

1 **Oral pathological conditions of an Early Epipaleolithic human from Southwest Asia: Ohalo II H2**  
2 **as a probable case of intentional dental ablation**

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15 **Running head:** Ohalo 2 Early Epipaleolithic dental ablation

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17 **Keywords:** social identity, antemortem tooth loss, Upper Paleolithic, dental ablation

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19 **Abstract**

20 **Objective:** To describe the oral pathological conditions of Ohalo II H2, an Early Epipaleolithic human  
21 from southwest Asia.

22 **Materials:** The dentognathic skeleton of Ohalo II H2 and relevant comparative data from similar  
23 chronological and/or geographic contexts.

24 **Methods:** Gross and x-ray observations of oral pathological conditions and occlusal wear were made  
25 following published protocols. A differential diagnosis of antemortem tooth loss is provided.

26 **Results:** Ohalo 2 has two carious lesions on the right M<sup>3</sup>, pulpal exposure of left M<sub>1</sub>, mild to moderate  
27 anterior alveolar bone loss. The right I<sup>1</sup> was lost antemortem and there is probably agenesis of the left M<sup>3</sup>.

28 **Conclusions:** The pathological conditions noted are not exceptional for a Late Upper Paleolithic forager.  
29 However, the antemortem missing right I<sup>1</sup> is most parsimoniously explained by intentional dental  
30 ablation.

31 **Significance:** Ohalo 2 could represent the oldest example of dental ablation from the Late Pleistocene  
32 circum-Mediterranean world – predating the earliest examples from both North Africa and southwest  
33 Asia by several thousand years. The similarity of the Ohalo 2 ablation pattern with later Natufians  
34 provides further evidence of potential long-term behavioral trends related to the embodiment of social  
35 identities through intentional body modification within the Epipaleolithic of southwest Asia.

36 **Limitations:** The pre-Natufian (~23,000-14,500 cal BP) human fossil record is relatively sparse, making  
37 comparisons with the Natufian (~14,500-11,500 cal BP) phases of the Epipaleolithic difficult.

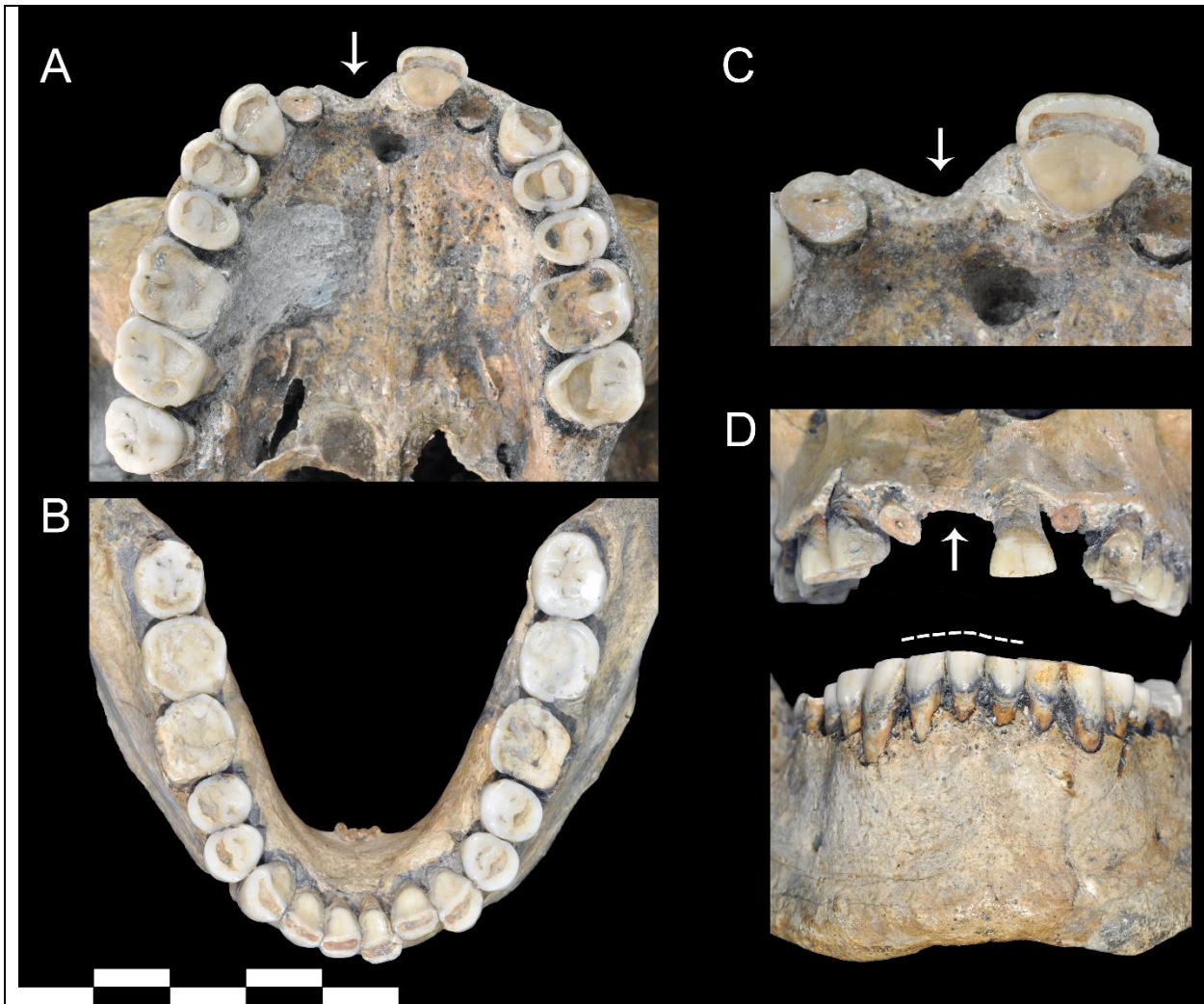
38 **Suggestions for Further Research:** Documentation of oral pathological conditions for other pre-  
39 Natufian fossils would provide greater resolution of the temporospatial patterning of oral health and  
40 embodied social identities during the Epipaleolithic of southwest Asia.

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## 43 1 Introduction

44 The human fossil record from the Upper Paleolithic and earlier Epipaleolithic (Early and Middle  
45 phases, ~23,000-14,500 cal BP) of southwest Asia is sparse (Arensburg, 1977; Arensburg and Bar-Yosef,  
46 1973; Arensburg et al., 1990; Bocquentin et al., 2011; De Groote et al., 2014; Hershkovitz et al., 1995;  
47 Maher et al., 2012; McCown and Keith, 1939; Richter et al., 2010; Rolston, 1982; Stock et al., 2005;  
48 Trinkaus, 2018b, c; Vandermeersch et al., 2013) compared to the Late Epipaleolithic (~14,500-11,500 cal  
49 BP) phases of the Natufian that immediately precede the onset of food production in the region (Bar-  
50 Yosef et al., 1971; Bar-Yosef and Goren, 1973; Bocquentin, 2007; Crognier and Dupouy-Madre, 1974;  
51 De Groote et al., 2014; Ferembach, 1961; Garrod, 1932; Garrod and Bate, 1937, 1942; Grosman et al.,  
52 2016; Nadel et al., 2013; Vallois, 1936; Webb and Edwards, 2002). Given this dichotomy in human fossil  
53 abundance, it is not surprising that the less abundant pre-Natufian fossils of southwest Asia are generally  
54 analyzed within the context of Eurasian Late Pleistocene/Upper Paleolithic human variation and  
55 paleobiology (Schmidt et al., 2019; Shackelford, 2007; Sparacello et al., 2017; Trinkaus, 2018b, c;  
56 Trinkaus and Ruff, 2012), or are not directly compared to, or treated separately from, their Natufian  
57 counterparts (e.g., Schmidt et al., 2019; Shackelford, 2007). Likewise, Natufian paleobiology is discussed  
58 within the context of the transition to food production in the Neolithic (Cheronet et al., 2016; Eshed et al.,  
59 2006; Eshed et al., 2010; Mahoney, 2006; May and Ruff, 2016; May et al., 2018; Pinhasi et al., 2008;  
60 Pinhasi et al., 2015) rather than understood within the context of the regional Epipaleolithic as a whole. A  
61 growing body of research documents not only long-term behavioral trends between the pre-Natufian and  
62 Natufian phases of the Epipaleolithic, but also greater behavioral variability than previously appreciated  
63 (reviewed in Maher et al., 2012). This archaeologically documented trend has a paleobiological parallel in  
64 that there is both considerable morphological and paleobiological heterogeneity among Epipaleolithic  
65 humans of southwest Asia, but also some morphological continuity between earlier Epipaleolithic humans  
66 and later Natufians in other ways (Arensburg, 1981; Arensburg and Bar-Yosef, 1973; Bocquentin, 2011;  
67 Hershkovitz and Arensburg, 2017; Hershkovitz et al., 1995; Lahr and Arensburg, 1995; Mahoney, 2007;  
68 Richter et al., 2010; Stock et al., 2005). Thus, the current state of archaeological and paleobiological  
69 research on Epipaleolithic human behavioral variability in southwest Asia emphasizes a need to evaluate  
70 biological affinity, paleobiology, and biocultural trends within and between the Early, Middle, and Late  
71 phases of the Epipaleolithic.

72 With the above context in mind, we provide a differential diagnosis for antemortem loss of the  
73 right maxillary central incisor (I<sup>1</sup>) exhibited by the Early Epipaleolithic human, Ohalo II H2 (henceforth,  
74 Ohalo II will be used to refer to the archaeological site and Ohalo 2 will be used to refer to the individual;  
75 **Figure 1**), as well as other indicators of oral pathological conditions more generally. Previous analyses  
76 are limited to the following statement by Hershkovitz and colleagues (1995, 225): “The right maxillary I1  
77 was lost premortem and the socket resorbed. Loss of the tooth occurred late in life as the lower central  
78 incisors both manifest considerable attrition.” However, the aetiology of AMTL is multifactorial –  
79 frequently co-occurring with high rates of occlusal wear, trauma, intentional dental modification, and/or  
80 oral pathological conditions (De Groote and Humphrey, 2016; Lacy, 2014, 2015; Lukacs, 2007; Russell  
81 et al., 2013). Furthermore, intentional dental ablation – the culturally mediated, intentional removal of  
82 healthy teeth during the life of an individual – is a salient Late Epipaleolithic/Natufian practice  
83 (Bocquentin et al., 2011). While ablation has not been identified in Pre-Natufian contexts, it has not been  
84 ruled out for Ohalo 2 (Willman et al., in press). Therefore, the Ohalo 2 AMTL should be re-evaluated and  
85 contextualized within the context of Epipaleolithic southwest Asian human biocultural variability to  
86 evaluate the temporal uniqueness, or potential long-term biocultural continuity, represented by this  
87 paleobiological marker of prehistoric behavior and oral pathological conditions.  
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**Figure 1.** A) Occlusal view of Ohalo 2 maxilla. Arrow pointing at right I1 AMTL. Both I2s are broken at the cervix postmortem. B) Occlusal view of mandible. C) Close-up [2x Figure 1A] of AMTL showing well-resorbed alveolus. D) Anterior view of maxilla and mandible. Arrow pointing to right I1 AMTL and dotted line traces uneven occlusal wear of non-occluding mandibular incisors. Scale increments are 10 mm.

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### 91 **1.1 Brief archaeological and paleobiological context for Ohalo 2**

92 The shallow pit burial of Ohalo 2, a ~35-40 year old male, was one of many archaeological  
93 features – including multiple hut structures and outdoor hearths – recovered from the water-logged,  
94 hunter-fisher-gatherer site of Ohalo II located on the shore of the Sea of Galilee (Hershkovitz et al., 1993;  
95 Hershkovitz et al., 1995; Nadel, 1994; Nadel and Hershkovitz, 1991). Multiple radiocarbon dates (Nadel  
96 et al., 1995) around ~22,500 cal. BP correspond to the Early Epipaleolithic at the boundary of Marine  
97 Isotope Stage (MIS) 3 and MIS 2.

98 A wide range of mammal, fish, and bird remains (Rabinovich and Nadel, 2005; Simmons and  
99 Nadel, 1998; Zohar et al., 2018) in addition to an extensive and diverse record of plant remains and  
100 processing implements were recovered and emphasize subsistence strategies based on a wide array of  
101 plant and animal resources (Nadel et al., 2012; Piperno et al., 2004; Snir et al., 2015; Weiss et al., 2004).

102 The dental microwear signature from Ohalo 2 indicates a tough and abrasive diet that is more similar to  
103 that of later Pre-Pottery Neolithic A and Chalcolithic food producers than to Natufian foragers and  
104 individuals from the Pre-Pottery Neolithic B (Mahoney, 2007).

105 The upper and lower limb robusticity, hypertrophy, and asymmetry of Ohalo 2 are typical of an  
106 Upper Paleolithic forager in general, and a Pre-Natufian forager from southwest Asia specifically  
107 (Trinkaus, 2018b, c). However, some evidence for greater robusticity among earlier Epipaleolithic  
108 foragers (including Ohalo 2) in comparison to later Natufian foragers has been proposed (Hershkovitz et  
109 al., 1995; Stock et al., 2005).

110 Ohalo 2 exhibits a major injury to the lower thorax that caused a large ossification on portions of  
111 the sternum, ribs, and corresponding costal cartilages (Hershkovitz et al., 1993; Trinkaus, 2018c). The  
112 injury would have prevented adequate oxygen intake during prolonged periods of elevated activity  
113 (Trinkaus, 2018c) and indicates that Ohalo 2 would have received some level of social support from the  
114 time the injury was sustained until death (Hershkovitz et al., 1993; Trinkaus, 2018c).

115 Previously noted oral pathological conditions includes the antemortem loss of the right I<sup>1</sup> but no  
116 cause was discussed (Hershkovitz et al., 1995; Trinkaus, 2018c) (**Figure 1**). The left maxillary third  
117 molar (M<sup>3</sup>) is also missing antemortem but was attributed to agenesis in one instance (Hershkovitz et al.,  
118 1995) and AMTL in another (Trinkaus, 2018c). Occlusal macrowear was considered “heavy” and similar  
119 to Natufian and early Neolithic groups (Hershkovitz et al., 1995). No other oral pathological conditions  
120 were noted. Since AMTL can be caused by intentional dental modification (e.g., ablation), trauma, caries,  
121 periodontal disease, extreme dental wear, or a combination of factors (Lukacs, 2007), any number of  
122 these factors could have contributed to the Ohalo 2 AMTL. Furthermore, intra- and interindividual  
123 patterning of AMTL has the potential to reveal unique insights into biocultural processes contributing to  
124 the oral health status of individuals and groups (Lukacs, 2007; Russell et al., 2013). Therefore, a  
125 differential diagnosis of Ohalo 2’s AMTL with consideration of overall oral paleopathology and dental  
126 wear is warranted.

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## 128 **2 Methods**

129 An assessment of Ohalo 2 oral health is provided to contextualize and provide a differential  
130 diagnosis for the previously documented AMTL. Measurements were made with digital calipers,  
131 observations were recorded with digital photography, and digital radiographs were produced with a  
132 portable x-ray generator (Lacy, 2014). Dental caries was recorded with an eight-stage scoring system  
133 (Hillson, 2001). Average cemento-enamel junction to alveolar crest (CEJ-AC) distances (Clarke and  
134 Hirsch, 1991; Hildebolt and Molnar, 1991; Lavigne and Molto, 1995) and assessments of alveolar septa  
135 shape and porosity (Corruccini et al., 1987; Costa, 1982; Kerr, 1988, 1991; Ogden, 2008; Whiting et al.,  
136 2019) were scored. Gross observations of alveolar lesions were made and also observed using radiographs  
137 (Dias and Tayles, 1997; Dias et al., 2007; Willis and Oxenham, 2013). Dental wear scores were recorded  
138 (Smith, 1984) along with alveolar lesions and periodontal disease since non-carious pulpal, root, and  
139 furcation exposure can contribute to alveolar lesions and eventual AMTL (Hillson, 2008).

140 Differential diagnosis of AMTL is essential given the multifactorial nature of tooth loss (De  
141 Groote and Humphrey, 2016; Lacy, 2014, 2015; Lukacs, 2007; Pietruszewsky and Douglas, 1993; Robb,  
142 1997; Russell et al., 2013; Stojanowski et al., 2014; Willman et al., 2016). The alveolar status of Ohalo 2  
143 was observed directly, and independently, by both authors. Given the prevalence of culturally mediated  
144 ablation practices in Late Epipaleolithic/Natufian contexts (Bocquentin, 2011), an observational protocol  
145 for documenting ablation status from Stojanowski and colleagues (2014; Willman et al., 2016) was  
146 integrated into the differential diagnosis of AMTL.

147 A comparative approach to occlusal wear will address the timing of the AMTL during life and  
148 whether occlusal wear contributed to AMTL. The first approach uses a modified version of the Scott  
149 (1979) occlusal wear scoring system (Littleton et al., 2013) to assess wear in teeth adjacent (i.e., the *in*  
150 *situ* left I<sup>1</sup>) to the antemortem missing right I<sup>1</sup> and first molars in the same jaw, since the severity of wear  
151 on teeth adjacent to AMTL can be used to discriminate between AMTL due to extreme wear and  
152 intentional ablation (Durband et al., 2014). A wear index (tooth adjacent to AMTL / M<sup>1</sup> x 100) is used to

153 compare the value for Ohalo 2 to published values from Roonka (Holocene foragers from South Australia  
154 with high prevalence of ablation: Durband et al., 2014).

155 The second approach uses occlusal wear (percent dentin exposure) gradients standardized to first  
156 molar wear to address anterior tooth wear severity in both jaws using comparative data from Late  
157 Epipaleolithic contexts (Natufians and Wadi Halfa: Clement, 2008) as well as Iberomaurusian and  
158 Capsian individuals from Northwest Africa that exhibit a high prevalence of dental ablation (De Groote  
159 and Humphrey, 2016). This approach was chosen because box-plots of dentin exposure relative to first  
160 molar wear have been published by tooth type for each of the above groups (Clement, 2008; De Groote  
161 and Humphrey, 2016) and allow easy comparison with values calculated for Ohalo 2 in this study. The  
162 previously studied groups are also highly relevant to understanding if the anterior dental wear in Ohalo 2  
163 is extensive enough to suggest that the right I<sup>1</sup> was lost late in life (see Hershkovitz et al., 1995) or earlier  
164 in life (as is more common in cases of intentional ablation). The Iberomaurusian and Capsian groups both  
165 exhibit high rates of anterior tooth ablation (De Groote and Humphrey, 2016), which makes them an  
166 example for the expected range of variation in wear gradients for a group exhibiting a high frequency of  
167 intentional ablation. Likewise, some of the Natufian individuals also exhibit ablation, but none of the  
168 Wadi Halfa sample does (Clement, 2008). This “Epipaleolithic” macrogroup therefore contains mostly  
169 individuals with no anterior AMTL, so the variation in anterior relative to posterior tooth wear gradients  
170 will approximate an Epipaleolithic hunter-gather control group with low rates of anterior AMTL (whether  
171 due to intentional ablation or pathological/wear-induced antemortem loss). We expect Ohalo 2 to be more  
172 similar to the Natufian/Wadi Halfa Epipaleolithic group than to the Iberomaurusian or Capsian group if  
173 AMTL occurred late in life. We provide wear gradients for each well-preserved anterior tooth in the  
174 maxilla (left I<sup>1</sup> and right C<sup>1</sup> versus right M<sup>1</sup>) and mandible (right I<sub>1</sub>, average of left and right I<sub>2</sub>, and  
175 average of left and right C<sub>1</sub> versus left M<sub>1</sub>) of Ohalo 2.

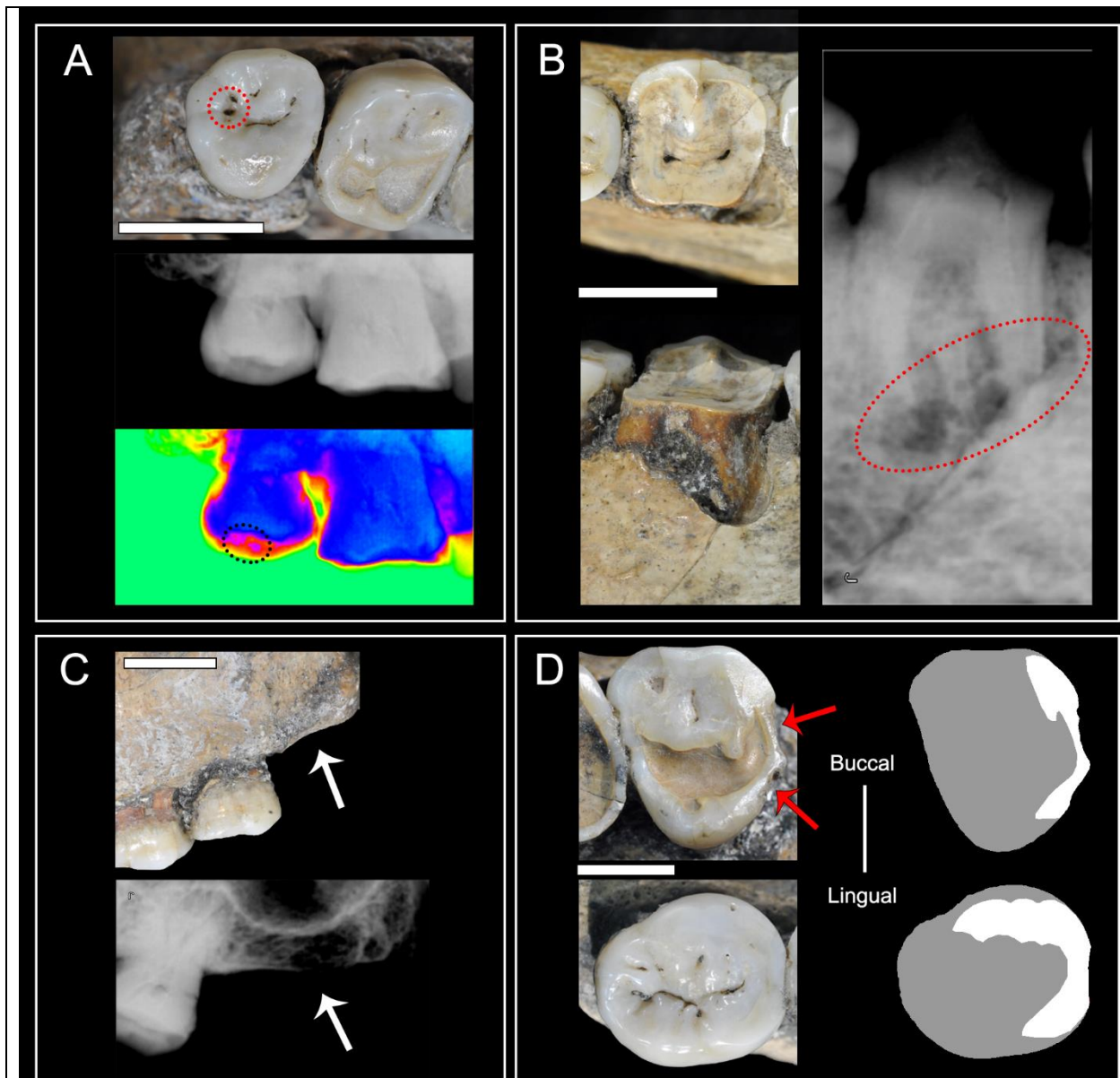
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### 177 3 Results

178 Ohalo 2 has two small carious lesions on the right M<sup>3</sup> (Lacy, 2014) (**Figure 2A**). It is possible  
179 that the lesions were initiated in natural pits on the occlusal surface of the tooth, but they show acid  
180 etching and can be seen in radiographs suggesting they are more than natural defects in the enamel  
181 (**Figure 2A**). The left M<sub>1</sub> also shows pulpal exposure due to extensive wear on the buccal portion of the  
182 occlusal surface (**Figure 2B**). This pulpal exposure is most likely the cause of alveolar lesions around  
183 each root apex on the same tooth (**Figure 2B**). An open pulp chamber would be the easiest route for  
184 bacteria to access the apical region of the alveolar bone (**Figure 2B**).

185 Hershkovitz and colleagues (1995) noted agenesis of the left M<sup>3</sup>, but Trinkaus (2018b) considered  
186 the left M<sup>3</sup> to be lost antemortem since he contends that the left M<sup>2</sup> displays a large interproximal facet  
187 and the alveolar bone appears resorbed (**Figure 2C**). However, we identify no interproximal facet on the  
188 distal surface of the left M<sup>2</sup>; instead, there are two large antemortem enamel chips (grade 3: Bonfiglioli et  
189 al., 2004) on the distal surface that superficially resemble a distal interproximal facet in occlusal view  
190 (**Figure 2D; Supplemental Figure 1**). There is also highly asymmetric occlusal wear between the M<sub>3</sub>s  
191 (the right M<sub>3</sub> exhibits much greater occlusal wear than the left M<sub>3</sub>), and the occlusal wear on the left M<sub>3</sub> is  
192 greater on the mesial half of the crown which would have been in contact with the opposing M<sup>2</sup> during  
193 mastication (**Figure 2D**). Given the absence of all but modest polishing of the distal portion of the  
194 occlusal surface of the left M<sub>3</sub>, it is highly unlikely that the left M<sup>3</sup> was ever in occlusion, rather than  
195 subject to pathological loss from caries or some form of trauma after eruption. The absence of an  
196 impacted left M<sup>3</sup> with no clear evidence of alveolar remodeling in the radiograph (**Figure 2C**), makes the  
197 original attribution of agenesis (Hershkovitz et al., 1995) the most likely explanation of the absence of the  
198 left M<sup>3</sup>.

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**Figure 2.** A) Top: small occlusal caries in right M<sup>3</sup>; Middle: buccal radiograph of right M<sup>3</sup> and M<sup>2</sup> (not to scale); Bottom: Colorized radiograph emphasizing the occlusal caries (black ellipse) on the right M<sup>3</sup> (not to scale). B) Top Left: Occlusal view of pulpal exposure in left M<sub>1</sub>; Lower Left: Buccal view of alveolar lesion; Right; buccal radiograph of left M<sub>1</sub>. Note radiotranslucencies around both roots (red ellipse) indicating apical lesions (not to scale). C) Top: Buccal view of left M<sup>1</sup>, M<sup>2</sup>, and alveolar bone of missing M<sup>3</sup> (Arrow). Bottom: X-Ray of antemortem left M<sup>2</sup> and missing M<sup>3</sup> viewed from occlusal-lingual orientation. Note how thin the bone is without evidence of remodeling. Not to Scale. D) Top Left: Occlusal view of left M<sup>2</sup> with large antemortem enamel chips (red arrows); Bottom Left: Occlusal view of left M<sub>3</sub> showing near modest polish of distal half of occlusal surface and wear facet on the mesial half. Top and Bottom Right: Occlusal outlines of left M<sup>2</sup> and M<sub>3</sub> with corresponding occlusal (distal and mesial, respectively) wear facets indicated in white. All scale bars are 10 mm.

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The alveolar bone of Ohalo 2 is generally healthy, though there is a concentration of mild to moderate alveolar bone loss in the anterior portions of the dental arcades. The antemortem missing right I<sup>1</sup> is characterized by a well-healed, remodeled, and non-porous alveolar socket (**Figure 1**). An

204 interproximal contact facet corresponding to the left I<sup>2</sup> is visible on the left I<sup>1</sup>, but a facet corresponding to  
205 the right I<sup>1</sup> is not visible on the mesial interproximal surface (**Supplemental Figure 2**). The lack of a  
206 mesial contact facet on the left I<sup>1</sup> suggests that the right I<sup>1</sup> was not in occlusion long enough to create an  
207 interproximal wear facet before it was lost antemortem. Alternatively, if a facet was present between the  
208 right and left I<sup>1</sup>, it was smaller than the one for the one made between the left I<sup>1</sup> and I<sup>2</sup>, and obliterated  
209 through occlusal wear. Both scenarios imply that the loss of the right I<sup>1</sup> before it achieved a wear stage  
210 similar to the remaining left I<sup>1</sup> at time of death.

211 There are lingual deposits of dental calculus along the gingival line on most teeth of the  
212 mandible. There is also a labial deposit of dental calculus along the gingival line of the I<sup>1</sup>. It does not  
213 appear as though calculus deposits were large enough to pose as major gingival irritants or contribute to  
214 the AMTL of Ohalo 2 (Lukacs, 2007).

215 The Ohalo 2 occlusal wear (Littleton et al., 2013) for the left I<sup>1</sup>, the tooth adjacent to the  
216 antemortem lost right I<sup>1</sup>, is scored as a 7 relative to the average of both M<sup>1</sup>s which is 8.5. The wear index  
217 is 82.4, which is at the lower end of the range of variation of the Roonka individuals (n = 17 [edentulous  
218 individuals not included], mean 97.2, median 100, range 125.0-80.0; data from Durband et al., 2014),  
219 demonstrating greater molar relative to maxillary incisor wear for Ohalo 2. Tooth wear adjacent to the  
220 missing right central incisor of Ohalo 2 is low compared to the moderate to heavy values of Roonka, but  
221 both Ohalo 2 and the Roonka individuals exhibit no pulp exposure and strong alveolar bone in teeth  
222 adjacent to AMTL (Ohalo 2) and ablated teeth (Roonka) (Durband et al., 2014).

223 Anterior tooth wear gradients for both the maxillary (I<sup>1</sup> and C<sup>1</sup>) and mandibular (I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub>, and C<sub>1</sub>)  
224 teeth versus first molars from the same jaw are low for Ohalo 2 versus Iberomaurusian and Capsian  
225 individuals from Northwest Africa (data from De Groote and Humphrey, 2016) and Late Epipaleolithic  
226 individuals from Natufian contexts and Wadi Halfa (data from Clement, 2008) (**Supplemental Figures 3**  
227 **and 4**). Of all anterior tooth types, the value for the I<sub>1</sub> of Ohalo 2 approaches the median value for the  
228 Northwest Africa sample. This sample exhibits high rates of intentional ablation of both I<sup>1</sup>s (De Groote  
229 and Humphrey, 2016) which corresponds to lower rates of wear in opposing mandibular incisors (De  
230 Groote and Humphrey, 2016; Humphrey and Bocaeye, 2008; Willman, 2016). This latter point is also  
231 illustrated by the occlusal wear angles formed by the right I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>2</sub> that exhibit an uneven plane of wear  
232 corresponding to the void left by the missing right I<sup>1</sup> (**Figure 1D**). The differential dental wear indicates  
233 that wear continued long after AMTL occurred, but the lack of occlusal antagonists decreased the rate of  
234 wear on the lower right incisors compared to the left ones.

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## 236 **4 Discussion**

### 237 **4.1 Ohalo 2 oral health and AMTL in context**

238 Examples of dentognathic pathological conditions are becoming well-documented in Late  
239 Pleistocene contexts and are quite prevalent in many Late Upper Paleolithic/Terminal Pleistocene  
240 contexts (Capasso, 2001; Cucina et al., 2019; Da-Gloria and Larsen, 2014; De Groote et al., 2018; Frayer,  
241 1989; Humphrey et al., 2014; Lacy, 2014, 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Oxilia et al., 2017; Oxilia et al., 2015;  
242 Trinkaus et al., 2016; Villotte et al., 2018). Prior to the onset of food production, carious lesions were  
243 particularly prevalent in the circum-Mediterranean region (Lacy, 2014). Thus, the Ohalo 2 carious lesions  
244 are not wholly surprising. The extensive evidence for plant foods at the Ohalo II site (Nadel et al., 2012;  
245 Piperno et al., 2004; Snir et al., 2015; Weiss et al., 2004) indicates ready access to carbohydrate-rich,  
246 cariogenic foods. Indeed, the Early Epipaleolithic Ohalo II H1 partial mandible (Hershkovitz and  
247 Arensburg, 2017) also exhibits caries (Lacy, 2014). Furthermore, the tough and abrasive diet inferred  
248 from dental microwear (Mahoney, 2007), and the high degree of occlusal macrowear on molars, would  
249 have contributed to the postcanine pulpal exposure and alveolar lesions in Ohalo 2.

250 The relatively low level of anterior relative to postcanine dental wear is at odds with anterior  
251 AMTL caused by pulp exposure and subsequent infection (i.e., pulpitis, alveolar lesions) exhibited by  
252 foragers with high rates of anterior tooth wear (Capasso, 2001; Da-Gloria and Larsen, 2014; Oxilia et al.,  
253 2017). While there are examples of incisor caries among Middle Paleolithic Neandertals and early  
254 modern humans in Southwest Asia (Qafzeh 3 (Trinkaus and Pinilla, 2009); Kebara 27 (Tillier, 2007)), as

255 well as caries more generally (Qafzeh 7, H4, 4, 9, 11 (Lacy, 2014) and Skhul 2 (Sognnaes, 1956)), they  
256 are relatively minor lesions that do not penetrate deeply. Furthermore, the overall alveolar resorption is  
257 mild to moderate. Thus, neither attrition nor pathological conditions seem to most parsimoniously explain  
258 the Ohalo 2 AMTL.

259 The antemortem missing left M<sup>3</sup> can most likely be attributed to agenesis. While relatively rare,  
260 agenesis has been previously documented in other Upper Paleolithic contexts, and most commonly  
261 presents as third molar agenesis (Dahlberg and Carbonell, 1961; Hillson, 2006; Lacy, 2014; Trinkaus et  
262 al., 2016). Third molar agenesis is relatively rare prior to the Late Upper Paleolithic/Epipaleolithic (Lacy,  
263 2014). A recent analysis shows third molar agenesis in about one quarter of the Late Upper Paleolithic  
264 sample analyzed (Lacy, nd). Furthermore, as in Ohalo 2, third molar agenesis is most frequently  
265 asymmetrically expressed when present (Lacy, nd). Thus, Ohalo 2 not only belongs on a growing list of  
266 Pleistocene individuals exhibiting extensive degenerative abnormalities (i.e., thoracic injury: (Trinkaus,  
267 2018a, c), but also on the extensive list of Pleistocene individuals with developmental anomalies (i.e.,  
268 third molar agenesis: (Trinkaus, 2018a)).

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#### 270 **4.2 The timing of AMTL**

271 Hershkovitz and colleagues (1995) suggested that the right I<sup>1</sup> was lost late in life due to the  
272 degree of wear present on the mandibular incisors. However, the degree of wear on all observable  
273 maxillary and mandibular anterior teeth of Ohalo 2 is low with respect to first molar wear. Furthermore,  
274 the wear on the left mandibular incisors is greater than that of the right side – indicating that wear  
275 continued after the antemortem loss of the right I<sup>1</sup>. Thus, it is not the degree of wear but the patterning of  
276 wear that is more important for understanding the timing of AMTL.

277 Distinct interproximal wear facets are found on all observable surfaces where they are expected,  
278 except for the distal surface of the left M<sup>2</sup> (due to probable agenesis of the M<sup>3</sup>), and the mesial surface of  
279 the left I<sup>1</sup>. The median age of full eruption of an I<sup>1</sup> is 7.5 years (AlQahtani et al., 2010), which provides  
280 the expected age at which mesial I<sup>1</sup> interproximal wear would begin in late childhood (and persist until  
281 the loss of the right I<sup>1</sup>). The loss of the right I<sup>1</sup> could have occurred after eruption, but before a distinct  
282 facet could form. Similarly, a small facet may have formed before tooth loss occurred but would be  
283 subsequently obliterated by progressive occlusal wear. The left I<sup>1</sup> is also sufficiently mesial to indicate  
284 that a midline diastema (“gap”) was not present between the I<sup>1</sup>s prior to the antemortem loss of the right  
285 I<sup>1</sup>.

286 Alveolar remodeling is also relevant to understanding the timing of AMTL. The right I<sup>1</sup> alveolus  
287 is completely healed and exhibits a non-porous lamellar bone surface. The alveolus is unlikely to contain  
288 a root remnant since the proliferation of alveolar bone around the root is often irregular with a porous  
289 appearance (Lukacs, 2007). The labiolingual reduction of alveolar bone through resorption is extensive  
290 (**Figure 1**). A mean loss of ~50% of alveolar ridge width is associated with 12 months of post-extraction  
291 healing for premolars and molars (Farina and Trombelli, 2012; Schropp et al., 2003), which is comparable  
292 to the remodeling seen in Ohalo 2.

293 The age at death of Ohalo 2 is estimated as the mid to late fourth decade of life (Hershkovitz et  
294 al., 1995; Trinkaus, 2018c), and alveolar remodeling suggests that the AMTL occurred a minimum of ~9-  
295 12 months prior to death. The lack of an interproximal facet on the mesial I<sup>1</sup> surface strongly suggests that  
296 AMTL occurred after eruption of the tooth in mid-childhood, and before a substantial mesial  
297 interproximal facet could form. Lastly, the uneven occlusal wear of the mandibular incisors also indicates  
298 that occlusal attrition continued after AMTL and continued until the death of Ohalo 2. The most  
299 parsimonious timing of the loss of the right I<sup>1</sup> is that it occurred relatively early in life, and substantially  
300 earlier than the death of the individual in middle adulthood, contrary to a previous assessment  
301 (Hershkovitz et al., 1995).

302

#### 303 **4.3 A case for traumatic AMTL?**

304 Ohalo 2 exhibits a major, lower thoracic pathological condition attributed to infectious chronic  
305 osteomyelitis that probably coincided with localized trauma (Hershkovitz et al., 1993; Hershkovitz et al.,



1995; Trinkaus, 2018c). Although this injury was not initially linked to the antemortem loss of the right I<sup>1</sup>, the co-occurrence of chest and dental trauma must be considered. Unfortunately, the onset and duration of the chronic osteomyelitis is uncertain as noted by Trinkaus (2018b:149): “the surfaces of the bony growths are largely smoothed over, so it is unclear whether the infection was active at the time of death or how long prior to death.” Nevertheless, if the lower thorax trauma and AMTL occurred simultaneously, the injuries would have been sustained early in life (see above). This scenario implies that Ohalo 2 persisted for multiple decades with a significant degenerative pathological condition – one that prevented participation in activities requiring sustained or elevated respiration (Trinkaus, 2018b). Such a scenario appears at odds with appendicular hypertrophy which suggests that mobility and physical activity levels of Ohalo 2 were similar to penecontemporaneous Upper Paleolithic humans from western Eurasia and North Africa (Trinkaus, 2018b), even if these patterns would have been at least partially established during development (Cowgill et al., 2015). Thus, the co-occurrence of traumatic AMTL and chest injury is possible, but it does not seem plausible. If the AMTL is a result of childhood or early adolescence trauma, it is most likely decoupled from a subsequent event related to the lower thorax injury.

320

#### 321 **4.4 A case for intentional dental ablation?**

322 We place the Ohalo 2 AMTL after mid-childhood, but before substantial mesial interproximal  
323 attrition could progress, which probably corresponds to adolescence. Copious ethnographic accounts  
324 document ritualized tooth ablation – the culturally mediated, intentional removal of health teeth during  
325 the life of an individual – at specific life stages. For instance, ablation often corresponds to signs of  
326 physical and social maturation associated with puberty and adolescence, respectively (Bocquentin, 2011;  
327 Milner and Larsen, 1991; Willman et al., 2016). Indeed, the youngest individual from Epipaleolithic  
328 contexts to exhibit ablation was a Natufian adolescent (Bocquentin, 2011).

329 Dental ablation has long been documented in Late Epipaleolithic Natufian contexts in southwest  
330 Asia (Bocquentin, 2007, 2011; Crognier and Dupouy-Madre, 1974; De Groote et al., 2014; Eshed et al.,  
331 2006; Ferembach, 1961; Keith, 1931; McCown and Keith, 1939; Smith, 1989; Smith, 1991), but has not  
332 been documented in Early or Middle Epipaleolithic contexts (**Table 1**). In addition to ablation, at least  
333 two additional examples of dental modification are known from Natufian contexts: labial surface abrasion  
334 of both I<sup>1</sup>s of an individual from Wadi Hammeh 27 (Bocquentin et al., 2013) and labial surface polish on  
335 a fragment of a maxillary canine or first premolar (Edwards, 2015; Edwards et al., 1999) (**Table 1**).  
336 Albeit, whether these latter forms of dental modification (abrasion/polish) were intentional, or byproducts  
337 of non-intentional idiosyncratic behaviors, remains to be established.

338 There is a considerable chronological gap separating Early Epipaleolithic Ohalo 2 from the Late  
339 Epipaleolithic Natufian contexts where widespread patterns of incisor ablation are well documented.  
340 However, one must also recognize that the Pre-Natufian Epipaleolithic human fossil record from the  
341 region is sparse and fragmentary (Hershkovitz and Arensburg, 2017), which makes the identification of  
342 ablation prior to the Late Epipaleolithic difficult if it is indeed present in additional individuals. While  
343 ablation is quite prevalent in the Natufian, it is not present at every Late Epipaleolithic Natufian site nor  
344 necessarily uniformly expressed in the same way (e.g., which teeth are ablated) at each site (Bocquentin,  
345 2011). Thus, finding probable ablation among one of only a few earlier Epipaleolithic humans from  
346 southwest Asia is notable, but not at odds with its non-uniform prevalence in the Natufian. Furthermore,  
347 the most common ablation pattern during the Natufian – removal of the right I<sup>1</sup> (Bocquentin, 2011) – is  
348 precisely the pattern documented for Ohalo 2. As such, Ohalo 2 AMTL provides a strong case for  
349 intentional ablation, which could represent a source of biocultural data for long-term behavioral trends  
350 within the Epipaleolithic (Maher et al., 2012).

351

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355

**Table 1.** Late Upper Paleolithic and Epipaleolithic archaeological sites from southwest Asia bearing human fossils for which the presence or absence of dental modification can be reasonably documented.

<i>Site</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Dating</i>	<i>Notes on dental modification</i>	<i>Sources<sup>a</sup></i>
<b>Late Upper Paleolithic/Early Epipaleolithic</b>				
Ohalo II H2	Israel	22,500 cal BP	AMTL of right I <sup>1</sup> as probable ablation.	1-3
Ohalo II H1	Israel	22,500 cal BP	Fragmentary mandible, not applicable	1-2, 4
Nahal Ein Gev I	Israel	27,000-25,000 BP	No AMTL observed.	1-2, 5-6
Ein Gev I	Israel	19,000 cal BP	Fragmentary, not applicable.	3, 7
Qasr Kharaneh IV	Jordan	19,000 cal BP	Fragmentary, heavy occlusal wear, no modification mentioned.	8-9
Ayn Qasiyya	Jordan	20,400-19,800 cal BP	Fragmentary, extremely heavy occlusal wear. No modification mentioned.	10
Moghr el-Ahwal Cave 3	Lebanon	19,200-18,200 cal BP	Mandible fragment with 3 teeth. Not applicable.	11
<b>Middle Epipaleolithic</b>				
Neve David	Jordan	16,000-15,000 cal BP	No modification.	12
Moghr el-Ahwal Cave 2	Lebanon	15,200-14,600 cal BP	Highly fragmentary. Not applicable.	11
Wadi Mataha F-81	Jordan	17,000 cal BP	No AMTL. No modification mentioned.	13
Uyun al-Hammam	Jordan	17,700-14,500 cal BP	Multiple, fragmentary individuals; some with heavy wear. No modification mentioned.	14
<b>Late Epipaleolithic/Natufian<sup>b</sup></b>				
Wadi Hammeh 27	Jordan	Early Natufian	Abrasion right and left I <sup>1</sup> labial surfaces.	15-16
Wadi Khawwan 1	Jordan	Early Natufian	Isolated tooth (C <sup>1</sup> or P <sup>3</sup> ) with labial surface polish.	17-18
Kebara	Israel	Early Natufian	Ablation	19-20
Erq-el-Ahmar	Israel	Early Natufian	No modification	19-20
Eynan (Ain Mallaha)	Israel	Early, Late, and Final Natufian	Ablation	19-20
Hayonim	Israel	Early and Late Natufian	No modification	19-20
El-Wad	Israel	Early and Late Natufian	Ablation	19-20
Nahal Oren	Israel	Late Natufian	Ablation	19-20
Raqefet	Israel	Late Natufian	No modification	19-20
Shukbah	Israel	Late Natufian	Ablation	19-21

356 <sup>a</sup> (1) This study; (2) Hershkovitz et al., 1995; (3) Trinkaus, 2018b; (4) Hershkovitz and Arensburg, 2017;  
 357 (5) Arensburg, 1977; (6) Belfer-Cohen et al., 2004; (7) Arensburg and Bar-Yosef, 1973; (8) Dalou, et al.  
 358 2017; (9) Rolston, 1982; (10) Richter et al., 2010; (11) Garrard et al., 2018; (12) Bocquentin et al., 2011;  
 359 (13) Stock et al., 2005; (14) Maher et al., 2011; (15) Bocquentin et al., 2013; (16) Webb and Edwards,  
 360 2002; (17) Edwards, 2015; (18) Edwards et al., 1999; (19) Bocquentin, 2007; (20) Bocquentin, 2011; (21)  
 361 De Groote et al., 2014.

362 <sup>b</sup> The Early Natufian is ~15,000-13,000 cal BP, the Late Natufian is ~13,000-11,500 cal BP, and the latter  
 363 portion of the Late Natufian (11,800-11,500) is sometimes considered the Final Natufian (Grosman and  
 364 Munro, 2017).

365

366 Although the right I<sup>1</sup> is the most commonly removed tooth during the Natufian, there are variants  
367 on this pattern (Bocquentin, 2011), and instances of dental polish and abrasion in the Early Natufian of  
368 Jordan are suggestive of additional forms dental modification being practiced (Bocquentin et al., 2013;  
369 Edwards, 2015; Edwards et al., 1999). The substantial morphological variation documented throughout  
370 the Epipaleolithic of southwest Asia (Arensburg, 1981; Arensburg and Bar-Yosef, 1973; Bocquentin et  
371 al., 2011; Hershkovitz and Arensburg, 2017; Hershkovitz et al., 1995; Lahr and Arensburg, 1995;  
372 Mahoney, 2007; Richter et al., 2010; Stock et al., 2005) is an interesting backdrop to this evidence for  
373 biocultural variation in dental modification practices.

374 There is a near global distribution of ablation practices in prehistoric and historic contexts, and  
375 myriad reasons for performing ablation are documented ethnohistorically (Bocquentin, 2011; Durband et  
376 al., 2014; Humphrey and Bocaage, 2008; Milner, 2017; Milner and Larsen, 1991; Pietruszewsky and  
377 Douglas, 1993; Robb, 1997; Russell et al., 2013; Stojanowski et al., 2014; Stojanowski et al., 2016;  
378 Verger-Pratoucy, 1970; Willman et al., 2016). Nevertheless, a unifying explanation for ablation is that it  
379 is an irreversible and conspicuous embodiment of an individual or group-level social identity  
380 (Stojanowski et al., 2014; Willman et al., 2016). This conspicuous marker of identity (Humphrey and  
381 Bocaage, 2008; Stojanowski et al., 2014; Willman et al., 2016), in addition to other forms of intentional  
382 dental modification, are increasingly used as markers of human population dynamics that are independent  
383 of, but can be integrated with, other forms of data (e.g., ancient DNA, morphology, linguistic, burial  
384 practices, material culture, paleoenvironmental, etc.) to better understand prehistoric human population  
385 movements and interactions (Edwards, 2015; Irish, 2017; Stojanowski et al., 2014; Stojanowski et al.,  
386 2016; Willman et al., in press; Willman et al., 2016). We suggest that evidence from embodied social  
387 identities expressed through intentional body modification can contribute to broader discussions of human  
388 population dynamics in the Late Pleistocene southwest Asia (e.g., Bocquentin, 2011), as shown in  
389 synthetic works from other regions (De Groote and Humphrey, 2016; Humphrey and Bocaage, 2008;  
390 Irish, 2017; Stojanowski et al., 2014; Stojanowski et al., 2016; Willman et al., in press; Willman et al.,  
391 2016). When viewed together the evidence from ancient DNA, skeletal morphology, material culture, and  
392 embodied social identities can provide a more convincing argument for possible long-term regional  
393 behavioral trends, as well as interregional biocultural variability or continuity.

## 394 395 **5 Conclusion**

396 The Ohalo 2 antemortem missing right I<sup>1</sup> may have been lost through a non-intentional trauma  
397 earlier in life. However, the timing of the AMTL, comparative patterns of dental wear, a lack of major  
398 oral pathological conditions that would contribute to AMTL, and comparisons with the intra- and inter-  
399 regional cases of dental ablation provides a strong case for intentional incisor ablation for Ohalo 2. If  
400 correct, Ohalo 2 would be the oldest example of ablation from the Late Pleistocene circum-Mediterranean  
401 world – predating the earliest examples from both North Africa and southwest Asia by multiple thousands  
402 of years. The similarity of the Ohalo 2 ablation pattern with Late Epipaleolithic Natufian individuals  
403 provides further evidence of potential long-term behavioral trends in the Epipaleolithic of southwest Asia.  
404 We speculate that understanding the spatiotemporally patterns of embodied social identities will continue  
405 to play an important role in identifying prehistoric population movements and interactions throughout  
406 southwest Asia during the Pleistocene and Early Holocene.

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409 **Acknowledgements**

410 The Leakey Foundation funded both JCW and SAL. JCW is supported by the Marie Skłodowska-Curie  
411 Actions (H2020-MSCA-IF-2018 No. 839822), AGAUR (Ref. 2017SGR1040) and URV (Ref. 2017PFR-  
412 URV-B2-91) Projects, and MICINN/FEDER: PGC2018-093925-B-C32. Israel Hershkovitz and Dani  
413 Nadel provided permission to study the Ohalo II fossils. Israel Hershkovitz provided access fossils  
414 curated at The Department of Anatomy and Anthropology, The Sackler Faculty of Medicine, Tel Aviv  
415 University.

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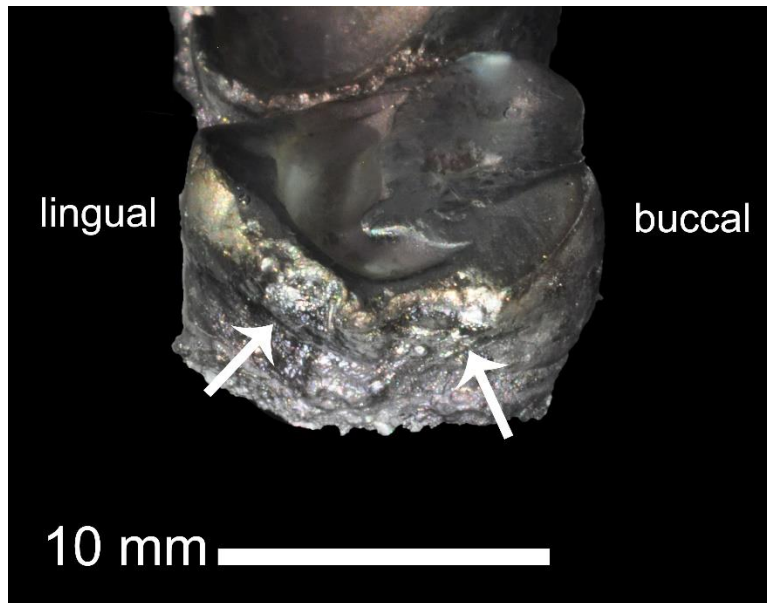
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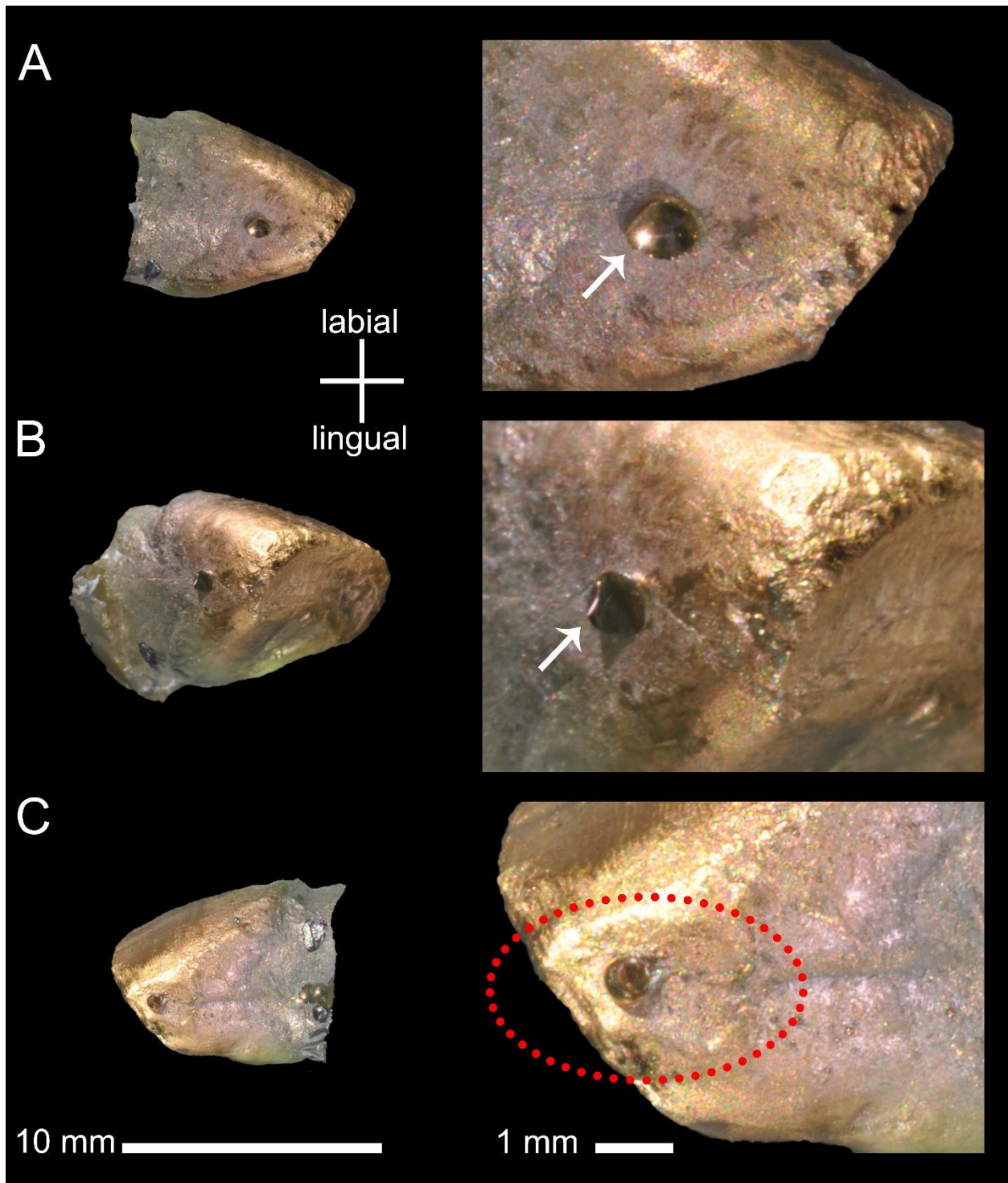
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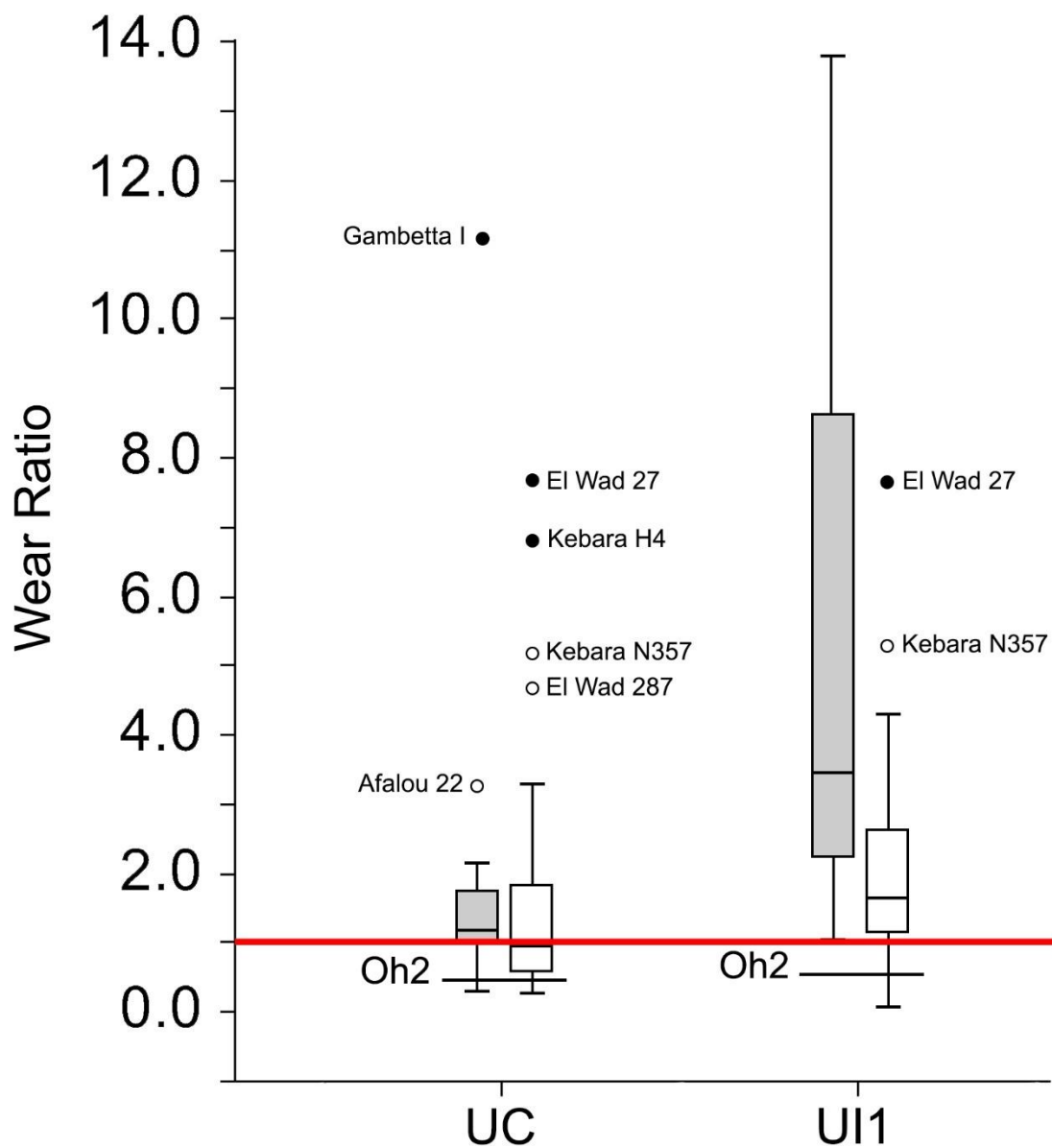
712 **Supplemental Information** to accompany:  
713 *Oral pathological conditions of an Early Epipaleolithic human from Southwest Asia: Ohalo II H2 as a*  
714 *probable case of intentional dental ablation*  
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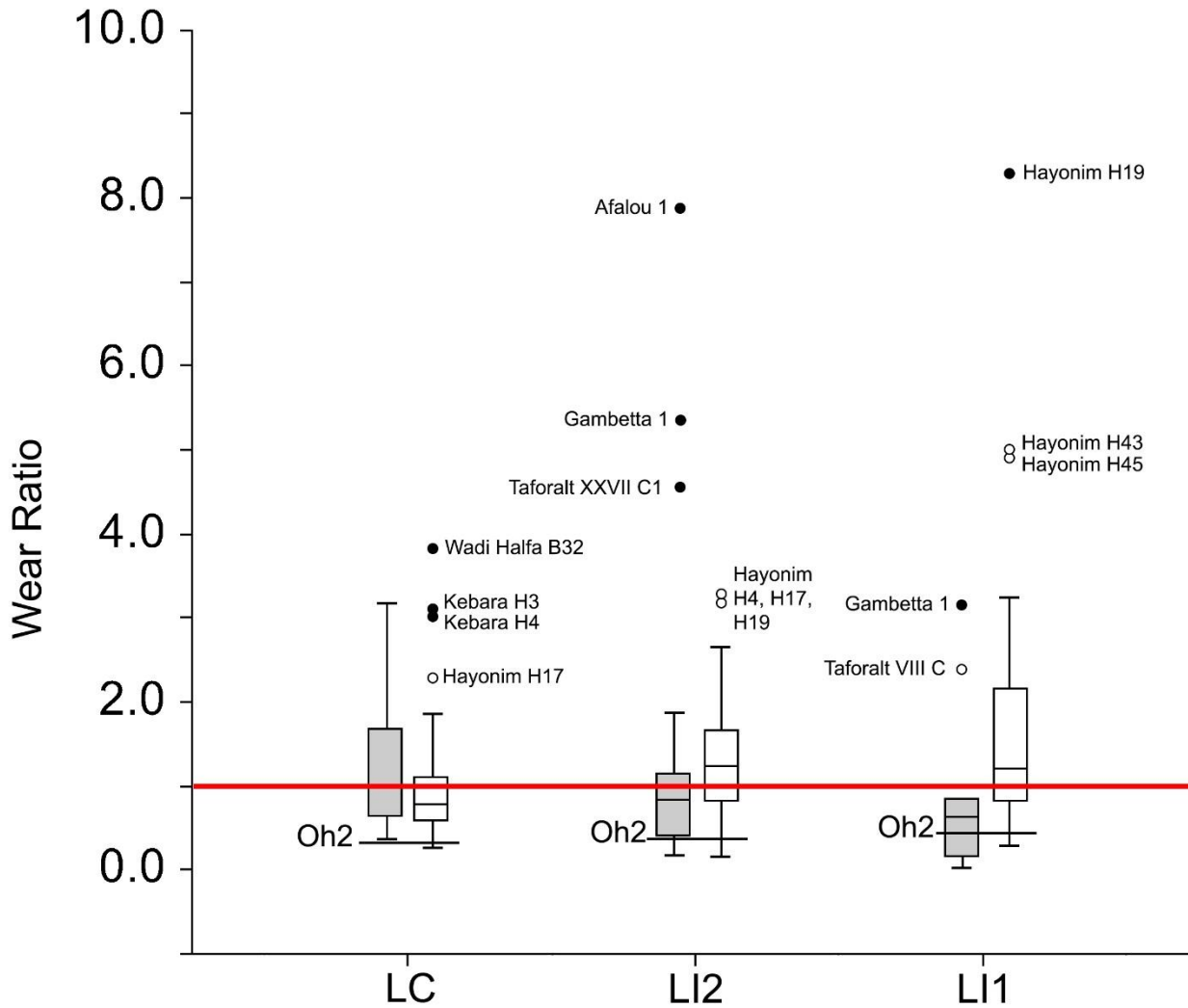
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718 **Supplemental Figure 1.** Detailed images of distal interproximal surface of Ohalo 2 left M<sup>2</sup>.  
719 Macrophotographs taken from an epoxy-resin cast of original tooth. Cast has been sputter-coated for  
720 scanning electron microscopy analyses unrelated to present study. Occlusal surface is toward top of  
721 image. White arrows point toward large antemortem chipping of distal border. Note there is no  
722 interproximal facet for the left M<sup>3</sup>, only large chips that were likely mistaken for an interproximal facet in  
723 occlusal view in a previous analysis (Trinkaus, 2018).



724  
 725 **Supplemental Figure 2.** Detailed images of interproximal surfaces of Ohalo 2 left I<sup>1</sup>. Macrophotographs  
 726 taken from an epoxy-resin cast of original tooth. Cast has been sputter-coated for scanning electron  
 727 microscopy analyses unrelated to present study. **A.** Mesial surface of incisor showing no interproximal  
 728 wear facet for right I<sup>1</sup>. White arrow points to small casting defect. Numerous small, antermortem enamel  
 729 chips are visible along edge. **B.** Mesial surface of incisor at oblique angle to provide additional view of  
 730 interproximal surface. White arrow points to same casting defect visible in image 1A. **C.** Lateral (distal)  
 731 interproximal surface with clear interproximal facet (inside red dotted ellipse) for left I<sup>2</sup>.



733  
 734 **Supplemental Figure 3.** Wear ratio (denture exposure) of C<sup>1</sup> and I<sup>1</sup> relative to M<sup>1</sup> (red line at 1.0).  
 735 Comparisons of Iberomaurusian and Capsian individuals (grey boxes), Late Epipaleolithic (El-Wad,  
 736 Kebara, Hayonim, Mallaha, and Wadi Halfa (white boxes), and Ohalo 2 (solids horizontal bars labeled  
 737 “Oh2”). Boxes represent the interquartile range, bars inside boxes represent the median, whiskers  
 738 represent the range of values, open circles are outliers by more than 1.5x the interquartile range, and  
 739 closed circles are outliers that are 3.0x the interquartile range. Ohalo 2 anterior relative to first molar wear  
 740 is low compared to the comparative samples indicating more extreme posterior relative to anterior wear  
 741 for Ohalo 2. Figures modified from De Groote and Humphrey (2016:58) and Clement (2008:257).  
 742



743  
744 **Supplemental Figure 4.** Wear ratio (denture exposure) of C<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>1</sub> relative to M<sub>1</sub> (red line at 1.0).  
745 Comparisons of Iberomaurusian and Capsian individuals (grey boxes), Late Epipaleolithic (El-Wad,  
746 Kebara, Hayonim, Mallaha, and Wadi Halfa (white boxes), and Ohalo 2 (solids horizontal bars labeled  
747 “Oh2”). Boxes represent the interquartile range, bars inside boxes represent the median, whiskers  
748 represent the range of values, open circles are outliers by more than 1.5x the interquartile range, and  
749 closed circles are outliers that are 3.0x the interquartile range. Ohalo 2 anterior relative to first molar wear  
750 is low compared to the comparative samples indicating more extreme posterior relative to anterior wear  
751 for Ohalo 2. Figures modified from De Groote and Humphrey (2016:59) and Clement (2008:258).  
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