

Dietary options and behavior suggested by plant biomarker evidence in an early human habitat

Clayton R. Magill^{a,1}, Gail M. Ashley^b, Manuel Domínguez-Rodrigo^c, and Katherine H. Freeman^d

^aGeological Institute, ETH Zürich, Zurich 8092, Switzerland; ^bDepartment of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Rutgers University, Piscataway, NJ 08854; ^cDepartment of Prehistory, Complutense University, Madrid 28040, Spain; and ^dDepartment of Geosciences, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802

Edited by Thure E. Cerling, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT, and approved January 21, 2016 (received for review April 13, 2015)

The availability of plants and freshwater shapes the diets and social behavior of chimpanzees, our closest living relative. However, limited evidence about the spatial relationships shared between ancestral human (hominin) remains, edible resources, refuge, and freshwater leaves the influence of local resources on our species' evolution open to debate. Exceptionally well-preserved organic geochemical fossils—biomarkers—preserved in a soil horizon resolve different plant communities at meter scales across a contiguous 25,000 m² archaeological land surface at Olduvai Gorge from about 2 Ma. Biomarkers reveal hominins had access to aquatic plants and protective woods in a patchwork landscape, which included a spring-fed wetland near a woodland that both were surrounded by open grassland. Numerous cut-marked animal bones are located within the wooded area, and within meters of wetland vegetation delineated by biomarkers for ferns and sedges. Taken together, plant biomarkers, clustered bone debris, and hominin remains define a clear spatial pattern that places animal butchery amid the refuge of an isolated forest patch and near freshwater with diverse edible resources.

biomarker | leaf wax | carbon isotope | paleoecology | human evolution

Spatial patterns in archaeological remains provide a glimpse into the lives of our ancestors (1–5). Although many early hominin environments are interpreted as grassy or open woodlands (6–8), fossil bones and plant remains are rarely preserved together in the same settings. As a result, associated landscape reconstructions commonly lack coexisting fossil evidence for hominins and local-scale habitat (microhabitat) that defined the distribution of plant foods, refuge, and water (7). This problem is exacerbated by the discontinuous nature and low time resolution often available across ancient soil (paleosol) horizons, including hominin archaeological localities. One notable exception is well-time-correlated 1.8-million-y-old paleosol horizons exposed at Olduvai Gorge. Associated horizons contain exceptionally preserved plant biomarkers along with many artifacts and fossilized bones. Plant biomarkers, which previously revealed temporal patterns in vegetation and water (8), are well preserved in the paleosol horizon and document plant-type spatial distributions that provide an ecosystem context (9, 10) for resources that likely affected the diets and behavior of hominin inhabitants.

Plant biomarkers are delivered by litter to soils and can distinguish plant functional type differences in standing biomass over scales of 1–1,000 m² (11). Trees, grasses, and other terrestrial plants produce leaf waxes that include long-chain *n*-alkanes such as hentriacontane (*n*C₃₁), whereas aquatic plants and phytoplankton produce midchain homologs (e.g., *n*C₂₃) (12, 13). The ratio of shorter- versus long-chain *n*-alkane abundances distinguish relative organic matter inputs from aquatic versus terrestrial plants to sediments (13):

$$P_{\text{aq}} = (nC_{23} + nC_{25}) / (nC_{23} + nC_{25} + nC_{29} + nC_{31}).$$

Sedges and ferns are prolific in many tropical ecosystems (14). These plants both have variable and therefore nondiagnostic *n*-alkane profiles. However, sedges produce distinctive phenolic

compounds [e.g., 5-*n*-tricosylresorcinol (¹⁴R₂₃)] and ferns produce distinctive midchain diols [e.g., 1,13-dotriacontanediol (C₃₂-diol)] (*SI Discussion*).

Lignin monomers provide evidence for woody and nonwoody plants. This refractory biopolymer occurs in both leaves and wood, serves as a structural tissue, and accounts for up to half of the total organic carbon in modern vegetation (11). Lignin is composed of three phenolic monomer types that show distinctive distributions in woody and herbaceous plant tissues. Woody tissues from dicotyledonous trees and shrubs contain syringyl (*S*) and vanillyl (*V*) phenols (12), whereas cinnamyl (*C*) phenols are exclusively found in herbaceous tissues (12). The relative abundance of *C* versus *V* phenols (*C/V*) is widely used to distinguish between woody and herbaceous inputs to sedimentary and soil organic matter (15).

Plant biomarker ¹³C/¹²C ratios (expressed as δ¹³C values) are sensitive indicators of community composition, ecosystem structure, and climate conditions (8). Most woody plants and forbs in eastern Africa use C₃ photosynthesis (6), whereas arid-adapted grasses use C₄ photosynthesis (8, 14). These two pathways discriminate differently against ¹³C during photosynthesis, resulting in characteristic δ¹³C values for leaf waxes derived from C₃ (about –36.0‰) and C₄ (–21.0‰) plants (16). Carbon isotopic abundances of phenolic monomers of lignin amplify the C₃–C₄ difference and range between *ca.* –34.0‰ (C₃) and –14.0‰ (C₄) in tropical ecosystems (15). Terrestrial C₃ plant δ¹³C values decrease with increased exposure to water, respired CO₂, and shade (8), with lowest values observed in moist regions with dense canopy (17). Although concentration and δ¹³C values of atmospheric CO₂

Significance

Humans evolved in response to the availability of plant and water resources over space and through time. Their influence on our species' evolution is debated, though, because archives of their spatial distribution are scarce at early human (hominin) localities. Meter-scale vegetation patterns are revealed from sedimentary plant biomarkers across an archaeological horizon at Olduvai Gorge (FLK Zinj). Biomarkers evince a varied local landscape with a woodland patch near a small freshwater wetland, surrounded by an open grassland landscape. Biomarkers from the wetland indicate diverse edible plants near potable water. The coexistence of butchered large animal bones and hominin remains, including juveniles, within an isolated biomarker-delineated wooded microhabitat at FLK Zinj provide support for early provisioning behaviors by our ancestors.

Author contributions: C.R.M., G.M.A., M.D.-R., and K.H.F. designed research; C.R.M. performed research; C.R.M. and K.H.F. analyzed data; and C.R.M., G.M.A., M.D.-R., and K.H.F. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: clayton.magill@erdw.ethz.ch.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1507055113/-DCSupplemental.

can affect C_3 plant $\delta^{13}C$ values (17), this influence is not relevant to our work here, which focuses on a single time window (*SI Discussion*). The large differences in leaf-wax $\delta^{13}C$ values between closed C_3 forest to open C_4 grassland are consistent with soil organic carbon isotope gradients across canopy-shaded ground surfaces (6) and serve as a quantitative proxy for woody cover (f_{woody}) in savannas (8).

As is observed for nonhuman primates, hominin dietary choices were likely shaped by ecosystem characteristics over habitat scales of 1–1,000 m^2 (3–5). To evaluate plant distributions at this small spatial scale (9), we excavated 71 paleosol samples from close-correlated trenches across a $\sim 25,000\text{-}m^2$ area that included FLK *Zinjanthropus* Level 22 (FLK *Zinj*) at Olduvai Gorge (Fig. 1). Recent excavations (18–21) at multiple trenches at four sites (FLK^{NN}, FLK^N, FLK, and FLK^S, Fig. 1D) exposed a traceable thin (5–50 cm), waxy green to olive-brown clay horizon developed by pedogenic alterations of playa lake margin alluvium (22). Weak stratification and irregular redox stains suggest initial soil development occurred during playa lake regression (18, 22), around 1.848 Ma (ref. 23 and *SI Discussion*). To date, craniodental remains from at least three hominin individuals (18–20), including pre-adolescent early *Homo* and *Paranthropus boisei*, were recovered from FLK *Zinj*. Fossils and artifacts embedded in the paleosol horizon often protrude into an overlying airfall tuff (18, 19), which suggests fossil remains were catastrophically buried in situ under

volcanic ash. Rapid burial likely fostered the exceptional preservation of both macrofossils (10) and plant biomarkers across the FLK *Zinj* land surface.

Plant biomarker signatures reveal distinct types of vegetation juxtaposed across the FLK *Zinj* land surface (Figs. 2–4 and Fig. S1). In the northwest, FLK^{NN} trenches show high nC_{23} $\delta^{13}C$ values (Fig. 2B) as well as high C/V and P_{aq} values (Figs. 3 and 4A). They indicate floating or submerged aquatic plants (macrophytes) in standing freshwater (13), a finding that is consistent with nearby low-temperature freshwater carbonates (tufa), interpreted to be deposited from spring waters (22). Adjacent FLK^N trenches have lower P_{aq} values (Fig. 4A) with occurrences of fern-derived C_{32} -diol and sedge-derived $^{14}R_{23}$ (Fig. 2C and D). These biomarker distributions indicate an abrupt (around 10 m) transition from aquatic to wetland vegetation. Less than 100 m away (Fig. 1C), low nC_{31} $\delta^{13}C$ values (Fig. 2A) and low C/V and very low P_{aq} values (Figs. 3 and 4A) collectively indicate dense woody cover (Fig. 4B). In the farthest southeastern (FLK^S) trenches, high C/V values and high $\delta^{13}C$ values for *C* lignin phenols (Fig. 3) indicate open C_4 grassland.

Biomarkers define a heterogeneous landscape at Olduvai and suggest an influence of local resources on hominin diets and behavior. It is recognized (2, 24–26) that early *Homo* species and *P. boisei* had similar physiological characteristics. These similarities in physical attributes suggest behavioral differences were what allowed for overlapping ranges and local coexistence

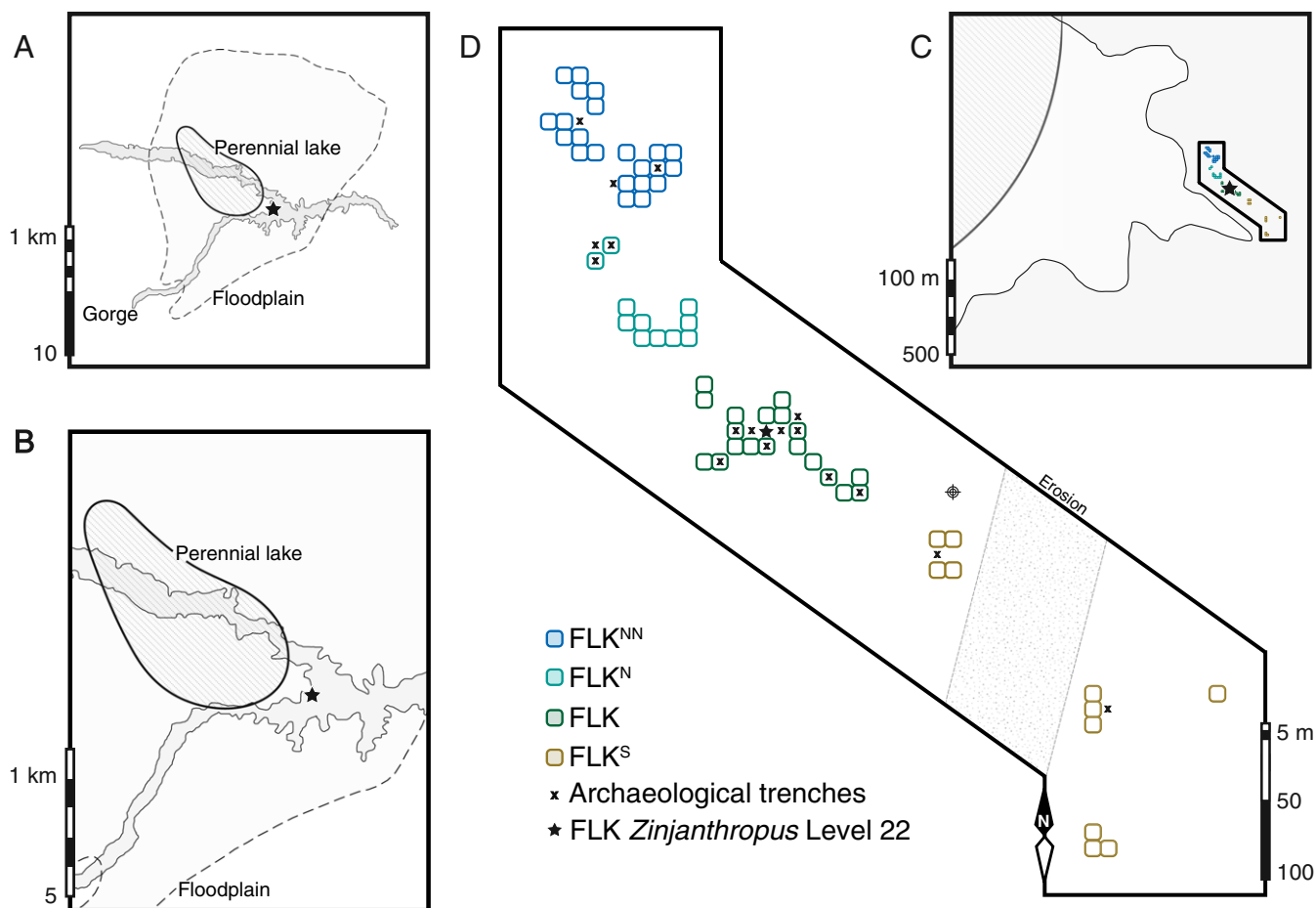


Fig. 1. Location and map of FLK *Zinj* paleosol excavations. (A and B) Location of FLK *Zinj* as referenced to reconstructed depositional environments at Olduvai Gorge during the early Pleistocene (18, 22) and the modern gorge walls. The perennial lake contained shallow saline–alkaline waters that frequently flooded the surrounding playa margin (i.e., floodplain) flats. (C) Outline of FLK *Zinj* paleosol excavation sites used for our spatial biomarker reconstructions. (D) Concentric (5 m) gridded distribution map of FLK *Zinj* paleosol excavations relative to previous archaeological trenches (18–21). Major aggregate complexes (FLK^{NN}, FLK^N, FLK, and FLK^S) are color-coded to show excavation-site associations.

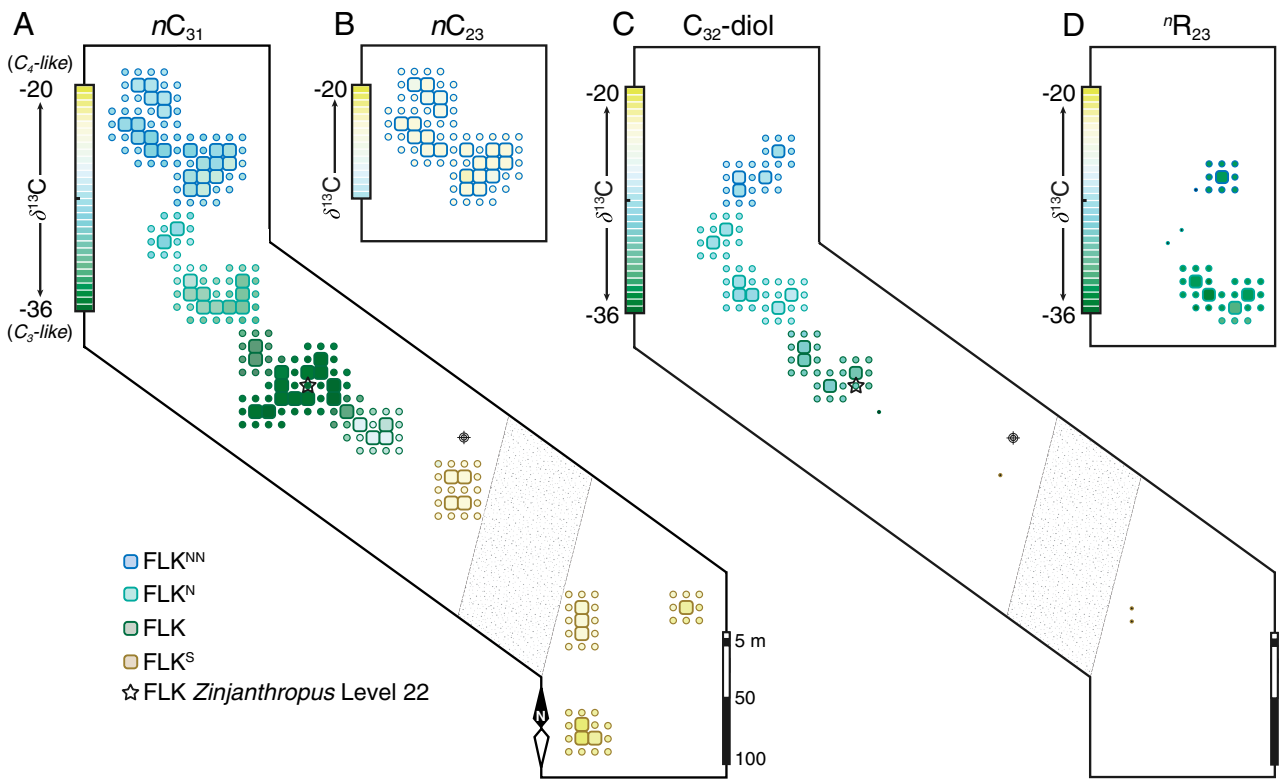


Fig. 2. Spatial distributions and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for plant biomarkers across FLK Zinj. Measured and modeled $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (large and smaller circles, respectively) are shown for (A) $n\text{C}_{31}$ from terrestrial plants, (B) $n\text{C}_{23}$ from (semi)aquatic plants, (C) C_{32} -diol from ferns, and (D) $^{14}\text{R}_{23}$ from sedges (see refs. 12 and 13 and *SI Discussion*). Modeled values [inverse distance-weighted (9)] account for spatial autocorrelation (15-m radius) in standing biomass (35) over scales of soil organic matter accumulation (11). Black dots represent paleosols with insufficient plant biomarker concentrations for isotopic analysis.

(sympatry) of both hominins. For instance, differences in seasonal subsistence strategies or different behavior during periods of drought and limited food could have reduced local hominin competition and fostered diversification via niche specialization (27–29).

Physical and isotopic properties of fossil teeth indicate *P. boisei* was more water-dependent [low enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (24)] and consumed larger quantities of abrasive, ^{13}C -enriched foodstuffs [flat-worn surfaces (25) and high enamel $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (26)] than coexisting early *Homo* species. Although ^{13}C -enriched enamel is commonly attributed to consumption of C_4 grasses or meat from grazers (14), this was not likely, because *P. boisei* craniodental features are inconsistent with contemporary granivores (24, 25) or extensive uncooked flesh mastication (26). Numerous scholars have proposed the nutritious underground storage organs (USOs) of C_4 sedges were a staple of hominin diets (14, 24, 26, 27). Consistent with this suggestion, occurrences of $^{14}\text{R}_{23}$ attest to the presence of sedges at FLK^{NN} and FLK^N (Fig. 2D). However, the low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values measured for $^{14}\text{R}_{23}$ at these same sites (Fig. 2D and Fig. S2) indicate C_3 photosynthesis (12, 16), a trait common in modern sedges that grow in alkaline wetlands and lakes (30) (Fig. S3). Thus, biomarker signatures support the presence of C_3 sedges in the wetland area of FLK Zinj.

Alternative foodstuffs with abrasive, ^{13}C -enriched biomass include seedless vascular plants (cryptogams), such as ferns and lycophytes [e.g., quillworts (27, 30)]. Ferns are widely distributed throughout eastern Africa in moist and shaded microhabitats (31) and are often found near dependable sources of drinking water (32). Today, ferns serve as a dietary resource for humans and nonhuman primates alike (27), and fiddlehead consumption is consistent with the inferred digestive physiology [salivary proteins (33)] and the microwear on molars (34) of

P. boisei in eastern Africa (25, 26). Ferns were present at FLK^{NN}, based on measurements of C_{32} -diol (Fig. 2D). Further, the high

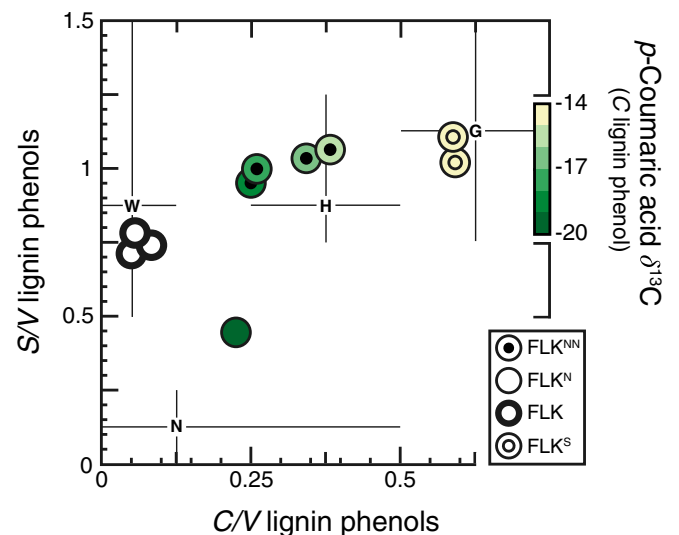


Fig. 3. Molecular and isotopic signatures for lignin phenols across FLK Zinj. Bivariate plots are shown for diagnostic lignin compositional parameters (see refs. 12 and 15 and *Table S1*) associated with aggregate excavation complexes (Fig. 1C). Symbols are colored according to respective $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for the C lignin phenol, *p*-coumaric acid. FLK symbols are uncolored due to insufficient *p*-coumaric acid concentrations for isotopic analysis. Representative lignin compositional parameters (12, 15) are shown for monocotyledonous herbaceous tissues (G), dicotyledonous herbaceous tissues (H), cryptogams (N), and dicotyledonous woody tissues (W).

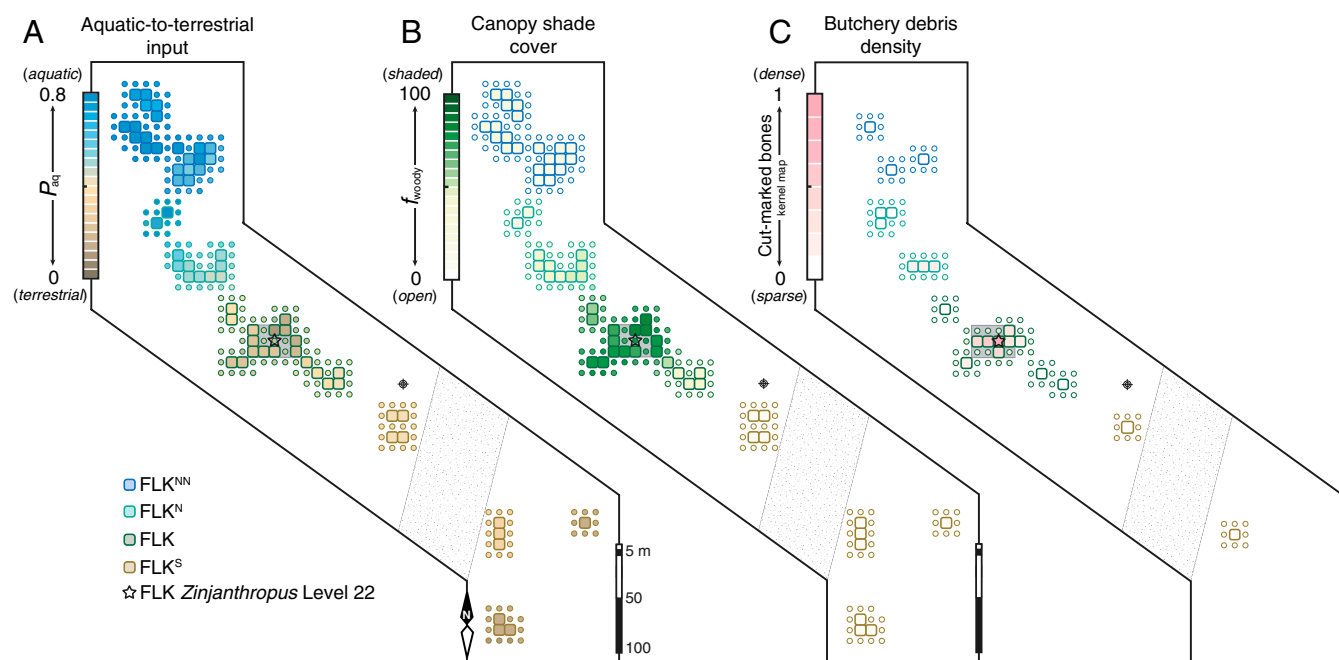


Fig. 4. Spatial relationships shared between local plant resources and hominin remains. Measured and modeled values (large and smaller circles, respectively) are shown for (A) P_{aq} (13) and (B) f_{woody} (8). Modeled values [inverse distance-weighted (9)] account for spatial autocorrelation (15-m radius) in standing biomass (35) over scales of soil organic matter accumulation (11). (C) Kernel density map of cut-marked bones (18–21) across the FLK Zinj land surface (Fig. S4). High estimator values indicate hotspots of hominin butchery (Fig. S5). A shaded rectangle captures the area (ca. 0.68 probability mass) with highest cut-marked bone densities and is shown in A and B for reference.

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values measured for these compounds are consistent with significant fern consumption by *P. boisei* at Olduvai Gorge.

Ferns and grasses were not the only plant foods present during the time window documented by FLK Zinj. Further, the exclusive reliance on a couple of dietary resources was improbable for *P. boisei*, because its fossils occur in diverse localities (24–26). Aquatic plants are an additional candidate substrate, as evidenced by high P_{aq} values at FLK^{NN} and FLK^N (Fig. 4A). Floating and submerged plants proliferate in wetlands throughout eastern Africa today (13, 14), and many produce nutritious leaves and rootstock all year long (27, 28). Although C_4 photosynthesis is rare among modern macrophytes (30), they can assimilate bicarbonate under alkaline conditions, which results in C_4 -like isotope signatures in their biomass (30). Their leaf waxes, such as $n\text{C}_{23}$ (13), are both present and carry ^{13}C -enriched signatures at FLK^{NN} and FLK^N (Fig. 2B). It is also likely that aquatic macrophytes sustained invertebrates and fish with comparably ^{13}C -enriched biomass, as they do in modern systems (14), and we suggest aquatic animal foods could have been important in *P. boisei* diets (27, 28).

Biomarkers across the FLK Zinj soil horizon resolve clear patterns in the distribution of plants and water and suggest critical resources that shaped hominin existence at Olduvai Gorge. The behavioral implications of local conditions require understanding of regional climate and biogeography (3–5, 7), because hominin species likely had home ranges much larger than the extent of excavated sites at FLK Zinj. Lake sediments at Olduvai Gorge include numerous stacked tuffs with precise radiometric age constraints (23). These tephrostratigraphic correlations (21) tie the FLK Zinj landscape horizon to published records of plant biomarkers in lake sediments that record climate cycles and catchment-scale variations in ecology. Correlative lake sediment data indicate the wet and wooded microhabitats of FLK Zinj sat within a catchment dominated by arid C_4 grassland (8). Under similarly arid conditions today, only a small fraction of landscape area (ca. 0.05) occurs within 5 km of either forest or

standing freshwater (35). Given a paucity of shaded refuge and potable water in the catchment, the concentration of hominin butchery debris (18–21) exclusively within the forest microhabitat and adjacent to a freshwater wetland (Fig. 4) is notable. We suggest the spatial patterns defined by both macro- and molecular fossils reflect hominins engaged in social transport of resources (1–5), such as bringing animal carcasses and freshwater-sourced foods from surrounding grassy or wetland habitats to a wooded patch that provided both physical protection and access to water.

Materials and Methods

Plant Biomarker Extraction and Isolation. Freeze-dried and powdered paleosol samples (10–20 g dry weight, $n = 71$) were extracted by accelerated solvent extraction (Dionex ASE 200 system) with 90:10 dichloromethane (DCM) to methanol by volume. Total lipid extracts were separated into fractions over activated silica gel by elution with hexane (apolar), DCM, and methanol. Apolar fractions were further separated over silver-impregnated alumina by elution with hexane (saturated apolar). Then, n -alkanes were separated from saturated apolar fractions by zeolitic (5 Å) sieve. Once extracted, residual paleosols were oxidized under alkaline conditions and acidified with hydrochloric acid. Lignin phenols were recovered by liquid extraction with diethyl ether. Additional details are provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Molecular and Isotopic Analysis. Molecular signatures were characterized by GC-MS (*SI Materials and Methods*). Polar fractions and lignin phenols were derivatized with $\text{N,O-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide}$ (BSTFA) in pyridine. Isotopic signatures were characterized by gas chromatography-combustion-isotope-ratio monitoring mass spectrometry and expressed in standard permil (‰) notation relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB):

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = 1,000(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1), R = {}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}.$$

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We are thankful to Richard Hay (1926–2006), whose pioneering work at Olduvai Gorge inspired this research. We thank the Tanzania Antiquities Department and the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority for field permits and support. This research study was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (HAR2013-45246-C3-1-P) and National Science Foundation Grant DGE 0947962.

1. Marlowe F (2005) Hunter-gatherers and human evolution. *Evol Anthropol* 14(2): 54–67.
2. Winterhalder B (1980) Environmental analysis in human evolution and adaptation research. *Hum Ecol* 8(2):135–170.
3. Potts R (2012) Environmental and behavioral evidence pertaining to the evolution of early *Homo*. *Curr Anthropol* 53(5):299–317.
4. Kroll E (1994) Behavioral implications of Plio-Pleistocene archaeological site structure. *J Hum Evol* 27(1):107–138.
5. Rose L, Marshall F (1996) Meat eating, hominid sociality, and home bases revisited. *Curr Anthropol* 37(2):307–338.
6. Cerling TE, et al. (2011) Woody cover and hominin environments in the past 6 million years. *Nature* 476(7358):51–56.
7. Kingston JD (2007) Shifting adaptive landscapes: Progress and challenges in reconstructing early hominid environments. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 134(Suppl 45):20–58.
8. Magill CR, Ashley GM, Freeman KH (2013) Water, plants, and early human habitats in eastern Africa. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 110(4):1175–1180.
9. West J, et al. (2010) *Isoscapes: Understanding Movement, Pattern, and Process on Earth Through Isotope Mapping* (Springer, New York).
10. Behrensmeier A, Kidwell S, Gastaldo R (2000) Taphonomy and paleobiology. *Paleobiology* 26(Sp4):103–147.
11. Kögel-Knabner I (2002) The macromolecular organic composition of plant and microbial residues as inputs to soil organic matter. *Soil Biol Biochem* 34(2):139–162.
12. Amelung W, et al. (2008) Combining biomarker with stable isotope analyses for assessing the transformation and turnover of soil organic matter. *Adv Agron* 100:155–250.
13. Ficken K, et al. (2000) An *n*-alkane proxy for the sedimentary input of submerged/floating freshwater aquatic macrophytes. *Org Geochem* 31(7):745–749.
14. Peters CR, Vogel JC (2005) Africa's wild C_4 plant foods and possible early hominid diets. *J Hum Evol* 48(3):219–236.
15. Huang Y, et al. (1999) $\delta^{13}C$ of individual lignin phenols in Quaternary lake sediments: A novel proxy for deciphering past terrestrial vegetation changes. *Geology* 27(5): 471–474.
16. Hobbie E, Werner R (2004) Intramolecular, compound-specific, and bulk carbon isotope patterns in C_3 and C_4 plants: A review and synthesis. *New Phytol* 161(2):371–385.
17. Diefendorf A, et al. (2015) Paleogene plants fractionated carbon isotopes similar to modern plants. *Earth Planet Sci Lett* 429:33–44.
18. Hay R (1976) *Geology of the Olduvai Gorge* (Univ of California Press, Berkeley, CA).
19. Dominguez-Rodrigo M, et al. (2010) New excavations at the FLK *Zinjanthropus* site and its surrounding landscape and their behavioral implications. *Quat Res* 74(3): 315–332.
20. Blumenschine RJ, et al. (2012) Environments and hominin activities across the FLK Peninsula during *Zinjanthropus* times (1.84 Ma), Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania. *J Hum Evol* 63(2):364–383.
21. Uribelarrea D, et al. (2014) Geo-archaeological and geometrically corrected reconstruction of the 1.84 Ma FLK *Zinj* paleolandscape at Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania. *Quat Int* 322:7–31.
22. Ashley G, et al. (2014) Freshwater limestone in an arid basin: A Goldilocks effect. *J Sed Geol* 84(11):988–1004.
23. Deino AL (2012) ($^{40}Ar/^{39}Ar$) dating of Bed I, Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania, and the chronology of early Pleistocene climate change. *J Hum Evol* 63(2):251–273.
24. Cerling TE, et al. (2011) Diet of *Paranthropus boisei* in the early Pleistocene of eastern Africa. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 108(23):9337–9341.
25. Smith AL, et al. (2015) The feeding biomechanics and dietary ecology of *Paranthropus boisei*. *Anat Rec (Hoboken)* 298(1):145–167.
26. Macho GA (2014) Baboon feeding ecology informs the dietary niche of *Paranthropus boisei*. *PLoS One* 9(1):e84942.
27. Wrangham R, Cheney D, Seyfarth R, Sarmiento E (2009) Shallow-water habitats as sources of fallback foods for hominins. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 140(4):630–642.
28. Laden G, Wrangham R (2005) The rise of the hominids as an adaptive shift in fallback foods: Plant underground storage organs (USOs) and australopithec origins. *J Hum Evol* 49(4):482–498.
29. Stanford CB (2006) The behavioral ecology of sympatric African apes: Implications for understanding fossil hominoid ecology. *Primates* 47(1):91–101.
30. Keeley J, Sandquist D (1992) Carbon: Freshwater plants. *Plant Cell Environ* 15(9): 1021–1035.
31. Aldasoro J, Cebezas F, Aedo C (2004) Diversity and distribution of ferns in sub-Saharan Africa, Madagascar and some islands of the South Atlantic. *J Biogeogr* 31(10): 1579–1604.
32. Jarman P (1972) The use of drinking sites, wallows and salt licks by herbivores in the flooded Middle Zambezi Valley. *Afr J Ecol* 10(3):193–209.
33. Bennick A (2002) Interaction of plant polyphenols with salivary proteins. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 13(2):184–196.
34. Kieser J, et al. (2001) Patterns of dental wear in the early Maori dentition. *Int J Osteoarchaeol* 11(3):206–217.
35. Scholes R, et al. (2002) Trends in savanna structure and composition along an aridity gradient in the Kalahari. *J Veg Sci* 13(3):419–428.
36. Goñi M, Hedges J (1992) Lignin dimers: Structures distribution, and potential geochemical applications. *Geochim Cosmochim Acta* 56(11):4025–4043.
37. Magill C, Denis E, Freeman K (2015) Rapid sequential separation of sedimentary lipid biomarkers via selective accelerated solvent extraction. *Org Geochem* 88:29–34.
38. Avsejs L, et al. (2002) 5-*n*-alkylresorcinols as biomarkers of sedges in an ombrotrophic peat section. *Org Geochem* 33(7):861–867.
39. Speelman E, et al. (2009) Biomarker lipids of the freshwater fern *Azolla* and its fossil counterpart from the Eocene Arctic Ocean. *Org Geochem* 40(5):628–637.
40. Villanueva L, et al. (2014) Potential biological sources of long chain alkyl diols in lacustrine environments. *Org Geochem* 68:27–30.
41. Silverman B (1986) *Density Estimation for Statistics and Data Analysis* (CRC, Boca Raton, FL).
42. Philip G, Watson D (1986) Geostatistics and spatial data analysis. *Math Geol* 18: 505–509.
43. Borgogno F, et al. (2009) Mathematical models of vegetation pattern formation in ecohydrology. *Rev Geophys* 47(1):RG1005.
44. Caylor K, Shugart H (2006) *Pattern and Process in Savanna Ecosystems* (Springer, New York).
45. Wang L, et al. (2009) Spatial heterogeneity and sources of soil carbon in southern African savannas. *Geoderma* 149(3):402–408.
46. Lin YP, Chu HJ, Wu CF, Chang TK, Chen CY (2011) Hotspot analysis of spatial environmental pollutants using kernel density estimation and geostatistical techniques. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 8(1):75–88.
47. Kozubek A, Tyman JH (1999) Resorcinolic lipids, the natural non-isoprenoid phenolic amphiphiles and their biological activity. *Chem Rev* 99(1):1–26.
48. Tieszen L, et al. (1979) The distribution of C_3 and C_4 grasses and carbon isotope discrimination along an altitudinal and moisture gradient in Kenya. *Oecologia* 37(3): 337–350.
49. Stock W, Chuba D, Verboom G (2004) Distribution of South African C_3 and C_4 species of *Cyperaceae* in relation to climate and phylogeny. *Austral Ecol* 29(3):313–319.
50. Besnard G, et al. (2009) Phylogenomics of C_4 photosynthesis in sedges (*Cyperaceae*): Multiple appearances and genetic convergence. *Mol Biol Evol* 26(8):1909–1919.
51. Muasya A, et al. (2009) Phylogeny of *Cyperaceae* based on DNA sequence data: Current progress and future prospects. *Bot Rev* 75(1):2–21.
52. Muasya A, et al. (2011) The *Cyperaceae* in Madagascar show increased species richness in upland forest and wetland habitats. *Plant Ecol Evol* 144(3):357–362.
53. Larridon I, et al. (2011) Affinities in C_3 *Cyperus* lineages (*Cyperaceae*) revealed using molecular phylogenetic data and carbon isotope analysis. *Bot J Linn Soc* 167(1):19–46.
54. Larridon I, et al. (2013) Towards a new classification of the giant paraphyletic genus *Cyperus* (*Cyperaceae*): Phylogenetic relationships and generic delimitation in C_4 *Cyperus*. *Bot J Linn Soc* 172(1):106–126.
55. Adeniyi T, et al. (2014) Investigating the phytochemicals and antimicrobial properties of three sedge (*Cyperaceae*) species. *Not Sci Biol* 6(3):276–281.
56. Gamal M, et al. (2015) A review: Compounds isolated from *Cyperus* species (Part I): Phenolics and nitrogenous. *Int J Pharmacogn Phytochem* 7:51–67.
57. Nassar M, et al. (2015) Essential oil and antimicrobial activity of aerial parts of *Cyperus leavigatus* L. (Family: *Cyperaceae*). *J Essent Oil Bear Pl* 18(2):416–422.
58. Gehrke B (2011) Synopsis of *Carex* (*Cyperaceae*) from sub-Saharan Africa and Madagascar. *Bot J Linn Soc* 166(1):51–99.
59. Ortiz J, et al. (2010) Palaeoenvironmental reconstruction of Northern Spain during the last 8000 cal yr BP based on the biomarker content of the Roñanzas peat bog (Asturias). *Org Geochem* 41(5):454–466.
60. Cho HS, et al. (2013) Inhibition of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 biofilm formation by plant metabolite ϵ -viniferin. *J Agric Food Chem* 61(29): 7120–7126.
61. Jetter R, Riederer M (1999) Long-chain alkanediols, ketoaldehydes, ketoalcohols and ketoalkyl esters in the cuticular waxes of *Osmunda regalis* fronds. *Phytochemistry* 52(5):907–915.
62. Christenhusz MJ, Chase MW (2014) Trends and concepts in fern classification. *Ann Bot (Lond)* 113(4):571–594.
63. Sage R (2002) Are crassulacean acid metabolism and C_4 photosynthesis incompatible? *Funct Plant Biol* 29(6):775–785.
64. Kornas J (1985) Adaptive strategies of African pteridophytes to extreme environments. *P Roy Soc Edin B* 86:391–396.
65. Keeley J (1998) CAM photosynthesis in submerged aquatic plants. *Bot Rev* 64(2):121–175.
66. Rascio N (2002) The underwater life of secondarily aquatic plants: some problems and solutions. *Crit Rev Plant Sci* 21(4):401–427.
67. Raven J, et al. (2008) The evolution of inorganic carbon concentrating mechanisms in photosynthesis. *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci* 363(1504):2641–2650.
68. Smith J, Winter K (1996) *Crassulacean Acid Metabolism* (Springer, Berlin).
69. Holtum J, Winter K (1999) Degrees of crassulacean acid metabolism in tropical epiphytic and lithophytic ferns. *Funct Plant Biol* 26(8):749–757.
70. Holtum J, et al. (2005) Carbon isotope composition and water-use efficiency in plants with crassulacean acid metabolism. *Funct Plant Biol* 32(5):381–388.
71. Ehleringer J, et al. (1987) Leaf carbon isotope ratios of plants from a subtropical monsoon forest. *Oecologia* 72(1):109–114.
72. Bunn S, Boon P (1993) What sources of organic carbon drive food webs in billabongs? A study based on stable isotope analysis. *Oecologia* 96(1):85–94.
73. Zotz G (2004) How prevalent is crassulacean acid metabolism among vascular epiphytes? *Oecologia* 138(2):184–192.
74. Anthelme F, et al. (2011) Are ferns in arid environments underestimated? Contribution from the Saharan Mountains. *J Arid Environ* 75(6):516–523.
75. Stanistreet IG (2012) Fine resolution of early hominin time, Beds I and II, Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania. *J Hum Evol* 63(2):300–308.
76. Fernández-Jalvo Y, et al. (1998) Taphonomy and palaeoecology of Olduvai bed-I (Pleistocene, Tanzania). *J Hum Evol* 34(2):137–172.
77. Bunn H (2007) Meat made us human. *Evolution of the Human Diet: The Known, the Unknown, and the Unknowable* (Oxford Univ Press, Oxford), pp 191–211.
78. Sikes NE, Ashley GM (2007) Stable isotopes of pedogenic carbonates as indicators of paleoecology in the Plio-Pleistocene (upper Bed I), western margin of the Olduvai Basin, Tanzania. *J Hum Evol* 53(5):574–594.
79. Bird M, et al. (1996) A latitudinal gradient in carbon turnover times in forest soils. *Nature* 381(6578):143–146.
80. Krull E, et al. (2005) Recent vegetation changes in central Queensland, Australia: Evidence from $\delta^{13}C$ and ^{14}C analyses of soil organic matter. *Geoderma* 126(3):241–259.

81. Krull E, et al. (2006) Compound-specific $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ analyses of plant and soil organic matter: A preliminary assessment of the effects of vegetation change on ecosystem hydrology. *Soil Biol Biochem* 38(11):3211–3221.
82. Bamford MK (2012) Fossil sedges, macroplants, and roots from Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania. *J Hum Evol* 63(2):351–363.
83. Brett R (1991) *The Biology of the Naked Mole Rat* (Princeton Univ Press, Princeton).
84. Karrfalt E (1977) Substrate penetration by the corm of *Isoetes*. *Am Fern J* 67(1):1–4.
85. Hagemann W (1984) *Morphological Aspects of Leaf Development in Ferns and Angiosperms* (Elsevier, Amsterdam).
86. Denny P (1985) *The Ecology and Management of African Wetland Vegetation* (Springer, Berlin).
87. Yeakel J, et al. (2007) The isotopic ecology of African mole rats informs hypotheses on the evolution of human diet. *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci* 274(1619):1723–1730.
88. Schoeninger M, et al. (2001) Composition of tubers used by Hadza foragers of Tanzania. *J Food Compos Anal* 14(1):15–25.
89. van der Merwe N (2013) Isotopic ecology of fossil fauna from Olduvai Gorge at ca. 1.8 Ma, compared with modern fauna. *S Afr J Sci* 109(11-12):1–14.
90. Harris J, Cerling T (2002) Dietary adaptations of extant and Neogene African suids. *J Zool (Lond)* 256(1):45–54.
91. Mugangu T, Hunter M (1992) Aquatic foraging by *Hippopotamus* in Zaire: response to a food shortage? *Mammalia* 56(3):345–350.
92. Sillen A (1988) Elemental and isotopic analyses of mammalian fauna from southern Africa and their implications for paleodietary research. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 76(1):49–60.
93. Nowak R (1999) *Walker's Mammals of the World* (Johns Hopkins Univ Press, Baltimore).
94. Roth H, et al. (2004) Distribution and status of the hippopotamids in the Ivory Coast. *Afr Zool* 39(2):211–224.
95. Simpson E, et al. (2007) Phylogeny of Cyperaceae based on DNA sequence data—a new rbcL analysis. *Aliso* 23(1):72–83.
96. Jung J, Choi HK (2013) Recognition of two major clades and early diverged groups within the subfamily Cyperoideae (Cyperaceae) including Korean sedges. *J Plant Res* 126(3):335–349.
97. Sheather S, Jones M (1991) A reliable data-based bandwidth selection method for kernel density estimation. *J R Stat Soc B* 53:683–690.