

1 **Diseases and traumas of Pleistocene megafauna: A perspective from Poland**

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4 Kamilla Pawłowska^{1*}

5 Aleksander Chrószcz²

6 Dominik Poradowski²

7 Dominika Kubiak-Nowak³

8 Wojciech Borawski³

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10 1. Institute of Geology, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, ul. Krygowskiego 12, 61-680
11 Poznań, Poland; koka@amu.edu.pl

12 2. Department of Biostructure and Animal Physiology, Division of Animal Anatomy, Faculty of
13 Veterinary Medicine, Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences, ul.
14 Kozuchowska 1, 51-631 Wrocław, Poland

15 3. Department and Clinic of Surgery, Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences,
16 pl. Grunwaldzki 51, 50-366 Wrocław, Poland

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18 *Corresponding author

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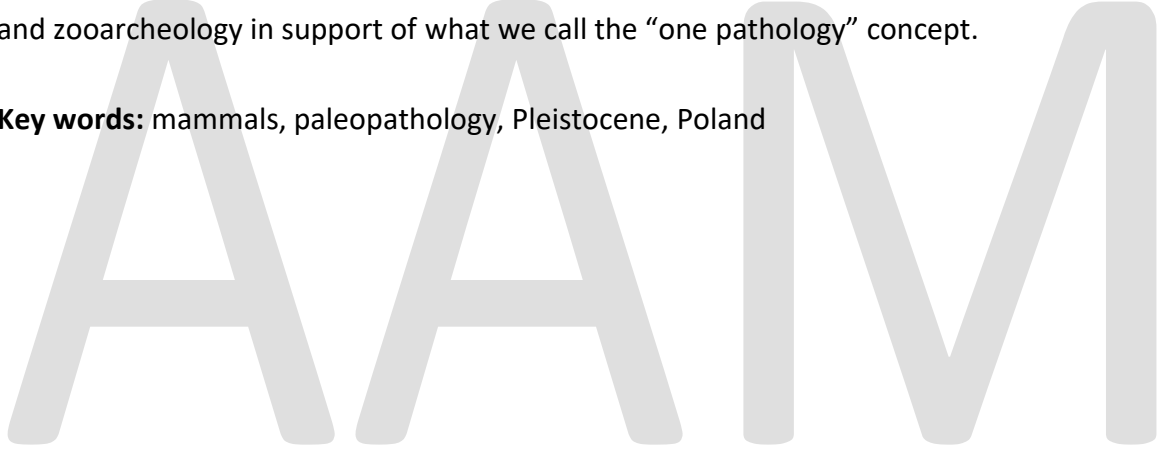
21 **Abstract**

22 Analysis of pathologies can shed light on the health, trauma, and disease states of animals in
23 the past. This study aims to explore the health status of megafauna during the Pleistocene and
24 Holocene in Poland and to elucidate the diseases afflicting them, in order to gain a broader
25 picture of the physical condition of these animals. For this purpose, species that show
26 pathological lesions were macroscopically studied and CT images were used for
27 reconstruction. These results are supplemented with previously published data. Our results
28 show cases of traumatic lesions, inflammatory diseases, arthropathies, diseases associated
29 with the environment, dental anomalies and oral pathology, congenital anomalies and
30 inherited disorders, and others. Lesions were found on the skeletal elements of woolly
31 rhinoceroses, woolly mammoths, aurochs, bovids, giant deer, elks, and bears. The diversity of
32 pathological cases and taxa demonstrated here is the first contribution to empirical
33 pathological research in Polish paleozoology dealing with Quaternary records. Besides this,
34 the research presented in this paper contributes to building a bridge between paleozoology
35 and zooarcheology in support of what we call the “one pathology” concept.

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37 **Key words:** mammals, paleopathology, Pleistocene, Poland

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40 1. Introduction

41 The study of quaternary faunal remains contributes to our knowledge of the taxonomic
42 structure of the assemblages, and on the basis of these, to the question of faunal exchange
43 over time (Koufos et al., 2005). The osteometric approach leads to the determination of
44 animal morphotypes (i.a. Stefaniak et al., 2014). By taking taphonomic aspects into account,
45 we can establish hominid subsistence strategies (Huguet et al., 2013; Rendu et al., 2009;
46 Yravedra-Sainz de los Terreros et al., 2016), their use of the environment (Wolfhagen et al.,
47 2020), and some depositional aspects (Hrynowiecka et al., 2022; Pawłowska, 2010). Extended
48 studies using DNA signatures also make it possible to detect genetic changes in a population
49 (Hofreiter & Stewart, 2009; Mattucci et al., 2016). Dating methods, particularly radiocarbon
50 dating, allow us to study the temporal and spatial dispersion of animals, particularly at the
51 Pleistocene–Holocene boundary; this has been associated with faunal reductions and
52 extinctions (Ceregatti et al., 2023; Ugan & Byers, 2007, 2008).

53 Paleopathological evidence can help determine the past condition of particular animal
54 individuals, and to some extent the population (Bartosiewicz, 2021; Holmes et al., 2021; Upex
55 & Dobney, 2012). However, not every study includes the study of pathological lesions, not
56 every lesion can be easily attributed to a disease, and not all diseases leave an imprint on
57 skeletal parts that are represented in records (Pawłowska, 2018). By focusing on opportunities
58 rather than on limitations, this paper aims to trace diseases and injuries of Polish megafauna—
59 that is, of the largest terrestrial species in the Quaternary community or ecosystem. Tracing is
60 possible due to recent faunistic studies at several sites in Poland, which have revealed the
61 presence of mammalian remains, from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene, which
62 display pathological or adaptive changes in bone tissue (Pawłowska, 2022, 2023; Pawłowska
63 et al., 2022; Puzachenko et al., 2022). Their origins in a range of taxa, such as woolly rhinos
64 (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*), woolly mammoths (*Mammuthus primigenius*, bovids (*Bos/ Bison*),
65 giant deer (*Megaloceros giganteus*), elks (*Alces alces*), and bears (*Ursus spelaeus/ Ursus*
66 *deningeri*), make this the first contribution to empirical pathological research in Polish
67 paleozoology dealing with Quaternary records. Beside this, the research here contributes to
68 building a bridge between paleozoology and zooarchaeology in support of what we call the
69 “one pathology” concept.

70 2. Material and Methods

71 The subjects of the study were fossil and subfossil mammalian remains from sites in Poland
72 that displayed macroscopic pathological changes. The specimens are indirectly dated through
73 the context to the Pleistocene and Holocene.

74 The specimens are part of museum and institutional collections, such as that of the
75 Polish Geological Institute–National Research Institute (PGI-NRI henceforth) in Warsaw, the
76 Museum of Myślubórz Lake District, the Institute of Geology at Adam Mickiewicz University in
77 Poznań (UAM/IG/KP), the Faculty of History at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, the
78 Archaeological Museum in Giecz, and the Polish Academy of Sciences Museum of the Earth in

79 Warsaw. These collections were examined as part of the basic research component of various
80 project, including a PGI-NRI project, by one of us (KP). In these examinations, specimens with
81 pathological lesions were classified and selected for detailed examination, which was carried
82 out in collaboration with the Division of Animal Anatomy (DP and ACH) of the Faculty of
83 Veterinary Medicine, Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences. All pathological
84 changes were documented and examined in line with the rules of differential diagnosis used
85 in veterinary medicine (Madej & Rotkiewicz, 1998; Madej et al., 2007). Moreover, the use of
86 computed tomography (CT) allowed the construction of full 3D images of the specimens,
87 making it possible to present the internal structure of skeletal remains and to evaluate the
88 visible bone tissue changes. CT analysis was carried out at the Department and Clinic of
89 Surgery, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Wrocław University of Environmental and Life
90 Sciences (DKN, WB). A 64-slice 128-layer Siemens go. TOP CT scanner was used for radiological
91 examination. The specimens were scanned along the longitudinal axis of the bones in the
92 cranial and caudal directions, with the exposure parameters set to 120 kV and 60 mAs. Cross-
93 sectional imaging was carried out using a bony window and bone filter with a layer thickness
94 equaling 0.8 mm. The CT images were post-processed using the Siemens Syngo.via software.
95 We used the image multi-planar reconstruction function in sagittal, dorsal and transverse
96 sections and the three-dimensional image function.

97 **3. Results**

98 Pathological changes were found on sixteen specimens from eleven sites. The sites are
99 presented here chronologically from the oldest to the youngest.

100 **SITKÓWKA**

101 A bear (*Ursus spelaeus/ Ursus deningeri*) humerus (MUZ PIG 157.II.40) displays an enthesal
102 spur on the lateral supracondylar ridge (*crista supracondylaris lateralis*)—that is, at the
103 insertion of the anconeus muscle, one of the extensors of the elbow joint that functionally
104 cooperates with the lateral cubital collateral ligament (*ligamentum collaterale laterale*); there
105 is also marginal lipping on the articular surface (Table 1; A on Figure 1).

106 Marginal lipping of the articular surface of the distal epiphysis was observed in a bear
107 (*Ursus spelaeus/ Ursus deningeri*) femur (MUZ PIG 157.II.6) from Sitkówka site (Table 1; B on
108 Figure 1).

109 **WIERCICA CAVE**

110 Two metatarsal bones with pathological changes come from Wiercica cave. An elk (*Alces alces*)
111 metatarsal bone (MUZ PIG 335.II.18) displays an enthesal reaction on the lateral side of the
112 distal epiphysis of the bone (Table 1; A1 and A2 on Figure 2). In addition, the dorsal and plantar
113 surfaces of the metaphysis have developed buttresses (A1 and A2 on Figure 2). One third of
114 the way along the metatarsal bone, in the middle part of the medullary cavity, a very
115 hyperdense, well-demarcated area with irregular edges is visible under CT scan. The lesion

116 does not damage the cortical layer (A2 and arrow on Figure 2). Moreover, the distal extremity
117 shows moderate hyperdense areas (A2 on Figure 2).

118 The metatarsal bone of a large bovid (MUZ PIG 335.II.14) has a smooth lesion on the
119 dorsal and plantar surfaces of the bone's metaphysis, with well-defined margins (Table 1; B1
120 and B2 on Figure 2). This plaquelike sheet over the cortex is a function of the production of
121 new periosteal bone, quite solid in structure and not a taphonomic exfoliation of the cortical
122 part of the bone, which is usually observed as a result of weathering.

123 **GÓRA WINNICA, NEAR KAMIEŃ MŚCIOWSKI**

124 A woolly mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) lower M2 (MUZ PIG 40.II.9) with quite
125 significant cavities was found at the Góra Winnica site near Kamień Mściowski (Table 1; A1 on
126 Figure 3). The cavities are 1.5 cm deep and are associated with a few lamellae (A2 on Figure
127 3). The degree of wear on the occlusal surface of the tooth indicates that the mammoth was
128 an adult at its death.

129 **KADZIELNIA**

130 The collection of Pleistocene fauna from the Kadzielnia site (Woroncowa-Marcinowska et al.,
131 2017) included a bear (*Ursus spelaeus*) maxilla fragment with P4-M2, with the M2 displaying
132 a cavity (MUZ PIG 39.II.12; Table 1; A1 and A2 on Figure 4). An area of hypodensity was seen
133 around the apex of the tooth root under CT scan (A2 on Figure 4).

134 The formation of new bone tissue is visible on the dorsal part of the shaft of the second
135 metacarpal of a bear (*Ursus* sp.) (MUZ PIG 39.II.28; Table 1; B on Figure 4), the second
136 specimen from this site, in the insertion of radial carpal extensor muscle (m. extensor carpi
137 radialis).

138 **SZCZĘŚLIWICKIE LAKE**

139 The ulna bone of a bison or aurochs from the Szczęśliwickie Lake site (MUZ PIG 1451.II.15) is
140 characterized by an enthesal reaction on the medial surface (Table 1; A on Figure 5). The area
141 near the ulnar trochlear notch is the insertion point of the collateral (humerus–ulna) and
142 transverse ligaments (radius–ulna).

143 The cervical vertebra (axis) of the woolly rhinoceros (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*) (MUZ
144 PIG 1451.II.1-2) from this site has curly furrows on the vertebral arch that are roughly
145 symmetrical with respect to each other (Table 1; B1 on Figure 5). A texture of some sort is
146 visible within these marks (B1 and B3 on Figure 5). A hyperdense, well-demarcated area with
147 irregular edges is visible in the cavities of the trabecular bone (B2 on Figure 5).

148 **BARYCZ**

149 A giant deer (*Megaloceros giganteus*) skull from the Barycz site (IG-Br 12.F1) shows antler
150 deformation. The right antler features a downward bend in its main beam of 110 °C. A bony

151 outgrowth, which is concave, is visible just above the brow tine, in the posterior part of the
152 bend.

153 The antler was analyzed in terms of gross morphology, radiography, computed tomography,
154 and histopathology (A, B, and C on Figure 6). Radiography and CT scan of the antler cross-
155 section at its bend reveals two foci of different tissue density within a cancellous core; the
156 more ventral focus has greater density (arrow 1), while the more dorsal focus suggests normal
157 antler structure (arrow 2). Increased tissue density was also seen in the antler margin (arrow
158 3). Histology of the focus with a normal radiological shadow (asterisk) revealed the expected
159 features of an orderly arrangement of osteons of similar diameter, and well-developed
160 Haversian systems. The focus with the higher radiodensity (cross) and tissue from the bony
161 outgrowth revealed disorganized primary bone with no osteons visible, disorganized lamellar
162 bone, and numerous blood vessels (Figure 6). The conclusion was that the antler deformity
163 appears to be of traumatic origin, with a healing component in the form of a callus formation
164 (Pawłowska et al., 2014).

165 ŁAWY

166 A right lower molar (M3; MZ VIII Vm 861), a left lower molar (M3; MZ VIII Vm 862) and an
167 upper molar (MZ VIII Vm 76) of a woolly mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) came from the
168 Ławy site and unknown locality, respectively (Table 1; A and B on Figure 7). These mammoth
169 teeth have unusual plate morphology in the form of bent lamellae.

170 PYSKOWICE

171 From the Pyskowice site comes a mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) thoracic vertebra
172 (UAM/IG/KP/39.F2). This element, preserved as a spinous process, has concavity on the caudal
173 side (Table 1; C on Figure 7) and presents signs of periostitis. Periostitis is also evident on the
174 dorsal side on the articular surface.

175 MOSINA

176 The Mosina site yielded a mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) upper M3 (MO 112.F1) (Table
177 1) that displays three furrows on the lingual surface, parallel to each other and to the occlusal
178 surface of the tooth (A on Figure 8). The edges of the furrows are uneven.

179 ZANIEMYŚL

180 A mammoth (*Mammuthus primigenius*) ulna from the Zaniemyśl site (no inventory number)
181 has periostitis on the medial surface (Table 1; B on Figure 8).

182 KOŁO

183 The Koło site yielded an elk (*Alces alces*) antler (UAM/IG/KP/21.F1) that has undergone a slight
184 change in its structure in the form of surface remodeling (Table 1; A on Figure 9). The lesion is
185 superficial with visible disruption of the antler tissue.

186 **CHLEWICE**

187 An elk (*Alces alces*) antler from Chlewice (no inventory number) has two holes, each located
188 on one side of the antler, and two more holes between the two tines (Table 1; B on Figure 9).
189 The holes are more likely parts of the cavitory system. One hole is accompanied by a shallow
190 furrow (asterisk in Figure 9). The holes are surrounded by signs of regeneration of the antler
191 structure. The antler has at least five branches (B on Figure 9).

192 **4. Discussion**

193 Paleopathological studies of large mammal skeletal remains from Pleistocene contexts are
194 much less frequent in zooarcheology than similar investigations of Holocene remains
195 (Bartosiewicz & Gal, 2013; Bartosiewicz & Mansouri, 2022; Houldcroft & Underdown, 2023;
196 Pawłowska, 2020a, 2020b). The examples of megafauna pathological changes shown here are
197 meant to redress this imbalance. Pathological changes have been found on various skeletal
198 elements of Pleistocene mammals, such as the woolly rhinoceros, woolly mammoth, giant
199 deer, bovids, elk, and bear. According to the classification of Bartosiewicz & Gal (2013), they
200 represent cases of different types of pathology, such as traumatic lesions, inflammatory
201 diseases, arthropathies, diseases associated with the environment, dental anomalies and oral
202 pathology, congenital anomaly and inherited disorders, and others.

203 **4.1. Traumatic lesions**

204 Traumatic lesions visible on skeletal elements are usually associated with mechanical injury
205 (D'lima et al., 2001; Madej et al., 2007). This was the case for a malformed giant deer antler
206 (IG-Br 12.F1) from the Barycz site. A mechanical impact caused a disruption of tissue continuity
207 encompassing half of the antler's thickness. As a result, the antler was first displaced upward,
208 and then the fractured part shifted downward under gravity and became fixed in this position
209 with the formation of a fracture callus. The fracture of the antler still in velvet did not lead to
210 the loss of the distal fragment, because it was apparently held by the skin and periosteum
211 (Pawłowska et al., 2014). Malformed antlers are also known from white-tailed deer, where
212 they have also been interpreted as the result of injuries to the antlerogenic periosteum region
213 rather than of congenital origin (Karns & Ditchkoff, 2013).

214 An enthesal reaction—the proliferation of bone tissue as a result of a periosteal reaction—
215 was found on an elk metatarsal from Wiercica cave (MUZ PIG 335.II.18). The origin of these
216 can be multifarious. Such alterations can be produced by lesions of traumatic origin, such as
217 fracture scars, or with neoplastic or tumorous changes, like osteosarcoma (Madej et al., 2007).
218 Such a lesion can also arise from chronic inflammatory process resulting from damage to the
219 tubercles and ligamentous fovea for the lateral collateral ligament of the metatarsophalangeal
220 joint, which are located in this area (Najbrt et al., 1980; Nickel et al. 2005). The CT scan
221 indicated that this is the result of a chronic process, with the periosteal reaction driving a
222 mixed lytic and sclerotic bone transformation. We associate this with the fracture, which is
223 consistent with the nature of enthesal reactions—the Sharpey's fiber alterations that

224 underlie sudden or unconditioned repetitive stresses of mechanical or inflammatory origin
225 (Rothschild, 2024).

226 It is likely that lesions of the distal epiphysis have caused hypertrophy in the metashaft section.
227 However similar changes, called buttresses, on the metatarsal bone shaft are well known in
228 other species, in both paleozoological and archeozoological materials (Vann & Grimm, 2010;
229 Thomas & Grimm, 2013). In sheep, for example, three observations have been made regarding
230 the formation of buttresses on the dorsal surface of the metatarsals: The first is that the
231 condition is more frequent in older (and larger) individuals; the second is that the condition is
232 more frequent in males, which exhibit more pronounced (longer, wider and deeper)
233 buttresses. The third remark is that buttresses become more pronounced with age. It is an
234 open question whether they should be classified as pathologies: they are often considered a
235 normal condition. Many such bone alterations are better classified as anatomical variations
236 than pathologies. In the middle part of the medullary cavity our study also revealed a
237 hyperdense, well-demarcated area with irregular edges, which can be associated with
238 sequestration within the bone marrow due to chronic repetitive trauma (Steward et al., 2022).
239 The suggestions of Thomas and Grimm (2011) thus seem to be reasonable, and the behavioral
240 mobility of animals and overloading of the limbs should be taken into consideration.

241 The formation of new bone tissue on the surface of the bear second metacarpal from
242 the Kadzielnia site (MUZ PIG 39.II.28), is associated with the enthesal reaction in the insertion
243 of radial carpal extensor muscle (m. extensor carpi radialis), most likely the result of prolonged
244 mechanical irritation of the tissue, as has been described in other studies (Dietz & Huskamp,
245 2009; Madej et al., 2007) and thus has a traumatic origin. This process is well understood in
246 horses, where the development of bony excrescences can be the result of hitting an obstacle
247 while jumping (Bertoni et al., 2012). Damage to the tendons of the digital flexor muscles, as
248 well as the associated enthesal reaction, causes pain and lameness in animals.

249 Benign growths of bone extending outwards from the surface of the bone, as found on
250 the ulna of a bison or aurochs from Szczęśliwickie Lake (MUZ PIG 1451.II.15), may be triggered
251 by a number of factors, with an enthesal reaction being the most plausible, but does not
252 seem to have a more serious cause than inflammation due to the size of its growth. Enthesal
253 reactions are associated with stress experienced by the attaching muscles, acute injury,
254 tendon tears, weakness of attachments, inflammatory arthritis, vitamin deficiency, and ageing
255 (Bilezikian et al., 1996; Rothschild, 2019 with further references). In the present case, this
256 reaction involves the collateral and transverse ligaments that cross at this location.

257 **4.2. Inflammatory diseases**

258 Periostitis present on different skeletal elements may have a polyetiological cause, as bone
259 formation in the periosteum may be a response to any stimulus and concomitant with many
260 pathological conditions (Bartosiewicz & Gal, 2013; Madej & Rotkiewicz, 1998; Madej et al.,
261 2007). Hence, periosteal new bone formation is frequently recorded on historical animal
262 remains (Bartosiewicz & Gal, 2013; Cramer, 2018). This makes it difficult to demonstrate its
263 origin (Vandemergel et al., 2004; Roberts, 2019) in the case of individual skeletal elements,

264 such as the one found on a mammoth ulna from the Zaniemyśl site and on a metatarsal bone
265 of a bovid from the Wiercica Cave (MUZ PIG 335.II.14), both of which are inflammatory in
266 nature. In the bovid metatarsal, smooth lesions with well-defined margins indicate a
267 nonaggressive form, and that the process of bone formation was chronic (Rana et al., 2009).
268 The lesion is superficial and did not develop lytic bone changes or sclerotic formations, which
269 could have been caused by an abscess.

270 A concavity on the caudal side of the processus spinosus of a mammoth thoracic
271 vertebra (from the Pyskowice site, UAM/IG/KP/39.F2) shows sign of periostitis (also on the
272 cranial side), and is associated with inflammatory conditions between the vertebrae.

273 The hyperdense area within the cervical vertebra (axis) of the woolly rhinoceros
274 (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*) (MUZ PIG 1451.II.1-2) from Szczęśliwickie Lake site is the result of a
275 post-inflammatory condition. The inflammation leads to a discrete increase in bone
276 production by osteoblasts.

277 **4.2.1. Inflammatory arthritis**

278 The enthesal spur and marginal lipping found on the distal end of the bear humerus from
279 Sitkówka site (MUZ PIG 157.II.40) may be a manifestation of the early stages of arthropathy,
280 which is well known in records in the past (Jurmain & Kilgore, 1995). Arthropathies are the
281 most frequent joint pathologies in bone materials; they are caused by a range of factors,
282 including inflammation and degeneration, and its diagnostic criteria have a long tradition.
283 Osteoarthritis (OA), as example of degenerative arthropathies, can be recognized by (1) the
284 formation of marginal osteophytes or new bone on the joint surface, (2) the reaction of the
285 subchondral bone, (3) the presence of irregular joint surfaces and, in severe cases, (4)
286 alterations in the contour of the joint (Ventades et al., 2018 with further references therein).
287 However, the marginal lipping on the specimens from Sitkówka is not typical of OA, as it
288 reflects internally, unlike osteophytes that reflect externally to the joint margin surface. While
289 lipping can correlate with OA, its nature is the subject of controversy; it is perhaps related to
290 calcium pyrophosphate deposition (CPPD). CPPD disease, known as pyrophosphate
291 arthropathy or sometimes “pseudogout”, is a consequence of the immune response to the
292 pathological presence of calcium pyrophosphate (CPP) crystals inside joints, which causes
293 acute or chronic inflammatory arthritis (Pascart et al., 2024). Common risk factors, such as
294 ageing and previous joint trauma, are shared by CPPD and osteoarthritis, which makes it
295 difficult to clarify the direction of causality between the two conditions (Pascart et al., 2024).
296 This condition has been described in humans (Pascart et al., 2024) and in dogs (Heimann et
297 al., 1990; Henschen et al., 2020). In both cases, CPPD was diagnosed at advanced age and the
298 recurrent disease attacks, lameness, and chronic degenerative arthropathy strongly affected
299 the individual’s life comfort. Lesions at the elbow joints, at the attachment of the anconeus
300 muscle, could also have been at least partly the result of overloading of the thoracic limb,
301 given that degenerative arthropathies can affect joints both bilaterally and unevenly in the
302 thoracic or pelvic limbs. Enthesal reactions are also a feature of the second specimen from

303 the Sitkówka site, where the proliferation of bone tissue was evident at the distal end of a
304 bear femur (MUZ PIG 157.II.6).

305 **4.3. Diseases associated with the environment**

306 The transverse lines on the mammoth tooth (MO 112.F1) from the Mosina site are defects in
307 enamel development. These disturbances, known as dental enamel hypoplasia (DEH),
308 represent a condition that is also characterized by pits and grooves on the surface of tooth
309 crowns El- (Najjar et al., 1978). A variety of factors, such as premature birth, malnutrition,
310 bacterial and viral infections, and trauma can cause hypoplasia in newly developing teeth
311 (Towle & Irish, 2020). As a result, enamel hypoplasia caused by hereditary or environmental
312 factors—such as a deficiency state or a systemic condition—have the same symptoms. This
313 makes it difficult to pinpoint a singular cause for the changes in enamel structure (Goodman,
314 1989), including the impact of paleoenvironments, which may have led to such changes.

315 The lesion on the elk specimen from the Koło site (UAM/IG/KP/21.F1) is associated
316 with a local developmental disorder. Since the development of antlers is affected by many
317 factors, including the type and quality of food, mineral deficiency, hormonal balance, and
318 trauma (Landete-Castillejos et al., 2019), all or some of these things could have played a role.
319 The change is not sufficiently large or extensive, the factor had a long impact on antler
320 development. It most likely represents a trauma that healed when the antler had been
321 covered over with velvet (antler skin). Velvet provides a blood supply and so allows the growth
322 and development of the antler. When the velvet is shed, the antler tissue undergoes ischemic
323 necrosis (Li and Suttle, 2012).

324 **4.4. Dental anomalies and oral pathology**

325 The presence of a cavity in the mammoth tooth from Góra Winnica near Kamień Mściowski
326 (MUZ PIG 40.II.9) can be linked to dental caries, which tends to appear at the junction of the
327 cement and the enamel (Waldron, 2009). In Elephantidae, these two tooth-building materials
328 form distinctive lamellae that are diagnostic of individual species. The development of caries
329 is a multifactorial process that requires a bacterial film (plaque), the presence of a fermentable
330 carbohydrate, and the production of acid (Bowen, 1972). The bacterial film is largely
331 composed of streptococci and lactobacilli, which metabolize fermentable carbohydrates,
332 producing weak organic acids (Takahashi & Nyvad, 2008). These latter are responsible for the
333 drop in local pH, which in turn causes the demineralization of the tissues of the tooth.

334 The moderate degree of tooth destruction relative to the original stage of caries development
335 (usually visible as a brown spot) suggests that the process had been going on for some time.
336 Since the prevalence of caries increases with age (López et al., 2017), one can indirectly infer
337 that the animal was of adult age. This is also confirmed by the degree of wear on the occlusal
338 surface of the tooth.

339 Another case of caries was found in our study of the bear maxilla from the Kadzielnia
340 site (MUZ PIG 39.II.12). Here the cavity affects M2 and the CT scan revealed a hypodense area
341 around the apex of the tooth root, which is consistent with an abscess at the caudal root. Such

342 a dental lesion can be interpreted as an apical abscess of the dental root; this is frequently
343 observed in modern dogs (Jahromi & Mehrshad, 2010).

344 **4.5. Congenital anomaly and inherited disorders**

345 Abnormal tooth formation is a variety of dental anomaly, though given that they may have a
346 genetic basis, we distinguish them here as a separate subcategory, according to the
347 classification of Bartosiewicz and Gal (2013).

348 Changes in plate shapes, like those observed in the mammoth individual from the Ławy
349 site and unknown locality (MZ VIII Vm 861 and 862: Hrynowiecka et al., 2018; MZ VIII Vm 76),
350 are tooth anomalies. According to Kubiak (1965), the deformation of individual plates in
351 mammoths is caused by developmental disorders and occurs during ontogenetic
352 development. A role is also played by pressure on individual teeth in the sequence, as in the
353 Elephantidae tooth replacement is horizontal. Other example of such anomalies with an S-
354 shaped plate (specimen ZS MF/671/64) are known from Poland, as reported by Kubiak
355 (1965).

356 Tooth anomalies in fossil elephants are not attributed to the woolly mammoth
357 (*Mammuthus primigenius*), which confirms they were also found in the steppe elephant
358 (*Mammuthus trogontherii*), and the forest elephant (*Palaeoloxodon (Elephas) antiquus*)
359 (Kubiak, 1965). The diversity of tooth deformities in Elephantidae led to the creation of a
360 classification of developmental anomalies of teeth by Kubiak (1965), based on the cause of
361 the deformation. Teeth with alterations resulting from developmental disturbances fall into
362 the first group, while teeth with abnormally shaped occlusal surfaces make up the second
363 group. Teeth with tumors and protuberances make up the third group, and finally teeth with
364 evidence of metabolic disorders make up the fourth group. The fifth group include teeth that
365 display any other deformities.

366 **4.6. Other lesions**

367 Not every pathological lesion in faunal materials can be unambiguously linked to a disease
368 entity or to an event that caused the injury. An example of this is provided by the elk antlers
369 from Chlewice which display plausible draining sinuses that open as holes in the furcation
370 area, as a consequence of purulent inflammation in the antler. There are several possible
371 explanations for this condition, ranging from a hunting injury, to fighting between individuals,
372 to a local infection that resulted in an abscess during antler development. Since elk, like other
373 cervids, generally avoid fighting when their antlers are covered with velvet, we assume that
374 the event that led to abscess development was accidental. Such large draining sinuses in the
375 furcation area between the tines have previously been recognized in red deer and have been
376 interpreted as the result of purulent inflammation due to a fracture (Kierdorf et al., 2013).
377 Similarly, the causes of the draining sinus in the elk antler from Chlewice may lie in the
378 accumulation of pus or blood, kept under the periosteum for some time before either draining
379 through the velvet or being released by velvet shedding (Kierdorf et al., 2013). The drainage

380 of pus or blood is demonstrated by the presence of a shallow furrow. Regardless of the cause,
381 signs of regeneration indicate that the animal survived.

382 An unusual lesion on bones can be seen in the curled marks on the vertebral arch of a
383 woolly rhinoceros (MUZ PIG 1451.II.1-2) from the Szczyliwickie Lake site, which may be
384 related to the presence of parasites during the animal's lifetime, taphonomic aspects or may
385 represent an imprint of blood vessels, which raises the issue of equifinality in references to
386 their identification. Parasites in the skeleton—the part of human and animal bodies most
387 resistant to posthumous destruction—are less frequently observed than those in soft tissues.
388 They also do not show any specific symptoms on medical imaging (Arkun, 2004). It therefore
389 appears that these marks are impressions related to blood vessels or to post-mortem
390 modifications, rather than to the presence of a parasite. The texture of these marks led us to
391 employ high-resolution photography, which showed it to be due to the sediment filling that
392 partly covers the marks. Thus, the texture is not diagnostic for identifying the origin of marks.
393 At this stage, any attempt to infer a causal agent would be merely speculative; this can be
394 done in future using a broader range of samples with such marks.

395 **5. Conclusions**

396 This paper provides the first overview of the generalized data of paleoecological investigation
397 at various sites in Poland, using paleontological and veterinary approaches to the study of
398 paleopathology of large mammals. The review of individual cases of pathological lesions on
399 Pleistocene and early Holocene remains has shown that they involve woolly rhinoceros, woolly
400 mammoth, large bovids, giant deer, elk, and bears.

401 The classification of Bartosiewicz and Gal (2013) suggests that the cases of pathology
402 found in this study represent the following categories: traumatic lesions, inflammatory
403 disease, arthropathies, diseases associated with the environment, dental anomalies and oral
404 pathology, and inherited anomalies. Many pathologies from a range of epochs in the Holocene
405 can be seen as resulting from direct or indirect human interference with the health of
406 domestic animals, such as crowding, malnutrition, and physical abuse. With the exception of
407 possible hunting injuries, focus on the human factor is generally lacking in paleontological
408 studies. Large and strong species, such as the woolly rhinoceros and the woolly mammoth,
409 can sustain larger or smaller lesions for sufficiently long for them to be manifest on their
410 skeletons.

411 Since the remains represent various species and since pathological evidence is not
412 common in fossil records, this work makes a significant contribution to our knowledge of the
413 condition of megafauna in the past.

414 **Acknowledgments**

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423 **Authorship contribution statement**

424 **Kamilla Pawłowska:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Writing –
425 original draft, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Resources, Project
426 administration, Visualization. **Aleksander Chrószcz:** Methodology, Data analysis, Writing –
427 editing. **Dominik Poradowski:** Methodology, Data analysis, Writing – editing. **Dominika**
428 **Kubiak-Nowak:** CT study. **Wojciech Borawski:** CT study.

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612 **Table captions**

613 **Table 1.** The pathological specimens from Pleistocene and Holocene contexts in Poland used
614 in this study.

615 **Figure captions**

616 **Figure 1.** The Sitkówka site: Photo (A) of bear humerus with exostoses; Photo (B) of bear femur
617 with lipping. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

618 **Figure 2.** Wiercica Cave. Photo (A1) and CT scan (A2) of elk metatarsal with an enthesal
619 reaction on the distal end and buttresses on the shaft. A coronal (lower left), transverse (lower
620 right) and sagittal (upper) CT images (bone window) of metatarsal bone is shown; Photo (B)
621 of large Bovidae metatarsal with periostitis. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

622 **Figure 3.** Góra Winnica site, near Kamień Mściowski. Photo (A) of mammoth tooth, lower M2,
623 with caries. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

624 **Figure 4.** Kadzielnia. Photo (A1) and CT scan (A2) of bear maxilla with caries of M2; Photo (B)
625 of bear metacarpal II with an enthesal reaction. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

626 **Figure 5.** Szczęśliwickie Lake site. Photo (A) of large Bovidae ulna with exostosis; Photo (B1)
627 and CT scan (B2) of woolly rhino vertebra with furrows, partially filled with sediment (B3).
628 (Photo K. Pawłowska)

629 **Figure 6.** Barycz site. Photo (A), histology (B) and radiology and computer tomography (C) of
630 a giant deer skull with a bent right antler (Pawłowska et al., 2014). The asterisk indicates a
631 focus with a normal radiological shadow and the arrows indicate two foci with different tissue
632 densities.

633 **Figure 7.** Photographs (A and B) of mammoth teeth showing malformation, Ławy site and
634 unknown locality; (C) a mammoth thoracic vertebra with periostitis, Pyskowice site. (Photo K.
635 Pawłowska)

636 **Figure 8.** Photograph (A) of a mammoth tooth showing furrows, Mosina site; (B) mammoth
637 ulna with periostitis, Zaniemyśl site. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

638 **Figure 9.** Photo (A) of elk antler with malformation, Koło site; (B) elk antler with holes,
639 Chlewice site. The asterisk indicates bone resorption caused by pressure exercised by pus or
640 blood that was held underneath the periosteum and velvet. (Photo K. Pawłowska)

641

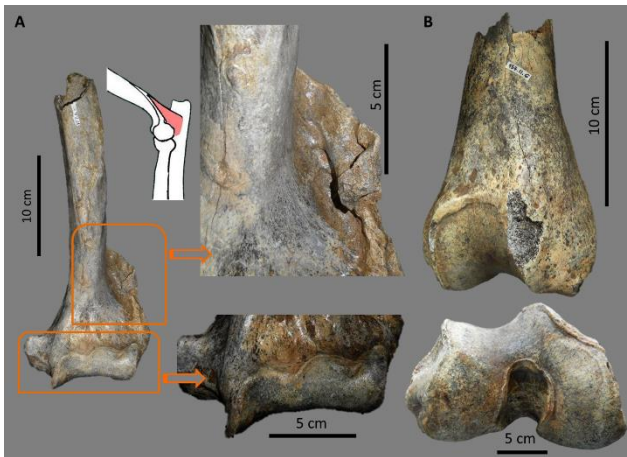
642 Table 1

Site	Site chronology	Taxon	Element	Inventory number	Pathological lesions and classification	References
Chlewickie	Holocene	<i>Alces alces</i>	Antler	-	Trauma	This study
Koło	Holocene	<i>Alces alces</i>	Antler	UAM/IG/KP/21.F1	Healed trauma/ Developmental disorder	This study
Zaniemyśl	Late Pleistocene	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	Ulna	-	Periostitis	This study
Mosina	Late Pleistocene	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	Upper M3	MO 112.F1	Dental hypoplasia	This study
Pyskowice	Pleistocene	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	Thoracic vertebra	UAM/IG/KP/39.F2	Inflammation/ Congenital anomaly	This study
Ławy and unknown locality	Late Pleistocene	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	two lower M3; upper M3	MZ VIII Vm 861, MZ VIII Vm 862 and MZ VIII Vm 76	Developmental disorders	Hrynowiecka et al., 2017 & This study
Barycz	Late Pleistocene	<i>Megaloceros giganteus</i>	antler	IG-Br 12.F1	Antler malformation	Pawłowska et al., 2017
Szczęśliwickie Lake	Late Pleistocene	<i>Coelodonta antiquitatis</i>	Axis	MUZ PIG 1451.II.1-2	Blood vessels or to post-mortem modifications	This study
Szczęśliwickie Lake	Late Pleistocene	<i>Bos/Bison</i>	Ulna	MUZ PIG 1451.II.15	Entheseal reaction	This study
Kadzielnia	Late Pleistocene	<i>Ursus sp.</i>	Metacarpal II	MUZ PIG 39.II.28	Entheseal reaction	This study
Kadzielnia	Late Pleistocene	<i>Ursus spelaeus</i>	Maxilla and teeth	MUZ PIG 39.II.12	Caries	This study
Góra Winnica near Kamiień Mściowski	Late Pleistocene	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	Lower M2	MUZ PIG 40.II.9	Caries	This study
Wiercica cave	Late Pleistocene	<i>Bos/ Bison</i>	Metatarsus	MUZ PIG 335.II.14	Periostitis	This study
Wiercica cave	Late Pleistocene	<i>Alces alces</i>	Metatarsus	MUZ PIG 335.II.18	Entheseal reaction; buttresses; trauma	This study
Sitkówka	Middle to Late Pleistocene (MIS 11 and MIS 5d-2)	<i>Ursus spelaeus/ Ursus deningeri</i>	Femur	MUZ PIG 157.II.6	Entheseal reaction; Inflammatory arthritis	This study
Sitkówka	Middle to Late Pleistocene (MIS 11 and MIS 5d-2)	<i>Ursus spelaeus/ Ursus deningeri</i>	Humerus	MUZ PIG 157.II.40	Entheseal reaction; Inflammatory arthritis	This study

643

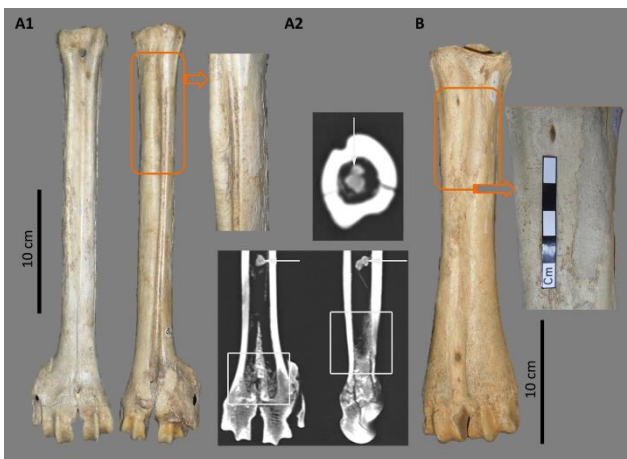
A A M M

644 Figure 1



645

646 Figure 2



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648 Figure 3

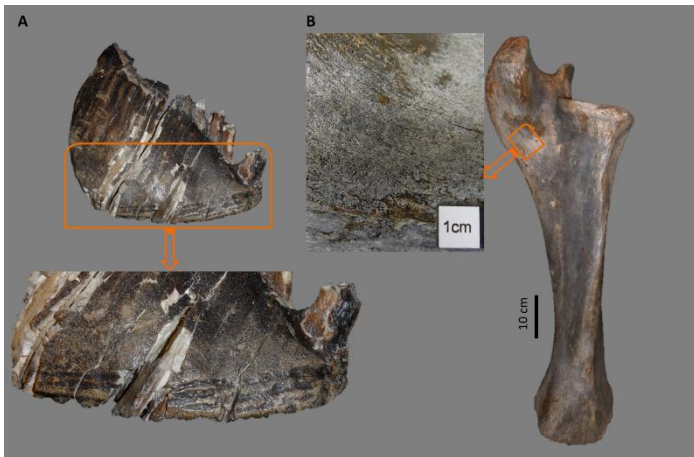


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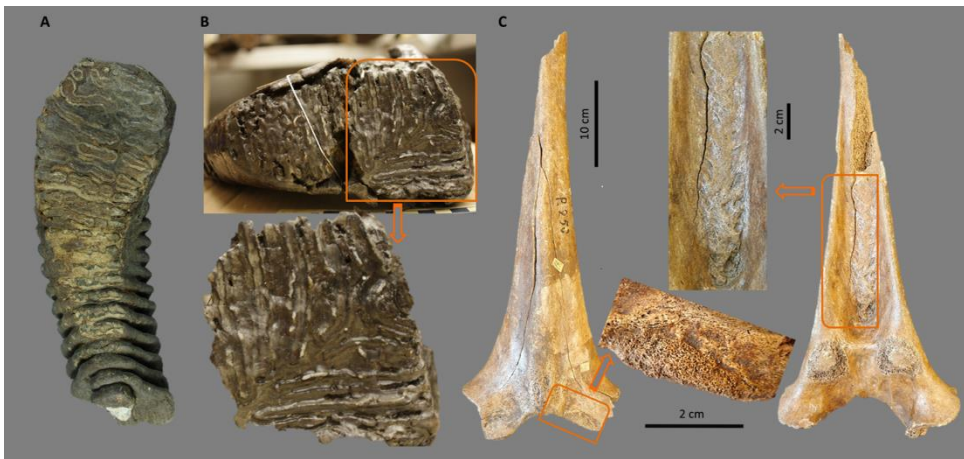


651 Figure 4



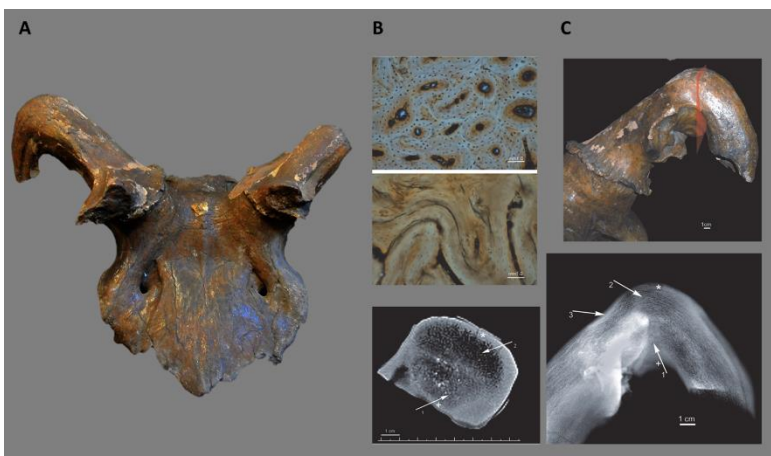
652

653 Figure 5



654

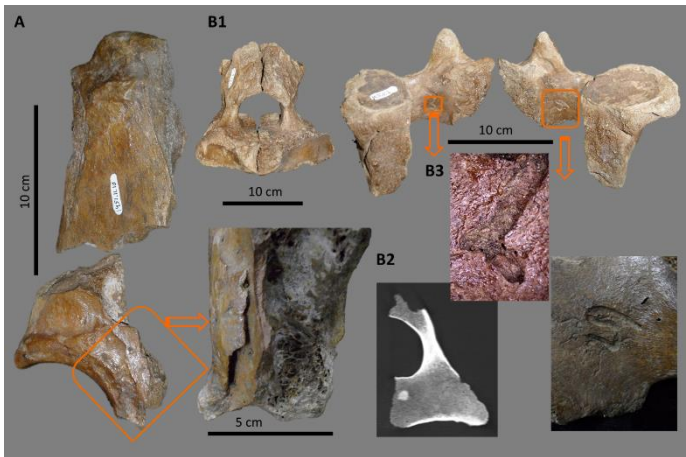
655 Figure 6



656

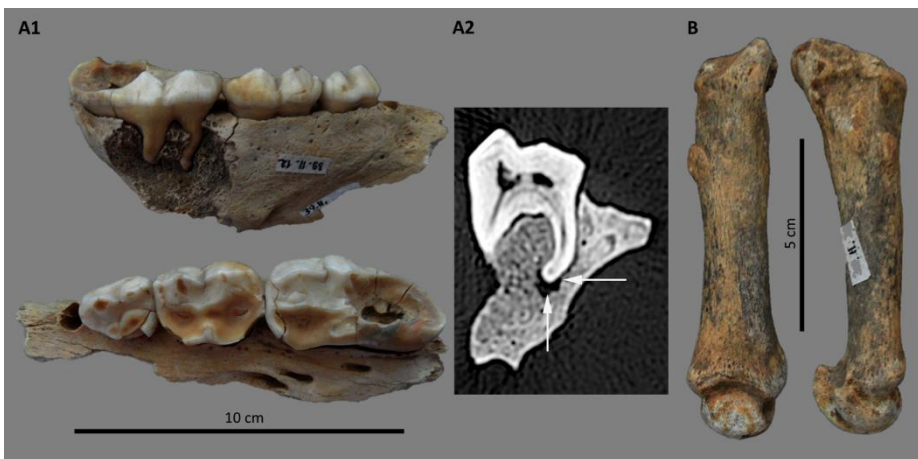
657

658 Figure 7



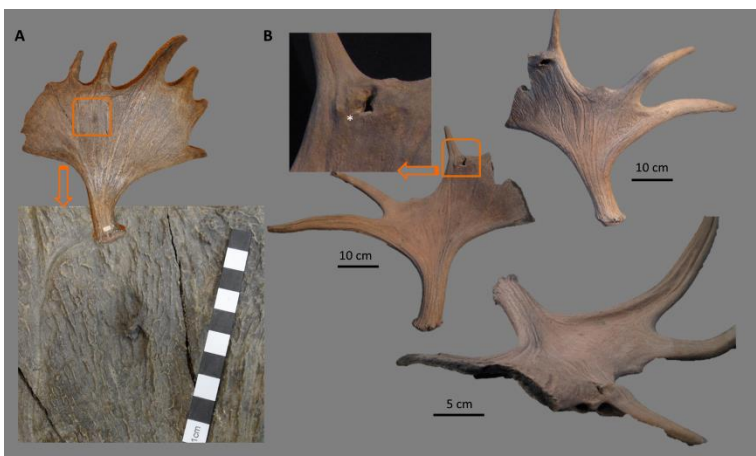
659

660 Figure 8



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662 Figure 9



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