

QSOURCES, CIRCULATION, AND USE OF OBSIDIAN IN CENTRAL CHILE

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Abstract

A geochemical analysis of 392 obsidian samples from different archaeological sites in Central Chile (32 ° to 35 ° Lat. South) has identified the preferential use of three known sources in the Andean mountain range, Arroyo Paramillos and Laguna del Diamante located in the Maipo Volcano area, and Las Cargas located ca 120 km further south. The analysis of the circulation and use of this raw material from the beginning of the Archaic period until the arrival of the Inka to this territory reveals differences in how obsidian from these three main sources was used, both spatially and temporally. The hunter-gatherers occupying the andean mountain range preferred the obsidian source from the Maipo Volcano area, while the hunter gatherer and horticulturalist groups from the central valley used more frequently the obsidian from Las Cargas source. These differences are linked to the quality of the obsidian, its suitability for the intended use and the distance of the users from the source.

Key word: Obsidian Sources, Andean Mountains, raw material circulation, way of life, obsidian quality, Central Chile.

1 **1. Introduction**

2
3 Studies of obsidian provenance in the Southern Cone have been published regularly since the
4 mid-1990s, with a particular focus on countries connected by the Andes Mountains (Bolivia,
5 Argentina, and Chile) (see e.g. Escola 2004; Escola et al. 2016; Seelenfreund et al. 2005; 2010;
6 2010b; Yacobaccio et al. 2002; 2004), including the south (e.g. Barberena et al. 2011; 2019;
7 Stern et al. 2008; 2009) and far south (Patagonia) of that region (e.g. Castro et al. 2017; Mendez
8 et al. 2008/9; Stern et al. 2012; Stern 2018).

9
10 Central Chile has been no exception. Recent investigations into sources of the obsidian used in
11 this territory have made major advances. The pioneering work of Seelenfreund et al. (1996, 2005)
12 identified and characterized major obsidian sources near Laguna del Maule and, for the past 15
13 years, a macroregional program has been characterizing obsidian sources in the Central Andes of
14 Chile and Argentina (34°/37°S) (Cortegoso et al. 2014; 2016; 2020; De Francesco et al. 2006;
15 2018; Duran et al. 2004, 2012; Giesso et al. 2011). This work has led to the identification of
16 obsidian sources in the Andes Mountains and, through the use of different methods (NAA, XRF,
17 LA-ICP-MS), has enabled their characterization, differentiation, and distribution on both sides of
18 the Andes.

19
20 This is especially relevant when we consider that in Central Chile, obsidian is a ubiquitous raw
21 material. It is present in sites with very early occupations (Cornejo et al. 2005; Mendez and
22 Jackson 2015) and in those dated throughout the Archaic, and it continued to be used by
23 horticulturalist groups that occupied the territory from the beginning of our era up to the time of
24 the Inka occupation (e.g. Pascual 2015).

25
26 In this context, we had the opportunity to carry out XRF analyses on 392 samples of obsidian
27 from different sites in Central Chile covering a timeframe that spans from the Archaic to the Inka
28 occupation (Table 1). This has provided us with an increasingly accurate picture of which
29 obsidian sources were being used and how they were distributed within the western Andean
30 watershed (Cortegoso et al. 2014; 2016; 2020; De Francesco et al. 2006; Duran et al. 2004, 2012;
31 Giesso et al. 2011).

32
33 In this work we present the integrated results of our analysis of samples from sites on the Chilean
34 side of the Andes, as the basis for a discussion in terms of the temporal and spatial distribution of
35 the sites analyzed, and of local and regional historical dynamics. In particular, we are interested
36 in temporal trends in how various sources were used in different subsistence and mobility
37 contexts. These trends can help us to understand the territoriality, interactions, and connections
38 between human groups in the zone, which in turn provides information about who was accessing
39 a given source, when and how they were accessing it, and what the obsidian was used for.

40 41 42 **2. The presence of obsidian in the historic-cultural sequence of Central Chilean sites**

43
44 Central Chile (32° to 35° Lat. South) is a relatively narrow territory situated between the Pacific
45 coast and the high peaks of the Andes, which rise over 6000 m above sea level (Figure 1). The
46 climate has varied over time but is currently temperate (Villa-Martinez et al. 2003; 2004) and
47 conditioned by the latitude, a marked maritime influence, and the high Andean peaks. Over the

48 past 5000 years these factors have produced an ecology dominated by sclerophyllous forests,
 49 which cover the territory below 2000 m. These conditions are overlaid upon a landscape with
 50 four distinctive geographical features, arranged longitudinally, each with its own ecological
 51 zones: the Coastal Plain; the primarily intrusive Coastal Range; the Central Valley, which is
 52 composed mainly of sedimentary infill from the Quaternary; and the Andes Mountains,
 53 dominated by the igneous Abanico-Farellones formation. The sources of obsidian discussed
 54 herein are situated in the last of these (the Andes), near the continental divide that marks the
 55 border between Chile and Argentina in this part of the Andes.

56
57
58 Figure 1. Study area and distribution of the studied sites
59
60
61

Basin	Site	Total	ND	ChB	ChD	M2	LD	LC	AP
Maipo	1) Arevalo 2	6						6	
	2) Popeta	7			1			5	1
	3) Lonquen	1			1				
	4) VP-1	13		3	1			3	6
	5) Verde 2	1						1	
	6) V18	1						1	
	7) RML 021	1							1
	8) RML 034	6		1					5
	9) RML 037	1							1
	10) El Manzano 2	2							2
	11) El Manzano 3	19						2	17
	12) El Manzano 1	29	2		1		1	2	23
	13) Tío Coco	1						1	
	14) La Batea 1	3							3
	15) Doña Leonor	1							1
	16) Condominio 1	5							5
	17) Escobarino 1	4				1		2	1
	18) Los Panales	2			2				
	19) Las Cortaderas 2	9					1		8
	20) Las Cortaderas 3	4					1	1	2
	21) Las Morrenas 1	15				1	2	1	11
	22) Los Queltehues	60	1				10	2	48
	23) El Arenal	1							1
	24) Valle Blanco	1							1
	25) El Plomo	33	1						32
	26) Holoceno	37					1	2	34
	27) Cruz de Piedra	1						1	
	28) Buena Vista	1			1				
	29) Buenaventura	1						1	
	30) El Aro	1							1
	31) El Olvido	7							7
	32) Vega Linda	16	1				4	5	6
	33) Las Perdidas	23					9	1	13
Cachapual	34) Cuchipuy	50	3	1	7			37	2
	35) Chuchunco	1				1			
	36) Chamico	1						1	
	37) Pueblo Hundido	2		1				1	
	38) El Encanto	1						1	
	39) Caceron 2	1							1

	40) Caracoles Alero	3	1			2			
	41) Alero Cipreses	1				1			
Aconcagua	42) V. C. Silva Enriquez	4	2			2			
	43) Cerro La Cruz	1				1			
	44) Llanos de Rungue 6	2					2		
	45) Casablanca 10	1				1			
		381	8	12	13	1	29	84	235

ND = unassigned; ChB = Chile-B; ChD = Chile-D; M2 = Maule 2; LD = Laguna del Diamante; LC= Las Cargas; AP = Arroyo Paramillos

Table 1. Samples of each source per site

This territory was first peopled some 13,000 years ago, at a time when the reigning Pleistocene conditions were favorable for large herbivores, which in turn made the area very attractive to human groups (Núñez et al. 1994; Mendez and Jackson 2015). As the Holocene was ushered in some 10,000 years ago, those hunter-gatherer groups began to hunt modern fauna, especially camelids (Cornejo and Saavedra 2003).

The Archaic period is divided into four phases based on differences in technologies, lithic instrument categories, mode of subsistence, and mobility patterns (Cornejo et al. 1998, Cornejo 2010). During this early period, subsistence would have been based on hunting, primarily of guanaco, but gathering wild plants gradually took on an increasingly important role (Belmar et al. 2005). Marine resources were also consumed in this territory, but did not represent a major part of the diet of these early humans (Falabella and Sanhueza 2019). In terms of mobility, the most significant development occurred around 3000 B.C., when the previous pattern of residential mobility shifted to one based on logistical mobility.

While there is evidence that objects were brought from the coast to the mountains from early on in the sequence—note the presence of seashells in Piuquenes Cavern, in the Andes, for instance (Stehberg et al. 2012)—the use and distribution of lithic materials were primarily based on locally available resources. Thus, on the coast, in the inland Chacabuco Range, and in the Andean Maipo River basin, human groups mainly used locally available raw materials, and the reported frequency of those materials (Aguilera 2012; Arenas 2013; Castelleti and Garcia 2007; Cornejo and Sanhueza 2011; Cornejo and Saavedra 2017; Planella and Falabella 1991; Ramirez et al. 1991) provides no convincing evidence that they circulated outside of those territories—except for obsidian. The technological emphasis in these groups' lithic industries, while they do display certain variations through the sequence, are predominantly curatorial, most notably so in sites where obsidian is the main lithic material used (Cornejo and Galarce 2010).

While this hunter-gatherer way of life remained in place in the mountainous parts of the region up to colonial times (Cornejo and Sanhueza 2003; 2011), around the beginning of our era, some groups began to grow crops and make pottery, ushering in what is now known as the Ceramic periods (Falabella et al. 2016). In the Central Valley and along the Pacific coast, horticulturalist groups developed a more sedentary way of life, establishing settlements on plains near rivers, in ravines, and near freshwater springs. Early Ceramic groups (ca. 200-1200 A.D.) took different approaches to this mode of subsistence; while the Bato groups grew a limited variety of crops with less emphasis on maize, for the Llolleo groups, corn was the staple food, complemented by

101 other crops (Planella et al. 2014). In the Late Intermediate (ca. 1000-1450 A.D.), Aconcagua
102 groups relied even more heavily on maize (Falabella et al. 2008). Around 1400 A.D. the Inka
103 State imposed its rule upon these groups (Cornejo 2014) and installed a way of life
104 unprecedented in the region that continued up to the time of the Spanish conquest.
105

106 During the Ceramic periods, the logic that governed the use of lithic raw materials was
107 transformed, with groups showing a preference for resources available in river courses near
108 residential sites. Basalts and andesites were worked expediently to craft choppers, scrapers, and
109 hammers that were used and quickly discarded. Bifacial knapping of fine-grained raw materials
110 was reserved almost exclusively for projectile points (Cornejo and Galarce 2004; Pascual 2015).
111 Even so, there are hardly any sites in Central Chile where obsidian has not been found, although
112 its frequency varies significantly, depending on the site's location (coast, valley, foothills or high
113 Andes) and time period (Archaic / Ceramic periods).
114

115 In the *central valley* and the *coastal zone*, the Archaic period has not been well studied; although
116 there have been a few reports of obsidian on the coast, most come from the Central Valley.
117 Obsidian projectile points have been reported for sites in the Lampa hills (Jackson and Thomas
118 2005), at Las Cenizas (Gajardo Tobar 1958-89, Arancibia 2008), at Tagua Tagua 1 (second
119 occupation) (Durán 1980) and Cuchipuy (Kaltwasser et al. 1980). The datings obtained for the
120 latter two sites –5300 to 4730 B.C. and 6200 to 5640 cal B.C. respectively– situate them in the
121 Archaic III, and the first two sites could also be assigned to that period, given the typological
122 similarities in the projectile points found there. The presence of obsidian in the valley, however,
123 dates back further, to the early occupation of Tagua Tagua 1, a site used for hunting and
124 butchering of now-extinct fauna, for which a multipurpose scraper and at least one piece of
125 knapping waste has been reported (Mendez and Jackson 2015).
126

127 On the coast, only two sites from this period have been systematically studied—Punta Curaumilla
128 and LEP-C; the former presented no obsidian waste (Ramirez et al. 1991), and in our recent
129 review of the material discovered at the latter (Falabella and Planella 1991), we identified just a
130 single very small piece of obsidian waste.
131

132 At sites excavated in the Central Valley and dated to the Early Ceramic period, the frequency of
133 obsidian among instruments with retouched edges is considerable (36% at Hospital, 14% at
134 Lonquén), but the material accounts for less than 1.5% of overall lithic waste (0.7% at El
135 Mercurio, 0.8% at Hospital, 1.4% at Lonquén). Obsidian is also absent in categories such as
136 flakes, with one exception being the site of La Palma. There, obsidian accounts for 27% of the
137 material discovered, represented mainly by microflakes with secondary retouching and knapping
138 waste, along with a not insignificant proportion of the bifacially-worked instruments (points), and
139 two “microcores” (smaller than 2 cm). The La Granja site, in the Cachapoal Valley, also presents
140 a high frequency of obsidian—16% of all lithic materials—and displays the same pattern as La
141 Palma, with a high proportion of obsidian retouching waste and bifacial obsidian instruments
142 (56.9%). Undoubtedly, these two cases reflect a strategy for the provisioning and use of this raw
143 material that is different from that observed at other sites dated to the same period (Cornejo and
144 Galarce 2004, 2010).
145

146 Less information is available for the coast, but the reported relative importance of projectile
147 points manufactured with obsidian compared to those made of other fine-grained raw materials is

148 also seen at the LEP C, Arévalo 2 and Las Brisas 3 sites (Planella and Falabella 1987, Falabella
149 and Planella 1991, Rivas and González 2008). There is little evidence of knapping waste (in our
150 recent review, we identified only two pieces among the lithic material from site LEP-C).

151 A comparative analysis of lithic material from Late Intermediate Aconcagua sites distributed
152 along the coast-mountain axis found a situation similar to that described for the previous period,
153 namely that obsidian is present in all sites, albeit in small proportions. Furthermore, this raw
154 material is only present as blank knapping flakes (1-4%) and bifacial instruments, among which
155 26% of all points are made of obsidian (Cornejo and Galarce 2004).

156
157 A different situation is found in the *Andes Mountains*, where sites are located much closer to
158 obsidian sources, particularly sites along the Maipo River, whose headwaters contain two of
159 those sources: Laguna el Diamante and Arroyo Paramillos. This area was occupied primarily by
160 hunter-gatherer groups throughout the entire sequence, although during the Ceramic periods they
161 shared the space with a few isolated occupations of horticulturalist groups from the valley
162 (Cornejo and Sanhueza 2003; 2011).

163
164 Analyses of obsidian distribution along the entire Andean stretch of the Maipo River have shown
165 that sites in the southern or upper reaches of the river present high frequencies of obsidian, on the
166 order of 40% or more of all lithic material, throughout their entire time sequence (Cornejo and
167 Sanhueza 2011). In contrast, sites located in the northern or lower cordilleran course of the river
168 present notably lower frequencies of obsidian (usually around 10%, and always less than 30%).
169 What is interesting about this distribution is that the drop in the frequency of obsidian in these
170 contexts is not proportional to distance from the source; rather, a dramatic shift occurs at 60 km
171 from the source. This fact, and its relation to other archeological indicators such as the type of
172 settlement (rock shelter versus open air camp) and the type of ceramics present at sites dated to
173 ceramic periods, allow us to suggest that social factors (the presence of different socio-cultural
174 groups) were responsible for this distribution (Cornejo and Sanhueza 2011). In any case, it is
175 important to note that obsidian accounts for 7% of the material recovered from the El Manzano 1
176 site, on the northern area of the cordilleran course of the Maipo River, even during its earliest
177 occupation (Archaic I) dated from 10,410 to 8560 cal B.C. (Cornejo *et al.* 2005).

178 179 **3. Sources and their distinctiveness**

180
181 The work of identifying, characterizing, and discriminating among obsidian sources has allowed
182 the identification of three distinct sources in the Andes Mountains. Laguna del Diamante and
183 Arroyo Paramillos, located nearby the lake itself, in the caldera of the ancient Maipo Volcano, at
184 3300 m asl, 19 km east of the headwaters of the Maipo River; and Las Cargas, in the Planchón
185 Peteroa volcanic complex, at 2350 masl (Cortegoso *et al.* 2016; 2020; De Francesco *et al.* 2006,
186 2018; Giesso *et al.* 2011; Salgán *et al.* 2015). As all three sources are high up in the mountains,
187 they are accessible only in summertime from either side of the Andes.

188
189 The Laguna del Diamante obsidian consists of less than 10 cm to up to 40 cm nodules dispersed
190 high up on the steep slopes surrounding Laguna del Diamante, on its shoreline, and in the streams
191 that flow down into it, such as Arroyo Las Numeradas. This obsidian can be described as low to
192 medium quality for knapping, as it displays inclusions and devitrification (Cortegoso *et al.* 2016,
193 2020).

194

195 Arroyo Paramillos obsidian has been recorded as very small 2-3 cm nodules dispersed along the
196 course of the Paramillos stream. As larger obsidian artifacts have been attributed to this source,
197 larger-sized raw material should be available; however, the primary source of this raw material
198 has not yet been found. The quality of this obsidian is higher than that of Laguna del Diamante,
199 with few inclusions and even fracturing, and the most abundant variant is opaque and semi-
200 translucent black (Cortegoso et al. 2020).

201
202 One hundred and forty-four kilometers further south, high up in the Mataquito River basin, is the
203 Las Cargas obsidian source. The source itself is at least 1 km², and the obsidian appears as
204 outcroppings, in boulders, or as nodules. The action of the Arroyo El Cura stream exposed the
205 outcrop and transported the material at least 4 km downstream along the eastern watershed. The
206 place was used as a quarry, with preforms, matrices, and waste from core manufacturing all
207 found there. Chemical analysis revealed that the source is homogeneous, arising from a single
208 volcanic eruption, and the obsidian is of good quality (Giesso et al. 2011, Salgán et al. 2015).
209 Obsidian hydration dating performed on material from this source suggests that the source
210 remained in continuous use from 10,350–1800 BP (Salgán et al. 2015; Garvey et al. 2016).

211
212 Apart from the sources described, the macrorregional program to characterize obsidian sources in
213 the Central Andes of Chile and Argentina has also led to the identification of sources in the
214 eastern area of the Laguna del Maule volcanic complex. Laguna del Maule 1 is located nearby of
215 Laguna Fea and Laguna Negra, 2300-2500 masl. Laguna del Maule 2 is located ca 90 km
216 downstream river Barrancas (ca 1000 masl) and is an ash-fall volcanoclastic deposit (Barberena et
217 al. 2019; Fernandez et al. 2017). Only one sample has been assigned to the Laguna del Maule 2
218 source. In addition, two sources on the plains east of the Andes has been recorded (Cerro Peceño
219 and Cerro Huenul) (Durán et al. 2004; Giesso et al. 2011); however, no obsidian from these
220 sources has been reported in sites located in the western slope of the Andes. It is also worth
221 noting that for nearly 900 km north of the Maipo River, no volcanism has been recorded that
222 could have produced obsidian (SERNAGEOMIN 2018).

223
224 Obsidian sources analysis have been conducted at the Archaeometry Lab at MURR since the
225 mid-1980s (Cobean et al. 1991, Glascock et al. 1994; Glascock 2020). That research was initially
226 based exclusively on NAA. Recently, however, XRF has been used more often, due to its lower
227 cost, non-destructiveness, and the portability of XRF instrumentation. XRF has proven to be
228 satisfactory for most obsidian investigations, the main exceptions occurring when: (1) the sample
229 dimensions are smaller or thinner than recommended; (2) the samples have surface
230 contamination; (3) the possible sources are chemically similar to one another; and/or (4) the
231 artifacts come from as yet unknown or unexpected sources. In the case of small or contaminated
232 samples, the physics of XRF must be well understood in order to properly interpret the data and
233 make the necessary corrections. When any of these difficulties lead to inconclusive results, or
234 when new compositional profiles are identified, the more comprehensive analytical methods of
235 NAA or LA-ICP-MS are employed.

236
237 The Arroyo Paramillos source and the Las Cargas source have a very similar chemical signature,
238 which has made it difficult to differentiate them (see Cortegoso et al. 2014, 2016; De Francesco
239 et al. 2018; Salgán et al. 2015). In fact, the lack of differentiation between these two sources in
240 the first-ever analyses performed led to a mapping of usage of the sources that did not align with
241 what would be expected based on the distance to them, as Giesso and associates have discussed

242 (2011). Starting in 2009, more samples from Arroyo Paramillos were analyzed using NAA at
 243 MURR, enabling this source to be differentiated from Las Cargas. This study determined that,
 244 among the elements that can be identified via XRF, Paramillos differs from Las Cargas only in
 245 the concentration of Sr, best expressed in the ratio Sr/Rb, with Paramillos having higher Sr
 246 concentrations (Cortegoso et al. 2020). The difference between the two sources had already been
 247 detected by De Francesco et al (2006) and was recently confirmed on the basis of Sr and Ba,
 248 using LA-ICP-MS (De Francesco et al. 2018).

249
 250 Recent NAA studies also suggest that Arroyo Paramillo has two subgroups of obsidian, each with
 251 different concentrations of Sc and La that are not distinguishable by XRF, and one of which is
 252 located inside the volcanic caldera (Cortegoso et al. 2020).

253
 254 The samples were analyzed by XRF at different times and with different instruments (for details,
 255 see Cortegoso et al. 2020). To enable comparison, the data were calibrated using the same
 256 samples from each source. Ultimately, the work focused on the elements Mn, Fe, Zn, Rb, Sr, Y,
 257 Zr, and Nb, and on element ratios (Sr/Rb, Rb/Zr) rather than element concentrations, which
 258 allowed greater confidence in assigning small artifacts to their respective sources.

259 4. Results

260
 261
 262 To date, we have analyzed 381 artifacts from 45 different sites located on the western side of the
 263 Andes in Chile's Central Valley and Pacific coast (150 km away). These sites are distributed
 264 from the Aconcagua Valley in the north to the Cachapoal Valley 190 km further south (Figure 1).
 265 The sites encompass a broad timeframe that extends from the Archaic to the Inka period, and
 266 includes different yet contemporary ways of life (hunter-gatherer and horticultural) and having
 267 different functions, including rock shelters, open air sites, residential sites, and social meeting
 268 places, with and without burial grounds (Table 1). It should be emphasized that, although the
 269 sample studied is sizeable, it is certainly not evenly distributed across space or time. It is
 270 concentrated geographically in the mountains (73.3%) and temporally in the Archaic period
 271 (60.5%) (Tables 1 and 2).

272

Source	Archaic II/III	Archaic IV	H-G Ceramic Perido*	Early Ceramic	Late Intermediate and Inka	Total
ND	5	3	1	1	0	10
%	4.3	2.7	1.0	2.6	0.0	2.6
ChB	1	1	2	6	2	12
%	0.9	0.9	2.1	15.4	9.5	3.1
ChD	6	3	0	2	3	14
%	5.2	2.7	0.0	5.1	14.3	3.7
M2	0	0	0	1	0	1
%	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.3
LD	0	10	19	0	0	29
%	0.0	9.1	19.8	0.0	0.0	7.6
LC	27	9	16	22	13	87
%	23.3	8.2	16.7	56.4	61.9	22.8

AP	77	84	58	7	3	229
%	66.4	76.4	60.4	17.9	14.3	59.9
Total	116	110	96	39	21	382

ND = Unassigned; ChB = Chile-B; ChD = Chile-D; M2 = Maule 2; LD = Laguna del Diamante; LC= Las Cargas; AP = Arroyo Paramillos. * H-G Hunter Gatherer

Table 2. Distribution of samples of the studied sources according to cultural affiliation

It is also important to note that there are only 10 sites for which more than 10 samples were analyzed, and for 19 of the sites, only one specimen was analyzed. These differences are related to the availability of obsidian at each site. The absolute frequencies of obsidian in most of the cases are a function of the quantity of knapping waste or artifacts present in the contexts of each site. This is why only one specimen was studied for some sites, while for others the sample size was much larger.¹

According to our analysis, the majority of the obsidian found at these archeological sites came from three sources—Laguna del Diamante, Arroyo Paramillos, and Las Cargas; one sample is from the Laguna del Maule 2 source; 25 samples were assigned to other sources whose locations are still unknown (DES-B and DES-D); and 10 could not be assigned to any particular source, as they could not be grouped with any other sample. In this analysis we will focus on sources with known locations, excluding Maule-2, for while it is interesting to ponder how these groups accessed that source, located further south and in the lowlands of the other side of the cordillera, it is difficult to draw conclusions about its use from a single sample.

The proportion of specimens assigned to each of the three main sources identified (n = 345) varies significantly, with the Arroyo Paramillos source very highly represented, at 66,4% of the sample, followed by Las Cargas with 25.2%, and finally Laguna del Diamante, accounting for just 8.4%. As the usual assumption is that the proportional representation of each source is related to the distance between it and the site, we would expect that proportion to diminish as distance between site and source increases (see e.g. Eerkens et al. 2008). Nevertheless, although Arroyo Paramillos and Laguna del Diamante (Figures 1) are virtually in the same place at the base of the Maipo Volcano, the representation of the former is 8.1 times that of the latter (Table 1). Furthermore, Las Cargas (Figure 1), despite being the most distant source of obsidian, is not necessarily the least frequently represented of the three, even for the sites furthest away from it.

In the majority of sites with more than 10 samples analyzed (see Table 1), one source commonly accounts for more than 70% of all obsidian found. Only the sites of Vega Linda and Las Perdidas, in the Andean stretch of the Maipo Valley, do not conform to this pattern; there, the Arroyo Paramillo source does predominate among the specimens found, but the Laguna del Diamante source also accounts for significant proportions at each site (25.0% and 39.1%, respectively). This can be explained by the fact that these sites are two of the closest to both sources (Figure 1), situated on the eastern edge of the Maipo Volcano. However, 31.2% of the samples studied from the Vega Linda site came from the Las Cargas source, a higher percentage than from the Laguna del Diamante source, despite the fact that the former is much further away from the site than the latter (Las Cargas is 119.1 km away, and Laguna del Diamante is 20.8 km).

314 Furthermore, the dispersion² of obsidian from these sources within the territory (Figures 2, 3, and
 315 4; Table 3) is also not linked to distance from the respective source, whether average distance,
 316 maximum distance, or minimum distance. Figure 5 displays the dispersion area for obsidian from
 317 each of the three sources, which ranges from 19,995 km² for Las Cargas to 9,765 km² for Arroyo
 318 Paramillos, and 993 km² for Laguna del Diamante. Notably, the source that is most distant from
 319 the sites studied—Las Cargas—has the greatest dispersion (Figure 5; Table 3), as its obsidian is
 320 present in both the far north and far south of the area under study here, as well as in all four
 321 geographical features (Andes Mountains, the Central Valley, the Coastal Range, and the Coastal
 322 Plain). For their part, the Laguna del Diamante and Arroyo Paramillos sources show much less
 323 extensive distributions (Figure 5; Table 3), which are also quite different from each other.
 324
 325

	Dispersión (Km²)	Distancia media	Distancia Max.	Distancia Min.
Laguna del Diamante	993	39,1 ($\sigma = 18,9$)	51,1	20,8
Las Cargas	19995	140,7 ($\sigma = 48,6$)	298,8	101,6
Arroyo Paramillos	9765	59,8 ($\sigma = 29,9$)	148,7	21,8

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Table 3. Dispersion area of the sources and distance ranges in which they are distributed

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331
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Figure 2. Distribution of samples from Laguna del Diamante source

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Figure 3. Distribution of samples from Las Cargas source

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Figure 3. Distribution of samples from Arroyo Paramillos source

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Obsidian from the Laguna del Diamante source is present only along the Andean reaches of the Maipo River, mainly in the southern sector; and while obsidian from the Arroyo Paramillos source is also concentrated along the Andean reaches of the Maipo River, it has a much broader distribution (Figure 5; Table 1) (cf. Cortegoso et al. 2016; 2020). This last difference could be an artifact of the great difference in the size of each sample, and if more pieces were to be sampled from other localities, more specimens from Laguna del Diamante may appear.

Figure 5. Distribution area of the studied sources

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The Cuchipuy site presents a unique situation in regard to the frequency and diversity of obsidian from each source. While the Las Cargas source is clearly dominant among the finds, the site also includes seven of the 13 samples assigned to the DES-D source and one from the DES-B source, neither of which has been located to date. Furthermore, the site also yielded three of the 10 specimens in the overall sample that could not be assigned to any particular source. This characteristic of the Cuchipuy site could be related to the fact that it is the only site with a relatively large sample size that is not within the Maipo Andes, but in the Central Valley, and is

356 also in the extreme south of the region studied here. This location seems to have enabled its
357 inhabitants to access a battery of sources beyond those represented among the finds at the other
358 sites.

359
360 The spatial distribution of the sources correlates with the ways of life and periods assigned to the
361 region studied. The Las Cargas source is represented among all hunter-gatherer and
362 horticulturalist occupations in all periods (Table 2). Meanwhile, Arroyo Paramillos is more
363 prevalent among hunter-gatherer sites, regardless of the period studied, and Laguna del Diamante
364 is represented only among hunter-gatherers of the Archaic IV and the Early Ceramic period. The
365 Shannon and Weaver diversity index (H), which in this case yields an ideal value of 1.61,
366 assuming the sources are represented in all modes of subsistence and periods, and in equal
367 proportion in each, indicates that while Las Cargas ($H=1.52$) yields 94.9 % of the ideal value, the
368 Laguna del Diamante ($H=0.65$) source only yields 40.4% and Arroyo Paramillos ($H=1.21$) 75.7
369 % of this ideal value.

370
371 In terms of mobility patterns and access to resources, the sources of Laguna del Diamante and
372 Arroyo Paramillos are especially interesting, as they are situated in the same area yet display
373 significant differences. During the first part of the Archaic period (II and III), only Arroyo
374 Paramillos was exploited; it was not until the Archaic IV that Laguna del Diamante began to be
375 used as a source (Table 2). While late Archaic III datings have been recorded for the Andean
376 upper Maipo basin (Holocene sites dated 3630 to 3350 cal B.C. and El Plomo, dated 3950 to
377 3670 cal B.C.), the use of the Laguna del Diamante source is linked to the actual occupation of
378 the localities very near the sources, which only occurred after 3000 B.C., during the Archaic IV.
379 In regard to mobility and access to resources, then, we have two different sources located close to
380 one another yet with distinct usage histories. Arroyo Paramillos was first used by the inhabitants
381 of distant settlements as part of their long-distance mobility circuits, then later by those in nearby
382 settlements, while Laguna del Diamante was only used by the inhabitants of nearby settlements
383 within local mobility circuits.

384
385 Moreover, the use of obsidian sources by hunter-gatherer groups in all periods is different than
386 that observed among horticulturalist groups in the Early Ceramic and Late Intermediate periods.
387 The latter more sedentary groups favored the Las Cargas source (75.9% and 81.3.0% in each
388 period, respectively) and contained only a minor proportion of specimens from the Arroyo
389 Paramillos source, and none at all from Laguna del Diamante. In contrast, hunter-gatherer groups
390 tended to favor sources near the Maipo Volcano, making use of Arroyo Paramillos at first, then
391 both that source and Laguna del Diamante later on.

392
393 It is apparent, therefore, that the preference for one source of obsidian over another does not seem
394 to have been related entirely to distance from that source; other factors must have come into play
395 to make Las Cargas—the most distant source, access to which was probably through indirect
396 means—the most ubiquitous, both spatially and temporally.

397
398 In order to tease out some of these factors, we analyzed the form of fracturing (irregular or
399 conchoid) and the presence of bubbles in 316 of the obsidian pieces in our sample (91.5%)³. Both
400 are crucial variables that must be taken into account when working on a piece, as conchoidal
401 fracturing and the absence of irregularities such as bubbles offer the optimal conditions for
402 bifacial knapping.

403
 404 Our analysis showed substantial differences between the artifacts from each source (Table 4).
 405 While the Laguna del Diamante specimens almost all displayed irregular fractures (88.5%), only
 406 a very small proportion of samples from Las Cargas (1.4%) showed this quality, with conchoidal
 407 fractures being much more common. Arroyo Paramillos, for its part, presents similar proportions
 408 of each kind of fracture. As for the presence of bubbles (Table 5), only 1.4% of Las Cargas
 409 specimens displayed them, while 50.9% of Arroyo Paramillos specimens and 23.9% of Laguna
 410 del Diamante specimens had them.

411
 412 These marked differences in the quality of obsidian allow us to conclude that the source with the
 413 most suitable specimens for bifacial knapping, Las Cargas, is also the one with the widest
 414 obsidian distribution, both geographically and culturally, while the source providing obsidian that
 415 was least suitable for bifacial knapping, Laguna del Diamante, presents a more limited
 416 geographical and cultural distribution. The Arroyo Paramillos source, which yielded specimens
 417 of both higher and lower quality, displays an intermediate dispersion range.

418
 419

Type of fracture	Laguna del Diamante	%	Las Cargas	%	Arroyo Paramillos	%	Total
Irregular	23	88,5			99	45,4	122
Conchoidal	3	11,5	72	100	119	54,6	194
Total	26		72		218		316

420
 421
 422
 423

Table 4. Type of fractures in the obsidian samples

Bubbles	Laguna del Diamante	%	Las Cargas	%	Paramillos	%	Total
No-show	20	76,9	71	98,6	111	50,9	202
Present	6	23,9	1	1,4	107	49,1	114
Total	26		72		218		316

424

Table 5. Presence of bubbles in the obsidian samples

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 426
 427

5. Discussion

429

430 The obsidian sources used by the groups inhabiting the western slope of the Central Chilean
 431 Andes are all located at high altitude, which means they were only accessible in summer. While it
 432 is not clear to us whether the raw material from these sources was procured directly or indirectly
 433 through exchange, it does seem clear that the spatial distribution of that raw material does not
 434 rely entirely upon the distance variable.

435

436 The quality and suitability of the obsidian used to manufacture artifacts are of major importance,
 437 and in this regard, it is the highest quality source, Las Cargas—which in fact is the only primary
 438 source of the three—that has the most extensive distribution over both time and space.

439 Still, Las Cargas is not always the most-represented source in all sites or all contexts. The
440 different frequencies and distributions detected for each source are related to who was using the
441 material, and why; it also had to do with territoriality, mobility, and social relations and networks
442 among the different groups.

443
444 The hunter-gatherers who occupied the mountainous spaces of the Maipo basin were using Las
445 Cargas obsidian throughout the sequence, but they also made a preferential use of the lower
446 quality obsidian from more nearby or “local” sources. In fact, in the earliest times of human
447 occupation of the zone, when only the Arroyo Paramillos source was in use, there are no
448 significant archeological traces of the route used to access this source. Indirect evidence of the
449 use of Arroyo Paramillos can only be found via the presence of obsidian from that source at sites
450 further down the Maipo River.

451
452 Distance and quality therefore seem to have held equal weight for these groups, for while the
453 Arroyo Paramillos obsidian was in effect being used to manufacture bifacial instruments, there
454 was some investment made in accessing obsidian of an undoubtedly higher quality, such as that
455 of Las Cargas. Accessing obsidian from these different sources would likely also have involved
456 different strategies: direct in the case of Laguna del Diamante and probably indirect for Las
457 Cargas.

458
459 Laguna del Diamante obsidian, of somewhat lower quality than that of Arroyo Paramillos, was
460 first exploited in the Archaic IV and the early Ceramic periods, during a time when human
461 groups began occupying the high Andes near those sources (Cornejo and Sanhueza 2011a & b).
462 This is also expressed at sites around Laguna El Diamante on the eastern side of the Andes,
463 which have a chronology of occupations starting at 2000 yrs AP (Duran et al. 2006). At those
464 sites, Laguna del Diamante was used as a source at least as frequently as Arroyo Paramillos
465 (Cortegoso et al. 2020).

466
467 The distribution of obsidian from this source is not only limited in its timeframe, however; it also
468 covers a much smaller space, limited to the area around the source itself, with very little Laguna
469 del Diamante obsidian present at sites in the lower course of the cordilleran Maipo River (cfr.
470 Cortegoso et al. 2020). The distribution of obsidian from this source therefore replicates in a
471 certain way what Cornejo and Sanhueza (2011) have proposed, i.e. that the northern and southern
472 areas of the cordilleran Maipo River course were in fact different territories, and the groups
473 inhabiting the southern sector would not only have been using obsidian preponderantly, but
474 would have been virtually the only groups using the Laguna del Diamante source.

475
476 As obsidian from this source does not seem to have been among the items transported and
477 ultimately exchanged beyond the Maipo Andes area, it can thus be proposed that the circulation
478 of obsidian was conditioned by a demand for raw material that was suitable for manufacturing
479 bifacial instruments in sites located in the valley. For these groups apparently the relatively good
480 performance of the Laguna del Diamante obsidian for making sharp-edged flakes, that in fact
481 performed much better than other locally available rocks, was not enough. This proposal is
482 reinforced by the high proportion of bifacial instruments manufactured from obsidian from Las
483 Cargas in the non-mountainous zones of the area studied (84.4%).

484

485 The Las Cargas source could have been accessed through the valley or through the mountains.
486 The few specimens found in the mountainous zone of the Cachapoal basin, which is connected to
487 the Maipo basin by the Blanco River, were assigned to Las Cargas, and in one case to Arroyo
488 Paramillos, suggesting that this obsidian may have been transported through the mountains.
489 The frequency of Las Cargas obsidian in Central Valley sites, and the Cuchipuy site in particular,
490 further suggests that this raw material may have been transported through the Central Valley as
491 well. Cuchipuy is located in the Central Valley on the northern shore of the former Laguna Tagua
492 Tagua in the Tinguiririca River basin and boasts an extensive Archaic sequence. It is also much
493 closer to the Las Cargas source, and therefore in this case distance and quality may be correlated,
494 as the site with the highest number of Las Cargas obsidian samples is at the same time the closest
495 site to that source (100 linear km).

496
497 Another particularity of Cuchipuy is the abundant presence, especially at Archaic levels, of
498 obsidian specimens assigned to sources that have not been identified for this section of the Andes
499 (24.0% of all samples from this site and 33.3% of all the samples of unidentified sources).⁴ This
500 indicates that the inhabitants of this site had direct or indirect access to other sources, most likely
501 located further south. This access could have been facilitated by the site's location in the Central
502 Valley, where there flow of obsidian apparently could have occurred. In this regard, the sources
503 around Laguna del Maule are certainly a possibility that is worth exploring further, as the ones
504 located on the western side of the Andes have not yet been extensively characterized using
505 comparable methods (Seelenfreund 1996).

506
507 In the discussion about the dispersion of obsidian from these sources, it is thus necessary to take
508 into account the geomorphology of the mountains and valleys, and the ease with which human
509 groups may have circulated in and through those spaces. The Andean peaks in this area rise well
510 above 4500 m asl, and transit is possibly only along the valleys and over mountain passes.
511 Communication and circulation in the mountain space itself are certainly possible along
512 tributaries and secondary ravines. These were likely among the access routes used by groups
513 inhabiting sites in the Andes on the southern or upper sector of the Maipo River, enabling them to
514 get to and from the Las Cargas obsidian site. But undoubtedly it was the most obvious circulation
515 route—along the Maipo River itself—that seems to have been the main route along which
516 obsidian from Arroyo Paramillo was transported from its source near the Maipo Volcano to the
517 more northerly or lower reaches of the cordilleran Maipo River. Similarly, Cortegoso et al. (2020)
518 have also noted the tendency of obsidian from sources around the Maipo Volcano to circulate
519 down the western slope of the Andes.

520
521 In the case of Las Cargas, unfortunately, we have no surveys, identified sites, or analyzed
522 material for the mountainous stretch of the Mataquito River. However, this source clearly
523 predominates not only at the more southerly sites, but in all the sites located in the Central
524 Valley. This suggests that once the obsidian reached the valley, it was distributed through the
525 lowlands from south to north.

526
527 This seems especially evident among the more sedentary horitucutralist groups. At that time,
528 obsidian from the Las Cargas source predominated on both the coast and the Central Valley. The
529 only exception consists of the Aconcagua sites situated on the lower Andean terraces in the lower
530 cordilleran course of the Maipo River (El Manzano 2, Escobarinos 1); while very few samples

531 from there have been analyzed, they do include obsidian from the Arroyo Paramillos source,
532 which is consistent with the above.
533

534 Thus, sedentary groups whose lithic industry had a very expedient technological emphasis
535 (Cornejo and Galarce 2004; 2010), in which bifacial knapping of suitable raw material was
536 reserved almost exclusively for making projectile points, would have been much more selective
537 when deciding between one source and another, no doubt favoring the one with better quality
538 material. Their preference would have been enabled by a network of relationships oriented
539 especially to groups further south, and not to their hunter-gatherer neighbors in the mountains of
540 Maipo. Accessing the distant Las Cargas source would no doubt have involved an active system
541 of long-distance exchange with other groups, enabling the raw material to arrive as small, easily-
542 transported blanks.
543

544 In a predominantly local-scale world, in which the microregion was the primary spatial scale of
545 everyday social interaction, and with little evidence of greater mobility (Falabella et al. 2015,
546 Sanhueza et al. 2019), the provisioning of obsidian involves a much wider spatial scale, and is
547 one of the few elements that reveals the presence of long-distance networks of interaction during
548 these time periods. Such networks certainly cannot be observed in other materialities such as
549 ceramic styles (cf. Scattolin and Lazzari 1997), which display a much more spatially limited
550 expression, particularly during the Late Intermediate.
551

552 In these horticulturalist sites, as in Cuchipuy, we see not only Las Cargas obsidian but also the
553 recurring presence of obsidian not assignable to recognized sources, again pointing us to more
554 distant places, probably further south. The fact that obsidian from these as-yet unidentified
555 sources is not distributed evenly among the different sites also suggests that access to them was
556 resolved precisely at this local scale, in which each residential domestic unit would have
557 activated its own networks to obtain this raw material, which is always scarce in these contexts
558 (cf. Scattolin and Lazzari 1997; Lazzari 2010).
559

560 In that case, contrary to what would be expected based on other contexts where the trajectory of
561 use for obsidian sources has been linked to mobility reduction, the more sedentary horticulturalist
562 groups appear to have accessed sources that were not only more distant (p.e Roth 2000; Eerkens
563 et al. 2008), but also more diverse (cfr. Eerkens 2008). Clearly, then, while criteria of quality
564 were involved in decisions to use the material in these contexts, social relations also played their
565 part, suggesting that obtaining obsidian was not only a practical matter, but also a social one,
566 materializing the relationships and/or agencies that enable access to this non-local material.
567 Lastly, we wish to note that no obsidian that can be assigned to sources identified on the plains on
568 the other (eastern) side of the Andes has been detected in this area, as it has been in south-central
569 Chile (Campbell et al. 2018; Peñaloza et al. 2019). The networks under consideration here seem
570 to always relate to the western watershed of the Andes.
571

572 573 **6. Conclusion** 574

575 In this work we have presented and discussed the results of the analysis of 382 obsidian artifacts
576 from different archeological sites in Central Chile, located from the Pacific coast to the Andes

577 Mountains, and belonging to different cultural periods ranging from the early Archaic to the Late
578 Ceramic periods.

579
580 The results have enabled us to observe differences in how obsidian from the three main sources
581 identified -Arroyo Paramillos, Laguna del Diamante, and Las Cargas- tended to be used, both
582 spatially and temporally. Those differences are linked to the quality of the obsidian, its suitability
583 for the intended use, and the distance of the users from the source, all of which would also have
584 been intersected by the networks of relations that enabled access to this raw material.

585
586 Thus, we have a mountainous space in which groups of hunter-gatherers, regardless of their time
587 period, preferred to make use of obsidian from the Maipo Volcano area (Arroyo Paramillos and
588 Laguna del Diamante sources). Within this space, the selective use of obsidian from Laguna del
589 Diamante—which appears only in nearby sites, and only later in the sequence—reaffirms not
590 only that differences existed among the groups inhabiting the Andean territories north and south
591 of the Maipo River, but also that the decisions and logics involved in the use of obsidian from
592 two sources located very close together, but having different qualities for working, were quite
593 distinct.

594
595 For Central Valley sites, Las Cargas was the main source of obsidian. Cuchipuy, the only site in
596 that valley with Archaic occupations, displays a preponderance of obsidian from Las Cargas,
597 which could be related to the site's proximity to this source. In the case of the horticulturalist
598 groups, this could be the result of a preference for high quality obsidian suitable for bifacial
599 knapping, judging by the artifacts that were made of this obsidian (mainly projectile points),
600 and/or the existence of a network of social relations that were more relevant than actual distance
601 from the source.

602
603 Thus, the determining vector in the circulation of this raw material seems to have been a
604 combination of quality suitable for bifacial knapping and the existence of social networks, which
605 prompted different groups to make distinct choices, based on which technologies they
606 emphasized and the availability of the raw material.

607

608

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610

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613

614

615 **Notes**

616

617 1) In fact, considering the proportion of samples from Arroyo Paramillos found beyond the
618 Maipo Andes zone (5.6%), only two specimens of Laguna del Diamante obsidian would have
619 been needed to attain a similar distribution to that of Arroyo Paramillos obsidian.

620

621 2) The area of dispersion was calculated using the QGIS program's minimum bounding geometry
622 algorithm.

623

- 624 3) A small percentage of the pieces were not available at the time this analysis was performed.
625
626 4) The source DESC-B has also been found in cordilleran and precordilleran sites in northern
627 Mendoza area (1500 - 1000 BP) (Cortegoso et al. 2019), but not in archaeological sites of
628 southern Mendoza (Cortegoso et al., 2012).
629

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