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Analysis of the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves and an investigation into possible computerized classification of bones.

by

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I hereby declare that the dissertation

Analysis of the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves

and an investigation into possible computerized classification of bones.

which I

Elaine Swanepoel

am submitting to the

University of Pretoria

Department of Anatomy

for the degree

MSc with specialization in Anatomy

is my own work and has not been submitted by me to

any other university for degree purposes.

Elaine Swanepoel

October 2003

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FOREWORD

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"Pieces of ancient bone lack the aesthetic appeal of artefacts or the grandeur of ancient buildings, yet they have a complex fascination that arises in part from their zoological origin, as evidence of long-dead animals, and in part from what we can infer from them about past human activities, and about the involvement of people in those animals' lives"

TERRY 0' CONNOR, 2000

In his book, The Archaeology of Animal Bones, 0' Connor mentions a hobby very few people appreciate......collecting bones. My fascination with bones has lead to a small personal collection which will probably grow until it is not so small anymore!! Standard practice for my husband on a game farm is to stop whenever a white, sunburnt skeleton catches my expert eye. Many a times I have stood over a boiling Jik and OMO filled gallon drum, stirring the newest members to my collection.

Fascination however, only gets you halfway through, and even my undying love of bones could not keep me motivated at all times. It is only after completing this study I realized how much I still do not know, and that I might spend a lifetime learning and not possess half the knowledge of the great archaeozoologists.

However, I am still going to try.

THE BONE COLLECTOR

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ABSTRACT

Kemp's Caves are situated 2 km west of Krugersdorp in the Ngonyama Game Reserve. An abundance of fossilized as well as modern specimens have been excavated from this site since 1992. The Electron Spin Resonance dates for this site range from 140 000 to 11 000 BP¹. The faunal analysis of animal remains recovered at fossil sites assists in the dating of the site, and may also give insight into the diet and behaviour of the related hominids which previously occupied the area $2,3,4$. Therefore, all excavated faunal specimens of Kemp's caves were analysed by comparing them to modern skeletal material at the National Flagship Institution. The analysis did not reject the ESR dates and showed that there were no drastic climatic changes in this area during the past 100 000 years. Approximately 3% of the faunal material could be identified to species level, while 11 .5 % were assigned to different faunal classes. Five individual specimens belonging to the extinct species Equus capensis (Cape horse) included three molars and two humeral fragments. Bovidae size classes II and III were the most represented category, which may indicate that either leopards or hyaenas were responsible for the accumulation of the faunal remains. Contradicting this assumption, is the fact that 11 % of the faunal material excavated have been burnt to some extent, which may indicate human activity.

Faunal analysis comprises of the correct identification of animal bone fragments. Conventionally, this is done by morphologically comparing the specimen to its modern counterpart. Identifiable fragments, if possible, are classified to species level while the rest are assigned to different size classes $3,4$. This is a time consuming

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task and not many experts are available. The secondary aim of this study was thus to investigate the possibility of identifying animal bones through computerized methods. Osteometric data of the hind limb long bones of 30 Southern African Bovid species was obtained, using as many as possible modern specimens of adults from several South African museums. Forty-five measurements were taken on the femur, tibia and metatarsal. These 18 000 measurements were used in an attempt to develop a computerized database programme to aid in the identification of bones. Ten specimens from the Kemp's Caves collection of conventionally identified bones as well as ten modern specirnens were measured to test the accuracy of the developed computer programme.

Statistically, the three long bones showed Significant differences between the species in the Bov II, III and IV size classes. Bov I species, however, showed significant differences in the metatarsal measurements only. Three robusticity indices were calculated, but showed overlap in all species except the African buffalo. Only 20% of the Kemp's Caves specimens were positively identified by the programme (displayed the identified species as having the highest percentage probability). The rest showed varied percentages of possibilities. The modern specimens had a 40% accuracy rate. However, many species within the database, especially in the Bov I size class, were only represented by a few modern skeletons. This may have contributed to the Bov I class not showing significant differences. Results of this preliminary study were promising, but larger samples and further statistical evaluation may enhance the accuracy of the programme.

~EYWORD5

Archaeozoology, Kemp's Caves, Faunal analysis, Osteometric morphology, Computerized identification, Animal bones, Bovidae

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OPSOMMING EN KERNWOORDE

OPSOMMING

Kemp's Caves is 2km vanaf Krugersdorp in die Ngonyama Natuurreservaat gelee. Sedert 1992 het opgrawings van hierdie terrein 'n rykdom gefossileerde en moderne elemente opgelewer. Resultate van die Elektron Spin Resonansie (ESR) het datums van 140 000 tot 11 000 BP opgelewer¹. Die analise van fauna wat herwin word by fossielterreine ondersteun die datering van 'n terrein. Dit is ook 'n aanwysing tot die dieet en gedrag van die verwante hominiede wat moontlik die area voorheen beset het ^{2,3,4}. Vir hierdie rede is die fauna van Kemp's Caves geanaliseer deur hulle met die moderne versameling by die NFl (National Flagship Institution) te vergelyk. Die analise het geen getuienis gelewer om die ESR datums te verwerp nie en het ook getoon dat daar in hierdie area geen drastiese klimaatsveranderinge gedurende die laaste 100 000 jaar was nie. Ongeveer 3% van die fauna versameling kon geïdentifiseer word, terwyl 11.5% tot die verskillende fauna klasse toegedeel is. Vyf individuele been-elemente wat tot die uitgestorwe spesie Equus capensis behoort het, het drie molare en twee humerus fragmente ingesluit. Hoefdier klasse II en III was die mees verteenwoordigde katogorie wat mag aandui dat luiperds of hienas verantwoordelik was vir die versameling van fauna. Die feit dat 11 % van die elemente tot 'n sekere mate gebrand was, mag bogenoemde bewering weerspreek aangesien gebrande beenmateriaal menslike aktiwiteit aandui.

Fauna-analise is die korrekte identifisering van dierbeenfragmente. Konvensioneel word die fragmente morfologies vergelyk met hulle moderne ewebeeld. Identifiseerbare fragmente word, indien moontlik, geklassifiseer tot'n

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spesie, terwyl die res aangedui word as 'n spesifieke grootte klas ^{3,4}. Hierdie is 'n tydrowende proses en daar is min deskundiges op die gebied. Daarom was die tweede doel van die studie om die moontlikheid van gerekenariseerde identifisering van dierbene te ondersoek. Osteometriese data van die agterbeen langbene van 30 Suider-Afrikaanse hoefdier spesies was verkry deur die meting van soveel moontlik volwasse moderne versamelings van verskeie Suid-Afrikaanse museums. Vyf-enveertig afmetings van die femur, tibia en metatarsaal is geneem. Hierdie 18 000 afmetings is gebruik in 'n poging om 'n rekenaar databasis te ontwikkel wat hulp sal verleen tydens dierbeen identifikasie. Tien Kemp's Caves fragmente wat op die konvensionele metode geïdentifiseer is, sowel as tien moderne bene was gemeet om die akkuraatheid van die ontwikkelde rekenaarprogram te toets.

Die drie langbene het statisties betekenisvolle verskille tussen hoefdier II, III en IV klasse gewys. Hoefdier klas I het egter slegs betekenisvolle verskille in die metatarsaal afmetings gewys. Drie robustisiteitsindekse was bereken en het oorvleueling in aile spesies gewys behalwe vir die Buffe\. Net 20% van die Kemp's Caves elemente was positief geïdentifiseer deur die program (vertoon die spesie as die hoogste persentasie moontlikheid). Die res van die toetselemente het 'n verskeidenheid persentasie moontlikhede gewys. Die moderne elemente het 'n 40% akkuraatheidskoers gewys. Baie spesies in die databasis, veral die hoefdier I klas, was egter slegs deur 'n paar moderne skelette verteenwoordig. Hierdie feit mag daartoe bygedra het dat hoefdier klas I nie veel betekenisvolle verskille getoon het nie. Die resultate van die studie was belowend maar groter versamelings en verdere statistiese evaluasie mag die akkuraatheid van die program verbeter.

KERNWOORDE

Argeodierkunde, Kemp's Caves, Fauna analise, Osteometriese morfologie, Gerekenariseerde identifikasie, Dierbene, Hoefdiere

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CHAPTER₂

1 **INTRODUCTION**

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It is said that the history of mankind is like a novel with most of its pages torn or lost. The few pages of information we have, are based upon fossil evidence leading to scientific facts as well as educated guesses.

Fossilized bones have been excavated worldwide from sites, caves and shelters where ecological factors permitted such preservation. South African caves in particular have yielded essential specimens, helping to reconstruct the past. A few examples include the famous Sterkfontein caves ^{5,6,7}, Kromdraai ^{8,9}, Swartkrans ^{10,11}, Makapansgat ^{12,13} and Florisbad ^{14,15}. These sites date back several million years, shedding light on early man and its descendants. There are, however, little information on the origin of Anatomically Modern Humans. Only a few sites present chronologies dating back to upper Pleistocene, the era believed to be fundamental in the evolution of anatomical modern Homo sapiens. Sites and caves falling within this expected time period include Rose Cottage cave ^{16,17,18,19}, Sehonghong ^{20, 21}, Border Cave ^{22,23}, Klasies River Mouth ^{24,25} and Kemp's Caves ^{1,26}.

Kemp's Caves are situated in the Krugersdorp area in the Ngonyama Game Reserve. It was accidentally discovered in 1991 and has yielded a large quantity of fossilized and modern faunal material during ongoing excavations. Electron spin resonance (ESR) dating revealed dates as young as Holocene (6.1 \pm 0.4 ka) to Upper Pleistocene (140 \pm 8 ka)¹. Southern African caves, however, do not contain volcanic material which accommodate the accurate geological dating of sites ²⁷. This presents difficulty in acquiring absolute dates. Therefore, to confirm the ESR dates,

other methods of dating are required. One of these methods is comparative faunal analysis, which provides relative dates. Identification of an extinct faunal species is of especially great importance, for it may enhance the accuracy of the cave date, and give an indication of how the climate and environment may have changed during this crucial era in human evolution $3,4$.

Faunal identification does not only give insight into the cave's elapsed time, but also supplies data on the taphonomy of the cave. Taphonomy is the study of how bones came to be buried at a specific location 27 . Animals collect bones for various purposes, but the majority of assemblages are collected by predators for sustenance ². Identification of the predator (man or animal) responsible for the accumulation of the cave's assemblage reflects the diet and behaviour of that species. Modification, such as gnawing and cut marks, of the faunal specimens also gives an indication as to which species were responsible for the collection of bones 3,28. The different species identified in the faunal assemblage may also reflect the climatological conditions and the ecology present during the different periods of influx into the cave by knowing the general diets of these animals ^{29,30,31}.

Faunal analysis is a crucial tool in the investigation into the complexity of caves. How, and under which circumstances they developed, as well as the mysteries they contain yield important information of the cave's inhabitants. Kemp's Caves in particular may yield invaluable information pertaining to our existence, as this site falls within the critical period for the origin of Anatomically Modern Humans.

Faunal analysis is, however, a time consuming and tedious task. A single specimen is identified to part and side of the skeleton and if possible to the species it belongs to. This is done by an expert comparing morphological characteristics of the

excavated piece to its modern counterpart ^{3,4}. However, osteological measurements often constitute the only method of accurate identification. This, for example, is the case when sheep and goat specimens are analysed within the same faunal assemblage ³². Since identification of skeletal specimens is thus possible by using metrical data, it may be possible to use a database of measurements to identify faunal specimens of an excavation site. Therefore, an investigation into possible computerized identification utilizing absolute osteometric values may yield a method which can be useful when a preliminary faunal list of a site is needed. This method may not be as accurate as the eye of an expert, but will certainly give a good idea of the faunal species present in an excavation.

The two aims of this study were to firstly analyse the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves with regard to the ESR dating, climatic changes in the area and the taphonomy of the cave. Secondly, it was to investigate the possibility of computerized identification of bones. These aims could only be achieved by conducting the study in three different stages:

stage I: The analysis of the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves.

This stage of the study entailed the morphological identification and analysis of the macrofaunal remains of Kemp's Caves. The interpretation of this data included climatological, ecological and taphonomic aspects, as well as possible confirmation of the ESR dates. This may give an idea of the conditions and environment during the evolution of Anatomically Modern Humans.

.stage J: The collection of skeletal measurements and the development of

a computerized programme for possible identification of bones.

During this stage of the study it was attempted to ascertain whether bones could be identified exclusively according to measurement values. Because this is a new method, only the hind limb long bones of Southern African bovids were measured as a pilot study. Measurements to significantly differentiate between hind limb long bones of Southern African Bovidae were determined. Modern specimens of several South African museum collections were then measured and values were entered into a database. This data was used in the development of a computer programme for osteometric identification using the abovementioned measurements. Statistical analysis was done on all osteometric data obtained.

.stage 3: Testing the computerized identification of bones.

The computerized programme developed in Stage 2 was tested for accuracy and reliability on a few of the bones of Kemp's Caves by comparing the computerized results with the results obtained by the conventional methods in Stage 1. As only a few measurements were available for the Kemp's Caves specimens, it was decided to use modern specimens of known identification (of which all measurements could be taken) to also be compared to the computerized results.

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I. INTRODUCTION TO KEMP'S CAVES

Kemp's Caves are situated approximately 2 km west of Krugersdorp (26°04'51" S, 27°42'20" E) in the Ngonyama Game Reserve (see Figure 2.1). The caves were accidentally discovered through a series of events during 1991. A game ranger of the reserve stumbled upon a modern human skeleton in an area situated across the lion camp. As part of the police investigation to identify the remains, the expertise of Dr VD Kemp (coroner of the University of the Witwatersrand) was required. Dr Kemp visited the site and immediately realized the abundance of fossil material present in the area. This was reported to Prof M Henneberg at the University of the Witwatersrand, who started excavations in 1992. After Prof Henneberg left the country in 1996 research at the caves has been continued by the Department of Anatomy of the University of Pretoria¹.

The dolomitic ridge revealed a series of complex open caves, which was named after Dr Kemp. The caves are typical of the dolomitic caves formed in this area and run approximately from NW to SE^{33} . Analysis by Keyser indicates a young cave age, due to the caves' position above water level ²⁶. This is based on the geological theory that the higher the cave (closer to the water table) the younger it is. It is thus assumed that the Kemp's caves are relatively young due to the fact that the Rietfontein stream is almost at the same level as entrance of the cave.

The caves contain fossiliferous breccia in various stages of calcification and decalcification in its walls, roof and floor¹. Breccia often falls from the roof to the floor creating difficulty to analyze the date of the specimens according to layers in which it was first deposited.

Figure 2.1 is a simplified illustration of some of the important cave sites of South Africa and includes some older fossil sites as well. It clearly shows the close proximity of Kemp's Caves to the "Cradle of Mankind" sites in the Gauteng province.

FIGURE 2.1: Cave and excavation sites in South Africa

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Figure 2.2 shows the Ngonyama Game Reserve (former Krugersdorp Game

Reserve) 2 km west of Krugersdorp, with the location of Kemp's Caves.

FIGURE 2.2: Ngonyama Game Reserve (Copyright State 1997)

Kemp's Caves is comprised of three separate caves:

♦ Upper Kemp's Cave (UKC)

UKC was initially identified as a rock shelter ¹. It is mostly filled with collapsed rock and extends at least 7m into the ridge 33.

♦ Little Western Cave (LWC)

LWC is situated to the south of the entrance of UKC. It is approximately 2m

long, 1m high and 1m wide 33.

& Lower Kemp's Cave (LKC)

This is the largest cave, situated 20m south west of UKC¹. It is approximately 15m long and 10m wide. The height differs at separate locations in the cave and ranges between 0.1 - 5m³³. Material retrieved from LKC was used for this study.

FIGURE 2.3: Upper and Lower Kemp's Caves

Initially a grid system was built using a datum point (designated as "0") established near the middle of the entrance of LKC. In this system, for example, a square lying 6m to the North and 2m to the East from this datum point is labeled 6N2E 33

Problems such as the irregularity of the cave and the theft of the wires contributed to the fact that there is no permanent grid at LKC²⁶. The assemblage was excavated using archaeological methods, and all material was screened through rough and fine mesh. Breccia blocks were assigned to provenance and prepared in the laboratory by using mechanical and chemical preparation techniques¹. Only parts of LKC have been excavated, thus there are still abundant breccia to be recovered.

Figures 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 are photographic representations of the entrances of UKC, LWC and LKC respectively. Figure 2.7 shows a juvenile Eland skeleton located deep within LKC, a more recent attribution to the cave's contents.

FIGURE 2.4: Entrance to Upper Kemp's Cave (Copyright University of Pretoria)

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FIGURE 2.5: Entrance to Little Western Cave (Copyright University of Pretoria)

FIGURE 2.6: Entrance to Lower Kemp's Cave (Copyright University of Pretoria)

FIGURE 2.7: Juvenile Eland skeleton in Lower Kemp's Cave (Copyright University of Pretoria)

The modern human skull discovered at the site exhibits physical features resembling the San people. It is that of a young adult male aged 22-27 years. The fractured skull has porcupine gnaw marks on the frontal, zygomatic, temporal and maxillary bones. A clay bowl, corresponding to pottery usually attributed to the Sotho-Tswana people, was found in close proximity to the skull 1,26.

Artifacts such as animal bones, pottery, charcoal, glass, metal wire, as well as a Late Stone Age chert scraper (52mm X 26mm), were unearthed at the entrance of the cave. There were also a few fragments of the skull found at the cave, near these artifacts. Reconstruction of some of the glass fragments yielded a 'marble stopper' type bottle, commonly used earlier this century. Other human remains excavated at the site include carpals, tarsals and phalanges of both hands and feet, ribs and several teeth of a young adult of uncertain sex. These modern human remains were

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excavated by the University of the Witwatersrand and is still part of their collection. A rusted nail, broken earthenware pot and a complete Middle Stone Age spear point was also found in the vicinity of these human skeletal remains. A lower third molar belonging to an adult aged 25-35 years originated from a small ash-filled crevice in the rock in LKC. The molar was worn to the second degree, and quite large in size 26 .

Presently the Department of Anatomy at the University of Pretoria is excavating in Lower Kemp's Cave which exhibits the most fossil material. Although no ancient hominid bones have as yet been discovered, Kemp's Caves fall within the expected time period for the origin of anatomical modern humans and may still yield specimens which could shed light on the evolution of anatomical modern humans 1.

Little is known about this era in human evolution. A large number of fossiliferous caves and shelters have been identified and investigated in Southern Africa, but only a few have chronologies dating back to Upper Pleistocene³⁴. Aspects such as Upper Pleistocene environmental changes ³⁵. MSA assemblages and interpretation of human behaviour ³⁶, as well as origin, locality and demographic shifts ³⁷ are still being debated because of the insufficient representation of this era in the fossil record.

Klein describes palaeoanthropology as a historical science, which interprets and reconstructs the life of extinct humans from their preserved skeletal anatomy. It then also assumes their behavior and the processes that shaped them but, in comparison with other evolutionary disciplines, the data is always meager ³⁸. Therefore, compared to the evolution of animals, the history of man is still poorly represented in the fossil record but every discovery sheds new light on old theories.

A number of contradicting theories regarding the geographical origin of

modern humans exists. One theory is "multiregional evolution" which states that modern humans evolved semi-independently in Europe, Asia and Africa³⁹. Another theory is known as the "Out of Africa" hypothesis that argues that modern humans evolved in Africa, migrated to Eurasia later and replaced the people living there⁴⁰. Walter et al⁴¹ argued that not only did early modern humans originate in Africa but evidence at the Red Sea coast suggests that the first modern humans occupied mostly coastal areas. Kemp's caves contain fossils from the time period in which anatomical modern humans evolved. If hominid remains are found at Kemp's Caves it may yield important information in this respect, being an inland site with dates of this era. The lack of significant human and natural disturbance of the fossil bearing depOSits may, on the other hand, also be important to substantiate the theory of Walter et al⁴¹.

~. **ECOLOGY OF KEMP'S CAVES**

Ecology is described as the scientific study of living things in relation to each other and to their environment ⁴². The close interrelationship between fauna, flora, climate and geology, therefore assists the scientist in the understanding of the environment and time in which cave deposits occurred.

McKee⁴³ remarks that any environmental changes, apparently associated with hominid evolution, are revealed in part by the animals that changed, or did not change, within the same local context. Faunal analysis can therefore, either corroborate or challenge ecological hypothesis. This provides an important context for the appearance of the genus Homo and associated artefacts within a biotic community. Climatological $29,30,31$ and geological 61 studies will therefore shed some

light on the origin of anatomical modern humans. Thackeray ³⁰, however, reminds that although fossil remains may facilitate environmental reconstruction, the fossil record represents only a portion of the animals that lived at the time of the deposition.

Consequently, the ecological significance of the fauna is subject to varied interpretations. It is therefore essential to corroborate evidence of all faunal elements from a site 43 .

The regional ecology is thus of great importance to have a clear understanding of the faunal assemblage, taphonomy and the processes that have been busy changing and creating Kemp's Caves and the immediate area surrounding the cave. Geology, the climate, as well as the fauna and flora (veld types - past and present) give the essential background required for analysis.

:2.1 Geo'ogy

Approximately 3500 - 2500 million years ago, the oldest rock formations in South Africa developed. They belong to the Archaean time period (Table 2. 1). These formations constitute the basement or floor on which the younger sediments were deposited. Large masses of granite, called greenstone belts, intruded into older belts of volcanic and sedimentary rocks. These formations form an ancient greenstone terrain which underlies a large part of the country.

The granite-greenstone basement, together with it's younger cover rocks, form the Kaapvaal Craton. This ancient core of continental crust has remained relatively undisturbed since Archaean times 44.

TABLE 2.1: Geological time scale adapted from Viljoen & Reimold 44.

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Between 2600 and 2250 million years ago, during the Proterozoic (Table 2.1), a large part of the Kaapvaal Craton was submerged by an inland sea. Older formations like the Ventersdorp lavas (huge volumes of lava flowed with interlayered sediments) were covered by a widespread sequence of sediments, known as the Transvaal Supergroup. Kemp's Caves fall within this geological group. These rocks were deposited in a large sedimentary basin⁴⁴. This probably happened during the first major marine transgression over the continental mass in the Late Archaean ⁴⁵. It extends roughly between Mafikeng in the west, Nelspruit in the east, Pietersburg in the north and Vredefort in the South 44.

The lowest rocks of the Transvaal Supergroup consist mainly of quartzite. In many places it contains a narrow, dark-coloured quartz-pebble conglomerate known as the Black Reef. It is this conglomerate that carries gold 44.

Carbonate sediments, Malmani dolomite, accumulated in a shallow sea after deposition of the Black Reef. These distinctive carbonate rocks (dolomite and limestone) contain stromatolites, which were formed by ancient organisms similar to present-day algal colonies. The Malmani dolomites contain numerous caves. The caves have formed recently in geological time as a result of dissolution of the carbonate by penetrating groundwater. Dissolution occurred particularly along fractures in the rock. Sterkfontein, Swartkrans and Kromdraai are well-known caves found within these sediments. Although these dolomite cave formations have made these areas of South Africa the famous "Cradle of Mankind", it also poses a problem in certain parts of the country where the surface collapses as a result of dissolution, causing sinkholes 44. Lead, zinc, vanadium and fluorite mineralization occur within the Malmani dolomite, making it economically favourable for mining 45.

2.2 Climate

The climate of any place on earth is controlled by three important factors⁴⁶ o Latitude.

@ Position relative to the distribution of land and sea.

B Height above sea level.

Other factors such as general circulation of the atmosphere, ocean currents, the nature of underlying soil, vegetation cover and orientation relative to hills or mountains influence the climate and each other ⁴⁶.

Kemp's Caves fall within the Northeastern corner of the Highveld climatic region. It is in close proximity to the Northern Transvaal region. The average precipitation of this region currently varies from 900mm on its eastern border to 650mm in the west. The rainfall is almost exclusively due to showers and thunderstorms which is characterized by short periods of considerable rainfall. These storms are often violent with strong, gusty south-westerly winds. The winter months are normally dry and about 85% of the annual rainfall occurs in the summer months from October to March. Rain is sometimes accompanied by hail 46.

The average daily temperatures range from 27°C in January to 1*rc* in July. In extreme cases it may rise to 38°C and sink to -10°C respectively. For an average of 120 days during may to September, frost is likely to occur. On average winds are light except when accompanied by thunderstorms. The sunshine duration in summer is about 60% and in winter 80% of the possible. Average sunshine hours per day are between 8 and 9 hours ⁴⁶.

~J **F'oro**

Vegetation is made up of individual plants, few or many, according to their habitat, which belongs to a number of different species. A balance is maintained at a level of development determined by the locality or environment of living together, competing with and assisting each other. A unit of vegetation whose range of variation is small enough to permit the whole of it to have the same farming possibilities is defined as a veld type. Acocks developed the classification of 70 veld types, plus 75 variations for South Africa⁴⁷.

A survey conducted in 1950 classified the area around Kemp's Caves as being part of sour grassveld vegetation. Vegetation changes according to the way it is treated, and Acocks is of opinion that little or no vegetation in South Africa is in its original condition. Several theories on the vegetation during past and future eras, place Kemp's Caves on the border of different vegetation patterns. Around A. D. 1400 Kemp's Caves were probably situated on the border between bushveld and sour grassveld. Future probability (approximately 2050), positions Kemp's Caves on the junction of three veld types namely bushveld, sour grassveld and mixed grassveld. If vegetation in South Africa is under constant scientific management Kemp's Caves should be pure sour grassveld 47 . Sourveld is defined as being veld where the forage plants become unacceptable and less nutritious on reaching maturity, thus allowing the veld to be utilized for only a portion of each year ⁴⁸.

Kemp's Caves fall specifically into Acocks veld type 61, called bankenveld. Bankenveld is classified as a false grassveld type ⁴⁷. Low and Rebelo edited a revised vegetation description of South Africa in 1996. According to the new edition, Kemp's cave fall within the Grassland Biome, which is dominated by a single layer of

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grasses, specifically veld type 34, Rocky Highveld Grassland. Bankenveld and Rocky Highveld Grassland is synonymous⁴⁹. It is possible that this veld type was an open savanna of Acacia caffra (Common hook-thorn). In certain parts along its northern margin it is still open savanna, and sour bushveld regularly occurs on the rocky outcrops and hills.

Three variations of Bankenveld are recognized ⁴⁷:

o Western variation (sandy plains)

@ Central variation (Witwatersrand area, high lying, largely rocky country)

e Eastern variation (sandy plains, but wetter than Western variation)

Kemp's Caves fall within the central variation. The rocks are mainly quartzite, shale, dolomite, chert and granite. The soils are poor and acid, and either stony or sandy. The winters are severely frosty. With regular burning the veld is particularly sour and virtually ungrazable in winter. On the rocky hills and ridges the vegetation is bushveld dominated by Protea caffra (Common sugarbush), Acacia caffra (Common hook-thorn), Celtis africana (White Stinkwood) and a large number of south bushveld shrubs. Xerophyta retnervis is a typical plant of the hills but in the sheltered valleys and sinkholes there are temperate transitional forests. Species such as *Kiggelaria* africana (Wild peach), Hal/eria lucida (Tree fuchsia) and Leucosidea sericea (Old wood) can be found in these forest areas ⁴⁷.

Principal grass genera include Schizachyrium (Autumn grass), Eragrostis (Love grass), Oigitaria (Finger grass), Panicum (Buffalo grass) and Setaria (Bristle grass). This veld type has a wealth of forbs and bushy plants and is closely related to the more mountainous parts of Lowveld Sour Bushveld, but it is drier and less hot ⁴⁷.

U fetqfute 20

Table 2.2 shows a detailed list of the characteristic species of this veld type.

Kemp's Caves are situated next to the small Rietfontein river, in a rocky

mountainous, forest area at an altitude of approximately 1550m.

TABLE 2.2: Kemp's Cave area plant species as listed by Bredenkamp & van Rooyen ⁴⁹

Uterqture **²¹**

This Bankenveld veld type is transitional between typical grassland and bushveld. The distribution of woody elements is mostly influenced by the frosts during winter. Bankenveld was interpreted by Acocks as a fire-maintained grassland, therefore developing into savanna if fire was excluded 49 .

$Literature$ 22.

.2.4 **FO\Ano**

The habitat of an animal is closely associated with the flora which occupies the area. The frequency of a specific species is therefore dictated by its feeding type which in tum is based on the flora available.

The Ngonyama Game Reserve has been surrounding the Kemp's Cave area since 1963. Certain species have been introduced to the area which may not have been naturally present before the recent habitat changes. A typical example is Antidorcas marsupialis (Springbok). This fact may complicate conclusions made from faunal material during climatological change and interpretation.

Earlier upper Pleistocene faunal remains which accompany MSA artifacts in Southern Africa are all reported to be overwhelmingly modern. Extinct species include three extinct genera, namely the giant Buffalo, Pe/orovis, the giant Hartebeest Mega/otragus, and the giant warthog Sty/ochoerus. Extinct species in surviving genera include Equus capensis (Giant cape horse/zebra), Antidorcas australis and Antidorcas bondi (springboks), Hipparion (three-toed horse), Sivatherium (short-necked giraffes), Megantereon (sabre-tooth cats) and Theropithecus (giant baboon)³⁷.

A species list combining information on animals which may have been present in the area in the past (du Plessis 50), animals which normally occur naturally in this type of habitat (Smithers ⁵¹), as well as the actual species found on the reserve are represented in Table 2.3. Only larger mammal species are shown. Most of the species in the list that occupied the Kemp's Caves area are still present in the Ngonyama Game Reserve.

TABLE 2.3: Species list of past and present larger mammals within the Kemp's Caves area

Animals that occurred here in the past 50

SITEDATING 3.

Six heavily fossilized teeth prepared from breccia blocks from three different localities in LKC, as well as a seventh from in situ deposits were selected in 1996 for ESR (Electron Spin Resonance) dating ¹. Sample preparations and measurements

 24

m

followed conventional ESR laboratory procedures⁵². Fragments of enamel were mechanically removed from different locations on the teeth. The preparation of several sub-samples tested the uniformity as well as the possibility of contamination of the specimens. The result was dates ranging from 11 ± 0.6 ka to 140 ± 8 ka classifying it as Upper Pleistocene. The youngest date is Holocene in age and dates to about 6.1 ± 0.4 ka¹.

The ESR dates of the site should be confirmed with other methods of dating. It may be difficult considering the problems associated with the dating of Southern African sites, as the development and formation of these caves do not easily accommodate geological dating for absolute results ²⁷.

Scientists use two kinds of dating methods:

 \odot Chronometric / Absolute dating

 \rightarrow gives a date of actual number of years 27 .

@ Relative dating

 \rightarrow gives an idea whether something is older or younger than the other 27 . Faunal dating is a method of relative dating, thus giving no definite date in years. The rock matrix from which the bone was excavated can, however, be chronometrically dated if necessary. Faunal analysis can therefore be very informative when an extinct species is discovered. Knowing the approximate era in which this animal roamed the earth, gives an idea of the date of that particular section of the site 27 . Therefore comparative faunal analysis might aid in confirming the dating of Kemp's Caves.

U. OTHER SOUTHERN AFRICAN CAVES AND SITES WITH SIMILAR DATES

Other sites in Southern Africa such as Rose Cottage Cave, Melikane and Sehonghong fall in the same time period as Kemp's Caves ³⁴.

lU Rose c ottage Cove

Rose Cottage Cave is situated on the Platberg, a few kilometers away from Ladybrand in the eastern Free State (29 $^{\circ}$ 13' S, 27 $^{\circ}$ 28' E). Cave dates range from 5970 ± 70 to 28 000 \pm 80 BP. The cave is about 20m long and 10m wide and is protected by a great boulder that encloses the front of the cave, leaving a skylight. The aims of the excavations are the dating of the cultural sequence and reconstructing environments through time. A grid of $38m²$ was excavated and later reduced to 26m². Charcoal from the cave's occupants has been particularly useful in providing evidence of vegetation and climatic change in the eastern Free State during the Pleistocene and Holocene. A high species diversity of micro and macro mammals has been identified from this site ¹⁶. Rose Cottage Cave also has a long detailed sequence from early Middle Stone Age through to the Later Stone Age ¹⁹.

\,(•.:2 .sehonghong

Sehonghong rock shelter is situated in the Thaba Tseka district of eastern Lesotho (29°46' S, 28°47' E). It lies on a west-flowing tributary of the Orange River. Recently, new radiocarbon dates were established as being between1400 BP and 70000 BP. Its long sequence of Middle and Later Stone Age deposits makes it an important site for understanding the prehistory of Lesotho. It also has potential for key issues in Southern Africa as a whole, for instance the transition from the MSA to

LSA, as well as the hunter-gatherer adaptations ⁵³. Sehonghong is known from historical sources to have been occupied by hunter-gatherers until AD 1872⁵⁴. Excavations started in 1971 under the direction of Carter, who demonstrated that the deposit is made up of a series of major occupation horizons. Non-occupation periods have led to the confirmation of extreme cold periods during some parts of the Pleistocene 55.

43 BorderCove

Border Cave is close to the international border between South Africa and Swaziland. It is situated on the western escarpment of the Lebombo mountains in the north of Kwazulu-Natal, approximately 2km from the Ngwavuma river gorge ²². The dates of Border Cave have been fairly well researched, and range between 49 000 BP and 130 000 BP ²³. The cave is about 50m wide and 30m deep. At an elevation of 800m just below the escarpment the height ranges between two and seven meters. The bedrock consists of rhyolites and basalts, which relate to the Stormberg series in the Karoo. The cave is accessible only from a narrow ledge, which may have been ideal for defense and security 22 . Fifteen sedimentary units have been described 23 . The first hominid remains found by Horten in 1940, included a skull as well as tibial and femoral fragments. After this several other hominid remains were found by Cooke, Jones and Malan²². An infant skeleton was recovered from a shallow grave. Beaumont recovered an Iron-Age burial and a mandible during the seventies. Middle Stone Age stone tools of the Levallois type, made from local trachytic lavas and quartzite, are associated with these remains²².

~.~ Klosies River MOuth

Klasies River Mouth is situated near the town of Humansdorp on the southern coast of South Africa in the Cape Province (34°06' S, 24°24' E)⁵⁶. The Klasies River descends in a series of falls and is never dry. The area has a combination between Mediterranean and Subtropical climates ²⁵. More or less five caves with several chambers were first excavated on a large scale by Singer and Wymer from 1967 to 1968. Smaller excavations, particularly at the main site, was conducted by Deacon during 1984 with the main goal being dating. The main deposits contain artifacts and associated faunal remains that are clearly beyond the 40 000 - 30 000 year range of conventional radio-carbon dating 56.

There are still problems associated with the dating, but global sequences of late Pleistocene sea level and climate changes firmly place the MSA layers between 60000 BP and 128000 BP. The main site has provided fragmentary human skull bones that appear to be anatomically modern ²⁵. Twenty-four MSA dated and two LSA dated fragmentary human specimens were recovered ⁵⁶.

The artifacts from the main site closely resemble MSA artifacts from other sub-Saharan sites. Bone implements are mostly absent and stone tools dominate.

The faunal remains include mammals, birds, occasional fish and numerous shellfish. Fifteen different bovid species were identified at the main site. The mortality profiles of the bovids are dominated by very young and post-prime individuals which suggest that these species were hunted. Human hunters obviously found it easier and less dangerous to hunt very young and very old individuals 56.

5. FAUNAL ANAL Y5I5

Voigt 28 defines faunal remains as the physical remnants of animals which died on a particular spot. She also describes the initial purpose of faunal analysis as merely producing a "laundry list" of identified species from faunal remains. Quantative data can also disclose the antiquity of the animal and what relation it might have had to man ⁵⁷. Swartkrans, Sterkfontein, Kromdraai and Makapansgat are well known sites where many archaezoologists have done research on the faunal assemblages of ancient times.

5.1 **HiStory**

The first major contribution of archaeofaunal remains by means of a faunal analysis was in providing proof of the antiquity of man 57 . Lartet and Christie 28 undertook probably the first faunal analysis during their investigation of Palaeolithic cave sites in France in the 1860's. Bones were recovered side by side with stone implements and were used for interpretation of the diet of the occupants 28 . The first proper archaeozoological interpretation is linked to two Swiss workers named Rutimeyer and Duerst. In 1862 Rutimeyer described the mammal bones from neolithic lakeside dwellings in Switzerland. He was presumably the first to distinguish between wild and domestic animals. Thus domestication studies were underway ⁵⁷.

Bate was the first to use quantative data to deduce climatic changes during the Upper Pleistocene. In 1930 she plotted frequencies of two species in different strata of the Mount Carmel caves, each of a different habitat, thus interpreting the Pleistocene environment ⁵⁷.

The study of animal bone in South Africa grew out of research on the early hominid accumulations by Dart in the 1950's. During the 1960's Brain began to do

research on the mechanisms at work in bone accumulations in general. The results of his faunal analysis was published in 1981 . This publication was the corner stone of faunal analysis in Southern Africa. Since then, Brain has done extensive research on caves such as Swartkrans, Sterkfontein and Kromdraai. Today, publications such as "The hunter or the hunted?" ² and "Swartkrans: A cave's chronicle of early man" ⁵⁸ are used as benchmarks for methods in faunal analysis. To our knowledge, the only publication predating this, is work done on the Gamtoos valley by Hendey and Singer in 1965 28.

5,;2 **General approach**

Traditionally many faunal studies focused on zoogeographical relationships, environmental evolution, and the impact of humans on the landscape from the perspective of animals ^{58,59}. Recently topics such as nutrition, resource use, economics and other aspects of human behaviour have also been studied ^{58,59,60}.

There have been numerous investigations and analyses on faunal remains in archaeology and palaeoanthropology for the purposes of:

 \sim Taphonomic studies 2,58,61 .

- \sim Domestication investigations $62,63$
- * Study of human communities, including culture, diet and behavior 59,60,64

" Species identification for special purposes, including behaviour, extinct species morphology and morphological differences between and within species ^{64,65,66,67}

Climatological indications and interpretations 17,29,30,31

 \sim Dating 21,29,31

Brain characterizes the faunal analysis of an African cave as a detective story where the clues are the bones, and the aim of the investigation is to establish causes

of death. However, in this investigation the evidence is ancient and no witnesses survived to relate their stories².

Analysis of macrofaunal remains is a time consuming and tedious process if accurate results are required. Experts in this field have used reliable conventional methods for decades. These methods rely heavily on the expertise of the analyst.

Reitz and Wing ⁶⁸ describes an archaeozoological study as consisting of three parts: identification, analysis and interpretation. Clason's definitions on primary and secondary data distinguished between identification and analysis ⁶⁹. The identification stage is part of collecting the primary data, which includes element representation and taxonomic identification 2,65,66,67,70. All these facts can be replicated by subsequent analysts if necessary 68 .

During faunal analysis information on the following aspects are captured, if possible: **o Identification and classification**

Each specimen is analyzed separately by comparing the fragment with modern animal material. This is done by identifying the part of the skeleton and then classifying the fragment to the possible species by means of visual morphological characteristic comparison 4,57.

8 Measurements

Measurements of complete bones are done and the fragments are weighed 4, 28. **@) Age determination**

This is done using several methods depending on which part of the skeleton the fragment originates from. Tooth eruption and tooth wear, as well as epiphyseal fusion, are the methods most frequently used to determine age 4.28 .

Uterqture 32

o Condition

The condition of the bones, whether fossilized, modern, burnt, broken, containing tooth or claw marks, reveal much about the possible history of the animal 4,28,57.

o Modification

Human modification is when bones were sharpened or modified for use in hunting, food preparation, making of clothes, ornaments and accessories 4,28.

Secondary data are derived from primary data by means of several quantification techniques. Secondary data is therefore the basis of analysis. Age classes, sex ratios, butchering patterns and relative frequencies of taxa, are only a few elements of this process 68 .

The Southern African experts are extremely few in relation to the abundance of faunal material that has to be analyzed. The time factor presents a problem to the archaeologist and anthropologist waiting in line for a faunal analysis of their site, which may result in unwanted research interruption and suspension.

6. f ophonotny

Lyman defines taphonomy as the study of the transition, in all details, of organics from the biosphere into the lithosphere or geological record. In short it is the science of the laws of embedding or burial 71 .

6.1 History

Even before taphonomy had been given a place in scientific studies, many researchers were concerned with the forces and agents responsible for marks on bones recovered from various prehistoric contexts. In 1823, Buckland, for example,

observed a hyaena at Oxford University and was amazed by the mode of destruction of bones. Tournai (1 833) took Buckland's observations on hyaenas a bit further by not just looking at the gnaw marks on prey-bones, but also at the locations of the bones as well as the association with the remains and traces of their predators T .

In 1940 a Russian palaeontologist, I A Efremov, created the term taphonomy by combining the Greek words *taphos* (burial) and *nomos* (laws). However, quite a few terms have been used in publications describing taphonomy 71:

'- Weigelt's publication on taphonomy in 1927 is seen as the first major work on vertebrate taphonomy. He suggested the term biostratinomy meaning the study of the environmental factors that affect organic remains between a organism's death and the final burial of the remains.

In Richter described *aktuo-palatologie* as the science of the origin and present-day mode of formation of future fossils.

'- In 1963 Muller used the term rossi/diagenese, which translates to fossilization events that take place after the final burial of organic remains.

6~ **Genera' approach**

Since the first descriptions of bone assemblages, taphonomy became important not only to palaeontologists but also to archaeologists and archaeozoologists. The book published by CK Brain, "The Hunters or the Hunted?", in 1981 specifically incorporated taphonomy of South African caves ².

The primary accumulating agent of the cave is deducted from the faunal analysis. It can therefore indicate, for example, the type of animal (human or nonhuman) or environmental agent that was responsible for the accumulation of the deposits, and the reason for the specific location. Taphonomy is thus part of the

faunal analysis and reflects the holistic approach of archaeologists trying to understand and explain the totality of history 71 .

As bone passes from being part of a living animal, to part of a diet of either man or animal, to human or animal refuse, to part of a sediment, to part of an archaeological sample, a lot of information about the living animal is lost. Hence, much information about human activities is also lost ⁴.

In 1967 Clark and Kietzke identified seven formal categories of processes which have an impact on bone assemblages during the taphonomic trajectory. Each of the processes may distort or reduce information on the assemblage. These seven processes are ⁴:

o Biotic processes

Natural environment and human culture that influence the presence and numbers of animals at a speCific site.

@ Thanatic processes

Processes that bring about death and deposition of animals.

e Perthotaxic processes

Processes which result in the movement and destruction of bone before they are finally formed into a deposit.

o Taphic processes

The impact of physical and chemical agents which act upon bones after burial.

6) Anataxic processes

The recycling processes by which buried bones are re-exposed to fluvial action, weathering, trampling etc.

6 Sullegic processes

Archaeological activities that result in selective recovery or non-recovery of bones.

8 Trephic processes

The research decisions related to sorting, recording and publication.

Davis⁵⁷ describes by way of a practical example how intricate taphonomy may be. The Masaai are primarily dependant upon cows for their milk and may sometimes use the blood too. Examination of the faunal debris may, however, not reveal any trace of cattle remains (the mainstay of their economy), for cattle may only rarely have been slaughtered ⁵⁷.

The processes of taphonomy remind us to consider how little we understand animal taphonomy and how well we interpret the samples in a faunal analysis ⁴.

7. 051EOMEfRY

Metrical data gives an indication of the size and shape of a bone. Measurements are normally taken with a calliper, measuring tape and osteometric box. Whatever the equipment, the data should be comparable to other studies to be significant. Von den Driesch published a widely used set of measurements in 1976 72 . This included illustrations and definitions of measurements for several mammalian and avian taxa.

Osteometrical data has a wide variety of applications:

o Separation of skeletally similar species

 \sim Payne ⁴ as well as Badenhorst and Plug 32 have used measurements to distinguish between sheep and goat species.

 \sim Peters and Plug ⁷³ studied the osteomorphological differences of Antidorcas marsupialis and Antidorcas bondi.

Peters⁷⁴ compared the osteometry of Syncerus caffer and

Bos taurus.

 \sim Perry and Brink 75 did comparative postcranial osteometry of Antidorcas marsupialis and Pelea capreolus.

@ Domestication

». Domestication has induced morphological change, specifically size reduction ⁴.

 \sim Higham ⁷⁶ specifically showed size reduction from wild to domesticated animals.

Let also 17 compared Late Pleistocene and Holocene animals and also found a reduction in size, and suggested that it was due to climatic change.

(9 Examination of size variation through time and space

. On making use of metrical data of a large geographical area, studies have already demonstrated size variation through time in specific species ^{4.}

*Audoin-Rouzeau⁷⁸ did extensive research on particularly the differences in

bone measurements of cattle and sheep from prehistoric to medieval sites.

o Phylogeny and affinities

 \sim The phylogeny and close relationship between two different species may be enhanced by the differences as well as similarities of their measurement values. An example is the distinction between wolf and domestic dog which has been researched extensively. In some parts of the world there are, for example, no wild canids which suggests that domestic dogs had spread in

association with people⁴.

 \sim Watson and Plug ⁷⁹ also studied Oreotragus major wells and Oreotragus oreatragus.

Metrical data can be both more sensitive and more objective than human judgement when attributing a taxon. However, some skeletal traits will be better presented by measurements, and others equally well, or even better by morphological description. For instance, a measurement of a skeletal part can just as easily be visually assessed.

7.1 Manipu\ation of ",etr;c data

If osteometric information is used to distinguish between or classify species, measurement values may be referred to by manually searching for the appropriate information. Science has benefitted from technology as it has developed over time, and accelerated the search for viable information when needed.

Data captured by scientists are normally organized in such a way that they have additional value beyond the value of the facts alone. This concept is defined as information 80.

Computerized technology makes use of information systems, characterized as a set of interrelated components that collect, manipulate, and disseminate data and information. It provides a feedback mechanism to meet an objective. This feedback may lead to an awareness and understanding of a set of information and how that information can be made useful to support a specific task ⁸⁰. Performing this procedure manually may demand unlimited time. A computer programme may achieve several objectives in an instant with the same procedure. It can manipulate

Utetqtute 38

and disseminate osteometric values to do a specific task, for example, use the database to calculate the percentage probability of a species by evaluating a set of data.

The analysis of metrical data 81,82,83 and morphological characteristics 84,85,86 of bones through complex mathematical techniques is commonly used in the analysis of human remains, but have seldom been used on faunal remains.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
XIM THE METHODS

The analysis of the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves, as well as the development and testing of the program, is a descriptive cross sectional study. The study comprised of three stages, and will be described in this way.

I. 5fAGE 1- FAUNAL ANAL Y515

The purpose of stage 1 was to compose a species list indicating the species (modern or extinct) which occupied Kemp's Caves and its surrounding areas. This was done by classifying and identifying all faunal material of LKC, excavated up to date, using conventional methods. Faunal elements provide a variety of information about the history of a site. If an extinct species is identified among the remains , it is of particular value. The era in which this animal existed may give insight into the date estimates of the rock matrix that the skeletal part was recovered from. This might serve as confirmation of the dating of the entire, or part of, the excavation site.

All microfauna and archaeological artifacts were removed prior to analysis. The bones were obtained from the Department of Anatomy, University of Pretoria. Analysis took place at the Northern Flagship Institution (NFl), the former Transvaal Museum, under guidance of the staff of the Archaeozoology Department. Bones excavated in 1993, 1994, 1997, 1998 and 1999 were utilized for this study. Although the author did excavate for short periods of time at the site, staff and students of the Universities of the Witwatersrand and Pretoria removed most of the bones.

Skeletal parts lodged within decalcified breccia were prepared and both cranial and post-cranial elements were extracted. The sample included modern and fossilized material. Figure 3.1 shows the grid system in LKC.

FIGURE 3.1: Site map of Kemp's Caves

Due to the difficulty of acquiring a successful grid system, the transfer of bones from Wits to UP, as well as the fact that the steel wire borders of the grids were stolen, several bones have no grid assigned to them. Although it was attempted to place specimens within a certain area in the cave where possible, attempts were not always successful.

40

More than eight thousand faunal elements were analyzed and compared with modern skeletal material from the Transvaal Museum. Approximately 900 pieces were identifiable while the rest were unidentifiable. These two groups were dealt with separately. Figure 3.2 is a basic scheme providing the method used to analyze the faunal material of Lower Kemp's Cave.

FIGURE 3.2: Flow diagram of faunal analysis

I dentifiable bones \mathbf{L}

Identifiable bones were analyzed according to specific criteria. To identify a specific skeletal fragment, the type of bone, that is whether it is a long, short, sesamoid, accessory or irregular bone is the first step to identification. With this information the part of the skeleton from which this bone originated is then established. Next the class, family and genus are ascertained by comparing the fragment with modern skeletal material. If possible, the species is stipulated as well. Fragments not identifiable to species level were put in groups. These groups

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included carnivores, rodents and birds. Size indications within the classes ranged from small to large. Bovidae size were based on the classification by Brain ⁸⁷: Bov I includes the Common Duiker (Sylvicapra grimmia) and species smaller than that. Bov II comprise of species larger than Bov I and smaller than Impala (Aepyceros melampus), and Boy III larger than Boy II and smaller than Roan (Hippotragus equines). Bov IV consists of Buffalo (Syncerus caffer) and Eland (Taurotragus oryx.)

1.1.1 Observations of identifiab'e bones

To accurately process all the information possible from these fragments, a number of observations were noted on each specimen. This includes the establishment of the approximate age at which the individual died. This was done by different means, depending on which skeletal part of the skeleton survived.

The two methods used to determine age at death of faunal specimens are epiphyseal fusion, as well as dental eruption and tooth wear. Several different classes of tooth eruption and wear have been described for specific domestic 88,89 and wild animals ⁹⁰. Table 3.1 represents a summary, described by Plug, indicating the average age of an unknown mammalian individual according to its tooth morphology in the case of cranial fragments ⁹¹.

TABLE 3.1: Tooth eruption times and tooth wear ⁹¹

Materials and Methods and the Materials of the Materials of the 43

Age determination on post-cranial fragments, for example long bones, is based upon epiphyseal fusion. Three broad categories are described for an unknown mammalian individual: a) A juvenile individual will be represented by long bones characterized by separate epi- and diaphyses, because the bones have not yet fully fused. b) A sub-adult individual will be characterized by long bones which are not yet fully fused. In this case an epiphyseal line will still be visible. c) In an adult the long bones will be completely fused 3,4.

The age of the individual may provide information about the taphonomy of the cave. Taphonomy, the study of how bones came to be buried and preserved, also includes observations about the condition of the bone. Descriptions of conditions or modifications such as gnaw marks may lead to identification of the chief accumulating agent, which in turn shed light on the taphonomy. Other conditions, such as specimens being modern or fossilized, burnt or weathered were also noted.

1.1.2 Measurement of identifiable bones

Measurements are fundamental tools of information which enhance the analysis of the skeletal material collected at the site. Measurements indicate the size of the fragments, which are used in several studies such as percentage survival rate of skeletal parts, taphonomy of the cave as well as identifying the chief accumulating agent. The equipment used included an electronic sliding caliper, spreading caliper, metal measuring tape, osteometric board and an electronic scale provided by the National Flagship Institution, University of Pretoria and Witwatersrand Technikon.

Measurements used were defined by Von den Driesch⁷² and Peters⁹². These measurements were mostly done only when the bone was complete. An incomplete identifiable bone specimen was normally measured only in length, as specific

structures needed for measurements were fragmented. More detail on bone measurements are described in Stage 2. All identifiable specimens were weighed. The specimen was then sealed for future study.

I.J Non-identifiable bones

Specimens that were impossible to identify because of its small size or for any other reason, were catalogued as unidentifiable bones. These were placed in the following categories for statistical use ²⁸:

o Enamel fragments

All tooth and enamel fragments that could not be more specifically identified .

8 Skull fragments

All fragments of the skull too small for identification.

@) Vertebra fragments

This included all vertebrae.

o Rib fragments

All rib specimens, complete or not.

" Miscellaneous

All fragments too small to even determine from which area of the skeleton it

originated. Thus it was fragmented beyond any recognition.

o Bone flakes

This included mostly long bone fragments that could not be identified as belonging to a specific major limb and which did not retain any articular surfaces.

All non-identifiable material were counted, weighed, documented in tables and sealed. All the faunal remains were already numbered according to the year it was

excavated. Colour coding was used to accommodate easy future reference.

Prior to analysis a preliminary species list was compiled using Smithers⁵¹ and du Plessis⁵⁰, as well as a faunal list which was acquired from the Ngonyama Game Reserve (Table 2.2). These were used to ascertain which species occurred in this area in the past, and which species are currently found in this area. The faunal list from the Game reserve was also used for interpretation of more recent, modern remains which could have been introduced by the reserve.

~. **.sfAGE** ~ - **O.sfEOMEfRY**

Stage 2 comprised of the determination of measurements which might enable morphological skeletal identification by means statistical analysis with the use of a computer programme. It involved the measuring of modern material, data capturing of the measurement values on a data base and the development of a computer program to classify and identify faunal remains using the measurements.

J.I Meosurements

As this is only a test to assess whether a data base programme will be able to identify and classify skeletal material, only the long bones of the hind limbs of all Southern African Bovid species were utilized to test the viability of classification of bones using osteometric values through computerized programmes. The 34 Southern African species available in South African museums, which represent the respective Bovid size classes I -IV and their average weight defined by Brain 87, are listed in Tables 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5.

The modern collections used for this part of the study were kindly made available by the NFl (the former Transvaal Museum Pretoria), National Museum

Mqten"q/s qnd Methods 46

(Bloemfontein) and the South African Museum (Cape Town). These three museums have the largest mammalian skeletal collections in South Africa. The bones were of known animals. Although all attempts were made to collect as many specimens for measurement purposes as possible, four species were unfortunately not represented in these Southern African modern collections and no measurements could be recorded for Dik-Dik (Madoqua kirkii), Sharp's Grysbok (Raphicerus sharpei), Puku (Kobus vardonii) and Lichtensteins Hartebeest (Sigmoceros lichtensteinii). Not all species are adequately represented in the modern skeletal collection, thus although sample sizes of thirty were preferred, some species are represented by less than this amount. Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷², Peters⁹² and Walker⁹³ were used. New measurements were also developed during the course of the study where necessary.

TABLE 3.3: Bovid size class II⁹¹

TABLE 3.4: Bovid size class III⁹¹

TABLE 3.5: Bovid size class IV 91

The sex and origin of the individual were documented in cases where it was catalogued as such, although male and female data was pooled. 14 individual measurements were taken on each femur, 15 on the tibia and 16 on each metatarsal of the 30 bovid species. The left side was used in each case unless only the right side was available, in which case it was documented as being the right side.

The four basic types of measurements are as follows:

O Breadth measurements:

- Measurements from the most medial to the most lateral aspects.
- These are indicated in blue on all figures.

² Depth measurements:

- Measurements from the most anterior to the most posterior aspects.
- These are indicated in purple in all figures.

O Length measurements:

- Measurements from the most proximal to the most distal aspects.
- These are indicated in green in all figures.

O Circumference measurements:

- Measurements of the smallest circumference of the shaft.
- These are indicated in orange in all figures.

Measurements were done by the author only and repeated on different

occasions. Aforementioned mechanisms were utilized to minimize investigator error.

An electronic calliper was mostly used. Although the electronic calliper provided readings up to three decimals (in mm), measurements used in statistical analyses were rounded off to the nearest two decimals. Other measuring equipment used included a spreading calliper, osteometric box and metal measuring tape. A metal measuring tape was chosen to eliminate stretching and therefore inaccurate measuring.

Tables 3.6 - 3.8 stipulate the measurements used in the study. It also gives the abbreviations that will be used when referring to a specific measurement for the remainder of the text. The measuring equipment used, as well as the source of the measurement are also tabulated. A colour coded key to the descriptions of the specific measurements can be seen in each table. Each measurement was given a new abbreviation for easier reference and comprised of the following:

Figures 3.3a - 3.5b diagrammatically indicate the specific individual measurements done on the femur. Figures 3.6a -3.8 show measurements on the tibia and Figures 3.9a - 3.11a the metatarsal measurements. Information on how the measurements were taken are described in detail and accompany each figure. The original abbreviation of the measurements are listed with the figures for reference. The bones are illustrated from anterior, superior and inferior views to accommodate all measurement descriptions. Every view has a different figure number, but if it is used twice to accommodate all the measurements, an "a" or "b" indicate which measurements will be shown on the specific figure.

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TABLE 3.6: Femur measurements

 \blacklozenge Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

- Measurements defined by Peters⁹²
- Measurements defined by Walker⁹³
- Measurements developed by the author

TABLE 3.7: Tibia measurements

◆ Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

Measurements defined by Peters⁹²

- Measurements defined by Walker⁹³
- Measurements developed by the author

TABLE 3.8: Metatarsal measurements

 \blacklozenge Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

Measurements defined by Peters⁹²

Measurements defined by Walker⁹³

■ Measurements developed by the author

2.1.1 Measurements on the femur

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE FEMUR - FIGURE 3.3a

 $F(GL) =$ Greatest length.

Original abbreviation: "GL" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest distance from the proximal extremity to the distal extremity was measured. Important to note is that both femoral condyles should be in the same vertical plane. Thus both condyles should be in contact with the vertical part of the osteometric box, with the posterior aspect closest to the floor of the box. The femur should therefore be placed at an angle to the horizontal line of the box.

F(GLH) = Greatest length from femur head.

"GLC" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

The greatest distance from the head of the femur to the distal extremity was measured. The femur must be placed in the same position as with the F(GL) measurement. Thus both condyles should be in contact with the vertical part of the osteometric board. The F(GLH) was on average less than the F(GL).

FIGURE 3.3a: Femur: Anterior view $F(GL)$
 $F(GLH)$

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE FEMUR - FIGURE 3.3b

F(SBD) = Smallest breadth of diaphyses.

"SD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

The smallest breadth on the shaft of the femur was taken. The femur should be placed in the same position as for F(GL). The jaws of the calliper should be placed to the lateral and medial aspects of the shaft, and moved proximally and distally to ascertain the smallest measurement. This measurement was on average taken approximately in the middle of the femur shaft.

F(SCD) = Smallest circumference of diaphyses.

No Original abbreviation: "CD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The smallest circumference of the shaft of the femur was taken with a metal measuring tape. The measuring tape must be moved proximally and distally to establish the smallest reading.

FIGURE 3.3b: Femur : Anterior view $F(SBD)$ $F(SCD)$

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE FEMUR - FIGURE 3.4.

F(GBP) = Greatest breadth proximal end.

Original abbreviation: "Bp" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

"A" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest breadth of the proximal end of the femur extends from the most lateral point of the greater trochanter to the most medial point of the head of the femur. This measurement was taken with a sliding calliper.

F(GBH) = Greatest breadth femur head.

Developed by author

This measurement was taken with a sliding calliper and measured the breadth of the femur head. This is a fairly easy measurement as the borders of the head are usually distinct.

F(GDH) = Greatest depth femur head.

Original abbreviation: "DC" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest depth of the femur head is measured from anterior to posterior with a sliding calliper. The measurement should be taken perpendicular to F(GBH). The femur should be held with the superior aspect facing the measurer, as this ensures accuracy.

FIGURE 3.4: Femur: Superior view F(GBP) ; F(GBH) ; F(GDH)

C) INFERIOR VIEW OF THE FEMUR - FIGURE 3.5a.

F(GBD) = Greatest breadth distal end.

Driginal abbreviation: "Bd" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

"A" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest breadth from the most lateral point to the most medial point on the distal end of the femur is measured with a sliding calliper. In some cases, for example Bov IV size specimens, an osteometric board may be used due to the size of the bone.

F(GLDD) = Greatest lateral depth distal end.

Original abbreviation: "Dld" (Peters, 1985) 92

The greatest lateral depth of the distal end of the femur is more easily measured from the lateral view. This measurement is taken with a sliding calliper from the most anterior point to the most posterior point of the lateral femoral condyle.

F(GMDD) = Greatest medial depth distal end

Original abbreviation: "Dmd" (Peters, 1985) 92

The greatest medial depth of the distal end of the femur is also taken with a sliding calliper. This measurement is taken from the most anterior to the most posterior point of the medial femoral condyle and is more accurate if taken from a medial view of the femur.

FIGURE 3.5a: Femur:

Inferior view $F(GBD)$ $F(GLDD)$ $F(GMDD)$

C) INFERIOR VIEW OF THE FEMUR - FIGURE 3.5b.

 $F(GBT)$ = Greatest breadth trochlea.

"BT" (Peters, 1985)⁹² Original abbreviation:

The greatest breadth of the trochlea of the femur should be measured at the same angle as the trochlea itself. The measurement must therefore be taken in line with the trochlea from the most medial to the most lateral point. A sliding calliper is used to take the measurement.

F(GBCF) = Greatest breadth condylar fossa.

Developed by author

The greatest breadth of the condylar fossa of the femur is a fairly difficult measurement as the landmarks differ in every individual. In some cases it was covered with osteophytes and the actual measurement was sometimes difficult to ascertain. The sharp outer jaws of the calliper were used to measure the greatest distance in between the two femoral condyles.

F(SBCF) = Smallest breadth condylar fossa.

Developed by author

The smallest breadth of the condylar fossa was also measured with the outer sharp jaws of the calliper. The smallest distance between the femoral condyles was measured. Occasionally the F(GBCF) and F(SBCF) were equal in value.

FIGURE 3.5b: Femur: Inferior view F(GBT)
F(GBCF) F(SBCF)

2.1.2 Measurements on the tibia

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.6a

 $T(GL) = *Greates* then g th.$

"GL" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

"C" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest distance from the proximal extremity to the distal extremity was measured. Important to note is that the tibia should be placed at the same angle as the osteometric box. Thus it should be positioned with its long axis perpendicular to that of the horizontal part of the osteometric box.

$T(GLL)$ = Greatest lateral length.

Original abbreviation: "LI" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest distance from the most superior point of the lateral tibial condyle to the most inferior point on the distal extremity was measured. The tibia must be placed in the same position as with the T(GL) measurement.

 $T(GML)$ = Greatest medial length.

Developed by the author

The greatest distance from the most superior point of the medial tibial condyle to the most inferior point on the distal extremity was measured. Again the tibia must remain in the same position as with the T(GL) measurement.

FIGURE 3.6a: Tibia: Anterior view T(GL)
T(GLL)
T(GLM)

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.6b

T(SBD) = Smallest breadth of diaphyses

"SD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

The smallest diameter was taken on the breadth of the tibial shaft. The tibia should be placed in the same position as for T(GL). The jaws of the calliper should be placed on the lateral and medial apects of the shaft, and moved proximally and distally to ascertain the smallest measurement. This measurement was on average taken on the distal third of the tibial shaft.

T(SCD) = Smallest circumference of diaphyses.

Noriginal abbreviation: "CD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The smallest circumference of the shaft of the tibia was taken with a metal measuring tape. The measuring tape must be moved proximally and distally to establish the smallest reading.

FIGURE 3.6b: Tibia: Anterior view $T(SBD)$
 $T(SCD)$

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.7a

T(GBP) = Greatest breadth proximal end.

"Bp" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

"A" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest breadth of the proximal end of the tibia was measured from the most medial to the most lateral aspects of this end. The measurement is done using a sliding calliper.

T(GDP) = Greatest depth proximal end.

Original abbreviation: "Dp" (Peters, 1985) 92

The greatest depth of the proximal end was measured in an osteometric box. This was done to ensure the accuracy of the measurement. The superior aspect of the tibia was placed so that it was in contact with the osteometric box. It was held at a right angle to the floor of the box. The greatest distance between the most anterior and posterior aspects of the proximal end was measured.

T(SBIE) = Smallest breadth intercondylar eminence.

Developed by author

The smallest distance between the medial and lateral intercondyler eminences was measured with a sliding calliper.

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.7b

T(GDLC) = Greatest depth lateral condyle.

Developed by author

The greatest depth of the lateral condyle was measured. The greatest distance from the most anterior to the most posterior point on the lateral condyle of the tibia was measured with a sliding calliper. The borders of the lateral condyle are clearly defined.

T(GDMC) = Greatest depth medial condyle.

Developed by the author

The greatest depth of the medial condyle was measured. The greatest distance from the most anterior to the most posterior point on the medial condyle of the tibia was measured with a sliding calliper. This measurement was sometimes difficult, since the anterior border of the condyle is not always clear. If it was unclear, the anterior border of the smooth articulation surface was taken as the most anterior point.

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.7b Continue

T(GDT) = Greatest depth tibial tuberosity.

Developed by the author

The greatest depth of the tibial tuberosity was measured with the outer sharp jaws of the sliding calliper. This measurement was not always accurate, since there are no clearly defined points where the jaws of the calliper should be placed to enable measuring.

T(GDTN) = Greatest depth tibial tuberosity from notch.

Developed by the author

This measurement was done using a spreading calliper. The two jaws of the calliper were placed in contact with the tibial tuberosity anteriorly and tibial notch posteriorly respectively, to measure the greatest distance between the two points.

 \sim \sim

FIGURE 3.7b: Tibia: Superior view T(GDLC) ; T(GDMC) ; T(GDT) ; T(GDTN)

C) INFERIOR VIEW OF THE TIBIA - FIGURE 3.8

T(GBD) = Greatest breadth distal end

"Bd" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

"A" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest breadth of the distal end of the tibia was measured with a sliding

calliper from the most medial point to the most lateral point.

 $T(GDD)$ = Greatest depth distal end.

"Dd" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

"Dd" (Peters, 1985) 92

The greatest distance from the most anterior to the most posterior point of the distal end was measured with a sliding calliper.

T(SDD) = Smallest depth distal end.

Original abbreviation: "B" (Walker, 1985) 93

The smallest depth of the distal end of the tibia was measured with a sliding calliper. The measurement was mostly taken approximately between the two articulating facets for the tarsal bones.

2.1.3 Measurements on the metatarsal

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.9a

 $M(GL) =$ Greatest length.

Original abbreviation: "GL" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest distance from the most superior point on the proximal extremity to the most inferior point on the distal extremity was measured. It is important to note that the metatarsal should be placed at the same plane as the osteometric box. The shaft should be positioned perpendicular to the horizontal part of the osteometric box.

 $M(GLL)$ = Greatest lateral length.

Original abbreviation: "GLI" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest distance from the most superior point on the proximal end to the most inferior point of the lateral condyle of the metatarsal was measured. The metatarsal must be placed in the same position as with the M(GL) measurement. This measurement was done by means of an osteometric box.

M(GML) = Greatest medial length.

Developed by the author

The greatest distance from the most superior point of the proximal end to the inferior point of the medial condyle of the metatarsal was measured. The metatarsal must remain in the same position as with the M(GL) measurement.

FIGURE 3.9a: Metatarsal: Anterior view $M(GL)$ $M(GLM)$ $M(GLL)$

A) ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.9b

M(SBD) = Smallest breadth of diaphyses

Original abbreviation: "SD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The smallest diameter taken on the breadth of the metatarsal shaft. The metatarsal should be placed in the same position as for M(GL). The jaws of the calliper should be placed to the lateral and medial aspects of the shaft, and moved proximally and distally to ascertain the smallest measurement. This measurement was taken on average near the middle of the shaft.

M(SCD) = Smallest circumference of diaphyses.

Driginal abbreviation: "CD" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The smallest circumference of the shaft of the metatarsal was taken with a metal measuring tape. The measuring tape must be moved proximally and distally to establish the smallest reading. Usually this measurement was taken on the distal third of the shaft.

FIGURE 3.9b: Metatarsal: Anterior view M(SCD)
M(SBD)

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.10a

All of the measurements described below were uncomplicated since the

borders of the articulating facets were well defined on most specimens.

M(GLLA) = Greatest length lateral articulating facet on proximal end.

Developed by the author

The greatest length of the lateral articulation facet was measured with a sliding calliper.

M(GBLA) = Greatest breadth lateral articulating facet on proximal end.

Developed by the author

The greatest breadth of the lateral articulating facet was measured. It is

important to note that this measurement should be at a right angle to M(GLLA).

M(GLMA) = Greatest length medial articulating facet on proximal end.

Developed by the author

The greatest length of the medial articulating facet was measured.

M(GBMA) = Greatest breadth medial articulating facet on proximal end.

Developed by the author

The greatest breadth of the medial articulating facet was measured. Again it is important to note that this measurement should be at a right angle to measurement M(GLMA).

B) SUPERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.10b

M(GBP) = Greatest breadth proximal end.

"Bp" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷² Original abbreviation:

"C" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest breadth is measured from the most lateral to the most medial

points of the proximal end of the metatarsal with a sliding calliper.

 $M(GDP)$ = Greatest depth proximal end.

Original abbreviation: "Dp" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest depth was measured from the most anterior to the most posterior point on the proximal end of the metatarsal with a sliding calliper.

C) INFERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.11a

M(GBDE) = Greatest breadth distal eminences.

Developed by the author

The greatest breadth between the outsides of the medial and lateral distal eminences was measured with the outer sharp jaws of a sliding calliper to ensure an accurate measurement. Ii is important to note is that this measurement was taken on the most inferior point of the distal end.

M(GBLC) = Greatest breadth lateral condyle.

Original abbreviation: "B" (Walker, 1985) 93

The greatest distance between the most lateral and the most medial point of the lateral condyle of the metatarsal was measured. The measurement was taken from anterior with a sliding calliper.

M(GBMC) = Greatest breadth medial condyle.

Original abbreviation: "D" (Walker, 1985)⁹³

The greatest distance between the most lateral and the most medial point of the medial condyle of the metatarsal was measured. The measurement was taken from anterior with a sliding calliper.

C) INFERIOR VIEW OF THE METATARSAL - FIGURE 3.11b

M(GBD) = Greatest breadth distal end.

* Original abbreviation: "Bd" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

The greatest distance from the most medial to the most lateral points on the distal end of the metatarsal was measured with a sliding calliper. It is important to note that the jaws of the calliper should be in line with the distal eminences of the metatarsal.

M(GDD) = Greatest depth distal end.

* Original abbreviation: "Dd" (Von den Driesch, 1976)⁷²

"Dd" (Peters, 1985) 92

The greatest distance from the most anterior to the most posterior points on the distal end of the metatarsal was measured with a sliding calliper. The jaws of the calliper should be at a right angle to the distal eminences of the metatarsal.

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~.~ **Data c oUection and statistical ana'ysis**

Measurements were entered into a database and a variety of calculations were done. These included minimum and maximum values, standard deviations as well as medians and means.

Males and females were not separated in the calculations performed on the data, since the sample sizes of most of these species were inadequate. Another reason for the combination was that a large amount of the specimens measured at the different museums were not identified as being either male or female. Further studies on more extensive collections may create large enough sample sizes to separate the specimens according to sex. The sex of each specimen was, however, noted where available.

Research has shown that differences in skeletal morphology exist between animals that are born in the wild and those born in captivity. Again, this information was lacking in most of the specimens measured. Zoo and wild born specimens were not statistically differentiated, but was, however, noted as being one or the other where data was available.

An index is a percentage value that describes measurements in relation to each other. By using indices, size factors are nullified, while shape becomes more important. The indices in this study are mainly used to determine the specimen's circumference in relation to its length. Therefore they give an indication of the robusticity of the bone.

The statistical program Sigmastat was used to establish whether a significant difference between the means of the individual Bovid class measurements exists.

Students t-tests were done to establish whether a significant difference occurs between the individual measurements within the bovid size classes. Every bovid species within a size class was statistically tested against the average of all the other species within the same bovid size class. It was therefore established whether one species in a size class differs to such an extent that it would be positively identified if compared to the species within the same bovid size class.

The data was entered into Lotus Smartsuite. Medians were then determined and used to accomplish a "model" to identify a specimen. The sample sizes were not always a good representation of the morphology of a specific species, thus there were sometimes extreme measurements to either side of the values taken. Extreme values may be the result of external conditions and adaptations which may have caused exceptional growth or restraint thereof. Therefore it was decided to use the median instead of the mean, to avoid influence of extreme values until larger sample sizes are available.

The indices that were calculated in this study are stipulated in Table 3.9.

TABLE 3.9: Indices used in Stage 2

2.3 Development of computer programme

The aim of the computer programme was to use the measurements of the modern specimens in a data base to manipulate the data in such a way that it might be able to identify a specimen as belonging to a certain species.

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The development of the program was done during the study by the author and a computer programmer. Specifications of the programme were developed during the course of the study. The programme needed to illustrate a labeled identification percentage probability-graph when measurements are entered one by one. This ensures that a probability could be calculated with any number of measurements. This is especially important with the abundance of fragmented specimens from South African sites. The programme also has to be able to calculate various percentage probabilities. The identification percentage probability (IPP) is a calculation of the number of measurements (median values of specific species) that fall within the range of the entered measurement values, expressed as a percentage value. The range is a fluctuation of 10% either side of the median. The programme then calculates this percentage for all the species in the database. The fractional percentage probability (FPP) calculates the percentage chance the specimen measured has of being one of the species that had positive identification percentage probabilities (IPP). A species, for example, may have a 88% IPP but a 45% FPP depending on how many species met the requirements of the entered measurement values.

All measurements were entered into a D-8ase database supported by Lotus Smartsuite. Lotus Smartsuite offers an integrated combination of utilities and it is relatively easy to use to build comparisons of structures and trends as well as profiles. Lotus Smartsuite incorporates a database but also yields a strong statistical and graphical interface. Separate fields were created to accommodate the entering of data.

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The identification chart utilizes the measurements of the actual samples and collates it in a database to calculate the median or model thereof. By using linear regression analysis to set off actual sizes against these medians, the programme arrives at a possible identification of the specific species. The median was used to arrive at a specific species resembling the closest average without compromising the model with extreme values.

When the measurements of an unknown specimen are presented to the programme, the computer will compare the entered information to that contained within the database. An "IF" statement within the programme tests the actual measurement given to the model and allocates a "1" (true) or a "0" (false) in each measurement category. The sum total of the statements is then calculated and expressed as a percentage-of-compliance-to-the-model in terms of a hundred percent. It therefore gives an indication of which portion of the hundred percent the specific species presents and then provides the species "model" most accurately resembling those measurements. Only species with a total greater than zero is displayed graphically with the highest scoring species as the most likely identification.

Because of the limitation of data due to sample size constraints, a fuzzy-logic element or discernable flux was built into the programme. This allows for a 10% fluctuation off the median either way in returning species profiles. As more measurements are accumulated in the database, this fluctuation will decrease and a more refined model can be construed to increase accuracy. An accurate indication of not only the identification of the species, but also other species with similarities can be seen with the existing data.

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The percentages of species possibilities are displayed graphically upon identification. The identification graph also stipulates which Bovid size class the identified species falls within. Thus if a number of possible species are identified on the graph and a definite result cannot be deduced from the percentage values, the bovid size class can be used, as in conventional methods, to classify the bone.

It is not necessary for all measurements to be entered into the separate measurements fields, but the number of measurements does have an influence on the accuracy of the identification. Thus obviously the more measurements entered the better the results.

The programme is divided into three separate databases for each long bone. It is therefore essential to already know from which long bone the specimen originated.

This is only a test programme, to ascertain whether bone measurements may yield accurate diagnoses of faunal remains. The database is also designed to protect sensitive or source information not intended for public scrutiny and change.

Future expansion of the database include adding additional information regarding each species. This information includes area of distribution, feeding type, habitat, average weight as well as a photographic illustration of the specific species. The area of distribution may differentiate between skeletally similar species, like Blesbok and Bontebok, on the basis of their natural occurrence. One species was used to demonstrate how additional information may be added in future to assist identification.

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3. STAGE 3-TESTING

Stage 3 comprised of a test of accuracy and reliability of the developed programme in Stage 2. Bones of Kemp's Caves, analyzed by conventional methods, were analyzed by the computerized classification system. This faunal sample included only one femur, three tibiae and six metatarsal specimens which could be utilized for testing. These specimens were the only material which were identified to species level belonging to the three lower limb long bones used in this study. Table 3.10 gives a summary of the specimens, their LKC number, the provenance and the identification based on the conventional method of faunal analysis.

Each fragmented specimen was measured using the measurements defined in Stage 2. These values were entered into the database to be identified by the computerized classification programme according to osteometric characteristics. No specimen was complete, thus all material lacked certain values.

TABLE 3.10: Kemp's Caves specimens used to test computerized classification

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Ten modern museum specimens, which were not measured for the database for reasons of unavailabilty at the time, were also measured and the values were entered into the computer programme. The reason for the extra specimens was that these bones were of known animals, thus, identification was not based on conventional faunal identification methods which could be faulty. The second reason was to increase the number of specimens to better test the computer programme.

Table 3.11 gives a summary of the modern specimens and the allocated National Flagship Museum number. Each specimen was measured according to measurement descriptions in Stage 2. All the modern specimens were complete and all measurements were entered into the computer programme for identification.

TABLE3.11 : Modern specimens used to test computerized classification

This study, as explained previously, consisted of three stages. Stages 1 and 2 are independent of each other, while Stage 3 incorporated results from Stages 1 and 2.

I. 5fAGEI-FAUNAl ANALY5r5

Stage 1 comprised of the analysis of the faunal remains of Lower Kemp's Caves situated in the Ngonyama Game Reserve near Krugersdorp.

1.1 **I ntrodl.cc tion**

The faunal sample excavated from Lower Kemp's Cave between 1992 and 1999 constituted more than 8000 individual elements. Most of these elements were individually catalogued and numbered prior to analysis. Elements lacking this data were allocated numbers during the identification process. Details such as date and provenance were also recorded.

All faunal material and artifacts were sorted. The stone artifacts, microfauna and archaeological specimens were removed and no identification was attempted in this study. Future analysis of Kemp's Caves may incorporate these elements.

The faunal sample was subdivided into two categories namely identifiable and non-identifiable bone pieces. These elements were dealt with separately. Approximately 11.5% of the sample was identifiable. Only 3% of these were identified to a specific species, while the rest was arranged into separate size classes. A total

of 88% of the elements could not be assigned to any taxa with confidence. Table 4.1 is a summary of the faunal sample size.

TABLE 4.1: Summary of LKC Faunal sample size (n).

1.2 I dentifiable bones

Identifiable bones were assigned to skeletal part and where possible to genus and species. Figure 4.1 illustrates graphically the different Mammalian taxa identified in the sample as percentages of the total specimen count. Bovidae specimens accounted for most of the specimens with a percentage of 86.8%, while the other taxa included Primates (0.8%), Hyracoids (1.8%), Equids (2.6%), Suids (1.1%), Carnivores (7.7%) and Rodents (7.8%). Miscellaneous fauna like reptiles and birds contributed approximately 4.1% to the faunal assemblage.

Although most of the Aves class were represented by eggshell fragments, probably of the Struthio genus, there were a few osteological specimens of various bird class sizes. The reptilian population was represented only by shell fragments of the Chelonian genus.

FIGURE 4.1: Mammalian taxa representation (%).

The material recovered from LKC is listed and described below. Each specimen is defined with detail according to specific skeletal part. LKC number and provenance. Three major classes, Mammalia, Aves and Reptilia, are represented in the sample.

A) CLASS MAMMALIA

Mammalia indeterminate

" Five cranial and 7 postcranial specimens from a minimum of four

individuals.

Material: Maxillary fragment: LKC/94/139 (5E 10N), Mandibular fragments: LKC/94/394 (5E6E 9N10N) + LKC/97/21.1 (NE Ex) + LKC/99/22E (NE Ex-AC), Os petrosum: LKC/92/154 (0E 5N) Glenoid cavity right scapula: LKC/93/61 (5E 9N10N), Distal left humerus: LKC/94/398 (5E6E 9N 1ON) + LKC97/4.1 (NE Ex), Femur head: LKC/98/16A (NE Ex-V), Femur shaft fragment: LKC/97/7. 3 (NE EX) + LKC/99/30L (NE Ex-AE), Sesamoid: LKC/93/250 (2E 9N)

Order PRIMATES

Family HOMINIDAE

Homo sapiens (Human)

" Two cranial specimens representing a minimum of one individual.

Materia': Left upper M2: LKC/92169 (2E 5N), Upper P2: LKC/93/144

(5E 9N).

Family CERCOPITHECIDAE

Papio cynocephalus ursinus (Chacma baboon: Kerr, 1792)

" Five cranial specimens from a minimum of one aged and two adult individuals.

Material: Right upper 12: LKC/98/12M (NE Ex-U), Left lower canine:

LKC/92/25 (OE 6N), Left upper M2: LKC/92/64 (2E 6N) +

LKC/97/47 (NE Ex), Right lower M3 fragment: LKC/98/12M

(NE Ex-R).

Order CARNIVORA

Carnivore indeterminate

"" Fourteen cranial and 6 postcranial specimens from a minimum of 1 small, 1 large and 2 medium sized individuals.

Material: Left mandibular fragment: LKC/97/56E (NE Ex), Left lower 12: LKC/92/59 (1E 6N), 13: LKC/94/399 (5E6E 9N 10N), Left lower 13: LKC/92/61 (1 E 6N), Canine: LKC92/26 (OE 6N) + LKC/92/43 (2E 6N) + LKC/93/157 (6E 10N) + LKC/94/1 (2E 3N4N) + LKC/97/5.1 (NE Ex), Premolar: LKC/93/228 (8E 7N) + LKC/94/210 (2W 2S), Lower P1: LKC/99/3D (NE Ex-W), Right upper P3: LKC/97/26 (NE Ex), Molar: LKC/94/62 (7E 9N). Right calcaneus: LKC/98/121 (NE Ex-U), Phalanx: LKC/93/26 (5E 9N), Proximal phalanx: LKC/93/220B (SE6E 9N10N) + LKC/98/12D (NE Ex-T), Intermediate phalanx: LKC/92/118 (OE 6N), Distal phalanx: LKC/98/19.3 (NE Ex).

Family FELIDAE

Felid indeterminate

"" One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Left 4th metatarsal: LKC/97/49A (NE Ex).

Subfamily Felinae

Panthera pardus (Leopard: Linnaeus, 1758)

"" One cranial specimen from one individual.

R5UHs 98

Material: Maxillary fragment including Right P2: LKC/93/142 (5E 9N).

cf. Panthera pardus (Leopard: Linnaeus, 1758)

One cranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Left lower 13: LKC/92/61 (1E 6N).

Felis serval (Serval: Schreber, 1776)

" One cranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Mandible fragment including right P1 and P2: LKC/97/91.2

(NE Ex).

Family HYAENIDAE

Subfamily Hyaeninae

Hyaenid indeterminate

 \sim Two cranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Right upper 13: LKC/97/6.2 (NE Ex), Molar fragment:

LKC/94/228 (7E 5N).

Hyaena brunnea (Brown Hyaena: Thunberg, 1820)

" Five cranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Right lower canine: LKC/93/156B (6E 10N), Right lower P2: LKC/94/86 (6E 10N), Right lower P3: LKC/97A (6E 10N), Right lower M1: LKC/156A (6E 10N), Right upper M3: LKC/92147 (2E 6N).

cf. Hyaena brunnea (Brown Hyaena: Thunberg, 1820)

" Two cranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Left lower 12: LKC/92/59 (1E 6N), Canine: LKC/94/126A $(11E 5N)$.

Crocuta crocuta (Spotted hyaena: Erxleben, 1777)

" Three cranial specimens from a minimum of one juvenile and one adult individual.

Material: Mandibular fragment including P1, P2 and M1: LKC 93/156 (6E) 10N), Maxillary fragment including right M 1: LKC/98 5G

(NE Ex-T) , Left lower P1: LKC/98/3J (NE Ex-S).

Family CANIDAE

Canid indeterminate

" One cranial and one postcranial specimen of a minimum of one individual.

Material: Right upper canine: LKC/99/40 (NE Ex-AF).

Right ulnar fragment: LKC/92/327 (2E 9N).

Subfamily Caninae

Canis mesomelas (Black-backed jackal: Shreber, 1778)

- " Fifteen cranial and four postcranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.
- Material: Left mandibular fragment: LKC/97/74 (NE Ex), Right lower 13: LKC/94/142 (SE 10N), Left upper canine: LKC/99/9B (NE Ex-AB), Right upper canine: LKC/99/30C (NE Ex-AE), Left lower canine: LKC/92/27 (OE 6N), Premolar fragment: LKC/94/3S8 (6E7E 11N12N), Right upper P1: LKC/97/30.1 (NE Ex), Right upper P2: LKC/98/3G (NE Ex-S), Left lower P2: LKC/99/14K (NE Ex-AC), Left lower P4: LKC/97/66C (NE Ex), Right upper M1: LKC/93/116 (5E 9N), Left upper M1: LKC/94/369 (6E 9N10N), Right lower M1: LKC/94/290 (5E6E 9N10N) +

LKC/99/38D (NE Ex-AF), <u>Right upper M2</u>: LKC/94/393 (5E6E 9N10N).

Distal articulation of right humerus: LKC/94/410 (6E7E 9N10N),

Distal left humerus: LKC/93/161 (6E 10N), Acetabulum:

LKC/94/116 (6E 10N), <u>Left astralagus</u>: LKC/93/192B (2E 4N5N).

cf. Canis mesomelas (Black-backed jackal: Shreber, 1778)

'- Four cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Mandibular fragment including left P1: LKC/99/1 (NE Ex-V), Canine crown: LKC/93/152 (6E 10N), Left premolar fragment: LKC/94/386 (6E 9N10N), <u>Left lower M2</u>: LKC/99/30G (NE Ex-AE).

Metapodial fragment: LKC/94/67 (7E 9N).

Vu/pes chama (Cape fox: Smith, 1833)

'- One cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Right mandibular fragment: LKC/93/247 (2E 9N).

Proximal phalanx: LKC/94/174F (6E 9N10N).

Family VIVERRIDAE

Subfamily Viverrinae

Genetta genetta (Small spotted genet: Linnaeus, 1758)

'- One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Materia\: Distal articulation & shaft left humerus:

LKC/98/12H (NE Ex-U)

Subfamily Herpestinae

Mongoose indeterminate

" One postcranial specimen of one individual.

Material: Metapodial: LKC/97/72.1 (NE Ex).

Order HYRACOIDEA

Family PROCAVIIDAE

Procavia capensis (Rock dassie: Pallas, 1766)

" Twelve cranial and 2 postcranial specimens from a minimum of three individuals.

Material: Maxillary fragment including molar: LKC/94/209 (2W 2S), Right maxillary fragment including molar: LKC/92/124 (DE 6N, Left maxillary fragment including molars: LKC/92/234 (2E 9N), Mandibular fragment including molars: LKC/92/235 (2E 9N) + LKC/92/151 (2E 9N) + LKC/97/77 (NE Ex), Right mandible including molars: LKC/98/3D (NE Ex-S), Left mandible including molars: LKC/94/150 (6E 10N), Right upper 13: LKC/97/55 (NE Ex), Right upper M3: LKC/97/52F (NE Ex) + LKC/99/22D (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/22N (NE Ex-AC). Distal articulation & shaft right humerus: LKC/99/22J (NE Ex-AC), Distal articulation & shaft left humerus: LKC/99/9E (NE Ex-

AS).

cf. Procavia capensis (Rock dassie: Pallas, 1766)

" One cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Left maxillary fragment including molars: LKC/94/274 (5E6E) 9N10N).

Left femur: LKC/92/401 (2E 7N).

Order PERISSODACTYLA

Family EQUIDAE

Equid indeterminate

, Five cranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Material: Molar fragment: LKC/93/274 (5E 9N) + LKC/94/366 (6E7E

11 N12N) + LKC/99/381 (NE Ex-AF), Right upper premolar:

LKC/93/298 (SE 8N) + LKC/93/298A (SE 8N).

Equus burcelli (Burchell's zebra: Gray, 1824)

 \sim Eight cranial and 3 postcranial specimens from a minimum of two

individuals.

Material: Left lower P2: LKC/94/205 (2W 2S), Left upper molar:

LKC/94/177 (8E9E 7N9N) + LKC/99/38Q (NE Ex-AF), Left upper M1: LKC/94/43 (3E 5N), Right lower M1: LKC/99/9F (NE Ex-AB), Left lower M1: LKC/94/420 (No grid), Left upper M2: LKC/94/127 (SE 10N) + LKC/99/30A (NE Ex-AE). Left astralagus: LKC/93/27S (SE 9N), Right calcaneus: LKC/93/371 (6E 9N10N), Left central tarsal: LKC/93/148A (5E 9N).

cf. Equus burcelli (Burchell's zebra: Gray, 1824)

, One cranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Molar fragment: LKC/94/361 (6E7E 11N12N).

Equus capensis (Extinct Cape horse/zebra: Brain, 1909)

, Four cranial and two postcranial specimens from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Right upper 11: LKC/94/348 (5E 11N), Left upper P2:

LKC/94/317 (5E6E 10N), Right P3: LKC/94/318 (SE6E 10N),

Right lower M3: LKC/94/367 (6E7E 11N12N).

Distal articulation & shaft left humerus: LKC/93/111 (No grid),

Left humeral head fragment: LKC/93/112 (No grid).

Order ARTIODACTYLA

Family SUIDAE

Phacochoerus aethiopicus (Warthog: Pallas, 1766)

, Nine cranial specimens from a minimum of one juvenile and one adult individual.

Material: Canine: LKC/92/233 (2E 9N), Right upper canine fragment: LKC/92/37B (2E 8N), Upper premolar: LKC/94/129 (SE 10N) + LKC/94/197 (1E 5N), Premolar: LKC/92/39 (2E 6N), Molar fragments: LKC/93/113 (5E 9N) + LKC/94/58 (7E 9N) + LKC/94/89 (6E 10N) + LKC/94/149 (6E 10N).

Potamochoerus porcus (Bushpig: Linnaeus, 1758) .

, One cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Left lower canine: LKC/94/59 (7E 9N).

Right humerus shaft fragment: LKC/93/287 (5E 9N).

Family BOVIDAE

Subfamily Alcelaphinae

Alcelaphine indeterminate

'- Two cranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Material: Right lower 11: LKC/93/11 (SE 9N)+ LKC/93/10 (SE 9N).

Damaliscus dorcas phillipsi (Blesbok: Harper, 1939)

'- One cranial and 10 postcranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Material: Left lower M1: LKC/97/8.3 (NE Ex).

Distal right humerus: LKC/92/3 (No grid) + LKC/94/68 (7E 9N), Shaft right humerus: LKC/93/77 (SE 9N10N), Shaft left humerus: LKC/94/10S (6E 10N), Left radiocarpal: LKC/99/3A (NE Ex-W), Proximal articulation & shaft left metacarpal: LKC/94/111 (6E) 10N), Distal articulation & shaft left tibia: LKC/93/70 (5E 9N10N), Left naviculocuboid: LKC/94/69 (7E 9N), Proximal articulation & shaft right metatarsal: LKC/92/34 (2E 8N), Distal articulation & shaft left metatarsal: LKC/94/328 (SE6E 10N).

cf. Damaliscus dorcas philfipsi (Blesbok: Harper, 1939)

 \sim One cranial and four postcranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Material: Right lower M3: LKC/94/101 (6E 10N).

Distal articulation & shaft left radius: LKC/93/72 (5E 9N10N), Proximal articulation & shaft left metatarsal: LKC/93/35 (5E 9N10N) + LKC/93/40 (5E 9N10N), Left intermediate phalanx:

LKC/92/158 (2E 9N).

Alcelaphus buse/aphus (Red Hartebeest: Pallas, 1766)

, Seven postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Left scapular fragment: LKC/94/112 (6E 10N), Proximal arcticulation & shaft left metacarpal: LKC/93/71 (5E 9N10N), Midshaft left femur: LKC/94/27 (6E 10N), Right proximal phalanx: LKC/97/16 (NE Ex). Left proximal phalanx: LKC/97/11 (NE Ex), Left intermediate phalanx: LKC/97/15 (NE Ex). Right intermediate phalanx: LKC/97/18 (NE Ex).

ct. Alce/aphus buselaphus (Red Hartebeest: Pallas, 1766)

, Four postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Distal articulation & shaft left metacarpal: LKC/97/33 (NE Ex), Proximal phalanx: LKC/94/20 (6E 10N), Right proximal phalanx: LKC/94/195 (1E 5N), Left proximal phalanx: LKC/92/71 (0E 6N).

Connochaetes gnou (Black Wildebeest: Zimmerman, 1780)

, One cranial and three postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Right lower M2: LKC/94/257 (5E6E 9N10N). Midshaft right radius and ulna: LKC/93/159 (6E 10N), Left astralagus: LKC/94/280 (5E6E 9N10N), Right calcaneus: LKC/94/326 (5E6E 10N).

ct. Connochaetes gnou (Black Wildebeest: Zimmerman, 1780)

, One postcranial specimen from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Right metacarpal: LKC/94/326 (5E6E 9N10N).

Connochaetes taurinus (Blue Wildebeest: Burchell, 1823)

 \sim One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Materia\: Distal left radius: LKC/92/240 (2E 9N).

cf. Connochaetes taurinus (Blue Wildebeest: Burchell, 1823)

" One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Right astralagus: LKC/92/14 (Deep in cave).

Subfamily Antelopinae

Antidorcas marsupialis (Springbok: Zimmerman, 1780)

 \sim Six postcranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Material: Distal right radius and ulna: LKC/92/4 (No grid), Left proximal

phalanx: LKC/92/108 (1E SN) + LKC/92/109 (1E SN),

Intermediate phalanx: LKC/94/137 (5E 10N), Distal articulation &

shaft left tibia: LKC/92/38 (2E SN) + LKC/99/9H (NE Ex-AA).

cf. Antidorcas marsupialis (Springbok: Zimmerman, 1780)

" Three postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Left proximal phalanx: LKC/92/15 (Deep in cave), Left

intermediate phalanx: LKC/99/8 (NE Ex-AA) , Left distal phalanx:

LKC/94/376 (6E 9N10N).

Raphicerus campestris (Steenbok: Thunberg, 1811)

" Two postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Distal articulation & shaft metacarpal: LKC/92/107 (1E 6N), Right proximal phalanx: LKC/94/144 (5E 10N).

Subfamily Bovinae

Taurotragus oryx (Eland: Pallas, 1766)

" Five cranial and one postcranial specimen from a number of two individuals.

Material: Right upper M1: LKC/98/8A (NE Ex-T), Left upper M1:

LKC/92/231 (2E 9N) + LKC/98/8B (NE Ex-T), Right upper M2:

(921227 (2E 9N), Right upper M3: LKC/97/39A (NE Ex).

Left astralagus: LKC/99/22 (NE Ex-AC).

cf. Taurotragus oryx (Eland: Pallas, 1766)

" One cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Left upper M2: LKC/93/54 (5E 9N10N).

Styloid process left ulna: LKC/92/321 (2E 9N).

Tragelaphus strepsiceros (Kudu: Pallas, 1766)

" Two cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one

individual.

Material: Right I: LKC/93/8A (5E 9N), <u>Left I</u>: LKC/93/8B).

Left distal phalanx: LKC/94/372.

80S taurus (Domestic cattle)

 \rightarrow Five postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Distal left radius: LKC/94/308 (5E6E 9N10N), Right intermediate carpal: LKC/93/8C (5E 9N), Right 4th carpal: LKC/93/8D (5E 9N), Right ulnar carpal: LKC/93/8E (5E 9N), Right 2nd and 3rd carpal: LKC/93/123 (5E 9N).

Subfamily Hippotraginae

ct. Hippotragus niger (Sable: Harris, 1838)

 \sim One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Right radial carpal: LKC/93/205 (5E6E 9N10N).

Subfamily Aepycerotinae

Aepyceros melampus (Impala: Lichtenstein, 1812)

.... Two postcranial specimens from a minimum of one individual.

Material: Distal right tibia: LKC/93/23 (5E 9N), Proximal articulation &

shaft left metatarsal: LKC/93/126 (SE 9N).

cf. Aepyceros melampus (Impala: Lichtenstein, 1812)

.... One cranial specimen of one individual.

Material: Right upper M3: LKC/93/301 (5E6E 9N10N).

Subfamily Peleinae

Pelea capreolus (Grey Rhebok: Forster, 1790)

.... One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Proximal articulation & shaft left metatarsal: LKC/98/10

(NE Ex-T).

Subfamily Reduncinae

Redunca arundinum (Reedbuck: Boddaert, 178S)

 \sim One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Left metatarsal: LKC/93/302 5E6E 9N10N).

Order LAGOMORPHA

Family LEPORIDAE

Lepus saxatilis (Scrub hare: Cuvier, 1823)

 \sim Three cranial and 10 postcranial specimens from a minimum of three individuals.

Material: Left mandibular fragments including molars: LKC/92/286 (2E) 4N5N) + LKC/99/5A (NE Ex-AA) + LKC/99/22C (NE Ex-AC). Right scapular fragment: LKC/92/57 (1E 6N) + LKC/92/402 (2E 7N) + LKC/94/119 (6E 10N), Proximal articulation & shaft radius: LKC/92/79 (OE 6N), Pelvic fragment: LKC/92/96 (2E 6N), Distal articulation & shaft right tibia: LKC/99/140, Right tibia and fibula fragment: LKC/94/120 (6E 10N), Right metatarsal fragment: LKC/99/9J (NE Ex-AS), Left metatarsal: LKC/92/44 (2E 6N) + LKC/92/98 (2E 6N).

cf. Lepus saxatilis (Scrub hare: Cuvier, 1823)

Lone postcranial specimen from one individual.

Materia\: Left ulna: LKC/97/49C (NE Ex).

Pronolagus indeterminate

 \sim One postcranial specimen from one individual.

Material: Right tibia and fibula: LKC/92/35 (2E 8N).

Order RODENTIA

Rodent indeterminate

, Ten cranial and 19 postcranial specimens from a minimum of four

individuals.

Materia': Maxillary fragments: LKC/93/27 (5E 9N) + LKC/94/344 (5E6E 10N), Mandibular fragments: LKC/92/28 (OE 6N) + LKC/92/236 (2E 9N) + LKC/94/31 (6E 10N), Incisor: LKC/92/24 (OE 6N) + LKC/92/45A (2E 6N) + LKC/97/87.2 (NE Ex) + LKC/22L (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/42 (NE Ex-AF). Right scapular fragment: LKC/99/38T (NE Ex-AF), Left scapular fragment: LKC/99/30R (NE Ex-AE), Humeral fragments: LKC/99/3D M (NE Ex-AE) + LKC/99/34 (NE Ex-AE), Distal left humerus: LKC/92/94 (2E 6N) + LKC/97/35A (NE Ex), Phalanges: LKC/92/262 (2E 9N) + LKC/92/305C (2E 9N), Left femur: LKC/92/26D (2E 9N), Distal articulation & shaft fibula: LKC/92/116 (OE 6N), Metapodial fragment: LKC/92/117 (OE 6N) + LKC/92/261 (2E 9N) + LKC/94/383 (6E 9N10N) + LKC/97/22A (NE Ex) + LKC/14N (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/14W (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/22K (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/298 (NE Ex-AD) + LKC/99/30K (NE Ex-AE).

Family PEDETIDAE

Pedetes capensis (Spring hare: Forster, 1778)

, One cranial and one postcranial specimen from a minimum of one individual.

Materia\: Molar: LKC/99/30S (NE Ex-AE).

Pelvic fragment: LKC/97/36.6 (NE Ex).

Family HYSTRICIDAE

Hysfrix africaeausfralis (Porcupine: Peters, 1852)

"- Twenty-four cranial and two postcranial specimens from a minimum of one juvenile and three adult individuals.

Materia\: Maxillary fragment including incisor: LKC/99/29A (NE Ex-AD), Mandibular fragment including molars: LKC/92/89 (2E 6N) + LKC/93/154 (6E 10N) + LKC/94/121 (6E 10N) + LKC/99/221 (NE Ex-AC) + LKC/99/30L (NE Ex-AE) + LKC/99/300 (NE Ex-AE), Right upper I: LKC/92/36 (2E 8N) + LKC/93/53 (5E 9N10N), Left lower I: LKC/94/292 (5E6E 9N10N) , Lower I: LKC/97/36.7 (NE-Ex), Molars: LKC/92/32 (OE 6N) + LKC/92/1 21 (OE 6N) + LKC/93/150 (6E 10N) + LKC/94/152 (6E 10N) + LKC/94/163 (6E 9N10N) + LKC/94/208 (No grid) + LKC/94/320 (5E6E 10N) + LKC/97/5.4 (NE Ex) + LKC/97/80.2 (NE Ex) + LKC/97/85.2 (NE Ex) + LKC/98/1G (NE Ex-R) + LKC/98/5H (NE Ex-T) + LKC/99/14L (NE Ex-AC). Shaft right humerus: LKC/98/12B (NE Ex-U), Distal articulation &

shaft left humerus: LKC/99/22R (NE Ex-AC).

B) CLASS AVES

Avian indeterminate

 \sim Five postcranial specimens from a minimum of two individuals.

Materia': Longbone fragment: LKC/93/220A (5E6E 9N10N) + LKC/93/259 (2E 9N), Proximal phalanx: LKC/93/190 (2E 4N5N), Pelvic fragment: LKC/94/217A (No grid), Proximal articulation & shaft right tibia: LKC/92/75 (OE6N).

C) CLASS REPTILIA

Reptilia indeterminate

 \sim Four carapace pieces from a minimum of one individual.

Table 4.2 provides a detailed summary of the taxa identified indicating the MNI (Minimum number of individuals) values and percentages, as well as the NISP (Number of specimens) values and percentages.

The NISP calculation counts the number of specimens attributed to each taxon. An individual animal which contributes more than one identifiable bone to the faunal sample will be counted several times. This might give an over-representation of that specific taxon ⁴.

An MNI value estimates the minimum number of individuals. It is based upon non- reproducible elements, thus an individual cannot be counted twice ⁴. There are several other calculations for the analysis of faunal remains. Kemp's Caves are still yielding large quantities of faunal remains and further in depth analysis may be viable with a larger sample size of excavated specimens.

TAB LE 4.2: Summary of species identified in LKC faunal sample.

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TABLE4.2: Continue Bos taurus Domestic cattle 5 O.BO 5 1 0.99 - - Subfamily Hippotraginae 1 0.16 1 1 0.99 - ct. Hippotragus niger Sable 0.16 1 1 0.99 1 Subfamily Aepycerotinae 3 O.4B 3 1 0.99 - - 2 Aepyceros melampus Impala 0.32 2 1 0.99 - t, ct. Aepyceros melampus Impala 1 0.16 - 1 - - Subfamily Pelinae 1 0.35 1 1 0.99 - - Pelea capreolus Grey Rhebuck - 1 0.35 1 1 0.99 - Subfamily Reduncinae 0.16 1 1 0.99 1 - - Redunca arundinum Reedbuck 0.16 1 1 î. 1 0.99 - Bovid size class I 35 5.56 5 5.62 16 51 4.95 Bovid size class II 249 40 .0 92 31 .94 341 14 13.B6 Bovid size class III 9.90 149 23.95 84 29.17 233 10 Bovid size class IV 0.16 2 1 1 0.35 1 0.99 10 5 1.74 4 Order Lagomorpha 1.60 14 3.96 1.74 **Family Leporidae** 10 1.60 5 4 14 3.96 Lepus saxatalis Scrubhare 9 1.45 4 1.39 12 3 2.97 cf. Lepus saxatalis Scrubhare 1 0.35 1 - i. Pronologus indet. 1 0.16 1 1 0.99 - × Order Rodentia 2B 4.50 29 10.07 57 9 8.91 Rodent indet 15 2.41 14 4.B6 29 4 3.96 Family Pedetidae 2 0.69 2 0.99 1 - - Pedetes capensis Springhare 2 2 0.69 1 0.99 - ÷. Family Hystricidae 13 209 13 4.51 26 4 3.96 Hystrix africeaustralis Porcupine 13 209 13 4.51 26 4 3.96 Class AVES 5 O.BO - - 5 2 1.9B Avian indet. Class REPTILIA 1 0.16 1 1 0.99 - 1 Chelonia indet. 0.16 - 1 1 0.99 TOTAL 622 100% 288 100% 910 101 100%

Agents responsible for the accumulation of faunal samples are determined by a combination of information derived from the analysis of the accumulation. These aspects include the size of the prey species, animals represented and their age classes, skeletal part survival and carnivore damage to the bone specimens.

Soon after death, the body of an animal becomes disarticulated and is subjected to the characteristic mechanical and chemical brake down of a natural environment. The survival of these skeletal parts is due to two reasons. The first is that some parts of the skeleton have greater durability than others. The durability may depend on the age of the animal, whether a portion of the bone may still be cartilaginous, as well as the histological structure of the skeletal part. The humerus head, for example, has a thin wall of compact bone, whereas its shaft has a thicker more durable wall ². The second reason is that different carnivores utilise different parts of the skeleton. The carcass of leopard prey characteristically include the skull and long bones. The skeletal elements of hyaena prey would be almost completely consumed because of the hyaena's outstanding bone crushing capabilities 2 .

Table 4.3 is a summary of the skeletal parts represented in the LKC faunal sample. The most represented skeletal part in all the faunal groups was teeth. This is probably due to the high durability of teeth. The various long bones of the fore- and hind-limb was well represented in the bovid, carnivore and rodent groups. The skeletal representation of the primate, equid, suid and hyracoid groups were dominated by tooth specimens.

TABLE 4.3: Skeletal part representation of LKC faunal sample (n).

Bovid analysis are extremely important in the interpretation of predator/prey evidence in accumulations². Leopard and cheetah, for example, characteristically leave the skull and distal limb long bones behind, while hyaena is capable of the crushing and digestion of most skeletal parts.

Figures 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 give a graphic representation of skeletal part

survival of the different bovid classes.

FIGURE 4.2: Bovid size class I Percentage skeletal part survival (%)

FIGURE 4.3: Bovid size class II Percentage skeletal part survival (%)

FIGURE 4.4: Bovid size class III Percentage skeletal part survival (%)

Homcore $-\rho$ Skull & Mandible 7.8 Teeth Scapula \Box 1.6 Humerus $\overline{2.3}$ Radius 5.9 Ulna 2.7 $\sqrt{1.6}$ Pelvis Femur 2.7 Tibia & Fibula 5.5 **Metacarpals** $B.1$ **Metatarsals A**_S **Metapodials** 59 Carpus \overline{B} **Tarsus** \overline{b} **Sesamoid** b Proximal phalanx Middle phalanx Distal phalanx - \Box 1.2 Hyoid Ω 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 4f

FIGURE 4.5: Bovid size class IV Percentage skeletal part survival (%)

As expected, all the bovid size classes were well represented by tooth fragments, due to its durability. Bov I, Bov II and Bov III showed high percentages of long bone survival. The metapodial specimens dominated the Bov I and Bov II classes, while all long bones were equally represented in the Bov III size class. This representation of the Bov I, II and III size classes may suggest leopard predation. The Bov IV class showed little skeletal representation which may be due to the fact that this size class were not preyed upon.

Characteristic features on the bone pieces indicated that the majority of the animals represented in the faunal sample were adult individuals. Very few separate epiphyses were identified and most of the dental specimens were permanent teeth within various stages of wear.

The habitat of any animal needs to meet the requirements of its feeding type. Both these aspects are needed for the survival of the species. The instant external factors, such as the environment and human encroachment, alter the habitat. The species representation of the area will be adjusted accordingly⁵¹.

All extant bovid species fall in three habitat categories. They are 1) Open savanna, 2) Savanna woodlands with water and 3) Rocky hillsides ⁵¹. Their food preference (feeding type) also classify bovids as of three groups namely grazers, browsers and mixed feeders ⁵¹. Their habitat and food requirements are inseparable. An open savanna will, for example, attract grazers, while browsers will occupy woodlands and rock hillsides. The habitat and food requirements of the species identified in the faunal sample may give an indication whether the climate and environment of Kemp's Caves have changed during its existence.

Figure 4.6 illustrates the ratio of the bovids represented in LKC according to

their natural habitat, as well as the feeding type of the different species. From Figure 4.6 it can be seen that most of the bovids (53%), were grazers, while only 20% were browsers. The habitat of the different bovid species identified, showed that only a small percentage (7.7%) preferred rocky hillsides while the majority of species preferred either open savanna or savanna woodland. The feeding types clearly corresponds with the habitat preferences. The present habitat correlates with that of the species identified which may suggest no drastic change of environment.

FIGURE 4.6: Bovid habitat and feeding type representation (%).

Non-I dentifiable bones 1.3

Non-identifiable bone pieces could not be identified to any species or class and were assigned to 5 different categories. These categories include enamel, skull, vertebra, rib, miscellaneous and bone flake fragments. The fragment's condition was noted and the pieces were weighed and documented. Table 4.4 is a summary of the number and weight of the non-identifiable bones recovered in every provenance.

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TABLE 4.4: Non Identifiable bones recovered in LKC.

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Figure 4.7 illustrates the grid areas where the non-identifiable material were recovered from LKC. The green area represents the NE extension of the cave which is mostly composed of specimens transported by water from nearby locations.

Figure 4.8 illustrates the ratios between the different conditions (damaged, burnt, gnawed, weathered or unmodified) of skeletal parts that were manifested on each non- identifiable fragment. A large amount of skull fragments were weathered. These weathered fragments were mostly from a single grid reference (6E 10N) and may represent only one individual. Most of the fragments, however, were unmodified. Only a small percentage of the fragments was recorded as being gnawed, which included mostly bone flakes. Gnaw marks which could be identified were chiefly the

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result of Hystrix africaeaustralis (Porcupine) activity, although teeth marks of carnivores were also present. Almost no fragments were damaged. A total of 11% of the fragments were burnt which could indicate human activity. Burnt bone pieces were largely represented by enamel fragments.

FIGURE 4.8: Condition of non-identifiable bone fragments (%).

The provenances, 6E 9N10N and 6E7E 11N12N, contributed most of the bones that exhibited features that might have been related to archaeological damage during excavation or human activity. Most damage marks were not recently made, thus this might also indicate earlier human activity in the history of Kemp's Caves. Two closely related squares, 5E6E 9N10N and 6E 9N10N, accounted for 25% of the total pieces that showed evidence of burning. The NE Extension of the cave accounted for most of the gnawed bones. 5E 11N, 6E 9N10N and 6E7E 11N12N, were the dominant area for weathered specimens.

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Stage two comprised of the determination and acquisition of the correct measurements of Southern African bovid species which could differentiate between the different species. The femur, tibia and metatarsal were measured. These raw measurements were then used in a data base to develop a computer programme which may assist in osteometric classification of bones.

2.1 Measurements

A total of 45 individual measurements were taken on the long bones of 30 Southern African bovid species. Two types of statistical analysis were performed to ascertain whether significant differences exist between the different species to justify and substantiate the developed computer program. The two statistical designs used were independent t-tests for each size class and measurement value, as well as regression analysis for measurement value analysis. Approximately 18 000 measurement values were recorded and statistically tested .

2.1.1 Inter-Bovid size class comparison

Brain ⁸¹ developed a class system to identify Southern African bovid species according to their size. Whenever there is not enough characteristic evidence present on a bovid skeletal specimen to confidently identify the fragment to a specific species, it is noted as belonging to one of the four bovid size classes. This is a relative elementary exercise for a trained eye. Therefore no attempt was made to compare the species of the different size classes with each other. Thus a species from Bovid class IV, for example Eland, was not statistically compared to a species belonging to size class I, for example Klipspringer, because of its obvious nature.

There are obvious size differences between the different bovid size classes, but not within them. Independent t-tests were, therefore, done to compare each species in a Bovid size class to all the other species within the same class. The tand p- values of one of the species within a bovid size class were compared with the average of the t- and p-values of rest of the species in that group. In the case of Bovid size class IV, only one set of tests were done, as there are only two species within this size class. A separate t-test was done for each measurement taken on the femur, tibia and metatarsal. These t-test results display whether a species' bone measurements differ significantly from that of the other species (within the same bovid size class) combined, to be used in the database for identification purposes. A p -value of ≥ 0.05 was used as indication of significant difference.

Table 4.5 constitutes the key to the abbreviations used for the different species in the tables that follows. Raw measurement values of the three long bones, including their medians, means and standard deviations, can be seen in Appendices A to C. The sample sizes of each species can also be found in these appendices.

TABLE 4.5: Key to abbreviations to species (alphabetical).

Tables 4.6 to 4.8 provide the t- and p-values of all the bovid species from the different independent t-tests of the femur, tibia and metatarsal respectively. These values represent the average of the specific species in comparison to the average of all the species within the same Bovid size class. In order to better assess how many of the t-tests yielded statistically significant differences, graphic representation of the results were made. Figure 4.9 to 4.11 illustrate the significant values extracted from the results of the t-test of the femur, tibia and metatarsal respectively. Colour coding represents the different size classes. Different symbols specify the different portions of the bone, these being the shaft, proximal or distal measurements.

The Bovid I size class shows no significant differences between the individual measurements on the femur or the tibia. Only a few proximal extremity and shaft measurements, as well as most of the distal extremity measurements of the metatarsal were significantly different between the various species. These results show that there is a greater inter-species difference in the metatarsal than the other two long bones in this Bovid class. Almost all species in the Bovid I group was represented by only a few specimens in the different South African Museums. This may also attribute to the fact that there is little significant differences between species with the femur and tibia measurements.

The metatarsal measurements of Bovid class II displayed more significant differences than those of the femur and tibia, although several of them are significantly different. No pattern can be seen to identify whether one portion of the bone is more meaningful than another for distinguishing between the species. All three elements will therefore play a role in the identification of a Bovid class II species, but the metatarsal may be more accurate. The measurements, F(SBD),

T(SBO), T(GOTN) and M(GLL) showed no significant differences in anyone of the species. These measurements may therefore not have a positive contribution to osteometric identification.

Bovid III class showed significant differences in most of the measurements. Damaliscus lunatus (Tsessebe), however showed almost no significant differences within the Bovid III group. The only measurement expressed as being significantly different to the rest of the species within this group was the T(SOO). This measurement determines the smallest distance from the anterior to posterior points of the distal extremity of the tibia. Only one set of hind limb long bones was available in South Africa, thus no mean, median or standard deviation could be calculated for this species. This may contribute to the fact that there is almost no significant differences between the Tsessebe and the rest of the Bovid III class. A greater sample size of this species might provide positive results. The measurements, F(GBCF) and M(GML) showed little significant difference in the Bovid size class **III** and may therefore not contribute much to the osteometrical identification process.

Bovid IV shows distinctions in a wide variety of measurements in all three long bones. These tests actually showed the difference between the Eland (Taurotragus oryx) and the Buffalo (Syncerus caffer). In Figures 4.9 to 4.11 it can clearly be seen which measurements may not be as important in the osteometric analysis.

Species in the Bov I group therefore seem not to differ sufficiently to support osteometric identification and classification on either the femur or tibia, while species in the Bov II, Bov III and Bov IV classes differ substantially in all three bones. The measurement F(GBCF) and F(SBCF) show little significance in all four groups which may suggest that these measurements may not be useful in osteometric analysis.

TABLE 4.6: Bovid size class I - IV: Femur measurement t-test values.

Results

TABLE 4.6: Continue LEC -3.08 -3.12 -2.57 -3.78 -5.93 -3.20 -1.91 -3.41 -3.83 -8.73 -3.15 -5.92 -8.17 -1.78 Ū ,000 .000 .000 .000 .000 000 .079 002 009 073 001 003 012 $.002$ p **NYA** -2.56 -1.83 4.11 -3.64 -7.99 -5.97 -9.68 -5.60 -12.8 -9.96 -13.3 -3.76 -3.49 -4.03 t 071 .001 ,000 000 012 ,000 $.000$ 000 .000 ,000 .000 .000 000 003 b 1.47 SIT 2.57 1.04 -2.19 -1.96 -2.90 -2.13 -1.63 -1.63 -1.98 -1.75 -2.67 -39 -3.14 t .013 .304 $.031$ 054 .005 .037 .107 106 051 .085 .009 698 .146 .002 D TSE $\mathbf t$ -59 -41 -42 -92 -91 -71 -55 -48 -72 -1.04 -1.24 -91 -97 -47 476 554 682 .678 361 364 477 581 363 337 630 642 301 219 p RHA t -3.07 -1.97 -4.17 -5.41 -4.26 -2.66 -3.05 -3.49 -5.69 -2.81 -3.41 -25 -2.28 -5.35 000 .000 000 $.013$.004 $.001$.000 .007 .001 .806 .000 004 .059 026 p **KUD** 3.35 3.70 1.53 463 3.44 4.73 4.43 2.47 5.22 5.76 1,46 5.63 6.48 -1.72 \mathbf{t} 000 000 .001 ,000 .090 .131 .000 001 .000 .000 000 000 .49 016 b **BLA** -8.16 -9.92 -1.46 -2.01 3.30 -11 -3.79 -1.84 -90 -2.42 28 -90 -2.12 .76 t .000 $000.$ 148 .048 .002 .914 .000 069 370 018 777 369 .040 449 D WAT 8.81 9.55 3.05 5.01 $3,22$ 6.23 6.36 5.42 9.45 9.18 5.03 88 16 7.42 Ù. .002 .000 .000 000 013 .000 .000 000 .000 .000 .000 383 .875 .000 p 2.16 **GEM** 1.13 2.26 1.35 2.32 3.94 4.10 1.60 1.63 $3,10$ 3,54 .49 .23 ł. 1.86 049 276 041 181 .023 .003 .003 .003 628 817 .066 113 142 008 D SAB 4.54 4.04 2.52 2.39 .58 3.30 3.69 1.90 5.89 3.91 4.27 1.46 2.28 2.62 ł .000 .000 016 .023 .579 .005 .003 079 .000 .001 .000 149 .025 011 p **BWI** 3 15 7.38 2.17 ť 2.62 1.22 3.07 4.97 3.11 6.06 5.63 7.32 .38 44 3.18 .024 .263 .002 .000 .033 .003 $.001$.003 .000 .000 .000 .703 .658 .010 D **ROA** 2.15 1.60 1.28 1.39 2.71 2.11 1.26 1,56 1.75 -38 -32 $\ddot{}$ 1.41 1.84 1.50 034 113 204 169 .008 038 $.212$ 163 123 084 .070 705 752 137 D -4.07 -2.39 -2.63 1.00 E/B f .62 33 -4.19 4.57 4.66 -4.28 -2.94 -2.29 1.43 55 545 .747 .000 016 .329 000 000 000 .001 008 .034 170 .600 .027 D.

TABLE 4.7: Bovid size class I - IV: Tibia measurement t-test values.

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LEG t \mathbf{p} -2.73 .013 -1.99 .061 -2 .32 .032 -7.94 .000 -2.88 .005 **TABLE 4.7:** Continue -8 .28 000 *-2A9* .015 -212 .038 -2 .98 .004 -244 .017 -2.13 .071 -1.79 .077 -10.9 .000 -8.66 000 -1.92 .059 NYA t P *-2A1* .018 -2.17 .033 -2.19 .031 -3.20 .002 -8.16 .000 -4 .53 .000 *-3A1* .001 -5.28 .000 -3.54 .001 *-3A5* .001 -32 .747 *-4A8* .001 *-10A* .000 -9.82 .000 -1.95 .055 SIT t P 1.50 .138 1.66 .100 1.69 .094 -2.76 .007 -2.16 .034 -2.10 .039 -.83 *A09* -1.84 .070 *-1A9* .141 -.85 .397 1.50 .138 *A2* .678 -13.2 .000 -1.37 .176 -1.26 .211 TSE t p -14 .889 -.09 .928 -. 10 .924 -.68 *A97 -A8* .632 -.80 *A26* -.78 *A37* -.31 .758 -1.15 .254 -. 75 *A53* -.67 .503 -.85 .399 -.59 .556 -.75 .457 -5.80 .000 RHA t P -.64 .528 -.59 .563 -.57 .572 -2.96 .007 -2.79 .008 -4 .61 .000 -3.32 .002 -1.66 .109 -2.97 .005 -4.55 .000 -1.81 .084 *-3A3* .001 -2.50 .016 -1.63 .118 -3.12 .003 KUD t P 5.33 .000 *5A6* .000 5.15 .000 3.25 .002 *3A6* .001 4.79 .000 5.27 .000 1.89 .063 .38 .708 5.74 000 6.92 .000 6.78 .000 3.97 .000 5.81 .000 5.27 .000 BLA t P -7.54 .000 -7.82 000 -5 .25 000 -2.89 .005 -4.06 .000 -1.01 .314 -4.19 .000 -1.90 .062 .85 .397 -2.18 .033 -4.62 000 -3 .59 .001 -2.57 .02 -3 .59 .001 -3.44 .001 WAT t P *2A9* .015 2.53 .013 2.19 .031 5.37 .000 6.74 .000 2.39 .019 9.70 000 4.59 .000 2.35 .022 *3A2* .001 7.50 .000 1.95 .054 7.07 .000 2.19 .032 2.56 .013 GEM t P *-AO* .692 -.65 .521 -.83 .413 1.90 .087 2.08 .067 1.77 .081 .08 .937 *A6* .646 -.74 .459 -.89 .378 -2.03 .046 .28 .781 2.98 .016 1.39 .192 .84 *A03* SAB t P 1.06 .297 .97 .339 .78 *A40 4A8* .000 4.98 .000 4.36 .000 3.05 .007 3.84 .001 278 .007 1.82 .088 -.06 .956 1.10 .275 3.08 .010 5.12 .000 1.40 .165 BWI t P 1.27 .209 1.12 .267 1.18 .240 8.53 .000 2.77 .007 5.40 .000 3.13 .013 1.71 .091 2.38 .020 1.20 .235 .21 .831 -.31 .763 4.31 .001 2.80 .023 1.28 .205 ROA t \mathbf{D} 2.13 .037 1.93 .057 1.84 .069 2.69 .009 2.14 .036 1.96 .054 1.34 .186 1.37 .175 1.23 .221 1.27 .208 -.62 .538 1.80 .075 2.02 .047 8.02 .000 .79 *A31* EIB t P 1.74 .096 2.25 .035 2.58 .018 -2.83 .010 -3.08 .006 -2.95 .008 -2.70 .014 -1.88 .073 -4 .17 .003 -1.11 .279 -1.09 .311 -1.73 .097 -4 .60 .000 -3.45 .002 -4 .66 .000

TABLE 4.8: Bovid size class I - IV Metatarsal measurement t-test values.

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FIGURE 4.9: Bovid size class I - IV: Femur measurement significance. (All the dots, squares and asterisks indicate significant differences)

Symbols indicating significance:

Bovid size class indications:

- \blacksquare = Shaft measurements of femur
- Blue = Bovid size class II $Pink = Bovid size class III$
- $*$ = Proximal extremity measurements of femur \bullet = Distal extremity measurements of femur
- Green = Bovid size class IV

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FIGURE 4.10: Bovid size class I - IV: Tibia measurement significance. (All the dots, squares and asterisks indicate significant differences)

 $*$ = Proximal extremity measurements of femur Pink = Bovid size class III

 \bullet = Distal extremity measurements of femur

Green = Bovid size class IV

FIGURE 4.11: Bovid size class I - IV: Metatarsal measurement significance. (All the dots, squares and asterisks indicate significant differences)

Symbols indicating significance:

Bovid size class indications:

- \blacksquare = Shaft measurements of femur
- $*$ = Proximal extremity measurements of femur
- \bullet = Distal extremity measurements of femur

Yellow = Bovid size class I Blue = Bovid size class II Pink = Bovid size class III Green = Bovid size class IV

2.1.2 Regression analysis

Regression analysis was done separately on each size class to ascertain which measurements were predictors in the model. A step-wise analysis was done by entering the different measurement values of either the femur, tibia or metatarsal of all the species in a certain Bovid group into the statistical programme, Sigmastat. The programme then determined which measurements were predictors. It therefore calculates which measurements Significantly differs between the species of a specific Bovid group.

In Table 4.9 the predictors in each size category are shown for each bone.

The Bovid I group test excluded almost all femur and tibia measurements except F(GL-GLH), T(GL), T(GDP) and T(GDT) and indicated that the metatarsal was most vital when differentiating species within this size group. This correlates with the results of the individual t-tests, which showed that only the metatarsal measurements of the species within the Bovid I group show significant differences.

Most of the femur, tibia and metatarsal measurements of both Bovid groups II and III appeared to be predictors, which also correlates with the t-test analysis. No specific bone, or part of bone seems to be more important osteometricaly than the other.

The regression analysis of the species in the Bovid IV group which indicates the osteometric differences between Eland and Buffalo, showed various measurements as predictors, but specifically excluded the distal tibial measurements. These results suggest that there might be no difference in the measurements, taken in this study. on the distal tibia of these two species. These measurements may therefore not be useful in an osteometric analysis.

TABLE 4.9: Bovid size class I - IV: Measurement predictors.

2.13 Index calculation and analysis

Three indices were calculated to ascertain the degree of robusticity of the three hind limb long bones. In each instance the index was calculated as follows for the femur, tibia and metatarsal respectively:

Smallest circumference of shaft (SCD) / Greatest length (GL) X 100

Figures 4.12 to 4.14 give an indication of the minimum and maximum values of the indices of each bone for every bovid species measured. Figure 4. 12 shows the overlapping of the femur index values for the different Bovid groups. The Bovid I group shows overlapping of all species. This correlates with the t-tests that showed no significant differences between the individual measurements used to calculate this index. The species in the Bovid II class also show large areas of overlap. The Mountain Reedbuck (Redunca fulvorufula) and Bontebok (Damaliscus dorcas dorcas) species respectively have the lowest and highest index values. At the Bovid III group level there is a visible difference between the values. The robusticity index of the Sitatunga (Tragelaphus spekei) shows no overlap with the species within this Bovid III group. If the Bovid class of a specimen measured is known, the femur index of the Sitatunga might be usable in identification. The sample size of Sitatunga, was however, very small and a larger sample might adjust these result. Bov IV shows no overlapping, thus indicating that there will be a clear distinction between the Eland (Taurotragus oryx) and Buffalo (Syncerus caffer) species on the femur index values. Therefore it would be possible to identify these two species purely on their robusticity indices.

The same tendency is seen in Figure 4.13 which shows the tibia indices. The close overlap of the tibial robusticity values between Bov I and Bov II, may render these values unusable for identification purposes. Bov III shows overlapping values within the group, but may be used to distinguish a specimen from Boy I and Boy II, with the exception of Nyala (Tragelaphus angasii) and Lechwe (Kobus leche). Again the Sitatunga shows no overlap within its Bovid group, thus the tibial indices may also assist in identifying tibial remains of this species. Bov IV shows little overlap, again being useful with identification.

Figure 4.14 shows overlapping of the metatarsal robusticity indices between all Bovid size groups, including the Eland species of Bovid IV. The Waterbuck (Kobus ellipsiprymnus) shows no overlap within the Bovid III group it belongs to. If the Bovid group of the specimen measured is known, it would be possible to identify a Waterbuck according to its meatarsal robusticity value. The Springbok (Antidorcas marsupialis) and Buffalo (Syncerus caffer), however, show no overlap with any of the other species. The Springbok have the lowest robusticity value, which indicates a thin, long metatarsal. The Buffalo has the highest value indicating a thick, short metatarsal. Thus, the metatarsals of these two species can be identified simply according to their metatarsal index values.

The Buffalo (Syncerus caffer) species interestingly enough, show almost no overlap with any other species. This indicates that the buffalo hind limb long bones are extremely robust, therefore short and thick. All three index values can therefore be used in osteometrical identification because of its distinguishable robustcity indices. All separate index values are available from the author.

FIGURE 4.12: Bovid size class I - IV: Minimum and maximum index values for the femur.

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FIGURE 4.13: Bovid size class I - IV: Minimum and maximum index values for the tibia.

FIGURE 4.14: Bovid size class I - IV: Minimum and maximum index values for the metatarsal.

Development of programme 2.2

The programme was developed using the 97 version of Lotus Smartsuite. A copy of the Osteo-ID programme is available form the department of Anatomy, University of Pretoria or the author. Three different database identification files for the femur, tibia and metatarsal are on the Osteo - ID CD. The following steps should be taken to utilize the programme:

If Lotus Smartsuite is not accessible, then obtain and install. Step I:

When Lotus is up and running, insert Osteo-ID CD in CD-Rom Drive. $Step 2$:

Step 3: From the CD, open either femur, tibia or metatarsal file (as required).

Step 4: Click on navigation icon (button) located on the upper left hand side of the screen.

Navigation icon \rightarrow

Select "Identification" Step 5:

Step6: Enter values measured on the bone that needs to be identified.

If unsure about measurement descriptions and methods, use Materials and Methods chapter as reference. With the further development of the programme these measurements will be available on the computer programme for reference.

Identification will automatically be displayed on the SPECIMEN - ID CHART the moment a value is entered. Every time a new value is entered, the graph will change according to identification. Although the graph will react even on one value entered, the identification will obviously be more accurate with additional values.

The database is protected with a password, to ensure the integrity of data and that no values are accidentally altered.

Three values are calculated by the programme. These are:

The Identification percentage probability (IPP) =

Total amount of measurements falling within a species median X100 Total measurements of respectively femur(14), tibia(15) or metatarsal(16)

This is a calculation of the number of measurements (median values of specific species) which fall within the range of the entered measurement values, expressed as a percentage. It is very important to note that this percentage is weighted, as it will return a percentage indicative of the number of measurements entered by the user against the total number of measurements available in the database on respectively the femur (14 measurements), the tibia (15 measurements) and the metatarsal (16 measurements).

The Fractional percentage probability (FPP) =

Individual IPP value X100 Sum of IPP values of all species identified with IPP value

This is the percentage chance the specimen measured has of being one of the species that had a positive IPP. The FPP is therefore a fractional expression of the IPP, as a percentage. The highest FPP value is then the most probable species.

The Element percentage probability (EPP) =

Total number of measurements falling within range of species median X100 Total number of measurements entered

This is a calculation of the number of measurements that shows correlation with the database measurements expressed as a percentage of the measurements that had been entered by the user. This percentage is not weighted and may be misleading on the basis of the overall accuracy of the database. The reason is that it

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may disregard some measurements unique to this species, but are similar in other. The following example explains all three values:

Example: The user enters 5 measurements of the 15 tibial measurements available for identification on the programme. Only 3 of these measurements fall within the median of Springbok, and 2 within the median values of Impala. The three calculated values returned by the programme will be:

If the number of measurements entered are equal to that of the number of measurements available on the specific bone, the IPP and EPP will have the same value.

The Identification chart graphically shows the FPP value, but both the IPP and EPP values can be accessed. Although it is essential to enter as many of the measurements available on the specific bone, it is not mandatory. The Identification graph will react on one entry only. In such instance the user must realize that the computer will only return species which shows correlation with that one element, which will necessitate further study.

Figure 4.15 shows the Identification chart of the programme as seen on the computer screen.

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The identification chart also supplies the Bovid size class, if the FPP values are too close in value and are therefore of little use. As in conventional faunal analysis, the Bovid size class can at least be captured if no species can be assigned to the specimen.

The navigation icon can also be used to acquire additional detail of a specific species by selecting the "MORE INFO" option. This information may be used to further identify a species. Although only four examples (Cape Grysbok, Springbok, Red Hartebeest, Buffalo) is available at present, it indicates how the programme may be further developed. "MORE INFO" data includes the following:

o Minimum and maximum live weight of males and females.

8 Distribution description.

O Description of species

o Habitat & Diet

o Smithers' mammal number ⁵¹

The distribution map, for example, can be used to distinguish between similar size species, with different distributions in the Southern African region. This may assist in further identification. Blesbok and Bontebok, for example, are skeletally very similar, but have diverse natural distributions in the Southern African region. The habitat and diet of these species are of importance in the process of faunal analysis.

The navigational icon can further be used to view the EPP, IPP and FPP values of the species identified in the graph. This can be accessed by selecting the "ADDITIONAL VALUES" option.

Figure 4.16 shows the additional information that can be accessed by selecting the "MORE INFO" option at the navigation button or Ctrl $+$ G.

FIGURE 4.16: Additional information as seen in the computer programme.

Results

3. STAGE 3-TESTING

Stage 3 comprised of a test of accuracy and reliability of the programme developed in this study. The test included specimens from the Kemp's Cave collection which were identified as either femur, tibia or metatarsal of a specific species. Only ten specimens fulfilled these criteria. One of these specimens (LKC/93/23) were a non-fused epiphyses, which indicated that it belonged to a subadult or juvenile. All modern collection measurements taken for this study were that of adult individuals. Although the results obtained from testing this juvenile specimen with the developed programme may therefore be negative, it's identification graphs are also included here. The ten identified specimens of the Kemp's Cave collection were identified by an independent expert to verify accuracy.

Ten modern specimens from the National Flagship Institution, with known identifications, were also used for the testing stage. The reasons for including the extra specimens were that 1) the sample size (femur, tibia and metatarsal specimens of bovids) from Kemp's Caves was too small and 2) the accuracy of the identification of the fragmented specimens of Kemp's Cave could be doubted. Specimens that could not be utilised for various reasons in the original data collection, were measured. These included a femur, tibia and metatarsal from each of Bovid size class I, II and III, as well as a metatarsal from Bov IV.

3.1 Kemp's Caves specimens

Figures 4.17 to 4.26 show the results of the different specimens from the Kemp's Cave collection. These specimens were in various stages of fragmentation, thus only certain measurements could be taken from each. The original identification was done, by the author, by comparing the specimen to the modern collection of the

National Flagship Institution collection.

The results of the test include the specimen number, the measurements taken (Tables 4.10 - 4.19), the specimen - ID chart (with FPP values) as well as the IPP values for each of the species calculated by the developed programme.

The IPP value is a calculation which indicates how many of the entered measurements, fall within the range of the database medians, expressed as a percentage.

The Identification Percentage Probability (IPP) values shown with the 10 results of the Kemp's Caves specimens, are mostly very low values. The reason being that these fragmented specimens could only supply a few measurements. These values give a good indication of the fact that identification with only a few measurements may be less accurate. The Fractional Percentage Probability (FPP) values are also shown on the 10 chart. These values give an indication of the probability of the specimen measured as being one of all the species that showed positive IPP values.

LKC/94/27 (Fig 4.17) Conventionally identified as Red Hartebeest:

Although Red Hartebeest had a 14.3% probability, the 10 chart showed a higher probability for it to be either Lechwe or Sitatunga. Lechwe, however, does not naturally occur in this area. The Sitatunga sample size was also very small and the results of this 10 might change with a larger sample. The IPP values were relatively low, but correlated with the fact that only two measurements were available for identification testing.

LKC/92/38 (Fig 4.18) Conventionally identified as Springbok:

The 10 chart showed a 20% probability for both Springbok and Oribi, but the highest probability with 60% is Grey Rhebuck. Oribi and Springbok showed a low 7% IPP value, whereas Grey Rhebuck showed higher (20%) IPP value. These results may however, change drastically if proximal measurements values are entered. LKC/93/23 (Fig 4.19) Conventionally identified as Impala:

The only three species that showed a probability is Oribi (40%), Mountain Reedbuck (20%) and Grey Rhebuck (40%). The IPP values of all three species were, however, relatively low, as only three measurements were entered. This specimen, however, was an unfused distal extremity. No juveniles or sub-adults were measured and utilised in the database which might explain the absence of the probability of Impala on the ID chart.

LKC/93/70 (Fig 4.20) Conventionally identified as Blesbok:

A combination of four species showed the highest probability percentage at 16% which included Blesbok. The IPP values ranged form 20% - 27% which is relatively high if one takes into account that only a third of the measurements were entered. One of the measurements available was the T(SCO), smallest circumference of the tibial shaft. As can be seen in Figure 4.13, the robusticity values of all four species overlaps completely which correlates with the identification results. LKC/93/302 (Fig 4.21) Conventionally identified as Reedbuck:

All measurements could be taken on this specimen as it was a complete metatarsal. Although sixteen species showed varied percentage probabilities, Reedbuck had the third highest FPP (12.7%) and a 63% IPP. Bontebok had the highest probability with a 17.7% FPP and a 88% IPP value.

LKC/93/126 (Fig 4.22) Conventionally identified as Impala:

Grey Rhebuck showed the highest (42.9%) percentage probability, while Oribi, Mountain Reedbuck and Bushbuck were also identified as possible species. Impala did not have a positive IPP and therefore did not show on the 10 chart. All species showed relative low IPP values (6% to 19%), which correlates with the fact that only three measurements could be entered.

l KC/94/328 (fig 4.23) Conventionally identified as Blesbok:

Springbok and Reedbuck had the highest (22.7%) FPP values. Although Blesbok had a positive IPP value, its fractional probability was only 4.5%. Again it can be seen in Figure 4.14 that all the identified species show overlap in the metatarsal robusticty value (which includes the M(SCO). This may explain the large amount species that was identified in this specific test.

LKC/93/40 (Fig 4.24) Conventionally identified as Blesbok:

All five species that showed percentage probabilities, had a 20% FPP value. The only measurement available was the M(SCO). The IPP values of all four species was extremely low (6%). This is obviously due to the fact that only the smallest circumference measurement of this bone was available. In Figure 4.14 these species show great overlap in the robusticity values and thus these results correlates with the metatarsal robusticity index. Bontebok, however, does not naturally occur in the Kemp's cave area, which might be useful information in further identification.

LKC/93/35 (Fig 4.25) Conventionally identified as Blesbok:

Although Blesbok showed a high (15.7%) FPP vlaue, Reedbuck was identified as being the most (21 .8%) probable species. Eight different species showed positive IPP values, which ranged between 6% and 44%. Blesbok showed an IPP value of 31 %, which is relatively high when less than half the measurements were available for identification.

LKC/92/34 (Fig 4.26) Conventionally identified as Blesbok:

Blesbok, Springbok, Bushbuck, Reedbuck and Nyala each had a 14.3% fractional probability value, while Impala had the highest FPP value at 28.6%. Only two measurements were available (M(SBO) and M(GBP) which might explain that Blesbok did not have a higher FPP value.

Only 20% of the identification tests was correctly identified (having the highest FPP value) as being the species which was conventionally identified during faunal analysis. In 90% of the tests the species had a positive IPP value and featured on the identification graph. Reasons for the low success rate might be 1) the small number of measurements available because of fragmentation 2) possible inaccurate conventional identification and 3) the inaccuracy of the computer programme, resulting from the small number of specimens in the database used for the development of the programme.

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KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/94/27) Red Hartebeest femur

FIGURE 4.17: Identification chart of LKC/94/27 - FPP (%).

159

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/92/38) Springbok tibia

TABLE 4.11: Measurements of specimen LKC/92/38.

160

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/23) Impala tibia

TABLE 4.12: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/23.

FIGURE 4.19: Identification chart of LKC/93/23 - FPP (%).

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KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/70) Blesbok tibia

TABLE 4.13: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/70.

FIGURE 4.20: Identification chart of LKC/93/70 - FPP (%).

162

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/302) Reedbuck metatarsal

TABLE 4.14: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/302.

FIGURE 4.21: Identification chart of LKC/93/302 - FPP (%).

163

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/126) Impala metatarsal

TABLE 4.15: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/126.

FIGURE 4.22: Identification chart of LKC/93/126 - FPP (%).

164

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/94/328) Blesbok metatarsal

TABLE 4.16: Measurements of specimen LKC/94/328.

FIGURE 4.23: Identification chart of LKC/94/328 - FPP (%).

165

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/40) Blesbok metatarsal

TABLE 4.17: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/40.

FIGURE 4.24: Identification chart of LKC/93/40 - FPP (%).

166

KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/93/35) Blesbok metatarsal

TABLE 4.18: Measurements of specimen LKC/93/35.

FIGURE 4.25: Identification chart of LKC/93/35 - FPP (%).

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KEMP'S CAVE SPECIMEN (LKC/92/34) Blesbok metatarsal

TABLE 4.19: Measurements of specimen LKC/92/34.

FIGURE 4.26: Identification chart of LKC/92/34 - FPP (%).

3.2 Modern collection specimens

Figures 4.27a to 4.36a show the results of the modern specimens measured. The result of the test include the specimen number (AZ Museum number), the measurements taken (Tables 4.20 - 4.29) , the specimen - 10 chart (with FPP values) as well as the IPP values for each of the species calculated by the developed programme.

These specimens are of known origin and include bones which were not utilized in the developed database. All specimens are part of the skeletal collection of the National Flagship Institution's archaeozoological department.

All the specimens were complete bones thus all measurements could be entered. This gives the Identification Percentage Probability (IPP) significant value, and will therefore be discussed at each test.

Figures 4.27b to 4.36b accompany each identification chart of the modern collection test specimens. As the programme might be used by archaeozoologists who mostly analyse fragmented specimens (mostly either, shaft, proximal or distal fragments of long bones), each test identification was repeated three times. Only shaft , proximal or distal measurements was entered respectively. Results of these tests can be seen in Figures 4.27b to 4.36b which compare the FPP values of the different speCies identified when only certain measurements were entered.

AZ 1069 (Fig 4.27a and b) Klipspringer:

Although Klipspringer had a relative high IPP value (54%), it was Cape Grysbok and Red Ouiker which had the highest (25.6%) fractional probabilities. The FPP value of Klipspringer increased from 16.3% (all measurements entered) to 20% when only the shaft measurements were used for identification, but was never

identified as having the highest FPP value (see Figure 4.27b).

AZ 526 (Fig 4.28a and b) Grey Rhebuck:

Grey Rhebuck had the highest FPP (37.9%) and this value increased further to 80% when only the shaft measurements was utilised for identification. The five other species identified showed varied fractional probabilities from 3.4% to 24.1 %. Common Duiker, Springbok, Oribi and Impala did not feature on the identification chart during the proximal extremity measurement identification (see Figure 4.28b). AZ 645 (Fig 4.29a and b) Red Hartebeest:

A total of nine species were identified and was assigned a positive IPP value and showed varied percentages (2% to 22%) fractional probabilities. Although Tssesebe had the highest FPP value (22%), the Red Hartebeest had the second highest FPP value (20%) as well as a very high (77%) IPP value. It must be taken into account that there were only one Tsessebe specimen available for the database measurements. A larger sample size might have had different results, which may have identified Red Hartebeest as the most probable species. As can be seen in Figure 4.29b, Blesbok and Bontebok were only identified as being probable species with the distal extremity measurements. Tsessebe and Red Hartebeest showed equal (33. 3%) FPP values in the proximal extremity input. The different measurement inputs did therefore not change the most probable species but did enhance the chances of it being correctly identified as Red Hartebeest.

AZ 782 (Fig 4.30a and b) Steenbok:

This result positively identified the specimen as Steenbok being the most probable species with a 29.8% fractional probability and a very high (93%) IPP value. Four other species showed positive IPP values with fractional probability values of

between 2.1% and 25. 5%. The distal extremity measurement input showed that the FPP of Red Duiker increased substantially to a value equal to that of Steenbok (33.3%) with the same measurements entered (see Figure 4.30b).

AZ 1032 (Fig 4.31a and b) Springbok:

This specimen was identified as being either Mountain Reedbuck or Grey Rhebuck with equal FPP values (27.3%). Springbok had a FPP value of only 12.1%, but a 27% IPP value. Thus, although it was not identified as the most probable species, the measurements entered still corresponded with a 27% value with that of Springbuck. In Figure 4.31b it can clearly be seen that the reason why Reedbuck and Grey Rhebuck were identified as the most probable species, was because the shaft measurement entered matched almost perfectly with that of these two species. AZ 145 (Fig 4.32a and b) Black Wildebeest:

This specimen was also positively identified as Black Wildebeest. Although the FPP vlaue was relatively low (21 .1 %), the IPP was 73%. The reason for the FPP value being low was that 12 other species also showed resemblance to some of the measurements. The FPP values ranged between 1.7% to 18.3%. If, however, only the distal extremity measurements would have been available, it would have identified Tsessebe and Red Hartebeest as being the most probable species (Figure 4.32b).

AZ 1572 (Fig 4.33a and b) Cape Grysbok:

Red Duiker was identified as being the most probable species with a very high FPP value (64.3%). Suni and Steenbok both had a FPP value of 7.1% and a IPP of 6%. Cape Grysbok was identified with a IPP of 19% and a fractional probability of 21.4%. If, however, only proximal measurements were entered into the system the

most probable species would have Cape Grysbok (40%) and the FPP value of Red Duiker would have decreased to 20% (Figure 4.33b). Both Suni and Steenbok only showed correlation with the shaft measurements entered.

AZ 931 (Fig 4.34a and b) Bontebok:

More than ten species were identified with fractional probabilities ranging form 1.6% to 15.9%. The large number of species identified as having corresponding measurements medians with that of the specimen entered, resulted in relatively low FPP values. Nyala and Blesbok had the highest (15.9%) FPP values. Although Bontebok had only a 12.7% chance of being the probable species, results showed that 50% of the measurements corresponded with the measurement entered. In Figure 4.34b it can be seen that Reedbuck would have been identified as the most probable species if only the distal extremity measurements would have been available. The proximal measurement values of Blesbok, as well as the distal measurements of Nyala showed to be the most significant measurements which identified them as the most probable species.

AZ 127 (Fig 4.35a and b) Sable:

Although Sable was identified as the second most probable species with a 11 .8% FPP value, it was Black Wildebeest with a 14.1 % FPP value that was identified as the most probable species. Nine of the 17 species identified showed correlation with only the shaft measurements with a FPP probability of 3.5%. Sable was, however, identified as being the most probable species when only the proximal measurements were entered. Red Hartebeest, however, would have been the most probabale species if the only measurements that were entered were that of the distal extremity (Figure 4.35b).

AZ 1457 (Fig 3.36) Eland:

Only three species were illustrated on the identification chart. These included Kudu and Eland with a 25% fractional probability and Buffalo with a 50% FPP value. In Figure 4.36b it can clearly be seen that the proximal and distal extremity measurements of the Buffalo showed a 100% correlation with that of the measurements entered. The shaft measurements, however, resembled that of the Eland and Kudu better (37.5%).

30% of the tests on the modern specimen collection showed the correct species as having the highest probability. There was, however, no identification chart that did not include the correct species and all showed these species as having the second or third highest FPP value.

By entering different sets of values which included elements of respectively the shaft, proximal extremity and distal extremity did in some cases change the results drastically in some cases and the correct species were identified as either sharing the highest FPP value or having the highest.

Table 4.30 gives a summary of the results when different measurements were entered into the computer programme with the modern collection test results. As can be seen, the proximal extremities of all three bones showed a higher (60%) identification accuracy. Six of the ten specimens that were not identified as the most probable species when all measurements were entered, were correctly identified when only measurements of certain portions of the bone were utilized. Only one specimen (AZ 526) was constantly identified as the most probable species, no matter which separate elements were entered.

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 1069) Klipspringer femur

TABLE 4.20: Measurements of specimen AZ 1069.

FIGURE 4.27a: Identification chart of AZ 1069 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.27b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 1069 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 526) Grey Rhebuck femur

TABLE 4.21: Measurements of specimen AZ 526.

FIGURE 4.28a: Identification chart of AZ 526 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.28b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 526 - FPP (%)

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 645) Red Hartebeest femur

TABLE 4.22: Measurements of specimen AZ 645.

FIGURE 4.29a: Identification chart of AZ 645 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.29b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 645 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 782) Steenbok tibia

FIGURE 4.30a: Identification chart of AZ 782 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.30b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 782 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 1032) Springbuck tibia

FIGURE 4.31a: Identification chart of AZ 1032 - FPP (%).

27%

Springbok

FIGURE 4.31b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 1032 - FPP (%).

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MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 145) Black Wildebeest tibia

FIGURE 4.32a: Identification chart of AZ 145 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.32b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 145 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 1572) Cape Grysbok metatarsal

FIGURE 4.33a: Identification chart of AZ 1572 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.33b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 1572 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 931) Bontebok metatarsal

FIGURE 4.34a: Identification chart of AZ 931 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.34b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 931 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 127) Sable metatarsal

FIGURE 4.35a: Identification chart of AZ 127 - FPP (%).

FIGURE 4.35b: Differences in measurement input of AZ 127 - FPP (%).

MODERN SPECIMEN (AZ 1457) Eland metatarsal

FIGURE 4.36a Identification chart of AZ 1457 - FPP (%).

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FIGURE 4.36b Differences in measurement input of AZ 1457 - FPP (%).

TABLE 4.30: Summary of the different measurement input results.

• Identified as being the most probable species, thus having the highest FPP value

* The percentage of specimens of the femur, tibia or metatarsal specimens that was correctly identified as being the most probable species

** The total percentage of specimens that was correctly identified when respectively all, the shaft, the proximal extremity or the distal extremity measurements were entered into the computer programme

1. 5fAGEI-FAUNAl ANAlY5I 5

Stage 1 of this study entailed the analysis of the faunal remains excavated at Kemp's Caves, South Africa. **It** involved mainly the sorting and identification of fragmented bone pieces. The results were used to confirm the ESR dates of the site, especially with the use of identified extinct animal remains. Five specimens were identified as being representative of Equus capensis (Cape horse / zebra). At present, this is the only extinct species that was recovered at Kemp's Caves.

The results of the faunal analysis were also utilized to give insight into environmental changes such as climate and habitat, which may have occurred in the Kemp's Caves area during its existence. The last aim of this stage was to suggest a primary accumulating agent for the caves for better understanding of the caves' taphonomy,

I.l FOlino' assemblage

More than 8000 specimens were sorted and identified to species level where possible. Twelve percent of the elements could be identified to larger mammalian and other categories, while only three percent could be identified to different taxa and species (see Table 4.1). Plug is of opinion that the small amount of identified specimens typically found from sites in South Africa is due to the fact that these excavation sites produce specimens which are fragmented to a large extent ⁹⁴.

Like most other cave sites, the faunal remains of Kemp's Caves is composed

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mostly of bovid specimens. More than 85% of the specimens belonged to 13 different bovid species. Bovid size class II and III represented 68% of the bovid sample, suggesting activity of medium to large sized predators.

Only one domestic species, Bos taurus (domestic cattle), was identified. The five specimens were modern and not fossilized, suggesting a recent origin. The cave is situated in an environment which had been a game reserve for the past 40 years, which suggests that no domestic cattle have been found here since 1963. This may imply that the specimens were brought in from the outside, probably part of a human meal, when considering that only five specimens were identified. It could also have been scavenged and brought in from a neighbouring farm of an animal that died of natural causes. Another explanation could be that it was washed from a site outside the game reserve into the tunnel of the North-eastern extension. It could also have been washed into the North-eastern tunnel prior to 1963. Brain states that it is not unusual for separate specimens of a skeleton or even a bone to be transported by water before it is deposited as part of the faunal assemblage. It is, however, necessary to keep in mind which parts of the skeleton can be carried away by an aqueous current to establish whether a certain specimen could have been washed in or not². The specimens consisted of four carpals (complete) and the distal articulation of a radius. Studies have shown that structures such as complete skulls, ribs, vertebrae and phalanges were transported by the current, but that teeth, metapodials and tibiae became imbedded within the riverbed 2 . It is however, still unclear whether water could have been responsible for the transportation.

Several carnivore specimens ranging from large species, like leopard, to smaller species, like mongooses, were represented in the sample. Carnivores often

prey on other carnivores, thus the fact that carnivore specimens were represented in the assemblage might indicate accumulation by scavenging and hunting of nonhuman predators. The skeletal representation of the carnivores may, however, also be the result of natural deaths.

Only a few avian and reptilian specimens were represented by either ostrich egg shell or fragmented carapaces. No fish remains except a few crab pinchers were found. This indicates that avian and reptilian fauna might not have been a major part in the diet of either man or animal at Kemp's Caves.

The faunal assemblage of sites with similar dates show several similarities with that of Kemp's Caves (see Table 4.2 for species identified at Kemp's Caves).

Rose Cottage Cave showed many similar macro-mammalian species which included most bovids which were also identified at Kemp's Caves. Antidorcas marsupialis (Springbok) were well represented with a high NISP value of 106. The extinct species Equus capensis was also identified and was represented by six separate specimens 34 .

The faunal sample of Sehonghong is dominated by fish, thus no clear comparison could be made with this site in Lesotho.

Klasies River Mouth yielded similar bovid and carnivorous species, but also had a large quantity of fish and molluscs. Klasies River Mouth further yielded several hominid specimens, which included a fragmentary skull, that appears to be anatomically modern, as well as twenty four MSA dated specimens ⁵⁶. Pelorovis antiquus (Giant buffalo), which became extinct between 12000 and 10000 BP, was the only extinct species identified ⁹⁵.

Klasies River Mouth and Border Cave are both coastal sites and yielded several hominid specimens regarded as anatomically modern humans. Kemp's Caves fall within this important era of the evolution of anatomical modern humans, but had yielded no hominid specimens which could be associated with the older deposits in the cave. This fact may support the theory that anatomical modern humans had a coastal evolutionary history ⁴¹. However, there has only been a small amount of fossils excavated at the Kemp's Caves site, and it may still yield hominid specimens. This may then contradict this theory, as Kemp's Caves is an inland site.

I.2 Equus capensis

Equus capensis was the first species of fossil horse to be described in South Africa. Broom identified several equid specimens that led him to suggest for some time that an extinct equid may have existed in the Cape Province, but it was only in 1909 that he was able to describe the dentition of this animal ⁹⁶. The first fossil (left mandibular ramus) was found in a slab of limestone on a beach at Ysterplaatz in Table Bay 2. Twenty species of Equus were described in South Africa between 1909 and 1950. Five of these were that of several other zebra species, and the rest are considered to all be E. capensis. These specimens allowed Broom to describe the species in greater detail.

Although no formal classification is given, Broom describes E. capensis as a horse species with a skull considerably larger (10-15%) than *E.* cabal/us. It had the same pattern of the lower molars of modern horses, but lacked any traces of the protostylid ⁹⁷. The animal appeared to be more powerfully built than E. caballus, but did not stand very high 2 .

Mixed criticism about Broom's identification included that of Wells ⁹⁸, who considered Broom's type *E. capensis* as indeterminable and suggested that the correct name for the extinct Cape horse should be *E.* helmei dreyer. Churcher, however, supported Broom's identification and applied the type *E.* capensis to the Sterkfontein valley material².

Klein suggested that *E. capensis* disappeared from the Southern Cape with other forms such as the giant buffalo (Pe/orovis antiquus) and giant hartebeest (Megalotragus) around 12 000 - 10 000 years BP. These dates coincide with the environmental changes of the terminal Pleistocene. He also suggests that both the environment as well as man's more effective hunting methods could have been responsible for these extinctions ⁹⁹. The extinct equids had a larger body-size than the extant equids. This indicates a Similarly low metabolic rate and implies that extinct equids like *E.* capensis had the ability to cope with more low quality food. This in turn defines the feeding niche of *E.* capensis as having a larger amount of course grass as part of its diet than extant equids ¹⁰⁰. It is therefore suggested that the giant grazers such as Megalotragus priscus, Pelorovis antiquus and Equus capensis acted as "lawn mowers". This feeding niche stimulated the production of new growth of the grassland herb layer 101.

Remains of *E. capensis* have been found all over South Africa, and have been the object of rock paintings and engravings of artists that may have seen the horse alive. These artistic records show various differences. Several records show this species with stripes, like a zebra, while other paintings lacks a striped appearance which resembles a horse 2 . Brain 2 illustrated Equus capensis as having stripes (Figure 5.1) whereas Maglio and Cooke 97 showed a non-striped species (Figure 5.2).

FIGURE 5.1: Equus capensis as illustrated in "The Hunters or the Hunted" 2.

FIGURE 5.2: Equus capensis as illustrated in "Evolution of African mammals" ⁹⁷.

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1.3 Doting

Dating of Southern African caves is very difficult due to the fact that no volcanic material are available for absolute dates ²⁷. Therefore it is essential that other methods of dating are done. Electron Spin Resonance has provided dates for many sites, but is nevertheless dependent on the uptake of uranium. Faunal analysis have thus been the primary means of dating for South African fossil sites ¹⁰². The Taung Austra/opithecus was, for example, assigned to the Pliocene on the basis of the analysed fauna associated with the specimen ¹⁰³. The oldest associations are those of Sterkfontein and Makapansgat, but the most recent work has been done by Cooke 95. Faunal analysis can be used for date confirmation if an extinct species is identified in the faunal remains. Knowledge of the approximate era the extinct animal roamed the earth, may be indicative as to the date of that particular section of the site from which the extinct animal remains originated.

Kemp's Caves produced ESR dates of 11 000 BP to 140 000 BP. All faunal specimens identified in the Kemp's Caves faunal assemblage was of modern species, except one extinct equid. E. capensis (Cape zebra / horse) was identified. This animal became extinct approximately 10 000 BP. This species confirms the dates of the Electron Spin Resonance results. Three of the five E. capensis specimens were excavated from provenances 5E6E 10N, 5E 11N and 6E7E 11 N12N. Unfortunately, no provenance was associated with the other two specimens which were fragments of a left humerus. Therefore, they could not be of use to assist with confirmation of the ESR dates of Kemp's Caves. Wells describes the earlier sites as having a larger amount of extinct species that the later sites such as Florisbad which had a progressively decreasing number of extinct species ¹⁰⁴.

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Figure 5.3 illustrates the area from which E. capensis specimens were excavated. suggesting that this part of the cave has a date of at least 10 000 to 12 000 BP.

Other species which became extinct during the last 100 000 years are the giant buffalo (Pelorovis), giant hartebeest (Megalotragus), giant warthog (Stylochoerus), extinct springbuck (Antidorcas), three-toed horse (Hipparion), shortnecked giraffes (Sivatherium), sabre-tooth cats (Megantereon) and giant baboon (Theropithicus)³⁷. None of these species were identified, thus the earlier date (140 000 BP) could not be confirmed. Klein does, however, suggest that E. capensis may have already existed 1.8 Myr ago 105.

North American vertebrate palaeontologists established the term "Land Mammal Ages" to represent a fauna whose members existed during the same restricted geochronologic interval. Cooke states that our knowledge of the Pleistocene in Africa is not yet adequate to designate Land-Mammal "Ages" and therefore in 1965 proposed the term "Faunal span". This concept describes the duration of existence of a particular faunal assemblage. One of these proposed faunal spans is called the Florisbad-Vlakkraal Faunal Span. This span is characterized by an assemblage of living species enriched by surviving extinct forms. Extinct species are not found with the Later Stone Age cultures which began about 12 000 BP and are thus referred to as recent ¹⁰⁶. The identification of Equus capensis might then suggest that Kemp's Caves fall partly into the Florisbad-Vlakkraal Faunal Span. Hendey describes this similar time-span as the Florisian Mammal Age. It is characterized by fauna which was essentially similar to that of the Holocene although many of the mammals excavated showed that the extinct species were larger than their modern counterpart. These species included *E.* capensis *103.*

There are, however, very modern specimens identified. With further excavations and possible identification of more extinct species the chronology of Kemp's Caves might become more clear. No faunal specimens were found to contradict the current ESR dates.

t\,(Eco'o9y and environment

Kemp's Caves fall within veldtype 61, Bankenveld. Bankenveld is classified as a grassveld and have soils which are poor and acid. The largest percentage (53%) of species identified in the faunal sample is grazers and 27% is mixed feeders. Both these feeding types has grasses as part of their diet. Only 20% is browsers, which

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utilize woody vegetation (Figure 4.6). Thus the diet of the species identified correlates with this grassveld veldtype.

Bankenveld is classified as a sourveld which is characterized by plants that become less nutritious and palatable when reaching maturity, thus the plants can only be utilized for parts of the year while the plants are still young. Although some of the grasses which are characteristic of this veld type had a low palatability value, all species identified did have at least one grass or tree species which featured in their preferred diet (Table 5.1). Grass species such as Panicum maximum (Buffalo grass), Cynodon dactylon (Couch grass) and Themda triandra (Red Grass), which were mentioned as some of the main dietary grasses for grazers are however, not characteristic of Bankenveld. The fact that the diets of all species identified did have representation of plants presently occurring in this area, might indicate that the flora did not change much during the formation of the cave deposits. Although animals easily adapt to their environment, certain species do prefer specific plants. Table 5.1 shows which of the species identified utilizes a specific plant species which are characteristic to Bankenveld. This table was compiled from information of Van Oudtshoorn ⁴⁸ and Smithers ⁵¹. It also gives an indication of its palatability value ⁴⁸.

Cooke states that during the Pleistocene there was a rise of modern species and a decline in the archaic forms. It is therefore demonstrated by the excavated fossil herbivores that the broad ecological conditions did not vary much and that the different regions during Pleistocene times maintained the same distinctive characteristics today 107. Brink, however suggests that the feeding niche of species like Antidorcas bondi who relied on the "lawn mowing" type of grazing done by Equus capensis and Pelorovis antiquus suggests that the ecology of southern Africa might

have been different from present due to the facilitated interaction of grazers. This also suggests that the grasslands of Southern Africa were more productive during the Late Pleistocene than at present ¹⁰⁸. The species that were identified in the faunal sample of Kemp's Caves in the present study were all animals that occurred here in the past or still occurs in the area. This fact may also suggest that the environment and climate have not changed much in the last 100 000 years. Kemp's Caves may still yield a large amount of fossilized material, including hominid remains, which may result in a different interpretation of the historical ecology of the area.

TAB LE 5.1: Plant species utilized by identified animal species of Kemp's Caves.

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1.5 Taphonomy and Bone accumulations

Caves are commonly used as retreats and breeding sites by several animal species, as well as by humans. Bony food remains accumulate at these sites and may fossilize in certain circumstances. These bone accumulations are useful in identifying the inhabitants of the cave and have therefore been thoroughly researched during the last century 2,3,58.

The three most common agents responsible for bone accumulations are porcupines, humans and carnivores^{2,28,109}. Kemp's Caves exhibit a variety of evidence which may conclude that both humans and animals were responsible for the accumulations at this site. Findings of Kemp's Caves that relate to conclusions made in various studies of the different chief accumulating agents, are listed below to give an indication of the varied interpretations:

1.5.1 Porcupine as accumulating agent

The rodent, Hystrix africauastralis (Porcupine), is confirmed to be an important bone collector although this species is in fact vegetarian. Brain suggests that porcupines carry more bones to caves than any other accumulating agent ². During 1956 a well-known porcupine, by the name of Aristotle, was studied by the zoology department of Rhodes University to establish behaviourial patterns. Observations showed that the porcupine appeared to have no interest in meaty, fresh bones. Dry bones, however were instantly taken to its lair and gnawed. Like other rodents, the porcupine has open-rooted incisors that constantly grow and therefore require regular attrition to keep them at a functional length 2 .

Hendey and Singer found that porcupine bone assemblages characteristically display high frequencies of gnawed bone and low percentages of non-identifiable

fragments 110. Carnivores and humans tend to shatter and fragment bones for nutritional value, while porcupines only utilize it as a tool. Porcupine assemblages consequently exhibit mostly non-fragmented bones which are extensively . gnawed 28.

Kemp's Caves have a high percentage (88%, see Table 4.1) of nonidentifiable, severely fragmented bones, of which only nine percent (see Figure 4.8) were gnawed by various species. Approximately 20 identifiable bones were documented as being modified by porcupines and a few porcupine quills were found in the faunal assemblage. Porcupines may have been responsible for a small percentage of the skeletal remains, but are definitely not considered to be a chief accumulating agent of Kemp's Caves.

1.5.2 Hyaena as accumulating agent

Hyaenas have enormous jaws which explains why they are extremely efficient at crushing bones and therefore leave only tooth row sections and the very robust parts of long bone ends in larger mammals ^{2,51}.

The adaptation of the upper and lower third premolars in conjunction with their powerful jaw muscles establishes effective bone crushing. The anterior and posterior cusps have been reduced while the central cusps enlarged to be converted into conical hammers. The scarcity of gnawed fragments and the high incidence of severely fragmented bones in the present study thus indicate hyaena involvement ³. Gnawed bones contributed less than nine percent of the bones in Kemp's Caves.

The faunal sample of the Kemp's caves bovids showed varied evidence of long bone fragments of larger mammals. There is, however, a significant amount of long bones where only the proximal or distal extremity survived.

Hyenas are implicated when large amounts of coprolites are present ^{2,3}. Coprolites can be defined as fossilized droppings. Hyaena droppings resemble those of a large dog in shape and size. It consists of mainly mineral matter derived from bones with sometimes a few hairs. The faecal masses are green but turn white upon drying in air. The coprolites of Kemp's Caves where not tested, but resemble all above descriptions. There were a large amount of coprolites in the sample of Kemp's Caves, which may signify hyaena activity at some point.

Stone artifacts are often found at sites where humans have been involved in the accumulation of an assemblage. The scarcity of stone artifacts at Kemp's Caves suggest hyaena activity 3 . This is attributed to the fact that hyenas and humans do not frequently inhabit the same living space ⁵⁷. At a site in Zimbabwe, it was found that coprolites originated in layers where human artifacts and cultural material were low. This may suggest that hyaenas occupied these sites when human residents were elsewhere ². Although all archaeological artifacts were removed from the sample, stone artifacts were not found in the Kemp's Caves' excavations. w **Brown hyaena**

The brown hyaena (Hyaena brunnea) is typically smaller than the spotted hyaena and is characterized by a sloping back and banding of the front legs. Brown hyaena, similar to spotted hyaena, uses both burrows and caves as breeding and feeding lairs 2.

Research has shown that the brown hyaena tend to collect more bones to dens than Spotted hyaena 3,28. They prey on springbok-reedbuck size antelope (Bov II), although larger antelope like Blue Wildebeest, zebra and kudu are sometimes hunted. Approximately 39.1% of the Kemp's Cave collection consist of

Bov II size ungulates (see Figure 4.1).

Female brown hyaena bring their young to the den, whereas spotted hyaena takes their young to the field from a very early age 3 . Hence the skeletal representation of the brown hyaena itself will include specimens of all age classes, and the spotted hyaena lairs would mostly be represented by adults only ^{2,3}. Kemp's Caves yielded several adult specimens of both spotted and brown hyaena as well as one juvenile spotted hyaena specimen (see Table 4.2). The skeletal representation of the hyaena specimens of Kemp's Caves gives therefore no clear evidence whether brown or spotted hyaena, if any, could have been accumulating bones at Kemp's Caves.

Brown hyaena accumulations have been proved to feature a large amount of other carnivores, with Black-backed jackal (Canis mesomelas) and bat-eared foxes (Otocyon megalotis) being the most numerous $2,3$. The reason is that the female brown hyaena deliberately hunts smaller carnivores as food for their cubs in the breeding dens². The Kemp's Caves assemblage contained approximately 20 separate black-backed jackal skeletons of a minimum of two individuals (see Table 4.2)

The fact that Black-backed jackal specimens were relatively well represented in the assemblage might suggest that the brown hyaena may have played a role as accumulating agent.

Spotted hyaena

William Buckland first suggested that Crocuta crocuta (Spotted hyaena) may have been responsible for bone accumulations after a cave in Yorkshire revealed an abundance of spotted hyaena remains as well as the skeletal fragments of prey ². He

concluded that hyaenas are bone collectors and also prey upon each other. This study resulted in the birth of a concept known as the "bone-accumulating, cannibalistic hyaena" ². Robert Knox, who extensively traveled South Africa, challenged the accumulating theory of Buckland. He debated that hyaenas bring their young to the field from an early age and was of opinion that there would be no reason to carry a portion of the prey back to their lairs 2 . While Dart was attempting to explain the accumulation at Makapansgat, he undertook a study of modern hyaena lairs. After completion of this study he forcefully rejected the bone collecting theory. Despite this rejection, evidence has shown hyaenas as definite bone collectors ².

Sutcliffe suggested that there are two kinds of spotted hyaena lairs ¹⁰³. The first is characterized by the fragmented gnawed remains of the crocuta species itself. These fragments were represented by different ages and individuals. The second type of lair has less skeletal remains of the species itself and is characterized by an abundance of prey skeletal material. He explained the two lairs as the one being the living quarters and the other the eating quarters ¹¹¹. Research by Matthews described that in deep soil habitats, hyaenas prefer burrows, but in rocky or mountainous areas they make use of recesses or caves 112.

Although spotted hyaenas are scavengers, it has been confirmed that they are also avid and effective hunters 2,51 . Hyaenas have been found to successfully hunt prey as large as adult waterbuck, eland and buffalo but mostly prey on wildebeestzebra size (Bov III) 2,3,28 . If larger predators such as lions were prominent in the area, there would be enough food to scavenge, whereas hunting would take preference if such large predators did not occupy these areas. If it can be established whether the hyaena diet consisted of scavenged or hunted meals it can consequently suggest

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whether larger predators were inhabitants of the area 2 . It is uncertain whether prey was hunted or scavenged at Kemp's Caves, thus no deductions can be made about the occupancy of larger predators.

Kemp's caves definitely qualify as a breeding lair for any predator, and although deep soiled areas are found in the area, the cave is situated in a rocky habitat. This may suggest that spotted hyaena might have used the cave as a retreat. The faunal analysis of Kemp's caves included 27.9% Bov III size class bovids as well as 2.6% Equids (see Figure 4.1). These are prey and scavenger size animals for the spotted hyaena. Although some evidence may suggest hyaena to have been an accumulating agent at Kemp's Caves, it may have been for short periods when humans or leopards did not occupy the caves.

1.5.3 Leopard as accumulating agent

The species Panthera pardus is successful predators due to the fact that they are extremely adaptable, hence they are normally the last of the large predators to disappear under pressure form human encroachment². Brain describes leopards as being secretive in which case a cave plays an important role in their behavioural patterns for retreat, breeding and feeding².

Mount Suswa, a dormant volcano near Nairobi, presented the best evidence for leopards' use of caves. Predatory animals normally prefer to take their food to certain definite places. In the case of Mount Suswa, the leopard preferred a very dark recess where no light could penetrate 2 .

After making a kill the carcass is dragged up to 2km after which they either hide the prey by covering it with vegetation or lodging it in a tree ¹¹³. Hyaenas tend to be the main culprit in taking prey from leopards. It is thus of great importance to

immediately take the prey to an unaccessible spot 2. Additional evidence from a farm in Namibia showed leopards dragging their prey up a rocky slope into a cave. Hyaenas are absent from this area, thus no competition denotes only a quiet spot for storage 2 . This fact may implicate that either no or few hyaenas are present at times when the leopard only stores prey in the cave and had no reason to hide prey from competition. It may therefore be suggested that a leopard would generally drag it's prey to a distinctive secretive and protected area to be fed upon. Leopards also tend to return to the carcass after the initial feeding ¹¹³.

Leopard takes a wider array of prey than does any other large carnivore ¹¹³. This species does, however, mostly prey on Bov II and Bov III size ungulates ⁵¹. Prey are normally eaten from the buttocks and then the shoulder area. The long bones of large leopard prey are not broken and crushed as in hyaena and lion kills ¹¹³. If undisturbed, leopards tend to eat the body, neck and upper parts of the limbs. The head and lower leg segments are rejected ².

Several breeding lairs have been described as caves leading into one or more tunnel structures². The North-eastern tunnel in Kemp's Caves has been described by the game rangers as being the living quarters of the resident leopard.

Bov II (39.1 %) and III (27.9%) dominated the bovid specimens (see Figure 4.1) in the Kemp's caves assemblage. It is also shown in Figure 4.2 to 4.4 that the head (skull and teeth) and lower leg bones, such as the metapodials, carpals, tarsals and phalanges, had the highest frequencies.

It is evident from studies that leopard skeletal remains would also be part of the faunal assemblage in caves inhabited by this species, although it is not a definite indication of their occupation. Leopards living in a cave may be represented by the

remains of either mature or young leopard individuals, that succumbed to anything from illness to accidental death and injury during hunting ². Two leopard cranial specimens and one leopard-sized $4th$ metatarsal were identified in the Kemp's Caves assemblage. Further excavations may yield more of these skeletal elements.

During excavations from 1992, a leopard have definitely resided at this site. With above mentioned evidence from the assemblage it is presumed that leopard was largely responsible for the bone accumulations at Kemp's Caves.

1.5.4 Humans as accumulating agent

Approximately 11% of the bones recovered from Kemp's Caves were severely burnt. The fact that veld fires only scorch the bone and does not enter the bone cavity may suggest human activity, because of their habit of cooking meat. The burnt specimens can, however, be modern, which might indicate that humans occupied Kemp's Caves only recently.

Klein suggests that carnivore and human accumulations can be separated by analyzing the carnivore: ungulate ratio. This is because carnivores more frequently feed upon other carnivores than man does. Thus the higher the ratio between carnivore and ungulate the better the chances that carnivores were responsible for the accumulation ¹¹⁴. Kemp's Caves show relatively few carnivore specimens which indicates a low carnivore (7.7%) : ungulate (86.8%) ratio (see Figure 4. 1). This may also signify human involvement.

Hyaenas do not generally form an association with humans, but it is possible that the carcasses have been scavenged from a settlement 2 . It can therefore be suggested that the evidence which points towards the absence of hyaenas during most of the caves' history, might implicate human presence. However, no stone tools

have been found, therefore Kemp's Caves have no concrete evidence to implicate human involvement.

Avery describes the Elandsfontein kill/butchery site (C10) as having a low density of artifacts, with or without a high number of formal tools. It is also recognized by sparse scatter of bones and limited evidence of carnivore activity ¹¹⁵. Kemp's caves has a low density of artifacts and almost no tools, but there are a number of facts that suggest carnivore activity. This may also be an indication of the absence of human activity.

1.5.5. Conclusion

Brain states that the process of bone accumulation depends greatly on the form of the cave itself, but that any cave that have been open for thousands of years is likely to have had bones brought in by a variety of ways ¹⁰⁹. Considering all the facts and evidence it is therefore suggested that all three agents (hyaena, leopard and human) were responsible for the accumulation of the faunal remains at either the same time, or different periods in the cave's history. Humans may, however, only have occupied Kemp's Caves during recent years.

The Sehonghong faunal assemblage is dominated by fish which suggest that either human or animal could have been involved in the accumulation of this site's excavated faunal specimens.

Regarding the taphonomy of the Klasies River Mouth site, Binford suggested that there was no concrete evidence for hyaena activity and leopard involvement is undetermined ²⁴. Klasies River Mouth also proved to have been inhabited by porcupines, but they did not substantially modify the character of the faunal assemblage 24. These results on bone accumulation coincide with the preliminary

results of Kemp's Caves.

Although there were other accumulating agents at work at Border Cave, it is clear that humans played a major role in this assemblage. The cave is only accessible from a narrow ledge which may have been for defence and security for these hominids.

1.6 Difficulties experienced in Stage 1

Several problems were encountered during the faunal analysis of Kemps' Caves. The consistency and accuracy of bone removal and excavation methods may have been compromised with the staff and students of two different Universities contributing to the faunal sample. Methods of screening and sorting may have been different and some important fragments may have been sorted as unimportant and discarded. Thus the archaeological activities resulted into the selective recovery or non-recovery of bones. Information regarding specimens, such as provenance, were sometimes inaccurate or missing. Some of the fragments excavated may also have been lost with the moving of specimens from the one university to the other.

Bone preservation can be influenced by several agents such as environmental factors and human activity factors. Processes that involve the movement and destruction of bone before they are finally formed into a deposit, may also give a distorted view of what really expired during the caves' history and development.

This faunal sample is only a fraction of the fossils that may still be excavated at Kemp's Caves. The deductions based on this sample may not be as accurate as the whole representative sample that maystill be excavated.

The faunal sample of Kemp's Caves was relatively small in relation to sites such as Sterkfontein and Makapansgat. With only a limited amount of specimens

being identifiable as well as the fact that a large number of specimens were without a provenance, it was difficult to ascertain differences in older and younger deposits.

Excavations are still ongoing at Kemp's Caves and the Northern extension specifically has not been ESR dated. Almost half of the specimens analyzed came from this extension which may contain more modern material. An abundance of fossilized breccia in the roof, floor and walls also still need to be removed and dated.

The area surrounding the Kemp's Caves site has been part of the Ngonyama Game Reserve for the past 40 years. Species that do not occur here naturally may have been introduced by the Game Reserve. An example is Antidorcas marsupialis (Springbok). The distribution of this species does not normally include the Kemp's Caves area. All Springbok specimens were fairly modern and may indeed have been the result of the introduction of this species to the Game Reserve.

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. Stage 2 entailed the acquiring of measurements for possible osteometric identification of bones. This included the collecting of data as well as the development of a computer programme using these measurements for identification purposes. The measurement data were statistically analyzed to ascertain whether osteometric identification of bones may be viable .

2.1 Measurements

Approximately 18 000 measurements were taken of 30 Southern African bovid species. Forty-five measurements represented the three hind limb long bones which included the femur, tibia and metatarsal. The data was obtained from the skeletal collections of the National Flagship Institution (Pretoria), National Museum

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(Bloemfontein) and the South African Museum (Cape Town). Although most measurements were pre-defined, a few were developed by the author. Almost all the pre-defined measurements were easily measured, while some of the new measurements were more difficult to acquire on all species. These measurements include the T(GDTN), F(SBCF) and F(GBCF) and will be discussed below.

Student's t-tests were done to establish whether a specific species would differ from the species within the same Bovid size class. This was done for every measurement on all three long bones. The result was values representing the average of the specific species, in comparison to the average of all the species within the same Bovid size class. Tsessebe showed no significant differences with any of the measurements, but this may be due to the fact that there was only one specimen available for measurement.

2.1.1 Femur

The femur measurements showed a high percentage of values which significantly differed within the size classes (see Figure 4.9). No femoral measurements showed significant differences within the Bovid I size class. This may be the result of the relatively small sample sizes of the different Bov I species. Due to the limited number of measurements available for the statistical testing, the mean may be less accurate for the specific measurement. Additional skeletal collections of other institutions worldwide, may yield a larger sample size and may clarify this issue.

The Bov II, III and IV size classes showed little significant differences in the Femur (Smallest Breadth Condylar Fossa) and Femur (Greatest Breadth Condylar Fossa) measurements. These measurements indicated the size of the condylar fossa of the femur. It was, however, difficult to obtain these dimensions and they did not

show any particular pattern during data collection. It could not be established where the greatest or smallest measurements of the condylar fossa would be on each individual specimen. Every individual specimen within the same species showed a variance. Although these measurements were used in this study, it might be of less significant value in osteometric differentiation in future studies.

The Bov II class showed no significant differences in the Femur (Smallest Breadth Diaphyses) measurement. Thus the smallest breadth of the diaphyses of these species did not differ significantly to distinguish between them. The F(SBD) was, however, significantly different within the Bov III and IV size classes.

2.1.2 Tibia

None of the tibial measurements of the Bov I size class showed significant differences (see Figure 4.10). This correlates with the femoral measurements and may be due to the same reasons as discussed above. The smallest breadth of the tibial shaft also showed no significant differences between the species of the Boy II size class, while this measurement was notably significant with the Bov III and IV size classes. The Tibia (Greatest Depth Tibial tuberosity from Notch) measurement was developed during the course of this study to ascertain the depth of the tibial tuberosity which might have shown significant differences by reflecting the strength of the muscle attaching to this tuberosity. The T(GDTN) measurement appeared to have no significant differences within the species of Bovid size class I, II and IV. The T(GDTN) was, however, a predicting measurement in the regression analysis and did proved to be of significant value in the Bov III size class. Further analysis of this measurement may shed more light on its effectiveness in osteometric identification. Gemsbuck, Sable and Blue Wildebeest showed no differences in any of the length

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measurements of the tibia, which might have implications in the computer programme when only these measurements are available on a specimen of either of these species.

2.1.3 Metatarsal

The measurements of the metatarsal showed significant differences in almost all Bovid size classes (see Figure 4.11). Bov I size class showed significant differences in only some of the metatarsal measurements. No significant differences can be seen in any of the greatest lengths, the superior articulating facets or the Metatarsal (Greatest Breadth Distal Extremity). A larger sample size may adjust these results, but presently the metatarsal is the only bone in this study which may be indicative of the different species in Bov I. The Metatarsal (Smallest Breadth Diaphyses) showed significant differences within the Bov \I class, in comparison with the femur and tibia diaphyses which showed no significant differences in their breadth measurements. Thus the metatarsal is the only hind limb long bone that will differ sufficiently to distinguish between the Bov II species with regards to the diaphyseal breadth . Further research may shed light on this interesting result. The Metatarsal (Greatest Medial Length) showed very little difference between the species in the Bov III group. Black Wildebeest and Gemsbuck particularly showed little significant differences in the metatarsal measurements. Further studies may shed light on this aspect. Again, the fact that there was only one Tsessebe specimen available for measuring may account for the fact that there were no significant different metatarsal values observed for this species.

2.1.4 Regression analysis

A regression analysis was done to establish measurements with a high probability of being good predictors of the three hind limb long bones (see Table 4.9). As deducted from the t-tests, it can be seen that there are only one femoral and three tibial measurements which are predictors for the Bov I size class. This size class is best identified by measurements of the metatarsal. Bov II, III and IV size classes showed that almost every measurement taken on the femur, tibia and metatarsal could be used for osteometric identification. Most of the measurements developed by the author showed a high probability to be predictive in osteometric identification.

2.1.5 Index calculation and analysis

Three indices were calculated for respectively the femur, tibia and metatarsal. In Figures 4.12 to 4.14, it can be seen that there is a large area of overlap between most of the species on all three bones. The indices are indicative of the robusticity of the specific bone. There are, however, a few species which could be identified purely on their index values if the Bovid size class were known. In Bov III the metatarsal index will clearly identify Waterbuck as it had the highest robusticity value. Sitatunga had the smallest robusticity values of the femur and tibia, with very little overlap (especially on the tibia), if at all. These two indices are therefore very important indicators for this species. The Buffalo showed the most robust bones of all the species. In all three indices it showed almost no overlap, not even with the Eland. These robusticity values can therefore be an important element in the identification of Buffalo remains.

With further studies and a larger specimen database specific values might prove to be important in identifying the different Bovid size classes.

2.2 Development of programme

The programme was developed for the '97 version of Lotus Smartsuite. Three probability values were calculated by the programme on information supplied by the supporting database of measurements. Measurements on 30 bovid species yielded a vast amount of information which were used to metrically distinguish between bovid species. These calculations included the Identification Percentage Probability (lPP), Fractional Percentage Probability (FPP) and Element Percentage Probability (EPP). The programme reacts when only one measurement is entered, but is accuracy increases as more measurements are entered. The EPP may give a misleading probability value when only a few measurements are entered by the user, while the IPP is a weighted value which take into account how many measurements have been entered.

A "MORE INFO" option is available which may assist with further identification of a specimen. The distribution map, for example, can be used to distinguish between similar size species, with different distributions in the Southern African region. Blesbok and Bontebok, for example, are skeletally very similar, but have diverse natural distributions in the Southern African region. The habitat and diet of these species are of importance in the process of faunal analysis.

It was decided to use the median value, rather than the mean, in the computerized database to counteract the extreme measurement values that some of the individual specimens exhibited. A larger sample size of measurement values will better represent the average measurement and the mean value may therefore be more accurate in future studies.

Presently Lotus Smartsuite is still necessary to run this programme. Further

development may yield an independent computer programme for the identification of bones.

Even though this is a pilot programme in conceptual phase, there are infinitely more possibilities and applications through programmatic refinements and restructuring such as the use of only the measurements which showed significant differences. However, a larger specimen database is necessary for more accurate osteometric identification. Complex mathematical techniques to analyse metrical data is commonly used with human material, but seldom with faunal remains $81,82,83$.

.3 **Difficllrties experienced in .stage J**

All measurements frequently used in faunal analysis $72,92,93$, (defined by several authors) as well as measurements considered to demonstrate species differences, were obtained from the femur, tibia and metatarsal. This was only a pilot study and it was therefore decided that approximately 15 measurements on a single skeletal element will be sufficient to test the viability of osteometric identification of bones, The femur, tibia and metatarsal were respectively represented by 14, 15 and 16 separate measurements. There may, however, be additional measurements which were not collected in this study which can be vital for inter species differentiation, Further investigation may yield extra measurements which may prove to be more significant. Measurements used in this study may also prove to be insignificant in species differentiation.

Although 34 Southern African bovid species were identified for this study, there were four species which were not represented by any of the skeletal collections. These species included Dik-Dik (Madoqua kirkii), Sharp's Grysbuck (Raphicerus sharpe/), Puku (Kobus vardonil) and Lichtensteins Hartebeest

(Sigmoceros lichtensteinii). Skeletal fragments that belong to any of these species will therefore not be represented in the measurement database.

The small sample size of certain species did not clearly represent the morphological characteristics of that species. Extreme cases included Tsessebe (one specimen), Suni and Sitatunga (two specimens each) as well as Roan and Klipspringer (three specimens each). The small sample sizes also necessitated that the male and female specimens had to be pooled for statistical analysis. This might have affected the testing of the programme in Stage 3.

Reproducibility of the measurements, for example the T(GOT), may hinder accuracy. The T(GOT) gives an indication of the size of the tibial tuberosity. Sometimes it may be difficult to allocate certain points where the measurement needs to be taken from. These measurements did prove to be significantly different, and was listed as predictors of the tibial measurements, but may depend on the experience of the analyst. Additional statistical analysis may give a better indication as to which measurements are true predictors. With this information the user would know which measurements will be of greater value for accuracy.

Lotus Smartsuite may prove to have limited use in further studies. Further development may provide an independent computer programme, which will be written specifically according to specifications obtained from this study. Presently it is essential that the user have access to Lotus Smartsuite to utilize the Osteo-IO CO.

3. 51AGE 3 -1 E5fI NG

Stage 3 comprised of the testing of the computer programme developed in Stage 2. Ten Kemp's Caves specimens, which were conventionally analyzed by

comparing the fragment to its modern skeletal part, as well as ten modern skeletal elements not used in the database, were utilized to test the accuracy and viability of the developed programme.

3.1 **Results**

Only 20% of the Kemp's Cave specimens were correctly identified (see Figures 4.17 to 4.26). Nine of the ten had the conventionally identified species on the chart (in other words indicating it as a possibility) while one specimen, LKC/93/23 (Impala tibia), did not show it at all. This specimen was, however, an unfused distal extremity of the tibia which indicated that it belonged to a juvenile or sub-adult individual. No juvenile or sub-adult individuals were measured for the development of the programme, which explains the absence of the species on the identification chart.

The Kemp's Caves specimens were identified by the author by means of conventional analysis and by an independent expert, but the identifications may still have been inaccurate. The small sample sizes of some of the database species may also have influenced the results. Because only a few measurements were available on these fragmented specimens, it may also indicate that some measurements may not be sufficient for osteometric identification. The IPP and EPP values differed Significantly with these test specimens because of the small quantity of measurement available on each fragment.

The modern collection specimens (3 femur, 3 tibia and 4 metatarsal) were that of known species and were complete. All measurements could be obtained from these bones, thus the EPP and IPP values were equivalent. Only 30% of the specimens showed the correct species as having the highest FPP value when all measurements were entered (see Figures 4.27a to 4.36a). All the other identification

charts included the correct species, but it had the second or third highest FPP value. The IPP values of all these species, however, were always high, thus indicating a good identification, although it did not have the highest FPP. This could be due to the fact that in a lot of cases a large number of species had measurements which fell within the median value, which in turn affected the FPP values. The results changed, however, when only certain measurements were entered into the developed programme (see Figures 4.27b to 4.36b). The results increased to a 60% accuracy rate when only proximal measurements were entered and a 40% rate when only the shaft measurements were entered (see Table 4.20). This suggests that the proximal measurements of all three long bones may prove to be more important in osteometric identification of animal bones. Further research may shed light on this result. Although the metatarsal measurements showed significant differences in all the Bov size classes, the accuracy rate dropped to 0% (all measurements entered, and only distal measurements entered) with the metatarsal test specimens. This 0% indicated that it was not identified as the most probable species, but it was, nevertheless, listed as one of the species on the identification chart. It did, however, increase to a 50% accuracy rate with only shaft or proximal measurements.

Even though these results seem unsatisfactory, it should be kept in mind that this was only a pilot study. A variety of external factors may have influenced the data collection and programme development. This include the small sample sizes of the database specimens. The database sample size also decreased due to the fact that the male and female specimens had to be combined. This fact may therefore give a false reflection, if the majority of a sample was either sex. In order for a positive identification to be obtained, the entered value should fall within a range which is

presently a fluctuation of 10% either side of the median. If the database sample size increases, the current range of 10% may be dropped to 5% or less, which may result in higher **FPP** values, because fewer species will fall within the median range.

It is therefore the opinion of the author that with further research into the correct measurement collection, and a larger database, computerized osteometric identification of bones will definitely prove to be of value for faunal analysis.

3~ **Difficll\'ties e xperienced in 5toge 3**

The few measurements available from the test material of the Kemp's Caves and modern collection specimens could have given a distorted or misleading accuracy rate. More specimens in further research may adjust the accuracy rate. Another excavation site with a larger sample of test specimens could also prove to be more informative.

Although indices were calculated for the three long bones, it was not incorporated in the database, and did therefore not have an influence on the identifications of the species. Although there were overlap of most species, there were certain species which could have been positively influenced by the index value. Further development of the programme should include index values.

Conclusion 226

I. SfAGE 1- FAUNAL ANALY5I5

 \rightarrow The 34 macro-mammalian species that were identified in the faunal sample, show correlations with that of other sites with similar dates such as Rose Cottage Cave, Klasies River Mouth and Border Cave. Although Kemp's Caves have not yet produced any hominid remains (except modern human material), it may still yield important specimens which might shed light on the evolution of Anatomically Modern Humans .

 \rightarrow One extinct species, Equus capensis, was identified. This species became extinct between 10 000 BP and 12000 BP, which corresponds with the youngest ESR date of Kemp's Caves .

 \rightarrow The faunal analysis did not contradict the earlier ESR dates, but ongoing excavations and analysis might assist in further date confirmations.

 \rightarrow All species identified (except E. capensis) either occurred here in the past or still occurs in the Kemp's Caves area. This suggests that the environment did not change drastically over the last 100 000 years .

 \rightarrow The faunal analysis suggests that porcupine, hyaena, leopard and man may have been responsible for the bone assemblage and accumulations at different stages of the cave's development. The most likely was a combination between hyaena and leopard.

Cone/usion 227

~. **SfAGE J - MEASUREMENfS**

 \rightarrow A total of 18 000 measurements were taken from 30 South African bovid species represented by the modern skeletal collections of three South African museums. A total of 14, 15 and 16 measurements were respectively taken on the femur, tibia and metatarsal.

 \rightarrow Most measurements taken on the three long bones showed varied significant differences within the Bov II, III and IV size classes. Bov I, however, only showed significant differences in the metatarsal measurement values. Index values showed to be significant in identification for specific species within a Bovid size class .

 \rightarrow The developed programme calculated three different percentage probabilities to assist in the osteometric identification of bones.

3. SfAGE3-fESfING

An accuracy rate of 20% was obtained for Kemp's Caves specimens. These specimens were, however, exceedingly fragmented and only a few measurements were available on each specimen.

 \rightarrow An accuracy rate of 30% was the result of the modern collection test specimens. This rate, however, increased to 60% with only proximal measurements entered and to 40% with only shaft measurement entered.

 \rightarrow The use of the computer programme was, however, only a pilot study and further research on a larger sample for the database, more significant measurements, better statistical analysis and further refinements and restructuring of the programme may yield better results.

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Appendix A - Femur

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Appendix A contains the raw measurements taken on the femur of 30

Southern African Bovid specimens from the Transvaal, National and South African

Museums. It also includes the mean, median, standard deviation and minimum and

maximum values for each measurement.

Each individual specimen is abbreviated as follows:

ABBREVIATION FOR MUSEUM:

- $P \rightarrow$ Transvaal Museum specimen - Pretoria (Archaeozoological collection)
- $K \rightarrow$ South African Museum specimen - Cape Town (Mammal collection)
- $B \rightarrow$ National Museum specimen - Bloemfontein (Florisbad collection)

TABLE 4.5: Key to abbreviations to bovid species (alphabetical).

Appendix A - *Femur* 241

TABLE 3.6: Femur measurements

• Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

 \triangleq Measurements defined by Peters 92

• Measurements defined by Walker⁹³

I Measurements developed by the author

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Appendix B - Tibia

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APPENDIX B - TIBIA 医体周膜体周膜体周膜体周膜体周膜体周膜体周体周

Appendix B contains the raw measurements taken on the tibia of 30 Southern African Bovid specimens from the Transvaal, National and South African Museums. It also includes the mean, median, standard deviation and minimum and maximum values for each measurement.

Each individual specimen is abbreviated as follows:

ABBREVIATION FOR MUSEUM:

 $P \rightarrow$ Transvaal Museum specimen - Pretoria (Archaeozoological collection)

- South African Museum specimen Cape Town (Mammal collection) $K \rightarrow$
- $B \rightarrow$ National Museum specimen - Bloemfontein (Florisbad collection)

TABLE 4.5: Key to abbreviations to bovid species (alphabetical).

Appendix B - *Tihi4* 273

TABLE 3.7: Tibia measurements

 \blacklozenge Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

 \blacksquare Measurements defined by Peters 92

 \bullet Measurements defined by Walker 93

I Measurements developed by the author

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Appendix C - Metatarsal

Appendix C contains the raw measurements taken on the metatarsal of 30 Southern African Bovid specimens from the Transvaal, National and South African Museums. It also includes the mean, median, standard deviation and minimum and maximum values for each measurement.

Each individual specimen is abbreviated as follows:

ABBREVIATION FOR MUSEUM:

Transvaal Museum specimen - Pretoria (Archaeozoological collection) $P \rightarrow$

- South African Museum specimen Cape Town (Mammal collection) $K \rightarrow$
- National Museum specimen Bloemfontein (Florisbad collection) $B \rightarrow$

TABLE 4.5: Key to abbreviations to bovid species (alphabetical).

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Appendix C - Metatarsal

◆ Measurements defined by Von den Driesch⁷²

Measurements defined by Peters⁹²

• Measurements defined by Walker⁹³

I Measurements developed by the author

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Appendix C- \tilde{z} 449 tarsal

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