Thure E. Cerling · John M. Harris · Meave G. Leakev

Browsing and grazing in elephants: the isotope record of modern and fossil proboscideans

Received: 1 July 1998 / Accepted: 16 February 1999

Abstract The diet of extant elephants (*Loxodonta* in Africa, *Elephas* in Asia) is dominated by C₃ browse although some elephants have a significant C₄ grass component in their diet. This is particularly noteworthy because high-crowned elephantid cheek teeth represent adaptation to an abrasive grazing diet and because isotopic analysis demonstrates that C₄ vegetation was the dominant diet for *Elephas* in Asia from 5 to 1 Ma and for both *Loxodonta* and *Elephas* in Africa between 5–1 Ma. Other proboscideans in Africa and southern Asia, except deinotheres, also had a C₄-dominated diet from about 7 Ma (when the C₄ biomass radiated in tropical and subtropical regions) until their subsequent extinction.

Key words Elephants · Diet · Stable isotopes Browsing

Introduction

The emergence of the Elephantidae from Miocene gomphotheres reflects a major adaptive shift in their method of chewing and it was this new adaptation that accounted for the rapid expansion of the family (Maglio 1973). The adaptive shift coincided with the worldwide spread of C₄ vegetation between 8–5 Ma (Cerling et al.

T.E. Cerling (⋈)
Department of Geology and Geophysics,
University of Utah,
Salt Lake City, UT 84112, USA
e-mail: tcerling@bingham.mines.utah.edu,
Fax: +1-801-5817065

J.M. Harris George C. Page Museum, 5801 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90036, USA

M.G. Leakey The National Museums of Kenya, PO Box 40658, Nairobi, Kenya 1997) and the corresponding increase in size and hypsodonty of elephantid cheek teeth appears to be a response to help process the newly available food source. Isotopic analysis of fossil proboscidean enamel indicates that, except in deinotheres, C₄ vegetation formed a significant portion of the diet of many African and Asian proboscideans from the late Miocene onwards (Cerling et al. 1997).

Descriptions of the diet of extant elephants, both *Loxodonta* and *Elephas*, indicate a mixture that includes both browse and grass. The detailed studies of diets of *Loxodonta* in the Bunyoro region in Uganda where grazing is very important (Laws et al. 1974) has been widely quoted and it is often believed that savanna elephants are predominantly grazers (e.g., Tangley 1997). However, other observers have noted an important browsing component in elephants (e.g., Jachman and Bell 1985; Dublin 1995). This perception of differences in dietary preferences even extends to observers in the same region: Norton-Griffiths (1979), in quoting other sources, states that Serengeti elephants are primarily grazers but Dublin (1995) says that they are primarily browsers.

Stable isotope analysis provides an excellent way to distinguish between grazing and browsing in the tropics and sub-tropics. Most trees and shrubs use the C₃ photosynthetic pathway and have δ^{13} C values between -22 and -35% (averaging about -27%), whereas most tropical grasses use the C₄ photosynthetic pathway and have δ^{13} C values between -10 and -15% (Fig. 1). (We note that bamboo uses the C₃ photosynthetic pathway and therefore has the same isotope signal as C₃ browse). The δ^{13} C of collagen and tooth enamel preserves a record of the diet of mammals (DeNiro and Epstein 1978; van der Merwe and Vogel 1978; Lee-Thorp and van der Merwe 1987; Quade et al. 1992; Cerling et al. 1997). An advantage of this method is that elephants from a wide variety of habitats and regions can be studied by using materials archived in museums and elsewhere. Tooth enamel is resistant to isotopic exchange (Quade et al. 1992; Wang and

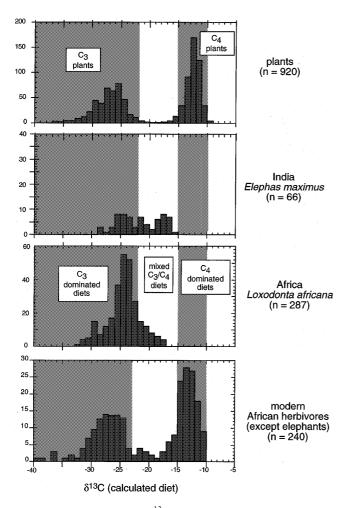


Fig. 1 Histograms showing $\delta^{13}C$ for modern plants, and estimated diets calculated from tooth enamel or collagen for modern elephants and for modern African herbivores using fractionation as described in the text. Data sources are this study, and from Sukumar et al. (1987), van der Merwe et al. (1988, 1990), Vogel et al. (1990a, b), Sukumar et al. (1987), Sukumar and Ramesh (1992, 1995), Koch et al. (1995), and Bocherens et al. 1996b)

Cerling 1994) and therefore is an ideal material to study for fossil elephants.

In this study we analyzed the δ^{13} C of tooth enamel from 43 savanna elephants from Kenya, and 27 forest elephants for Kenya and from the Republic of Congo. This adds to the already large data base of the isotopic composition of modern elephants (van der Merwe et al. 1988, 1990; Tieszen et al. 1989; Vogel et al. 1990a, b; Sukumar and Ramesh 1992; Koch et al. 1995; Bocherens et al. 1996b). We compare these results to other published data from Africa and Asia for modern elephants, and confirm that isotopic studies provide strong evidence that elephants are predominantly browsers.

Little isotopic data have been published on fossil elephants. Here we report data on elephantids, gomphotheres, and deinotheres from Kenya, primarily from the Turkana Basin and environs, and also from Laetoli in Tanzania. In addition, we report data on fossil elephantids from Pakistan. These fossil samples range in

age from middle Miocene through latest Pleistocene and provide strong evidence that unlike their modern counterparts, fossil elephantids were primarily grazers in Africa and Pakistan from 7 million years ago until almost 1 million years ago.

Materials and methods

Enamel from modern and fossil elephants was physically separated from dentine using tungsten-carbide- or diamond-impregnated high-speed rotary tools. The enamel was finely ground and reacted with 1% H₂O₂ or 1% NaOCl followed by reaction with 0.1 M acetic acid (Lee-Thorp and van der Merwe 1987). The cleaned enamel powder was then reacted in vacuum at 25°C for 36 h. CO₂ was cryogenically separated from the reaction products and then reacted at 50°C for 48 h with silver wool to remove SO₂ which we found to be an occasional contaminant in both modern and fossil samples.

Isotopic ratios are reported relative to the isotopic standard PDB using the conventional δ notation where:

$$\delta^{13}$$
C = $(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000$

where R_{sample} and R_{standard} are ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$)_{sample} and ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$)_{standard}, respectively. Enamel or collagen are enriched in ^{13}C compared to diet as expressed using the enrichment factors ϵ :

$$\varepsilon_{\text{enamel-diet}} = [(R_{\text{enamel}}/R_{\text{diet}}) - 1] \times 1000$$

and

$$\varepsilon_{\text{collagen-diet}} = \left[\left(R_{\text{collagen}} / R_{\text{diet}} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000$$

where $R_{\rm diet}$, $R_{\rm collagen}$, $R_{\rm enamel}$ are the $^{13}{\rm C}/^{12}{\rm C}$ ratios for diet, collagen, and enamel, respectively. Cerling et al. (1997) and Cerling and Harris (1999) report the enrichment factor of $\epsilon_{\rm enamel-diet}=14.1$ for large mammals including elephants, and Vogel et al. (1990a) report an enrichment factor $\epsilon_{\rm collagen-diet}=5.5$ for elephants. To compare results from collagen studies and enamel studies, we use these enrichment factors to calculate the original diet which is represented by $\delta^{13}{\rm C}_{\rm diet}$.

A further complication arises in that the isotopic composition of the atmosphere has changed over the last 150 years by 1.5%, from -6.5% to -8.0%, due to fossil fuel burning. In this paper we do not normalize all samples to the same year, but note here that any calculations about the fraction of C_3 browse or C_4 grass in the diet is slightly affected by this problem.

Results and discussion

We analyzed a number of modern savanna elephants from Kenya, and compare those results with other published data. These data include the surveys of Asian elephants done by Sukumar et al. (1987) and Sukumar and Ramesh (1992), and those of African elephants by van der Merwe et al. (1988, 1990), Vogel et al. (1990a, 1990b), Koch et al. (1995), and Bocherens et al. (1996b). To compare all these results, which include data for both collagen and for tooth enamel, we discuss these values in terms of the calculated diets using the fractionation factors $\epsilon_{\rm enamel-diet}$ or $\epsilon_{\rm collagen-diet}$ to calculate a $\delta^{13}C_{\rm diet}$ value. $\delta^{13}C_{\rm diet}$ is $14.1\%_{\rm oo}$ or $5.5\%_{\rm oo}$ depleted in ^{13}C compared to the measured enamel or collagen $\delta^{13}C$ values $(\delta^{13}C_{\rm enamel})$ or $\delta^{13}C_{\rm collagen})$, respectively.

Stable isotope analyses of extant elephants from Africa and Asia demonstrate diets dominated by C₃ vegetation although some samples show evidence for a mixed

C₃/C₄ diet (Fig. 1). Diets of non-proboscidean browsers and grazers from East Africa have $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ ranges of -28to -24% and -15 to -10%, respectively (Fig. 1). Occasionally diets as negative as -32 to -36% are found for ungulates from closed-canopy forests. Elephants have $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values ranging from -32% to -15%. Most elephants have diets dominated by C_3 vegetation $(\delta^{13}C_{diet} < -23\%)$, but about 25% of Loxodonta and almost 50% of Elephas have a significant C4 component in their diet (Fig. 1) with $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values ranging from -23 to -15\%. However, no samples showed a predominantly C_4 diet ($\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}} < -15\%$) which is common for other ungulate grazers (Figs. 1, 2). Because the teeth of animals feeding from a mixture of C₃ and C₄ vegetation should produce intermediate δ^{13} C values, we used a mixing model to estimate the fraction of C₄ biomass in the diet of elephants. For savanna elephants we estimate the δ^{13} C range for available C₃ biomass to be -28 to -23%, and the range for available C₄ biomass to be -14

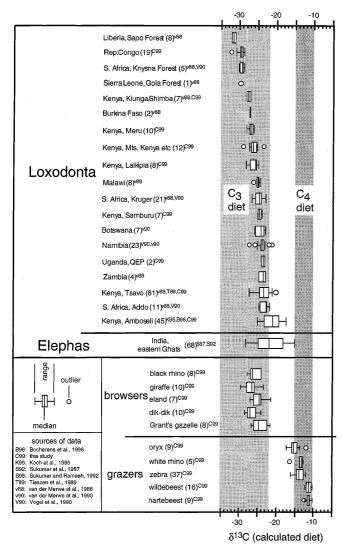


Fig. 2 Ranges in $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values for *Loxodonta* from different localities, for *Elephas*, and for African browsers and grazers. Data as in Fig. 1

to -11%. As noted previously by van der Merwe et al. (1988), the range in δ^{13} C values for both C_3 and C_4 plants makes precise dietary C_3/C_4 fractions impossible to calculate, although a range of C_3/C_4 fractions can be made. The maximum C_4 fraction is calculated from the C_3 and C_4 mixing end members of -28% and -14%, respectively, and the minimum C_3 fraction is calculated from the C_3 and C_4 mixing end members of -22% and -11%, respectively.

The diets of modern *Loxodonta*: African savanna and forest elephants

Modern *Loxodonta* is restricted to Africa and is the only modern elephant in Africa, although a number of other lineages are well documented in the fossil record. Previously only one species of African elephant was recognized, *Loxodonta africana*, comprising two subspecies. The larger of these, *L. africana africana*, is the savanna, or "bush," elephant and is found in East and South Africa while the smaller, *L. africana cyclotis* inhabits the forests of Central and West Africa. Presently there is debate as to whether these two subspecies should be recognized as individual species. We will discuss the African elephant with the recognition that there are significant physical differences between *L. a. africana* and *L. a. cyclotis*.

It is useful to examine the regional aspects of elephant diet. Figure 2 shows the $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ of Loxodonta for different regions and habitats. van der Merwe et al. (1988) showed that forest elephants have diets more depleted in ¹³C than do forest elephants, which they attributed to the "canopy effect" whereby C₃ plants growing under closed-canopy conditions have significantly lower δ^{13} C values than do C₃ plants growing in open conditions (van der Merwe and Medina 1991). The "canopy effect" is also seen in our samples from Mouadje Bai in the Republic of Congo, which is in a primary rain forest. Elephants from the montane forests in Kenya (i.e., the Aberdares, Mt Kenya, Mt Elgon, and Marsabit Mountain) or coastal forest (Shimba Hills, Kiunga) are somewhat depleted in ¹³C compared to elephants from savanna regions, but are not as depleted in ¹³C as elephants from the primary rain forests (Table 1, Fig. 2). van der Merwe et al. (1988) previously found that elephants from primary rain forests had the most negative δ^{13} C values, a conclusion with which we concur.

The diets of the savanna elephant, *L. a. africana*, from East, south Central, and South Africa range in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ from -30% to -17%, but with most having $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values between -22 to -28% (Figs. 1, 2), indicating a predominantly C_3 diet. Because C_3 plants in arid regions are shifted to slightly more positive values than C_3 plants in mesic environments (Farquhar et al. 1989), the $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ cutoff for C_3 plants is about -22% (see discussion in Cerling et al. 1997). Most savanna elephants from Namibia, South Africa, Botswana, Zambia, and Malawi have an essentially pure- C_3 diet

 Table 1
 New tooth enamel data for modern elephants and latest Pleistocene elephants from Kenya, Uganda, and Congo. All elephants are Loxodonta africana

$\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$	Sample number ^a	Locality	Tooth ^b (M1–M6)
Forest habitat, Kenya			
-11.7	MGL-7	Aberdares	M4
-15.1	325-Ab	Aberdares	M3
-13.4	223-Ab	Aberdares	M2
-13.1	MGL-11 ^a	Kiunga	M4
-13.7	MGL-11B ^a	Kiunga	M4 or M5
-12.9 -12.9	MGL-5	Mt Elgon	M4
-12.9 -12.6	MGL-2 256-MtK	Mt Kenya Mt Kenya	M3 M1
-12.0 -13.0	257-MtK 257-MtK	Mt Kenya	m2
-13.0 -14.2	MGL-10	Shimba Hills	M3
Primary rain forest hal	bitat, Congo		IVI 5
-18.3	MF-F-1	Mouadje Bai	
-17.1	MF-F-2	Mouadje Bai	
-15.0	MF-F-3	Mouadje Bai	
-14.9	MF-F-4	Mouadje Bai	
-15.8	MF-F-5	Mouadje Bai	
-16.3	MF-F-7	Mouadje Bai	
-16.0	MF-F-8	Mouadje Bai	
-15.7	MF-F-9	Mouadje Bai	
-14.9	MF-F-10	Mouadje Bai	
-15.2	MF-M-1	Mouadje Bai	
-16.0	MF-M-2	Mouadje Bai	
-15.7	MF-M-3	Mouadje Bai	
-15.5	MF-M-4	Mouadje Bai	
-15.3	MF-M-5	Mouadje Bai	
-16.0	MF-M-6	Mouadje Bai	
-16.1	MF-M-7	Mouadje Bai	
-15.8	MF-M-8	Mouadje Bai	
-15.8 -16.4	MF-M-9	Mouadje Bai	
	MF-M-10	Mouadje Bai	
Savanna/bush habitat –9.2	MGL-25 ^a	A mala a a a li	M4
-9.2 -6.6	MGL-25 MGL-25:2 ^a	Amboseli Amboseli	M4 M4
-7.3	MGL-25.2 MGL-25B:1 ^a	Amboseli	M4
-7.5 -11.6	MGL-23B.1 MGL-44	Laikipia	M5
-13.2	MGL-45	Laikipia	M2
-14.4	MGL-46	Laikipia Laikipia	M3
-11.0	MGL-47	Laikipia	M4
-11.8	MGL-6	Laikipia	M4
-11.8	MGL-14	Laikipia-Kikisi Ranch	M4 or M5
-11.6	MGL-15	Laikipia-Kikisi Ranch	M4
-11.7	MGL-16	Laikipia-Kikisi Ranch	M4 or M5
-9.6	MGL-12	Marsabit	M4
-11.9	MGL-13 A ^a	Marsabit	M3
-11.9	MGL-13 B ^a	Marsabit	M3
-12.2	MGL-13 C ^a	Marsabit	M3
-11.3	MGL-3	Marsabit	M5
-9.7	MGL-8	Masai Mara	M4
-13.7	MGL-41	Meru	M2
-12.5	MGL-42	Meru	M3
-13.2	MGL-43	Meru	M4
-12.5	MGL-17	Meru	M4 or M5
-12.9	MGL-18	Meru	M4 or M5
-12.9	MGL-19	Meru	M4 or M5
-11.9	MGL-20	Meru	M4 or M5
-12.9	MGL-21	Meru	M4 or M5
-12.1	MGL-22	Meru	M4 or M5
-12.1	MGL-24	Meru	M4 or M5
-10.1	QEP-211	Queen Elizabeth Park	M4
-9.1	QEP-212	Queen Elizabeth Park	M6
-10.4	MGL-1 ^a	Samburu	M3
-10.8	MGL-1A ^a	Samburu	M3
-10.3	MGL-4	Samburu	M4
-11.0	404E-Sam-M4	Samburu	M4
-11.2	404E-Sam-rM2	Samburu	M2
-11.1	404E-Sam-rM2	Samburu	M2

Table 1 (Contd.)

c ¹³ C _{enamel}	Sample number ^a	Locality	Tooth ^b (M1–M6)
-10.0	404E-Sam-lM3	Samburu	M3
-10.2	MGL-26	Tsavo	M2
-5.7	MGL-27	Tsavo	M3
-11.5	MGL-28	Tsavo	M3
-9.1	MGL-29	Tsavo	M3
-9.3	MGL-30	Tsavo	M3
-7.0	MGL-31	Tsavo	M4
-7.3	MGL-32	Tsavo	M4
-10.9	MGL-33	Tsavo	M2
-13.0	MGL-34	Tsavo	M2
-9.3	MGL-35	Tsavo	M2
-12.1	MGL-36	Tsavo	M1
-9.7	MGL-37	Tsavo	M1
-10.7	MGL-38	Tsavo	M1

^a Multiple sample numbers from the same tooth are from different parts of the same tooth or individual and therefore represent a different time in the individual's life history

(van der Merwe et al. 1988). Addo Park in South Africa is an interesting exception which, as noted by van der Merwe et al. (1988), is a region where crassulacean acid metabolism plants may make a significant contribution to the diet of elephants. In Kenya most savanna elephants' diet is also C_3 dominated. Elephants from Meru, Masai Mara, Marsabit, and Laikipia have $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ values ranging from -10 to -14‰ (Table 1), corresponding to $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values from -24‰ to -28‰, indicating little, if any, C_4 biomass in their diet.

Only in the Tsavo and Amboseli region of Kenya have we found elephants with a significant (> ca 20%) fraction of C₄ biomass in their diet (Fig. 2). The diet of modern savanna elephants is often described as including much grass (Kingdon 1979; Tangley 1997), in some cases up to 90% based on stomach contents of elephants from the Bunyoro region in Uganda (Laws et al. 1974). These isotopic results agree with observations that on occasion some elephants have a mixed C_3/C_4 diet, but on the whole they show that most elephants have diets that are dominated by C₃ plants. Significantly, the two African localities where the elephants have the highest fraction of C₄ biomass in their diet are Amboseli and Tsavo in Kenya. These sites have had the most intensive observational data on elephant behavior and where grazing by elephants has been recorded both by observation (Moss 1988) and by stable isotope analyses (Tieszen et al. 1989; Koch et al. 1995). Except for bamboo, which is found at high elevations, grasses in East, Central, and South Africa are C₄ grasses. Therefore, grass makes up a small fraction of the diet of most of the savanna elephants although some individuals from the Tsavo-Amboseli region of Kenya do have a high fraction of C_4 grass in their diet.

This brings up the interesting question of nutritional differences among the various elephant groups because grasses are known to be less nutritious than dicots. van der Merwe et al. (1988) conclude that grass is underrepresented in collagen in elephants and suggest that

elephants may not digest C_4 grass as efficiently as they digest C_3 dicots. While this is an attractive hypothesis for the apparent mismatch between observations and isotope studies, it presents problems when considered in the context of fossil elephants. In our following discussion of results from fossil elephants, we show that fossil Loxodonta and Elephas both relied on C_4 grass as their primary diet source for several million years. It seems unlikely that elephants would use a diet source for which they were poorly suited.

Some interesting results were found in this survey. For example, tooth enamel from a single individual from Masai Mara in Kenya (Table 1) has a δ^{13} C value of about -9.7% corresponding to a diet of about -24%, indicating a C₃-dominated diet similar in composition to that of dik-dik, Grant's gazelle, or eland (Fig. 2). The Masai Mara region has abundant grasslands, yet the C₄ dietary component of elephants is very low. Dublin (1995) points out that elephants in the Mara browse on seedlings in grasslands, an activity that could easily be mistaken for grazing. According to Lamprey et al. (1967), there were no elephants in the northern Serengeti (north of the Kenya border) until 1937 or in the southern Serengeti until 1955. It is believed Serengeti elephants migrated from the Lambwe Valley in Kenya, from which they had been driven out by the Kenya Game Department's elephant control operations. Following their arrival in the Serengeti, they caused substantial changes in the vegetation including the destruction of the larger trees at the rate of 6% per year. This is circumstantial evidence for the African elephant's preference for browse versus graze and an explanation for the low proportion of grass in the diet of the Masai Mara specimens.

Multiple analyses were made from a single tooth from an individual from Amboseli, chosen to further investigate the possibility of diet variability observed in some elephant populations. Three samples taken vertically along the same plate gave $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ values of -9.2,

^b Molars are numbered from M1 to M6 because elephants erupt their molar and premolar teeth sequentially unlike other mammals. No distinction is made between upper and lower molars

-6.6, and -7.3 (Table 1), showing dietary variability during the formation of the tooth. On the other hand, seven samples (not shown in Table 1) taken from different plates along the actively abrading surface gave the same $^{13}C_{enamel}$ value within $\pm 0.2\%$, which is the replication of the analyses. This indicates that enamel records differences in diet during different times in an animal's life.

In summary, data from many modern Loxodonta samples from a variety of localities in Africa show that their diet is generally dominated by C_3 biomass. A few individuals show evidence for a significant C_4 component in their diet, but these samples are restricted to a few localities.

Elephas: the Asian elephant

We have not analyzed any modern elephants from Asia, but isotopic results are reported by Sukumar (Sukumar et al. 1987; Sukumar and Ramesh 1992, 1995). These δ^{13} C values are of particular interest in the context of δ^{13} C values of fossil *Elephas* from both Asia and Africa.

Sukumar and Ramesh (1992, 1995) found that the diet of *Elephas maximus* was dominated by C_3 browse or was a mixture of C_3/C_4 biomass, as is shown in Figs. 1, 2. The average $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ is about $-21\%_0$, which is significantly enriched in ^{13}C compared to that for African *Loxodonta*. The range in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ is from -15 to $-29\%_0$ indicating a variety of diets, but in general the diet of *Elephas* is predominantly C_3 biomass (on average, 55-89% based on the mixing model described above).

Sukumar and Ramesh (1992, 1995) also suggest their results indicate that young Asian elephants have a higher fraction of C_4 biomass in their diets than older elephants. The pattern of dietary change from young to older animals, with younger animals having a higher C_4 component in their diet, is compatible with the data of Koch et al. (1995) and our data from Tsavo and Amboseli. Tieszen et al. (1989) did not find any age structure to the $\delta^{13}C$ of elephants' diet in the Amboseli region, and Koch et al. (1995) believe that the diet change is due to long-term ecological change in the Amboseli region.

Sukumar and Ramesh (1995) suggest that Asian elephants digest C_4 grasses less easily than C_3 leaves and that the observation of plants ingested may overestimate the importance of C_4 plants in the animals' nutritional needs. A similar conclusion was reached for African elephants (van der Merwe et al. 1988; Vogel et al. 1990a). Yet as with the African elephant, this conclusion needs to be tempered with the observation below that *Elephas* was primarily a grazer for several million years as shown by isotope measurements on fossils (Table 2).

In summary, modern *Elephas* in India have a diet that is mostly C₃ biomass, although some individuals (especially young ones) have a significant C₄ component to their diet. Sukumar and Ramesh (1992, 1995) present convincing evidence that young elephants have a higher

proportion of C_4 biomass in their diets than adults. Thus, one would expect that even if the bulk of a population were browsing, one would often observe grazing behavior of young individuals and their mothers.

Diets of fossil elephants and other proboscideans

That extant Loxodonta and Elephas clearly favor a C_3 biomass diet is especially interesting in the context of the estimated diets of their fossil relatives. In this section we show that deinotheres have a C_3 diet from early Miocene through the early Pleistocene, but that other proboscideans have C_4 -dominated diets beginning about 7.5 Ma and continuing into the early Pleistocene.

The low-crowned lophodont teeth of deinotheres, like those of tapirs, have beveled cutting edges that are maintained, though at different angles, throughout the life of the individual for processing the food prior to digestion. Deinothere teeth remain essentially unchanged in morphology throughout the history of the group but there is an overall increase in size from the earliest representatives of Prodeinotherium to the latest representatives of *Deinotherium*. In contrast, the early gomphotheres have low-crowned bunodont cheek teeth that are adapted for crushing and grinding rather than cutting. There is a general tendency for an increase in complexity of the crown pattern and increase in the length of the teeth in different lineages. This led to a pattern of delayed eruption of the posterior cheek teeth (horizontal tooth replacement) which both allowed the accommodation of larger teeth in the jaw and helped prolong the use of the teeth and hence the life of the individual. The teeth of elephantids contain a large number of transverse plates instead of the trefoliate bunes characteristic of gomphotheres; owing to the increased length of the teeth, normally only one cheek tooth is erupted and functional in each side of the jaw. The earliest elephantids (*Primelephas* spp.) have lowcrowned teeth but the ensuing Loxodonta, Elephas, and Mammuthus lineages are all hypsodont and each demonstrates an increase in crown height and plate number and a decrease in enamel thickness through time. The change in crown height between gomphotheres and elephantids appears to indicate adaptation to different kinds of vegetation; the sequential changes seen in the cheek teeth of elephantid lineages have long been interpreted as progressive modifications for a primarily graminiferous (grazing) diet.

The only Neogene proboscideans with a consistent C_3 diet are the deinotheres (Table 2, Fig. 3) which, in contrast to gomphotheres and elephantids, retained simple bilophodont brachyodont teeth and never developed horizontal tooth replacement. Nineteen samples of *Deinotherium* and *Prodeinotherium* from Kenya and Tanzania, ranging in age from middle Miocene to early Pleistocene, have an average $\delta^{13}C_{\text{enamel}}$ value of $-11.6 \pm 1.2\%$, ranging from -9.5% to -13.7% (Table 2), corresponding to a $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ of about -26%.

Table 2 δ¹³C of fossil proboscideans from East Africa. Stratigraphic details are given in Fig. 4

$\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$	Sample	Locality	Formation (or informal designation	Member on)	Species
Anancus					
-0.1	KP 30442	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumun	Anancus sp.
-2.1	LT 28567	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Anancus sp.
0.2	LT 361	Lothagam	Nawata		Anancus kenyensis
-9.0	NA-260	Nakali			Anancus sp.
Archaeobelodon	WC 70	D11-	W/		4 l l . l . l 65 . A . C.ll . l
-9.0 Choerolophodon	WS 78	Buluk	Warata		Archaeobelodon aff. A. filholi
-10.5	FT 2785	Fort Ternan			Choerolophodon ngorora
-12.1	FT 2786	Fort Ternan			Choerolophodon ngorora
-10.4	MB 403A	Maboko			Choerolophodon kisumuensis
-10.0	WS 12681	Buluk	Warata		Choerolophodon sp.
Deinotheres					1
-11.8	ER 2258	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Deinotherium bozasi
-12.5	ER 4294	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Deinotherium bozasi
-12.3	ER 2885	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Lokochot	Deinotherium bozasi
-13.1	ER 3188	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Deinotherium bozasi
-13.7	ER 3198	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Deinotherium bozasi
-10.9 -12.5	ER 17896 Lit '59 192	Koobi Fora Laetoli	Koobi Fora Laetolil Beds	Lokochot	Deinotherium bozasi Deinotherium bozasi
-12.5 -12.6	261-1D	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Lonyumon	Deinotherium bozasi Deinotherium bozasi
-12.0 -12.7	MS 4857	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Lonyumon	Deinotherium bozasi Deinotherium bozasi
-12.3	WT 14987	West Turkana	Nachukui	Kataboi	Deinotherium bozasi
-12.4	WT 3617	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Deinotherium bozasi
-9.5	SH 12306	Samburu Hills	Namurungule	•	Deinotherium bozasi
-10.4	FT 3355	Fort Ternan	C		Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-11.2	MB 12503	Maboko			Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-11.2	MB 12505	Maboko			Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-11.1	MB 12495	Maboko			Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-11.8	NH 5233	Nabwal Hills	Warata?		Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-11.8 -10.9	NH 5233 WS 63	Nabwal Hills	Warata? Warata		Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-10.9 -10.4	W S 63 Buluk 5204	Buluk Buluk	Warata Warata		Prodeinotherium hobleyi Prodeinotherium hobleyi
-10.4 -9.7	Buluk 5212	Buluk	Warata		Prodeinotherium hobleyi
Primelephas and		Duruk	Walata		1 roucuioinerium nooicyi
-3.4	ER 767	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Okote	Elephas recki recki
-1.5	ER 1693	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki atavus
0.2	ER 1691	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki ileretensis
-2.8	ER 927	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki ileretensis
0.3	ER-1302 ^a	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki ileretensis
0.4	ER-1302 ^a	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki ileretensis
$0.4 \\ -0.7$	ER-1302 ^a ER 1700 ^a	Koobi Fora Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora Koobi Fora	KBS KBS	Elephas recki ileretensis Elephas recki shungurensis
-0.7 -0.8	ER 1700 ^a	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	KBS	Elephas recki shungurensis
-0.3 -0.1	ER 4102	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Elephas recki shungurensis
0.1	ER 4113	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Elephas recki shungurensis
0.3	ER 5871	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Elephas recki shungurensis
-1.9	ER 2894	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Elephas recki brumpti
-2.0	ER 2895	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Elephas recki brumpti
-1.3	ER 3191	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Elephas recki brumpti
0.2	ER 4106	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Elephas recki brumpti
-1.7	KP 30173	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Elephas ekorensis
-1.5 2.5	WT 3570	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Elephas ekorensis
-2.5 -0.8	WT 3614 LT 26323	Kanapoi Lothagam	Nachukui Nachukui	Lonyumon	Elephas ekorensis
-0.8 -1.6	LT 20323 LT 23783	Lothagam	Nachukui Nawata	Apak Upper	Primelephas sp. Primelephas sp.
Loxodonta	LI 23/03	Lomagam	1 Na Wala	Оррсі	1 і шесеріші эр.
-11.9	MGL-9	Kakamega	(Late Pleistocene)		Loxodonta sp.
-7.5	KNM-LB-128	Loboi	(Late Pleistocene)		Loxodonta sp.
-1.4	KNM-BK-95	Tugen Hills	Kapthurin		Loxodonta sp.
0.0	ER 1299	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Loxadonta adaurora kararae
0.5	ER 4910	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Loxodonta adaurora kararae
0.3	ER 338	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Upper Burgi	Loxodonta adaurura kararae
-3.1	ER 4939	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Loxodonta exoptata
-11.5	KNM-3189 ^b	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Loxodonta exoptata
-11.3	KNM-3189 ^b	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Tulu Bor	Loxodonta exoptata
-3.6	Lit '59 114	Laetoli	Laetolil	Upper	Loxodonta exoptata

Table 2 (Contd.)

$\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$	Sample	Locality	Formation (or informal designation)	Member	Species
-2.1	ER 3201	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Lokochot/Moiti	Loxadonta adaurora adaurora
-2.1	ER 3196	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Lokochot/Moiti	Loxodonta adaurora adaurora
-2.7	KP 390	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Loxadonta adaurora
-1.1	WT 3833	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Loxadonta adaurora
-3.0	KP 383	Kanapoi	Nachukui	Lonyumon	Loxadonta adaurora
Stegatetrabeloa					
-0.9	LT 26337 ^a	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-0.8	LT 26337 ^a	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-1.1	WT 2632	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-1.1	LOTH-64 ^c	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-2.0	LOTH-64.a ^c	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-2.0	LOTH-64.b ^c	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-1.3	LOTH-64.c ^c	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
0.3	LOTH-66	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-6.2	LT 26332	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-1.0	WT 2611 ^a	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-1.0	WT 2611 ^a	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Stegotetrabelodon orbus
-7.3	SH 12381	Samburu Hills	Namurungule		Stegotetrabelodon orbus
Tetralophodon					
-8.1	SH 12308	Samburu Hills	Namurungule		Tetralophodon sp.
Gen. indet.				_	
-3.8	MS 4891 b	Koobi Fora	Koobi Fora	Lonyumon	Elephantid gen and sp. indet.
-0.4	LOTH-118	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.2	LOTH-61	Lothagam	Nachukui	Apak	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-5.5	LOTH-137	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.1	LOTH-154	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-1.5	LOTH-158	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-2.1	LOTH-159	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.3	LOTH-162	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.2	LOTH-171	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.9	LOTH-176	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.2	LOTH-60	Lothagam	Nawata	Upper	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-1.8	LOTH-72	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-2.3	LOTH-75	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-3.9	LOTH-84	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.7	LOTH-90	Lothagam	Nawata	Lower	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-1.8	96 JW 17a	Lothagam			Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-9.5	BGJ 506-84	Samburu Hills	Namurungule		Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-9.0	BGK 558-84	Samburu Hills	Namurungule		Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-9.0	BGS 449-84	Samburu Hills	Namurungule		Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-8.0	NA-6	Nakali			Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-11.3	MB 12483	Maboko			Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-10.0	NH 5234	Nabwal Hills	Warata?		Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-9.1	Buluk 5201	Buluk	Warata		Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.

a Replicate analyses of the same sample

Such a diet has essentially no C_4 component to it. The youngest samples are less than 2 Ma and have $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ values of about -12.4% corresponding to a C_3 diet of about -26 to -27%.

However, other African and Asian proboscideans sampled from the late Miocene through middle Pleistocene have a significant C₄ component in their diets for most of the interval from 7 to 1 Ma (Fig. 4). Besides deinotheres, we sampled gomphotheres (*Archaeobelodon, Anancus*), mammutids (*Cheorolophodon*), and elephantids (*Stegatetrabelodon, Elephas, Loxodonta*), plus contemporaneous proboscideans that could not be identified to genus. Fifteen non-deinothere proboscideans from localities older than 8 Ma (Buluk, Fort

Ternan, Maboko, Nabwal Hills, Nakali, and the Samburu Hills) display a $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ range -7.3 to -12.5% indicating a C_3 diet ranging from -22 to -27%. The most positive of these samples is from the circa 8 Ma Samburu Hills locality and may represent the first proboscideans to use C_4 as a dietary resource; equids from this locality have a significant C_4 component in their diet (Cerling et al. 1997).

Younger (less than 8 Ma) gomphotheres, including *Anancus*, have a C_4 -dominated diet; the average $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ value for three late Miocene to early Pliocene specimens of *Anancus* was $-0.7 \pm 1.3\%$, indicating a C_4 diet with an average $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ value of about -15%. Tooth enamel from other samples attributed to *Elephas*,

^b KNM 3189 was sampled twice from the original specimen

^c The four analyses represent different fragments of the same tooth of LOTH 64

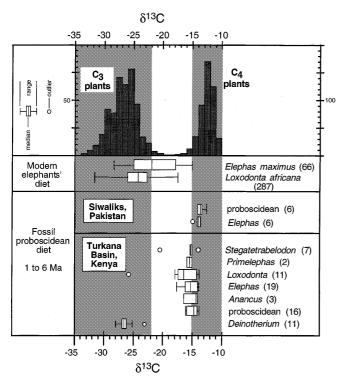


Fig. 3 Estimated diets for modern *Loxodonta* and *Elephas* compared to the estimated diets for fossil proboscideans. Modern data from Figs. 1, 2. Fossil data for Africa from Table 2; fossil data from Pakistan from Stern et al. (1994), Morgan et al. (1994), and from this study

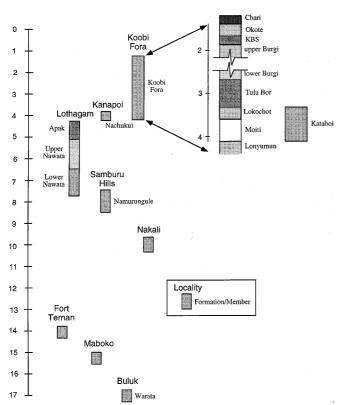


Fig. 4 Generalized diagram showing stratigraphy and ages of important fossil sites used in this study

Loxodonta (excluding one sample, discussed below) Primelephas, Stegatetrabelodon, and unidentified proboscideans have average $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ values of $-1.0 \pm$ 1.2%, $-1.5 \pm 1.4\%$, $-1.2 \pm 0.4\%$, $-1.5 \pm 2.1\%$, and $-0.8 \pm 0.9\%$, respectively, corresponding to C₄ dietary δ^{13} C_{diet} values ranging from -15 to -17% (Fig. 2). Of these samples only one specimen of L. exoptata (KNM-ER 3189) indicated a C_3 -dominated diet ($\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ value of -11.5% for its tooth enamel, indicating a diet of about -26%; confirmed by a $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ value of -11.3%from a different fragment of the same specimen). Other L. exoptata specimens analyzed had predominantly C₄ diets. Indeed, with the exception of that single individual, the fossil record of the African elephantids for the interval from 7 to 1.3 Ma shows all coexisting elephantids and gomphotheres to have had a predominantly C₄ diet. KNM-ER 3189 is a worn posterior fragment of dp4/(=M3) in some terminologies) that is very modern in appearance with a loxodont abrasion pattern (Beden 1983). It was retrieved as a surface specimen from Area 204 at Koobi Fora and identified as L. exoptata but it could, instead, conceivably represent a lag fossil of L. africana from the late Pleistocene/Holocene Galana Boi Beds. Similarly, well-mineralized Equus and Phacochoerus teeth from the Galana Boi Beds occur as surface specimens on outcrops of the Koobi Fora Formation in Area 204 and elsewhere in the Koobi Fora basin.

Proboscideans from Pakistan demonstrate changes similar to those observed in Africa; those older than about 8 Ma have C_3 -dominated diets, whereas all samples younger than 6 Ma have C_4 -dominated diets (Table 3). For the younger samples, six *Elephas* samples and six unidentified proboscideans have $\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$ values of $0.2 \pm 0.5\%$ and $0.6 \pm 0.6\%$, respectively, indicating diets with average $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values of about -14% (Fig. 3).

Although this study discusses the diets of modern elephants and their ancestors, we briefly mention the last of the European and New World proboscideans. C₄ grasses are restricted to tropical and sub-tropical regions with rain during the (warm) growth season. Growing conditions preclude C₄ vegetation in Mediterranean and cool climates; thus proboscideans from western Europe and northern Eurasia necessarily had strictly C₃ diets (Bocherens et al. 1994, 1996a). C₄ vegetation is present in the central and eastern portions of southern North America. Isotopic analyses of Mammuthus teeth from Florida, Texas and Arizona (Rancholabrean, late Pleistocene) indicate a higher proportion of C₄ vegetation than do the Mammut teeth from the same regions with $\delta^{13}C_{\text{enamel}}$ values of about -3 to -0.6% for Mammuthus and -10.5% for Mammut (Table 4), corresponding to estimated diets of $-15\%_{00}$ and $-25\%_{00}$. respectively. Fossil equids and bison from these localities also had C₄-dominated diets (Table 4). However, in Idaho where C₃ grasses are prevalent, Mammuthus has a C₃-dominated diet (Table 3). Based on the data from Africa and Asia and the change in diet of *Elephas* and Loxodonta to browse in the late Pleistocene, it is possible

Table 3 δ^{13} C values for proboscidean tooth enamel from Pakistan. Data from Quade et al. (1992), Stern et al. (1994), Morgan et al. (1994), and this study

$\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$	Sample/source	Formation	Age (Ma)	Species
0.1	ROT-12	Upper Siwaliks	2.0	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-0.7	Stern et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	2.5	Elephas sp.
0.3	Stern et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	2.5	Elephas sp.
0.6	Stern et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	2.5	Elephas sp.
0.1	Stern et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	2.7	Elephas sp.
0.9	Quade et al. (1992)	Upper Siwaliks	3.5	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.2	Quade et al. (1992)	Upper Siwaliks	3.5	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.7	Stern et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	4.0	Elephas sp.
1.7	ROT-191	Upper Siwaliks	4.0	Elephas sp.
0.2	Morgan et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	4.2	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.8	Morgan et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	4.4	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
0.0	Morgan et al. (1994)	Upper Siwaliks	4.6	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-8.2	Morgan et al. (1994)	Dhok Pathan	6.6	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-7.6	GSP 15296	Dhok Pathan	7.0	Choerolophodon corrugatus
-4.8	ROT-196	Dhok Pathan	7.1	Gomphotheriid gen. and sp. indet.
-11.3	Stern et al. (1994)	Dhok Pathan	7.4	Stegodon sp.
-6.6	Morgan et al. (1994)	Dhok Pathan	8.0	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-11.0	GSP 15638	Dhok Pathan	8.0	Stegolophodon cf. stegodontoides
-12.0	Morgan et al. (1994)	Nagri	9.6	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-10.4	Ouade et al. (1992)	Chinji	11.8	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.
-9.8	Ouade et al. (1992)	Chinji	13.5	Proboscidea gen. and sp. indet.

Table 4 $\delta^{13}C$ values for mammoths with coexisting mastodonts, equids, or bison from selected Rancholabrean localities in North America

$\delta^{13}C_{enamel}$	Sample	Species
Florida, Ichetucknee		
-0.6	UF V4086	Mammuthus sp.
-10.4	M-92	Mammut sp.
-3.9	B-94	Bison sp.
-2.2	E-90	Equus sp.
Texas, Ingleside		1 1
-0.9	TMM 30967-808	Mammuthus sp.
-10.6	TMM 30967-395	Mammut sp.
-0.8	TMM 30967-2224	Equus fraternus
Arizona, Gila Pueblo		1 3
-3.2	LACM 5111m	Mammuthus sp.
0.7	LACM 5111e	Equus sp.
0.0	LACM 5118	Bison sp.
Idaho, American Falls		1
-10.2	IMNH 776/40368	Mammuthus columbi
-9.9	IMNH 72006/16103	
-9.3	IMNH 65003/23325	
-8.1	IMNH 71004/23690	

that the last grazing elephantids were the mammoths, which became extinct in North America in the latest Pleistocene (Stafford 1990).

Concluding remarks

Thus we are faced with a very intriguing problem. Both the *Elephas* and *Loxodonta* lineages go back about 5 million years to the late Miocene of Africa. Their initial appearance coincides with the worldwide expansion of the C₄ biomass from which they and contemporary gomphotheres fed almost exclusively. However, after the middle Pleistocene, both *Elephas*

and Loxodonta abandoned the diet that had served them well for their previous history and for which their teeth had become increasingly specialized. What mandated the change from C₄ grasses back to C₃ browse? Did the reduction of C₄ grasslands at the end of the Pleistocene due to changing atmospheric CO₂ levels (Cerling et al. 1998) force proboscideans back into the forests due to competition from contemporary hypergrazers such as the antelopes? Were forest habitats sought to avoid predation by humans? Are the supposed lineages of *Elephas* and *Loxodonta* incorrect, and do their presumed ancestors from East Africa and Asia represent open-habitat lineages that did not lead to the extant species? Whatever the reason, it is clear that from their initial appearance in the Pliocene or Miocene up to almost 1 million years ago, Elephas and Loxodonta were predominantly grazers, yet modern Elephas and Loxodonta are predominantly browsers in almost all environments. Perhaps the indication of a mixed C₃/C₄ diet in some regions, and the reports of C₄-dominated diets in a few other localities (Laws et al. 1974), indicates that both Elephas and Loxodonta are in the last stage of a transition back to being browsers from being grazers.

Acknowledgements We thank the government of Kenya for permission to work on the modern elephant samples and the Director and Museum Trustees of the National Museums of Kenya, Nairobi, for permission to work with the fossil material from Kenya. This work was done under CITES permit number US785963. We thank Michael Fay, Louise Leakey, Joyce Poole, and Jay Quade for assistance in collecting samples, the wardens and rangers of the Kenya Wildlife Service for assistance, Richard Leakey for encouragement to do this study, and James Ehleringer for discussions and access to the SIRFER laboratory. We also thank the late Mary Leakey and Jonathan Leakey for kind hospitality during the course of this study.

References

- Beden M (1983) Family Elephantidae. In: Harris JM (ed) The fossil ungulates: Proboscidea, Perissodactyla, and Suidae, Koobi Fora Research Project, vol 2. Clarendon, Oxford, pp 40–129
- Bocherens H, Fizet M, Mariotti A, Gangloff RA, Burns JA (1994) Contribution of isotopic biogeochemistry (¹³C, ¹⁵N, O) to the paleoecology of mammoths (*Mammuthus primigenius*). Hist Biol 7:187–202
- Bocherens H, Pacaud G, Lazarev PA, Mariotti A (1996a) Stable isotope abundances ¹³C, ¹⁵N) in collagen and soft tissues from Pleistocene mammals from Yakutia: implications for the palaeobiology of the Mammoth Steppe. Palaeogeogr Palaeoclimatol Palaeoecol 126:31–44
- Bocherens H, Koch PL, Mariotti A, Geraads D, Jaeger JJ (1996b) Isotope biogeochemistry of mammalian enamel from African Pleistocene hominid sites. Palaios 11:306–318
- Cerling TE, Harris JM (1999) Carbon isotope fractionation between diet and bioapatite in ungulate mammals and implications for ecological and paleoecological studies. Oecologia 120:347–363
- Cerling TE, Harris JM, MacFadden BJ, Leakey MG, Quade J, Eisenmann V, Ehleringer JR (1997) Global change through the Miocene/Pliocene boundary. Nature 389:153–158
- Cerling TE, Ehleringer JR, Harris JM (1998) Carbon dioxide starvation, the development of C₄ ecosystems, and mammalian evolution. Phil Trans R Soc Lond B 353:159–171
- DeNiro MJ, Epstein S (1978) Influence of diet on the distribution of carbon isotopes in animals. Geochim Cosmochim Acta 42:495–506
- Dublin HT (1995) Vegetation dynamics in the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem: the role of elephants, fire, and other factors. In: Sinlair ARE, Arcese P (eds) Serengeti II: dynamics, management, and conservation of an ecosystem. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp 71–90
- Farquhar GD, Ehleringer JR, Hubrick KT (1989) Carbon isotopic discrimination and photosynthesis, Annu Rev Plant Physiol Mol Biol 40:503–537
- Jachman H, Bell RHV (1985) Utilization by elephants of the Brachystegia woodlands of the Kasungu National Park, Malawi. Afr J Ecol 23:245–258
- Kingdon J (1979) East African mammals: an atlas of evolution in africa. vol IIIB. Large mammals. University of Chicago Press, Chicago
- Koch PL, Heisinger J, Moss C, Carlson RW, Fogel ML, Behrensmeyer AK (1995) Isotopic tracking of change in diet and habitat use in African elephants. Science 267:1340–1343
- Lamprey HF, Glover PE, Turner MIM, Bell RHV (1967) Invasion of the Serengeti National Park by elephants. East Afr Wildl J 5:151–166
- Laws RM, Parker ISC, Johnstone RCB (1974) Elephants and their habitats: the ecology of elephants in North Bunyoro, Uganda. Clarendon, Oxford
- Lee-Thorp J, Merwe NJ van der (1987) Carbon isotope analysis of fossil bone apatite. South Afr J Sci 83:712–715
- Maglio VJ (1973) Origin and evolution of the Elephantidae. Trans Am Phil Soc 63:148

- Merwe NJ van der, Medina E (1991) The canopy effect, carbon isotope ratios and foodwebs in Amazonia. J Archaeol Sci 18:249–259
- Merwe NJ van der, Vogel JC (1978) ¹³C content of human collagen as a measure of prehistoric diet in woodland North America. Nature 276:815–186
- Merwe NJ van der, Lee-Thorp JA, Bell RHV (1988) Carbon isotopes as indicators of elephant diets and African environments. Afr J Ecol 26:163–172
- Merwe NJ van der, Lee-Thorp JA, Thackeray JF, Hall-Martin A, Kruger FJ, Coetzee H, Bell RHV, Lindeque M (1990) Source area determination of elephant ivory by isotopic analysis. Nature 346:744–746
- Morgan ME, Kingston JD, Marino BD (1994) Carbon isotope evidence for the emergence of C₄ plants in the Neogene from Pakistan and Kenya. Nature 367:162–165
- Moss C (1988) Elephant memories: thirteen years in the life of an elephant family. Morrow, New York
- Norton-Griffiths M (1979) The influence of grazing, browsing, and fire on the vegetation dynamics of the Serengeti. In: Sinclair ARE, Norton-Griffiths M (eds) Serengeti: dynamics of an ecosystem. University Chicago Press, Chicago, pp 310–352
- Quade J, Cerling TE, Barry JC, Morgan ME, Pilbeam DR, Chivas AR, Lee-Thorp JA, Merwe NJ van der (1992) A 16-Ma record of paleodiet using carbon and oxygen isotopes in fossil teeth from Pakistan. Chem Geol 94:183–192
- Stafford TW (1990) Late Pleistocene megafauna extinctions and the Clovis culture: absolute ages based on accelerator ¹⁴C dating of skeletal remains. In: Agenbroad LD, Mead JI, Nelson LW (eds) Megafauna and man: discovery of America's heartland. Northern Arizona University Press, Flagstaff, pp 118–122
- Stern LA, Johnson GD, Chamberlain CP (1994) Carbon isotope signature of environmental change found in fossil ratite egg-shells from a South Asian Neogene sequence. Geology 22:419–422
- Sukumar R, Ramesh R (1992) Stable carbon isotope ratios in Asian elephant collagen: implications for dietary studies. Oecologia 91:536–539
- Sukumar R, Ramesh R (1995) Elephant foraging: is browse or grass more important? In: Daniel JC, Datye H (eds) A week with elephants. Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp 368–374
- Sukumar R, Bhattacharya SK, Krishnamurthy RV (1987) Carbon isotope evidence for different feeding patterns in an Asian elephant population. Curr Sci 56:11–14
- Tangley L (1997) In search of Africa's forgotten forest elephant. Science 275:1417–1419
- Tieszen LL, Boutton TW, Ottichilo WK, Nelson DE, Brandt DH (1989) An assessment of long-term food habits of Tsavo elephants based on stable carbon and nitrogen isotope ratios of bone collagen. Afr J Ecol 27:219–226
- Vogel JC, Talma AS, Hall-Martin AJ, Viljoen PJ (1990a) Carbon and nitrogen isotopes in elephants. South Afr J Sci 86:147–150
- Vogel JC, Eglinton B, Auret JM (1990b) Isotope fingerprints in elephant bone and ivory. Nature 346:747–749
- Wang Y, Cerling TE (1994) A model of fossil tooth enamel and bone diagenesis: implications for stable isotope studies and paleoenvironment reconstruction. Palaeogeor Palaeoclimatol Palaeoecol 107:281–289