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1 Geochronology and physical context of Oldowan site formation at Kanjera South, Kenya.

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Abstract

3 Oldowan sites in primary geologic context are rare in the archaeological record. Here we

4 describe the depositional environment of Oldowan occurrences at Kanjera South, Kenya, based

5 on field descriptions and granulometric analysis. Excavations there have recovered a large

Oldowan artefact sample as well as the oldest substantial sample of archaeological fauna. The
 deposits at Kanjera South consist of 30 m of fluvial, colluvial, and lacustrine sediments.

Magneto- and bio-stratigraphy indicate the Kanjera South Member of the Kanjera Formation was

9 deposited between 2.3 and 1.92 million years ago (Ma), with 2.0 Ma being a likely age for the

archaeological occurrences. Oldowan artefacts and associated fauna were deposited in the

11 colluvial and alluvial silts and sands of Beds KS-1 to KS-3, in the margins of a lake basin. Field

12 descriptions and granulometric analysis of the sediment fine fraction indicates sediments from

13 within the main archaeological horizon were emplaced as a combination of tractional and

14 hyperconcentrated flows with limited evidence of debris flow deposition. This style of deposition

15 is unlikely to significantly erode or disturb the underlying surface and therefore promotes

16 preservation of surface archaeological accumulations. Hominins were repeatedly attracted to the

17 site locale, and rapid sedimentation, minimal bone weathering, and an absence of bone or

18 artefact rounding further indicate that fossils and artefacts were quickly buried.

19

| 1 | |
|----|---|
| 2 | 1. Introduction |
| 3 | The appearance of Oldowan sites by 2.6 million years ago (Ma) reflects an important adaptive |
| 4 | shift in hominin evolution. Stone artefact manufacture coupled with large mammal butchery and |
| 5 | novel food and lithic transport and discard behaviours led to some of the oldest accumulations of |
| 6 | archaeological debris (Potts, 1991; Plummer, 2004). Whereas Oldowan sites are known between |
| 7 | ca. $2.6 - 1.7$ Ma from East and South Africa and from North Africa and Georgia as well |
| 8 | (Plummer, 2004), our understanding of the behavioural complexes leading to site formation |
| 9 | remains rudimentary at best. In part this is because very few sites include both sizable artefact |
| 10 | samples and well-preserved archaeological fauna. Moreover, it is sometimes unclear to what |
| 11 | degree the associated fossil and artefact assemblages reflect on-site hominin activities, mixing of |
| 12 | unrelated behavioural traces by geological processes, or palimpsests of activity traces from |
| 13 | different taxa (e.g., hominins and carnivores) (Dominguez-Rodrigo, 2009). |
| 14 | |
| 15 | At ca. 2.0 Ma, the site of Kanjera is particularly significant: Its Oldowan lithic and zoo |
| 16 | archaeological assemblages are among the oldest and most substantial known and both record |
| 17 | novel behaviours in an open habitat different from other, more wooded Oldowan sites (Table 1; |
| 18 | Bishop et al., 2006; Plummer et al., 1999; Plummer & Bishop, 2016; Oliver et al., |
| 19 | submitted).Hominins were repeatedly attracted to the site locale and alluvial and colluvial |
| 20 | deposition resulted in Oldowan artefact and fossil accumulations in an approximately 3 m thick |
| 21 | sequence. In contrast to other Oldowan sites (e.g., FLK-Zinjanthropus, Olduvai Gorge) the |
| 22 | Kanjera South assemblages document a suite of hominin behaviours that were not ephemeral, but |
| 23 | persisted over time. Here we describe the geochronology and depositional context of the |
| 24 | Oldowan site complex at Kanjera South, southwestern Kenya, focusing on the lithology and |
| 25 | depositional history of the Kanjera South Member. In particular, new granulometric analyses |
| 26 | have refined our previous understanding of the geological processes that formed Kanjera South |
| 27 | and document that this Oldowan locality provides a reasonably unaltered record of hominin |
| 28 | behaviour. |
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| 30 | |
| 31 | |
| 32 | ***************INSERT TABLE 1 NEAR HERE***************** |
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| 34 | |
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| 36 | 2. Physical setting |
| 37 | |
| 38 | The early Pleistocene Oldowan occurrences at Kanjera South (0°20'24" S, 34°32'16" E) are |
| 39 | found on the northern margins of the Homa Mountain Carbonatite Complex, Homa Peninsula, |
| 40 | southwestern Kenya (Figure 1) (Le Bas, 1977). Homa Mountain is located on the southern |
| 41 | shores of the Winam Gulf, a northeastern extension of Lake Victoria that lies in the fault- |
| 42 | bounded Nyanza Rift system (Saggerson, 1952). Volcanic activity associated with the mountain |
| 43 | began with doming of the central portion of the edifice in the late Miocene and shifted to |
| 44 | peripheral vents during the Pliocene and Pleistocene (Le Bas, 1977; Saggerson, 1952). Today, |
| 45 | the heavily eroded edifice of Homa Mountain is 1754 m high, approximately 600 m above the |
| 46 | level of Lake Victoria. The mountain's lower slopes are incised by a radial drainage system |

1 exposing late Miocene through Recent sediments (Kent, 1942; Ditchfield et al., 1999; Pickford,

2 1984). Evergreen forest and bushes cover portions of the upper slopes undisturbed by human3 activity.

4

5 The history of paleoanthropological research on the peninsula is summarized in Behrensmeyer et 6 al., (1995), Ditchfield et al., (1999), Pickford, (1984), and Plummer & Potts, (1995). 7 Fossiliferous deposits outcrop at Kanjera in three areas, termed the Northern, Middle and 8 Southern Exposures (Figure 1). Initially, deposits in the Northern and Southern Exposures were 9 thought to be equivalent, though the stratigraphic framework was largely based on observations 10 made in Kanjera North (Oswald, 1914; Kent, 1942; Pilbeam, 1974; Pickford, 1987). As more attention was paid to the stratigraphy of the Southern Exposures some differences in composition 11 12 between the deposits in the north and south emerged, and separate bed definitions were devised 13 for each area (Behrensmeyer et al., 1995). Further work (Ditchfield et al., 1999; Plummer et al., 14 1999) indicated that no lithostratigraphic correlation existed between the North and South, and 15 that the Southern Exposures sequence largely or entirely predates deposition in the North. 16 Deposits in the north and south were provisionally designated Kanjera Formation (N) and Kanjera Formation (S), respectively (Ditchfield et al., (1999). The Kanjera North exposures 17 consist of a series of low mounds of less than 3 m vertical relief and include the type site of 18 19 Theropithecus oswaldi and the discovery site of some controversial anatomically modern human 20 fossils by L. S. B. Leakey (Leakey, 1935; Behrensmeyer et al., 1995; Plummer & Potts, 1995). 21 Magneto- and biostratigraphy suggest that deposition of the Kanjera Formation (N) began in the 22 mid to late early Pleistocene and continued into the middle Pleistocene (Behrensmeyer et al., 23 1995). Sediments were deposited at the margin of a small playa or lake, in fluvial, lake flat, and 24 lacustrine settings. 25 The Kanjera South deposits outcrop approximately 600m south of the Kanjera North location in 26 27 a small (50,000 m²), eastward-facing amphitheater reaching approximately 14 m above modern 28 Lake Victoria (Behrensmeyer et al., 1995). 29 30 3. Geologic context of Oldowan occurrences 31 32 The Kanjera Formation is located on the northern flanks of the Homa Mountain massif. The 33 country rocks of the Homa Peninsula consist of the Bukoben and Nyanzian metavolcanics and 34 other high-grade metamorphic rocks (Saggerson, 1952; Le Bas, 1977). The emplacement of the 35 Homa Mountain carbonatite system resulted in extensive fracturing and fenetization of these 36 country rocks. The Plio-Pleistocene sediments are distributed radially around the Homa 37 Mountain edifice and unconformably overlie Miocene sediments of the Kanam Formation in 38 some areas. 39 40 The Kanjera Formation is exposed regionally at Kanjera, in the Southern, Northern, and Middle 41 and Southern Exposures (Behrensmeyer et al., 1995; Plummer et al., 1999, Ditchfield et al., 1999). The oldest units, Beds KS-1 to KS-5, make up the Kanjera South Member and are 42 43 exposed at the Kanjera South locality (Figure 1). They have been the subject of extensive 44 archaeological enquiry (Plummer et al., 1999; Plummer, 2004; Ferraro, 2007; Braun et al., 45 2008;,2009; Plummer et al., 2009; Ferraro et al., 2013; Lemorini et al., 2014; Plummer & 46 Bishop, 2016). These beds are gently dipping to the north and are affected to a minor extent by

1 normal faults down-stepping to the north, and associated minor folding. The Kanjera South

2 Member is overlain unconformably by the beds of Kanjera North Member (Beds KN1-KN5),

3 which also dip northwards but are more intensively deformed by faulting associated with the

Winam Gulf graben. These members were previously informally referred to as Kanjera Fm (S)
 and Kanjera Fm (N) (Plummer *et al.*, 1999). Both Kanjera South and Kanjera North Members

6 are unconformably overlain by the Kanjera Middle Exposure Member (KME-1 to KME-3),

which represents a west-to-east directed alluvial fan sequence erosive into both underlying
members.

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3.a. Kanjera Bed Descriptions and Granulometric Analysis

13 The lithological sequence of the Kanjera South Member consists of colluvially and, to a lesser 14 extent, alluvially reworked pyroclastic deposits and lacustrine clays, capped by a local volcanic 15 sequence related to a late, peripheral, parasitic vent from the Homa Mountain Volcanic Complex. 16 It has yielded archaeological occurrences from the top of Bed KS-1 through to the lower part of

17 Bed KS-3.

18

19 The base of the Kanjera South Member, Bed KS-1, is a thick, poorly bedded, pyroclastic deposit.

20 This is at least 4m thick and its base has not been reached in any of the excavations or geological

trenches. The lowest visible part of this bed consists of very poorly sorted agglomerate with clast

sizes ranging from granule to large boulders (in excess of 1m diameter). These clasts are strongly matrix supported in a fine sand to silt grade micaceous matrix and clasts are largely sub-rounded,

with a tendency for the smaller pebble- to granule-size clasts to be more angular. The clast

25 population is dominated by igneous rock types associated with the Homa Mountain volcanic

26 complex. These range from coarse-grained ijolites to fine grained carbonatites. The clast

27 population also includes a significant proportion of fenetized, fine grained, Nyanzian lavas and

28 other pre-Cambrian basement lithologies. This lower part of KS-1 shows little internal

29 stratification whereas the upper part is more regularly bedded. This upper part shows discrete

30 beds up to 50cm thick, often delineated by pebble to granule stringers at the base of the bed,

which tend to be planar and weakly erosive into the underlying unit. These upper parts of Bed
 KS-1 show weak to moderate pedogenic alteration of the pyroclastic parent material with

- 33 occasional *in situ* soil carbonates preserved.
- 34 The overlying bed, KS-2, has a poorly-defined base and is often gradational from the upper part
- of KS-1. This bed is a moderately pedogenically altered and micaceous clay to gravel deposit

36 dominated by silty sand. KS-2 contains common granule to pebble grade clasts of local igneous

37 rock frequently arranged as laterally discontinuous stringers, often only a single pebble or

38 granule thick and typically extending laterally only a few centimeters. At several horizons in the

39 upper part of KS-2 there are thicker pebble conglomerates that form laterally discontinuous

40 lenses. These conglomerates are matrix- to weakly clast-supported and dominated by pebble-size

- 41 clasts of local igneous rock types. Pebbles are sub-angular to sub-rounded and show no clear
- 42 imbrication. The conglomerate lenses vary from 5cm to 30cm thick; they lack any real
- 43 channelization and show only very weakly erosive bases or no evidence of erosive bases. Lenses
- 44 occasionally show preferential carbonate cementation relative to the surrounding finer grained
- 45 material. The alluvial architecture of this unit comprises of broad, shallow, weakly defined
- 46 channels, or sheet flood type structures (Blair, 1999). Deposition via hyper-concentrated,

1 tractional and mudflow processes are inferred. Within KS-2 palaeosol development occurs at 2 several horizons but is spatially discontinuous and shows only moderate to weak development.

3

4 Bed KS-3 varies from a silt-rich, fine-grained sand to medium sand, with an often strongly

5 bioturbated base. The bioturbation is frequently accompanied by preserved large mammal

6 footprints and, along with other soft sediment deformation features, points to a wetter

7 environment of deposition. KS-3 also shows moderate- to well-developed palaeosols with in situ

8 carbonate rhizoliths as well as other pedogenic carbonate nodules. At Excavation 2, towards the

9 northern part of the Kanjera South exposures, a channel facies of KS-3 is exposed. This displays

10 clear cross bedding with mean flow directions to the north in a moderately sized (at least 3m

11 width) asymmetric channel, the base of which is marked by a thin, discontinuous pebble lag

12 marking an erosive surface into the underlying KS-2.

13

14 Bed KS-4 is a massively bedded grey to brown, plastic, poorly sorted clayey silt with occasional

15 pedogenically altered horizons with weak carbonate nodule formation and root marks. It contains

16 very few terrestrial fossils, but fish teeth, otoliths, and fresh water gastropods are relatively

17 common. No archaeological materials have been recovered from bed KS-4.

18

19 Bed KS-5 consists of beds of red brown, poorly sorted silty clay showing signs of moderate

20 pedogenesis alternating with bands of clast-supported pebble conglomerates up to 30 cm thick. It

21 has a gradational base and its top has not been observed at Kanjera South. In the southern part of

22 the outcrop the conglomerate beds become more restricted within steep sided channel features up

to 1 m thick and 2.5 m wide. These channels are filled with a strongly matrix-supported, well-

24 cemented, pebble conglomerate dominated by clasts fine grained carbonatite lavas and scoria.

25 These channel features are laterally traceable to the south where they are seen to pass into

bedded agglomerates associated with a local carbonatite vent sequence (see below).

27

28 In the southern part of the Kanjera South exposures the sedimentary sequence is overlain by

29 pyroclastic deposits and minor carbonatite lavas from a local, late stage, peripheral vent

30 associated with the Homa Mountain volcanic complex. These include several feeder dykes to this

31 vent. These dykes cross cut the Kanjera South Formation (beds KS-2 to KS-4) below the main

32 outcrop of the volcanic sequence. The agglomerate beds associated with this vent interdigitate

33 with the conglomerates of KS-5 to the west of Excavation 1.

34

In the northern part of the Kanjera South exposures the sequence is truncated by an erosive
unconformity, which is overlain by the conglomerates of the Middle Exposures Member. Figure
is a fence diagram showing representative logs of the above lithological units from geological
trenches and archaeological excavations in the Kanjera South area.

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4. Granulometric analysis

42 Particle size analysis (PSA) has long been an established technique in reconstructing the,

43 transport processes, depositional mechanisms and depositional environments of sediments (Liu

44 et al., 2014; Clarke et al., 2014; Amireh, 2015; Hassan, 1978; Friedman, 1979; Le Roux & Rojas,

45 2007). Due to the ubiquitous nature of sediments, the application of PSA spans an array of

46 environmental settings (de Haas et al., 2014; Dill & Ludwig, 2008; Dinakaran & Krishnayya,

1 2011; Bement et al., 2007; Guan et al., 2016) and time periods (Amit et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2 2011; Wang et al., 2015; Schillereff et al., 2015; Lekach et al., 1998; Houben, 2007; Gillies et 3 al., 1996). PSA has aided the current research by providing insights into the sedimentary 4 environments and palaeohydrology at Kanjera South, allowing existing palaeoenvironmental 5 reconstructions to be refined. 6 7 4.1. Methodology

8 53 spot samples were taken in excavations and geological trenches from beds KS1 to 5. Samples 9 were subject to chemical pre-treatment outlined by (Konert & Vandenberghe 1997) to isolate 10 discrete particles and provide evenly dispersed suspension (Liu et al. 2014). Carbonates were not removed using hydrochloric acid, as these were suspected to make up a large proportion of the 11 12 samples and be part of the original deposition. Analysis of samples was undertaken using laser 13 diffraction, with each sample run 5 times to ensure reproducibility. Laser diffraction is limited to 14 the analysis of the fine fraction (<2mm); this fraction will be discussed herein. A detailed 15 overview of the use of laser diffraction is given by Blott et al. (2004). The software package 'GradiStat' was used to analyse the results from particle size analysis, as well as to calculate 16 17 textural parameters in phi units. A detailed overview of the package and its uses is provided by

18 (Blott & Pye 2001).

4.2. Results

20 21 Particle size distributions are presented as size class divisions, due to the occurrence of 22 polymodal sediments (Figure 4); bed contacts are excluded from this representation. In KS1, 23 samples are composed of clayey silts with subordinate very fine sands. They are characterised by 24 a fine skew and poor/very poor sorting, with almost all of the sediment belonging to the 25 suspension load (Visher 1969). In KS2 there is a coarsening of sediments to silty sands, which are noticeably more poorly sorted than adjacent beds. Samples are very poorly sorted and fine 26 27 skewed, with higher percentages of coarse sand, suggestive of a more significant saltation load 28 during this period of deposition. Samples are also increasingly polymodal. KS3 sees a fining 29 trend from KS2, with sediments consisting of silty sand and sandy silts more likely to have been 30 transported through suspension. Poor to very poor sorting and a fine skew continue to define sediments in KS3. Sediments continue to follow a fining trend into KS4 with very poorly sorted 31 32 and fine skewed clayey silts. The fine fraction of KS5 shows similar characteristics, with the 33 exception of some samples that are composed of silty clays as well as clayey silts. Sediments 34 remain poorly/very poorly sorted. With the reduction of coarser grain sizes in this fine grained 35 units of this bed, some samples lack any skew, whilst some maintain a fine skew.

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5. Environmental interpretation

*****INSERT FIGURE 4 DISPLAYING PARTICLE SIZE DISTRIBUTIONS HERE*****

41 The sedimentology and lithology of the Kanjera South Formation provide a record of the

42 palaeoenvironments of its deposition. Previous interpretations of the Kanjera depositional

43 environments are shown in Table 2. The analysis presented below draws upon these previous

44 studies and adds further field and laboratory analysis, including the previously discussed

- 45 granulometric analysis of the matrix sediment (see Table 2 and Figure 4).
- 46

3

4 The lower part of KS-1 possibly represents the deposits of one or more relatively large flows of 5 remobilized pyroclastic material, likely as lahars (volcanic debris flows) based on the abundance 6 of clays and silts, as well as its very poor sorting and fine skew, in addition to the presence of 7 large clasts and boulders of a wide variety of Homa Mountain igneous lithologies. These most 8 probably moved from the Homa Mountain complex in the south towards a depositional center in 9 the north related to the Winam Gulf graben. These lower parts of KS-1 show little internal 10 stratification and no pedogenic development and likely represent rapid deposition. The upper parts of KS-1, which lacks the coarse conglomerate component (boulder-grade material), and 11 12 includes weak pedogenic development, represents intermittent reworking of the pyroclastic flow 13 deposits probably by ephemeral streams running across the landscape. KS-2 further develops this 14 latter style of deposition with more widespread and better-developed pedogenesis, indicating 15 wider temporal spacing between depositional events. Unconfined channel structures (with weak 16 erosive, weakly developed channel base structures) very poor sorting of the <2mm fraction (poorly sorted grain size assemblages in the >2mm fraction), multi-modality and fine-skew 17 indicates deposition is likely to have been dominated by intermittent hyperconcentrated-to-18 19 mudflow events of an unconfined nature (Pierson, 2005). Such flow events would have been 20 separated by periods of landscape stability with periods of pedogenic development, characteristic 21 of alluvial fan and pediment/slope environments. This is important to the interpretation of 22 archaeological remains deposited in KS-2, as this style of deposition is less likely to erode the 23 underlying surface, due to the relatively viscous nature and low shear stress bases (Pierson, 24 2005). This promotes preservation of surface archaeological accumulation, as surface objects are 25 buried rather than eroded (de la Torre *et al.*, 2017; Stanistreet *et al.*, 2018). In addition to this, 26 flow hiatuses may have been characterised by aeolian deposition and reworking of sediment, 27 which may have been subsequently reworked. Such reworking may account for the abundance of fine sediment, as well as the multimodal nature of grain size distributions (Vandenberghe*et al.*, 28 29 2013). Overall, the depositional environment of KS-2 is compatible with an alluvial plain setting. 30 31 KS-3 sees the transition to a wetter depositional environment reflected in the style of pedogenic 32 alteration and preservation of soft sediment deformation features (especially large mammal 33 pedoturbation), as well as the abundance of clays/silts and a very fine skew in the sediment. 34 There is evidence of at least one channel in the area, as seen from the sequence at Excavation 2. 35 This channel was at least 1 m deep and 3 m wide and preserved the partial skeleton of a 36 hippopotamid associated with artefacts. KS-4 represents a continuation of this wetting trend as 37 lake margin deposits transgressed from north to south over the area. Despite this, the lake system 38 was at least periodically dry enough for minor palaeosol development to take place within at 39 least two horizons in this unit. 40 41 Bed KS-5 represents a return to terrestrial conditions following regression of the lake, possibly

42 43 44

system.

45 The lahar deposit that defines the lowermost known extent of KS-1 would have been significant

mediated by local uplift associated with the activity of the nearby Kanjera South volcanic vent

46 in the local area and perhaps beyond. Because the main unstratifed body of the flow is at least

1 3m thick, it likely destroyed all standing vegetation in its path and modified some aspects of

2 local topography. The main archaeological horizon concentrated in KS-2 and uppermost KS-1

accumulated during the interval following the emplacement of the lahar deposits at the base of
 bed KS-1 and before the lake margin transgression across the area at the base of bed KS-4.

5 Stable isotopic analysis of pedogenic carbonates from these archaeological strata at Kanjera

6 South show a uniformly C4 grass-dominated signal that is further supported by the taxonomic

7 and isotopic analyses of the numerous mammalian fossil remains recovered from the site

8 (Plummer et al., 1999; Plummer et al., 2009). Kanjera South thus may have been a particularly

9 attractive locality for hominin activity during that time, with lake margin grassland on at least

seasonally moist soils supporting an abundant local fauna, and ephemeral streams supporting

patches of plants producing underground storage organs (Lemorini *et al.*, 2014).

6. Geochronology

14 15 A precise geochronology for the Kanjera South deposits is somewhat difficult to construct, due 16 in part to the resistance to known dating techniques of the igneous material recovered so far. Repeated attempts to date overlying volcanics using Ar-Ar methods have been unsuccessful. 17 However, a combination of palaeomagnetic and biostratigraphic studies using the abundant 18 19 mammalian fauna allow us to delimit the age of the archaeological deposits. The proboscidean 20 Deinotherium sp., the suids Metridiochoerus modestus and M. andrewsi, as well as the extant 21 genus of equid Equus have all been recovered. The earliest African appearance of Equus dates 22 to 2.3 Ma as does the First Appearance Datum (FAD) for *M. modestus* (Cooke, 2007). *M.* 23 and rewsi is known from 3.36 Ma - 1.7 Ma elsewhere in Africa and Deinotherium sp. is known 24 from deposits older than 1.5 Ma. These taxa indicate that archaeological materials were 25 deposited between 2.3 -1.7 Ma. Moreover, the Olduvai Subchron (1.922 – 1.775 Ma, Singer 26 2014) has been detected in the sediments of Beds KS-4 and KS-5 (Ditchfield et al., 1999). In 27 Ditchfield et al. (1999: 141) the Olduvai Subchron was mistakenly identified as beginning in KS-28 5, as the label for KS-4 was missing from Fig. 8. This figure should have shown Bed KS-4 29 extending from just below paleomag sample KJS 51 to about 20 cm above paleomag sample KJS 30 45. Thus, normal polarity paleomag samples KJS 45-56 are from KS-4, demonstrating that the Olduvai Subchron extended from KS-4 across it's contact with basal KS-5. The underlying 31 32 archaeological occurrences in Beds KS-1 to KS-3 must therefore predate the base of the Olduvai 33 subchron at 1.92 Ma, yielding a date of between 2.3 and 1.92 Ma for hominin activity. Given the 34 rapidity of deposition, it seems likely that the archaeological occurrences are closer to the 35 younger end of this time interval, with an approximate age of ~ 2 Ma.

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7. Analysis of site formation

38 In any discussion of archaeological site formation the central question to be addressed is the

39 extent to which artefacts and fossils are in primary depositional context. The answer to this

40 question determines the types of behavioural inferences that can be drawn from study of the

41 archaeological material. At Kanjera South it is impossible to determine whether the sedimentary

matrices were deposited primarily by alluvial and/or colluvial action given the lack of
 sedimentary structures in uppermost KS2. Field sedimentological observations coupled with

44 granulometric analyses of the matrix indicate the most likely environment of formation for KS-2

44 granulometric analyses of the matrix indicate the most interly environment of formation for KS-2 45 is an alluvial fan/pediment. Deposition is characterized by hyper-concentrated (ss. Pierson, 2005;

46 de la Torre *et al.*, 2017) and tractional, unconfined flow events (Blair, 1999). It is possible given

1 the fine-grained nature, fine-skew and multi-modality that sediments were partly deposited via 2 aeolian processes (Vandenberghe et al., 2013). Sedimentary structures are absent due in part to 3 *in situ* breakdown of volcanic materials from the Homa Mountain complex, which are altering 4 into clays. Where bedding structures are present and not obliterated by subsequent pedogenesis 5 they lack significant channelisation and thus tend to point more towards unconfined sheet flow-6 like processes. The planar to undulating, unchannelised nature of pebbly lags at the base of some 7 beds also supports this interpretation. Within the archaeological strata, most of the artefacts and 8 bones are outsized clasts compared to the enclosing sediment (Plummer et al., 1999). The 9 general low energy/fine-grained nature of the facies, coupled with evidence of mudflow to 10 hyperconcentrated flow and hyper-concentrated flows (notwithstanding minor conglomeratic lenses in KS-2), indicates that depositional processes buried an *in situ* accumulation of artefacts 11 12 and fossils. The general state of the archaeological materials, which show little weathering or 13 rounding, preserve good surface and edge detail, and include bones with a range of hydraulic 14 potentials strongly supports this interpretation (Plummer et al., 1999; Ferraro et al., 2013; 15 Lemorini *et al.*, 2014). Finally, the presence of thousands of non-identifiable bone fragments 16 less than 2 cm in length (Ferraro, 2007), which would likely have been winnowed away under a high energy flow regime, also argues against the bone and artefact assemblages being formed 17 through hydraulic activity. That these small fragments are not being transported from elsewhere 18 19 is indicated by their frequent association with larger bones bearing evidence of hammerstone 20 percussion. Given the above and taking into account the vertical distribution of materials, deposit depths, and estimated rates of sedimentation, deposition likely occurred over a period of decades 21 to centuries per bed burying stone tools and faunal remains at or very near their place of discard.

22 23 24

25

8. Conclusions

26 In summary, this paper presents the geological setting and lithostratigraphic descriptions of the 27 herein designated Kanjera South Member of the Kanjera Formation. Archaeological traces of 28 Oldowan hominin behaviour have been recovered primarily from the upper part of Bed KS-1 29 through to the lower part of Bed KS-3, with a significant concentration in unit KS-2. Analysis of 30 the sedimentary facies sequence and stable isotopic analysis of pedogenic carbonates within the archaeological sequence, point to a grass-dominated relatively low-slope environment, which 31 32 formed relatively rapidly on top of earlier lahar deposits. There is a wetting trend from KS-1 to KS-4, possibly indicating that the lake margin was moving progressively closer through time. 33 34 Traces of hominin activity in the area cease as lake facies transgressed from north to south across 35 the site as seen in Bed KS-4. Although there are weak soil horizons within the lake deposits in 36 KS-4 indicating at least periodic retreat of the lake, these have vielded no archaeological 37 materials. Granulometric analyses of the sediments indicate a sedimentary regime of 38 hyperconcentrated flows with subordinate mudflows, which would not have significantly eroded 39 or altered the surface on which they were deposited (Pierson, 2005; de la Torre et al., 2017). It is 40 notable that a similar depositional environment was recognized in Bed I Olduvai Gorge, 41 Tanzania where this interpretation has also been applied (Stanistreet, 2012). The sedimentology 42 and site formation processes of the archaeological strata at Kanjera South support the interpretation that the Oldowan assemblages represent a primary context accumulation from 43 44 which behavioural inferences can be reliably drawn. 45

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| Bed | Description | Palaeoevnrionmental Interpretation |
|------|--|---|
| KS-1 | Grey-brown silty, gravelly sand and sandy silt, with layers of hard $CaCO_3$ nodules. These preserve fine horizontal lamination and indicate post-depositional calcification. Clasts including granite, grey and red chert, some volcanic material and large biotites present in gravel associated with coarser sand. Some thin clayey silt beds in upper 1m. Bimodal grain size distribution of medium-grained sand and fine silt-clay | Deposition initially began as a flow of pyroclastic material from the Homa Mountain complex towards depocenter Nyanza Rift graben in the north. These deposits reworked by ephemeral streams running across the fan of the original pyroclastic flows. Possibly a near-shore lacustrine or wet floodplain environment |
| KS-2 | ~1.3m of orange and yellow-grey gravelly sand, with a thin patchy conglomerate. Contains fresh biotites, angular and rounded volcanic and basement clasts. Cross-stratification orientated 150-155 ^o (southeast). Variable cementation, locally very mottled with irregular limonitic staining | Fluvial channel fill, with deposition by anastomosing channels flowing with intermittent, diffuse, generally low energy flow regimes |
| KS-3 | ~60cm of homogeneous and massive light orange to yellow-grey sandy silt with some tuffaceous silt. Some horizontal orange mottling. Includes partial <i>Hippopotamus</i> skeleton. Ostracods and fish scales also present | Continuation of KS2, with a transition to a wetter depositional environment. Small channel present with more stable land surfaces |
| KS-4 | ~3.2m thick grey-green and brown clay, with some silty clay and occasional sandy clay in lower bed. Clays generally dense, homogeneous, calcareous and mottled, with occasional slickensides and soft patches of CaCO ₃ . Sandy clay channel feature 1.5m above the base, with root traces and reworked clay clasts. Irregular bedding contacts within the clays suggest pedobioturbation. Increased CaCO ₃ in upper half of unit; this occurs as vertical patches and small nodules. Pedogenesis evidenced by vertical cracking, decreased homogeneity of clay, and abundant nodules. Ostracods and fish debris in lower parts of bed | Very-low energy lacustrine or swamp deposition. Periodic sub-aerial exposure with some sub-aqueous deposition. Clays deposited either during the transgression of a lake or during the formation of a wetland system |
| KS-5 | ~2-2.5m of brown clayey sandy gravel, with matrix-supported grains and pebbles. Some resistant CaCO ₃ layers interbedded; abundant volcanic gravel and cobbles present in some of these. One limestone bed has plant stem and root moulds, whereas others are massive and caliche-like. Clayey sand and gravel beds generally massive and bimodal, with some grain-supported gravel lenses and abundant small CaCO ₃ nodules throughout | Fluvial deposition with a variable energy regime combined with pedogenisis and stable landsurface development |
| KS-6 | 2m of brown clay, grading upward to light-grey mottled gravelly clay and capped by an irregular, massive CaCO ₃ bed up to 40cm in thickness. Lower part has fewer CaCO ₃ nodules than KS-5. Upper part of bed has patches of gravelly and sandy clay, which are dark grey and have yellow streaks and mottling. Relatively pure clay with no coarser clast components | Continuation of KS5. Wet conditions, possibly near a spring or other source of calcium-saturated water |

5 Table 2. Summary of bed descriptions and environmental interpretations for the Kanjera South area based on observations in this 6 study and previously published descriptions from Behrensmeyer *et al.*, (1995), Ditchfield *et al.*, (1999), and Plummer *et al.*, (2009).

| | Total | Macro-mammal | Macro-mammal | | |
|------|-------|--------------|--------------|---|-----------|
| Bed | NISP | NISP | MNI | Principal fauna (%NISP, %MNI) | Artefacts |
| | | | | Bovid (92.4, 72.0), Equid (4.4, 8.0), | |
| KS-1 | 982 | 975 (525) | 25 | Suid (1.5, 8.0), Hippo (0.2, 4.0) | 179 |
| | | | | Bovid (82.6, 67.5), Equid (11.6, 10.0), | |
| KS-2 | 2190 | 2153 (886) | 40 | Suid (0.9, 5.0), Hippo (1.0, 2.5) | 2533 |
| | | | | Bovid (77.9, 68.8), Equid (4.7, 6.3), | |
| KS-3 | 491 | 470 (172) | 16 | Suid (0.6, 6.3), Hippo (14.0, 12.5) | 171 |

8 Table 1: Excavated materials from Kanjera South. These samples were recovered predominantly from Excavation 1. 'Total NISP' 9 refers to specimens that were collected with coordinate data. Thousands of non-identifiable bone fragments <2cm are not included in 10 these counts, nor are fossils from the conglomeratic facies (CP levels of Plummer et al. 1999). Macro-mammals refers to animals 11 weighing more than 5 kg. Macro-mammal NISP values are total sums, followed by the sum of specimens identified beyond Linnean 12 class in parentheses. After Ferraro et al., 2013, Table 1.