

# Ancient DNA evidence for the ecological globalisation of cod fishing in medieval and post-medieval Europe

*Lourdes Martínez-García<sup>1\*</sup>, Giada Ferrari<sup>1,2</sup>, Angélica Cuevas<sup>1</sup>, Lane M. Atmore<sup>1</sup>, Begoña López-Arias<sup>3</sup>, Mark Culling<sup>4</sup>, Laura Llorente-Rodríguez<sup>5</sup>, Arturo Morales-Muñiz<sup>3</sup>, Eufrasia Roselló-Izquierdo<sup>3</sup>, Juan Antonio Quirós<sup>6</sup>, Ricard Marlasca-Martín<sup>7</sup>, Bernd Hänsfling<sup>8</sup>, William F. Hutchinson<sup>4</sup>, Kjetill S. Jakobsen<sup>1</sup>, Sissel Jentoft<sup>1</sup>, David Orton<sup>9</sup>, Bastiaan Star<sup>1\*</sup>, James H. Barrett<sup>10\*</sup>*

<sup>1</sup>*Centre for Ecological and Evolutionary Synthesis (CEES), Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway*

<sup>2</sup>Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh, Scotland

<sup>3</sup>*Laboratorio de Arqueozoología LAZ-UAM, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain*

<sup>4</sup>Evolutionary Biology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Hull, United Kingdom

<sup>5</sup>*Laboratory for Archaeozoological Studies, Faculty of Archaeology, University of Leiden, Leiden, The Netherlands*

<sup>6</sup>*Department of Geography, Prehistory and Archaeology, University of the Basque Country, Vitoria-Gasteiz, Spain*

<sup>7</sup>*Posidonia* s.l. Avd. Sant Jordi, Eivissa, Spain

<sup>8</sup>Institute for Biodiversity and Freshwater Conservation, UHI-Inverness, Inverness, United Kingdom

<sup>9</sup>BioArCh, Department of Archaeology, University of York, York, United Kingdom

<sup>10</sup>Department of Archaeology and Cultural History, NTNU University Museum, Trondheim, Norway

### Corresponding author(s):

\*Lourdes Martínez-García: [l.m.garcia@ibv.uio.no](mailto:l.m.garcia@ibv.uio.no)

\*Bastiaan Star: [bastiaan.star@ibv.uio.no](mailto:bastiaan.star@ibv.uio.no)

\*James H. Barrett: [james.barrett@ntnu.no](mailto:james.barrett@ntnu.no)

## Abstract

Understanding the historical emergence and growth of long-range fisheries can provide fundamental insights into the timing of ecological impacts and the development of coastal

35 communities during the last millennium. Whole genome sequencing approaches can improve  
36 such understanding by determining the origin of archaeological fish specimens that may have  
37 been obtained from historic trade or distant water. Here, we used genome-wide data to  
38 individually infer the biological source of 37 ancient Atlantic cod specimens (*ca.* 1050 to 1950  
39 CE) from England and Spain. Our findings provide novel genetic evidence that eleventh- to  
40 twelfth-century specimens from London were predominantly obtained from nearby  
41 populations, while thirteenth- to fourteenth-century specimens derived from distant sources.  
42 Our results further suggest that Icelandic cod was exported to London earlier than previously  
43 reported. Our observations confirm the chronology and geography of the trans-Atlantic cod  
44 trade from Newfoundland to Spain starting by the early sixteenth century. Our findings  
45 demonstrate the utility of whole genome sequencing and ancient DNA approaches to describe  
46 the globalisation of marine fisheries and increase our understanding regarding the extent of the  
47 North-Atlantic fish trade and long-range fisheries in medieval and early modern times.

48

49 **Key words:** cod trade, historical ecology, marine fisheries, zooarchaeology, biological source  
50

## 51 1. Introduction

52

53 The expansion of long-range fish trade, not least of Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), has partly  
54 driven the development of urbanized market economies across European societies during the  
55 last millennium [1-3]. The importance of this trade is well-documented by historical sources  
56 from the fourteenth century and can be glimpsed in anecdotal historical records and  
57 archaeological evidence from the late eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries [4, 5].

58

59 Ancient DNA (aDNA) and stable isotopes have previously shown the early transport of air-  
60 dried Arctic Norwegian cod (*stockfish*) to Haithabu in Germany by *ca.* 1066 CE [6, 7]. This  
61 exchange developed into a major and wide-ranging Atlantic cod trade across medieval northern  
62 Europe, linking towns in Scandinavia, Germany, England, and the Low Countries (e.g.,  
63 Bergen, Lübeck, King's Lynn, London, and Deventer) [6-8]. In the Iberian Peninsula, the  
64 northern ports were developed as strategic trading posts for receiving and distributing luxury  
65 and foreign products from both the Mediterranean and northern Europe [9, 10]. As a  
66 consequence, distant-water fisheries and fish trade along the Atlantic coast, from Sevilla to  
67 western Ireland and Flanders, started to receive more interest within the Iberian market [11,  
68 12]. Subsequently, post-medieval European expansion to the western Atlantic, especially to

69 Newfoundland, linked the above-mentioned northern and Iberian networks into competing and  
70 sometimes complementary long-range fisheries that were sources of both food and wealth [1,  
71 13]. For example, seventeenth-century English catches from Newfoundland were often traded  
72 to southern Europe, in an economically significant triangular trade that also entailed salt and  
73 wine [14].

74

75 Tracing the origin of Atlantic cod specimens harvested for these medieval and post-medieval  
76 trade networks contributes to our understanding of economic history and historical ecology.  
77 Historical and archaeological sources have revealed the extension of distant-water fisheries and  
78 trading networks through time and space [8, 13]. However, the geographical and biological  
79 resolution of text-based and archaeological sources is often limited, and the level of detail in  
80 such sources often decreases with time depth [15]. Determining the biological origin of  
81 archaeological bone assemblages of species such as Atlantic cod can therefore provide  
82 important information about the populations targeted through distant-water fishing and/or  
83 trade. Since archaeological cod bones can represent local or long-distance (even  
84 intercontinental) fishing, it is important to distinguish between source populations. Thus, there  
85 has been an increased interest in the use of aDNA and stable isotope methods to identify the  
86 origin of archaeological remains to trace the development of the globalisation of marine  
87 fisheries [6, 16-20]. Here we use novel whole-genome aDNA approaches to greatly improve  
88 the spatial specificity and resolution regarding the inference of source populations of  
89 archaeological Atlantic cod bones [21].

90

91 We assess the biological origin of 37 Atlantic cod specimens from medieval England (London)  
92 and post-medieval Spain (Barcelona, Álava (Castillo de Labastida), Madrid and Sevilla) using  
93 low-coverage genome-wide data. We genetically assign such specimens according to patterns  
94 of spatial genome-wide differentiation among modern populations of Atlantic cod [22-25]. We  
95 specifically investigated significant differentiation in polymorphic chromosomal inversions  
96 (i.e., LG1, LG2, LG7, and LG12) [6, 26, 27] that are associated with migratory behaviour and  
97 temperature clines [22, 28-31]. Their genetic differentiation can therefore indicate the  
98 assignment of specimens towards a particular geographic area [6, 32]. Through these methods,  
99 we aim to distinguish source populations with improved discriminating power in relation to  
100 previous stable isotope and aDNA approaches [6, 15, 16].

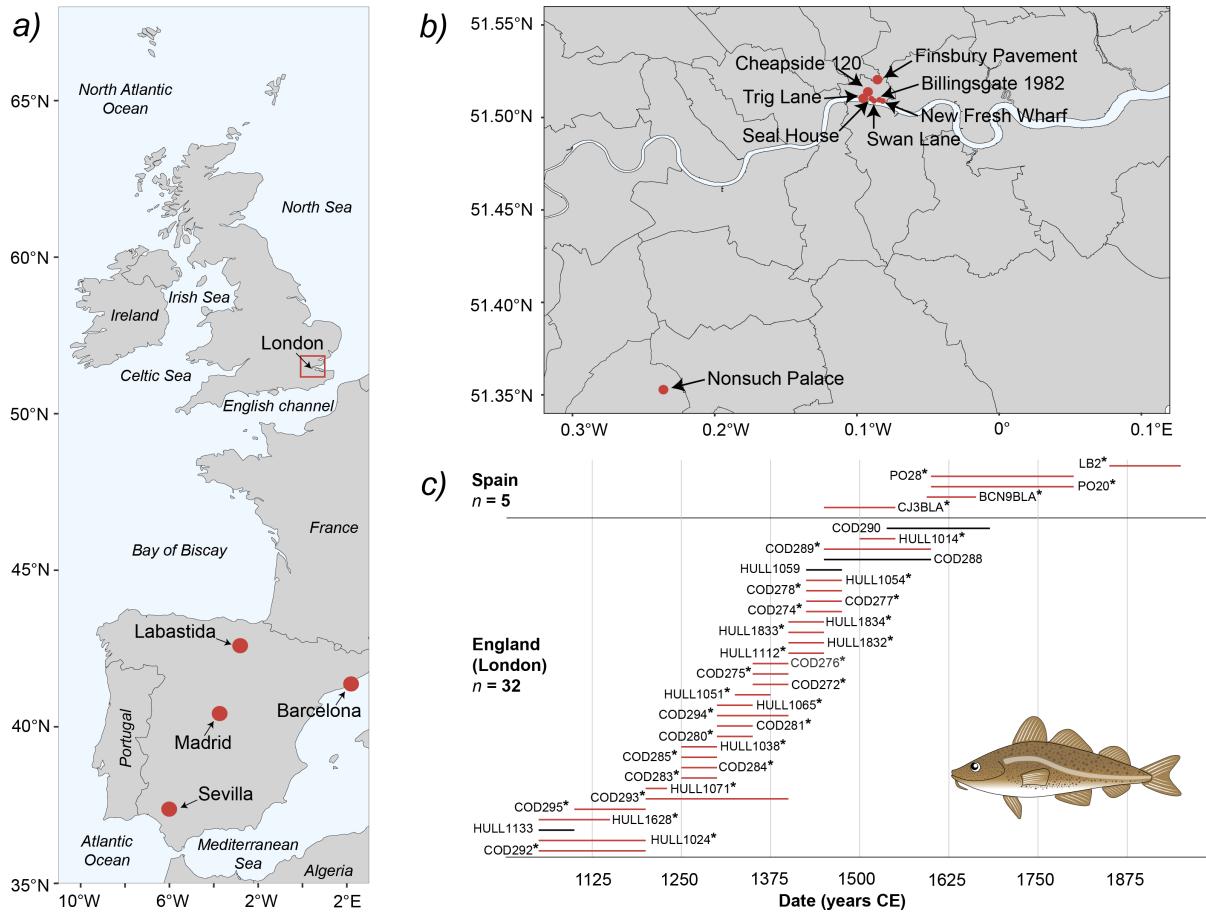
101

## 102 2. Materials and Methods

103 (a) Sample collection  
104 English samples ( $n = 32$ ) were obtained from eight archaeological locations in London (Figure  
105 1b and Table S1). Based on archaeological evidence and stable isotope analysis, three of the  
106 locations (Finsbury Pavement, Seal House and Trig Lane) have previously been inferred to  
107 have imported preserved cod [16]. Specimens from the additional five locations (Billingsgate  
108 1982, Cheapside 120, New Fresh Wharf, Nonsuch Palace and Swan Lane) were included to  
109 provide a continuous fishing time series from the eleventh to sixteenth-seventeenth centuries  
110 CE (Figure 1c). Seven of the archaeological sites in London were urban when occupied. The  
111 eighth location (Nonsuch Palace) was a royal residence originally outside London, which was  
112 later surrounded by the modern metropolis. Spanish samples ( $n = 5$ ) were obtained from four  
113 different archaeological locations: a monastic-upper class context from La Cartuja (Sevilla,  
114 late fifteenth-early sixteenth centuries), an urban context from Plaza de Oriente (Madrid,  
115 seventeenth-eighteenth century), a context from the fishermen's quarter from Barraques de  
116 pescadores (Barcelona; *ca.* seventeenth century), and a rural castle (Álava) that acted as a  
117 military centre during the nineteenth century (J.A. Quirós pers. comm.; Figure 1a and Table  
118 S1). Atlantic cod bones are very rare in Iberian archaeological sites [12], therefore, the present  
119 five Spanish specimens represent those available for this study.

120  
121 Cranial (articular, premaxilla, frontal, dentary, and parasphenoid) and postcranial (vertebra and  
122 cleithra) bones were included (Table S1 and Figure S2). Cranial bones are more likely to  
123 represent local fishing because many preserved fish products were decapitated [33], although,  
124 complete fish (and/or preserved fish heads) were sometimes traded over long distances [6, 34,  
125 35]. Cleithra (which support the pectoral fin just behind the cranium) can be found together  
126 with cranial remains, or (if fish were decapitated anterior to this element) with postcranial  
127 bones [15]. Here, we considered cleithra belonging among the postcranial bones.

128  
129 After field collection, all samples were stored dry and unfrozen. Dating of the samples was  
130 based on archaeological context. Qualitative date ranges were converted into calendar years as  
131 per Orton, et al. [15] considering an 'early' century the first half of that century (e.g., '00 to  
132 '50), 'mid' century as '25 to '75, and 'late' century as the second half of that century (e.g., '50  
133 to '00). The archaeological Atlantic cod samples were morphologically and genetically  
134 identified to species.



135  
136 **Figure 1. (a)** Distribution of archaeological Atlantic cod specimens in England (London) and  
137 Spain. Spanish locations are highlighted (in red) on the map. **(b)** Detailed distribution (in red)  
138 of English archaeological locations in London from which Atlantic cod bones were obtained  
139 **(c)** Date range of the 37 archaeological specimens as estimated based on archaeological  
140 context. Samples in red and with '\*' yielded sufficient data to allow more detailed genomic  
141 assignments. Other samples could only be assigned to major geographical regions (see results  
142 section for explanation). For details regarding the sample codes see Table S1. Fish illustration  
143 was drawn by Lourdes Martínez-García.

144  
145 **(b)** aDNA extraction and library preparation  
146 We processed 18 English (London) fish bone samples in the aDNA laboratory at the University  
147 of Oslo [36, 37] (Table S1). Treatment of samples prior to DNA extraction was according to  
148 Ferrari, et al. [38] and Martínez-García, et al. [39]. In short, fish bones were UV-treated for 10  
149 minutes per side and milled using a stainless-steel mortar [40]. Milled fish-bone powder was  
150 divided in two aliquots per specimen (150-200 mg per aliquot) as starting material for DNA  
151 extraction. Genomic DNA was extracted from the fish-bone samples using the mild Bleach

152 treatment and Double-Digestion step (BleDD) protocol [41]. In addition, we added to our initial  
153 London assemblage aDNA from 14 English fish bone samples previously processed at the  
154 University of Hull following the protocols in Hutchinson, et al. [42] (Table S1). Three out of  
155 the 14 samples were previously inferred to have a southern and central North Sea biological  
156 origin (Table S1) [42]. Furthermore, we analysed aDNA from five Spanish bone samples  
157 previously analysed and processed using a modified protocol of Yang, et al. [43] at BioArch,  
158 University of York. In short, samples were decontaminated with 6% bleach for five minutes  
159 and then rinsed three times in distilled water. Samples were further UV-treated for 10 to 20  
160 minutes per side. Samples were powdered prior to the addition of a lysis buffer (EDTA) and  
161 Proteinase K. Samples were incubated overnight at 50°C while kept in rotation. After  
162 incubation, samples were centrifuged to separate bone powder from buffer solution. The  
163 supernatant was transferred to an Amicon Ultra-4, Centrifugal Filter Device, 10,000 NMWL  
164 tube to concentrate the solution and Quiagen QiaQuick MinElute™ kit was used for DNA  
165 purification. Contamination controls were taken during every step of the extraction and  
166 amplification procedure.

167  
168 Double-indexed blunt-end sequencing libraries were built from 16 or 20 µl of DNA extract  
169 from all samples using the double-stranded Meyer- Kircher protocol [44, 45] with the  
170 modifications listed in Schroeder, et al. [46] or the single-stranded Santa Cruz Reaction (SCR)  
171 protocol using tier 4 adapter dilutions [47] (see Table S1 for specifications). Multiple extraction  
172 and negative reagent controls during all library sessions were used to detect possible  
173 contamination. All samples were assessed for library quality and concentration using a High  
174 Sensitivity DNA Assay on the Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent) or with a High Sensitivity NGS  
175 Fragment Analysis Kit on the Fragment AnalyzerTM (Advanced Analytical). Successful  
176 libraries were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 4000 with 150 bp paired-reads, or on a  
177 Novaseq 6000 with 150 bp paired-reads at the Norwegian Sequencing Centre. Sequencing  
178 reads were demultiplexed allowing zero mismatches in the index tag and they were processed  
179 using PALEOMIX v1.2.13 [48]. Trimming of residual adapter contamination, filtering and  
180 collapsing of reads was done using AdapterRemoval v.2.1.7 [49]. Mapping of remaining reads  
181 was performed against the gadMor2 reference genome [50, 51] using BWA v.0.7.12 [52] with  
182 the *backtrack* algorithm, disabled seeding and minimum quality score of 25. aDNA  
183 deamination patterns were determined using MapDamage v.2.0.9 [53] and BAM files were  
184 indexed with samtools v.1.9 [54].

185

186 (c) Genomic and statistical analysis

187 To infer the biological origin of the archaeological samples of Atlantic cod, we used the  
188 BAMscorer pipeline [21] which is especially developed to analyse extremely low-coverage  
189 whole genome data. Following the methodology described by Ferrari, et al. [21], we used a  
190 genome-wide database of modern individuals that were obtained from Barth, et al. [55] and  
191 Pinsky, et al. [24] to further assign ancient specimens. This dataset includes 276 Atlantic cod  
192 individuals that represent three broad geographical regions of the species' range: the western  
193 Atlantic Ocean, the eastern Atlantic Ocean and the Baltic Sea. All these regions are genetically  
194 differentiated and represent potential sources of distant water fishing and fish trade over the  
195 chronology of our study [24, 55]. The genomic assignment to a source population followed a  
196 hierarchical procedure (Figure 2a). First, a genome-wide assignment as implemented in  
197 BAMscorer [21] (excluding the four large chromosomal inversions in Atlantic cod: LG1, LG2,  
198 LG7 and LG12) was used to determine an overall eastern or western Atlantic Ocean origin.  
199 Second, all specimens assigned to an eastern Atlantic region were subsequently analysed using  
200 a similar approach to determine a possible Baltic Sea origin [21].

201

202 Third, we used the individual chromosomal inversion genotypes obtained with BAMscorer  
203 [21] to further assign each specimen to a specific source population (Table S2). We used a  
204 binomial sampling method as per Star, et al. [6], to infer the probability of the inversion  
205 genotype based on spatially divergent and informative inversion frequencies [22-25]. We  
206 included those samples where we could infer the genotype of at least three chromosomal  
207 inversions with >75% probability (see details in Table S1 and S2). Comparative inversion  
208 frequency data were compiled for a range of different populations [22-25]. From the eastern  
209 Atlantic we included: the Northeast Arctic, the Norwegian Coast (Lofoten and the southwest),  
210 the North Sea, the Irish Sea, Øresund, and Iceland (both coastal and frontal ecotypes, which  
211 differ in their migratory behaviour). Western Atlantic populations included a number of  
212 populations south and north of Newfoundland (Figure 2a, Table S3 and S4). The highest  
213 specific assignment probabilities are reported as percentages (%) representing the confidence  
214 with which one individual is assigned to a specific population (i.e., 75%). In the event of similar  
215 assignment probabilities for more than one population (e.g., 50% and 50%), both populations  
216 are reported as the putative origin of the individual (i.e., Norwegian Coast or North Sea, see  
217 Tables S3 and S4 for specific details of assignment percentages). Finally, we recognized that  
218 most eastern Atlantic individuals could be further classified with high confidence towards two  
219 spatially distinct groups; an overall assignment to a northernmost (Northeast Arctic and

220 Iceland) or north-central (Norwegian Coast, North Sea, Irish Sea and Øresund) distribution (by  
221 adding the scaled probabilities of source populations; see details in Table S3 and S4).

222  
223 We performed a Fisher's exact test to assess for the existence of an association between bone  
224 element and specimen origin (i.e., sourced through trade versus local landings from the North  
225 Sea or Irish Sea). The test was implemented in the *stats* and *ggstatsplot* libraries in R [56, 57]  
226 using 26 samples that were assigned to a specific source population or the Baltic Sea (Figure  
227 2b and S3). We excluded samples with a northernmost or north-central assignment with less  
228 than 75% probability and samples with an indistinguishable origin (see Results section for  
229 more details).

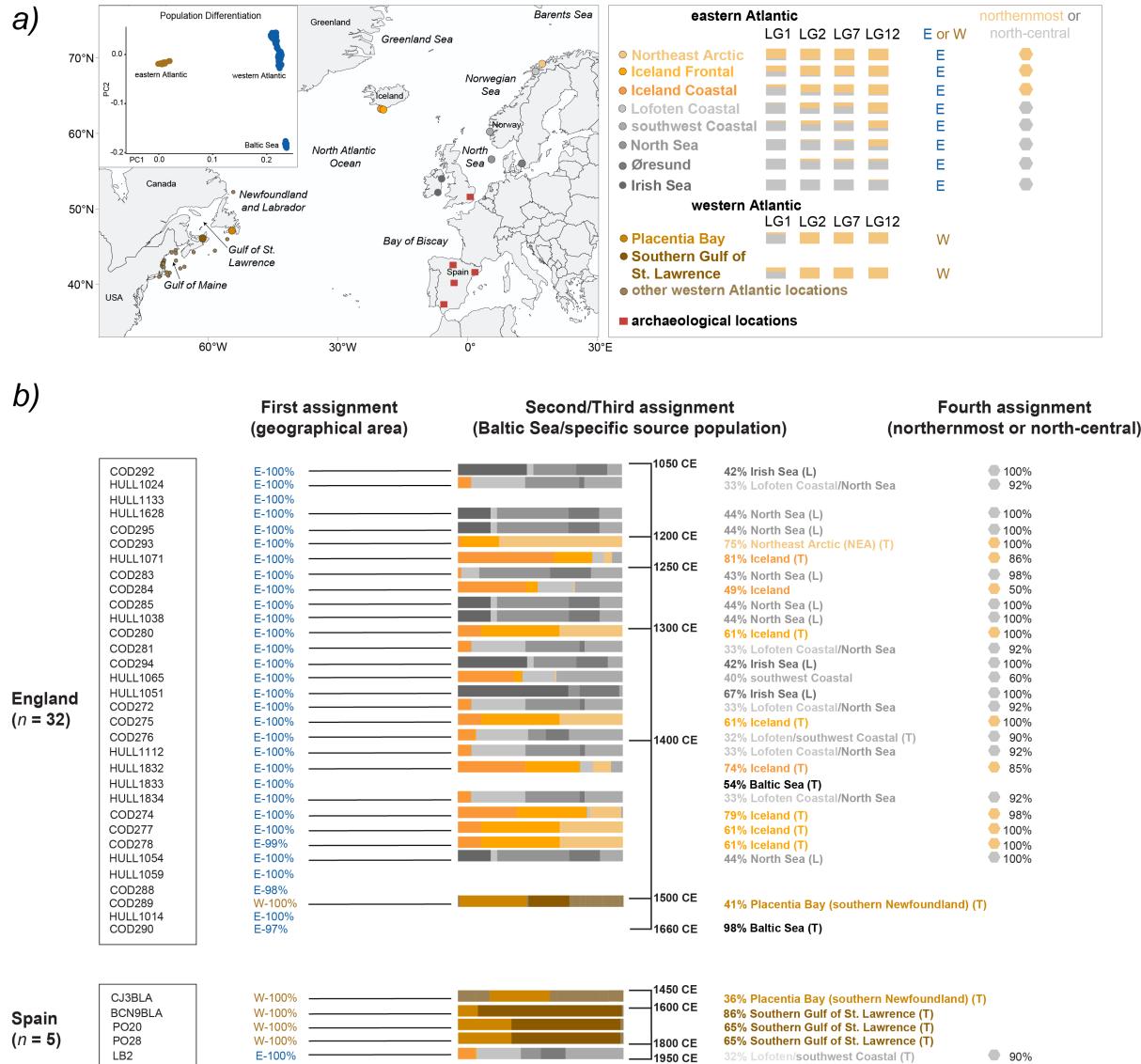
230  
231 **3. Results**

232 We sequenced 37 specimens and obtained a total of ~342 million paired reads, ~9 million  
233 aligned reads and endogenous DNA content between <0.01% and 34% (Table S2). Sequencing  
234 reads showed the patterns of DNA fragmentation and deamination rates that are consistent with  
235 those of authentic aDNA (Figure S1). We successfully assigned these 37 sequenced specimens  
236 to one of the two broad geographical areas (eastern or western Atlantic Ocean), finding a total  
237 of five samples (England = 1, Spain = 4) from the western Atlantic and 32 specimens (England  
238 = 31, Spain = 1) from the eastern Atlantic (Figure 2b, Table S1 and S2). Subsequently, we  
239 assigned a total of 33 out of the 37 samples (England = 28, Spain = 5) to either the Baltic Sea  
240 or to a more specific source population based on the assignment probabilities of their composite  
241 inversion genotypes (Table S2 and Figure 2b). For samples assigned to a specific source  
242 population we could identify 111 out of 124 inversion genotypes with more than 95%  
243 probability (Table S2). Specific assignments are dependent on the source populations provided  
244 for comparison, which can result in low probability assignments as several populations can  
245 share similar inversion genotype frequencies (e.g., <50% probability; Figure 2b). Although  
246 postcranial bones are more commonly assigned to non-local sources, we did not find a  
247 statistically significant association between the bone element (cranial or postcranial) and the  
248 origin (local or traded) of the specimen ( $p = 0.19$ ; Table S1, Figure S2, and S3) with our current  
249 sample size.

250  
251 For London, of the 31 specimens assigned to the eastern Atlantic Ocean, 28 had sufficient data  
252 for estimating genotypes of all inversion loci. We found two specimens that could be assigned  
253 to the Baltic Sea at 54% and 98% probabilities (Figure 2b). We assigned 16 specimens to a

254 north-central haplotype group (with >60% probability) that includes nine specimens with a  
255 possible source population like the North Sea or the Irish Sea (42-67% probability), one  
256 specimen with a southwest Norwegian Coast origin (40% probability), and six specimens with  
257 indistinguishable associations to the Norwegian Coast (both Lofoten and southwest) and the  
258 North Sea (32-33% probability). Nonetheless, these within group assignments are not strongly  
259 supported as the inversion frequency differences of the reference populations are limited.  
260 Similarly, we assigned eight specimens to a northernmost composite genotype group (with  
261 >85% probability), where we found one specimen possibly coming from northern Norway  
262 (Northeast Arctic, 75% probability) and seven specimens likely coming from Iceland (61-81%  
263 probability). We calculated an overall Icelandic origin by adding the probabilities of being  
264 Icelandic frontal or coastal ecotypes. The genomic distinction between Icelandic cod and  
265 Northeast Arctic cod is predominantly driven by the higher frequency of north-central  
266 genotypes (in grey Figure 2a) for the chromosomal inversion LG01 in Iceland [22]. However,  
267 similar inversion frequencies (for LG01) between deep water Icelandic cod and Northeast  
268 Arctic cod have been reported [58]. Considering such similarities, the assignments to Iceland  
269 or the Northeast Arctic should be taken with caution. Moreover, we found an unreliable  
270 assignment for one specimen to a northernmost or north-central composite genotype group  
271 (with 50% probability), resulting in an Icelandic assignment with low confidences (49%;  
272 Figure 2b, Table S3). Finally, as noted above, we assigned one London specimen (dated  
273 between the late fifteenth-sixteenth century) to a western Atlantic origin (with 100%  
274 probability) including a possible low confidence assignment to Placentia Bay (41% probability;  
275 Figure 2b, Table S3).

276  
277 For Spain, we found four specimens assigned to the western Atlantic and one specimen  
278 assigned to the eastern Atlantic (Figure 2b). The assignments to the western Atlantic (with  
279 100% probability) tentatively included source populations along southwestern Newfoundland  
280 (Placentia Bay) or the Gulf of St. Lawrence (with 36-86% probability). We assigned the eastern  
281 Atlantic specimen (with 90% probability) to a north-central composite genotype group which  
282 includes the Norwegian Coast as a putative origin (indistinguishable association to the Lofoten  
283 and southwest Coast with 32-33% probability; Figure 2b, Table S4).



284 **Figure 2. (a)** Geographical distribution of inversion frequencies of chromosomal inversions in  
285 Atlantic cod (LG1, LG2, LG7 and LG12) across the North Atlantic Ocean. The assignment of  
286 specific haplotypes to a geographical area is either eastern (E, in blue) or western (W, in brown)  
287 Atlantic. The population PCA plot was modified from Ferrari, et al. [21] and shows the  
288 differentiation between the eastern and western Atlantic Oceans, and the Baltic Sea (in blue as  
289 it is located within the eastern Atlantic Ocean). Specific alleles associated with a northernmost  
290 composite genotype distribution are assigned in orange. Alleles associated with a more  
291 temperate north-central genotype distribution are assigned in grey. The archaeological  
292 locations are indicated with red squares. The modern populations used as possible source  
293 populations of our ancient specimens are located in the map. **(b)** First genomic assignment:  
294 Overall percentages (%) represent the minimum probability obtained to be from either the  
295 eastern or the western Atlantic Ocean. Second/Third genomic assignment: Source population  
296

percentages (%) represent the highest probability to be assigned to the Baltic Sea or to a specific modern location (Table S2, S3 and S4). Iceland assignment is obtained by adding the probabilities of both frontal and coastal Icelandic ecotypes. Only two locations from the western Atlantic region have divergent inversion genotype frequencies, thus, they have a specific assignment colour (Placentia Bay and Southern Gulf of St. Lawrence). Other western Atlantic locations are represented in light brown colour (Table S3 and S4). The approximate age (CE) of the specimens is indicated on the right side of the bar plot. Specific time periods are found in Table S1, Figure 1 and Figure S2. A local (L) or traded (T) assignment follows putative source population. Specimens are considered to be of local origin with considerable North Sea or Irish Sea assignments, specimens are considered to have been obtained through trade with significant Northeast Arctic, the Norwegian coast, Iceland, Baltic Sea or western Atlantic assignments. Individuals with ambiguous origin (i.e., HULL1024, COD281, COD272, HULL1112, HULL1834) or with a northernmost or north-central origin below 75% probability (i.e., COD284 and HULL1065) are not identified as local or traded. Individuals COD276 and LB2 are identified as traded specimens as their likely origin is a remote population: Norwegian coast (Lofoten or southwest). Fourth assignment: Percentages (%) representing either the northernmost or north-central genotype distribution after adding the scaled probabilities of selected source populations. For details in the sample codes see Table S1.

We have used a novel genomic assignment approach to identify the biological source of individual archaeological Atlantic cod specimens from England and Spain. With high confidence, we assigned fish remains to a large-scale geographical origin (up to 100% assignment probability) and genotype groups within regions (>85% assignment probability). With moderate to low confidence (<86% assignment probability), we tentatively identified several of the specimens to more specific spatially constrained populations. Below we describe the resulting time-space patterns observed in England and Spain, and consider the impact these findings have on our understanding of the globalisation of marine fisheries over the last millennium.

*London: an increasingly North Atlantic trade.*  
Earlier zooarchaeological evidence and stable isotope data [15, 16] implied that Atlantic cod trade was predominantly from local fisheries during the eleventh to twelfth centuries, after which longer-distance imports appeared during the thirteenth to fourteenth centuries. Our

331 individual assignments provide confident aDNA evidence that supports this chronology, with  
332 fish assigned to northern Atlantic regions appearing in increasing frequency over time.  
333 Assignments to specific source populations are often associated with lower individual  
334 probabilities (~32% probability) therefore, these should be considered as indicative only.  
335 Interestingly, our assignment analysis indicates that imported Atlantic cod dated between the  
336 thirteenth to the fourteenth-centuries derived not only from northern Norway but possibly from  
337 Iceland (Figure 2b). According to historical evidence, Iceland first became a major supplier of  
338 dried cod to England during the fifteenth century, when fishermen and merchants from England  
339 and Germany first defied the Norwegian royal monopoly on trade with Iceland [59, 60].  
340 However, exports of *stockfish* from Iceland via Norway commenced *ca.* 1300 CE or earlier [61,  
341 62]. Our results are consistent with this chronology. Icelandic cod in medieval London would  
342 probably have reached England via Bergen, on Norwegian, English, and/or Hanseatic ships  
343 that are known to have traded between Norway and ports of the English east coast [63, 64].

344

345 We also identified samples assigned to the Baltic Sea which is consistent with the beginning  
346 of the eastern Baltic cod fisheries by the fifteenth century [17]. Dried cod as a trading product  
347 was produced near Gdańsk and Curonia in the Baltic Sea [64]. Furthermore, England's  
348 participation in the western Atlantic cod fisheries expanded in south-eastern Newfoundland  
349 during the late sixteenth century (*ca.* 1590; Figure 2b, Table S4) [65]. Therefore, the  
350 observation of a specimen from the western Atlantic dated to the late fifteenth to the sixteenth  
351 centuries currently represents one of the earliest known genetic examples of this trans-Atlantic  
352 expansion. This chronology is consistent with existing knowledge regarding the emergence of  
353 trans-Atlantic cod trade, although, as discussed further below, English catches in North  
354 America were often destined for southern Europe rather than home markets like London [14,  
355 66].

356

357 *Spain: an increasingly trans-Atlantic trade.*

358 Like with the single late fifteenth- to sixteenth-century London cod bone, our findings in Spain  
359 are consistent with known western Atlantic fishing expansion of the early modern period [67].  
360 In a historical context, the Basques and Galicians provided Atlantic cod for Spain throughout  
361 the sixteenth century [66-68]. The fifteenth- to sixteenth-century sample from Spain assigned  
362 to waters of the western Atlantic is consistent with historical sources, which indicate that  
363 Basque fishermen (from Spain and France) and Galicians acquired fish from southern to  
364 western Newfoundland (i.e., Placentia Bay, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, St. Pierre and Miquelon)

365 to fulfil the demand for Atlantic cod in Spain [67, 69-72]. The three later specimens  
366 (seventeenth century and seventeenth to eighteenth centuries) could have derived from Spanish  
367 fishermen operating in Newfoundland [68, 72] or as trade items with English or French  
368 fishermen that had been operating in these grounds since the sixteenth century. In fact, the  
369 English engaged in unofficial trade even when political hostilities disrupted relations with  
370 Spain [66]. These specimens may thus relate to the triangular trade involving an exchange of  
371 Atlantic cod from the western North Atlantic for wine and salt from southern Europe [14]. By  
372 the late nineteenth to early twentieth century, dried Atlantic cod from across the Norwegian  
373 waters could have been used to provision the military centre in Álava (J.A. Quirós pers.  
374 comm.). Our most recent Spanish sample originated from the Norwegian Coast (Figure 2b and  
375 Table S4), is therefore consistent with the supply of northern European air-dried Atlantic cod  
376 since the eighteenth century [73, 74].

377

### 378 **Conclusion**

379 Altogether, our results provide genetic evidence for an expanding trade and increasing demand  
380 for marine fish leading to the exploitation of a great diversity of distant-water sources already  
381 in the Middle Ages. Our evidence also tracks the culmination of the marine fisheries extension  
382 with European exploitation of the western Atlantic fishing grounds around Newfoundland,  
383 starting in the sixteenth century. Our findings emphasise the utility of whole-genome  
384 sequencing and ancient DNA methods to describe the increasing demand for Atlantic cod for  
385 European societies during medieval and postmedieval periods. These results corroborate and  
386 significantly increase existing knowledge about the globalisation of marine fisheries and fish  
387 trade in medieval and early modern times.

388

### 389 **Data accessibility**

390 The raw reads for the ancient specimens are released under the ENA accession number  
391 PRJEB52865.

392

### 393 **Competing interests**

394 We declare we have no competing interests.

395

### 396 **Author contributions**

397 Conceptualization and project design: JHB, BS and LMG. Laboratory work: LMG, GF, AC,  
398 LMA, MC, LLR and BLA. Genomic data curation: LMG and GF. Statistical analysis: LMG.

399 Ancient Atlantic cod specimens and archaeological context information: LLR, AMM, ERI,  
400 JAQ, RMM, DO and JHB. Resources: LLR, AMM, ERI, DO, BH, WFH and JHB. Data  
401 visualization: LMG and BS. Supervision: JHB and BS. Funding acquisition: BS, KSJ, SJ,  
402 WFH, DO and JHB. Original draft: LMG. Review & editing: All authors.

403

#### 404 **Acknowledgements**

405 We thank Lori Lawson Handley for providing ancient DNA resources for this research. We  
406 thank Martin Biddle (Oxford University), Francis Grew (Museum of London), Cath Maloney  
407 (Museum of London), Natasha Powers (MOLA) and Roy Stephenson (Museum of London)  
408 for assistance with sampling and sampling permissions. We thank M. Skage, S. Kollias, A.  
409 Tooming-Klunderud and the Ullevål Sequencing team at the Norwegian Sequencing Centre  
410 for sequencing and processing of the genomic samples. Analyses were performed on resources  
411 provided by UNINETT Sigma2 – the National Infrastructure for High Performance Computing  
412 and Data Storage in Norway.

413

#### 414 **Funding**

415 This work was supported by the Research Council of Norway project “Catching the Past”  
416 (262777), the Leverhulme Trust (F/00 181/R and MRF-2013-065), the European Union’s  
417 Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant  
418 agreement No. 813383 (SeaChanges), the 4-OCEANS Synergy grant agreement no. 951649,  
419 the FISHARC-IF 658022 Marie-Curie-Sklodowska-IF fellowship for Career development and  
420 the European Molecular Biology Organization (ASTF 354-2016). The European Research  
421 Agency is not responsible for any use that may be made of the information this work contains.  
422 This research is also under the framework of the PID-118662GB-100 (FISHCIIS - Fishing  
423 Isotopes) project from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation.

424

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