

1 **Modern botanical analogue of endangered Yak (*Bos mutus*) dung from India:**

2 **Plausible linkage with living and extinct megaherbivores**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The study present to document the micro and macrobotanical remain on wild Yak dung to

13 understand the diet, habitat, and ecology in relation to determining possible ecological

14 relationships with extant and extinct megaherbivores. Grasses are the primary diet of the yak as

15 indicated by the abundance of grass pollen and phytoliths, though it is obvious. The other

16 associates non-arboreal and arboreal taxa namely, Cyperaceae, Rosaceae, Chenopodiaceae,

17 *Artemisia*, *Prunus*, and *Rhododendron* are also important dietary plants for their survival. The

18 observation of plant macrobotanical remains especially the vegetative part and seed of the

19 grasses and Cyperaceae also indicates good agreement with the palynodata. The documented

20 micro and macrobotanical data is indicative of both Alpine meadow and steppe vegetation under

21 cold and dry climate which exactly reflected the current vegetation composition and climate in

22 the region. The recovery of *Botryococcus*, *Arcella*, and diatom was marked though in trace

23 values and suggestive of the perennial water system in the region which incorporated through the

24 ingestion of water. Energy dispersive spectroscopy analysis marked that the element contained in
25 dung samples has variation in relation to the summer and winter which might be the availability
26 of the food plants and vegetation. This generated multiproxy data serves as a strong
27 supplementary data for modern pollen and vegetation relationship based on surface soil samples
28 in the region. The recorded multiproxy data could be useful to interpret the coprolites of
29 herbivorous fauna in relation to the palaeodietary and paleoecology in the region and to correlate
30 with other mega herbivores in a global context.

31 **KEYWORDS:** *Bos mutus*, dung, grass, pollen, vegetation, western Himalaya

32

33 **Introduction**

34 Recently, there has been an increasing interest in the study of pollen and non-pollen
35 palynomorphs preserved in herbivore dung and how dung can serve as a substrate for their
36 preservation. This added information on the plant community aids in better understanding the
37 dietary habits of herbivores in relation to local vegetation composition and climate in a region. It
38 also provides a measure as to how dependent herbivorous animals are on the availability of
39 different plant species within their habitat. The diversity of available plants and their relative
40 abundance, in turn, reflects the climate of the region. The study of the modern pollen deposition
41 on the landscape forms a critical dataset and a prerequisite to understanding the palaeovegetation
42 and climate in the region [1–5].

43 The systematic study of the relationship between modern pollen and vegetation in the
44 higher parts of the Himalayan Mountains is very difficult due to hilly terrain and limited
45 availability of soil samples. Consequently, it may not serve as a modern analogue that would
46 permit an accurate interpretation of the palaeoecology in the region. Previously, some workers

47 have only examined surface soil samples in order to understand the modern pollen and
48 vegetation relationship in the higher Himalayan region [6,7]. A complementary data set can be
49 provided by an examination of modern herbivore dung and which can also serve as a source of
50 modern analogues of local and regional vegetation [8–12]. It is clear that pollen and spores
51 incorporated into the stomach contents also reflect the composition of the vegetation in relation
52 to climate [13,14]. The distribution of herbivorous animals within an ecosystem is often
53 dependent on vegetation composition and its regional distribution [15–18]. Study of both
54 diatoms and phytoliths in the dung can also serve as a powerful proxy for palaeoenvironmental
55 reconstruction and recognition of the presence of domestic herbivores [19–24].

56 The main aim of this study is to document the presence of both the micro and
57 macrobotanical remains in wild Yak (*Bos mutus*) dung in order to determine the dietary
58 preferences of the species relative to the local vegetation composition and climate. Since large
59 animals may play an important role in the biogeochemical cycle of the ecosystem [15,25,26], we
60 have included in this study FESEM-EDS analysis in order to determine the relationship between
61 the elements contained in Yak dung derived from the current vegetation composition and their
62 dietary habits in the region.

63

64 **Study sites, vegetation and fauna**

65 The distribution of the wild Yak in India is very restricted and confined to higher elevations of
66 the Himalaya. For this study we have selected a region which is around 12 km north from the
67 Dronagiri village areas (Fig 1. a. & b.) in the Chamoli district of Uttarakhand (India) based on the
68 availability of the wild Yak and accessible terrain (Fig 2).

69 **Fig.1.** Field photographs a. Dronagiri village inhabited by Bhotiyas near Indo-Tibet border, b. A
70 view during winter snow fall,

71 **Fig. 2.** Location map of the study areas

72 Vegetation in the study area consists of Alpine meadow at lower elevations at 3300
73 meters and Alpine steppe at higher altitudes above 4000 meters (Fig 1. c., d, & e). Alpine
74 meadow vegetation is mainly composed members of the Poaceae, Cyperaceae, and Asteraceae.
75 Other associated taxa include members of the Polygonaceae, Onagraceae, Liliaceae, Rosaceae,
76 Balsaminaceae, Chenopodiaceae, Amaranthaceae, and Ranunculaceae which grow luxuriantly in
77 the region along with scattered shrubby elements, mainly *Rhododendron campanulatum*, *Prunus*
78 *armeniaca*, *Juniperus squamata*, *Juniperus indica*, and *Rosa macrophylla*. Ferns and their allies
79 including *Equisetum diffusum*, *Pteridium revolutum*, *Adiantum venustum*, *Asplenium fortanum*,
80 and *Lycopodium selago* are also common.

81 **Fig. 1.** Field photographs c. A view of Alpine meadow vegetation, d, & e. A view of Alpine
82 steppe vegetation.

83 Plants characteristic of the Alpine steppe include Poaceae, *Artemisia*, *Carex melanantha*,
84 *Caragana*, *Stipa orientalis*, and *Lonicera* along with scattered shrubby elements namely,
85 *Ephedra gerardiana*, *Haloxylon thomsonii*, and *Capparis spinosa* [27]. The Yak is one of the
86 mega herbivores found in the higher Himalayan region of southern central Asia, the Tibet
87 Plateau and north Russia and Mongolia; it is considered to be critically endangered (Fig 1. f. &
88 g.). Its preferred habitat is at high altitude, with a cool climate and generally it will tolerate
89 temperatures as low as -40°C [28]. The climate of the region is very cold during summer and dry
90 during winter. The maximum temperature ranges up to 12°C in summer and down to -20°C

91 during winter. Other associated herbivorous mammals in the region include *Hemitragus*
92 *jemlahicus* (Himalayan tahr) and *Moschus leucogaster* (White-bellied musk deer).

93 **Fig. 1.** Field photographs f. A group of wild Yak during resting time in Alpine meadow
94 vegetation, g. A group of yak during grazing in Alpine steppe vegetation surrounding glacier
95 point.

96

97 **Materials and methods**

98 **Field work**

99 In 2017, during the summer (March-July), the second author surveyed the site and collected 11
100 fresh/semi-dry Yak dung samples based on their size (Fig 1. f1), each consisting of
101 approximately 200g, from the different locations of the studied sites. Similarly, during winter
102 (November-January), another 11 dung samples of similar size were also collected from the same
103 areas. After the dung samples collected, they were packed separately in polythene bags to avoid
104 contamination before laboratory processing.

105 **Fig. 1.** Field photograph f1. Close up of Yak dung.

106 **Laboratory work**

107 The dung samples were processed for pollen using the standard acetolysis method [29]. Samples
108 were successively treated with 10% aqueous potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution to
109 deflocculate from the sediments, 40% hydrofluoric acid (HF) to dissolve silica, and acetolysis
110 (9:1 anhydrous acetic anhydrite to concentrated sulphuric acid, (H₂SO₄) for the removal of
111 cellulose. After that, the samples were treated twice with glacial acetic acid (GAA) and washed 3
112 or 4 times with distilled water. The samples were then transferred to a 50% glycerol solution
113 with a few drops of phenol to protect against microbial decomposition. Excluding the fungal

114 spores, 421 to 470 pollen and fern spores were counted from each sample to produce the pollen
115 spectra. The recovered pollen taxa were categorized as arboreal taxa (tree and shrub), non-
116 arboreal taxa (marshy and terrestrial herb), and ferns. For the identification of pollen grains, we
117 consulted the reference slides in the Birbal Sahni Institute of Palaeosciences (BSIP) herbarium of
118 Lucknow (India) as well as published papers and photographs [30,31].

119 For the diatom analysis, the samples were treated with concentrated hydrochloric acid
120 (HCl) to dissolve carbonates and then treated with a mixture of hot nitric acid (HNO₃) and
121 potassium dichromate to dissolve organic materials. The samples were washed with distilled
122 water 2 to 4 times and permanently mounted on a slide with Canada balsam for microscopic
123 observation. The number of diatoms in the summer samples was very low and not suitable to
124 make a proper diatom spectrum. No diatoms were observed in the winter samples. The phytoliths
125 were observed on the same diatom slide because of the availability and clarity in the assemblage.
126 Observation and microphotographs were done using an Olympus BX-61 microscope with DP-25
127 digital camera under 40X magnification. The identification of the phytoliths was based on the
128 published literature [32].

129 Statistical analysis

130 The statistical significance of the quantified data of pollen frequency obtained from the dung
131 samples was determined by SPSS 11.5.0, USA. A probability of p -value ≤ 0.05 was taken to
132 indicate statistical significance. The resulting data were imported into Unscrambler X Software
133 package (Version 10.0.1, CAMO, USA) for multivariate unsupervised PCA.

134 Macrobotanical analysis

135 For the macrobotanical analysis, 50 g of each dung sample both from summer and winter seasons
136 were gently boiled in 200 ml of distilled water to which 5% KOH was added. After boiling, the

137 material was sieved through a 150 µm mesh. The material was washed 2 to 4 times in distilled
138 water and observed systematically under Stereobinocular (Leica Z6APO) microscope, and
139 photographs were taken with a Leica DFC295 camera. Identifications were made through the
140 consultation of published literature and reference collection of seeds and vegetative plant
141 remains.

142 FESEM-EDS analysis

143 The Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM) with Energy Dispersive
144 Spectroscopy (EDS) analysis was also performed using FESEM (JEOL, JSM-7610F) equipped
145 with EDS (EDAX, USA instrument) operated at 25 keV to determine the elemental composition
146 of the yak dung.

147

148 Results

149 Microbotanical assemblage from summer dung

150 The 11 dung samples (S1-S11) collected from the study area were characterized by the
151 dominance of non-arboreals (71.2%), over arboreals (25.8%). The ferns, both monoletete and
152 trilete, comprised 3.0%, of the sample. Among non-arboreal taxa, Poaceae was dominant
153 (30.6%), followed by Cyperaceae (6.3%), and *Artemisia* (4.4%). Among arboreals the local taxa,
154 *Rhododendron* and *Juniperus* were 3.5% and 0.9% respectively and the other extra-local arboreal
155 taxa, *Pinus* and *Betula* were 5.0% and 2.6% (Figs 3 & 4).

156 **Fig. 3.** Pollen spectra of the studied Yak dung samples

157 **Fig. 4.** Palynoassemblage recovered from the Yak dung samples

158 a. *Rhododendron*, b. *Prunus*, c. *Juniperus*, d. *Betula*, e. *Alnus*, f. *Corylus*, g. *Salix*, h.
159 *Quercus*, i. *Pinus*, j. *Pinus* pollen in clumping, k. *Abies*, l. *Cedrus*, m.

160 Euphorbiaceae, n. Convolvulaceae, o. Apiaceae, p. *Impatiens*, q. Rosaceae, r. Amaranthaceae, s.
161 Chenopodiaceae, t. Asteroideae, u. Cinoroideae, v. *Artemisia*, w. *Artemisia* pollen associated
162 with Poaceae, x. Poaceae pollen in clumping, y. Cyperaceae, z. *Polygonum*, aa. Onagraceae, ab.
163 *Arcella*, ac. Monolete, ad. Trilete

164 Trace amounts of the diatom, *Hantzschia*, was present in all the samples. A variety of
165 phytoliths were also observed in the same samples. Dumbbell bilobate morphology was
166 dominant followed by elongated smooth long cell and bilobate. The others such as cuneiform,
167 bulliform cell, rondel, and polylobate were also present in the assemblage (Fig 5).

168 **Fig. 5.** Diatom and phytoliths assemblage of the studied samples

169 a. *Hantzschia*, b. Dumbel bilobate, c. Bilobate short cell, d. Wavy, e. Cuneiform Bulliform cell,
170 f. Bulliform, g. Rondel, h. Elongated smooth long cell, i. Elongated echinate long cell, j.
171 Polylobate, k. Polylobate, l. Cylindrical polylobate.

172 **Microbotanical assemblage from winter dung**

173 The 11 dung samples (W1-W11) collected from the study area are characterized by the
174 dominance of non-arbores (83.4%), over arbores (15.8%). The ferns, both monolete and
175 trilete, comprised 0.8%, of the sample. Among non-arboreal taxa, the Poaceae was dominant
176 (45.0%), followed by Cyperaceae (11.0%), and Chenopodiaceae (7.8%). Among arbores the
177 local taxa, *Rhododendron* and *Juniperus* were represented at the value of 1.5% and 0.7%
178 respectively. The other extra-local arboreal taxa, *Pinus*, and *Betula* were 3.5% and 1.9%
179 respectively (Figs 3 & 4).

180 **Fig. 3.** Pollen spectra of the studied Yak dung samples

181 **Fig. 4.** Palynoassemblage recovered from the Yak dung samples

182 a. *Rhododendron*, b. *Prunus*, c. *Juniperus*, d. *Betula*, e. *Alnus*, f. *Corylus*, g. *Salix*, h.
183 *Quercus*, i. *Pinus*, j. *Pinus* pollen in clumping, k. *Abies*, l. *Cedrus*, m.
184 Euphorbiaceae, n. Convolvulaceae, o. Apiaceae, p. *Impatiens*, q. Rosaceae, r. Amaranthaceae, s.
185 Chenopodiaceae, t. Asteroideae, u. Cinoroideae, v. *Artemisia*, w. *Artemisia* pollen associated
186 with Poaceae, x. Poaceae pollen in clumping, y. Cyperaceae, z. *Polygonum*, aa. Onagraceae, ab.
187 *Arcella*, ac. Monolete, ad. Trilete

188 Diatoms were absent in all the studied samples. Phytoliths in the same samples were
189 present with the dumbbell bilobate morphology dominant, as in the summer sample, followed by
190 bilobate short cell and the elongated smooth long cell respectively. Other morphologies such as
191 elongated echinate long cell, polylobate, and rondel are also regularly present in the assemblage.
192 (Fig 5).

193 **Fig. 5.** Diatom and phytoliths assemblage of the studied samples

194 a. *Hantzschia*, b. Dumbel bilobate, c. Bilobate short cell, d. Wavy, e. Cuneiform Bulliform cell,
195 f. Bulliform, g. Rondel, h. Elongated smooth long cell, i. Elongated echinate long cell, j.
196 Polylobate, k. Polylobate, l. Cylindrical polylobate.

197

198 PCA results

199 A total of 94% variance could be explained by two major pollen groups, arboreal and herbaceous
200 taxa (Fig 6 a). The score plot showed that these two major components were responsible for the
201 cluster differentiation. Poaceae, Cyperaceae, Chenopodiaceae, and Asteroideae were dominant
202 and placed a high range of the PCA quadrants. The multivariate PCA and the loading plot
203 between PC-I vs PC-II based on the differential pollen frequencies showed different pollen types
204 responsible for cluster separation. The loading plot showed that the pollen taxa responsible for

205 the difference between the summer and winter dung samples were Asteroideae, *Quercus*,
206 Rosaceae, *Polygonum*, *Alnus*, *Ephedra*, *Rhododendron*, *Pinus*, *Prunus*, *Abies*, *Cedrus*, *Betula*,
207 *Impatiens*, *Artemisia*, and Cichoroideae (higher in summer dung). Whereas, taxa like Poaceae,
208 Cyperaceae, Ranunculaceae, and Chenopodiaceae were higher in winter dung samples (Fig 6 b).

209 **Fig. 6.** The PCA analysis of the Yak dung samples between summer (a) and winter (b) samples
210 **Macrobotanical assemblage**

211 The macrobotanical remains recovered from both summer, and winter dung samples were in
212 good condition. Twigs and leaves of Poaceae were predominant over other herbaceous plant
213 material from the studied samples. Monocot twigs, leaves, and dicotyledonous seeds were also
214 present and may have become incidentally ingested along with the preferred food material. (Fig
215 7).

216 **Fig. 7.** Macrobotanical assemblage recovered from the Yak dung samples

217 a. & b. plants parts including roots and stem of sedges/herbaceous species, c. Monocot leaf,
218 d. & e. Rosaceae, f. Liliaceae, g. *Xanthoxylum* sp., h. *Polygonum* , i. *Solanum* sp.
219 (Solanaceae), j. Cyperaceae, k. Rosaceae, l. *Agrostema* sp., m. Fabaceae, n. & o. *Carex*
220 sp. (Cyperaceae), p. Polygonaceae, q. Cyperaceae

221

222 **FESEM-EDS data**

223 The data generated from the FESEM-EDS elemental analysis of the summer yak dung
224 samples observed that the Oxygen (O₂) content/level is 56.89 (weight %), followed by Na, 18.95
225 (weight %), Si, 6.4 (weight %), Al, 4.12 (weight %), and Mg, 3.91 (weight %) Fig 8, (Table-1).

226 **Fig. 8.** FESEM-EDS analysis micrographs in Yak dung samples collected from summer (a).

227 **Table 1.** List of the elements value generated by FESEM-EDS analysis in Yak dung sample
228 collected from summer season.

229

Element	Weight %	Atomic %	Error %	Net Int.	K Ratio	Z	R	A	F
N K	0.04	0.05	99.99	0.01	0.0001	1.0631	0.9691	0.241	1
O K	56.89	68.79	8.79	64.81	0.2416	1.0436	0.9792	0.4069	1
Na K	18.95	15.95	14.88	22.41	0.0493	0.9527	1.0053	0.2726	1.0029
Mg K	3.91	3.11	18.28	6.56	0.0111	0.9703	1.0128	0.2904	1.0044
Al K	4.12	2.96	15.24	9.27	0.0151	0.9355	1.02	0.3883	1.006
Si K	6.4	4.41	10.22	18.75	0.0304	0.9571	1.0268	0.4931	1.006
P K	3.03	1.89	13.42	8.41	0.016	0.9202	1.0332	0.5685	1.0072
S K	1.54	0.93	12.29	5.08	0.0096	0.9392	1.0393	0.6605	1.0089
K K	1.16	0.57	19.16	4.01	0.0094	0.8915	1.0559	0.887	1.0238
Ca K	0.84	0.41	31.05	2.63	0.0073	0.9086	1.0608	0.9227	1.0283
Mn K	0.02	0.01	99.99	0.05	0.0002	0.8016	1.0816	1.0071	1.1281
Fe K	0.06	0.02	81.78	0.12	0.0006	0.8151	1.0848	1.0118	1.1614
Co K	0.03	0.01	92.07	0.06	0.0003	0.7973	1.0875	1.0146	1.2068
Ni K	0.15	0.05	68.23	0.25	0.0015	0.8252	1.0898	1.0162	1.202
Cu K	2.42	0.74	21.75	3.38	0.023	0.7844	1.0915	1.0168	1.1892
As K	0.45	0.12	67.31	0.31	0.0047	0.7355	1.0907	1.0133	1.391

230

231

232 The FESEM-EDS elemental analysis of the winter yak dung samples recorded that the
 233 Oxygen (O₂) content/level is 33.82 (weight %), followed by Mn, 12.27 (weight %), Ni, 11.47
 234 (weight %), Co, 11.12 (weight %), Fe, 10.9 (weight %), Cu, 8.76 (weight %), and Si, 8.42
 235 (weight %) Fig. 8, (Table-2).

236 **Fig. 8.** FESEM-EDS analysis micrographs in Yak dung samples collected from winter (b).

237 **Table 2.** List of the elements value generated by FESEM-EDS analysis in Yak dung sample
 238 collected from winter season.

239

Element	Weight %	Atomic %	Error %	Net Int.	K Ratio	Z	R	A	F
N K	0.04	0.07	99.99	0.01	0.0001	1.1582	0.9016	0.2556	1
O K	33.82	61.84	12.31	34.38	0.1513	1.1388	0.9129	0.3928	1
Na K	0.02	0.03	99.99	0.01	0	1.0439	0.9428	0.1259	1.0017
Mg K	0.01	0.01	99.99	0.01	0	1.0644	0.9518	0.1987	1.003
Al K	0.32	0.35	86.52	0.5	0.001	1.0273	0.9603	0.2906	1.0054
Si K	8.42	8.77	15.33	18.98	0.0363	1.0521	0.9684	0.4075	1.006
P K	0	0	99.99	0.01	0	1.0125	0.9762	0.4766	1.0099
S K	0	0	99.99	0	0	1.0343	0.9836	0.5938	1.0152

K K	0.19	0.14	66.28	0.59	0.0016	0.9841	1.0042	0.8487	1.0523
Ca K	0.71	0.52	56.3	2.1	0.0068	1.0037	1.0105	0.8968	1.0727
Mn K	12.27	6.53	7.82	25.14	0.125	0.8887	1.0381	0.9967	1.1507
Fe K	10.9	5.71	8.44	19.65	0.1098	0.9044	1.0427	0.9996	1.1141
Co K	11.12	5.52	10.06	16.57	0.104	0.8853	1.047	0.9763	1.0826
Ni K	11.47	5.72	9.31	15.27	0.1068	0.917	1.0508	0.9624	1.0547
Cu K	8.76	4.03	14	9.62	0.0771	0.8725	1.0542	0.9529	1.0592
As K	1.95	0.76	59.62	0.98	0.0174	0.8216	1.0612	0.9687	1.121

240

241 **Discussion**

242 The micro and macrobotanical remain preserved in the summer and winter yak dung, and their
243 elemental analysis indicates seasonal differences in the yak's dietary preference in relation to the
244 vegetation composition and climate in the region. The overall pollen data of both the summer
245 and winter collected yak dung samples indicates that grasses form the primary component of
246 their diet. The other associated herbs and shrubs, Cyperaceae, *Artemisia*, Asteroideae,
247 Chenopodiaceae, *Impatiens*, *Prunus*, and *Rhododendron* are also very important parts of the
248 species diet. It is also observed that yak prefer plant diversity in their diet which is reflected in
249 the summer samples as demonstrated by the higher pollen diversity and Yak will migrate up to
250 50 kilometres to forage for their food [33, 34].

251 The presences of Cyperaceae, Rosaceae, Ranunculaceae, and Polygonaceae in the
252 palynoassemblage were also identified in summer and winter seasons and are characteristic of
253 Alpine meadow vegetation in the region. The grasses recovered are closely associated with
254 Rosaceae, Fabaceae, Asteraceae, and Lamiaceae which dominate in Alpine meadow vegetation
255 regarding cover and abundance. Alpine steppes are characterized by high percentages of
256 Chenopodiaceae, and *Artemisia* along with *Ephedra* and *Nitraria* [35]. The association of
257 *Artemisia*, *Caraguna*, *Ephedra*, *Juniperus*, *Salix*, and *Lonicera* is characteristic of the Alpine
258 steppe vegetation in the higher portions of the Himalaya [36]. As our studied samples also

259 included *Ephedra*, *Juniperus*, Chenopodiaceae, and *Artemisia* pollen in the palynoassemblage
260 and complements the presence of Alpine steppe vegetation in and around the study region. The
261 presence of *Ranunculus* was noticeable in the studied palynoassemblage and found to be
262 characteristic taxa of snow bed vegetation [37]. The presence of Cyperaceae, Polygonaceae, and
263 Onagraceae along with *Botryococcus*, *Hantzschia*, and *Arcella* seen in the dung samples are
264 indicative of the perennial water-logged condition and streamlets running in and around the
265 study areas. Their absence in the winter samples reflects the absence of unfrozen water. The
266 recovery of shrubby taxa, *Rhododendron* and *Prunus*, along with *Impatiens* and Euphorbiaceae
267 in the palynoassemblage was observed and are strongly suggestive of the monsoonal activity in
268 the region [12,38]. The recovery of Chenopodiaceae and *Artemisia* is very significant as these
269 taxa are strongly indicative of the winter dryness in the region. The abundance of *Artemisia*
270 pollen in the winter palynoassemblage indicates the seasonal glacial condition/phase in the
271 region [39] which is reflected in our studied samples. However, many workers observed this
272 distinctive assemblage in surface soil samples and had utilized the Chenopodiaceae/*Artemisia*
273 ratio to determine the relative dryness of the Alpine steppes and deserts in the region, so is a
274 useful climatic indicator [35, 40–43] which suggest that a key role can be provided by studied
275 dung samples. But to date, no such work has been initiated on dung samples.

276 Among arboreal taxa, the presence of *Pinus*, *Cedrus*, and *Alnus* in the palynoassemblage
277 which do not grow in this region are indicative of upthermic wind activity which transported this
278 pollen from the conifer forest zone present at lower elevations, 1000 to 3300 meters. Pollen from
279 these taxa in the dung samples would have been incorporated through secondary ingestion of the
280 food plant, exposed dung, and soils in the region on which they would have settled. Likewise,
281 the low value of *Juniperus* pollen would have also been incorporated through the ingestion of the

282 plants. *Rhododendron* pollen is entomophilous, its presence in the assemblage would have been
283 incorporated through the ingestion of the plant's flowers and must have been local in origin. The
284 presence of *Salix* and *Prunus* pollen in the palynoassemblage is indicative of the presence of
285 perennial water channels, streams and moist conditions in the region as these plants generally
286 grow along water channels and moist places [35,37,44]. Similarly, the presence of fern spores,
287 both monolet and trilete, in the palynoassemblage is indicative of the warm and humid
288 condition in the region during the summer.

289 The diatom and phytolith analysis from both summer and winter dung samples revealed
290 that only a few diatom taxa were recovered in the summer dung samples. The presence of
291 diatoms is suggestive of at least seasonal perennial water in the region which became
292 incorporated in the dung through the ingestion of the water. Among phytoliths, grass phytoliths
293 are predominant as are the macrobotanical remains of grasses while the other phytoliths also
294 constantly represented in the assemblage and are also indicative of plants other than grasses that
295 were also important food plants of the yak.

296 The FESEM-EDS elemental analysis of Yak dung samples was also conducted to
297 understand the elemental percentages in relation to the vegetation composition and climate in the
298 region. Sixteen elements have been identified and characterized in the yak dung samples (Table
299 1 & 2). As the large animals play an important role in the nutrient cycles due to their ability to
300 travel long distances [25,26], large-bodied forms such as the yak can perform a critical role in
301 this cycle as indicated by the elemental values seen in the dung samples. The redistribution of
302 these elements would play an important role for both flora and fauna in the region. For example,
303 the distribution of phosphorus and sodium have been identified as having an important role in
304 the extinction of both flora and fauna in the region [15]. These elements in the yak dung

305 samples could be useful to understand the nutritional value in relation to the vegetation
306 composition and the species dietary preferences in the region.

307 The macrobotanical assemblage (Cyperaceae, Polygonaceae, and Rosaceae) was in good
308 agreement with pollen data in dung samples in relation to the current vegetation, and climate in
309 the region (Fig 7).

310 **Fig. 7.** Macrobotanical assemblage recovered from the Yak dung samples

311 b. & b. plants parts including roots and stem of sedges/herbaceous species, c. Monocot leaf,
312 d. & e. Rosaceae, f. Liliaceae, g. *Xanthoxylum* sp., h. *Polygonum* , i. *Solanum* sp.
313 (Solanaceae), j. Cyperaceae, k. Rosaceae, l. *Agrostema* sp., m. Fabaceae, n. & o. *Carex*
314 sp. (Cyperaceae), p. Polygonaceae, q. Cyperaceae

315 Biodiversity of summer and winter dung samples

316 There are some differences between the summer and winter dung samples in the
317 palynoassemblages. The pollen diversity in summer samples is comparatively higher than the
318 winter samples. In summer, the forage is relatively abundant and nutritious and the yak move up
319 to higher altitudes and occupy a wider area including both Alpine meadow and steppe vegetation
320 regions (Fig 1, h). During the winter season, they may either moves towards lower elevations or
321 remain in the higher mountain sides with minimal movement reflecting the scarcity of forage due
322 to snow cover at high altitude. Most of the plant taxa, especially arboreal blooms in the summer
323 season and therefore the diversity of pollen taxa in summer dung samples are always higher than
324 winter dung samples. The presence of *Botryococcus*, *Arcella*, and *Hantzschia* in the summer
325 samples was higher than in the winter samples reflecting the greater availability of free-flowing
326 water. In the elemental analysis, the silica content is comparatively higher in the winter samples
327 in response to the dominance of grass pollen.

328 **Fig. 1.** Field photographs, h. Yak migration toward higher altitude during summer

329 It is observed that the elemental contents of summer samples were different than the
330 winter samples. The Na, Mg, and Al content were low in the winter samples, and the reason may
331 be due to the scarcity of food plants. Phosphorous and sulfur are absent in the winter samples.
332 However, the O, Mn, Ni, Co, Cu, and Si content in the winter sample were relatively higher than
333 the summer sample. The diversity of the seeds, fruits and twigs were comparatively more
334 common in the winter samples as the maximum occurrences of flowering, and fruiting and the
335 twig of the shrubby elements are more due to being consumed by the yak during that time.

336 **Statistical significance of pollen frequencies**

337 A critical review of the PCA indicates a clear seasonal periodicity in the appearance of the pollen
338 of different plant species especially the herbaceous taxa, which were in full bloom during the
339 winter season. A clear-cut seasonal clustering of these pollen taxa is present and mainly
340 represented by two major pollen groups, arboreals and herbs. The major arboreal group like
341 *Pinus*, *Abies*, *Cedrus*, *Betula*, *Quercus*, *Rhododendron*, and *Prunus* were recorded in the summer
342 samples of yak dung, attributed to their maximum blooming in spring season (February to
343 March) and further deposition on herbaceous vegetation, and could be secondarily incorporated
344 as yak's diet. The dominance of Poaceae, Ranunculaceae, and Chenopodiaceae in winter dung
345 could coincide with their peak flowering during the winter season. It was also clear from the
346 loading plot that maximum diversity of plant taxa in yak dung was in summer season owing to
347 their activities in summer where they cover a larger range. However, in winter during snow fall,
348 they tend to be more inactive finding place for their sustenance, with a dependence on primary
349 herbaceous plant taxa (Fig 6).

350 **Fig. 6.** The PCA analysis of the Yak dung samples between summer and winter samples

351 Linkages with endangered and extinct megaherbivores

352 A study conducted on stomach contents including pollen and spores from fossil woolly
353 rhinoceros (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*) from Russia [13] revealed the presence of predominately
354 non-arboreal pollen taxa including Poaceae and other associated herbs (98.5%), followed by
355 arboreal pollen (trees and shrubs) (0.9%) and spores (including ferns and mosses) (0.6%)
356 respectively. Our dataset for the pollen assemblage from the yak dung samples is closely similar
357 to that of the woolly rhino stomach contents pollen fossil data. Similarly, a study conducted on
358 the mammoth diet based on dung indicates a similarity between these two megaherbivorous
359 mammals, with Poaceae in both taxa as the primary component of their diet followed by the
360 Cyperaceae and Asteraceae. The absence or only trace amounts of arboreal pollen taxa is
361 indicative of the grassland vegetation utilized by the mammoth which lived in cold climatic
362 conditions at higher latitudes [37], that were comparable to the vegetation of the higher
363 elevations at which the yak lives today.

364 It should be noted that during the Pleistocene fossil yak has been found in eastern Russia,
365 Tibet, and Nepal [45] and so was directly associated with woolly mammoths, and most likely
366 also the woolly rhino. The woolly rhinoceros and mammoth became extinct in Eurasia because
367 of landscape changes during Pleistocene-Holocene boundary (12000-9000 years BP) due to the
368 formation of widespread forest in the temperate and arctic regions of northern Eurasia and loss of
369 grassland [46]. Yak and Bison share a common ancestry and both originated in central Asia, and
370 mitochondrial DNA analysis also suggests that the yak is closely similar to Bison [47,48], but
371 they are distinct geographically. While the yak remained restricted to western Asia, bison
372 dispersed westward into Europe and northeast across the Bering Land Bridge into North America
373 during the middle to late Pleistocene [45, 49, 50–52]. Fossil yak has been reported from Alaska,

374 but radiocarbon dates of these specimens have shown that they are of domestic cattle brought in
375 by miners [53]. The extinct bison (*Bison priscus*) is associated with yak in Eurasian faunas.
376 Studies of its diet based on microhistological fecal analysis indicate that like the mammoth and
377 woolly rhinoceros 98% of its diet was grasses, followed by Cyperaceae [54]. However, unlike
378 these faunas, the diet of bison changed between the late Pleistocene to early Holocene which
379 may have permitted the survival of the recent bison (*Bison bison*) in North America and the
380 wisent (*Bison bonasus*) in Europe [55].

381 This data might be helpful in understanding the extinction of megaherbivorous animals
382 such as woolly rhino and mammoth despite having diets very similar to the surviving yak and
383 bison based on their similar palynodata. There are differences between the woolly rhino and
384 today's living one horn rhino regarding habit and diet. A study of the pollen and non-pollen
385 palynomorphs preservation in the dung of the extant one horn rhino [12, 56] reveals that while
386 grass is the primary diet of both species, the living rhino also required perennial water-logged
387 conditions and a flood plain area that included both large grasslands along with scattered
388 woodland.

389

390 **Conclusions**

391 The multiproxy data presented here indicate that the yak utilizes a combination of both Alpine
392 meadow and steppe vegetation depending on the season. Its response to the seasonally cold
393 climate is either by moving to lower elevations or minimizing movements at higher elevations
394 which have a more limited food supply. A critical part of its habitat appears to be the presence
395 of a perennial water system. So, this documented data might serve as a strong proxy to interpret
396 vegetation and climatic shifts in the higher Himalaya and to correlate them at a global level.

397 Climate change with warmer average temperatures may extend the length of time that unfrozen
398 water may be available throughout the region, providing the yak with an opportunity to extend its
399 range. However, as a species adapted to cold temperatures, any increase in mean summer
400 temperatures may force the species to spend more time at higher elevations, above the lush
401 Alpine meadows, thus reducing access to a major source of food, and also reducing its overall
402 range.

403 The dung of herbivorous mammals can provide a durable substrate that allows the
404 investigation of the modern pollen data that complements the data recovered from modern
405 surface soil in relation to the vegetation composition and climate in the region. The study of
406 macrofossils, diatoms, and phytoliths can be used to supplement the pollen database to prevent
407 incorrect interpretation for the palaeodietary analysis, when wind transported pollen such as
408 *Pinus*, *Cedrus*, and *Abies* are present in the assemblage. The elemental analysis of different
409 elements in the dung sample also provides a better understanding of the relationship between the
410 surface soil samples and vegetation composition in the region. This multiproxy dataset can help
411 to understand the collapse of species and the subsequent extinction of the megafauna from the
412 different region of the world. The generated data will be helpful for the differentiation of the
413 temperate and tropical megaherbivorous animals in relation to the database. The diet of wild Yak
414 existing in the western Himalayas also includes the consistent occurrence of some secondary
415 herbs and trees beside, grasses as primary food, thus this flexibility in dietary habit could be one
416 of the reason for their survival through Pleistocene-Holocene vegetation transition where other
417 megafaunas become extinct.

418 While it is clear that, yak, bison, rhinos and mammoth, were capable of feeding on the
419 same types of vegetation, predominately grasses, and so had similar preferences in their diet,

420 there were significant differences in their preferred habitat. The wild yak survives today,
421 although with a much-reduced distribution. Its current distribution corresponds to the
422 combination of the vegetation composition and colder climate that exists at the higher elevations
423 in the Himalayan region. Possibly due to their larger size and need for greater quantities of food
424 the larger mammoth and rhino were not able to make the transition to, this habitat. The closest
425 living relative to the woolly rhino is *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis*, with the genus *Rhinoceros*
426 (*unicornis* and *sondaicus*) forming their sister group [57]. This raises an interesting paradox
427 since the high elevations of the Tibetan Plateau has been proposed as the area of origin of the
428 woolly rhino [58]. In contrast the bison survived by a change in its diet. So, while this diversity
429 of grazers all lived at the same time and shared a common habitat, they reflect the three ways to
430 respond to climate change; track the preferred habitat, adapt to changing conditions or go extinct.

431

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440 S.K.B. conceived the ideas, analysed the data, and led the writing; H.S., conceived the ideas,
441 collected samples and writing; H.G.M., analysed the data and led the writing; S.T. analysed the
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443

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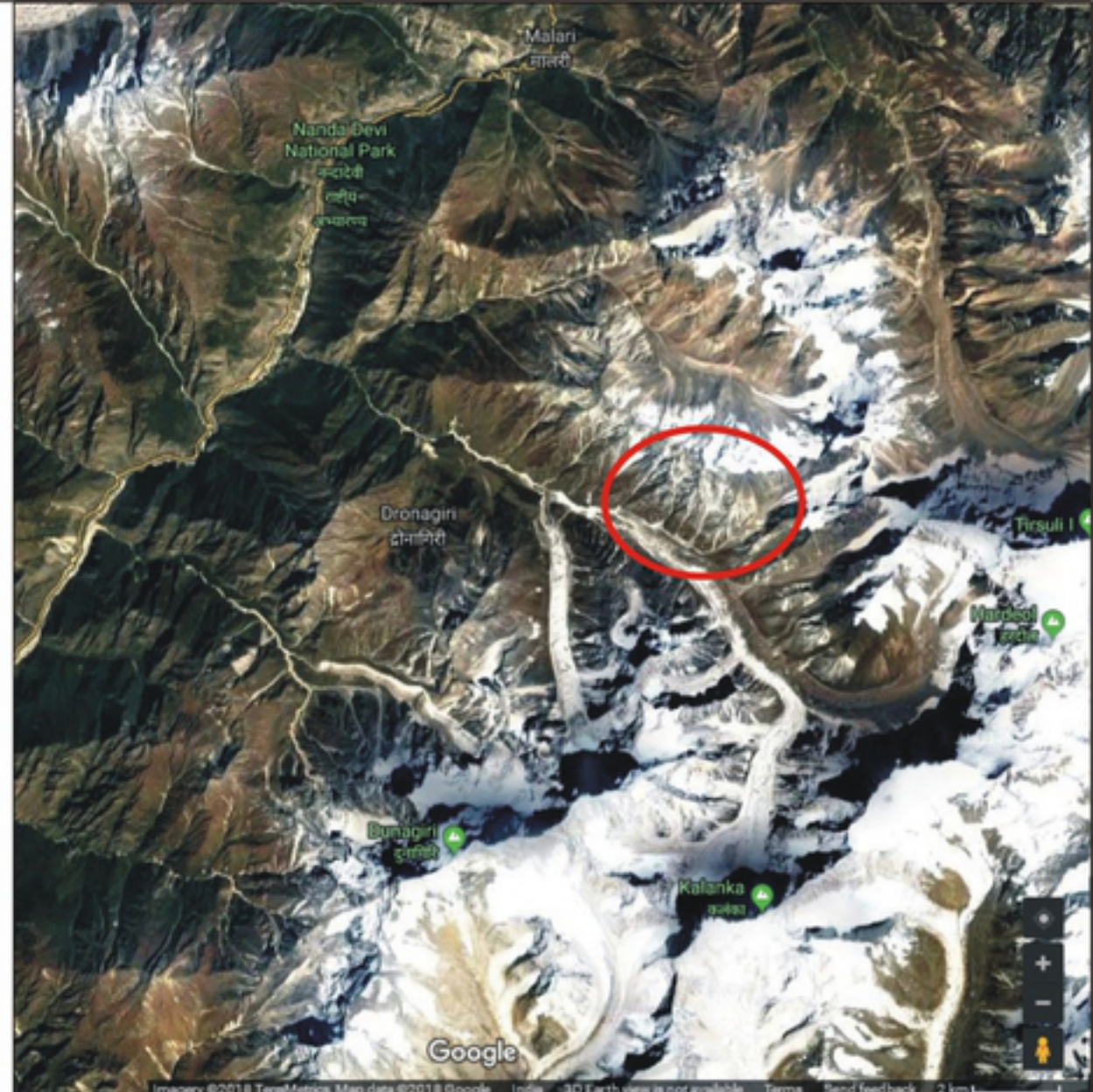
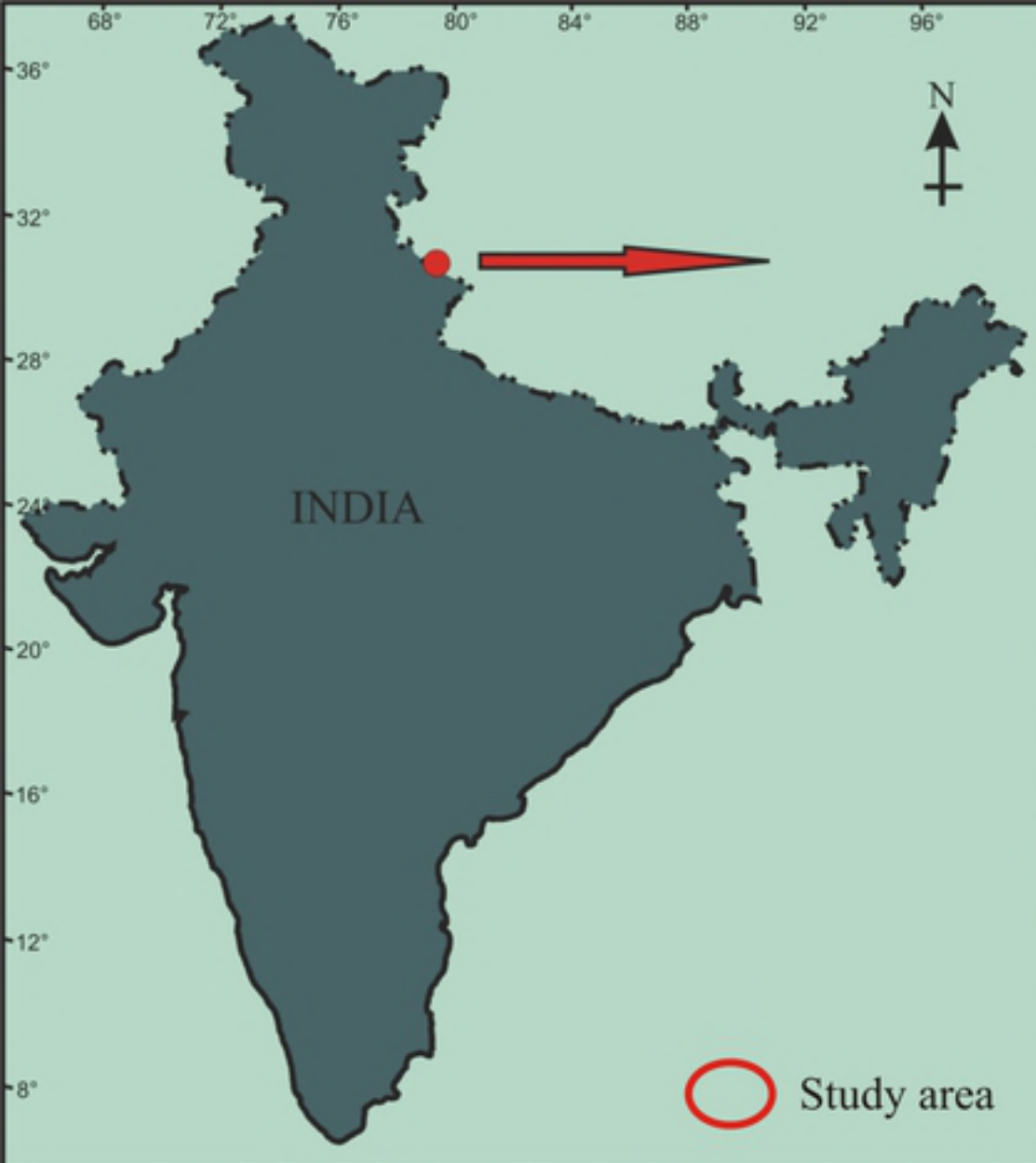
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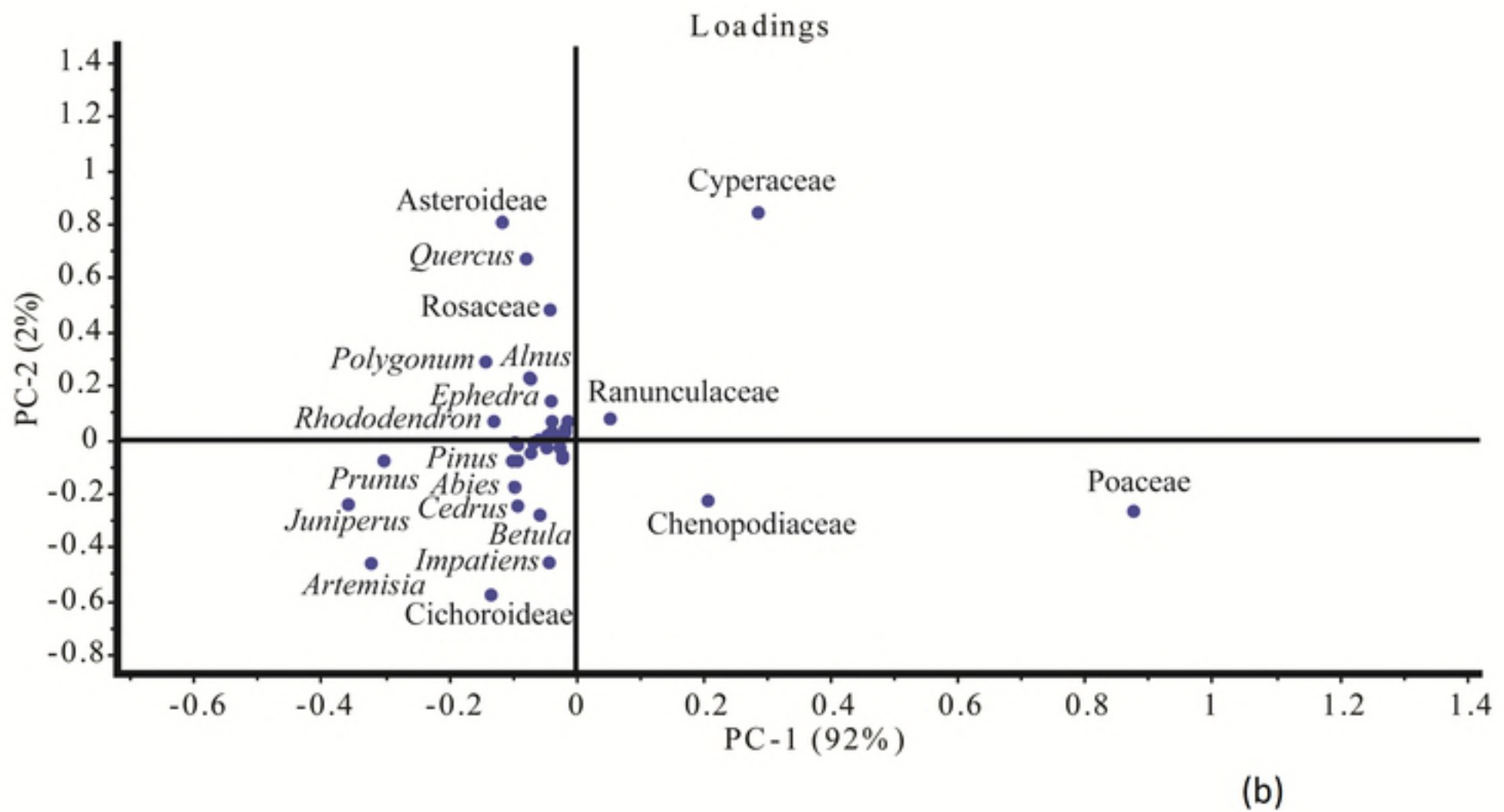
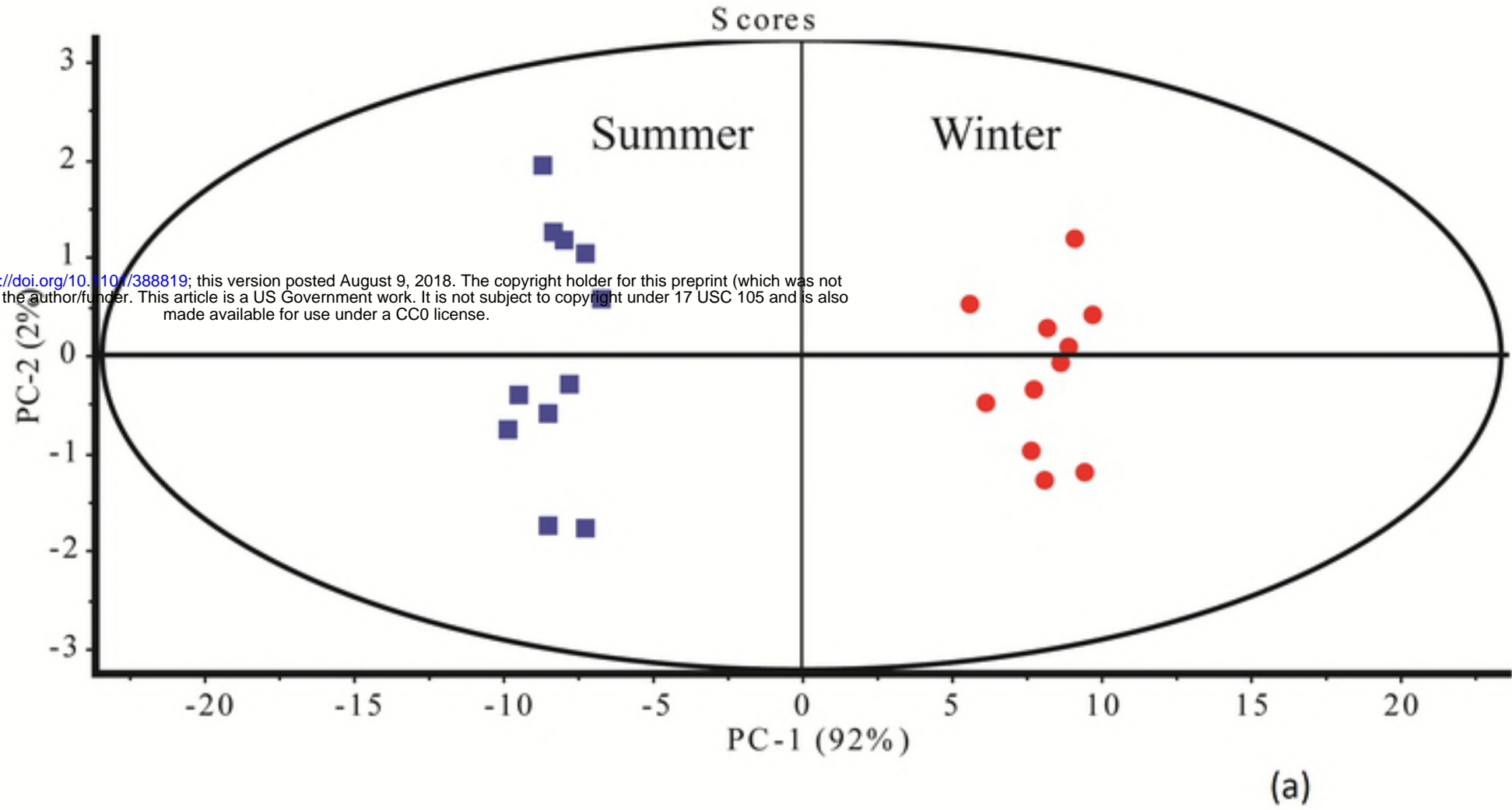
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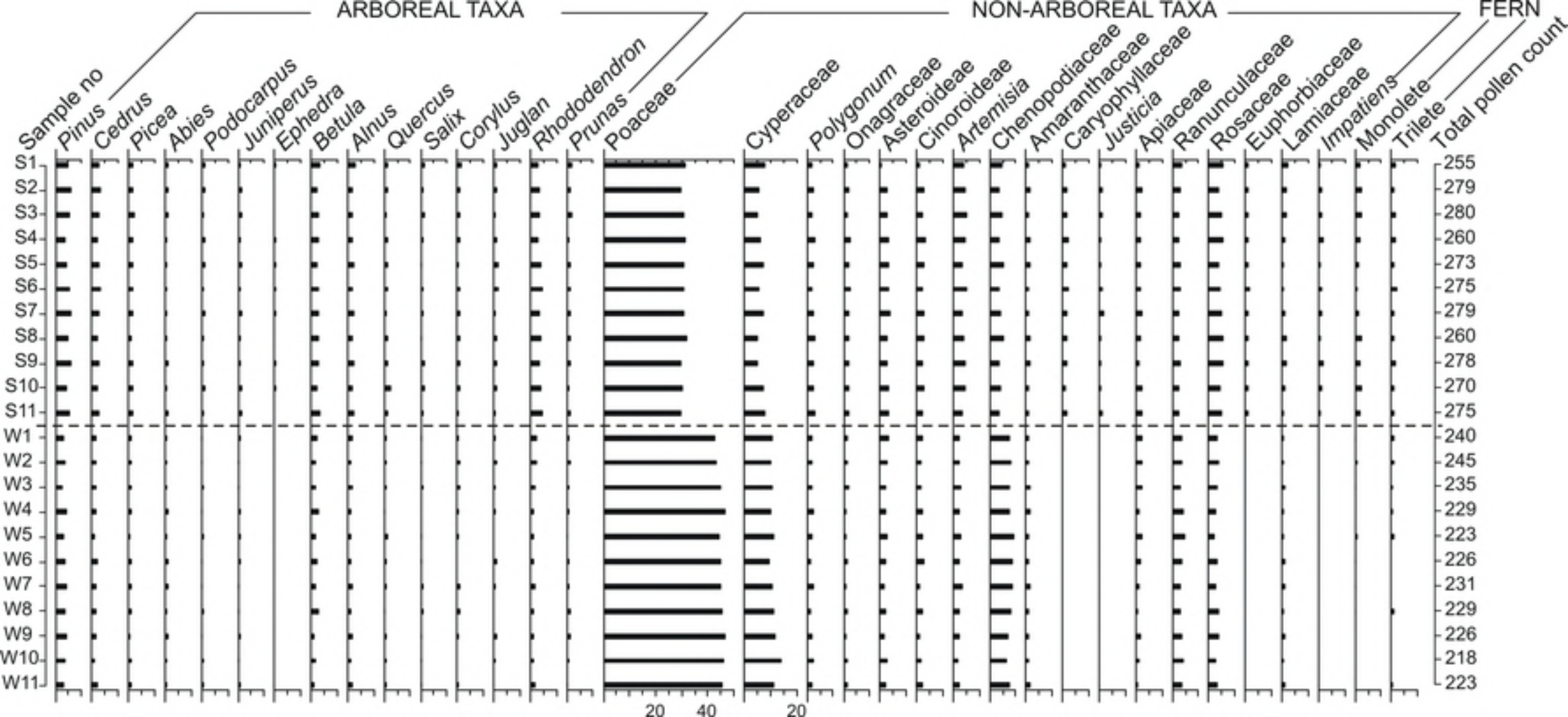
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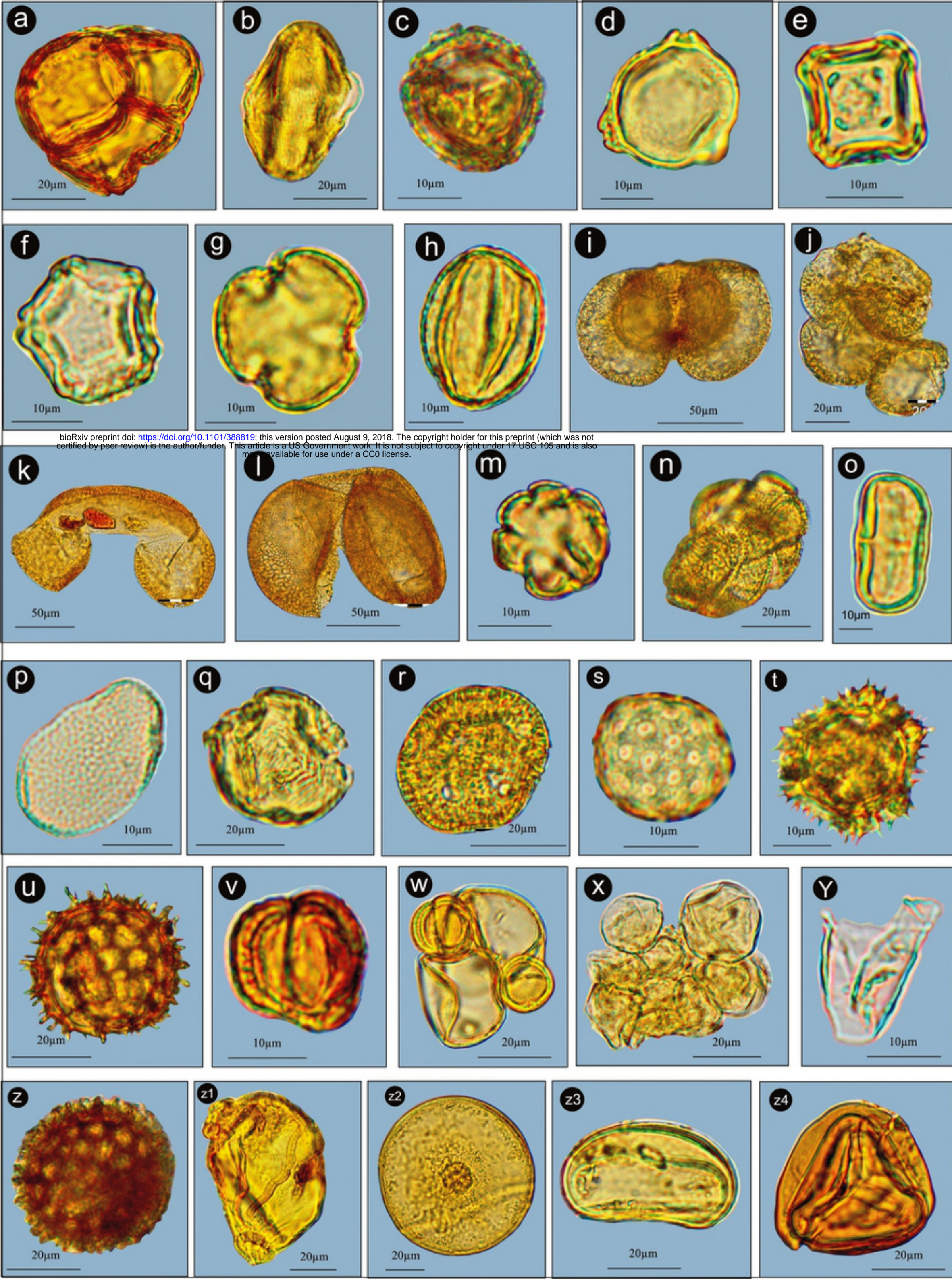
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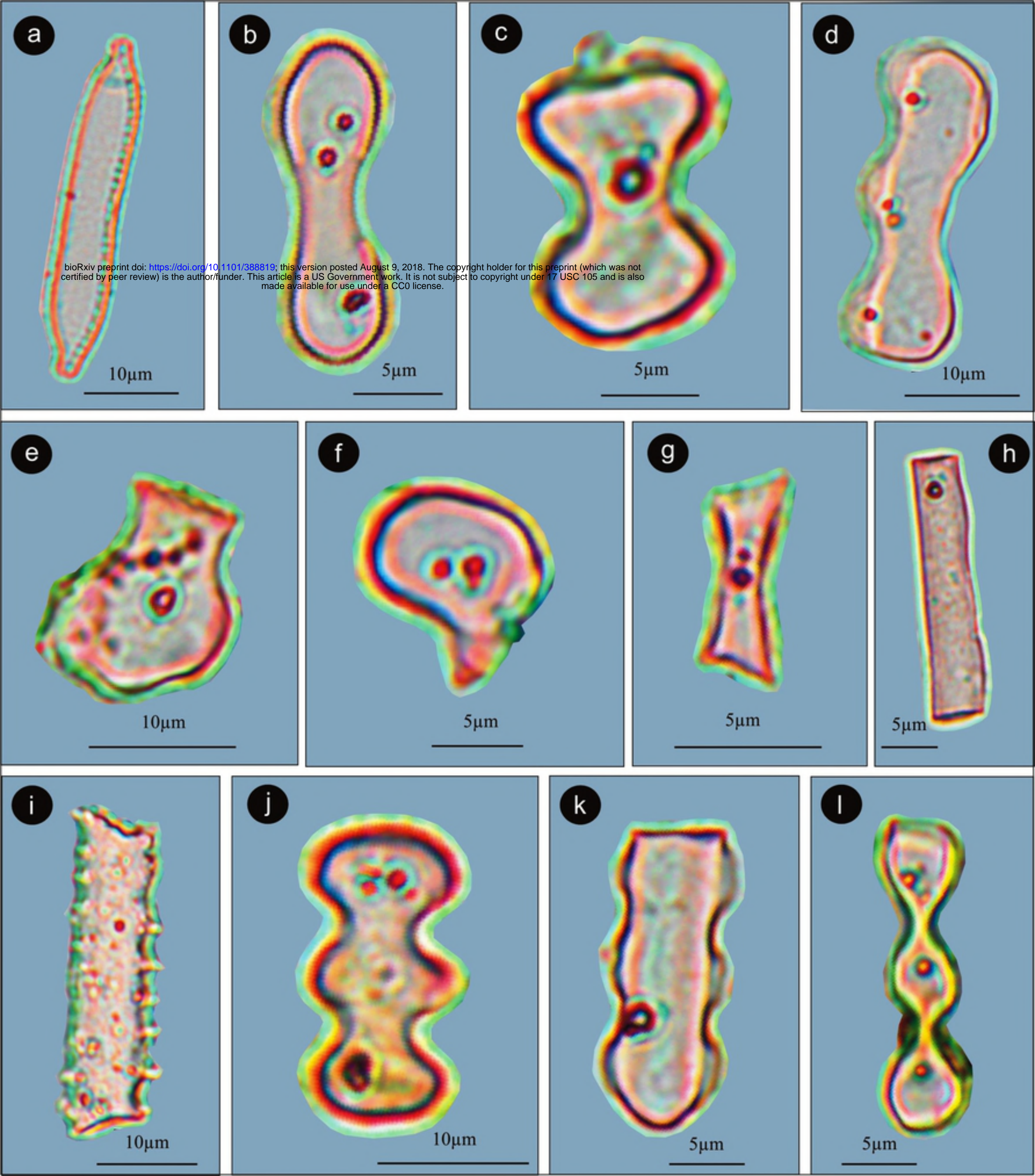


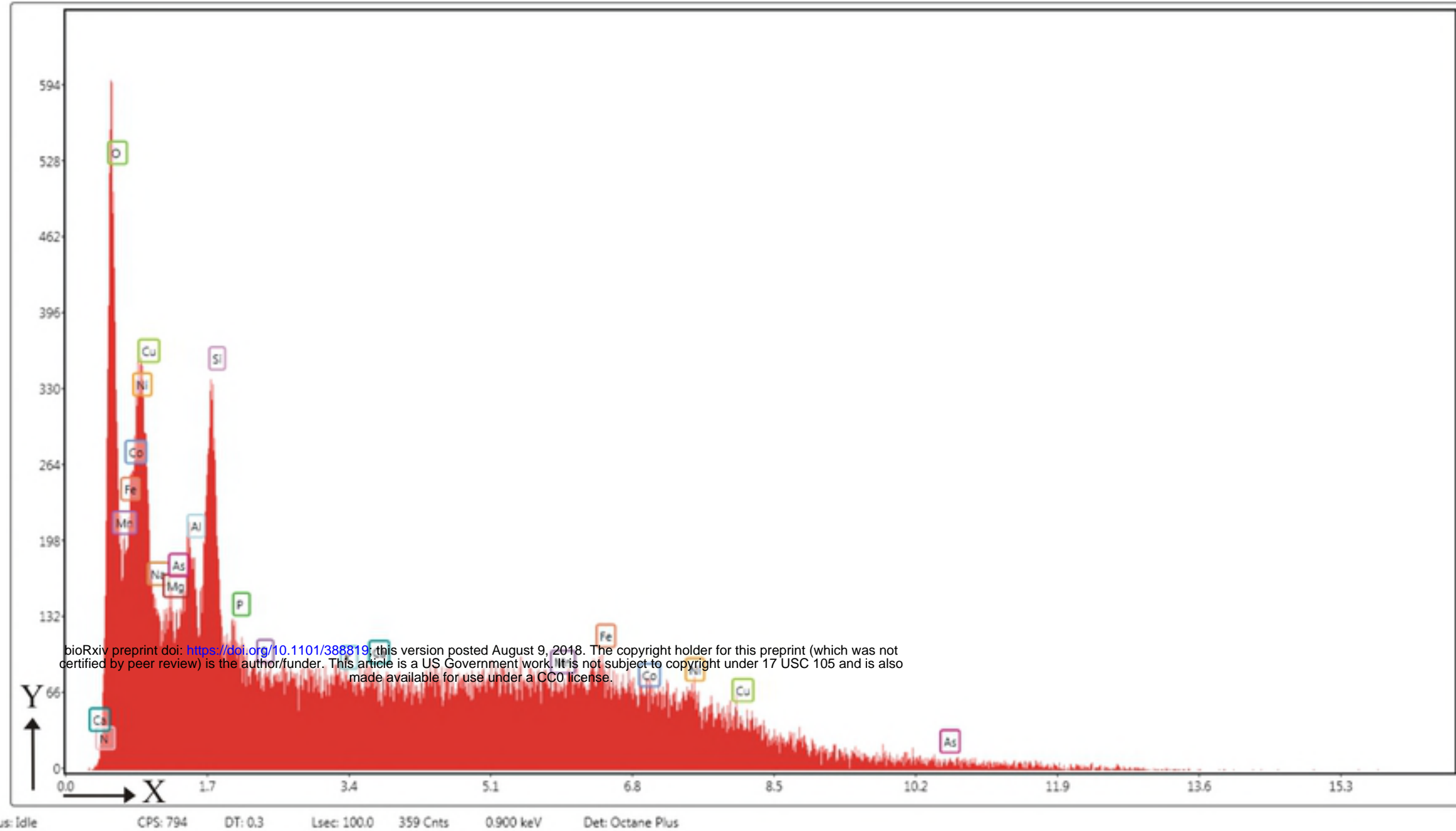




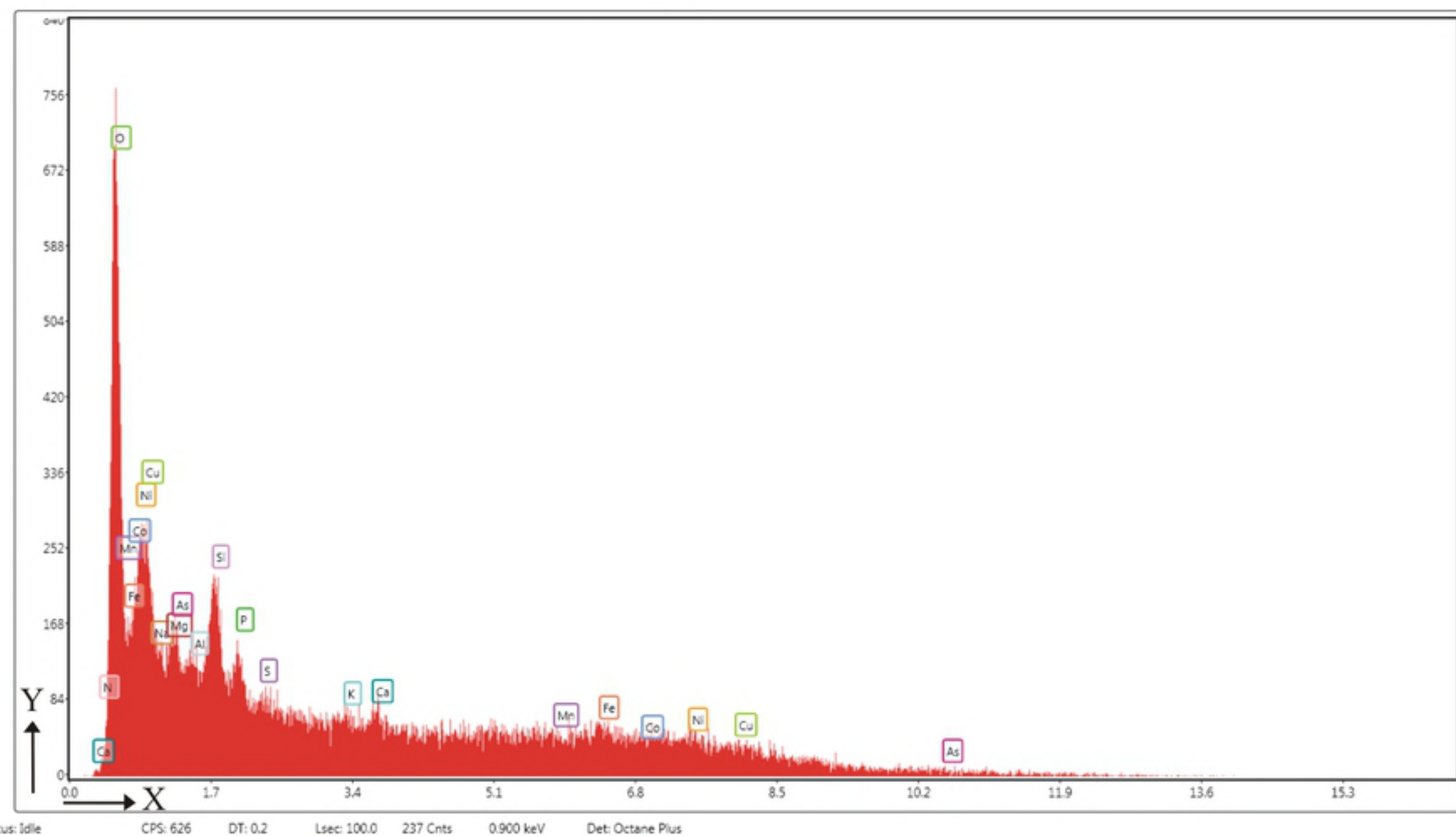


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(a)

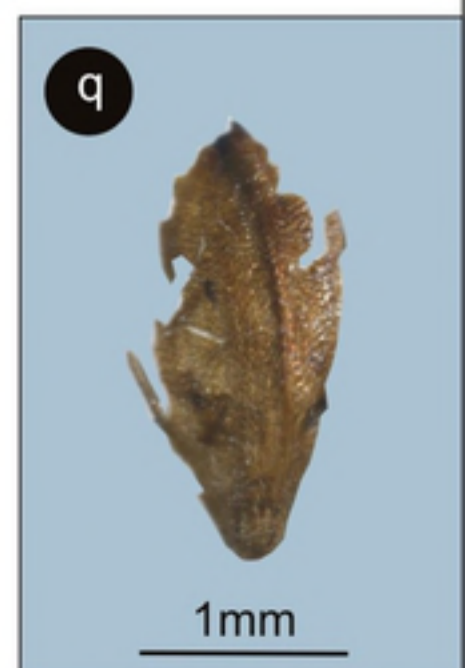
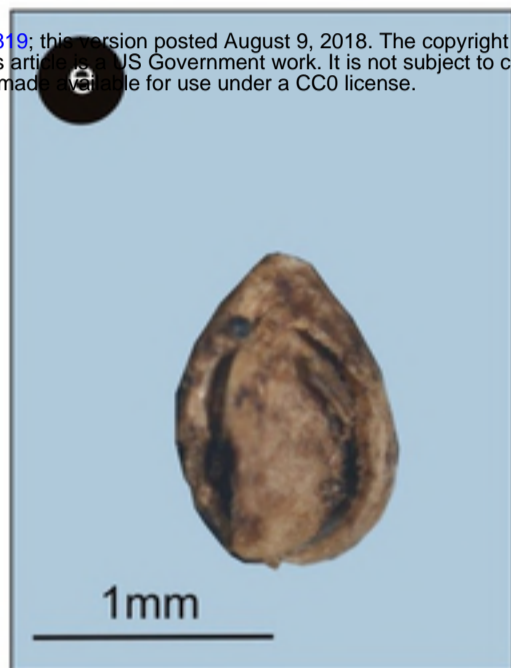
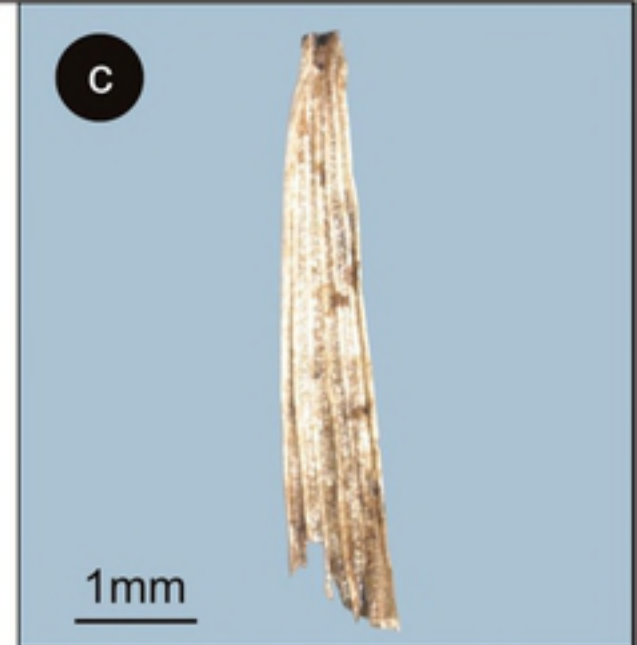
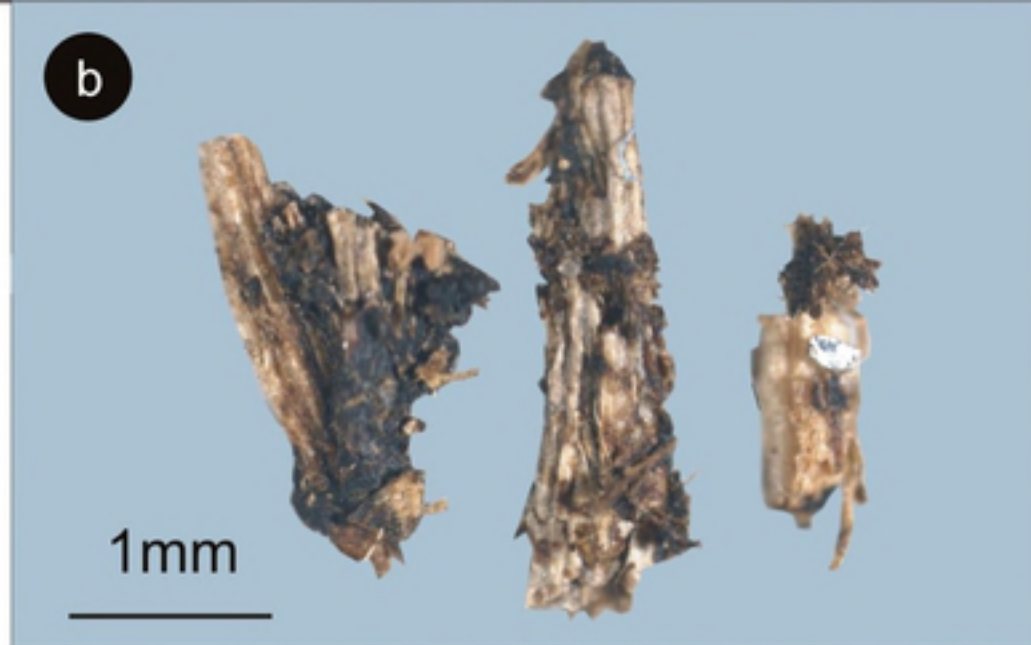
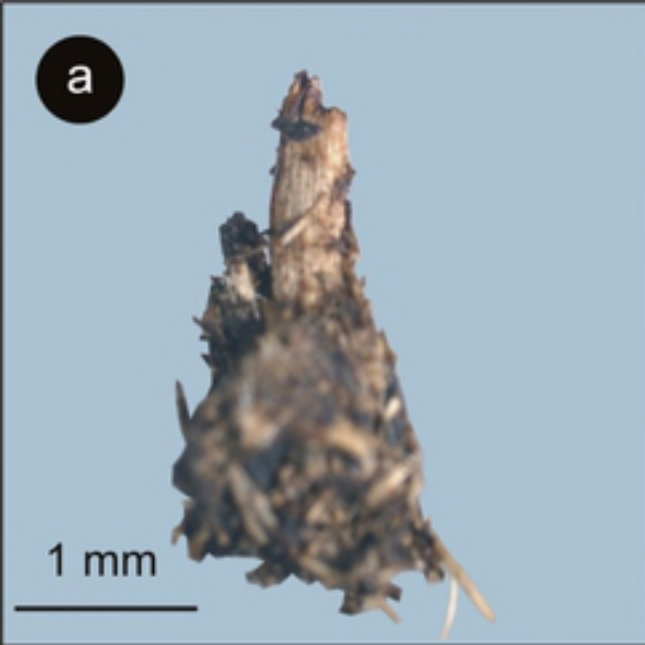


(B)

LEGENDS-

X axea: Energy (kilo electron volt)

Y axes: Intensities



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