

Evidence from personal ornaments suggest nine distinct cultural groups between 34,000 and 24,000 years ago in Europe

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Editor summary:

- 2 The study of personal ornaments worn by Ice Age European hunter gatherers between 34,000 and 24,000 years ago identifies nine regional
- 3 groups, which align with the known genetic diversity of that period.

4 Peer review information:

5 Nature Human Behaviour thanks the anonymous reviewers for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

Inventory of Supporting Information

1. Extended Data

Figure or Table #	Figure/Table title	Filename	Figure/Table Legend
Extended Data Fig. 1	Geographical distribution of the Gravettian burials yielding personal ornaments.	Baker et al. Extended Data Figure 1 final submission correct size.jpg	Extended Data Figure 1 - a) Geographical distribution of the Gravettian burials yielding personal ornaments. BS1, Krems-Wachtberg; BS2, Lagar Velho; BS3, Paviland; BS4, Arene Candide; BS5, Kostenki 14; BS6, Ostuni; BS7, Fanciulli; BS8, Paglicci; BS9, Dolni Vestonice; BS10, Brno; BS11, Cro-Magnon; BS12, Baousso da Torre; BS13, Barma Grande; BS14, Grotta del Caviglione; BS15, Veneri Parabita; BS16, Predmosti; BS17, Borsuka Cave. b) Geographical distribution of the Gravettian occupation sites yielding personal ornaments in Europe with the Dordogne region enlarged at the bottom right (c). S1, Poiana Ciresului-Piatra Neamt; S2, Kostenki 17; S3, Foradada Cave; S4, Riparo Mochi; S5, Franchthi Cave; S6, Mitoc-Malu Galben; S7, Brinzeni Cave; S8, Duruitoarea Veche Cave; S9, Cosauti; S10, Climauti; S11, Molodova V; S12, Gargas Cave; S13, Brillenhohle; S14, Geisenklosterle; S15, Hohle Fels; S16, Ollersdorf/Heidenberg; S17, Mainz-Linsenberg; S18, Nerja Cave; S31, Isturitz Cave; S32, Abri des Pecheurs; S33, Baume Perigaud; S34, Pushkari; S35, Grotta della Serratura; S36, Vale Boi; S37, El Cuco; S38, Sire; S39, Tibrinu; S40, Gura Cheii-Rasnov Cave; S41, Garma A; S42, Cova Gran de Santa Linya; S43, La

			Grotte du Figuier; S44, Cova de les Cendres; S45, Cova del Comte; S47, Grub-Kranawetberg; S48, Grotte du Renne; S49, Krakow Spadzista; S50, Grotte du Pape; S52, Kostenki 21; S53, Kostenki 8; S54, Kostenki 4; S55, Aitzbitarte; S56, Amiens-Renancourt; S57, Mollet; S58, Arbreda Cave; S59, Jaksice; S60, Les Bossats; S61, La Bergerie; S62, Lapa do Picareiro; S63, La Fuente del Salin; S66, Krems-Wachtberg; S67, Willendorf; S70, Buran-Kaya; S71, Weinberghohlen; S72, Krems-Hundsteig; S73, Obere Klause; S74, Betche-aux-Rotches de Spy; S75, Goyet; S77, Dolni Vestonice 1; S80, Le Blot; S81, Pavlov; S82, Oblazowa Cave; S83, Ciaoarei Cave; S84, Reclau Viver Cave; S85, Paviland; S86, La Vina; S87, Cueto de la Mina; S88, Cueva Morin; S89; Bolinkoba; S90, Amalda; S91, Alkerdi; S92, Antolinako Koba; S93, Abric Romani; S94, Cueva de Ardales; S95, Gruta do Caldeirao; S96, Cova Beneito; S97, Zajara; S98, Los Morceguillos. c) Geographical distribution of the Gravettian occupation sites yielding personal ornaments from the Dordogne region. S19, Le Facteur; S21, Labattut; S20, Le Flageolet; S22, Laussel; S23, Le Poisson; S24, Les Rochers de l'Acier; S25, Le Roque-Saint-Christophe; S26, Le Ruth-Pages; S27, Grotte de Tourtoirac; S28, Abri Laraux; S29, Grotte de Pairnon-Pair; S30, Le Roc de Gavaudun; S46, Le Fourneau du Diable; S51, La Gravette; S64, Les Vachons; S65, La Ferrassie; S68, Le Petit-Puyrousseau; S69, Abri Pataud; S78, Laugerie-Haute; S79, Masnaigre. Maps created on QGIS using ETOPO1 Global Relief Model data with a modern and Gravettian coastline at -100 m ¹⁴² .
Extended Data Fig. 2	Two-tailed Mantel correlogram established for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian occupation sites.	Baker et al. Extended Data Figure 2 final submission correct size.jpg	Extended Data Figure 2 - Two-tailed Mantel correlogram established for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian occupation sites (a), and burial sites (b). Unit of geographic distance for a1 and b1: 500 km, a2 and b2: 250 km, a3 and b3: 100 km. Black squares indicate significant P-values, white squares non-significant P-values.
Extended Data Fig. 3	Boxplot of radiocarbon ages associated with Gravettian occupation and burial sites yielding personal ornaments in	Baker et al. Extended Data Figure 3 final submission correct size.jpg	Extended Data Figure 3 - Boxplot of radiocarbon ages associated with Gravettian occupation and burial sites yielding personal ornaments in different regions of Europe. Maximum value = 36,280.5 years, Minimum = 23,525 years. Dark grey = occupation sets, light grey = burial sets. The box extends from the lower to upper quartile, with the whisker variability indicating outside the upper and lower quartiles. "Eastern Europe" = N=8,

	different regions of Europe.		"South Iberia" = $N=8$, "Northwestern Europe" = $N=4$, "North Iberia" = $N=8$, "Central Europe" = $N=9$, "Eastern (Burials)" = $N=9$, "North Italy (Burials)" = $N=11$, "South Italy (Burials)" = $N=6$. Total = $N=63$.
Extended Data Table. 1	Results of the two- tailed Mantel tests calculated for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian occupations and burial sites.	Extended Data Table 1.jpg	Results of the two-tailed Mantel tests calculated for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian occupations and burial sites.
Extended Data Table. 2	Results of the two- tailed Partial Mantel tests calculated for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian burial sites.	Extended Data Table 2.jpg	Results of the two-tailed Partial Mantel tests calculated for the bead- type associations recorded at Gravettian burial sites.
Extended Data Table. 3	Results of the two- tailed Mantel tests calculated for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian burial sites in Western and Eastern Europe.	Extended Data Table 3.jpg	Results of the two-tailed Mantel tests calculated for the bead-type associations recorded at Gravettian burial sites in Western and Eastern Europe.

1. Supplementary Information:

A. PDF Files

Item	Present?	Filename	A brief, numerical description of file contents.
			'

Supplementary Information	Yes	All SI combined.pdf	Supplementary Results 1 and 2, Supplementary Figures 1-5,
			Supplementary Tables 1-4.
Reporting Summary	Yes	Baker_RS.pdf	
Peer Review Information	No		

B. Additional Supplementary Files

	Number	Filename	Legend or Descriptive Caption
Туре			
			Bead coding. An excel
			spreadsheet containing each of
			the discrete bead types and the
Supplementary Table	1	Bead Coding SUPP TAB 1_2 nd .xlsx	code used for each.
			All datasets. An excel spreadsheet
Supplementary Table	2	All datasets SUPP TAB 2_2nd.xlsx	containing 7 separate worksheets.
			Occupation Table. An excel
			spreadsheet which contains the
			attributes and personal
		Occupation Table SUPP TAB	ornaments of the occupation
Supplementary Table	3	3_2nd.xlsx	sites.
			Burial Table. An excel spreadsheet
			which contains the attributes and
		Burial Table SUPP TAB	personal ornaments of the buried
Supplementary Table	4	4_2nd_SR.xlsx	individuals.
			All distance matrices. An excel
		All distance matrices SUPP TAB	spreadsheet containing 14
Supplementary Table	5	5_2nd.xlsx	separate worksheets.
		Modelling datasets SUPP TAB	All datasets used for the Mantel
Supplementary Table	6	6.xlsx	test modelling. An excel

	spreadsheet containing 5
	separate worksheets.

- 19 Evidence from personal ornaments suggest nine distinct cultural groups
- 20 between 34,000 and 24,000 years ago in Europe

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Abstract:

Mechanisms governing the relationship between genetic and cultural evolution are the subject of debate, data analysis and modelling efforts. Here we present a new georeferenced dataset of personal ornaments worn by European hunter-gatherers during the so-called Gravettian technocomplex (34-24,000 years ago), analyse it with multivariate and geospatial statistics, model the impact of distance on cultural diversity, and contrast the outcome of our analyses with up-to-date paleogenetic data. We demonstrate that Gravettian ornament variability cannot be explained solely by isolation-by-distance. Analysis of Gravettian ornaments identified nine geographically discrete cultural entities across Europe. While broadly in agreement with paleogenetic data, our results highlight a more complex pattern with cultural entities located in areas not yet sampled by paleogenetics, and distinctive entities in regions inhabited by populations of similar genetic ancestry. Integrating personal ornament and biological data from other Palaeolithic cultures will elucidate the complex narrative of population dynamics of Upper Palaeolithic Europe.

Keywords: beads, Gravettian, grave goods, seriation, neighbour-joining, neighbour-net, Mantel test,

48 ethnicity, modelling

Introduction

Paleolithic archaeologists have long sought means to identify past cultural entities, their geographic extension, social organisation and evolution^{1–3}. For the Upper Paleolithic (*circa* 42-10 ka), lithic and, to a lesser extent, bone and antler technologies have been the privileged proxies for exploring Palaeolithic cultural diversity and settlement dynamics^{4–6} It is only recently that these elements of material culture have been supplemented by paleogenomics^{7–10}. The correspondence between genetic and cultural features is, however, the subject of ongoing debate and it has been argued that amalgamating these two types of evidence together may lead to biased interpretations if not supported by explicit reasoning^{11–13}.

It is generally accepted that artefacts with exclusively symbolic functions, such as personal ornaments and mobiliary art, are more informative than functional objects when characterising cultural and social systems as well as individuals' role within society^{14,15}. Many authors argue that they are essential tools for exploring past cultural dynamics^{16–20}.

The earliest instances of personal ornaments consist of marine shells found in Northwestern and Southern Africa and the Levant and are dated between 140 to 70 thousand years (ka)^{21–24}. Only a single or a few species are used as ornaments at these sites. In Northern Africa, these sites are spread over a large geographic area encompassing inland regions. From *circa* 52 ka marine shells are replaced in Eastern Africa and by *circa* 42 ka in Southern Africa by discoid ostrich eggshell beads²⁵. It has recently been proposed that a split in their size occurred *circa* 33 ka between East and Southern Africa²⁵. It is only after *circa* 45 ka in Eurasia that we observe the spread of ornamental traditions involving the use of hundreds of different bead types made of a range of raw materials (*e.g.*, ivory, bone, antler, teeth, shells, stone, fossil, amber, jet etc.). This is the moment in which personal ornaments acquire a degree of diversity enabling researchers to more precisely investigate their role as cultural markers. The idea behind this approach, supported by ethnographic evidence^{26–28}, is that personal ornaments are a communication technology used to convey privileged information on group affiliation and social status^{29,30}.

Working within this framework, Newell et al.³¹ reached the conclusion, after analysing a dataset of Mesolithic personal ornaments, that their distribution supported the hypothesis that they reflected

geographically structured and hierarchically nested ethnic groups in Western Europe³². Vanhaeren and d'Errico²⁰ interpreted a georeferenced database of Aurignacian personal ornaments as reflecting the ethnolinguistic geography of Europe just after its peopling by modern humans. Applying a similar approach, d'Errico and Vanhaeren³³ analysed personal ornaments and grave goods associated with Gravettian burials and proposed the existence of two main distinct cultural regions during this period. Rigaud et al.¹⁸ reached the conclusion, after analysing an extensive database of Mesolithic and Early Neolithic personal ornaments, that this cultural proxy was able to identify the cultural geography of Europe before and after the spread of the Neolithic. These authors also showed that stronger continuity in personal ornament use was observed in the Baltic compared to the Central Europe and Mediterranean areas, with the former interpreted as a resilience in fashion and systems of belief.

An alternative theoretical framework is proposed by some authors to interpret these and similar archaeological datasets^{1,34–38} according to which the observed regional differences are better explained as the result of isolation-by-distance (IBD), a mechanism well known in population genetics^{39,40}, according to which individuals are more likely to exchange genes with more geographically proximate conspecifics. When applied to material culture, this mechanism predicts that similarity in cultural features will be determined by the geographic distances between contemporaneous sites. The corollary of this view is that other factors such as linguistic diversity, topography, environment, phenotypic diversity and economy would play a negligible role in structuring cultural diversity and in creating long-lasting boundaries between groups. It also implies that populating events by groups possessing different cultural features will result in an almost immediate dilution of cultural systems following the IBD scenario. Determining which of these two theoretical frameworks more accurately explains past cultural variability is crucial for understanding the function of technologies for culturalising the human body in past societies and their evolutionary trajectories.

In this study we created and analysed a georeferenced database of personal ornaments from burial and occupation contexts dated to the Gravettian, a major Palaeolithic archaeological culture spanning across Europe between 34 - 24 ka cal. BP. Our aim is to establish whether personal ornaments could be used to identify the geography and evolution of past cultural entities and, if so, accomplish this task for the ten-thousand-year time span covered by the Gravettian. Unlike the Aurignacian (41.5 - 30 ka cal. BP), the culture preceding the Gravettian, personal ornaments are found in the latter at occupation and numerous burial sites, which enable comparative analysis of the two records and evaluation of contrasting interpretations. Our archaeological and modelling results support the view that personal ornaments are reliable proxies for reconstructing past cultural diversity and reflect to a large extent past population dynamics highlighted by palaeogenomic data⁹.

The Gravettian

The Gravettian technocomplex (*circa* 34 – 24 ka cal. BP^{41–43}) succeeds the Aurignacian in Europe^{20,35,44–48} and endured until just before the Last Glacial Maximum. Recent palaeogenomic work has shown that individuals associated with Gravettian assemblages from Western Europe had a different genetic ancestry from contemporaneous Gravettian groups from Central and Southern Europe⁹. It has also highlighted that Gravettian individuals from Western Europe genetically resemble those from the preceding Aurignacian culture. The Gravettian (*sensu lato*) is characterised by geographically diverse lithic technologies having in common the widespread production of straight backed points^{42,49–54}, the ubiquitous production of anthropomorphic figurines^{55,56} and it is when we first witness the systematic production of primary burials with rich grave goods and personal ornaments^{33,57}. The internal heterogeneity observed within the Gravettian lithic record has been accounted for with multiple hypotheses by various authors (*e.g.*, regionally distinct populations^{9,58}, various site functions^{59,60} and different ecological adaptions^{54,61}), whilst many publications have attempted to describe and explain the European-wide phenomenon of the Gravettian anthropomorphic figurines^{56,62,63}. However, the third characteristic of the Gravettian, *i.e.*, burials and personal ornaments, remains relatively understudied on a European scale.

Gravettian ornaments

Gravettian beads have several key attributes which lend themselves well to statistical analysis. Firstly, the Gravettian is Pan-European in nature and thus it provides a wide geographical canvas upon which one can apply statistical analyses. Secondly, it presents typological variation which allows different archaeological layers to be attributed to different *facies*^{52,54,64,65}. Thirdly, it presents personal ornaments of discrete types which are found in numerous, well-dated sites, which enables the investigation of both regional and temporal evolutionary trends in ornamental practices. Finally, the Gravettian provides abundant ornaments in both burial and occupation contexts³. While burials provide a single 'snapshot' event of ornamental behavioural practices, occupation sites represent a diachronic palimpsest of these behaviours. In modern-day traditional societies, the position, order and association of personal ornaments often play an important role in their social meaning^{14,66,67}. Therefore, having personal ornaments preserved in their 'real-life' state gives an additional dimension of inquiry and, especially in the case of multiple burials, offers a unique opportunity to study the internal social organisation of these groups of people. However, given the relatively smaller sample

size of burials compared to occupation sites, the existence of personal ornaments in the latter provides an additional large dataset which can complement the conclusions drawn from the former.

Considering the progress made to unravel the social and cultural evolution of the preceding Aurignacian culture^{20,35,44–48} and the well-established Gravettian geographic lithic variability^{42,49–54}, the opportunity to perform in-depth analyses on Gravettian personal ornaments presents itself as a next step to further elucidate the cultural narrative of Upper Palaeolithic Europe. Despite the extensive corpus of data available in the literature, only a small number of studies^{68–71} directly tackle the subject of Gravettian ornamental practices in an effort to characterize regional and temporal trends. These studies, unfortunately, do not examine personal ornaments at large geographic or continental scales, tending instead to focus on single sites or smaller regional scales. This has hitherto prevented meaningful discussion on the broad evolutionary mechanisms which were at play during the Gravettian.

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Main Text

Results

Dataset description

Our dataset includes 134 discrete types of ornaments (Fig. 1a & 1b, Supplementary Information, Supplementary Table 1 & 2) found at 112 Gravettian sites, (97 occupation and 17 burial sites, with two sites harbouring both a burial and occupation layers) (Supplementary Table 3 & 4). The burial sites housed 32 individual human skeletons (Extended Data Fig. 1). Of these discrete ornament types, 79 were made of shells, 26 of teeth and 29 shaped from other raw materials. Ornaments fashioned from shells comprise eight taxa only available on Atlantic shores, eleven taxa only available from Mediterranean shores, and 50 shell taxa which can be found at both the Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts. Two taxa were available from freshwater sources and eight taxa are found at fossil outcrops throughout Europe. Our database records ornaments made from various teeth (Fig. 1a): canines, incisors and molars. Ten types come from mammal carnivoran species (i.e., Bear, Fox, Hyena, Lynx, unknown Felis sp., Wolf), eleven from mammal herbivore species (i.e., European Elk, Horse, Rabbit, Red Deer, Steppe Bison, unknown Bovid sp., unknown herbivore sp.), one belonged to a fish species (i.e., Gilt-head Bream) and four belonged to humans. They feature two techniques of suspension, perforation and grooving. Of the shaped ornaments (Fig. 1b), sixteen types were fashioned out of ivory (e.g., bilobated, cylindrical, and, in the rare case of Dolní Věstonice (Czech Republic), breast-shaped beads etc.), eight types from bone (e.q., tubular beads made of mammal long bone diaphyses and perforated *Ursus spelaeus* phalange etc.), two of stone and single types from amber, jet, and fish vertebrae.

179 Figure 1

Multivariate analysis of the occupation dataset

The seriation identifies 6 sets (Fig. 2). Set 1 groups sixteen sites from Eastern Europe, Set 2 twelve sites from Central Europe, Set 3 thirty sites from Northwestern Europe, Set 4 fourteen sites from Southern Iberia, Set 5 twelve sites from Northern Iberia, Set 6 three sites from the Mediterranean region. Ten sites are not included in any set. The seriation criterion score was 0.18562. The Modularity test and the perMANOVA performed on the groups identified by the seriation indicate that they are significantly different, and their diversity explains 14% of the variance in the data (R^2 (5) = 0.14070246985803, p = 0.001) (Supplementary Results, 'Modularity test and permutational MANOVA').

191 Figure 2

Within each geographic set identified by the seriation *circa* 20% to 32% of the bead types are present in two or three chronological phases (Early, Middle and Late) of the Gravettian (Fig. 3). This continuity is observed to a lesser extent within the Northwestern set, however, with only 4.3% of the bead-types used in different chronological phases.

198 Figure 3

The first PCoA axis of the occupation dataset, accounting for 8.62% of variation, shows two overlapping clusters, one associating sites from Western Europe and the other associating sites from Central and Eastern Europe (Fig. 4a). The slight overlap is mainly caused by Abri Pataud (S69, France), without which the two clusters would plot almost separately.

The neighbour-joining tree analysis identifies two groups of sites following the same geographic pattern identified by the PCoA (Fig. 4b). One group (Fig. 4b1) clusters sites from Western Europe and

the other (Fig. 4b2) clusters sites mainly from Central and Eastern Europe with the inclusion of some Northwestern Europe sites. The only exception in the Western group is the site of Krems-Wachtberg (S66, Austria).

210 Figure 4

Multivariate analysis of the burial dataset

The seriation identifies three sets (Fig. 5a). Overall, the seriation highlights two major groups, one includes burials located in Eastern Europe (set 1), and another group that includes burials located in Western Europe (mostly South and North Italy). North Italy burials make up set 2 while burials from South Italy make up set 3. The criterion score is 0.577181. The Modularity test and the perMANOVA performed on the groups identified by the seriation indicate that they are significantly different and their diversity explains 53% of the variation in the data (R^2 (2) = 0.533373821394103), p = 0.001) (Supplementary Results, 'Modularity test and permutational MANOVA').

221 Figure 5

The seriation made under chronological constraint (Fig. 5b), *i.e.* phase by phase, shows that the two major groups of burials (*i.e.*, Eastern and Western Europe burials) only overlap for a period of one thousand years. Burials older than 29.5 ka are only found in the Eastern group whereas burials younger than 28.5 ka are only found in the Western group. This seriation highlights a continuity in bead-type associations found in Eastern Europe burials during the Early and Middle Gravettian (50%) and a continuity in bead-type associations found in Western Europe burials (North (57.14%) and South (50%) Italy) during the Middle and Late Gravettian.

The first PCoA axis of the burial dataset, accounting for 35.93% of variation, shows a marked separation between the Western and Eastern Europe burials and a less compelling one between burials from the North and South of Italy (Fig. 6a).

The neighbour-joining analysis identifies a clear separation between burials from Eastern Europe, South Italy and North Italy (Fig. 6b), with the only exception being the Southern Italian burial of Ostuni 1 (B8, Italy), which plot with the burials from the North of the Italian peninsula. The Southern Italian

subgroup also includes the Lagar Velho burial (B4, Portugal) due to the presence of *C. elaphus* canines. Paviland (B5, Wales, United Kingdom) and Cro-Magnon (B20, France) cluster together as a distinct subgroup.

240 Figure 6

Neighbour-net analysis of occupation and burial sites

The occupation neighbour-net tree identified four clusters of sites (

244 Figure 7

Fig. 7a). Moving clockwise, Cluster 1 (S7-S58) includes a mix of Western and Eastern Europe sites characterized by ornaments made of *Glycymeris* sp. and *Pecten* sp. shells. Cluster 2 (S11-84) is mostly composed of Central and Eastern Europe sites characterized by the use of ornaments made of symmetric ivory pendants and *Vulpes* sp. canines. Cluster 3 (S72-S24) groups Mediterranean and Northwestern Europe sites in which *Turritella* sp. and *Dentalium* sp. shells are frequently found. North and South Iberian sites are included in cluster 4 (S90-S44), which is characterized by perforated *N. lapillus* and *L. obtusata* shells.

The neighbour-net tree built with the burial dataset identifies the three geographically distinct clusters of sites (Fig. 7b) previously identified by the seriation and the Neighbour-joining analyses. Moving clockwise, Cluster 1 (B2-B1) is composed of Eastern Europe burials characterized by ornaments made of carnivore teeth (*i.e.*, Fox canine and Wolf canine) and symmetric ivory pendants. The association of *C. elaphus* canines with Mediterranean shells (*i.e.*, *T. neritea/pellucida* and *Cypraea* sp.) and asymmetric ivory pendants is characteristic of burials found in North Italy and one burial from South Italy (B8, Ostuni 1), all grouped in Cluster 2 (B8-B21). Cluster 3 (B9-B30) is composed of South Italy burials characterized by ornaments made of *C. elaphus* canines and *Cypraea* sp.

261 Figure 7

The Delta score for the occupation sites neighbour-net is 0.2 with a q-residual of 0.00469. The Delta score for burials is 0.2387 with a q-residual of 0.0166. These values indicate that the amount of reticulation is greater in the burial sites than in the occupation sites Neighbor-net. This implies that the data are moderately tree-like for both occupation and burial datasets, and the personal ornament

diversity identified in burials is even less tree-like than bead-type associations diversity at occupation sites.

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Effect of geographic and chronological distances

- The degree of correlation between the cultural, spatial and temporal distances are different for the occupation and burial datasets (Extended Data Table 1).
- 273 Occupation site personal ornament diversity shows a statistically significant correlation with
- 274 geographic distances, with approximately 19.4% (Mantel Z Value (95) = 0.1941563, p < 0.001) of the
- variability explained by the latter. The perMANOVA conducted on the occupation sites attributed to
- one Gravettian phase (Early, Middle, Late), shows that 5.5% of the bead-type diversity is explained by
- 277 chronology (R^2 (2) = 0.0550199468252677, p = 0.005) (Supplementary Results, 'Modularity test and
- 278 permutational MANOVA').
- Burial data show significant correlation with distance in space and time, with approximately 32.6%
- 280 (Mantel Z Value (15) = 0.3257094, p = 0.0093) of the variability explained by geography (Extended Data
- 281 Table 1) and 32.9 % (Mantel Z Value (15) = 0.3288, p = 0.0052) explained by chronology (Extended Data
- Table 2). Because there is only a small degree of chronological overlap between the burials from
- Western (North and South Italy) and Eastern Europe, we performed a separate Mantel test for each
- 284 geographic burial subset. These tests (Extended Data Table 3) reveal a relatively strong and significant
- correlation between cultural and geographic distances for the former (Mantel Z Value (6) = 0.4559727,
- p = 0.0266) and no significant correlation for the latter (Mantel Z Value (1) = 0.855131, 0.16667),
- although this may be due to the small sample size.
- 288 The occupation Mantel correlograms display significant positive autocorrelation up to geographic
- 289 distances of approximately 1000 km and significant negative autocorrelation at geographic distances
- 290 over 1500 km (Extended Data Fig. 2a). The burial dataset Mantel correlograms displays positive
- 291 autocorrelation at geographic distances up to 100 km and no significant autocorrelation at other
- 292 geographic distances (Extended Data Fig. 2b).
- 293 Our five simulations of the effects of spatial and cultural barriers on bead diversity produce notably
- 294 different Mantel Test Z values (Supplementary Result, 'Modelling the effect of spatial and cultural
- 295 boundaries'), with two simulations closely matching the results obtained for our occupation and burial
- datasets (respectively Model 2 and 3). Model 2, which assumes a slight geographical overlap of sites
- 297 with partially shared cultural attributes, yields a low but significant Mantel Test Z value (Mantel Z Value
- 298 (109) = 0.1296, p = < 0.001). Model 3, which assumes a clear separation of geographical and cultural

traits, results in a relatively strong and significant Mantel Test Z value (Mantel Z Value (109) = 0.3517, p = < 0.001). Model 1 (Mantel Z Value (109) = -0.01053, p = 0.7885), Model 4 (Mantel Z Value (109) = -0.009945, p = 0.8093) and Model 5 (Mantel Z Value (109) = -0.01871, p = 0.9318) each result in a non-significant, low and negative Mantel Test Z value.

Discussion

The first aim of our study was to establish whether prehistoric material culture variability was solely determined by geographic distance between archaeological sites or better explained by a combination of factors. Due to their ubiquitous and discrete nature, personal ornaments are ideal proxies to test these competing hypotheses. If the first hypothesis were to be proven wrong, the second aim was to explore the potential of personal ornaments to reconstruct the cultural geography of Gravettian populations and contrast it with available population data. Our results identify consistent differences in Gravettian personal ornament associations across Europe. Seriation, PCoA and neighbour-joining analyses reveal distinct geographic clusters. Ornaments broadly identify an East to West cline comprising nine clusters, of which six are occupation and three are burial. The occupation clusters encompass the regions of Eastern and Central Europe, the Eastern and Western (South Iberia) Mediterranean, Northwestern Europe and the North of the Iberian Peninsula. The burial clusters of the Northern and Southern Italian peninsula are contained within the Western Mediterranean occupation cluster, whereas the Eastern European burial cluster is found over areas contained within both the Central and Eastern European occupation entities.

Our results support the view that geographic distance is not the only factor determining prehistoric material culture variability during the Gravettian. Our simulations indicate that the bead-type associations identified in the Gravettian occupation dataset conform to a scenario in which neighbouring cultural entities displaying culturally driven boundaries, and characterized by specific bead-types, shared some of them with neighbouring groups due to synchronic or diachronic fluctuations of cultural boundaries. They also indicate that the bead-type associations identified in the Gravettian burial dataset is consistent with a scenario in which geographically distinct groups use different bead-types. The highest Mantel Z value produced by this simulation theoretically indicates isolation by geographic distance being a main driver of the archaeological bead diversity. However, this hypothesis is contradicted, in our archaeological instance, by the temporal divide between the identified burial clusters and their chronological and spatial exclusivity, thus suggesting that IBD does not account for the observed archaeological diversity.

The significant, albeit weak, positive correlation identified by the Mantel test between geographic distance and bead-type diversity for the occupation dataset also supports the view that geographic distance does not explain all of the bead-type association diversity. The occupation dataset displays significant positive autocorrelation at short geographic distances (100 - 1000 km) and significant negative autocorrelation at geographic distances greater than 1500 km. This negative autocorrelation at longer geographic distances suggests a significant role of factors other than geographic distance in determining bead-type associations. The correlation is markedly stronger in the burial dataset. However, the burial Mantel correlograms reveal that the correlation substantially drops after a geographic distance of 100 km. The Mantel test performed on the Eastern and Western Europe subsets shows that geographic distance did not significantly affect the bead-type diversity identified in the Eastern Europe burial subset, the small size of the sample (n=3) unfortunately prevents any meaningful discussion of this result.

Our results show that temporal distance affects the bead-type diversity identified in the burial dataset to a higher extent than the bead-type diversity identified in the occupation dataset. This pattern reflects the very small chronological overlap between burials from East and West Europe. Burials appear to have been a cultural trait possessed by Early and Middle Gravettian people in Eastern Europe, but these people apparently stopped burying their dead during the Late Gravettian. Conversely, in Western Europe (South and North Italy) there were no burials during the Early Gravettian but numerous examples during the Middle and Late Gravettian. Within each region over half of the bead-types were continuously used during multiple phases, suggesting that the symbolic meanings encoded within personal ornaments remained relatively unchanged over time.

The use of a small number of bead-types is maintained through time within the occupation sites. This pattern indicates that the messages encoded by personal ornaments changed through time but some symbols used to culturalise the human body were transmitted over long time periods.

In summary, our results are consistent with the view that when choosing their personal ornaments, Gravettian hunter-gatherers followed, at least to some extent, conventions dictated by their sense of belonging to a cultural group, and that slightly permeable cultural boundaries existed between groups as supported by our modelling results (Supplementary Result, 'Modelling the effect of spatial and cultural boundaries'). This, of course, does not deny the likely role of factors such as ecology and raw material availability but rather it entails that these factors were largely incorporated in cultural choices.

The neighbour-net analyses demonstrate a clear East and West separation in the sites and identified clusters, with the burial clusters being more geographically discrete than those of the occupations. The higher Delta score and q-residuals obtained from the burial neighbour-net analyses indicate that bead-

types found in burial contexts were more likely to be circulated and exchanged within a small region than those found at occupation sites.

What factors other than geographic distance could explain the differences observed between these two contexts? One obvious possibility is that the burials and occupations represent two culturally distinct time periods of the Gravettian. However, we can dismiss this possibility owing to the large overlap in the radiocarbon ages of both contexts in each region (Extended Data Fig. 3).

A second possibility is that occupation sites represent diachronic palimpsests, whilst burials represent snapshots in time. Therefore, whereas occupation sites accrued personal ornaments lost over extended periods by different Gravettian sub-groups, burials reflect the cultural affiliation of individuals at the time of death. The greater clarity of the burial clusters identified by our PCoA analysis is consistent with this reasoning, with additional factors such as seasonal mobility^{72,73}, exogamy^{74,75} and climate induced fluctuations of cultural boundaries^{76–78} further contributing to the overlapping convex hulls of the occupation clusters.

A third possibility is that the observed difference is caused by social stratification^{33,79–81}: mortuary practices for "common" individuals tend to be different from, and simpler than, those of individuals with a special social status. The existence of Gravettian burials without personal ornaments (*e.g.*, Brno 3 (Czech Republic)⁸² and Cussac cave (France)⁸³) is consistent with this hypothesis. The presence of non-adult ornamented burials in our dataset (n=6)^{84–87} also supports this hypothesis, as these individuals did not have a chance to personally merit an elaborate burial. However, the large proportion of elaborately buried individuals with signs of disfiguring diseases (n=14) instead supports the well-documented principle of 'bad death'^{88–92} influencing who was selected to be elaborately buried. Regardless of the exact reasons determining who was buried in the Gravettian, it appears that not everyone was elaborately buried, which may have contributed to the observed differences between burial and occupation sites' bead associations.

The analysis of Gravettian grave goods conducted by d'Errico and Vanhaeren³³ identified marginally different groups to those in this study. This minor difference resulted from their inclusion of burials formally attributed to the Gravettian (i.e., Sunghir, Russia^{93,94}), our inclusion of newly discovered burials (i.e., Borsuka Cave, Poland⁸⁷) and our exclusion of grave goods which were not personal ornaments (e.g., awls and mammoth scapulae). The very similar results underpin the robustness of the geographic clusters in personal ornament associations in Gravettian burial practices.

The recent paleogenomic study conducted by Posth et al.⁹ has highlighted the importance of population dynamics, largely influenced by climate change, on the genetic history of the Upper

Palaeolithic European human population. The periodic abandonment and subsequent recolonization of different regions of Europe, already predicted by other authors^{78,95–97} contradict the hypothesis that the genetic variability of Upper Palaeolithic populations reflect a gradual process of homogenisation determined by IBD following a first colonisation by a modern human population. The population dynamics revealed by Posth and colleagues do not necessarily entail, however, a one-to-one correspondence between genetic and cultural traits. Cultural drift and cultural contact implicit in some identified population events, which possibly led to cultural assimilation, acculturation or hybridization, may have created a discordance between genetic and cultural heritage.

Posth *et al.*⁹ argue for a correspondence between genetic ancestry and mortuary practices in the Gravettian by comparing genetic data and available data on the treatment of dead (*e.g.*, cannibalism, interment location, presence of ochre etc.). However, their paleogenomic analyses only concerned a small number of individuals of this period and left the vast majority of the European territory genetically unexplored. Their analysis of cultural traits associated with burials did not investigate personal ornaments as a source of information. While in broad agreement with theirs, our results appear to reconstruct the geography of Gravettian cultural entities at a finer scale (Fig. 8). Personal ornaments associated with burials identify two cultural entities in the Italian Peninsula where their genomic and cultural data envision a single entity. Ornaments found at occupation sites, on the other hand, identify two cultural entities in the Iberian Peninsula, an area for which only a single individual with genomic data is available and identify a region covering present day France and Belgium as a single cultural entity, in which human remains genetically attributed to different ancestries are located. Our dataset also distinguishes an easternmost European cultural entity, in a vast region for which genomic data are not yet available, from a Central European entity associated with a Věstonice ancestry.

420 Figure 8

Future analyses in the field of paleogenomics will have to establish the extent to which the finer cultural geography established from the ornamental objects is matched by the genetic data. Should this correspondence show significant inconsistencies, it will be crucial to document when and where these occurred and what factors have determined divergences. Contrasting the two types of data, rather than simply equating human history to its genetic dimension, is essential to obtain an integrated view of the history of human society and culture.

Conclusion

Human history is complex and multifaceted, extending well beyond the simple interaction of genes and ecology. We have demonstrated here, through the multivariate analysis of Gravettian personal ornaments and simulations modelling the impact of distance on cultural traits, that the sense of belonging felt by all humans today is deeply rooted in our shared history and played an important role in determining how Gravettian people adorned themselves. On a larger scale, our study identified nine distinct geographic sub-groups in the Gravettian who wore different personal ornaments in both life and death. The results obtained for occupation and burial sites demonstrate that it is paramount that site function is taken into account in future research. Comparison of our results with those of genomic studies has shown that symbolic material culture can reveal patterns not detectable by palaeogenomics. Integrating personal ornament and biological data from other Paleolithic cultures will therefore help to elucidate the complex narrative of the earliest humans in Europe.

Materials and Methods

Our datasets include the site name, country, geographical coordinates of the site, associated radiocarbon ages, and personal ornaments found within each layer (Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Table 4). For occupation sites, we also recorded archaeological information pertaining to the Gravettian phase to which a site or a layer are attributed. At sites featuring both occupation layers and burials, the attribution of personal ornaments to the latter was based on contextual information provided in the literature. In the case of multiple burials, ornaments from each individual were recorded separately. The information regarding the personal ornament types which were present at a given site was obtained through a systematic literature search. The radiocarbon ages were converted into calibrated ages using OxCal 4.4⁹⁸, which applies the IntCal20 Northern Hemisphere radiocarbon age calibration curve⁹⁹. The above resulted in the creation of two distinct datasets, one for occupation sites and the other for burial sites.

We created mutually exclusive bead-types (Supplementary Table 1) taking into account cross-cultural studies on the classification of beads^{100–103} and on criteria used to classify archaeological artefacts^{103–105}. Ornaments types were categorised by raw material and then by mode of suspension (*i.e.*, groove, perforation). For shell ornaments, the genus and species were considered. If multiple species of a genus were indistinguishable to the naked eye, only the genus was recorded. Shell species taxonomy has undergone significant development since the earliest papers detailing Palaeolithic ornaments were published 102,106,107. As such, care was taken to verify that species in older literature were updated to modern nomenclature. To prevent attribution to multiple taxa when referring to the same shell

species, we used WoRMS, the World Register of Marine Species (https://www.marinespecies.org), to characterise the species.

For animal teeth, the genus, species and anatomical attribution were taken into account. For fully or partially shaped ornaments made of other raw material (bone, ivory, stone etc.), the type of raw material and morphology of the ornaments were considered to create mutually exclusive types. Few perforated bones, described as ornaments, bear features typical of bone fragments regurgitated by carnivores¹⁰⁸. These were not included in the dataset.

Statistical analyses

Seriation analysis sorts individuals based on their shared attributes¹⁰⁹. Application of this method with PAST software¹¹⁰ to personal ornament presence/absence data from burial and occupation sites enabled the identification of sets, defined as associations of at least three geographically proximate sites sharing a minimum of one bead type²⁰. For both datasets we calculated the criterion score, the index that describes the level of concentration of individuals along the diagonal of the seriation. A score of 1 denotes a maximum and a score of 0 a minimum concentration. In order to assess the significance of the groups identified by the seriations, we performed two complimentary analyses, a Modularity¹¹¹ test and a Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (perMANOVA)^{112,113}. (Supplementary Results, 'Modularity test and permutational MANOVA').

We also performed a seriation on the ornament types from burial sites attributed to the identified sets, in which we highlighted their belonging to different Gravettian phases, Early (34-30 ka cal. BP), Middle (31-29 ka cal. BP) and Late Gravettian (29-24 ka cal. BP), using available radiocarbon ages. A similar seriation was performed on occupation sites attributable to one of the phases of the Gravettian based on radiocarbon ages and chronocultural attribution.

We quantified personal ornament dissimilarity between sites by creating a distance matrix using a Jaccard distance index^{114–116} (Supplementary Table 5). This index is particularly well adapted to archaeological enquiry as it does not give weight to absence data, possibly due in archaeology to field investigation biases^{38,117}. When constructing the distance matrices, we did not include sites which shared no personal ornaments types with other sites¹¹⁸. Personal ornament distance matrices of burial and occupation sites were processed with a Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA), which was performed in PAST software. A PCoA was preferentially chosen amongst other ordination techniques because it uses binary data¹¹⁹. In order to investigate the branching and clustering between sites, we

entered the distance matrices into a Neighbour-joining tree analysis¹²⁰. This was performed using 1000 bootstrap replications with Knossos (Crete, Greece), a Neolithic site, as an outgroup to root the tree¹²¹.

These techniques, originally conceived to identify phylogenies with biological data, are also applicable to the diversity of material culture items found at archaeological sites^{2,122–124}. However, an effective application of these techniques to this domain is somewhat hampered by the fact that cultural evolution involves horizontal transmission of cultural traits^{125,126}. The Neighbour-Net technique^{120,127} largely overcomes this problem by exploring horizontal transfers of traits which are not visible in other network-based methods and thus directly takes the horizontal transmission of cultural traits into account¹²⁸. The shape and amount of reticulation shown within the resultant network reflect the degree of horizontal transfer between sites. We performed the Neighbour-net joining method in SplitsTree6 software using default settings¹²⁹ on both occupation and burial cultural distance matrices. SplitsTree6 also provides the Delta score and Q-residuals for each network. These statistics both calculate and describe the amount of reticulation within a network and how 'tree-like' the network is^{125,130}

Incorporating geographic distances between sites into these analyses is essential to fully appreciate whether geography determines and, if so, to what extent, differences in ornament type associations^{18,38}. In evolutionary biology, IBD model predicts the presence of a positive correlation between geographical and genetic distances within a meta-population^{38,40,131}. In order to evaluate the role of geography we use a Mantel test¹³² which quantifies the degree of correlation between the Euclidean geographic distance between sites and Jaccard distance matrices based on the cultural data. We carried out this test for both the burial and occupation sites. The burial dataset was also divided into two subsets: one dataset which contained burials located in Eastern Europe and one dataset which contained burials located in Western Europe (North and South Italy). A Mantel test was performed on each subset. Unlike the other analyses (i.e., PCoA, Neighbour-joining, Neighbour-Net), we included all sites when constructing these distance matrices because the interpretation of the Mantel test does not rely on the sets identified by the seriation analyses. In the case of multiple burials, the personal ornaments found on each skeleton were condensed into a single site in order to avoid too many pairwise comparisons at the same geographic location. In order to assess the degree of spatial autocorrelation (i.e., higher than average similarity between sites for a given geographic distance) we additionally conducted a Mantel correlogram ^{133,134} for both of the datasets. A positive significant value for each geographic distance class indicates that sites at a given geographic distance from one another are more similar than expected by the Mantel test (i.e., they spatially autocorrelate)¹³⁵. Since patterns observable at one scale can be lost at another, it is recommended that any Mantel correlogram analysis be carried out at multiple scales¹³⁶. We therefore generated a Mantel correlogram for each dataset

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using three geographic distance scales. Simply put, whereas a Mantel test investigates the overall relationship between two distance matrices, a Mantel correlogram probes deeper into the internal structure of this relationship.

We modeled the effects of spatial segregation and cultural barriers with different degree of permeability on the Mantel test Z value (R²) score. We created and analysed five simulated datasets including three synthetic Gravettian cultural groups and different bead-type associations across mainland Europe (Supplementary Result, 'Modelling the effect of spatial and cultural boundaries'). Simulating random coordinate values was facilitated by the spatstat (v.3.0) library¹³⁷. Jaccard dissimilarity values were calculated for each simulation from the matrices of cultural attributes. The great circle distance was used to calculate the geographic distance between sites. Mantel tests were conducted on each of the simulated datasets so as to assess the relationship between these characters. All simulations (Random spatial and cultural attributes, Slight spatial overlap and partially shared cultural attributes, Marked spatial and cultural boundaries, Different cultural attributes, Random spatial distribution, Random cultural attributes, Marked spatial boundaries) were performed using the base R (v.4.3.0) programming language.

To investigate the impact of time on variations in personal ornament associations, we employed two different strategies, one for the occupation and one for the burial dataset due to the different nature of the information on the sites chronology.

For the occupation dataset we performed a perMANOVA on the sites attributable to one of the Gravettian phases (Early, Middle, Late) (Supplementary Results, 'Modularity test and permutational MANOVA').

Our radiocarbon ages dataset for Gravettian burials was used to create a chronological distance matrix calculated with the Euclidian distances. We computed a Partial Mantel test¹³⁸ that enabled the partial correlation between two matrices while holding for the effect of the third¹³⁹. The midpoints of these ranges were then calibrated using the IntCal20 Calibration Curve⁹⁹ with a 1-sigma error of 150 years to ensure that all dates were comparable. For the few burial sites with no associated direct or indirect radiocarbon age (N=3), we used the generally accepted age range provided in the literature.

For every statistical test used, the data met all of the various assumptions.

Data availability

The data used for the statistical tests can be found in the Supplementary tables.

Code availability

Code used is available upon request from the corresponding author and is detailed in the Supplementary Information.

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Author Contributions

JB, SR and FD wrote the paper. JB, SR, DP, LAC and FD conceived and designed the experiments. JB, DP, LAC performed the experiments. JB, SR, DP, LAC and FD analysed the data.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

 Figure 1 – Material used for Gravettian personal ornaments. a) Types of teeth used as ornaments identified at occupation and burial sites attributed to the Gravettian. 1, Bear canine; 2, Bear incisor; 3, Bovid incisor (archaeological, adapted from Baker et al. 2022¹⁴⁰); 4, European elk canine (Collection PACEA); 5, Felis canine; 6, Fox canine; 7, Fox incisor; 8, Hare tooth (incisor) (Collection PACEA), 9, Herbivore incisor; 10, Horse incisor; 11, Human tooth (canine); 12, Hyena canine; 13, Lynx canine; 14, Red Deer vestigial canine; 15, Red Deer incisor; 16, Sparus auratus tooth (archaeological, adapted from Zilhão et al. 2021¹⁴¹); 17, Steppe bison canine (Collection PACEA); 18, Steppe bison incisor (Collection PACEA); 19, Wolf canine; 20, Wolf incisor. Scale bar = 2 cm. (modified

591 burial sites attributed to the Gravettian. 1, Amber Pendant; 2, Anthropomorphic bone bead; 3, Asymmetric ivory 592 pendant; 4, Bear phalange; 5, Bilobated ivory bead; 6, Ellipsoidal ivory pendant; 7, Elongated ivory pendant; 8, 593 Fishtail ivory pendant; 9, Fish Vertebrae; 10, Herbivore diaphysis fragment; 11, Ivory bracelet; 12, Ivory breast 594 bead; 13, Ivory cylindrical bead; 14, Ivory diadem; 15, Ivory pin; 16, Notched herbivore diaphysis; 17, Owl-shaped 595 ivory beads; 18, Rectangular ivory pendant; 19, Red deer femur head; 20, Stone pendant; 21, Stone Ring; 22, 596 Symmetric ivory pendant; 23, Tubular bone bead. Scale bar = 1 cm. 597 598 Figure 2 - Seriation analysis of the bead database for Gravettian occupation sites. Squares indicate the occurrence 599 of ornament types at sites. 600 601 Figure 3 - Seriation analysis of the bead database of Gravettian occupation sites attributable to Gravettian phases 602 (Early, Middle and Late). Squares indicate the occurrence of ornament types at sites. Shaded background colours 603 represent geographical sets identified in Figure 2. 604 605 Figure 4 - Principal Coordinate Analysis (a) and Neighbour-Joining analysis (b) of the bead-type associations 606 recorded at Gravettian occupation sites. 607 608 Figure 5 – a) Seriation analysis of the bead database of Gravettian burial sites. Squares are indicative of 609 occurrences of ornament type at burial sites, ages are from calibrated radiocarbon dates. b) Seriation analysis of 610 the bead-type database of Gravettian burials performed under time constraint. Squares indicate occurrence of 611 ornament types at sites. Shaded background colours represent geographical sets identified in Figure 5a. 612 613 Figure 6 - Principal Coordinate Analysis (a) and Neighbour-Joining analysis (b) of the bead-type associations 614 recorded at Gravettian burial sites. 615 616 Figure 7 - a) Neighbour-Net analysis performed on the bead database for Gravettian occupation sites (Delta score 617 = 0.2, Q-residual = 0.00469). b) Neighbour-Net analysis performed on the bead database for Gravettian burial 618 sites (Delta score = 0.2387, Q-residual = 0.0166). Thick black lines separate distinct clusters. 619 620 Figure 8 - Map of Europe showing the location of human remains attributed to the Gravettian analysed by Posth 621 et al.9. S1 = Dolní Vestonice (13, 14, 15, 16), S2 = Krems-Wachtberg (individual 3), S3 = Ostuni 1, S4 = Paglicci 12, 622 S5 = Pavlov 1, S6 = Goyet (2878-15, 2878-18, Q-1, Q100-8, Q376-19, Q53-1, Q56-16), S7 = Fournol 85, S8 = La Rochette, S9 = Mollet III (GER-33), S10 = Reclau Viver (GER-8). Map created on QGIS 142 using ETOPO1 Global Relief 623 624 Model¹⁴³ data with a modern and Gravettian coastline at -100 m^{144} .

after Vanhaeren and d'Errico 2006²⁰), b) Shaped ornaments and modified bones identified at occupation and

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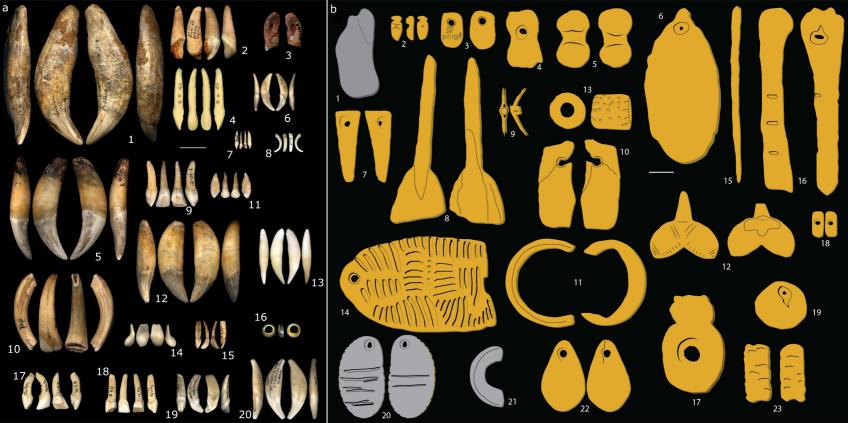
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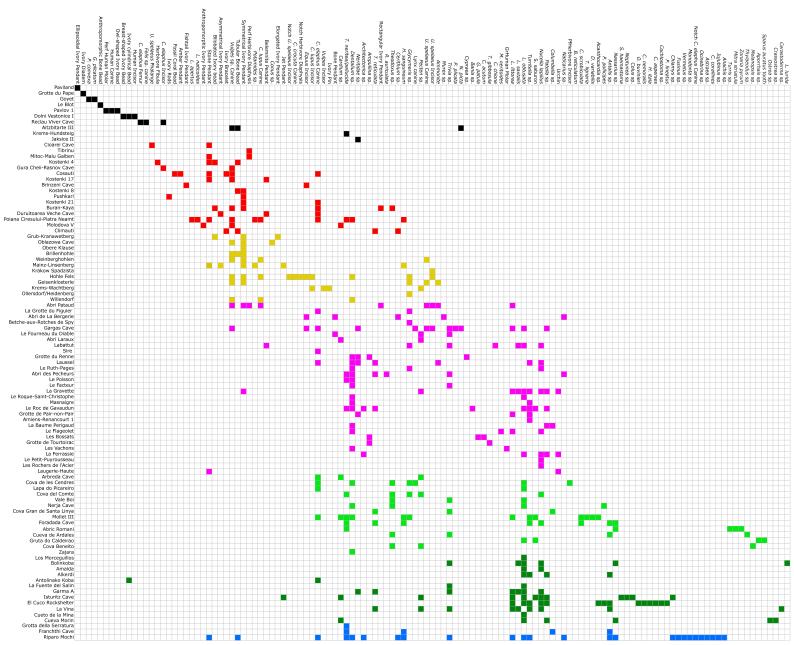
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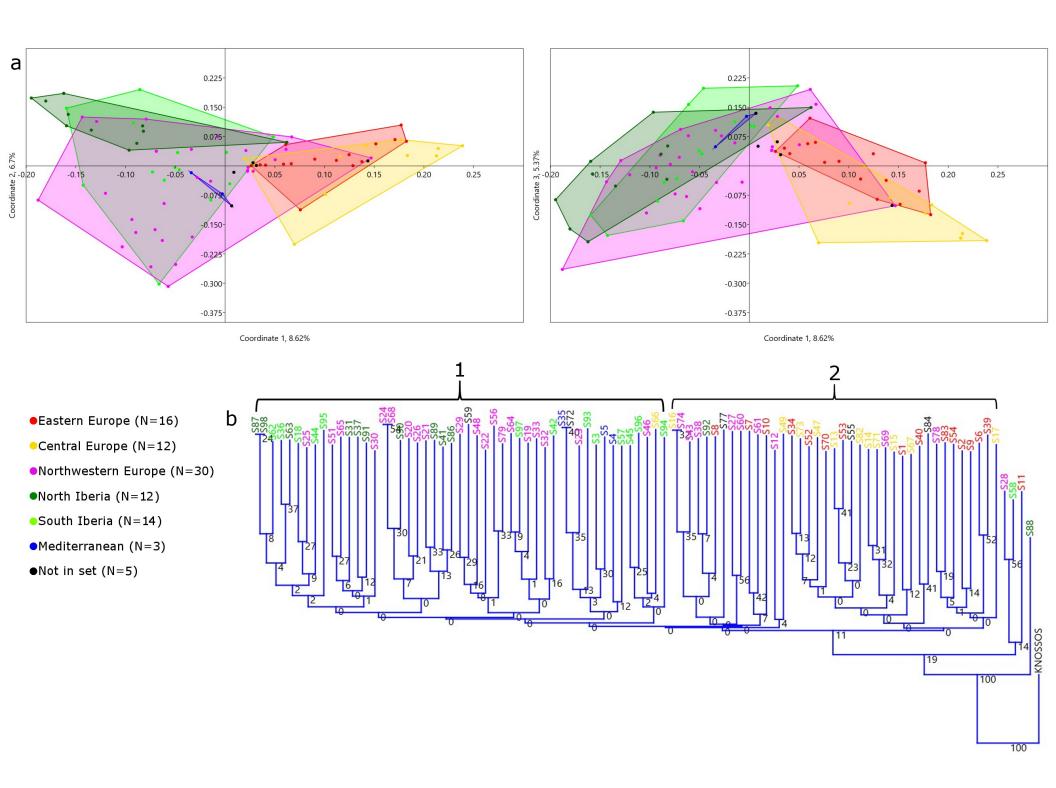
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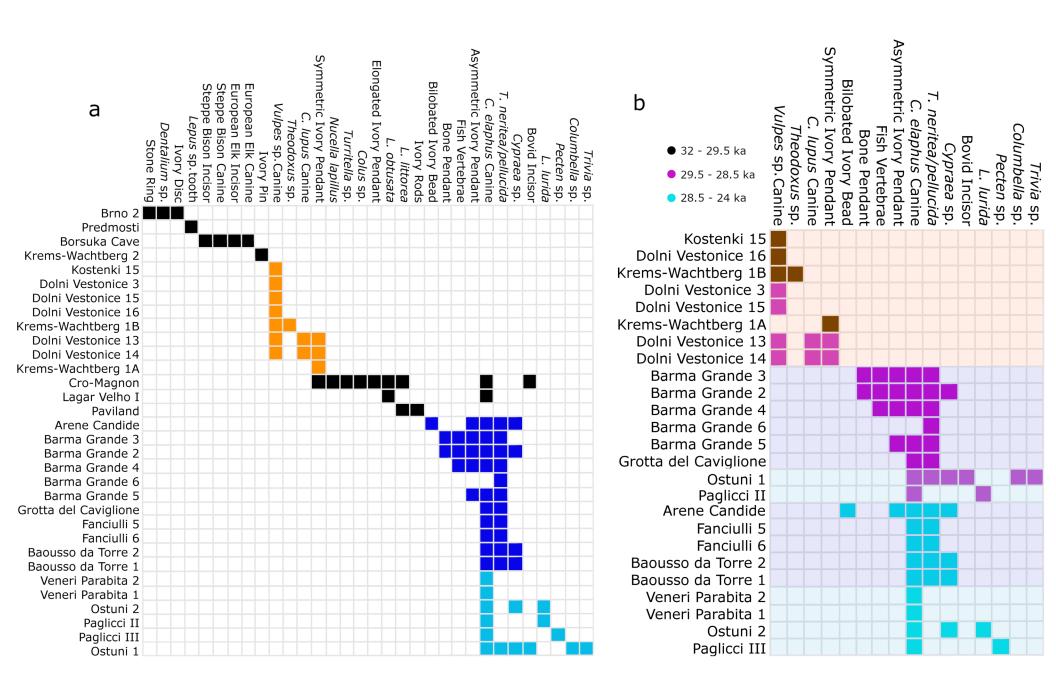
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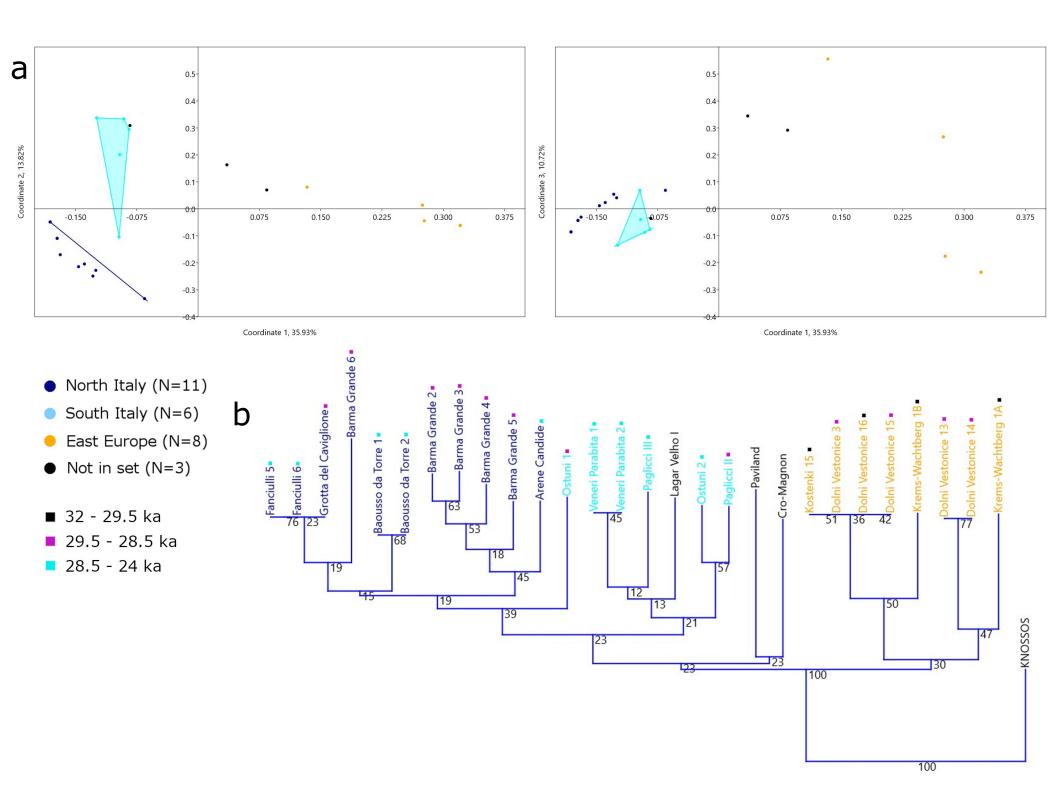


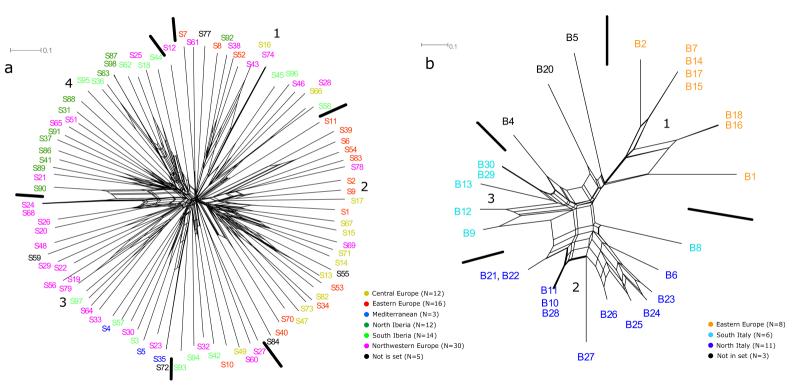


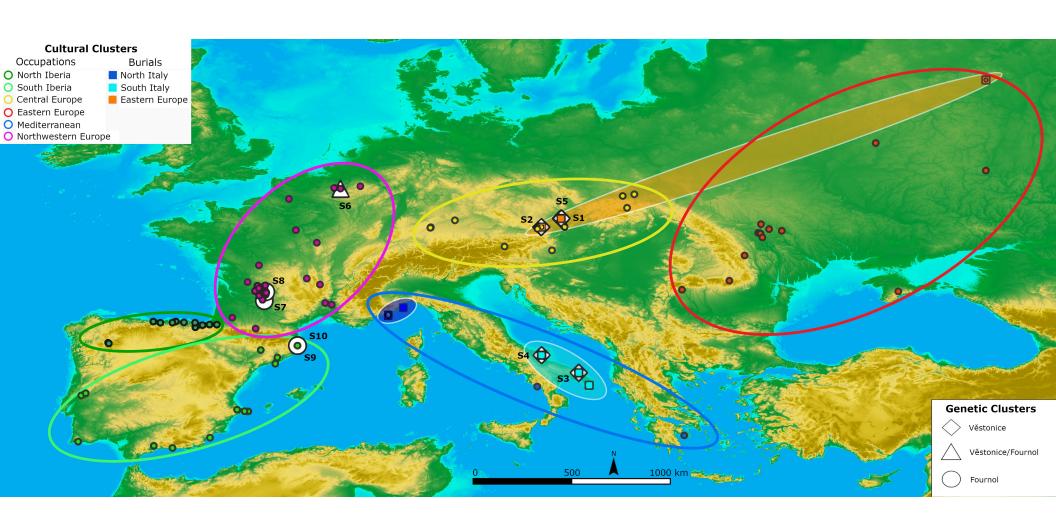


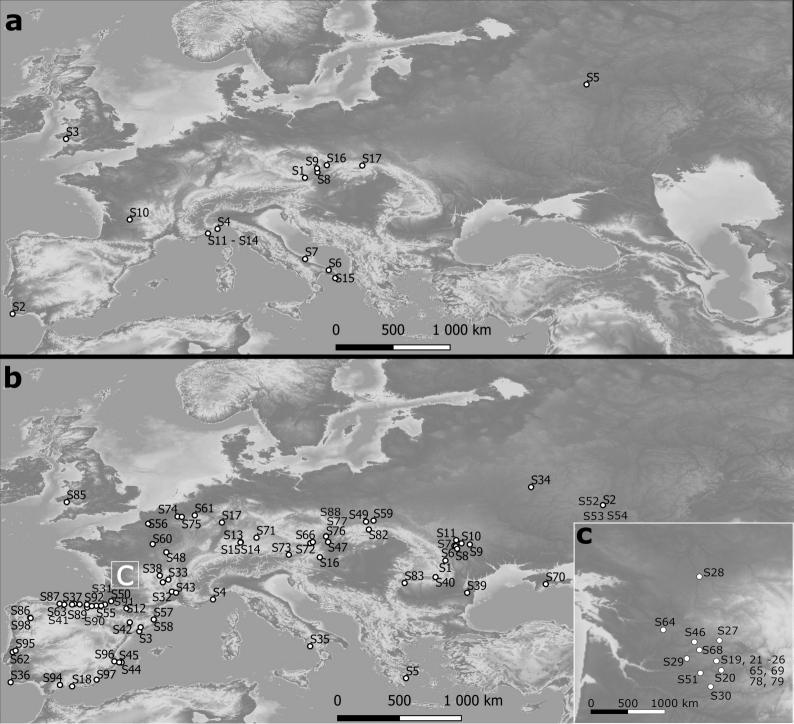


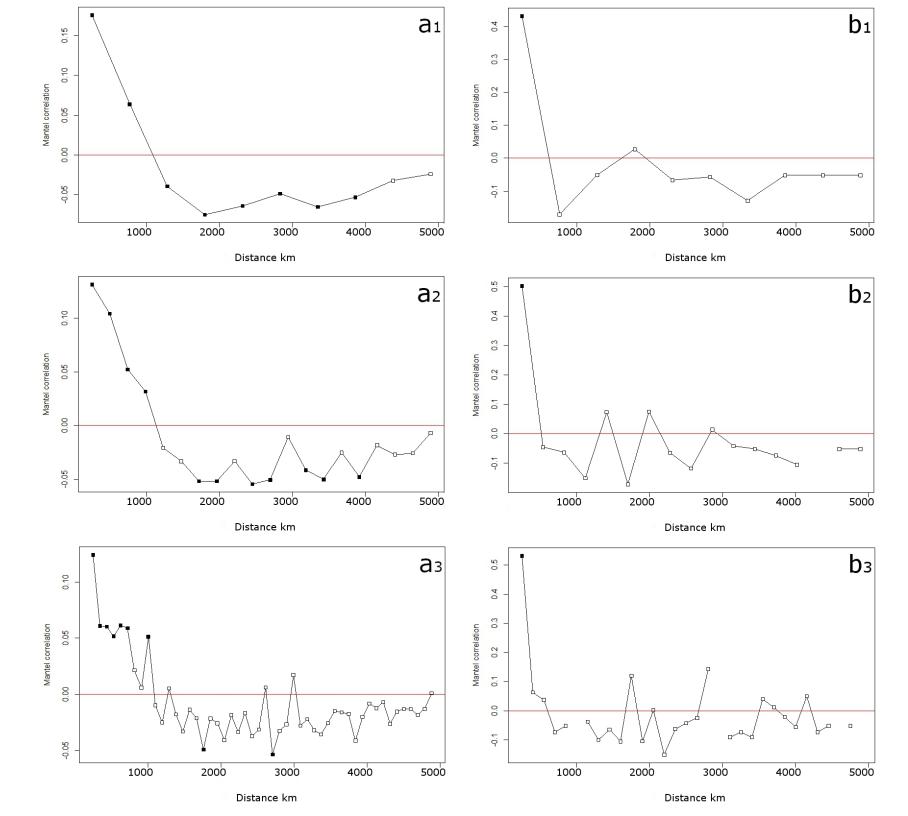


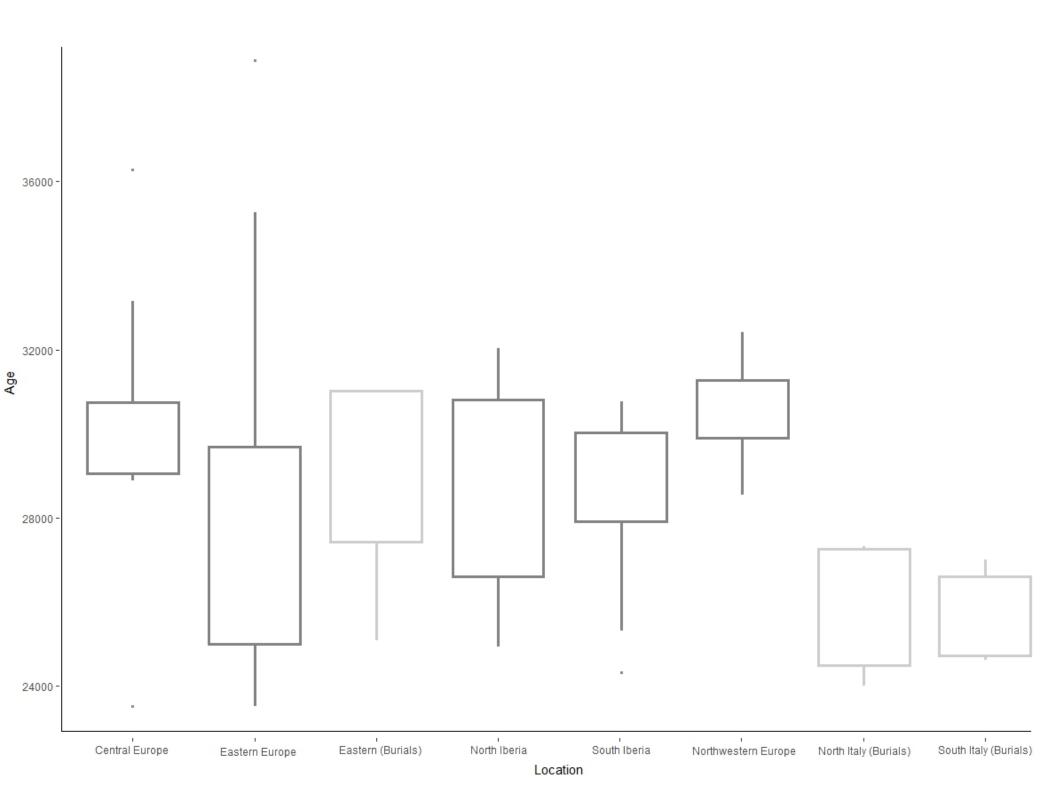












Dataset	Z value (R²)	P-value
Occupation	0.1941563	< 0.001
Burial	0.3257094	0.0093

Dataset	Z value (R ²)	P-value
Burial vs Geography (Holding time)	0.2572	0.0398
Burial vs Time (Holding geography)	0.3288	0.0052

Dataset	Z value (R²)	P-value
Western burial	0.4559727	0.0266
Eastern burial	0.855131	0.16667