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DETERMINING SOUTH AMERICAN CAMELID DOMESTICATION THROUGH
SKELETAL MORPHOLOGY

By

RUSSELL GRANT

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ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

Determining South American Camelid Domestication Through Skeletal Morphology

By RUSSELL GRANT

Thesis Director:

Dr. Susan Cachel

South American camelids were domesticated approximately 6000 to 7000 years ago for their meat, coats and usage as beasts of burden. There are two genera of South American camelids, *Lama* and *Vicugna*, each with an extant wild and domesticated species. This thesis looks at assorted collections from Northern Chile in an attempt to find differences in skeletal morphology that will be able to identify a domesticated camelid from a wild one. This was accomplished by performing a series of measurements on collections from the Museo Arqueológico de La Serena in La Serena, Chile. Statistical analysis was performed to see if there is a difference in the bone sizes between the time periods represented in the collections and to determine if it is significant. While a statistical significance was found for some measurements, the hypothesis that a morphological difference would be present to identify domesticates was unable to be supported because species of the same genera in this area of Chile are too similar in overall size.

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Introduction

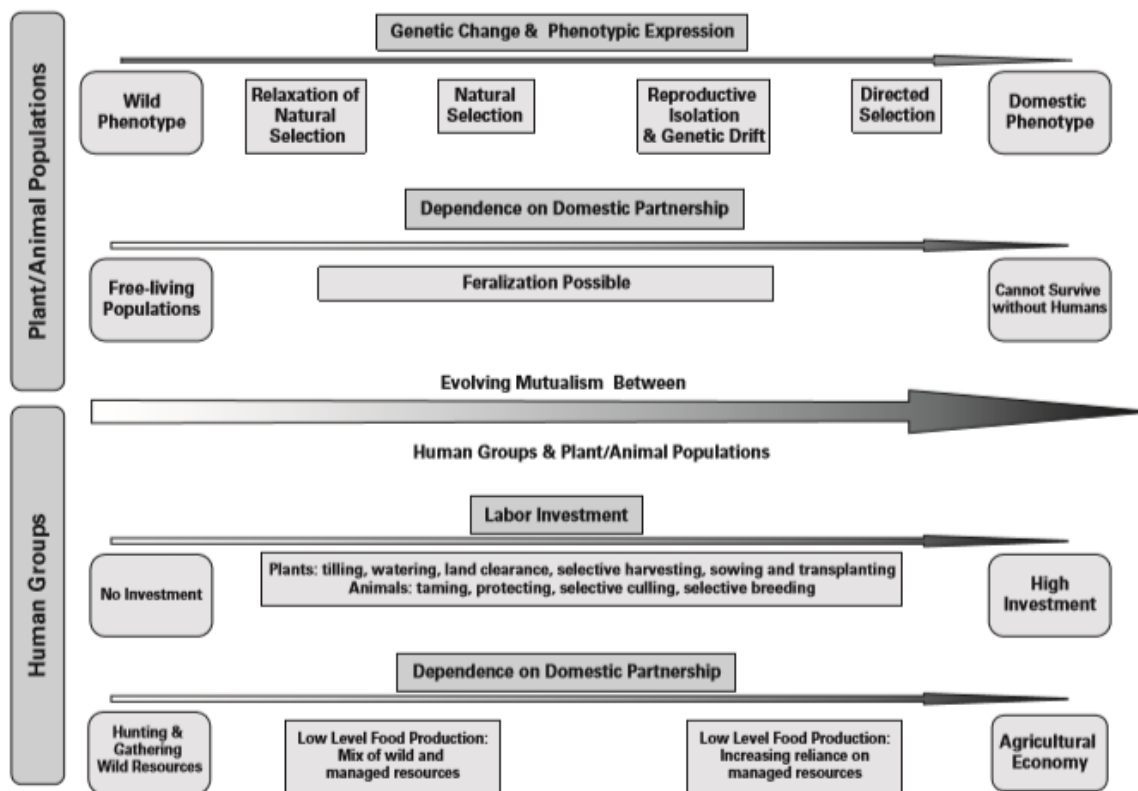
Domestication is a mutualistic relationship that develops between a group of humans and a chosen plant or animal species. Through selective breeding, desirable traits are reinforced to each group's mutual benefit. The types of traits that are considered favorable vary by species, but, in animals, the tolerance of humans is one that is standard. Whether one is discussing the domestication of wolves or cattle, the tolerance for being around humans had to have been a favorable trait that was selectively bred for. This tolerance takes the form of short flight distances away from humans, low reactivity to humans, or sudden changes in environment, and being readily habituated (Zeder 2012). One of the common outcomes shared across domesticated species is a reduction in total brain mass compared to wild ancestral species. This is not a directly selected trait, but it is affected by other selective pressures of domestication (ibid.). The types of domestication-induced changes vary from species to species based on what being selected for.

Though the first instance of domestication is as yet unknown, the location and time of specific species undergoing domestication is based on the known archaeological evidence. The first known species to have been domesticated was the wolf (*Canis lupus*) by hunter-gatherers in Europe and Asia. This may have occurred between 15-17 thousand years before present (kyrs BP) but may have also been as early as 20-30 kyr BP (Vigne 2011). A mitochondrial DNA sequence analysis shows that a divergence between dogs (*Canis familiaris*) and wolves has been found to have occurred more than 100 kyr BP, but the archaeological record only gives data for the aforementioned time spans as possible domestication dates (Vigne 2011). Wolf domestication did not accompany a major change in the way of life for humans at the time, but it did offer aid in hunting strategies, tactics and techniques. The next group of species to be

domesticated included *Capra hircus*, *Sus scrofa*, *Ovis aries*, *Bos taurus* (goat, pig, sheep and cattle respectively) where domestication accompanied the transition from a hunter-gatherer lifestyle to a more sedentary one.

The process of domestication can be expressed along multiple axes when pertaining to both the plant/animal side and the human side. Figure 1 is a flow chart that shows the multiple

Figure 1- Flowchart of Domestication (Zeder 2012)



axes of domestication and what occurs as a result of domestication (Zeder 2012). The primary axis for the plant and animal side has to do with the phenotypic expression of the traits that change as the species shifts from a wild phenotype to a domesticated one. Along the axis, different random and selective processes occur, either isolated or at the same time depending on the species being domesticated and the nature of its relationship to its human partners (Price 1984, 1999, 2002). The directed selection by humans for desirable traits is only one force that

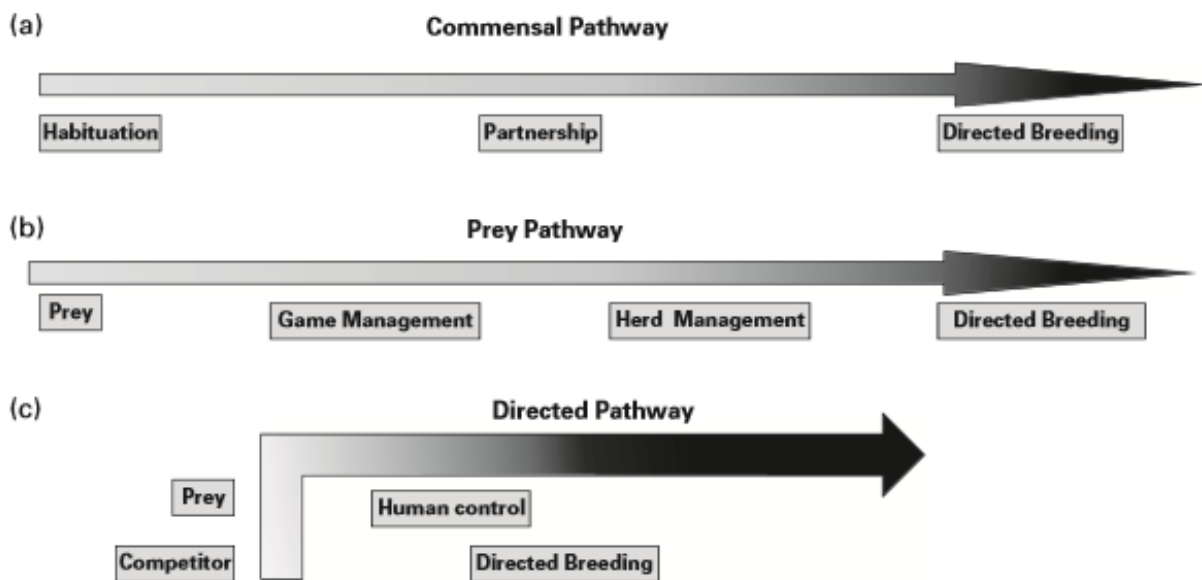
acts on a plant or animal to go from a wild to domesticated species. The easing of natural selection is another factor as the animal or plant comes under human control and it has to adapt to the human environment (Zeder 2012). One of the random forces that comes into play when the small population of plants or animals are isolated from the larger breeding pool and create a “founder” population with more narrow amount of random selection compared to the broader range of genetic variation of the parent population (ibid). As shown in the figure, these factors lie along the “genetic change & phenotypic expression” axis for plants and animals. The other axis for this group is the “dependence on domestic partnership” which starts with these populations being independent but eventually being unable to survive outside of their relationship with humans. The human side of the flow chart also has two axes, “labor investment” and “dependence on domestic partnership”. Labor investment ranges from not having to do any labor to a large number of intensive activities that may alter the plant or animal’s environment by providing nourishment, protection from predation or intervening into its reproductive cycle (Harris 1996, Smith 2007a,b). The increase of dependence on the domesticated species axis can range from being able to subsist completely on free-living populations to an agricultural economy in which domesticates are ~50% of the caloric intake (Smith 2001). For animals, the behavioral characteristics were the key for determining if a species was a target for domestication (Price 1984, 2002). To be able to identify the behaviors selected for and the impacts of those selections on the domesticated animals is necessary to be able to understand animal domestication. These favorable characteristics include elements of social structure, sexual behavior, parent-young interactions, responses to humans as well as feeding behavior and habitat choice (ibid.). Many of the behaviors allow for humans to become part of the animal community by taking leadership, determining breeding partners or assuming a parental role for young

animals after birth (Zeder 2012). Some other factors of note are that promiscuous mating systems, short flight distance from humans, low reactivity to humans and low reactivity changes in environment are all favorable characteristics for an animal that is the target of being domesticated (ibid.). The latter two are considered to be the most important behavioral responses in domesticated animals and is true for all domesticated mammals (Price 1998, 2002).

Domestication pathways

Each domesticated animal species reached their current state by following highly variable pathways that is contingent on broadly defined biological parameters as well as factors that influenced the trajectories of each case of domestication (Zeder 2009). The three different pathways for domestication are the commensal pathway, the prey pathway and the directed pathway. Figure 2 shows a flowchart of the three different pathways and the methods of how a

Figure 2- Flowchart for Pathways to Domestication (Zeder 2012)



species is handled on its way to becoming domesticated. Each pathway contains unique stages that the chosen species experienced as it was being domesticated.

The commensal pathway is mostly associated with species such as chickens, cats, dogs and guinea pigs which came into contact with humans to feed on refuse or other animals near their settlements (Zeder 2012). When referencing Figure 2, the species in the commensal pathway had to get used to being around humans then would interact with each other and finally lead to directed breeding by humans. Archaeological evidence for cat domestication has been pushed back to at least 8,500 years ago (Vigne et al 2004). It is likely that both cats (*Felis catus*) and dogs were initially drawn to human settlements to feast upon the small rodents, birds and human refuse, but cats did not experience the types of changes in cranial morphology or social ecology normally altered in domesticated species (Zeder 2012). Chickens (*Gallus domesticus*) are a species that were domesticated multiple times throughout China and Southeast Asia (Liu et al 2006). The wild jungle fowl that they descended from were likely seeking out easy sources of grain that were able to be found in human waste and a similar pathway is suggested for the domestication of turkeys (*Meleagris gallopavo*) in the southwestern US (Munro 2011). The guinea pig (*Cavia porcellus*) was first domesticated in the Andes around 7,000 years ago and was known to be a food source for humans living in those regions (Spotorno et al 2006). Along with chickens and turkeys, the other domesticate that is a main food source that followed the commensal pathway is the pig. The archaeological evidence is found in southeastern Anatolia as the site of Cayonu has multiple lines of evidence of a relationship between pigs and humans from 10,500 to 8,300 years BP (8,550-6,350 BCE) (Ervynck et al 2001). The indicator used to identify the domesticated pigs is the gradual reduction in molar length resulting from the neotenization of the pig skull morphology.

The species that mark the transition from a hunter-gatherer to agriculturalist lifestyles were used as a source of food through slaughter, as well as the use of by-products such as milk,

wool and leather. These species follow the prey pathway. Many of the major livestock species were domesticated due to the prey relationship with humans. This could have further evolved into actual herd management and controlled breeding strategies. The species that followed this pathway include goats, cattle and sheep as the main target species with other members of the genus *Bos*, South American camelids, and reindeer later in time. A distinctive herd management profile was shown in the assemblages of goat remains from an archaeological site in the Zagros Mountains that dates back to 10,000 years ago (Zeder and Hesse 2000).

When selecting for favorable traits such as ability to produce secondary goods, these herds would have had to have been kept separate from wild animals to prevent admixture. These secondary goods would have included sheep wool goat and cow milk. The domestication-induced morphological changes in the species that followed this pathway were only able to be detectable once humans had separated their herds from wild ones (Zeder 2012). An example of a morphological change a domesticated species may undergo once separated from wild progenitors in the archaeological record is a change in size and shape of the horns of managed sheep and goats approximately 9,500 to 9,000 years BP (7,600-7,100 BCE) in the archaeological site of Ali Kosh in lowland Iran (Zeder 2006b). These types of changes may have arisen from a combination of factors such as the relaxation of selective pressures for larger horns for sexual competition and selection and the selective pressures against larger horns due to them being easier to manage and the animals not having to spend excess energy on the unnecessary horn development (Zeder 2012). Body size is another factor that changes with domestication, including the reduction of sexual dimorphism. A smaller overall body size was observed approximately 9,000 years BP (7,100 BCE) in sheep and goat populations, but it is not clear if it is an product of domestication or due to the warming of the Holocene interglacial period,

introduction of smaller domestic individuals from different areas or a general process of body size reduction that corresponds with the end of the last Ice Age and is seen in both domestic and wild ungulates (Zeder 2012). South American camelids are included in this pathway due to heavy predation of the guanaco (*Lama guanaco*) and vicuña (*Vicugna vicugna*) by humans. It later developed into the management and domestication of the llama (*Lama glama*) and the alpaca (*Vicugna pacos*) (Wheeler et al 2006).

The final pathway of domestication is the directed pathway. This could be identified as mostly regenerative secondary animal resources. Secondary products were found to become prevalent during the 4th millennium BCE (Sherratt 1983). The origin on secondary animal exploitation looks closely at agriculture and the beginnings of the use of plows to cultivate fields in areas such as Mesopotamia during the 4th and 5th millennia BCE. During the same time period, an increase of sheep that were kept to a greater age as well as the appearance of cattle suggests the usage of milk and wool (ibid.). Long distance trade also became more common during the 4th millennium BCE as Egypt and Mesopotamia traded via land routes using caravans of pack animals to Palestine, Syria and Iran. The horse (*Equus caballus*), for which there is archaeological evidence suggesting multiple domestication events, provides many primary and secondary resources such as meat, hides, milk, and transportation (Olsen 2006). There are no apparently morphological markers in the postcranial skeleton that can be used to distinguish domestic from wild horses, but archaeologists use evidence of butchery and corrals to identify the presence of domesticated horses. Morphometric analyses conducted on the metapodials of ritually slaughtered donkeys (*Equus asinus*) revealed a considerable amount of compression-induced pathologies, due to carrying heavy loads (Rossel et al 2008). However, the analyses showed that the metapodials of these specimens were similar to the wild donkeys and different

from modern domestic donkeys. The only hint of domestication-induced morphological change is a slight modification in metapodial mid-shaft depth and distal breadth dimensions (Zeder 2012). Other species to have followed this pathway include the Bactrian camel (*Camelus bactrianus*), the mink (*Mustela vison*), and the chinchilla (*Chinchilla lanigera*). The mink and chinchilla were selectively bred for their coat quality only over the past 100-200 years. The Bactrian camel does not have any archaeologically detectable morphological difference between the domestic and wild camels (Peters and von den Driesch 1997).

South American Camelid Domestication History

A Natural History of Camelids

Camelids are the only large herd animal native to South America. The guanaco and llama are part of the genus *Lama*, while the vicuña and alpaca are part of the genus *Vicugna*. The vicuña and guanaco are the wild species and the alpaca and the llama are the domesticated ones. They were domesticated originally for food and coats in the case of the guanaco and vicuña respectively. DNA analyses have been used when researching the South American camelids to determine the relationship between species. The vicuña, guanaco, llama and alpaca fall into two genera, with a wild and domesticated species in each. Body sizes of those species grouped together are closer as the guanaco and llama are larger than the species of genus *Vicugna*. The guanaco has the largest geographic distribution, ranging from Peru to Tierra del Fuego and residing on both sides of the Andes, and though it was originally thought to have four subspecies, DNA analysis only shows two (Mengoni Goñalons 2008, Wheeler 1995). These two are the *Lama guanicoe cacsilensis* and the *Lama guanicoe guanicoe* and are classified as the northern and southern forms respectively. The northern form has been suggested to be the ancestor to the llama based on genetic research. The vicuña also has two subspecies that can be described based

on physical appearance such as body size and fleece color. The subspecies are the *Vicugna vicugna mensalis* and the *vicugna vicugna vicugna* and they are also classified as a northern and southern form respectively (Mengoni Goñalons 2008). DNA analyses of these two subspecies confirm that they are separate subspecies and it suggests that the northern form is the ancestor for the alpaca.

Figure 4- Map of Chile with Regions



Figure 3- Map of Chile with Cities



The alpaca is not as widely spread as the other species, mostly being found in northern Chile and central Peru. Two maps of Chile are shown in Figures 3 and 4. Figure 3 shows Chile with the main cities and names. Figure 4 is a map showing Chile with its various regions and the names of those regions. There are two recognized varieties of alpaca, which can be identified by their coats. The *huacaya* has a short and crimped fleece while the *suri* has longer and wavy fibers (Calle Escobar 1984). The llama has a larger geographic range than the alpaca and is found in Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, northwestern Argentina and northern and central Chile. It has been

recorded in valleys, high elevations and coastal locations, making it the most adaptable of the South American camelids. The two variations of llama are the *chaku* and the *ccara*. The *chaku* has finer fibers than the *ccara* but both can and have been used as pack animals. Table 1 displays the distribution of the variations and subspecies of the South American camelids.

Genus Name	Species Name	Subspecies/Variation Name	Location
<i>Lama</i>	<i>Lama glama</i> (Llama)	1. Chaku 2. Ccara	Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, NW Argentina, Northern Chile.
<i>Lama</i>	<i>Lama guanicoe</i> (Guanaco)	1. <i>Lama guanicoe cacsilensis</i> 2. <i>Lama guanicoe guanicoe</i>	1. Peru, Bolivia, Northern Chile 2. Central and Southern Chile, Argentina
<i>Vicugna</i>	<i>Vicugna pacos</i> (Alpaca)	1. Huacaya 2. Suri	Northern Chile and Central Peru
<i>Vicugna</i>	<i>Vicugna vicugna</i> (Vicuña)	1. <i>Vicugna vicugna mensalis</i> 2. <i>Vicugna vicugna vicugna</i>	1. Peru, Bolivia, Northern Chile 2. Central Chile, Argentina

Table 1- South American Camelid Variations and Locations (Mengoni Goñalons 2008)

The llama and alpaca variations do not have different locations they are found in but the two wild South American camelids do, separating into northern and southern variations.

Mummified camelids revealed that there was greater diversity of forms prior to the Spanish conquest and that there are no present counterparts for those forms (Wheeler et al 1995). The present day species differ in size to an extent as the vicuña is the smallest, followed by the alpaca and then the llama and guanaco having the same size gradient as they can overlap based on location. Guanacos living in low or mid-latitudes are smaller than those living at higher latitudes. Llamas have been noted to have some of the same latitudinal variation with the smaller ones overlapping in size with guanacos from northwestern Argentina and Northern Chile. It has been discussed that these individuals are a more appropriate standard for osteometric studies than the

larger animals near Tierra del Fuego if the research is looking at local size grouping, regional size variation or changes in size along time on a local or larger scale (Mengoni Goñalons 2008).

Camelid domestication pathways

As stated in Zeder 2012, the South American camelids, *Lama glama* and *Vicugna pacos*, were domesticated via the prey pathway but the Bactrian camel (*Camelus bactrianus*) is listed as a species that was domesticated in the final pathway of domestication, the directed pathway. With the camelids, the separation in pathways occurs due to the fact that the South American camelids were domesticated through a predator and prey relationship that later became herd management, while the Bactrian camels were domesticated primarily for transportation and secondary resources. The presence of camel remains in settlements starting during the third millennium and spreading during the fourth millennium suggests its usage as a transport animal (Sherratt 1983). While the Bactrian camel does not have any archaeologically detectable morphological differences between wild and domestic, the dromedary (*Camelus dromedaries*) does not have any extant wild camels to compare to the domestic ones. There is little evidence of morphological differences in skeletons of camels possibly from pre- and post-domestication contexts in the Arabian Peninsula (Clutton-Brock 1981). Since these camelids have not yet been able to be identified in an archeological assemblage via morphological differences, the presence of domesticated individuals can be identified via pathologies, the presence of corrals and written accounts (Cartajena et al 2007). These techniques are used for the South American camelids as well, but with these camelids following the prey pathway to domestication, the evidence of the same types of pathologies will not be present as they were associated with the additional stresses the animal took on. This study aims to find if the South American camelids in northern Chile have a morphological difference between species or between domesticates and wild individuals.

South American camelids

The guanaco and vicuña are the wild progenitors to the llama and alpaca. These are the separation for the two genera of South American camelids, *Lama* and *Vicugna*. The South American camelids are believed to have been domesticated between 6000 and 7000 BP (4,050-5,050 BCE) (Wheeler et al 1995). The first evidence of herding is present by 3800 BP (1,850 BCE) in the valleys of Peru and northern Chile and the first instance of herding to be documented occurred approximately 1600 years ago.

Characteristics	guanaco <i>L. guanicoe</i>	vicuña <i>V. vicugna</i>	llama <i>L. glama</i>	alpaca <i>L. pacos</i>
Withers height in cm	small 100 large 110 120	70 90	109 119	94 104
Adult weight in kg	small 96 large 120 130	40 55	130 150	59.4 ± 7.3
Gestation in days	small ? large 345 360	342 345	348 368	330 350
Birth weight in kg	small ? large 8 15	4 6	8 16	6 7
Condylar-basal length of skull in mm	small 244 large 280 ± 25	225	250	221
Feeding habits	browser-grazer	grazer	browser-grazer	grazer
Behaviour	polygynous migratory and sedentary	polygynous sedentary territorial	polygynous territorial	polygynous territorial
1991 Andean population	602 907	92 882	3 776 793	2 811 612
Status	wild, vulnerable species	wild, endangered species	domestic, population steady	domestic, population in decline

Figure 5- Comparison of South American Camelids (Wheeler 1995)

The earliest fossil evidence of the guanaco is from Argentina during the Pleistocene which date back to approximately 2 million years ago (Wheeler 1995). Before European contact, the guanaco was found along the Pacific coast into the high Andes from 8 degrees South latitude to Tierra del Fuego. Figure 5 is a graphic from Wheeler (1995) that compares all of the camelid species in basic measurements and behaviors. This demonstrates how variable the guanaco size

can be with its small and large variations. The vicuña is the smallest of the South American camelids and fossil evidence suggests that the genus *Vicugna* could have originated on the Argentine plains as early as two million years ago (Harrison 1985). This is supported by mitochondrial DNA sequence data that shows a divergence between vicuña and guanaco at least 2 million years ago (Stanley et al 1994). The vicuña is known for its long coat that was harnessed for fine textiles. The earliest evidence of camelid domestication comes from archaeological sites between elevations of 4000m and 4900m in the Peruvian Andes in which archaeological sites contain evidence of pens and have camelid bones present. Both the guanaco and the vicuña were known to have inhabited this area and faunal material that suggests occupation of the area between 12,000 and 7,500 years ago. The number of camelid remains increased from 65% to 82% of the total faunal sample with over a third coming from fetal or neonatal individuals (Wheeler 1995). This is consistent with a hunting economy and shows the increased dependence on camelids as a dietary component. The llama was similar in almost all aspects of morphology and behavior to its presumed ancestor, the guanaco. Believed to be the guanaco's domestic descendent, the llama also lives in a wide range of environments but was domesticated in the Peruvian Andes between 7,000 and 6,000 years ago. While they were used as a food source, they also were used as pack animals and for their fibers. The alpaca, the domestic descendant of the vicuña, was used primarily for its fine fibers. This species is of similar size and behavior to the vicuña, being smaller than the llama and guanaco. The conquest by the Spanish devastated the camelid populations when they were displaced from their natural habitat to extremely high elevation pastures (Wheeler 1995).

The place of camelids in present-day and past South American society

Camelids yield both primary and secondary products as a domesticated species, including meat, hide and fiber (Mengoni Goñalons and Yacobaccio 2006). Members of both genera were used for rituals and ceremonies and still are used today. In the times of the Inca, the vicuñas were captured, sheared and released to make use of their coats as a renewable resource while the guanaco were hunted for their meat, grease and hides (Sherratt 1983). As the only large herd animal in the Andean region, the camelids were used in similar ways as that of cattle or sheep which were not introduced into South America until after European colonization. The llama was used as a beast of burden as well, due to its larger size and stature. Its use as a pack animal is believed to have allowed the Incan empire to move extensive goods within its own territories in caravans. One of the essential goods that was not only traded via the caravans but are a product of the camelids themselves is textile.

Textiles were used in both ritual and utilitarian functions and large herds of camelids were maintained to use llamas as pack animals for the royal armies and alpaca fiber for textile productions (Wheeler et al 1995). There was also a herd that was raised to obtain high quality individuals of pure color for ritual sacrifices and these animals were left in the care for hereditary specialists known as the *llama camayoc*. Different coat colors were used for different ceremonies, including white coats to be sacrificed to the sun, red-brown at the beginning of the agricultural year and black coated camelids, which were starved and sacrificed in times of crisis (Murra 1978). The meat from the camelids was used in the form of dried *ch'akri*, which is where the word “jerky” is derived from (Stahl 1999). This meat was able to be transported over a longer distance because of its longer “shelf-life.” When observing a marketplace in Cuczo, it was discovered that the meat is never made from the foot or head elements, but only body or limb

parts. This led to the hypothesis that sites with the absence of foot elements could be correlated with areas where *ch'arki* was traded (Browman 1989). Today, alpacas are still kept as wool producers as their wool can be traded or sold on international markets while llamas have seen their roles as beasts of burden get replaced by the likes of mules or trucks (McGreevy 1989).

Previous Studies on SA Camelid domestication

Until the discovery of 26 perfectly preserved llama and alpaca mummies, it was not known what the pre-contact species looked like. These mummies come from the site of El Yaral in Peru. They date to 950-1350CE and allowed for extensive analysis of the fibers used to create the famed South American textiles (Wheeler et al 1995). They were identified by phenotypic attributes and incisor morphology. Most of the valuable information obtained from these mummified camelids revolved around the fibers and skin samples as these were not previously preserved in such a way. Values such as fiber diameter were measured and were compared to the contemporary specimens. The fibers for the ancient specimens were much finer than their modern day counterparts indicating the great deal of care that went into caring for and maintaining the herds of camelids used for their coats. The mummified remains also allowed for the different shades of coats to be identified. Of the 26 specimens, two of them were multicolored, the coarse fiber llama male which was eliminated from the gene pool at 3 months, and a brown and white alpaca coat (Wheeler et al 1995). An interesting possibility is that the coarse fibered llama represented an individual that was not bred for fiber production, but rather to be a beast of burden.

Prior studies that have looked at indicators of camelid domestication mostly have been based on the size differences between the four South American camelid species. This is founded on the assumption that body size should be linked with the size of the bones and is supported by

a study of a large sample of alpaca of different age groups that exhibit a strong correlation between individual body size and bone measurements (Mengoni Goñalons and Yacobaccio 2006). Sexual dimorphism of camelid species does not have significant size differences and does not hinder the study of inter-species size differences (Del Papa 2015). Crania were used when possible to determine the genus of an individual based on the size as well as age from the teeth in the maxilla or mandible. Most osteometric distinctions are focused on postcranial bones.

Figure 6- Camelid (Llama) Skeleton Diagram (Exploring Nature 2017)

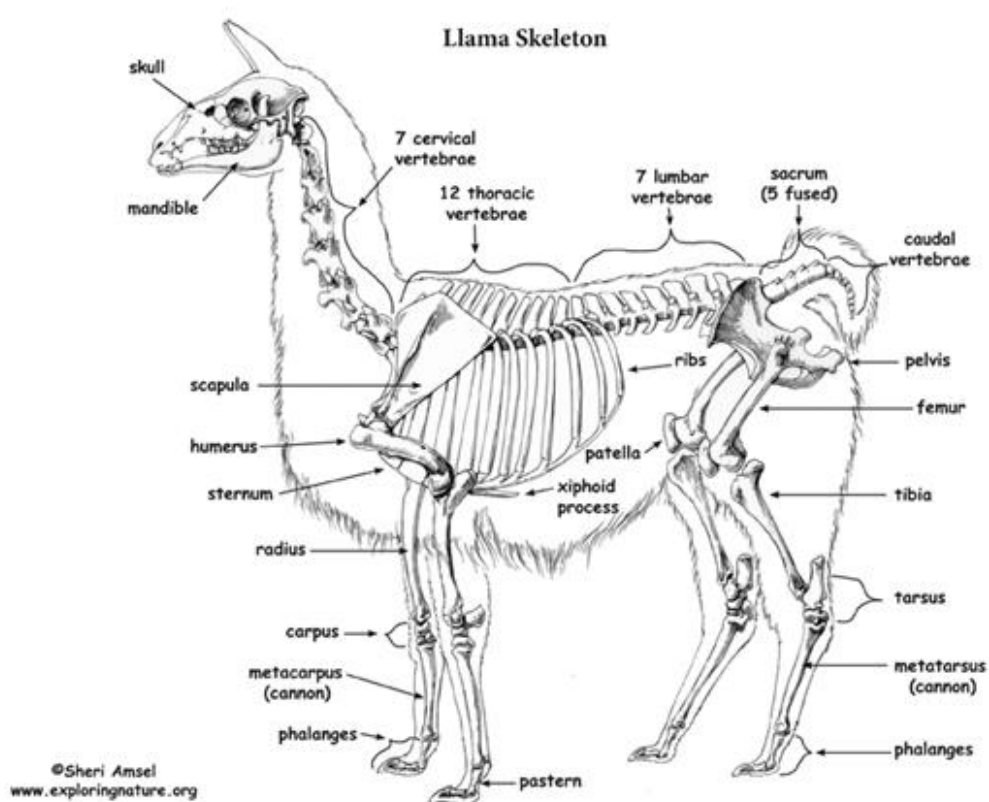


Figure 6 shows a skeletal model of a modern llama. Like other ungulates, the South American camelids have long metapodials that resemble long bones and their carpals and tarsals are equivalent to knee joints in other mammals. Skeletal elements are well-preserved and, as such, are well represented in the archaeological record. They are usually the bones of choice for such studies. It has been stated previously that it is not possible to distinguish among the

different species from the morphology of fragmentary bone remains alone (Pollard and Drew 1975). One element that is effective in discerning between species is the proximal end of the first phalanx as univariate analyses of the breadth and width measurements of that feature differ between species (Miller 1979). The length measurements of the first phalanx are not useful mostly due to it being difficult to distinguish between the first phalanges of the front and hind limbs. Other elements that corroborate the univariate analyses of first phalanx measurements include astragali, calcaneum and distal metapodials when analyzed with multiple variables.

These osteometric measurements aid in what is normally a difficult process of identifying the species based on differences. While there are the two separate genera (*Lama*, *Vicugna*), the wild and domestic species within each genus can differ in size and the degree of overlap between various domestic and wild forms is difficult to measure (Mengoni Goñalons and Yacobaccio 2006). It becomes even more difficult to discern due to known interbreeding and hybridization. The guanaco is widespread, ranging from Peru to Tierra del Fuego, but the populations in lower latitudes are the smallest. This strong clinal variation in size is also suspected to be evident in the vicuña but requires more studies (ibid.). This pattern is similar to modern wild goats in Iran and it is inferred for pigs in the Alps. These cases seem to be a function of Bergmann's rule as the body size increases with decreasing temperature. Bergmann's rule states that an individual's body size will be larger in a location where the temperature is lower. If one only compares species from the same geographical region, a different set of results would be obtained due to the elimination of bias in size variation (ibid.).

One element that has been used in previous studies when attempting to identify different species of camelids from faunal remains is the proximal or first phalanx. It has a very high survivorship as a complete specimen in collections. Some of the measurements used in the past

for proximal phalanx studies include maximum length, thickness of proximal end and thickness of distal articular surface (Del Papa 2015). Both of the thickness measurements are also used for density scan sites. The scan sites for bone density pose a problem by not knowing the cortical bone thickness, but this does not effect a size measurement of the articular surfaces (Stahl 1999). Forelimb and hindlimb phalanges differ in that a forelimb phalanx is larger on average. It has been previously observed that the hindlimb phalanges have a more marked difference between species compared to the forelimb phalanges (Del Papa 2015). Some studies continued research by using pathological marks on the bones to determine the stress of being a pack animal and these studies focused on phalanges and metapodials (Labarca and Gallardo 2015). Morphological change has been seen via pathologies brought on by keeping animals confined (Meadow 1989).

In a study that analyzed remains from the Puna de Atacama in Northern Chile, osteometric criteria were used to find the best taxonomic determination of remains of camelids (Cartajena et al 2007). One of the few morphological differences known that can be used to identify the species is the incisors of the vicuña. It is stated that taxonomic assignation by osteometric means is difficult as there are no significant size differences between domestic and wild species, but multivariate statistical methods can easily display a difference between the large and small size camelid groups (Wheeler 1991). It is particularly difficult to determine between llama and guanaco due to the overlapping sizes between the species. The study continued by focusing on metapodials and first phalanx, as the most numerous bones due to their high survivability in the chosen sites, but also using the presence of pathologies on the bone to find conditions relating to degenerative diseases that are related to domesticated animals when they experience long periods of exercise, movement restrictions or poor diet (Cartajena et al 2007). It is stated that the presence of the pathologies in the Late Archaic period (3,100-1,900

BCE) indicates stress conditions which can be considered as evidence of human control over camelids. The pathologies only occur on larger camelids, not those in the *Vicugna* genus.

Differences between the species in the skeletal morphology are hard to find, but previous studies have identified 51 qualitative features that show clear and precise identification (Adaro and Benavente 1990a, 1990b; Benavente and Adaro 1991; Benavente et al 1993). One problem with this technique is deciding if a feature is “very developed”, “less developed”, or “little developed” with distinction due to the subjectivity of the criteria. These morphological differences may also be the result of individual difference such as robusticity of muscles and do not allow for clear taxonomic distinctions. With many of the remains from archaeological

assemblages being fragmentary, it adds to the difficulty of using those techniques to identify morphological differences between the species.

Regional Background

The area encompassing this study is the semiarid north of Chile. This includes parts of the Atacama region (3rd region), the Coquimbo region (4th region), and parts of the Valparaíso region (5th region). Figure 7 is a map focusing on the Coquimbo region. Chile is made up of regions rather which can be

likened to the United States being comprised of states. Above the Coquimbo region to the north

Figure 7- Map of Coquimbo (4th) Region



is the Atacama region and the Valparaíso region lies to the south. The Museo Arqueológico de La Serena is located in La Serena, Chile in the Coquimbo region. It is in the southern area of the semiarid north and along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. In the winter, when this study was taking place, temperatures would range from 30 degrees Fahrenheit in the morning to 60 degrees Fahrenheit midday. The average rainfall for this area is approximately 127mm annually while areas further north have registered less than 10mm annually (Rosado 1994). Palynological studies were conducted for a period after 9,000 years ago have shown that there have only been minor fluctuations in humidity and temperature when compared to the present. The aridity in the Atacama region may have begun as early as the Eocene and became “hyperarid” by the middle Miocene (Latorre et al 2003). The hyperaridity occurs due to the rainshadow cast by the Andes which blocks the moisture from the Amazon Basin. Precipitation in the Atacama is very scarce and consists of fog and winter rains in coastal areas with summer storms that will cross the Altiplano plateau and spill over the Andes onto the coastal regions (Latorre et al 2003). This allows for a greater density of vegetation on the coast due to the moisture present from a thick fog that is present during the morning. This moisture from fog will get trapped in interior valleys and these are the locations used for vineyards to produce wine shipped internationally. The present type of vegetation was described by the Spanish, so habitats have not changed since 1500 CE. Vegetation included various *Cactaceae*, *Pinus*, *Acacia caven*, *Schinus molle* and *Lithrea caustic* (Rosado 1994).

The landscape of the northern parts of the 4th region is flat with gradual inclines, a large difference to the known rugged terrain that South American camelids traverse. The landscape and topography for the semiarid north has the Andes to the east and the Pacific Ocean to the west. Between those is a series of transverse tectonic valleys separated by smaller mountain

ranges known as the Coastal Cordillera. This lies to the west of the Altiplano-Puna plateau of the Central Andes. This plateau is only second to the Tibetan plateau in terms of height and extent (Allmendinger et al 1997). Altiplano means “high plain” in Spanish. Puna is a term used to describe the ecosystems of the high Central Andes between 3200-3400m above sea level. The Altiplano-Puna plateau of northern Chile underwent dramatic climatic change starting around 14,000 BP (12,050 BCE) until a culmination between 13,000 BP (11,050 BCE) and 9,500 BP (8,550 BCE) (Nunez et al 2002). The area began as very arid and shifted toward humid conditions during that time span. There was extensive grass coverage and a high level of plant diversity. Sites found at paleoshorelines of Altiplano lake basins at high elevations contained an abundance of lithic artifacts and bones of South American camelids, specifically *Vicugna vicugna* and *Lama* species (ibid.). Rainfall in the Altiplano-Puna plateau ranges from less than 20mm in the Atacama region to ~200mm annually. There is a system of eight rivers that drain the semiarid north into the Pacific Ocean and they originate between 90 and 100 kilometers inland. At the time of the materials studied for this thesis, the rivers were used to provide irrigation for agriculture (Rosado 1994).

Time Period	Approximate Year Range
Archaic	7,730-400 BCE
Formative	2,000 BCE-200 CE
Animas	~1300-~1100 years BP
Diaguita	~1100 years BP- 1536 CE

Table 2- Chronology Table (Rosado 1994)

The cultures that were present in the study area have provided radiocarbon dates ranging from 7,730 years BCE until 1536 CE. This ranges from the Archaic to the Diaguita time periods. Table 2 displays the chronology of the semiarid north of Chile and the time periods that are associated with the material in this thesis. For the Archaic time period, it was noted that a

chronological sequence was difficult to establish in the semiarid north (Kuzmanic and Castillo 1986). The earliest known culture to have been located here was the Huentelauquen culture, which resided in an interior valley. An approximate age for this culture was given of around 3,500 BCE but there is similar cultural material at a site with a date of $7,450 \pm 160$ BCE (Rosado 1994). Many of these early cultures are identified by lithics, projectile points, and grinding tools. In a period between 2955-500 BCE, there was a decrease in funerary offerings and instruments used for hunting, but an increase in tools used for grinding that suggests the increased consumption of plants. This subsistence pattern continues with the addition of maritime hunting and gathering throughout the Archaic period. The Diaguita period had ceramics with red, black and white geometric designs (Rosado 1994). The word “Diaguita” comes from the Spaniards first description of the local people. From sites dating to 1200 through 1450 CE, camelid skeletons were found in association with human remains, and interpreted as sacrifices. Sacrifice continued as a cultural behavior until 1536 CE when the Spanish arrived. All bones were labeled with the time period they came from based on the site they were found in. There were four different time periods that given, in Spanish, are Arcaico, Formativo, Diaguita, and Animas. Arcaico and Formativo translate to Archaic and Formative. The archaic material was noted as coming from the Late Archaic, so there is the chance of overlap with some formative material as they are back to back. The time periods are defined as follows: Late Archaic from 3,500-400 BCE, Formative from 2000 BCE-200 CE, Animas from ~650-~850 years before present and Diaguita which is continuous from ~850- 1536 CE. In 1536 CE, the Spanish arrived in Chile and it is used as a cut-off for the time period as it marks a large change in culture and society in the area. This area is known in the scientific community for its observatories. One observatory, known as Mamalluca, is part of the Falcon Telescope Network for the United States Air Force

(Chun et al 2014). It is located 100 kilometers east of La Serena and is only one of the few observatories in the vicinity. The dryness and altitude of these locations allows for the radio waves to penetrate the remaining gases and pass through the atmosphere with little distortion (ALMA 2017). With the accessibility of the Andes Mountains and the Atacama Desert as these ideal locations, Chile has become a location for astronomers to study the objects found in the southern sky, such as the center of the galaxy and the Large and Small Magellanic Clouds (ibid.)

Methods

In this study, camelid bones from Northern Chile, primarily the 3rd and 4th regions, were identified, measured and documented to be able to discern information about domestication from bone morphology. The bones were originally in boxes organized by site but within the boxes were various bags of bones that were sometimes identified but mostly not. The identifications were also not reliable as elements were not correctly identified. None of the prior identifications were used and all samples were reexamined to exclude non-camelid bones. All of the data was collected during a two week period in La Serena, Chile at the Museo Arqueológico de La Serena. I was given access to their labeled zooarchaeological collections in storage as well as boxes that had not been cataloged since their arrival from the field. The site location, region, province, area were recorded and photographed before the contents of each box were sorted. From the site data, an archaeologist at the museum was consulted to learn the time period that the material at each site was from. All identifiable camelid faunal material from the specified boxes of faunal material was included for this research.

Time Period	Approximate Year Range	Atacama Region Sites (6891m-0m elevation)	Coquimbo Region Sites (6160m-0m elevation)	Valparaiso Region Sites (6110m-0m elevation)
Archaic	7,730-400 BCE		Museo del Desierto, Museo del Desierto Conaf, Posesion Buenos Aires, Alero SP Viejo de Pichasco.	
Formative	2,000 BCE- 200 CE		Estero El Valle, El Olivar	Estero El Valle, Estero El Malle Interior Comundid La Villa
Animas	~650-~850 CE		El Olivar, Urbano Centro (Valle de Elqui), Plaza G. Mistral,	
Diaguita	~850 – 1536 CE	Calle Independencia y O' Higgins.	El Olivar, Parcela N 21, Parcela N 24, El Olivar- Loteo Brillarmar	El Olivar- Loteo Brillarmar (La Villa Estero El Mallo)

Table 3- Chronology and Sites Table

Table 3 shows a chronology table with the site names provided in association with the time period they were said to have been occupied during.

Each bone was individually measured using an osteoboard or digital calipers. The specific measurements taken on each bone were measured using digital calipers and then each included bone was photographed with a scale ruler of either 10cm or 25cm. The digital calipers were reset to zero and wiped clean after each measurement to make sure that there was as little error as possible since measurements were measured in millimeters. The only measurement not taken in millimeters was the total length measurements which were taken in centimeters for all specimens.

The skeletal elements chosen for this study were the long bones as well as phalanges and the carpals and tarsals. Vertebrae, pelvic and cranium bones were not included as the hypothesis considered the possible weight bearing of these animals as beasts of burden and focused on areas that would be most affected by that behavior. Teeth were not included in this study as they were fragmentary and I did not have the resources to identify camelid teeth from other possibly ungulates. Due to the exclusion of teeth, individual bones were determined as being juvenile or adult by the presence of epiphyses and diaphysis. Those without epiphyses were not included for statistical analysis as it would skew the results. If an unfused epiphysis was able to be matched to the bone it fit with, it would be measured and photographed together but noted as an unfused epiphysis. Craniodental remains were also not included since the majority of which included fragmentary mandibles and were unable to yield meaningful measurements. The specific measurements on the bones represent some of the scan sites for bone density from “Bone Density and Differential Survivorship of Fossil Classes” by R. Lee Lyman. These models show many possible measurement sites on a variety of ungulate bones and those that were seen to have the greatest survivorship were continued. With these measurements originally being designed for measuring density, the usage of them to observe weight bearing areas seemed appropriate because they were marked as scan sites due to the known structural variation between bones as well as the survivability of the measurement locations (Lyman 1984). I believe that the density scan locations chosen are able to be applied to areas thought to bear weight because they are locations where muscle attachments are made to the bone and a strengthening of these muscles could be evident on the bones. If bones were found to be broken and the pieces were present, they were looked at to see if the break occurred posthumously or during life. It was concluded that all broken bones that were able to be reassembled were broken after death and not the result

of butchery. A few bones did have areas cut out of them for previous sampling and these were noted as such but the information about the previous sampling was not unable to be obtained at the time of this study.

The identification of camelid remains was aided by resources that included pictures of bones as well as text descriptions (Torres et al 1986). The text descriptions include siding information as well as size information and identification for similar looking carpals and tarsals. Other resources provided comparative information for morphological differences between the different species, but these are based on remains from Peru. With the remains for this study originating in Northern Chile, the species may have different regional size variation, and thus

Figure 8- Chart of Measurements Used (Lyman 1984)

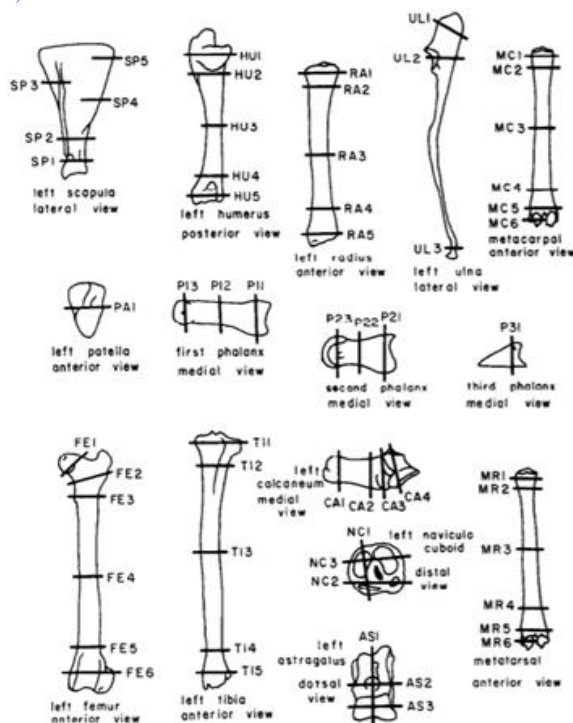


FIG. 2—Continued.

these resources could not be unequivocally used. No available resources showed a difference in bone morphology for South American camelids for this region.

Identifiable bones include phalanges, femur, humeri, tibia, radii, ulna, metapodials, calcaneum, astragali, and various carpals and tarsals. The number of identified specimens (NISP) is 756 bones. Each of those bones may have anywhere

from one to six measurements per bone based on how much of the bone was present and which measurements were able to be taken. The measurements were directed toward covering the facets of the bones that might exhibit change when introduced to weight-bearing behavior. Figure 8 is a

graphic from “Bone Density and Differential Survivorship of Fossil Classes” by R. Lee Lyman and shows what these measurements were based off of. Most bones were measured proximally, distally and medially in addition to the specific measurements targeting possible weight-bearing areas. Additional measurements include the bifurcation point (highlighted in Figure 9), or MC5, of the metapodials and the epicondylar gap of the femur for example (Lyman 1984). The basic proximal, medial, and lateral measurements were taken across the long bones and vertically for the phalanges to examine their robustness.

Figure 9-Photograph of Metapodial with Highlighted Bifurcation Point



The phalange measurements were chosen based on

the aforementioned resource as well as the previous studies using camelid phalanges (Del Papa 2015). The chosen measurements were also used in a study that looked at the first phalanges of all four contemporary South American camelids from various sites throughout

the continent (Izeta et al 2009). The proximal and distal articular surfaces were chosen because of their inclusion in previous studies, but were also marked on the density scan site studies that were being used for all of the other bones to maintain uniformity. The measurement locations were decided on prior to knowing the exact quality or quantity of faunal remains that were going to be present in the museum collections, as there was no record of how many camelid bones were present in the mixed faunal remains collections.

Each bone was given a minimum of two measurements and a maximum of six. The bones were sided if possible and identified as unfused, partial, sampled or noted for wear. If the

element was partial, it would be identified as being the distal or proximal end of the bone should distinctive features be present. The carpals and tarsals, which included cuboid, lunate, unciform, navicular, scaphoid, pisiform, and magnum, were measured for total length and width. With two of the bones, cuboid and navicular, having 19 specimens each and the rest being less than that, they were not used for statistical analyses after graphing the raw data. Raw data was graphed on a scatterplot to find variation in each measurement for each bone. The long bones have specific measurements that vary greatly between elements due to the features on the bones. The measurements for the femur include the epicondylar gap, the shaft, the proximal shaft, the femoral neck and a measurement from the first to second trochanter. The humerus measurements were distal condylar width, distal shaft, medial shaft, neck and head width. Measurements of the tibia were taken across the proximal end, across the tibial tuberosity, the shaft and the malleolus.

Results

Minimum number of individuals (MNI) was calculated for eight different bones. Every bone had an MNI calculated for the time period they were from. This is all shown in Table 4.

Table 4- Minimum Number of Individuals Calculated for Each Time Period

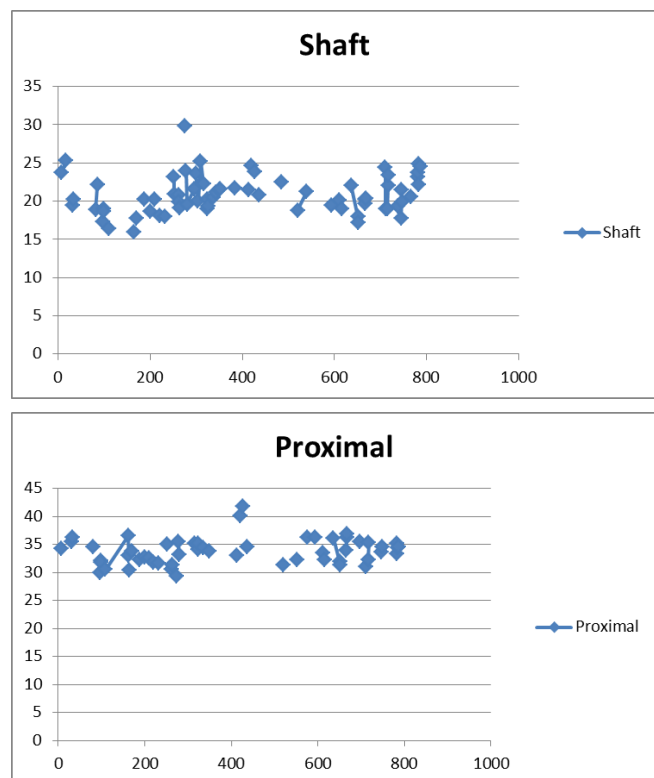
MNI by Time Period	Archaic (7,730-400 BCE)	Formative (2000 BCE- 200 CE)	Animas (~650-~850 CE)	Diaguia (~850-1536 CE)
Bone				
1 st Phalanx	4	1	9	10
2 nd Phalanx	3	----	3	6
Humerus	2	----	6	13
Tibia	2	5	9	10
Femur	2	3	8	10
Metapodial	5	2	13	12
Calcaneus	2	2	4	8
Talus	2	2	5	12

There are two blank cells in the table as there are no samples for second phalanges and humeri from the Formative period. The bolded values are the largest MNI for the corresponding time period. The most abundant elements overall were the first and second phalanges. The data

contains 187 first phalanges and 94 second phalanges with most being complete specimens. The first and second phalanges were measured with a vertical length at the distal head, in the middle of the shaft and at the proximal end. The raw data scatterplots showed some variation on each measurement for the first phalanx as well as two out of the three for the second phalanx. The distal head variation for the first phalanges varied from ~8mm to just above 16mm. This group of measurements does not seem to have any outliers, unlike the first phalanx shaft measurements which have only one specimen below 8mm and only one above 18mm. These outliers were reexamined via the individual photographs to determine if they were a different species that was initially mis-identified in the lab. If they were determined to be outliers, they were excluded from the statistical analysis. The proximal and distal measurements of the first phalanx were compared to a published data set on contemporary South American camelids including all four extant species (Izeta et al 2009). When comparing the two data, the measurements done by this study are similar for the proximal articular surface, but smaller on average for the distal articular surface. The third phalanges were only measured for proximal height and total length but there are nowhere near the numbers of specimens as the other phalanges.

There were 32 measurements on femur specimens that were distal shaft and condyles, making them the most numerous measurements for that element. The amount of variation in the size of the epicondylar gap measurement was one of the largest, ranging from ~35mm to ~65mm in width. Only the medial shaft and distal condylar width were represented in large enough numbers to see a reasonable distribution on the data scatterplots. The other three measurements had less than ten bones that had those facets available to them for measuring. The distal condylar width has an extremely low outlier at only ~20mm while most are sitting between 40mm and 50mm. This specimen was only a distal condyle with a total vertical length of 4.28 centimeters.

Figure 10- Metapodial Shaft and Proximal Scatterplots



The tibia measurements were all well represented

and experienced a fair amount of variation

based on the raw data. There are two

individual tibia that could be listed as outliers

as one has a proximal measurement below

30mm with no others below ~45mm. The

other measurement that could be an outlier is

one malleolus measurement that exceeds

60mm while the majority are between 40mm

and 50mm. When measuring the ulna or radius,

most were partial bones due to the fragile

nature of ulnas and a lack of radii. Distal end,

distal shaft, medial shaft, proximal shaft and proximal end were the chosen measurements for the

radius but there were only 17 identified specimens. There was a greater number of ulna

available, but besides the olecranon and trochler notch measurements, many were not well

represented. Many of the ulna only had those features present but some had the radius connected

to it. These were measured but not included in statistical analyses due to the extremely

fragmentary nature of the element. Possible the most important bones were the metapodials.

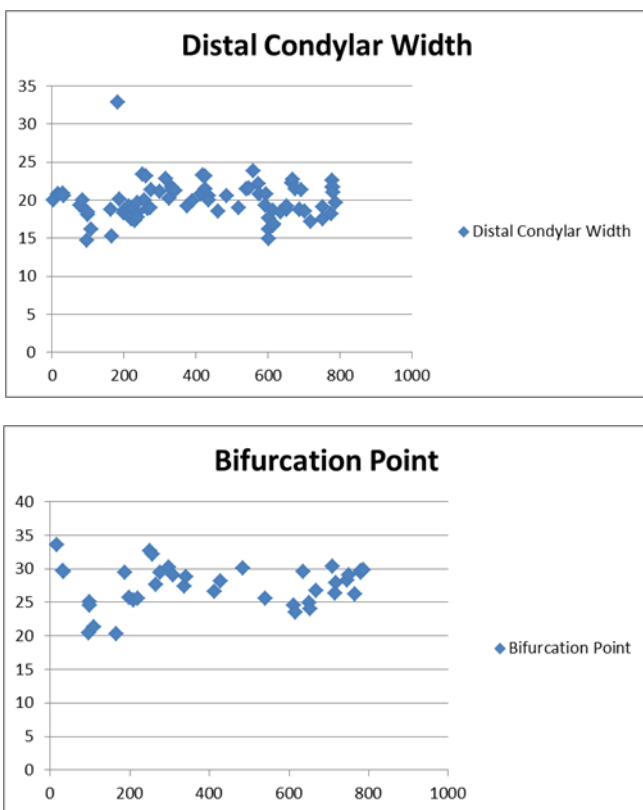
They were identified, when possible, as either a metacarpal or metatarsal but were analyzed

together along with the unidentified metapodials. The measurements taken on the metapodials

include condylar width, the bifurcation point (MC5), shaft, and the proximal head. Besides an

obvious outlier in the measurements for condylar width, all measurements were distributed consistently with some variation. The bifurcation point has 15cm of variation between its highest

Figure 11- Metapodial Distal Condylar Width and Bifurcation Point Scatterplots



and lowest samples, with those not being outliers. Figures 10 and 11 show the scatterplot graphs associated with the raw data for the metapodial measurements. The X-axis of the graphs is the picture number, or identification number given to each element while the Y-axis is the measurement lengths. The variation along the Y-axis is what needed to be observed in order to continue with statistical analyses so the X-axis is a null variable used just for identification and creating a horizontal

spread. This proved useful in identifying outliers and referring to the original data to observe if it was a different species.

The final two elements that had more than two measurements were the calcaneus and the astragalus. Being dense, there was a fair amount of representation, but many of the calcanei were partial. The measurements done on the calcanei were a proximal width, a shaft width and a distal width. Measurements on the astragalus were length, proximal width and distal width. The distribution of the raw data on scatterplots had most of them being grouped with little variation,

while there was one astragalus as an outlier for width measurements, being ~10mm larger than the next largest.

Statistical Results

Long bones and phalanges were measured because of the presence of variation in the raw data scatterplots. The statistical test used was the Tukey test, a single step multiple comparison test. It is able to be used on the raw data to compare multiple sets to each other. A Tukey test was used to compare the bones from one time period to all of the others to see if the variation was significant. This test was chosen because a small sample size does not affect the Tukey test as much as other tests. It is still true that a larger sample would provide a more accurate result, but the test is still relevant due to it comparing the bones based on the time period they are from. Total length measurements were excluded from the statistical analyses as they were taken for all bones, partial or whole, and that would not be consistent. Data was entered into the program “R” and set to run with the Tukey multiple comparisons of means formula. The Tukey tests were run with a 95% confidence interval. The Tukey test compared the measurements from a chosen time period to each other time period. For example, the bifurcation point of the metapodials from the Archaic period was compared against those measurements from the Formative, Animas and Diaguita period. This resulted in a maximum of six sets of results for each measurement depending on if there was representation of a measurement in each time period. The results that came out of the program include the P adjunct value, the differences between MS standard and MS population, and the lower and upper limits of test values. P adjunct values were determined on the 95% confidence level for each measurement of the chosen bones.

Table 5- Statistical Analysis P-Values

	Arc/Ani	Dia/Ani	Form/Ani	Dia/Arc	Form/Arc	Form/Dia
Distal	0.0175869	0.5452863	0.2245032	0.1934711	0.9682500	0.4726534
Shaft	0.8677058	0.4682687	0.9988350	0.9955939	0.9963769	0.9857038
Proximal	0.7335766	0.6478551	0.9997667	0.2602149	0.9396730	0.9854252

	Arc/Ani	Dia/Ani	Dia/Arc
Distal	0.3845395	0.1331496	0.9475109
Shaft	0.1398728	0.8059254	0.0241834
Proximal	0.9990644	0.5452383	0.6065738

	Arc/Ani	Dia/Ani	Form/Ani	Dia/Arc	Form/Arc	Form/Dia
Shaft	0.7871161	0.6298945	0.5483806	0.9998659	0.1982382	0.0675029
Epi Gap	0.0324297	0.0001746	0.9884379	0.9971930	0.1063503	0.0074910

	Arc/Ani	Dia/Ani	Form/Ani	Dia/Arc	Form/Arc	Form/Dia
Cond Width	0.0435335	0.0844369	0.9987728	0.8888944	0.2804936	0.4593358
Bifurc Point	0.1775570	0.0001919	0.7374365	0.8064330	0.9996716	0.9340841
Shaft	0.1226805	0.0470239	0.1659925	0.9452770	0.9960518	0.9902625
Proximal	0.5385075	0.9999999	0.4075797	0.5371709	0.1111045	0.4007863

	Arc/Ani	Dia/Ani	Form/Ani	Dia/Arc	Form/Arc	Form/Dia
Proximal	0.9921992	0.8802140	0.4367425	0.8762078	0.8526498	0.1092634
Tuberosity	0.9970272	0.4491297	0.7366762	0.6311783	0.9466311	0.0752765
Shaft	0.4145809	0.1052692	0.7047430	0.9999141	0.1566863	0.0340619
Malleolus	0.9999848	0.9997520	0.8752658	0.9997128	0.9504634	0.8262658

Table 5 displays all of the measurements that were put through statistical analyses and displays their P-adjunct value. The bolded values are those that exhibited statistical significance when under a 95% confidence interval. Starting with the first phalanx, the P adjunct value for the distal measurement between archaic and animas was found to be significant with a value of 0.0175869. This value displays that there is the possibility of significance between the

measurements of these two time periods. While some of these are in consecutive time periods, others are separated by a larger period of time. For example, the shaft measurements on the second phalanges were found to be significant when comparing bones from the Diaguita time period to the archaic time period with a P-adjunct value of 0.0241834. These time periods are the furthest apart in this sample, but with the available sample, there is significance in the sizes of the shaft measurements of the second phalange. An example of a measurement with statistical significance in consecutive time periods would be the shaft of the femur between the animas time period and the Diaguita time period. The P-adjunct value for this data set is 0.0001746, representing a high level of significance. When reviewing the measurement data, the femur shaft measurements from the Diaguita time period are smaller on average than that of the Animas time period. The same is true of the statistical significance of the bifurcation point of the metapodials for the same consecutive time periods. This data set also has the measurements from the Diaguita time period as smaller on average than those from the animas time period.

Discussion

This project offers new information to the methods of identifying domesticated camelid through osteometric techniques. There have been other studies that look at differentiating species via skeletal morphology for the South American camelids, but they have been focused on other areas of the continent or focused on pathologies. The ability to find evidence of the domestication of South American camelids requires the species identification criteria to be known prior so that wild guanaco or vicuña are not mistaken for a domesticated individual. While size can be used as a main determinant between guanaco and llama due to the former's larger stature, this varies with regional size variation. Without these criteria, the ability to identify the species based on the remains became an impossible task. Due to this obstacle, the

statistical analysis is used to look at the potential size differential of similar measurements between different time periods.

As previously mentioned, there were some measurements that were found to be statistically significant in consecutive time periods while others were in the furthest possible time periods. It is interesting to have high levels of statistical significance in consecutive time periods, suggesting a large amount of change between them. Those measurements that were significant between the Animas and Diaguita time periods had a larger average size in the former, which is also the earlier time period. It could be determined that these specimens were different species with further testing such as DNA analysis. Another viewpoint could be that the individuals from the Animas time period were domesticated or not and the same for the Diaguita time period. The significance of these measurements is greater than those that are from non-consecutive time periods. The gap between the overlapping Late Archaic and Formative and the later Animas and Diaguita time periods was what I believed to be an important gap that should have showed a large amount of statistical significance of bones from each group of time periods. One statistic of note was the proximal metapodial measurements from the consecutive Animas and Diaguita time periods having a level of significance of 0.9999999. When the raw measurement data were consulted for these, there does not seem to be a much smaller sample size than that of other measurements, but the averages seem to be very similar as the measurements vary without a trend of one being larger or smaller on average.

The comparison to a prior data set collected from contemporary South American camelids can lead to a few conclusions (Izeta et al 2009). While the proximal articular surface measurements were similar, the distal surface measurements were smaller in the archaeological material when comparing three of the four species. The distal measurements for the contemporary vicuña are

Figure 12- Scatterplots Comparing Contemporary Vicuña and Archaeological Phalange Measurements (Izeta et al 2009)

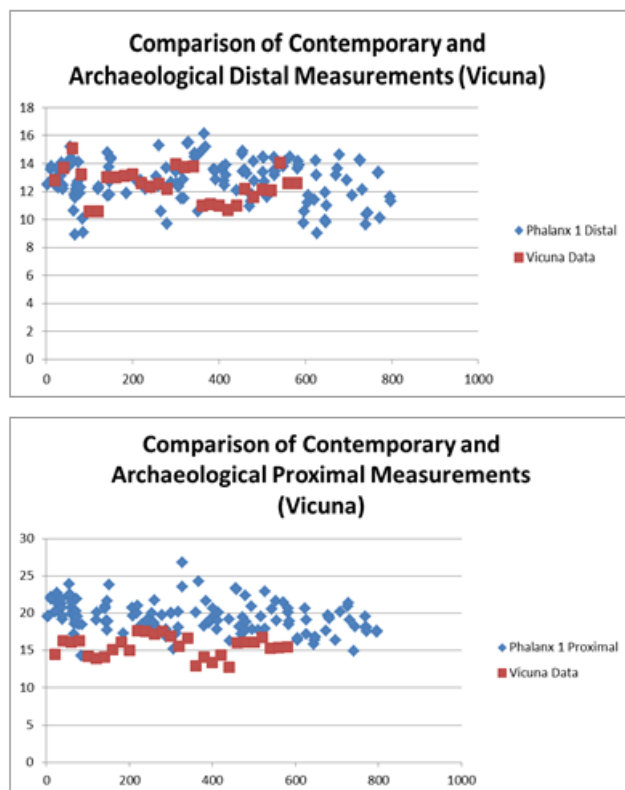
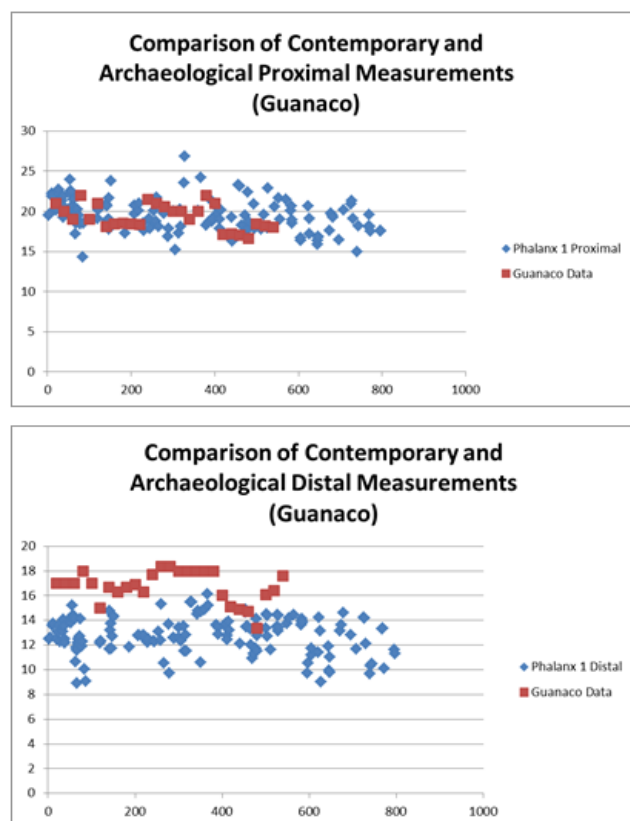


Figure 13- Scatterplots Comparing Contemporary Guanaco and Archaeological Phalange Measurements (Izeta et al 2009)



similar in size, but the proximal measurements are smaller on average than the archaeological material. Figure 12 shows multivariate scatterplots with the contemporary vicuña measurements from the Izeta article and the measurement data for the first phalanges from this study to show these differences in size. As vicuñas are a wild species, this comparison looks at how the archaeological material compares to a modern wild population to determine if the species present in the

collection were wild or domesticated. Figure 13 looks at the same measurements when compared to the guanaco data from the same study as guanaco is the larger wild species that is difficult to distinguish from llama by skeletal morphology alone. The trends for the guanaco and vicuña are opposite as the archaeological material and contemporary guanaco

Figure 14- Scatterplots Comparing Contemporary Llama and Archaeological Phalange Measurements (Izeta et al 2009)

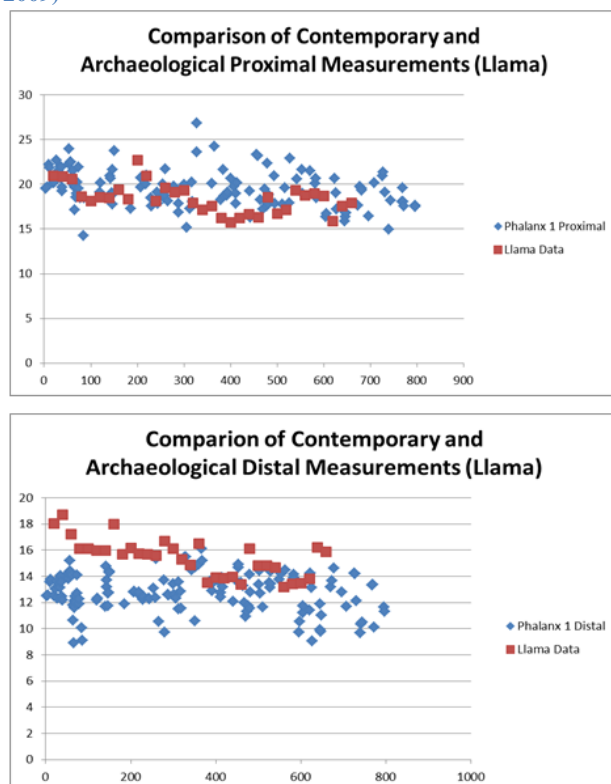
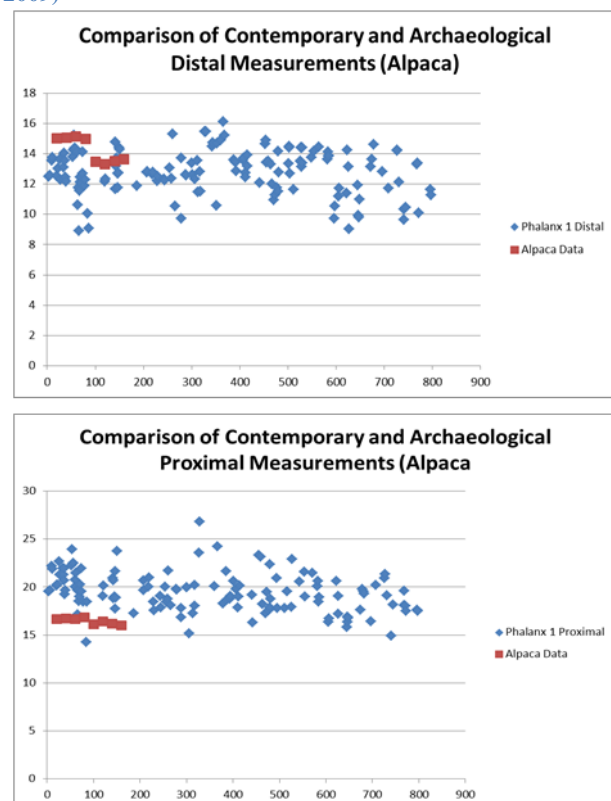


Figure 15- Scatterplots Comparing Contemporary Alpaca and Archaeological Phalange Measurements (Izeta et al 2009)



measurements are similar for the proximal while the distal measurements have the guanaco being larger than the archaeological material on average. These two wild species both have one similar measurement and one differing measurement to the archaeological material studied. The other two species, the alpaca and llama, are the domesticated species for the South American camelids but they do show similar trends to the wild species they

are related to when compared to the archaeological data. The comparison for contemporary llamas data is shown in Figure 14 and the comparison for alpaca data is shown in Figure 15. With only 8 measurements for the alpaca, it is not as strong of a trend as the other three species, but it still shows that proximal measurements are smaller than the archaeological material and the distal measurements are similar. The llama had the most data available and followed the same trends that the guanaco had with the distal

measurements being larger on average and the proximal measurements being similar to those of the archaeological collection. These comparisons display that the archaeological material measured cannot be directly compared to any single modern species as it has similarities and differences with each genus. A specified study on the proximal phalanx including the full suite of prior measurements would be required in order to fully conclude which of the South American camelids the archaeological material is comparable to (Izeta et al 2009).

All of the time periods from this study are from after the first known domestication of camelids as they all occur post-7000 BP. This complicates determining if an assemblage associated with human activity contains domesticated or wild camelids when looking at the time period alone. The inclusion of DNA analysis would aid in this as it could be used to first determine the species of the bones, and possibly compare to known domesticated DNA sequences. This was not able to be done for this study as the funds, equipment and ability to sample bones were not available at this time. Beyond DNA analysis, the teeth of camelids would be useful in determining the age of death. If the individual died at a younger age or at prime age, it could be assumed that they were used as a food source while those who died at an older age could have been assumed to be kept around for their secondary resources. Having tooth samples of camelids would be able to further this research through the above mentioned means as well as the possibility of having other isotopic analysis such as strontium and carbon. Being able to date the bones with radiocarbon dating techniques as well as using strontium analysis to aid in pinpointing the location that the animal resided in when alive could offer information into if the animal was wild or domesticated. While other bones could also be sampled for the isotope analysis, the carbon signatures deposited during tooth formation can be used to identify the carbon pathways of consumed food at younger ages. The carbon pathways, C3 and C4, could be

examined to determine the types of foods eaten by the camelids and aid in the identification of wild and domesticated species due to diet composition.

As exploratory research on the camelids in this area of Chile, there is a lot that can be built upon and improved. An obvious improvement upon this study is to have a larger sample size. A larger sample size will allow for greater statistical results and the ability to discern differences between species. The current collections used allowed for the testing of methods for the measurement and analysis to be done on a larger scale in the future. A large problem that remains is the ability to identify the different species based on their skeletal morphology in this region. Due to the region size variation, resources that do display differences in skeletal morphology to determine species, usually in the form of bone size, may not be of use for this area of Chile. If the ability to discern size variation in species for that area of Chile is able to be obtained, then it aides this research in its main goal of finding a morphological signal for the domestication of South American camelids. This can also be accomplished with information that shows morphological differences on bones between the species, allowing for identification of those that overlap in size range may also yield more information into the topic. This research contributes to the archaeology of northern Chile by addressing the question of camelid domestication. The evidence from this analysis shows that the structure of the first phalanx should be focused on because it seems to correspond to the degree of load-bearing hence the suggestion of their use for transportation of goods. The trends shown in the comparative graphs are intriguing since the proximal measurements were similar to those from the *Lama* species while the distal were similar to those from the *Vicugna* species. Since the archaeological material was not able to be identified to genus level, there is the possibility that it is a large mixture, but then the other comparative graphs should have shown similar trends to the previous ones. With

the distal measurements for the *Lama* species being larger on average and the proximal measurements for the *Vicugna* species being smaller on average, they only overlap with a small portion of the archaeological material. This study solidifies the importance of osteometrics for the first phalanx when identifying the species of South American camelids based on post-cranial faunal remains in northern Chile.

Conclusion

The hypothesis of this study could not be tested, because the methods used and materials available were not able to discern domesticated South American camelids through skeletal morphology. However, the measurements proved to be successful, and statistical significance was found for measurements on the first phalanx, second phalanx, femur, metapodial and tibia. The statistical significance was found in four of the six possible time period comparisons; Archaic/Animas, Diaguita/Animas, Diaguita/Archaic, and Formative/Diaguita. These methods could be improved upon with a larger sample size to be able to have more precise statistical tests. The statistical test chosen that compared bone measurements from different time periods worked well with this study as it demonstrated that camelids do change morphologically between time periods. Given the relative climatological stability over this time period, these observed morphological changes must be related to artificial selection. Due to this selection pressure, if the pathway to domestication was purely on the prey pathway, traits pertaining to improving the meat and coats of the camelids would be the focus. The findings of mummified camelids showed that the fibers were selectively bred for based on the ritualistic use or textile use of the animals and their coats (Wheeler et al 1995).

Future work

A different method that could be used in future research includes DNA analysis to determine species as the regional size variation in this area of Chile overlaps between different species. Isotopic analysis can also be used to determine the diet of the animal and age based on the isotopes studied. These would require the permission of the Museo Arqueológico de La Serena as well as a facility to test the samples. Other future research would include the identification of camelid teeth and the aging of the samples at their death. These results will be able to be compared with my current measurement data to help determine if there is a morphological difference between domesticated individuals and non-domesticates. The age of death may allow for animals at sites to be determined as a food source or those used for their secondary goods as those consistently killed at a prime age will be those used for meat. There is the possibility of variation, as hunting will not only target prime age individuals, but any the hunters can catch. Animals used for their secondary goods would likely be older on average since they were kept alive until they could not provide the good or service any longer. The results from this study do show the aforementioned possibility of morphological change due to the pressures of becoming a beast of burden, but these results are also the first for this area of South America. In Peru, these types of studies have been done due to the visible size variation in camelids in that region. The ability to identify domesticated South American camelids via skeletal morphology in the semiarid north of Chile does seem to be a possibility, but first it is necessary to identify the species of the remains to be able to exclude the wild species and use them for comparisons.

Appendix

[illegible]

						149 14.40mm	12 03mm		6.27cm	Partial	
						150 14.31mm	12 96mm		6.27cm	Partial	
						151	18 82mm	23 77mm	5.73cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Camite Allegados	Panuelo/Guana	6						
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Penuelas	8	186 11.87mm	10 74mm	17 29mm	6.27cm		
						207 12 79mm	12 16mm	20 70mm	6.52cm	Unfused	
						208 12 84mm	11 95mm	19 67mm	6.63cm	Unfused	
						218 12 66mm	11 52mm	20 04mm	6.64cm	Unfused	
						219 12 80mm	11 96mm	21 00mm	6.55cm	Unfused	
						229 12 21mm	11 00mm	18 48mm	5.83cm	Unfused	
						230 12 48mm	10 39mm	17 58mm	5.88cm	Unfused	
						243 12.39mm	11 11mm	19 09mm	5.83cm	Unfused	
						244 12 27mm	10 41mm	17 84mm	5.88cm	Unfused	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G Mistral	Urbano Centro	9						
						254 13.07mm	14 56mm	20 05mm	7.16cm	Partial	
						257	12 85mm	18 49mm	5.93cm	Partial	
					258*	12 38mm	11 08mm	2 99cm	2.99cm	Partial	
						259	12 53mm	18 78mm	5.80cm	Partial	
						260 15.32mm	13 25mm	21 70mm	6.29cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G Mistral	Urbano Centro	10						
						266 10.56mm	12 72mm	18 13mm	6.99cm	Partial	Worn
						278 13.71mm	13 92mm	19 76mm	6.69cm		
						279 9.71mm	13 90mm	19 73mm	6.68cm	Partial	
						281	11 96mm		4.32cm	Partial	
						288 12 63mm	11 61mm	16 83mm	6.17cm	Partial	
						289 12.56mm	11 57mm	17 82mm	6.30cm	Partial	
						300 13.41mm	13 40mm	19 98mm	7.03cm		
						301 12 62mm	13 49mm	19 97mm	6.95cm		
						306 12 39mm	11 59mm	15 17mm	6.00cm	Partial	
						312 13.55mm	12 02mm		4.80cm	Partial	
						313 11 50mm	13 50mm	17 28mm	6.83cm		
						317 12 84mm	12 58mm	20 23mm	6.29cm	Wear	
						318 11 53mm	13 05mm	18 07mm	6.77cm	Partial	Wear
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui		Posecion Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldera	11						
						327 15.46mm	13 65mm	23 58mm	8.20cm	Partial	
						328		26 82mm	2.72cm	Partial	
						330 15.49mm			4.74cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo de l Desierto	Todos	14						
						343 14.49mm	11 28mm		5.94cm	Partial	
						344 14.75mm	12 66mm		3.76cm	Partial	
						351 10.60mm			2.40cm	Partial	
						353 14.70mm			3.49cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo de l Desierto	Todos	15						
						360 14.91mm	14 23mm	20 06mm	7.60cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo de l Desierto	Todos	16/17						???
						366 16.13mm	16 70mm	24 24mm	8.08cm	Partial	
						368 15.21mm	12 68mm		4.76cm	Partial	
						379	13 29mm	18 27mm	3.88cm	Partial	

IV de Coquimbo	Limari	Valle Rio Hurtado	Alero SP Viejo Pichasca	Pichasca	20	385 386 387 13.61mm 390 13.51mm 391 13.42mm 392 12.89mm 393 394 401	14.56mm	21.65mm 18.66mm	5.66cm 1.94cm 4.99cm 5.47cm 5.26cm 3.65cm 5.54cm 4.42cm 3.29cm	Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21	407 13.60mm 408 13.74mm 411 12.75mm 412 12.44mm 414 415 13.92mm 416 13.18mm 441 12.09mm 442	13.96mm 13.87mm 10.95mm 11.18mm 12.48mm 11.73mm 11.29mm	19.76mm 17.86mm 18.98mm 20.13mm 19.21mm 16.30mm	7.54cm 7.02cm 6.68cm 6.64cm 2.24cm 6.01cm 4.83cm 6.49cm 3.45cm	Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	A,B,C,D,E,F	22	453 14.65mm 454 14.90mm 455 13.45mm 456 459 13.51mm 464 13.30mm 467 12.00mm 470 10.95mm 473 11.29mm 477 11.76mm 479 14.15mm 480 11.54mm 481 12.78mm	12.65mm 11.99mm 13.54mm 15.52mm 12.91mm 12.18mm 10.66mm 10.28mm 11.85mm 11.61mm 15.35mm 10.58mm 10.65mm	17.24mm 19.48mm 17.56mm 22.36mm 17.85mm 18.79mm	4.02cm 3.57cm 5.48cm 3.96cm 6.19cm 6.71cm 5.25cm 6.19cm 7.31cm 6.48cm 7.70cm 6.14cm 5.97cm	Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Worm ???
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Choapa IV	23	494 495 498 501 13.36mm 502 14.48mm 503 14.42mm 504 12.69mm		20.92mm 17.81mm		Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24	511 11.64mm 517 526 13.50mm 527 14.43mm 528 13.15mm 529 14.40mm 530 13.41mm	11.57mm 13.06mm 12.12mm 14.98mm 12.33mm	17.78mm 19.57mm 17.93mm 22.92mm	5.96cm 3.78cm 6.81cm 7.99cm 5.02cm 3.58cm 3.65cm	Unfused Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial

					543		20.59mm					
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillante	E	25	549 13.77mm	12.41mm		5.50cm	Partial		
						553	16.89mm	21.61mm	4.71cm	Partial		
						554 14.17mm	14.24mm		6.07cm	Partial		
						555		18.98mm	5.51cm	Partial		
						563			4.19cm	Partial		
						564 14.46mm			5.63cm	Partial		
						571		21.46mm	3.90cm	Partial		
IV and V Valpo	Chosapa-Petorca			La Villa Estero	199	582 13.62mm	12.85mm	20.09mm	6.73cm			
						583 14.14mm	13.97mm	20.62mm	7.15cm			
						584 13.90mm	11.29mm	18.47mm	6.90cm			
						585 13.83mm	12.21mm	18.95mm	7.03cm			
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillante	D	26	596 9.73mm	9.82mm		5.35cm	Juvenile	Worn	
						597 10.56mm	11.72mm		6.11cm	Juvenile	Worn	
						598	10.81mm		5.93cm	Juvenile	Worn	Partial
						604	8.26mm		5.30cm	Juvenile	E. Worn	
						605 11.21mm	10.30mm	16.36mm	5.55cm	Juvenile	Worn	
						606 11.73mm	10.19mm	16.69mm	5.48cm	Juvenile	Worn	Partial
						621 11.40mm	11.65mm		6.12cm	Juvenile	Worn	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillante	D	27	623 14.23mm	13.44mm	20.62mm	7.78cm			
						626 13.16mm	13.48mm	19.06mm	7.82cm			
						627 9.04mm	11.29mm	17.19mm	7.37cm	Worn		
						645 11.91mm	10.89mm	15.84mm	6.07cm			
						646 9.93mm	9.12mm	16.34mm	6.16cm	Worn		
						647 9.79mm	8.92mm	16.88mm	6.27cm	Worn		
						648 11.01mm	8.03mm	16.77mm	5.99cm	Worn		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillante		28	671 13.17mm			1.92cm	Partial		
						674 13.65mm	12.23mm	17.61mm	7.10cm			
						678 14.60mm	15.10mm	19.77mm	7.74cm			
						681	12.77mm	19.52mm	5.83cm	Partial		
						682		19.28mm	3.09cm	Partial		
						696 12.81mm	11.82mm		5.92cm	Partial		
						697		16.42mm	3.45cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	208	707	12.26mm		5.85cm	Partial		

2nd Phalanx	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	Measurement 3	Total Length	Notes
Region											
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	El Olivar	Compania Baja	1		Distal	Shaft	Proximal		
							13 6.18 mm	10 6.2 mm	13.78mm	3.08 cm	
							21 9.53 mm	11 39 mm	14.43 mm	3.37 cm	
							43 12.50 mm	11.43 mm	15.63 mm	3.78 cm	
							44 12.05 mm	11.29 mm	16.76 mm	3.96 cm	
							45 11.28 mm	11.45 mm	14.58 mm	3.54 cm	
					2						
							55 12.12mm	11 82mm	16 59mm	3 63cm	
							59 12.71mm	12.25mm	17.34mm	3.99cm	
							63 11.70mm	11.26mm	15.30mm	3.47cm	
							70 11.58mm	10.27mm	15.31mm	3.69cm	
							75 10.75mm	10.59mm	14.58mm	3.35cm	
							76 12.11mm	12.69mm	14.96mm	3.50cm	
							87 10.82mm	10.63mm	15.13mm	3.37cm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	Parcela N.24	Penueias	4						
							111 12.88mm	13 35mm	18.70mm	4.49cm	
							122 11.20mm	11.64mm	13.25mm	3.17cm	
							123 10.48mm	10.41mm	13.55mm	3.31cm	
							152 11.71mm	11.20mm	14.61mm	3.17cm	
							153 11.54mm	11.96mm	16.53mm	4.11cm	
							154 12.97mm	11.75mm	14.95mm	3.68cm	
							155 11.43mm	10.69mm	14.02mm	3.35cm	
							156 15.58mm	13 32mm	17 41mm	4 20cm	
							157 14.02mm	12 17mm	16 28mm	4 40cm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Penueias	8						
							205 10.01mm	9.59mm	13 62mm	2 49cm	Unfused
							206 10.10mm	10.04mm	13 21mm	2 58cm	Unfused
							216 10.17mm	9.29mm	13 68mm	2 49cm	Unfused
							217 10.51mm	9.96mm	13 31mm	2 55cm	Unfused
							228 11.46mm	9.99mm	12 51mm	2 76cm	Unfused
							241 11.00mm	9.41mm	12 92mm	2 82cm	Unfused
							242 11.48mm	9.90mm	15 22mm	2 75cm	Unfused
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G. Mistral	Urbano Centro	9						
							255 11.20mm	10 90mm	14 42mm	3 10cm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G. Mistral	Urbano Centro	10						
							272 9.92mm	11 43mm	14 66mm	3 26cm	
							290	10 42mm	13 91mm	3 39cm	Partial
							291 10.40mm	10 39mm	13 70mm	3 52cm	
							302 10.53mm	11 18mm	15 35mm	3 47cm	
							314 10 19mm	10 48mm	15 34mm	3 30cm	Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui		Posecion Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldera	11						
							331 12 60mm	11 63mm	15 97mm	3 82cm	Burnt
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penueias	Museo del Desierto	Todos	14						
							345 12 43mm	11 73mm	16 20mm	3 59cm	
							354 12 53mm	11 30mm	15 87mm	4 05cm	
							356 13 05mm	10 56mm	16 33mm	4 09cm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penueias	Museo del Desierto	Todos	15						

IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penueñas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	16/17	362 11.88mm	10.53mm	14.81mm	3.29cm		
				365*		9.62mm	10.39mm	15.64mm	3.75cm	Seal?	
				370 13.13mm		9.01mm	12.08mm	17.04mm	4.47cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Limari	Valle Rio Hurtado	Alero SP Viejo Pichasca	Pichasca	20	372*	9.73mm	14.07mm	3.42mm	Seal?	
						388 11.20mm			2.48cm	Partial	
						395		16.87mm	3.30cm	Partial	
						396 13.24mm	11.32mm	16.51mm	3.70cm		
						397		15.29mm	3.13cm	Partial	
						398 12.13mm	11.72mm	15.69mm	3.59cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21	405 10.40mm	11.11mm	15.30mm	3.51cm		
						406 11.61mm	11.68mm	15.04mm	3.53cm		
						417 10.90mm	11.10mm	14.73mm	3.39cm		
						418 10.76mm	11.55mm	15.04mm	3.56cm		
						443 11.66mm			2.60cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	A, B, C, D, E, F	22	463 8.46mm	9.91mm	12.79mm	3.68cm	Worn	
						466 12.69mm	12.00mm	16.79mm	4.00cm		
						471 10.51mm	10.41mm	13.99mm	3.21cm		
						474 10.36mm	10.02mm	13.52mm	3.22cm		
						476 11.84mm	10.82mm	14.85mm	3.60cm		
						482 10.66mm	10.82mm	14.79mm	3.55cm		
						483 12.70mm	11.59mm	17.04mm	3.82cm		
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Chapa IV	252	496		17.18mm		Partial	
						505 11.41mm	10.36mm	13.90mm	3.25cm	Unfused	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24	512 12.46mm	11.24mm	16.83mm	4.15cm		
						518 11.42mm	11.46mm	16.52mm	3.74cm		
						531 11.92mm	11.10mm	15.90mm	3.44cm		
						532		17.31mm	3.02cm	Partial	
						533 11.33mm			2.84cm	Partial	
						544		13.50mm	2.66cm	Partial	
						545 9.73mm			3.60cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	25	556		16.04mm		Partial	
						557 11.93mm	10.58mm	15.50mm	4.02cm		
						565 12.69mm	12.31mm	16.51mm	3.79cm		
						572 12.93mm	11.19mm	15.55mm	3.70cm		
						573 11.74mm	10.59mm	15.04mm	4.09cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27	628 11.82mm	10.63mm	15.86mm	3.40cm		
						629 10.60mm	11.14mm	16.16mm	3.61cm		
						649 7.84mm	8.43mm	13.05mm	2.87cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar		28	675 12.77mm	12.17mm	15.07mm	3.16cm	Unfused	
						680 12.59mm	11.76mm	17.28mm	4.40cm		
						685 12.07mm	11.49mm	15.39mm	3.30cm		

						686 12.17mm	11.67mm	16.69mm	3.87cm		
						689 12.46mm	11.74mm	15.86mm	3.78cm		
						690 11.81mm	10.53mm	14.90mm	3.67cm		
						694 9.86mm	10.50mm	13.87mm	3.11cm		
						695 8.28mm	10.31mm		3.46cm	Partial	Unfused
						699 12.08mm			2.88cm	Partial	
						700		12.61mm	4.46cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	174	724 10.96mm	10.77mm		3.33cm	Partial	
						725 10.89mm	11.47mm	15.78mm	3.47cm	Partial	
						729 9.80mm	10.64mm	15.07mm	3.19cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	206*						
						770 10.14mm	11.04mm	13.11mm	3.30cm		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	Parcela N24	Penueñas	424	799 11.01mm	9.93mm	13.61mm	2.84cm	Unfused	

Humerus	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	Measurement 3	Measurement 4	Measurement 5	Total Length	Notes		
Radiata							Distal Condylar Width	Distal Shaft	Head Width	Median Shaft	Neck				
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	El Oliver	Compania Baja	1	1	5.47.63 mm 18.20.82 mm	34.98 mm	53.82 mm	28.03 mm		23.60 cm 4.28 cm	DISTAL ONLY	Partial	
						2	19 N/A	25.12 mm	59.78 mm	27.57 mm		22.40 cm	NO DISTAL	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	Panueles N.24	Panueles	4	4	77.31.65 mm	28.78 mm	58.90 mm	28.80 mm	38.88 mm	25.60 cm	Broken		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Plaza de Armas	Urbano Centro	5		113.46.14 mm 114.46.78 mm 151.44.97 mm	21.38 mm 22.27 mm 24.63 mm		18.92 mm 17.89 mm	29.58 mm 44.43 mm	20.10 cm 20.20 mm 11.24 cm	Right Left Distal/Right	Unfused Unfused	Sampled
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Ejido de Panueles	7		124.60.44 mm					3.79 cm	Distal/Right	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Plaza G. Mistral	Urbano Centro	10		1291.46.75 mm 1292.46.08 mm			20.00 mm 18.78 mm	28.09 mm	11.24 cm 18.95 cm	Distal/Left Right	Partial Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi														
IV de Coquimbo	Equi														
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Panueles	Posecion Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldeira	11		227			30.92 mm		17.06 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Panueles	Museo del Desierto	Todos	18		329	28.32 mm				14.72 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	F	21		378.47.45 mm					5.59 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	23		483.47.82 mm 448.51.54 mm			25.02 mm 24.00 mm	38.98 mm	12.92 cm 20.60 cm	Distal Left	Partial Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	23		483			17.02 mm		12.72 cm	Juvenile		
III	Huasco	Calle Independencia	Chocaba IV		252		489.49.94 mm	28.78 mm		17.49 mm		18.20 cm	Right/Juvenile	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	E	24		508.46.87 mm					5.42 cm	Left/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	E	25		510.42.42 mm 513.46.31 mm			24.63 mm		4.97 cm 13.20 cm	Left/Partial Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	26		524.46.58 mm 535.47.20 mm 536.46.22 mm			21.92 mm 22.42 mm		14.67 cm 11.28 cm	Left/Partial Right/Partial Right/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		537			19.08 mm		6.87 cm	Right/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	E	25		542			21.03 mm		10.52 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	E	25		550.52.90 mm 560.46.45 mm 562.47.28 mm					15.30 cm 11.02 cm 6.12 cm	Partial Right/Partial Right/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	26		617.46.85 mm 618.46.05 mm			18.89 mm 18.44 mm	34.78 mm 34.89 mm	19.90 cm 21.70 cm	Left/Partial Right/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		624.46.72 mm			21.80 mm		20.90 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		635			31.08 mm		20.90 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		650			22.16 mm		17.90 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		731.42.44 mm						Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		731.46.75 mm 735.46.85 mm			24.72 mm		19.55 cm 10.92 cm	Right/Partial Left/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		737			23.87 mm		18.00 cm	Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		752.46.78 mm			28.82 mm		23.40 cm	Right/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Latido Brillante	D	27		790			22.93 mm		17.90 cm			

Femur Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	Measurement 3	Measurement 4	Measurement 5	Total Length	Notes	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	B Oliver	Compania Baja	1		Epicondylar Gap 2 60.02 mm	Shift 26.23 mm	Proximal Shaft 38.82 mm	Femoral Neck 30.54mm	Cross Trochanters 73.15 mm	32.50cm	Right	
							24.64.18 mm	28.24 mm	46.35 mm	34.14mm	75.15mm	33.50cm	Left	
							28.60.64 mm	28.70 mm				11.95cm/Partial	DISTAL ONLY	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	Parcela N.21	Penuebas	3		89.56.50mm 92.34.85mm 93.34.58mm	24.71mm 19.20mm 19.52mm	23.78mm 45.13mm 49.59mm		68.14mm	30.10cm 23.40cm 23.35cm	Left Right Left	Unused/ Sampled Unused Unused
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	Parcela N.24	Penuebas	4		106.42.23mm 106.42.18mm 115.35.29mm	19.04mm 18.75mm 26.82mm		29.41mm 25.74mm 27.77mm	55.91mm 55.43mm 58.99mm	25.50cm 25.48cm 27.00cm	Right Left Right	Unused Unused Unused
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Plaza de Armas	Urbano Centro	5		167 168 169.58.59mm	25.65mm		26.64mm 26.52mm 26.52mm	69.59mm 70.73mm	26.95cm 19.30cm	Left Left Right	Partial Partial Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Carmita Alegados	Penuebas, Guana	6		177 188.40.54mm	30.87mm				16.20cm	Right	Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Bajo de Penuebas	7		189.53.69mm 197.55.11mm	20.82mm 21.29mm	26.99mm 26.83mm		56.15mm	27.65cm 27.30cm	Left Right	Unused/ Broken Unused/ Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Plaza G. Mistral	Urbano Centro	10		267.46.36mm 268 275 292.42.88mm 298 311	27.13mm 29.75mm 29.50mm 25.50mm 31.48mm	34.54mm			3.03cm 15.13cm 13.40cm 6.26cm 13.83cm 8.85cm	Distal Partial Partial Partial Partial Partial	Partial Worn
IV and V Vapo			Estero El Valle	Chopra IV R	190		320.60.15mm 321.63.62mm	29.02mm				8.82cm 15.10cm	Right/Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Penuebas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	16/17		371.53.15mm					3.30cm	Left/Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrío la Compania	B Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21		430.60.15mm 431 445.59.77mm	25.40mm 27.19mm	25.45mm			14.2cm 11.53cm 17.20cm	Left/Partial Left/Partial Right/Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrío la Compania	B Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	A,B,C,D,E,F	22		468.55.69mm					8.86cm	Left/Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrío la Compania	B Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	23		467 487*	17.93mm 17.82mm				20.92cm 18.53cm	Juvenile Juvenile	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Barrío la Compania	B Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24		515.61.82mm	17.82mm				6.18cm	Right/Partial	
IV and V Vapo	Chopra-Petorca		La Villa Estero		199		576.65.53mm					7.48cm	Left/Partial	

[illegible]

IV and V Valpo	Choapa-Petorca		La Villa Estero	199	579 68.08mm			6.95cm	Right/Partial		
					580 67.62mm			8.73cm	Left/Partial		
					581 72.07mm			5.99cm	Left/Partial		
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillnar	D	26	607 46.21mm			Partial	Juv/Worm	
					608 53.59mm				Partial	Juv/Worm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillnar	D	27	653 65.75mm	30.92mm	24.08mm	40.42mm	31.50cm	Left
					654 64.02mm	30.48mm	23.36mm	41.01mm	31.42cm	Right	
IV and V Valpo	Choapa-Petorca		La Villa Estero	200	658 65.65mm	32.84mm	28.01mm	44.84mm	31.60cm	Right	
					659	33.05mm	27.59mm	43.84mm	25.50cm	Right/Partial	
					660	36.45mm	30.45mm	42.02mm	29.30cm	Right/Partial	
					661	32.02mm	26.75mm	44.54mm	27.30cm	Left/Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	207	754 60.38mm	30.04mm			12.31cm	Left/Partial
IV and V Valpo			Estero El Valle	206	759	38.45mm	31.41mm	48.18mm	31.40cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	206*	767	34.52mm			11.69cm	Partial
					775			41.26mm	5.00cm	Partial	
					785 58.43mm					Partial	
					786	32.33mm	29.92mm	43.42mm	26.60cm	Partial	

Metapodalis	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Type	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	Measurement 3	Measurement 4	Measurement 5	Total Length	Notes	
Receba	IV de Coquimbo	Bordé Costero	E. Olivar	Compañía Bajas	1	Distal	Concha/Vulva		Bifurcation Point	Shift	Proximal	Shift (P)			
						MC	4 20.02mm			23.75mm	34.21mm	23.49mm	5.67cm	Partial	
						Distal	16 20.82mm		33.56mm	26.56mm			16.31cm	Partial	Left
						Distal	17 20.82mm						6.42cm	Partial	
						MT	31 20.91mm		28.75mm	19.50mm	35.32mm		23.90cm	Right	
						MT	33 20.54mm		28.60mm	20.20mm	36.34mm		24.00cm	Left	
					2										
						MT	77 19.28mm						4.74cm	Partial	
						MC	81 19.59mm			18.90mm	34.52mm	21.51mm	20.34cm	Partial	Right
						MT	83 19.59mm			22.11mm			11.82cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Bordé Costero	Parcela N. 21	Península	3	MT	97 14.69mm		20.39mm	17.35mm	26.90mm		18.35cm	Right	Unfused
						MT	98 18.09mm		19.02mm	19.02mm	30.18mm		21.67cm	Left	
						MT	99 18.48mm		24.96mm	18.65mm	31.76mm		21.72cm	Right	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Bordé Costero	Parcela N. 24	Península	4	MT	109 16.16mm		21.31mm	16.36mm	30.45mm		21.40cm	Right	Unfused
						MC	140 16.16mm				36.45mm		8.72cm	Partial	
						MT	149 16.75mm				33.02mm	18.75mm	13.72cm	Partial	
						MT	154 16.75mm						8.17cm	Partial	
						MT	161 19.24mm		20.25mm	16.00mm	30.46mm		20.30cm	Left	Unfused
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	París de Armas	Urbano Centro	5	MT	170 32.84mm			17.80mm	33.73mm		17.57cm	Partial	
						MT	182*						9.48cm	Distal	Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Cerro Alegre 2003	Península, Guaya	6	MT	187 20.14mm		23.45mm	20.25mm	32.23mm		22.30cm	Right	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Península	8	MC	199 18.28mm		25.79mm	18.65mm	32.80mm		20.00cm	Left	Unfused
						MC	200 18.60mm						2.41cm		
						MC	208 18.65mm		25.30mm	20.26mm	32.68mm		20.30cm	Right	Unfused
						MC	209 19.00mm						2.50cm		
						MC	210 18.96mm						1.50cm		
						MT	219 19.37mm		25.58mm	18.05mm	31.77mm		20.50cm	Left	Unfused
						MT	220 17.58mm						2.25cm		
						MT	224 17.58mm						2.28cm		
						MT	229 18.79mm			17.26mm	31.63mm		20.30cm	Right	Unfused
						MT	231 17.28mm						2.20cm		
						MT	236 18.32mm						2.28cm		
						MT	237 17.71mm						4.53cm		
						MT	238 19.71mm								
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	París G. Militar	Urbano Centro	9	MT	251 23.39mm		31.66mm	23.17mm	34.68mm		18.50cm	Distal	Partial
						MT	252 23.20.03mm		31.17mm	20.51mm			8.08cm	Partial	
						MT	256 20.03mm							Distal	Partial
						MT	261 23.16mm			19.59mm	30.36mm		11.96cm	Left/Prox	Partial
						MT	262								

IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Interior	Plaza Mistral	Urbano Centro	10		264		27.60mm	15.08mm	31.59mm		14.57cm	Partial	
							265	18.50mm					8.50cm	Partial	
							274	18.59mm		23.64mm	29.40mm		26.30cm	Partial	Worn
							279	21.39mm	23.49mm				6.63cm	Partial	
							277			23.59mm	35.53mm		10.00cm	Right/Tox	Partial
							280			18.60mm	33.11cm		19.80cm	Partial	
							295		21.54mm				20.10cm	Partial	
							298	21.16mm	30.24mm				8.04cm	Partial	
							299			23.57mm			8.04cm	Partial	
							309		19.59mm				13.35cm	Partial	
							309	23.19mm	29.10mm				21.20cm	Partial	
							316	21.89mm	22.12mm		35.19mm		21.00cm	Left	Partial
IV de Valpo			Espino El Valle	Chorpa IV R	190		325			20.19mm	34.17mm		18.80cm	Partial	
							324			18.57mm	35.20mm		11.51cm	Left	Partial
							329	20.29mm		19.39mm			14.85cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Paseo Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldera		11										
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Borde Costero	Pedraza N. 24	Paradise Coquimbo	12		332	21.74mm					3.63cm	Partial	
							336	21.31mm	27.39mm	20.42mm	34.44mm		22.85cm	Right	
							342	21.24mm	28.74mm	21.18mm	33.79mm		11.51cm	Partial	
							350			21.57mm			8.23cm	Partial	
							352			21.57mm			11.86cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Paseo Las	Museo del Desierto	Todos	18		379	19.29mm					2.15cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Uniat	Valle No Huerto	Alero SPV Alto Progreso	Progreso	20		384			21.69mm			15.32cm	Partial	
							389	19.92mm					2.24cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi			F	21		419	20.81mm	26.59mm	21.43mm	33.04mm		22.30cm	Left	
							419	23.29mm					7.91cm	Partial	
							420			24.69mm	40.14mm		15.30cm	Left	Partial
							429	21.49mm					2.63cm	Partial	
							426	23.19mm					2.87cm	Partial	
							427		26.12mm	23.69mm	41.78mm		20.82cm	Right	Partial
							434	20.59mm					3.43cm	Partial	
							438	20.08mm					3.08cm	Partial	
							439			20.79mm	34.57mm		20.30cm	Left	Partial
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Berriola Compania	El Oliver-Lakeo Brilmar	A.B.C.D.E.F	22		462	18.59mm						Partial	
							484	20.57mm	30.09mm	22.59mm			2.26cm	Partial	
							485						8.18cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Berriola Compania	El Oliver-Lakeo Brilmar	E	24		519	18.59mm					5.78cm	Partial	
							520			18.78mm	31.41mm		16.30cm	Left	Partial
							540	21.49mm	25.59mm	21.19mm			13.35cm	Partial	
							548	21.62mm					5.41cm	Partial	
IV de Coquimbo	Equi	Berriola Compania	El Oliver-Lakeo Brilmar	E	25		552				32.22mm		2.63cm	Partial	
							559	23.89mm					11.02cm	Partial	

		la Villa Estero	199	590 36.46mm	28.86mm	31.57mm	Left	
				591 34.70mm	27.00mm	29.75mm	Right	
				592 34.24mm	27.86mm	27.54mm	Right	
Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27	643 32.35mm	25.77mm	25.98mm	Left	
				644 32.48mm	25.72mm	26.00mm	Right	
Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar		28	691 34.33mm	25.76mm		Left	
Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	174	736 32.22mm	22.86mm	21.04mm	Right	

Cuboid								
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	El Oliver	Compania Baja	1	Length	Width	
						48 33.48mm	19.16mm	
						49 34.40mm	17.88mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	Parcela N.24	Penuelas	4	125 33.80mm	17.98mm	
						132 32.16mm	18.37mm	
						135 26.32mm	16.93mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza de Armas	Urbano Centro	5	180 32.82mm	18.72mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Penuelas	8	223 32.18mm	14.34mm	
						232 31.65mm	16.44mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G Mistral	Urbano Centro	10	284 31.39mm	17.93mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	14	346 33.16mm	31.39mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	18	375 34.28mm	24.96mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21	409 30.58mm	19.28mm	
						437 34.19mm	24.15mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	A,B,C,D,E,F	22	457 33.47mm	24.40mm	
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Choapa IV	252	493 31.12mm	20.28mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	25	569 32.37mm	23.13mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27	637 31.43mm	24.06mm	
						638 31.60mm	24.23mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	207	749 34.04mm	22.18mm	

Lunáte									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	El Oliver	Compania Baja	1	Length		Width	
						46 26.27mm		17.12mm	
						47 25.56mm		17.36mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Panuelas	8				
						200 27.08mm		13.46mm	
						210 27.80mm		13.56mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G. Mistral	Urbano Centro	10				
						308 22.93mm		13.55mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui		Posecion Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldera	11				
						334 27.40mm		18.22mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21				
						423 28.64mm		17.42mm	
						429 22.38mm		16.73mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	26				
						612 23.33mm		13.64mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27				
						631 25.53mm		14.45mm	
						632 26.09mm		14.33mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar		28				
						684 23.34mm		14.68mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	208				
						703 24.71mm		16.70mm	
						705 23.80mm		15.97mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	174				
						720 24.07mm		12.97mm	
						721 25.60mm		13.42mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	188				
						764 23.04mm		13.48mm	

Uniform									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	18	Length			
						380	29.84mm	21.61mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Limari	Valle Rio Hurtado	Alero SP Viejo Pichasca	Pichasca	20				
						383	31.96mm	21.93mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	A, B, C, D, E, F	22				
						460	28.38mm	16.04mm	
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Choapa IV	252				
						491	31.08mm	21.22mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24				
						521	31.48mm	21.08mm	
						522	30.29mm	20.36mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	26				
						610	27.21mm	17.14mm	
						619	27.54mm	17.17mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27				
						625	28.97mm	20.67mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	208				
						706	26.02mm	18.11mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	174				
						722	26.29mm	15.95mm	

Navicular								
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	Parcela N. 24	Penuelas	4		Length	Width
							126 29.28mm	13.63mm
							133 25.29mm	14.50mm
							136 23.63mm	14.84mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Penuelas	8			
							233 25.83mm	14.24mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza G Mistral	Urbano Centro	10			
							285 24.87mm	15.15mm
							287 25.41mm	16.25mm
							304 24.83mm	16.15mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui		Poseion Buenos Aires	Comunidad Caldera	11			
							333 27.02mm	16.96mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	14			
							347 28.69mm	17.78mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	16/17			
							367 22.49mm	11.98mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar	F	21			
							438 26.11mm	18.00mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar	A,B,C,D,E,F	22			
							478 26.13mm	15.78mm
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Choapa IV	252			
							492 25.72mm	18.95mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar	E	24			
							525 23.94mm	13.53mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar	E	25			
							570 29.03mm	16.47mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar	D	27			
							639 25.46mm	16.93mm
							640 25.25mm	16.81mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-lateo Brillmar		28			
							677 24.95mm	15.30mm
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	206*			
							774 26.18mm	14.39mm

Pisiform									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21		Length	Width	
							421 28.07mm	21.60mm	
							428 27.55mm	18.87mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24		516 26.65mm	29.22mm	
							523 29.49mm	25.69mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	26				
							620 24.71mm	21.49mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27		630 24.59mm	23.93mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	174		723 26.15mm	23.47mm	
							728 22.61mm	23.19mm	
Scaphoid									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Plaza de Armas	Urbano Cè	5		Length	Width	
							181 34.27mm	29.85mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21		410 22.08mm	20.61mm	
							422 24.51mm	20.96mm	
III	Huasco		Calle Independencia	Choapa IV	252		497 21.45mm	17.27mm	
Magnum									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Penuelas	Museo del Desierto	Todos	16/17		Length	Width	
							364 26.71mm	20.50mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio La Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	F	21		424 22.38mm	19.95mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	E	24		524 24.71mm	16.22mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Barrio la Compania	El Oliver-Lateo Brillmar	D	27		633 22.05mm	18.28mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Urbano Centro	Plaza G. Mistral	Aldunate	208		704 18.81mm	16.86mm	
Unidentifiable Carpals									
Region	Province	Area	Site	Sector	Box #	Picture #	Measurement 1	Measurement 2	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Borde Costero	El Oliver	Compania	1		Length	Width	
							23 25.79mm	12.92mm	
IV de Coquimbo	Elqui	Interior	Museo del Desierto	Baja de Pa	8		Length	Width	
							201 24.21mm	13.31mm	
							211 24.17mm	13.80mm	

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