

1 **Palaeoecological reconstruction of Plio-Pleistocene herbivores from the**  
2 **Ahl al Oughlam site (Casablanca, Morocco): Insights from dental wear**  
3 **and stable isotopes**

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5 Iván Ramírez-Pedraza<sup>a,b,c\*</sup>, Florent Rivals<sup>a,b,d</sup>, Carlos Tornero<sup>e, a</sup>, Denis Geraads<sup>f</sup>, Jean  
6 Paul Raynal<sup>g,h</sup>, David Lefèvre<sup>i</sup>, Abderrahim Mohib<sup>h,j</sup>

7  
8 <sup>a</sup> Institut Català de Paleoeologia Humana i Evolució Social (IPHES-CERCA), Tarragona, Spain.

9  
10 <sup>b</sup> Departament d'Història i Història de l'Art, Universitat Rovira i Virgili (URV), Tarragona, Spain.

11 <sup>c</sup> isoTROPIC Research Group, Max Planck Institute of Geoanthropology, Jena, Germany.

12 <sup>d</sup> Institució Catalana de Recerca i Estudis Avançats (ICREA), Barcelona, Spain.

13 <sup>e</sup> Department of Prehistory, Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra, Spain.

14 <sup>f</sup> CR2P-UMR 7207, CNRS, MNHN, Sorbonne Université, Paris, France.

15 <sup>g</sup> Université de Bordeaux, CNRS, UMR 5199 PACEA, Pessac cedex, France.

16 <sup>h</sup> Institut National des Sciences de l'Archéologie et du Patrimoine (INSAP), Rabat, Morocco.

17 <sup>i</sup> Université Paul Valéry Montpellier 3, CNRS, LabEx ARCHIMEDE and UMR 5140 Archéologie des sociétés  
18 méditerranéennes, Campus Saint Charles, Montpellier, France.

19 <sup>j</sup> Direction provinciale de la Culture, Avenue Mohammed V, quartier administratif, Kénitra, Morocco.

20 \* Corresponding author. Institut Català de Paleoeologia Humana i Evolució Social (IPHES-CERCA),  
21 Tarragona, Spain. E-mail address: [ramirezpedrazaivan@gmail.com](mailto:ramirezpedrazaivan@gmail.com) (I. Ramírez-Pedraza)

22

23 **Abstract**

24 In this article, we use a multiproxy approach based on stable isotope analyses ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  
25  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), mesowear, and microwear dental analysis to reconstruct the climate, diet, and

26 habitat of Plio-Pleistocene herbivores at the site of Ahl al Oughlam in western Morocco.  
27 This study has been conducted on teeth from several taxa (*Sivatherium maurusium*,  
28 *Hipparion pomeli*, *Metridiochoerus phacochoeroides*, *Gazella* sp., Alcelaphini, and  
29 *Anancus osiris*), enabling a robust ecological reconstruction. Our isotopic results suggest  
30 a predominance of C<sub>3</sub> plant consumption for all analyzed species, while dental wear  
31 indicates a varied diet, with evidence for both browsing and grazing behavior being  
32 present. The combination of proxies indicates a landscape dominated by open C<sub>3</sub>  
33 grasslands in an arid climate, as supported by the Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP)  
34 results. These findings contribute to the ongoing debate on the ecological context that  
35 facilitated the Plio-Pleistocene dispersal, occupation, and evolution of mammals and  
36 hominins in northern Africa, for which limited information is available.

37

## 38 **Keywords**

39 North Africa, diet, habitat, stable isotopes, microwear, mesowear.

40

## 41 **1. Introduction**

42 The richness and diversity of mammalian fossil remains in the Maghreb during the Late  
43 Pliocene and Early Pleistocene (Geraads, 2002; Raynal et al., 2002; Sahnouni and Van  
44 der Made, 2009; Sahnouni et al., 2011; Van der Made et al., 2021), provides evidence  
45 that the Sahara Desert was not always a natural barrier for mammals in the past. The  
46 region experienced multiple green and humid phases, known as Green Sahara periods  
47 (GSPs), over millions of years, including the Plio-Pleistocene. During these events, the  
48 present desert area consisted of river basins and extensive lakes (Van Zinderen Barker,  
49 1962; Larrasoña et al., 2003, 2013; Castañeda et al., 2009; Grant et al., 2017, 2022;  
50 Larrasoña, 2021). These environmental conditions would have facilitated episodes of

51 mammalian dispersal from sub-Saharan locations to the north of Africa (Geraads, 2010;  
52 Zouhri et al., 2017; Van der Made et al., 2021).

53

54 To date, the oldest artifacts and stone tool-cut marked bones in North Africa associated  
55 with the presence of hominins have been found at the site of Aïn Boucherit (~1.9 and ~2.4  
56 Ma) in the Beni Fouda intramontane basin in northeast Algeria (Sahnouni et al., 2018;  
57 Duval et al., 2021). In the same area, Acheulean technology has been described at the  
58 sites of Aïn Hanech and El Kherba (~1.8 Ma) (Sahnouni et al., 2002, 2012, 2017; Parés  
59 et al., 2014; Duval et al., 2021, 2023; Van der Made et al., 2021). In the Constantine Basin  
60 (Algeria), biochronologically close to Aïn Hanech, is the little-known site of Mansourah,  
61 with abundant faunal remains and bifacial artifacts associated with the Oldowan industry  
62 (Thomas, 1884, 1886; Chaid-Saoudi et al., 2006; Sahnouni and Van der Made, 2009) and  
63 the palaeontological site of Aïn Jourdel (~2.5 Ma) (Thomas, 1884, 1886; Duval et al.,  
64 2021). The oldest human remains have been found in western Algeria at Tighennif, also  
65 called Ternifine, ~1 Ma (Arambourg and Hoffstetter, 1963; Geraads et al., 1986;  
66 Bocherens et al., 1996; Geraads, 2016; Van der Made et al., 2021). In western Morocco,  
67 near Casablanca, the earliest archaeological sites date back to the Early and Middle  
68 Pleistocene (Raynal et al., 2001, 2002, 2017; Mohib et al., 2019; Gallotti et al., 2022). Up  
69 to now, the oldest site with human presence corresponds to unit L of Thomas Quarry I  
70 and its abundant ancient Acheulean lithic tools (~1.3 Ma) (Raynal and Texier, 1989;  
71 Gallotti et al., 2020, 2021, 2023). (Raynal and Texier, 1989; Gallotti et al., 2020, 2021,  
72 2023). The former Thomas III Quarry, in which *Homo* remains were found (Ennouchi,  
73 1975, Geraads et al., 1980, 2022a and b; Raynal, 2021) was renamed Oulad Hamida 1  
74 Quarry when the *Grotte des Rhinocéros* (~0.7 Ma) was discovered and delivered a single  
75 *Homo* remain associated with stone tools and fauna (Raynal et al., 1993, 2022b; Rhodes

76 et al., 2006; Daujeard et al., 2012, 2020; Raynal and Mohib, 2016; Gallotti et al., 2022).  
77 In Thomas Quarry I, above level L, Hominid Cave (~0.5/0.7 Ma) is also located, where  
78 early *Homo* remains on the Atlantic shore were discovered (Ennouchi, 1975; Geraads et  
79 al., 1980, 2022a; Raynal et al., 2010, 2022a; Daujeard et al., 2016, 2020; Raynal, 2021).  
80 On the outskirts of Casablanca sits the site of Ahl al Oughlam (AaO), the richest Neogene  
81 faunal site in North Africa dated to ~2.5 Ma (Raynal et al., 1990; Geraads, 2006; Geraads  
82 et al., 2010, 2022b) and whose ecological context is investigated in this work.

83

84 In eastern Morocco, close to the Algerian border in the Aïn Beni Mathar–Guefaït area  
85 (Jerada province), several sites have been discovered and excavated since 2006: the Early  
86 Pleistocene sites of Aïn Tabouda, Gara Sultana and Charchara 1 with Mode 1 lithic tools,  
87 and the Middle Pleistocene site of Oued Rabt with Mode 2 lithic tools (Sala-Ramos et al.,  
88 2022). The oldest site, although palaeontological, is Guefaït. This one is  
89 biochronologically located at the Plio-Pleistocene boundary (~3–2.5 Ma; Parés et al.,  
90 2023), contemporaneous with Ahl al Oughlam, and contains a large diversity of taxa in  
91 its fossiliferous levels (Sala-Ramos et al., 2017, 2022; Aouraghe et al., 2019; Piñero et  
92 al., 2019; Alba et al., 2021; Madurell-Malapeira et al., 2021; Ramírez-Pedraza et al.,  
93 2023).

94

95 Work based on palaeoecological reconstructions are underrepresented in North Africa,  
96 despite the abundance of archaeopalaeontological sites found from the Late Pliocene to  
97 the Early Pleistocene in this territory. In Morocco, the studies published to date are  
98 focused on the palaeoecology of the Plio-Pleistocene primates of Ahl al Oughlam  
99 (*Theropithecus*; Fannin et al., 2021) and Guefaït-4.2 (*Macaca*; Ramírez-Pedraza et al.,  
100 2023). In Algeria, there are more extensive studies available, such as the analysis of

101 carbon and oxygen stable isotopes in herbivores from Tighennif (~1 Ma) (Bocherens et  
102 al., 1996; Fannin et al., 2021), and the research based on stable isotopes of pedogenic  
103 carbonates from El Kherba (~1.8 Ma) (Sahnouni et al., 2011). However, there still  
104 remains a knowledge gap in this area regarding the reconstruction of habitats at the Plio-  
105 Pleistocene boundary. This contrasts with the numerous and comprehensive studies  
106 carried out in eastern (Kingston and Harrison, 2007; Ségalen et al., 2007; Levin et al.,  
107 2008; Bedaso et al., 2013; Cerling et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2017, 2021; Lüdecke et  
108 al., 2018; Mercader et al., 2021), southern (Lee-Thorp and Sponheimer, 2005; Lee-Thorp  
109 et al., 2007, 2010; Ségalen et al., 2007; Lehmann et al., 2016) and central Africa (Zazzo  
110 et al., 2000; Ségalen et al., 2007; Lee-Thorp et al., 2012) focused on the ecological  
111 contexts of Plio-Pleistocene hominins and large herbivores.

112

113 One of the commonly used methods for reconstructing past environments has been the  
114 analysis of stable carbon isotope ratios ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) in dental enamel bioapatite. This  
115 biogenic material is particularly useful due to its resistance to diagenetic processes,  
116 preserving the original isotopic signal (Wang and Cerling, 1994). The carbon isotope  
117 ratios are primarily influenced by the differential fractionation between the two  
118 photosynthetic pathways ( $\text{C}_3$  and  $\text{C}_4$ ) used by plants consumed by animals, and it is  
119 associated with specific types of landscapes or environmental conditions. The proportion  
120 of  $\text{C}_3$  or  $\text{C}_4$  plants is not distributed homogeneously throughout Africa, varying both  
121 geographically and chronologically. Global  $\text{C}_4$  ecosystem expansion around 8–10 million  
122 years ago, due to the decrease of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , higher temperatures and increasing  
123 water-stress represents a significant change in the landscape that led to the replacement  
124 of  $\text{C}_3$  grasses by  $\text{C}_4$  grasses in existing open and dry environments in low- to mid-latitude  
125 and altitude regions (Ehleringer et al., 1991; Cerling, 1992; Cerling et al., 1997; Edwards

126 et al., 2010; Polissar et al., 2019). During the Plio-Pleistocene, eastern, southern and  
127 central Africa was dominated by C<sub>4</sub> grassland (Zazzo et al., 2000; Ségalen et al., 2007;  
128 Strömberg, 2011), relegating C<sub>3</sub> grasses to altitudes above 2000 meters and in the forest  
129 understory (Tieszen et al., 1979; Young and Young, 1983; Balasse and Ambrose, 2005).  
130 The ecological context of these areas, characterized by the high abundance of C<sub>4</sub> grasses,  
131 especially in Eastern Africa, has allowed the application of the C<sub>4</sub>-grazers and C<sub>3</sub>-  
132 browsers classification, which is widely used in studies analyzing the diet of mammals  
133 based on the analysis of tooth enamel  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Vogel, 1978; Zazzo et al., 2000;  
134 Sponheimer and Lee-Thorp, 2003; Lee-Thorp and Sponheimer, 2005; Levin et al., 2008;  
135 Bedaso et al., 2013; Cerling et al., 2015; Uno et al., 2018).

136

137 This clear distinction between C<sub>4</sub>-grazers and C<sub>3</sub>-browsers is not valid at high latitudes,  
138 as the contribution of C<sub>4</sub> plants is non-existent or marginal. This pattern has been observed  
139 in multiple studies conducted during the Pliocene and Early Pleistocene in Europe  
140 (Edwards et al., 2010; Domingo et al., 2013; Szabó et al., 2022). The same observation  
141 applies to studies conducted in North Africa on Pleistocene and Pliocene archaeological  
142 and palaeontological sites mentioned above (Bocherens et al., 1996; Sahnouni et al.,  
143 2011; Fannin et al., 2021). All of them, based on carbon isotope evidence, reveal a  
144 vegetation consisting of C<sub>3</sub> plants including all available resources such as trees, woody  
145 shrubs, bushes and grasses. This makes it challenging to discern different diets and  
146 habitats for mammals and therefore to draw a consistent ecological reconstruction with  
147 this single method.

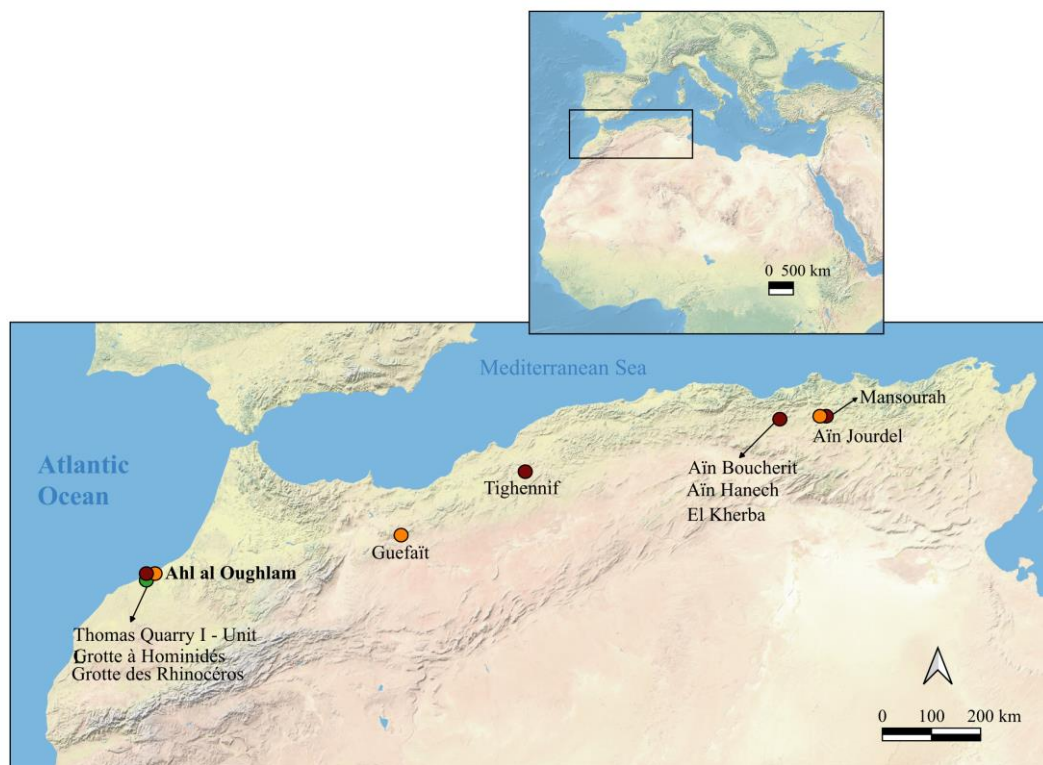
148

149 To address this challenge, we combine three high-resolution approaches that cover  
150 different moments in the animal's life: the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of tooth enamel bioapatite

151 (which reflect the first years of life related to the crown formation times), tooth mesowear  
152 (which reflects the last months/years before death) and tooth occlusal microwear (which  
153 reflects the last days/weeks before death). By combining these approaches, this work aims  
154 at providing a robust ecological reconstruction of the Ahl al Oughlam (AaO) mammal  
155 communities, which will shed light on their diets, habitats, and seasonality.  
156 Understanding the role of this territory is crucial in contributing to the debate about the  
157 first hominin dispersions and occupations, as well as highlighting the importance of  
158 Africa in the adaptation and development of mammal behavior during the Late Pliocene  
159 and Early Pleistocene.

160

## 161 2. Site: Ahl al Oughlam



162

163 **Fig.1.** Location map of North African sites mentioned in the text. Plio-Pleistocene boundary sites = orange  
164 circle (Ahl al Oughlam (this study), Guefaït and Aïn Jourdel); Early Pleistocene sites = brown circle

165 (Thomas Quarry I-Unit L, Tighennif, Aïn Boucherit, Aïn Hanech, El Kherba and Mansourah); Middle  
166 Pleistocene sites = green circle (Grotte des Rhinocéros and Grotte à Hominidés).

167

168 The fossiliferous locality of Ahl al Oughlam (33°34'11"N, 07°30'44"W) is an abandoned  
169 sandstone quarry located at the southeast boundary of the city of Casablanca (Morocco),  
170 6.5 km from the present-day Atlantic shore (**Fig. 1**; Raynal et al., 1990; Geraads et al.,  
171 2022b). Stratigraphically, the quarry cuts through calcarenitic intertidal, supratidal and  
172 aeolian deposits correlative to sea-level highstands associated with a platform developed  
173 about 105 m a.s.l. which belong to the *Ahl al Oughlam Morphostratigraphic Unit* (Lefèvre  
174 and Raynal, 2002; Lefèvre et al., 2021; Geraads et al., 2022b), formerly included in the  
175 *Messaoudian* stage of Biberson's Moroccan Quaternary Chronostratigraphy (Biberson,  
176 1961a; Stearns, 1978). The site was investigated in 1953 by Biberson (Biberson, 1961a,  
177 1961b), under the name of *Carrière Déprez*, who reported the occurrence of some broken  
178 pebbles that he considered as representing reworked artifacts of the "archaic pebble  
179 culture" representing an initial stage of North African technological evolution. Raynal  
180 and Texier (1989) demonstrated that they are actually "geofacts" of natural origin found  
181 in marine deposits. In 1985, J.-P. Raynal and J.-P. Texier discovered abundant fossil  
182 faunal remains in karst formations and in a network of fissures and interconnected  
183 galleries between calcarenite blocks, at the foot of what was once a palaeoshoreline.

184 A biostratigraphic analysis of the mammal assemblage dates this locality to the Plio-  
185 Pleistocene boundary, indicating an approximate age of 2.5 Ma (Geraads, 1997; Geraads  
186 et al., 2022b). The genus *Equus* is absent, suggesting that the site is older than 2.3 Ma  
187 (Geraads, 2006). The mammalian fauna includes at least fifty-five species of both small  
188 and large mammals. A new species of *Hipparion*, *H. pomeli*, has been described  
189 subsequently from the site (Eisenmann and Geraads, 2007). The vertebrate fauna also

190 includes amphibians, reptiles (tortoises, crocodiles, amphisbaenids, lizards and snakes)  
191 and fishes. The most unexpected element of the mammalian fauna is a walrus, a pinniped  
192 marine mammal. No living or fossil walrus was previously known in the Eastern Atlantic,  
193 south of Belgium (Geraads, 2006). The site was formed along the oceanic seashore which  
194 explains why both marine and terrestrial forms are found among birds. A list of the  
195 identified faunal taxa is given in several publications (Raynal et al., 1990; Geraads, 1993,  
196 1995, 1996, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2006; Alemseged and Geraads, 1998; Geraads and Amani,  
197 1998; Geraads and Metz-Muller, 1999; Eisenmann and Geraads, 2007; Mourer-Chauviré  
198 and Geraads, 2008; Geraads et al., 2010; Mourer-Chauviré and Geraads, 2010; Gunnell  
199 et al., 2011; Sen and Geraads, 2023).

### 200 **3. Material & methods**

201 The material sampled and analyzed is currently stored at the *Institut national des Sciences*  
202 *de l'Archéologie et du Patrimoine* (INSAP) in Rabat (Morocco). The species included in  
203 this research are the following: *Sivatherium maurusium*, *Hipparion pomeli*,  
204 *Metridiochoerus phacochoeroides*, *Gazella* sp., Alcelaphini and *Anancus osiris*.

205

#### 206 **3.1 Stable isotopes (<sup>13</sup>C and <sup>18</sup>O)**

207

208 In this study, we performed stable carbon (<sup>13</sup>C) and oxygen (<sup>18</sup>O) isotope analysis of 82  
209 fossil fauna specimens recovered from AaO (**Supplementary Table 1**). Sampling has  
210 been conducted on the buccal surface of molars and premolars from adult individuals.  
211 The tooth surfaces were cleaned with a tungsten abrasive drill bit to remove any adhering  
212 external material. Enamel powder for bulk analysis was obtained using gentle abrasion  
213 with a diamond-tipped drill.

214

215 Powdered enamel samples were chemically treated at the biomolecular laboratory at the  
216 *Institut Català de Paleoecologia Humana i Evolució Social* (IPHES - CERCA). Samples  
217 weighed from 3.5 to 9.5 mg. Chemical treatment of samples was based on protocols  
218 originally proposed by Koch et al. (1997) and later modified in Tornero et al. (2013).  
219 Samples were treated for 4 h in 0.1 M acetic acid [CH<sub>3</sub>COOH] (0.1 ml solution/0.1 mg  
220 of sample), neutralized with distilled water and freeze-dried.

221

222 The <sup>18</sup>O and <sup>13</sup>C of carbonates were measured using an automated carbonate preparation  
223 device (KIEL-III) coupled with a gas-ratio mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT 252) at the  
224 environmental isotope laboratory at the University of Arizona, US. Powdered samples  
225 were allowed to react with dehydrated phosphoric acid under a vacuum at 70°C. Accuracy  
226 and precision of the measurements were checked and calibrated using calcium carbonate  
227 international standards (NBS-19 and NBS-18). Replicate measurements of the standards  
228 during analysis had errors of ±0.1‰ for δ<sup>18</sup>O and ±0.08‰ for δ<sup>13</sup>C (1 sigma). Carbon  
229 isotope composition is reported in δ notation, where δ<sup>13</sup>C = [(R<sub>sample</sub>/R<sub>standard</sub>) - 1], R  
230 = <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C and δ is expressed in per mil, ‰. Carbon and oxygen values are reported relative  
231 to PDB (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite).

232

233 The modern plants using a C<sub>3</sub> photosynthetic pathway (including most trees, woody  
234 shrubs, bushes, herbs and grasses) have an average isotopic δ<sup>13</sup>C value of -28.5‰ (global  
235 range -20 to -37‰), with -23‰ as the maximum value for typical C<sub>3</sub> plants and a cut-off  
236 of -31.5‰ for closed-canopy forests (Kohn, 2010). In this work, we use the average δ<sup>13</sup>C  
237 value of -27‰ for modern C<sub>3</sub> plants, excluding analyses from the understory of closed-  
238 canopy forests below -31.5‰ (Kohn, 2010). Modern plants that employ the C<sub>4</sub>

239 photosynthetic pathway (primarily tropical grasses and sedges) have an average isotopic  
240 composition of -12‰ (global range -10 to -14‰) (Cerling et al., 1997; Cerling and Harris,  
241 1999; Kohn and Cerling, 2002). The bivariate graphs were made with the Past 4.02  
242 software (Hammer et al., 2001).

243

### 244 3.1.2 Estimation of enrichment factor, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$ and MAP

245

246 Abundance of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  has been changing over time (Tippie et al., 2010) with a  
247 consequent influence on the carbon values of plants during its fixation in the  
248 photosynthesis process (Farquhar et al., 1989). To make a comparison between the carbon  
249 values of present-day plants with those consumed by animals in the past, it is crucial to  
250 perform corrections. In our work, we have corrected the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of modern plants by  
251 +1.5‰, due to the difference between the pre-Industrial  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  value of  $\sim -6.5\text{‰}$   
252 established for the Plio-Pleistocene (Tippie et al., 2010), and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}$  value of  $\sim -8\text{‰}$   
253 at the time the reference collection of modern plants was collected (Kohn, 2010). When  
254 plants are consumed, a fixation occurs in the tooth enamel of the animals, a process of  
255 isotopic fractionation (Krueger and Sullivan, 1984; Koch, 1998; Cerling and Harris, 1999;  
256 Passey et al., 2005). In this study, we use formula (1) in Tejada et al. 2018 which  
257 determines that there is a positive correlation between body mass and enamel-diet  
258 enrichment fractionation (expressed as  $\epsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$ ). The  $\epsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$  has been calculated  
259 from the estimation of the body mass of the species analyzed: *S. maurusium* (Basu et al.,  
260 2016), *H. pomeli* (Bernor et al., 2021), *Gazella* sp. and Alcelaphini (Bibi and Kiessling,  
261 2015), *M. phacochoeroides* (Rannikko, 2019) and *A. osiris* (Larramendi, 2016).

262

263 (1)  $\epsilon^* = 2.4 + 0.034 (\text{Body Mass})$

264

265 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in plants and animals have also been proposed to estimate mean annual  
266 precipitation (MAP) in the fossil record. We use the formulae (2 and 3) developed in  
267 Kohn (2010) and Kohn et al. (2015) to estimate the MAP, which applies corrections for  
268 altitude, latitude, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  from the average modern equivalent of  
269 diet composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}} - \varepsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}} - \text{Plio-Pleistocene atmospheric}$   
270  $\text{CO}_2$ ):

271

$$272 \quad (2) \quad \text{MAP} = 10^{\wedge} [\Delta^{13}\text{C} - 2.01 + 0.000198 \times \text{elev} - 0.0129 \times |\text{lat}| / 5.88] - 300$$

273

274 where *elev* is elevation in meters, *lat* is latitude in degrees, and

275

$$276 \quad (3) \quad \Delta^{13}\text{C} = (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}) / (1 + \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}} / 1000)$$

277

278 where  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$  is the carbon isotope of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (-6.5‰ in the Plio-Pleistocene;  
279 Tiple et al., 2010) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  is the modern equivalent of diet composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-}}$   
280  $\text{meq}$ ) estimated from  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$  after  $\varepsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$  correction (see formula (1)).

281

282 We estimated (4) the fraction of  $\text{C}_4$  vegetation consumed by AaO herbivores using  
283  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{modern plant}}$  values, -24‰ for  $\text{C}_3$  vegetation ecosystems (Kohn, 2010) and -12‰  
284 for  $\text{C}_4$  vegetation (Cerling et al., 1997). The fossil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$  values have been corrected  
285 for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of Plio-Pleistocene atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\varepsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$  to obtain the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$ .

286

$$287 \quad (4) \quad \%_{\text{C}_4} = 100 \times (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_3}) / (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_4} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_3})$$

288

289 **3.2 Dental wear analysis**

290

291 **3.2.1 Dental mesowear analysis**

292

293 A total of 74 molars were studied using mesowear analysis, excluding 28 teeth that were  
294 unworn, extremely worn, or had broken or damaged cusp apices (**Supplementary Table**  
295 **2**). The sensitivity of cusp sharpness to ontogenetic age has been documented for both  
296 young and old individuals. Conversely, mesowear displays a weaker correlation with age  
297 in intermediate age groups, and demonstrates a stronger relationship with dietary factors  
298 (Rivals et al., 2007). The mesowear analysis method assesses the relief and sharpness of  
299 worn cusp apices, which are related to attritive and abrasive wear on dental enamel. These  
300 analyses were performed on the buccal side of upper molars and the lingual side of lower  
301 molars, with a preference for the paracone of the upper M2. To evaluate wear on teeth  
302 from P3 to M3, we used the extended mesowear method proposed by Kaiser and  
303 Solounias (2003). In this study, we applied the method introduced by Mihlbachler et al.  
304 (2011), which uses seven cusp categories ranging from high and sharp (stage 0) to  
305 completely blunt with no relief (stage 6). A low-abrasion diet such as browsing, which  
306 induces high attrition, preserves sharpened apices on buccal cusps as teeth wear down,  
307 while a high-abrasion diet results in more rounded and blunted buccal cusp apices. The  
308 bivariate graph was performed with the Past 4.02 software (Hammer et al., 2001).

309

310 **3.2.2 Dental microwear analysis**

311

312 For the microwear analysis, a total of 109 molars and premolars were selected and  
313 molded. After examination of the molds under a stereomicroscope, 49 specimens were

314 discarded due to poor preservation or taphonomic defects (**Supplementary Table 2**) (El-  
315 Zaatari, 2010; King et al., 1999). Examination of enamel microwear features was  
316 conducted through standard light microscopy, using a Zeiss Stemi 2000C  
317 stereomicroscope at a magnification of 35x on high-resolution epoxy casts of the teeth.  
318 The cleaning, molding, casting, and examination protocols, as well as feature  
319 classification criteria, were consistent with those established by Semprebon and  
320 Solounias (2002) and Semprebon et al. (2004). Upper and lower teeth, spanning from P4  
321 to M3, were included in the analysis following Xafis et al. (2017). The occlusal surface  
322 of each specimen was first cleaned with acetone and 96% ethanol before being molded  
323 with high-resolution silicone (Heraeus Kulzer, PROVIL novo Vinylpolysiloxane, Light  
324 C.D. 2 regular set) and transparent casts were created using clear epoxy resin (C.T.S.  
325 Spain, EPO 150 + K151). Scoring of microwear features, including small and large pits  
326 (round scars), scratches (elongated scars with parallel sides), gouges (irregular edges and  
327 much larger and deeper than the large pits), puncture pits (deepest at their centers,  
328 symmetrical, craterlike features with regular margins), and cross scratches (oriented  
329 perpendicularly to the majority of scratches), was performed using a standard 0.16 mm<sup>2</sup>  
330 ocular reticle. In order to achieve a more precise categorization of grazers, browsers, and  
331 mixed feeders, we used the percentage of individuals in a sample possessing scratch  
332 numbers that fall between 0 and 17 (Semprebon and Rivals, 2007). The scratch width  
333 score (SWS) was calculated based on the ratio of fine to coarse scratches (“0”  
334 predominantly fine scratches per tooth surface, “1” to those with a mixture of fine and  
335 coarse scratches, and “2” to those with predominantly coarse scratches). The results were  
336 compared with a database constructed from extant ungulate taxa (Solounias and  
337 Semprebon, 2002; Rivals and Semprebon, 2011). To reduce inter-observer error, dental  
338 microwear analysis was conducted by a single experienced researcher (IRP).

339

## 340 4. Results

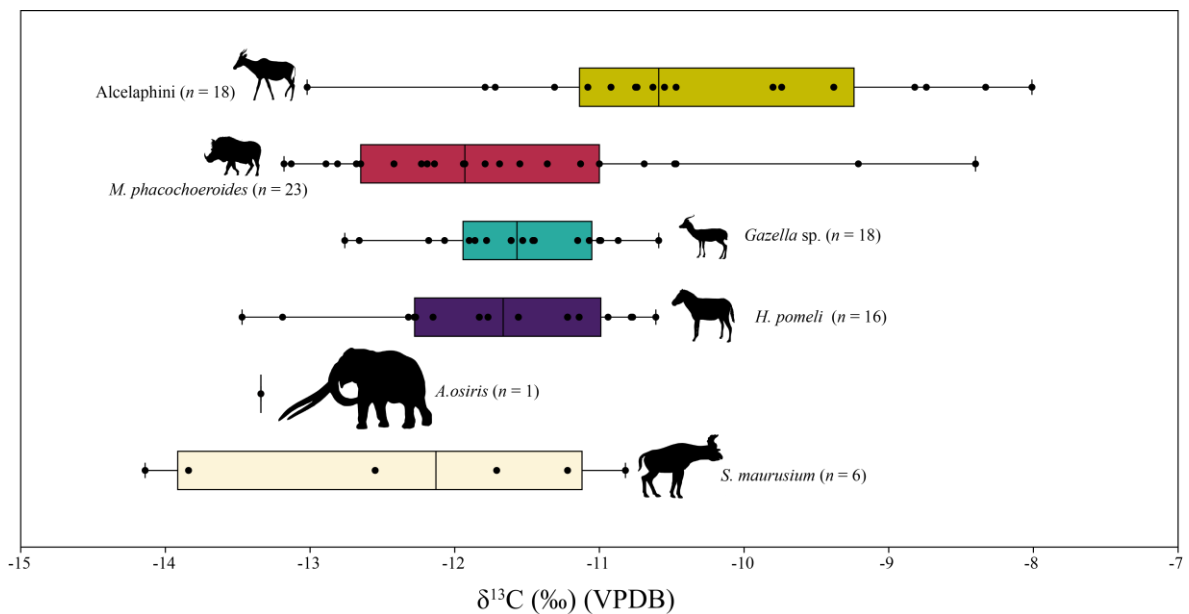
341

### 342 4.1 Stable isotopes ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ )

343

344 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of all taxa measured in AaO ranged from -14.1 to -8‰ with a mean of -  
345  $11.4 \pm 1.2\text{‰}$  ( $n = 82$ ) (**Fig. 2**). The data for each species are described below: *H. pomeli*  
346 ( $n = 16$ ; range = -13.5 to -10.6‰; mean =  $-11.7 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ ), Alcelaphini ( $n = 18$ ; range = -  
347 13 to -8‰; mean =  $-10.3 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ), *Gazella* sp. ( $n = 18$ ; range = -12.8 to -10.6‰; mean =  
348  $-11.6 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$ ), *S. maurusium* ( $n = 6$ ; range = -14.1 to -10.8‰; mean =  $-12.4 \pm 1.4\text{‰}$ ), *M.*  
349 *phacochoeroides* ( $n = 23$ ; range = -13.2 to -8.4‰; mean =  $-11.7 \pm 1.2\text{‰}$ ) and *A. osiris* ( $n$   
350 = 1; -13.3‰). The two taxa with the highest variability and the most positive values are  
351 Alcelaphini and *M. phacochoeroides*. *Gazella* sp. and *H. pomeli* are the species with the  
352 lowest variability and *S. maurusium* is the species with the most negative values.

353



354

355

356 **Fig. 2.** Jitter boxplots for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the ungulates from the Plio-Pleistocene site of AaO. Boxes = first  
357 and third quartile for each taxon, whiskers = full range for each taxon and hashes within boxes = median  
358 value.

359

360 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values ranged from -3 to 2.9‰ with a mean of  $-0.6 \pm 1.2\text{‰}$  ( $n = 82$ ) (**Fig. 3**).

361 The data for each species are described below: *H. pomeli* ( $n = 16$ ; range = -3 to 0.2‰;

362 mean =  $-1.8 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ ), Alcelaphini ( $n = 18$ ; range = -2.2 to 0.6‰; mean =  $-0.8 \pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ),

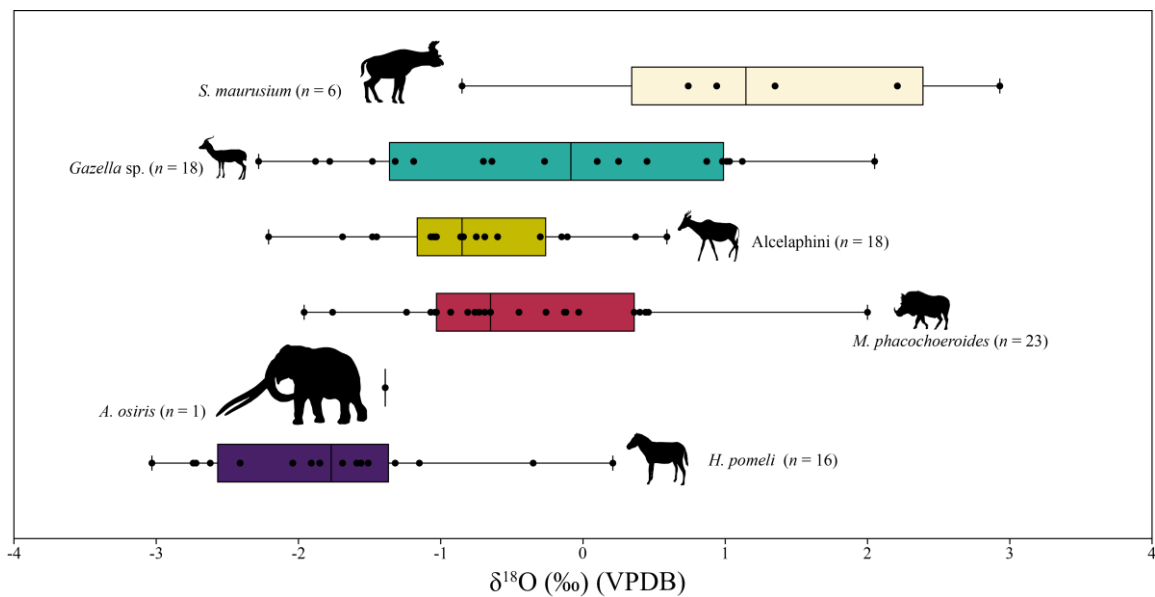
363 *Gazella* sp. ( $n = 18$ ; range = -2.3 to 2.1‰; mean =  $-0.2 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ), *S. maurusium* ( $n = 6$ ;

364 range = -0.9 to 2.9‰; mean =  $1.2 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ), *M. phacochoeroides* ( $n = 23$ ; range = -1.8 to

365 2‰; mean =  $-0.4 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ ) and *A. osiris* ( $n = 1$ ; -1.4‰). The whole isotopic dataset is

366 provided in **Supplementary Table 1**.

367



370 **Fig. 3.** Jitter boxplots for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of the ungulates from the Plio-Pleistocene site of AaO. Boxes = first  
371 and third quartile for each taxon, whiskers = full range for each taxon and hashes within boxes = median  
372 value.

373

374 4.1.2 Estimation of enrichment factor, %C<sub>4</sub>,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  and MAP

375

376 The  $\epsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$  of the AaO species ranges from 12.4 to 14.7‰, depending on the body  
377 mass. C<sub>4</sub> plants are virtually absent in the diet of AaO species. They are only present, in  
378 low percentages, in four individuals of Alcelaphini (%C<sub>4</sub> = 4, 5, 8 and 11%) and in one  
379 individual of *M. phacochoeroides* (%C<sub>4</sub> = 6%) (**Supplementary Table 1**). The MAP  
380 results are estimated in **Table 1**. In order to calculate it, the five individuals with C<sub>4</sub>  
381 presence have been excluded based on the criteria established by Kohn (2010). The  
382 average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  value (-26.1‰) and MAP (385 mm/yr) suggest a relatively arid  
383 environment for AaO, defined by Kohn (2010) as ecosystems with a MAP  $\leq$  500 mm/yr  
384 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  values between -26 and -24‰ (**Table 1; Supplementary Table 1**).

385

386 **Table 1.** Summary of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (‰), Body Mass (Kg),  $\epsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$  (‰),  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  (‰), %C<sub>4</sub> and Mean Annual  
387 Precipitation (MAP - mm/yr).

388

| Species                   | <i>n</i>  | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) | Body Mass<br>(Kg) | $\epsilon^*_{\text{enamel-diet}}$ (‰) | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$ (‰) | %C <sub>4</sub>  | MAP (mm/yr)      |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------------|---|------------------|------------------|
| <i>S. maurusium</i>       | 6         | -12.4 ± 1.4               | 1236              | +14                                   | -27.9 ± 1.4                                 | 0                | 1041 ± 760       |
| Alcelaphini               | 18        | -10.3 ± 1.3               | 200               | +13.2                                 | -23.9 ± 1.3                                 | 1.5 ± 3.2        | 177 ± 210        |
| <i>Gazella</i> sp.        | 18        | -11.6 ± 0.6               | 30                | +12.4                                 | -24.1 ± 0.6                                 | 0                | 139 ± 112        |
| <i>H. pomeli</i>          | 16        | -11.7 ± 0.9               | 250               | +13.3                                 | -26.5 ± 0.9                                 | 0                | 400 ± 269        |
| <i>M. phacochoeroides</i> | 23        | -11.7 ± 1.2               | 297               | +13.4                                 | -26.5 ± 1.2                                 | 0.3 ± 1.3        | 455 ± 274        |
| <i>A. osiris</i>          | 1         | -13.3                     | 5000              | +14.7                                 | -29.6                                       | 0                | 1996             |
| <b>All species</b>        | <b>82</b> | <b>-11.4 ± 1.2</b>        | <b>-</b>          | <b>+13.2</b>                          | <b>-26.1 ± 1.4</b>                          | <b>0.4 ± 1.7</b> | <b>385 ± 419</b> |

389

## 390 **4.2 Dental wear analysis**

391

392 **Table 2.** Summary of mesowear and microwear data of the fossil assemblages from AaO. Abbreviations:  
 393 *n*, number of specimens; MWS, mesowear score; NS, average number of scratches; NP, average number  
 394 of pits; SD, standard deviation; SWS, scratch width score; %PP, percentage of specimens with puncture  
 395 pits; %HC, percentage of specimens with hyper-coarse scratches; %LP, percentage of specimens with large  
 396 pits; %G, percentage of specimens with gouges; %XS, percentage of specimens with cross scratches; %0–  
 397 17, percentage of specimens with number of scratches ranging between 0 and 17.

398

399

400

401

402

403

| Species                   | Mesowear |     |          | Microwear |     |       |     |     |      |     |      |      |      |       |
|---------------------------|----------|-----|----------|-----------|-----|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|------|------|------|-------|
|                           | <i>n</i> | MWS | <i>n</i> | NS        | SD  | NP    | SD  | SWS | %PP  | %HC | %LP  | %G   | %XC  | %0–17 |
| <i>S. maurusium</i>       | 4        | 1   | 4        | 12.8      | 1.9 | 24.75 | 2.7 | 1   | 0    | 0   | 50   | 100  | 25   | 100   |
| Alcelaphini               | 22       | 2.2 | 17       | 20.0      | 2.6 | 20.1  | 3.4 | 1.1 | 11.8 | 0   | 82.4 | 29.4 | 11.8 | 17.6  |
| <i>Gazella</i> sp.        | 17       | 1.2 | 8        | 9.5       | 1.6 | 23.4  | 4.6 | 1   | 0.0  | 0   | 100  | 50   | 12.5 | 100   |
| <i>H. pomeli</i>          | 6        | 4.3 | 13       | 20.6      | 3   | 19.1  | 4   | 1   | 15.4 | 0   | 84.6 | 7.7  | 0    | 0     |
| <i>M. phacochoeroides</i> | -        | -   | 18       | 19.7      | 4.6 | 23    | 3.6 | 0.9 | 5.6  | 0   | 83.3 | 22   | 100  | 33.3  |
| <i>A. osiris</i>          | -        | -   | 1        | 26        | -   | 25.5  | -   | 1   | 0    | 100 | 100  | 0    | 100  | 0     |

404

#### 405 4.2.1 Dental mesowear analysis

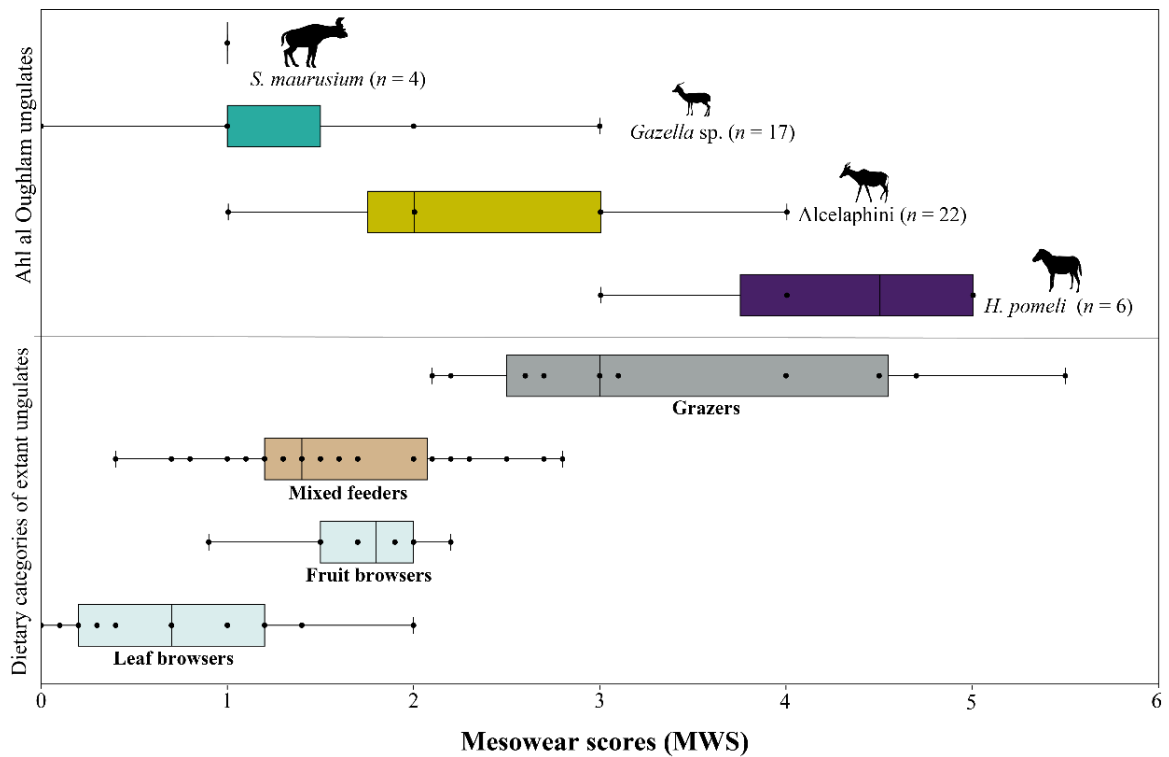
406

407 The mesowear pattern of AaO specimens is characterized by occlusal surfaces ranging  
 408 from sharp cusps and high relief (low abrasion) to low relief with rounded cusps (high  
 409 abrasion). It corresponds to mesowear scores with values from 0 to 5 (**Table 2; Fig. 4**).

410 All three Bovidae have sharp cusps, which means that attrition predominates strongly

411 over abrasion. The *S. maurusium* has the lowest level of abrasion with a MWS of 1, falling  
 412 in the MWS average of extant leaf browsers. The *Gazella* sp. has also a low average MWS  
 413 (1.2), being in the range of MWS of extant mixed feeders but with a tendency towards a  
 414 browsing diet. The Alcelaphini, with variability in abrasion levels, has an average MWS  
 415 of 2.2 and is categorized as a grass-dominated mixed feeder. In the case of the Equidae  
 416 *H. pomeli*, the MWS indicates high levels of abrasion, with a MWS average of 4.3. This  
 417 pattern places *H. pomeli* among extant grazers.

418



419  
 420  
 421 **Fig. 4.** Jitter boxplot with mesowear scores (MWS) of the ungulates from AaO. Boxes = first and third  
 422 quartile for each taxon; whiskers = full range for each taxon and hashes within boxes = median value.  
 423 Extant ungulates database (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000).

424  
 425 4.2.2 Dental microwear analysis

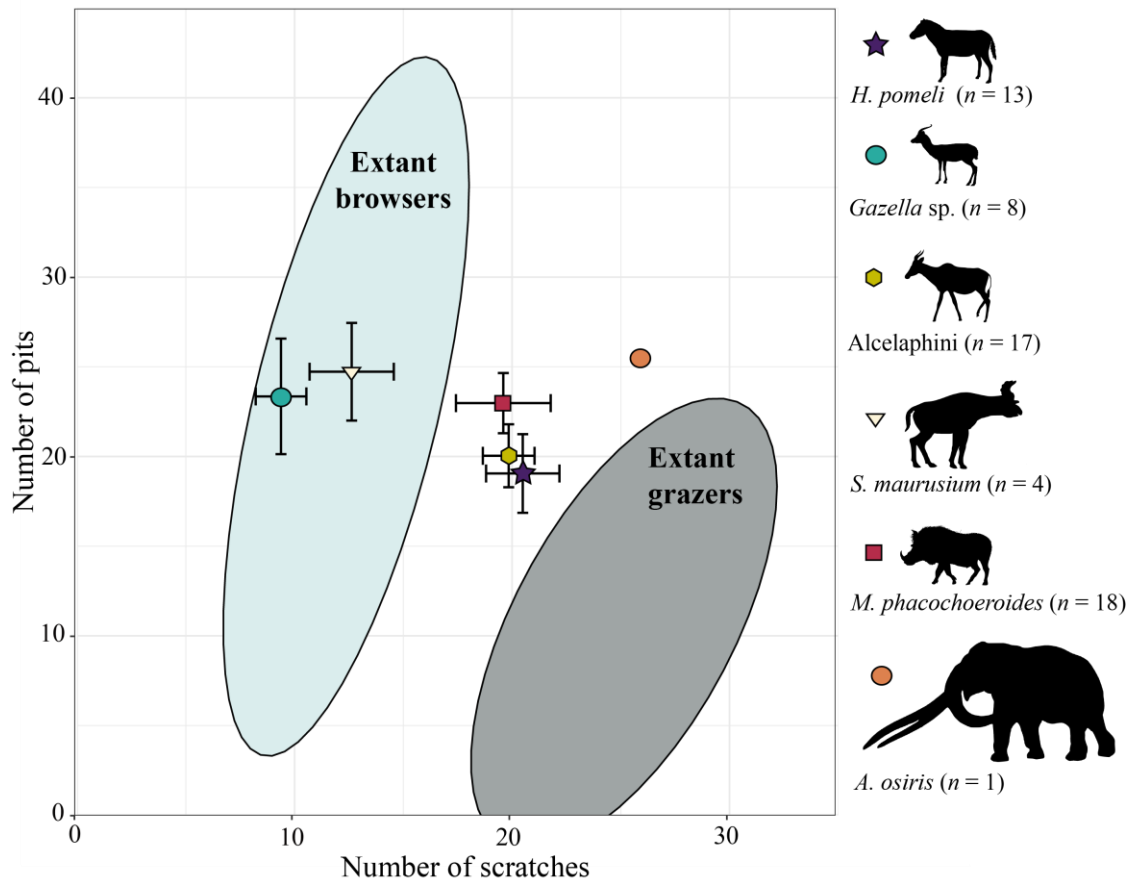
426

427 At AaO, all herbivores display browsing or mixed feeding dietary traits (**Fig. 5**). The  
428 species analyzed are classified into two groups. The first group includes the *S. maurusium*  
429 and *Gazella* sp. and plot among extant browser ungulates. The second group, which  
430 includes Alcelaphini, *H. pomeli*, *M. phacochoeroides* and *A. osiris*, plot among extant  
431 mixed feeders. The first group has microwear patterns characterized by a high number of  
432 pits (NP = 24.1) and a small number of scratches (NS = 11.2) and the second group has a  
433 microwear pattern defined by a similar number of pits (NP = 21.9) and scratches (NS =  
434 21.6). *Gazella* sp. (NS = 9.5) and *S. maurusium* (NS = 12.8) are the species with a lower  
435 number of scratches, and *H. pomeli* (NS = 20.6) and *A. osiris* (NS = 26) have a higher  
436 number of scratches. All species have a similar and a relatively high number of pits. The  
437 *A. osiris* (NP = 25.5) and *S. maurusium* (NP = 9.5) have the highest abundance of pits.  
438 Although the Alcelaphini, *H. pomeli*, *M. phacochoeroides* and *A. osiris* in **Figure 5** are  
439 classified among extant mixed feeders, the high number of scratches (see **Table 2**, NS  
440 and 0–17%) indicates a high proportion of grasses in their diet.

441

442 The SWS, being between 0.9 and 1.1, indicates a mixture of both fine and coarse scratches  
443 for all species. Hyper-coarse scratches have been found only in *A. osiris*. Cross scratches  
444 are absent in *H. pomeli* and present in a low percentage in Alcelaphini, *Gazella* sp. and *S.*  
445 *maurusium*. *A. osiris* and *M. phacochoeroides* have them in 100% of the individuals. This  
446 trait is characteristic of animals with a bunodont dental morphology as in the case of the  
447 latter two species. Gouges have been observed in all species except in *A. osiris* and their  
448 presence is remarkable in the four individuals of *S. maurusium*. Puncture pits are present  
449 in a low percentage in Alcelaphini, *H. pomeli* and *M. phacochoeroides*, and large pits are  
450 present in all species in proportions varying from 50% to 100% of the individuals.

451



453

454

455 **Fig. 5.** Bivariate plot of the average numbers of pits and scratches for the species from AaO. Error bars  
 456 correspond to standard deviation ( $\pm 1$  SD) for the fossil samples. Plain ellipses correspond to the Gaussian  
 457 confidence ellipses ( $p = 0.95$ ) on the centroid for the extant browsers and grazers based on the database  
 458 from Solounias and Semperebon (2002).

459

## 460 5. Discussion

461

### 462 5.1 Palaeodiet

463

464 The combination of the three approaches allows us to characterize the dietary preferences  
 465 of the different taxa, as well as to reconstruct the general ecological context (**Table 3**). In

466 AaO, all species have a predominantly plant-based C<sub>3</sub> diet with values ranging from -14  
467 to -8‰, with a small consumption of C<sub>4</sub> plants in Alcelaphini and *M. phacochoeroides*  
468 (**Table 1**). In some contexts, interpreting the carbon isotopic signal can be complex,  
469 especially when there are no extreme values that can indicate high consumption of C<sub>4</sub>  
470 plants linked to grass consumption (ca.  $\delta^{13}\text{C} > 0\text{‰}$ ; Cerling and Harris, 1999) or the  
471 presence of C<sub>3</sub> closed canopy forests (ca.  $\delta^{13}\text{C} < -16\text{‰}$ ; Kohn, 2010), types of  
472 environments in which the signal is obvious. In AaO, there is both inter- and intra-species  
473 variability in carbon values. Recent isotopic studies on extant species in sub-Saharan  
474 Africa have shown a weak relationship between intra-taxon variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$  (C<sub>3</sub> and  
475 C<sub>4</sub>) and corresponding changes in herbivore diet and vegetation structure (woody cover).  
476 Therefore, adopting a community-level approach when making inferences about  
477 vegetation using isotopic data, focusing on the relationships between different taxa is  
478 recommended. This approach allows for a more accurate understanding of the vegetation  
479 dynamics and ecological context (Robinson et al., 2021). In AaO, the interspecific  
480 difference between Alcelaphini and *S. maurusium* is striking and could represent different  
481 ecological niches and diets (**Fig. 2**). Dental wear analysis (micro- and mesowear) shows  
482 variable feeding traits that range from browser to mixed-feeder to grazer behavior,  
483 including Alcelaphini with a grass-dominated, mixed-feeding diet or *S. maurusium* as the  
484 most browsing taxon (**Table 3**). Oxygen isotope data are consistent with the dental wear  
485 feeding pattern, with browser species having more positive values (*S. maurusium* and  
486 *Gazella* sp.) than the rest, and grass-dominated mixed feeders having more negative  
487 values. The correlation in oxygen is higher between the most grazing species, according  
488 to dental wear pattern, such as *H. pomeli*, and the most browsing ones such as *S.*  
489 *maurusium*, showing very distant values between them. This could suggest the

490 consumption of different resources, such as the preference for grasses by the former and  
 491 leaves by the latter.

492

493 **Table 3.** Summary of dietary interpretations based on tooth wear and stable carbon isotope data.  
 494 Abbreviations: B = browser, MF-B = browsing-dominated mixed feeder, MF = mixed feeder, MF-G =  
 495 grass-dominated mixed feeder, and G = grazer. The parentheses indicate the consumption of C<sub>4</sub> plants (in  
 496 very low percentage) in some species.

497

| Species                   | Stable<br>isotopes               | Mesowear | Microwear |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|----------|-----------|
| <i>S. maurusium</i>       | C <sub>3</sub>                   | B        | B         |
| Alcelaphini               | C <sub>3</sub> (C <sub>4</sub> ) | MF-G     | MF-G      |
| <i>Gazella</i> sp.        | C <sub>3</sub>                   | MF-B     | B         |
| <i>H. pomeli</i>          | C <sub>3</sub>                   | G        | MF-G      |
| <i>M. phacochoeroides</i> | C <sub>3</sub> (C <sub>4</sub> ) | -        | MF-G      |
| <i>A. osiris</i>          | C <sub>3</sub>                   | -        | MF-G      |

498

#### 499 5.1.1 Comparison of AaO with other African sites

500

501 The *Sivatherium maurusium* from AaO has the most negative C<sub>3</sub> carbon values ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
 502 mean =  $-12.4 \pm 1.4\text{‰}$ ) and the most positive oxygen values (**Fig. 2 and 3**) compared to  
 503 other AaO species. These oxygen and carbon values could be attributed to the preferential  
 504 consumption of leaves from the upper parts of trees or shrubs which is consistent with  
 505 dental wear patterns suggesting a browsing diet for AaO *S. maurusium*. The same isotopic  
 506 pattern in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values has also been observed in *Sivatherium* from Hadar and

507 Aramis (Ethiopia; ~4–3 Ma) (Wynn et al., 2016) and Makapansgat (South Africa; ~3 Ma  
508 (Lee-Thorp et al., 2010). Although this species is known from various North African sites  
509 such as Aïn Boucherit, Aïn Hanech and El-Kherba (Early Pleistocene; Algeria), Aïn  
510 Jourdel (Late Pliocene; Algeria), and Ichkeul and Aïn Brimba (Late Pliocene; Tunisia),  
511 this is the first time that data on its diet has been obtained from this area.

512

513 In East Africa, the Giraffidae were represented by two genera: *Giraffa* and *Sivatherium*,  
514 from the early Pliocene onwards. *Sivatherium* became extinct during the Middle  
515 Pleistocene. Overall, its diet underwent changes in the Turkana Basin (Kenya), being a  
516 browser (C<sub>3</sub> plants) at ~4 Ma and switching to grazing (C<sub>4</sub> plants) between ~2.5 and 1 Ma  
517 (Cerling et al., 2015). In the Chiwondo beds (Malawi; ~2.5 Ma), *Sivatherium* exhibited  
518 less negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ( $n = 1$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -7.9\text{‰}$ ) than the purely browsing fossil *Giraffa* ( $n$   
519  $= 2$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean  $= -12.1 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$ ), indicating that it incorporated some C<sub>4</sub> grass in its diet  
520 (Bocherens et al., 2011). In Olduvai (Tanzania; ~1.8 Ma), a multiproxy approach  
521 suggested a mixed diet for *S. maurusium*, C<sub>4</sub>-dominated or mixed diets, a mesowear  
522 characteristic of grazers, but with microwear indicating a browsing-dominated mixed  
523 diet, likely due to seasonal changes in its diet (Uno et al., 2018).

524

525 In South Africa, *Sivatherium* maintained its preference for C<sub>3</sub> plants from ~5 to 3 Ma. In  
526 the Langebaanweg site (~5 Ma), the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean value ( $n = 26$ ) is  $-11.5 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$  (Franz-  
527 Odendaal et al., 2002). However, hypsodonty indices, dental mesowear, and dental  
528 microwear suggested mixed feeding dietary traits with a browsing tendency for this  
529 species (Franz-Odendaal and Solounias, 2004). In the Makapansgat Limeworks Member  
530 3 (~3 Ma), *Sivatherium* exhibited carbon values ( $n = 2$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean  $= -11.4 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$ ) similar  
531 to those of *Giraffa* ( $n = 8$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean  $= -11 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ ) at the same site (Sponheimer and

532 Lee-Thorp, 2009). The diet of AaO *Sivatherium* follows the same C<sub>3</sub>-browser pattern as  
533 that of the rest of Africa during the ~3 to 2.5 Ma period, but further multiproxy studies  
534 are needed in more recent North African sites such as Aïn Hanech or El-Kherba (~1.8  
535 Ma) to determine whether this dietary pattern remains the same or changes, as in the case  
536 of East Africa.

537

538 The **Alcelaphini** from AaO is the taxon with the least negative carbon values, with a  
539 predominance of C<sub>3</sub> plant consumption values (mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -10.3 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ), indicating  
540 even some C<sub>4</sub> consumption (**Table 2**). The results of micro- and mesowear tooth analysis  
541 indicate a mixed diet, but with a high content of grasses in its feeding ecology. In general,  
542 this taxon is indicative of open dry environments, both during the African Pliocene and  
543 Pleistocene and in extant populations. Regardless of the consumption of C<sub>3</sub> or C<sub>4</sub> plants,  
544 their feeding behavior is predominantly grazing (Vrba, 1984; Sponheimer et al., 1999;  
545 2003; Bobe and Behrensmeyer, 2004; Cerling et al., 2015).

546

547 Different species of Alcelaphini were present in North Africa from the Late Pliocene  
548 (Arambourg, 1979; Geraads & Amani, 1998) until they were declared extinct in this area  
549 in 1994 (Mallon and Kingswood, 2001), but the only fossil record of their diet has been  
550 carried out at the site of Tighennif (1 Ma; Algeria). At this site, the Alcelaphini tribe is  
551 represented by the species *Connochaetes taurinus prognu*. The pattern of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ( $n$   
552 = 6; mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -10.5 \pm 1.4\text{‰}$ ) is similar to that observed in the Alcelaphini from AaO  
553 (Bocherens et al., 1996; Fannin et al., 2021). Compared to the carbon values of different  
554 ungulates analyzed in Tighennif, this species has the most positive carbon values,  
555 indicating, as in the case of AaO, a small consumption of C<sub>4</sub> plants in some individuals.

556

557 In central Africa, 2500 km west of the Rift Valley, at the Koro Toro site (Chad; ~3.5–3  
558 Ma), Alcelaphini have a grazing diet based on C<sub>4</sub> plants with an average δ<sup>13</sup>C value (*n* =  
559 6) of 1.4 ± 0.8‰ (Zazzo et al., 2000).

560

561 In eastern Africa (Turkana Basin), the remarkable predominance and similarity in the C<sub>4</sub>  
562 isotopic signature of Alcelaphini from approximately ~4.4 Ma to present-day specimens  
563 is particularly notable (White et al., 2009; Cerling et al., 2015). In Olduvai (Tanzania;  
564 ~1.8 Ma), the carbon isotope data indicate C<sub>4</sub>-dominated diets, while dental wear  
565 classifies this species as a grass-dominated mixed feeder (Uno et al., 2018).

566 In southern Africa, Wonderwerk Cave has a longer temporally stratified sequence from  
567 the Early Pleistocene to the Holocene, with the presence of Alcelaphini in all layers. They  
568 show a progressive increase in C<sub>4</sub> consumption from 50% in the Early Pleistocene to  
569 100% in the Holocene (Ecker et al., 2018). In the Makapansgat Limeworks Member 3  
570 (~3 Ma), Alcelaphini (*Parmularius*, *Damaliscus* and *Connochaetes*) have C<sub>4</sub> values, in  
571 contrast to the Tragelaphini from the same level, which have a clear C<sub>3</sub> values.  
572 Ecomorphological and microwear data confirm a grazing diet for the former and a  
573 browsing for the latter (Sponheimer et al., 1999; Schubert et al., 2006). In Haasgat cave  
574 (~2.6–1.9 Ma), as in Makapansgat, Alcelaphini have a C<sub>4</sub> consumption while  
575 Tragelaphini have C<sub>3</sub> plant consumption values (Adams et al., 2013). In Swartkrans cave  
576 (~1.9–1.8 Ma), the Alcelaphini *Connochaetes* sp. also has a C<sub>4</sub>-based diet (Lee-Thorp et  
577 al., 1989). However, in other South African sites, the Alcelaphini carbon values are  
578 clearly C<sub>3</sub>, although attributed to grass consumption. This is the case of Hoedjiespunt  
579 (~0.35–0.25 Ma) with a mean δ<sup>13</sup>C (*n* = 16) of -9.8 ± 1.3‰, Elandsfontein (~1.0–0.6 Ma)  
580 with a mean δ<sup>13</sup>C (*n* = 19) of -10.3 ± 1.2‰, and Langebaanweg (~5 Ma) with a mean δ<sup>13</sup>C  
581 (*n* = 7) of -10.8 ± 1‰ (Lehmann et al., 2016).

582

583 The *Hipparion pomeli* from AaO has a diet based on C<sub>3</sub> plants ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean =  $-11.7 \pm$   
584  $0.9\%$ ). It is the species with the highest mesowear, indicative of a grazing diet. Microwear  
585 classifies it as a mixed feeder, but the high number of scratches is related to a high  
586 consumption of grasses. The presence of *Hipparion* between  $\sim 3.5$  and  $1.7$  Ma is well  
587 documented in North Africa in sites such as Aïn Brimba and Lake Ichkeul in Tunisia, Aïn  
588 el Bey, Aïn el Hadj Baba, Aïn Jourdel, Mansourah, Aïn Boucherit, Aïn Hanech, Puits  
589 Carouby, Carrière Brunie, Carrières Quartier St-Pierre in Algeria, and Fouarat, Oued  
590 Akrech, and Guefaït in Morocco. The dating of the youngest North African hipparion  
591 record occurs at Aïn Hanech ( $\sim 1.7$  Ma) (Van der Made et al., 2022). Regarding studies  
592 on the feeding habits of this species in North Africa, there are only preliminary results for  
593 the *Hipparion* sp. from the Guefaït site ( $\sim 3\text{--}2.5$  Ma; Morocco), which show a  
594 predominance of C<sub>3</sub> plant consumption ( $n = 4$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean =  $-9.5 \pm 1\%$ ), although with  
595 less negative carbon values than those of the *H. pomeli* from AaO (Ramírez-Pedraza et  
596 al., 2023).

597

598 In Central Africa, diachronic ( $\sim 6\text{--}3$  Ma) isotopic studies carried out on the species  
599 *Hipparion* cf. *hasumense* in Chad show a clear predominance of C<sub>4</sub> plant consumption.  
600 In Kossom Bougoudi ( $\sim 6\text{--}5$  Ma), the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $n = 6$ ) is  $-1.3 \pm 0.8\%$ , and in the Koro  
601 Toro site ( $\sim 3.5\text{--}3$  Ma) the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $n = 2$ ) is  $0.9 \pm 1.1\%$  (Zazzo et al., 2000).

602

603 In East Africa, as was the case with the Alcelaphini, the hipparion equid  
604 *Eurygnathohippus* has continuity in C<sub>4</sub>-grazer plant consumption from  $\sim 4$  to  $1.5$  Ma  
605 (Bocherens et al., 2011; Cerling et al., 2015; Manthi et al., 2020). Other methods such as

606 microwear and mesowear also indicate a grazing diet for the *Eurygnathohippus* from  
607 Olduvai (Tanzania; ~1.8 Ma) (Uno et al., 2018).

608

609 In southern Africa, the *Hipparion* from Langebaanweg (~5 Ma) has a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mean value ( $n$   
610 = 6) of  $-11.3 \pm 0.9\%$ , implying a consumption of  $\text{C}_3$  plants (Franz-Odendaal et al., 2002).

611 Other lines of evidence, such as mesowear analysis, in this species are consistent with  
612 grazing behavior (Franz-Odendaal et al., 2003). Therefore, it would have a diet based on

613  $\text{C}_3$  grasses, like the *H. pomeli* from AaO. In contrast, at the Makapansgat site (~3 Ma),  
614 the *Hipparion* indicates  $\text{C}_4$  plant consumption (Sponheimer and Lee-Thorp, 2009; Lee-

615 Thorp et al., 2010). In general, during the African Plio-Pleistocene, *Hipparion* had a diet  
616 mainly based on the consumption of  $\text{C}_4$  grasses. Grass consumption has also been

617 observed in AaO, although with the intake of  $\text{C}_3$  plants. Despite the low presence of  $\text{C}_4$   
618 plants in North Africa during the study period, some species in AaO show a consumption

619 of  $\text{C}_4$  plants, but this is not the case for *H. pomeli*, which may indicate slightly different  
620 dietary preferences compared to its relatives in other parts of Africa.

621

622 The *Metridiochoerus phacochoeroides* from AaO shows a predominance of  $\text{C}_3$  plant  
623 carbon values (mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -11.7 \pm 1.2\%$ ), but with significant variability, including a

624 small percentage of  $\text{C}_4$  consumption in one individual as observed in Alcelaphini.  
625 Microwear analysis shows a mixed diet, although with significant consumption of

626 grasses, like other species classified as mixed feeders. The combination of both proxies  
627 indicates a preferential diet based on  $\text{C}_3$  grass consumption.

628

629 The genus *Metridiochoerus* first appeared in Africa ~3.5 Ma. *Metridiochoerus*  
630 *phacochoeroides* is endemic to northern Africa and is distinct from the east and South

631 African representatives of the genus. Besides AaO, *Metridiochoerus* is rare in North  
632 Africa, but is also known from its type-locality Aïn Jourdel (Thomas, 1884).

633

634 In East Africa, *Metridiochoerus* between ~4 and 1 Ma were predominantly grazers with  
635 high C<sub>4</sub>-grazer proportions (Harris and Cerling, 2002; Cerling et al., 2015; Uno et al.,  
636 2018). Dental microwear analysis conducted on *Metridiochoerus* from Olduvai (~1.8 Ma,  
637 Tanzania) points to mixed feeding and grazing behavior (Uno et al., 2018). In the  
638 Chiwondo Beds in Malawi (~2.5–1.5 Ma), *M. andrewsi* and *M. compactus* exhibit a  
639 predominant consumption of C<sub>3</sub> plants (Lüdecke et al., 2016).

640

641 Little is known about the diet of *Metridiochoerus* in South Africa. Some populations of  
642 *M. andrewsi* from Elandsfontein (~1.0–0.6 Ma) were consuming mostly C<sub>3</sub> plants (Luyt  
643 et al., 2000), but due to the overall predominance of C<sub>3</sub> plants in this area, as in the  
644 Chiwondo Beds in the Malawi Rift, could have been including grasses in their diet as  
645 well.

646

647 The *Gazella* sp. from AaO has carbon values that correspond to a C<sub>3</sub> plant-based diet  
648 (mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -11.6 \pm 0.6\%$ ). Microwear analysis shows a browser pattern; however,  
649 mesowear analysis indicates a mixed diet with a browsing tendency. This could imply a  
650 more purely browsing diet over a relatively brief period and a more varied consumption  
651 of plants, including grasses in their diet, for most of the year. As with Alcelaphini, *Gazella*  
652 has been present in North Africa since the Pliocene (Sahnouni et al., 2011; Van der Made  
653 et al., 2021) until the present day in Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia (Schmid et al., 2005).

654

655 In North Africa, isotopic studies have been carried out on this species in both Tighennif  
656 (~1 Ma; Algeria) with a mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $n = 5$ ) of  $-11.9 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$  and Guefaït (~3–2.5  
657 Ma; Morocco) with a mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $n = 4$ ) of  $-10.9 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$ . At both sites, there is a  
658 clear predominance of  $\text{C}_3$  plant consumption by *Gazella* (Fannin et al., 2021; Ramírez-  
659 Pedraza et al., 2023).

660

661 In East Africa, *Gazella janenschii* from the Laetolil Beds (~4.3–3.5 Ma) has carbon values  
662 ranging from  $-1.9$  to  $-9.8\text{‰}$ , implying a variable diet from  $\text{C}_4$ -grazing to  $\text{C}_3$ -browsing  
663 (Kingston and Harrison, 2007). This dietary flexibility has also been observed in different  
664 Antilopini analyzed in the Turkana Basin (Kenya), with extracted proportions of the  
665 isotopic signal of 17%  $\text{C}_4$ -grazing, 75% mixed  $\text{C}_3$ – $\text{C}_4$ , and 8%  $\text{C}_3$ -browsing for the period  
666 of ~4.3 to 2.3 Ma, and 54%  $\text{C}_4$ -grazing, 46% mixed  $\text{C}_3$ – $\text{C}_4$ , and 0%  $\text{C}_3$ -browsing for the  
667 period ~2.3 to 1.0 Ma (Cerling et al., 2015). The multiproxy study (isotopes, microwear,  
668 and mesowear) of Antilopini from Olduvai (1.8 Ma) also indicates a mixed feeder diet  
669 (Uno et al., 2018). The *Gazella* sp. from AaO, as well as those from the Pleistocene and  
670 Pliocene in Africa in general, seem to have the plasticity to consume distinct types of  
671 plants, adapting to seasonal availability. Even in East Africa before ~2.3 Ma, with a  
672 predominance of  $\text{C}_4$  grassland in the area, they maintain a percentage of contribution from  
673  $\text{C}_3$  plant consumption.

674

675 In South Africa, *Gazella vanhoepeni* from Makapansgat (~3 Ma) is considered either a  
676 browser or a mixed-feeder preferring browsing based on isotopic, ecomorphological,  
677 microwear, and mesowear dental studies (Schubert et al., 2006). The diachronic and  
678 multiproxy study (isotopes, dental microwear texture, and mesowear analysis) of  
679 Antilopini (*Antidorcas*) from Sterkfontein Member 4 (~2.8–2 Ma) and Swartkrans

680 Members (~2–0.8 Ma) also indicates a mixed diet with a certain browsing tendency for  
681 this genus (Sewell et al., 2019).

682

## 683 **5.2 Palaeohabitat and palaeoclimate**

684

685 The results of the combination of proxies suggest for AaO a landscape with a  
686 predominance of open and dry habitat, composed of C<sub>3</sub> woody plants and grasses and a  
687 low presence of C<sub>4</sub> plants. The closed canopy forest is absent in the surroundings of AaO,  
688 since no species has  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$  values below -31.5‰, which is established as a limit for  
689 this habitat.

690

### 691 **5.2.1 Dry environment and seasonality**

692

693 The mean annual precipitation (MAP) in AaO was 385 mm/year, indicating a dry climate.  
694 The aridity of the region is supported by the fact that environments dominated by C<sub>3</sub>  
695 plants with a MAP of 500 mm/year or less are typically associated with arid conditions.  
696 Kohn (2010) argues that the indicator's reliability depends on the mean MAP of all  
697 analyzed taxa. Thus, the average MAP remains the critical factor for assessing the  
698 robustness of this indicator. However, the variability in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ , MAP, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet-meq}}$   
699 values, both inter- and intra-species (**Table 1**), suggests the presence of microhabitats  
700 (Patalano et al., 2021). Arid regions such as AaO can present small areas with higher  
701 humidity, such as those found near water sources. Plants growing in these areas may  
702 display lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values than expected for the surrounding dry environment, especially  
703 in a particularly wet year or season (Kohn, 2010).

704 In dry environments, C<sub>4</sub> plants exhibit greater efficiency than C<sub>3</sub> plants under conditions  
705 of low atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, high temperatures, and moisture stress (Ehleringer  
706 et al., 1991; Cerling et al., 1993). Therefore, the presence of C<sub>4</sub> plants in the diet of  
707 Alcelaphini and *M. phacochoeroides*, even in small proportions, aligns with arid  
708 environments. The variability in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$  values within species, especially in the  
709 aforementioned species, may suggest the existence of pronounced seasonal fluctuations.  
710 Another approach to determine the relative aridity in the environment is to measure the  
711 differences in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in tooth enamel between obligate and non-obligate drinking  
712 animals, the larger the difference the higher the estimated aridity (Levin et al., 2006;  
713 Blumenthal et al., 2017). In arid environments, evaporation of <sup>16</sup>O and enrichment of <sup>18</sup>O  
714 occurs both in open water sources and in plant water and tissues (Gonfiantini et al., 1965).  
715 However, this evaporative effect is much more pronounced in plants. Consequently, it is  
716 expected that animals that primarily obtain water through plant consumption (non-  
717 obligate drinkers) will exhibit higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$  values compared to obligate drinkers that  
718 rely on direct access to surface water. For this comparison, we selected the most reliable  
719 species in AaO for classifying the mentioned categories. Specifically, we chose *S.*  
720 *maurusium* and *Gazella* sp. as non-obligate drinkers, and *H. pomeli* as an obligate drinker.  
721 Generally, grazers among ungulates have a higher dependence on surface water than  
722 browsers (Western, 1975; Faith, 2018). This pattern is supported by the dental wear  
723 results in AaO, that classified the *S. maurusium* and *Gazella* sp. as browsers and *H. pomeli*  
724 as a grazer. The ANOVA statistical test and Tukey's pairwise comparison show  
725 significant differences in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$  values among the obligate drinkers ( $n = 16$ ) and  
726 non-obligate drinkers ( $n = 24$ ) with a  $p$ -value of 1.819. The non-obligate drinkers mean  
727 is 0.15‰ and the obligate drinker mean is -1.77‰, implying a difference between the two  
728 groups of 1.9‰. The 1.9‰ difference observed in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of obligate and non-

729 obligate drinkers in AaO is slightly higher than the 1.7‰ difference found in herbivores  
730 from the Tsavo region (Kenya), which has been defined as a dry savannah with vegetation  
731 characterized by semi-desert bushland with riparian woodland and a MAP of 500mm/yr  
732 (Cerling et al., 2003; 2015). The species *S. maurusium* exhibits the highest  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values,  
733 even in comparison to *Gazella* sp. Given that dental wear patterns indicate a browsing  
734 diet for both species, the elevated  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in *S. maurusium* may be attributed to its  
735 consumption of leaves from tall plants that it has access to due to its large size. Sun-  
736 exposed leaves, particularly in arid conditions, are highly sensitive to evaporative  
737 fractionation, resulting in an enrichment of  $^{18}\text{O}$  (Gonfiantini et al., 1965; Barbour, 2007).  
738 In this line, the combination of tooth microwear (short-term) and tooth mesowear (long-  
739 term) proxies has been used as a tool to identify seasonality (Sánchez-Hernández et al.,  
740 2016). Considering that microwear reflects the signal of a short-term diet, such as a single  
741 season, while mesowear reflects a longer period including probably all seasons,  
742 discrepancies in the results between both proxies would be indicative of dietary changes  
743 due to seasonal availability of resources. In AaO, *S. maurusium* exhibits a browsing  
744 pattern with the two proxies, indicating that its diet does not change throughout the year.  
745 For *Gazella* sp., tooth mesowear indicates browse-dominated mixed feeding, while  
746 microwear suggests browsing. This species is likely to have a more diverse diet,  
747 characterized by a higher consumption of grasses throughout the year, along with a  
748 significant increase in browsing during a particular season. In the case of Alcelaphini and  
749 *H. pomeli*, tooth mesowear indicates grass-dominated mixed feeding and grazing,  
750 respectively, while microwear suggests mixed feeding. It indicates a predominant  
751 consumption of grasses throughout the year with the introduction of other food items  
752 during specific periods of the year.

753

### 754 5.2.2 C<sub>3</sub> grassland and open habitat

755

756 In all species from AaO, the most discriminant microwear feature is the number of  
757 scratches, which is different in browsers and mixed feeders (**Fig. 5**). The high number of  
758 scratches in mixed feeders indicates significant consumption of grasses (see %0–17 in  
759 **Table 2**). However, the number of pits is very similar between browsers and mixed  
760 feeders with grazing tendencies. The relatively high number of pits and the presence of  
761 large pits in all species could be caused by incidental ingestion of abrasive grit resulting  
762 from feeding close to the ground in open and arid habitats (Semprebon and Rivals, 2007;  
763 Hoffman et al., 2015). This enables us to emphasize two environmental aspects: (1) The  
764 prevalence of taxa with a C<sub>3</sub> plant-based diet, many of which consume a significant  
765 amount of grasses, indicating the significant presence of C<sub>3</sub> grasslands in the study area.  
766 This assertion is corroborated by previous research on the feeding habits of *Theropithecus*  
767 *atlanticus* in AaO. In that study, they employed time- and graminivore-calibrated carbon  
768 stable isotope values to illustrate a progressive transition towards an increased  
769 dependence on high-throughput bulk-feeding graminivory and proposed a consumption  
770 of grasses exhibiting a distinct C<sub>3</sub> isotopic signature (Fannin et al., 2021). (2) The  
771 presence of C<sub>3</sub> grassland, feeding close to the ground, and the presence of *T. atlanticus*  
772 (Alemseged and Geraads, 1998; Fannin et al., 2021) are indicators of open habitats. It is  
773 noteworthy that no other cercopithecine species have been discovered at the AaO site in  
774 Morocco. Additionally, while no fossil remains of *Theropithecus* have been found at the  
775 contemporaneous site of Guefaït in Morocco, the presence of *M. cf. sylvanus* has been  
776 noted (Alba et al., 2021). Previous ecological studies suggest that this macaque inhabited  
777 a woodland ecosystem, where it had a folivorous-frugivorous diet with hard item  
778 consumption which was primarily based on C<sub>3</sub> plants (Ramirez-Pedraza et al., 2023). This

779 indicates a low wood cover in the landscape of western Morocco during the Plio-  
780 Pleistocene boundary. In the same line, the relative frequency of two species of bovids  
781 found in Guefaït and AaO may provide insight into the predominant environmental  
782 conditions. Specifically, Tragelaphini are associated with wooded and humid habitats,  
783 while Alcelaphini are linked to more open environments (Bobe et al., 2007). Notably, the  
784 abundance of Alcelaphini and the scarcity of Tragelaphini in AaO is significant (Geraads  
785 and Amani, 1998; Geraads et al., 2022a), while the opposite trend is observed in Guefaït  
786 (Sala-Ramos et al., 2022; Ramírez-Pedraza et al., 2023). Previous works on AaO have  
787 used a method for predicting palaeohabitats using measurements (height/width  
788 proportions) of bovid astragali (DeGusta and Vrba, 2003). The proportions of this bone  
789 in the bovids from AaO confirm the absence of heavy wood cover and the predominance  
790 of open habitat (Geraads et al., 2022a).

791

## 792 **6. Conclusion**

793

794 This research highlights the importance of integrating different proxies for  
795 palaeoecological reconstructions, being particularly useful in areas where there is a  
796 predominance of C<sub>3</sub> plants such as in North Africa, where it is more challenging to define  
797 the diet and habitat of mammals from stable isotope analysis alone. In this work, the  
798 complementarity of dental wear analysis has allowed us to determine diets that range from  
799 grazing to browsing behavior. Our multiproxy analysis indicates that during the Plio-  
800 Pleistocene boundary in the western coastal region of Morocco, open C<sub>3</sub> grasslands and  
801 shrubland predominated in an arid climate. Further research in different archaeological  
802 and palaeontological sites from the Early Pleistocene and Late Pliocene in the Maghreb

803 is necessary to gain a holistic understanding of the ecological and climatic dynamics that  
804 contributed to the dispersal, occupation, and evolution of mammals and early hominins.

805

### 806 **CRedit author statement**

807 Iván Ramírez-Pedraza: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Visualization, Investigation  
808 and Writing - Original Draft; Florent Rivals: Supervision and Writing - Review &  
809 Editing; Carlos Tornero: Supervision and Writing - Review & Editing; Denis Geraads:  
810 Writing - Review & Editing; Jean Paul Raynal: Writing - Review & Editing; David  
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841

## 842 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

843

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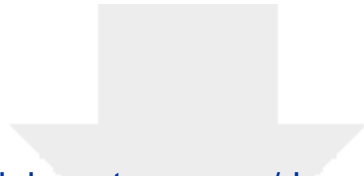
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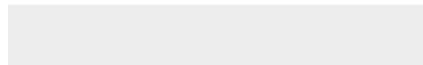
**Declaration of interests**

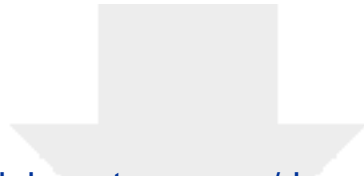
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The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:



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