6.96	5.36

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GRAVE	TOOTH	VEGETAL					ANIMAL/OTHERS
		STARCH GRAINS	PHYT	T/F	CHARC	VE	
SDN_18	LLI1, URC	GSM	>20	26	4	2	fungi
SDN_20	ULI1, URM2	-	-	1	1	2	-
SDN_39	LRPM2, LRM1	127	-	14	75	1	fungi
SDN_60	ULM3, LLM1, ULC	5	-	11	7	-	fungi
SDN_66	LLI2	1 + GSM	-	7	2	-	fungi
SDN_67	ULC, LLPM2	6	-	15	2	-	fungi
SDN_75	LRI1, ULMR3, ULI2	26	1	11	1	7	-
SDN_97	LLI1	-	-	5	3	-	fungi
SDN_107	LLI2, LRI1, LRM2	3	-	19	6	3	fungi

GRAVE	TOOTH	VEGETAL					ANIMAL/OTHERS
		STARCH GRAINS	PHYT	T/F	CHARC	VE	
SPT_18	URPM1, URM1	1	1	11	16	-	1 barbule
SPT_20	LLM1, LRM1	2 + GSM	-	30	3	1	-
SPT_46	ULPM2, ULM1, URI2	-	-	9	3	-	-
SPT_47	LRI1, ULM2, ULPM2	2 + GSM	-	70	7	1	1 barbule
SPT_48	LRC, LRM1, LRI2, LLI2	3 + GSM	13	122	47	15	1 barbule, fungi
SPT_49	LLPM2, LRI1	-	2	16	11	-	-

Sample	Crown dentine					Bone				
	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ PDB ‰	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ AIR ‰	%C	%N	C:N	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ PDB ‰	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ AIR ‰	%C	%N	C:N
SPT_18	-17.03	9.50	42.01	15.51	3.2	-12.55	9.36	44.07	15.30	3.4
SPT_20	-16.22	9.03	42.55	15.66	3.2	-16.10	6.93	43.20	15.07	3.3
SPT_46	-16.28	9.25	42.58	15.55	3.2	-16.43	7.84	44.38	16.07	3.2
SPT_47	-14.60	9.26	41.92	15.38	3.2	-14.92	9.27	41.15	14.46	3.3
SPT_48	-19.48	8.21	41.85	15.36	3.2	-16.00	9.25	43.80	15.67	3.3
SPT_49	-13.38	9.78	42.45	15.52	3.2	-18.82	7.16	44.23	15.80	3.3
Mean	-16.17	9.17	-	-	-	-15.80	8.30	-	-	-
1 SD	2.09	0.54	-	-	-	2.05	1.13	-	-	-
SDN_18	-17.16	8.08	41.15	15.06	3.2	-16.75	8.18	36.90	12.77	3.4
SDN_20	-16.44	8.92	41.88	15.34	3.2	-16.02	8.51	39.69	13.65	3.4
SDN_39	-17.26	8.85	41.78	15.23	3.2	-15.94	8.85	41.91	14.77	3.3
SDN_60	-17.08	8.38	41.85	15.34	3.2	-17.01	8.24	36.37	12.69	3.3
SDN_66	-15.47	8.06	42.19	15.34	3.2	-15.44	7.48	30.33	10.62	3.3
SDN_67	-17.42	7.89	41.82	15.29	3.2	-15.75	8.01	34.40	11.73	3.4
SDN_75	-19.11	7.05	41.69	15.35	3.2	-15.11	7.30	42.72	15.28	3.3
SDN_97	-17.30	7.94	41.74	15.21	3.2	-15.78	7.45	41.46	14.57	3.3
SDN_103	-16.45	10.31	41.49	15.18	3.2	-15.67	8.33	41.11	14.90	3.2
SDN_107	-15.55	8.15	41.77	15.33	3.2	-16.17	8.32	41.76	14.63	3.3
SDN_108	-15.30	8.26	41.69	15.28	3.2	-15.21	8.19	39.78	14.19	3.3
Mean	-16.78	8.35	-	-	-	-15.90	8.08	-	-	-
1 SD	1.11	0.82	-	-	-	0.59	0.48	-	-	-
Sheep	-	-	-	-	-	-21.33	2.33	42.79	15.38	3.2
Cow	-	-	-	-	-	-21.54	3.70	43.10	15.18	3.3

Sample	Sr ppm	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	2SE	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{(\text{carb})}$) V-PDB ‰	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{carb})}$) V-PDB ‰	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{carb})}$) V-SMOW ‰	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{phos})}$) V-SMOW ‰	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{(\text{dw})}$) V-SMOW ‰
SPT_18	96	0.708779	0.000008	-8.7	-7.0	23.7	14.8	-9.6
SPT_20	61	0.708432	0.000008	-9.8	-6.1	24.6	15.7	-8.8
SPT_46	61	0.709248	0.000008	-8.4	-7.1	23.6	14.7	-9.7
SPT_47	67	0.708471	0.000008	-7.1	-6.0	24.8	15.9	-8.6
SPT_48	95	0.708610	0.000009	-12.4	-6.5	24.3	15.4	-9.1
SPT_49	114	0.708678	0.000007	-6.3	-6.4	24.4	15.5	-9.0
Mean	82	0.708703	-	-8.8	-6.5	24.2	15.3	-9.1
1 SD	22	0.000296	-	2.2	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
SDN_18	72	0.708531	0.000007	-9.2	-6.3	24.4	15.5	-8.9
SDN_20	48	0.708507	0.000007	-9.0	-6.7	24.0	15.1	-9.3
SDN_39	72	0.708430	0.000007	-9.2	-6.3	24.5	15.6	-8.9
SDN_60	58	0.708550	0.000007	-9.3	-7.4	23.3	14.4	-10.0
SDN_66	70	0.708516	0.000008	-7.5	-7.5	23.2	14.2	-10.1
SDN_67	69	0.708392	0.000007	-9.3	-5.7	25.0	16.2	-8.3
SDN_75	119	0.708317	0.000008	-11.6	-7.2	23.5	14.6	-9.8
SDN_97	59	0.708426	0.000008	-9.3	-6.5	24.2	15.3	-9.1
SDN_103	43	0.708272	0.000006	-9.8	-6.3	24.4	15.5	-8.9
SDN_107	62	0.708274	0.000005	-6.9	-7.0	23.7	14.8	-9.6
SDN_108	50	0.708609	0.000007	-7.5	-7.0	23.7	14.7	-9.7
Mean	66	0.708439	-	-9.0	-6.7	24.0	15.1	-9.3

1 SD	20	0.00011 5	-	1.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
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Sample	Pb ppm	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	2SE	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	2SE	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	2SE	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	2SE	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	2SE
SPT_18	3.8	18.51132	0.00047	15.65965	0.00053	38.65724	0.00153	0.845962	0.000009	2.088314	0.000039
SPT_20	0.6	18.44139	0.00066	15.66030	0.00074	38.56098	0.00240	0.849195	0.000013	2.091000	0.000069
SPT_46	1.1	18.44893	0.00042	15.65780	0.00049	38.58975	0.00158	0.84871	0.00001	2.09169	0.00005
SPT_47	0.1	17.98544	0.00125	15.61279	0.00130	37.97991	0.00344	0.86810	0.00002	2.11171	0.00009
SPT_48	0.8	18.44172	0.00057	15.66011	0.00063	38.59867	0.00179	0.84917	0.00001	2.09305	0.00005
SPT_49	0.7	18.57464	0.00069	15.66350	0.00073	38.70259	0.00203	0.84327	0.00001	2.08364	0.00004
MEAN	1.18	18.40058	-	15.65236	-	38.51486	-	0.85073	-	2.09323	-
SD	1.32	0.21005	-	0.01947	-	0.26699	-	0.00882	-	0.00966	-
SDN_18	0.5	18.61899	0.00049	15.66683	0.00057	38.78309	0.00183	0.84144	0.00001	2.08299	0.00006
SDN_20	0.1	18.68272	0.00163	15.65783	0.00130	38.67574	0.00376	0.83809	0.00002	2.07019	0.00008
SDN_39	0.1	18.60291	0.00142	15.65791	0.00166	38.65222	0.00503	0.84169	0.00003	2.07780	0.00013
SDN_60	0.2	18.83417	0.00060	15.67620	0.00062	38.73280	0.00186	0.83233	0.00001	2.05653	0.00005
SDN_66	0.2	18.64890	0.00071	15.66284	0.00073	38.72046	0.00217	0.83988	0.00001	2.07631	0.00005
SDN_67	0.1	18.54227	0.00104	15.65606	0.00101	38.61131	0.00288	0.84434	0.00001	2.08231	0.00006
SDN_75	0.4	18.65039	0.00081	15.67119	0.00083	38.82759	0.00245	0.84027	0.00001	2.08186	0.00004
SDN_97	0.1	18.67420	0.00108	15.66847	0.00099	38.71646	0.00301	0.83906	0.00001	2.07332	0.00006
SDN_103	0.3	18.68763	0.00049	15.66897	0.00050	38.74712	0.00144	0.838468	0.000010	2.073403	0.000035
SDN_107	0.2	18.70413	0.00063	15.66686	0.00055	38.73046	0.00160	0.837609	0.000010	2.070676	0.000036
SDN_108	0.6	18.82835	0.00040	15.66881	0.00043	38.79042	0.00120	0.832177	0.000006	2.060198	0.000032
MEAN	0.25	18.67951	-	15.66563	-	38.72615	-	0.83867	-	2.07324	-
1 SD	0.18	0.08771	-	0.00628	-	0.06284	-	0.00370	-	0.00864	-



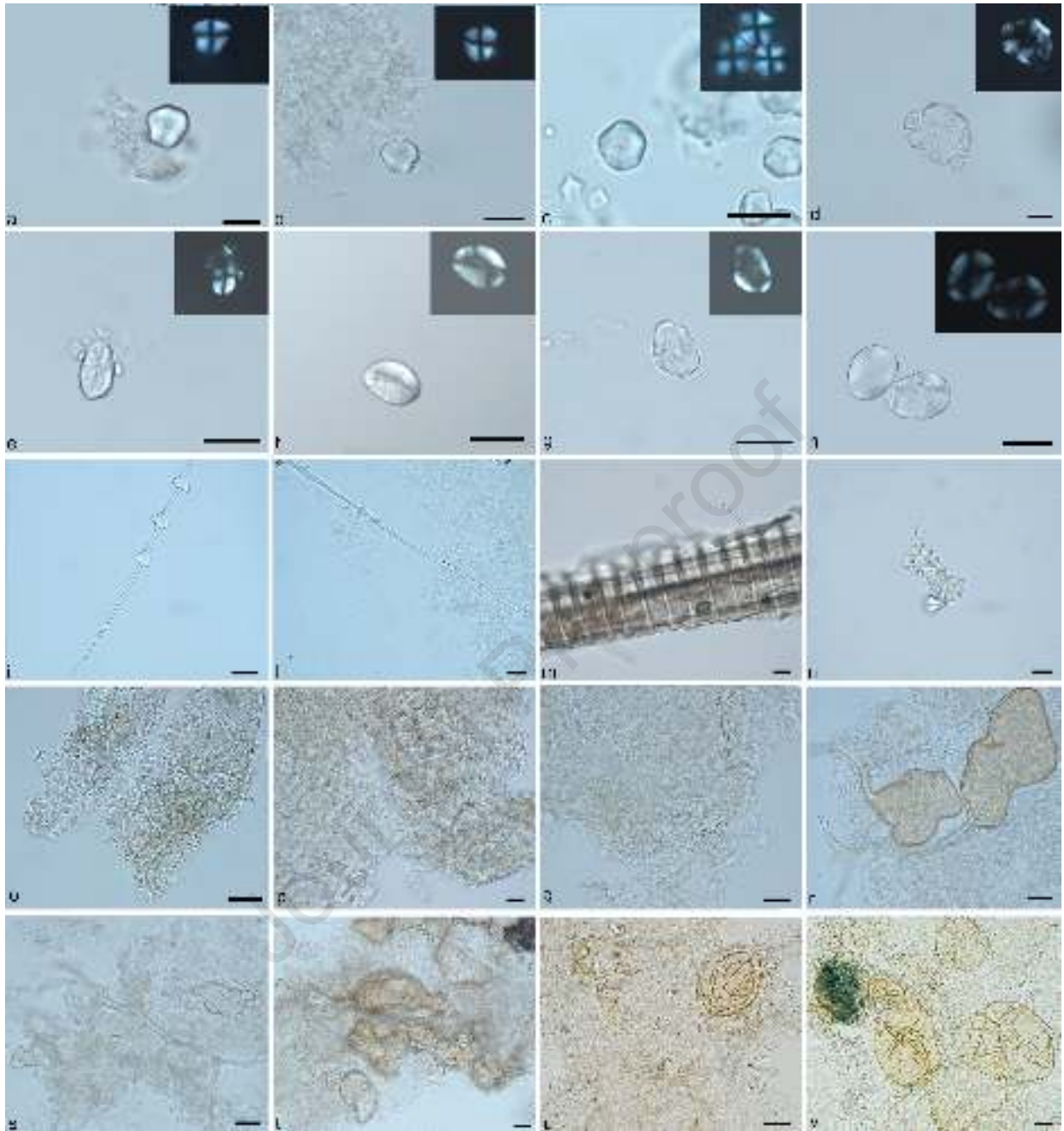
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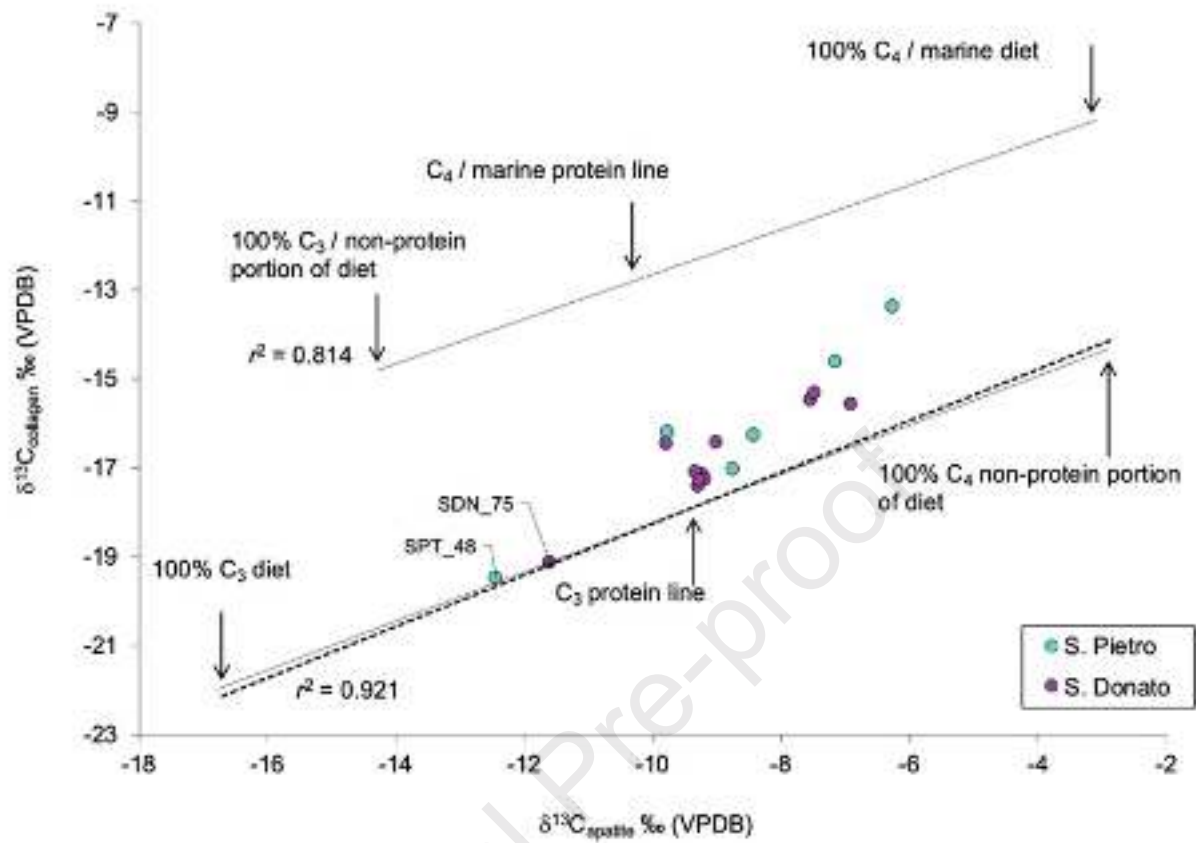


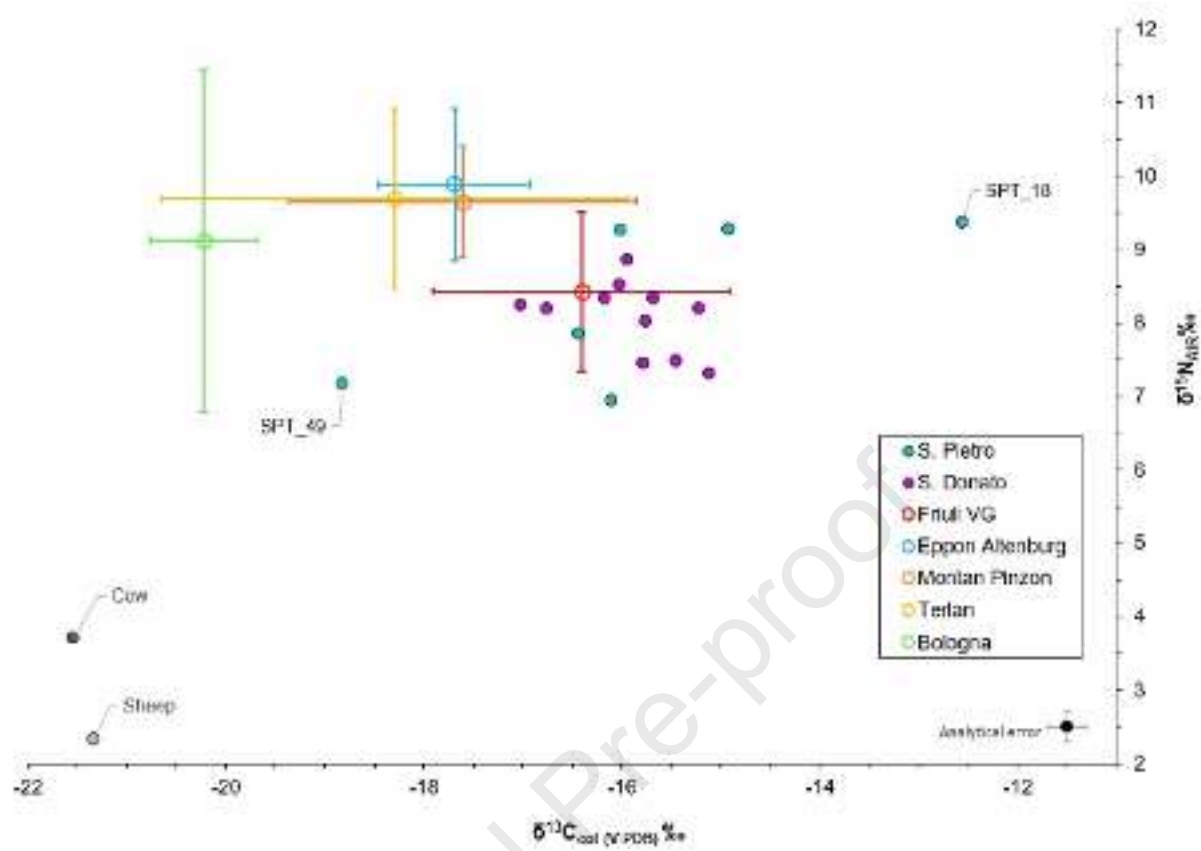
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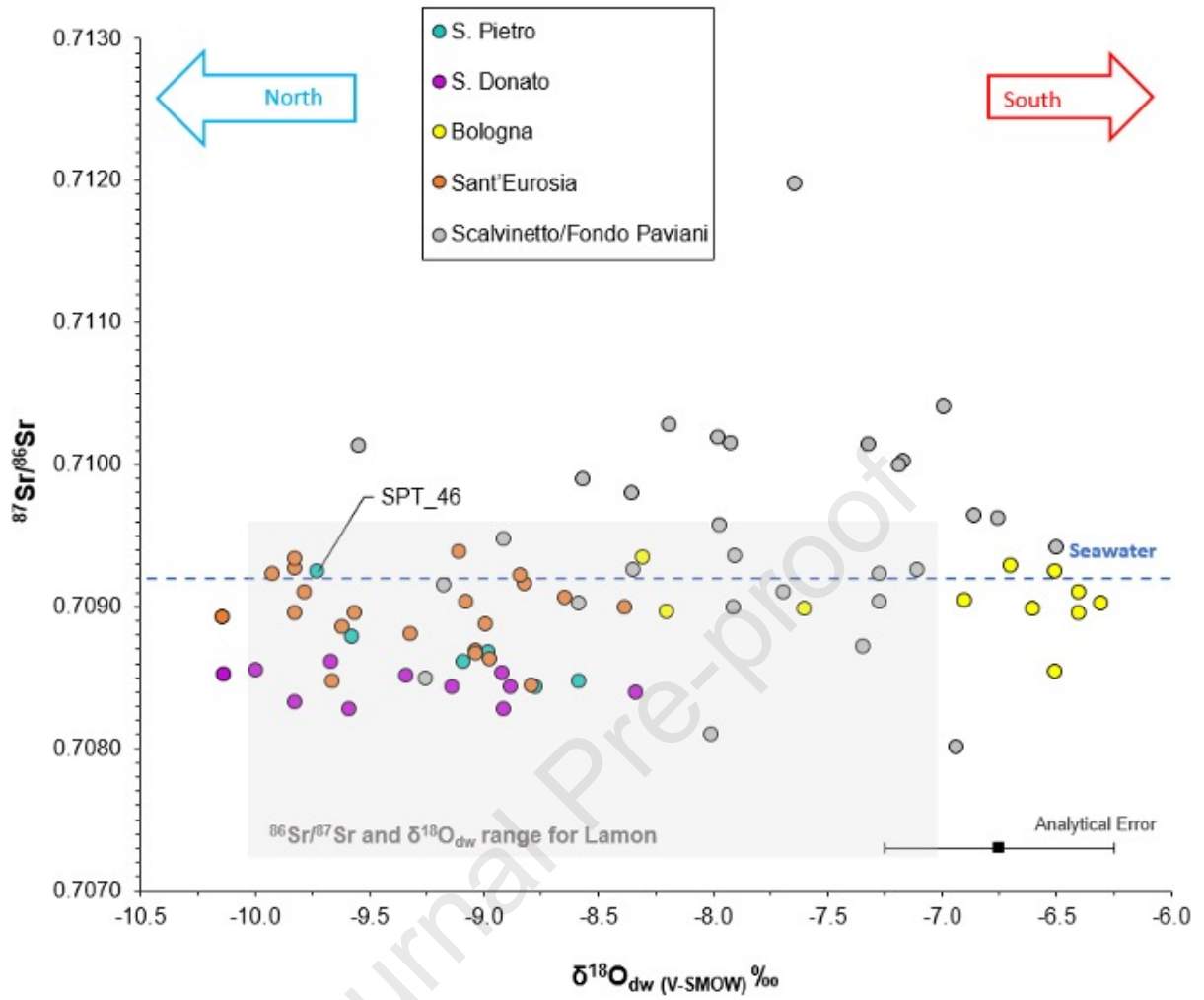


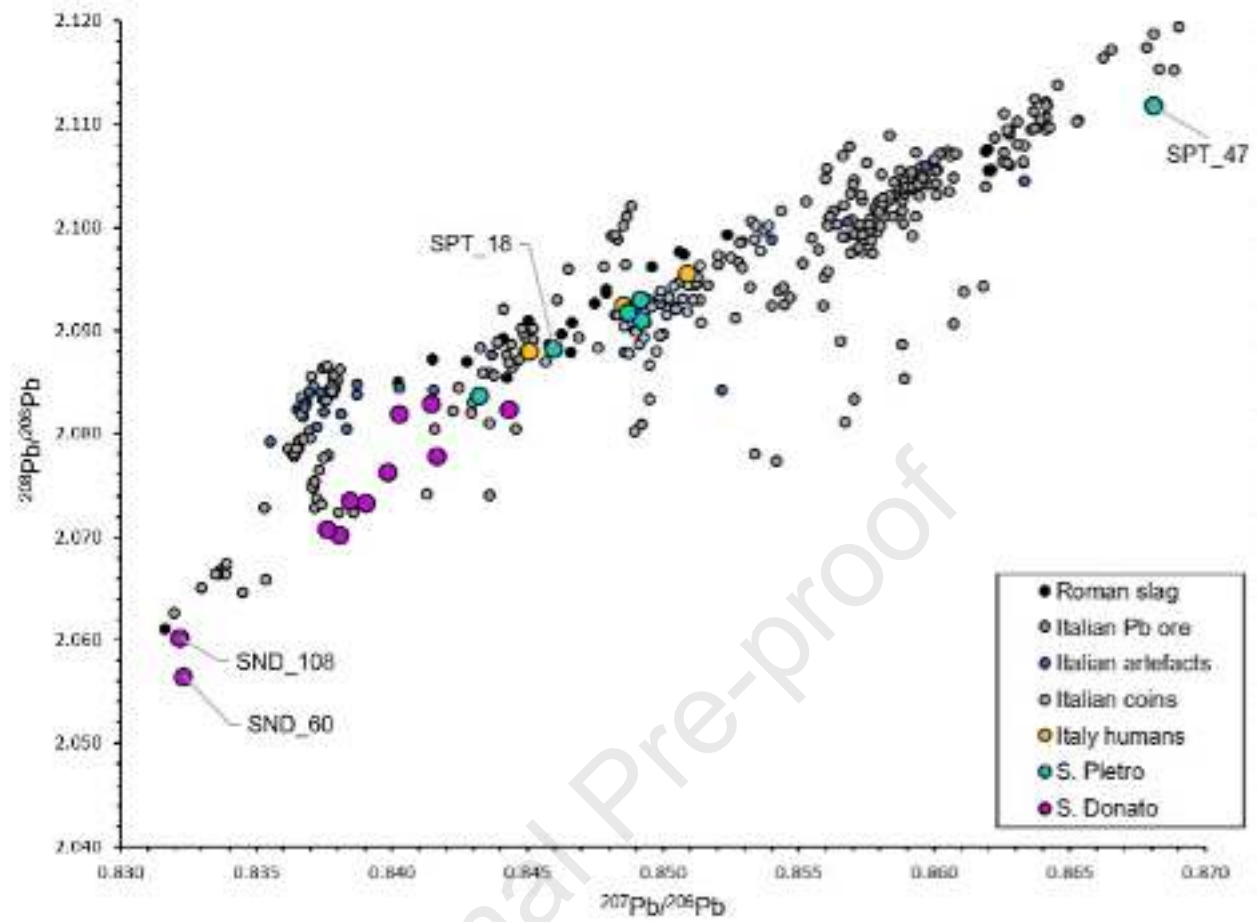
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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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