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1   **The exploitation of rabbits for food and pelts by Last Interglacial Neandertals**

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31    **Abstract**

32

33    The exploitation of small game, especially rabbits, by Neandertals as sources of food or for  
34    utilitarian purposes is no longer a subject of debate given increasing evidence for such  
35    practices in Europe from the Middle Paleolithic onwards. Instead, focus is now on whether  
36    rabbits were an occasional prey or were fully integrated into the socio-economic system of  
37    these human groups. Here we address this issue based on a detailed analysis of rabbit  
38    remains from the Mousterian deposits of Pié Lombard (Tourrettes-sur-Loup, Alpes-  
39    Maritimes, France). Dated to the last interglacial period (Marine Isotope Stage 5), rabbit  
40    remains (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) are the most abundant species throughout the site's  
41    Mousterian sequence. Our multi-aspect taphonomical analysis combining mortality profiles,  
42    skeletal-part representation, breakage patterns, and bone surface modifications revealed a  
43    high incidence of human involvement, demonstrating the rabbit assemblage from Pié Lombard  
44    to have been primarily accumulated by Neandertals. Multiple lines of evidence indicate a  
45    recurrent and optimised exploitation of carcasses directly on the site, both as sources of  
46    meat (preferentially eaten roasted) and marrow as well as for their pelts, which appear to  
47    have been transported away from the site. The high frequency of rabbits in the Pié Lombard  
48    Mousterian assemblage, comprising at least 225 individuals, is unique for this period and  
49    probably reflects the location and function of the rock-shelter. The capture of such a high  
50    number of this small mammal potentially required sophisticated acquisition techniques  
51    formerly known only from Upper Palaeolithic contexts. Finally, our results shed new light on  
52    the subsistence practices, settlement systems and socio-economic behavior of Neandertals  
53    in Western Europe during MIS 5.

54

55

56    **Keywords:** Neandertal subsistence strategies, Marine Isotope Stage 5, Middle Palaeolithic,  
57    Mousterian, *Oryctolagus cuniculus*, small prey, taphonomy.

58

59    **1. Introduction**

60

61    The behavioural complexity and flexibility of the Neandertals, as well as their cognitive  
62    capacities compared with anatomically modern humans, continues to attract significant  
63    attention from paleoanthropologists and prehistorians. Changes in subsistence strategies or  
64    the development of symbolic practices amongst Neandertal societies are commonly  
65    considered as evidence for the emergence of so-called "modern" behaviours. Increasing  
66    evidence of the behavioral, social and cultural "modernity" of Neandertals is in part due to  
67    new fieldwork at previously excavated sites and the re-evaluation of old collections using  
68    new analytical techniques. We now know that these groups developed remarkably similar  
69    behaviours to anatomically modern humans, including the burial of their dead (Pettitt, 2002,  
70    2011; Rendu et al., 2014), personal ornaments (Zilhão et al., 2010; Finlayson et al., 2012;  
71    Radovčić et al., 2015), pigment processing (Soressi and d'Errico, 2007; Roebroeks et al.,  
72    2012; Hoffmann et al., 2018a; Dayet et al., 2019, Pitarch Martí et al., 2019), the manufacture  
73    of bone tools (d'Errico et al., 2012; Soressi et al., 2013), rock art (Rodríguez-Vidal et al.,  
74    2014; Hoffmann et al., 2018b), frequent aquatic resource exploitation (Trinkaus et al., 2019),  
75    and the construction of complex structures deep within karstic cave systems (Jaubert et al.,  
76    2016). In terms of subsistence practices, although the majority of evidence suggest  
77    Neandertals primarily focused on ungulates (e.g., Richards and Trinkaus, 2009; Discamps et  
78    al., 2011; Rendu and Morin, 2018), recent research indicates a more substantial contribution  
79    of small game to the diet, including leporids (e.g., Brown et al., 2011; Blasco and Fernández  
80    Peris, 2012; Cochard et al., 2012; Hardy et al., 2013), birds (Blasco et al., 2014, 2016;  
81    Romero et al., 2017; Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018), small terrestrial carnivores (Soulier and  
82    Mallye, 2012; Gabucio et al., 2014; Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018), tortoises (Blasco, 2008;  
83    Nabais and Zilhão, 2019), and marine resources (Stringer et al., 2008; Brown et al., 2011;  
84    Gutiérrez-Zugasti et al., 2018).

85

86 Amongst these small preys, the European rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) is of particular  
87 interest, as they sometimes occupied an important, if not central role in Palaeolithic socio-  
88 economic systems in Western Europe. The remains of leporids are frequently found in  
89 archaeological sites and are in some cases the most abundant species (e.g., Pelletier, 2018).  
90 The first European evidence for the exploitation of these small mammals dates to the Middle  
91 Pleistocene, around 400-350 kyr BP (Desclaux, 1992; El Guennouni, 2001; Sanchis and  
92 Fernández Peris, 2008; Blasco and Fernández Peris, 2012). However, whether Middle  
93 Palaeolithic hunter-gatherers regularly exploited rabbits remains an open question. Several  
94 studies have highlighted the systematic acquisition (hunting and / or trapping) and  
95 consumption of rabbits to be uniquely associated with Upper Paleolithic anatomically modern  
96 humans (Stiner, 1994; Villaverde et al., 1996; Stiner et al., 1999, 2000; Aura et al., 2002;  
97 Hockett and Haws, 2002; Cochard and Brugal, 2004; Pérez Ripoll, 2004; Lloveras et al.,  
98 2011; Fa et al., 2013). For example, Stiner et al. (1999) argue that the significant increase of  
99 leporids in the human diet at the end of the Upper Paleolithic is related to the demographic  
100 growth of human groups. The gradual increase in the density of rabbit remains in different  
101 Upper Paleolithic techno-complexes would equally reflect profound cultural changes in the  
102 socio-economic organization of human groups (Cochard and Brugal, 2004). In fact, despite  
103 the typically low return rates compared to ungulates (Speth and Spielmann, 1983; Ugan,  
104 2005), the socio-economic potential of leporids is also reflected by the fact that both their  
105 bones and pelts can be exploited (e.g., Hockett, 1994; d'Errico and Laroulandie, 2000;  
106 Fontana, 2003; Cochard, 2005).

107  
108 The regular incorporation of small game in subsistence strategies during earlier periods,  
109 particularly the Middle Paleolithic, has been questioned by some researchers who argue  
110 that Neandertals, unlike modern humans, lacked the cognitive capacity and / or a sufficiently  
111 well-developed technology for regularly exploiting small game (Stiner et al., 1999; Fa et al.,  
112 2013). While it is now clear that Neandertal groups did consume rabbits (Gerber, 1973;  
113 Blasco, 1995; Sanchis and Fernández Peris, 2008; Brown et al., 2011; Blasco and

114 Fernández Peris, 2012; Cochard et al., 2012; Hardy et al., 2013; Rufà et al., 2014; Pérez et  
115 al., 2017; Carvalho et al., 2018), in several cases a significant portion of the rabbit remains  
116 found in sites can be tied to accumulation by carnivores or raptors (El Guennouni, 2001;  
117 Lloveras et al., 2010, 2011; Sanchis Serra, 2012; Rufà et al., 2014). Understanding the  
118 agent(s) responsible for the accumulation of rabbit remains in Middle Paleolithic contexts is  
119 thus essential for providing insights on this aspect of Neandertal subsistence behavior.

120

121 Given its small size and weight (1 to 2 kg), the rabbit is currently the preferential prey of more  
122 than 40 predators in Western Europe (Delibes and Hiraldo, 1981). Because this species is  
123 known for its burrowing behaviour and ability to produce complex and substantial  
124 underground warrens (Pelletier et al., 2016, 2017), determining the nature of leporid bone  
125 accumulations can be problematic. For example, the presence of rabbit bones in a fossil  
126 assemblage can be connected to three different accumulation agents: 1) non-human  
127 predators (terrestrial carnivores, nocturnal or diurnal birds of prey); 2) humans; or 3) natural  
128 accumulations without any evidence of predation (accidental deaths in natural traps or  
129 attritional deaths in burrows). Moreover, these agents are non-exclusive in the formation of  
130 leporid assemblages within a same deposit. In order to derive valid paleo-ethnographic and  
131 palaeoenvironmental interpretations, it is therefore essential to reliably demonstrate the  
132 origin of an archaeological rabbit accumulation, especially in cases when rabbits represent  
133 the most abundant species in a given stratigraphic sequence.

134

135 This is the case with the Pié Lombard rock-shelter; a Mousterian site in southeastern France  
136 dated to the transition between Marine Isotope Stages (MIS) 5 and 4 (Texier et al., 2011).  
137 Here we present a detailed taphonomical and zooarchaeological analysis of the assemblage  
138 of rabbit bones recovered from this Middle Palaeolithic site with the goal of evaluating the  
139 exact role Neandertals or other accumulation agents played in the formation the assemblage.  
140 Our results provide key contextual information for discussing the role of this small prey

141 species in the socio-economy of late MIS 5 Neandertal groups and for interpreting the site's  
142 function within the regional Mousterian settlement system.

143

144 **2. Material and Methods**

145

146 *2.1. Pié Lombard rock-shelter*

147

148 The site of Pié Lombard is located near the town of Tourrettes-sur-Loup (Alpes-Maritimes,  
149 France), on the east bank of the Loup River, 9 km from the Mediterranean Sea and 15 km  
150 south of the Alpine foothills (Fig. 1). Situated 200 meters a.s.l, this small rockshelter in  
151 Bajocian-Bathonian (Middle Jurassic) limestone was exposed following karstic erosion.  
152 Discovered in 1962 by an amateur prospector (A. Mellira), the site yielded Mousterian lithics  
153 and Upper Pleistocene faunal remains (Lumley-Woodyear, 1969). Excavations at the site  
154 were directed by one of us (P.-J.T.) as part of a larger analysis of the region's Middle  
155 Palaeolithic archaeological record (Texier, 1972, 1974). The exhaustive excavation of the  
156 rockshelter's archaeostratigraphic sequence, which included the systematic wet-sieving of  
157 sediments (using 5, 2 and 0.4 mm sieve meshes), was carried out mainly between 1971 and  
158 1975, accompanied by fieldwork in 1983 and 1985, and a final excavation season in 1996.  
159 This work recovered a significant amount of lithic and bone remains accumulated in a  
160 diapause at the front of the rock-shelter. The three-meter deep archaeological sequence was  
161 documented in a four meter long and less than one metre wide trench (Fig. 2).

162

163 Although the site was excavated by archaeological levels, the uneven configuration of the  
164 diapause, as well as small volume of excavated sediment and limited number of piece-plotted  
165 pieces per level, meant that the sequence was separated into two stratigraphic complexes  
166 (Texier et al., 2011; Fig. 2):

167

168 • An Epipaleolithic complex (ensemble I) comprising three layers (*a*, *b* and *c*) and dated  
169 by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) between 20,639 - 20,167 cal BP or 22,581 -  
170 22,073 cal BP (Tomasso, 2014). The exact cultural attribution of this occupation remains  
171 difficult to characterize due to the low density of material (n=81), which is also poorly  
172 preserved. Some 180 faunal remains were also collected, with a significant part of the dental  
173 elements represented by carnivores, while herbivores are mainly represented by the Alpine  
174 ibex (*Capra ibex*) and a limited number of red deer (*Cervus elaphus*);

175

176 • A Mousterian complex (ensemble II) (1,000 lithics and fauna per m<sup>2</sup>) subdivided into 5  
177 lithological layers (*d*, *e*, *e1*, *f*, *g*) and attributed to the MIS 5 to 4 transition based on a  
178 thermoluminescence (TL) date of 70 ± 8 kyr BP (Valladas et al., 1987). Stalagmites  
179 supporting Mousterian sediments returned two Electron Spin Resonance Dating (ESR) dates  
180 of 147 ± 10 kyr and 130 ± 20 kyr BP (Yokoyama et al., 1983). The Mousterian lithic industry  
181 comprises 902 pieces, including cores, fragments and flakes > 2cm. The retouched pieces  
182 (n = 172) occupy a significant portion (37.2%) in the corpus (n = 462) where Levallois  
183 products have a particularly high transformation rate. Semi-local and allochthonous raw  
184 materials are most common, with transfer distances not exceeding 40 km. However, several  
185 microquartzite and jasper pieces derive from sources found 60 and 240 km, respectively,  
186 from the site (Porraz, 2005). In terms of faunal remains, 16 species of large mammals have  
187 been identified (Table 1) from around 2,500 identifiable elements and several thousand bone  
188 splinters (Texier et al., 2011; Romero et al., 2017). Among herbivores, Alpine ibex (*Capra*  
189 *ibex*) and red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) dominate the Mousterian complex, representing 63%  
190 and 30% (NISP) of the assemblage, respectively, and are accompanied by a limited number  
191 of chamois remains (*Rupicapra rupicapra*; 4%). The carnivore assemblage is dominated by  
192 panther (*Panthera pardus*), wolf (*Canis lupus*) and lynx (*Lynx spelaea*) and includes juvenile  
193 remains of panther and brown bear (*Ursus arctos*). Preliminary zooarchaeological data  
194 indicate that, while Neandertal groups are clearly responsible for the introduction of several  
195 deer and ibex carcasses, it is impossible to exclude a contribution from other predators (e.g.

196 wolf, leopard, and lynx) to the ungulate assemblage. Except for the lagomorphs, which are  
197 represented by a single species, the European rabbit *O. cuniculus*, the Mousterian deposits  
198 yielded a relatively diversified small vertebrates collection comprising 45 species (Table 1; 1  
199 lagomorph, 2 reptiles, 1 amphibian, 2 insectivores, 5 bats, 10 rodents, and 24 birds). A  
200 combination of malacological, palynological and faunal data is consistent with colder climatic  
201 conditions than experience today in the region and typified by wooded and open areas with a  
202 marked Mediterranean influence. Finally, the site produced two deciduous incisors attributed  
203 to a Neandertal individual of between 2 and 4 years of age (Texier et al., 2011).

204

205 Pié Lombard was initially interpreted as a potential fur and skin processing site given the  
206 abundance and especially the diversity of small and large carnivore species in the  
207 Mousterian assemblage (Brugal and Jaubert, 1996); however, no clear evidence was  
208 provided to support such an interpretation. It is very likely that carnivores used the  
209 rockshelter as a long-term den (natural death, reproductive place) and during different  
210 periods (Texier et al., 2011; Romero et al., 2017). Despite the difficult access to the site  
211 during the Pleistocene, Neandertals nevertheless imported deer or ibex carcasses for  
212 immediate consumption in the rock-shelter. It is likely that Pié Lombard functioned as a  
213 seasonal basecamp incorporated within a well-developed territorial system rather than as  
214 short stay hunting camp (Texier et al., 2011). In addition, it has been recently demonstrated  
215 that Neandertals were equally responsible for part of the bird remains from Pié Lombard  
216 primarily as a food source and potentially for the use of their feathers (Romero et al., 2017).

217

## 218 2.2. *The rabbit assemblage*

219

220 The rabbit assemblage from the Mousterian complex consists of more than 16,000 bones,  
221 which were conditioned and stored by anatomical part during the exhaustive sorting of the  
222 small vertebrate remains. The near-absence of coxal bones is noteworthy; only a limited  
223 number of coxal bone fragments (NISP=50) were found mixed with the other previously

224 sorted anatomical elements. This pattern suggests that coxal bones were in fact present  
225 during excavations and the subsequent conditioning of the material, meaning that the limited  
226 number of specimens is highly unlikely to reflect a taphonomic bias. We assume that the box  
227 containing the missing coxal bones was lost during the relocation of the collections. In order  
228 to avoid biases when comparing the Pie Lombard assemblage with other studies, we  
229 excluded this element from all analyzes.

230

231 As mutiple taphonomical criteria are shared by several accumulating agents (e.g., Cochard,  
232 2007, 2008; Lloveras et al., 2010; Pelletier et al., 2016), it remains difficult to reliably identify  
233 the origin of rabbit assemblages recovered from archaeological sites. This being the case,  
234 we integrated four types of data to investigate the nature of the accumulation: mortality  
235 profiles, skeletal-part representation, bone breakage and bone surface modifications.

236

237 *2.2.1. Mortality profile of rabbits*

238

239 Age at death was estimated from the degree of long bone (humerus, radius, ulna, femur, and  
240 tibia) ossification. In rabbits, adult size is reached at five months (Biadi and Le Gall, 1993),  
241 while ossification is complete at the age of eight months (see synthesis in Jones, 2006).  
242 According to Pelletier et al. (2016), four age classes can usually be distinguished:

243

244 • “Infants”: aged up to two weeks and characterized by their small size, no epiphyseal  
245 ossification, an incomplete diaphyseal ossification, as well as unerupted or erupting adult  
246 teeth;

247

248 • “Juveniles”: aged between 2 weeks and 3 months with unfused epiphyses that have  
249 not yet reached their adult size;

250

251 • “Subadults”: aged between 3 and 8 months, who, although having reached their adult  
252 size, nevertheless display incompletely fused epiphyses;

253

254 • “Adults”: aged more than 8 months with all epiphyses fused.

255

256 It has recently been shown that age structure models of rabbit populations can help to  
257 identify acquisition strategies, predator behaviors or the type of accumulation (Pelletier et al.,  
258 2016, 2017). Although age distributions may depend on the size of the predator, the season  
259 of capture and / or geography (e.g., Cochard 2004b, 2008; Lloveras et al., 2012a; Arriaza et  
260 al., 2017), and that several accumulator agents (e.g., foxes and eagle-owls) produce very  
261 similar mortality profiles; they nevertheless rule out certain predators that prey almost  
262 exclusively on adult individuals, such as medium-to-large sized carnivores (i.e., badgers,  
263 dholes, lynx), large birds of prey (i.e., eagles, vultures), and humans (Hockett, 1991;  
264 Cochard, 2004a, 2007; Mallye et al., 2008; Lloveras et al., 2011, 2014a, 2016, 2017;  
265 Cochard et al., 2012; Pelletier et al., 2016, 2017). Age structure can also be useful for  
266 identifying or excluding several potential species known to prey on rabbits. For this study, we  
267 used ternary diagrams (Stiner, 1990) modified after Discamps and Costamagno (2015) and  
268 specifically adapted for rabbit populations by Pelletier et al. (2016).

269

270 Finally, we omitted sex data for the Pie Lombard assemblage given the recent demonstration  
271 that commonly employed models (Jones, 2006) for determining the sex-ratio of rabbit  
272 populations (Cochard et al., 2012; Blasco et al., 2013; Rufà et al., 2014, 2017; Martínez-  
273 Polanco et al., 2017) do not accurately distinguish males from females in a reproducible  
274 manner (Pelletier et al., 2015). Sexing rabbit remains is further complicated by the fact there  
275 is no sexual dimorphism in this species (Pelletier, 2019).

276

277 *2.2.2. Anatomical representation of rabbits*

278

279 The number of identified specimens (NISP), minimum number of skeletal elements (MNE)  
280 and the minimum number of individuals (MNI) were calculated for each skeletal element  
281 (Reitz and Wing, 1999; Lyman, 2008). Relative abundance (RA) was calculated using the  
282 formula proposed by Dodson and Wexlar (1979):

283

- 284 •  $\%RA = [MNE/(MNI * E)] * 100$

285

286 where MNE equals the minimum number of skeletal elements, MNI equals the minimum  
287 number of individuals based on the greatest number of any single element in the assemblage  
288 subdivided by age cohort, and E is the number of elements present in one skeleton (adapted  
289 here without the coxal bone).

290

291 The proportion of skeletal elements for all rabbit age classes was calculated using adjusted  
292 ratios based on the work of Andrews (1990) and Lloveras et al. (2008), and slightly modified  
293 by Pelletier et al. (2016). For our study, these ratios were adapted to reflect the exclusion of  
294 coxal bones from the analysis:

295

- 296 •  $PCRT/CR\% = [(PCRT * 32) / ((PCRT * 32) + (CR * 182))] * 100$

297

298 where PCRT is the total number of postcranial elements (limbs, vertebrae, and ribs) and CR  
299 the total number of cranial elements (mandibles, maxilla, and teeth);

300

- 301 •  $PCRAP/CR\% = [(PCRAP * 32) / ((PCRAP * 32) + (CR * 112))] * 100$

302

303 with PCRAP being the total number of limb elements (long bones, scapula, patella,  
304 metapodials, carpals, tarsals, and phalanges);

305

- 306 •  $PCRLB/CR\% = [(PCRLB * 32) / ((PCRLB * 32) + (CR * 10))] * 100$

307

308 with PCRLB calculated as the total number of long bones (humerus, radius, ulna, femur, and  
309 tibia);

310

311 • **AUT/ZE%** = [(AUT \* 12) / ((AUT \* 12) + (ZE \* 98))] \* 100

312

313 with AUT comprising autopodia (metapodials, carpals, tarsals, and phalanges) and ZE  
314 zygodia and stylopodia (tibia, radius, ulna, humerus, femur, and patella);

315

316 • **AN/PO%** = [(AN \* 12) / ((AN \* 12) + (PO \* 16))] \* 100

317

318 with AN representing the number of scapula, humerus, radius, ulna, and metacarpals, and  
319 PO being the femur, tibia, and metatarsals;

320

321 • **Z/E%** = [(Z \* 4) / ((Z \* 4) + (E \* 6))] \* 100

322

323 with Z grouping zygodia (tibia, radius, and ulna) and E stylopodia (femur and humerus).

324

### 325 *2.2.3. Bone breakage and surface modifications*

326

327 To help discern rabbit assemblages resulting from natural deaths from those produced by  
328 predators, the percentages of complete elements, isolated teeth and articulated elements  
329 were calculated (Cochard, 2004a). In this regard, the percentage of shaft cylinders was also  
330 recorded for comparison with anthropic accumulations (e.g., Hockett, 1991; Pérez Ripoll,  
331 2004). The type and nature of breaks (green or dry bone) were recorded for each long bone  
332 fragment based on morphological criteria provided by Villa and Mahieu (1991) and applied to  
333 small mammals by Armstrong (2016a, 2016b).

334

335 Break type was equally recorded for each bone element following Lloveras et al. (2008) and  
336 applied in several subsequent studies (e.g., Lloveras et al., 2009a, 2012b, 2014a, 2016):

337

338 • Cranium were recorded as complete (C) or represented by the incisive bone (IB),  
339 incisive bone and maxilla (IBM), maxilla (M), zygomatic arch (ZA) or neurocranium (NC);

340

341 • Mandibles were recorded as complete (C), incisive part (IP), mandible body and  
342 incisive part (MBI), mandible body (MB), mandible body and branch (MBB) or condylar  
343 process (CP);

344

345 • Scapula were recorded as complete (C), glenoid cavity (GC), glenoid cavity and neck  
346 (GCN), glenoid cavity, neck and fossa (GCNF), neck and fossa (NF) or fossa (F);

347

348 • Long bones (humerus, radius, ulna, femur, tibia), metacarpal and metatarsal bones  
349 were classified as complete (C), proximal epiphysis (PE), proximal epiphysis and shaft  
350 (PES), shaft (S), shaft and distal epiphysis (SDE) or distal epiphysis (DE);

351

352 • Vertebrae were recorded as complete (C), vertebral body (VB), vertebral epiphysis  
353 (VE) or spinous process (SP);

354

355 • Phalanges were recorded as complete (C), proximal fragment, (P), distal fragment (D)  
356 or fragment (F);

357

358 • Patella, carpals, tarsals (calcaneus, talus, cuboid, cuneiform, and navicular), ribs and  
359 teeth were classified as complete (C) or fragmentary (F). For teeth, breakage was recorded  
360 separately depending on whether teeth were found isolated or still set in the mandible  
361 (Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 1992).

362

363 All remains were observed under a light-reflecting microscope (40x magnification) in order to  
364 systematically describe bone surface alterations. Evidences of non-human predation (i.e.,  
365 digestion, tooth/beak marks) were counted for each element, as were traces of human  
366 modifications such as cut-marks or burning.

367

368 **3. Results**

369

370 *3.1. Mortality profile*

371

372 The rabbit assemblage recovered from the Mousterian complex is well preserved and  
373 comprises 16,084 bone elements (NISP), corresponding to a minimum of 225 individuals.  
374 Epiphysation of the distal end of the humerus demonstrates at least 219 individuals to be  
375 older than 3 months (97%), with the non-epiphyseal proximal end of the tibia reflecting the  
376 presence of 34 subadult individuals. Overall, long bones correspond to at least 6 juveniles,  
377 34 subadults, 185 adults. No infant remains were identified in the Mousterian rabbit  
378 assemblage.

379

380 The Pié Lombard profile is distinct from those generated by solitary small-predators, such as  
381 foxes or eagle-owls, who preferentially prey upon juveniles with smaller body sizes (Fig. 3). It  
382 is also substantially different from modern warrens, which are characterised by higher  
383 numbers of both juvenile individuals and infants (Pelletier et al., 2016). Moreover, age  
384 profiles produced by solitary predators and typical of warrens are also characterized by  
385 greater proportions of immature individuals. This is not the case with the Pié Lombard profile,  
386 which is much more similar to those generated by larger predators such as badgers, dholes,  
387 or humans. In fact, the Pié Lombard mortality profile falls within the “old” (**O**) zone of the  
388 ternary diagram, which is consistent with the selection of the most profitable prey and

389 considered evidence for a targeted hunting strategy (Stiner, 1990; Discamps and  
390 Costamagno, 2015).

391

392 *3.2. Anatomical representation*

393

394 The Pié Lombard Mousterian assemblage produced all elements of the rabbit skeleton, a  
395 pattern consistent with a large proportion of complete skeletons having been introduced to  
396 the site. Phalanges, metapodials, vertebrae and teeth are most common (%NISP), while the  
397 smallest elements, such as carpals/tarsals, sternebrae, sesamoids, and patellae, are less  
398 well represented (Table 2). The relative abundance mean value (43%) is low, which indicates  
399 a significant loss of bony elements in the assemblage. The best-represented anatomical  
400 elements are the humerus (95%), calcaneus (94%), and talus (86%), whereas sternebrae,  
401 ribs, carpals, vertebrae and cuneiform are less abundant (1% to 8%).

402

403 The assemblage produced relatively similar proportions of cranial and postcranial elements  
404 (PCRT/CR%=48%), although the latter are underrepresented compared with long limb bone  
405 elements (i.e., PCRAP/CR% and PCRLB/CR%; Table 3). The AUT/ZE% index shows a  
406 deficit of the autopodia compared to the zygodia (39%), and relatively equal proportions of  
407 lower and upper limb elements (Z/E%=51%) as well as anterior and posterior members  
408 (AN/PO%=46%). The patterns of skeletal part representation documented for the Pié  
409 Lombard assemblage differs substantially from either modern reference collections or other  
410 fossil rabbit assemblages (Fig. 4). The proportion of postcranial and cranial elements is  
411 somewhat similar to skeletal profiles generated by birds of prey (PCRT/CR% and  
412 PCRAP/CR%). However, the high degree of variability in skeletal part profiles produced by  
413 humans does not exclude this type of accumulation. For example, the under-representation  
414 of autopodials in the Pié Lombard assemblage is a typical signature of birds of prey but  
415 shared with the clearly anthropic assemblage from Gazel cave (Fig. 4). The balance between  
416 the anterior and posterior elements allows a clear link with the anthropogenic accumulations.

417

418 *3.3. Bone breakage: frequency and type*

419

420 While overall bone fragmentation is relatively high (46% complete bones), it varies according  
421 to bone element and size. The smallest bones (i.e., carpals/tarsals, patellae, phalanges, and  
422 teeth) 86% are complete, while long bones display a significantly higher breakage rate, with  
423 an average of only 0.2% complete bones (only two humerus, two radius and one tibia are  
424 complete).

425

426 Skulls and mandibles are never found complete and are mainly represented by the maxilla  
427 (M) and mandible body (MB), respectively (Table 4). Nearly half of the teeth (49%) were still  
428 recovered in the mandible and were generally complete (90%), just like isolated teeth (88%).  
429 Only one complete scapula is present and most fragments include the glenoid cavity (GC).  
430 Metacarpals and metatarsals are complete in 38% and 11% of the cases, respectively.  
431 Carpals (98%), cuneiforms (99%), cuboids (92%), and naviculars (84%) are more frequently  
432 complete than talus (71%) and calcaneus (58%). Only 70% of proximal phalanges are  
433 complete, while 91% and 99%, respectively, of mesial and distal phalanges are complete.  
434 Vertebrae are complete in 13% of cases, primarily represented by the vertebral body (VB),  
435 while ribs are almost always fragmented (98%).

436

437 In terms of long bones, all breakage categories were found among which fragments of  
438 diaphysis are most abundant. Humerus and tibia are most often represented by distal  
439 epiphyses, while proximal epiphyses of radius, ulna and femur fragments are more frequent  
440 (Table 4). Thirty-five percent of all long bones are represented by shaft cylinder fragments,  
441 with nearly 20% representing the humerus, femur and tibia (Fig. 5). Most long bone fractures  
442 concern green bone (Table 5) and are characterized by an oblique fracture angle (68%) and  
443 a V-shaped profile (70%). Dry bone breaks with a right fracture angle (17%) and a transverse  
444 fracture profile (15%) are less common, and result from post-depositional processes (e.g.,

445 pressure and sedimentary movements, roof collapse, weathering). Approximately 15% of  
446 bone breakage is recent, probably occurring during excavation and/or cleaning.

447

448 *3.4. Bone surface modifications*

449

450 Bone surfaces are very well preserved and bear no signs of weathering or alterations by  
451 abiotic agents. Traces of digestion are evident on less than 3% of the rabbit assemblage  
452 (Table 6), with metacarpals, metatarsals, talus, calcaneus and phalanges the most  
453 commonly affected. Pits and punctures are present on 33 bones (0.2% of NISP) and mostly  
454 occur on the scapula (n=8), femur (n=6), calcaneus (n=4), metatarsals (n=3) radius (n=2)  
455 and mandible (n=2). Carnivore tooth marks, likely a relatively small-sized predator such as  
456 fox, wild cat or lynx are concentrated around the glenoid cavity (n=4), the proximal part of the  
457 femur (n=2) and ulna (n=1), as well as on the mandible body (n=1).

458

459 Most of the bone surface modifications can be attributed to human activity. A total of 481  
460 bone elements (3% of NISP), primarily long bones (n=219), display cut-marks (Fig. 6; Table  
461 6). Cut-marks are also frequent on metacarpals (n=43) and metatarsals (n=107), and  
462 concern mainly lateral metapods, such as the metacarpal II (n=10) and V (n=16), and  
463 metatarsal II (n=26) and V (n=31). A significant number of cutmarks were also recorded on  
464 the calcaneus (n = 54), talus (n = 12) and scapula (n = 14). On the long bones, most cut-  
465 marks were located on shafts and near the epiphyses and are almost always transverse to  
466 the principal axis of the bone. Traces of burning are evident on 9% of NISP and are not  
467 concentrated on any particular portion of the skeleton; 15% of cases concern the epiphyses,  
468 with long bones, the calcaneus, talus, metapodials and phalanges most commonly affected  
469 (Table 6). However, we did not record any traces of human teeth on the bones, although  
470 reliably identifying such marks is difficult (e.g., Cochard, 2004; Lloveras et al., 2009b).

471

472 **4. Discussion**

473

474 *4.1. The origin of the Pié Lombard rabbit assemblage*

475

476 Despite differences in the relative abundance of certain skeletal elements, the overall  
477 anatomical representation of rabbits at Pié Lombard suggests whole carcasses were  
478 introduced to the site. Most potential rabbit predators transport whole carcasses and can  
479 produce the same pattern than an attritional mortality typically observed for warrens. Infants  
480 only leave the warren 2 to 3 weeks after birth (Biadi and Le Gall, 1993), and the presence of  
481 their remains could suggest a warren and the potential bioturbation of archaeological layers  
482 (Pelletier et al., 2016, 2017). However, most predators, including humans, lynx, dholes,  
483 eagles or badgers, tend to focus primarily on adults, who generally comprise at least 80% of  
484 an assemblage (Hockett, 1991; Hockett and Bicho, 2000; Jones, 2004; Cochard, 2004a,  
485 2007; Brugal, 2006; Mallye et al., 2008; Lloveras et al., 2011, 2016, 2017; Cochard et al.,  
486 2012; Rillardon and Brugal, 2014; Rosado-Méndez et al., 2015; Arriaza et al., 2017; Rufà et  
487 al., 2017). Taken together, the absence of infant remains at Pié Lombard and an assemblage  
488 dominated by adult individuals (82%) is in good overall agreement with an accumulation  
489 produced by a large predator.

490

491 Despite some variation in skeletal part representation, anatomical profiles produced by  
492 terrestrial predators are generally similar, especially when complete carcasses are  
493 transported. In the anthropogenic assemblages, the best-represented elements are generally  
494 mandibles, long bones, scapula and coxal bones (Hockett, 1991; Hockett et Haws, 2002;  
495 Cochard, 2004a; Brugal, 2006; Lloveras et al., 2016), which is the case with the Pié Lombard  
496 assemblage (except for coxal bones, which were excluded from our study; see section 2.2).  
497 In the case of accumulations generated by lynx, skeletal profiles tend to be very similar,  
498 characterised by a higher abundance of cranial remains and an over-representation of  
499 forelimb bones compared to those of the hindlimbs (Lloveras et al., 2008). The Pié Lombard  
500 profile clearly departs from this pattern, particularly in the under-representation of cranial

elements, and resembles accumulations produced by some raptors, who tend to focus essentially on immature individuals (Sanchis Serra, 2000; Cochard, 2004b; Lloveras et al., 2009a; Sanchis Serra et al., 2014) and sever the limbs and / or head before transporting the most nutritious parts for consumption elsewhere (Donazar, 1988).

505

506 Can this particular skeletal-part representation of Pié Lombard be connected to the  
507 differential preservation of bone remains? According to Pavao and Stahl (1999), in cases of  
508 differential preservation, density differences between hindlimb (more dense) and forelimb  
509 (less dense) elements should be reflected in femur and tibia outnumbering humerus, radius  
510 and ulna. At Pié Lombard, all of these elements are present in similar proportions, which is  
511 consistent with an overall good preservation of the assemblage. The underrepresentation of  
512 the extremities of the paws (phalanges, carpals/tarsals, and metapodials) is generally due to  
513 their small size and that these elements are frequently overlooked during excavations or lost  
514 during sieving when using large mesh sizes (Shaffer and Sanchez, 1994; Cannon, 1999; Val  
515 and Mallye, 2011a). A systematic water sieving protocol using less than 5 mm meshes  
516 during excavations at Pié Lombard exclude recovery biases affecting skeletal-part profiles.  
517 The absence of the differential transportation or preservation of rabbit remains at Pié  
518 Lombard reflects a particular context, with the skeletal representation of the remains  
519 suggesting humans to be responsible for the accumulation. The Pié Lombard assemblage  
520 falls between the anthropogenic accumulations from the Mousterian occupation of Les  
521 Canalettes (Cochard et al., 2012), the Late Aurignation at Arbreda cave (Lloveras et al.,  
522 2016) or the Late Magdalenian at La Faurélie II (Cochard, 2004a), where rabbits were  
523 exploited uniquely as a source of food, and the anthropogenic accumulation from Gazel  
524 Cave, where leporids were captured both for their fur and meat (Fontana, 2003).

525

526 Bone breakage linked to marrow extraction produces numerous epiphyseal and shaft-  
527 cylinder fragments (e.g., Hockett, 1991; Cochard, 2004a; Pérez Ripoll, 2004). With few  
528 exceptions, rabbit accumulations from Upper Paleolithic contexts generally contain less than

529 15% (of NISP) of shaft cylinders (Hockett and Bicho, 2000; Cochard, 2004a; Cochard and  
530 Brugal, 2004; Brugal, 2006; Lloveras et al., 2011, 2016; Rillardon and Brugal, 2014; Rufà et  
531 al., 2017). In this regard, the proportion of shaft cylinders at Pié Lombard (35%) is more  
532 similar to the Middle Paleolithic assemblage of Les Canalettes (39%; Cochard et al., 2012),  
533 which also dates to the same period (i.e., MIS 5-4). The percentage of complete long bones  
534 (0.2%) is equally consistent with anthropogenic accumulations (e.g., Cochard et al., 2012;  
535 Lloveras et al., 2016; Rufà et al., 2017) and lower than that observed for modern predators  
536 (Sanchis Serra, 2000; Lloveras et al., 2008, 2009a, 2012b, 2014a, 2017; Mallye et al., 2008).  
537 Moreover, fauna accumulations generated by non-human predators are characterized by  
538 very high percentages of digested remains (>60%). At Pié Lombard, less than 3% of NISP  
539 show traces of digestion and only 33 elements bear carnivore teeth-marks (0.2%), reflecting  
540 an extremely limited impact of non-human predator on the Pié Lombard rabbit assemblage.  
541 The skinning and defleshing of rabbit carcasses leaves clear evidence in the form of cut-  
542 marks and traces of burning on the distal ends of long bones (Vigne et al., 1981; Vigne and  
543 Marinval-Vigne, 1983; Lloveras et al., 2009b). At Pié Lombard, 3% of bones are cut-marked  
544 and 9% show traces of burning, a pattern consistent with what is observed in anthropogenic  
545 accumulations (for a synthesis, see Lloveras et al., 2016).

546

547 Moreover, the accumulation of small vertebrates at Pié Lombard is characterized by a very  
548 high proportion of rabbits (Table 1). Such an overrepresentation has never, to our  
549 knowledge, been encountered in any Pleistocene natural death assemblage or mixed  
550 accumulation (rock shelter or cave sites; e.g., Andrews, 1990; Desclaux et al., 2011) or in any  
551 modern coprocoenosis (e.g., Géroutet, 1984; Bayle, 1992; Lloveras et al., 2014a, 2014b,  
552 2017; Sanchis Serra et al., 2014). This further underlines the unique nature of the Pié  
553 Lombard Mousterian assemblage, which results from the acquisition and processing of small  
554 game, primarily rabbits as well as birds, by Neandertal groups. The presence of a limited  
555 number of digested remains and carnivore-gnawed bones shows that another agent,  
556 probably a small terrestrial carnivore, contributed only marginally to the accumulation.

557

558 *4.2. Function of the Pié Lombard site*

559

560 Pié Lombard was alternately occupied by small, medium and large carnivores during  
561 particular periods as well by Neandertal groups as part of a seasonal mobility system (Texier  
562 et al., 2011). Both predators introduced large herbivores as well as small vertebrate remains  
563 to the site. A recent taphonomic analysis of the bird remains from the Mousterian complex  
564 showed that multiple agents were responsible for the accumulation (Romero et al., 2017):  
565 birds of prey (i.e., nocturnal raptors) transported their prey (usually choughs) to the rock-  
566 shelter, where they were consumed and subsequently regurgitated; small terrestrial  
567 carnivores (i.e., lynx or red fox) also occasionally hunted birds; as did Neandertals, who  
568 focused almost exclusively on pigeons, partridges, and choughs, mainly for their meat and  
569 perhaps also for the use of their feathers.

570

571 Unlike the mixed origin of the avian assemblage, the rabbit remains from Pié Lombard were  
572 primarily transported to the site by Neandertal groups. The Pié Lombard assemblage  
573 demonstrates whole carcasses have been brought and butchered on-site and bones broken  
574 to access marrow. At Les Canalettes, the low rate of burned bones (<1%) led Cochard  
575 (2004a) to suggest that carcasses were boiled rather than roasted. At Pié Lombard, the  
576 relatively high rate of burned bones (9%) suggests that rabbit carcasses were roasted rather  
577 than boiled. Rabbits can be roasted directly after being skinned without having to first  
578 dismember the carcass (Rufà et al., 2017). Moreover, disarticulation and defleshing are, in  
579 fact, easier after roasting, and do not require the use of tools, which could explain the low  
580 number of cut-marks observed on the remains.

581

582 Although it is still difficult to definitely demonstrate the processing of leporid pelts by  
583 prehistoric hunter-gatherers (e.g., Cochard, 2004a; Mallye et al., 2018), numerous cut-marks  
584 potentially unrelated to meat consumption are present. Generally, skinning carcasses for

585 pelts leaves abundant evidence on bone, primarily on the skull (Lloveras et al., 2009b; Val  
586 and Mallye, 2011b). Although rabbit skull elements are too heavily fragmented and poorly  
587 represented at Pié Lombard to observe traces clearly referable to skinning, other lines of  
588 evidence are suggestive of this process. Metapodials alone bear nearly 31% of all recorded  
589 cut-marks, which are concentrated on the lateral sides of metacarpals (II and V) and  
590 metatarsals (II and V), suggesting the removal of the skin (Val and Mallye, 2011b). The  
591 under-representation of these elements, as well as the phalanges, compared to the  
592 numerous tarsals, including the calcaneus and talus, which also carry numerous cut-marks  
593 resulting from skinning and disarticulation processes, could also testify to the transport of  
594 pelts for tanning beyond the excavated area. In this scenario, a large portion of tarsal  
595 elements (calcaneus, talus) would remain in the area where carcasses were processed for  
596 food, while the metapodials and phalanges would be transported still attached to the skin.  
597 Such a hypothesis was previously proposed by Cochard (2004a) for the Middle Paleolithic  
598 site of Les Canalettes. Finally, the very limited number of caudal vertebrae (NISP=14)  
599 equally suggests the removal of the tail with the skin (Fontana, 2003).

600

601 The importance of leporid fur for Upper Paleolithic societies remains a subject of  
602 considerable debate (Jullien and Pillard, 1969; Soffer, 1985; Alhaique, 1994; Charles and  
603 Jacobi, 1994; Morel and Muller, 1997; West, 1997; Pokines, 1998; Fontana, 2003; García-  
604 Argüelles et al., 2004). This is in no small part due to difficulties in reliably inferring skinning  
605 processes and the fact that cut-marks alone are not sufficient evidence for the removal of  
606 skins (Cochard, 2004a). Other taphonomic characteristics, such as skeletal-part  
607 representation, provide additional evidence for skin processing. For example, the under-  
608 representation of the autopodial and caudal vertebrae at a butchery or consumption site can  
609 provide indirect evidence for such activities. At Pié Lombard, the limited number of these  
610 small elements does not reflect either differential preservation processes or biases  
611 connected to sieving (i.e., mesh sizes). Traces of digestion on the autopodial could suggest  
612 that a scavenger influenced anatomical representation. However, although digested bones

613 are present at Pié Lombard, the impact of a terrestrial carnivore, such as red fox, wildcats, or  
614 lynx (Table 1), is low (2.6% and 0.2 %, respectively, of bones bear evidence of digestion or  
615 tooth-marks). This indicates that, while these species may have scavenged remains left by  
616 humans, their presence is too limited to account for the under-representation of the  
617 autopodial.

618

619 Whether rabbits were sought specifically for their pelts or first and foremost as a source of  
620 food remains an open question. In any event, the working of skins leaves very little trace on  
621 bones themselves, and wear on non-perishable tools is often the only evidence of this  
622 activity (Beyries, 2008). While bone and stone tools from Middle Palaeolithic contexts have  
623 been linked to the processing of skins (e.g., Chase, 1990; Texier et al. 1996; d'Errico et al.,  
624 2012; Soressi et al., 2013), no such evidence was recovered from Pié Lombard. With this  
625 being the case, tanning may have occurred outside the excavated area or at another site, as  
626 indicated by the under-representation of the metapodials and phalanges (cf. *supra*).  
627 Likewise, demonstrating fur processing at Pié Lombard to have been related to the  
628 manufacturing of clothes, either for group members or as trade goods, is also difficult.  
629 Substantial ethnographic and archaeological evidence, however, attests to the importance of  
630 leporid pelts for human societies (Teit, 1906; Emmons, 1911; Rogers, 1963, 1973; Oberg,  
631 1973; Speck, 1977; Rogers and Smith, 1994; Charles, 1997; Kennedy and Bouchard, 1998;  
632 Lahren, 1998; Beyries, 2008), whether utilitarian purposes, such as the use of long bones to  
633 produce needles (Soffer, 1985; McComb, 1989; Leesch, 1997; Cochard, 2005) or personal  
634 ornaments manufactured from long bone shaft cylinders (Hockett, 1994; d'Errico and  
635 Laroulandie, 2000). There now exists robust evidence of personal ornament use by  
636 Neandertals, including raptor terminal phalanges (Morin and Laroulandie, 2012; Finlayson et  
637 al., 2019), bird feathers (Peresani et al., 2011; Finlayson et al., 21012; Fiore et al., 2016;  
638 Finlayson et al., 2019), small to medium carnivore teeth (Caron et al. 2011; Soulier and  
639 Mallye, 2012), and shells (Stringer et al., 2008; Mellars, 2010; Zilhão et al., 2010). In view of  
640 the high number of rabbit remains present at Pié Lombard, it is reasonable to assume that

641 this small prey played an important role in the socio-economic practices of Neandertal  
642 groups in southern France during MIS 5-4.

643

644 Taken together, there is sufficient evidence from Pié Lombard demonstrating rabbits to have  
645 been roasted and consumed on the site, with their pelts subsequently processed and  
646 transported away from the site. Moreover, the numerous cut-marks, burnt bones and shaft  
647 cylinders are all consistent with what is commonly found on Upper Paleolithic sites and is  
648 readily comparable with the Mousterian rabbit assemblage from Les Canalettes. The  
649 Neandertal groups who occupied Pié Lombard therefore exploited rabbits in the same way  
650 as Upper Paleolithic anatomically modern humans. Interestingly, while it is generally  
651 accepted that rabbits were of secondary importance in the Neandertal diet due to a  
652 significantly lower caloric return compared to ungulates (Table 7), at Pié Lombard, the large  
653 number of rabbits provided at least 226 kg of meat, representing more than 7% of the  
654 group's overall caloric intake (Table 8). This value is much higher than what is known on  
655 other Mousterian sites. Indeed, rabbit generally constituted less than 1% of the energy intake  
656 of the Mousterian groups, with its role in the human diet increasing significantly in the Upper  
657 Paleolithic, especially during the Magdalenian (Table 8). The exploitation of small game  
658 (rabbits and birds) at Pié Lombard departs markedly from this pattern. The large number of  
659 rabbits (Table 1) suggests they were the principal focus of Neandertal subsistence practices  
660 at Pié Lombard and may reflect difficulties in accessing the rockshelter and hence an  
661 emphasis on more easily transported small game rather than large herbivores.

662

663 *4.3. The exploitation of rabbits by Neandertal societies: a regional and repetitive*  
664 *phenomenon?*

665

666 Prior to the Upper Paleolithic in southwestern Europe, it is generally assumed that small  
667 game was rarely exploited by humans (Stiner, 2013). Consequently, the place of rabbits in  
668 the Neandertal diet has been the subject of considerable debate. When present in Middle

669 Paleolithic assemblages, taphonomic analyses have generally demonstrated rabbits to have  
670 been primarily accumulated by carnivores or raptors (Defleur et al., 1994; Blasco, 1995;  
671 Martínez-Valle, 1996; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2000; El Guennouni, 2001; Hockett,  
672 2006; Lloveras et al., 2011; Sanchis Serra, 2012). Evidence of human modifications on rabbit  
673 remains is rare, and Neandertals are commonly considered to have played very minor role in  
674 their accumulation. For example, while the Mousterian assemblages from Bolomor Cave  
675 (NISP=457, MNI=49; Blasco and Fernández-Peris, 2012), Arbreda Cave (NISP=1,317,  
676 MNI=43; Lloveras et al., 2010), Les Canalettes (NISP=1,627, MNI=58; Cochard et al., 2012),  
677 Columbeira Cave (NISP=1,784; Carvalho et al., 2018), El Salt (NISP=1,789; Pérez et al.,  
678 2017), or Teixoneres Cave (NISP=3,964, MNI=49; Rufà et al., 2014) contain a limited  
679 number of rabbit remains, only Bolomor Cave and Les Canalettes produced robust evidence  
680 for a rabbit accumulation linked to more long-term, repetitive Neandertal occupations. In this  
681 respect, the over 16,000 rabbit remains and the presence of least 225 individuals make the  
682 Pié Lombard assemblage not only unique for the Middle Palaeolithic but readily comparable  
683 to anthropogenic accumulations found from Upper Paleolithic sites such as Les Cendres  
684 Cave (NISP=14,976, MNI=337; Real, 2016), La Faurélie II (NISP=15,569, MNI=87; Cochard,  
685 2004a), Arbreda Cave (NISP=17,700, MNI=43; Lloveras et al., 2016) or Molí del Salt  
686 (NISP=22,627, MNI=445; Rufà et al., 2017). With this being the case, how best to interpret  
687 the exceptional number of rabbits in Middle Paleolithic assemblage from Pié Lombard? It is  
688 often argued that Upper Palaeolithic hunter-gatherers most likely adapted their subsistence  
689 strategies 1) depending on the availability of different preys in the landscape; 2) as response  
690 to increasing group size and social structure; or 3) following profound changes in socio-  
691 economic organization in connection with settlement patterns and resource management  
692 (e.g., Stiner et al., 1999, 2000; Aura et al., 2002; Cochard and Brugal, 2004). Similar  
693 behaviours have partially been demonstrated for several Middle Paleolithic sites in  
694 southwestern Europe based on the zooarchaeological analyses of large (e.g., Discamps et al.,  
695 2011; Morin et al., 2014; Rendu and Morin, 2018) and / or small mammals (e.g., Sanchis  
696 Serra and Fernández Peris, 2008; Blasco and Fernández Peris, 2012; Blasco et al., 2014).

697 These research call into question the idea that the diversification and intensification of  
698 subsistence strategies were coincident with Middle to Upper Palaeolithic transition (e.g.,  
699 Stiner et al., 2000; Hockett and Haws, 2002; Aura et al., 2002). Pié Lombard provides  
700 additional evidence for the regular exploitation of small prey around 70-75 kyr, some 25-30  
701 kyr before the emergence of the Upper Palaeolithic.

702

703 In addition, rabbits were abundantly available in the Mediterranean region of Western Europe  
704 from MIS 5 until the beginning of MIS 4. During this period of temperate environmental  
705 conditions associated with substantial forest cover (Pelletier, 2018), rabbits only occasionally  
706 formed part of the Neandertal diet (Gerber, 1973; Blasco and Fernández Peris, 2012;  
707 Cochard et al., 2012; Hardy et al., 2013; this study). During MIS 4 to 2, although  
708 environmental and climatic changes led to a decline in rabbit populations and their retreat  
709 into several refugia in the Iberian Peninsula (Branco et al., 2002; Pelletier, 2018), rabbits  
710 were continuously exploited in these areas (Blasco, 1995; Sanchis Serra and Fernández  
711 Peris, 2008; Lloveras et al., 2010; Brown et al., 2011; Rufà et al., 2014; Pérez et al., 2017;  
712 Carvalho et al., 2018). During MIS 3 (around 45 kyr BP), Europe witnessed a genuine  
713 “cultural revolution” (Mellars, 1996; Bar-Yosef, 1998, 2002), as Middle Palaeolithic cultural  
714 traditions gave way to Upper Palaeolithic technological and symbolic innovations (McBrearty  
715 and Brooks, 2000; d'Errico, 2003; Henshilwood and Marean, 2003; Zilhão, 2011). This  
716 transition equally coincided with substantial biological change as the Neandertals were  
717 gradually replaced by dispersing anatomically modern humans (Trinkaus, 1986, 2007;  
718 Stringer and Andrews, 1988; Stringer, 2002). Despite these profound cultural and biological  
719 changes, rabbits continued to be exploited at the beginning of the Upper Paleolithic in the  
720 Iberian Peninsula by Aurignacian (between 40 and 30 kyr BP; Rosado-Méndez et al., 2015;  
721 Lloveras et al., 2016; Sanchis et al., 2016), Gravettian / Solutrean (Brugal, 2006; Hockett and  
722 Haws, 2009; Lloveras et al., 2011; Aura et al., 2012; Manne et al., 2012; Sanchis et al.,  
723 2016), and Magdalenian societies (Aura et al., 2002; Sarrión et al., 2008; Rufà et al., 2017;  
724 Yravedra et al., 2018). On the other hand, no clear evidence for the exploitation of rabbits is

725 currently available for southern France during the early Upper Paleolithic (Cochard and  
726 Brugal, 2004). This is likely explained by the absence of this species in this region until the  
727 end of the Late Glacial (Pelletier, 2018). The reincorporation of rabbit in post-Late Glacial  
728 subsistence strategies accompanied the return of more temperate climatic conditions in the  
729 region (Séronie-Vivien, 1994; Cochard, 2004a; Jones, 2006; Rillardon and Brugal, 2014).

730

731 The distribution and density of rabbit populations in southwestern Europe during the Middle  
732 and Late Pleistocene was therefore relatively discontinuous and largely dependent on  
733 climatic conditions (Pelletier, 2018). When rabbits were available, they were consumed by  
734 both Neandertals and anatomically modern humans. Thus, the diversification of the human  
735 diet towards the end of the Upper Paleolithic, notably the inclusion of leporids, cannot be tied  
736 uniquely to cognitive, cultural or economic changes but better tracks palaeobiogeographic  
737 factors modifying the range of this species. If the exploitation of small prey during the Middle  
738 Paleolithic now appears uncontested, several authors nevertheless maintain that changes  
739 in the importance of rabbit in human subsistence strategies was not due to prey availability  
740 and / or ecological or climatic variations but reflects a clear cultural choice (Lloveras et al.,  
741 2010, 2016; Sanchis et al., 2016). Despite the continuous presence of this species on the  
742 eastern coast of the Iberian peninsula, significant differences are evident in the exploitation  
743 of rabbits between Mousterian and Aurignacian groups at Arbreda Cave (Lloveras et al.,  
744 2010, 2016) or between Aurignacian and Gravettian groups of Malladetes Cave (Sanchis et  
745 al., 2016), differences potentially due to the socio-economic organization of these human  
746 groups. Finally, the integration of leporids in the diet, especially at the Middle-Upper  
747 Paleolithic transition, could be the result of multiple factors integrating both prey availability  
748 and human choice, whose relative impact would have varied between regions (i.e., the  
749 eastern coast of Spain versus southern France).

750

751 In addition to Romero et al's (2017) recent demonstration of the exploitation of birds at Pié  
752 Lombard, our data, combined with evidence from Les Canalettes (Cochard et al., 2012),

753 demonstrates that around 70-75 kyr Neandertal groups in southern France had a diversified  
754 subsistence strategy that sometimes incorporated a significant proportion of small game.  
755 This pattern suggests that these groups had both a clear working knowledge of the  
756 landscape and mobilised specific acquisition strategies. Two modes of acquisition are  
757 generally cited to explain the presence of high numbers of rabbits in Paleolithic assemblages  
758 (Jones, 2006): 1) a mass collection near burrows or warrens, where immature individuals are  
759 often abundant; or 2) an opportunistic capture of solitary individuals in the landscape, which  
760 is reflected in the prevalence of adult individuals. Although these arguments (Jones, 2006)  
761 have recently been questioned (Pelletier et al., 2015; Pelletier, 2018, 2019), the large  
762 number of rabbits at Pié Lombard suggests the use of specific acquisition methods to  
763 capture multiple individuals. The near-absence of immature individuals can probably be  
764 explained by their low energy return or that rabbits were procured outside the birthing season  
765 (Cochard et al., 2012). Ethnographic and historical sources report the use of several  
766 techniques to hunt large numbers of small prey, such as leporids, including bows and arrows,  
767 throwing weapons, nets, snares, or individual or collective traps (Nelson, 1973; Bean, 1974;  
768 Oswalt, 1976; Callou, 2003; Lupo and Schmitt, 2005). Although the perishable nature of  
769 these technologies makes it difficult to identify them archaeologically, their use is regularly  
770 attributed to Upper Paleolithic hunter-gatherers (e.g., Stiner et al., 1999; Hoffecker, 2005;  
771 Rufà et al., 2017) as well as the Middle Stone Age of South Africa (Wadley, 2010). The  
772 pattern of Middle Palaeolithic rabbit exploitation documented at Pié Lombard currently finds  
773 no equivalent in Europe for this period and provides indirect evidence for the development of  
774 advanced hunting strategies by Neandertals during MIS 5-4 as well as their advanced  
775 cognitive capacities.

776

## 777 **5. Conclusion**

778

779 Given current debates concerning the diet and cognitive capacities of Neandertals,  
780 demonstrating the primary accumulation agent responsible for faunal assemblages,

781 especially those dominated by small mammals, as at Pié Lombard, is fundamental. Our  
782 taphonomic analysis shows the rabbit remains at the site to have been primarily accumulated  
783 by Neandertals, who sought both the meat and pelts of these small mammals. The intense  
784 exploitation of rabbit at Pié Lombard reveals Neandertals were not only able to exploit their  
785 environment but also maximize the return of available resources. Moreover, the high  
786 numbers of rabbits potentially suggests that a variety of trapping techniques were likely  
787 developed during the Middle Paleolithic, well before the arrival of modern humans in Western  
788 Europe.

789

790 Over the last decade, the number of studies focusing on the behavioural variability and  
791 lifestyle of Neandertals has increased exponentially, providing new evidence for the  
792 advanced cognitive capacities and social organisation of these groups. Neandertals  
793 repeatedly exploited small game, whether for their meat, fat, bones, teeth, feathers or furs.  
794 Evidence from Pié Lombard, Les Canalettes and Bolomor Cave provide new insights into the  
795 diet and socio-economic organisation of Middle Paleolithic human groups in southwestern  
796 Europe during MIS 5.

797

798 Finally, the intense and regular use of locally abundant small game that potentially required  
799 sophisticated acquisition techniques is no longer limited to the end of Upper Paleolithic. The  
800 exploitation of small animals seems to have been above all influenced by environmental  
801 conditions and social factors, rather than by biological and cultural differences between  
802 Neandertals and modern humans.

803

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805

806 None.

807

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820

### 821 **Author contributions**

822

823 **Maxime Pelletier:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing –  
824 Original Draft. **Emmanuel Desclaux:** Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation,  
825 Writing – Original Draft. **Jean-Philip Brugal:** Writing – Original Draft, Supervision. **Pierre-**  
826 **Jean Texier:** Resources, Writing – Original Draft, Supervision, Project Administration.

827

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1583

1584 **Figure captions (color online only)**

1585

1586 **Figure 1** (*2 columns*). Location of the Pié Lombard rock-shelter.

1587

1588 **Figure 2** (*2 columns*). Stratigraphy of Pié Lombard (after Texier et al., 2011). A. Plan of the site and  
1589 location of the Paleolithic deposits (excavation 1971-1986); B. View of the excavation in 1974; C.  
1590 sagittal profile in squares C/D 3-5.

1591

1592 **Figure 3** (*1 or 1,5 column*). Mortality profiles for the Pié Lombard Mousterian complex (**PL**) and other  
1593 reference collections. BI = Bettant I, BVIII = Bettant VIII (Mallye et al., 2008), FA = fox accumulation  
1594 (outside the den), FD = fox den (inside the den), ABI = Aigües de Busot I, ABII = Aigües de Busot II,  
1595 PZ = Penya la Zafra (Sanchis Serra, 2000), BC = Benaxuai Caves (Sanchis Serra et al., 2014), CV3 =  
1596 El Conjunto de Coveta 3 (Sanchis Serra and Pascual Benito, 2011), LSC = Les Six Chemins (Pelletier  
1597 et al., 2016), VAU = Vaufrey (Cochard, 2007), CAN = Les Canalettes (Cochard et al., 2012), AN =  
1598 Anecrial (Brugal, 2006), LFII = La Faurélie II (Cochard, 2004a). Diagram divisions correspond to those  
1599 proposed by Discamps and Costamagno (2015): JOP = Juveniles-Old-Prime, JPO = Juveniles-Prime-  
1600 Old, P = Prime, O = Old. Confidence intervals have been omitted for clarity.

1601

1602 **Figure 4** (2 columns). Pié Lombard Mousterian skeletal-part representation (**PL**), as well as those of  
1603 the other reference collections. Attritional death in a rabbit-warren (Pelletier et al., 2016);  
1604 accumulations by terrestrial carnivores as the red fox (Sanchis Serra and Pascual Benito, 2011), the  
1605 European badger (Mallye et al., 2008) and the dhole (Cochard, 2007); accumulations by birds of prey  
1606 (golden eagle from Lloveras et al., 2017) and the eagle-owl (nest **2** and nest **1** from Lloveras et al.,  
1607 2009); and anthropogenic accumulation from Les Canalettes (**C**, Cochard et al., 2012), Arbreda cave  
1608 (**A**, Lloveras et al., 2016), La Faurélie II (**F**, Cochard, 2004a), and Gazel cave (**G**, Fontana, 2003).  
1609 Rectangles represent 95% confidence intervals.

1610

1611 **Figure 5** (2 columns). Examples of rabbit shaft cylinders from the Pié Lombard Mousterian complex.

1612

1613 **Figure 6** (2 columns). Cut-marks from Pié Lombard resulting from different processing activities, such  
1614 as skinning, defleshing and disarticulation. Numbers between brackets indicates number of cut-marks  
1615 per bones. %RA: percentage of relative abundance of the rabbit elements. The coxal bone (dark grey),  
1616 not taken into account in this study.

1617

## 1618 **Table captions**

1619

1620 **Table 1** (2 columns). The Pié Lombard Mousterian faunal assemblage. MNI: Minimum number of  
1621 individuals.

1622

1623 **Table 2** (1 column). Rabbit skeletal elements identified in the Mousterian complex from Pié Lombard.  
1624 NISP = number of identified skeletal parts, MNE = minimum number of elements, RA = relative  
1625 abundance.

1626

1627 **Table 3** (1 column). Proportions of different parts of the skeleton in the Mousterian complex from Pié  
1628 Lombard, along with 95% confidence intervals. For the definition of the indices see the section  
1629 concerning the "Anatomical representation of rabbits".

1630

1631     **Table 4** (*2 column*). Numbers and percentages of rabbit skeletal elements from the Pié Lombard  
1632     Mousterian complex included in each breakage category. Cranium as complete (C), incisive bone (IB),  
1633     incisive bone + maxilla (IBM), maxilla (M), zygomatic arch (ZA) and neurocranium (NC). Mandibles as  
1634     complete (C), incisive part (IP), mandible body + incisive part (MBI), mandible body (MB), mandible  
1635     body + branch (MBB) and condylar process (CP). Scapula as complete (C), glenoid cavity (GC),  
1636     glenoid cavity + neck (GCN), glenoid cavity + neck + fossa (GCNF), neck + fossa (NF) and fossa (F).  
1637     Long bones (humerus, radius, ulna, femur, tibia), metacarpal and metatarsal bones were classified as  
1638     complete (C), proximal epiphysis (PE), proximal epiphysis + shaft (PES), shaft (S), shaft + distal  
1639     epiphysis (SDE) and distal epiphysis (DE). Vertebrae as complete (C), vertebral body (VB), vertebral  
1640     epiphysis (VE) and spinous process (SP). Phalanges as complete (C), proximal fragment, (P), distal  
1641     fragment (D) and fragment (F). Patella, carpals, tarsals (calcaneus, talus, cuboid, cuneiform,  
1642     navicular), ribs and teeth as complete (C) and fragment (F).

1643

1644     **Table 5** (*2 column*). Fracture angle and fracture outline frequencies for rabbit long bones from the Pié  
1645     Lombard Mousterian complex. N = effective, NISP = number of identified specimens.

1646

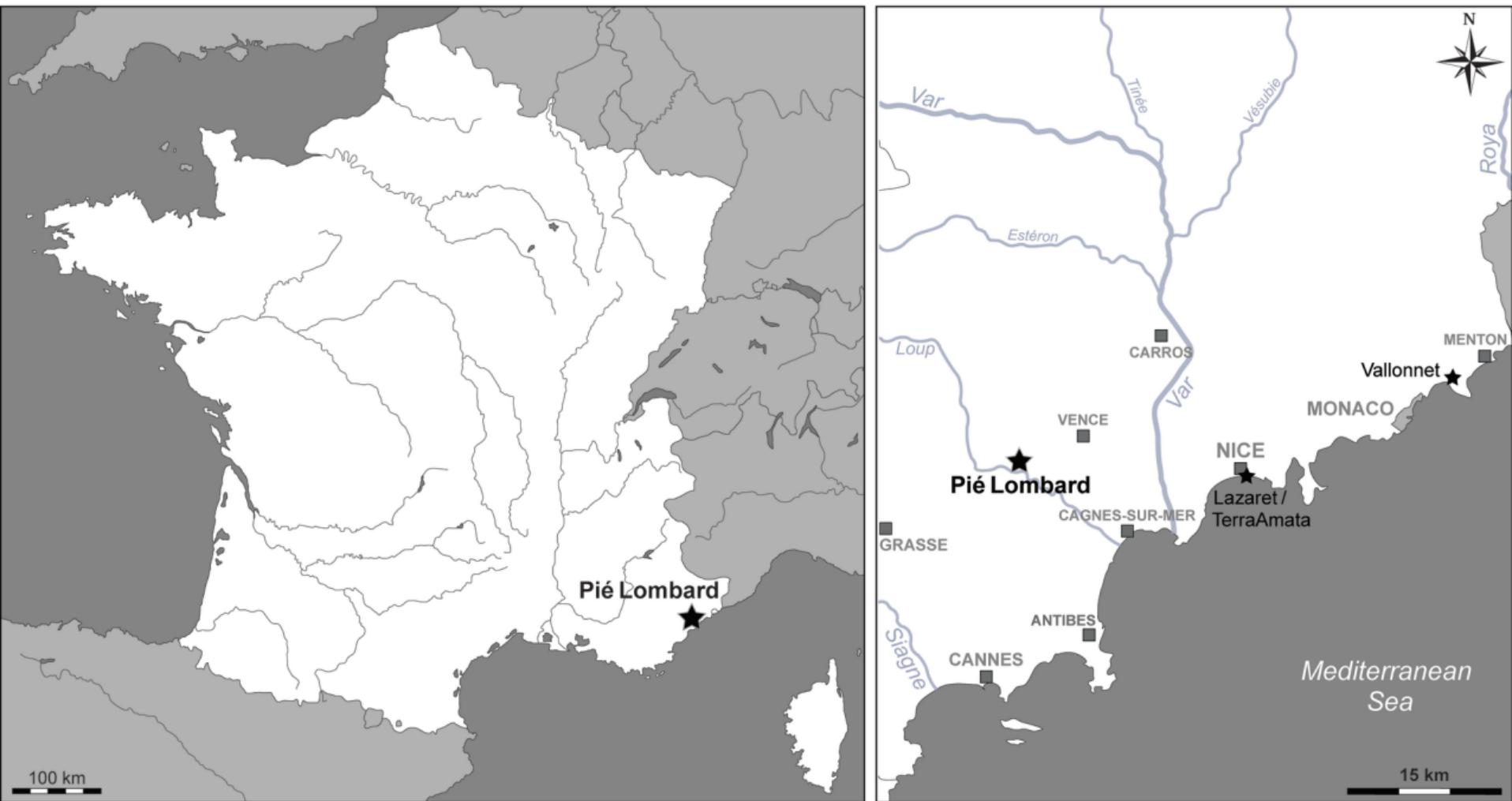
1647     **Table 6** (*1 column*). Distribution of cut-marks, burnt bones, digestion damage and tooth marks on  
1648     rabbit bones by anatomical part in Mousterian complex from Pié Lombard. N = effective, NISP =  
1649     number of identified specimens.

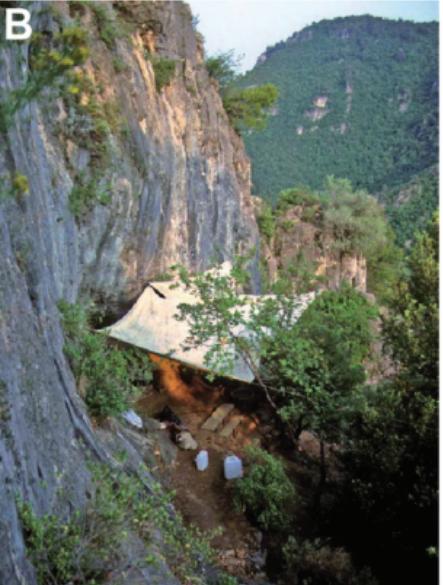
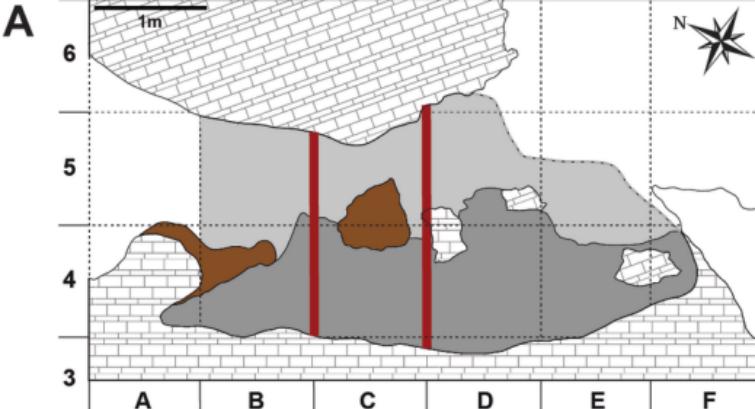
1650

1651     **Table 7** (*1 column*). Average total weight values, average meat weight and average calorie values for  
1652     meat weight for several faunal species present during the Paleolithic of southwestern Europe (from  
1653     Brugal, 2005 and Cole, 2017).

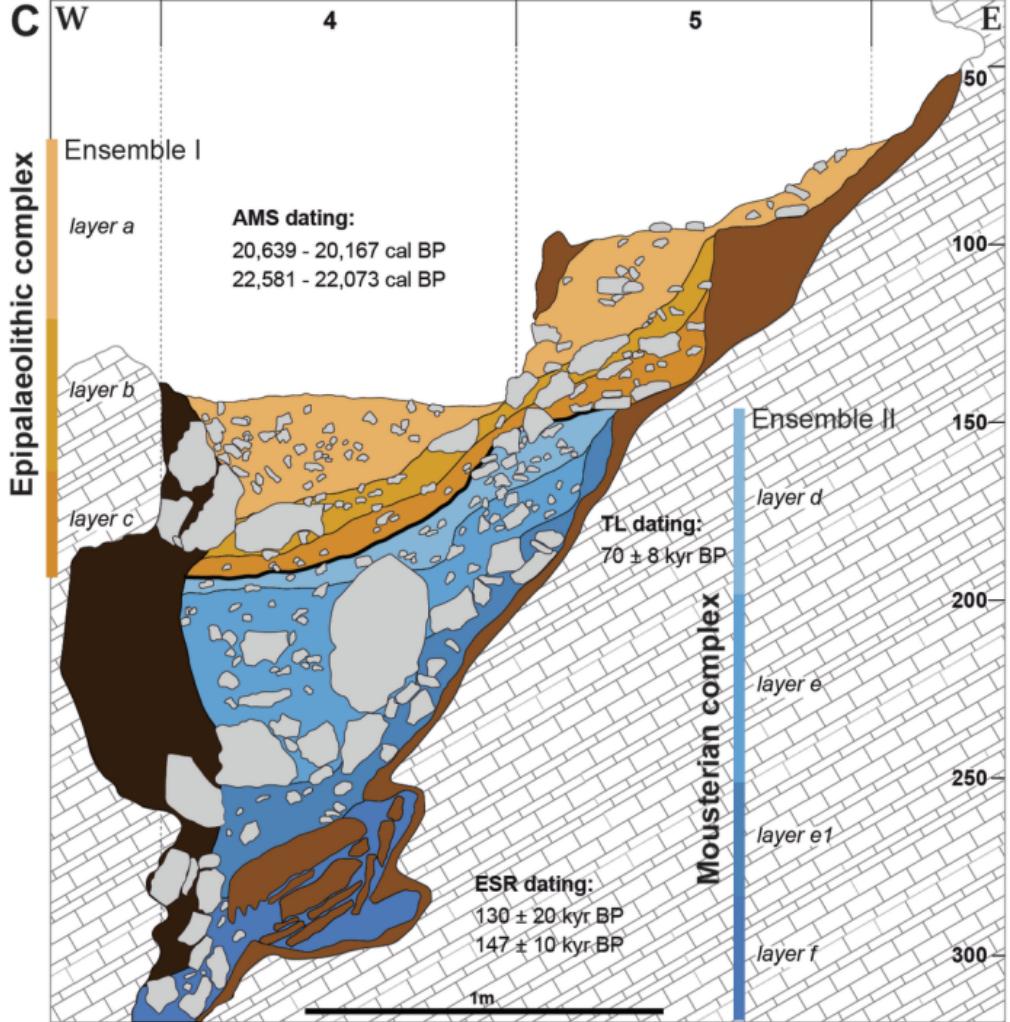
1654

1655     **Table 8** (*2 columns*). Caloric intake of rabbits compared to large herbivores from different Paleolithic  
1656     deposits in Western Europe. MNI fauna for Terra Amata (from Valensi and El Guennouni, 2004),  
1657     Bolomor cave (from Blasco and Fernández Peris, 2012), Lazaret cave (from Lumley et al., 2004),  
1658     Arbreda cave (from Lloveras et al. 2016), La Peña de Estebanvela (from Yravedra et al. 2018), Molí  
1659     del Salt (from Rufà et al., 2017). Raw data available in Table 7.





- Concretions
- Mousterian and Epipaleolithic deposits
- Mousterian and Epipaleolithic deposits in the diacase
- Location of the stratigraphic sections
- Reworked sediments
- Bajocian-Bathonian limestones
- Altered angular gravel



## Accumulator agents :

Rabbit-Warren

Eagle-Owl

Red Fox

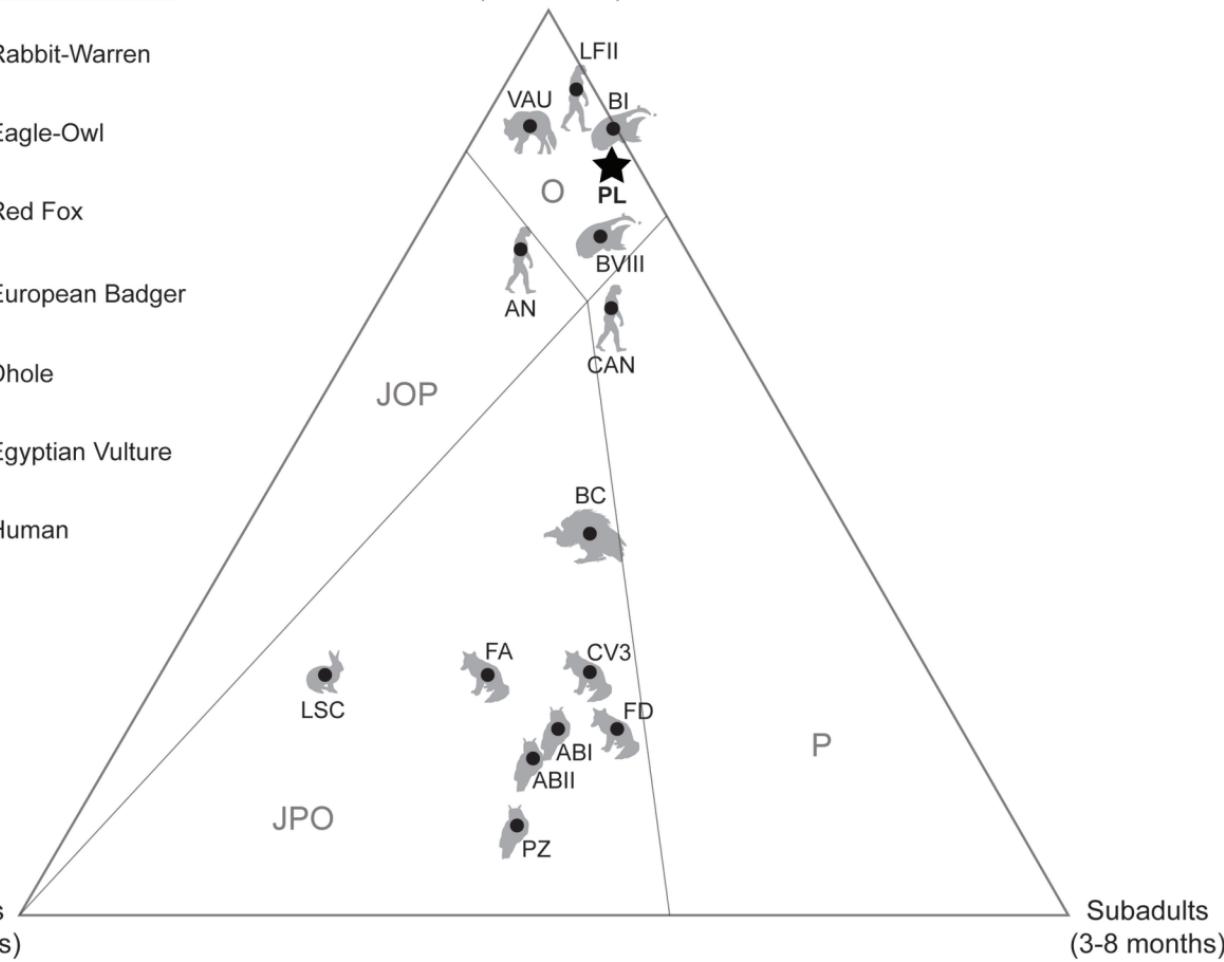
European Badger

Dhole

Egyptian Vulture

Human

Adults  
(>8 months)

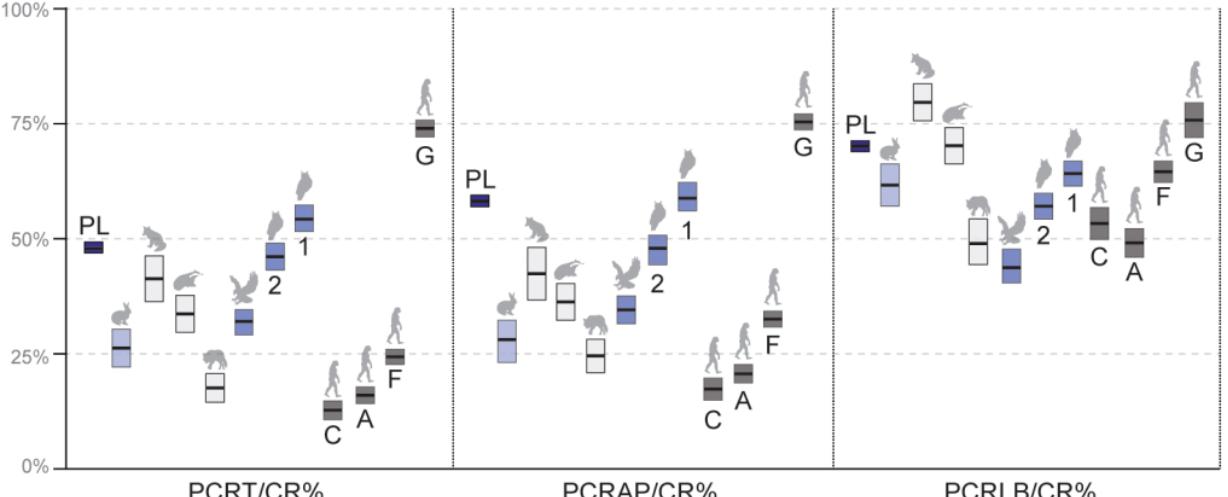


Juveniles

Subadults  
(3-8 months)

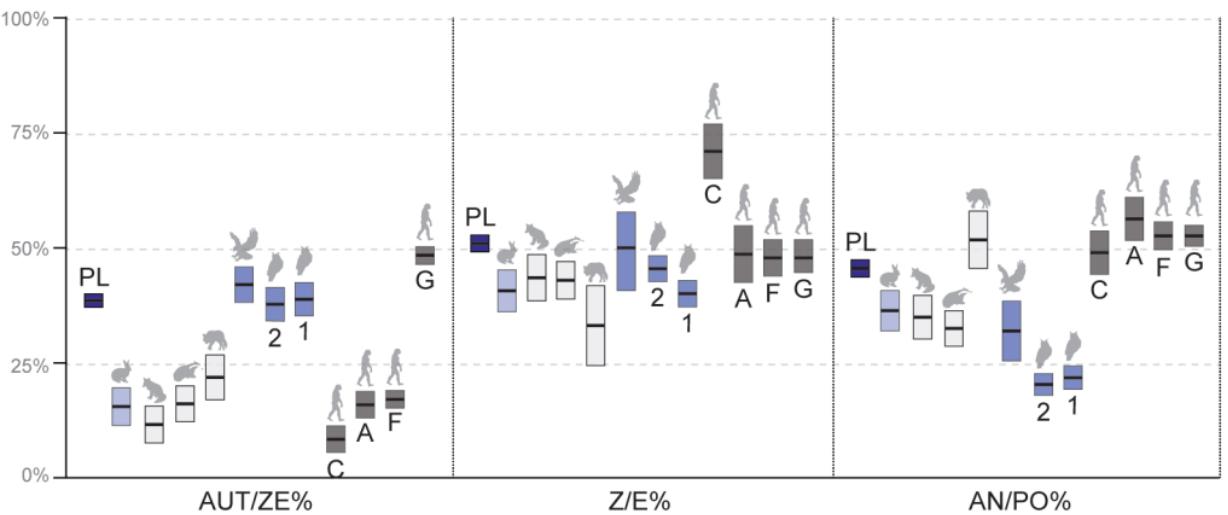
### Type of accumulation:

- Pié Lombard (*this study*)
- Attritional death
- Terrestrial carnivores
- Birds of prey
- Anthropogenic



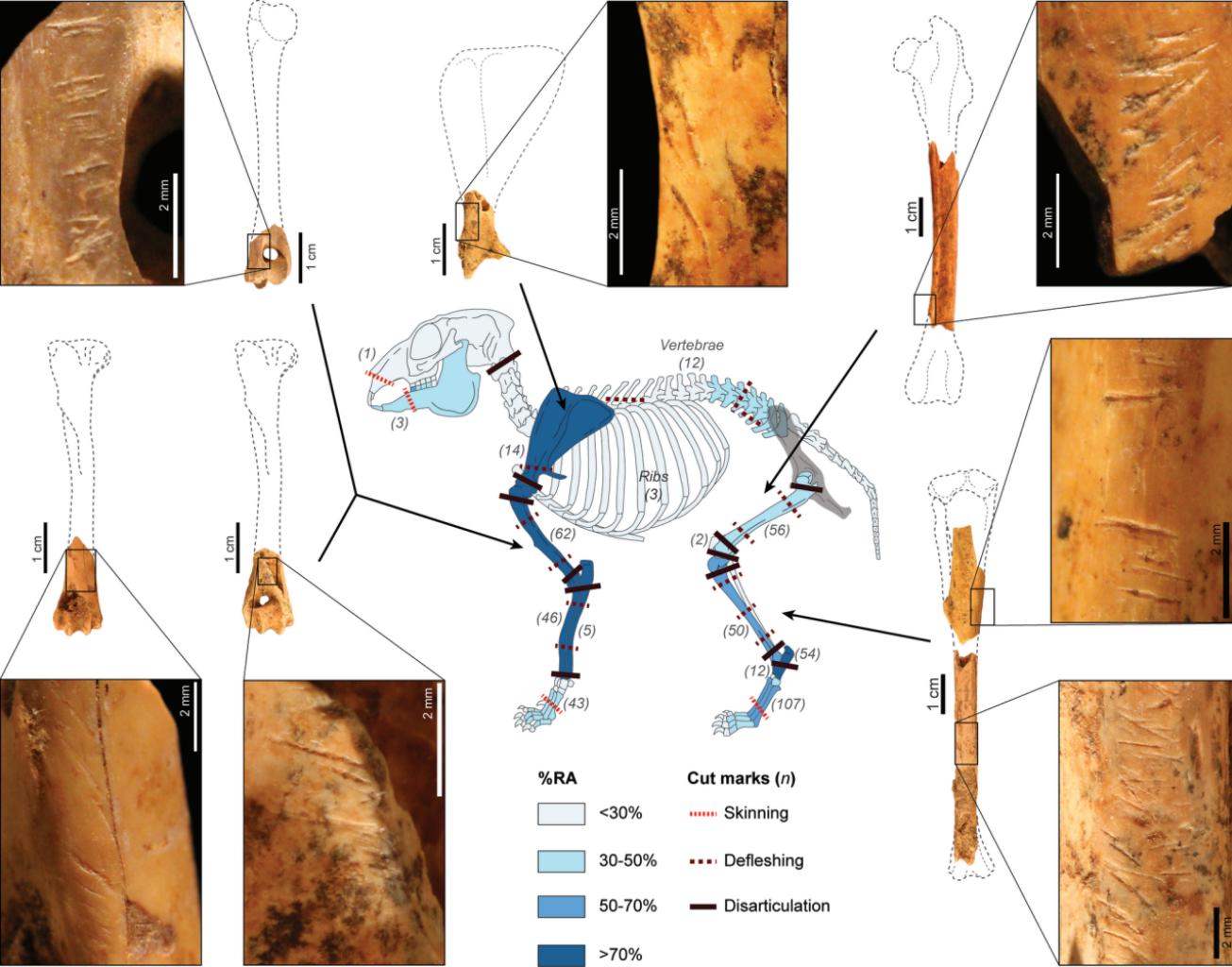
### Accumulator agents:

- Rabbit-Warren
- Red Fox
- European Badger
- Dhole
- Golden-Eagle
- Eagle-Owl
- Human





2 cm



**Table 1** (2 columns). The Pié Lombard Mousterian faunal assemblage. MNI: Minimum number of individuals.

Species	MNI	Species	MNI
<b>CARNIVORA</b>			
<i>Felis silvestris</i>	2	<i>Talpa europaea</i>	2
<i>Lynx</i> sp.	2	<i>Crocidura</i> sp.	3
<i>Panthera pardus</i>	2		
<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	1	<b>AMPHIBIA</b>	
<i>Canis lupus</i>	2	<i>Bufo bufo</i>	x
<i>Cuon</i> sp.	1		
<i>Ursus arctos</i>	4	<b>REPTILIA</b>	
		<i>Lacerta viridis</i>	x
<b>PROBOSCIDEA</b>			
<i>Elephas</i> sp.	(1)*	<i>Anguis fragilis</i>	x
<b>ARTIODACTYLA</b>			
<i>Bos primigenius</i>	1	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	3
<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	15	<i>Mergus merganser</i>	X
<i>Sus scrofa</i>	1	<i>Tadorna tadorna</i>	X
<i>Capra ibex</i>	23	<b>ACCIPITRIFORMES</b>	
<i>Dama dama</i>	1	<i>Aquila chrysaetos</i>	1
<i>Rupicapra rupicapra</i>	3	<i>Buteo buteo</i>	x
<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	2		
<b>PERISSODACTYLA</b>			
<i>Equus caballus</i>	2	<b>COLUMBIFORMES</b>	
		<i>Columba livia</i>	23
		<i>Columba palumbus</i>	1
<b>LAGOMORPHA</b>			
<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i> (this study)	225	<b>GALLIFORMES</b>	
		<i>Alectoris graeca</i>	7
		<i>Perdix perdix</i>	5
		<i>Lagopus</i> sp.	1
<b>RODENTIA</b>			
<i>Apodemus sylvaticus</i>	22	<b>PASSERIFORMES</b>	
<i>Marmota marmota</i>	1	<i>Garrulus glandarius</i>	1
<i>Castor fiber</i>	3	<i>Pyrrhocorax graculus</i>	48
<i>Eliomys quercinus</i>	10	<i>Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax</i>	15
<i>Glis glis</i>	1	<i>Corvus corax</i>	5
<i>Arvicola amphibius</i>	4	<i>Corvus corone</i>	2
<i>Microtus arvalis</i>	2	<i>Hirundo rustica</i>	1
<i>Chionomys nivalis</i>	5	<i>Ptyonoprogne rupestris</i>	5
<i>Myodes glareolus</i>	2	<i>Carduelis carduelis</i>	1
<i>Microtus duodecimcostatus</i>	5	<i>Coccothraustes coccothraustes</i>	2
<b>CHIROPTERA</b>			
<i>Rhinolophus ferrumequinum</i>	1	<i>Anthus cf. campestris</i>	5
<i>Rhinolophus euryale</i>	1	<i>Turdus merula</i>	1
<i>Miniopterus schreibersi</i>	1	<i>Turdus cf. viscivorus</i>	1
<i>Myotis myotis</i>	1	<b>STRIGIFORMES</b>	
<i>Myotis bechsteinii</i>	1	<i>Athene noctua</i>	x
		<i>Aegolius funereus</i>	x

\* one small fragment of tusk

**Table 2** (1 column). Rabbit skeletal elements identified in the Mousterian complex from Pié Lombard. NISP = number of identified skeletal parts, MNE = minimum number of elements, RA = relative abundance.

	NISP	%NISP	MNE	%RA
Cranium	341	2.1	109	24.2
Mandible	269	1.7	146	32.4
Incisor	259	1.6	259	19.2
Upper molar	531	3.3	531	19.7
Lower molar	957	6.0	957	42.5
Scapula	434	2.7	354	78.7
Humerus	586	3.6	429	95.3
Radius	619	3.8	371	82.4
Ulna	433	2.7	316	70.2
Metacarpals	1,000	6.2	719	39.9
Carpals	120	0.7	120	6.7
Femur	438	2.7	186	41.3
Patella	70	0.4	70	15.6
Tibia	727	4.5	277	61.6
Metatarsals	1,763	11.0	1,021	56.7
Calcaneus	462	2.9	425	94.4
Talus	417	2.6	387	86.0
Cuboid	216	1.3	216	48.0
Cuneiform	109	0.7	109	8.1
Navicular	259	1.6	257	57.1
Proximal phalanx	2,123	13.2	1,886	46.6
Mesial phalanx	1,326	8.2	1,306	36.3
Distal phalanx	1,114	6.9	1,108	27.4
Vertebrae	1,057	6.6	675	7.5
Rib	420	2.6	314	5.9
Sternebrae	8	0.0	8	0.7
Sesamoids	9	0.1	9	-
Undetermined frag.	17	0.1	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>16,084</b>		<b>12,568</b>	

**Table 3** (1 column). Proportions of different parts of the skeleton in the Mousterian complex from Pié Lombard, along with 95% confidence intervals. For the definition of the indices see the section concerning the "Anatomical representation of rabbits".

Index	
PCRT/CR%	$48.1 \pm 0.8$
PCRAP/CR%	$57.9 \pm 0.9$
PCRLB/CR%	$70.1 \pm 0.8$
AUT/ZE%	$38.7 \pm 0.9$
AN/PO%	$45.8 \pm 1.4$
Z/E%	$51.1 \pm 2.5$

**Table 4 (2 column).** Numbers and percentages of rabbit skeletal elements from the Pié Lombard Mousterian complex included in each breakage category. Cranium as complete (C), incisive bone (IB), incisive bone + maxilla (IBM), maxilla (M), zygomatic arch (ZA) and neurocranium (NC). Mandibles as complete (C), incisive part (IP), mandible body + incisive part (MBI), mandible body (MB), mandible body + branch (MBB) and condylar process (CP). Scapula as complete (C), glenoid cavity (GC), glenoid cavity + neck (GCN), glenoid cavity + neck + fossa (GCNF), neck + fossa (NF) and fossa (F). Long bones (humerus, radius, ulna, femur, tibia), metacarpal and metatarsal bones were classified as complete (C), proximal epiphysis (PE), proximal epiphysis + shaft (PES), shaft (S), shaft + distal epiphysis (SDE) and distal epiphysis (DE). Vertebrae as complete (C), vertebral body (VB), vertebral epiphysis (VE) and spinous process (SP). Phalanges as complete (C), proximal fragment, (P), distal fragment (D) and fragment (F). Patella, carpals, tarsals (calcaneus, talus, cuboid, cuneiform, navicular), ribs and teeth as complete (C) and fragment (F).

Breakage category												
Cranium	n	%	Mandible	n	%	Scapula	n	%	Humerus	n	%	
C	0	0.0	C	0	0.0	C	1	0.2	C	2	0.3	
IB	31	9.1	IP	46	17.1	GC	89	20.5	PE	40	6.8	
IBM	0	0.0	MBI	87	32.3	GCN	189	43.5	PES	28	4.8	
M	150	44.0	MB	79	29.4	GCNF	72	16.6	S	80	13.7	
ZA	48	14.1	MBB	38	14.1	NF	53	12.2	SDE	298	50.9	
NC	112	32.8	PC	19	7.1	F	30	6.9	DE	138	23.5	
Radius	n	%	Ulna	n	%	Metacarpals	n	%	Femur	n	%	
C	2	0.3	C	0	0.0	C	378	37.8	C	0	0.0	
PE	33	5.3	PE	26	6.0	PE	8	0.8	PE	144	32.9	
PES	337	54.4	PES	91	21.0	PES	297	29.7	PES	43	9.8	
S	148	23.9	S	266	61.4	S	13	1.3	S	111	25.3	
SDE	82	13.2	SDE	18	4.2	SDE	248	24.8	SDE	9	2.1	
DE	17	2.7	DE	32	7.4	DE	56	5.6	DE	131	29.9	
Tibia	n	%	Metatarsals	n	%	Vertebrae	n	%	Ribs	n	%	
C	1	0.1	C	190	10.8	C	134	12.7	C	10	2.4	
PE	40	5.5	PE	21	1.2	VB	696	65.8	F	410	97.6	
PES	47	6.5	PES	733	41.6	VE	83	7.9				
S	362	49.8	S	74	4.2	SP	144	13.6				
SDE	151	20.8	SDE	541	30.7							
DE	126	17.3	DE	204	11.6							
Patella	n	%	Prox. Phal.	n	%	Mes. Phal.	n	%	Dist. Phal.	n	%	
C	68	97.1	C	1495	70.4	C	1200	90.5	C	1101	98.8	
F	2	2.9	P	391	18.4	P	106	8.0	F	13	1.2	
			D	237	11.2	D	20	1.5				
Carpals	n	%	Calcaneus	n	%	Talus	n	%				
C	117	97.5	C	267	57.8	C	295	70.7				
F	3	2.5	F	195	42.2	F	122	29.3				
Cuboid	n	%	Cuneiform	n	%	Navicular	n	%				
C	198	91.7	C	108	99.1	C	217	83.8				
F	18	8.3	F	1	0.9	F	42	16.2				
In situ								Isolated				
Teeth	Incisors		Upper molars		Lower molars		Incisors		Upper molars		Lower molars	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
C	49	62.8	170	85.0	542	93.1	143	79.0	308	93.1	352	93.9
F	29	37.2	30	15.0	40	6.9	38	21.0	23	6.9	23	6.1

**Table 5** (2 column). Fracture angle and fracture outline frequencies for rabbit long bones from the Pié Lombard Mousterian complex. N = effective, NISP = number of identified specimens.

		Ancient break				Recent break	Total of long bone break	Total of long bones	NISP
Fracture angles		Fracture outline							
	Oblique (green)	Right (dry)	V-shaped (green)	Transverse (dry)					
N	656	165	679	142	149	970	2803	16,084	
% of breaks	67.6%	17.0%	70.0%	14.6%	15.4%	100%	-	-	-
%NISP	4.1%	1.0%	4.2%	0.9%	0.9%	34.6%	17.4%	100%	

**Table 6** (1 column). Distribution of cut-marks, burnt bones, digestion damage and tooth marks on rabbit bones by anatomical part in Mousterian complex from Pié Lombard. N = effective, NISP = number of identified specimens.

	<i>Cut marks</i>		<i>Burnt bones</i>		<i>Digestion damage</i>		<i>Pits / Punctures</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<b>Cranium</b>	1	<b>0.2</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>2.4</b>	3	<b>0.7</b>	-	-
<i>Incisive bone</i>	1	0.2	6	0.4	-	-	-	-
<i>Petrosus part</i>	-	-	3	0.2	1	0.2	-	-
<i>Maxillary</i>	-	-	19	1.3	-	-	-	-
<i>Neurocranium</i>	-	-	7	0.5	2	0.5	-	-
Mandible	3	0.6	21	1.4	3	0.7	2	6.1
Incisor	-	-	13	0.9	3	0.7	-	-
Upper molar	-	-	11	0.8	14	3.3	-	-
Lower molar	-	-	14	1.0	5	1.2	-	-
Scapula	14	2.9	56	3.8	23	5.4	8	24.2
Humerus	62	12.9	90	6.1	13	3.1	-	-
Radius	46	9.6	69	4.7	25	5.9	2	6.1
Ulna	5	1.0	47	3.2	17	4.0	1	3.0
<b>Metacarpals</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>6.1</b>	-	-
<i>Metacarpal II</i>	10	2.1	20	1.4	6	1.4	-	-
<i>Metacarpal III</i>	3	0.6	14	1.0	6	1.4	-	-
<i>Metacarpal IV</i>	7	1.5	14	1.0	2	0.5	-	-
<i>Metacarpal V</i>	16	3.3	9	0.6	6	1.4	-	-
<i>Metacarpal NS</i>	7	1.5	33	2.3	6	1.4	-	-
Carpals	-	-	3	0.2	1	0.2	-	-
Femur	56	11.6	65	4.4	24	5.7	6	18.2
Patella	2	0.4	8	0.5	7	1.7	-	-
Tibia	50	10.4	102	7.0	7	1.7	1	3.0
<b>Metatarsals</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>22.2</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>9.1</b>
<i>Metatarsal II</i>	26	5.4	27	1.8	4	0.9	1	3.0
<i>Metatarsal III</i>	10	2.1	31	2.1	1	0.2	-	-
<i>Metatarsal IV</i>	10	2.1	19	1.3	11	2.6	-	-
<i>Metatarsal V</i>	31	6.4	24	1.6	4	0.9	-	-
<i>Metatarsal NS</i>	30	6.2	48	3.3	5	1.2	2	6.1
Calcaneus	54	11.2	44	3.0	22	5.2	4	12.1
Talus	12	2.5	54	3.7	38	9.0	-	-
Cuboid	1	0.2	23	1.6	4	0.9	1	3.0
Cuneiform	-	-	8	0.5	4	0.9	-	-
Navicular	1	0.2	18	1.2	6	1.4	1	3.0
Proximal phalanx	-	-	194	13.2	51	12.0	1	3.0
Mesial phalanx	-	-	108	7.4	32	7.5	1	3.0
Distal phalanx	-	-	90	6.1	53	12.5	-	-
<b>Vertebrae</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6.1</b>
<i>Atlas</i>	2	0.4	7	0.5	-	-	-	-
<i>Axis</i>	1	0.2	5	0.3	1	0.2	-	-
<i>Cervical vertebrae</i>	-	-	25	1.7	5	1.2	-	-
<i>Thoracic vertebrae</i>	4	0.8	25	1.7	1	0.2	1	3.0
<i>Lombar vertebrae</i>	5	1.0	37	2.5	5	1.2	1	3.0
<i>Sacrum</i>	-	-	3	0.2	-	-	-	-
<i>Caudal vertebrae</i>	-	-	4	0.3	-	-	-	-
<i>Vertebrae nd</i>	-	-	1	0.1	2	0.5	-	-
Rib	8	1.7	30	2.0	1	0.2	-	-
Sternebrae	-	-	1	0.1	-	-	-	-
Sesamoids	-	-	1	0.1	-	-	-	-
Undetermined frag.	4	0.8	14	1.0	3	0.4	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>481</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1,466</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>424</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>%NISP</b>	<b>3.0</b>	-	<b>9.1</b>	-	<b>2.6</b>	-	<b>0.2</b>	-

**Table 7** (1 column). Average total weight values, average meat weight and average calorie values for meat weight for several faunal species present during the Paleolithic of southwestern Europe (from Brugal, 2005 and Cole, 2017).

	Average total weight (kg)	Average meat weight (kg)	Kilocalorie value / Kg (meat)	Kilocalorie value / individual (meat)
<i>Bos primigenius</i>	687.5	412.5	2.04	841.50
<i>Capra ibex</i>	75.0	45.0	1.09	49.05
<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	24.5	14.7	1.00	14.70
<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	165.0	99.0	1.24	122.76
<i>Dama dama</i>	71.3	42.8	1.24	53.01
<i>Equus caballus</i>	287.5	172.5	1.15	198.38
<i>Equus hydruntinus</i>	225.0	135.0	1.15	155.25
<i>Hemitragus bonali</i>	75.0	45.0	1.09	49.05
<i>Megaloceros giganteus</i>	480.0	288.0	1.24	357.12
<i>Rupicapra rupicapra</i>	41.3	24.8	1.05	25.99
<i>Sus scrofa</i>	102.5	61.5	4.00	246.00
<i>O. cuniculus</i>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>1.07</b>	<b>1.61</b>

**Table 8** (2 columns). Caloric intake of rabbits compared to large herbivores from different Paleolithic deposits in Western Europe. MNI fauna for Terra Amata (from Valensi and El Guennouni, 2004), Bolomor cave (from Blasco and Fernández Peris, 2012), Lazaret cave (from Lumley et al., 2004), Arbreda cave (from Lloveras et al. 2016), La Peña de Estebanvela (from Yravedra et al. 2018), Molí del Salt (from Rufà et al., 2017). Raw data available in Table 7.

Period	Site (layer)	Date	Taxa (MNI)	Average meat weight (kg)	Kilocalorie value (meat)	Caloric intake of rabbits compared to large herbivores
Lower Paleolithic	Terra Amata (layer C1b)	MIS 11	Rabbit (19) Total herbivores (33)	29 3599	30 7942	0.38%
Middle Paleolithic	Bolomor cave (layer XVIIc)	MIS 9	Rabbit (12) Total herbivores (10)	18 1402	19 2039	0.94%
	Bolomor cave (layer XII)	MIS 7	Rabbit (10) Total herbivores (30)	15 5043	16 7420	0.22%
	Lazaret cave (UA25)	MIS 6	Rabbit (25) Total herbivores (34)	38 3824	40 5683	0.70%
	Bolomor cave (layer XI)	MIS 6	Rabbit (7) Total herbivores (10)	10 1402	11 2039	0.55%
	Bolomor cave (layer IV)	MIS 5e	Rabbit (20) Total herbivores (34)	30 4234	32 7324	0.44%
	Les Canalettes (layer 4)	MIS 5a	Rabbit (56) Total herbivores (66)	84 10136	90 14881	0.60%
	<b>Pié Lombard (ensemble II)</b>	<b>MIS 5a</b>	<b>Rabbit (225)</b> <b>Total herbivores (48)</b>	<b>338</b> <b>3486</b>	<b>361</b> <b>4632</b>	<b>7.23%</b>
Upper Paleolithic	Arbreda (layer G)	MIS 3	Rabbit (43) Total herbivores (14)	65 2610	69 4145	1.64%
	Estebanvela (layer I)	MIS 2	Rabbit (210) Total herbivores (32)	315 2904	337 3511	8.76%
	Molí del Salt (layer A)	MIS 2	Rabbit (455) Total herbivores (16)	683 1238	730 2321	23.93%