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1	Dietary variation and overlap in Central and Northwest European Stephanorhinus
2	kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus (Rhinocerotidae, Mammalia) influenced by habitat
3	diversity
4	
5	You'll have to take pot luck!
6	(proverb)
7	
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17	Keywords: Pleistocene rhinoceroses; Stephanorhinus; dietary specialisation; mesowear;
18	habitat diversity
19	
20	Abstract
21	To trace the dietary evolution of the two abundant Middle to Late Pleistocene rhinoceros
22	species Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus in Europe over several climatic
23	cycles, we examined comprehensive material of stratigraphically well-defined
24	palaeopopulations from different regions and interglacials. Using morphometrics and

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25 mesowear analysis, these reconstructions of Stephanorhinus diets indicate that habitat 26 diversity and interspecific competition with closely related rhinoceros species induced 27 variation in feeding behaviour. Although anatomical features of both species suggest 28 significantly higher dietary specializations compared to the Early to early Middle Pleistocene S. hundsheimensis, their mesowear signals are characteristic of a mixed feeder diet, similar to 29 30 that of extant mammal species in relatively open habitats. Both species retained a degree of 31 dietary flexibility, enabling them to survive in a range of environments. Although each of 32 these rhinoceroses preferred different habitats, species identity alone is not sufficient to 33 establish the real dietary traits of a Stephanorhinus palaeopopulation. As a consequence, their 34 occurrence in a faunal assemblage alone cannot be taken to indicate a specific habitat.

S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus were embedded in a dynamic process of temporo-spatial replacements and interspecific differentiation of rhinoceroses in the western Palaearctic. However, dietary specialization in these Middle to Late Pleistocene European rhinoceroses was not the result of a directed time-transgressive evolution. Rather, within the range of each species' ecological tolerance, it was controlled by environmental parameters, with habitat variability as the main factor.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The reconstruction of fossil faunal assemblages can significantly contribute to our 44 understanding of the natural variability and evolution of past ecosystems and climates. In 45 particular, assessments of dietary requirements for each species and inferences to their 46 corresponding subsistence strategies have proved to be valuable methods for reconstructing 47 palaeoenvironmental parameters. In the case of herbivores, reconstructions of the vegetational 48 character of associated palaeoenvironments based on dietary signals may provide detailed 49 insights into the behaviour of different species, when corresponding palaeobotanical records 50 are not available.

51 Pleistocene herbivore communities clearly reflect fluctuations in global climate and resulting 52 environmental changes (e.g. Lister, 2004; Kahlke et al., 2011). Rhinocerotids in particular are 53 among the most significant ecological trace species of the Palaearctic (Zeuner, 1934; Loose, 54 1975; Guérin, 1980; Fortelius, 1982; Fortelius et al., 1993; Lacombat, 2006; Hernesniemi et al., 2011; Kahlke, 2014). Recent investigations have revealed that Pleistocene rhinoceroses 55 56 show an individualistic response to changes in the periodicity of environmental variation 57 (Raymo and Nisancioglu, 2003, Figure 1; Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005, Figure 4), resulting in 58 different evolutionary patterns between species. Thus, the subsistence strategy of 59 Stephanorhinus hundsheimensis, as the only rhinocerotid species of western Palaearctic 60 mammal faunas between 1.4/1.2 and 0.6/0.5 Ma BP, was that of a generalist. Its lifestyle 61 evolved under the influence of the relatively stable 41 ka climatic periodicity and proved to be 62 very successful also during the more unsteady climate course of the transitional interval linking with the following 100 ka regime (Kahlke et al., 2011, p. 1388). The dietary 63 64 variability of S. hundsheimensis ranged from grazing regimes to predominantly browsing 65 ones, characterising the species as the ecologically most tolerant rhinoceros of the Palaearctic Plio-Pleistocene (Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011). 66

67 A different path of evolution can be traced in the genus Coelodonta. From the Late Pliocene 68 onwards (Deng et al., 2011), its range was for more than three million years restricted to open 69 landscapes in Central Asia. Strictly progressive adaptation to efficient grazing enabled woolly 70 rhinoceroses to inhabit the pan-Eurasian tundra-steppe for the first time around 460 ka BP (Kahlke and Lacombat, 2008). This new type of biome originated during marine isotope stage 71 72 (MIS) 12, a long-lasting and pronounced cold interval within the 100 ka periodicity span. 73 During most of the subsequent warm and humid stages Coelodonta populations retreated from 74 western Palaearctic areas, only to re-occupy extended Eurasian territories as increasingly 75 more specialized grazers during the succeeding cold and continental periods (Kahlke, 2014).

76 Over substantial periods of the Pleistocene Stephanorhinus hundsheimensis and Coelodonta 77 species occupied huge territories of the Palaearctic. Members of both groups predominantly occurred as the only rhinoceros species of corresponding faunas, and their subsistence 78 79 strategies were principally different. However, at present it is not well understood whether a co-occurrence of two species of Pleistocene rhinoceros might have affected their dietary 80 81 specialization, and whether rhinoceros dietary flexibility interacts with environmental 82 conditions. Sympatries of closely related species are not uncommon in mammalian 83 communities (e.g. Jacoby et al., 1999; Hayward and Kerley, 2008; Li et al., 2008; Dammhahn 84 et al., 2013). Such co-occurrences of closely related species are durable only if intraspecific 85 competition is stronger than interspecific competition (Elton, 1927). Sympatric species tend to 86 reduce competition through differences in their use of resources, whether by focusing on 87 different resources, by using these resources at different times or at different intensities, or by 88 exploiting different habitats within the same landscape (e.g. Chase and Leibold, 2003). 89 Several extant rhinoceros species occur sympatrically. Specialised grazer Ceratotherium simum and the co-occurring browsing species Diceros bicornis have little overlap in diet 90 91 (Groves, 1972; Owen-Smith, 1988; Hillman-Smith and Groves, 1994; Codron et al., 2007; 92 Steuer et al., 2010). The browsing species Dicerorhinus sumatrensis and Rhinoceros 93 sondaicus, whose ranges overlapped in the past, avoided competitive interactions by using 94 upland resp. lowland habitats (Groves and Kurt, 1972; Groves and Leslie, 2011).

95 Here we investigate the subsistence strategy of two closely related rhinoceros species, 96 Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis (Jäger, 1839), the so-called forest rhinoceros, and S. 97 hemitoechus (Falconer, 1868), the slightly smaller-bodied steppe rhinoceros. Both species 98 occurred in most regions of the western Palaearctic during temperate periods of the Middle 99 and Late Pleistocene, sometimes allopatrically, at other times sympatrically. To trace their 100 dietary evolution in Europe over several climatic cycles we examined Stephanorhinus 101 material from palaeopopulations of different regions and interglacials. 102

103 2. Appearance and spread of Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus in 104 Europe

105 During the early Middle Pleistocene two new rhinoceros species, S. kirchbergensis and S. 106 hemitoechus, with different and more specialised feeding strategies, appeared in Europe to 107 compete with the previously unchallenged generalist Stephanorhinus hundsheimensis. After a 108 period of sympatry between 0.7 and 0.6 Ma BP, documented in the faunal assemblages of 109 several early Middle Pleistocene sites, such as Kolkotova Balka and Sukleya near Tiraspol 110 (Moldova), Mauer and Mosbach 2 (Germany), as well as Soleilhac (France), S. kirchbergensis 111 started to replace S. hundsheimensis in temperate faunas (Beljaeva and David, 1975; Guérin, 112 1980; Fortelius et al., 1993; Schreiber, 2005). S. kirchbergensis, an immigrant of Asian origin 113 (Guérin, 1980; Van der Made, 2000), was a very large animal with long legs, a high head 114 posture, and moderately hypsodont molars (Fortelius et al., 1993), indicating a diet with 115 significant portions of browsing.

116 Between 0.6 and 0.5 Ma, a second rhinoceros species, S. hemitoechus, appeared in Europe, as 117 recorded in the Mosbach 2 gravels (Fortelius et al., 1993; Hemmer et al., 2003). Its anatomy, 118 especially its relatively short limbs, the low-slung cranium, more hypsodont molars and 119 reduced premolar segment of the tooth rows compared to those of S. kirchbergensis, indicate 120 affinities to less forested landscapes or open grasslands (Guérin, 1980; Janis, 1990; Mazza, 121 1993; Fortelius et al., 1993). This is corroborated by the fact that it was especially widespread 122 in Europe under dryer and/or moderate to cooler conditions. The origins of both rhinoceroses, 123 S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus, seem to ultimately derive from the development of the 124 100 ka periodicity in the global climatic record, which led to a longer lasting environmental 125 continuity in the resulting biomes compared to the preceding 41 ka span of time (Kahlke et 126 al., 2011).

127 Alternating stages of prolonged colder and temperate climatic conditions resulted in mutual 128 alternations of *Coelodonta tologoijensis / C. antiquitatis* and *S. hemitoechus* populations from 129 the Middle Pleistocene onwards. When C. tologoijensis spread into Eastern and Central 130 Europe during MIS 12, S. hemitoechus retreated to Western Europe and survived there, as it is 131 recorded e.g. from Tautavel (Ensemble III) in France (Moigne et al., 2006). Both species co-132 occurred at the sites of La Fage (layer 5) in France during MIS 10 or 8 (Guérin, 1973) and Weimar-Ehringsdorf (Upper Travertines) in Germany during MIS 7 and/or 5 (Kahlke, 1975; 133 134 Kahlke et al., 2002). Stratigraphic sequences at the latter site indicate that S. hemitoechus was 135 replaced successively by Coelodonta. A similar alternation has been observed in areas of 136 Great Britain (Schreve, 2001a) and in the northern part of the Iberian Peninsula (Álvarez-Lao 137 and García, 2011). During interstadials and especially during periods of interglacial warming 138 the opposite happened: S. hemitoechus prevailed and Coelodonta disappeared from large 139 areas of Europe. However, under optimal interglacial conditions with extensive afforestation, 140 the steppe rhino was successively replaced by the ecologically more demanding S. 141 kirchbergensis, as far as the latter had access to corresponding areas.

142 During the Last Glacial Stephanorhinus withdrew from most areas of Europe to - probably 143 several - southern refugia. Both S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus became extinct in the 144 Western Palaearctic well before the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). Youngest finds of S. 145 kirchbergensis from the Grotte des Enfants and the Grotte du Prince (Grimaldi Caves) in Italy 146 are assigned to MIS 4 to 3 (Lacombat, 2005, 2006). The latest occurrence of S. hemitoechus 147 reported so far, from the Bulgarian Bacho Kiro Cave, approximately 42.542 + 1.068 cal. ka in 148 age (Stuart and Lister, 2007), may correlate with Greenland Interstadial (GI) 10 of MIS 3 149 (Van Meerbeeck et al., 2011). Supposedly younger Stephanorhinus finds of Azilian or 150 Neolithic age from Spain are dubious (Cerdeño, 1990; Sánchez et al., 2005; D.J. Álvarez-Lao, 151 pers. comm.).

153 **3. Material and methods**

154 **3.1. Material**

155 To achieve a reliable dataset documenting the history of dietary specialization of S. 156 kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus, rhinoceros palaeopopulations from two European regions 157 of different biogeographic location were selected. The inclusion of fossil rhino remains from 158 different geographic areas provides control over the effect that regional differences, such as a 159 reported geographic gradient in body size (Lacombat, 2009), may have on the results. We 160 chose Central Germany and the British Isles representing Central and Northwest Europe 161 respectively, because in both of these regions extensive fossil material of the two species from 162 a range of more or less well-dated faunal assemblages is available (Figure 1; Table 1). 163 Moreover, the dietary signals obtained here should not have been overprinted by the influence 164 of competing species, because all assemblages considered here have a similar fauna of co-165 occurring herbivores feeding on the same levels of vegetation as the two rhinoceroses, often 166 even at similar abundances (see references below). While episodes of co-occurrence of the 167 two Stephanorhinus species have been documented for earlier interglacials (MIS 11, 7), 168 during some parts of the Last Interglacial (MIS 5e) the species had a largely disjunct 169 distribution in the studied area.

170 In Central Germany, the rhinoceros remains from Bilzingsleben, Weimar-Ehringsdorf and 171 Weimar-Taubach (all in Thüringen; Table 1), were included in our study. The rhinoceros 172 remains of these sites originate from travertine layers. Bilzingsleben II (hominin site) is 173 related to one of the warm stages of the late Middle Pleistocene "Holstein-Komplex" (Mania, 174 1997, 2006; Heinrich, 2003), assigned by most authors to MIS 11 (Nitychoruk et al., 2006). 175 Schreve and Bridgland (2002) correlate Bilzingsleben II with the younger of two temperate 176 warm substages documented in the MIS 11 sequence of the Thames valley (UK). The fossil 177 layer of Bilzingsleben II formed within a very short and hence biostratigraphically 178 instantaneous time span, and produced a considerable number of individuals of both S.

kirchbergensis and *S. hemitoechus* (Figures 2a-b and 3a-b; Table 1; Van der Made, 2000), so
that sympatry has to be concluded.

181 The very complex Pleistocene sequence of Weimar-Ehringsdorf contains remains of at least 182 12 biochronologically distinguishable mammal faunas (Kahlke et al., 2002 and references 183 therein). The abundant S. kirchbergensis finds of Weimar-Ehringsdorf were recovered 184 exclusively from the lower and middle parts of the Lower Travertin (hominin layers, Mammal 185 Fauna 2), which reflect fully developed interglacial conditions (Kahlke, 1975: p. 385). The 186 stratigraphic distribution of Ehringsdorf's rhinoceros fossils (Figures 2c-d and 3c-d), as far as 187 accurate data on their discovery horizons are available (Kahlke, 1975: Figure 32), clearly 188 indicate the co-occurrence of S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus during the accumulation of 189 the middle part of the Lower Travertine (Fauna 2). Such sympatry is not repeated during the 190 later part of the Ehringsdorf faunal sequence. With the deposition of the upper part of the 191 Lower Travertine (Mammal Fauna 3) the kirchbergensis-population has been completely 192 replaced by hemitoechus-rhinos. Low numbers of S. hemitoechus fossils were also recorded in Ehringsdorf's Pariser horizon above the Lower Travertine (Mammal Fauna 5) and more 193 194 frequently in the Upper Travertines (Mammal Faunas 7-8), here either as the only rhinoceros 195 species or jointly with Coelodonta antiquitatis (Kahlke, 1975: p. 383). The stratigraphic 196 classification of the individual fossiliferous horizons of Weimar-Ehringsdorf is still debated. 197 The majority of biostratigraphic arguments (compiled in Kahlke et al., 2002; Katzschmann, 198 2007) assign the Lower Travertine with its Mammal Faunas 2 und 3 to MIS 7, without, 199 however, ultimate clarity. The correlation of the S. hemitoechus bearing Upper Travertines 200 either with MIS 7 or with 5e is also uncertain (Kahlke et al., 2002; Katzschmann, 2007).

The travertines of Weimar-Taubach inclusive of the Lower Travertine Sands, which produced the extended series of *S. kirchbergensis* finds (Table 1, Figure 2e-f), are confidently assigned to the Eemian, i.e. to the MIS 5e interglacial (Kahlke, 1977; Heinrich, 2003). Since the majority of Weimar-Taubach's rhinoceros remains are the result of Middle Palaeolithic killing and butchering activities (Bratlund, 1999 and references therein), they represent not just the immediate vicinity of the site within the water-rich floodplain of the river Ilm, but the more extended range of the human hunters. *S. kirchbergensis* therefore appears to have been the only rhino species present fully developed interglacial conditions in the Taubach area. The origin of a single *hemitoechus*-p4 from Weimar-Taubach is unclear; it probably derives from younger layers (Kahlke, 1977).

A range of rhinoceros fossils from the British Isles dated to MIS 7 and MIS 5e were studied (Table 1). Three rhinoceros species are recorded from the temperate deposits at Ilford (Uphall Pit; West et al., 1964) in the Lower Thames Valley: *S. hemitoechus*, *S. kirchbergensis* and a few specimens of *C. antiquitatis* (Schreve, 1997). The faunal material was collected from the Taplow-Mucking Formation in specific brickearth pits during the 19th century, although their exact provenance is largely unknown.

The sequence at Crayford (Scott, 2009), also in the Lower Thames Valley, shows great similarities to the Ilford sequence and has a similar research history (Bridgland, 1994; Gibbard, 1994). As at Ilford, the exact provenance of most specimens is unclear. The fauna from the Crayford Gravel underlying the brickearth includes *S. hemitoechus* and *C. antiquitatis*. The Lower Brickearth contained specimens of *S. kirchbergensis* and *C. antiquitatis* (Schreve, 1997). Amino acid ratios are indicative of an MIS 7 age for the temperate sediments at both sites (Penkman et al., 2008).

A temperate fauna, including a virtually complete skeleton of *S. hemitoechus*, was recovered from Bed 2 of the Lifeboat Station channel near Selsey, West Sussex (West et al., 1960). The channel is dated to MIS 7 based mainly on the composition of the mammalian fauna (Parfitt, 1998).

All three faunas are correlated with the late MIS 7 Sandy Lane Mammal Assemblage Zone
(MAZ), which is thought to reflect relatively continental climatic conditions (Schreve, 2001a,
b). Co-occurrence of *S. hemitoechus* and *S. kirchbergensis* can only tentatively be asserted for

Ilford, whilst at Crayford and Selsey only a single *Stephanorhinus* species is documented in
each assemblage. However, these sites date from the same temperate stage, and both species
have been found co-occurring at other Sandy Lane MAZ sites (e.g. West Thurrock,
Pontnewydd; Green, 1984; Schreve et al., 2006). Both species were therefore present during
MIS 7 and may have interacted. Below, these samples are collectively referred to as the
'British MIS 7 *S. hemitoechus*' or 'British MIS 7 *S. kirchbergensis*' sample.

237 For MIS 5e, six sites were chosen based on the reported presence of rhinoceros material in 238 good condition. The Last Interglacial faunal assemblage from Victoria Cave was collected 239 from the Hyaena Bone Bed within the Lower Cave Earth (Lord et al., 2007). Inside the cave, 240 it is overlain by a thin flowstone, which started forming relatively late in the interglacial 241 (Lundberg et al., 2010). The flowstone and calcite encasing a red deer antler from the Hyaena 242 Bone Bed was dated directly by U-series and TIMS to the Last Interglacial (Gascoyne et al., 243 1981: p. 654; Gilmour et al., 2007: p. 795; Lundberg et al., 2010). In Kirkdale Cave the 244 fossiliferous deposit is reported to have been of homogeneous character, with a depth of about 245 30 cm (Dawkins, 1874; Boylan, 1981). A flowstone on top of this bone bed was dated by U-246 series to the Last Interglacial (McFarlane and Ford, 1998). A number of specimens that are 247 labelled as coming from Kirkdale Cave have very different preservation characteristics from 248 the main collections. These specimens are excluded here. Based on faunal composition, the 249 site is correlated with the climatic optimum of the Ipswichian (MIS 5e). The fossiliferous 250 layer at Raygill Fissure (Davis, 1880) was correlated with *Hippopotamus*-bearing Ipswichian 251 clay in the Leeds area (Earp, 1961). The fossiliferous deposit in Joint Mitnor Cave (Figure 3e-252 f) is dated to the Ipswichian based on faunal content (Sutcliffe, 1960). The Great Bone Bed in 253 Tornewton Cave can be correlated to the Hyaena Stratum of later excavations (Sutcliffe and 254 Zeuner, 1962; Currant, 1998). The age of the Hyaena Stratum is bracketed by two TIMS dates 255 of ca. 134 and 98 ka BP on stalagmite, although some authors regard the fauna as dating from 256 a later part of MIS 5 based on pollen and faunal composition (Gilmour et al., 2007).

A single fluvial site, Barrington, was included (Figure 3g-h). Channel infills, known as the
Barrington Beds, were exposed in quarries, and produced mammalian remains (Sparks, 1952).
Based on the composition of the mammal fauna, the Barrington Beds are ascribed to the
Ipswichian (Gibbard and Stuart, 1975).

261 All six Ipswichian sites considered produced remains of a single rhinoceros species, 262 Stephanorhinus hemitoechus. No S. kirchbergensis remains have been recovered from any 263 Last Interglacial sites in the British Isles even though rich faunal assemblages are available 264 from a range of depositional contexts dated to different phases of the interglacial. We 265 therefore here assume that S. kirchbergensis was absent from or extremely rare in the British 266 Isles during MIS 5e (Van Asperen, in prep.). Since all the above-mentioned British MIS 5e 267 sites, except for the lowland site of Barrington, come from upland areas, they are collectively 268 referred to as the 'British MIS 5e upland' sample in the DFA. The lowland sample from 269 Barrington is analyzed separately. In all other analyses, all British MIS 5e sites are collated 270 into a single sample.

271

[Insert here: Figure 1. Sites with remains of late Middle to Late Pleistocene *Stephanorhinus*palaeopopulations studied for dietary signature (in the order of appearance in the text, see
section 3.1.): 1 - Bilzingsleben II; 2 - Weimar-Ehringsdorf; 3 - Weimar-Taubach; 4 - Ilford; 5
- Crayford; 6 - Selsey; 7 - Victoria Cave; 8 - Kirkdale Cave; 9 - Raygill Fissure; 10 - Joint
Mitnor Cave; 11 - Tornewton Cave; 12 - Barrington.

277 Figure 2. Tooth rows of *Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis*, occlusal and buccal views; a and b.

278 Bilzingsleben (no. 388-163, P2-M3 sin); c and d. Weimar-Ehringsdorf (IQW 1965-3440 (Ehr.

279 4089) and IQW 1965-3377 (Ehr. 10072), P2-M2 dex); e and f. Taubach (IQW 1968-10692

280 (Taub. 2632...2639), P3-M3 dex).

Figure 3. Teeth of *Stephanorhinus hemitoechus*, occlusal and buccal views; a and b.
Bilzingsleben (no. 663-4; M2 sin); c-d. Weimar-Ehringsdorf (IQW 1965-318 (Ehr. 3410), M2

dex); e-f. Joint Mitnor Cave (P36774, M1 sin; courtesy of Torquay Museum); g-h. Barrington

284 (BGS GSM779, M2 sin; courtesy of the Geological Survey Museum, Keyworth).]

[Insert here: Table 1. Minimum number of individuals (MNI) represented by the material of *Stephanorhinus* studied; abbreviations in [] used in Figures]

287

288 **3.2. Morphometrics**

Due to differences in size and morphology, it is usually relatively straightforward to distinguish skeletal elements of *S. kirchbergensis* and *S. hemitoechus*, although a degree of overlap occurs (Staesche, 1941; Fortelius et al., 1993; Mazza, 1993; Van der Made, 2000; Lacombat, 2005, 2009). Measurements were taken and qualitative characteristics were recorded for the upper and lower teeth following Lacombat (2009), who provides a system of measurements that is modified and expanded from the work of Guérin (1980), Mazza (1988) and Fortelius et al. (1993).

296 Overall levels of sexual dimorphism appear to be low in extant rhinoceroses (Loose, 1975). 297 Dimorphism in cranial measurements has been documented in free-ranging Ceratotherium 298 simum (Owen-Smith, 1988; Berger, 1994; Rachlow and Berger, 1997). Although several 299 cranial measurements are significantly different between the sexes in Rhinoceros unicornis, 300 and to a lesser degree in Rhinoceros sondaicus and Dicerorhinus sumatrensis, dental 301 measurements are not (Groves, 1982; Dinerstein, 1991). To assess the impact of sexual 302 dimorphism on dental characters in Pleistocene Stephanorhinus, coefficients of variation 303 (CVs, standard deviation/mean*100) were calculated for the different samples, as well as 304 overall CVs for the two species. These were compared with CVs for the same measurements 305 on extant rhinoceros teeth. CVs provide a means of comparing the degree of variation 306 between measurements of different absolute sizes. CVs for the same measurements for 307 closely related extant species gives some indication of how much variability can be expected 308 to occur in fossil species (Cope and Lacy, 1995). Although CVs should be used with caution as indicators of biologically meaningful variables such as number of species and sexual
dimorphism (Carrasco, 1998, 2004), some trends can be discerned. Linear measurements of
mammalian dentitions tend to show little sexual dimorphism and have CVs between 5 and 10
(Gingerich, 1974; Yablokov, 1974; Gingerich and Schoeninger, 1979; Gingerich and Winkler,
1979). Sexually dimorphic variables tend to have coefficients of variation greater than 10
(Mihlbachler, 2007). Summary statistics for extant species and the Pleistocene samples can be
found in the Supplementary Data.

To examine the extent of the size differentiation between the two species, t-tests were carried out for lengths and widths of the teeth. Results for the tests were considered significant if $p \le$ 0.05. Only samples where $n \ge 10$ were included in the tests since these tests are relatively sensitive to small sample size.

320

321 **3.3. Mesowear analysis**

Mesowear analysis is a well-validated method that indicates wear patterns over a large part of the lifespan of an individual animal (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Rivals et al., 2007). Tooth wear in browsers, which consume mainly low-abrasive foodstuffs, is dominated by sharp cusps and high relief. In contrast, grazers consume more grasses, often with a higher amount of grit, both of which contribute to an abrasion-dominated wear pattern with round or blunt cusps with low relief (Williams and Kay, 2001). Relatively small samples (n>10) give reliable and significant results (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000).

The upper first and second molars were scored for mesowear on the buccal side of the tooth (Franz-Odendaal and Kaiser, 2003). The occlusal relief was scored as either high or low. Cusp shape was scored on the sharpest cusp as sharp, round or blunt. Teeth of very young (more sharp cusps) and very old (more blunt cusps) individuals were excluded to prevent any influence extreme wear stages may have on the classification (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Rivals et al., 2007). The rhinoceros assemblage from Weimar-Taubach reflects selective hunting of young individuals (Bratlund, 1999), leading to a reduced MNI for mesowearanalysis compared to total MNI (Table 1).

Scores for relief and cusp shape were combined into an overall mesowear score (0 = high and sharp, 1 = high and round, 2 = low and sharp, 3 = low and round, 4 = low and blunt; Louys et al., 2012). The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyse differences in mesowear scores between the samples. For those analyses where the Kruskal-Wallis test showed a significant difference, Mann-Whitney U-tests were used to investigate which samples had significantly different mesowear scores. An overall Mann-Whitney U-test between the scores for *S. hemitoechus* and *S. kirchbergensis* was also carried out.

344 Using the comparative dataset for 64 extant ungulates, compiled by Fortelius & Solounias 345 (2000), as a training set, a stepwise discriminant function analysis using Wilk's lambda was 346 carried out with the Pleistocene rhinoceros samples as ungrouped specimens. Mesowear data 347 for M1/2 of the Stephanorhinus hundsheimensis samples from the Central German sites of 348 Süßenborn [SUE] and Voigtstedt [VOI] (Kaiser and Kahlke, 2005; Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011) were also included as ungrouped specimens. Mesowear scores for the fossil assemblages can 349 350 be found in Table 2. Because the mesowear scores are not independent (teeth with blunt cusps 351 have low relief), variables entered in the analysis were % of teeth with high relief, % of teeth 352 with sharp cusps and % of teeth with round cusps. Species with problematic dietary data (the 353 'mabra' species of Fortelius and Solounias, 2000) were left out of further analyses (cf. Kaiser 354 and Solounias, 2003), and the conservative dietary classification of Fortelius and Solounias 355 (2000) was used. The accuracy and robusticity of the differentiation between the dietary 356 categories was investigated with jackknifed cross-validation models, using a single species as 357 ungrouped case while using the other species in the original dataset as a generator set for 358 calculating discriminant functions. Hierarchical cluster analysis with complete linkage 359 (furthest neighbour, squared Euclidean distance) was carried out on the same dataset to 360 investigate which extant species are the most similar in their mesowear signature to the

361 Pleistocene rhinoceroses. All statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package
362 for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.

363

364 [Insert here: Table 2. Mesowear scores for the fossil assemblages.]

365

366 Recently, there has been considerable discussion about the value of mesowear in determining diets of past herbivore populations. The question has been raised whether mesowear provides 367 368 a dietary signal or whether environmental factors, in particular the amount of dust or grit on 369 the foodstuffs consumed, influence the mesowear value. Kaiser et al. (2013) suggested that 370 mesowear is primarily related to diet, whilst the presence of dust particles on the food may 371 contribute to overall wear of the tooth (and thus exerts selective pressure towards 372 hypsodonty), but does not impact on the morphology of tooth wear facets due to the small 373 size of the particles and the relatively uniform distribution of this wear. Kaiser et al. (2013) 374 also showed that mesowear is not related to habitat. Loffredo and DeSantis (2014) found that teeth with similar mesowear values can display a wide range of δ^{13} C values. Therefore they 375 376 state that mesowear values should not be taken as indicative of individual diets, although they 377 regard the method as moderately reliable for assessing diet at population level. Like Loffredo 378 and DeSantis (2014), Ecker et al. (2013) found that there was no correlation between mesowear, microwear (Rivals et al., 2009) and δ^{13} C values for a range of herbivore species 379 380 from the site of Payre in southeast France, dated to MIS 8-5. However, Ecker et al. (2013) 381 inferred that these herbivore species maintain their browsing or grazing diet across different habitats, with δ^{13} C values reflecting differences in vegetation openness between e.g. river 382 383 valley and plateau. Differences between mesowear and microwear signatures can be 384 explained by the different timescales recorded by these two methods: while mesowear reflects 385 diet over a longer period of time (months to years), microwear records the diet over the last 386 days to weeks of an animal's life (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Rivals et al., 2007). In the light of this discussion and the clear correlation of mesowear with diet in extant species
(Fortelius and Solounias, 2000), we here conclude that mesowear provides valid information
on a species' diet, especially at population level.

390 The diet of extant rhinoceros species varies from grazing via mixed feeding to browsing 391 (Owen-Smith, 1988). The diet of Pleistocene rhinoceroses was equally diverse. Hernesniemi 392 et al. (2011) compared mesowear scores for the extant species Diceros bicornis, 393 Ceratotherium simum, Dicerorhinus sumatrensis, Rhinoceros sondaicus and R. unicornis with 394 scores for the Pleistocene species Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis, S. hemitoechus, S. 395 hundsheimensis and Coelodonta antiquitatis from the British Isles. Cluster analysis for the 396 scores on M1 and M2 grouped Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis with Dicerorhinus sumatrensis 397 and S. hundsheimensis with Rhinoceros sondaicus. Together with the somewhat more distant 398 Stephanorhinus hemitoechus, these browsing species were clearly distinct from the mixed 399 feeder Rhinoceros unicornis, which grouped closely with British Coelodonta antiquitatis in a 400 cluster which also contains the grazer Ceratotherium simum. Within-species variation can be 401 almost equally large. Mesowear analysis of two samples of early Middle Pleistocene S. 402 hundsheimensis from the Central German sites of Süßenborn and Voigtstedt showed this 403 species had a wide dietary range (Kaiser and Kahlke, 2005; Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011) varying 404 from moderate grazing to non-specialised browsing with a high diversity of food items.

405

406 **4. Results**

407 **4.1. Absolute size**

The teeth of the two *Stephanorhinus* species are similar in shape but differ in size. T-tests are significant for all upper and lower lengths and widths (Table 3). Scatterplots of width versus length show two clusters, with varying but small degrees of overlap (Figure 4). Overall, the metric characteristics are congruent with qualitative traits; teeth with traits characteristic for *S*. *kirchbergensis* are mostly larger than teeth with *S. hemitoechus* traits. The teeth of *S*.

413	kirchbergensis from Bilzingsleben II are relatively small and overlap in size with the S.
414	hemitoechus teeth from the same location, although qualitative characteristics of the teeth, as
415	well as qualitative and quantitative data for the postcranial remains, clearly indicate the
416	presence of two species.

Van der Made (2000) documented a linear size increase of the lower third molars within the *kirchbergensis*-group from Bilzingsleben II via Weimar-Ehringsdorf to Weimar-Taubach.
Our data, which includes the British MIS 7 *S. kirchbergensis* teeth and larger samples for the
German sites, confirm this trend (Figure 5).

- 421
- 422 [Insert here: Table 3. Table 3. Results of t-tests for dental measurements of *S. hemitoechus*423 and *S. kirchbergensis*.
- Figure 4. Scatterplots of width (L10/L9) vs. length (L2) for a. M2; b. m2; abbreviations: see
 Table 1.

426 Figure 5. Mean values for the width of the posterior lobe of m1, m2 and m3 of *S*.
427 *kirchbergensis* from German late Middle Pleistocene sites.]

428

429 **4.2. Coefficient of variation**

430 73% of measurements of the upper and lower dentition of both extant and Pleistocene 431 rhinoceroses have CVs below 10. In the upper dentitions, some measurements for extant 432 Ceratotherium simum are relatively high, particularly on M2. The maximum length of the 433 crochet (L6) in the upper teeth is a highly variable qualitative characteristic, which is also 434 small in absolute size. Similarly, the two measurements in the lower teeth that are small in 435 absolute size (minimum height of the anterior and posterior valleys, L6 and L5) range widely, 436 more than half having a CV higher than 15. It is a well-known phenomenon for measurements 437 of small absolute size to have relatively high coefficients of variation (Yablokov, 1974; MacFadden, 1989). Partly this is caused by the stronger impact of measurement error on 438

smaller variables, although in the case of L6 in the upper dentition it reflects a high level of
natural variation in this characteristic. CVs for measurements with small sample sizes are
somewhat higher than those for larger samples.

442

443 **4.3. Mesowear**

An overall Mann-Whitney U-test for differences between the mesowear scores for the two 444 Stephanorhinus species is significant (U=3184, p=0.035). A Kruskal-Wallis test for all 445 samples is significant (γ^2 =13.023, p=0.011). Mann-Whitney U-tests reveal that the Weimar-446 447 Ehringsdorf S. kirchbergensis sample is significantly different from the British MIS 5e S. 448 hemitoechus sample (U=879, p=0.016) and the Bilzingsleben II S. kirchbergensis sample 449 (U=1012, p=0.005), whilst the Weimar-Taubach S. kirchbergensis sample is also different 450 from these two samples (British MIS 5e S. hemitoechus: U=256.5, p=0.050; Bilzingsleben II 451 *S. kirchbergensis*: *U*= 296.5, p=0.027).

452 The DFA has an overall correct reclassification rate of 72.2% (cross-validation: 64.8%). 7 out 453 of the 11 studied Pleistocene rhinoceros samples are classified as mixed feeders (Table 4). 454 The S. hemitoechus samples from the British MIS 7 sites and the MIS 5e lowland site fall 455 along the grazer axis (Figure 6). The other samples fall along a straight line, with the Weimar-456 Ehringsdorf S. hemitoechus identified as a grazer and with early Middle Pleistocene S. 457 hundsheimensis from Voigtstedt located at the extreme browser end of the spectrum. The S. 458 kirchbergensis samples align more closely with the browsers and mixed feeders, and the S. 459 hemitoechus samples cluster toward the mixed feeder-grazer end of the spectrum.

460

461 [Insert here: Table 4. Dietary classification of Pleistocene *Stephanorhinus* samples using462 DFA]

The patterns found in the DFA are born out in the cluster analysis (Figure 7). The main distinction is between a browser cluster, a number of mixed feeder clusters and a grazer cluster. The three browsing and one mixed feeding extant rhinoceros species are included in a browser-dominated cluster, while the grazing *Ceratotherium simum* falls within the cluster of the extreme grazers.

469 The British MIS 7 S. hemitoechus sample is the only fossil assemblage that clusters with the 470 extreme grazers. The remaining S. hemitoechus samples, as well as the S. kirchbergensis 471 samples from Bilzingsleben II and early Middle Pleistocene S. hundsheimensis from 472 Süßenborn, are linked most closely with a mixed feeder-grazer group of Artiodactyla with a 473 mesowear signature is characterised by a high percentage of teeth with high relief and round 474 cusps. The mixed feeder cluster that includes the S. kirchbergensis samples from the British 475 MIS 7 sites, Weimar-Ehringsdorf and Weimar-Taubach consists of cervids, bovids and 476 camelids with a high percentage of teeth with high relief, while a higher percentage of teeth 477 with sharp cusps is present than in the S. hemitoechus cluster. The Voigtstedt S. 478 hundsheimensis remains are in the same group as the browsing extant rhinoceros species (cf. 479 Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011).

480

481 [Insert here: Figure 6. Plot of scores on DF2 vs. DF1 for a range of extant herbivore species482 and Pleistocene rhinoceros assemblages; abbreviations: see Table 1.

Figure 7. Cluster diagram using mesowear variables for extant herbivores and European
Pleistocene rhinoceros assemblages; dots: extant rhinoceros species; arrows: Pleistocene
samples.]

486

487 **5. Discussion**

The overall mesowear signature of the studied samples of European Pleistocene *Stephanorhinus* indicates a predominantly mixed feeder diet (Table 4). Interestingly, the only

490 fossil sample that clusters closely with any of the extant rhinoceros species, at the browser 491 end of the spectrum, is the Voigtstedt S. hundsheimensis sample (see Kahlke and Kaiser, 492 2011). In comparison with the extant Asian and African rhinoceroses, most European late 493 Middle Pleistocene Stephanorhinus had a diet that was shifted more towards the mixed 494 feeder-grazer end of the dietary spectrum (Figure 6). Extant rhinoceros species therefore do 495 not provide the most suitable dietary analogues for European Pleistocene rhinoceroses 496 (compare Hernesniemi et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2013). The British MIS 7 S. hemitoechus 497 sample falls in the same group of grazers as *Ceratotherium simum*, characterised by a high 498 percentage of teeth with low relief. These grazers feed primarily on grasses, particularly short 499 grasses, in open environments, apart from Saiga tatarica, a mixed feeder that today lives in 500 the Central Asian dry steppe and semi-desert (Bannikow, 1963; Bekenov et al., 1998; Sokolov 501 and Zhirnov, 1998).

502 The remaining S. hemitoechus samples from Central Europe, as well as the S. kirchbergensis 503 sample from Bilzingsleben II and the S. hundsheimensis sample from Süßenborn, align with 504 the extant bovids Alcelaphus lichtensteinii, Boselaphus tragocamelus, Hippotragus equinus, 505 Hippotragus niger, Kobus ellipsiprymnus, Redunca fulvorufula, Redunca redunca, Syncerus 506 caffer and Tragelaphus strepsiceros, and the cervid Axis porcinus (Figure 7). This cluster 507 consists of grazers and mixed feeders living in a variety of environments ranging from 508 floodplains and savannahs to open woodlands. The S. kirchbergensis samples from the British 509 MIS 7 sites, Weimar-Ehringsdorf and Weimar-Taubach fall most closely to the extant cervids 510 Axis axis and Cervus unicolor, the bovids Aepyceros melampus, Ammodorcas clarkei, 511 Litocranius walleri, Ourebia ourebi, Tetracerus quadricornis and Tragelaphus angasii, and 512 the camelids Camelus dromedarius and Lama glama. This cluster is dominated by mixed 513 feeders which incorporate a larger amount of browse in their diet. Most of these species live 514 in relatively dry areas of open woodland and grassland.

When comparing the dietary flexibility of S. hundsheimensis with that of the other two 515 516 Stephanorhinus species, it is clear that the former had a broader dietary range than either S. 517 kirchbergensis or S. hemitoechus, ranging from an extreme browser to a mixed feeder with a 518 considerable amount of grass in the diet. Our results therefore illustrate how the generalist 519 subsistence strategy of S. hundheimensis (cf. Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011) contrasts with the 520 more specialised strategies of S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus. There is a clear indication 521 of more browse in the diet of S. kirchbergensis compared to that of S. hemitoechus, whilst S. 522 hemitoechus had the ability to subsist on a diet rich in grasses. However, it is too simplistic to 523 describe S. kirchbergensis as a 'forest' rhinoceros and S. hemitoechus as a 'steppe' 524 rhinoceros, assuming a browsing resp. grazing diet and taking these species as indicative of 525 forested versus open landscapes. The 'forest' rhinoceros did not feed exclusively in forest 526 areas, and likewise the 'steppe' rhinoceros was not exclusively a steppe grazer. The analysis 527 of the dietary signature of these rhinoceros species in cases of sympatry and allopatry clearly 528 demonstrates that their feeding traits, within a certain range of variation, relate to the characteristics of available food resources, which in turn reflect the range of habitats present 529 530 in the regions considered during the Middle and Late Pleistocene interglacials.

531 The S. hemitoechus samples studied here do not appear in stratigraphic order in the DFA and 532 the dendrogram (Figures 6 and 7). In the S. kirchbergensis samples, there is an increase in the 533 size of the dentition, especially the m3 (Figure 5), and a weak trend towards a larger 534 proportion of browse in the diet (Figure 6). The increased size of the dentition in S. 535 kirchbergensis could find an explanation in the fact that in herbivores the dimensions of the 536 teeth are related to the quantity and quality of the food. Larger occlusal surfaces enable more 537 effective mastication of food (e.g. Janis, 1976, 1988; Van der Made, 2010; Anders and Von 538 Koenigswald, 2013), providing a selective advantage when the proportion of low quality food 539 resources in the diet increases. For the hindgut fermenter S. kirchbergensis, an increasing 540 proportion of less-digestible browse in the diet may have necessitated a higher food intake (cf.

541 Steuer et al., 2010). However, dietary differences between the MIS 7 and MIS 5e *S.* 542 *kirchbergensis* specimens are limited (Figure 6). Thus, there is little indication for a 543 directional evolutionary process of increasing specialization of the two species as grazer resp. 544 browser during the timespan considered. Instead, the individuals of the considered 545 palaeopopulations reacted to changing environmental conditions within the limits of their 546 feeding abilities.

547 The Bilzingsleben II samples present a suitable starting point for deciphering the relationships 548 between the Stephanorhinus mesowear record, environmental factors and competitive 549 interactions between the two species. The great similarity of the dietary traits of co-occurring 550 S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus individuals from this site must be explained by a high 551 degree of spatial and temporal uniformity of food resources available to both species. 552 Although the botanical evidence from the fossil layer of the *Stephanorhinus* remains is not 553 sufficient for a detailed reconstruction of the contemporaneous vegetation (Erd, 1997), the 554 geographic position of the site explains the apparent low habitat diversity of the region under 555 fully developed interglacial (MIS 11) conditions. Bilzingsleben II lies within an area known 556 as the 'Zirkumherzynes Trockengebiet', a relatively dry region in the rain shadow of the Harz 557 Mountains (Figure 1). As is presently the case, during the Middle and Late Pleistocene 558 interglacials Atlantic low-pressure systems controlled precipitation levels in Northwest and 559 Central Europe (Kaspar and Cubasch, 2007). The mountains immediately northwest of 560 Bilzingsleben protected the region against the prevailing winds from the west. As a 561 mesoclimatic result, the area east and southeast of the Harz had a subcontinental climate, 562 which in combination with the uniform morphological and edaphic characteristics of the 563 region resulted in a relatively uniform vegetation pattern (T. Litt, pers. comm.). Based on 564 these geomorphological considerations and the interglacial character of the mammalian fauna 565 recovered from the site, which includes an abundance of large herbivores (Mania, 1991), the inferred vegetation consisted of subcontinental thermophilous woodland with rich 566

undergrowth (T. Litt, pers. comm.). Such a habitat has a relatively high biomass and
productivity in vegetation layers available to the rhinoceroses and other large herbivores.
Both rhinoceros species are present in nearly equal numbers, indicating that *S. kirchbergensis*,
which later appears to be a strong competitor, did not outcompete *S. hemitoechus* at this time.
This may be due to the fact that its teeth were still small relative to its body size, while *S. hemitoechus* benefited from its smaller body size.

573 Compared to Bilzingsleben II, the dietary signals of the two Stephanorhinus species from 574 Weimar-Ehringsdorf (MIS 7/5e) are significantly more differentiated (Figure 6). The latter 575 fossil site is located in a wetter region of the central German Thuringian Basin, on the flank of 576 a tectonic graben forming the valley of the River Ilm. The abundant floral remains from the 577 find layers of the Ehringsdorf S. kirchbergensis (Mammal Fauna 2) and S. hemitoechus 578 (Mammal Faunas 2-3, 7-8) specimens reveal a generally high diversity of habitats in the 579 vicinity of the site (Vent, 1974). However, in comparison with the lower and middle parts of 580 the Lower Travertine (Mammal Fauna 2; see section 3.1.), the Upper Travertines (Mammal 581 Faunas 7-8) experienced intensified subcontinental climatic influences. Due to this 582 environmental trend and the time-transgressive nature of the Ehringsdorf S. hemitoechus 583 sample (Table 1), a wide diversity of rhinoceros habitats is represented in the divergence of 584 the dietary signal. In particular, the relatively grazer-like signature of the S. hemitoechus 585 sample reflects the influence of the more subcontinental climate of the Upper Travertine.

The three British MIS 7 sites are all of fluvial origin, although the Selsey channel was of a smaller scale than the Thames River (Ilford and Crayford). The latter part of MIS 7, from which these sites date, is known to have been relatively dry and continental in northwest Europe, with somewhat lower temperatures than in most other late Middle Pleistocene interglacials (Ruddiman and McIntyre, 1982; Petit et al., 1999; Desprat et al. 2006). This part of the interglacial witnessed an influx of animals adapted to open environments into northwest Europe, whilst forest-adapted animals withdrew (Schreve, 2001a, 2004; Auguste,

593 2009). The British MIS 7 samples display the largest dietary difference between the two 594 Stephanorhinus species within the time span considered. In comparison with the Weimar-595 Ehringsdorf specimens, the British MIS 7 S. kirchbergensis sample is shifted towards the 596 mixed feeder end of the spectrum (Figure 6), whilst S. hemitoechus has the dietary signature 597 of a grazer. This indicates that the availability of browse was limited, in accordance with 598 other environmental proxies which are indicative of open environments in the British Isles 599 (Schreve, 2001a). Even though its optimal diet seems to have incorporated more browse (see 600 below), S. kirchbergensis was able to increase the grazing component in its diet, and be a 601 strong enough competitor to force S. hemitoechus to consume greater proportions of abrasive 602 foodstuffs.

603 During at least part of MIS 5e, the Stephanorhinus species show a mostly disjunct 604 distribution, with S. kirchbergensis occurring in Central Europe, whilst S. hemitoechus is 605 common in western parts of the continent and in the British Isles. Under these conditions, S. 606 kirchbergensis at Weimar-Taubach consumed a significantly higher percentage of browse than S. hemitoechus. The geomorphological characteristics of this site are similar to those at 607 608 Weimar-Ehringsdorf, situated only 2 kilometres northwest of Taubach, providing a similar 609 diversity of habitats. Nevertheless, the absence of the only other temperate-adapted rhinoceros 610 species and the diverse range of available foodstuffs ameliorated the environmental 611 conditions for *S. kirchbergensis*.

Of the British MIS 5e sites with *S. hemitoechus* fossils, Victoria Cave, Kirkdale Cave and Joint Mitnor Cave are all located on the boundary between an upland area and a lowland area, providing a diverse habitat of plateaus, slopes, valleys and floodplains. Raygill Fissure, and to a lesser degree Tornewton Cave are situated in a diverse upland landscape with plateaus, valleys and streams. In contrast, the site of Barrington lies in a lowland area with lower habitat diversity, with open environments along the river and possibly woodland further away from the active stream (Gibbard and Stuart, 1975). Although we studied only a single lowland 619 site and we cannot exclude that other lowland sites show a different pattern, interestingly,
620 these different levels of habitat diversity can be traced in the mesowear scores for these sites:
621 the upland samples are classified as mixed feeder, whereas the lowland sample is classified as
622 grazer, although it is not displaced towards the grazer end of the spectrum as much as the
623 British MIS 7 *S. hemitoechus* sample (Figure 6).

624 Since further environmental proxies are only available for the Barrington site, we cannot 625 exclude the possibility that these sites date from different phases of the same interglacial. 626 However, this scenario seems unlikely based on the fully developed interglacial character of 627 the faunal assemblages: the ecologically demanding Hippopotamus amphibius is recorded 628 from all sites, and other 'temperate indicators' such as Palaeoloxodon antiquus, Sus scrofa, 629 Dama dama and Capreolus capreolus are also present in the upland sites. Since the large 630 herbivore faunas from the upland and lowland sites are very similar, the difference in the 631 mesowear scores could reflect the availability of foodstuffs in the environment. A more 632 diverse habitat would have provided a wider range of resources, enabling S. hemitoechus to 633 subsist on a mixed feeder diet, whilst a more homogeneous environment with open grassland 634 forced the species to graze.

635

636 6. Conclusions

637 Stephanorhinus kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus were embedded in a dynamic process of 638 temporo-spatial replacements and interspecific differentiation of Middle to Late Pleistocene 639 rhinoceroses in the western Palaearctic. Both their anatomical features (see section 2) and the 640 obtained mesowear scores show significantly higher dietary specializations compared to the 641 Early to early Middle Pleistocene S. hundsheimensis. This is consistent with the idea that the 642 100 ka periodicity in the global climatic record caused a sustained environmental continuity 643 compared to the preceding 41 ka regime and thus promoted the development of more 644 specialized subsistence strategies (Kahlke and Kaiser, 2011).

645 The presence of the rhinoceros species considered here is often taken as a first indication of 646 the character of the vegetation prevailing in their respective habitats. However, our studies 647 demonstrate that species identity alone is not sufficient to establish the real dietary traits of a 648 Stephanorhinus palaeopopulation. The occurrence of the 'forest' rhinoceros S. kirchbergensis 649 in a faunal assemblage by no means indicates exclusively forested habitats. Similarly, the 650 'steppe' rhinoceros S. hemitoechus did not occupy steppe landscapes only. Instead, the 651 reconstruction of past rhinoceros diets on the level of extended samples from stratigraphically 652 well-defined palaeopopulations of different European regions sheds light on the impact of 653 habitat diversity and the effect of interspecific competition with closely related rhinoceros 654 species on feeding behaviour.

655 Whilst both S. kirchbergensis and S. hemitoechus had already developed advanced dietary 656 specializations compared to that of the "indigenous" S. hundsheimensis when they first 657 entered Europe, there is little evidence of progressing dietary specialization of the two 658 newcomers over the late Middle and Late Pleistocene. A moderate size increase of the molar 659 row in S. kirchbergensis over this period may have provided some advantage. The mesowear 660 signals of both species indicate a mixed feeder diet, similar to that of extant mammal species 661 in relatively open habitats. In comparison with S. hemitoechus, S. kirchbergensis generally 662 consumed more browse. Nevertheless, both species maintained a level of dietary flexibility, 663 with S. kirchbergensis including more or less browse in its diet depending on the quality of 664 the habitat, and S. hemitoechus shifting from mixed feeder to consuming more grass when 665 necessary. Although this indicates they preferred different habitats, clearly both species were 666 capable of surviving on a range of diets in a range of environments.

Low habitat variability forced *S. kirchbergensis* and *S. hemitoechus* to consume very similar diets, as is evidenced by the sympatric Bilzingsleben II populations. Increasing habitat variability correlates with an increasing degree of divergence in feeding traits both within and between *Stephanorhinus* species. At Weimar-Ehringsdorf, Weimar-Taubach, and the British 671 MIS 5e upland sites, high habitat variability was combined with relatively high precipitation, 672 allowing S. hemitoechus to consume its optimal mixed feeder diet, and S. kirchbergensis to 673 incorporate more browse. Low habitat variability pushed S. hemitoechus towards consuming 674 more grass even in the absence of S. kirchbergensis, as reflected by the British MIS 5e 675 lowland sites. This pattern therefore holds regardless of whether both species were co-676 occurring or only one species was present, although the disjunct distribution pattern during 677 MIS 5e appears to have presented optimum conditions for both species. However, in some 678 cases the impact of habitat variability on dietary composition was modified by the presence of 679 a closely related competitor. Thus, S. kirchbergensis from British MIS 7 sites, with low 680 precipitation levels, was able to survive on less browse, thereby displacing co-occurring S. hemitoechus towards a grass-dominated diet. 681

682 Similar patterns of dietary variation related to habitat characteristics and competitive 683 interactions have been observed in a range of other fossil species, such as Neogene equids 684 (Kaiser, 2003) and bovids (Solounias and Hayek, 1993; Merceron et al., 2004, 2006; 685 Kostopoulos and Karakütük, in press), Early and Middle Pleistocene Proboscidea (Rivals et 686 al., 2012; Rivals et al., in prep.) and Late Pleistocene cervids (Rivals and Solounias, 2007; 687 Rivals et al., 2010). As in the rhinoceros species with highly specialised feeding traits studied 688 here, these animals had a considerable dietary flexibility and adapted their diet according to 689 the availability of food resources in different habitats (Kaiser, 2003; Rivals and Solounias, 690 2007; Tütken et al., 2013).

For Middle to Late Pleistocene *S. kirchbergensis* and *S. hemitoechus* of Central and Northwest Europe, it appears likely that the diet consumed was not simply the result of a directed time-transgressive evolution. Even as specialists they retained a certain amount of ecological flexibility as part of their subsistence strategy. Rather, within the range of each species' ecological tolerance, diet was controlled by environmental parameters, with a particular role for habitat variability. Whilst these rhinos obviously had a preferred optimal

diet, in most cases they had to make do with what was available in their environment,following the timeless proverb "You'll have to take pot luck!"

699

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