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Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



Journal of Archaeological Science

journal homepage: http://www.elsevier.com/locate/jas



Dental microwear as a behavioral proxy for distinguishing between canids at the Upper Paleolithic (Gravettian) site of Předmostí, Czech Republic

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Canis familiaris Canis lupus Dog domestication Dietary behavior Dental microwear texture analysis Upper paleolithic/palaeolithic

ABSTRACT

Morphological and genetic evidence put dog domestication during the Paleolithic, sometime between 40,000 and 15,000 years ago, with identification of the earliest dogs debated. We predict that these earliest dogs (referred to herein as protodogs), while potentially difficult to distinguish morphologically from wolves, experienced behavioral shifts, including changes in diet. Specifically, protodogs may have consumed more bone and other less desirable scraps within human settlement areas. Here we apply Dental Microwear Texture Analysis (DMTA) to canids from the Gravettian site of Předmostí (approx. 28,500 BP), which were previously assigned to the Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf morphotypes. We test whether these groups separate out significantly by dietrelated variation in microwear patterning. Results are consistent with differences in dietary breadth, with the Paleolithic dog morphotype showing evidence of greater durophagy than those assigned to the wolf morphotype. This supports the presence of two morphologically and behaviorally distinct canid types at this middle Upper Paleolithic site. Our primary goal here was to test whether these two morphotypes expressed notable differences in dietary behavior. However, in the context of a major Gravettian settlement, this may also support evidence of early stage dog domestication. Dental microwear is a behavioral signal that may appear generations before morphological changes are established in a population. It shows promise for distinguishing protodogs from wolves in the Pleistocene and domesticated dogs from wolves elsewhere in the archaeological record.

1. Introduction

1.1. Dog domestication

Dog domestication is the earliest example of animal husbandry and the only domestication type thought to occur prior to the advent of agriculture (Clutton-Brock, 1995, 2016). It likely began as a series of mutualistic, proto-domestication processes; slow, non-deliberate shifts in the human-canid relationship over millennia (Coppinger and Coppinger, 2001; Galibert et al., 2011; Zeder, 2012; Thalmann et al., 2013; Morey and Jeger, 2015; Germonpré et al., 2018). Morphological and genetic data confirm that dogs (*Canis familiaris*) are descendants of Eurasian grey wolves (*Canis lupus*) (Wayne, 1986; Tchernov and Horwitz, 1991; Clutton-Brock, 1995; Vila et al., 1997; Coppinger and Coppinger, 2001; Morey and Jeger, 2015). Early human-wolf associations, indicative of shared resources and territories, date back several hundred thousand years (Galibert et al., 2011; Clutton-Brock, 2016). Osteological changes strongly suggestive of dog domestication do not appear, however, until the Aurignacian (Table 1). By 16,000-12,000 BP, domestic dogs were established and present at sites from Western Europe across Asia and into North America (Morey, 2010, 2014; Boudadi-Maligne et al., 2012; Larson et al., 2012; Thalmann and Perri, 2018). Purposeful burials are also evident by this time (Janssens et al., 2018). The beginning of this domestication process, however, remains a point of debate, with purported originations ranging from 15,000 to over 40,000 BP (Savolainen et al., 2002; Germonpré et al., 2009; Thalmann et al., 2013; Morey, 2014). Notably, the older end of this range is roughly coincident with the migration of *Homo sapiens* into Europe

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2020.105092

Received 27 October 2019; Received in revised form 22 January 2020; Accepted 23 January 2020 Available online 8 February 2020 0305-4403/Published by Elsevier Ltd.

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Table 1

Canid fossils identified as dogs in the Pleistocene-early Holocene (Greelandian) zooarchaeological record. Calibrated dates are prefixed with cal.

Locality	Age (BP)	Period	Primary source
Goyet Cave, Belgium	cal. 35,700	Aurignacian	Germonpré et al. (2009)
Razboinichya, Siberia	cal. 33,000	NA	Ovodov et al. (2011); Druzhkova et al. (2013)
Hohle Fels, Germany	29,800- 35,700	Gravettian	Conard and Bolus (2008); Camarós et al. (2016)
Předmostí, Czech Republic	cal. 28,500	Gravettian	Germonpré et al. (2017a)
Ulakhan Sular, Siberia	cal. 16,900	NA	Germonpré et al. (2017b)
Eliseevichi, Russia	cal. 16,500	Epigravettian	Sablin and Khlopachev, (2002)
Mezin, Ukraine	20,000-8000	Epigravettian	Benecke (1987); Pidoplichko (1998); Germonpré et al. (2009)
Mezhirich, Ukraine	14,500	Epigravettian	Germonpré et al. (2009)
Abri du Morin, France	cal. 14,700	Magdalenian	Boudadi-Maligne et al. (2012)
Bonn-Oberkassel, Germany	cal. 14,100	Magdalenian	Nobis, 1979; Street et al. (2015); Janssens et al. (2018)
Kesslerloch Cave, Switzerland	cal. 14,100	Magdalenian	Napierala and Uerpmann, (2012)
Ein Mallaha, Palestine	12,000	Natufian	Davis and Valla, (1978)
Saint-Thibauld, France	cal. 11,600	Epipaleolithic	Chaix, (2000)
Senckenburg, Germany	12,000-9000	Mesolithic	Degerbol (1961)
Danger Cave, Utah, USA	11,000	Early Archaic	Grayson et al. (1988)
Koster Site, Illinois, USA	cal. 9900	Early Archaic	Perri et al. (2019)
Stilwell II Site, Illinois, USA	cal. 9900	Early Archaic	Perri et al. (2019)

(Conard and Bolus, 2008). Animal domestication involves shaping and controlling the evolutionary pathway of another species; thereby reflecting a shift in the human psyche on its relationship with nature (Boudadi-Maligne et al., 2012; Jung and Pörtl, 2018). The timing of this first domestication process is important knowledge for understanding early *Homo sapiens* cognition, behavior, and ecology during the Last Glacial Period as well as for discerning the initial impetus for human-wolf interactions.

1.2. Morphological studies on dog domestication

Morphological and morphometric evidence of dog domestication includes tooth crowding, carnassial size reduction, snout length reduction and breadth expansion, sagittal crest reduction, differences in mandibular shape, orientation, and robusticity, paedomorphosis, and higher incidence of dentognathic pathologies (Germonpré et al., 2009, 2012; Ovodov et al., 2011, 2015b, 2017b). That said, the utility of such traits for distinguishing dogs from wolves has been strongly contested (Crockford and Kuzmin, 2012; Boudadi-Maligne and Escarguel, 2014; Morey, 2014; Drake et al., 2015; Janssens et al., 2016, 2019; Perri, 2016; Ameen et al., 2017). Some studies, for example, argue the Paleolithic protodog morphotype may reflect variability within and across wolf populations (Larson et al., 2012; Drake et al., 2015; Perri, 2016; Janssens et al., 2019).

Wolf morphological variation during the Pleistocene, while evident (Boudadi-Maligne and Escarguel, 2014; Meachen et al., 2016), remains poorly understood (Drake et al., 2015; Skoglund et al., 2015; Perri, 2016). Climate-induced environmental shifts, including changes in prey type, may have led to body size differences among late Pleistocene canids, producing distinct size gradients among sympatric or seasonally overlapping wolf populations (Leonard et al., 2007; O'Keefe et al., 2013; Sansalone et al., 2015; Flower, 2016). Modern and historic dog and wolf populations exhibit great breadth in body size (Losey et al., 2015) and morphology (Nowak and Federoff, 2002), and even recent historical dog populations are sometimes difficult to distinguish from wolves (Fisher, 2019).

These ambiguities can limit the utility of morphological variation among Pleistocene canids as evidence of domestication (Morey, 2010; Crockford and Kuzmin, 2012; Boudadi-Maligne and Escarguel, 2014). Further, domestication morphotypes can lag thousands of years behind the initial beginnings of the domestication process (Zeder and Hesse, 2000; Rossel et al., 2008; Outram et al., 2009; Larson et al., 2012) and related behavioral changes (Pendleton et al., 2018), making origination dates difficult to discern in the zooarchaeological record. We refer to these earliest purported dogs as protodogs, and recognize that they may represent either failed or successful examples of early wolf domestication (sensu Coppinger and Coppinger, 2001; Galibert et al., 2011).

1.3. Genetic studies on dog domestication

Vilá et al. (1997) placed dog genetic origins at 135,000 BP, but more recent studies suggest that initial wolf-dog population divergence occurred between 27,000 and 41,500 BP (Skoglund et al., 2015; Botigué et al., 2017). The Middle East (Gray et al., 2010; vonHoldt et al., 2012), East Asia (Leonard et al., 2002; Savolainen et al., 2002; Pang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2016) and Central Asia (Shannon et al., 2015) have each been suggested as potential epicenters for dog origin(s). Fossil records in those regions, however, are limited to the post-Last Glacial Maximum, around 13,000 years ago (Larson et al., 2012). Central Europe maintains the strongest uncontested early fossil record of dog domestication (Thalmann et al., 2013) and the presence of earlier, albeit contested, protodogs supports the genetic evidence for a middle or late Upper Paleolithic timeline (Thalmann et al., 2013; Skoglund et al., 2015; Botigué et al., 2017; Ciucani et al., 2019).

Genetic admixture, bottleneck events (Leonard et al., 2007; Pilot et al., 2014; Ersmark et al., 2016; Ciucani et al., 2019), and the geographic isolation of dog populations and subsequent phenotypic changes in dog breeds, through isolation and intensive breeding, complicates interpretations of genetic signals (Larson et al., 2012; Thalmann et al., 2013; Shannon et al., 2015). There are difficulties in distinguishing extant wolf species due to crossbreeding (Wilson et al., 2000) and ecotypic variability that can produce morphological, genetic, and isotopic differences (Pilot et al., 2012; Schweizer et al., 2015). Dog domestication may have occurred as a series of spatially disparate domestication (including failed) events (vonHoldt et al., 2012; Thalmann et al., 2013; Germonpré et al., 2015a; Skoglund et al., 2015; Frantz et al., 2016); a complicated admixture of newly forming dog and sympatric wolf populations (vonHoldt et al., 2012; Morey, 2014, but see Botigué et al., 2017). Dogs could even derive from a now-extinct lineage of wolves (Freedman et al., 2014; Larson and Bradley, 2014; Perri, 2016; vonHoldt and Driscoll, 2016).

These factors may limit the utility of genetic profiles as evidence of dog antiquity (Larson et al., 2012; Freedman et al., 2014; Marsden et al., 2016, but see the use of village dogs by Pendleton et al., 2018).

1.4. Potential behavioral differences related to diet

The first canids to enter human settlements (either purposely or brought in by humans) can be expected to have altered their diets compared to wild conspecifics. Such behavioral shifts could have occurred generations prior to the establishment of diagnostic morphological or genetic changes. The scavenging hypothesis of Coppinger and Coppinger (2001) suggests dog self-domestication occurred via scavenging, though they predicted a later, post-agricultural domestication. Human refuse exploitation is a learned behavior seen in free ranging dogs (Vanak and Gompper, 2009; Forsyth et al., 2014), and other canids, including coyotes, foxes and wolves today (Murray et al., 2015; Bateman and Fleming, 2012; Forsyth et al., 2014). It is unclear whether Paleolithic campsites contained enough surplus or refuse to entice invasive wolves (Lupo, 2017; Germonpré et al., 2018; Jung and Pörtl, 2018), but scavenging efficiency of protodogs may have been encouraged as a means of site management by removing refuse from occupation sites (Coppinger and Coppinger, 2001; Russell and Twiss, 2017).

1.5. Evidence of bone consumption by dogs

Domestication would have decreased inherent fear of humans in protodogs and facilitated consumption of human-accumulated prey carcasses by dogs compared to wild carnivorans (Butler and Du Toit, 2002). Scavenging, unless early access (e.g., kleptoparasitic), should lead to increased bone breakage and consumption to access remaining nutrients. Losey et al. (2014) reported a higher incidence of tooth fracture among historic dogs compared to wolves as evidence of such scavenging behaviors, and even a proclivity for bone consumption by dogs when otherwise fed at human settlements. Modern studies of wolves supports this (Van Valkenburgh et al., 2019) but others, using microwear analysis, have questioned the correlation between tooth breakage and bone consumption (DeSantis et al., 2012, 2015). In archaeological context, dogs may shape faunal assemblages through bone destruction and consumption of refuse (Munson, 2000; Atici, 2006; Russell and Twiss, 2017, but see Horwitz, 1990). Tooth-marked bone can be used as evidence of bone consumption, but identifying the mammalian predator responsible, based on tooth mark size and shape, has been met with mixed results (Selvaggio and Wilder, 2001; Domínguez-Rodrigo and Piqueras, 2003; Coard, 2007; Delaney-Rivera et al., 2009; Andrés et al., 2012; Parkinson et al., 2015). It would be particularly difficult to distinguish tooth marks made by two canids of similar size.

Dental and cranial morphology provide insights into dietary behavior, but these can be phylogenetically constrained, making diet interpretations difficult (Popowics, 2003; Sacco and Van Valkenburgh, 2004; Goillot et al., 2009). That said, the shorter, more robust mandibular rami of protodogs (Germonpré et al., 2015a) are consistent with selection to generate, transmit, and dissipate the forces necessary to break bone (Wroe et al., 2005). Modern free ranging and feral dogs do scavenge and consume bone (Lyon, 1970; Butler and Du Toit, 2002; Forsyth et al., 2014), and a shift towards increased scavenging in association with human settlements is plausible. This would have left distinct dietary traces on the dentition of protodogs. Dental microwear provides a means of testing this, without the potential ambiguities of taphonomic analysis.

1.6. Revealing animal dietary behaviors using dental microwear texture analysis (DMTA)

Dental microwear is dietary trace evidence left during the days to weeks prior to an individual's death (Grine, 1986). Dental Microwear Texture Analysis (DMTA) applies scale sensitive fractal geometry to specimens measured under confocal light microscopy (Ungar et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2005, 2006). Unlike older dental wear methods (e.g., Van Valkenburgh et al., 1990; King et al., 1999; Merceron et al., 2005; Goillot et al., 2009), DMTA provides automated measures less susceptible to observer measurement error, hence potentially increasing the signal-to-noise ratio. This behavioral proxy presents refined scale differences across specimens or taxa not discernible at coarser scales (Ungar, 2009).

DMTA facilitates the reconstruction of dietary behaviors of extinct taxa (e.g., Scott et al., 2005; Schubert et al., 2010; Stynder et al., 2012; DeSantis et al., 2013; Donohue et al., 2013; DeSantis et al., 2015; Caporale and Ungar, 2016; Ungar et al., 2017; Stynder et al., 2018; Tanis et al., 2018). It can provide insight on cryptic, or otherwise poorly understood species (Purnell et al., 2013) and both differentiate intraspecific differences across contemporaneous populations (Kubo et al., 2017) and reveal shifts (e.g., changes in diet, competition) between current and historic ones (DeSantis, 2016), even across deeper geologic time (Schubert et al., 2010; DeSantis and Haupt, 2014). Among carnivorans, microwear is especially useful for distinguishing flesh specialists (i.e., soft and tough foods) from those that consume hard or brittle foods, such as bone (Schubert et al., 2010; Bastl et al., 2012; Stynder et al., 2012). Microwear analysis has even helped document the dynamics of carcass acquisition and competition within carnivoran paleoguilds (DeSantis et al., 2012, 2015) and, in doing so, tested earlier hypotheses (Van Valkenburgh and Hertel, 1993) about the correlation between tooth breakage and bone consumption. Importantly, microwear can identify behavioral changes (i.e., diet) that may occur prior to notable morphological changes associated with that type of diet (Tseng, 2012).

Here, we compare microwear textures of canids from Předmostí, Czech Republic, one of the earliest recognized potential protodog sites (Germonpré et al., 2012). The idea is to test the hypothesis that those individuals identified as protodogs (with shorter, deeper mandibles better suited to crushing bone) indeed crushed bone more regularly than the wolves. This would be consistent with the notion that canids beginning to co-habitat within or along the edges of human encampments consumed less desirable food items, including bone, discarded or fed to them by humans.

1.7. Canids of Předmostí, Czech Republic

Předmostí is a Gravettian open-air site in the Moravian Corridor, Czech Republic (Fig. 1). It is known for its large skeletal accumulations of humans (Velemínská and Brůžek, 2008), mammoths (Musil, 2008), and canids (Pokorný, 1951), including human-modified canid bone and teeth (Germonpré et al., 2012, 2017a). Pokorný (1951) recognized two distinct canid morphotypes: Canis lupus major and Canis lupus minor, which Musil (2000) later attributed to sexual dimorphism. Benecke (1994) separated these morphotypes into wolves and domesticated canids, using tooth crowding as evidence of domestication. Tooth crowding alone is not a good indicator of domestication (Ameen et al., 2017), but Germonpré et al. (2012) provided additional cranial morphologies to support the presence of domestic dogs. Germonpré et al. (2015a) further differentiated between the robust, short jawed "Paleolithic dog" (n = 37) and slender elongated "Pleistocene wolf" morphotypes (n = 37) using a series of morphotypic differences in the mandible (Fig. 2). Their assertion and use of these traits has been contested (e.g., Crockford and Kuzmin, 2012; Boudadi-Maligne and Escarguel, 2014; Morey, 2014; Perri, 2016). Here, we predict that these morphological differences reflect differences in diet, with the robust and shorter jawed canids likely to have consumed more bone. Microwear analysis provides an independent means of predicting whether a specimen at Předmostí, identified as wolf or protodog elsewhere, differed in diet as expected given variation in mandibular dimensions.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Specimens used

Specimens used in this study (n = 20, Supplementary Material A) are housed in the off-site depository of the Moravian Museum, Brno, Czech Republic. Germonpré et al. (2015a) previously assigned these canids as either Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf based on mandibular and dental measures (Fig. 2). We use previously established categories (protodog and wolf) rather than Group A and Group B to recognize



Fig. 1. Map of Europe showing the location of Predmostí (star), a Gravettian open-air site in the Moravian Corridor, Czech Republic (country greyed).



Fig. 2. Comparison of dog-like (top, specimen #25) and wolf-like (bottom, specimen #55) morphotypes (Supplementary Material A), assigned by Germonpré et al. (2012, 2015a) as either Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf, from Předmostí, a Gravettian open-air site in the Moravian Corridor, Czech Republic. Measurements: #25 total mandibular length, 171.0 mm; carnassial length, 29.5 mm #55 total mandibular length, 193.0 mm; carnassial length, 28.3 mm.

previous studies and the relevancy of those descriptors to the formulation of our hypothesis. We are only testing the validity of separating these two canid morphotypes, and our categorization does not preclude the potential that both groups represent morphologically and behaviorally distinct wild canids.

2.2. Phylogenetic considerations

Feliforms (felids and hyaenids) lack post-carnassial dentition (i.e., M_2 - M_3 in the lower dental arcade) and primarily use their lower carnassial (M_1), with hyeanids also utilizing their highly adapted premolars, for crushing (Van Valkenburgh et al., 1990; Van Valkenburgh, 1996; Stynder et al., 2012). Canids retain those post-carnassial molars, and the M_1 and M_2 tend to record shearing actions related to meat consumption and bone crushing, respectively (Van Valkenburgh, 1989, 1996; Biknevicus et al., 1996; Ungar et al., 2010). This makes the M_2 a more suitable proxy for distinguishing canid diets as they relate to crushing hard or brittle food items (Ungar et al., 2010; Tanis et al., 2018). We therefore anticipated differences on the M_2 but not the M_1 of Předmostí canids with the protodog morphotype showing a proclivity for bone cracking.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

We selected specimens from each canid morphotype based on molariform tooth condition (lack of postmortem damage or adherents) with emphasis on the trigonid shearing facet of the M_1 and the antereolingual surface of the M_2 hypoconid. This region of the M_2 is analogous to Facet 9, the "Phase II" or post-centric occlusion of primate based

Table 2

Summary statistics for Scale Sensitive Fractal Analysis (SSFA) of the M_1 and M_2 from Předmostí canids identified as either Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf by Germonpré et al. (2015a). See Supplementary Material A for raw data.

		Asfc	Smfc	HAsfc9	HAsfc81
Paleolithic o	log				
M _{1 (n=9)}	mean	1.727	1.58	0.254	0.464
	median	1.44	1.21	0.209	0.448
	standard deviation	0.964	1.083	0.107	0.145
M _{2 (n=10)}	mean	1.16	2.64	0.312	0.472
	median	1.085	1.86	0.23	0.407
	standard deviation	0.54	1.042	0.221	0.185
Pleistocene	wolf				
M _{1 (n=10)}	mean	1.89	1.21	0.297	0.498
	median	1.965	1.445	0.29	0.517
	standard deviation	0.788	1.296	0.1	0.196
M _{2 (n=10)}	mean	1.156	1.109	0.356	0.595
	median	1.18	1.21	0.22	0.415
	standard deviation	0.408	0.299	0.335	0.332

microwear studies (Krueger et al., 2008). Two of us (KAP and PSU) cleaned the molars with cotton swabs soaked in alcohol and made impressions using President's Jet Regular Body Dental Impression Material (Coltène-Whaledent). High-resolution cast replicas were scanned by JD using a Plµ Neox (Sensofar) scanning confocal profiler with white light and a $100 \times$ objective. Detailed analytical protocols are available in Scott et al. (2005) and Ungar et al. (2007).

The field of view of the scanning confocal microscope with the $100 \times$ objective is 127.32 µm by 95.45 µm with an x-y spacing of 0.17 µm and a vertical step interval of 0.2 µm. The published vertical resolution of the instrument is less than 1 nm. Scans were taken of four quadrants and stitched together, with spikes and artifacts deleted, using SensoMap Premium Software (MountainsMap 7, DigitalSurf). The SensoMap scalesensitive fractal analysis module (formerly in Sfrax and ToothFrax software) generated surface texture data. These data were rank-transformed prior to analysis since microwear texture data typically violate the assumption of distribution normality (Ungar et al., 2007).

We used scale sensitive fractal analysis (SSFA) to test our hypotheses. It produces variables to characterize surface complexity, heterogeneity of complexity, scale of maximum complexity and other attributes (Ungar et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2006) proven effective at separating species by diet, including hard versus tough feeding carnivorans (Schubert et al., 2010; Ungar et al., 2010; DeSantis et al., 2012, 2013). Asfc (Area scale fractal complexity) measures complexity. This represents change in surface roughness with scale of observation. A surface dominated by a range of pit sizes and shapes is complex and suggests comminution of hard brittle foods, like bone (e.g., Tanis et al., 2018).

Heterogeneity addresses surface texture uniformity by considering variance in complexity across the surface divided into 3×3 (*HAsfc9*) and 9×9 (*HAsfc81*) grids and can be used to distinguish between hard feeders (Scott et al., 2006). Prey size variance has been associated with increased heterogeneity (Schubert et al., 2010). The scale of maximum complexity, *Smfc*, is the scale at which surface roughness begins to decline. High *Smfc* values indicate a surface either dominated by deep features at coarse scales or lacking many features at fine scales. Higher *Smfc* correlates with higher wear resulting from the consumption of hard, brittle foods, such as bone. We ran MANOVA tests for these variables, with separate tests for the M₁ and M₂. ANOVAs for individual

Table 4

ANOVA of M_2 from Predmostí canids previously identified as either Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf by Germonpré et al. (2015a). Errors noted in parentheses; df 1, 18. See Supplementary Material A for raw data.

	Asfc	Smfc	HAsfc9	HAsfc81
Type II sum of	9.8	186.05	8.45	33.8 (631.2)
squares	(655.2)	(446.95)	(656.05)	
Mean squared	9.8 (36.4)	186.05 (24.831)	8.45 (36.447)	33.8 (35.067)
F-ratio	0.269	7.493	0.232	0.964
p-value	0.61	0.014	0.636	0.339

variables were used to determine the source(s) of significant variation between groups.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. M₁ (carnassial)

Raw data are provided in Supplement A. Summary statistics for the M_1 (n = 19) can be found in Table 2. No variation between samples was observed for SSFA variables. Results of MANOVA statistics (Table 3) did not show any significant differences between these two canid samples. We expected that wolves and dogs would similarly use their carnassial teeth for shearing tough food (i.e., meat). Differences in hard-object consumption by canids are expected to manifest instead on the M_2 s given the functional division of labor between carnassials and post-carnassial molars (Ungar et al., 2010).

3.2. M₂ (post-carnassial)

Raw data are provided in Supplement A. Summary statistics for the M_2 (n = 20) can be found in Table 2. Results of MANOVA statistics (Table 3) reveal significant differences between morphotypes. We used ANOVA to determine variance origins and Type II SS (sum of squares) to test for differences in central tendency between samples (Table 4). Only *Smfc* clearly separated wolves from protodogs, with higher average values (i.e., fewer specimens with smaller features) observed in protodogs (Fig. 3). Surfaces dominated by small microwear features produce low *Smfc* values. Protodogs exhibit a broader range of *Smfc* values (Table 4) which is consistent with larger average feature size (e.g., pits) compared with wolves (Fig. 4).

3.3. Interpretation

Wolves and protodogs at Předmostí did not differ significantly on the M_1 carnassials, as would be expected with a diet of flesh. As for the M_2 , the canid morphotypes did separate out significantly for *Smfc*. Higher *Smfc* values for protodogs suggest a lack of small microwear features (or dominance of larger ones), consistent with a greater reliance on hard, brittle foods, such as bone.

The results are not directly comparable to previous microwear texture studies of modern and fossil canids (Ungar et al., 2010; DeSantis et al., 2015) because a newer generation instrument was used to generate the data. The new instrument has smaller point spacing, better vertical resolution, and field-of-view stitching, allowing a larger work

Table 3

M₁ and M₂ MANOVA for Předmostí canids previously identified as either Paleolithic dog or Pleistocene wolf by Germonpré et al. (2015a). See Supplementary Material A for raw data.

	Wilks's Lambda	Pillai Trace	Hotelling-Lawley Trace
M_1	0.961	0.039	0.041
F-ratio = 0.323, df = 4,14, p = 0.963 M_2	0.477	0.523	1.096
F-ratio = 4.111, df = 4,15, p = 0.019			



Fig. 3. Scale of Maximum Complexity (*Smfc*) on M_2 for Předmostí canids previously identified as either Paleolithic dog (n = 10) or Pleistocene wolf (n = 10) by Germonpré et al. (2015a). Whiskers represent the range of *Smfc* values. See Supplementary Material A for raw data.

envelop. Filters can be applied to "homogenize" datasets across instruments and allow a measure of comparability (Arman et al., 2016), but we prefer to avoid any loss of diet "signal" associated with filtering given the expected subtly of differences between samples studied here. That said, the fundamental characteristics of microwear patterning on dentition and the variables tested remain the same.

In Ungar et al. (2010), coyote (*Canis latrans*) and African wild dog (*Lycaon pictus*) were compared and shown to exhibit higher pitting with higher complexity and lower anistropy values on their M₂s compared to their M₁s as is expected due to the biomechanics of canid mastication

and the use of post-carnassials for crunching. DeSantis et al. (2015) includes specimens from Ungar et al. (2010), additional specimens of *L. pictus*, and specimens of grey wolf (*Canis lupus*) and found that while all evinced some bone comminution, *C. lupus* microwear reflected lower levels of bone consumption than the other canids. This is consistent with what is known of wolf, compared to coyote and African wild dog feeding behavior. Coyotes are more opportunistic, completely consuming smaller animals (Schmitt and Juell, 1994), while African wild dogs are more specialized, but under intense competition with lions and hyenas and known to more effectively consume carcasses (Van Valkenburgh, 1996; Carbone et al., 2005; contra Yravedra et al., 2014 which looked at captive wild dogs).

4. Conclusion

Morphological (Pokorný, 1951; Benecke, 1994; Germonpré et al., 2012, 2015a) and isotopic (Bocherens et al., 2015) data supports the presence of two distinct populations of *Canis* at Předmostí. These canids were identified by Germonpré et al. (2012) as Paleolithic dogs and Pleistocene wolves, though not without debate (e.g., Crockford and Kuzmin, 2012; Boudadi-Maligne and Escarguel, 2014; Morey, 2014; Perri, 2016). Here, behavioral trace differences associated with bone consumption further supports the separation of these canids into two distinct populations. Specifically, our dental microwear texture analysis results are consistent with the protodog (Paleolithic dog) morphotype as a greater consumer of more hard brittle foods, interpreted here as bone.

Isotope analysis suggests wolves and humans focused on mammoth, while dogs and lions focused on reindeer and other prey (Bocherens et al., 2015). Protodogs fed scraps would have been better able to break and consume the bones of reindeer and smaller prey compared to mammoths, and this may help explain the signal. Alternatively, protodogs may have opportunistically scavenged off felid kills, as felids typically leave more flesh as well as marrow containing bones than do canids or hyaenids (Blumenschine, 1987; Parkinson et al., 2015). That



Fig. 4. Microwear signatures of the M_1 and M_2 for Předmostí canids previously identified as either A) Paleolithic dog or B) Pleistocene wolf by Germonpré et al. (2015a). Scale bars at 5.5 μ m. Scans taken on a Scanning Confocal Microscope with a field area of 127.32 μ m by 95.45 μ m and edited using SensoMap Premium software.

said, this combined evidence does not refute the possibility that these represent two wolf populations that differed in both morphology and dietary behavior (prey selection and, as noted here, level of bone consumption) in response to increased competition or environmental change, as argued by Perri (2016).

Wolf dietary behavior can vary across time (Flower and Schreve, 2014) and environment (see Schweizer et al., 2016 and references therein), with related morphological (Slater et al., 2009), isotopic (Pilot et al., 2012), and genetic (Nowak and Federoff, 2002; Ciucani et al., 2019; Schweizer et al., 2016) differences evident. Such variance can occur even between geographically close populations, such as seen with wolves from coastal (Darimont et al., 2003) and inland (Muñoz-Fuentes et al., 2009) British Colombia. It is possible then that these are two morphologically and behaviorally distinct wolf populations that overlapped in territory, at least on a seasonal basis, as is seen in wolf populations today (Wilson et al., 2000). In the archaeological record, this could be time averaged to suggest sympatry. Nonetheless, we provide an additional line of evidence that supports the interpretation of two morphologically and behaviorally distinct canid populations co-occurring at Předmostí during the periods of permanent (Nývltová Fišáková, 2013) human site occupation.

Why some wolves integrated into human society is unknown, but canids could have fulfilled many functions in the daily life of Upper Paleolithic peoples (Shipman, 2015; Lupo, 2017; Germonpré et al., 2018). Their utility as hunting and working aids, protectors, companions, and food remain reasons for this relationship today. Our intent was not to address these questions but rather to provide an additional, independent line of evidence to identify the early behavioral shift in wolves potentially associated with early domestication of another animal by Homo sapiens. These results suggest the need for additional studies, both at Předmostí and at other prehistoric dog sites, to help to confirm or refute the presence of distinct canid types and to elucidate their roles in other prehistoric societies. For example, North American Great Plains dogs and wolves are often indistinguishable morphologically, but maize consumption by dogs can allow for separation isotopically (Fisher, 2019). Starch diets are also purported for Neolithic dogs, with high copy numbers of the starch emulsifying AMY2B enzyme in dogs following the spread of agriculture (Arendt et al., 2016). A diet rich in starches will produce distinct microwear (Schmidt, 2001) that could provide insight into dog's place in prehistoric agricultural societies. Analyses of feral village dogs, dingoes, dholes and additional modern analogue studies of covotes, African wild dogs, and wolves would be useful both for strengthening the link between diet and microwear in canids and to address how changes in diet from historic to modern canids relate to increased anthropogenic effects on habitat patchiness, prey decline, and competition for resources.

Funding

This paper was supported by a grant from the Czech Science Foundation, GAČR GA15-06446S "The relationships between humans and large canids - the dogs and wolves - of the Gravettian Předmostí site (Moravia)" and by the Ministry of Culture of the Czech Republic by institutional financing of long-term conceptual development of the research institution (the Moravian Museum, MK000094862). The University of Arkansas Honors College funded PSU and JD. KAP received no financial support from the National Park Service for this study and her contributions do not necessarily reflect the opinions or policies of, the National Park Service.

Acknowledgement

KAP and PSU thank Martina Roblíčková at the Moravian Museum for her hospitality and in providing us access to the Předmostí specimens used in this study.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jas.2020.105092.

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