



DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.400781

BIOARCHAEOLOGY, CONSERVATION AND DISPLAY OF A 16K-HUMAN SKELETON, JORDAN

Ahmad Y. Abu Dalou¹, Abdelrahman M. ElSerogy^{2,3}, Abdulla A. Al-Shorman¹,
Mohammad Alrousan¹, Ali Khwaileh¹

¹Department of Anthropology, Faculty of Archaeology and Anthropology, Yarmouk University, Irbid,
Jordan

²Department of Restoration Faculty of Archaeology, Fayoum University, Fayoum, Egypt

³Department of Conservation and Management of Cultural Resources, Faculty of Archaeology and Anthropology, Yarmouk University, Irbid, Jordan

Received: 08/03/2017

Accepted: 01/04/2017

Corresponding author: Abdelrahman ElSerogy (xserogy@yahoo.com)

ABSTRACT

The Jordanian Museum of Cultural Heritage houses the oldest human skeleton unearthed in Jordan; Radiocarbon analysis revealed a date of approximately 16000 years BP. The purpose of the study is to reconstruct the biology and way of life of an individual who lived in an era that is still ignored by archaeologists in the region. The methods of the reconstruction include bioarchaeological investigation, XRD, XRF, FTIR, pH meter, and microbiology. The results indicate a 31-years-old male with an estimated height of about 172.4-175.2 cm. The bone pathology on the vertebrae and long bones suggests that the individual endured hard daily life activities. His teeth showed oblique dental wear that is attributed to using them as tools. The cause of death was probably due to a blunt force trauma to the left side of the skull. The bone analyses using XRD, XRF, FTIR, and pH meter ruled out bone diagenesis, which nominate the skeleton for further chemical analyses. The microbiological tests revealed the presence of a wide range of microorganisms: *Aspergillus niger*, *Penicillium chrysogenum*, *Penicillium digitatum*, yeasts, *Corynebacterium equantium*, *Corynebacterium pyogenes*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas pseudoaeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella enterica*, and *Corynebacterium pseudodiphtheriticum*. For the purpose of exhibiting the skeleton at the Museum and ensuring longer survival, the previous conservation materials (P.V.A) were replaced by new ones (Paraloid B 72).

KEYWORDS: Bioarchaeology, Conservation, Skeleton, Jordan, XRD, XRF, FTIR.

1. INTRODUCTION

The archaeological skeletal remains are one of the most abundant findings at the Jordanian archaeological sites and probably the most useful. Studying them adds to the understanding of the health, growth, diet, environment, and migrations of past human societies (Larsen, 2015; Al-Shorman, 2007), especially when archaeological records stand effete in reconstructing the past history as triggered by the absence or scarcity of other archaeological materials. An example of such an archaeological period in Jordan is the period when there was a shift from hunting and gathering to agriculture (Rolston, 1982). Archaeologists agreed that there was a decline in the overall health for the generations of people who lived during this shift (Latham, 2013). This deterioration was triggered by greater physiological stress due to under nutrition and infectious diseases (Ulijaszek *et al.*, 1991:271). However the period before 15000 BP has received little if any archaeological studies. In this period, the cold and harsh environment possessed extra demand on the human adaptation (Olszewski, 2008), especially in arid and semi arid regions of the Near East. Al-Kharaneh, east of Jordan, is one of these areas were fortunately an Epipaleolithic human skeleton was recovered in 1982. Studying this skeleton adds to the general archaeological picture of this ignored period. Consequently, a special attention should be directed toward the preservation and conservation of recovered skeletal materials from this period since discovery because they are sensitive and fragile (Plenderleth and Werner, 1971; Muller and Reiche, 2006).

Studying archaeological bone materials includes a wide array of chemical and analytical methods. For example, Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) has been used extensively to examine the bone organic material and its crystallinity (Wright and Schwarcz, 1996; Lee-Throp and Sponheimer, 2003; Alvarez-Lioret *et al.*, 2006; Brock *et al.*, 2010), where the FTIR peaks at 565 cm^{-1} and 605 cm^{-1} increased while the peak at 595 cm^{-1} decreased (Stiner *et al.*, 2001). On the other hand, XRD uses X-rays of known wavelengths to determine the lattice spacing in the bone crystal lattice and therefore identifies chemical compounds of the sampled bones (Al-Shorman, 2013). An example of one of the earliest use of XRD in archaeological bones analysis is the study by Hassan *et al.* (1977) who evaluated the chemical composition of bones for radiocarbon dating. Another study was conducted on four archaeological sites from Jordan to examine the crystallinity index using XRD (Al-Shorman, 2010) and found that the burial environment is a major factor in bone diagenesis. Another

technique is X-ray Fluorescence (XRF), which measures the elements of bone samples. For example, Todd and Landriagan (1993) and Little *et al.* (2014) measured the heavy metal content in archaeological bone using XRF. This technique was used also to examine the ionic exchange between soil solutions and bone (Pate *et al.*, 1989). The burial environment has also received the archaeologists attention (Nord *et al.*, 2005), where the soil acidity is a major factor in skeletal preservation (Gordon and Buikstra, 1981). The microbial attack of archaeological bones has also received a significant consideration especially during the early stages of diagenesis (Muller *et al.* 2011). Such studies were able to visualize the microstructural damage cause by the bacteria (Nielsen-Marsh and Hedges, 2000; Jans *et al.*, 2004), identify the various microbial species colonizing bones (White and Booth, 2014) and then inferring the biological burial context (Child, 1995).

However, the inclusion of modern chemical analyses in the field of archaeological skeletal analysis has contributed to the advancement of knowledge regarding the biological and social contexts of buried human remains. There are several factors that need to be considered in studying bone diagenesis: microbial attack, collagen loss, crystallinity increase, dissolution, and uptake of groundwater solutes (Hedges, 2002), porosity, bulk density, carbonate to phosphate ratio, and cracking (Smith *et al.*, 2007). The current case study is an example, but one, that elucidates on the intertwined methods in extracting information from skeletal materials.



Figure 1. A Map of Jordan that shows Al-Kharaneh archaeological site.

The studied skeleton is displayed at the Jordanian Museum of Cultural Heritage/Yarmouk University, Jordan. It was recovered from a pit at the archaeological site of Al-Kharaneh, Al Azraq desert, 70 Km east of Amman (Fig. 1). The individual was buried in an extended position, where the head and legs were covered by large boulders and two antlers (Fig. 2). However, the common burial practices

during this period (Epipaleolithic) was a flexed position in a small pit (Al-Shorman, 2007), which questions the manner of death as the study clarifies later.



Figure 2. The human skeleton during its discovery in 1982 (Muheisen, 1988).

Radiocarbon analysis revealed a date of approximately 16000 years BP (Rolston, 1982), which puts the skeleton on top of the oldest skeletal collections in Jordan. This skeleton tells the story of a vague period in the history of the transition from hunting and gathering to agriculture. The previous conservation has technical problems; the conservation materials were inappropriate and contributed to further deterioration. and the method of application did not follow 'thin film' techniques. In addition, the skeleton was displayed on dirt with the presence of insects (Silverfish). The temperature and humidity of the showcase are not appropriate for preserving organic materials. The average humidity is about 74% during summer days and 34% during nights; this fluctuation contributes to the deterioration of the organic matter of the skeletal materials at the museum (Khasawneh, 2006). In summer, the temperature may reach 30°C during the day, and the difference in temperature between day and night may reach 10°C, which enhances further deterioration especially by insects and microbes (Caple, 2000). The skeleton was not exhibited in an anatomical position.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This study comprised one human skeleton that was recovered during a field excavation in the year of 1982. Radiocarbon dating revealed a date of about 16000 years BP- the Epipaleolithic Period (22500-10500 BP). Accordingly, the individual lived in a period just before humans were semi sedentary living in larger and organized groups (Al-Shorman and Khwaileh, 2011). The methods of the study include anthroposcopic examination of the human skeleton after Buikstra and Ubelaker (1991) while the stature was estimated after (Bass, 1987). The other method is analytical chemistry techniques (XRD, XRF, and FTIR). The sample size for analytical chemistry is 1 mg each (after grinding to a fine powder) and obtained from bone fragments (total number is 3). For the X-ray diffraction (XRD, Schimatzo 6000), the results were calibrated to a synthetic hydroxyapatite curve, where the used voltage is 40 Kv at 2 theta with a continuous speed of 1 deg/min. The other technique is X-ray fluorescence (XRF, Philips Minipal PW4025), which was standardless as the results do not aim to quantify the concentrations but to characterize the presence of elements. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR, Bruker-Tensor 27) was also performed after mixing the grinded samples with 30 mg of KBr to ensure noise elimination of the peaks. The pH meter (PH315i/set) was used to measure the acidity of soil sample after calibration with known standards. The methods of conservation include cleaning, sterilization, consolidation, and coating to protect the skeleton from the surrounding environment using Paraloid B72 (Ambrose and Paine, 2007). For microbial testing, sterilized swabs were taken from the skeleton and cultivated in nutrient agars after Barrow and Feltham (2003). Fungi Complete media was also used to obtain pure cultures of them. After 3 days of growth at 37 °C, fungal colonies were observed. Morphological identification of fungal isolates was performed microscopically after Elserogy et al. (2016). (Fig. 3).



A



B

Figure 3. The method of taking swabs for microbial culture from (A) the skull and (B) the spine.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Bioarchaeological assessment

The skeleton displays a poor preservation condition, where most of the bones were fragmented, bleached, and fragile. The bioarchaeological assessment extracts the demographic elements of the individual as well as the health status. Based on the

shape of the Greater Sciatic Notch of the pelvis, Sacrum, Supra Orbital Ridge, and Mastoid process, the sex of the individual was male. The age of the individual was determined based on teeth, bone fusion, and the morphology of the auricular surface to be 30-31 years old (Table 1).

Table 1: The age estimation based on teeth, bone fusion, and the morphology of the auricular surface.

Feature	Description	Estimated age
Teeth	All of the teeth were fully erupted	+18 years
Bone fusion of the clavicle	Medial and lateral epiphyses are fused	+30 years
Morphology of Auricular surface of the pelvis	No apical activity, slight retroauricular activity, coarse granularity on superior demiface and significant striae on inferior demiface	31 years

There is myositis ossificans on the medial side of the left tibial midshaft (Fig. 4). This type of pathology is usually occurred at the insertion of muscles due to traumatic origin (Vargova *et al.*, 2016), where after prolonged inflammation calcification starts to accumulate. Rolston (1982) in his report on the skeleton to the Jordanian Department of Antiquities mentioned that the left tibia is 9mm shorter than the right one. However, the right tibia is currently missing. The left fibula shows a healed fracture at its distal end (Fig. 5). Both of the clavicles show bone lesions on their inferior medial surfaces (rhomboid fossa), the site at which costoclavicular ligament is attached. When prominent, the rhomboid fossa may be mistaken for an osteolytic lesion (Kumar *et al.*, 1989) (Fig. 6). Osteoarthritis is apparent at the synovial joints and severe osteophytes mostly on the lumbar vertebrae (Fig. 7), which could be attributed to carrying heavy loads on the back (Kim *et al.*, 2012; Alrousan and Abu Dalou, 2013). Although osteoarthritis advances with aging, the current case as being young is a clear indicator of living in a very harsh environment and at the same time enduring a tough daily living activity. The skull

exhibits multiple fractures that probably happened perimortem as each fracture did not extend beyond the previous one. Accordingly, the sequence of the fractures can be reconstructed as shown in figure 8 below. The fracture labeled 1 occurred first followed by 2 and then 3. This type of fracture is caused by a blunt force trauma to the left side of the skull. This trauma explains the manner of death, where the individual was found buried in extended not flexed position and at the same time not in a cemetery.

Unfortunately, the bones of the face are missing where nothing can be said about the maxillary teeth. The mandible shows that the left lower second incisor was lost long time before death as the tooth socket was completely healed. The rest of the teeth were still in occlusion at the time of death. Periodontal disease is substantial as there were extensive alveolar bone resorption of the lower jaw. The left and right premolars and molars show extensive oblique dental wear caused by using teeth as tools (Al-Shorman, 2003; Al-Shorman and Khalil, 2006; Alrousan, 2009; 2016) (Fig. 9). The left side shows more oblique wear compared to the right one, which concludes a person who was probably left-sided.

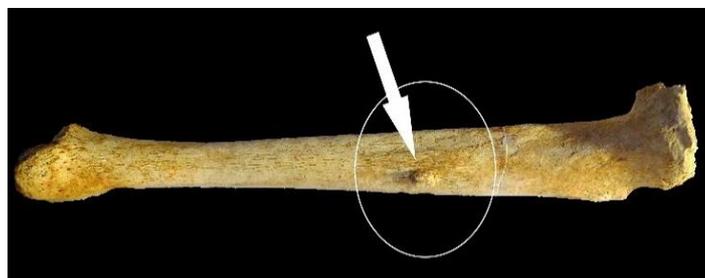


Figure 4: Myositis ossificans of the midshaft of the left Tibia.



Figure 5: Healed fracture of the left fibula.



Figure 6: Right and left clavicle lesions at the rhomboid fossa.

The stature of the individual was estimated using the maximum lengths of the humerus and tibia (31.1 cm and 36.9 cm respectively). The stature based on the humerus is 172.4-181.4 cm and 167.2-175.2 cm based on tibia. The final estimate would be 172.4-175.2 cm. This value falls within the range of the male living population in the country of Jordan (Abu Dalou, 2016).



Figure 9: the oblique dental wear of the lower jaw.



Figure 7: Osteophytosis of the lumbar vertebrae.



Figure 8: The pattern of skull fracture.

3.2. The previous conservation of the skeleton

Unfortunately, the previous conservation method and procedures were not documented, which required extra examination and evaluation of the preservation condition of the skeleton. For example, the previous consolidation depended on the use of a regular glue without prior cleaning, and the application method was not thin films. Furthermore, the vertebrae were glued together using the same material without cleaning. Some of these vertebrae glued together using a paste that resembles gums (Figs. 10, 11, and 12). In addition, a piece of newspaper was found glued to some vertebrae.

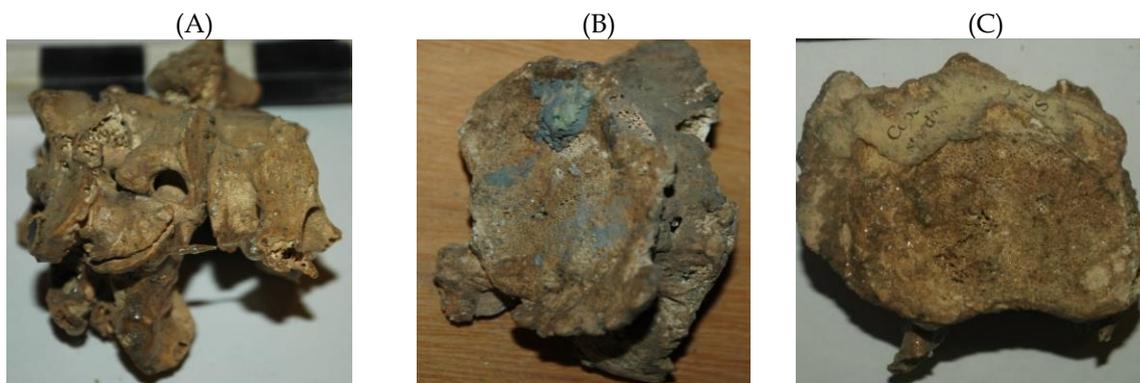


Figure 10: (A) The previous conservation in which the adhesive material was used excessively (B) the use of a gum to glue vertebra broken parts together, (C) A piece of a newspaper was placed on one of the vertebrae.



Figure 11: (A and B) The adhesive material was placed over the dirt.



Figure 12: (A) The excessive adhesive material inside a bone. (B) The mandible was partially cleaned and it appears with multiple colors.

The length of the display area was 95 cm; not convenient to the stature of the skeleton. The presence of the skeleton in a pit of dirt helps gather insects and fungi (Fig. 13), where they have the ability to digest bone collagen (Metcalf *et al.*, 2016). In addition, these insects can digest calcium and phosphorus of the bones (Brady *et al.*, 2008); a recovered example is silverfish bugs (*Lepisma saccharina*). Humidity plays an important role in the biological deteriorations as a chemical reaction between bone elements and SO₂ or CO₂. Humidity also enhances further microbial attack (Collins *et al.*, 2002). The microbes consume a

huge amount of phosphorus for their growth: an element that constitute about 18% of bone weight. In addition, anaerobic microbes produce a number of organic acids (Metcalf *et al.*, 2016), which convert phosphorus insoluble compounds to soluble ones and dissolve the inorganic lattice of bone (Hydroxyapatite: Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂). In addition, fungi are among the agents that are responsible for the deterioration of organic materials and produce a number of enzymes that contribute to collagen autolysis (Hiller *et al.*, 2004).



Figure 13: The method of old display, the bones were placed incorrectly.

3.3. pH value

The pH was measured for soil samples that were attached to the surface of the bones using pH meter in order to control further diagenesis. Three readings were taken at different time intervals. The results show an average pH of 5.9, which means an acidic environment. Some bacterial species are able to live in such an environment (Gerardi, 2006). Furthermore, the acidic soil dissolves the hydroxyapatite of bones (Abdel-Maksoud and Abdel-Hady, 2011) and soften collagen (Al-Shorman, 2013).

3.4. The microbiological test

The method isolates, identifies, and treats the microbes that are responsible for the deterioration of the archaeological bone. The results revealed the presence of *Aspergillus niger*, *Penicillium chryso-genum*, *Penicillium digitatum*, and yeasts. The bacterial species are *Corynebacterium aquatium*, *Corynebacterium pyogemes*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas pseudoaeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella enterica*, and *Corynebacterium pseudodiphtheriticum*. The study also shows that the concentration of the bacteria (Colony-Forming Units/ml: CFU/ml) on the sampled bones is very high compared to the other displayed artifacts (Fig. 14).

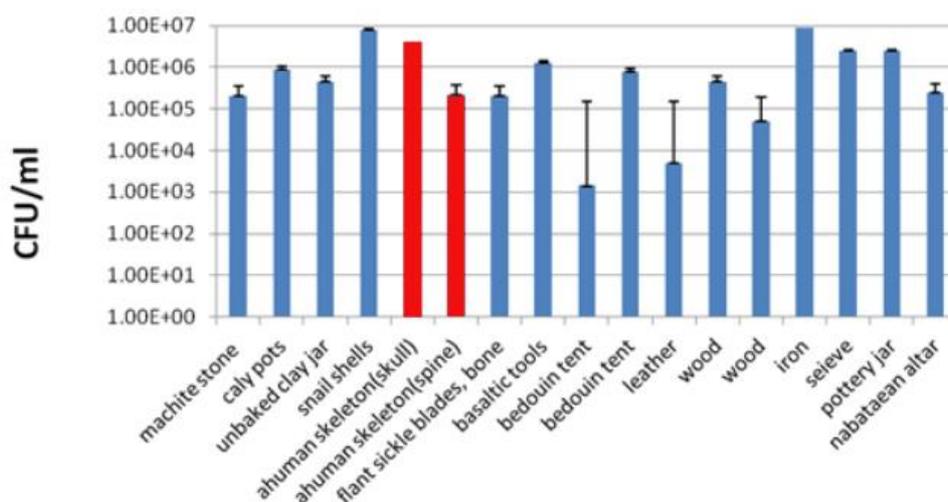


Figure 14: The percentages of bacteria in the skeleton and the other materials in the museum.

3.5. X-Ray diffraction

This technique characterizes the various crystal compounds attached to the bone surface or incorporated into its lattice structure due to soil bone ex-

change. Samples for XRD analysis were taken from the broken parts of the skeleton. The results showed the presence of fluoroapatite (Fig. 15). The fluorine enters the bones after they are buried as fluorides and/or dissolved fluorine, where it replaces the

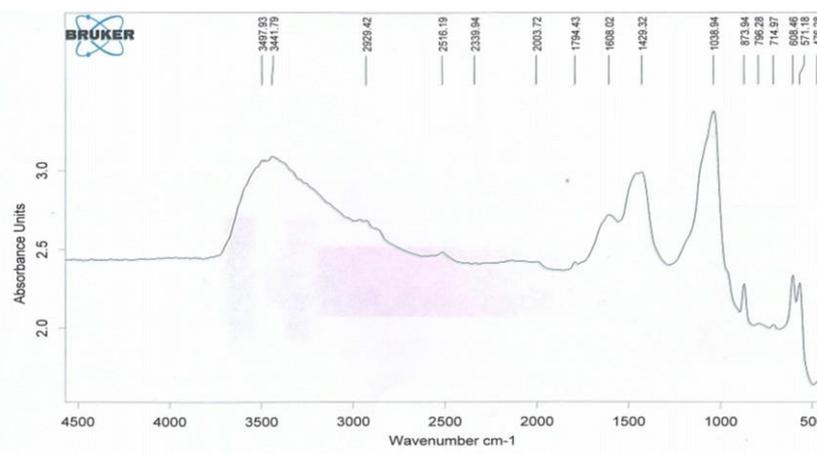


Figure 17. FTIR results for a sample from the skeleton (A fragment from a rib as it's the most vulnerable to diagenesis due to its thin cortical bone).

4. Removal of the previous conservation materials

The skeleton was cleaned mechanically by the use of different types of paint brushes in order to remove the accumulated dirt (Fig. 18). Then the cleaning process continued using a wood spatula, a medical

scalpel, and dentist's tools in order to remove the calcified mud on the bones. Chemical cleaning was then used to remove old consolidants using organic diluted solutions (Ethyle Alcohol: C_2H_5OH) with a concentration of 80% after Johnson (1994).

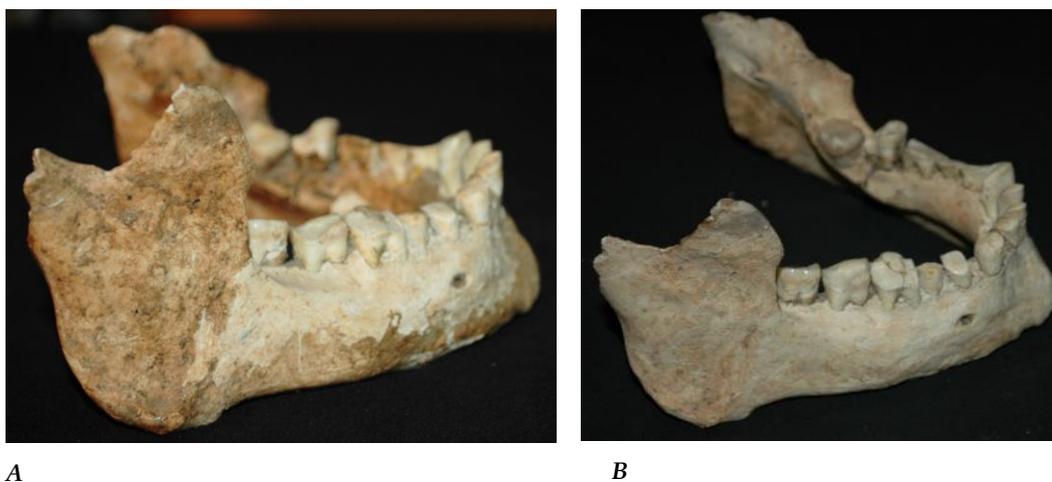


Figure 18. The mandible (A) before and (B) after the cleaning and conservation processes.

Gluing the broken parts

After the application of the mechanical and chemical cleaning, several broken bones were carefully identified and glued using Paraloid B 72 with a concentration of 10% (Podany et al., 2001). Previous studies revealed that Paraloid B 72 is considered as one of the best adhesive materials in bone conservation and can be used under room temperature. Paraloid B 72 is a reversible adhesive material, transparent, and its color is temperature resistant (Briellery, 2010).

Consolidation and coating of the skeleton

The consolidation and coating is one of the most important steps in conservation of archaeological bones. A thin film of Paraloid B 72 w/acetone (5% concentration) was applied for consolidation (Podany et al., 2001). The consolidation procedure was applied under room temperature (Turner, 2007).

The display of the skeleton

The skeleton was displayed in a showcase (Fig. 19). It was laid according to the anatomical position

taking into consideration the stature of the skeleton. Light-Emitting Diode was used in the showcase, which is not harmful compared to previous ultraviolet or infrared lights. Ultraviolet and infrared lights generate heat that degrade the organic

materials in bones. Furthermore, the glass showcase ensures a clean environment with no dirt, dust, or pollutants that may affect the archaeological bones negatively (Ambrose and Paine, 2007).



A



B

Figure 19: (A) before conservation and (B) after conservation.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The individual of this study had lived 1000 years before the climate began to ameliorate as glaciers in the northern latitudes began a relatively rapid retreat (Olszewski, 2008). Around 15000 BP vegetation communities like the Mediterranean forest became much broader in distribution, as temperatures became somewhat warmer and humidity increased (Baruch and Bottema 1991: 16). In other words, the individual lived in a very harsh environment with

limited food resources that impacted his health. His death was tragic as he died of a blunt force trauma to the head. The previous preservation, conservation and display that were performed after its recovery in 1982 were scientifically incorrect and could have been attributed to further physical and chemical damages. The skeleton has little if any diagenesis as reported by the results of FTIR, XRD and XRF. However, there is considerable microbial attack that could lead to further degradation of the bones.

REFERENCES

- Abdel-Maksoud, G., Abdel-Hady, M. (2011) Effect of Burial Environment on Crocodile Bones from Hawara Excavation. *Journal of Cultural Heritage*, 12, 180–189.
- Abu Dalou, A. (2016) Height of Northern Jordanian Middle-Class Adults, Born 1960-1990 in the Response to Improving Socio-economic Conditions. *Economics and Human Biology*, 22: 155-160.
- Alrousan, M. (2009) *The Mesolithic-Neolithic Transition in the Near East: Biological implications of the shift in subsistence strategies through the analysis of dental morphology and dietary habits of human populations in the Mediterranean area 12,000-5,000 B.P.* PhD Dissertation, University of Barcelona, Spain.
- Alrousan, M. (2016) Human Dental Buccal Microwear and Paleodiet Reconstruction. *Anthropologie*. 54(3): 305-315.

- Alrousan, M. , Abu Dalou, A. (2013) *Reflections on Human Skeletons from Tall Abu Al-Kharaz*. Pp: 333-338. in P. M. Fischer and T. Bürge, *The Swedish Jordan Expedition 2011 and 2012 at Tall Abu al-Kharaz. Fourteenth and Fifteenth Seasons: Preliminary Results. Opuscula. Annual of the Swedish Institutes in Athens and Rome*, 6: 307-338.
- Al-Shorman, A. (2003) A Byzantine tomb from Khirbat Yajuz, Jordan. *Journal of Paleopathology*, 15(3), 177-186.
- Al-Shorman, A., Khalil, L. (2006) The Evidence of Weaving at Khirbit Yajuz. *International Journal of Dental Anthropology*.8:1-9.
- Al-Shorman, A. (2007) *The archaeothanatology of Jordan*. Irbid: Yarmouk University Press.
- Al-Shorman, A. (2010) Diagenesis of the Skeletal Remains in Four Archaeological Sites in Northern Jordan. *Jordan Journal for History and Archaeology* 4(1): 202-217.
- Al-Shorman, A. (2013) *The Chemistry of Archaeological Human Bone*. Irbid: Yarmouk University Press.
- Al-Shorman, A., Khwaileh, A. (2011) Burial practices in Jordan from the Natufians to the Persians . *Estonian Journal of Archaeology*, 18, 88-108.
- Alvarez-Lioret, P., Navarro, A., Romanek, C., Gaines, K., & Congdon, Y. (2006) Quantitative analysis of bone mineral using FTIR. *MCLA* , 6, 45-47.
- Ambrose, A., Paine, G. (2007) *Museum basics* . London: Taylor and Francis .
- Barrow, G., Feltham, R. (2003) *Cowan's and Steel's manual for the identification of medical bacteria*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bass, W. (1987). *Human Osteology: A laboratory and field manual* (3rd ed.). Columbia: Missouri Archaeological Society.
- Baruch, U. Bottema, S (1991) Palynological Evidence for Climatic Changes in the Levant ca. 17,000-9,000 B.P. In Bar-Yosef, O. and Valla, F. (eds.), *The Natufan Culture in the Levant*, 11-20. Ann Arbor: International Monographs in Prehistory.
- Brieler, L. (2010). Conservation of a Neolithic plaster statue from ain Ghazal, Jordan IIC . *Istanbul congress for conservation in the Eastern Mediterranean*. Istanbul.
- Brock, F., Higham, T., & Bronk Ramsey, C. (2010) Pre-screening techniques for identification of samples suitable for radiocarbon dating of poorly preserved bones. *Journal of Archaeological Science* , 37, 855-865.
- Buikstra, J., Ubelaker, D. (1994) *Standards: For data collection from human skeletal remains*. Fayetteville: Arkansas Archaeological Survey Research Series No. 44.
- Caple, C. (2000) *Conservation skills, judgment, methods and making*. London: Routledge.
- Child, A. (1995) Microbial taphonomy of archaeological bone. *Studies in Conservation* 40: 19-30.
- Collins, M., Nielsen, C., Hiller, J., Smith, C., Prijodich, R., Wess, T., & Turner-Walker, G. (2002). The survival of organic matter in bone: a review. *Archaeometry*, 44, 383-394.
- Cruz Baltazar, V. (2001) Studies on the state of preservation of archaeological bone. *Unpublished PhD thesis*. University of Bradford.
- Elserogy, A., Kanan, G., Hussein, E & Khreis, S. (2016) characterization and treatment of microbial agents responsible for the deterioration of archaeological objects in three Jordanian museums. *Mediterranean Archaeology and Archaeometry*, 16(1), 117-126.
- Gordon, C., Buikstra, J. (1981) Soil pH, bone preservation, and sampling bias at mortuary site. *American Antiquity* 46: 566-571.
- Gerardi, M. (2006) *Waste water Bacteria*. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- Hassan, A. (1977) Mineralogical studies of bone apatite and their implications for radiocarbon dating. *Radiocarbon* , 19 (3), 364-374.
- Hedges, R. (2002) Bone diagnosis: an overview processes. *Archaeometry* 44 (3): 319 - 328.
- Hollund, H., Ariese, F., Fernandes, R., Jans, M., Kars, H. (2013) Testing an alternative high throughput tool for investigating bone diagenesis: FTIR in attenuated total reflection (ATR) mode. *Archaeometry* 55 (3): 505-532.
- Hiller, J., Collins, M. J., Chamberlain, A., & Wess, T. (2004) Small-angle X-ray scattering: a high-throughput technique for investigating archaeological bone preservation. *Journal of Archaeological Science*, 31, 1349-1359.
- Janes, M., Nielsen-Marsh, C., Smith, C., Collins, M., & Kars, H. (2004) Characterisation of microbial attack on archaeological bone. *Journal of Archaeological Science* 31:87-95.
- Johnson, J. (1994) Consolidation of Archaeological Bone from a Conservation perspective. *Journal of Field Archaeology*, 21, 221-233.

- Khasawneh, T. (2006) Museum Environmental Control as a Tool for Preventive Conservation Museum of Jordanian Heritage as Case Study. Unpublished Master's Thesis- Department of Conservation and Cultural Heritage Management- Yarmouk University, Irbid - Jordan. *Unpublished MA Thesis*. Irbid, Jordan.
- Kim, D., Kim, M., Kim, S, Oh, C., & Shin, D. (2012). Kim, D.K., Kim, M.J., KiVertebral osteophytes of pre-modern Korean skeletons from Joseon tombs. *Anatomy and Cell Biology*, 45(4), 274 - 281.
- Kumar, R.; Madewell, J.; Swischuk, L.; Lindel, M.; & David, R. (1989). The Clavicle: Normal and Abnormal. *Radiographics*, 9(4): 677-706.
- Larsen, C. (2015) *Bioarchaeology: interpreting behavior from the human skeleton* (2nd. ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Latham, K. (2013) Human Health and the Neolithic Revolution: an Overview of Impacts of the Agricultural Transition on Oral Health, Epidemiology, and the Human Body. *Nebraska Anthropologist*. Paper 187.
- Lee-Thorp, J., Sponheimer, M. (2003) Three case studies used to reassess the reliability of fossil bone and enamel isotope signals for paleodietary studies. *Journal of Anthropological Archaeology* , 22, 208-216.
- Little, C., Florey, V., Molina, I., Owsley, D., Speakman, R. (2014). Measuring heavy metal content in bone using portable X-ray fluorescence. *Open Journal of Archaeometry* 2: 5257
- Metcalf, J., Carter, D., & Knight, R. (2016) Microbiology of death: *Current Biology* 26 (13):561-563.
- Muheisen, M. (1988) The Epipaleolithic Phases of IV. In: A. Garrard and Gebel. H (ed.) *The Prehistory of Jordan, The State of Research in 1986* :353-367. Oxford, BAR International Series 396.
- Müller, K., Chadeaux, C., Thomas, N., & Reiche, I. (2011) Microbial attack of archaeological bone versus high concentrations of heavy metals in the burial environment. A case study of animal bones from a mediaeval copper workshop in Paris. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 310 (1-2): 39-51.
- Muller, K., Reiche, H. (2006) *Archaeological bone and ivory in the of synchrotron light*. Paris, France.
- Olszewski, D. (2008) 'The Palaeolithic Period, including the Epipalaeolithic, in *Jordan, an Archaeological Reader*, Adams, R. (ed.), London: Equinox.
- Nielsen- Marsh, R., Hedges, C. (2000) Patterns of diagenesis in bone I: the effects site environment. *Journal of Archaeological Science* 27: 1139-1150.
- Nord, A., Kars, H., Ullén, I., Tronner, K., & Kars, E. (2005) Deterioration of archaeological bone – a statistical approach. *Journal of Nordic Archaeological Science* 15: 77-86.
- Pate, F.; Hutton, J.& Norrish, J. (1989) Ionic exchange between soil solution and bone: toward a predictive model. *Applied Geochemistry* 4: 303-316.
- Plenderleth, H., & Werner, A. (1971) *The conservation of antiquities and works of arts*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Podany, J., Garland, K., Freeman, W., & Rogers, J. (2001) Paraloid B-72 as a structural adhesive and as a barrier within structural adhesive bonds: evaluations of strength and reversibility. *Journal of the American Institute for Conservation* 40 (1): 15-33
- Roston, S. (1982) Two Prehistoric Burials from Qasr Kharaneh. *Annual of the Department of Antiquities*, 26: 221-229.
- Smith, C., Nielsen-Marsh, C., Jans, M., & Collins, M. (2007) Bone diagenesis in the European Holocene I: Patterns and mechanisms. *Journal of Archaeological Science* 34 (9): 1485-1493.
- Stiner, M., Kuhn, S., Surovell, T., Goldberg, P., meignen, L., Weiner, S., et al. (2001) Bone preservation in Hayonim Cave (Israel): a macroscopic and mineralogical study. *Journal of Archaeological Science* , 28, 643-659.
- Todd, A., Landrigan, P. (1993). X-ray fluorescence analysis of Lead in bone. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 10(6): 494-495.
- Turner - Walker, G. (2007) Degradation pathways and conservation strategies for ancient bone from wet anoxic sites. The 10th Triennial Meeting of the ICOM-CC Working Group for Wet Organic Archaeological Materials - 10-15th September 2007.
- Ulijaszek, J., Hillman, G., Boldsen, L., & Henry, J. (1991) Human Dietary Change. *Philosophical Transactions: Biological Sciences*, 334 (1270):271-279.
- Vargová, L.; Horáčková, L.; Horáková, M.; Eliášová, H.; Myšková, E. & Ditrich, O. (2016) Paleopathological, Trichological and Paleoparasitological Analysis of Human Skeletal Remains from the Migration Period Cemetery Prague-Zličín. *Interdisciplinaria Archaeologica Natural Sciences in Archaeology* 7(1): 13-32.

- White, L., Booth, T. (2014) The origin of bacteria responsible for bioerosion to the internal bone micro structure: results from experimentally-deposited pig carcasses. *Forensic Science International* 239: 92-102.
- Wright, L., & Schwarcz, H. (1996) Infrared and isotopic evidence for diagenesis of bone apatite at Dos Pilas, Guatemala: palaeodietary implications. *Journal of Archaeological Science*, 23, 933-944.