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RESEARCH REPORT



# Confirmation of Starchy Plant Processing in Lagoa Santa by Paleoindian People: Results of Microremain and Use-Wear Analysis at Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu

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## ABSTRACT

For decades, the importance of tuberous plants in central Brazil's Paleoindian subsistence models has been indirectly inferred through dental and lithic analysis. However, little direct evidence about the consumption of this type of plant has been produced. In this report, we present some of the earliest evidence for starchy plant processing in the area. To do so, starch-grain and use-wear analyses were applied to lithics from the Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu site. This is a small limestone rock shelter located in an area bordering the Lagoa Santa micro-region (Minas Gerais State, Brazil), occupied from ca. 11,500 to 1000 calendar years ago. The presence of starch grains in almost every lithic artifact analyzed, together with use-wear marks, suggest their use in the processing of tuberous plants and, indirectly, the consumption of this type of vegetable resource among Paleoindian groups. Moreover, morphological modifications shown in some of the starch grains might indicate cooking or fermentation.

## ARTICLE HISTORY

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## KEYWORDS

Starch; Paleoindians; Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu; Lagoa Santa; use-wear

## 1. Introduction and background

### 1.1. Lagoa Santa

Lagoa Santa is a protected natural park area (APA, according to its Portuguese acronym) located in the southeastern region of Brazil, 46 km from Belo Horizonte, the capital city of the Minas Gerais State (Figure 1; Araujo and de Oliveira 2010).

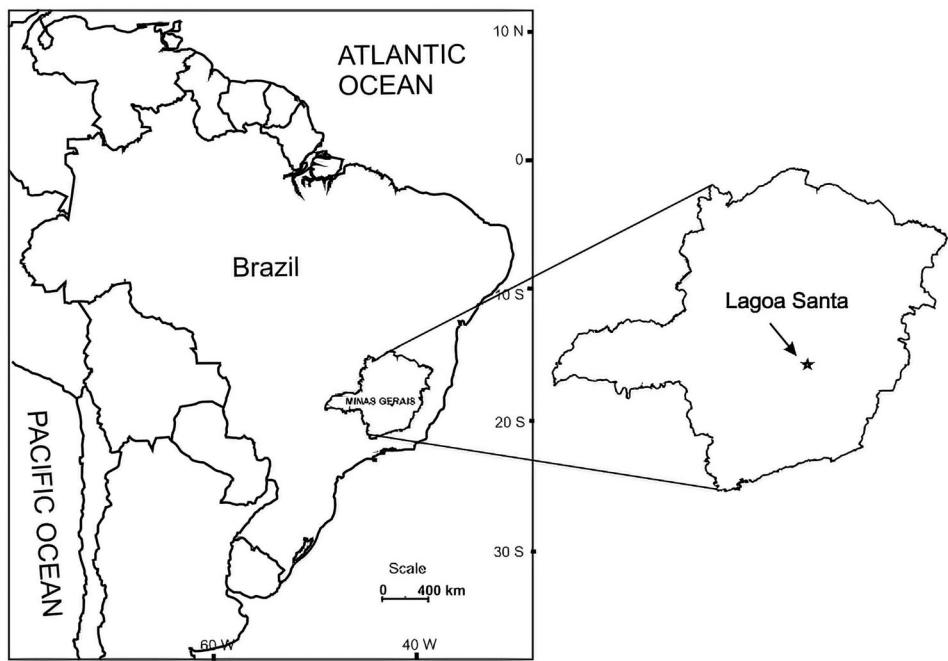
The predominant biome in the area is the Cerrado (Brazilian savannah), which includes various types of vegetation including *campo limpo*, *campo sujo*, *cerrado sensu stricto*, *cerradão*, and *mata ciliar*. Nevertheless, forest-type physiognomies such as *floresta estacional semidecidua* and *mata ciliar* from the Mata Atlântica biome are also present, because Lagoa Santa is located in an area of ecotonal contact between these two biomes (Freire 2011).

Cerrado's dry environment combined with little arboreal vegetation in the savannah's phytosystem makes natural fires easy to occur. The Cerrado vegetation has adapted to these fires in different ways: some trees have developed hard and thick bark and sinuous and suberous trunks (Castro Souza et al. 2018, 12); some grasses form a kind of "tunic" with old or dead leaves that protect their germinated part from moisture loss and fire (Edwards 1956; Rawitscher 1948); sometimes plants form several underground storage systems

such as rhizomes, bulbs, and tubers, and some of these systems develop a bark, such as lignotubers and xilopodia (Apezzato-Da-Glória and Estrelita 2000). As a result, the biomass below the surface is very vast, reaching up to 71% of the total phytomass (vegetation above + vegetation below the surface) (De Castro and Kauffman 1998, 264).

The karstic nature of this region makes it susceptible to hydric dissolution processes, which have resulted in the formation of numerous sinks, sinkholes, caves, and rock shelters. Paleoindian<sup>1</sup> groups who populated this region 12,000 years ago knew how to take advantage of these geological formations, and today Lagoa Santa is considered one of the richest regions of archaeological sites in southeastern and central Brazil.

The first researcher to popularize this region *vis-à-vis* its scientific importance was Peter Wilhelm Lund, a Danish naturalist who arrived at Lagoa Santa during the nineteenth century. His explorations in almost 200 caves led him to propose the coexistence between humans and extinct megafauna, something new for that time. Various researchers followed Lund, mostly to test his conclusions regarding human antiquity, but it was only in the middle of the twentieth century that a proper archaeological excavation took place in the area with the works of the North American-Brazilian mission, formed by Wesly Hurt, Castro-Faria, Paulo



**Figure 1** Location of the Lagoa Santa area (from Araujo, Neves, and Kipnis 2012).

Couto, and Oldeman Blasi (Hurt and Blasi 1969). These excavations brought out the first absolute date for the region (9700  $^{14}\text{C}$  yr BP or 11,200 cal yr BP) at the Cerca Grande site (Araujo, Neves, and Kipnis 2012, 534). Years later, the French Mission, led by Annette Lamming-Emperaire and with the participation of André Proux (Lamming-Emperaire et al. 1975), excavated at the Cerca Grande, Lapa das Boleiras, Lapa do Chapéu, and Lapa Vermelha IV sites. At the last, a skeleton named first Hominid-1 and then later *Luzia* by Neves et al. (1999) was found.<sup>2</sup>

It was not until the year 2000 that excavations started again in the region, with a long-term paleoanthropological project directed by Walter A. Neves. That project continued the excavations in Lapa das Boleiras, Cerca Grande IV, and Lapa do Santo, excavated during earlier projects, as well as some never-before-excavated open-air sites (Sumidouro-Coquerinho) and a rock shelter (Araujo, Neves, and Kipnis 2012). The materials discussed in this article come from the last of these sites, Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu.

## 1.2. Plant consumption amongst Paleoindians

Subsistence amongst Paleoindians is something that has been discussed since the onset of studies about these groups. Traditionally, they were portrayed as hunters specialized in megafauna, and meat consumption was assumed to be the principal component of their diet. The cause of this portrait was that, prior to the development of direct-dating techniques, a site was considered

Paleoindian if a great quantity of extinct megafaunal remains were associated with human artifacts, especially projectile points. This led to the situation in which other archaeological materials potentially indicating another type of diet were not taken into account (Kornfeld 2007). The influence of this model was palpable in the popularity of the overkill hypothesis (Martin 1973), which puts humans as the principal cause for the extinction of megafauna in the Americas. According to this model, plants would have a more important role in the diet after the extinction of these animals. Nevertheless, archaeozoological studies have demonstrated a more diverse diet that includes small- to medium-sized animals at Clovis sites (Collins 2007), even at sites where the consumption of megafauna is evident (Ferring 2001; Kornfeld 2007; Yesner 2007). Archaeological findings like ground stones and nets for hunting sheep in Paleoindian sites have also helped to shift the conception of Paleoindian diet as a diverse one (Kornfeld 2007).

Archaeobotanical studies have also played an active role in this interpretation, providing direct evidence for plant consumption in Paleoindian sites (Homsey, Walker, and Hollenbach 2010; McDonough et al. 2022), especially starch-grain analysis (Acosta Ochoa 2010; Piperno and Dillehay 2008). Starch grains can survive in stone-tool cracks, where they seem to be protected from the usual degrading agents like enzymes, bacteria, moist fluctuation, temperature, or pH (Haslam 2004, 1726). This fact has resulted in archaeological findings related to plant consumption and processing from thousands of years ago. Van-Peer and colleagues (2003), for

example, reported starch grains and phytoliths recovered from ~200,000-year-old lithic artifacts, and Loy and colleagues (1992) analyzed and identified starch gains from artifacts presumed to date to 28,000 years ago.

### 1.3. Starchy plant consumption amongst Paleoindian groups in central Brazil

For central Brazil, Kipnis (1998) characterized the people of this region until 3500 cal yr BP as egalitarian gatherers, subsisting on small-sized animals and plants, using an expedient lithic technology to manufacture wooden instruments. According to the model, settlers of this region during the Pleistocene/Holocene transition confronted a scarcity of high-ranked food items such as large animals, and to overcome this problem, they employed a generalized gathering and opportunistic hunting strategy, with the inclusion of several low-ranked resource types, including a diversity of plants (Kipnis 2002). Thus, the subsistence of these people was centered around plant collecting (Kipnis 2002, 418).

New ways for inferring plant consumption amongst Paleoindians in central Brazil arrived with the studies of Turner and Machado (1983), which noted that the number of cavities amongst the people of the Corondó site in Rio de Janeiro, dated between 4700 and 3200 cal yr BP, was higher than expected for hunter-gatherer societies, which led them to propose a tuber-rich diet. Returning to central Brazil, Neves and Cornero (1997) arrived at the same conclusion when they noticed a high number of cavities in teeth amongst skeletons from the Santana do Riacho site at Minas Gerais. In an article derived from the same research, Cornero and colleagues (1999) also suggested a more important role in plant collection than hunting regarding Paleoindian subsistence. Indirectly complementing these studies, Wesołowski (2007) observed that the relationship between cavities and starchy-plant consumption was not as linear as previously thought and that the eating of this kind of food would not necessarily produce cavities. However, starch grains were still a factor that could worsen a cavity injury. More direct evidence arrived with Prous and colleagues (2012), when they analyzed grinding stones related to funerary contexts at the Caixa d'Água site (6400-5000 cal yr BP), north of the Lagoa Santa area, finding starch grains during the process.

### 1.4. Starchy plant consumption in Lagoa Santa

In Lagoa Santa, research has made diverse inferences regarding the area's Paleoindian diet based on tooth maladies and tooth wear, most of them viewing plant consumption as the reason for those dental

modifications (e.g., Da Gloria and Oliveira 2016). However, it was the above-mentioned study from Neves and Cornero (1997) that had the greatest influence in creating the model of the Lagoa Santa Paleoindians as starchy-plant consumers, leading to subsequent research regarding this model. More direct evidence came with the work of Hermenegildo (2009), who analyzed carbon and nitrogen isotopes in collagen samples from Lagoa Santa and Valle de Piauí skeletons, characterizing an omnivorous diet with a strong tendency towards plant consumption as well as primary consumers.

Archaeobotanical macro-remains studies in the region have seemed to agree with this premise. Nakamura and colleagues (Nakamura, Melo Junior, and Cecantini 2010) analyzed the macro-remains from the Lapa das Boleiras site, identifying *Syagrus flexuosa* (Arecaceae) seeds as the dominant taxon. Other identified species included *Hymenea* sp. (Fabaceae) and *Annona crassiflora* (Annonaceae). The authors inferred that the sugar content in the fruits of these species could explain the cavities found on the skeletal remains of the area. Angeles Flores (2015) also report Arecaceae seeds and possibly *Hymenea* sp. charred remains at Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu, but they were unable to reach similar conclusions due to the lack of identifications in the study.

More recently, studies from Da Gloria and Larsen (2014, 2017) proposed hormonal differences (since more cavities are present amongst female individuals), as well as fruit and honey consumption as alternative explanations for the cavities found in Lagoa Santa skeletons. However, even with these alternatives exposed, these authors suggested a diet consisting of a combination of fruits and tuberous plants to explain the high prevalence of cavities.

In her PhD dissertation, Ortega (2019) analyzed phytoliths and starch grains from 21 lithics and 4 sediment samples from within as well outside the site. The fact that modified starch grains were not found was interpreted as evidence of raw amilaceous plant processing. She identified phytoliths belonged to Poaceae subfamilies: Aristidoideae, Bambusoideae, Chloridoideae, Pani-coideae, and Cyperaceae; as well as Arecaceae and the Zingiberales and Eudicot orders. Starch-grain morphotypes were similar to Araceae, Arecaceae, Poaceae, and Convolvaceae. Some of the starch grains seemed to be from domesticated plants like *Zea mays*, *Ipomoea batatas*, or *Capsicum* sp.; however, a local reference study is necessary to securely affirm this.

### 1.5. Use-wear analysis

Few analyses have been carried out regarding the lithic artifacts in Lagoa Santa (Moreno de Sousa 2014;

Moreno de Sousa, de, and Araujo 2018; Prous, Moura, and Lima 1991), and even fewer have implemented use-wear analysis (Alonso 1991, 2008; Alonso and Mansur 1986/1990.; Pugliese 2007). Alonso and Mansur (1986/1990) started traceological analysis based on stone tools from the Santana do Riacho site. The former research was conducted using experimental archaeology and by analyzing quartz archaeological artifacts under magnification up to 500 $\times$ . This work was continued by Alonso (1991; 2008). The authors related type of edges and microwear traces with types of use and processed materials. Pugliese (2007) carried out an important experiment to distinguish post-depositional from anthropic traces, analyzing quartz flakes at Lagoa Santa archaeological sites under low magnification (up to 20 $\times$ ). He found that post-depositional processes produce non-patterned and discontinuous micro-wear traces, especially in lithics with sharp edges; while anthropic use produces continuous and patterned traces. The same author suggested the use of these lithics as processing plant resources, mentioning that micro-remains studies would be necessary to sustain this possibility.

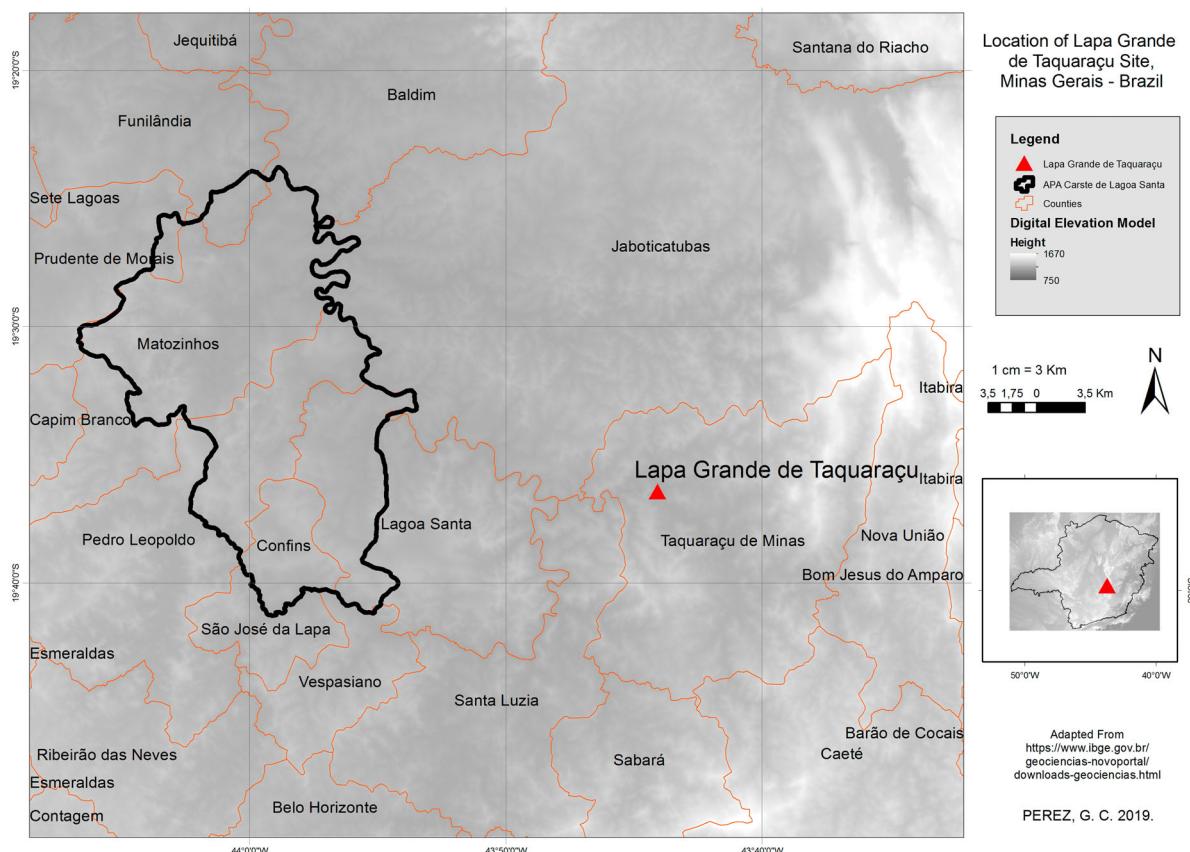
In sum, what we have for central Brazil, as well as for the Lagoa Santa area in particular, is that the use of

starchy plants has always been inferred as something important in Paleoindian subsistence. This would not be rare, because most of the biomass in Cerrado biomes is underground (De Castro and Kauffman 1998), which is probably translated in the great quantity of starchy plants (tubers) available for consumption, as well as the variety of tree fruits found aboveground (Medeiros 2011). There has been more direct evidence recently by means of the analysis of micro-remains, however, until now these studies have not been related to a proper use-wear analysis.

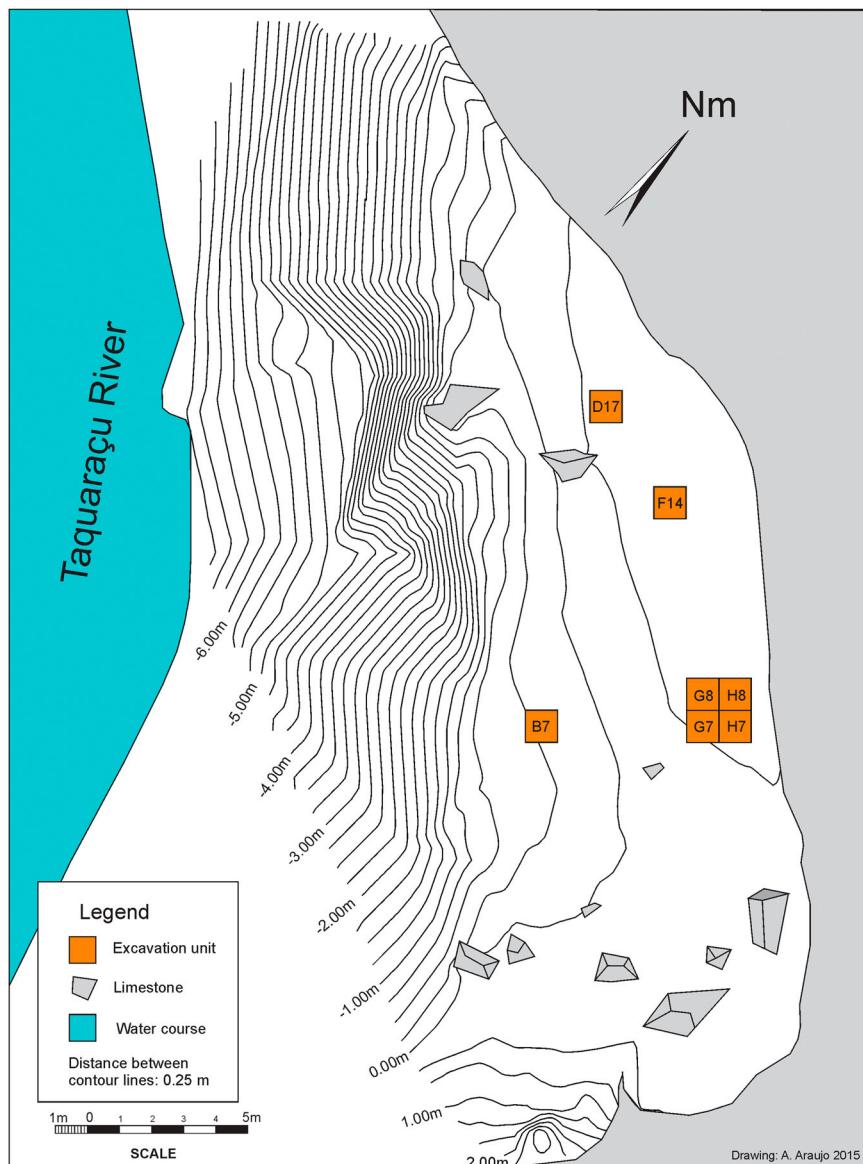
## 2. Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu archaeological site

Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu, also known also as Lapa do Niactor (da Silva 2016), is a limestone rock shelter approximately 30 m long  $\times$  9 m wide and located next to the Taquaraçu River, a tributary of the Rio das Velhas, in the municipality of Taquaraçu de Minas, Minas Gerais State. It is located about 20 km east of Lagoa Santa (Figures 2 and 3).

The site was studied by a team led by AGMA between 2003 and 2008. Several 1  $\times$  1 m units were excavated



**Figure 2** Location of Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu archaeological site (red triangle) with respect to the APA of Lagoa Santa (irregular form). Map by Glauco Constantino Perez, 2019.



**Figure 3** Topographic map showing the location of the excavation units at Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu Rock shelter (Nm, magnetic north). Drawing by Astolfo Araujo, 2015.

using a mixed strategy following both artificial levels and minimum stratigraphic units called “facies.”

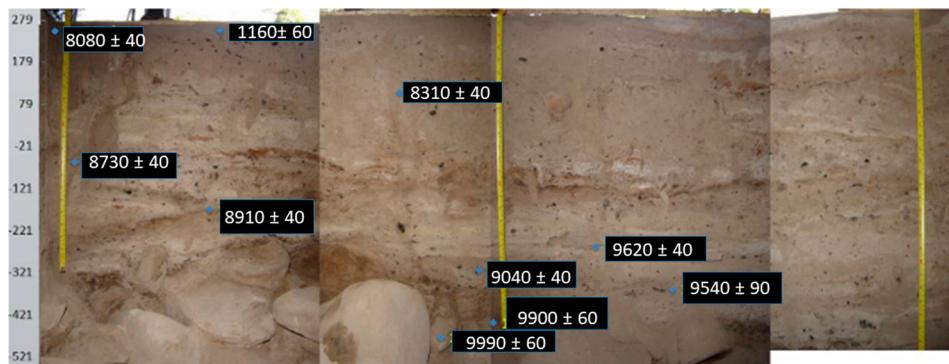
During the excavations, an 80-cm thick archaeological layer was defined. This layer is composed mainly of well-stratified, anthropogenic sediments (mainly wood ash), with a small geogenic contribution (Araujo, de, and Piló 2017; Tudela et al. 2020, 77), containing a large quantity of lithic, plant, and animal remains, including two human skeletons. Pottery fragments were also found, but in a small amount and only at the surface. The lithic material is mainly composed of hyaline quartz flakes and splinters, with some flint occurring in the lower levels, showing the typical characteristics of the Lagoa Santa industry. An

exception is a plano-convex lithic artifact, known colloquially as a “limace,” found between the limestone blocks at the bottom of one of the units (H8). This artifact is the only one found in an excavated context in Lagoa Santa (Angeles Flores et al. 2016).

The samples recovered for dating indicated an occupation between  $11,481 \pm 145$  cal yr BP and  $1075 \pm 81$  cal yr BP, with a hiatus between  $8977 \pm 93$  and  $1075 \pm 81$  cal yr BP (Table 1; Figure 4). This hiatus is marked by the complete absence of anthropogenic sediment accumulation, a process already observed at other sites in the Lagoa Santa area (Araujo et al. 2008; Araujo, de, and Piló 2017; Araujo, Neves, and Kipnis 2012; Araújo et al. 2005).

**Table 1** Calibrated dates from Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu using the calibration curve CalPal2020 INTCAL 2020 (Danzeglocke, Jöris, and Weninger 2007).

Sample number	Lab number	Level	Facies	$^{14}\text{C}$ age ( $^{14}\text{C}$ yr BP)	Calibrated age (cal yr BP)
TQ 421	Beta 216528	1	2	1160 $\pm$ 60	1075 $\pm$ 81
TQ 417	Beta 216527	1	3	8080 $\pm$ 40	8977 $\pm$ 93
TQ 402	Beta 183576	E Profile	X	8230 $\pm$ 50	9196 $\pm$ 92
TQ 430	Beta 216529	3	9	8310 $\pm$ 40	9322 $\pm$ 80
TQ 441	Beta 216530	4	11	8730 $\pm$ 40	9704 $\pm$ 102
TQ 404	Beta 183577	E Profile	X	8730 $\pm$ 50	9717 $\pm$ 115
TQ 454	Beta 216531	5	11	8910 $\pm$ 40	10,043 $\pm$ 101
TQ 459	Beta 216532	6	X	9040 $\pm$ 40	10,210 $\pm$ 27
TQ 297	Beta 216526	7	X	9540 $\pm$ 90	10,886 $\pm$ 170
TQ 268	Beta 183575	8	X	9550 $\pm$ 60	10,903 $\pm$ 144
5	Beta 216525	6	X	9620 $\pm$ 40	10,974 $\pm$ 137
TQ 536	Beta 242714	9	19	9990 $\pm$ 60	11,481 $\pm$ 145
TQ 544	Beta 242715	10	20	9900 $\pm$ 60	11,358 $\pm$ 103



**Figure 4** West profile of units G7 and G8 showing the approximate locations of the samples with non-calibrated dates, according to the X, Y, and Z location of the charcoal samples. The photography is modified from Chim (2018, figure 17).

### 3. Methods

To address whether plant resources were processed by the ancient occupants of Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu, we conducted a starch-grain analysis of a sample of lithic artifacts as well as the associated sediments, and completed use-wear analysis of a sample of the artifacts.

#### 3.1. Starch-grain analysis of lithic artifacts

Ten non-washed archaeological lithic artifacts excavated from Unit G7 were selected (9 flakes and a limestone block). An eleventh artifact, from Unit H8, the above-mentioned “limace,” was also included in the analysis (Figure 5; Table 2).

To recover starch grains from the artifacts, a protocol based on the method known as step-wise was created, consisting of recovering various layers of sediment from the lithic tool. The protocols described in Pagán-Jiménez and Oliver (2008), Cascon (2009, 2010), and Pagán-Jiménez (2011) were taken as a base. Most of the analyses were performed at the Laboratory of Plant Anatomy of the Institute of Biosciences

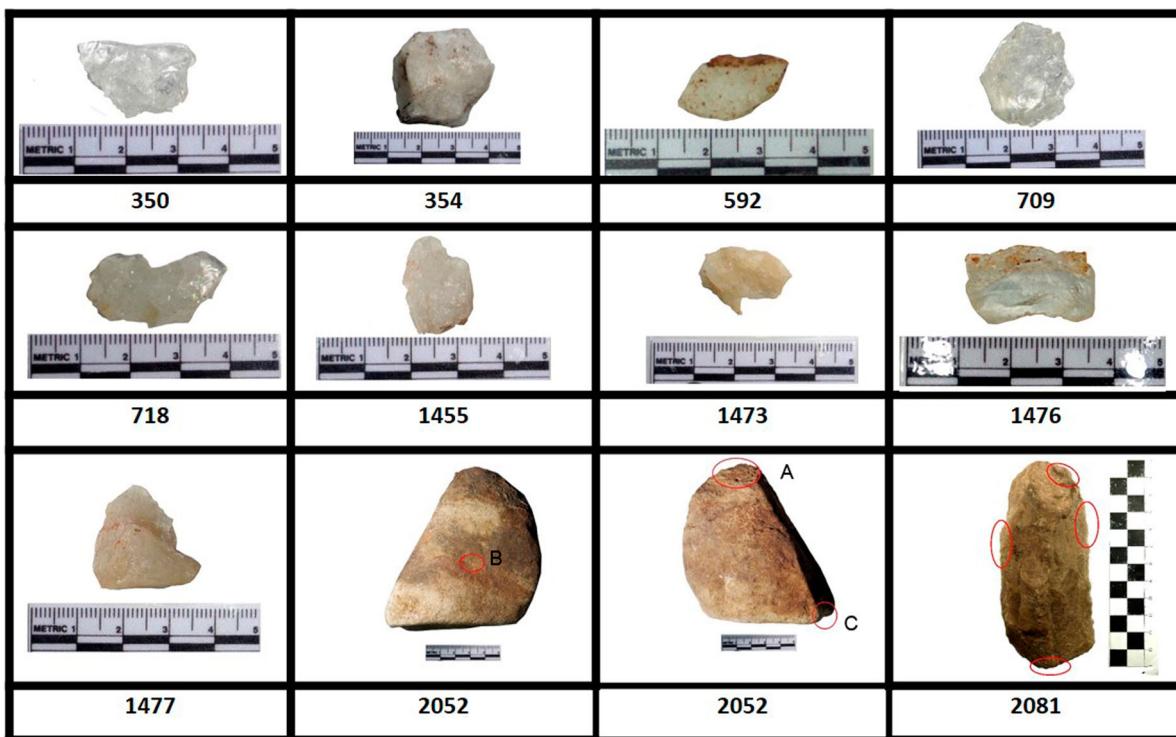
(University of São Paulo, Brazil); additional equipment, such as an ultrasonic bath and a centrifuge, were provided by the Laboratories of Cell Biology and Plant Physiology, respectively.

##### 3.1.1. Low-magnification microscopy

With the aim of looking for concentrations of biological material, lithics were placed under a Nikon Eclipse E200 microscope equipped with dark field and examined at low magnifications (4 $\times$ , 10 $\times$  objectives and a 10 $\times$  eyepiece).

##### 3.1.2. Micro-remains analysis

After the general low-magnification survey, sediment on the artifacts was brushed off with a new, unused disposable toothbrush. A different toothbrush was used for every artifact, and the sediment was stored in a clean, new Falcom flask. This operation was repeated with a toothbrush soaked in distilled water. The sediment that resulted from this wet brushing was discarded, because it was considered to have a mixture of remains associated and not associated with the use of the artifact. In this way, each lithic artifact was apparently cleaned of



**Figure 5** Artifacts analyzed in this study. The parts analyzed in pieces 2052 and 2081 are identified with red circles.

all sediment, but a small amount was left in microcracks. To recover that sediment (under the supposition that this would be most related to the use of the artifact) the artifact was submerged in a 45-mL Falcom flask, then this flask was immersed in an ultrasonic bath for 10 min, and the resulting pellet was then stored in a clean new Falcom flask. This process resulted in two different samples of sediment: one coming from the dry brushing (sediment I), and the other from the ultrasonic bath (sediment II).

For the recovery and separation of starch grains from the sediments, each sample was mixed with a cesium

chloride (CsCl) solution with a  $1.8 \text{ g/cm}^3$  specific gravity, stirred for 30 s, and then centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 12–15 min. By doing this, the starch grains with a specific gravity of less than  $1.8 \text{ g/cm}^3$  floated on the supernatant (A). Even so, the resulting sediment (B) was analyzed because it could contain starch grains with a specific gravity greater than  $1.8 \text{ g/cm}^3$ . After this, A and B were poured into a 2 mL Eppendorf flask, adding 0.5 or 1 mL of distilled water, shaken for 10–15 s, so as to eliminate all the CsCl crystals that could be formed, and then placed back into the centrifuge for 20–25 min at 3200 rpm. The centrifugation was repeated twice more with less water each time. After this step, one drop of the resulting solution was poured onto a slide, covered with a sterile Petri dish, and then a drop of glycerol was added. Immediately after this procedure a coverslip was placed on top and sealed with nail polish.

Slides were analyzed under a Leica DMLB microscope with polarized filters. Each starch grain and other biological material encountered was photographed with a Leica DFC310FX camera, as well as described and measured with Image J free software (Rasband 1997).

To minimize contamination by modern starch, the plastic and glass materials used were immersed in a Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO) solution for 8 h and then washed with Millipore-filtered water. The DMSO is a standard solvent used in plant storage laboratories for

**Table 2** Calibrated dates from the sediments associated with the artifacts analyzed, using the calibration curve CalPal2020\_INTCAL2020 (Danzeglocke, Jöris, and Weninger 2007). The date for artifact 2081 is an estimate due to the fact that it was found at the bottom of the neighbor H8 unit.

Artifact	Level	Facies	Calibrated date of associated sediment (cal yr BP)
350	1	3	$8977 \pm 93$
354	1	3	$8977 \pm 93$
592	3	9	$9322 \pm 80$
709	4	11	$9704 \pm 102$
718	4	11	$9704 \pm 102$
1455	6	19	$11,481 \pm 145$
1473	6	19	$11,481 \pm 145$
1476	6	19	$11,481 \pm 145$
1477	9	19	$11,481 \pm 145$
2052	9	19	$11,481 \pm 145$
2081	9	7	$>11,481 \pm 145$

the elimination of starch. The area of work was cleaned daily with ethanol (ETOH), and only non-powdered plastic gloves were used. Following recommendations of past research (Crowther 2014; Laurence 2011) for detecting possible starch grains present in the air, “traps” made with Petri dishes were filled with distilled water and left in different laboratory areas that were used for the starch analysis for 12 days. In addition, the used solutions were routinely analyzed for the presence of starch grains.

### 3.1.3. Artifacts 2052 and 2081

Two of the artifacts (2052 and 2081) followed a special protocol. The protocol for the latter can be consulted in Angeles Flores et al. (2016). Briefly, sediment for the former was recovered distinctively in proximal (A), distal (C), and middle (B) areas (Figure 5); the last area is a little circular depression which made us think that the artifact could have been used as an anvil. After dry and wet brushing, the proximal and the distal parts were put in an ultrasonic bath and the sediment was stored for analysis. The middle part did not follow this step, but a little bit of the sediment was scraped off with a sterilized needle and stored for analysis. After doing this, some concretions were noted in the distal part of the artifact (Figure 6). We suspected that some starch grains might have been trapped below these concretions; so, to destroy the concretions, this part of the artifact was submerged in a 10% hydrochloric acid solution (HCl) for two minutes. After this, the artifact was placed under running water, preventing the acid from destroying the piece. An equal volume of 20% baking-soda solution ( $\text{NaHCO}_3$ ) was added to neutralize the HCl solution. The resulting sediment was stored for analysis.

### 3.2. Use-wear analysis

The use-wear analysis was conducted by observing the appearance of the supposed working edge(s) in

comparison with other parts of the tool, consulting published results of experimental analysis in quartz, such as Pugliese (2007), Taipale (2012), and Knutsson (2015).

To obtain that data, the pieces 350, 354, 592, 709, 718, 1455, 1473, 1476, and 1477 were analyzed using a Leitz Wetzlar stereoscope 12.5 $\times$ , as well as a Dino-Lite digital microscope AM2111 (up to 230 $\times$  magnification). During lithic analysis, micro-wear, polishing, scratches, etc., were considered as use traces (Morais 1987).

## 4. Results

Starch grains were found in all analyzed lithic artifacts. Amongst the 11 pieces analyzed, 301 starch grains were recovered as well as 78 miscellaneous elements (possible phytoliths, vessel elements, and other cells or cell parts). Starch grains were registered based on the characteristics described in Pagán-Jiménez (2011) and the International Code for Starch Nomenclature (ICSN 2011).

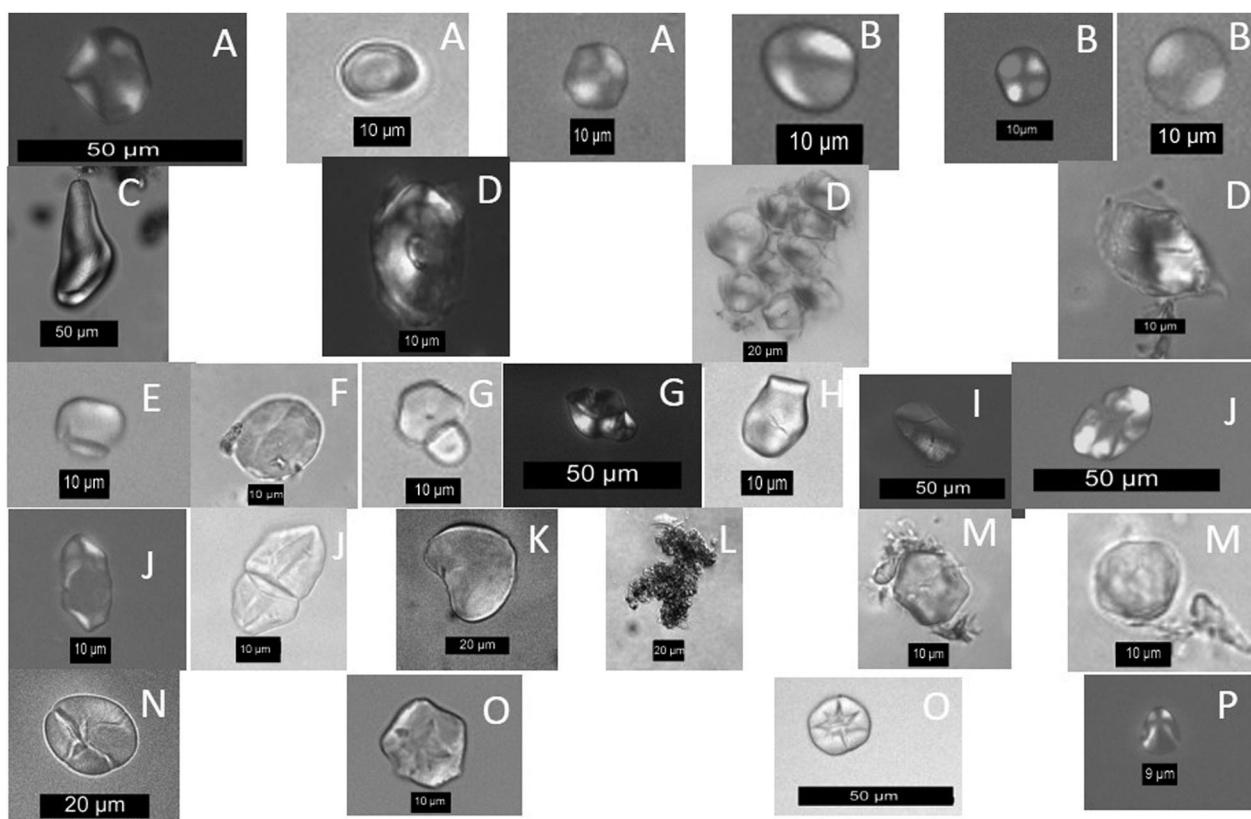
The starch grains were classified mainly following the criteria of form (circular, triangular, squared, etc.), and secondly other characteristics (lamella, border, hilum position, hilum form, etc.). In this way, starch grains were organized into 16 types named from A to P (Figure 7).

Starch grains were found in Sediment II as well as Sediment I. The C, I, L, and N types were found in Sediment II exclusively, while types E, F, H, K, and P were found exclusively in Sediment I. The rest of the types were found indistinctively in either sediment. Some of the starch grains were so modified that it was impossible to assign them a proper shape, so they were classified as “undetermined” (Table 3).

Regarding “exotic” pieces, starch grains were observed in Sediment II in the proximal part, Sediment I in the distal part, and in Sediment II in the central part of the 2052 piece. No starch grains were found after the HCl treatment. Results for the piece 2081 can be consulted in Angeles Flores (2015) and Angeles Flores et al. (2016).



**Figure 6** Image showing part of the 2052 piece before (left) and after (right) HCl treatment.



**Figure 7** Examples of the different categories used to classify starch grains identified in the analysis.

**Table 3** Starch grain types associated with sediments and lithics (Und = undefined).

		Lithic number											
		350	354	592	709	718	1455	1473	1476	1477	2052	2081	Total
Type	73	1	1	3	1	4	29	3	6	11	54	186	
Sediment II	A	16	1	1	1		1	12	2	4	4	3	45
	B	27					1	9		1	4	4	46
	C												1
	D	17											17
	G							1			3	1	5
	I				1								1
	J	2										2	4
	L												42
	M	5					2	6	1			1	15
	N	1											1
	Und.*	2					1						3
	O	3			1	1						1	6
	Total	350	354	592	709	718	1455	1473	1476	1477	2052	2081	Total
Sediment I	Type	30	1	1	1	17	17	26	2	8	3	9	115
	A	13	1	1		5	3	11			3	3	40
	B	5			1	4	7	5	1	8		4	35
	D				1	1							2
	E							1					1
	F						1						1
	G						1					1	2
	H	1						1					2
	J	4											4
	K											1	1
	M	5				5	4	8	1				23
	O	1				2							3
	P	1											1
	Total	103	2	2	4	18	21	55	5	14	14	63	301

#### 4.1. Modified starch grains

Modified (damaged) starch grains were detected in practically every sediment associated with the analyzed lithics. Generally speaking, nearly a third (103) of the starch grains were damaged in some way.

#### 4.2. Use-wear analysis

Only three lithic pieces presented use-wear traces. The main characteristics of the traces found in the lithic artifacts are described in [Table 4](#).

Based on [Table 4](#), it is possible to notice that the use marks on the lithics correspond to abrasion, and that the trace forms are not always the same. Artifact 350 ([Figure 8](#)) presents rectilinear micro-fragmentation on its edge, where the active angle of 36 degrees creates a natural cutting edge. In artifact 709, discontinuous

micro-wear traces are present on its 43-degree rectilinear active edge ([Figure 9](#)). In artifact 592 ([Figure 10](#)), the active edge presents an angle of 60 degrees, conferring to it even more resistance compared to artifacts 350 and 709; however, it probably was not used to cut, but to scrape, as observed by Alonso ([2008](#)).

### 5. Discussion

The botanical micro-remains found in the lithics are still under analysis; however, these remains plus the use-wear traces identified give us a clearer idea regarding their use. The implications and limitations of these findings are described in the following sections.

#### 5.1. Use of the stone tools

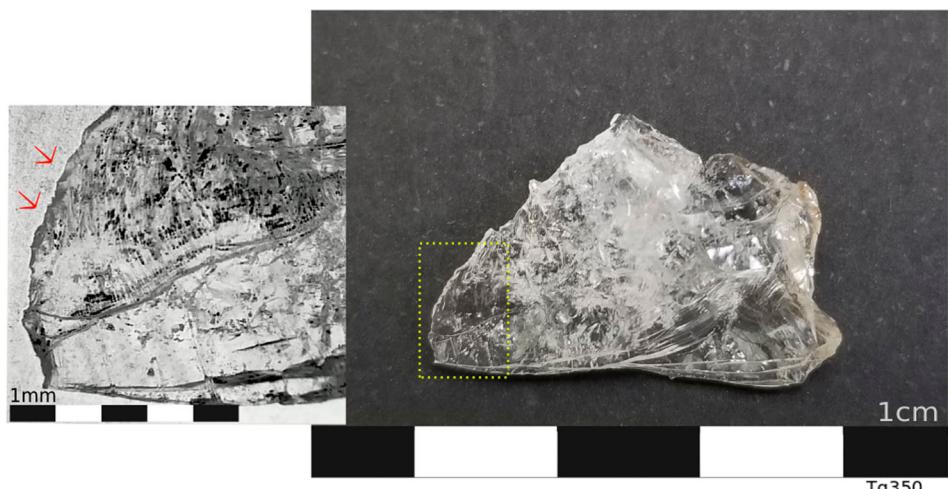
The lack of use-wear marks on most of the lithics where starch grains were recovered could be explained by various reasons:

- (1) It is possible that some of the starch preserved in the soil could have been attached to the surface of the lithics by processes unrelated to their use. This could be due to the decomposition of vegetables near the lithics (Barton and Matthews [2006](#), 88; Williamson [2006](#)); by the dumping of artifacts in activity areas (Barton, Torrence, and Fullagar [1998](#)); or by the handling of lithics with starchy hands (Barton [2006](#)).
- (2) Quartz is a very hard material. According to the Mohs scale, quartz is in the 7th degree (Klein and Dutrow [2012](#), 56–57). These data suggest that quartz is resistant to scratches and presents low tenacity or flexibility. Quartz also has a vitreous

**Table 4** Use-wear traces present in the lithics.

Lithic	Raw material	Use-wear marks	Form	Active edge angle (°)	Type of use
350	Hyaline quartz	Yes	Rectilinear	36	Abrasion
354	Milky quartz	No	-	-	-
592	Milky quartz	Yes	Irregular	60	Abrasion
709	Hyaline quartz	Yes	Rectilinear	43/62*	Abrasion
718	Hyaline quartz	No	-	31	-
1455	Hyaline quartz	No	-	-	-
1473	Milky quartz	No	-	-	-
1476	Hyaline quartz	No	-	-	-
1477	Milky quartz	No	-	-	-

\*first number = active edge 1; second number = active edge 2.



**Figure 8** Trace marks on artifact 350.



**Figure 9** Trace marks on artifact 709.

luster, can be transparent (hyaline quartz) or translucent (milky quartz), and presents conchoidal fracture (Dana 1960, 564–565). That type of fracture results in a smooth, rounded surface resembling the shape of a scallop shell, giving the mineral discrete characteristics in its internal face after flaking (Prous 1986/1990.). Therefore, it is easy to create a cutting tool by flaking quartz, but it is hard to observe traces on that mineral (Prous 1986/1990).

Taking this into account, it is possible that the marks of use were simply not visible with the microscope used, or that the starchy plants processed by the lithics were not hard enough to make any kind of marks. Regarding this, Knutsson (2015) and Taipale (2012) observed that, because of hardness characteristics of quartz, some tools made of it are not affected when used to scrape fresh wood, for instance, so it would not be rare that



**Figure 10** Trace marks on artifact 592.

the processing of a starchy plant did not leave a mark.

Regarding the artifacts that presented visible marks we can affirm the following:

- (1) Compared with the anthropic characteristics of use traces defined by Pugliese (2007), Taipale (2012) and Knutsson (2015), it is probable that the artifact 350, which presents a thin edge with rectilinear micro-fragmentation, was used in longitudinal or transversal movements to cut wet plant or dry hide or even to whittle dry wood.
- (2) Flake Tq709 presents discontinuous traces that are consistent with what Pugliese (2007) and Taipale (2012) describe as post-depositional traces. Quartz's low tenacity could contribute to the emergence of natural micro-wear traces on the edge of lithic artifacts during post-depositional processes and/or archaeological fieldwork or storage. One of those traces is striations very similar to the striations caused by the friction of quartz grain (from tool micro-fragmentation) or another particle on the edge during tool use. While anthropic striations are linear (regular, irregular, or discontinuous), post-depositional striations tend to present a more random distribution and orientation (Taipale 2012). Also, during fieldwork or when stored, lithics can suffer accidental micro-wear traces. Knutsson et al. (2015) highlight the fact that thin edges can be damaged more easily by mechanical or chemical processes than sturdier edges, and worn areas are more vulnerable to post-depositional impacts (mechanical or chemical) than unworn ones. Nevertheless, we do not think that this is the case regarding flake Tq709 because at Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu, as in the Lagoa Santa region, the sediment is mostly easily removable wood ash (Araujo et al. 2008; Araujo, de, and Piló 2017), which seems unlikely to leave damage on a quartz surface. Moreover, during excavation, each piece was plotted and stored in individual plastic bags to avoid damage. In addition, this tool presents a 43-degree edge that provides it with more resistance to breakage forming a cutting edge with less fragmentation than artifact 350, which again, makes it difficult to form non-anthropic marks. Therefore, discontinuous traces can be formed on a more resistant edge by cutting soft and humid materials.
- (3) Tq592 has no sharp edge, but its micro-wear traces are similar to what Taipale (2012) and Knutsson et

al. (2015) attributed to human activity for scraping bones with transversal movements.

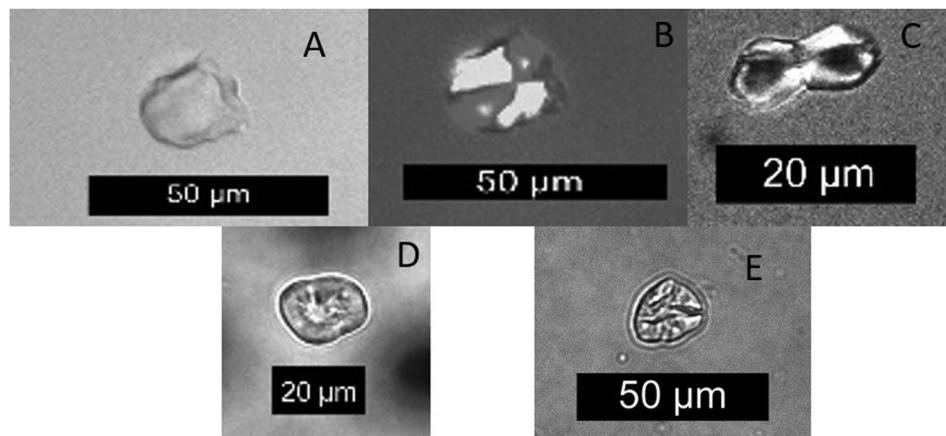
Taking this into account, the presence of starch grains in all of the lithics studied suggests a general use for processing starchy plants; we can affirm this with more certainty in the lithic flakes that presented marks of use. We can also make this affirmation regarding piece 2081 (Angeles Flores et al. 2016), which, although a use-wear study was not carried out on it, the presence of starch grains in the active parts of the piece, associated with the presence of raphides, reaffirm its use to process tuberous plants. The same cannot be said, however, for piece 2052, which presented starch grains in the sediment I and II on the parts analyzed. A use-wear study is required to complement this analysis.

Regarding the starch grains found in the sediments associated with the artifacts, it is not clear in this study if sediment "I" was representative of background starch grains or is a mixture of both background and use-related grains. Analyses of sediments not related to the artifacts might be needed to distinguish them.

## 5.2. Cooking?

The modifications of some of the starch grains might indicate some kind of grinding. For example, the damage presented in the grains shown in Figure 10 (E), as well as the central fissure in Figure 6(D) are consistent with what Babot (2003) identified as damage by milling. The star-shaped fissure presented in type O (Figure 6) might also indicate grinding (Dickau 2017, personal communication) or pounding on raw material (compare with Pearsall 2016, figure 6.3). Other starch grains, like the one in Figure 10(C) presented an extinction cross with a very wide center. This feature has been reported in cooked starch (Henry, Hudson, and Piperno 2009, figure 1). Gelatinized grains shown in Figure 11 (A-B) were also present, which might indicate heat damage in an aqueous ambient.

Modifications in the starch grains suggest a variety of processes used on the starchy plants, although it is difficult to pinpoint the exact process used, since various modifications overlap (Babot 2003). Nevertheless, the identification of a tuberous plant in the record strongly suggests a complex, multi-step process, because it is generally needed for the consumption of tuberous plants (Beck 2006). For example, the presence of raphides in some aroids (Sakai and Hanson 1974) and the toxicity in the bitter manioc (McKey et al. 2010) make their consumption impossible without these kinds of processes.



**Figure 11** Some examples of modification in starch grains.

### 5.3. Some tentative identifications on starch grains

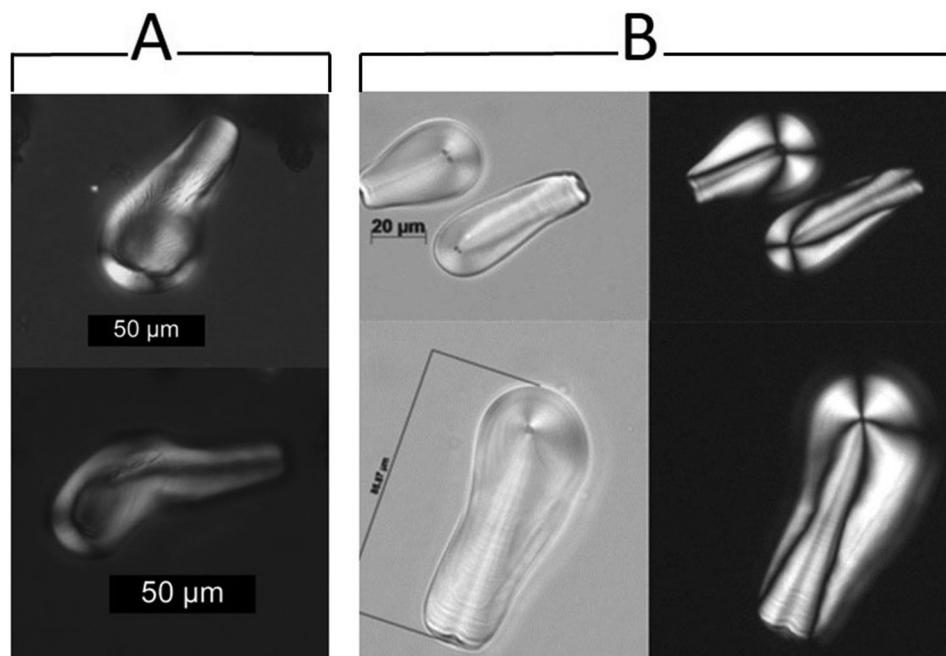
As mentioned above, the starch-grain analysis is still being done, but it is possible to have some preliminary identifications.

Type C is represented by a single starch grain found in the sediment II of artifact 1477. Taking into account form, type, lamination, hilum position, and size, Type C is almost identical to a non-domesticated *Dioscorea*, collected in Ecuador by Pagán-Jiménez (2015, 67) (Figure 12). Therefore, it is almost certain that this grain corresponds to this genus. This is important because artifact 1477 is associated with a facies dated to  $11,477 \pm 133$  cal yr BP, which places this find thousands of years before

the *Dioscorea* grains found in Xihuatoxtla (8990-8610 cal yr BP; Piperno et al. 2009), Agua Dulce ( $\sim 7000$  cal yr BP; Piperno 2000), and El Jazmín (8493-8313 cal yr BP; Piperno 2011, S458), the earliest finds of *Dioscorea* in an archaeological context in the Americas.

Regarding Type J, Dr. Jennifer Watling (personal communication, 2017) pointed out that some of the grains were similar to those seen by her in *Arecaceae* seeds. This would not be rare, considering that a great quantity was found in all levels of occupation at the site (Angeles Flores 2015).

Type D, found in Sediment I as well as Sediment II, stands out by its characteristic maltese cross in "Y" form, or in a longitudinal line; an open hilum, which turns into a longitudinal fissure when rotated; and a



**Figure 12** A, Type C starch grain from this study; B, *Dioscorea* registered by Pagán-Jiménez (2015).

thick border and viscous-like layer surrounding it. These characteristics have not been found in the literature consulted. Pagan-Jiménez (personal communication, 2017) has pointed out that this type might not be a starch grain at all. We consider this possibility, as well as the likelihood that, taking Brazil's biodiversity into account, this might be a new type of starch grain or some not well-studied modification.

Taking their form, size ( $16 \times 13 \mu\text{m}$ ), bumps in the surface, a double border, and the irregular form of the extinction cross's arms into account, some of the Type M grains seem similar to those of *Zea mays* and *Prosopis* (Giovannetti et al. 2008). However, this comparison is problematic because *Prosopis* has not been registered in Lagoa Santa's Cerrado either in studies of the present vegetation (Freire 2011) or in paleo-vegetation studies of the same area (Raczka 2013). Also, the arrival of *Zea mays* in Lagoa Santa is registered thousands of years later (Hermenegildo 2009; Shock et al. 2013), and corn starch grains are a very common modern contaminant, be it in the laboratory (Crowther 2014; Laurence 2011) or during excavation itself (Mercader et al. 2017). To clarify these questions (i.e., presence of *Zea mays* or *Prosopis*, species of *Dioscorea* found in the site, and specific processes of starchy plants for consumption), a reference study is being formed with several wild and cultivated *Dioscorea* and *Arecaceae* species as we write this article. We hope to have some results in the near future.

## 6. Conclusions

Unlike much of the Lagoa Santa archaeological sites, Lapa Grande de Taquaraçu had the advantage of being situated near a perennial water source, which translated into a variety of fluvial, animal, and plant resources at the disposition of Paleoindian groups. The plant resources were probably coming from the Mata Ciliar and Cerrado biomes. Because few starch grains from these environments have been characterized, we cannot affirm this with certainty, but what we can assert positively is that among these resources, starchy plants, and tuberous ones in particular, were present.

The presence of starch grains on all of the lithics studied as well as the use-wear marks visible on some of them, together provide direct evidence of the processing of starchy materials, including tuberous plants, from the area.

Some of the modifications in starch-grain morphology suggest grinding or exposure to high temperatures which might indicate cooking. If that proves true, it would mean that the people of Lagoa Santa knew a variety of plant types and processes needed for their

consumption. This happened since the area was initially occupied, and before the use of any ceramic pottery.

Taking all of the above into account, this study agrees with the models constructed by previous investigations (Da Gloria and Neves 2014; Kipnis 2002; Neves and Corner 1997) regarding the importance of plant consumption amongst Paleoindians in the region, providing some of the earliest evidence of starchy plant processing (including possibly cooking) in Lagoa Santa.

## Notes

1. In this paper, we refer to Paleoindians as the people living during the late Pleistocene and early Holocene in the Americas.
2. This skeleton, buried 12 m deep, attracted a lot of attention, first, because of its antiquity 11,400–16,400 cal yr BP dated from charcoal, which was later confirmed by luminescence in the related sediments (Feathers et al. 2010); and second, because of the form of the skull, which craniometrical analysis characterized as closer to modern Austromelanesian populations than Asian people. This was also found to be true for other skulls found at Lagoa Santa (Bernardo 2007; Neves et al. 2003, 2004; Neves and Hubbe 2005; Neves, Hubbe, and Piló 2007; Neves and Pucciarelli 1991). However, not all scientist agree with this, and Seguchi and colleagues suggest an affinity with Jomon populations (Seguchi et al. 2011).

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