- Food or fur? Native American use of sea otters (*Enhydra lutris*) on the Oregon coast prior
- to European contact and extirpation.
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- Hannah P. Wellman*
- Department of Anthropology
- University of Oregon
- Eugene, OR 97403
- hpw@uoregon.edu
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- *corresponding author
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Abstract

Indigenous peoples on the Pacific Northwest Coast have shared coastal landscapes with sea otters since time immemorial. Sea otters were driven to near extinction in the 19th century fur trade, and despite reintroduction attempts, remain locally extirpated in Oregon. Renewed interest in sea otter reintroductions to Oregon has prompted study into the precontact sea otter population. Oregon archaeologists agree that tribal ancestors used sea otters, but detailed studies of use, including whether sea otters were processed for pelts, dietary consumption, or alternate purposes have not been systematically pursued. This study presents a zooarchaeological cutmark analysis of sea otter remains (N=2992) from two Late Holocene archaeological sites in northern Oregon: Palmrose (35CLT47) and Par-Tee (35CLT20). Analysis of cutmark patterns on sea otter bones (N=899) indicate that sea otters were primarily skinned for their pelts, and additional processing activities are proposed and discussed, including meat removal for dietary consumption, cleaning of bones for tool manufacture/obtaining sinew, and possible feeding of domestic dogs. These results affirm tribal assertions of deep-time human-sea otter relationships and use on the Oregon coast prior to extirpation.

Keywords

Sea otter, cutmark, Oregon, butchery, skinning, pelts, subsistence, human-animal

- relationships, coastal archaeology
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Introduction

Sea Otters on the Northwest Coast

 \sim Sea otters were driven to near extinction on the Pacific Northwest Coast in the 19th

- century due to the maritime fur trade. While sea otters previously ranged along the
- Pacific Rim from Japan to northern Mexico, the species is now restricted to parts of
- Russia, Alaska, British Columbia, Washington, and California (Bodkin 2015). In the
- United States, sea otter populations in Alaska, Washington, and California receive federal
- protection under the Endangered Species Act (ESA) and Marine Mammal Protection Act

(MMPA). Sea otter reintroductions to Oregon in 1970 and 1971 failed (Bodkin 2015) and sea otters are considered extirpated and listed as "threatened" under the Oregon Endangered Species Act. Sea otters are of interest to diverse stakeholders in Oregon today, and are considered an ecological priority due to their role as a keystone species within kelp forest ecosystems (Estes and Palmisano 1974) and a provider of ecosystem services (Foster et al. 2021; Gregr et al. 2020). Restoring sea otters to the Oregon coast is the goal of the recently reestablished Elakha Alliance, initially founded by Confederated Tribes of Siletz member Dave Hatch (Hall 2019). Reflecting these conservation priorities, studies of archaeological Oregon sea otters have sought to provide historical ecological data to inform future reintroduction efforts (Lyman 1988; Valentine et al. 2008; Wellman 2018; Wellman et al. 2020). Sea otters are culturally significant to Native American, First Nations, and Alaska Native groups who reside along the Northwest Coast (Burt et al. 2020; Ibarra 2021; Salomon et al. 2015; 2018). Precontact sea otter hunting and use has been described in the archaeological and ethnographic record for some regions and communities (e.g., the Tlingit by Moss [2020]), but detailed zooarchaeological data are lacking for the Oregon coast (Hall 2019, 117). Oregon archaeologists and historians concur that sea otters were important based on their predominance in Oregon faunal assemblages (Hall 2019) and tribal knowledge (Elakha Alliance 2022), but archaeologists have not consistently reported use patterns. Moss and Losey (2011, 186) recommended detailed zooarchaeological analyses to gain an understanding of sea otter use, but little progress has occurred since the time of their writing. The precontact socio-cultural details of sea otters on the Oregon coast remain unaddressed: how, why, and when were tribal ancestors using sea otters, and what can the archaeological record tell us about the nature of the human-sea otter relationship in the coastal Oregon landscape?

Current Study

I present the analysis of cutmarked sea otter remains from two archaeological sites

located in the town of Seaside on the northern Oregon coast (Figure 1) to determine

whether sea otters were processed for pelt removal, dietary consumption of meat, and/or

additional purposes. A core premise of this study is that sea otters have always been an

important resource for Indigenous societies throughout the Pacific Northwest Coast. Several Oregon tribes (Confederated Tribes of Siletz Indians, Confederated Tribes of Coos, Lower Umpqua, and Siuslaw Indians, and the Coquille Indian Tribe) are involved with the Elakha Alliance and reintroduction efforts (Goodell 2020; Elakha Alliance 2022). This research affirms tribal assertions that the reintroduction of sea otters to Oregon would be a rekindling of a long human-animal relationship disrupted by colonial incursion and ecological exploitation by Euro-Americans (Elakha Alliance 2021; 2022). The results of this study indicate that the inhabitants of the Palmrose and Par-Tee sites were skinning sea otters for their pelts prior to European contact. Sea otter meat may also have been removed from parts of the skeleton for occasional dietary consumption and other activities, but the cutmark patterns indicate sea otters were acquired first and foremost for their pelts. Sea otters were clearly an important animal well before European contact occurred and the Euro-American fur trade began.

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- Figure 1. Map showing location of the Seaside (Palmrose and Par-Tee) sites on the
- Oregon coast. Made in ArcMap 10.0/Adobe Illustrator; data from Natural Earth, U.S.
- Census Bureau, Esri, DeLorme, HERE, and MapmyIndia.
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Ethnographic Background

At Euro-American contact, the Seaside area was home to the Penutian-speaking Clatsops (Deur 2016) and likely the Salish-speaking Nehalem Tillamook (Jacobs 2003, 2; Ray 1938). Today, the descendants of these groups are represented by the Confederated Tribes of the Grande Ronde, Confederated Tribes of Siletz Indians, Confederated Tribes of Clatsop-Nehalem, and The Chinook Indian Nation (Deur 2016; Johnson 2013, 5). Lewis and Clark interacted with coastal and lower Columbia tribes and frequently wrote about sea otters and their pelts (Lewis and Clark 2005; Ray 1938; Sauter and Johnson 1974). The Salmon River Tillamook (located on the north-central coast) reportedly used both river and sea otter for clothing and bedding, but neither for food (Zobel 2002, 309). Sea otter skins were highly valuable and coveted (Sauter and Johnson 1974, 53) and associated with noble status and birth (Lewis and Clark 2005; Ray 1938). Tillamook shamans reportedly kept their powers in a bag made from sea otter skin (Sauter and Johnson 1974, 120). Verne Ray (1938, 7:114) noted "early writers speak of sea otter robes in use by the Chinook but [not] whether they used the flesh for food or not" and whether "humans ate sea otter meat is ambiguous." Vernon Bailey (1936, 305) noted that sea otters can "become very fat and are reported by some to be good eating and by others as not fit for human food," similar to contradictory information Moss reported from Tlingit informants (2020, 213).

Clara Pearson, a Nehalem Tillamook informant interviewed in the early 1930s, did not list sea otter as a food source (Jacobs 2003, 95) but recounted stories and myths including sea otters (Pearson 1990). For example, the story "The Invisible Husband" references Seaside as the location where "all those men went sea-otter hunting" (Pearson 1990, 20). "The Round Trip of Ice" describes a sea otter hunt with Ice and his men; they encounter a "[…] sea otter that was different looking. It was a sea otter all right but it had a white face" (Pearson 1990, 3). The men, unable to strike the sea otter, follow it back to the village where they find a young woman who looks just like the sea otter and the weapons the men had unsuccessfully fired. These stories and others indicate that sea otters were important symbolically and economically, and were non-human persons/agents within the lower Columbia River landscape.

Previous Archaeological Cutmark Research

To determine if Tlingit ancestors were processing sea otters for dietary consumption, Madonna Moss (2020) compared cutmarked elements of seals (animals processed for food) to cutmarked elements of sea otters from archaeological sites near Angoon, Southeast Alaska. Working with Sealaska Heritage Institute, she received permission to observe a Tlingit hunter, Kyle Barry, as he skinned a sea otter hunted under the MMPA. Moss obtained the resulting sea otter carcass and examined the cleaned bones for cutmarks left by the skinning (Table 1). Moss (2020) reported cutmarks on sternabrae, a rib, radii, an ulna, a metacarpal, an innominate, a femur, a fibula, a calcaneus, and metatarsals. Moss (2020, 215) concluded that cutmarks on the archaeological sea otter mandibles, tarsals, metatarsals, tibiae/fibulae, and ulnae/radii reflected skinning; cutmarks on the femora/humerii were a result of pulling limbs away from the pelt during skinning, and cutmarks on scapulae, vertebrae, innominates, and ribs resulted from obtaining backstrap muscle for dietary consumption by dogs and possibly humans. An important methodological lesson from Moss's analysis was that "typical" patterns of cutmarks and their assigned functions, e.g., Binford's (1981) experimental caribou study, were not necessarily applicable to sea otters, and that skinning resulted in cutmarks in unexpected areas following zooarchaeological conventions (Moss 2020, 216). For example, the sea otter skinned by Mr. Barry was cutmarked on metatarsals, consistent with conventional typologies (Binford 1981), but also on the innominate and femur, which are not (Moss 2020, 213).

22 Val and Mallye (2011) conducted an experimental skinning study in which taxidermists skinned small carnivores (Eurasian badgers, stone and pine martens, a polecat, red foxes, and a weasel). Val and Mallye (2011) reported high numbers of cutmarks on the cranium, mandible, tarsals, metatarsals, phalanges, ulna/radius, tibia/fibula, and a few cutmarks on an innominate and ribs (Table 1). Val and Mallye (2011, 237) noted that forepaws and caudal vertebrae may remain in the fur upon removal from the skeleton, so archaeological assemblages missing forepaws and caudal vertebrae may indicate that animals were skinned and the pelts containing the forepaws/caudal vertebrae were deposited elsewhere. While Val and Mallye's study was performed by modern taxidermists, it is a useful comparison when considering cutmarks

- 1 on fur-bearing mammals (e.g., West and Yeshurun's [2019] archaeological study of
- 2 Alutiiq fox use on Kodiak Island also follows Val and Mallye's results; Table 1).
- 3
- 4 **Table 1.** Cutmarked elements and inferred functions in previous studies.

- 5
- 6 Lyman (1991) recorded cutmarked sea otter remains from three coastal Oregon
- 7 sites, two of which are discussed here: Umpqua-Eden (35DO83) and Seal Rock
- 8 (35LNC14). Lyman sketched and described each cutmark and categorized them by
- 9 function following Binford (1981) and Howard (1973; 1975). Lyman (1991) categorized

cutmarks to innominates, tibiae, tarsals, and metatarsals as pelt removal, cutmarks to

joints like mandibles, humerii, radii/ulnae, innominates, femora, tibiae, and tarsals as

disarticulation, and cutmarks to scapulae, innominates, and longbone diaphyses as meat

removal/fileting (Table 1). Cutmarks categorized by Lyman as dismemberment and

filleting may not have been a result of dismemberment/filleting, but from different

aspects of the skinning process, as discussed by Moss (2020) and Val and Mallye (2011).

In conclusion, prior experimental studies (Moss 2020; Val and Mallye 2011) attributed cutmarks on the ribs, sternabrae, radii/ulnae, carpals, metacarpals, innominates, femora, tibiae/fibulae, tarsals, metatarsals, and phalanges to skinning/pelt removal (Table 1). Cutmarked elements not attributed to skinning in the experimental studies include the

vertebral column, scapulae, humerii (Moss 2020; Val and Mallye 2011), ribs,

12 innominates, and femora (Val and Mallye 2011).

Materials and Methods

Archaeological Materials

The sea otters analyzed in this study come from the Palmrose (35CLT47) and Par-Tee (35CLT20) sites, coastal shell mounds excavated between 1967 and 1977 at Seaside, Oregon (Phebus and Drucker 1979). The sites were excavated by Robert Drucker and 19 George Phebus and their volunteers in \sim 1.5 \times 1.5 m (5 \times 5 foot) units in arbitrary \sim 30 cm (one-foot) levels. Unit depths varied from 1.4—3m (Sanchez 2021). All sediments were screened over 1/4-inch mesh (Phebus and Drucker 1979).

Today, Palmrose is located approximately one mile inland, but prior to contact was located on a bay or estuary which has since in-filled (Connolly 1995; Darienzo 1992). This environment is reflected in the terrestrial, marine, and riverine species present in the Palmrose faunal assemblage (Colten 2015) and likely enabled the transport of otherwise large species found in the site (e.g., whales, dolphins, sea lions) via boat (Ames 2002; Loiselle 2020; Wellman 2021). Recent analysis has refined the Palmrose 28 site occupation to beginning ~2295-2005 cal BP (345-55 cal BC) and terminating ~1725-1610 cal BP (cal AD 225-340) (see Sanchez [2021] for further discussion). Palmrose contained evidence for a plank house floor (Phebus and Drucker 1979) and an abundance of salmon (Greenspan and Crockford 1992; Sanchez, Gobalet, and Rick 2020) suggestive of a year-round occupation (Sanchez 2021).

Par-Tee dates to 1850-1150 cal B.P. (Sanchez et al. 2018) and is located close to the shoreline (~200 m at present, likely closer pre-contact; Losey and Yang 2007). The Par-Tee faunal assemblage is dominated by marine species (Colten 2015; Sanchez, Gobalet, and Rick 2020) including small and large cetaceans (Loiselle 2020; Losey and Yang 2007; Wellman et al. 2017). Unlike the house floor at Palmrose, Phebus and Drucker (1979) reported temporary structures at Par-Tee. Seasonality has not been determined. The Palmrose and Par-Tee artifact assemblages have not been fully analyzed but both contain a variety of lithic and bone tools (Connolly 1992; Losey 2021) including

chert scrapers and knives which would likely have been using for skinning activities. The artifact and faunal assemblages are curated at the National Museum of Natural History (NMNH), Washington, D.C., and the University of Oregon Museum of Natural and Cultural History (MNCH), Eugene.

Methods

In brief, I identified sea otter bones from a subsample of 34 Palmrose and 63 Par-Tee excavation units, respectively. This differs from Moss [2020] and Lyman [1991], both of whom analyzed all sea otter remains from their respective study sites. NMNH and MNCH collections were analyzed in the summers of 2019 and 2020, respectively. Sea 22 otter bones were examined under 0.63 —2x magnification with a high-intensity oblique light source (following Moss [2020] and West and Yeshurun [2019]) to identify cutmarks. Cutmarks were described and/or photographed, and most cutmarks on longbones were sketched onto schematic drawings from Post (2006). I consulted the muscular anatomy of the sea otter forelimb and hindlimb described by Howard (1973; 1975) as well as a dog anatomy textbook (Budras et al. 2007) to identify possible fascia "targets" of the cutmarks to infer function.

I calculated the % NISP of total cutmarked skeletal elements (e.g., 739 of 2024 specimens exhibited cutmarks at Par-Tee, or 37%). I also counted cutmarked longbones based on the locations of the cutmarks (distal, proximal, or on the diaphysis, or some

- combination thereof, e.g., 5 radii cutmarked distally, or 2 femora cutmarked proximally).
- While % NISP cutmarked does not account for fragmentation (Abe et al. 2002; Lyman
- 2008), longbone location counts do while also assessing the "anatomical distribution of
- cutmarks" (Lyman 2008, 285).
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Results

Number of Identified Specimens and Element Representation

- I identified 968 sea otter specimens from 34 Palmrose units, for which humerii provided
- an MNI of 22 (15 adults and 7 juveniles). I identified 2024 sea otter specimens from 63
- Par-Tee units; femora provided an MNI of 54 (30 adults and 24 juveniles). Vertebrae,

11 ribs, and metatarsals are the three most abundant elements ($\%$ NISP) at both sites (Figure

- 2). At Par-Tee these elements are followed by femora, phalanges, and innominates, and at
- Palmrose by phalanges and humerii (Figure 2). Both sexes are represented at both sites:
- males by bacula and females indirectly by pups under weaning age. Additional
- zooarchaeological results, including juvenile aging criteria, are described in Appendix A;
- zooarchaeological data table is Appendix B.
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- Figure 2. Sea otter element abundance (% NISP) in Palmrose and Par-Tee samples.
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- While vertebrae, ribs, and hindfoot elements (metatarsals and phalanges) exhibit a high abundance these elements are underrepresented if we consider the remains of 22 and 54 MNI sea otter carcasses (assuming complete preservation) in the Palmrose and Par-Tee samples, respectively (Figure 3). Forefoot elements are extremely underrepresented,

likely due to the small size of these elements and poor *in situ* archaeological recovery

- techniques, or the removal of the forepaws along with the pelt (Val and Mallye 2011,
- 237). The lack of forefoot elements, combined with the substantial underrepresentation of
- caudal vertebrae at both Palmrose and Par-Tee (Figure 3), may indicate pelts were
- removed and then deposited outside the excavated areas of the site.
- Conversely, innominates, femora, and humerii do not exhibit a high abundance
- (Figure 2) but are well-represented assuming complete preservation (Figure 3).
- Innominate specimens were highly fragmented which likely accounts for their apparent
- over-representation, while femora, humerii, and other longbone elements were
- fragmented to lesser degrees (see Appendices A and B).
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Figure 3. Percent of expected sea otter elements in the Palmrose (22 MNI) and Par-Tee (54 MNI) samples, respectively.

- The Palmrose sample contained 160 cutmarked specimens, or 17% NISP cutmarked;
- 11% of juvenile elements and 18% of adult elements are cutmarked. When calculated by
- element, innominates dominate % NISP cutmarked (Figure 4), followed by tibiae/fibulae
- (driven by tibiae), humerii, femora, and tarsals (driven by calcaneii/astragali). The Par-
- Tee sample contained 739 cutmarked specimens (37% NISP cutmarked): 28% of juvenile
- 22 specimens and 38% of adult specimens are cutmarked. Humerii and femora dominate %
- NISP cutmarked, followed by tibiae/fibulae (driven by tibiae), ulnae, tarsals (driven by
- calcanei and astragali), and metatarsals (Figure 4). Detailed descriptions of cutmark
- patterns for each element are available in Appendix A; cutmark data table is Appendix C.
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Figure 4. Percent NISP (% NISP) cutmarked of each element in the Palmrose and Par-Tee assemblages.

To better understand the distribution of cutmarks across the skeleton, I counted the number of longbone locations exhibiting cutmarks (Lyman 2008, 285). The Par-Tee longbone sample is depicted in Figure 5a. More femora and humerii are cutmarked on the proximal/distal ends and diaphyses relative to other elements. Proximal and distal femora are cutmarked in roughly equal numbers, while more distal humerii are cut (N=53) 13 relative to proximal humerii $(N=22)$. More distal tibiae are cutmarked $(N=25)$ than proximal tibiae (N=7). Conversely, proximal radii and ulnae are both cutmarked in higher numbers (N=12 and N=18, respectively) than distally (N=3 and N=8, respectively).

The Palmrose longbone sample is depicted in Figure 5b. Overall, distribution of cutmarked Palmrose longbone locations is roughly equal across the skeleton (Figure 5b), unlike the Par-Tee sample in which large numbers of proximal femora and distal humerii were cutmarked (Figure 5a). Similar to Par-Tee, the Palmrose humerii exhibit the most diaphysis cutmarks (N=8) and slightly higher numbers of proximal femora and distal tibiae are cutmarked relative to other locations on these elements.

Figure 5. Sea otter skeleton with total cutmarked longbone locations from the Par-Tee (a) and Palmrose (b) sample tallied and diagrammed. Circle size and color corresponds to

number of elements cutmarked at a given location (proximal, distal, diaphysis).

- Illustration by Keeley Davies.
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Discussion

- *Skinning and Pelt Removal*
- Palmrose and Par-Tee sea otters (both adult and juvenile) were skinned for their pelts.
- Evidence for skinning includes cutmarks at locations recorded in the Moss (2020) and
- Val and Mallye (2011) experimental studies (Table 2; Appendix A). Both the Palmrose
- and Par-Tee samples contain cutmarked mandibles, ribs, sternabrae, radii/ulnae,
- metacarpals, innominates, femora, tibiae/fibulae (especially distal tibiae at Par-Tee),
- tarsals (especially astragali and calcaneii), metatarsals, metacarpals, and phalanges (Moss
- 2020; Val and Mallye 2011).
-
- **Table 2.** Elements cutmarked from skinning in the Moss (2020) and Val and Mallye
- (2011) experimental studies and the Palmrose and Par-Tee samples.

Radii and ulnae in Val and Mallye's (2011) study were cutmarked in areas where fascia are absent on the diaphysis, as well as parts of the olecranon process and radial head. Cutmarks are found in some of these locations on the Palmrose and Par-Tee radii/ulnae as well as in additional locations lacking musculature (Howard 1973) suggesting skinning. In Moss's (2020, 212) observation of the skinning process, the sea otter's forelimbs were drawn in towards the body, making them difficult to work around as Mr. Barry removed the pelt. Cutmarks to the proximal radius/ulna may reflect the difficulty of prying the pelt away from the elbow joint. Although neither Val and Mallye (2011) nor Moss (2020) recorded cutmarks to the distal humerus, the frequency of cutmarked distal humerii at Par-Tee may be related to the quantity of cutmarked proximal ulnae (Figure 5a) and prying the pelt from the elbow. Moss (2020, 211) determined cutmarks to the hip joint (left femoral head and right innominate) occurred when Mr. Barry applied leverage to pull the pelt away from the skeleton. Val and Mallye (2011, 232) also recorded two cutmarks to an innominate although this was rare. Processing of the hip joint is typically associated with butchery and meat removal (Binford 1981; Lyman 1991, 199) but following these recent experimental studies, skinning may account for some of the cutmarks to innominates and proximal femora at Palmrose and Par-Tee.

To summarize, cutmarks to the mandibles/maxillae, ribs, sternabrae, radii/ulnae, metacarpals, innominates, proximal femora, fibulae, distal tibiae (especially at Par-Tee),

tarsals (especially astragali and calcaneii), metatarsals, metacarpals, and phalanges in the

Palmrose and Par-Tee samples are likely skinning cutmarks (Table 2).

Non-Skinning Cutmarks

Cutmarked elements not attributed to skinning in the experimental studies include the vertebral column, scapulae, humerii (Moss 2020; Val and Mallye 2011), ribs,

innominates, and femora (Val and Mallye 2011). Following Moss (2020, 215) cutmarks

to vertebral processes and ribs are from stripping the backstrap muscle for meat or

disarticulating the axial skeleton. Palmrose and Par-Tee scapulae are infrequently

cutmarked, but always on the ventral surface, which may reflect removal of the entire

forelimb from the rib cage as opposed to the shoulder joint. Lyman (1991, 321) and Moss

(2020) attributed scapulae cutmarks to filleting and disarticulation, respectively. The

humerii at Palmrose are cutmarked evenly across element locations (Figure 5b), while

more humerii at Par-Tee are cutmarked on the diaphysis and distally (Figure 5a).

Cutmarks to the elbow joint elements at Par-Tee may indicate disarticulation (Binford

1981; Lyman 1991) or skinning, while proximal and diaphysis humerii cutmarks could

reflect disarticulation or meat removal (Lyman 1991; Val and Mallye 2011; West and

Yeshurun 2019). Moss (2020) attributed archaeological femur cutmarks to skinning and

innominate cutmarks to backstrap removal. However, innominates in the Palmrose/Par-

22 Tee samples and femora in the Par-Tee sample have a higher % NISP cutmarked than the

archaeological sea otters in Moss's (2020) study. The femora at Palmrose and Par-Tee are

cutmarked on the diaphysis, proximally, and distally (especially at Par-Tee), often on the

femoral neck and at the gastrocnemius origin (Figure 6).

Figure 6. A distal femur cutmarked on and around the medical gastrocnemius insertion

- 3 origin (L) and a proximal femur cutmarked on the femoral neck (R). Scale in cm:
- Palmrose units NE1J-3 and SE1M-3.
-

These cutmarks may reflect processing activity at the hip and knee joints, such as

- dismemberment or meat removal.
- To summarize, cutmarks to the vertebrae, innominates, femora, and humerii at

Palmrose and Par-Tee may infer meat removed, but was this for consumption by

- humans?
-

Evaluating Dietary Consumption

An unpublished sea otter meat utility model (Lucy Lewis Johnson, personal

communication to Madonna Moss 2016) can help to evaluate the meat yield of elements

given expected abundances (Figure 3) and % NISP of cutmarked elements (Figure 4) at

Palmrose and Par-Tee. According to the model, vertebrae, innominates, femora, and

17 humerii are ranked $1st$, $3rd$, $7th$, and $12th$, respectively.

- Despite being ranked first, vertebrae are underrepresented at both sites and less frequently cutmarked, particularly at Palmrose (Figures 3 and 4). Innominates are ranked third, but representation at both sites is driven in part by fragmentation (Appendix A and B). Innominates are also the most frequently cutmarked element at Palmrose but only at 22 \sim 40% NISP cutmarked (and ~35% at Par-Tee; Figure 4). Femora are ranked 7th in the meat utility model, have high representation and % NISP cutmarked at Par-Tee (Figure 4), and seem the most likely of the elements discussed to reflect meat removal for dietary
- purposes, yet may still reflect pelt removal following Moss (2020). Humerii are well-
- represented at both sites (Figure 3) and frequently cutmarked at Par-Tee (~70%; Figure
- 27 4) but have a low ranking $(12th)$. The humerii at Par-Tee are also overwhelmingly

cutmarked distally as opposed to proximally (Figure 5a), which may correspond with 2 difficulty removing the pelt from the elbow following Moss (2020).

 δ 3 0ther elements highly ranked in the meat utility model include tibiae (4th) and 4 metatarsals $(5th)$. The tibiae at Par-Tee in particular are cutmarked distally at locations strongly indicative of skinning (Lyman 1991; Val and Mallye 2011; West and Yeshurun 2019). Metatarsals could have been processed for meat but are either poorly represented (as at Par-Tee; Figure 3) or infrequently cutmarked (as at Palmrose; Figure 4). A relatively large percentage of expected ulnae and radii are present in the samples but 9 these elements have very low meat utility rankings $(13th$ and $14th)$.

The meat utility model provides an additional framework with which to assess dietary consumption of sea otter meat, and I suggest best explains the processing of the sea otter hip joints and axial skeleton for meat removal. However, the elements with highest meat utility rankings are generally not the most well-represented (vertebrae, ribs, metatarsals) and/or most frequently cutmarked (innominates, scapulae) elements in the Palmrose and Par-Tee samples, which might be expected if meat removal for dietary consumption were a priority and/or being optimized.

It is possible that highly ranked and under-represented elements were processed for meat removal and discarded outside of the excavated site area, and/or that cutmarks were simply not made during processing. At the Nah-so-Mah (35CS43) site in Bandon, Oregon, bones of an individual sea otter were found and re-assembled from within a single excavation unit (Hall 2001). While some units at Palmrose and Par-Tee contain multiple elements that could be from a single sea otter, the stratigraphic resolution is poor and it is not currently feasible to determine whether sea otter carcasses were discarded intact or in discrete portions after skinning or dismemberment (see Appendix A). Neither the Palmrose nor Par-Tee samples contain zooarchaeological evidence for cooking sea otter (only four specimens are burned). The Chinook and Tillamook reportedly boiled meat in containers/trenches using hot rocks and roasted meat in earth ovens (Jacobs 2003, 76; Ames and Sobel 2013, 135). These methods, if used prior to contact, would not leave evidence of cooking on the bones.

Sea otter meat could have been consumed opportunistically to avoid waste or at times when preferred prey items were unavailable or scarce, although other key resources

(cetaceans, elk, pinnipeds) would have been available to the Palmrose and Par-Tee 2 inhabitants throughout the year (Colten 2015, 273; Greenspan and Crockford 1992, 164; Wellman 2021). Habitation may also have been adequately supported by salmonid capture/storage at Palmrose and supplementation by other fishes (Sanchez, Gobalet, and Rick 2020) and shellfish (Greenspan and Crockford 1992, 164). Sea otter processing appears to have "intensified" at Par-Tee relative to Palmrose in terms of % NISP cutmarked (Figure 4). If Par-Tee was indeed a temporary/seasonal encampment, perhaps this intensification reflects targeted acquisition of the species for their pelts at that location near the coast, and/or removal of meat for dietary consumption as provisions at a shorter-term, activity-specific campsite.

Beyond Pelts and Meat

While cutmark patterns suggest sea otters were hunted primarily for their pelts and possible dietary consumption, other processing activities may result in similar cutmark patterns. In Moss's (2020) experimental study Mr. Barry removed the pelt whole, but we should not expect all societies to skin sea otters with the same goals or outcomes. A carcass that is divided prior to skinning, for example, would result in cutmark patterns that may be confused for disarticulation and meat removal following conventional typologies. Attempting to skin just a forelimb or hindlimb, for example, would change points of entry and leverage angles and leave cutmark patterns reflecting multiple stages of processing. Sea otters are large animals, and pieces of a pelt could yield enough material to trim items of clothing or accumulate quickly over hunts to sew larger items. Sea otter robes were often described as two skins sewn together (Drucker 1951; Lewis and Clark 2005; Ray 1938) but Ray (1938, 7:137) also reported robes made with strips of sea otter pelt "twisted and woven by twining with thin, strong cords." The latter method would not necessarily require an intact pelt.

Other activities resulting in cutmarks might include the removal of tendons and ligaments to dry and make sinew for sewing, or to clean bones to use for tool manufacture. The removal of fascia would leave cutmarks in locations traditionally associated with disarticulation or muscle removal on the bones. For example, cutmarks observed on the ventral surface of ~50% of vertebrae in the Palmrose and Par-Tee

- samples (Appendix C; Figure 7) cannot be a result of skinning or backstrap removal, but
- could result from severing the anterior longitudinal ligament which helps to stabilize the
- length of the vertebral column (Budras et al. 2007) to either breakdown the skeleton or
- remove sinew.
-

Figure 7. A lumbar vertebra cutmarked on ventral aspect. Scale in cm, Palmrose unit SE3B-4.

To date, no systematic analysis of the artifact assemblages from the Palmrose or Par-Tee sites have been undertaken, but sea otter bacula were used for tool manufacture at Par-Tee (Robert Losey, personal communication, 2019). Other artifacts in the site were manufactured from whale (Losey and Hull 2019) and elk bone (Losey and Yang 2007). Some sea otter elements, like the robust and compact radii and ulnae, could have been useful raw materials for tool manufacture, and future research into the artifacts at Palmrose and Par-Tee should be pursued to determine if additional sea otter remains were used.

Feeding Domestic Dogs?

Moss (2020) reported large amounts of carnivore gnawing on the archaeological sea

otters in her study, and suggested that sea otters may have been fed to Tlingit dogs. The

- Palmrose and Par-Tee samples contained small amounts of sea otter exhibiting carnivore
- 23 tooth punctures and gnawing, \sim 1.4% and \sim 3.7%, respectively (likely an undercount as
- other taphonomic signatures made toothmarks or gnawing difficult to identify). It is

unknown if domestic dogs were living at these sites, but Colten (2015, 262) reported "canids" at Par-Tee (NISP=18, MNI=1) and a notable number at Palmrose (NISP=93, MNI=2). Other carnivores are poorly represented in the Palmrose sample: racoon (*Procyon lotor;* NISP=1), black bear (*Ursus americanus*; NISP=3), and unidentified carnivora (NISP=21) (Colten 2015, 262; Greenspan and Crockford 1992, 128). Par-Tee units containing gnawed elements are dispersed across the site, but at Palmrose, excavation units containing gnawed elements are primarily located in or adjacent to the house feature (within ~3m) with a concentration to the east of the north house wall (Figure 8). According to the ethnographic record, Tillamook dogs were trained to help in game drives (Sauter and Johnson 1974, 80) and skilled dogs were called "elk charmers," capable of charming an elk to stand still (Jacobs 2003, 75). Dogs were also human companions, and possibly "sanitation workers," eating trash and refuse (Mack 2015, 65–

66). Chinook dogs were reportedly allowed indoors (Ray 1938, 7:117). Boas (1898, 30)

recorded a Tillamook story in which men shoot a sea otter and arrive at a village where

the chief accuses them of shooting his dog which he had "sent across the sea to hunt elk."

This story affirms Tillamook dogs as hunting partners and also presents an intriguing

juxtaposition of sea otters and dogs. If dogs were important hunting partners and

companions precontact, perhaps marine mammals (including sea otters) were hunted,

processed for human use and leftover meat and/or bones given to the dogs. If dogs were

indeed living indoors, this may explain the presence of gnawed sea otter specimens

within and adjacent to the Palmrose house feature.

Figure 8. Palmrose excavation units (orange) containing gnawed sea otter elements in relation to house feature (shaded outline). Map adapted from Connolly (1992).

Archaeological domestic dogs in coastal Oregon have not been extensively studied, but dogs are documented at the lower Columbia River site of Cathlapotle (45CL1) where they were selectively fed a diet of marine resources, potentially eulachon and other fish (Ames et al. 2015). Domestic dogs are also documented further north, such as the prized wool dogs of the Salish Sea region (McKechnie, Moss, and Crockford 2020). At Namu in British Columbia dogs also had a diet dominant in marine resources (Cannon, Schwarcz, and Knyf 1999). Further south, dogs in a Chumash site in the Channel Islands ate primarily marine food items compared to the generalized diet of the endemic carnivore in the area: the island fox (Rick et al. 2011).

While speculative, the juxtaposition of sea otters and dogs in the Tillamook tale is interesting, and while gnawing percentages are low overall, the proximity of gnawed sea otter remains to human living areas suggest studies of coastal Oregon domesticated dogs represent a rich avenue for future research. Future ancient DNA and isotopic analyses should clarify whether the canids at Palmrose were indeed domesticated, and whether their diet reflected the diversity of both marine and terrestrial food items found at the site, or if the dogs were intentionally provisioned marine foods like at Cathlapotle and other Northwest Coast sites.

Human-Sea Otter Relationships

Anthropologists have criticized the tendency to consider animals passive actors, relegated to fulfilling functional roles as sources of subsistence, prestige, and/or symbolic values (Noske 1993; Shanklin 1985). In the case of fur-bearing mammals such as sea otters, this functional value is usually a source of pelts and furs (Overton 2016). While by no means comprehensive, select Chinook and Tillamook ethnographies and legends referenced below are indicative of human-sea otter relationships beyond an economic function. Sea otter pelts were powerful and associated with wealth, but sea otters were also considered non-human persons, inter-married with humans, and in at least one story transformed into a human or vice versa. The persistence of these relationships in stories illustrates their significance from time immemorial through the present, and demonstrates the unique character of Oregon Coast Native Americans' relationships with sea otters.

In the tale "The Round Trip of Ice" a human female takes sea otter form (or vice versa) and evades hunting (Pearson 1990, 3). Otters (sea, river, or undifferentiated) had associations with shamans. Bags made of sea otter skin held a shaman's spirit powers (Sauter and Johnson 1974, 120) which were extremely powerful (Boas 1898, 33). The Southwest Wind had a quiver made of otter skin (Sauter and Johnson 1974, 120, 125). George Wasson of the Coquille tribe recounted a story of a woman who married a sea otter. She and her husband sent a beached whale ashore each year as a gift to her family, explaining "the special meaning of a beached whale" and accounting "for why the Coos and Coquille would not hunt sea otters" (Moss and Wasson 1998, 189; Toelken and Wasson 1998, 189). Sea otter pelts were deeply associated with wealth, and worn by those of high or noble status (Ray 1938; Lewis and Clark 2005). In the story "Moon's Winter Dance" told by Clara Pearson, the high status Moon hosts a dance to which "Every kind of person came by himself" (Pearson 1990, 150). Guests like Bracelets, Dentalium, and "Those Tanned Sea Otter Hides that only very wealthy people wear came" (Pearson 1990, 150).

Forepaw bones and caudal vertebrae are underrepresented in the Palmrose and Par-Tee samples, possibly a result of forepaws and tails being removed with pelts (Val and Mallye 2011). Slade et al. (2021, 2) note that sea otter pelts were "curated, accumulated, and handed down across generations" following ethnographic descriptions of First Nations in British Columbia. If forepaws and tails were removed with pelts at

Palmrose and Par-Tee, the persistent under-representation of these elements throughout the midden samples may be an archaeological indication that such pelt curation (and concern with passing down pelts as status/wealth) was occurring prior to Euro-American arrival on the Oregon coast, and should be considered in future zooarchaeological analyses.

In terms of ecological relationships, sea otters may have been a competitor for human resources on the Oregon coast prior to their extirpation. While sea otters were hunted primarily for their pelts, an additional benefit may have been managing sea otter populations to prevent over-consumption of invertebrate prey also harvested by humans, such as clams, mussels, and sea urchins. The question of balance between sea otters, shellfish, and humans has been evaluated in the archaeological record of other regions of the Pacific Coast (Erlandson et al. 2008; McKechnie and Wigen 2011; Salomon et al. 2015; Slade, McKechnie, and Salomon 2021; Szpak et al. 2012) and maintaining this balance remains a concern for Indigenous peoples who share coastal landscapes with sea otters today (Burt et al. 2020; Ibarra 2021; Moss 2020; Salomon et al. 2018).

Conclusion

The archaeological remains of sea otters from the Palmrose and Par-Tee sites, coupled with available ethnographic evidence, demonstrates a human-sea otter relationship on the Oregon Coast before and after contact with Euro-Americans. The Indigenous inhabitants of the Palmrose and Par-Tee sites, the ancestors of tribal members living today, hunted sea otters for their pelts. They may also have processed sea otters to remove meat for dietary consumption by humans, to obtain raw materials like bone or sinew, and feed domestic dogs. The ethnographic record is contradictory regarding the dietary role of sea otters in precontact Oregon. Zooarchaeological evaluation in this study using element representation, cutmark frequency, and a meat utility model was ambiguous, but the hip joint and axial skeleton were the most likely to have been processed for meat. Sea otter meat consumption was probably opportunistic relative to other high value prey found in the assemblages like whale, salmon, sea lion, and elk (Colten 2015).

Future zooarchaeological work should include regular and consistent cutmark analyses of archaeological fur-bearing mammal remains to facilitate cross-temporal and geographic comparisons. To my knowledge, Lyman's (1991) study is the only prior Oregon zooarchaeological analysis describing detailed sea otter cutmark patterns. Precontact sea otter use may differ between societies, and descriptions of cutmark patterns from different regions of the Oregon coast would greatly improve overall understanding of sea otter use. It may also be helpful to revisit Lyman's (1991) and Moss's (2020) studies and evaluate their data with the meat utility model to see if highly ranked elements are better represented or more frequently cutmarked than in the Palmrose and Par-Tee samples. An experimental butchery study of a sea otter would also help to determine patterns resulting from skinning versus meat removal.

It is important to remember that sea otters fulfilled roles beyond the economic and utilitarian provisioning of fur and other resources. Sea otters were sometimes regarded as non-human persons inhabiting a shared landscape alongside Oregon Coast Native Americans, and/or as beings whose power was reflected by or embodied in their pelts. The deep-time data presented here affirm tribal assertions that the reintroduction of sea otters to Oregon would be a rekindling of a long human-animal relationship disrupted by colonial incursion and ecological exploitation by Euro-Americans. Future zooarchaeological work should strive to fully explore human-marine mammal relationships in the coastal archaeological record with special consideration for socio-ecological applications regarding ecological sovereignty, navigating conservation challenges, and understanding human-marine mammal relationships in the present.

Acknowledgments

Pamela Endzweig, Elizabeth Kallenbach, and Jon Erlandson at the Museum of Natural

and Cultural History at UO provided access to the Palmrose sea otters. Torben Rick,

Dave Rosenthal, Esther Rimer, Amanda Lawrence, and John Ossosky at the National

Museum of Natural History facilitated access to the Par-Tee/Palmrose sea otters and

comparative modern collections. Briece Edwards, Confederated Tribes of the Grand

- Ronde, suggested ethnographic sources. The undergraduate students of Madonna Moss's
- 2015, 2017, and 2019 zooarchaeology classes helped sort and label sea otter remains.
- Reuven Yeshurun patiently trained me many years ago how to identify cutmarks. I am
- extremely grateful to Stephen Dueppen and Madonna Moss, who generously provided

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Table A.1. Published AMS dates referenced in this paper.

Publication	Sample Type	Calibrated Date $\left($ cal BC/AD $\right)$	cal BP		
Sanchez et al. 2016	B one	cal AD 430-550	1520-1400 cal BP		
Sanchez et al. 2018	Bone	cal AD 100-800	1850 BP-1150 BP		
Sanchez 2021	B one	Initial Occupation: 345-55 cal BC	Initial: 2295-2005 cal BP		
		Terminal Occupation: cal AD 225-340	Terminal: 1725-1610 cal BP		

Zooarchaeological Analysis Results

Par-Tee Sea Otter Remains

- **NISP and MNI**
- Sixty three Par-Tee excavation units yielded a sample size of 2024 NISP and 54 MNI
- (calculated using right femora: 30 adults and 24 juveniles). Vertebrae, ribs, metatarsals,

femora, phalanges, innominates, and humerii are the seven most abundant elements in the

- sample (Figure A.1).
-

Figure A.1. NISP of sea otter elements in the Par-Tee sample.

Vertebrae are represented primarily by the robust centra and are easily identified. Only 39 complete ribs were found in this analysis, but the majority of fragments included the diagnostic proximal end. The sample is not dominated by small rib fragments, possibly due to lack of recovery during excavation or difficulty identifying small, undiagnostic fragments. Regardless, fragmentation does not appear to be driving abundance of the vertebrae and ribs in the sample. Approximately 50% of metatarsals are complete, and the remainder are primarily undiagnostic distal ends. Pes phalanges are largely complete. Large proportions (~70%) of femora and humerii are complete, as are roughly 54% of tibiae, 40% of radii, and 20% of ulnae. Innominates are heavily fragmented, and a substantial number of unfused, partial juvenile innominates (NISP=34) are likely driving this abundance. Fibulae (which are long and extremely thin) are represented by the robust medial malleolus and varying intact diaphysis. Similarly, the scapulae are represented by the robust glenoid fossae. Crania fragments other than maxillae are not present. The maxillae are fragmented and underrepresented (N=38) relative to the comparatively 21 robust mandibles (N=81), but 37 left upper $P⁴$ s and 38 right lower P₄s were reported in a previous analysis of all sea otter teeth in the assemblage (Wellman 2018:Table S1). The

- roughly equal representation of maxillary and mandibular teeth suggests that regardless
- of preservation, the cranium was processed and deposited.
-

Element Representation

While axial and hindfoot elements exhibit high NISP counts, these elements are

underrepresented if we consider the remains of 54 complete sea otter carcasses (assuming

- complete preservation). With 54 MNI, the sample should hypothetically contain 2700
- vertebrae, 1512 ribs, 540 metatarsals, and 972 phalanges, but 16% (N=440), 24%
- 9 (N=368), 33% (N=178), and 12% (N=114) of the expected totals are present, respectively
- (Figure A.2). When vertebrae are reported by type, the sample contains 34% of the
- expected totals of lumbar, 24% of cervical, 14% of thoracic, and 7% of caudal vertebrae.
-

 Figure A.2. Percent of sea otter elements expected in the Par-Tee sample, based on 54 MNI.

Femora, innominates, and humerii are present in quantities over or close to expected

totals (although due to fragmentation, especially of innominates, the actual percentage is

- likely below 100%; Figure A.2). Ulnae, radii, and tibiae occur at 55%-60% of the
- expected frequencies; these percentages may also be lower due to fragmentation.
- Forefoot elements are extremely underrepresented in the Par-Tee sample: only 1% of
- expected metacarpal totals are present (Figure A.2), and carpals/manus phalanges are
- absent.
-
- Juveniles at Par-Tee
- The Par-Tee sample contains a NISP of 240 juvenile specimens, and an MNI of 24
- (calculated using right femora). Juvenile femora, humerii, innominates, ulnae, and
- mandibles are most abundant (Figure A.3).
-

Figure A.3. Adult and juvenile sea otter element abundance (NISP) in the Par-Tee sample.

Determining ages of partial sea otter remains is difficult. I used the broad term "juvenile" to categorize elements missing one or both epiphyses, or in the case of the innominate, lacking fusion through the acetabulum. Using age criteria described in Nicholson et al. (2020), I determined age ranges for mandibles and maxillae: fourteen sea otters are aged ≤2 months old and eleven sea otters are aged ≤6.5 months old (Nicholson et al. 2020). Because the mandibles/ maxillae are fragmented and teeth are often missing, absolute ages could not be determined. These estimates are primarily limited to those based on the presence/absence of the lower deciduous premolars (pm3/pm4)/permanent molars 18 (M₁/M₂) and upper 1st deciduous premolar (pm⁴)/permanent molar (M¹). The majority of sea otter elements in the Par-Tee sample are fused or show adult dentition (Nicholson et al. 2020).

It is interesting to have so many juveniles in the sample and the age estimates (albeit approximate ranges) are informative. Sea otter pups are weaned on average at 6 months of age (Thometz et al. 2016), so the 2-6.5 month old pups in this sample would have been with or nearby their mothers and possibly hunted in association with the adult females.

Gnawing

The Par-Tee sample contains 27 specimens that exhibit carnivore tooth punctures and gnawing: one femur, one innominate, one humerus, five metatarsals, two phalanges, one rib, one sternabra, four tibiae, three ulnae, and seven vertebrae. This is likely an undercount, as other taphonomic signatures (wear/erosion/breakages) made toothmarks or gnawing difficult to identify. I noted several repeated irregular erosion patterns that, upon reflection, may have been gnawing. For example, I noted "divets" on the palmar and plantar surfaces of some distal metatarsals, as though they were ground between two canine teeth.

Pathology

The Par-Tee sample contained 34 specimens exhibiting pathologies: 11 vertebrae, a tibia,

and a femur exhibit signs of arthritis. Five metatarsals, six phalanges, one sternabrae,

three ribs, two tibiae, one radius, and one calcaneus show signs of active or healed

infection. An additional radius is badly misshapen, but the cause is unclear.

Element Representation: Spatial Distribution

In order to identify any spatial patterning in skeletal element representation, I re-

categorized elements based on their broader anatomical unit: cranium (teeth, mandibles,

maxillae), the axial skeleton (vertebrae, sacra, ribs, sterna/sternabrae), hindlimb

(innominates, femora, tibiae, fibulae), forelimb (scapulae, humerii, radii, ulnae), hindfoot

(tarsals, metatarsals, pes phalanges) or forefoot (carpals, metacarpals, manus phalanges).

I tallied the % NISP for each anatomical category within each excavation unit (Figures

S4-7).

 $\frac{1}{2}$

Figure A.4. Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in the excavation units of the 3 northeast quadrant of the Par-Tee site.

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6
7 **Figure A.5.** Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in the excavation units of the 8 northwest quadrant of the Par-Tee site.

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10

 $\frac{1}{2}$

Figure A.6. Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in the excavation units of the southeast quadrant of the Par-Tee site.

Figure A.7. Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in the excavation units of the southwest quadrant of the Par-Tee site.

All units except for five (NE12H, NE12I, NE2B, NE7D, NW21A) contained elements from three or more of the anatomical categories. Yet because these five units produced very small samples (NISP≤10), this likely accounts for the lack of element diversity. At Par-Tee, vertebrae and ribs are the two most abundant elements by NISP, and

- all units except one (SE6C, NISP=7) contain axial elements. Axial elements also make up
- a large portion of the unit NISP (almost half of units contain at least 50% or greater axial

elements). Several units deviate from the majority axial component, although this is also

- attributable to small sample size (e.g., units NW20A, NW21A, NE2B). Unit NE2B
- (NISP=3), for example, contains two humerii (right and left) and a rib fragment, skewing
- the forelimb representation for the unit.

Units NE12G and NE7B, however, do not appear to be skewed solely due to

sample size. Unit NE12G contains six phalanges as well as left metatarsals I-V, and unit

- NE7B contains three phalanges and left metatarsals I-III and V. The excavation levels
- were imprecise (~1 ft), so it is difficult to ascertain whether deposition of groups of
- matching elements like left metatarsals accurately reflect processing activity/deposition
- of single sea otters within a specific area of the site, but it is possible. Overall, however,

elements from a variety of anatomical units of the sea otter body appear to have been

- processed and deposited in units across the site without obvious patterning.
-

Palmrose Sea Otter Remains

NISP and MNI

Thirty four excavation units from the Palmrose site yielded a 968 NISP and 22 MNI

(calculated using right humerii [15 adults and 7 juveniles]). Vertebrae, ribs, metatarsals,

- phalanges, and humerii are the most abundant elements (Figure A.8).
-

Figure A.8. NISP of sea otter elements in the Palmrose sample.

Vertebrae are represented primarily by the robust centra and are easily identified. Only nine complete ribs are found in this analysis, but the majority of fragments included the diagnostic proximal end. The sample is not dominated by small rib fragments, possibly due to lack of recovery during excavation or difficulty identifying small, undiagnostic fragments. Regardless, fragmentation does not appear to be driving abundance of the vertebrae and ribs in the sample. Approximately 42% of metatarsals are complete, and the remainder are primarily undiagnostic distal ends. Pes phalanges are largely complete. 8 Large proportions of femora $(\sim 74\%)$ and humerii $(\sim 65\%)$ are complete, as are roughly ~50% of tibiae, ulnae, and radii. Innominates are heavily fragmented and are likely driving this abundance. Fibulae (which are long and extremely thin) are represented by the robust medial malleolus and varying intact diaphysis. Similarly, the scapulae are represented by the robust proximal articular ends. Crania fragments other than maxillae are not present. The maxillae are fragmented and underrepresented (N=14) compared to 14 mandibles (N=29), but eight left upper $M¹s$ and 13 right lower $M¹s$ were reported in a previous analysis of all sea otter teeth in the assemblage (Wellman 2018: Table S1). The roughly equal representation of maxillary and mandibular teeth suggests that regardless of preservation, the cranium was processed and deposited.

Element Representation

While axial and hindfoot elements represent high NISP counts, these elements are

underrepresented as at Par-Tee. With 22 MNI, the sample should hypothetically contain

1100 vertebrae, 616 ribs, 220 metatarsals, and 396 phalanges, but 24% (N=266), 20%

23 (N=125), 55% (N=121), and 20% (N=80) of the expected frequencies are present,

respectively (and these totals include fragmented/incomplete elements) (Figure A.9).

25 When vertebrae are reported by type the sample contains 38% of lumbar, 43% of

cervical, 23% of thoracic, and 11% of caudal vertebrae expected totals. Humerii and

ulnae are present in quantities over or close to expected totals (although due to

fragmentation the actual percentages are likely lower; Figure A.9). Femora, innominates,

29 tibiae, and radii are represented by $~60\%$ -75% of expected totals; these percentages may

also be lower due to fragmentation. Forefoot elements are extremely underrepresented in

- the Palmrose sample as at Par-Tee; only 2% of expected metacarpal totals are present
- (Figure A.9), and carpals/manus phalanges are absent.
-

Figure A.9. Percent of sea otter elements expected in the Palmrose sample, based on 22 MNI.

Juveniles at Palmrose

The Palmrose sample contains an NISP of 138 juveniles and an MNI of seven (calculated

using right humerii). Vertebrae, humerii, femora, and mandibles are the most abundant

juvenile remains (Figure A.10). There are no juvenile maxillae fragments, but five sea

12 otter mandibles are aged \leq 2 months old and seven are aged \leq 6.5 months old (Nicholson

et al. 2020). As at Par-Tee, juveniles are distributed throughout the site and co-occur with

adults, and the pups represented by mandibles are under or at weaning age (Thometz et

al. 2016).

Figure A.10. Adult and juvenile sea otter element abundance (NISP) in the Palmrose sample.

Gnawing

The Palmrose sample contains 35 specimens exhibiting carnivore tooth punctures or

gnawing: one baculum, three femora, seven metatarsals, two phalanges, two radii, four

ribs, one scapula, five tibiae, one ulna, and nine vertebrae. This is likely an undercount

for the reasons described with regards to the Par-Tee assemblage. Gnawed elements are

distributed throughout the site, including units within or in proximity to the house feature.

Pathology

The Palmrose sample contains 19 specimens exhibiting pathologies: 12 elements exhibit

signs of arthritis, while two metatarsals, two phalanges, one metacarpal, one rib, and one

fibula appear to show signs of active or healed infection.

Element Representation: Spatial Distribution

As at Par-Tee, axial elements are present in the majority of units (except for SW8L and

SW6D), and make up large proportions of the unit NISP (Figures S11-12).

Figure A.11. Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in excavation units of the NE and NW quadrants at Palmrose.

Figure A.12. Proportions of sea otter anatomical unit in excavation units of the SE and SW quadrants at Palmrose.

 sample.

Cutmarks on the Axial Skeleton

- Sterna and sternabrae at Par-Tee exhibit small nicks, which may be indicative of skinning
- and working the pelt away from the ribcage or vertebral column (Moss 2020, 212; Val
- and Mallye 2011). At Par-Tee roughly half of ribs exhibit cutmarks on the shaft; the other
- half exhibit cutmarks on the head and/or neck. Cutmarks on the rib shaft may result from

peeling the pelt away from the rib cage or stripping thoracic muscles. The rib head/neck cutmarks may reflect skinning or removing ribs from vertebrae. Vertebrae are cutmarked on processes or on the ventral centrum. Cutmarks to spinous processes may be the result of backstrap muscle removal (Figure A.14), while ventral cutmarks may be from rib removal or gutting the animal (Moss 2020, 215). The majority of vertebrae cutmarks at Par-Tee are located on the ventral centrum (Figure A.15). Moss (2020, 215) described a similar pattern in her data and suggested vertebrae cutmarks reflected butchering of the axial skeleton to obtain backstrap for either human or dog consumption. Pulling the pelt from the vertebral column would not make cutmarks through the backstrap to the spinous process, nor would skinning explain the ventral vertebral cutmarks (Val and Mallye 2011, 236).

-
- **Figure A.14.** A thoracic vertebra cutmarked at the base of the spinous process, possibly
- indicative of backstrap removal (scale in cm; Palmrose unit SE4D-3).
-

-
- **Figure A.15.** A lumbar vertebra cutmarked on the ventral centrum (scale in cm; Palmrose
- unit SE3B-4).
-

Cutmarks on the Forelimb

Scapulae at Par-Tee are cutmarked on the ventral blade surface at the edges of the subscapular fossa (origin of the subscapularis muscle) (Figure A.16). The cutmarks may have resulted from working under the scapula to separate it from the rib cage; cutmarks underneath the scapula are unlikely to result from skinning. Several humerii are cutmarked near the lesser tuberosity (insertion of the subscapularis). Taken together, these cutmarks may reflect efforts to sever the subscapularis and separate the humerus from the scapula. Humerii are cutmarked in various locations, particularly on or near the distal epiphyses. Multiple specimens are cutmarked above the anterior trochlea, as well as on/near the medial epicondylar ridge and foramen (Figure A.17). These cutmarks may reflect disarticulation of, or difficulty skinning around, the elbow joint.

- **Figure A.16.** A scapula cutmarked ventrally, on the edge of the subscapular fossa (scale in cm; Palmrose unit NE4C-3).
-

Figure A.17. A distal humerus cutmarked on the medial epicondylar ridge (scale in cm; Palmrose unit SE3C-5).

Radii and ulnae are also cutmarked in various locations, particularly on the proximal end. Radii are frequently cutmarked under the radial head and along the anterior/posterior diaphysis. Ulnae are frequently cutmarked on/near the olecranon process and on the medial fossa (insertion for multiple brachialis muscles). Some ulnae specimens are cutmarked on the posterior and medial diaphyses where Howard (1973) labeled muscles absent. Both elements exhibit infrequent distal cutmarks. The ulnae/radii cutmarks may reflect skinning, especially in places where fascia are not present (Val and Mallye 2011, 236). The bones of the forepaws (manus phalanges, metacarpals, and carpals) are underrepresented at Par-Tee, but several metacarpals exhibit cutmarks on the palmar surface and likely reflect skinning.

Cutmarks on the Hindlimb

Innominates are cutmarked in various locations. Repeated locations included the

- iliofemoral ligament attachments and the gluteus medius, obdurator externus, and
- pectineus muscle origins. These muscles and ligaments insert in the proximal femur.
- Approximately half of cutmarked innominates exhibit cutmarks on or near the
- acetabulum and may reflect leverage applied to the joint while skinning as described by

Moss (2020, 215). Muscle and ligament attachments around the acetabulum anchor the femoral head, so these cutmarks may also reflect disarticulation.

Femora are cutmarked on the diaphyses and epiphyses. Cutmarks on the proximal end are at muscle insertions (e.g., the greater/lesser trochanter). Femoral necks (the location of the iliofemoral ligaments) are frequently cutmarked (Figure A.18). Distal cutmarks are frequently superior to the lateral and medial condyles (on or near the gastrocnemius origin) (Figure A.18). Three femora are cutmarked on a distal condyle, which may reflect a knife slip during disarticulation or working the pelt away from the knee joint. Tibiae are cutmarked at various locations, especially distally (Figure A.19). Approximately half of cutmarked tibiae exhibit cutmarks on or immediately around the medial malleolus. Tendons and ligaments are present on the distal tibia underneath retinacula and may be severed for disarticulation or skinning (Val and Mallye 2011, 236). Fibulae are primarily cutmarked on the lateral shaft; two are cutmarked on the lateral malleolus. Cutmarks to the fibulae may be due to skinning (Moss 2020, 213; Val and Mallye 2011, 236).

-
- **Figure A.18.** A distal femur cutmarked on and around the medial gastrocnemius origin (L) and a proximal femur cutmarked on the femoral neck (R) (scales in cm; Palmrose
- units NE1J-3 and SE1M-3).
-

SE1N-6).

Cutmarks on the astragalus, calcaneus, and other tarsals likely reflect skinning (Val and Mallye 2011, 230), but may also be due to disarticulation following Binford (1981). One Par-Tee calcaneus has over 15 cutmarks on the posterior surface (Figure A.20), possibly reflecting efforts to sever the calcaneal tendon or difficulty working through the pelt at the ankle joint. Cutmarks on the phalanges and metatarsals likely reflect skinning (Val and Mallye 2011).

Figure A.20. Calcaneus exhibiting cutmarks on the posterior surface (scale in cm; Par-

Tee unit NE8F-6).

Cutmarks on the Cranium

-
- In the Par-Tee sample 29 femora, seven tibiae, four fibulae, 34 humerii, eight radii, and
- nine ulnae are cutmarked on the diaphysis. Following standard conventions (Binford
- 1981; Lyman 1991) these diaphysis cutmarks may reflect muscle removal from the
- element.

Femora and humerii are most frequently cutmarked at the proximal and distal ends (or both). A combined 46 femora are cutmarked at the proximal end and 36 are cutmarked distally. A total of 22 humerii are cutmarked at the proximal end and 53 are 4 cutmarked distally. Tibiae are cutmarked proximally $(N=7)$ and distally $(N=25)$. Conversely, 12 radii are cutmarked proximally and three distally; 18 ulnae are cutmarked proximally and eight distally. I totaled these cutmark locations and labeled a template of sea otter skeleton with the totals(Figure A.21). These groupings suggest that the hip, knee, elbow, and ankle joints were frequently processed relative to other joints. When the % NISP cutmarked is calculated by major joint, the hip (38%) and elbow (36%) joints actually rank below the ankle joint (42%) in overall processing (Figure A.22).

-
- **Figure A.21.** Sea otter skeleton with total cutmarked longbone locations from the Par-
- Tee sample (Table A.2). Circle size and color corresponds to number of cuts at location
- (proximal, distal, diaphysis). Illustration by Keeley Davies.
-

Figure A.22. Percent NISP of sea otter elements cutmarked in the Par-Tee sample (calculated by joint).

Some complete individual elements provide an additional impression of cutmark intensity. For example, 15 complete femora are cutmarked at both ends and eight are cutmarked at both ends and the diaphysis; 14 complete humerii are cutmarked at both ends and 4 are cutmarked at both ends and diaphysis. Tibiae, radii, and ulnae do not follow these patterns, instead exhibiting more cutmarks at the articular ends (either distal/proximal or both).

Par-Tee Cutmark Patterns

The Par-Tee sample yielded a notably high overall proportion of cutmarked specimens (37%). The humerii and femora are cutmarked in multiple regions and are overall more intensively cutmarked than the tibiae, ulnae, and radii (including when calculated by percentage [% multi, Table A.2] to account for the higher NISP of femora and humerii). Femora and humerii specimens are cutmarked on the diaphysis (which may indicate muscle removal, interpreted as "filleting" by Lyman [1991]) but there are more cutmarks to the distal and/or proximal epiphyses at the hip, elbow, and ankle joints (Figure A.21). The processing on the hip and elbow joints could indicate dismemberment (Binford 1981; Lyman 1991) or skinning (Moss 2020; Val and Mallye 2011). The processing at the ankle joint could also reflect both, but the distal tibiae cutmarks correspond to the cutmark activity recorded in that location by Val and Mallye (2011). A large proportion of tarsals at Par-Tee are cutmarked, corresponding with the distal tibiae cutmarks. The distal humerii and proximal radii/ulnae exhibit more cutmarks which could reflect

dismemberment or skinning; Moss (2020, 212) reported the forelimbs were pulled tightly

into the body requiring extra leverage at the elbow joint during skinning. These cutmarks

could also reflect efforts to remove the lower forelimb from the humerus. The axial

skeleton is cutmarked, possibly indicating backstrap/thoracic muscle removal, and the

- mandibles are cutmarked primarily in locations associated with skinning.
-

Cutmarks at Palmrose

Cutmark Sample

The Palmrose sample contained 160 cutmarked specimens, or 17% of the overall NISP:

11% of juvenile elements and 18% of adult elements are cutmarked. Fewer elements

(N=14) are cutmarked at Palmrose (compared to 20 at Par-Tee). There is an average of

- three cutmarks per specimen in the assemblage, (lower than at Par-Tee), and the highest
- average for a specific element is the average of five cutmarks per humerus, tibia, and
- ulna.
-

Figure A.23. Abundance (% NISP) of cutmarked sea otter elements in the Palmrose sample.

Cutmarks on the Axial Skeleton

- Sterna and sternabrae at Palmrose are not cutmarked. Roughly ~70% of ribs exhibit
- 22 cutmarks on the shaft and \sim 30% exhibit cutmarks on the head and/or neck. Cutmarks on
- the rib shaft may result from peeling the pelt away from the rib cage or stripping thoracic
- muscles. The rib head/neck cutmarks may reflect skinning or removing ribs from

vertebrae. Vertebrae are cutmarked on processes or on the ventral centrum. Cutmarks to

spinous processes may be the result of backstrap muscle removal, while ventral cutmarks

may be from rib removal or gutting the animal (Moss 2020, 215). At Palmrose, processes

and vertebral centra are cutmarked roughly equally.

Cutmarks on the Forelimb

Scapulae at Palmrose (like Par-Tee) are cutmarked on the ventral blade surface, often on the edges of the subscapular fossa. The cutmarks may have resulted from separating the scapula from the rib cage. Humerii are cutmarked at various locations including inferior to the caput, on the lateral diaphysis, anterior trochlea, and on/near the medial epicondylar ridge and foramen. Radii are cutmarked on the diaphyses but not on epiphyses. Ulnae are cutmarked proximally, distally, and on the diaphysis in roughly equal numbers. The ulnae/radii cutmarks at Palmrose do not exhibit clear patterning like at Par-Tee. Cutmarks to the radii may reflect skinning (following Val and Mallye 2011, 236), while the ulnae cutmarks may reflect skinning, filleting, or disarticulation. The bones of the forepaws (manus phalanges, metacarpals, and carpals) are underrepresented at Palmrose, but several metacarpals exhibit cutmarks on the palmar surface and likely reflect skinning.

Cutmarks on the Hindlimb

Innominates are cutmarked in various locations. Repeated locations include those described at Par-Tee, such as the iliofemoral ligament attachments and the gluteus medius. These cutmarks could reflect leverage applied to the joint while skinning following Moss (2020), or disarticulation of the hindlimb at the hip joint. Femora are cutmarked on the diaphyses and epiphyses in roughly equal numbers. Cutmarks on the proximal end are at muscle insertions (e.g. the greater/lesser trochanter). Femoral necks (the location of the iliofemoral ligaments) are frequently cutmarked. Distal cutmarks are frequently superior to the lateral and medial condyles (on or near the gastrocnemius origin). Tibiae are cutmarked equally across diaphyses and epiphyses. One tibia is cutmarked repeatedly along the anterior crest which may reflect disarticulation or skinning following Val and Mallye (2011, 234). Distal tibiae cutmarks are on/near the

- medial malleolus. One fibula is cutmarked proximally with small nicks, similar to Moss'
- experimentally skinned sea otter. Cutmarks on the astragalus, calcaneus, and other tarsals
- likely reflect skinning (Val and Mallye 2011), but may also be due to disarticulation
- (Binford 1981).
-
- Cutmarks on the Cranium
- The cutmarked Palmrose mandibles exhibit cutmarks on the lateral horizontal ramus,
- reflecting skinning. Maxillae fragments at Palmrose are not cutmarked.
-
- Cutmark Patterns on Longbones
- I categorized longbone cutmark locations for each Palmrose specimen (Table A.3).
- Unfortunately, the sample size of cutmarked elements at Palmrose is smaller than at Par-
- Tee, so patterns evident in the Par-Tee sample are not as clear in the Palmrose sample.
-

Table A.3. Cutmarks on Palmrose forelimb and hindlimb longbones based on location.

	Diaph	Prox	Dist	P D	P Di D	Di P	Di D	Total Diaph	Total Multi	%mult %diap	
Femur			າ ∸				0			22%	44%
Tibia	3		4				0			20%	40%
Fibula			0	0			0			0%	100%
Humerus	o		2	0			∸			14%	57%
Radius	3	0	0	0		0				33%	100%
Ulna	0		◠ ∸				0			29%	14%

From Palmrose, four femora, eight humerii, four tibiae, one fibulae, four radii, and one

ulnae are cutmarked on the diaphysis. Following standard conventions (Binford 1981;

Lyman 1991) these diaphysis cutmarks may reflect muscle removal from the element.

Distribution of cutmarked longbone locations at Palmrose is roughly equal when

visualized across the skeleton (Figure A.24), unlike the Par-Tee sample in which

proximal femora and distal humerii were more frequently processed (Figure A.21).

 $\frac{1}{2}$ Figure A.24. Sea otter skeleton with total cutmarked longbone locations from the Palmrose sample (Table A.3). Circle size and color corresponds to number of cuts at location (proximal, distal, diaphysis). Illustration by Keeley Davies.

- 6 When the % NISP cutmarked is calculated by major joint, the hip $(26%)$ and ankle $(21%)$
- appear to be slightly more intensively processed compared to the shoulder (12%), knee
- 8 (9%), and elbow/wrist $(7%)$ (Figure A.25).

Figure A.25. Percent NISP of sea otter elements cutmarked in the Par-Tee sample (calculated by joint).

Palmrose Cutmark Patterns

- 2 The proportion of specimens exhibiting cutmarks at Palmrose (17%) is smaller than that
- at Par-Tee (37%). Fewer specimens exhibit cutmarks on the diaphysis, although humerii
- and radii do exhibit slightly more on the diaphysis compared to the proximal/distal ends.
- Unlike at Par-Tee, femora, humerii, tibiae, radii, and ulnae do not exhibit high
- concentrations of cutmarks on the distal and proximal ends, and no single joint is
- intensively processed when visualized across the skeleton (Figure A.24). When
- calculated as % NISP cutmarked by joint, however, the hip and ankle do appear to exhibit
- relatively more processing (as at Par-Tee), which could indicate dismemberment (Binford
- 1981; Lyman 1991) or skinning (Moss 2020; Val and Mallye 2011). Mandibles at
- Palmrose are also cutmarked in locations consistent with skinning, and cutmarks on the
- axial skeleton may indicate backstrap/thoracic muscle removal.