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Domestic food practice and vessel-use at Salūt-ST1, central Oman, during the Umm an-Nar period

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Abstract

Investigations into everyday food practices during the Umm an-Nar period (c.2700-2000 BC) in the Oman Peninsula are limited. We studied lipid residues in pottery from Salūt-ST1, an Umm an-Nar stone tower in central Oman, to understand domestic practices and vessel-use in locally-produced Sandy Wares, regionally-produced Fine Red Omani Wares, and imported Indus Black-Slipped Jars between c. 2460-2150 BC. Degraded animal fats were found in a majority of the vessels, and we report the first direct detection of dairy products in Umm an-Nar vessels. The use of non-ruminants fats, plants and/or the mixtures of different products is also suggested. Variations in lipid concentrations and contents of Fine Red Omani Wares and Sandy Wares suggest different uses of these vessel categories. Finally, the detection of a range of products (ruminant meat, dairy fats, non-ruminant fats and mixtures) in Indus Black-Slipped Jars from the site indicates vessel multifunctionality and reuse of the vessels.

Keywords

Salūt-ST1, Umm an-Nar, Indus Black-Slipped Jars, lipid residue analysis, vessel-use, domestic practice

1. Introduction

During the Early Bronze Age (EBA) in south-eastern Arabia, the Umm an-Nar period (c. 2700-2000 BC) marked the development of many 'firsts' in the region. Increasing sedentism and the establishment of settlements with monumental stone or mudbrick 'towers' and

associated mudbrick constructions (Cable & Thornton, 2013; Cleuziou & Tosi, 2007, 2020; Frifelt, 1969, 1995) developed in combination with the growth of oasis agriculture (al-Jahwari, 2009; Tengberg, 2012; Charbonnier et al., 2018) and the rise of a shared regional material culture and local pottery, stone and copper industries (David, 1996; Méry, 2000, 2013; Weeks, 2022). Additionally, there was also an increase in the scale and intensity of long-distance exchange networks throughout the Persian Gulf in which Umm an-Nar communities played an important role (Potts, 1990,1993).

1.1.Umm an-Nar settlements and domestic lifeways

Umm an-Nar sites with multiple stone or mudbrick 'towers' or dwellings with associated occupation and tombs stretching over several hectares or dozens of hectares have been discovered particularly in central Oman as well as west of the al-Hajar mountains, suggesting a density of settlement, likely centred around oasis agro-systems, where cereals and pulses were cultivated in date palm gardens (al-Jahwari, 2009; Tengberg, 2012). These include sites such as Hili (Cleuziou, 1989), Bat (Frifelt, 1976, 1985; Thornton et al., 2016), al-Khashbah (al-Jahwari & Kennet, 2010; Schmidt & Döpper, 2017), Bisya (Orchard & Orchard, 2007), Salut (Degli Esposti, 2014) and several others. Several Umm an-Nar settlements with or without monumental 'towers' have evidence of domestic activities or architecture associated with them (e.g. Cleuziou, 1989; Cleuziou & Tosi, 2000; Azzarà, 2018; Döpper, 2018; al-Jahwari et al., 2018), while others have evidence of other possible functions: as defensive structures to control access to water; symbolic markers in the landscape; or elite residences (Swerida & Thornton, 2019; Swerida, 2022). Despite a renewed interest in domestic lifeways of inhabitants of settlements (Swerida, 2022), available information on agricultural practices and the management of animals is limited by the poor preservation of archaeobotanical and faunal material (Willcox & Tengberg, 1995;Uerpmann & Uerpmann, 2008). There are several outstanding questions concerning everyday diet and food practices that research is now beginning to address, including how crops and plant resources were grown (e.g. Deckers et al., 2019); how groundwater or irrigation for cropping was managed (Charbonnier, 2008); what types of animals were raised or hunted (Uerpmann & Uerpmann, 2008); and how pottery was used in domestic practice and food production (Suryanarayan et al., 2022).

1.2. Dietary evidence through mortuary remains

Evidence related to the diet of Umm an Nar communities has also been studied through the analysis of dental health and stable isotopic analysis of dental enamel from human mortuary remains from large communal tombs (Littleton & Frohlich, 1993; Blau, 2007; Gregoricka, 2013; Munoz, 2017). The study of oral health conditions of individuals during the Umm an-Nar period (Minimum Number of Individuals is ~250), suggests an increase in the consumption of agricultural products, and is more marked for individuals buried inland than on the coast (Littleton & Frohlich, 1993; Munoz, 2017). Stable carbon isotopic analysis of human dental enamel from EBA contexts from the foothills of the al-Hajjar mountains and coastal sites (n = 100) indicate δ^{13} C values with a wide range indicative of a diet with mixed C₃-C₄ plant input, with the value spectrum generally weighted towards C₃-based plant sources, except at Umm an-Nar island (Gregoricka, 2013). Unfortunately, reconstructions of diet from human remains in EBA contexts are severely limited due to preservation conditions,

post-depositional disturbances, fragmentary and commingled remains (Munoz 2017). Additionally, the poor preservation of collagen in bones and teeth (Gregoricka, 2013) limits the assessment of the protein input into human diet through δ^{15} N values. Such challenges suggest that the study of the contents of pottery, along with supporting bioarchaeological data, can provide a valuable lens into past dietary practices of Umm an-Nar populations.

1.3. Pottery traditions and pottery from the Indus Civilisation

Indigenous pottery production in the Oman peninsula is documented from c. 3000 BC (Cleuziou 1989a: 52), specifically that of black-on-red fine ware or Fine Red Omani ware, and by c. 2500 BC, domestic pottery with sandy pastes and black-painted geometric decorations were also produced at settlements (Blackman et al., 1989; Méry, 2000, 2013). Imported vessels from Sistan and Makran (south-east Iran and south-west Pakistan), together with southern Mesopotamian pottery and pottery from the Indus region are also found at settlements and tombs in the Oman Peninsula throughout the Early Bronze Age (Blackman et al., 1989; Méry, 2000; Cleuziou & Tosi, 2007).

Indus pottery appears to be imported to the Oman Peninsula mostly from c. 2500-2000 BC. It is represented by a variety of different forms, such as pedestalled dishes, perforated vessels, cooking pots and jars, and is found at several coastal and inland sites in south-eastern Arabia (Cleuziou & Méry, 2002; Méry, 2000; Thornton & Ghazal, 2016: 204-8). Black Slipped Jars (BSJs), however, are one of the most common vessel type, found more widely in coastal and interior settlements in the Omani peninsula than they are within the Indian subcontinent (Méry & Blackman, 2004). Geochemical analyses of several examples from different sites have indicated that these vessels were produced either along the Ravi river or the Indus river, but those reaching the Oman Peninsula came from the southern Indus basin area (Méry & Blackman, 1999; 2004). Indus BSJs are unmistakably transport or storage vessels, shaped not unlike amphoras from classical antiquity (Méry & Blackman, 2004). Although there are variations in size and capacity, ranging between 19-22 cm in external rim diameter, and estimated volumes vary from 30-80 litres, most BSJs appear to have been made to be transported by boat; their bases are tapered which makes them easy to stack and ship (possibly down the Indus river and then the Arabian Gulf), and they are slipped on both the interior and exterior surfaces (Méry & Blackman, 1999, 2004). It has been suggested that Indus BSJs were used to transport a specific foodstuff from the Indus region to south-eastern Arabia (Méry & Blackman, 2004); however, it is possible that upon their arrival in the Omani peninsula they were emptied and refilled with different foodstuffs or for the transport of other commodities. It is also possible that BSJs were used to transport/store multiple foodstuffs, and had secondary or multiple uses.

Apart from BSJS, other imported Indus pottery appear to mostly feature vessels related to food preparation or presentation (Méry, 2000). Several sites across the Oman Peninsula also have examples of characteristic Umm an-Nar pottery which are produced with typical shapes inspired by Indus pottery (termed as 'Indus-related' or 'Indus-style' pottery types) (Frenez et al., 2016; Méry, 2000: 238). These vessels often have characteristic everted rims (Frenez et al., 2016; Méry et al., 2017). The presence of a large and diverse assemblage of Indus and Indus-related material culture at different sites has led to the suggestion that people from the

Indus region, or Indus-trained craftspeople were settled in central Oman by c. 2500 B.C. (Frenez et al., 2016; Méry et al., 2017). This is particularly true for the site of Salūt-ST1, the focus of this paper.



Figure 1: Plan of Salūt-ST1 and location of the site within Oman (inset).

2. Salūt-ST1

Located at the convergence of two major wadis, Wadi Sayfam and Wadi Bahla, in the vicinity of Bisya, south of Bahla, the area of Salut hosts at least three large circular Early Bronze Age 'towers' built of massive stone blocks (Degli Esposti, 2016). The 'towers' were identified by different surveys (de Cardi et al., 1976: 164; Humphries, 1974: 50; Orchard & Orchard, 2006: 158) and are all located on low terraces adjacent to the main wadis and sometimes built around a low natural rock outcrop (Degli Esposti, 2016). One of these 'towers', now known as Salūt-ST1 (but previously identified as 'Building 5' by Orchard & Orchard, 2006) was excavated from 2010-2015 by the Italian Mission to Oman (IMTO) at the request of the former Office of the Adviser to His Majesty the Sultan for Cultural Affairs (Figure 1). The site is now included in the Bisya and Salut Archaeological Park, established by the Ministry of Heritage and Culture, and a new research project led by the University of Milan (Salut and Bisya Archaeological Mission) in 2020 is currently ongoing.

Excavations at Salūt-ST1 revealed a 22-m circular stone tower with a central well, surrounded by a large ditch (11-13m wide and up to 3m deep) comprising two connected, concentric channels (Figure 1). The deposits inside the main ditch support the identification of three main phases within the Early Bronze Age occupation of the site (Degli Esposti, 2016). During the first phase, the ditch was filled with water at least in its lower portion. The second phase is represented by a gradual silting of the ditch with waterborne sediments.

Anthropic activity occurred inside the ditch during this phase, as witnessed by fireplaces and dumps interspersed with thin water-laid deposits. The third phase corresponds to the final filling up of the ditch, no longer in use. Two dates obtained from charcoal from contexts located at the bottom and at the top of the stratigraphic sequence of phase 2 spans 2455-2147 and 2464-2294 cal BC respectively, thus suggesting a relatively short life-span and the abandonment of the site before the beginning of the Wadi Suq period (Méry et al., 2017; Degli Esposti & Cremaschi in preparation; Table 1). Six wells dug into the ditch's cemented marl in phase 2 were also discovered; the excavation of three of them suggests that inhabitants were tapping into a lower water table than the one exploited in the earlier phases of occupation of the site (Degli Esposti, 2016: 672). The central well was reused in the Iron Age, when it was probably re-dug and enlarged, as indicated by Iron Age pottery within the well and a partially surviving wellhead (Degli Esposti, 2011; 2016). Pottery dating to the early Islamic period and Iron Age were also discovered in several contexts above the Early Bronze Age deposits. Despite the mixing and redeposition of material in several parts of the site, certain Early Bronze Age contexts within the main ditch were sealed and were stratigraphically reliable (Degli Esposti, 2016: 672). Materials from these contexts were prioritised for scientific studies of pottery and other objects.

US	Phase	Context	Type of material dated	¹⁴ C Date (BP)	Calibrated date (2σ)	Calibrated date (σ)
55	Phase 2 (final)	Dumped pottery with charcoal and burnt matter	Charcoal	3830 ± 35	2455 (6.3%) 2417 BC 2410 (85%) 2196 BC 2170 (4.2%) 2147 BC	2342 (11.4%) 2316 BC 2310 (56.9%) 2204 BC
419	Phase 2 (early)	Fireplace	Charcoal	3890 ± 25	2464 (95.4%) 2294 BC	2456 (39.8%) 2394 BC 2389 (28.5%) 2344 BC

Tahle 1 · Radi	iocarbon dates	obtained from	contexts from	Salūt-ST1

2.1. Local, regional and imported material culture

Umm an-Nar pottery, such as globular open-mouth jars and pots with typical motifs of horizontal and undulated lines on the shoulder, were the most common types of pottery found at Salūt-ST1 (Degli Esposti, 2016). The fabric of this pottery has been classified as ST1 Sandy Ware (divided into ST1 Beige Sandy Ware and ST1 Red Sandy Ware), and was probably locally-produced at Salūt-ST1, used for domestic purposes (Méry et al., 2017, Figure 2: A-F). Indus-type cooking pots and exceptionally, one BSJ, were also associated with this type of ware (Méry et al., 2017: 177-178). Fine Red Omani pottery, corresponding to other types found in other sites around the Oman Peninsula (Méry, 2000) was also

represented at Salūt-ST1, possibly produced and distributed at a regional scale (Méry et al., 2017: 176; Figure 2: G-I). A wide range of Indus pottery, including utilitarian pottery and specific forms used for food production, presentation, and storage were recovered from the stratigraphic levels associated with the second phase of the ditch at Salūt-ST1, such as micaceous fabric BSJs (Figure 2: J-M), Indus-type cooking pots, perforated vessels, pedestalled dishes and small globular jars with black-on-red decorations (Degli Esposti, 2016; Frenez et al., 2016; Méry et al., 2017). Indus seals and carnelian beads possibly manufactured with non-Indus raw materials were also recovered from another part of the ditch (Frenez et al., 2016; Méry et al., 2017). The diversity of Indus pottery types; presence of numerous Indus-style but locally-produced pottery such as cooking pots and other specific types used for food preparation and presentation; as well as presence of Indus beads, figurines and seals has led to the suggestion that 'Indus merchants and/or craftspeople' and/or 'Indus-related communities' were settled at Salūt-ST1 (Frenez et al., 2016: 118).

2.2. Bioarchaeological evidence

Several quern-stones, as well as some grinding/crushing stones were found from EBA contexts at Salūt-ST1, indicating that plant foods were prepared. However, only macrobotanical remains of *Ziziphus* sp. were identified, perhaps indicating the consumption of the fruit (Degli Esposti, 2016), and limited charcoal analysis from two contexts suggested the presence of Acacia-type plants (cf. *Leguminosae Acacia*), possibly used as firewood. Faunal remains were retrieved from many contexts (Strolin 2018). A total number of 1,534 bones (5,674 g) were studied and 861 (4,380 g) were identified (56%). The faunal spectrum at Salūt-ST1 is mainly represented by domestic taxa: goats and sheep (727 remains) represent 84.4% of the total number of identified specimens (NISP), and cattle bones (130 bones) represent 15.1% of this total. Equids and camels represent less than 1% of the NISP. Archaeozoological data thus suggests that animal exploitation mainly relied on domestic ruminants, which matches evidence available from other inland Bronze Age sites of south-eastern Arabia (Uerpmann 2008).

2.3. Aim of the present research

This paper presents the results of lipid residue analysis from local, regional and imported pottery (n = 69) from Salūt-ST1 to address what foodstuffs were contained in pottery as part of everyday domestic practice, as well as to identify if specific products were used or stored in imported Indus pottery, specifically BSJs, at the site. Ceramic lipid residue analysis provides a means to extract, identify and reconstruct the contents of ancient vessels, enabling an understanding of foodstuffs that were cooked or stored in ceramic vessels (Evershed, 2008; Roffet Salque et al., 2017). The presence of specific organic products in imported vessels may also provide an indication of the 'invisible' products that were transported via exchange networks (e.g. Rageot et al. 2019). This method has been applied in a number of different archaeological contexts around the world, revealing the presence of organic products (e.g., Craig et al., 2005; Evershed et al., 2008), aquatic substances (Craig et al., 2013; Cramp and Evershed, 2014), leafy vegetables, plant oils (Charters et al., 1993, 1997; Copley et al., 2001, 2005; Dunne et al., 2016), and apicultural products such as

beeswax (Roffet-Salque et al., 2015). Not only do lipid residues absorbed within the potsherd reflect the types of products processed within the vessels; isotopic analyses (δ^{13} C) of fatty acids extracted from potsherds also reflect the source of the animal fats, and the foraging environment or extent of C₃ or C₄ plants consumed by animals (Copley et al., 2003; Dunne et al., 2017; Mukherjee et al., 2005). This can provide valuable information about the past isoscapes of the region of study (Dunne et al., 2022). Within the context of the archaeology of south-eastern Arabia, this method has huge potential in addressing questions about domestic lifeways and the use of pottery in food production and storage, and at the same time opens up new ways to investigate the movement of organic products through exchange networks.



Figure 2: Drawings and photographs of (a–f) ST1 Sandy Ware (a–c: Beige Sandy Ware, d–f: Red Sandy Ware); g–i, Fine Red Omani Ware; j–m, Micaceous Red Indus Black Slipped Jar fragments from Salūt-ST1.

3. Methods

3.1. Sample selection

Potsherds for lipid residue analysis from Salūt-ST1 were collected directly from the field during excavations in December 2015. The selected fragments were stored unwashed, wrapped in aluminium foil, and packed into polypropylene bags to avoid sample contamination.

Potsherds were chosen from two contexts located within the main ditch that contained evidence of ephemeral occupation, demonstrated by hearths in sandy fills and concentrations of pottery. Crucially, both these contexts probably represent a relatively narrow period of occupation, roughly between c. 2460 and 2150 cal. BC, providing an understanding of pottery use within a restricted chronological phase. A total of 69 vessel fragments were selected: 14 fragments of Fine Red Umm an-Nar or Omani Ware (FR-OM), 36 fragments of ST1 Sandy Ware (ST1-SW), which were further classified as Red Sandy Ware (n=23) and Beige Sandy Ware (n=13), 18 fragments of Micaceous Red Indus Black-Slipped Jars (MR-IN BSJs), and one indeterminate vessel (Table 1, Figure 2). Most of the vessel fragments were body sherds (n = 48), with some base (n=10) and rim fragments (n=11). See Supplementary Information 1 for full details. The vessel forms represented included pots (n = 11), jars (n = 19), pot/jars (n = 2), suspension vessels (n = 2), Black-Slipped Jars (SLT40) had evidence of graffiti marks. None of the analysed potsherd fragments showed evidence of charring or burning on the interior or exterior surfaces.

Due to the targeted nature of sampling; state of vessel preservation; and colour of the interior and exterior slip of Indus BSJs at Salūt-ST1, it was possible to determine through visual examination that the assemblage contained at least 5 individual Black Slipped Jars. Fragments from other vessel fabrics did not fit together, and thus it was assumed that every other fragment analysed represents an individual vessel. Fourteen of the 18 BSJ fragments could be assigned to individual vessels, and three BSJs had multiple fragments (Figure 2: J-M). One of the BSJ rim fragments (SLT74) had two small perforations, made by partial drilling. Termed as "house-marks" or "potter's marks", there are several examples of drill marks on rims of vessels of different fabric types at the site (Degli Esposti, 2014).

3.2. Lipid extractions: acidified methanol and solvent extractions

A small portion (~5 cm diameter) of each selected pottery fragment (n = 69) was broken off and exterior surfaces removed with a modelling drill. The pottery piece was then ground into a fine powder to obtain ~1g using a mortar and pestle. The drill bits, mortar and pestle were cleaned three times with HPLC-grade dichloromethane between uses to avoid crosscontamination.

Lipids from the pottery powder were extracted via the one-step acidified methanol protocol (Craig et al., 2013; Correa-Ascencio & Evershed, 2014) and analysed via gas chromatography coupled to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) (Supplementary Information 2). A selection of fragments with relatively higher lipid concentrations or unusual lipid profiles (n=10) were also analysed via solvent extraction (Evershed et al., 1990) to test for the preservation of triacylglycerols and wax esters (Supplementary Information 2). These extracts

were analysed via Gas Chromatography-Flame Ioniser Detection (GC-FID) and Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry.

3.3. Instrumental analyses: GC-FID, GC-MS and GC-C-IRMS

GC-FID analyses were performed for the solvent extracts on an Agilent Technologies 7890A device. One μ l of sample was introduced via an on-column injector into a 15 m × 0.32 mm i.d. fused silica capillary (DB5-MS, 0.1 µL film thickness, Agilent JandW), with helium used as the carrier gas. The GC temperature programme was as follows: increased from 50°C to 100°C at 15°C min⁻¹, then from 100°C to 375°C at 10°C min⁻¹. Quantification and calculation of the TLE was done by calculating the total peak area in the GC-FID chromatographic profile in relation to the peak area of the internal standard, the amount of internal standard added during sample preparation, and the mass of the powdered sample. GC-MS analysis of both solvent and acidified methanol extracts were performed on a Shimadzu GC 2010 PLUS chromatograph coupled to a Shimadzu QP 2010 ULTRA mass spectrometer, fitted with a high temperature nonpolar column (DB5-HT, $15 \text{ m} \times 0.32 \text{ mm i.d.}$, 0.1 µm film thickness, Agilent JandW). The injection was performed using a splitless injector. The temperature programme consisted of a 1 min isothermal hold at 50°C followed by an increase to 150°C at 20°C·min⁻¹, then to 250°C at 10°C·min⁻¹ and to 350°C·min⁻¹ and a final isothermal hold for 10 min. The GC-MS interface was maintained at a temperature of 300°C and the mass spectrometer run in electron ionization mode (EI, 70 eV). Mass spectra were acquired over the range m/z 50–950.

Gas Chromatography-Combustion-Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS) was conducted on a selection of the acidified methanol extracts. Nineteen samples from specific vessel types (e.g. BSJs) and with relatively high concentrations of fatty acids were selected. Differences in fatty acid biosynthesis between ruminant adipose and mammary tissues, as well as of those of non-ruminants create differences in the stable carbon isotope values of fatty acids (Dudd & Evershed, 1998; Copley et al., 2003). Fats from animals raised on C₄ plant/marine diet also have enriched δ^{13} C values compared to those from animals raised C₃ plants (Dunne et al., 2012). Plotting the difference between C_{16:0} and C_{18:0} fatty acids (Δ^{13} C = δ^{13} C_{18:0} - δ^{13} C_{16:0}) against the δ^{13} C_{16:0} values highlights metabolic and physiological variations enabling the distinguishing of ruminant (meat and dairy) and non-ruminant fats and also enables the detection of any C₄/marine dietary component into the animals' diet (e.g. Craig et al., 2005; Outram et al., 2009; Dunne et al., 2012; Lucquin et al., 2016).

Stable carbon isotope values of methyl palmitate (C_{16:0}) and methyl stearate (C_{18:0}), derived from precursor fatty acids, were measured by GC-C-IRMS following existing procedures (Craig et al., 2012). Results were plotted against δ^{13} C values of modern reference terrestrial fats from Africa and Asia and C₃ plant oil references published elsewhere (Craig et al., 2005; Outram et al., 2009; Steele et al., 2010; Dunne et al., 2012; Lucquin et al., 2016). Fatty acid δ^{13} C values of modern references fats from the study region are not yet available.

4. Results and Interpretations

Interpretable concentrations of lipid (above 5 μ g g⁻¹) were found in all the potsherds analysed via acidified methanol extraction from Salūt-ST1 (n=69; Table 2. Figure 3). Of these, ten

samples were also extracted via solvent extraction, of which only three (SLT30, SLT35 and SLT53) yielded Total Lipid Extracts (TLEs) above 5 μ g g⁻¹ (Supplementary Information 1).

4.1. Lipid yields from different groups of pottery

Lipid concentrations of vessels from Salūt-ST1 ranged from 5.6 - 741.4 µg g⁻¹, with FR-OM vessels indicating higher lipid concentrations (mean: 187.9 μ g g⁻¹; Kruskal-Wallis test ($\chi^2(4)$ = 14.705, p = 0.005) than the other vessel fabrics. Lipid yields from ST1-Sandy Ware vessels and Indus BSJs had similar median values, but Red Sandy Ware vessels exhibited a narrower range with three exceptions (SLT18, SLT35 and SLT37) (Figure 3). Lipid concentrations of Indus BSJs (n = 18) ranged from 5.7-85.2 μ g g⁻¹. Of the 18 fragments, 14 fragments could be assigned to one of 5 individual jars that were identified within the assemblage (see Section 3.1). Lipid concentrations from fragments belonging to the same vessel were compared in order to: 1) assess the reliability of lipid concentration values obtained; and 2) measure the gradient of lipid concentration across the vessel profile in order to make inferences about vessel use, if possible (Table 3). Such work has previously been carried out on ethnographic ceramic vessels from Senegal (Drieu et al., 2022). Table 3 shows that fragments belonging to the same Indus BSJ demonstrate a relatively constrained range of values for lipid yields. Figure 4 demonstrates the limited variability for similar types of fragments from the same vessels. For BSJ 2, the lipid yields of the body fragments were higher than those obtained for rim fragments and fragments from the top of the body, whereas the lower part of the vessel had a very low lipid yield. Body fragments of BSJ 3 had relatively higher lipid concentrations than BSJ 2, and finally, the base and funnel fragments of BSJ 5 had relatively higher lipid concentrations than most other fragments. Hypotheses about the relationship between lipid concentrations along the profile and vessel use are explored in the Discussion (Section 5.3).

Fabric Type	Number of	Lipid concentration	Mean lipid	Median lipid
	samples	range (µg g ⁻¹)	concentration (µg g ⁻¹)	concentration (µg g ⁻¹)
FR-OM	14	18.9 - 740.6	187.9	81.2
ST1-SW	36	5.6 - 741.4	77.9	25.8
Red Sandy Ware	23	7.1 - 741.4	86.6	26.2
Beige Sandy Ware	13	5.6 - 381.4	62.7	25.4
MR-IN (BSJs)	18	5.7 - 85.2	35	28.4
Indeterminate	1		76	
Total	69	5.6-741.4	89	35.5

Table 2: Range, average and median lipid concentrations from different groups of pottery analysed from Salūt-ST1. FR-OM: Fine Red Omani Ware; ST1-SW: ST1 Sandy Ware; MR-IN: Micaceous Red Indus Ware; BSJ: Black-Slipped Jars.

Accepted version



Figure 3: Boxplots of lipid concentrations obtained from Indus BSJs, FR-OM and ST1-Sandy Ware (Red Sandy Ware and Beige Sandy Ware) vessels from Salūt-ST1 (excluding the single indeterminate vessel). Red diamonds represent mean values. FR-OM: Fine Red Omani Ware; MR-IN BSJ, Micaceous Red Indus Black-Slipped Jars.

4.2.Lipid composition: all vessel fabrics

Lipid extracts of pottery fragments from Salūt-ST1 were characterised by saturated fatty acids ranging from $C_{12:0}$ to $C_{26:0}$. Most vessel fragments had GC-MS profiles dominated by palmitic acid ($C_{16:0}$) (43 extracts, 62%), however stearic acid ($C_{18:0}$) was the highest peak in 12 extracts, 17%), and myristic acid ($C_{14:0}$) was the highest peak in 6 extracts (9%). Most profiles were typical of degraded animal fats (Dudd and Evershed, 1998; Dudd et al., 1999; Whelton et al., 2018); however mid-chain fatty acids are ubiquitous in plant and animal products. Forty-seven (57%) of the lipid extracts contained branched-chain fatty acids such as C_{15} , and C_{17} (and in 3 occasions, C_{14}), which may be indicative of ruminant fats, but also may have bacterial origin (Dudd and Evershed 1998, see Figure 5 and Supplementary Information 1).

Unsaturated fatty acids (UFAs) such as $C_{16:1}$ and $C_{18:1}$ were found in half of the extracts, and in some instances, $C_{22:1}$ (7 extracts) were also found, but the relative intensity of these peaks was low. α, ω -dicarboxylic acids (C_8, C_9 , and/or C_{10}) were found in 19 extracts (28%) with shorter-chain (C_5, C_6, C_7) moieties found in two extracts (SLT09: Indus BSJ, and SLT35: Sandy Red Omani vessel) that also had UFAs $C_{16:1}, C_{18:1}$ and $C_{22:1}$. Dicarboxylic acids are degradation products of unsaturated fatty acids (Regert et al., 1998), which are more predominant in plants or aquatic products. Two extracts (SLT53 and SLT54: Fine Red Omani vessels) had relatively high abundances of even long-chain fatty acids ($C_{20:0}$ to $C_{24:0}$), with $C_{22:0}$ dominating in one extract, and $C_{16:0}$ in the other, along with unsaturated fatty acids and dicarboxylic acids (Figure 5). The presence of long-chain fatty acids in these extracts is likely indicative of leafy plants (Kolattukudy et al., 1976; Tulloch, 1976; Dunne et al., 2022). Only a single sample (SLT73: Indus BSJ) had very small peaks of odd-chain *n*-alkanes (C_{25} - C_{29} , C_{27} dominating) possibly indicating the presence of plant waxes (Kolattukudy, 1970), while 8 samples had low concentrations of a non-specific pattern of *n*-alkanes, indicative of contamination from petroleum products. As *n*-alkanes are also common lipid components of soils (van Bergen et al., 1997), their low presence in the pottery could be related to the burial context, and is not particularly diagnostic.

Despite the presence of a large proportion of ST1 Sandy Ware pots and jars that were likely used for domestic practices or cooking, mid-chain ketones or other heat markers indicative of the heating or boiling of products were not detected in any of the extracts. These results are consistent with the above-mentioned absence of visible burning traces on the pottery surfaces.

In the three samples from which solvent extracts had interpretable lipid concentrations (SLT30, SLT35: ST1-Sandy Ware vessels and SLT53: FR-OM vessel), the presence of fatty acids ($C_{12:0}$ to $C_{18:0}$); UFAs ($C_{16:1}$, $C_{18:1}$), branched-chain fatty acids (C_{15} and C_{17}) and monoacylglycerols (M_{16} and M_{18}) were detected, indicating degraded animal fats and matching the lipid profiles obtained via acidified methanol extractions (see Supplementary Information 1).

4.3. Lipid composition: individual Indus BSJs

The lipid profiles of fragments of Indus BSJs that could be assigned to the same vessel were compared. Three fragments (SLT38, SLT60 and SLT63) belonging to BSJ 3 had lipid profiles very similar to each other and their $C_{16:0}/C_{18:0}$ (P/S) ratios ranged between 1.1 to 1.3. Similarly, two fragments from BSJ 5 (SLT78 and SLT79) also had comparable lipid profiles, with P/S ratios 0.6 and 0.9 respectively. Together, both these vessels have lipid profiles indicative of degraded animal fats.

For BSJ 2, five out of the seven fragments (SLT03, SLT04, SLT05, SLT08 and SLT62) had very similar lipid profiles, with saturated fatty acids ($C_{12:0}$ to $C_{20:0}$); branched-chain fatty acids (C_{15} and C_{17}), UFAs ($C_{16:1}$, $C_{18:1}$) and diacids (C_8 and/or C_9), which altogether are not highly diagnostic; but likely indicate the presence of degraded animal fats. However, one fragment (SLT09) also had short-chain diacids (C_5 - C_{10}); whereas another (SLT74) had very high concentrations of $C_{14:0}$ relative to $C_{16:0}$, possibly indicating the presence of plant products or plant oils (Copley et al. 2005; Dunne et al. 2016). The P/S ratios of all the fragments assigned to BSJ 2 ranged from 0.8 to 1.2. These results highlight that fragments belonging to the same vessel exhibit some variability in their lipid profiles. This may be linked to the differential absorption of lipids from different foodstuffs used in the same vessel, indicating challenges in interpretation based on lipid profiles alone as previously observed in experiments on ethnographic pottery (Drieu et al., 2022).

Table 3: Details of individual vessels of Indus BSJs identified at Salūt-ST1 including number of fragments, fragment type/s, lipid concentration range and mean lipid concentration. Four other BSJ fragments that could not be assigned to any individual vessel are not included in this table.

Individual BSJ #	Number of fragments	Fragment type/s	Lipid concentration range (in µg g ⁻¹)	Mean lipid concentration (in μg g ⁻¹)
BSJ 1	1	Rim (SLT1)	85.2	
BSJ 2	7	Rim (SLT74), Body-top (SLT04), Body (SLT05, SLT08, SLT09, SLT62), Between body and funnel (SLT03)	6.6 - 35.9	21
BSJ 3	3	Body (SLT38, SLT60, SLT63)	30.9 - 59.5	42
BSJ 4	1	Body (SLT73)	20.1	
BSJ 5	2	Base (SLT79), funnel (SLT78)	50 - 65.4	57.7



Figure 4: Lipid yields of fragments corresponding to three Indus Black Slipped Jars after acidified methanol extraction. Note that the exact location of the body fragments on the body of vessels is unknown. Representative drawing of Black-Slipped Jar (left) from Méry and Blackman (1999) after Bouquillon et al. (1996).



Figure 5: Examples of partial total ion chromatograms of lipid extracts from vessel fragments from Salūt-ST1. SLT35 has a profile typical of degraded animal fats with possible plant input. SLT53 has a high abundance of $C_{22:0}$ fatty acid and SLT74 has a high abundance of $C_{14:0}$ fatty acid, possibly indicative of the presence of leafy plants and seed oil, respectively. Cn:x indicates fatty acid with n carbon atoms and x double bonds; IS: Internal Standard; P: phthalate, Br: branched-chain fatty acid; diacid: α, ω -dicarboxylic acids. For SLT74, the internal standard was different to the others; hence there is a difference in the retention time.

4.4. Fatty acid isotopic results and interpretations

Nineteen extracts from Salūt-ST1 were selected for fatty acid isotopic analysis, of which eight belonged to Indus BSJ fragments, six to ST1-Sandy Ware vessels, and five to Fine Red Omani vessels. The Δ^{13} C (δ^{13} C_{18:0} - δ^{13} C_{16:0}) values from these vessel extracts ranged from - 4‰ to 1‰ and δ^{13} C_{16:0} values ranged from -22.9‰ to -30.1‰ (Figure 6).

Four vessels had Δ^{13} C values that fell within the reference range for dairy products, including a FR-OM suspension vessel (SLT21), an Indus BSJ (SLT63- BSJ 3), and two ST1-SW vessels (SLT35 and SLT37). The increased negative $\delta^{13}C_{16:0}$ values of these extracts suggest that dairy products were derived from animals consuming more C₄ plants.

At least four of the vessels had Δ^{13} C values that fell within the reference range for ruminant adipose fats, which include three ST1-SW vessels (SLT20, a Beige Sandy Ware suspension vessel and SLT18 and SLT50, two Red Sandy Ware jars), and one BSJ (SLT73 - BSJ 4). One FR-OM vessel (SLT53), and another BSJ (SLT79 - BSJ 5) had Δ^{13} C values that fell at the limits of the range of ruminant adipose fats. The $\delta^{13}C_{16:0}$ values of these extracts suggest the presence of meat in the vessels that originated from ruminants consuming mixtures of C₃ and C₄ plants (Dudd & Evershed, 1998; Copley et al., 2003; Dunne et al., 2012).

The rest of the vessels, which included a Red Sandy Ware pot (SLT13), three FR-OM vessels (SLT46, SLT52 and SLT54), and four Indus BSJ fragments (SLT09, SLT74, SLT62 - BSJ 2, and SLT02 - BSJ with no individual ID) had Δ^{13} C values that fell within modern references ranges for non-ruminant resources or those of C₃ plant oils (Figure 6b). Of these eight vessels, half had the presence of a range of α , ω -dicarboxylic acids or a high relative abundance of C_{14:0} which may support the presence of plant products or seed oil, respectively (Dunne et al., 2016), however other chemical markers for plant products were not detected, and the P/S ratios were not suggestive of plant products in these extracts. These inconsistent results complicate the interpretation of δ^{13} C values, and are discussed in detail in Section 5.2.



Figure 6: Scatter plots showing the δ^{13} C values of (a) $C_{18:0}$ and $C_{16:0}$ fatty acids and (b) Δ^{13} C ($C_{18:0}$ – $C_{16:0}$) and $C_{16:0}$ fatty acid values, measured from lipid extracts of potsherds from Salūt-ST1. In (a), the dashed line at -3.3% indicates the limit of Δ^{13} C values for reference dairy fats and the grey line indicates 0‰. In (b), ranges depicted represent the mean ± 1 s.d. of Δ^{13} C values of modern reference terrestrial fats from Africa and Asia and C₃ plant oil references published elsewhere (Craig et al., 2005; Dunne et al., 2012; Lucquin et al., 2016; Outram et al., 2009; Steele et al., 2010). Modern references from the study region are not yet available. Instrumental error is less than $\pm 0.5\%$. BSJ, Black Slipped Jar; FR-OM, Fine Red Omani Ware; ND, vessel form not determined; ST1-SW, ST1 Sandy Ware.

5. Discussion

5.1.Pastoral food practices at Salūt-ST1

The results obtained from lipid residue analysis of pottery provide unique insight into the use of ceramics as part of everyday food practices by prehistoric communities at Salūt-ST1. As the pottery analysed was from two sealed occupational contexts located within the main ditch, the ceramic lipid extracts likely represent food storage and vessel-use restricted to a relatively narrow chronological phase, roughly between c. 2460 and 2150 cal. BC. Nearly all of the lipid profiles obtained from extracts from ceramics from Salūt-ST1 are characteristic of degraded animal fats, some with evidence of the input of plant products, which is discussed in section 5.2. The molecular evidence suggests that the source of most of the animal fats was from ruminants (indicated by the presence of branched-chain fatty acids in 47/69, 68% of the samples). The fatty acid-isotopic results also indicate the presence of ruminant adipose fats (6/19, 32%) and dairy products (4/19, 21%); with the use of domestic ST1-Sandy Ware jars and suspension vessels appearing to be more frequently used as containers for ruminant adipose fats, although the analysis of more vessels is necessary to support this. Evidence of dairy products was detected in different vessel types, such as a FR-OM suspension vessel, ST1-SW pot and indeterminate vessel form, as well as an Indus BSJ (Figure 6). This data represents the first direct evidence of dairy products in EBA vessels in the Oman Peninsula. It is worth nothing that the presence of animal products was also reported in Umm an-Nar vessels from Hili 8 and Hili North Tomb A (Suryanarayan et al., 2022).

The significant presence of animal fats in the Salūt-ST1 pottery serves as a reminder of the importance of animal resources, specifically of pastoral lifeways and products during the Umm an-Nar period, which is easy to overlook due to the general poor preservation of animal bones in archaeological contexts from the Oman peninsula and limited state of research on Bronze Age inland sites. At other inland Umm an-Nar 'tower' settlements, domestic cattle, sheep and goat constituted the striking majority of faunal remains, with wild fauna being only a very small percentage of the assemblage (Uerpmann & Uerpmann 2008). At Hili 8, the small sample studied from the Umm an-Nar period indicated that in terms of bone weight, an indicator of the amount of meat per taxon, cattle contributed around 60% of the bone weight of domestic taxa, while sheep and goats constituted the rest, with goat slightly outnumbering sheep (Uerpmann & Uerpmann 2008: 468-469). At Maysar, domestic animals are also predominant with cattle bones constituting between 50% and 60% of the bone weight of domestic ruminants (Uerpmann & Uerpmann 2008: 470-472). Preliminary results from the zooarchaeological study of selected contexts from Salūt-ST1 indicate a similar pattern, with the assemblage dominated by domestic ruminants (Strolin, 2018). Looking at the relative proportions of bone weights of domestic ruminants, sheep and goat together constitute 64% of the weight (Minimum Number of Individuals MNI, of 31) with a predominance of goats, and cattle remains constitute the rest (MNI of 3). All these taxa thus contributed in terms of meat including adipose fat. Taking into account their bone frequency and the presence of adults and females, zooarchaeological data are consistent with an exploitation of meat and secondary products such as milk. Considering other ruminants, the fatty meat of camel, likely wild, could also be exploited despite low bone count. The same may apply to gazelle adipose

fat: gazelle bones are so far absent from Salūt-ST1's studied assemblage, but are documented at other sites in the area (Uerpmann & Uerpmann 2008: 468-472). As such, the present analyses match with previous zooarchaeological results.

The $\delta^{13}C_{16:0}$ values from fatty acids also provide an indication of the plant isoscapes that constituted the foraging environments of the animals (e.g. Dunne et al., 2022). Previously reported carbon isotopic values from faunal enamel from EBA contexts in the Oman Peninsula suggest that ruminants were foddering on both C₃ and C₄ plants (Gregoricka, 2013), which is confirmed by the present analysis. Slightly more negative $\delta^{13}C_{16:0}$ values for ruminant dairy products indicate that the domestic ruminants exploited for dairy likely consumed more C₄ plants, confirming previous observations (Gregoricka, 2013). Evidence for dairying, although minimal, is consistent with herding practices also aiming at obtaining useful secondary products, as suggested by zooarchaeological evidence.

5.2. Extent of plant input and other aspects of vessel-use

The presence of plant products was suggested in some extracts from Salūt-ST1. This was indicated by: high abundances of C_{14:0} relative to other fatty acids, possibly indicating seed oils (Dunne et al. 2016) which were observed in four Indus BSJ fragments (SLT01: BSJ 1, SLT02: no vessel ID, SLT74: BSJ 2 and SLT79: BSJ 5); the presence of α,ω-dicarboxylic acids ranging from C_5 - C_{12} , derived from unsaturated acids that may have originated from plant products (Regert et al., 1998) in two fragments (SLT35: Red Sandy Ware vessel, and SLT09: Indus BSJ 2); and finally high abundances of long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs) relative to other fatty acids in two FR-OM vessels (SLT53 and SLT54, Figure 5). LCFAs originate in leaf or stem epicuticular waxes, and likely denote the processing of leafy plants in these vessels (Kolattukudy, 1976; Tulloch, 1976; Dunne et al., 2022). The evidence suggests that both animal and plant products played a role in daily domestic practices at Salūt-ST1. However, the importance of plants may be underestimated as the presence of both meat and plants in the same vessel would 'swamp' the plant signal, as animal products contain several orders of magnitude higher lipid content than those of plant products (Charters et al., 1997; Evershed, 2008; Hammann & Cramp, 2018; Dunne et al., 2022). It is worth noting, however, that the presence of plant oils was also detected in a small minority of vessels from Hili 8 and Hili North Tomb A, including two Fine Red Omani necked pots from Hili North Tomb A, and one Fine Red Omani necked pot and two Indus Black-Slipped Jars from Hili 8 (Suryanarayan et al., 2022).

As mentioned in Section 4.4., the interpretation of the δ^{13} C values of fatty acids that fall outside the established ranges of ruminant adipose fats and ruminant dairy fats is more challenging. In the current dataset, a number of extracts have fatty acid δ^{13} C values that fall above ranges of ruminant adipose fats: some within ranges reported for non-ruminants (Outram et al., 2009; Lucquin et al., 2016), mixtures of non-ruminant and ruminant carcass fats (Mukherjee et al., 2008) or those of C₃ oilseed plants (Steele et al., 2010). Non-ruminant animals are rarely reported in faunal assemblages from the Oman Peninsula (Uerpmann & Uerpmann, 2008), and so their contribution to food in vessels is unlikely. Similarly, nonruminant animal remains are scarcely attested at Salūt-ST1. Only three equid bones were recorded and there is no direct evidence related to meat consumption (Strolin, 2018). However, the inclusion of equids or other local or traded in non-ruminants in the diet cannot be completely ruled out.

For interpreting the presence of non-ruminant fatty acid signals, multiple elements must be considered. Firstly, the lipid content of pottery represents mixtures derived from multiple use events; and in addition, as mentioned above, the representation of commodities is biased towards fat-rich foodstuffs. At the same time, fatty acids which are derived from plants are likely to contribute carbon more depleted in ¹³C, altering the δ^{13} C values of the C_{16:0} and C_{18:0} fatty acids (Hendy et al., 2018; Suryanarayan et al., 2021, Whelton et al., 2021), and plant oils have a wide range of fatty acid δ^{13} C values (Steele et al., 2010). The mixing of plant oils and animal products, or other wild resources, can create equifinal isotopic values, making it challenging to determine the source(s) of the lipids in archaeological vessels (e.g. Whelton et al., 2021). The absence of reference fats from the region creates further complexity in interpretation.

No evidence for ketones or other heat markers were detected in any of the extracts, making inferences about cooking practices limited. Similarly, no patterns emerged when investigating the relationship between vessel form and contents, however, regionally-produced Fine Red Omani vessels from Salūt-ST1 had relatively higher lipid yields compared to other fabric types (Figure 3). Moreover, in addition to lipid profiles indicative of degraded animal fats (comparable to other vessels), the results from two Fine Red Omani fragments (SLT53: body and SLT54: base; undetermined vessel form) suggest the use of leafy plants in the vessels. In contrast, locally-produced Sandy Wares had narrower ranges of lipid yields, despite being microporous (Méry, 2000: 102), which is a factor known to facilitate lipid absorption (Drieu et al., 2019). Lipid profiles from Sandy Wares were typical of degraded animal fats, with fatty acid isotopic values falling within ranges of ruminant fats, with one exception (SLT13) (Figure 3 and Figure 6). This pattern could suggest that vessels from these two fabric types, one, a finer variety produced and distributed regionally around the Oman Peninsula (FR-OM), and the other, a more domestic ware (ST1-Sandy Ware), produced in the area of Salūt-ST1, had different uses. A similar observation based on lipid concentrations and the presence of plant oils in some Fine Red Omani vessels was found at Hili 8 (Suryanarayan et al., 2022). Further analyses with a larger dataset of vessels from other sites may enable this pattern to be more clearly discernible.

5.3. The uses of Indus-Black Slipped Jars

An abundance of Indus material culture as well as Indus-style pottery was discovered at Salūt-ST1. This study focused on the analysis of Indus BSJs from two stratigraphical contexts. Although the fragments were not analysed chemically, visual examination suggested that they were produced in the lower Indus Valley like other BSJs (Méry & Blackman, 1999, 2004), and transported via boats to the Oman Peninsula, possibly carrying foodstuffs or other commodities (Méry & Blackman, 2004). However, given Salūt-ST1's location within central Oman, it is likely that the vessels were emptied and refilled and reused for other commodities upon their arrival in the Oman Peninsula.

Among the BSJ fragments studied from Salūt-ST1, some could be assigned to the same vessel either if they were attached to each other, or if they had a similar state of vessel

preservation; as well as the colour of the interior and exterior slip (Section 3.1). Five individual BSJs were identified in the studied assemblage. Table 4 provides an overview of all the Indus BSJ fragments analysed from Salūt-ST1, with lipid concentrations, lipid composition and fatty acid isotopic results (when available), to determine the possible contents and uses of this unique vessel form at the site.

Lipid yields of all the analysed BSJ fragments were relatively low (ranging from 5.7-65.4 µg g^{-1}). It has been suggested that the dense paste and presence of a black slip on both the inner and outer surfaces of the vessels limits permeability of contents into the fabric of the vessels; and was probably deliberately applied to protect the content of vessels from the outside (Méry & Blackman, 2004: 232). Most of the individual BSJ fragments that corresponded to the same vessel had comparable lipid profiles indicative of degraded animal fats. BSJ 2, from which seven fragments were analysed, had higher lipid yields from body fragments than the rim and base. This may be indicative of upper or mid-body filling of the vessel, as lipids are less dense than water and so concentrate at the surface (Charters et al., 1997; Drieu et al., 2022). Lipid compositions for five of the seven fragments from BSJ 2 were suggestive of degraded animal fats, but one fragment (SLT 74: the rim) had a high abundance of C_{14:0} relative to other fatty acids, a profile indicative of seed oils, and another fragment (SLT09: body) had the minor presence of short-chain diacids, also suggestive of plant products. A comparison of the available fatty acid δ^{13} C values from three fragments of BSJ 2 reveals they fall within a similar reference range, i.e., within that of non-ruminant fats, plant oils, nonruminant and ruminant adipose mixtures, or mixtures of animal fats and plant products (Figure 7). As discussed in Section 5.1., the use and re-use of vessels for different products could create mixed lipid signatures, and the equifinality of isotopic values of these resources complicates interpretation. The combined lipid and isotopic evidence for fragments of BSJ 2 demonstrate the challenge in ascertaining a specific use of a vessel through lipid residue analysis if it had a complex use-history.

Three body fragments of BSJ 3 had relatively higher lipid concentrations than most fragments from BSJ 2, with lipid profiles typical of degraded animal fats, and fatty acid δ^{13} C values of one fragment (SLT63) indicating the presence of dairy products in the vessel. One fragment from BSJ 4 (SLT73) had a lipid profile typical of degraded animal fats and low abundances of odd-chain *n*-alkanes, which are found in higher plants and indicative of the processing of leafy products. The fatty acid δ^{13} C values of this extract indicated that the source of the animal fat was ruminant carcass fats. Finally, the funnel (SLT78) and base (SLT79) fragments of BSJ 5 had relatively higher lipid concentrations than most other analysed BSJ fragments; however with lipid profiles different to one another, with the latter suggestive of the input of plant oil due to a high relative abundance of C_{14:0} (Table 5). The fatty acid δ^{13} C values of this extract also indicated that ruminant carcass fats were contained in this vessel.

Together, the results suggest the multi-functionality of BSJs at Salūt-ST1, perhaps indicative of the use of BSJs for the transport and storage of different products once they arrived in the Oman Peninsula. The results mirror those from BSJs at Hili 8, which have both evidence of plant oils and degraded animal fats (Suryanarayan et al., 2022). Scholars have provided long tentative lists of Indus products that may have been exported to the Oman Peninsula, such as clarified butter, pickled vegetables, fruit, honey, wine, indigo, or even grain (Gouin, 1990;

Kenoyer, 1998: 97). Unfortunately, at present, evidence of specific imported products from afar in Indus BSJs at Salūt-ST1 cannot be determined, but the re-use of BSJs as storage vessels in domestic contexts can be suggested.

Table 4: Details of fragments of Indus BSJs analysed from Salūt-ST1, grouped by unique vessels identified. Lipid concentrations, lipid composition and when available, fatty acid δ^{13} C values and interpretations for every fragment are provided. For discussion of isotopic interpretation see Section 5.1.

Sample	Fragment	Individual	Lipid	Mean	Molecular	δ ¹³ C _{16:0}	δ ¹³ C _{18:0}	$\Lambda^{13}C$	Molecular	Isotopic
ID	type	BSJ#	concentration	lipid	composition	(‰)	(‰)	(‰)	interpretat	interpretation
			(µg g ⁻¹)	yield of					ion	
				individua						
				l vessel						
				(µg g ⁻¹)						
SLT01	Rim	BSJ 1	85.2		FAs (C _{14:0} ,	-27.1	-26.1	1.0	Degraded	Plant/Non-
					$C_{16:0}, C_{18:0};$				animal fats	Ruminant/Mixt
					C _{14:0}				+ plant oil?	ure
					abundant)					
SLT03	Between	BSJ 2	6.6	21	FAs(C _{14:0} -				Degraded	
	body &				C _{20:0}), UFAs				animal fats	
	funnel				$(C_{18:1}),$					
					Diacids (C_8 ,					
					C ₉), Sulphur					
SLT04	Body-top	BSJ 2	18.3		FAs(C _{12:0} -				Degraded	
					C _{20:0}), UFAs				animal fats	
					$(C_{18:1}),$					
					Diacids (C ₈ ,					
					C ₉), Sulphur					
SLT05	Body	BSJ 2	20		FAs(C _{12:0} -				Degraded	
					C _{24:0}), BrFAs				animal fats	
					(C17), UFAs (
					$C_{18:1}, C_{22:1}$),					
					Diacids (C_8 ,					
					C ₉), Sulphur					
SLT08	Body	BSJ 2	35.9		$FAs(C_{16:0},$				Degraded	
					C _{18:0}), UFAs				animal fats	
					$(C_{18:1}, C_{22:1})$					
SI T00	Body	BSI 2	18 /		FAs (Corr	287	20.2	0.4	Degraded	Plant/Non
SL109	БОЦУ	ענטע 2	10.4		Γ_{AS} (C14:0 -	-20.7	-27.2	-0.4	animal fata	Ruminant/Mive
					(C_{15}, C_{17})				+ nlant	
					$(\bigcirc_{15}, \bigcirc_{17}),$ IIFAs (C ₁₇)				product?	u10
					$C_{19,1}$ $C_{22,1}$				product:	
					Diacids (C_{ϵ}					
					C_{1} C_{2} C_{2}					
					C_0, C_{10}					
					<i>C</i> ⁹ , <i>C</i> ¹⁰ <i>)</i>					

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SLT62	Body	BSJ 2	25.9		FAs (C _{14:0} - C _{18:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{18:1})	-28.1	-27.8	0.3	Degraded animal fats	Plant/Non- Ruminant
SLT74	Rim	BSJ 2	21.9		FAs (C _{12:0} - C _{20:0} ; C14:0 abundant)), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{18:1} , C _{22:1}), Diacid(C ₉)	-29.03	-29.05	0.0	Degraded animal fats + plant oil?	Plant/Non- Ruminant/Mixt ure
SLT38	Body	BSJ 3	30.9	42	FAs $(C_{12:0} - C_{20:0})$, UFAs $(C_{16:1}, C_{18:1})$, Diacids (C_9)				Degraded animal fats	
SLT60	Body	BSJ 3	35.5		FAs (C _{12:0} - C _{24:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{16:1} , C _{18:1}), Diacids (C ₉)				Degraded animal fats	
SLT63	Body	BSJ 3	59.5		FAs (C _{12:0} - C _{22:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{18:1}), Diacids (C ₉)	-22.9	-26.4	-3.5	Degraded animal fats	Dairy
SLT73	Body	BSJ 4	20.1		FAs (C _{12:0} - C _{22:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{18:1}), Diacids (C ₉), <i>n</i> -alkanes (C ₂₅ , C ₂₇ , C ₂₉)	-26.5	-27.7	-1.2	Degraded animal fats + plant wax?	Ruminant adipose
SLT78	Funnel	BSJ 5	65.4	57.7	FAs (C _{14:0} , C _{16:0} , C _{18:0})				Degraded animal fats	
SLT79	Base	BSJ 5	50		FAs (C _{14:0} , C _{16:0} , C _{18:0} ; C14:0 abundant); BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇)	-26.56	-27.5	-0.9	Degraded animal fats + plant oil?	Ruminant adipose
SLT02	Between body & funnel	No vessel ID	22.9		FAs (C _{14:0} , C _{16:0} , C _{18:0} ;	-28.8	-29.3	-0.5	Degraded animal fats + plant oil?	Plant/Non- Ruminant/Mixt ure

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				C _{14:0} abundant)	
SLT10	Body	No vessel ID	5.7	FAs (C _{16:0} , C _{18:0})	Uninterpret able
SLT59	Between body & funnel	No vessel ID	50.8	FAs (C _{14:0} - C _{24:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{16:1} , C _{18:1}), Diacids (C ₉)	Degraded animal fats
SLT70	Body	No vessel ID	57.1	FAs (C _{12:0} - C _{22:0}), BrFAs (C ₁₅ , C ₁₇), UFAs (C _{18:1}), Diacids (C ₉)	Degraded animal fats



Figure 7: Scatter plots showing the $\delta^{13}C$ values of (a) $C_{18:0}$ and $C_{16:0}$ fatty acids and (b) $\Delta^{13}C$ ($C_{18:0}-C_{16:0}$) and $C_{16:0}$ fatty acid values, measured from lipid extracts of individual Indus BSJ fragments and corresponding vessel IDs from Salūt-ST1. In (a), the dashed line at -3.3% indicates the limit of $\Delta^{13}C$ values for reference dairy fats and the grey line indicates 0‰. In (b), ranges depicted represent the mean ± 1 s.d. of $\Delta^{13}C$ values of modern reference terrestrial fats from Africa and Asia and C₃ plant oil references published elsewhere (Craig et al., 2005; Dunne et al., 2012; Lucquin et al., 2016; Outram et al., 2009; Steele et al., 2010). Modern references from the study region are not yet available. Instrumental error is less than $\pm 0.5\%$. BSJ, Black-Slipped Jar; MR-IN, Micaceous Red Indus.

6. Conclusion

Approaches to studying domestic lifeways and settlements within Arabian archaeology have been limited; with previous research focusing on the monumental or mortuary aspects of the Umm an-Nar period. This paper provides new insights into the types of resources that were used in daily domestic practice during the Umm an-Nar period at Salūt-ST1 through the analysis of lipid residues in local and imported vessels. The presence of animal products in most of the pottery fragments, such as ruminant carcass fats and dairy products, highlights the role of pastoralism in Umm an-Nar society, an aspect often rendered invisible due to the poor preservation of, and limited studies on, animal bones from archaeological sites. At Salūt-ST1, the lipid residue results are in good agreement with zooarchaeological studies on faunal remains, and the first direct detection of dairy products in different vessels confirms the existence of a dairy economy during the Umm an-Nar period. The presence of plant products is also detected in some vessels.

The analysis of Indus Black-Slipped Jars from Salūt-ST1 reveals that the vessels had complex use-life histories; with vessels used for the storage of different types of animal products, as well as possibly plant products. Fine Red Omani wares, which were made of finer pastes and probably produced at a regional scale, have relatively higher lipid concentrations, and may have had different uses compared to Sandy Ware pottery, although this is currently speculative. Even though the present results were unable to provide clear evidence for the presence of specific products in imported or regionally-produced vessels, they highlight the multi-functionality of vessels in the past and the pitfalls associated with determining a single use or function of a specific vessel-type from archaeological contexts. Finally, the present results are comparable to preliminary results published from EBA contexts from Hili 8, and thus encourage further research to investigate possible common practices in inland sites in south-east Arabia.

CRediT statement:

Akshyeta Suryanarayan: conceptualisation; formal analysis (lead) – sample preparation, GC-FID, GC-MS and statistics; funding acquisition – GC-C-IRMS analysis; writing – original draft (lead), visualization and validation (Excel, R). **Michele Degli Esposti**: conceptualisation (supporting); resources and investigation – archaeological fieldwork, ceramic and regional expertise; writing – validation, review and editing. **Sophie Méry**: investigation – ceramic analysis and expertise; writing – validation, review and editing. **Laura Strolin**: formal analysis – zooarchaeological analysis and expertise; writing – validation, review and editing. **C**-C-IRMS acquisitions; writing - review and editing. **Arnaud Mazuy**: resources and technical expertise – GC-FID and GC-MS; **Joan Villanueva**: resources and technical expertise – GC-FID and GCMS, funding acquisition; supervision; writing - validation, review and editing.

Conflict of Interest statement:

All the authors declare that they have no established conflicting financial interests or personal relationships that may have influenced the research presented in the paper.

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