

**STUDIES OF CARBON, OXYGEN AND STRONTIUM ISOTOPES IN TOOTH
ENAMEL: EVALUATING PALEOENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE IN SOUTH
AFRICA AND EXPANDING THE PALEOCLIMATE TOOL KIT**

by
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ABSTRACT

Anthropogenic-driven climate change has and will continue to influence Earth's ecosystems and environments. Major regional and global climate events have been observed throughout the geological record. We need to determine how natural systems responded to climate in the past and the possible interactions between mammalian species, including humans, and their environment, if we are to have perspective on how natural systems will respond to changes in climate both currently and in the future. Evaluating past climate and environment can be a useful way to evaluate if and how past landscapes, ecosystems and animal-environment interactions may have been influenced by climatic change.

Archeological and paleontological sites along the coastal region of southwestern South Africa preserve fossils and artifacts dating to the Pliocene and Pleistocene (within the last 5 million years). These materials indicate that southwestern South Africa was once home to large herbivorous mammalian communities and that hominins lived here since the mid-Pleistocene, at ca. 1 million years ago. However, this region is currently hot and dry and within a cool growing season. Furthermore, this region is within the fynbos biome, a biome with species that date to before the Pliocene, and is today mostly composed of woody, nutrient-poor shrub land. It is unknown how animals survived in the region during the Pliocene and Pleistocene or the composition of past vegetation and its distribution.

Here I present an evaluation of animal diet and the climate and environment of southwestern South Africa over the last 5 million years using the carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) and oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values) isotopic composition of fossil teeth. I then evaluate the

movement of animals for food in southwestern South Africa during the mid-Pleistocene and the distribution of vegetation at this time using strontium isotope ratios ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios) in the fossil tooth enamel preserved at archeological site Elandsfontein. I then consider the use of triple oxygen isotopes ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}$) in the fossil record as a way to improve upon the current $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ method to determine past climate and environmental change by presenting and characterizing $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in modern tooth enamel.

I found that herbivores ate vegetation characteristic of a cool growing season during the Pliocene and Pleistocene, therefore southwestern South Africa was within a winter rainfall zone since at least 5 million years ago. The ecosystem and environment of southwestern South Africa would have had to support the annual growth of grass if large mammalian herbivores (specifically grazers) could have survived in this region. Deposits indicative of fluvial environments (during the Pliocene) and spring-fed environments (during the Pleistocene) are preserved at fossil sites in the region. These environments would have been extremely important for the survival of animals in southwestern South Africa. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein suggest that large herbivores not only stayed within southwestern South Africa for food, but that they did not necessarily leave the area surrounding the fossil site.

The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of modern tooth enamel samples cover a greater span and include more negative values in arid environments than in humid environments, regardless of the oxygen isotopic composition of meteoric water and latitude. This record indicates the future potential of applying triple oxygen isotopes to the fossil record for reconstructing aridity, atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ and diagenesis.

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CHAPTER 1

1. Introduction

A major field in Earth Sciences is evaluating how climate change affected organisms, landscapes and environments in the past. The effects and imminent consequences of anthropogenic-driven climate change on ecosystems and environments have become of immediate concern and these appear to be caused largely by the increased burning of fossil fuels resulting in increasing atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ and in turn increasing global temperatures. However, both regional and global climates have fluctuated substantially throughout Earth's history (e.g., Marlow et al., 2000; Zachos, 2001). Reconstructions of past climate provide perspective on how natural systems will respond to present and future climate change; this includes the interactions between animals and environments as well interactions between the human species and environment.

Materials from marine and terrestrial systems can be influenced by different aspects of climate. When these materials are preserved in the geological record they can hold a signal of some aspect of the climate for times in the past, such as temperature or atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ (e.g., Tipple et al., 2010). Marine sediment cores can preserve terrestrial materials (e.g., pollen, leaf wax, sediments) that are used to capture aspects of past terrestrial climate and environment, such as vegetation type (deMenocal, 2004; Dupont et al, 2013). These cores also preserve material originating in the marine system itself that is used for evaluating ocean circulation and sea surface temperature change in relation to regional and global climate change (Marlow et al., 2000). Marine-based terrestrial records can have high temporal resolution, however these records are not local

to one region and instead combine materials that can span subcontinental spatial scales; furthermore, the origin of the terrestrial materials in marine sediment cores is dependent upon the direction of atmospheric and oceanic currents and so material may travel long distances before being deposited. Terrestrial-based records provide a more local perspective of the hydrological setting, vegetation and climate of a landscape across a region or site, but these records are seldom continuous and can have low temporal resolution (Cerling et al., 2013; Levin et al., 2015). It is important, however, to analyze terrestrial-based climate and environment proxy records to understand how both landscape and associated organisms responded to climate change. These terrestrial records can be then used in tandem with marine records to evaluate if and how regional and global climatic change resulted in terrestrial climate and environmental change and in turn how these changes influenced organisms within the region.

Various materials preserved at the landscape surface, including soils, sediments and fossils, can be used to evaluate the past terrestrial climate and environment of a region or site. These materials preserve information about the past climate on different time scales. For example, fossils can represent precise periods of time (i.e., the life span of an animal) while other records average climate and environment over 100s to > 100,000s of years, and even longer (e.g., the formation of soil and the deposition of sediments on a landscape).

Records of fossil mammals preserve information about an animal's diet and have been used to indicate environment and climate during the time they were alive (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Braun et al., 2010; Patterson et al., 2016). These records represent a snapshot in time on a specific landscape (i.e., at longest, the period of

time an animal was alive). The type of vegetation consumed by animals can be evaluated using both the morphology of a tooth which is used to understand the vegetation type an herbivore had evolved to consume, and the scrapes and scratches on the chewing surface of teeth, which is indicative of the dietary behavior of an animal in a region, irrespective of tooth morphology (e.g., Stynder, 2011). Isotope ratios in bones and teeth record the type of vegetation an animal consumed (using carbon isotopes), whether an animal traveled away from where the fossil was found for food (using strontium isotopes) and information about the water an animal consumed (using oxygen isotopes) (e.g., Luyt et al., 2000; Hoppe et al., 2006; Levin et al., 2006; Copeland et al., 2016).

The composition of vegetation in a region can be dependent upon climate. If we are to understand how organisms respond to climate change, then it is important to understand how animals utilized their landscape for food and in turn what their diets suggest about the distribution of vegetation and the environmental context of a region. In addition, in order to build and expand the tool kit for paleoclimate research, and understanding how landscapes and organisms respond to climate change, we need to develop relevant datasets from modern analogs to understand how these proxies work. This thesis addresses these concepts in detail using different isotopic systems preserved in fossil and modern teeth.

The isotopic compositions of elements in organic and inorganic carbonates (e.g., soil carbonate, tooth enamel, shells) are frequently used to reconstruct the terrestrial ecosystem response to climate change. It has long been known that that heavy and the light isotopes of a given element respond differently to various mass-dependent factors (i.e., kinetic and equilibrium effects), and therefore these isotopic effects can cause

fractionation between heavy and light isotopes. The ratio of isotopes is measurable via analysis of a molecular gas derived from a sample in a mass spectrometer. Of interest to this thesis are the distributions of carbon, oxygen and strontium isotope ratios in teeth to reconstruct terrestrial ecosystems and climate change. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value (ratios of $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ of a sample compared to that of a standard) of tooth enamel reflects the proportion of C_3 and C_4 plants in an animal diet, which can be used to determine the presence or the absence of C_3 and C_4 plants in the past, which in turn reflects the seasonality of rainfall (i.e., C_3 grasses occur where there is a cool growing season, while C_4 grasses grow in regions with a warm growing season) (e.g., Luyt et al., 2000). Strontium isotope ratios ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) can vary according to the mineralogical composition of a substratum, and this ratio is preserved in soils, plants and the teeth and bones of animals eating those plants, with insignificant fractionation of the strontium isotopes (e.g., Bentley, 1996). Enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios can be used as a geochemical proxy for substrate and is often used to determine land use among mammals, including hominids, because the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio from different geologic materials, or substrates, are preserved in bones and teeth. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (ratios of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$) value of tooth enamel is affected by a number of factors including the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of ingested water, which is influenced by the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation, surface and plant water and also animal physiology and behavior. Generally, animals tend to have higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel in more arid environments (e.g., Hoppe et al., 2006). The aridity of terrestrial ecosystems has been evaluated using the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel through the comparison of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel from animals that are obligate drinkers and non-obligate drinkers (Levin et al., 2006).

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ system cannot separate the environmental effects that influence fractionation of ^{16}O and ^{18}O , therefore the application of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ system to fossil teeth and bones (and in the fossil record in general) can not always provide a satisfying interpretation of climate and environment. For example, when considering the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of tooth enamel, the influence of evaporation on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the water an animal consumes cannot be separated from the influence of the original source water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value on ingested water. Specifically, kinetic and equilibrium isotopic fractionation effects on oxygen isotopes cannot be separated. Additionally, influencing factors on water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are often interrelated. Nevertheless, while not ideal, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth and of other terrestrial carbonates have been used to define foundational environmental and climatic proxy records by which many other paleorecords are compared and that Earth scientists use to interpret major changes to the Earth's surface over time (e.g., Zachos et al., 2001; Rowley and Currie, 2006). In the evaluation past terrestrial climates and environments, another metric is needed, one that can constrain the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ system by separating kinetic and equilibrium oxygen isotopic effects.

Triple oxygen isotope analysis ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}$) is a method that utilizes both the $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ and $^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios in a material to distinguish between kinetic and equilibrium isotope effects on the oxygen isotopic composition of enamel. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ reflects water availability, which cannot be distinguished by measuring $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values alone, and therefore has the potential to be an extremely useful way to determine past environmental aridity (as reviewed in Passey et al., 2014). Water availability is an important parameter for understanding how environments and organisms responded to climate change. In

addition, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth have the potential to help constrain atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ across the fossil record and also to be utilized as a method by which to evaluate whether the primary oxygen isotopes in a sample have been preserved (Gehler et al., 2011; Pack et al., 2013; Gehler et al., 2016). However, it is extremely important to first understand how $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in tooth enamel relates to geographic, biological, and environmental parameters today before we use this method for understanding climate and environment in the past.

The southwestern coast of South Africa has a complex and unique ecosystem and little is known about the regional environment and vegetation prior to the Last Glacial Maximum or how this region responded to global climate change over the last 5 million years, a period of major climatic change. Fossils are preserved in this region and indicate the presence of mammalian communities composed of extinct and extant animals across this time (Stynder, 2001; Klein et al., 2007). Technologically-advanced stone tools produced by hominins are preserved at the archeological site Elandsfontein in southwestern South Africa and date to ~ 1 million years ago (Braun et al., 2013). These tools point to a period of behavioral change at ~ 1 million years ago and make this region a hotspot for the history of human evolution. Hominins living in southwestern South Africa would have had to contend with the surrounding environments and any changes to these environments during the Pliocene and Pleistocene. Therefore, evaluating past environment and the composition of vegetation in southwestern South Africa is particularly relevant to understanding present and future climate change because it helps build perspective for future human-environment interactions (Braun et al., 2013). It is, however, unknown how hominins and other mammals could have survived in

southwestern South Africa in the past and what the environment conditions would have been during the mid-Pleistocene at Elandsfontein. There is no modern analog of the paleoenvironment at Elandsfontein; instead southwestern South Africa is today a dry and hostile environment in which the animal communities that once occupied the region could not possibly survive.

Fossil teeth preserved in sedimentary strata from known Pliocene and Pleistocene fossil sites in southwestern South Africa have the potential to provide evidence for the local environmental response to climate change. Records of enamel $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values as well as the enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from these fossil teeth are used in this dissertation to reconstruct the complex ways that terrestrial systems respond to climate change both on different spatial scales and over time.

In the following chapters I present three studies that take advantage of different isotope records ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$, $^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) that have been preserved in tooth enamel carbonate and discuss how these records can contribute to understanding past climate and environment. In this thesis, I consider the changes in environment and landscape of southwestern South Africa since 5 million years ago and how these changes may have related to global and regional climate. In Chapter 2, I present carbon and oxygen isotope data from fossil teeth from the mid-Pleistocene in southwestern South Africa and compare these records to other environment and climate proxy records from southern Africa that represent times within the last 5 million years. In Chapter 3, I consider how mammalian herbivores from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein moved around the region to find resources (i.e. food and water). The movement of animals can help understand the variation of vegetation in a region and help to determine whether the

proposed features of vegetation and environment at Elandsfontein, as described in Chapter 2 and that were derived from analysis of the teeth obtained at Elandsfontein, are plausible. Here I have sampled the enamel of several large herbivore teeth (animals that have the potential to migrate for food) along their tooth growth axis and analyzed their strontium isotope composition to determine if there was any indication of a change in the substrates on which they browsed and grazed. If the strontium isotope ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) ratios of these teeth were characteristic of the marine sands at Elandsfontein then it is likely that, 1) these animals did not travel to other locations in the region for food because there were adequate resources at Elandsfontein and 2) that at ~ 1 million years ago the landscape and spring-fed environment at Elandsfontein would have provided the conditions that supported the annual growth of C_3 grasses within a winter rainfall zone.

The studies presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 have expanded upon previous interpretations of climate, environment and landscape change in southwestern South Africa at times since ~ 5 Ma. In these studies, I paint a picture of the regional variation of vegetation during the mid-Pleistocene, a time when hominins lived in this region, and proposed that animals and hominins were drawn to Elandsfontein because this site had enough vegetation of sufficient quality to feed diverse populations of large mammalian herbivores. I attribute the vegetative composition at and around Elandsfontein ~ 1 million years ago to a spring-fed environment as indicated by ancient spring deposits preserved at the site. The presence of springs would have provided standing water throughout the year within a region when there was only winter rain. While southwestern South Africa is considered to have become more arid since the Pliocene based on marine-based climate

and vegetation proxies, the $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios of fossil teeth from Elandsfontein can not be used to determine changes in aridity compared with other environmental changes.

In Chapter 4, I consider the limitations of the conventional oxygen isotope record in biominerals (e.g., teeth, bone and eggshells) for understanding past climate and environment. I discuss the importance of utilizing all three oxygen isotopes preserved in a biomineral (where the rare isotope ^{17}O is measured along with ^{16}O and ^{18}O) as a way to distinguish between different factors that influence the oxygen isotope record, constrain past $p\text{CO}_2$, evaluate aridity and assess diagenesis of the primary oxygen isotope composition in teeth. In addition, I present the modern range of triple oxygen isotope values of enamel from different animal species that come from various latitudes and environments and have a variety of dietary behaviors. The data provide a record of tooth enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that are linked to known climatic and environmental parameters.

The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth could be valuable for evaluating the effects of diagenesis on the fossil tooth oxygen isotope records, adding to the suite of information about diagenesis based on $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios of fossil teeth. In addition, evaluating the change in aridity during the mid-Pleistocene could provide a new perspective about aridity in the region, where aridity represents water balance and water balance is an important element to understand how landscapes respond to climate change.

By understanding the broader context of climate change and resource availability in the southwestern coastal region of South Africa during the mid-Pleistocene, it might be possible to understand why Elandsfontein attracted large herbivores and at the same time start to characterize how vegetation on the western coast reflected or responded to changes in regional ocean circulation and global climate change.

CHAPTER 2: Stable isotopic composition of fossil mammal teeth and environmental change in southwestern South Africa during the Pliocene and Pleistocene

ABSTRACT

The past 5 million years mark a global change from the warmer, more stable climate of the Pliocene to the initiation of glacial-interglacial cycles during the Pleistocene. Marine core sediment records located off the coast of southwestern Africa indicate aridification and intensified upwelling in the Benguela Current over the Pliocene and Pleistocene. However, few terrestrial records document environmental change in southwestern Africa over this time interval. Here we synthesize new and published carbon and oxygen isotope data of the teeth from large mammals (>6 kg) at Langebaanweg (~5 million years ago, Ma), Elandsfontein (1.0 – 0.6 Ma), and Hoedjiespunt (0.35 – 0.20 Ma), to evaluate environmental change in southwestern Africa between the Pliocene and Pleistocene. The majority of browsing and grazing herbivores from these sites yield enamel $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values within the range expected for animals with a pure C_3 diet, however some taxa have enamel $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values that suggest the presence of small amounts C_4 grasses at times during the Pleistocene. Considering that significant amounts of C_4 grasses require a warm growing season, these results indicate that the winter rainfall zone, characteristic of the region today, could have been in place for the past 5 million years. The average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the herbivore teeth increases ~4.4‰ between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein for all taxa except suids. This increase may solely be a function of a change in hydrology between the fluvial system at

Langebaanweg and the spring-fed environments at Elandsfontein, or a combination of factors that include depositional context, regional circulation and global climate. However, an increase in regional aridity or global cooling between the early Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene cannot explain the entire increase in enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. Spring-fed environments like those at Elandsfontein may have provided critical resources for mammalian fauna in the mid-Pleistocene within an increasingly arid southwestern Africa ecosystem.

2.1. Introduction

The Pliocene-Pleistocene climatic transition is marked by a global shift from relatively warm and stable climate conditions in the Pliocene to colder and more variable conditions in the Pleistocene (Imbrie et al., 1992; Zachos et al., 2001). Over the course of this transition African landscapes are considered to have become more arid (e.g., deMenocal, 2004; Dupont et al., 2013). In southwestern Africa, intensified upwelling of cold bottom waters in the Benguela Current System has been linked with increased regional aridity and the onset, expansion and speciation of the endemic Cape flora since the Miocene (Marlow et al., 2000; Dupont et al., 2005; 2011; Etourneau et al., 2009). While marine-based records indicate major changes in vegetation and climate in southern Africa, terrestrial-based records could provide a more local perspective of the hydrological setting, vegetation and climate of southwestern South Africa since the Pliocene; currently there are few archives of environmental change in this region during the last 5 million years (myr) (Roberts et al., 2011; Eze and Meadows, 2014).

Sedimentary strata from known Pliocene and Pleistocene fossil sites in southwestern South Africa have the potential to provide direct evidence for the local environmental response to climate change (Table 2.1). Sedimentary records indicate a transition from fluvial to spring-fed and eolian deposition in southwestern South Africa (Roberts et al., 2011; Eze and Meadows, 2014). Data from pre-Holocene mammalian fossils suggest the presence of significant amounts of surface water and a vegetated landscape composed of a fynbos shrubland and grassland mosaic, interspersed with trees and broad-leafed bush, which contrasts the dry, eolian landscapes that are prevalent in

southwestern South Africa today (e.g., Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Stynder, 2009; 2011; Braun et al., 2013).

Here we use the carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of fossil herbivore tooth enamel obtained from paleontological and archaeological sites in southwestern South Africa to investigate trends in regional climate and hydrology, vegetation and animal diet between the Pliocene and Pleistocene. Together with marine archives off the coast of southern Africa that record broader, regional-scale climate and vegetation, we use these terrestrial-based data to improve upon the understanding of how environments in southwestern South Africa responded to global climatic changes during the Pliocene and Pleistocene.

2.2. Background

2.2.1. South African climate and vegetation

South Africa is predominantly semiarid with three distinct rainfall zones and corresponding vegetation zones (Fig. 2.1; Cowling et al., 2002). The winter rainfall zone of western South Africa encompasses an area of $\sim 200\text{-km}^2$ where $\sim 65\%$ of mean annual precipitation (MAP) occurs between April and September. The summer rainfall zone is affected by the warm Agulhas Current that flows along the eastern coast of South Africa. At the intersection of these two major meteorological zones, situated along the South Coast of South Africa, there is a region that receives rainfall during both the summer and winter. This annual rainfall zone spans from the southern coast of the Eastern Cape

Province of South Africa into the Western Cape Province (e.g., Chase and Meadows, 2007).

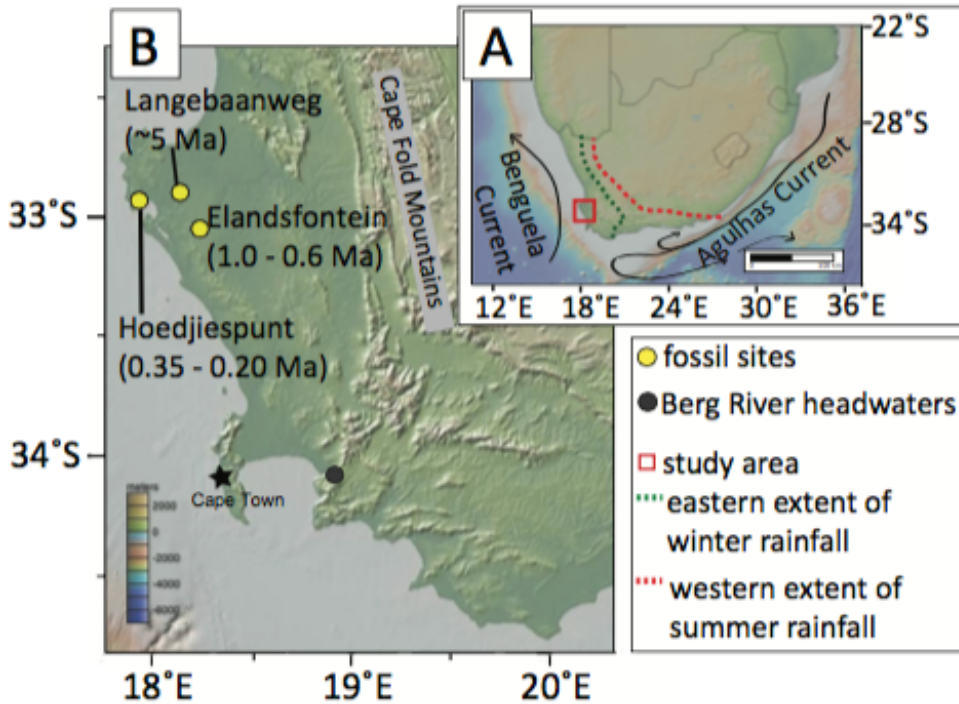


Figure 2.1: Marine currents, climate zones, and southwestern South African fossil sites discussed in text. A) A map of southern Africa indicating the location of the study area with a schematic of the present day extent of the winter and summer rainfall zones and the Benguela and Agulhas Currents and present-day political boundaries (Chase and Meadows, 2007). B) A map of the study area denoting the fossil localities discussed in text (yellow circles), Cape Town, the Cape Fold Mountains, and the headwaters of the Berg River. The color base maps indicating topography were generated using Global Multi Resolution Topography from <http://www.geomapapp.org> (Ryan et al., 2009).

Rainfall zones in South Africa partition zones of vegetation, which can be seen through the spatial distribution of the frequency of the three main photosynthetic pathways: C_3 , C_4 , and Crassulacean Acid Metabolism (CAM). The distribution of these pathways is largely determined by environmental factors (Farquhar et al., 1989). C_4 plants thrive in environments with a warm growing season while C_3 plants grow primarily

in cool growing seasons. CAM plants, such as cacti and succulents, are often found in semiarid to arid environments. The distribution of grass type is related to the seasonality of rainfall in South Africa; C₄ grasses mostly grow in regions with summer rainfall, C₃ grasses grow where there is winter rainfall, and both C₃ and C₄ grasses grow in the annual rainfall zone (Vogel et al., 1978; Cowling et al., 2002; Bar-Matthews et al., 2010). Increased upwelling and the latitudinal movement of the Benguela Current may modify the movement of warm waters along the coast of South Africa and this could impact the distribution of the rainfall zones (Chase and Meadows, 2007). The positions of the rainfall and vegetation zones are hypothesized to have shifted during the late Quaternary in response to the position and upwelling intensity of the Benguela Current (Lee-Thorp and Beaumont, 1995), however it is unclear whether they were stable in the Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene.

The paleontological and archaeological sites that are the focus of this paper are within southwestern South Africa, west of the Cape Fold Mountains and stretch across 40 kms of the coastal plain. These sites, Langebaanweg (~5 million years ago (Ma), early Pliocene), Elandsfontein (1.0 – 0.6 Ma, mid-Pleistocene) and Hoedjiespunt (0.35 – 0.20 Ma, late Pleistocene), are within the winter rainfall zone (Fig. 2.1). Regionally the area is known as Strandveld (literally ‘beach vegetation’) and geomorphologically is dominated by a coastal plain variably covered by marine sands (Mabbutt, 1955; Roberts et al., 2012). Limited outcrops of granite to the south and west interrupt Cenozoic-aged eolian deposits that blanket much of the region. The western portion of the area is underlain by shales of the Malmesbury Group leading up to the Palaeozoic sandstones of the Cape Supergroup (Besaans, 1972; Roberts et al., 2009). The contemporary vegetation in the study area is

primarily composed of small-leaved, nutrient-poor taxa of the strandveld and fynbos families. C₃ grasses and trees are scarce in this area because of the nutrient-poor soils. It has generally been presumed that C₄ grasses are limited in the southwestern Cape by the long, hot and dry summers, however C₄ grasses are able to grow in areas that are well watered throughout the year (e.g., Cowling et al., 2002; 2005).

2.2.2. Pliocene and Pleistocene climate and vegetation in western South Africa

2.2.2.1. Marine records

Marine sediment records from cores off the coast of southwestern Africa span the past 4.5 myr and provide information about terrestrial responses to global climate change and the degree of ocean upwelling (Marlow et al., 2000; Dupont, 2005; Etourneau et al., 2009). Charcoal and plant waxes preserved offshore show that there was an increase in aridity, seasonality and fires to the north of the study area during the Miocene and Pliocene (Hoetzel et al., 2013). The drying trend continued across the Pliocene-Pleistocene climatic transition; offshore pollen records indicate a reduction in grass and an increased occurrence of fynbos and semi-desert vegetation (e.g., Dupont et al., 2005).

2.2.2.2. Terrestrial records

In contrast to the high-resolution, marine-based proxy records that extend into the Miocene, there are no terrestrial-based proxy records with a similar time span or resolution. However the numerous archives of eolian and riverine sedimentary sequences on the coastal plains of southwestern South Africa provide some details of late Cenozoic

environments. There have been numerous studies of ancient environments in this region based on these records (e.g., Klein, 1978; 1982; 1983; 1991; Klein and Cruz-Urbe, 1991; February, 1992; Meadows et al., 1996). However, the vast majority of these studies have focused on environments since the Last Interglacial (0.125 Ma). Langebaanweg, Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt are paleontological and archeological sites within the study area that date to within the last ~5 myr. These sites are well known for their contribution to our understanding of faunal change and human evolution in South Africa (e.g., Hendey, 1976; Klein, 1978; Berger and Parkington, 1995; Stynder, 1997; Stynder et al., 2001; Klein et al., 2007; Braun et al., 2013). The flora, fauna and sediment records at these sites provide a record of environmental change in the area from the Pliocene and Pleistocene (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Stynder, 2009; Roberts et al., 2011; Stynder, 2011; Braun et al., 2013; Hare and Sealy, 2013; Eze and Meadows, 2014). While these sites have been the focus of a variety of paleoecological studies (Table 2.1), currently there is no detailed, integrated record of the hydrological, ecological and climatic changes in southwestern South Africa over the past 5 myr.

2.2.3. Carbon and oxygen isotope composition of herbivore tooth enamel

C₃, C₄ and CAM plants have distinct stable carbon isotope values primarily due to different physiologies of the different photosynthetic pathways (e.g., Farquhar et al., 1989). Carbon isotope data of plants are traditionally presented using δ -notation, where

$$\delta = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) * 1000 \text{ in per mil (‰) units and } R_{\text{sample}} \text{ and } R_{\text{standard}} \text{ are the ratios of heavy}$$

to light isotopes (in this case, ¹³C and ¹²C) of the sample and standard, respectively. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

values are reported relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_3 plants globally range from $\sim -31.7\text{‰}$ to $\sim -23.1\text{‰}$ (Kohn et al., 2010). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values C_4 plants range from $\sim -14.0\text{‰}$ and $\sim -10.0\text{‰}$ (Hattersley, 1982). In southwestern South Africa the average $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of C_4 plants is $-12.8 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ (Radloff, 2008), whereas $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CAM plants range from $\sim -24\text{‰}$ to $\sim -16\text{‰}$ (Boom et al., 2014).

Table 2.1: A summary of the terrestrial records of climate, vegetation and depositional environment from southwestern South Africa.

| Age | Locality | Depositional environment | Substrate | Vegetation | Climate | Data sets | References |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|---|
| late Pleistocene (0.35 - 0.25 Ma) | Hoedjiespunt | Coastal | Sands | Shrubs and widespread grasslands | Glacial | Taxonomy ^a Stable isotopes ^a | Klein, 1983 Stynder, 1997 Hare and Sealy, 2013 |
| mid-Pleistocene (~1.0 - 0.6 Ma) | Elandsfontein | Spring-fed and eolian | Eolian and marine sands, carbonate-leached sediments, pedogenically modified sands | Trees, shrubs, and seasonal grasses | Glacial and/or Interglacial | Taxonomy ^a Stable isotopes ^a Microwear ^a Sediment | Butzer, 1973 Klein, 1978 Luyt et al., 2000 Stynder, 2009 Braun et al., 2013 |
| Pliocene (~5 Ma) | Langebaanweg | Fluvial and deltaic | Floodplain, marsh, and river channel deposits | Trees, shrubs, and seasonal grasses | Warm and wet | Taxonomy ^a Stable isotopes ^a Mesowear ^a Microwear ^a Sediment | Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002 Roberts et al., 2011 Stynder, 2011 |

^a Datasets that apply to teeth.

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value reflects the proportion of C_3 and C_4 plants in an animal's diet such that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of fossil herbivore teeth can be used to determine the

presence or absence of C₃ and C₄ grasses in the past. There is a +14.1‰ dietary enrichment of δ¹³C values between the diet of large herbivorous mammals (> 6 kg) and their enamel (Cerling et al., 1999) and as such the δ¹³C value of tooth enamel (δ¹³C_{enamel}) reflects the isotopic composition of an animal's diet (see Kohn and Cerling, 2002 for review). Here we define large mammals as > 6 kg because the smallest mammal included in this category is the grysbok, which is ~ 10 kg, whereas we refer to the mammals from Elandsfontein with body weights < 6 kg as small mammals, which includes the rodent genera *Bathyergus* and *Otomys*. For fossil sites, in southern Africa, the presence or absence of C₃ and C₄ grasses in mammalian diet has been presumed to reflect the presence or absence of winter and summer rainfall (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Hare and Sealy, 2013). Within a C₃-dominated ecosystem, the isotopic composition of tooth enamel from large herbivores can be used to tease apart subtleties in the distribution of vegetation (e.g., Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Hare and Sealy, 2013). For example, Hare and Sealy (2013) suggest that there was some C₄ grass in C₃-dominated grasslands in southwestern South Africa during the late Pleistocene because the δ¹³C_{enamel} values of grazers were more enriched in δ¹³C_{enamel} values than what is expected for a grazer consuming purely C₃ vegetation. CAM plants are not considered to have greatly influenced the δ¹³C_{enamel} values because they do not comprise a major proportion of large mammalian herbivore diets (Cerling et al., 2003) and therefore they will not be further considered in this study.

The stable oxygen isotope composition of the carbonate component of herbivore tooth enamel is affected by a number of factors including the δ¹⁸O value of ingested

water, which is influenced by the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation, surface and plant water, as well as animal physiology and behavior (as reviewed in Kohn and Cerling, 2002). All of these factors generally contribute to higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel in more arid environments. The comparison of enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between obligate drinkers and non-obligate drinkers has been specifically used for evaluating relative aridity in terrestrial ecosystems (e.g., Levin et al., 2006).

The oxygen isotopic composition of enamel phosphate has also been used as a proxy for paleoclimate and is considered to be less susceptible to alteration than the oxygen isotope composition of the carbonate component of enamel because oxygen in the phosphate component is more tightly bound than in the carbonate component of enamel (Chenery et al., 2012). The offset between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate and phosphate components of enamel ranges from 7.2‰ to 10.6‰ in well-preserved teeth and has been used as a means to evaluate diagenetic modification of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth (e.g., Iacumin et al., 1996).

2.3. Materials and Methods

2.3.1. Fossil enamel samples

We sampled mid-Pleistocene fossil teeth from two separate faunal collections at Elandsfontein. The first collection is housed at the Iziko South African Museums in Cape Town, South Africa. This faunal sample, known as Elandsfontein Main (EFTM), was predominantly collected from surface deposits over the course of several decades as

described in Klein et al. (2007). The second collection derives from recent fieldwork conducted by the West Coast Research Project (WCRP) between 2008 and 2014. These materials are archived at the Archaeology Department, University of Cape Town and include both surface samples and excavated teeth. All fossils that we sampled from the WCRP collection derive from the Upper Pedogenic Sand lithological unit that is part of the Langebaan Formation (Braun et al., 2013). We also sampled Pliocene teeth ($n = 10$) from the Varswater Formation at the Langebaanweg paleontological locality, which were obtained from the West Coast Fossil Park (Roberts et al., 2011). The teeth from Langebaanweg were sampled to provide a point of comparison in the evaluation of the diagenetic alteration of oxygen isotopes in tooth enamel from Elandsfontein. All tooth enamel was sampled with a diamond drill bit along the tooth growth axis. When possible, third molars were sampled. New data were compiled with previously published carbon and oxygen isotope tooth enamel data from the region, including 64 teeth from Langebaanweg (Franz-Odendaal et al., 2002), 18 teeth from Elandsfontein (Luyt et al., 2000), and 39 teeth from Hoedjiespunt (Hare and Sealy, 2013). This compilation does not include the isotope data of the fossil teeth from the “Bone Circle” at Elandsfontein that Luyt et al. (2000) published because we are uncertain of their context and relationship to the other fossils from Elandsfontein (Braun et al., 2013).

2.3.2. Isotopic measurements

We measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of both the carbonate and phosphate components of fossil tooth enamel. We also measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of

surface and ground waters in the immediate vicinity of Elandsfontein and in the general Langebaan-Hopefield region.

2.3.2.1. Analysis of the enamel carbonate component

Fossil enamel was powdered, treated with 3% H₂O₂ to remove organic material and rinsed three times with deionized water. The resultant powder was rinsed with 0.1 M buffered acetic acid to remove secondary carbonate, rinsed three times with deionized water and dried overnight at 60°C. Approximately 500 to 800 µg of each powdered sample were placed in a silver capsule then digested under vacuum in a common bath of 100% phosphoric acid at 90°C and the resultant CO₂ was purified using a custom-built automated device (Passey et al., 2010). The CO₂ was analyzed for ¹³C/¹²C and ¹⁸O/¹⁶O ratios using a dual inlet system on a Thermo MAT253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer in the Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University. The isotopic composition of the resultant CO₂ was determined with respect to a working CO₂ reference, calibrated using NBS-19, and monitored using working references of calcite and enamel. The precision of the working carbonate enamel standards over the course of the analyses made for this study was 0.4‰ and 0.2‰ for δ¹³C and δ¹⁸O, respectively. An acid fractionation factor of 1.00725 was used for determining δ¹⁸O values of the carbonate component of fossil enamel digested at 90°C (Passey et al., 2007). All δ¹³C values are reported relative to VPDB (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) and δ¹⁸O values are reported relative to VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water).

2.3.2.2. Analysis of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel phosphate

Forty-eight fossil teeth from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein were analyzed for the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel phosphate, in addition to carbon and oxygen isotope analyses of enamel carbonate mentioned above. Samples were drilled and pretreated in the manner described above (Section 3.2.1). Phosphate-bound oxygen was isolated and extracted from enamel using a modified version of the batch Ag_3PO_4 precipitation method of O'Neil et al. (1994) followed by $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analysis of approximately 400 μg of Ag_3PO_4 via high temperature pyrolysis to CO (TC/EA) on a continuous flow Delta Plus XL isotope ratio mass spectrometer at the Department of Geosciences, Princeton University.

Long-term performance (precision of the isotope ratio mass spectroscopy measurement and wet chemistry conversion from hydroxyapatite to Ag_3PO_4) was confirmed by repeat analysis of NBS120c, a phosphate rock with certified metal oxide abundances and distributed by the National Institute of Standards and Technology and the *de facto* standard for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in phosphate, with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from 21.3 to 22.6‰ VSMOW (e.g., Vennemann et al., 2002; Halas et al., 2011). Although precipitation yield varied using the modified O'Neil et al. (1994) batch precipitation method ($52\pm 22\%$), repeat analysis of the NBS120c phosphate standard over 18 months averaged $22.36\pm 0.48\%$ and showed no dependence of measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values on precipitation yield, with the average value aligning well with published $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values.

2.3.2.3. Analysis of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of water

Samples of standing water and ground water ($n = 3$) were collected from a series of active springs in the vicinity (within a ~ 3 km to ~ 17 km radius) of the Quaternary

deposits at Elandsfontein where fossil teeth were collected. Tap water from The Western Cape Fossil Park (which is in the general proximity of the study area) was also collected ($n = 1$). Samples were passed through a 0.45- μm filter in the field and sealed in a glass bottles with polycone seal lids and wrapped in parafilm to prevent evaporation. Samples were cleaned with activated charcoal to remove organics, filtered again and then analyzed by laser absorption spectroscopy on a Los Gatos Research Liquid-Water Isotope Analyzer at the Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University. The precision of the working water standard USGS48 over the course of the water analyses was 0.03‰ and 0.1‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ respectively. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of water samples are reported relative to the VSMOW-SLAP scale, where SLAP is Standard Light Antarctic Precipitation.

2.3.3. Interpretation of stable isotope results

2.3.3.1. Influence of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of atmospheric CO_2

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of atmospheric CO_2 has decreased over the past 5 myr (Tippie et al., 2010) and this decrease needs to be considered when using $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values to determine the proportion of C_3 and C_4 plants in an animal's diet. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of atmospheric CO_2 will influence the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_3 and C_4 plants and as a consequence will influence $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of the tissues of the animals that eat these plants. We calculated the ranges in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values that we expect for C_3 and C_4 plants at the time periods representative of Langebaanweg (~5 Ma), Elandsfontein (1.0 – 0.6 Ma) and Hoedjiespunt (0.35 – 0.20 Ma) to better determine what herbivore $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values may

indicate about the distribution of C₃ and C₄ plants in the study area, considering the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of atmospheric CO₂ reconstructed from benthic foraminifera (Tipple et al., 2010; see Table S2.1 for details). Given changes in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of atmospheric CO₂, the maximum $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for large mammals with a pure C₃ diet are -7.6‰ for Langebaanweg and -8.4‰ for both Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt (Table S2.1). If the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value of a grazer is higher than the reconstructed maximum $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value for an animal eating a pure C₃ diet, then it implies the presence of C₄ grass in the animal's diet and, in turn, the growth of C₄ plants in the otherwise dry summer months in southwestern South Africa. As mentioned earlier, the presence of C₄ grass in southwestern South Africa is interpreted as the inclusion of rainfall during the summer months in this ecosystem. Alternatively, large mammals may be feeding around permanent water sources such as springs and rivers where C₄ plants may have grown.

2.3.3.2. Analysis of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel phosphate

Low carbonate content of fossils, bones and sediments at Elandsfontein have led to hypotheses that carbonate has been leached from the fossil deposits at the Elandsfontein archeological site since initial deposition and burial (Luyt et al., 2000). This is in contrast to fossils from the sites Langebaanweg and Hoedjiespunt, which have been recovered from carbonate-rich sediments (Stynder, 1997; Roberts et al., 2013). To evaluate the potential influence of leaching on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of tooth enamel at Elandsfontein and whether or not these $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values can be used as indicators of paleoclimate, we compared the offsets in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate and phosphate of fossil teeth from Elandsfontein to those from Langebaanweg.

Oxygen in enamel phosphate is more strongly bound and more resistant to diagenetic alteration than in enamel carbonate. There is a consistent enrichment between the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in enamel phosphate and carbonate and as such $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the oxygen in the phosphate and carbonate component of tooth enamel are strongly correlated for modern and unaltered fossil enamel (Bryant et al., 1996; Iacumin et al., 1996; Martin et al., 2008). This enrichment, or epsilon

$$\text{(i.e., } \epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{A-B}} \text{ where } \epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{A-B}} = \left[\frac{1000 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{A}}}{1000 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{B}}} \right] \times 1000 \text{ and where in this case A =}$$

CO_3 and $\text{B} = \text{PO}_4$), ranges from 7.2 to 10.6‰ for enamel that has not experienced significant diagenesis (Bryant et al., 1996; Iacumin et al., 1996; Martin et al., 2008). The $\epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ has been used to determine if the oxygen isotopic composition of the carbonate in bioapatite has been diagenetically altered (Iacumin et al., 1996). We compared $\epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ values of teeth at Elandsfontein to those from Langebaanweg and from compilations of modern teeth to evaluate the integrity of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of teeth from Elandsfontein. If the $\epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ values at Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein are similar to one another and within the range expected for unaltered teeth, then the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of enamel from Elandsfontein can be used to reconstruct paleoenvironment.

2.3.3.3. Statistical comparison of isotopic values

All comparisons of isotope data from fossil teeth were performed using the JMP 11, a statistical analytical software program developed by the SAS Institute and evaluated

using the Tukey-Kramer HSD test. The \pm symbol is used throughout this paper to represent one standard deviation from the mean.

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Isotopic composition of fossil enamel carbonate from Elandsfontein

The compiled dataset for carbon and oxygen isotope data (carbonate component only) for large mammalian teeth from Elandsfontein is comprised of two collections that represent the mid-Pleistocene, EFTM ($n = 71$; Luyt et al., 2000; this study) and WCRP ($n = 123$; this study). The EFTM and WCRP collections include fossil teeth from seven herbivore families: Bovidae, Elephantidae, Equidae, Giraffidae, Hippopotamidae, Rhinocerotidae and Suidae, in addition to a single tooth from the primate family, Cercopithecidae (see Table 2.2 and Table S2.2). These samples likely all belong to the same stratigraphic unit, the mid-Pleistocene Upper Pedogenic Sand in the Langebaan Formation (Braun et al., 2013). The main difference between these collections is that fossils in the EFTM collection were collected from surface finds over decades (Klein et al., 2007), whereas the WCRP collection includes a combination of fossils recovered from surface surveys and excavations made with careful attention to stratigraphic context (Braun et al., 2013).

Table 2.2: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of fossil tooth enamel from sites in southwestern South Africa, averaged by family and bovid tribe.

| Taxon (family or tribe) | Dietary behavior ^b | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VPDB $\pm 1\sigma$) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VSMOW $\pm 1\sigma$) | Number of samples |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|---|-------------------|
| <i>Hoedjiespunt (0.35 - 0.25 Ma)</i> | | | | |
| Alcelaphini | grazer | -9.8 \pm 1.3 | 31 \pm 1.5 | 16 |
| Bovini | grazer | -7.1 \pm 1.3 | 32.9 \pm 0.6 | 2 |
| Reduncini | grazer | -10.2 \pm 2.3 | 32.7 \pm 2.0 | 2 |
| Antelopini | mixed feeder | -9.6 \pm 1.1 | 31.2 \pm 2.1 | 5 |
| Neotragini | mixed feeder | -8.4 \pm 2.5 | 32.2 \pm 1.3 | 3 |
| Cephalophini | browser | -10.4 \pm 0.6 | 31.1 \pm 1.5 | 3 |
| Tragelaphini | browser | -9.5 \pm 1.3 | 31.2 \pm 1.2 | 8 |
| All Bovidae | - | -9.5 \pm 1.5 | 31.4 \pm 1.5 | 39 |
| <i>Elandsfontein (~1.0 - 0.6 Ma)</i> | | | | |
| Alcelaphini | grazer | -10.3 \pm 1.2 | 32.6 \pm 1.9 | 19 |
| Bovini | grazer | -10.3 \pm 0.8 | 33.8 \pm 1.6 | 18 |
| Reduncini | grazer | -9.6 \pm 0.7 | 33.3 \pm 2.7 | 9 |
| Hippotragini | mixed feeder | -10.3 \pm 1.3 | 31.3 \pm 1.9 | 4 |
| Neotragini | browser | -12.3 \pm 1.4 | 32.6 \pm 0.7 | 2 |
| Tragelaphini | browser | -11.8 \pm 0.5 | 34.6 \pm 1.4 | 8 |
| All Bovidae | - | -10.0 \pm 1.3 | 33.2 \pm 2.0 | 123 |
| Elephantidae | grazer | -8.5 | 30.8 | 1 |
| Cercopithecidae | - | -10.2 | 31.2 | 1 |
| Equidae | grazer | -9.8 \pm 0.7 | 32.7 \pm 1.0 | 32 |
| Giraffidae | browser | -11.0 \pm 1.3 | 32.5 \pm 2.0 | 7 |
| Hippopotamidae | semi-aquatic | -12.3 \pm 1.1 | 29.7 \pm 1.5 | 9 |
| Suidae | grazer | -9.9 \pm 1.4 | 28.0 \pm 3.1 | 8 |
| Rhinocerotidae | grazer and browser | -11.0 \pm 0.8 | 31.6 \pm 1.8 | 13 |
| <i>Langebaanweg (~5 Ma)</i> | | | | |
| | browser to grazer | | | |
| Alcelaphini | grazer | -10.8 \pm 1.0 | 27.5 \pm 1.5 | 7 |
| Reduncini | - | -10.7 \pm 0.0 | 28.0 \pm 2.1 | 2 |
| All Bovidae | - | -10.7 \pm 0.8 | 28.7 \pm 2.8 | 11 |
| Equidae | grazer | -10.7 \pm 1.4 | 28.1 \pm 2.4 | 8 |
| Giraffidae | browser | -11.4 \pm 1.2 | 28.4 \pm 2.0 | 29 |
| Suidae | - | -11.8 \pm 1.0 | 27.7 \pm 0.9 | 4 |
| Rhinocerotidae | grazer | -10.9 \pm 0.7 | 26.2 \pm 1.4 | 4 |
| Hippopotamidae | semi-aquatic | -11.9 \pm 1.5 | 25.4 \pm 1.7 | 18 |

^a In addition to the new isotopic data, the isotopic data from previously published papers are included to determine the average $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ data for mammalian families and bovid tribes at each fossil site (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Hare and Sealy, 2013). See Table S2.2 for the compilation of data from individual teeth and the corresponding references.

^b References for the classification of dietary behavior are provided in Table S2.2.

There are no differences in either the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ($p > 0.9$) or $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ($p > 0.2$) of enamel carbonate, grouped by taxonomic family, from the EFTM collection data reported by Luyt et al. (2000) and the new EFTM data that we report in this study. When the isotopic data from teeth in the combined EFTM dataset (Luyt et al., 2000; this study) are compared to the isotopic data from fossils in the WCRP collection (this study only), we do not find any differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth from like families except for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (enamel carbonate) of the suids (EFTM, $n = 5$, $26.3 \pm 2.6\text{‰}$; WCRP, $n = 3$, $32.1 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$, $p = 0.004$). We note that the sample size is small for several of the families analyzed at Elandsfontein (see Table 2.2 and Table S2.2). From here on out, we discuss the isotope data from both the EFTM and WCRP collections together and refer to them as all from Elandsfontein, unless otherwise noted.

We classified the dietary behavior (i.e., grazer, browser or mixed feeder) of 104 teeth from the compiled collections for Elandsfontein using a combination of approaches, including mesowear, microwear and taxonomic analogy (Fig. 2.2; Table S2.2; Stynder, 2009; 2011). The individual teeth fall into three groups: browsers ($n = 20$), mixed feeders ($n = 4$) and grazers ($n = 71$). *Theropithecus* at Elandsfontein has not yet been analyzed using mesowear or microwear to determine diet so we do not place it in one of these categories. We consider hippopotamids apart from the other taxa that we sampled and classify it as semi-aquatic because in modern African ecosystems *Hippopotamus amphibious* spends a significant amount of time immersed in water, unlike the other taxa in this dataset (e.g., Bocherens et al., 1996; Cerling et al., 2008). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of browsers, mixed feeders and grazers average $-11.6 \pm 0.8\text{‰}$ ($n = 20$), $-10.3 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$ ($n = 4$)

and $-10.1 \pm 1.0\text{‰}$ ($n = 71$), respectively. The average $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value of hippopotamids from Elandsfontein is $-12.3 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$ ($n = 9$). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of enamel of browsers, mixed feeders, grazers and hippopotamids are $33.1 \pm 1.9\text{‰}$, $31.3 \pm 1.6\text{‰}$, $32.4 \pm 2.5\text{‰}$ and $29.7 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$, respectively. Hippopotamid $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel carbonate are significantly lower than $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of browsers ($p = 0.002$) and grazers ($p = 0.005$).

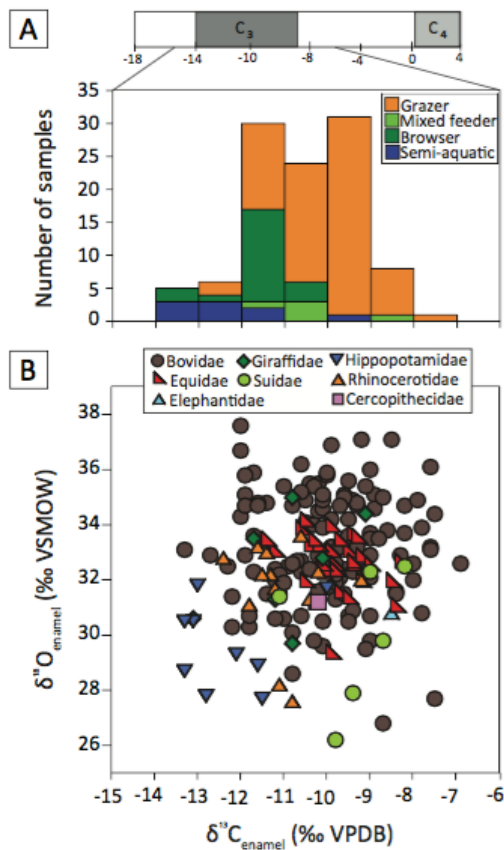


Figure 2.2: The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of fossil mammalian tooth enamel from the Elandsfontein collections EFTM and WCRP (Luyt et al., 2000; this study). A) Histogram of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of teeth that can be categorized as browser ($n = 20$), grazer ($n = 71$), mixed feeder ($n = 4$) and semi-aquatic hippopotamid ($n = 9$) (Table S2.2). The smaller plot above the histogram provides a guide for interpreting $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in terms of animal diet (pure C_3 and C_4 vegetation, gray bars). B) The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of tooth enamel are plotted for each fossil tooth, grouped by family.

2.4.2. Comparison of oxygen isotopic values between enamel carbonate and enamel phosphate

We analyzed the oxygen isotope composition of both the carbonate and phosphate components of a subset of tooth enamel from Elandsfontein and Langebaanweg to evaluate whether the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the carbonate component of enamel from fossil teeth at Elandsfontein is well enough preserved that it can be used as a proxy for conditions during the animal's life. The average $\varepsilon\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ values of enamel are $9.2\pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ($n = 38$) and $8.2\pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ($n = 10$) for Elandsfontein and Langebaanweg, respectively; these values fit within the range observed for well-preserved teeth ($7.2 - 10.6\text{‰}$) (Bryant et al., 1996; Iacumin et al., 1996 and Martin et al., 2008; Fig. 2.3; Table S2.3). Based on the similarities in these offsets to what has been measured in well-preserved enamel, we consider the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of tooth enamel from Elandsfontein to be unaltered and to reflect the environmental and physiological conditions experienced by an animal during tooth formation.

Further data to support this conclusion comes from interspecific comparisons of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel carbonate. Numerous fossil and modern localities have documented that $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of hippopotamid enamel carbonate are lower than the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of coeval taxa because they would be eating plants close to water and drinking water (e.g., Bocherens et al., 1996; Levin et al., 2006). Similar taxonomic distinctions found between ancient taxa in the Elandsfontein collection indicate that the unaltered biogenic signal of isotopic values is preserved in these specimens (Fig. 2.2b). Henceforth,

we only discuss the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from the carbonate component of tooth enamel and refer to them as $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values.

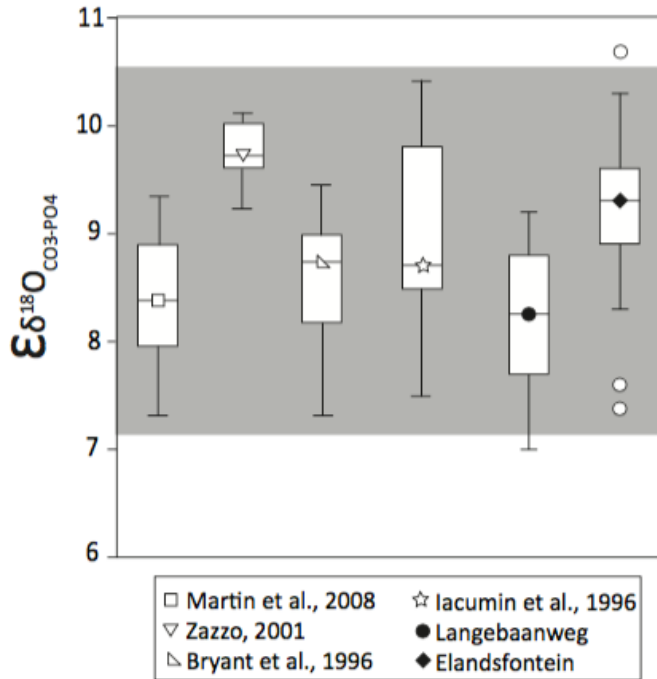


Figure 2.3: Box plot of the offset of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel carbonate and enamel phosphate ($\epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$) for fossil enamel from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein (closed symbols) and modern enamel from published studies (open symbols). The ends of the boxes represent the quartile values and the horizontal line within is the median, horizontal lines outside of the box indicate the range, and the outliers are plotted as circles. The gray bar denotes the maximum and minimum $\epsilon \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ values measured for modern teeth (Bryant et al., 1996; Iacumin et al., 1996; Zazzo, 2001; Martin et al., 2008).

2.4.3. Trends in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from southwestern South Africa since 5

Ma

We compiled the new carbon and oxygen isotope data from tooth enamel produced in this study from Elandsfontein and Langebaanweg with the published data from Langebaanweg (Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002), Elandsfontein (Luyt et al., 2000) and Hoedjiespunt (Hare and Sealy, 2013) to examine environmental and climatic changes in

southwestern South Africa over the past ~5 myr. We used mesowear, microwear and taxonomic analogy to classify the dietary behavior of taxa for samples from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein (Sponheimer et al., 2001; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2004; Stynder, 2009; 2011). Dietary behaviors of Hoedjiespunt bovids are discussed in Hare and Sealy (2013). These data are compiled in Table S2.2.

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of fossil teeth average $-11.3 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ($n = 74$) at Langebaanweg, $-10.6 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ ($n = 194$) at Elandsfontein and $-9.5 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$ ($n = 39$) at Hoedjiespunt. The average $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value of large mammals (> 6 kg) at each site fall within the range of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values expected for animals with diets comprised of purely C_3 vegetation (Fig. 2.4).

Comparisons of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from each family from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein indicate significant differences for like taxa ($p < 0.001$), where the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for teeth from Elandsfontein are typically $\sim 4.5\text{‰}$ more positive than those from Langebaanweg (Table 2.2; Table S2.2, Fig. 2.4b). This distinction holds for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of all taxa sampled from the two sites except for suids for which there is no difference in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for Elandsfontein ($28.0 \pm 3.1\text{‰}$) and Langebaanweg ($27.7 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$) (Fig. 2.4b). However, we do observe a $\sim 4.4\text{‰}$ increase in suid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein when we only consider the suid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from the WCRP collection at Elandsfontein ($32.1 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$, $n = 3$) and exclude the suid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from EFTM from Luyt et al. (2000). The Hoedjiespunt enamel samples are limited to bovids and the comparison of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for fossil bovids from the three fossil sites are distinct from one another ($p < 0.001$). Bovid

$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values average $28.7\pm 2.8\text{‰}$ at Langebaanweg, $33.2\pm 2.0\text{‰}$ at Elandsfontein, and $31.4\pm 1.5\text{‰}$ at Hoedjiespunt.

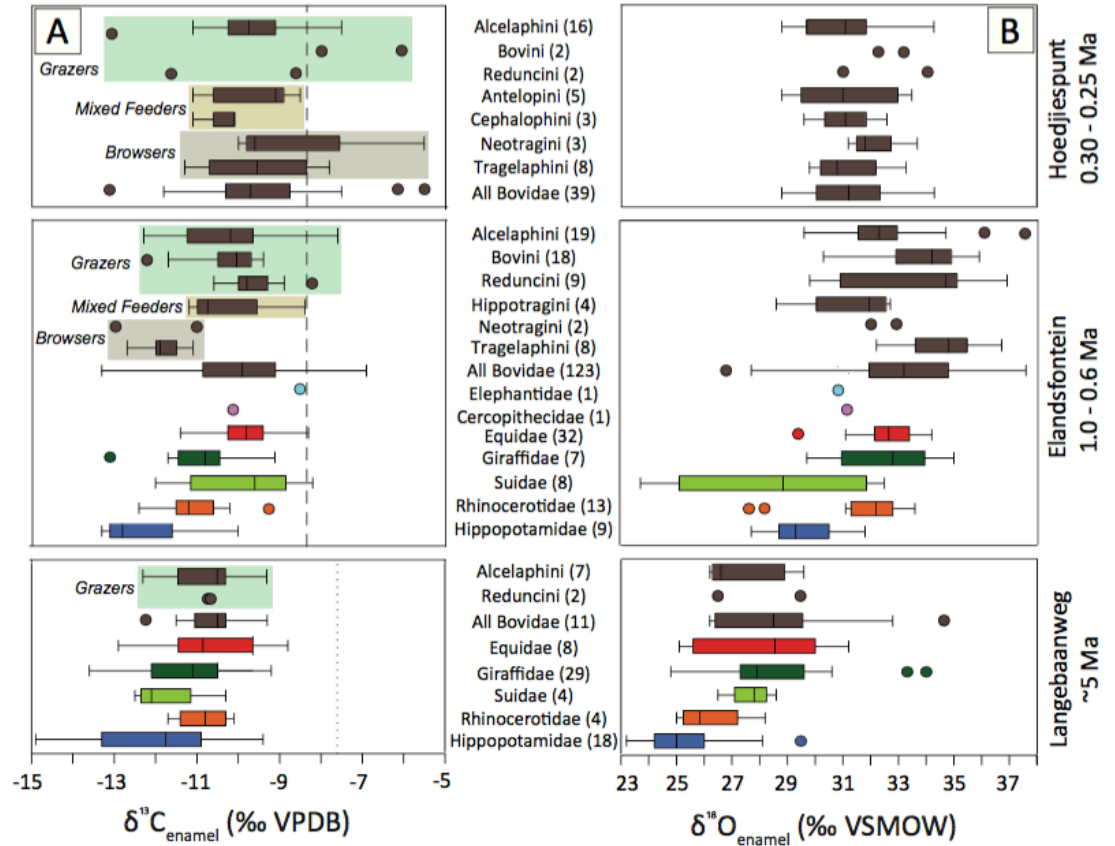


Figure 2.4: Box plot of the compiled $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (A) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (B) of the carbonate component of tooth enamel data from this study and of published records of Pliocene and Pleistocene fossil teeth from southwestern South Africa (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz Odendaal et al., 2002; Hare and Sealy, 2013; this study). Data are divided by family and bovid tribe. The number of individual analyses for each category is indicated in parentheses and when there are fewer than three isotopic values, analyses are presented as points. The dietary behaviors of bovids are divided into browsers, mixed feeders and grazers. See Table S2.2 for the compilation of isotope data and source for dietary behaviors. A vertical line within the box marks median values. The ends of the boxes represent the quartile values, horizontal lines indicate the range, and the outliers are plotted as circles. The maximum $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of herbivores with a pure C_3 diet are represented by a vertical dotted black line (Langebaanweg) and a vertical dashed black line (Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt). These values are based on reconstructed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 (Tippie et al., 2010) in Table S2.1.

2.5. Discussion

2.5.1. Vegetation trends in southwestern South Africa

Mammalian faunal and offshore pollen records indicate that the ecosystem of southwestern South Africa was different in the Pliocene and Pleistocene from today and that C₃ grasses were an important component of the physiognomic structure of these ecosystems at times during the last 5 myr (e.g., Dupont et al., 2005; Faith, 2011; Hare and Sealy, 2013). Today the vegetation community is composed of mostly woody, fynbos shrubs. Although rare in southwestern South Africa, grasses are more common inland where they grow on shale substrate, than they are on the marine sands typically found in the study area (Cowling, 1992).

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of large mammals from Langebaanweg, Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt show that herbivores had diets composed largely of C₃ vegetation (Luyt et al., 2000; Franz-Odenaal et al., 2002; Hare and Sealy, 2013; this study). Specifically, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of grazers indicate that the majority of the grasses consumed were C₃ grasses. Although the presence of C₄ vegetation cannot be totally discounted at Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt (Luyt et al., 2000; Hare and Sealy, 2013; Patterson et al., *in revision*), the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ data presented here indicate that it was a relatively small component of the diets of large herbivores (Fig. 2.4).

The bovids at Elandsfontein are diverse and have a range of dietary behaviors such that the variation in the isotopic composition of bovid teeth may be used to develop a more detailed understanding of the nature of vegetation in the C₃-dominated ecosystem of southwestern South Africa. For this reason, we compared the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$

values among different bovid tribes, classifying them as browsers, grazers or mixed feeders (see Table 2.2 and Fig. 2.4).

When split by tribe there are no distinctions among the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of bovids from the other grazing and browsing taxa at Langebaanweg ($p > 0.8$). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of all fossil teeth at Langebaanweg (browsers, grazers and mixed feeders) are $> 2\text{‰}$ more negative than the cutoff value for animals with a diet that includes any C_4 vegetation (-7.6‰ , refer to Section 2.3.3.1), indicating that all of the animals we sampled had diets composed of solely C_3 vegetation. At Elandsfontein, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of browsing taxa (Tragelaphini, Neotragini and giraffid) are significantly more negative than those of grazing taxa (Alcelaphini, Bovini, Reduncini and equid) ($p = 0.005$). In comparison, at Hoedjiespunt the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of browsing and grazing bovids are not statistically different from one another ($p = 0.97$). In addition, we find that $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of browsing bovid tribes at Hoedjiespunt are $\sim 4\text{‰}$ more positive than those of the browsers at Elandsfontein (Fig. 2.4), whereas the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of grazing bovids at Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt are not significantly different from one another in ($p = 0.2$). This might indicate that the browse vegetation at Elandsfontein was different from that at Hoedjiespunt, which could be related to a drier or less dense mosaic landscape (Kohn, 2010) at Hoedjiespunt compared with Elandsfontein. There are no clear trends that distinguish the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values among different bovid tribes at either Elandsfontein or Hoedjiespunt. There are some indications of C_4 vegetation in the diets of both browsers and grazers at Hoedjiespunt and of grazers at Elandsfontein, however there are no indications of C_4 in the diet among browsers at Elandsfontein and any of the

herbivores at Langebaanweg. There are no distinctions in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values among the bovids that were sampled and identified to tribe (Acelaphini and Reduncini) at Langebaanweg ($p = 1.0$).

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of grazers at Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt that are more positive than what is expected for a pure C_3 diet (-8.4‰, refer to Section 2.3.3.1) could indicate the presence of some C_4 grasses, either in some seasons or on specific points on the landscape, like well-watered areas such as springs which is consistent with results from Patterson et al. (*in revision*). Hare and Sealy (2013) also suggest that the presence of some C_4 vegetation in the diets of grazing bovids from Hoedjiespunt might reflect the ability for C_4 plants to grow within a winter rainfall zone during low $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions that are characteristic of glacial intervals. Although low $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions might account for the presence of some C_4 vegetation in the diets of grazers at Elandsfontein, the dating of the deposits at Elandsfontein precludes us from assigning it to either a glacial or interglacial period (Braun et al., 2013).

The survival of large herbivores in southwestern South Africa would have required access to resources throughout the year. It is possible that there was an extended rainy season and that abundant food resources grew on nutrient-rich calcareous soils, which are no longer present at the fossil sites (Luyt et al., 2000). A year-round supply of palatable browse and graze would have required sufficient surface water and at Elandsfontein, this likely included springs (Braun et al., 2013).

2.5.2. Oxygen isotope record

The ~4.5‰ increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values between the Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein fossil localities (from ~5 to 1.0 – 0.6 Ma) occurs across a time of global cooling and aridification (Marlow et al., 2000; Etourneau et al., 2009). $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values can be influenced by a combination of factors including the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of surface water, aridity and animal physiology (Kohn and Cerling, 2002). We do not think that physiological changes are responsible for the increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values as we observe it among multiple herbivore families and consider it unlikely that multiple disparately related herbivore families would converge upon identical physiological changes across this time span. Consequently, we must consider the influence of changes in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of surface water and changes in aridity on the observed increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values between the fossil teeth at Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein.

2.5.2.1. Oxygen isotopic composition of reconstructed surface water

In modern ecosystems $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of hippopotamids closely track the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of meteoric water (Bocherens et al., 1996) and as such, fossil hippopotamid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values can be used to reconstruct the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of meteoric waters (Levin et al., 2006). We used hippopotamid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from Langebaanweg ($n = 18$) and Elandsfontein ($n = 9$) to estimate the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the surface waters in which these hippopotamids lived, which would reflect a combination of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of regional precipitation and the hydrological condition of the local surface waters. We were not able to estimate the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the surface waters at Hoedjiespunt because there are no

hippopotamid teeth preserved at the site (Stynder, 1997). We estimated $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of local surface waters from the hippopotamid $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values by considering both the $5.4 \pm 1.3\text{‰}$ enrichment in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between local surface water and hippopotamid body water reported by Levin et al. (2006) for modern hippopotamids and the carbonate-water $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ fractionation relationship reported by Kim and O'Neil (2005), assuming that tooth formation formed at typical mammalian body temperatures of 37°C .

Using this approach, we reconstruct the average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of local surface water to $-3.9 \pm 1.6\text{‰}$ at Langebaanweg and $-0.3 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$ at Elandsfontein. For comparison, spring, tap and standing water nearby modern springs exhibit a mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of $-1.7 \pm 2.2\text{‰}$ ($n = 4$) (Table S2.4). The similarity between the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the reconstructed mid-Pleistocene water and that of modern waters within the Elandsfontein vicinity indicate that hydrological conditions of waters near spring systems in the region may not have not changed greatly since the mid-Pleistocene. However, the $3.6 \pm 1.8\text{‰}$ increase in reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein requires further explanation. The possible explanations for this $\sim 4\text{‰}$ increase include 1) a change in regional precipitation patterns as a result of changes in global climatic patterns that would affect precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and 2) a change in the type of surface waters (rivers vs. springs) that the hippopotamids were living in during the early Pliocene vs. the mid-Pleistocene. Here we review the potential roles of climate change and hydrological setting on the increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of surface waters in southwestern South African between the early Pliocene and the mid-Pleistocene.

2.5.2.2. Global cooling

Decreased global temperatures and increased ice volume affected $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation globally between the Pliocene and Pleistocene with the onset of glacial and interglacial cycles (Zachos et al., 2001) but it is not clear how these oscillations affected $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation in southern Africa. A study of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from speleothem carbonate from Buffalo Cave in South Africa (Hopley et al., 2007) that dates to the Pliocene/early Pleistocene (1.99 to 1.52 Ma) can provide perspective on the amplitude of change in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of meteoric water that we would expect between glacial and interglacial periods in southern Africa. Hopley et al. (2007) determine that there may be a $\sim 2\%$ increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of regional precipitation between interglacials and glacials based on a combination of temperature and ice-volume effects. Despite some work that attributes the fossils at Elandsfontein to an interglacial interval based on the size of fossil carnivores (Klein et al., 2007), this assignment is less certain from more recent work at Elandsfontein (Braun et al., 2013). Regardless of whether the Elandsfontein fossils represent an interglacial or glacial interval, the maximum amount of change in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation that we would expect between glacials and interglacials is $\sim 2\%$, which is not enough to explain a $\sim 4\%$ difference in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of surface water between the early Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene.

2.5.2.3. Rainfall amount

The negative correlation between rainfall amount and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of rain is termed the “amount effect” (Dansgaard, 1964). This effect must be considered in the

interpretation of the ~4‰ increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of reconstructed surface waters. If southwestern South Africa became more arid between the early Pliocene and the mid-Pleistocene, as indicated by offshore archives (e.g., Marlow et al., 2010; Dupont et al., 2013), then we might expect to see indications of less rainfall in the reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. Modern precipitation data from Cape Town indicate that the “amount effect” is limited in southwestern South Africa (Midgley and Scott, 2004; Harris et al., 2010; West et al., 2014); it is equivalent to -10mm/1‰ $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for monthly winter rainfall (based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of monthly rainfall reported in Harris et al. (2010)) and thus very little of the variation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation in modern southwestern South Africa can be explained by amount rainfall. In comparison, Panama (WGS-84 Lat/Long: 9.00970, -79.60324) has a strong “amount effect” with -35 mm rainfall for every 1‰ increase in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of rainfall (Higgins and MacFadden, 2004).

In addition, we do not expect to observe an “amount effect” in southwestern South Africa because this oxygen isotopic effect mostly occurs where temperatures are $> 20^\circ\text{C}$ and where there is high humidity or significant rainfall (e.g., Rozanski et al., 1993), a pattern seen at collection sites globally (IAEA/WMO, 2001). The majority of rain in this region falls in the winter and it is associated with cold, westerly fronts; it is unlikely that average winter temperatures were $> 20^\circ\text{C}$. If temperatures during the rainy season were $> 20^\circ\text{C}$ during the Pliocene and Pleistocene, then it could have been warm enough for the growth of C_4 grass. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of fossil enamel from grazers, however, suggest that there was little C_4 grass in this region.

Although a change in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of rainfall related to moisture source may contribute to the increase in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of rainfall, it is unlikely that this would represent a substantial contribution to the full $\sim 4\text{‰}$ increase documented between the Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene. If there had been a change in the rainfall related moisture source from the east (i.e., contribution of summer rainfall), then we would expect to see the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of some large mammalian herbivores to be more positive than what is calculated for a pure C_3 diet because they would be incorporating C_4 grasses that grow during the summer months into their diet. We find that the majority of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are within the range expected for animals with pure C_3 diets and no change in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values between the fossil herbivores at Langebaaweg and Elandsfontein (Fig. 2.4). Furthermore, models of regional climate indicate that the source of atmospheric moisture, Atlantic water off the coast of southwestern South Africa, would have been constrained by relatively stable regional meteorological factors (e.g. ICTZ, Agulhas Current, Subtropical convergence zone and Benguela Current; McClymont et al., 2005) and thus would not have drastically changed between the early Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene.

2.5.2.4. Depositional mode and surface water

A change in the local hydrology and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of surface water might be responsible for the increase $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein. Today much of the coastal plain of southwestern South Africa is fed by ground water and many areas have standing water associated with artesian wells. The depositional environments of the Varswater Formation (i.e., the Langebaanweg fossil site) indicate the

presence of fluvial and estuarine waters (Roberts et al., 2011). Various sedimentological studies indicate that the paleo-Berg River in the early Pliocene had a southerly trajectory and emptied into the embayment which is today the Saldanha Bay as opposed to emptying into the Atlantic Ocean in St. Helena Bay as the Berg River does today (e.g., Roberts et al., 2011; Fig.1). Although a previous study of Elandsfontein suggested the presence of fluvial activity (Butzer, 1973), recent investigations document the complete lack of any sedimentary structures that would support a fluvial explanation for the sediments in which fossils at Elandsfontein have been found (Braun et al., 2013). Geomorphological reviews emphasize that large Cenozoic eolianites as well as granite outcrops act as barriers for any fluvial systems west of the Salt River and south of the Berg River (Mabbutt, 1952). As a result the main source of surface water in the region is provided by springs fed by the large underground Elandsfontyn and Langebaan Road aquifers (Brumfitt et al., 2013). Thus the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the enamel from large, mid-Pleistocene mammals at Elandsfontein likely reflect the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of isolated springs distributed around the landscape. The waters from the Berg River headwaters have $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values today that range from -6.0‰ to -4.0‰ (Weaver and Telma, 2005; West et al., 2014), whereas $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of spring and tap waters surrounding the Elandsfontein vicinity today range from -3.6 to -1.9‰ (Table S2.4; Midgley and Scott, 1994; West et al., 2014; this study). There is a 0.4 to 4.1‰ difference in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between surface waters sourced from the Berg River compared with waters from springs near Elandsfontein. Standing spring water at Elandsfontein has been evaporated and yields $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 1.5‰. Furthermore, the average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of reconstructed surface water

at Elandsfontein ($-0.3 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$) sits within the expected range of water near the Elandsfontein locality today. If offsets between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of waters from the Berg River and from springs in the study area were consistent over the last 5 myr, then the $\sim 4\text{‰}$ increase in reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from tooth enamel between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein fossil sites can be explained solely by a difference in local hydrology. At Langebaanweg, hippopotamids likely spent much of their time in waters that derived from the paleo-Berg River, whereas some four million years later, the hippopotamids from the Elandsfontein fossil deposits likely spent much of their time in water bodies that were fed by springs. The differences in the enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of these two hippopotamid populations may be best explained by these local differences types of water bodies in which they wallowed.

2.5.2.5. *Aridity*

Aridity can have an effect on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values in multiple ways. Aridity can be the result of decreased rainfall amount which will affect $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values due to a change in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation that then contributes to the water that animals ingest. However, the degree of aridity may influence $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values independent of any changes in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of precipitation via the ingestion of leaf water, which becomes greatly enriched in ^{18}O relative to ^{16}O in arid climates (Levin et al., 2006). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of animals that are not obligate drinkers (e.g., giraffes and oryx) are sensitive to aridity in part because a large fraction of their body water may come from leaf water. The strong relationship between aridity and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of these Evaporation Sensitive

(ES) animals, taxa whose body water is derived largely from leaf water, today can be used to evaluate aridity in the past by comparing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of ES animals to those from Evaporation Insensitive (EI) animals, taxa whose body water is derived largely from ingested surface water (e.g., hippopotamids and elephantids). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of EI taxa do not vary with aridity and can be used to control for changes in meteoric water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (Levin et al., 2006). The $\epsilon_{\text{ES-EI}}$ between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of ES and EI taxa is greater in more arid environments than in less arid environments (Levin et al., 2006).

We evaluated whether increased aridity could explain the $\sim 4\%$ increase in enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between the early Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene by comparing the $\epsilon_{\text{ES-EI}}$ of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of individual teeth from Langebaanweg ($n = 47$) and Elandsfontein ($n = 16$), where hippopotamids (i.e., *Hippopotamus*) are the representative EI taxa and giraffids (i.e., *Sivatherium*) are the representative ES taxa. Calculated $\epsilon_{\text{ES-EI}}$ values are $+3.0 \pm 1.9\%$ and $+2.7 \pm 1.9\%$ for Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein, respectively. There is no large difference between the $\epsilon_{\text{ES-EI}}$ values for the two populations, suggesting no change in aridity between the Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene environments in southwestern South Africa. However, we cannot simply evaluate aridity as outlined above if 1) there were changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of surface water due to the differences in depositional setting between Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein and 2) if the behavior of EI and ES taxa was different during the Pleistocene and the Pliocene. First, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from hippopotamids might not be closely tracking precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values during the mid-Pleistocene in the same way as in the early Pliocene if hippopotamids from Elandsfontein wallowed in pools of evaporated spring water, whereas hippopotamids

from the Langebaanweg collection spent time immersed in river waters. Our compilation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from modern waters in the region indicates that spring-based water sources have more positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values than that of river waters (Table S2.4). Second, it is important to note that in this analysis we use the genus *Sivatherium* rather than *Giraffa* as the ES taxon. Although these two taxa are within the family Giraffidae, isotopic studies from eastern Africa indicate that *Sivatherium* underwent a major transition during the Pliocene and Pleistocene to incorporate more graze into their diet, while *Giraffa* did not (Cerling et al., 2015). Thus, it is feasible that sensitivity to aridity was different between these two taxa such that *Sivatherium* might not be an appropriate ES taxon to use in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ -based aridity index proposed by Levin et al. (2006).

While we cannot rule out the effects of evaporation on surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, we do not think that aridity is the primary driver of the $\sim 4\text{‰}$ increase in reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between the early Pliocene and the mid-Pleistocene. It is unlikely that we would observe a uniform increase in the average $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of herbivore families from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein because hippopotamids would have remained in the water, somewhat buffered from increased aridity, resulting in a smaller shift for hippopotamids than for other herbivore families. Furthermore, the $\sim 4\text{‰}$ increase in reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between fossil sites can be explained solely by a shift from riverine water to groundwater-fed springs as discussed in Section 5.2.4. Given the present data, we view this as the simplest way to explain the trends in the fossil $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values we observe.

2.5.3. *Theropithecus* diet at Elandsfontein

The diet of fossil *Theropithecus* species from southern and eastern Africa have been evaluated to determine the partitioning of resources between primates and other mammalian species as well as to better define the influences that contributed to the success of *Homo* (e.g., Lee-Thorp et al., 1989; Codron et al., 2005; Cerling et al., 2013; Levin et al., 2015). A single *Theropithecus* mandible was excavated from Elandsfontein (WCRP collection) and this specimen has a $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value of -10.2‰, which is indicative of a diet composed of C₃ vegetation (Fig. 2.4; Table S2.2). This is the only $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ value of *Theropithecus* from Pleistocene southwestern South Africa. Contemporaneous *Theropithecus* $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from eastern Africa and in other locations in South Africa indicate that *Theropithecus* consumed C₄ graze (e.g., Codron et al., 2005; Cerling et al., 2013). The addition of carbon isotope data from *Theropithecus* at Elandsfontein shows that *Theropithecus* was able to survive on diets composed C₃ vegetation during the Pleistocene (whether it was browse or graze) if it lived in environments where C₃ vegetation was dominant, as with the modern gelada baboon (Levin et al., 2008).

2.5.4. Hominin paleoenvironment at mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein

The sedimentary record at Elandsfontein provides unique insights into the ecology of southwestern South Africa during the mid-Pleistocene, which is not well documented elsewhere in southern Africa (Klein et al., 2007; Braun et al., 2013). The archives at Elandsfontein also provide evidence for some of the earliest hominin behavior in a winter rainfall zone in southern Africa. The association of the fossil fauna with Acheulean stone

tools (i.e., hominin technology that indicate behavioral advances intersecting with the biological change) in an excavated context at Elandsfontein allows us to use inferences about paleoclimate from $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values to develop an understanding of hominin ecology. This is especially important because of the age of this locality (1.0 – 0.6 Ma) situates the site around the time of the mid-Pleistocene transition in climate dynamics (McClymont et al., 2005). Large mammalian remains at Elandsfontein indicate that there were both large browsing and grazing herbivore communities, suggesting that the landscape would have had sufficient resources to assure the survival of these animals, in stark contrast to the modern ecosystems in this area. This ancient landscape clearly was a draw for hominins, as indicated by the thousands of stone tools recovered from this locality (Singer and Wymer, 1968; Klein, 1983; Braun et al., 2013) as well as fossil remains of early humans (Drennan, 1953). The springs at Elandsfontein (Braun et al., 2013) would have been a resource-rich environment for early humans, if Elandsfontein had been buffered from the regional aridification during the mid-Pleistocene. This is consistent with studies of Pleistocene archaeological sites where springs and groundwater-fed areas have been considered to be important resource for hominins (e.g., Cuthbert and Ashley, 2014).

2.6. Conclusions

The results of this study add to a growing body of work, from both terrestrial- and marine-based archives, on how climate and vegetation in southwestern South Africa have changed over the last 5 myr (Fig. 2.5). The main conclusions from this study are:

- 1) The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of fossil teeth from southwestern South Africa indicate that both browsing and grazing herbivores had diets dominated by C_3 vegetation, which suggests the dominance of the winter rainfall season during the time intervals of fossil deposition at Langebaanweg, Elandsfontein and Hoedjiespunt. We can not, however, totally discount the presence of C_4 grasses during the mid-Pleistocene and late Pleistocene.
- 2) There is an increase in reconstructed surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from southwestern South Africa between the early Pliocene and mid-Pleistocene of $\sim 4\%$. We attribute the increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of surface waters primarily to a shift in hydrology and depositional environments along the coastal plain of southwestern South Africa. The major source of water for animals during the Pliocene appears to have been a fluvial system whereas springs were likely the dominant surface waters in the mid-Pleistocene.
- 3) While increased aridity in southwestern Africa is indicated both by the marine- and terrestrial-based proxy records compiled in this study, it is not clearly evident in the isotopic record of large mammals presented here. The Elandsfontein archaeological site may have been buffered from regional mid-Pleistocene aridification as a result of the available surface water indicated by ancient spring deposits. If springs were annually active, then water and other resources associated with springs would have been available to mammals, such that the area may have served as an oasis of sorts within a relatively drier landscape.

4) This study highlights the importance of considering depositional environment and the local environmental setting when understanding how specific terrestrial environments responded to regional climate and environmental change.

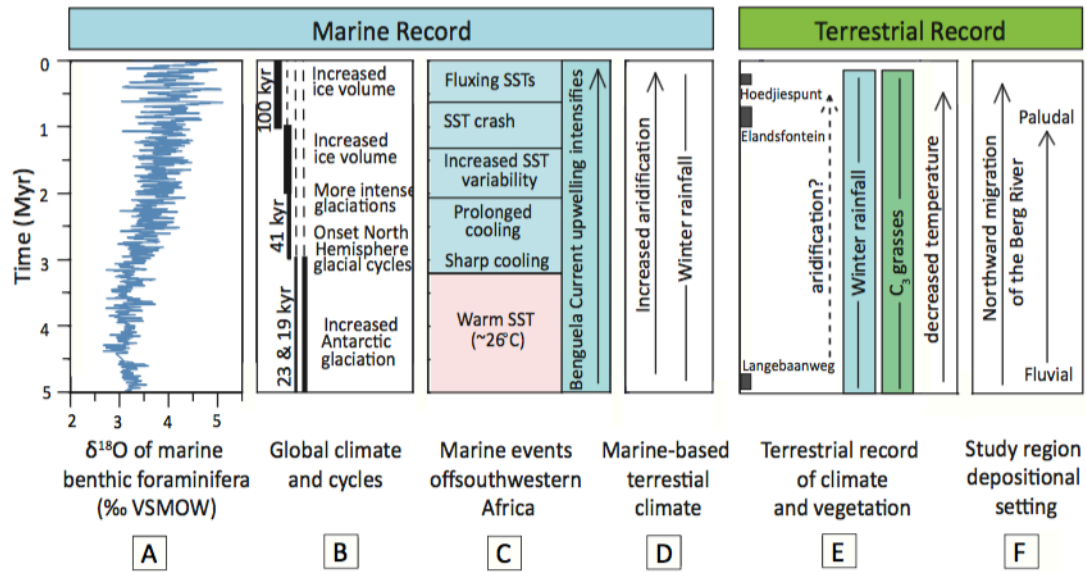


Figure 2.5: A summary of Pliocene and Pleistocene records of global, regional, marine, and terrestrial changes relevant to southwestern Africa. A) The global benthic foraminifera $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve (Zachos et al., 2001) and B) a summary of major change in global climate (composite record based on data from Ruddiman et al., 1989; Shackleton et al., 1990; 1995). C) Summary of results from mid latitude marine sediment cores off the southwestern Africa (Marlow et al., 2000; Dupont et al., 2005; Etourneau et al., 2009). D) Summary of data from terrestrial records including $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from fossil teeth and soil geochemistry from southwestern South Africa (Eze and Meadows, 2014; this study). E) Summary of depositional environments based on sedimentological data from Langebaanweg and Elandsfontein (Butzer, 1973; Roberts et al., 2011; Braun et al., 2013).

CHAPTER 3: Environmental and ecological implications of strontium ratios in mid-Pleistocene fossil teeth from Elandsfontein in southwestern South Africa

ABSTRACT

The mid-Pleistocene site of Elandsfontein has yielded fossil fauna and artifacts dating to ca. 0.6 to 1 million years ago, as well as the Saldanha, or Hopefield, hominin calvarium. This site is located within the Greater Cape Floristic Region (GCFR), in an area that is dry and hot, blanketed by marine-derived sand dunes, and primarily vegetated by woody shrubs and sedges of the fynbos biome with minimal amounts of grass growing on nutrient-poor soils. This region does not support communities of large mammalian herbivores. In contrast, the mid-Pleistocene faunal assemblage is rich in mammalian herbivores, suggesting that the environment and ecology at that time could support such communities. However, it is unknown whether browsing and grazing herbivores survived on local vegetation or if they migrated to more distant, nutrient-rich areas to obtain food, such as to shale substrates ~ 20 to 30 km inland from Elandsfontein where palatable grass and shrubs grow today. We measured strontium isotope ratios ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio) in fossilized teeth from Elandsfontein and compared these ratios to the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from the major substrates in the region to determine if large mammalian herbivores were able to obtain sufficient resources locally (i.e., if teeth had signature of local $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio) or whether they also ranged across other geological substrates. The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from marine sands from Elandsfontein range from 0.709380 to 0.711690 and are distinct from the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for granite, sandstone

and shale substrates in the region. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth of carnivores, large herbivores and rodents from Elandsfontein range from 0.709254 to 0.711171, values within the range of the marine sands $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios. These data suggest that during the mid-Pleistocene the vegetation growing on coastal marine sands in southwestern South Africa was adequate to support large herbivores and that these animals remained within the coastal area, and therefore did not need to migrate away from the coastal area of the region for resources. These data, along with the evidence of ancient spring-fed environments suggest that the mid-Pleistocene environment at Elandsfontein, unlike today, provided sufficient resources for rich and diverse communities of large animals. It is possible that this environment is what attracted hominins to Elandsfontein and that it served as a refuge for animals in a region that was becoming increasingly arid.

3.1. Introduction

The southwestern coast of South Africa is located within the Greater Cape Floristic Region (GCFR). The endemic fynbos vegetation constitutes one of the most diverse and variable biomes in the world, dating to before the Pliocene (e.g., Dupont et al., 2011). While the fynbos ecosystem is thought to have drastically evolved since its emplacement, little is actually known about the variability of vegetation in southwestern South Africa or about its faunal associations before the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), ~21,000 years ago (Stynder, 2009; Rossouw et al., 2009). Terrestrial-based proxies of climate and vegetation are important for evaluating the history and composition of the fynbos biome, however it is uncommon to find an open air site (as opposed to cavernous sites) that preserves artifacts and fossils within the original depositional setting and that dates to before the LGM anywhere within southern Africa (Braun et al., 2013).

Elandsfontein is an open-air archeological and paleontological site that dates to within the mid-Pleistocene (~ 1.0 to 0.6 million years ago; Ma) and where artifacts and fossils co-occur on a buried paleolandscape (e.g., Klein and Cruz-Uribe, 1991; Braun et al., 2013). Sediments and the faunal assemblage at Elandsfontein indicate that the mid-Pleistocene landscape of southwestern South Africa was composed of shrub land and grassland (Luyt et al., 2002; Stynder, 2009; Thesis Chapter 2; Patterson et al., 2016). The regional vegetation during the mid-Pleistocene would have had to have supported a community of large herbivorous mammals, both browsers and grazers, including species within the Bovidae, Rhinocerotidae, Hippopotamidae, Giraffidae, Elephantidae, Equidae and Suidae families (Thesis Chapter 2). The preservation of ancient spring deposits and the presence of Hippopotamidae at Elandsfontein suggest the presence of standing water

and that this location may have been a spring-fed environment (e.g., Braun et al., 2013; Lehmann et al., 2016; Patterson et al., 2016). Stone tools from the Acheulean Industry, the first example of standardized artifact manufacturing and considered to have developed alongside major behavioral and biological changes in human evolution, are found at Elandsfontein and indicate that the environment at this location was utilized by hominins (e.g., Braun et al., 2013).

In contrast to the environment of the mid-Pleistocene, contemporary southwestern South Africa is an arid shrub land and is mostly vegetated by woody, low-nutrient fynbos vegetation growing on marine-derived sands (Rebelo et al., 2006). There is minimal surface water and the minor amounts of grass in the region grows primarily on shale ~ 20 km east of Elandsfontein but the grass is likely not of sufficient quantities to feed large mammalian grazers (Rebelo et al., 2006). The carbon isotopic composition of fossil teeth ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein indicate that, like today, this area was within a winter rainfall zone, dominated by C_3 vegetation adapted to grow during the cool, wet season (Luyt et al., 2000; Thesis Chapter 2). Large mammalian herbivores from the mid-Pleistocene would have found survival difficult to impossible given the current composition of vegetation and lack of water at Elandsfontein.

Climatic and environmental proxies from marine sediment records and paleosols indicate that this region may have experienced aridification since the Pliocene in association with increased upwelling of the Benguela Current (e.g., Marlow et al., 2000; Eze and Meadows, 2013). While it is known that the environment and faunal composition of southwestern South Africa were different in the mid-Pleistocene than they are today, there is no modern analog for the ancient ecosystems and environments (Braun et al.,

2013). Little is understood about the ecological composition and vegetative diversity of the fynbos in southwestern South Africa during the mid-Pleistocene or about how animals would have survived in the region.

Modern vegetation in southwestern South Africa varies by rock type, where woody fynbos shrubs grow on sandstone and marine-derived sands, the substrate found at Elandsfontein. More palatable shrubs and grasses, representing vegetation suitable for browsers and grazers, grow on shale and on granite (Sealy et al., 1991; Rebelo et al., 2006). Sealy et al. (1991) have shown that the substrates in the region differ in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio values and that they can be divided into the categories of coastal sands and more inland shales and sandstones (Fig. 3.1; Table 3.1). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of herbivore tissues (e.g., bone and tooth enamel) is the same as the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of ingested plants, which in turn is determined by the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the soil or rock substrate on which these plants grew (i.e., the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the strontium in a rock or soil that can be taken up by biological organisms) (e.g., Bentley, 1996; Sillen et al., 1998). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio range of bioavailable strontium can differ from that of the bulk substrate, because different minerals (with different $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) physically and chemically weather at different rates.

Table 3.1: Summary of the compiled bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for major substrates in southwestern South Africa from Sealy et al. (1991) and this study based on modern bone, enamel and plant samples. See Table S3.1 for details.

| Location | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio range | | n^b |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------|---|----------|-------|
| | Average | Stdev ^a | Minimum | Maximum | |
| <i>Substrate</i> | | | | | |
| Pleistocene marine sands | 0.710377 | 0.000786 | 0.709380 | 0.711690 | 8 |
| Mixed granite and marine sands | 0.710617 | 0.001908 | 0.709575 | 0.714741 | 2 |
| Cape Granite suite | 0.717491 | 0.004166 | 0.711421 | 0.723563 | 12 |
| Table Mountain Sandstone | 0.716704 | 0.001802 | 0.714092 | 0.718546 | 12 |
| Malmesbury shale | 0.718064 | 0.001632 | 0.715332 | 0.720390 | 6 |

^a standard deviation is $\pm 1\sigma$ from average

^b number of individual samples compiled for each substrate and region

Here we utilize and expand upon existing studies on the variation in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from the four major substrates in southwestern South Africa to determine whether or not mid-Pleistocene mammals from Elandsfontein traveled to other areas in southwestern South Africa for food or if they found resources in the coastal area and/or around Elandsfontein. In the case of migrating animals, such as large herbivores, there may be situations where vegetation is obtained at one site for part of a year (e.g., season), and in another location during a different part of the year, or season. We investigated this possibility for fossil herbivores preserved at Elandsfontein, by analyzing the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios along the tooth growth axis of browsing and grazing mammals, since these ratios should change if animals consumed foods from distinct substrates at different stages of tooth formation (Balasse et al., 2002; Copeland et al., 2016). If animals from Elandsfontein did not travel to find food, their enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios should be the same as the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the marine sands found at Elandsfontein. In this case it is likely that the environment at Elandsfontein provided sufficient food for the large

mammalian herbivore community that lived in this region during the mid-Pleistocene. If, however, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of enamel indicate that herbivores traveled to other substrates in the region for food, then it is likely that animals could not have survived solely on the vegetation that grew at Elandsfontein during the mid-Pleistocene. By combining existing faunal and sediment records of climate and environment from Elandsfontein with $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of fossil teeth, we can improve our understanding of how the broader regional vegetation and environment may have changed since the mid-Pleistocene and how animals and hominins may have utilized the southwestern South African region.

The first steps to determining whether animals moved for food are to 1) develop a map of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ for each major substrate in the region and 2) perform a control using fossil and modern enamel to determine whether or not the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of mid-Pleistocene teeth are primary or if they have been subjected to diagenesis, as well as to determine the ideal pretreatment needed to remove secondary strontium, if present, for this particular study. Only then can we then considered the movement of herbivore for food during the mid-Pleistocene by comparing their enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios with the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of substrates in the region. Once we understood if and how herbivores used the land for food, we could then evaluate the distribution of vegetation in the region and the ecological and environmental context of mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

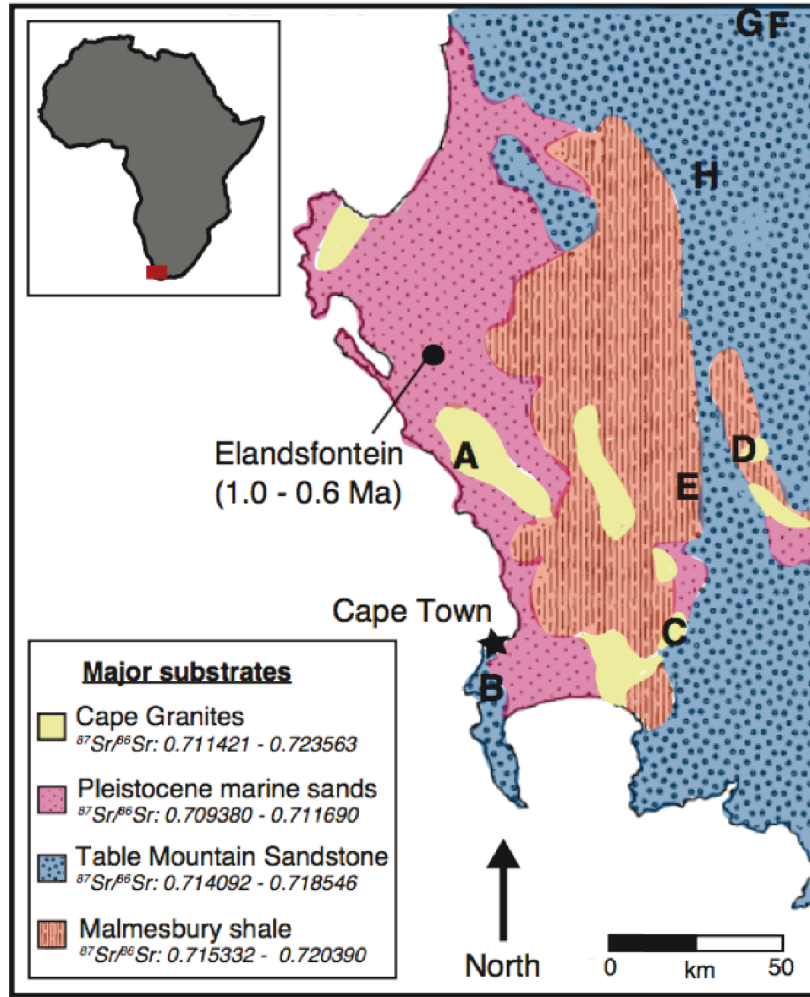


Figure 3.1: Map of southwestern South Africa outlining the locations of the major substrates in the region and indicating the location of Elandsfontein (black circle). Letters A through H denote the sampling locations of plants, modern bone and enamel used to determine the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for each substrate (see Table S3.1 for the corresponding sample location and sample information). The range in bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for each major substrate is reported in the legend and in Table 3.1. These ratios are based on both the newly analyzed bone and teeth (this study) and from the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of substrates in the region that are reported in Sealy et al. (1991). The location of the study region is denoted by a red rectangle on the continent of Africa. The base map with outlines the major geologic substrates is based on Sealy et al. (1991).

3.2. Background

3.2.1. Study Region

3.2.1.1. Elandsfontein

Initial surveys of fossil and artifacts in the 1950s yielded a hominin calvarium, known as the Saldanha specimen, and excavations in the 1960s recovered stone tools in association with large mammalian fossils (e.g., Drennan, 1953; Singer and Wymer, 1968; Deacon, 1998). It was not until more than 50 years later that in situ materials were found again and it was determined only at this time that large mammalian fossils and artifacts were located on a buried landscape across a $> 11 \text{ km}^2$ area of the archeological site Elandsfontein (Braun et al., 2013). Fossils from Elandsfontein have a low carbonate content (Luyt et al., 2000; Thesis Chapter 2) and excavations have shown extensive leaching zones in some sediment profiles that contain fossils and artifacts, though leaching is not homogeneous across the region (Braun et al., 2013).

3.2.1.2. Climate and vegetation

The region of southwestern South Africa is on the western coast of South Africa and within the winter rainfall zone, a climatic zone encompassing $\sim 200 \text{ km}^2$ that receives $\sim 65\%$ of its annual precipitation between April and September (Chase and Meadows, 2007). This climatic zone is distinct from the climate for the rest of South Africa. East of the study region, rainfall mostly occurs year round or during the summer months ($> 66\%$ of mean annual precipitation between October and March). Each climatic zone is associated with distinct vegetation; for example, grasses that grow within southwestern South Africa consist mainly of species that only grow during the wet, winter months,

however, C₄ species can be locally quite abundant and are found, such as on shales (e.g., Cowling and Lombard, 2002).

3.2.1.3. Regional geology

The coastal plain of southwestern South Africa is covered by what were originally marine sands containing shell fragments and which date to the Pliocene and Pleistocene. About 12 granitic plutons outcrop in southwestern South Africa and these are associated with orogenic events related to the convergence of South American and Namibian cratons during the Precambrian (Rozendaal et al., 1999; Belcher and Kisters, 2003). These granites are scattered throughout the study region and form what is called the Cape Granite suite (Fig. 3.1). Granites of the Cape Granite suite can be defined and distinguished from one another by mineralogical and geochemical composition. The most dominant granite types are found in the area surrounding Elandsfontein and along the southwestern South African coast (e.g., the Darling batholith and the Saldania pluton) (Scheepers, 1995). Inland from the marine sands and coastal granites, older substrates dominate. These substrates are the Precambrian to Cambrian Malmesbury shales and Cape Fold Mountain Belt complex sandstones and quartzites (i.e., Table Mountain/ Witteberg/ Bokkeveld series) (Fig. 3.1).

3.2.1.4. Relationship between geology and composition of vegetation

The composition of vegetation in southwestern South Africa varies across the landscape as a function of geological substrate because the mineralogical composition of a substrate dictates the minerals/nutrients available for plants (Cowling, 1997; Cowling et

al., 2002). Today, southwestern South Africa is dominated by nutrient-poor, though diverse fynbos shrub land that grows on coastal sands as well as on sandstones and quartzite (Rebelo et al., 2006). In contrast, where present, shales support more nutrient-rich fynbos species as well as the nutrient-rich renosterveld grasses and evergreen asteraceous shrubs that would be palatable to the large herbivorous mammals that lived in the region during the mid-Pleistocene. These latter plant types are only a minor component of the current regional vegetation and likely can not produce the quantity of vegetation necessary to feed a large community of browsing and grazing herbivores (Rebelo et al., 2006). Granites produce richer soils than marine sands and today the majority of the Western Cape's vineyards are found on granite-derived soils.

Large mammalian herbivore communities existed at Elandsfontein during the mid-Pleistocene (taxa ranged from Hippopotamidae to Bovidae and Giraffidae) would have needed substantial and nutrient-rich vegetation, both browse and graze (Klein et al., 2007; Braun et al., 2013). In the contemporary setting, we expect that these animals would have to travel inland from Elandsfontein to find palatable food resources, such as the grasses that can grow on the soils derived from nutrient-rich shales. However, as stated earlier, grass is a minor component of the current regional ecology, primarily growing in small quantities on shale substrate during the winter months (Rebelo et al., 2006).

3.2.2. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ isotope ratio of bioapatite and the determination of animal migration and regional vegetation

The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio in bioapatite, where bioapatite refers to enamel and bone, can be used as a geochemical fingerprint of the substrates on which animals lived, because the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio from different substrates is preserved in plants and also the teeth and bones of animals eating the plants (e.g., Bentley, 2006; Copeland et al., 2011). The following subsection discusses how the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil enamel can be applied to evaluating regional migration for food and how the differences in the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of substrates and the ecology associated with these substrates (i.e., food resources for herbivores) can be used in tandem to determine 1) the locations of food resources for large mammalian herbivores preserved at Elandsfontein and 2) the ecology and environments of southwestern South Africa and Elandsfontein. We also assess the role of diagenesis on the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in teeth preserved at Elandsfontein, which is of concern because a number of fossils and sediments at Elandsfontein have been leached, thus some of the original carbonate content has been removed (Luyt et al., 2000; Braun et al., 2013; Thesis Chapter 2).

3.2.2.1. Regional substrate bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios

Bioapatite $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios can provide information about the type of vegetation available in a region during that animal's life, which in turn can be useful when evaluating the ecology of an ancient environment (e.g., Copeland et al., 2016). For example, if grazers within an herbivore community have enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios

characteristic of Area A but not of Area B, then we would deduce that the Area A had plentiful grass for the grazers to eat.

Three of the four major substrates in the southwestern South Africa have been approximately characterized in terms of their range in bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios through the analysis of modern animal $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (Sealy et al., 1991). Shales and sandstones (substrates that are older and generally occur further inland than marine-derived sands) have bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios that have been reported to range from 0.71777 to 0.71794 ($n = 2$) and from 0.71543 to 0.71746 ($n = 2$), respectively. The Pleistocene marine-derived sands in the region have bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios that range from 0.70938 to 0.71169 ($n = 6$) (Sealy et al., 1991; Fig. 3.1). The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of shales and sandstones that make up this dataset cannot be distinguished with the Sealy et al. (1991) dataset, but they are distinct from those of the marine sand substrate. There are currently no published bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of granites and therefore it is unknown whether or not the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of granites are distinct from the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio ranges of the other major substrates in this region or if specific granitic outcrops can be distinguished from one another. The new data presented in this paper will expand on the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the substrates in the region.

Previous studies show that it is possible to exploit the ranges in the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from substrates to determine resource- and landscape-use among herbivores in the region (Besaan, 1972; Sealy et al., 1991; Radloff et al., 2010). This is the result of two interconnected aspects to the study region, 1) the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of coastal marine sands are distinct from that of the shales and sandstones which

are found further inland along the coast and 2) the composition of vegetation in this region varies according to substrate (Rebelo et al., 2006; Cowling and Lombard, 2002).

3.2.2.2. Tooth enamel formation and the factors determining $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of bioapatite

In determining the movement of an animal for food and in the application of these data to evaluate ecology, it is important to remember that in the case of large mammalian herbivores, the enamel of a single tooth can take > 8 months to fully mineralize (as reviewed in Kohn and Cerling, 2002). As a result, each sampled portion of enamel from a tooth represents a period of time as opposed to a split moment of time, such as a single meal or single day in the life of an animal. Tooth enamel is oldest at the crown and youngest at the cervix and enamel incorporates the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the resources consumed over the period of time it took for the enamel to mineralize. Once formed, enamel is not remodeled or added to. By serial sampling along the tooth growth axis, it is possible to determine if and where animals traveled for food over time.

The primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of a material can be altered after deposition via removal or addition of secondary, diagenetic strontium (e.g., Bentley, 2006). The presence of diagenetic strontium can mask the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio and it is necessary to assess whether or not a material preserves its primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio (e.g., Sealy et al., 1991; Hoppe et al., 2003; Bentley, 2006). Secondary structural and nonstructural diagenetic strontium is more heavily substituted in bioapatite than primary, biogenic strontium, therefore diagenetic strontium in bioapatite tends to be more soluble (Sillen, 1986; Tuross et al., 1989). When bioapatite is bathed in a weak acid, the secondary

strontium will dissolve and become part of the supernatant more readily than will the primary, biogenic strontium over a series during rinses, which is called a solubility profile (e.g., Sealy et al., 1991). If the supernatant $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio changes in the course of the solubility profile, and/or is different from the cleaned enamel powder $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio, then the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the enamel has been altered (Fig. 3.3.4A; Sealy et al., 1991). This assessment is particularly important when measuring the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of buried bone because it is porous and can accumulate material (Lee-Thorp, 2008). On the other hand, enamel is an example of a material that is more resistant to strontium isotope alteration because it is not as porous as bone. While it is important to determine the presence of secondary strontium, diagenetic strontium can often be removed from bioapatite by rinsing a powdered sample in a weak acid and then the rinsed bioapatite can be analyzed for the primary, biogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio (e.g., Sealy et al., 1991). Each sample set, however, needs to be evaluated on an individual basis to determine the number of rinses needed (Sillen and LeGeros, 1982; Sealy et al., 1991). We report on such control studies for the fossil enamel samples studied herein.

3.3. Methods

3.3.1. Sample collection

We collected samples for three different purposes: refining the regional map of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the major substrates in southwestern South Africa, assessing diagenetic alteration in fossil enamel from Elandsfontein and evaluating

whether or not mid-Pleistocene herbivores had sufficient resources at Elandsfontein to survive or if they had to travel to other substrates in the region to find food.

We collected plant samples and the bones and teeth of contemporary small herbivores with small ranges (e.g., rodents and tortoises) from each major substrate in our study area. Herbivore tissues provide the best estimate of the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of a substrate (Bentley, 2006). We avoided cultivated areas because the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fertilizers can mask the primary bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the substrate, plant, bone and teeth. The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios are shown (Table 3.1; Table S3.1). Granites that comprise the Cape Granite suite are different in age and mineralogical composition and may also differ in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (Rozendaal et al., 1999; Belcher and Kisters, 2003). We therefore collected samples from different granitic outcrops. New $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data from this study were then compiled with previously published data from Sealy et al. (1991) to determine if the major substrates in southwestern South Africa could be distinguished from one another using their bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios.

The fossil teeth from Elandsfontein were collected as both surface and excavated finds by members of the West Coast Research Project between 2008 and 2014 (Braun et al., 2013), and are archived at The Archaeology Department, University of Cape Town. We sampled 25 teeth from the mammalian herbivore families Bovidae ($n = 18$), Equidae ($n = 1$) and Elephantidae ($n = 2$), rodent families Bathyergidae ($n = 1$) and Hystricidae ($n = 1$), and the carnivore family Hyaenidae ($n = 2$) (Table 3.2; Table S3.2). We preferred to sample the third molars of browsing and grazing herbivore taxa that were potentially migratory and may have traveled for food (Stynder, 2009; Copeland et al., 2016). We selected teeth that were unworn or lightly worn because they preserve more of the tooth

enamel growth than a worn tooth and are more likely to capture variations in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios along the length of the tooth growth axis. In addition, we sampled teeth of mid-Pleistocene animals that were likely local to Elandsfontein, such as rodents. These would not have strayed from the Elandsfontein area. Two carnivores, both the brown hyena, could have traveled long distances in search for food (Klein et al., 2007). We also targeted a subset of modern tooth enamel ($n = 2$) and fossil tooth enamel fragments ($n = 8$) with a range of preservation states to assess the degree of alteration of the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of fossil teeth at Elandsfontein.

Table 3.2: Diet and migratory behavior of the mid-Pleistocene mammalian herbivores and carnivores from Elandsfontein analyzed for enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios.

| Mammalian family | Taxon | Common name | Dietary behavior | Inclination to migrate |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Bovidae | <i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i> | Greater kudu | Browser | Potentially migratory |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphini sp. indet. | - | Grazer | Potentially migratory |
| Bovidae | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Giant buffalo | Grazer | Potentially migratory |
| Bovidae | Bovid indent. | - | - | - |
| Equidae | <i>Equus capensis</i> | Cape zebra | Grazer | Potentially migratory |
| Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana</i> | African elephant | Grazer | Potentially migratory |
| Bathyergidae | <i>Bathyergus suillus</i> | Dune mole rat | Mixed | Not migratory |
| Hystricidae | <i>Hystrix africae australis</i> | Porcupine | Mixed | Not migratory |
| Hyaenidae | <i>Hyaena brunnea</i> | Brown hyena | Carnivore | Can travel long distances |

3.3.2. Sample preparation and analysis

3.3.2.1. Sample preparation

Modern enamel, bone and plants used to determine bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ were placed in porcelain crucibles with lid and then organic materials were removed by ashing the samples in a muffle furnace (500°C, overnight) at the Department of Archaeology,

University of Cape Town. Each fossil tooth was cleaned of the outermost, exposed enamel and then serially sampled with a diamond-tip drill bit by taking samples of enamel (~ 10 mg) in a series of approximately horizontal lines from the base of the tooth to the occlusal surface. Care was taken to sample as closely as possible without overlap. We sampled between 40 and 50 mg of each tooth fragment used to determine diagenesis of the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth.

Enamel samples were either prepared for solution analysis by powdering the enamel or for in situ analysis by clearing the enamel surface. The enamel powder (< 10 mg; both modern and fossil enamel) were prepared and analyzed in the Department of Geological Sciences at the University of Cape Town. Enamel samples were rinsed five times in 1 ml of buffered nitric acid (100 mM, pH 4.5) to remove strontium from the surrounding environment from enamel powder and then dried. Powder was then digested in 2 ml of 2.0 M HNO_3 in a closed Teflon beaker, heated at 140°C for one hour and dried. The remaining material was then dissolved in 1.5 ml 2.0 M HNO_3 for strontium separation chemistry. Between 25 and 50 mg of plants and soils were digested to make a solution for strontium separation chemistry using the method outlined in Copeland et al. (2016). The strontium separation chemistry for every sample was done following the method of Pin et al. (1994). The strontium fraction of each sample was then dried, dissolved in 2 ml 0.2% HNO_3 and then diluted to a concentration of 200 ppb Sr.

3.3.2.2. Sample analysis

The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of modern and fossil samples were analyzed using either laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (LA-ICP-MS) or solution

ICP-MS. There are strengths and limitations to each of these techniques. Briefly, measuring $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios using solution ICP-MS requires that the sample is dissolved and concentrated before analysis. This method is time consuming and is destructive which can be problematic, especially when there are multiple samples needed (e.g., serial sampling a tooth), however it produces data that is ten times more precise than analysis via LA-ICP-MS, 0.00001 and 0.00001, respectively (Copeland et al., 2010). Analysis using LA-ICP-MS is much faster than solution ICP-MS as teeth or enamel fragments are merely abraded at the surface to remove dirt and secondary strontium. LA-ICP-MS allows for in situ analysis of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of a material. Materials can be serial sampled using laser ablation, which is particularly useful when determining intra-tooth $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio variation.

The majority of samples were analyzed for their $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio in solution using high-resolution multicollector inductively-coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (HR-MC-ICP-MS) using a Nu Instruments NuPlasma instrument (University of Cape Town). Almost every fossil and modern tooth and tooth fragment was too large to fit into the standard 2.5-cm x 2.5-cm cylinder chamber currently available at the University of Cape Town for LA-ICP-MS. Fossil teeth from Elandsfontein do not all have pristine enamel and some have even been subjected to carbonate leaching. Therefore, even if the fossil teeth did fit within the chamber used for LA-ICP-MS analysis, each fossil sample needed to be pretreated to remove diagenetic material and we were concerned that light abrasion of the tooth surface would not have been sufficient to remove secondary strontium. We considered solution ICP-MS to be the most reliable method for producing $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data that reflected the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil enamel.

The international standard, NIST SRM987 ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio = 0.710255), was analyzed intermittently between unknown samples. The in-house carbonate standard, NM95, was measured during each run of unknowns and agreed with the long-term average obtained in this laboratory of 0.708907 with two standard deviation (i.e., 2σ) of 0.000031 ($n = 24$). Unknown samples were analyzed once to determine $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of a solution and the error is reported as 2σ internal error.

3.3.3. Determining the presence of diagenetic strontium

To determine if the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of fossil teeth had been significantly changed by environmental strontium after deposition, we analyzed the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of modern enamel and fossil tooth fragments that ranged in quality of preservation (i.e., from well-preserved enamel to enamel that had likely experienced carbonate leaching and alteration of the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio). Enamel samples were ground into a powder using a mortar and pestle. Our method for evaluating the presence of diagenetic strontium in an enamel sample (i.e., $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios that are different from the primary value) and removal of the secondary strontium was based on the evaluation of diagenetic strontium in Sealy et al. (1991), in which solubility profiles, or the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from a series of weak acid baths and the remaining, cleaned bone powder were analyzed, to determine the presence and subsequent removal of diagenetic strontium in samples from a specific site. Powdered enamel samples were then rinsed 24 to 26 times in the buffered nitric acid solution (100 mM, pH 4.5) as described in the above in Section 3.3.2.1. Supernatants from every fourth or fifth rinse and the remaining powdered enamel were prepared for solution analysis of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios using HR-MC-ICP-MS.

3.3.4. Statistical comparison of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio values

Comparisons of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of materials were performed using JMP 11 software, a statistical analytical program developed by the SAS Institute. We used the Tukey-Kramer HSD test for these comparisons and we use the \pm symbol throughout the paper to represent one standard deviation from the mean, unless otherwise noted.

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Mapping of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios

Modern bones ($n = 15$) and teeth ($n = 3$) from individual animals and nine plant samples were collected from the dominant substrates in the region. Their $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios were compiled with those of modern bone samples ($n = 10$) reported in Sealy et al. (1991) (data compiled in Table S3.1 and summarized in Table 3.1). We have included solution and laser ablation-based data; the difference between the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the sample modern enamel samples determined using these two methods is $< \pm 0.000150$ ($n = 3$).

The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of Pleistocene marine sands range from 0.709388 to 0.711690 (Fig. 3.2; Table S3.1). The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the Table Mountain sandstone complex and the Malmesbury Shale have values that overlap and together these samples range from 0.714092 to 0.720390 (Fig. 3.2; Table 3.1; Table S3.1). The new $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data presented here have expanded upon the range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for shale and sandstone complexes presented in Sealy et al. (1991) and these data confirm that the two substrates are not distinct in terms of strontium isotope composition.

We have added $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio data for Cape Granites to the map of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the major substrates in the region and find that the Cape Granite $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios have a wide spread, ranging from 0.711421 to 0.723563 (Table 3.1; Table S3.1; Fig. 3.1; Fig. 3.2).

3.4.2. Assessment of diagenesis in fossil teeth

We measured the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of modern ($n = 2$) and fossil ($n = 8$) enamel fragments and that of the weak nitric acid supernatant from a series of enamel rinses to evaluate possible diagenesis of the primary isotopic composition of elemental strontium. Fossil fragments are from Bovidae and Equidae families and also from unidentified large mammalian herbivores. We did not observe differences > 0.0006 in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios over the series of rinses for any of the sample solubility profiles (Fig. 3.3; Table S3.3). The enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from the fossil teeth at Elandsfontein (all rinses and the enamel powder remaining at the end of the process) ranged from 0.709366 to 0.710679: these values are within the range of marine-derived sand $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (Fig. 3.3). The two modern enamel samples have a span of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.0004 and 0.0006 (for all rinses and the enamel powder remaining at the end of the process), which overlaps with the span of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil enamel and their supernatants over a series of ~ 25 rinses (0.00008 to 0.00050). For both of the modern samples, Rinse 1 had noticeably lower $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios than the rest of the rinses and the residue enamel powder; the fossil samples do not show this pattern. It is possible that there is some labile strontium component that the modern samples are picking up soon after deposition where as fossilized enamel samples are in some way stabilized. Modern samples are collected from

the surface and are from animals that have died and sat out on the surface long enough to be completely cleared of soft tissue and hair.

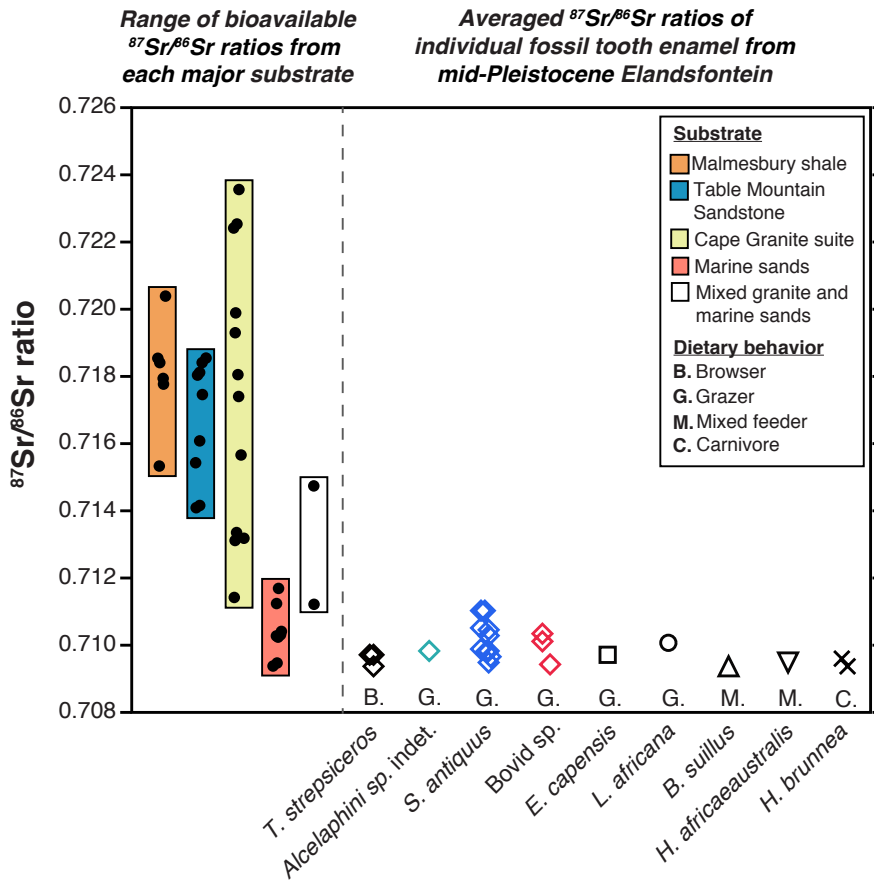


Figure 3.2: Ranges of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for the major substrates (and mixed marine sands and granite) in southwestern South Africa compared with the average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio for each mid-Pleistocene mammalian tooth from Elandsfontein. The black dots represent both the new and previously published bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from each major substrate (Sealy et al., 1991; this study). Materials analyzed are bone, enamel and plants (Table S3.1). The range of substrate bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios is encompassed within a vertical rectangle. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio for each sample used to determine the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of substrates can be found in Table S3.1 and the ranges of these data are presented in Table 3.1. The average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of individual fossil teeth are presented by taxon. Fossil enamel samples are from the following mammalian families and represent a single tooth: Bovidae (\diamond), Equidae (\square), Elephantidae (\circ), the rodent families Bathyergidae (\triangle) and Hystricidae (∇) and feliform family Hyaenidae (\times). Probable dietary behavior of animals are indicated by letters and are based on the findings of Stynder (2009) and Klein et al. (2007). Symbols are defined in the legend.

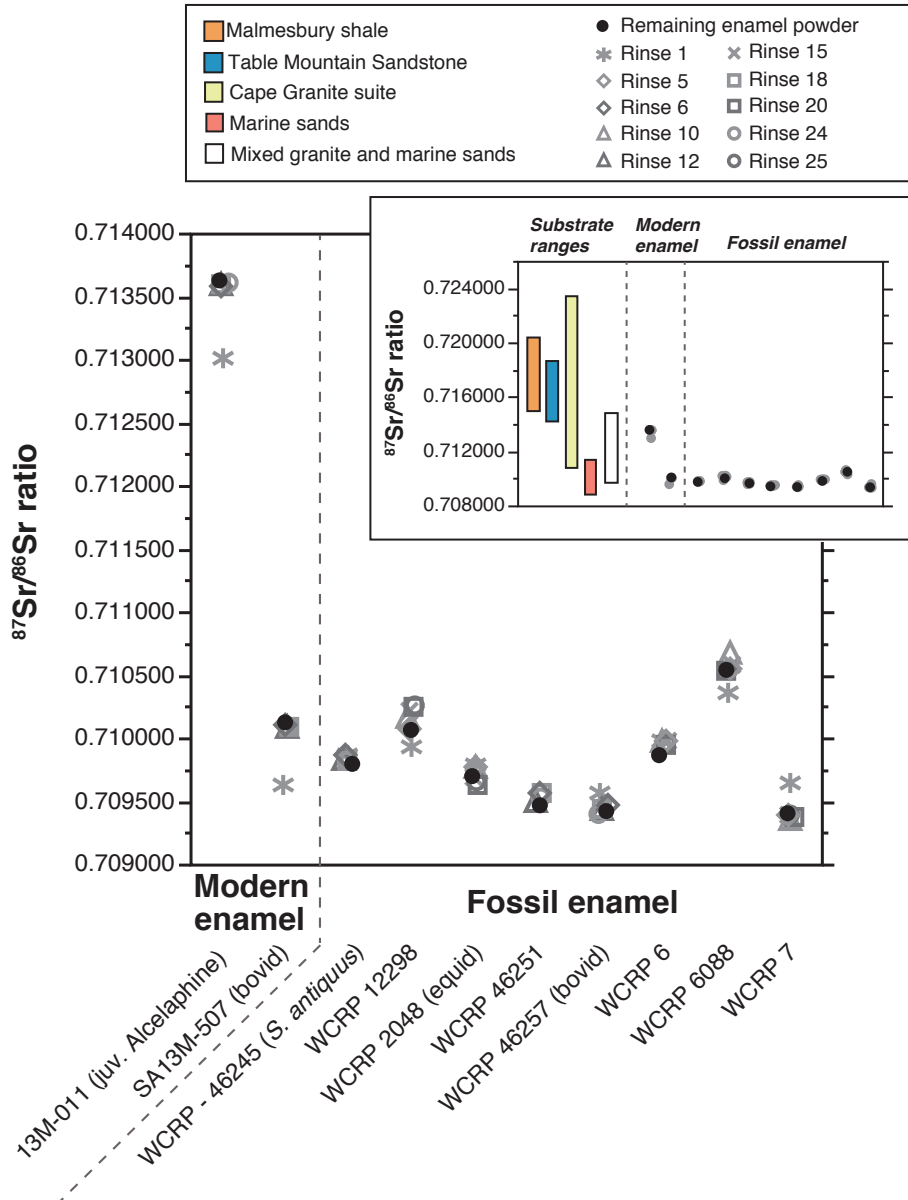


Figure 3.3: $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the supernatants from a series of rinses of modern and fossil tooth enamel powder bathed in weak nitric acid (gray symbols) and the remaining enamel powder (black circle). When taxon is not indicated after the sample ID, it is because the herbivore taxon is unknown. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from modern enamel and the supernatants from their acid baths were analyzed so that any trends in the supernatant $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil enamel could be compared with that of modern, pristine enamel. The smaller plot in the upper right hand corner of the figure outlines the range of bioavailable strontium $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the major substrates in southwestern South Africa in comparison with the range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for the series of supernatants and the remaining powder of enamel samples.

We assessed the presence of diagenetic strontium in fossil samples by comparing the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of a powdered enamel sample after pretreating samples and also the supernatant from each rinse in weak nitric acid. We compared the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of both modern and fossil enamel with that of the supernatants after powdered enamel samples were bathed in weak acid to see if there were substantial differences between the enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of pristine, modern enamel and the buried fossil enamel from Elandsfontein (Fig. 3.3). The change in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of supernatants over a series of ~ 25 rinses was small (~ 0.0004) relative to the range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for each substrate (> 0.002). The majority of change in supernatant $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio for each enamel fragment occurred within the first five rinses (Fig. 3.3; Table S3.3). Figure 3.4A shows possible scenarios for how the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of supernatant of powdered enamel bathed in weak acid could change with successive rinses for the fossil samples at Elandsfontein.

We rinsed each sample of fossil enamel powder five times before analyzing the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the enamel powder because, although the total change was small (< 0.0006), the majority of change in the solubility profile occurred within the first rinse. Regardless of fossil enamel condition, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil enamel samples and all of the supernatants analyzed to determine strontium diagenesis remained within the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from marine sands, which is the geologic substrate at Elandsfontein.

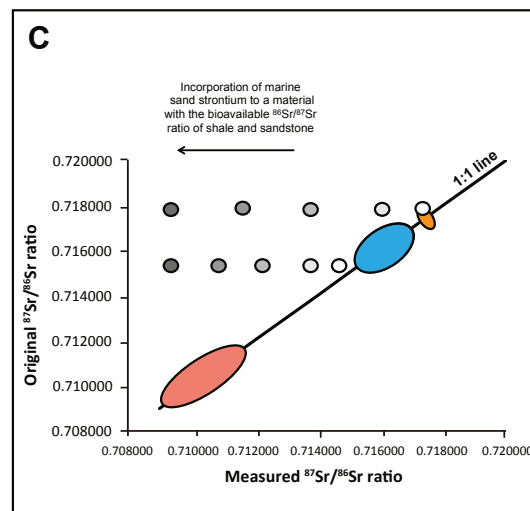
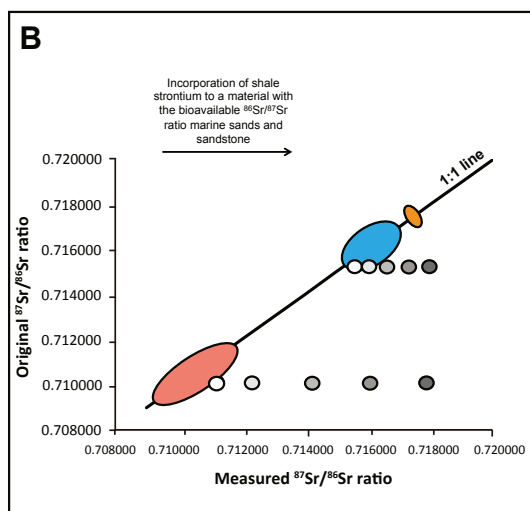
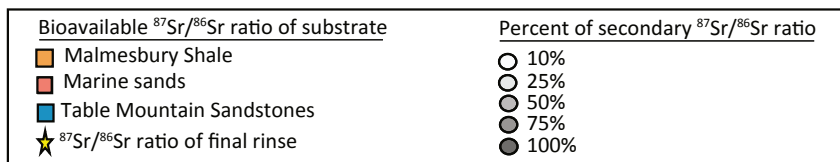
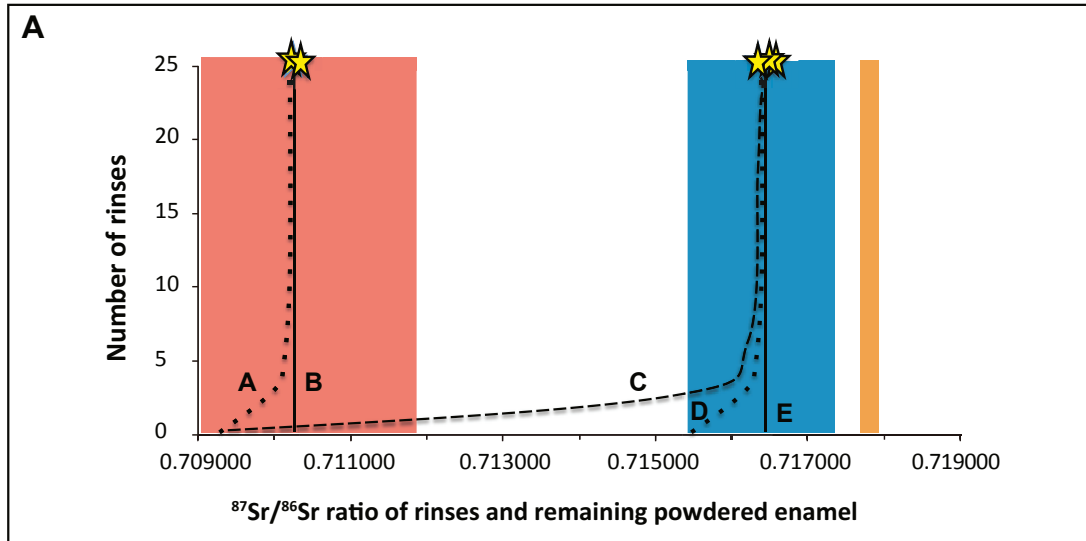


Figure 3.4: Scenarios outlining the expected trends of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios over a series of supernatants remaining after enamel powder is bathed in weak nitric acid to remove secondary strontium and that of the cleaned enamel (A). Scenarios A and D are the expected trends in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios over a series of rinses when there has only been minor alteration of the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of a sample. Scenarios B and E indicate the expected trend in the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of supernatants and the remaining enamel when the enamel has not experienced measurable alteration of the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio. Scenario C indicates significant alteration of a primary enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio, by which the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio (which reflects Table Mountain Sandstone) is completely masked by the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the secondary strontium ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio reflecting marine sands).

We used the linear mixing model described in Copeland et al. (2010) to evaluate how the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of an enamel sample would change with the addition of secondary strontium, when secondary strontium composed 10%, 25%, 50%, 75% and 100% of the total strontium in a sample (Fig. 3.4B and 4C). Mean values for the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the marine sands, shales and sandstones in southwestern South Africa were used in our calculations, as these are three of the four main substrates in the region. We did not include granites in this study since the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in the suite of Cape Granites must be better defined before the Copeland et al. (2010) model can be applied to them. As expected, when secondary strontium from a substrate that is not the same in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio as the primary substrate replaces the primary strontium, then the enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio moves further from the primary enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio and closer to that of the secondary strontium (Fig. 3.4B and 4C).

3.4.3. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil mammalian teeth from Elandsfontein

Fossil mammalian tooth enamel from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein have been serially-sampled along the tooth growth axis whenever possible. The averaged $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio from the serial samples ($n = 156$) of 22 individual teeth is 0.710013 ± 0.000470 and ranges from 0.709255 to 0.711171. We did not observe any significant differences in the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for different herbivore taxa. Carnivores ($n = 2$) were not distinct from other taxa and were within the range of the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of marine-derived sands (0.709507 ± 0.000160 ; Fig. 3.2). All data points from the Elandsfontein fossil teeth have $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios equivalent to bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of marine-derived sands and were not within the ratio range of any other substrate. We found that there were slight

differences in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for each serial sample within an individually sampled tooth, where intra-tooth ratios have differences between 0.000049 and 0.001249 (Table S3.2). In addition we observed no behavioral difference between the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of enamel along the tooth growth axis of fossil teeth, regardless of the animal species.

3.5. Discussion

3.5.1. Distribution of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of regional substrates and determining herbivore migration for food

Determining the distribution of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for substrates in southwestern South Africa provided the foundation for understanding how animals utilized their landscape in the mid-Pleistocene. In addition, this has also provided the foundation for future studies of animal and human mobility in this region since deposition of marine sands (i.e., since the Pliocene) in the area.

Values for bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ measured in bone and tooth enamel in this study are consistent with those of Sealy et al. (1991), but extend that work substantially by adding data to each of the major substrates (i.e., shale, sandstone and marine sand) (Table S3.1). The sandstone and shale bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio ranges are similar to one another but they are distinct from, and are more positive than those of marine sands (Table 3.1; Fig. 3.2). The range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of Cape Granites in southwestern South Africa is based on modern animal bones that lived on different Cape Granite outcrops and plants that grew on these granites (Table 1; Table S1). The range in bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from the granites encompasses the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio range of

sandstone and shale, substrates that are more positive than that of marine sands. This is in agreement with Sealy et al. (1991). The range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from marine sands are mostly distinct from that of granites, but the lowermost granite $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio overlaps with the two most positive $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of marine sands, though this should be studied in more detail (Table 3.1; Fig. 3.2).

The bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from the Cape Granites in southwestern South Africa currently have a wide span and this range overlaps with the other substrate bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios. Age and mineralogy are the two primary factors that directly influence the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of a rock (e.g., Bentley, 1996). It is possible that these different granitic bodies that are part of the suite of Cape Granites can be distinguished from one another using $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios because, 1) granites within the suite vary in age (within the Precambrian) and 2) they have unique mineralogical compositions (Sheepers, 1995; Rozendaal et al., 1999; Belcher and Kisters, 2003). To better determine if there are differences between the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the granitic intrusions that belong to the Cape Granite suite and in turn if animals traveled to specific granitic outcrops for food, multiple plants and or bones and teeth from the distinct granitic bodies would need to be collected and analyzed. In particular, the granites in the area surrounding Elandsfontein should be targeted because these are the most likely (i.e., most convenient) granitic outcrops that herbivores could have traveled to for food.

Given that the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the marine sands are distinct from that of sands and shales, we propose the following framework for using $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of teeth to study resource use by animals that lived in areas within the region (such as animals from Elandsfontein) where marine sands are the main substrate. There are two

basic scenarios for how the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data for fossil teeth from Elandsfontein can be interpreted: 1) the animals from Elandsfontein with tooth $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios similar to the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for marine sands were able to subsist on food found at Elandsfontein and in the surrounding, coastal location, and 2) the animals with tooth $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios similar to the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of shales and sandstones would have needed to travel inland for food.

3.5.2. Diagenesis of primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios and pretreatment procedure

Possible diagenesis of the strontium of fossil tooth enamel was tested by analyzing $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in solubility profiles (i.e., the supernatants of enamel bathed in weak acid and the enamel after a series of ~25 baths) from several tooth enamel fragments spanning a range of preservations. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios along the solubility profile remain within the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of marine sands in the region (See Fig. 3.3 and Fig. 3.4). Based on the consistency of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios along the solubility profile, there was no significant diagenesis of the enamel in any of the specimens studied.

The finding that the primary $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil teeth have been preserved is consistent with a previous study that showed that the oxygen isotopic composition (i.e., $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value) of fossil tooth enamel from Elandsfontein were unaltered. This assessment was based on the fact that, first, the relative oxygen isotopic compositions of different taxa from Elandsfontein are preserved, for example hippopotamids are more negative in their oxygen isotopic composition than are the other

taxa. Second, the offset between the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of enamel carbonate and that of enamel phosphate for each sample is as expected from pristine enamel (see Chapter 2).

Based on these results we consider the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth at Elandsfontein to be unaltered and representative of the substrate on which the animal ate. Therefore, each enamel sample used to analyze diet and vegetation at Elandsfontein was pretreated in a standard manner (i.e., rinsed five times in weak nitric acid).

3.5.3. Herbivore migration and environment at Elandsfontein during mid-Pleistocene

The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth from Elandsfontein lie within the range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios expected for animals that obtain their food from the marine sand substrates that are local to Elandsfontein. These data indicate that the browsing and grazing herbivores, rodents and carnivores at Elandsfontein consistently consumed resources on the marine-derived sand substrate (Fig. 3.2; Table 3.3; Table S3.2). We did not observe any patterns in the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil teeth that we sampled serially along the tooth growth axis (Table S3.2).

Table 3.3: Average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil mammals from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

| Sample ID | Taxon | Inclination to migrate ^a | Dietary behavior ^a | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | | <i>n</i> ^c |
|----------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|
| | | | | Average | Stdev ^b | Min | Max | |
| Bovidae | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 20443 | <i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i> | Potentially migratory | Browser | 0.709384 | 0.000031 | 0.709330 | 0.709428 | 9 |
| WCRP 36612 | <i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i> | Potentially migratory | Browser | 0.709721 | 0.000046 | 0.709671 | 0.709780 | 7 |
| WCRP 9386 | <i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i> (?) | Potentially migratory | Browser | 0.709689 | 0.000071 | 0.709546 | 0.709754 | 10 |
| WCRP 1358 | Alcelaphini sp. indet. | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709843 | 0.000058 | 0.709770 | 0.709980 | 12 |
| WCRP 36309 | <i>Syncerus</i> | Potentially | Grazer | 0.711010 | 0.000154 | 0.710710 | 0.711120 | 6 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----|
| | <i>antiquus</i> | migratory | | | | | | |
| WCRP 9043 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.710293 | 0.000058 | 0.710130 | 0.710570 | 12 |
| WCRP 1666 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709641 | 0.000241 | 0.709255 | 0.710078 | 9 |
| WCRP 36309 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.710431 | 0.000053 | 0.710351 | 0.710488 | 5 |
| WCRP 8787 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.711047 | 0.000144 | 0.710889 | 0.711171 | 3 |
| WCRP 9046 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.710496 | 0.000142 | 0.710327 | 0.710835 | 21 |
| WCRP 9944 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709855 | 0.000056 | 0.709771 | 0.709888 | 4 |
| WCRP 46245 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709876 | 0.000194 | 0.709324 | 0.710141 | 12 |
| WCRP 46251 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709474 | - | - | - | 1 |
| WCRP 46245 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709802 | - | - | - | 1 |
| WCRP 46225 | <i>Syncerus antiquus</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709640 | 0.000022 | 0.709609 | 0.709658 | 6 |
| WCRP 32386 | Bovid | - | Grazer | 0.710320 | 0.000433 | 0.709856 | 0.711105 | 12 |
| WCRP 46257 | Bovid | - | ? Grazer | 0.709428 | - | - | - | 1 |
| WCRP 1468 | Bovid indent. | - | ? Grazer | 0.710090 | 0.000080 | 0.709976 | 0.710181 | 10 |
| <u>Equidea</u> | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 2048 | <i>Equus capensis</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.709705 | - | - | - | 1 |
| <u>Elephantidae</u> | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 12298 | <i>Loxodonta africana</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.710071 | - | - | - | 1 |
| WCRP 6088 | <i>Loxodonta africana</i> | Potentially migratory | Grazer | 0.710547 | - | - | - | 1 |
| <u>Bathyergidae</u> | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 32007 | <i>Bathyergus suillus</i> | Not migratory | Mixed feeder | 0.709392 | 0.000083 | 0.709275 | 0.709489 | 6 |
| <u>Hystriidae</u> | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 32012 | <i>Hystrix africae australis</i> | Not migratory | Mixed feeder | 0.709476 | 0.000066 | 0.709423 | 0.709587 | 7 |
| <u>Hyaenidae</u> | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP 32121 | <i>Hyaena brunnea</i> | Potentially migratory | Carnivore | 0.709393 | - | - | - | 1 |
| WCRP 32442 | <i>Hyaena brunnea</i> | Potentially migratory | Carnivore | 0.709620 | - | - | - | 1 |

^a migratory inclination and dietary behavior information from Copeland et al. (2016) and coauthor Deano Stynder in 2014 to 2016

^b standard deviation is $\pm 1\sigma$ from the average

^c number of individual serial samples from an individual tooth that have been averaged

Herbivores ate vegetation growing on marine sands. We used the linear mixing model that was used to evaluate mixing of primary and secondary strontium as an approach for determining the percentage of total food an animal could have consumed from shale in the region and still have retained a $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio within the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for marine sands (Fig. 3.4). We find that vegetation growing on shale could have contributed ~10% of the total food consumed by an animal living mainly on the marine sands (Fig. 3.4) without registering a significant change in the enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio (i.e., the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio remains within the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for the marine sands). Animals would need to eat ~ 25% of their total food from the vegetation growing on shale before their enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios would necessarily become more positive than the range of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for marine sands. However, there are no fossil enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios that are more positive than the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for marine sands (Fig. 3.2).

We also produced carbon isotope datasets for serial samples of teeth (one tooth from each taxon) from three large grazing mammals (*Equus capensis*, *Connochaetes gnou* and *Syncerus antiquus*) at Elandsfontein that might have migrated for food (Thesis Chapter 2). Each of these fossil teeth ($n = 3$) had intra-tooth variation of $\leq 1 \text{‰}$ in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were $-9.9 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$ (13 serial samples averaged), $-9.4 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$ (12 serial samples averaged) and $-9.7 \pm 1.0\text{‰}$ (8 serial samples averaged) for *Equus capensis*, *Connochaetes gnou* and *Syncerus antiquus*, respectively. These data indicate that these grazers consumed diets that consisted overwhelmingly of C_3 grasses characteristic of the winter rainfall zone, and the isotopic composition of their diets did not vary in the early years of their lifetimes when their teeth mineralized. The sum of these data are published

in Lehmann et al. (2016), indicate that the mid Pleistocene environment at Elandsfontein supported large grazing mammals who were able to subsist wholly on the grasses that grew in the coastal regions of the winter rainfall zone where there must have been a year-round supply of grass.

3.5.4. Environments at Elandsfontein and southwestern South Africa during mid-Pleistocene

The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth from Elandsfontein suggest that mid-Pleistocene mammals did not need to travel from the coast to find food. Mesowear and microwear records from mid-Pleistocene Bovidae teeth indicate that these animals had access to both browse and graze at Elandsfontein and in the surrounding area and that the presence of grassland in this area would have provided food resources for grazing herbivores during the mid-Pleistocene (Stynder, 2009). Fossil enamel from herbivores at Elandsfontein have carbon isotopic compositions indicating that grazers ate grass adapted to a winter rainfall zone. Southwestern South Africa was within a winter rainfall zone during the mid-Pleistocene, as it is today (Luyt et al., 2000; Hare and Sealy, 2013; Lehmann et al., 2016).

During the mid-Pleistocene herbivores did not spend a significant time outside of the winter rainfall zone nor did they spend a significant amount of time eating on the major regional substrates other than marine-derived sands on the coast of southwestern South Africa. Elandsfontein appears to have provided both palatable browse and graze vegetation during the mid-Pleistocene. Together these data suggest that the fossil herbivores that have been found at Elandsfontein could access enough food and water in

the area around Elandsfontein and also could have acquired their food resources along the coast; suggesting an environment and ecological setting that is nothing like those seen today.

This suggestion of a mid-Pleistocene environment with grasses and adequate vegetation to feed both browsers and grazers has also been suggested by Luyt et al. (2000) and Stynder (2009). Spring sediments preserved at Elandsfontein suggest the presence of surface water during the mid-Pleistocene (e.g., Braun et al., 2013). Standing water could have provided enough water to support the growth of grass year round as well as other vegetation like trees, shrubs and sedges, all within a winter rainfall zone. Overall it would be quite unrecognizable in the current landscape, environment and ecology. At some point between the mid-Pleistocene and today, southwestern South Africa changed from a lush environment with a diverse animal community to an environment that is hot, dry and hostile to the communities that existed during the mid-Pleistocene.

3.6. Conclusion

- 1) Enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios indicate that herbivores did not migrate from coastal region suggesting that there was enough nutritious vegetation to feed both browsers and grazers on the coast of southwestern South Africa without animals having to move inland.
- 2) These data indicate the presence of browse and graze on what is now fynbos shrub land suggests the presence of water resources, which supports the idea of

the EFT region having springs during the mid-Pleistocene, and proposes an environment and large mammal community at Elandsfontein and in the study region that is fundamentally different from the low carrying capacity environment that there is today.

- 3) These results do not support the hypothesis that large herbivores in coastal regions during the Pleistocene undertook long-distance migrations for food or other resources.
- 4) Tooth enamel from Elandsfontein was shown to retain effectively unaltered biogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios as well as biogenic $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ values.

CHAPTER 4: Triple oxygen isotope distributions in tooth enamel of extant mammals and potential geologic applications

ABSTRACT

The fractionation of the heavier oxygen isotope ^{18}O relative to ^{16}O is broadly used to study the hydrological and carbon cycles today and in the Earth's past. The extensive applications of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios stem from its sensitivity to a range of environmental and geographic parameters (e.g., temperature, relative humidity, latitude), however the relationships among these parameters also limit its utility for probing the Earth system. The triple oxygen isotopic composition ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}$) of a material, which includes the rare isotope ^{17}O in addition to the more common ^{16}O and ^{18}O , can be used to distinguish processes influenced by mass-dependent fractionation from those influenced by mass-independent fractionation. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ can also be used to determine the influence of equilibrium and kinetic isotope effects during processes involving mass-dependent fractionation. There is an emerging literature that shows the potential utility of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ measurements in bones, tooth enamel and eggshells for studies of hydroclimate, $p\text{CO}_2$, $p\text{O}_2$ and diagenesis in the fossil record. However, in order to evaluate the potential of using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ compositions of fossilized materials, we need a better understanding of the range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in the modern enamel of animals with a variety of behaviors and from a different environments as to provide a baseline to which fossil datasets can be compared. Here we present the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values from 50 teeth of extant large mammalian herbivores. Teeth were obtained from several species with a range of behaviors and from

a broad range of environments and latitudes (0° to 68°). The range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values for tooth enamel is -291 to -137 per meg (161 per meg; 1 per meg is 0.001‰). The range in enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values appears sensitive to aridity, contrasting the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values that vary with both latitude and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of local meteoric water. Our results provide a baseline for the expected range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in contemporary bones and teeth that can be applied in studies using fossilized samples. We argue that the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel have strong potential as a tool to evaluate past aridity, in addition to their utility in evaluating oxygen isotope diagenesis of a material and past atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$.

4.1. Introduction and Background

Oxygen isotopes in marine and terrestrial carbonates have long been used to reconstruct Earth's climate and environmental conditions across geological time (e.g., Rowley and Currie, 2006; Hopley et al., 2007; Zachos et al., 2001). These records which rely on $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios of carbonates, or $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, where $\delta^{18}\text{O} = \left(\frac{^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}_{\text{sample}}}{^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000$, have defined our current understanding of major aspects of Earth history ranging from the history of mountain uplift, global temperature changes, and aridification. However $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -based paleoclimate reconstructions are inherently limited because there are multiple factors that can influence $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of carbonates and the waters from which they form, which can include geographic location (e.g., elevation), temperature and evaporation. These factors influence $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of water through processes involving a combination of equilibrium and kinetic isotopic fractionation effects that cannot be distinguished using $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ alone. In order to constrain the potential influences on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and to use $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ carbonate records to reconstruct past climate and environment with more confidence, we need an additional tool that allows us to evaluate the influencing factors on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of a carbonate and the water from which it forms.

^{17}O is the least common stable isotope of oxygen as it comprises only 0.038% of the total amount of oxygen. It has long been recognized that $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ and $^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ have different fractionation factors (α), where $^x\alpha = ^xR_{\text{sample}}/^xR_{\text{standard}}$, where x is either 18 or 17 and indicates if the isotopic ratio, R, is $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ or $^{17}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$, respectively (Matsuhisa et

al., 1978; Barkan and Luz, 2005). For the majority of Earth surface processes, oxygen isotope fractionation is largely mass-dependent, such that $^{18}\alpha$ and $^{17}\alpha$ vary in predictable ways relative to one another as a function of their mass; these relationships are characterized by the triple oxygen isotope exponent, θ , where $^{17}\alpha = ^{18}\alpha^\theta$ (e.g., Young et al. 2002). This exponent is generally greater for processes involving equilibrium fractionation (e.g., phase changes) than for processes involving kinetic fractionation (e.g., diffusion), such that we can use the combination of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ values to understand the influences of equilibrium and kinetic processes on the oxygen isotopic composition of materials (Matsuhisa et al. 1978; Young et al., 2002).

The measure of ^{17}O in addition to ^{18}O and ^{16}O , triple oxygen isotopes, is defined as $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$, where $\Delta^{17}\text{O} = \delta^{17}\text{O} - \lambda_{\text{REF}} \times \delta^{18}\text{O}$, and λ is the slope of the reference line (REF) and is dependent upon the reference frame used for the measurements in a given study (Miller, 2002; Pack and Herwartz, 2014). $\delta^{\prime x}\text{O} = \ln(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}})$ (Hulston and Thode, 1965). The delta prime notation, $\delta^{\prime x}\text{O}$, is used so the relationship between $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values can be viewed linearly and where the slope of plots of $\delta^{\prime 18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{\prime 17}\text{O}$ values can be expressed as λ . λ is the mathematical equivalent of θ , but instead of dealing with one fractionation process, λ is used to describe oxygen isotope fractionation when several processes are combined as is likely processes that involve multiple phases and steps such as carbonate formation (Passey et al., 2014). We present isotopic data using δ -values and δ^{\prime} -values in units of per mil (‰) and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in units of in per meg, where 1‰ = 1000 per meg.

For the triple oxygen isotope data that we discuss below we define $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values using λ_{REF} as 0.528, which is the slope that characterizes the distribution of global meteoric waters on a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ - $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ plot and is similar to the theoretical exponent for processes involving equilibrium fractionation (Meijer and Li, 1998; Luz and Barkan, 2010). This reference line has been used in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ studies of meteoric water, terrestrial carbonates and silica because it serves as a model for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ values if mass-dependent equilibrium processes are the sole drivers of isotopic fractionation in a system (Barkan and Luz, 2005; Luz and Barkan, 2010; Passey et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015; Sharp et al., 2016). Any material that has experienced a kinetic fractionation process (e.g. evaporation of water) will have $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that will have lower $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values than the initial water (e.g., Young et al., 2002; Barkan and Luz, 2005; Landais et al., 2006).

While there is enormous potential for the use of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of terrestrial materials to better understand factors influencing the water from which a material derived and thereby expand the utility of carbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ paleoclimate records, the use of triple oxygen isotopes have primarily been limited to studies of systems where there is a relatively large range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values, such as meteorites, atmospheric chemistry and of Precambrian paleoclimate (e.g., Franchi et al. 1999; Boering et al. 2004; Bao et al. 2008). However, it is now possible to use triple oxygen isotopes to understand processes involving mass-dependent fractionation that are common on the Earth's surface in part because 1) meaningful mass-dependent variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in Earth surface processes is now recognized and 2) analytical advances make it possible to measure the small

differences in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value in materials (e.g., water, carbonate) that are products of these processes.

We consider the evaluation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in terrestrial carbonates to be a viable way to address the limitations of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record. However, before we can address the fossil record we must first understand the modern framework and the primary influences of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of carbonates and the waters from which they derived.

4.1.1. Current understanding of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of terrestrial materials

In the following paragraphs we briefly review the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric-derived waters and the water from which bioapatites and biocarbonates (i.e., bones, tooth enamel and eggshells) precipitate. We report the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of animal body water and of bones, teeth and eggshells and then consider the major influences on the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of these materials. We then discuss the potential for using the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite and biocarbonate in the fossil record to evaluate paleoclimate and paleoenvironment.

Meteoric water that has not experienced significant evaporation on average falls along a slope of 0.528 with an intercept of 33 per meg (Luz and Barkan, 2010). In contrast, precipitation and surface water from dry, continental settings can be subject to extensive evaporation, yielding $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values as low as -60 per meg (e.g., Li et al., 2015; Surma et al., 2015; Fig 4.1). Plant water is derived from meteoric water and is highly susceptible to kinetic isotopic effects (i.e., diffusion/evaporation). With increased aridity, kinetic isotope effects more strongly influence the oxygen isotopic composition of plant water and there is further deviation from the reference line. Thus, with increasing aridity,

the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of plant water becomes increasingly negative (Landais et al., 2006). Plant water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values, specifically leaf water, can be < -300 per meg (Fig. 4.1).

The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bones, teeth and eggshells are directly related to the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of animal body water from which these minerals have formed and have been measured in several studies. When $\lambda_{\text{REF}} = 0.528$, animal body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values vary and can be more negative than ca. -200 per meg (Passey et al., 2014). There is only a ca. 20 per meg overlap of body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values with the meteoric water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values (Fig. 4.4.1A). Analyzed eggshells have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that are as negative as ca. -200 per meg (Passey et al., 2014). Enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values have a similar range in values to that of body water, but can be more negative than -280 per meg (Fig. 4.4.1B; Passey et al., 2014).

The primary factors influencing animal body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values and the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatites and biocarbonates are 1) the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of ingested water from food and drinking water and 2) the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of inhaled atmospheric O_2 (Pack et al., 2013). Herbivore body water and the minerals that precipitate from body water are thought to have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values strongly influenced by the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of ingested leaf water and the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value water that they drink. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of contemporary atmospheric O_2 is depleted in ^{17}O (-500 per meg) relative to meteoric waters and plant waters as the result of mass-independent fractionation from photochemical reactions in the atmosphere and stratosphere (Bao et al., 2008). It is inhaled and incorporated into the animal body water and results in body water and bioapatite and biocarbonate $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that are more negative than the global meteoric water line. Inhaled atmospheric O_2 could represent up to 40% of the total oxygen in body water (Kohn, 1996; Gehler et al., 2011; Pack et al., 2013; Passey et al., 2014).

4.1.2. Using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite in the fossil record

$\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite and biocarbonate have been proposed as useful in geological studies to understand aridity, $p\text{CO}_2$ (concentration of CO_2 in the atmosphere) and diagenesis (e.g., Pack et al., 2013; Gehler et al., 2011; Passey et al., 2014; Gehler et al., 2016). These applications are based on the different processes of mass-dependent and mass-independent fractionation that influence the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of body water and in turn, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of biocarbonates and bioapatites (e.g., Hu et al., *in prep*). Part of the utility of these $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ -based approaches is that they can be applied to any materials in the fossil record that contain oxygen.

The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of biologically precipitated apatites and carbonates (i.e., bioapatites and biocarbonates) of large herbivore communities could be a proxy for aridity because animals incorporate evaporated leaf water into their diet and thus it is incorporated into bioapatite and carbonate (Hu et al., *in prep*). An animal that gets a large proportion of its water from leaf water (which can have more negative $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values than that of meteoric water, see Fig 4.1) will have a body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value substantially lower than that of an animal that drinks a large proportion of the water it ingests because the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of leaf water become more negative with increased evaporation (Hu et al., *in prep*). With increased aridity, $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of leaf water will be more negative such that the animals that get their water from leaves will have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite and biocarbonate that are more negative than they would in more humid environments (reviewed in Passey et al., 2014). However, the range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatites and biocarbonates in various environments is unexplored such that we do not know if it would be useful for constraining paleoaridity.

Changes in the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of inhaled atmospheric O_2 can also affect the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of bioapatite and biocarbonate as it can be a substantial portion of total balance of oxygen in a mammal's body water as stated above. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of atmospheric O_2 is in part a function of atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ due to mass-independent fractionation of oxygen isotopes within the stratosphere; the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of atmospheric O_2 becomes more negative as $p\text{CO}_2$ increases. This relationship has been applied to the study of past $p\text{CO}_2$ using terrestrial materials such as sulfates whose oxygen isotope composition is influenced primarily by the oxygen isotopes of atmospheric O_2 , and not water (e.g., Bao et al., 2008). There is potential to use fossil tooth enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values to determine or constrain past $p\text{CO}_2$ and this has been attempted in studies using fossil rodent tooth enamel (Gehler et al., 2016), however if this method for $p\text{CO}_2$ reconstruction is to gain traction, we need to develop a better understanding for the range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatites and biocarbonates that exist when $p\text{CO}_2$ is relatively constant.

Another potential geologic application for $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in bioapatites and biocarbonates is for assessing the influence of diagenesis on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ carbonate records. The oxygen composition of bioapatite and biocarbonate is prone to diagenesis, however determining whether the material has experienced isotopic alteration is not always straightforward. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of bioapatite has been proposed as a direct chemical proxy for isotopic diagenesis of oxygen (Gehler et al., 2011) based on the premise that bioapatite $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values are more negative than those of meteoric waters or even of a mixture of meteoric water and plant water (Fig. 4.4.1). The diagenetic fluid that would alter the oxygen isotopic composition of bioapatite and carbonate is meteoric water, with $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values

more positive than that of animal body water (Gehler et al., 2011). Thus, if the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of a bioapatite was found to be within the realm of the expected range of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric waters, then it is likely that the oxygen isotopes in the bioapatite have been altered from their primary composition and that the oxygen isotopes should not be considered in the evaluation of past Earth conditions and processes.

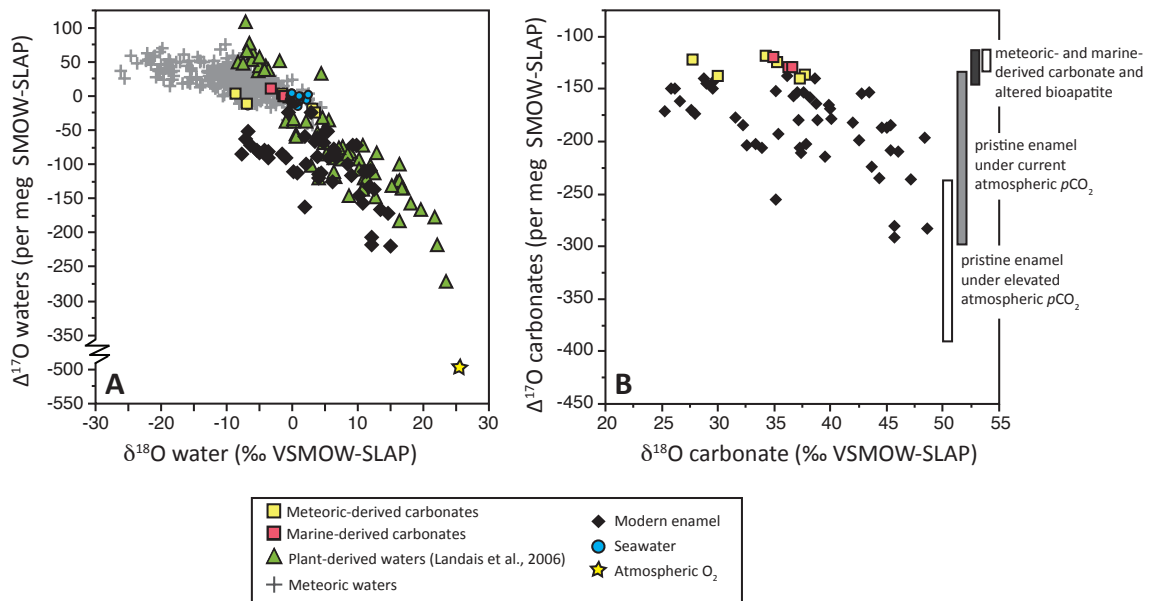


Figure 4.1: $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of marine- and meteoric- derived waters, plant water, atmospheric O_2 , and reconstructed water and body water (A). Marine- and meteoric derived carbonates and enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values with vertical bars indicating the range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values for marine- and meteoric-derived carbonates and for tooth enamel carbonate under current atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ (B). Data point are from Landais et al. (2006), Bao et al. (2008), Luz and Barkan (2010), Landais et al. (2010), Passey et al. (2014), Li et al. (2015), Hu et al. (*in prep*) and this study. Vertical bars are also used to represent the theoretical range of tooth enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values for enamel that has experienced alteration of O_2 by diagenetic meteoric- and marine- derived fluids based on carbonates from Passey et al. (2014) and enamel samples from this study (i.e., new data, Passey et al. (2014), Hu et al. (*in prep*), and for enamel from animals that lived during a period of elevated atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ (generalized from Pack et al., (2012) and Gehlers et al., (2016)).

There is great potential for using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in enamel and other biominerals to address questions about paleoaridity, diagenesis and $p\text{CO}_2$, but we need to understand how $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$

values of biominerals vary in modern system before we can begin to apply $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ to the fossil record and to geological and paleoecological questions.

4.1.3. Study layout

We analyzed the triple oxygen isotope composition of pristine, modern tooth enamel from mammalian herbivores that span various taxa, environments, locations and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of local water (n = 45, Table 4.1; Table S4.1). In combination with the two published $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel from large herbivore teeth (Passey et al. 2014) and three teeth from Hu et al. (*in prep*), we used these data to evaluate the influences on the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel carbonate. We then consider this dataset in terms of its application to the geological record in three ways: 1) as an aridity index, 2) to constrain past $p\text{CO}_2$ and 3) to evaluate the role of diagenesis on the oxygen isotopic composition of enamel.

Table 4.1: Taxa, location, and triple oxygen isotopic values of enamel samples. Measured isotopic compositions of enamel and calculated isotopic compositions of parent waters of the enamel. Values are given in units of per mil (‰) or per meg (‰ x 1000) relative to the VSMOW-SLAP scale of Schoenemann et al. (2013), with reference line $\lambda = 0.528$.

| Analytical ID (first # of a series) | Common name | Family | Genus and species | Enamel triple oxygen isotopic values ^b | | | | | Calculated body water triple oxygen isotopic values ^e | | Reference |
|--|-------------|--------------|------------------------------------|---|---------|--|---------|-------|--|--|------------|
| | | | | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰) avg | \pm^c | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (per meg) ^g avg | \pm^c | n^d | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰) avg | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (per meg) ^g avg | |
| <i>East Africa</i> | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JHU-170-2057 | Okapi | Bovidae | <i>Oryx gazella beisa</i> | 44.3 | 0.3 | -235 | 4 | 2 | 10.74 | -157 | this study |
| JHU-170-2059 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 45.4 | 0.0 | -184 | 5 | 2 | 11.83 | -109 | this study |
| JHU-170-2154 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 45.0 | 0.5 | -187 | 1 | 2 | 11.40 | -111 | this study |
| JHU-170-2156 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 40.1 | 0.3 | -178 | 2 | 2 | 6.64 | -91 | this study |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------------------|------|-----|------|---|---|-------|------|----------------------------|
| JHU-170-2055 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 48.6 | 0.2 | -283 | 3 | 2 | 14.94 | -219 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2158 | Hippo | Hippopotamidae | <i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> | 43.4 | 0.1 | -153 | 3 | 2 | 9.85 | -73 | this study |
| JHU-170-2048 | Hippo | Hippopotamidae | <i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> | 42.8 | 0.3 | -154 | 5 | 2 | 9.26 | -72 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2160 | Okapi | Bovidae | <i>Oryx gazella beisa</i> | 45.4 | 0.5 | -208 | 3 | 2 | 11.81 | -133 | this study |
| JHU-170-2151 | Hippo | Hippopotamidae | <i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> | 39.8 | 0.0 | -165 | 1 | 2 | 6.38 | -77 | this study |
| JHU-170-2077 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 47.2 | 0.1 | -236 | 2 | 2 | 13.55 | -166 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| - | Hippo | Hippopotamidae | <i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> | 36.2 | 0.1 | -137 | 6 | 2 | 2.91 | -25 | Passey et al. 2014 |
| JHU-170-2320 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 38.9 | 0.9 | -179 | 8 | 2 | 5.53 | -90 | this study |
| JHU-170-2322 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 38.2 | 0.4 | -158 | 8 | 2 | 4.81 | -68 | this study |
| JHU-170-2326 | African buffalo | Bovidae | <i>Syncerus caffer</i> | 42.5 | 0.7 | -199 | 6 | 4 | 8.96 | -117 | this study |
| JHU-170-2071 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 46.0 | 0.7 | -210 | 3 | 2 | 12.41 | -137 | this study |
| JHU-170-2300 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 48.4 | 1.5 | -196 | 1 | 2 | 14.68 | -172 | this study |
| JHU-170-2069 | Hippo | Hippopotamidae | <i>Hippopotamus amphibius</i> | 38.6 | 0.0 | -140 | 9 | 2 | 5.20 | -51 | this study |
| JHU-170-2079 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 44.6 | - | -187 | - | 1 | 11.00 | -110 | this study |
| JHU-170-2075 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 43.7 | 0.7 | -224 | 9 | 2 | 10.14 | -145 | this study |
| JHU-170-2052 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 37.1 | 0.5 | -153 | 2 | 3 | 3.82 | -62 | this study |
| JHU-170-2073 | Okapi | Giraffidae | <i>Okapia johnstoni</i> | 42.0 | 0.2 | -182 | 1 | 2 | 8.53 | -99 | this study |
| JHU-170-2315 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 37.6 | 0.4 | -153 | 2 | 2 | 4.25 | -63 | this study |
| - | Black rhino | Rhinocerotidae | <i>Diceros bicornis</i> | 38.7 | 0.6 | -164 | 5 | 2 | 5.36 | -52 | Passey et al. 2014 |
| <i>South Africa</i> | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JHU-170-2331 | Blue wildebeest | Bovidae | <i>Connochaetes taurinus taurinus</i> | 45.7 | 0.7 | -280 | 2 | 2 | 12.07 | -206 | this study |
| JHU-170-2339 | Giraffe | Giraffidae | <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i> | 45.7 | 2.2 | -291 | 1 | 2 | 12.14 | -218 | this study |
| JHU-170-2341 | Red hartebeest /Cape hartebeest | Bovidae | <i>Alcelaphus buselaphus caama</i> | 39.5 | 1.6 | -214 | 9 | 2 | 6.13 | -126 | this study |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------|--------------|------------------------------------|------|-----|------|---|---|------|-----|------------|
| JHU-170-2324 | Elephant | Elephantidae | <i>Loxodonta africana africana</i> | 40.0 | 0.5 | -169 | 2 | 2 | 6.57 | -82 | this study |
|--------------|----------|--------------|------------------------------------|------|-----|------|---|---|------|-----|------------|

Finland

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------|------------|--------------------------|------|-----|------|---|---|-------|-----|------------|
| JHU-170-2486 | Beaver | Castoridae | <i>Castor fiber</i> | 28.8 | 1.1 | -140 | 2 | 2 | -4.25 | -80 | this study |
| JHU-170-2482 | Reindeer | Cervidae | <i>Rangifer tarandus</i> | 29.0 | 1.1 | -145 | 7 | 2 | -4.05 | -85 | this study |
| JHU-170-2484 | Reindeer | Cervidae | <i>Rangifer tarandus</i> | 29.5 | 0.4 | -143 | 1 | 2 | -3.61 | -82 | this study |
| JHU-170-2480 | Moose | Cervidae | <i>Alces alces</i> | 29.5 | 0.8 | -150 | 3 | 2 | -3.63 | -90 | this study |
| JHU-170-2488 | Moose | Cervidae | <i>Alces alces</i> | 26.2 | 0.4 | -150 | 4 | 2 | -6.77 | -52 | this study |

United States

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|------------|---|------|-----|------|---|---|-------|------|----------------------------|
| JHU-170-2556 | Bison | Bovidae | <i>Bison bison bison</i> | 28.0 | 0.9 | -173 | 6 | 2 | -5.07 | -83 | this study |
| JHU-170-2537 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 33.9 | 0.7 | -206 | 3 | 2 | 0.72 | -113 | this study |
| JHU-170-2542 | Bison | Bovidae | <i>Bison bison bison</i> | 36.7 | 1.3 | -157 | 1 | 2 | 3.39 | -66 | this study |
| JHU-170-2552 | Bison | Bovidae | <i>Bison bison bison</i> | 25.8 | 0.9 | -149 | 1 | 2 | -7.17 | -63 | this study |
| JHU-170-2554 | Bison | Bovidae | <i>Bison bison bison</i> | 27.6 | 0.6 | -170 | 2 | 2 | -5.45 | -80 | this study |
| JHU-170-2080 | Bison | Bovidae | <i>Bison bison bison</i> | 31.5 | 0.9 | -177 | 2 | 2 | -1.62 | -85 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2061 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 35.1 | 0.0 | -255 | 8 | 2 | 1.87 | -163 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2539 | Caribou | Cervidae | <i>Rangifer tarandus</i> | 25.3 | 1.0 | -171 | 0 | 2 | -7.68 | -85 | this study |
| JHU-170-2535 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 33.4 | 1.3 | -203 | 1 | 2 | 0.17 | -110 | this study |
| JHU-170-2328 | Beaver | Castoridae | <i>Castor fiber</i> | 35.2 | 1.6 | -152 | 5 | 4 | 1.92 | -60 | this study |
| JHU-170-2347 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 37.8 | 0.4 | -203 | 6 | 2 | 4.47 | -113 | this study |
| JHU-170-2343 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 37.4 | 0.6 | -211 | 2 | 2 | 4.07 | -121 | this study |
| JHU-170-2524 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 37.3 | 0.5 | -206 | 2 | 2 | 4.00 | -115 | this study |
| JHU-170-2520 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 37.2 | 1.1 | -180 | 4 | 2 | 3.89 | -89 | this study |
| JHU-170-2522 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 35.4 | 0.6 | -193 | 1 | 2 | 2.10 | -100 | this study |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|----------|---|------|-----|------|---|---|-------|-----|------------|
| JHU-17O-2345 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 32.6 | 0.2 | -204 | 5 | 2 | -0.54 | -25 | this study |
| JHU-17O-2526 | White-tailed deer | Cervidae | <i>Odocoileus virginianus virginianus</i> | 32.2 | 0.7 | -184 | 7 | 2 | -0.96 | -91 | this study |
| JHU-17O-2541 | Moose | Cervidae | <i>Alces alces</i> | 26.6 | - | -161 | - | 1 | -6.40 | -73 | this study |

^a More information about climate can be found in Table S4.1

^b $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values normalized to VSMOW-SLAP scale, as per Schoenemann et al. (2013), and normalized to known $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CO}_2/\text{CaCO}_3)$ values, as described in the Methods Section, where the reference slope of $\lambda = 0.528$

^c Where \pm is used to indicated standard deviation of 1σ

^d Number of analyses, where each analysis involves extraction of CO_2 from enamel carbonate, reduction and fluorination of CO_2 to O_2 , and analysis on the Thermo MAT 253 mass spectrometer over seven acquisitions of ten cycles each, where each cycle has a 26 s ion counting time (=1820 s total counting time)

^e Body water triple oxygen isotope values were calculated using an animal body temperature of ($T^\circ\text{C} = 38^\circ$) based on general temperatures from Passey et al. (2014) and the fractionation factor between enamel and water is ($^{18}\alpha = 1.0332$) based on Lécuyer et al. (2010)

^f Calculated using body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O} = \Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}} + 10^3 \ln^{18}\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}} (0.528 - \lambda_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}})$, where $^{18}\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}}$ is 1.0332 for tooth enamel samples, and $\lambda_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-H}_2\text{O}}$ is 0.5245 for all samples

^g Where per meg is $\text{‰} \times 1000$.

4.2. Materials and Methods

4.2.1. Nomenclature and notation

Oxygen isotope measurements are described using $\delta^x\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ notation, where x is 17 or 18. Material type is indicated in subscript after the $\delta^x\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ notation (e.g., $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$). We also apply this nomenclature when describing fractionation factors between parent waters and the bioapatite and carbonate precipitated from these parent waters.

4.2.2. Sample selection

Sample selection was designed to evaluate the full range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that exists in extant mammalian herbivores and how it varies with geographic and environmental parameters in order to fully explore its utility in geologic applications. The total number of

teeth we analyzed was limited by the long analytical times associated with $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ measurements of bioapatites (> 5 hours/sample for $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ vs. 35 minutes/sample for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$).

We used teeth from East Africa and South Africa that had been collected over the past five decades and for which many had been used in previous studies of the stable isotopic composition of teeth (Cerling et al., 1999; 2003; 2004; 2008; 2010; 2015; Passey and Cerling, 2006; Levin et al., 2008; Passey et al., 2007; 2014; Blumenthal et al., *in prep.*). Teeth from Finland were from the Finnish Museum of National History in Helsinki and teeth from the United States were provided by state parks or by individual researchers. We analyzed 50 teeth in total coming from hippopotamids ($n = 4$), elephantids ($n = 9$), bovids ($n = 9$), castorids ($n = 2$), cervids ($n = 15$) and giraffids ($n = 5$). These data have been combined with the isotopic data of a hippopotamid and rhinocerotid from Passey et al. (2014) and hippopotamid, giraffid ($n = 2$), bovid and cervid from Hu et al. (*in prep.*). The combined isotopic data are presented in Table S4.2. Samples were specifically chosen to span a range of environments, local $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ values, latitudes, taxa and animal water use strategies. Samples represent mainly water-dependent and water-independent taxa from humid to arid regions located at both mid and high latitudes.

4.2.3. Locations and climate

The geographical and climatic information for sample sites are listed in Table S4.1. Geographic information (latitude, longitude and elevation) were obtained from Cerling et al. (2015) for East African samples. The locations of all other samples were determined using Satellite Imagery. Climate parameters for each location are modeled from University of East

Anglia, Climate Research Unit (CRU) data from 1961 to 1990 and is based on mean climate grids of 10-minute latitudinal/longitudinal global land areas (New et al., 2002).

4.2.3.1 Characterization of environmental aridity and relative humidity

We use both relative humidity (RH) and the Aridity Index (MAP:PET) to understand the distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values and we have tabulated this information for every site from which we have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ data in Table 4.1 and Table S4.1. RH helps us connect the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ to the process influencing the water from which enamel forms (i.e., animal body water) whereas the Aridity Index helps us to connect $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values to actual environments (i.e., identifying the climate in which animals lived). The Aridity Index is defined here as the ratio of mean annual precipitation and mean annual potential evapotranspiration (MAP:PET) as this definition is widely used way to characterize aridity (e.g., UNESCO, 1979).

Aridity Index values were determined for all sites using precipitation from the CRU dataset model output and PET calculated for each site (Table S4.1). We also compiled RH values (% daily average RH) from the CRU dataset model output and for locations where we have actual measurements of RH, we find that the RH from the CRU dataset is within $\pm 15\%$ of the measured values.

4.2.4. Preparation of tooth enamel powder for isotopic analysis

Enamel was removed along the tooth growth axis using a diamond saw blade, cleared of dentine and any dirt, and ground into a homogenized powder using a mortar and

pestle. Enamel powder was treated with 3% H₂O₂ to remove any organic material, rinsed three times with deionized water, treated with 0.1 M buffered acetic acid to remove any secondary carbonate and rinsed three times with deionized water before being dried overnight at 60°C.

4.2.5. Triple oxygen isotope analysis and normalization

4.2.5.1. Triple oxygen isotope analysis

Analysis of triple oxygen isotopes of tooth enamel followed the methods outlined in Passey et al. (2014). For each analysis, 140 - 200 mg of tooth enamel powder was placed in silver capsules and reacted under vacuum in 100% phosphoric acid at 90°C to extract CO₂, which was then reduced to H₂O in the presence of a catalyst (Fe powder heated to 560°C) for 20 minutes (Passey et al., 2014). The resulting H₂O was fluorinated at 370°C using a cobalt trifluoride reactor to produce O₂ that was then analyzed by dual inlet isotope ratio mass spectroscopy on a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 gas-sourced isotope ratio mass spectrometer at the Johns Hopkins University, Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences (Passey et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). Water standards SLAP2 and VSMOW2 (3 µl) were directly injected into the cobalt trifluoride reactor to produce O₂ gas. All samples were analyzed in duplicate.

We evaluated the performance of the triple oxygen isotope measurements of carbonates external standards, both international standards carbonates (NBS18 and NBS19) and an in-house carbonate (102-GC-AZ01), as well as a CO₂ gas standard (Tank#2 CO₂). The mean external precision (1σ) for the reference carbonates and CO₂ was δ¹⁸O of 0.7‰ and Δ¹⁷O of 10 per meg.

4.2.5.2. Triple oxygen isotope normalization

All unknown and known waters and carbonates were fluorinated to produce O₂ using the in-house fluorination line before being analyzed for the triple oxygen isotope composition. Thus, it was possible to normalize the triple oxygen isotope data from carbonate O₂ directly with the triple oxygen isotope data from the O₂ of international water standards, VSMOW2 and SLAP2. Raw triple oxygen isotope data of known and unknown carbonates were normalized to international water standards VSMOW2 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = 0\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{17}\text{O} = 0$ per meg) and scaled to SLAP2 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -55.5\text{‰}$). We use the reference frame where $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{SLAP2}}$ is set to 0 per meg, thus $\delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{SLAP2}} = -29.6986490\text{‰}$ when $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SLAP2}} = -55.5\text{‰}$ and $\lambda = 0.528$ (Schoenemann et al., 2013). The reference line $\lambda = 0.528$ ($\delta^{17}\text{O}-\delta^{18}\text{O}$ meteoric water line) has also been used in the determination of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of other natural waters (Landais et al., 2006; Barkan and Luz, 2007; Luz and Barkan, 2010; Li et al., 2015) and for terrestrial materials formed from natural waters, such as organic and inorganic carbonates (Passey et al., 2014).

A secondary normalization step was performed on carbonates to correct for slopes of < 1 for regressions between the measured and known values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. See Section 2.3 in Passey et al. (2014) for a detailed description of the data normalization of carbonates. We then compared our carbonate standard data to those from Passey et al. (2014) and adjusted the corrected $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of carbonate standards and unknown enamels when the offset was $> 0.013\text{‰}$. All data and calculations pertaining to each run (i.e., standards, unknown samples and corrections) are detailed in Table S4.5.

4.2.6. Statistical analysis

All comparisons of isotopic data were evaluated using the statistical analytical software JMP 11 produced by the SAS Institute using the Tukey-Kramer HSD test and linear regressions. We use the \pm symbol to report one standard deviation from the mean.

4.3. Results

Here we review all of the available triple oxygen isotope data from modern mammal teeth from this study ($n = 45$) and those published previously ($n = 5$) (Passey et al. 2014; Hu et al., *in preparation*) (Table 4.1). These data are from seven mammalian families that come from three continents. The sample sites span $\sim 70^\circ$ in latitude and arid to humid environments (aridity index 0.2 to 2.4) (Tables S4.1 and S4.2). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of these teeth yield a mean value of $37.6 \pm 6.6\text{‰}$ and range from 25.3 to 48.6‰ (Fig. 4.2; Table S4.2). The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values average $-186 \pm 37\text{‰}$ and range from -291 to -137 per meg. In the following sections we explore the variation in these data in terms of the geography (latitude), environment (aridity) and taxonomy (animal type).

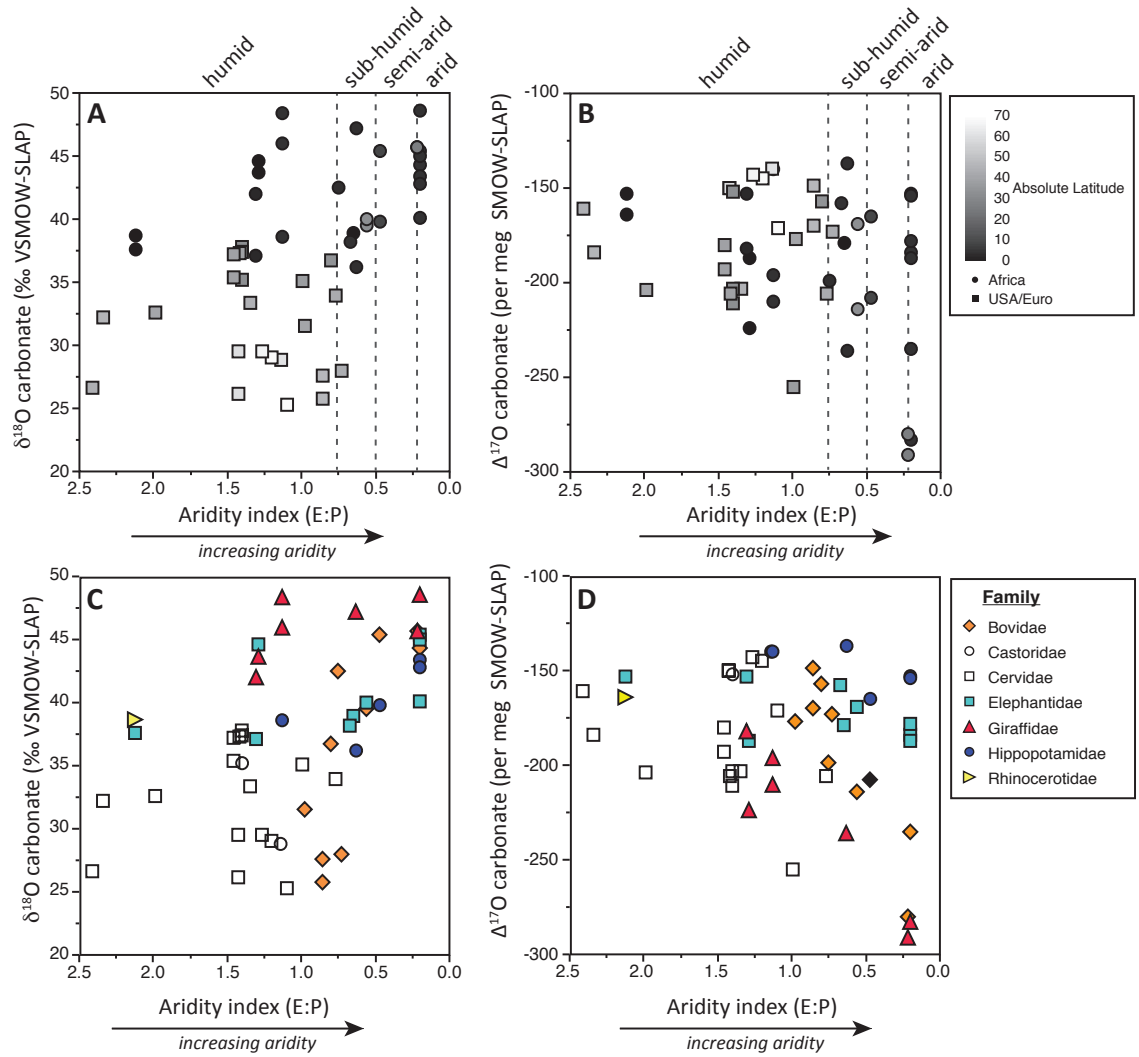


Figure 4.2: $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of tooth enamel carbonate across a range of environments and Aridity Index values by absolute latitude and region (A and B) and by mammalian families (C and D). Environmental zones are based on UNESCO (1979) and indicated by vertical dashed lines.

4.3.1. Variation by latitude, aridity and region

4.3.1.1. Latitudinal variation

$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values decrease with increasing absolute latitude ($R^2 = 0.67$) and show distinctions between samples from low latitudes ($0 - 24^\circ$, $n = 24$) and those from mid latitudes ($24 - 66^\circ$, $n = 21$) and high-latitudes ($> 66^\circ$, $n = 3$) ($p < 0.0001$). The lack of

obvious differences in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from mid and high latitudes ($p = 0.09$) may be an artifact of the small number of samples from high latitudes ($n = 3$) (Fig. 4.4.2A-B). In contrast to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ data, there is no trend in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values with latitude ($R^2 = 0.04$); $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are similar to each other when sampling locations are binned by low, mid and high latitudes ($p > 0.23$). Notably, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values at low latitudes and mid latitudes have similar ranges, -283 to -137 per meg and -291 to -140 per meg, respectively. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from high latitude sampling locations in Finland and Alaska overlap with those from low and mid latitudes but have a smaller range, -171 to -143 per meg, which may simply reflect the small sample size ($n = 3$).

4.3.1.2. Environmental variation

The teeth in this dataset come from environments that exhibit a range in Aridity Index values (0.2 to 2.4). These environments include the hot, arid environments in the Turkana and Kgalagadi regions of Kenya and South Africa (Aridity Index 0.20 and 0.22, respectively), mid latitude semi-arid regions of Utah (0.99) and high latitude, cold Alaska (1.1), as well as moist highlands in Kenya (2.12) and cool, humid Finland (> 1.14), where values in parentheses are Aridity Index values for each site.

The teeth for which we have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ data can be divided into four environmental groups by using the Aridity Index value for each sample location. These environmental groups are humid (> 0.75 , $n = 30$), sub-humid ($0.5 - 0.75$, $n = 9$), semi-arid ($0.2 - 0.5$, $n = 2$) and arid (< 0.2 , $n = 9$) (UNESCO, 1979; Fig. 4.2). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from arid environments are significantly higher than those from humid, sub-humid environments

($p < 0.002$), but there are no distinctions between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from semi-arid and humid environments ($p = 0.19$) or between sub-humid climates ($p = 0.34$) (Fig. 4.2). The distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values follow a distinct wedge-shaped pattern when plotted with Aridity Index; the range in observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values (from 84 per meg in humid environments to 154 per meg in arid environments) increases with greater aridity (lower Aridity Index values) and the minimum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value decreases such that $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from arid settings are significantly more variable and lower than those from humid settings ($p < 0.04$) (Fig. 4.3B).

4.3.1.3. Regional variation (Africa compared with North America and Europe)

When considering the teeth from Africa ($n = 27$), we found $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that ranged from 36.2 to 48.6‰ and averaged $42.4 \pm 3.6\%$. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values ranged from -291 to -137 per meg with a mean of -193 ± 43 per meg (Fig. 4.2). Samples from North America and Europe ($n = 23$) had $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that ranged from 25.3 to 37.8‰ and averaged $31.8 \pm 4.2\%$, with corresponding $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values ranging from -255 to -140 per meg with a mean of -178 ± 29 per meg (Fig. 4.3). While the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from Africa are significantly greater than those from North America and Europe ($p > 0.0001$), the regional $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values (Africa vs. North America and Europe) cannot be distinguished ($p = 0.14$).

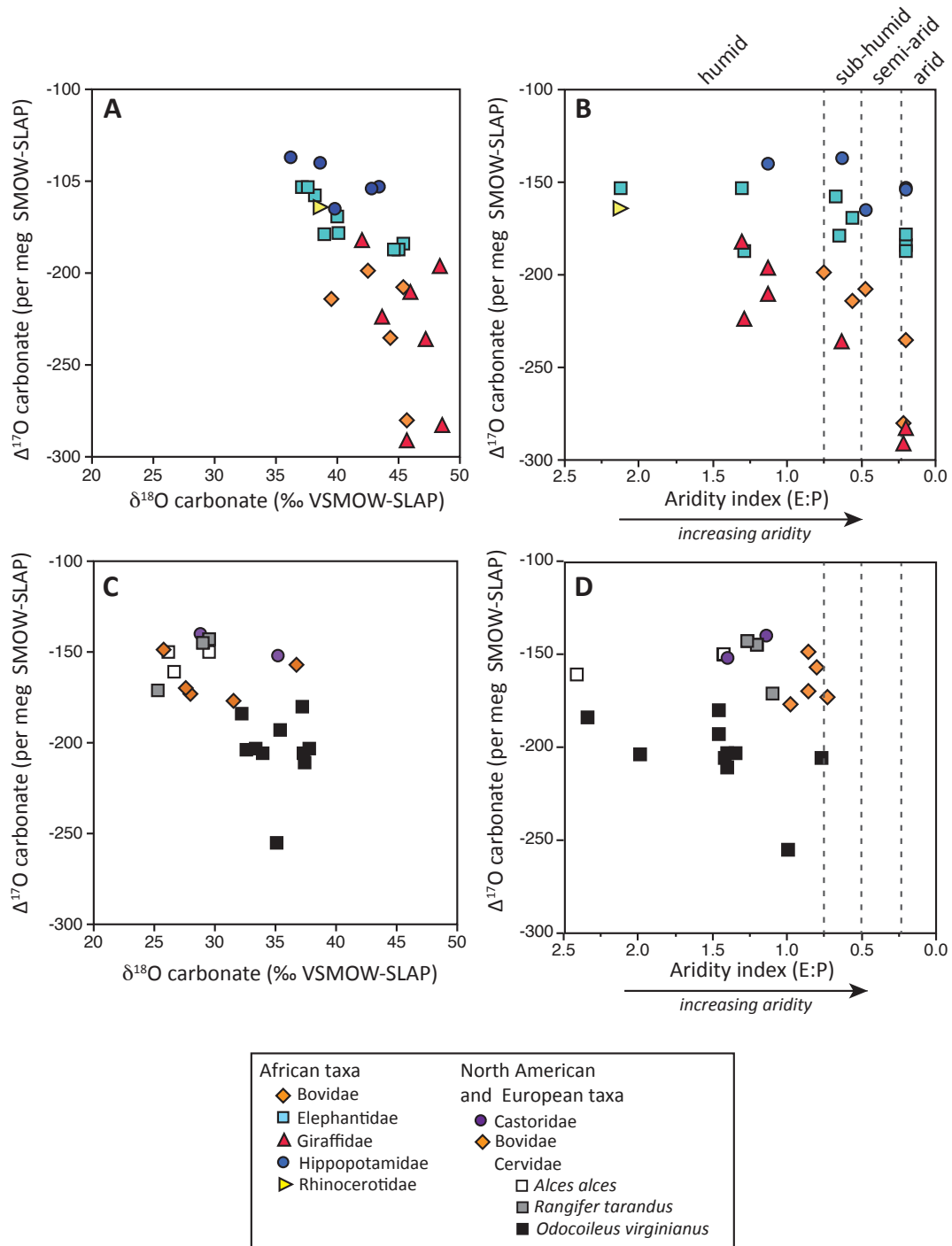


Figure 4.3: $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of tooth enamel carbonate and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values across a range of environments and Aridity Index values for taxa from Africa (A and B) and North American and Europe (C and D). Environmental zones are based on UNESCO (1979) and indicated by vertical dashed lines.

4.3.2. Variation by taxon

Here we consider the variation in triple oxygen isotope data as a function of the different herbivore families that we sampled. We pool data from regions with similar taxonomic distributions and consider them in two groups, those from Africa and those from North America and Europe.

4.3.2.1. African taxa

The African dataset includes teeth from giraffids ($n = 7$), bovids ($n = 5$), a rhinocerotid ($n = 1$), elephantids ($n = 9$) and hippopotamids ($n = 5$) from South Africa, Kenya, Uganda and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Table 4.2, Fig. 4.3). The distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from these taxa mostly overlap with one another except for those from giraffids which are significantly higher than $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of both hippopotamids and elephantids ($p < 0.02$). The correlations between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values and aridity for some of the taxa sampled (hippopotamids $R^2 = 0.50$; elephantids $R^2 = 0.23$; bovids $R^2 = 0.35$; giraffids, $R^2 = 0.31$) vary.

The distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values varies for each family (Fig. 4.3B). The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of hippopotamids are significantly higher than that of giraffids ($p = 0.0004$) and bovids ($p = 0.0018$). Giraffid and bovid $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are similar to one another ($p = 0.999$) and they both exhibit large ranges in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (> 100 per meg). In both these groups, there is a strong, negative correlation between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ and Aridity Index (bovids, $R^2 = 0.65$; giraffids, $R^2 = 0.87$). In contrast, both elephantids and hippopotamids exhibit a narrow range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values (< 35 per meg). Although the

$\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from the elephantids are lower than those measured for hippopotamids, these differences are not significant ($p = 0.6$).

4.3.2.2. North American and European taxa

The dataset from North America (United States) and Europe (Finland) includes teeth from bovids ($n = 5$), castorids ($n = 2$) and cervids ($n = 16$) (Table 4.2; Fig. 4.3C-D). The distributions of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of cervids and bovids are similar to one another ($p = 0.51$), which is notable because the cervids that we sampled originate from a wider range of environments (Aridity Index = 0.77 to 2.41) than the bovids (Aridity Index = 0.73 to 0.98) (Fig 3C). The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of cervids average -185 ± 31 per meg and range from -255 to -143 per meg, whereas bovids and castorids $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values represent a much tighter range of -177 to -140 per meg, averaging -160 ± 14 per meg.

The cervid teeth span a range of environments and can be further evaluated by considering the three different taxa that we sampled, *Alces alces* ($n = 3$), *Rangifer tarandus* ($n = 3$) and *Odocoileus virginianus* ($n = 10$). We found that the distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of *A. alces* and *R. tarandus* overlapped with one another but were distinct from those values of *O. virginianus*. The latter had higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values ($p < 0.01$) and lower $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values than the *A. alces* and *R. tarandus* teeth ($p < 0.002$). We also noted that the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of *O. virginianus* were significantly lower than the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of all other teeth we sampled from North America and Europe ($p < 0.003$), however there was no equivalent distinction in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values.

4.4. Discussion

Here we consider the variation of and influences on $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values, and the utility of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ data in active fields of study that pertain to the fossil record.

4.4.1. Variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$

4.4.1.1. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel and other terrestrial materials

In our survey of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from extant mammals we observe a 161 per meg range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values, which is influenced by a combination of the environmental context and the taxonomy of the teeth sampled. Notably, $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are not influenced by latitude, elevation, or geographic region, making them distinct from $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for which the influences of latitude, elevation and geographic region can obscure the influence of changing aridity, as observed both in this study and others (e.g., Levin et al., 2006; Thesis Chapter 2). When compared to other kinds of terrestrial materials, $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are lower than those of meteoric carbonates and meteoric waters, whereas they overlap in distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of plant waters, even though the range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values (-291 to -137 per meg) is smaller than that for plant waters (-271 to +108 per meg) (Fig. 4.1A).

In order to understand the distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values in relation to the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of other terrestrial materials, we need to consider all of the influencing factors that contribute to a $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ value (i.e., the environmental and geographic context and the taxonomy of the animals sampled).

4.4.1.2. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of reconstructed body water

The oxygen isotopic composition of animal body water is influenced by an animal's physiology, behavior and environment. Because enamel precipitates from animal body water, enamel is in turn influenced by an animal's physiology, behavior and environment, as reviewed in Kohn and Cerling (2002). In order to understand the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ dataset and to put it into a framework of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of other materials (e.g., carbonates, waters, air), we need to be able to relate the measured $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values to animal physiology and behavior and to their environmental context. Furthermore, to relate the measured $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values to the aforementioned parameters, it is necessary to understand how the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of the enamel-derived O_2 that is measured in the mass spectrometer relates to the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of the tooth enamel itself, and in turn, how the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values relate to the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of body water from which the enamel precipitates.

We use the extensive work on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (e.g., Bocherens et al., 1996; Kohn, 1996; Levin et al., 2006; Hoppe 2006; Cerling et al., 2008) as a framework for understanding fractionation in $\delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values and thus the variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values. For any process involving fractionation of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios with a characteristic $^{18}\alpha$, we can calculate the corresponding fractionation $^{17}\alpha$, using an λ that is derived both theoretically or empirically, where $\lambda = \ln(^{17}\alpha)/\ln(^{18}\alpha)$. In reconstructing $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values from $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values, we consider the oxygen isotope fractionation that occurs during the processes of 1) converting tooth enamel to the O_2 that we analyze for $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values and 2) mineralization of tooth enamel from body water. We determine $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of body water from tooth enamel by assuming an $^{18}\alpha = 1.0332$ and $\lambda = 0.5245$,

which accounts for the 90°C phosphoric acid reaction during analysis and 38°C mammalian body temperature for enamel mineralization (Lécuyer et al., 2010; Passey et al., 2014).

Using this approach, reconstructed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values range from -7.7‰ to +14.9‰ and from -219 to -25 per meg, respectively (Table 4.1).

Reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values are more negative than $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ values, but overlap with $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{plant water}}$ values and are notably higher than $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of atmospheric O_2 (Fig. 4.1A). Understanding the range in reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values and how the reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values vary with environment and taxa are only possible by comparing these data to a model of how we should expect $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ to vary given different physiological, behavioral and environmental influences.

4.4.1.3. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of modeled and reconstructed body water

To understand the influences on $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values, and in turn $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{tooth enamel}}$ values, we compared our reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ data to the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values predicted by the triple oxygen isotope body water model developed by Hu et al. (*in prep.*). The Hu et al. (*in prep.*) model, where it is described in full, builds on the existing understanding of the fluxes and the fractionation of oxygen isotopes in mammalian body water that have been developed for the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ system (Kohn, 1996) and modifies it for the triple oxygen isotope system. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ body water model incorporates the triple oxygen isotopic composition of oxygen influxes and effluxes for an animal (e.g., O_2 , water, food, sweat, feces), taking into account animal weight, physiology and environment. The most

important variables in the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ body water model for extant animals are 1) the RH of the environment, 2) the fraction of evaporated water consumed by an animal, and 3) the water economy index (WEI) of an animal. For fossils of course one has to consider varying $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of atmospheric O_2 but we will not consider that in the following, brief overview.

The fraction of evaporated water consumed by an animal is related to the proportion of water received from food, both the amount of free water and the amount of water in a plant relative to the solid leaf material, relative to the proportion of surface water that an animal drinks (Hu et al., *in prep.*). Plant water can be more negative in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ than the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of surface water, because plant water is strongly influenced by evaporation compared to surface water (e.g., as reviewed in Passey et al., 2014). When an animal drinks a large amount of surface water (less negative and more narrow in range than the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of plant water), then body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ is heavily influenced by the surface water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ which dilutes the evaporation-sensitive plant water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ signal and results in body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ that does not reflect the environmental context even in arid environments. In contrast, animals that mostly consume water from plants are more sensitive to changes in RH because a large portion of body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ is composed of evaporation-sensitive plant water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$. The WEI (in ml water/ kJ Energy) is a measure of the amount of water used by an animal per unit of metabolized energy and is influential in determining the amount of water an animal needs to consume to survive (Nagy and Peterson 1988; Nagy, 2004). Animals with a higher WEI are less efficient in their water use and require a greater intake of water, these animals are more likely to drink a large proportion of water. The WEI is variable according to taxa,

reflecting animal behavior and physiology. In addition, the WEI of a species can vary as a result of different influences including environment and the amount of accessible food and surface water. If an animal can consume its required water intake from food-derived water, then it will not need to drink water, these animals have a relatively low WEI (e.g., giraffes and white-tailed deer). An animal that cannot reach the required amount water from food-derived water will drink water; these animals have a relatively high WEI (e.g., hippopotamids, elephantids, and castorids/beavers).

We chose input values for the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ body water model for the conditions relevant for the teeth from which we generated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ data, using contemporary atmospheric $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2}$ value (-500 per meg), $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ values representative of sampling locations in North America and Europe (-14‰ to -8‰) and in Africa (-5‰ to +1‰) (input water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values estimate from Bowen, (2016) are combined in model to produce a single range of input $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values), RH representative of the sampled environments (30%, 50% and 80%; Table 4.1 and Table S4.1) and the minimum and maximum WEI values, 0.60 and 0.05, respectively, that are typical of the taxa we sampled and represent taxa with behaviors that range from animals that receive the majority of their water from food to animals that receive a large proportion of water from drinking surface water (Table S4.4, Table S4.5; Hu et al., *in prep.*). Figure 4 shows the expected $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values for these conditions overlain on the reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ from our analyzed samples.

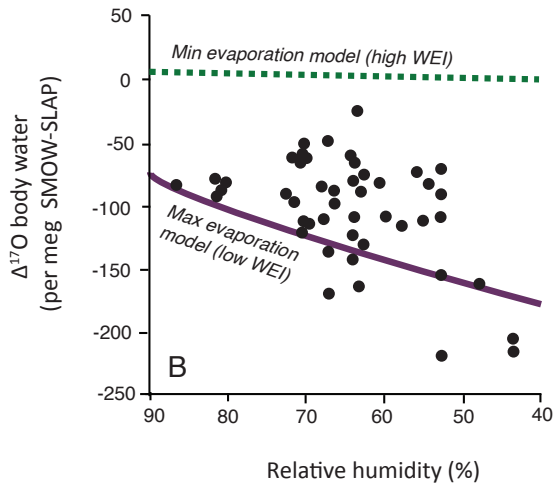
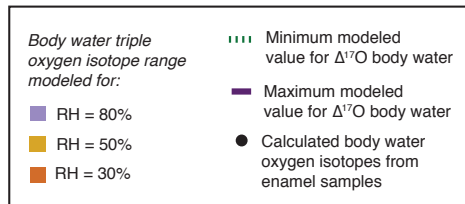
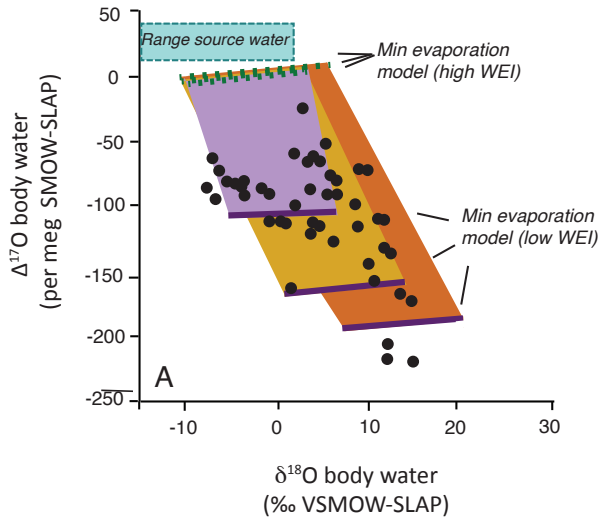


Figure 4.4: The oxygen isotopic composition of reconstructed body water based on the enamel data in this study and the modeled body water ranges at 30%, 50% and 80% relative humidity based on the MIN-EVAP (green dashed lines) and MAX-EVAP (purple solid lines) model outputs based on the parameters in Hu et al. (*in prep.*) (A.). The source water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ range is the combined range of meteoric water from Africa (-5 to +1‰) and the United States and Europe (-14 to -8‰) and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric water. Body water model output of the minimum and maximum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values for a range of relative humidity, where $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values are based on an animal pair with the highest water economy index (green dashed line) and with the lowest water economy index (purple solid line) and reconstructed body water based on the enamel in this study (B).

Ranges in modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ for the samples (where the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ ranges from -14‰ to +1‰, when all locations are combined) differ as a function of the RH used in each model iteration (Fig. 4.4A). There is ~112 per meg range in modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values for an environment with 80% RH, ~ 165 per meg range for 50% RH, and ~ 188 per meg range for 30% RH. In the minimum modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values, at different RH, are within ~7 per meg of one another for the locations of Africa and North America and Europe (Table S4.4). The minimum modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ value becomes increasingly more negative with decreasing RH (Fig. 4.4).

In general, the modeled and reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ data are similar in their distributions (Fig. 4.4). Modeled and reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values for animals with both low and high WEI which originate from a range of RH, follow the same wedge-shaped pattern, where a greater range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values correspond with lower RH. The modeled data are compressed and span a smaller range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values relative to what the reconstructed data would predict. For example, reconstructed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values of animals with the most negative $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of body water (in this case, giraffids) from the Turkana and Kgalagadi (where RH = ~50% based on modeled CRU data) have $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values more similar to the predicted minimum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ value for an environment with a RH of 30%.

The body water model output results confirm what we observed in the measured $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values: 1) $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ does not vary with $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ and is independent of geographic constraints that influence $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$, 2) there is a strong relationship between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ and aridity, where aridity is represented by RH in the model, and 3) the

behavior and physiology of the animals sampled, as represented by a minimum and maximum WEI value in the model, play a strong role in the distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values at a single location and across environments. The model output predicts the general wedge shape of the data on a $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ vs. RH plot and show that when animals with a range of WEI are sampled, there is a greater range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in low RH environments than in high RH environments and that these patterns are independent of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{meteoric water}}$ values (Fig. 4.4). There is some discrepancy between the absolute range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values of the model outputs and what we measured (Fig. 4.4), and while we need to explore the model more to understand what drives this difference, it is outside the scope of the work that was done for this chapter.

4.4.2. Geological applications using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ measurements

Our $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ data from extant mammalian herbivores show 1) $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are significantly lower than $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric carbonates, 2) $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values become lower and more varied in more arid environments, 3) animal behavior and physiology is important in determining $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$, and 4) the influences of aridity and animal behavior and physiology on $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are independent of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of local waters. In the following sections we review how we can use this information in geologic applications. We propose ways in which $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from fossils can be used as a proxy for paleoaridity, the use of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ measurements in identifying the influence of diagenesis in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records, and the importance of considering data from a

range of taxa when using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values to reconstruct concentrations of CO_2 in Earth's ancient atmosphere.

4.4.2.1. Aridity index

The relationship between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ and aridity, where $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values become lower and more varied when aridity increases, can be used to evaluate paleoaridity using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ from fossil teeth. The wedge-shaped distribution in Fig. 4.1B shows that there is a greater range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in more arid environments than in humid environments. We can use these trends as a template to assess the degree of aridity in fossil environments, and specifically to compare the degree of aridity between fossil sites. This dataset shows that this is a powerful method to assess relative aridity between sites (sites with a greater range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values are more arid than those with a smaller range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$) but we can also roughly use the distribution of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values to designate a fossil site as humid, semi-arid or arid. In general we observe a < 85 per meg range in humid environments ($\text{AI} = > 0.75$, $n = 29$ out of 30), a ca. 100 per meg range in sub-humid environments ($\text{AI} = 0.5 - 0.75$, $n = 9$), and > 130 per meg range in arid environments ($\text{AI} = < 0.2$, $n = 9$), independent of geographic region (Fig. 4.2). These $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values are from the dataset excluding the sample JHU-17O-2061 (deer from Parowan, Utah) because this location was categorized using the Aridity Index as humid using UNESCO (1979), however this environment is quite dry. We have not analyzed an adequate number of enamel samples from sub-humid to distinguish them from the surrounding environments and to determine

what range we would expect for this environment, however, we would expect a range that is larger than in humid and smaller than in arid environments.

For this method to be useful for determining paleoenvironments, the sampling strategy needs to be designed to capture as much variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that existed while the animals lived, which means sampling teeth from taxa with a variety of water use strategies. Because it is hard to know water use strategies for fossil animals, the best approach is to sample range of animal types in a fossil assemblage to maximum the potential to sample the full range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that is reflective of the environment. Given the intensive nature of producing $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ data and the difficulty in generating large datasets, we suggest sampling at least two individuals from at least 3 different taxa with hypothesized differences in physiology and water use strategies from each site that is evaluated (> 6 teeth from each site) to start to assess relative differences in aridity between sites. By sampling teeth from multiple taxa, it will be possible to assess the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ distributions from a community of animals and increase the potential for capturing the full range of variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that is indicative of the aridity of the environment in which these animals lived. The relationships between Aridity Index and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ can be used to place the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ from a fossil assemblage into a climate classification (e.g., humid, semi-humid, arid) and/or to compare the degree of aridity between sites. The more teeth that are analyzed, the more robust these comparisons will become because additional data will help ensure that the full range in variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that existed in an environment is represented in the dataset. However this means that any estimate of aridity using this approach is a minimum as additional data

can only increase the observed range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from a site. The prospects for larger datasets will get better as the analytical throughput is increased and the requirements for sample amounts are minimized.

The main advantages of a paleoaridity proxy using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ over the existing approaches that use $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values alone are that 1) the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ approach is not dependent on *a priori* knowledge of the behavior or physiology of the animals sampled and 2) it is independent of the influence of meteoric water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. These elements expand the utility of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ approach for evaluating paleoaridity to taxonomic assemblages where the behavior and physiology of animals is unknown (i.e., most fossil assemblages, except for very recent fossils for which extant fauna are good analogs). It also makes it possible to compare the paleoaridity between assemblages with different geographic settings where $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of input waters might vary. For these reasons the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ enamel paleoaridity proxy is versatile and has potential to be applied to a range of geologic settings, going back in time. We should note that if $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of teeth are being compared from time periods with different atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, there may be significant differences in absolute $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that are not due to changes in aridity but due instead to changes in atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$. In these cases the range of enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values (instead of absolute values) from a community of animals at different sites can be compared to assess relative differences in aridity between the sites.

4.4.2.2. Indicator of diagenesis

The differences between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel and meteorically-derived carbonates (Fig. 4.1) be used to identify diagenesis and reprecipitation of mineral with meteoric waters (Gehler et al., 2011). Gehler et al. (2011) first presented the concept for using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite of small mammals (< 1 kg) as a tool for assessing diagenesis in the fossil record; we build on this concept here by showing that this works for large mammals (> 1 kg) as well and provide an expanded dataset of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in unaltered teeth. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of unaltered enamel can be -291 to -137 per meg which is significantly lower and more varied than the values that have been measured meteoric carbonates which range from -138 to -122 per meg (Passey et al. 2014; Fig 4.1). The restricted range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric carbonates that have been measured to date (16 per meg span, see Fig. 4.1 and Passey et al. 2014) is likely due to the small amount of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ variation in meteoric waters from which carbonates form relative to the variation in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that can be influenced by variation in animal behavior and physiology and fractionation that can occur within the animal and in ingested water sources (e.g. leaves).

The best way to use this distinction between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of enamel and meteoric carbonates in the geologic record is to sample both carbonates (meteoric, marine or diagenetic in origin) and bioapatite from a fossil site/location. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values from the fossil teeth should be significantly lower and more varied than the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of associated carbonates. If there is significantly overlap in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values between the carbonates and enamel and the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of enamel are compressed in distribution ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values

< -150 per meg, with < 60 per meg range), then the oxygen isotopes of the system have likely been affected by some post-depositional process and any oxygen isotope data from the enamel should be treated with caution.

4.4.2.3. $p\text{CO}_2$ barometer

As reviewed above, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of tooth enamel and other forms of bioapatite have been proposed as a CO_2 barometer because these values are strongly influenced by the atmospheric $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2}$ value, which in turn is sensitive to concentrations of CO_2 in Earth's atmosphere (e.g., Luz et al., 1999; Bao et al., 2008; Gehler et al., 2016). Measured $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of bioapatite and modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{body water}}$ values indicate that bioapatite can provide constraints to past atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ (Pack et al., 2013; Passey et al., 2014; Gehler et al., 2016; Hu et al., *in prep.*). Differences in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values of 60 per meg in the fossil record have recently been used to infer changes in $p\text{CO}_2$ across the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum that range from ca. 400 to 1000 ppmv, depending on the models that are used that relate $p\text{CO}_2$ to atmospheric O_2 $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ and global primary productivity (Gehler et al. 2016). This approach to estimating $p\text{CO}_2$ in Earth's past could be powerful because bioapatite is abundant in the geologic record. However, the successful use of any $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ based CO_2 paleobarometer needs to consider the range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that may exist any one time interval, given that we observe a > 160 per meg range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values in extant mammals that represent a time interval when $p\text{CO}_2$ is relatively steady (and low).

Here we propose that fossil enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values can be successfully utilized as a $p\text{CO}_2$ barometer when a fossil assemblage is sampled using a community approach at multiple fossil sites. The community approach includes analysis of fossil teeth from any fossil site that represent a range of species, for the purpose of capturing the full range of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that existed. This should then be done at multiple sites to capture the full range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values due to environmental variation within one set of $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions. By sampling teeth at multiple sites using a community approach, one can account for the influences of animal taxonomy and environment on $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values before using them to infer changes in atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$. By sampling in this way, we expect to see a wholesale shift in the distribution of minimum and maximum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values across multiple sites and taxa if there is a change in $p\text{CO}_2$.

4.5. Conclusion

We find that $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from extant mammals range from -291 to -137 per meg and span 161 per meg. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values from extant mammalian herbivores vary as a function of taxonomy and environmental aridity, but they are independent of latitude and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of nearby meteoric waters. In addition, because the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values are influenced by different variables than those influencing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$, $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ adds an additional perspective on geological problems that cannot be reconciled with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values alone. Measurements of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ have the potential to expand our understanding of how aridity and $p\text{CO}_2$ has changed through time in any place where fossil teeth are preserved.

We suggest $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values can be utilized in the following ways:

- 1) The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values obtained for large herbivore communities can be used to provide as an indicator of paleoaridity where $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values that have a greater range and are more negative point to increasingly arid environments.
- 2) $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values can be used to evaluate diagenesis in bioapatite and biocarbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records by directly targeting the oxygen isotopic composition of these materials. It is expected that the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of teeth, bone and eggshells will have a wider range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values than inorganic carbonates because they are influenced by the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of both plant water and atmospheric O_2 . Both values are more negative than the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of meteoric waters. Bioapatites or biocarbonates with $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ that are similar to those of associated meteoric-derived carbonates have likely experienced diagenesis.
- 3) The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ based paleobarometer for $p\text{CO}_2$ is only valid if the full range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for any given time interval is considered. Given the large (>160 per meg) range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ values for extant mammals that represent conditions with relative steady $p\text{CO}_2$, the most effective way to use the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ for reconstructing $p\text{CO}_2$ is to sample teeth from multiple taxa from multiple sites to capture the full range in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ that existed for each time interval of interest.

5. Conclusion

I considered several stable isotope geochemical techniques in this thesis to evaluate past climate and environment. Determining past climate and environment are not always possible using one proxy record and care must be taken to make interpretations using only signals that are specifically related to climate and environment. Other signals, like diagenesis of the primary isotopic composition, can mask the climatic or environmental signal in a material and potentially lead to invalid conclusions.

A powerful way to evaluate past climate and environment is with the isotope geochemical compositions of biominerals. This is because animals interact with their environmental and ecological surrounding, which are directly influenced by regional and global climate. Changes in the isotopic ratios for certain elements in terrestrial biominerals, such as oxygen and carbon, are often used as climate and environmental proxies. The combination of multiple proxy records and analytical techniques can help add detail to the description of vegetation in an environment and enable a more precise evaluation of the manner by which the environment of a region change.

I used the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values of enamel from modern and fossil herbivores in southwestern South Africa to, 1) evaluate climate and environment in this region since 5 million years ago (Ma) and 2) characterize the distribution of vegetation of this region during the mid-Pleistocene, specifically at archeological site, Elandsfontein. I then presented and characterized the distribution of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of modern herbivore enamel and proposed a method for using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values from biominerals to best evaluate aridity, diagenesis and $p\text{CO}_2$ in the fossil record.

In Chapter 2 I presented and discussed the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of tooth enamel from fossil sites in southwestern South Africa and form a proxy record of terrestrial environment and vegetation since 5 Ma. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of enamel indicated that large mammalian herbivores ate C_3 vegetation, with little to no C_4 vegetation, across the Pliocene and Pleistocene. Like today, this region was within a winter rainfall zone since 5 Ma. For large mammalian herbivore communities to have had survived in the past, then this region must have been quite different from the dry and hot environment of today. The environment would have supported the growth of substantial amounts of vegetation and the annual growth of C_3 grasses. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of enamel in herbivore families became more enriched by $\sim 5\text{‰}$ between Pliocene fossil site Langebaanweg and mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein. Regional aridification has been proposed in others studies, but this can not be supported by the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of tooth enamel because the depositional environment at these sites are different, making them incomparable using the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ enamel aridity index method presented in Levin et al. (2007). Alternatively, the $\sim 5\text{‰}$ enrichment of enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values can be fully explained by an enrichment of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of source water. The enrichment in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the source water could have been related to a change from fluvial to spring-fed water (as a change in the depositional environment at the fossil sites indicates). This conclusion is supported by modern $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from spring waters around Elandsfontein having values $\sim 5\text{‰}$ greater than river waters in the Western Cape of South Africa (Table S2.4). The dataset presented in Chapter 2 of this thesis has combined a number of records from southwestern South Africa and it can be used as a reference paper for researchers studying climate and vegetation in the region.

The dataset in Chapter 2 contains samples from three time periods (~ 5 Ma, ~1 to 0.6 Ma, 0.35 to 0.20 Ma) and there are large gaps between the dataset from each fossil. There is potential to increase the resolution of the stable isotope record of fossil teeth by analyzing teeth from other Pleistocene fossil sites in the study region. Increasing the resolution of the record will help us better understand aridity levels, vegetative composition and seasonality of rainfall and how these features may have changed in response to global climate change and the effects of upwelling of the Benguela Current off the western coast of South Africa. Furthermore, a more detailed analysis of the enamel $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from known herbivore taxa could potentially provide information about the distribution of vegetation at the fossil sites, but this study was beyond the scope of the thesis.

I was particularly interested in the environment and vegetation at Elandsfontein because this fossil site indicates the presence of hominins. I proposed that Elandsfontein would have attracted hominins and herbivore communities because there was sustainable year round vegetation and standing water (See Chapter 2). However, the importance of Elandsfontein as a location where herbivores and hominins lived within southwestern South Africa needs to be better understood (i.e., did animals stay at Elandsfontein for food because it provided vegetation and water or if they moved around the region and just passed by Elandsfontein). These data could in turn provide information about the distribution of vegetation in southwestern South Africa at ~ 1 Ma and to better evaluate the environment and the vegetative composition of Elandsfontein.

Chapter 3 focused on the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in modern teeth from southwestern South Africa and fossil teeth from mid-Pleistocene mammalian herbivores at Elandsfontein. I

tested my hypothesis from Chapter 2 (i.e., that herbivores could find enough vegetation at Elandsfontein) and evaluated the vegetative distribution of southwestern South Africa using enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil teeth. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil teeth were compared with the newly updated map of the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the major regional substrates in southwestern South Africa (Fig. 3.2). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from herbivore teeth reflected the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios range of marine sands, like those at Elandsfontein.

Overall, the evaluation of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of tooth enamel, in addition to that of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the fossil teeth from Elandsfontein, provided further detail about the ecological and environmental composition of mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein. These results indicated that herbivores, in particular those that could have migrated around the region for food, did not do so. The landscape at mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein, which was within a winter rainfall zone, must have had enough vegetation growing throughout the year to support the large, diverse mammalian herbivores. Today the landscape is largely comprised of fynbos shrubs, woody vegetation that is unpalatable and can not support large, herbivorous mammalian communities. This study has also greatly increased the number of data points contributing to the map of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of southwestern South Africa (Fig. 3.1; Table 3.1); this updated map can be used in future studies of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values in biominerals to determine animal migration and/or past environment and vegetation.

Additional work could add to the understanding of *where* within the coastal region of southwestern South Africa (i.e., on marine sands and or Cape Granites) herbivores found food resources during the mid-Pleistocene. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of fossil

teeth confined the movement of herbivorous animals to the coastal region and quite possibility to the marine sands at Elandsfontein. However, this needs to be studied in further detail by, 1) determining if and how the coastal marines sands and the various granitic bodies that make up the Cape Granite suite separate by their bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios, and 2) how these then compare with the fossil tooth enamel $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from Elandsfontein.

In Chapter 4 I presented $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ data from tooth enamel and outlined the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ ranges for various modern environments and locations. This was the first report of a detailed dataset of mammalian herbivore tooth enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of mammalian herbivore communities from arid environments have greater range and include more negative $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values than samples from humid areas. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of enamel is not greatly influenced by $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of local meteoric water or by latitude. Body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values were reconstructed from the enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values and then compared with modeled body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values determined using the model presented in Hu et al. (*in prep*). In general, the modeled and calculated body water $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ datasets both had larger span and incorporated more negative $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values with decreasing relative humidity (RH). This comparison allowed us to connect measurable parameters of environment with a proxy record of aridity (i.e., Aridity Index). With decreased Aridity Index, the enamel $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of animal communities yielded lower minima and exhibit a greater range of values. I proposed that the most efficient way to use $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of fossil teeth, bone and eggshells for understanding paleoclimate and environment is to compare fossil data (series of samples from one fossil community) with the modern dataset presented herein (see Chapter 4). This dataset lays out the ranges in $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values

that would be expected for materials in different environments and for enamel samples that have not experienced any alteration of their original oxygen isotopic composition.

Adding more samples from different regions and climates, specifically from semi-arid environments, would form a more detailed dataset by which to compare fossil $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values and in turn to evaluate past environment. The next step in this project is to apply the proposed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ approaches to the fossil record.

This thesis focused on the isotope geochemistry of fossil tooth enamel to characterize the climate and environment of past terrestrial landscapes. This work highlighted the value of applying various techniques when evaluating past environments. The composition of different isotopes in fossil teeth from one site and time can provide new ways to evaluate past environments, because different isotope systems can capture unique aspects of past climate and environment across local and regional scales. Based on the work presented in this thesis, I advocate for the continued development and use of new isotope geochemical approaches to aid in the evaluation of past climate and environments because they have the potential of adding new dimensions of understanding to geological questions. The continued use of known isotope systems in conjunction with the development and use of new isotope geochemical approaches can provide insight into previously unanswered hypotheses about the past Earth, the puzzles and the unknowns, thereby furthering the understanding of past climate and environments. In addition this aids in the prediction of the changes that we might expect in present and future climates and ecosystems, and importantly, how we as humans have in the past and also might expect to interact with our ever-changing Earth system.

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Appendix I
(CHAPTER 2 Supplementary Tables)

Table S2.1: Estimated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for atmospheric CO_2 , vegetation and herbivore tooth enamel for the time intervals discussed in the text.

| | Time Interval (Ma) | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| | Present $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰ VPDB) | Hoedjiespunt $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰ VPDB) (0.35 - 0.25 Ma) | Elandsfontein $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰ VPDB) (~1.0 - 0.6 Ma) | Langebaanweg $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰ VPDB) (~5 Ma) ^a |
| Time span from benthic foraminifera record (Ma) | n/a | 0.35 - 0.25 | 1.0 - 0.6 | 5.7 - 3.33 |
| $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ CO_2 ^b | -8.0 | -7.1 | -7.1 | -6.3 |
| $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of vegetation (‰ VPDB) ^c | | | | |
| C ₃ (average) | -26.1 | -25.3 | -25.3 | -24.5 |
| C ₃ minimum | -31.7 | -30.8 | -30.8 | -30.0 |
| C ₃ maximum | -23.1 | -22.2 | -22.2 | -21.4 |
| C ₄ (average) | -11.0 | -10.1 | -10.1 | -9.3 |
| C ₄ minimum (mesic) | -10.0 | -9.1 | -9.1 | -8.3 |
| C ₄ maximum (xeric) | -14.0 | -13.2 | -13.2 | -12.4 |
| $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VPDB) ^d | | | | |
| C ₃ diet (average) | -12.6 | -11.5 | -11.5 | -10.7 |
| C ₃ diet minimum | -18.2 | -17.1 | -17.1 | -16.4 |
| C ₃ diet maximum | -9.5 | -8.4 | -8.4 | -7.6 |
| C ₄ diet (average) | 2.9 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.6 |
| C ₄ diet minimum (mesic) | 3.9 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 5.7 |
| C ₄ diet maximum (xeric) | -0.2 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 1.6 |

^a Paleo- CO_2 record is based on the mean benthic foraminifera record with two data points for the Langebaanweg time period that date to 5.7 Ma and 3.33 Ma (-6.19‰ and -6.35‰, respectively).

^b Foraminifera isotopic data are used to estimate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of atmospheric CO_2 (Tippie et al., 2010).

^c The $\epsilon_{\text{atmosphere-plant}}$ values were calculated from the modern $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 and the average, minimum and maximum $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C₄ (Hattersley, 1982) and C₃ plants (Kohn, 2010). The $\epsilon_{\text{atmosphere-plant}}$ values and the average reconstructed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 for each time period (Tippie et al., 2010) were used to estimate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C₃ and C₄ vegetation in the past.

^d The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of enamel for herbivores with a diet of C₃ and C₄ vegetation were calculated using an $\epsilon_{\text{plant-enamel}}$ of +14.1‰ (Cerling et al., 1999) and the calculated plant $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at each time period denoted in this table.

Table S2.2. Compilation of new and published $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonatic component of tooth enamel from Pliocene and Pleistocene sites in southwestern South Africa.

| Sample ID | Family | Tribu | Genus | Species | Locality | Collection | horiz ^a | Bay ^c | Behavior ^d | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VPDB) \pm 1 σ | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VSMOW) \pm 1 σ | n ^e | Tooth element ^f | Reference | | |
|-------------|---------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------|------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------------|--|---|----------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|------------|
| WCRP 32119 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | Grazer | -10.1 | -34.6 | - | Third molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 32265 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | Grazer | -9.6 | -35.1 | - | Molar or premolar fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 32289 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | Grazer | -9.5 | -34.2 | - | Molar fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 34415 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0710 | Grazer | -10.0 | -35.2 | - | Molar fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 34441 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0710 | Grazer | -11.7 | -35.9 | - | Molar fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 46251 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | Grazer | -10.5 | -34.9 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 46256 | Bovidae | Bovini | <i>Syncerus</i> | <i>antiquus</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | Grazer | -12.2 | -30.3 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 9380 | Bovidae | Hippotragini | <i>Hippotragus</i> | <i>gigas</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | 0609 | Mixed feeder | -11.7 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 2 | Molar fragment | Luyt et al., 2000 | |
| WCRP 1666 | Bovidae | Hippotragini | <i>Hippotragus</i> | <i>gigas</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | 0609 | Mixed feeder | -10.8 | -28.6 | - | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 | |
| WCRP 5387 | Bovidae | Hippotragini | <i>Hippotragus</i> | <i>gigas</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | Mixed feeder | -8.4 | -31.5 | - | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 | |
| WCRP 5656 | Bovidae | Neotragini | <i>Raphicerus</i> | <i>melanois</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | Mixed feeder | -11.2 | -32.4 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| WCRP 5675 | Bovidae | Neotragini | <i>Raphicerus</i> | <i>melanois</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | Browser | -11.2 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 4 | Molar fragment | This study | |
| WCRP 5687 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | 0609 | Grazer | -11.2 | 2.2 | 1.3 | 2 | rm1 | This study | |
| EFTM 1587 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -8.2 | 0.1 | 1.2 | 2 | rm3 | This study | |
| EFTM 2834 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -9.8 | -34.7 | - | lm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 3514 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -9.9 | -36.9 | - | lm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 6700 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -10.6 | -30.7 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 8568 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -10.0 | -35.9 | - | lm2 and lm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 8657 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -9.3 | -34.8 | - | lm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 1585 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Grazer | -10.3 | -29.8 | - | Molar fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 8399 | Bovidae | Reduncini | <i>Redunca</i> | <i>armadum</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | Grazer | -9.4 | -30.9 | - | RM3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 2296 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.4 | -34.8 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 2719 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.9 | -35.1 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 2723 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.9 | -35.8 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 2726 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.9 | -35.8 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| EFTM 2738 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.1 | 1.4 | 2.8 | 2 | rm3 | This study | |
| EFTM 8273 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Tragelaphus</i> | <i>strepsiceros</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | | - | Browser | -11.6 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 2 | rm3 | This study | |
| WCRP 5043 | Bovidae | Tragelaphini | <i>Taurotragus</i> | <i>oryx</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | Browser | -12.7 | 0.4 | 32.9 | 1.4 | 2 | rm3 | This study |
| WCRP 13288 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0209 | - | -12.0 | -34.3 | - | Second molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 13642 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.0 | -33.7 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 1467 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0509 | - | -8.9 | -34.6 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 1468 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0509 | - | -9.0 | -32.1 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 1654 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -10.6 | -36.2 | - | Lower Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 17201* | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.6 | -35.0 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 1862 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.0 | 0.1 | 29.8 | 0.3 | 2 | Molar or premolar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 1929 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.6 | -31.5 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 1949 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -10.8 | -32.9 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 20443 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0209 | - | -9.8 | -32.6 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 2105 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0710 | - | -10.3 | -34.0 | - | rm3 | This study | | |
| WCRP 2158 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.1 | -32.3 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 2189 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -10.1 | -32.5 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 2322 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0209 | - | -10.8 | -34.7 | - | Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 2395 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -10.1 | -30.5 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 2689 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.2 | -37.1 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 27624 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -8.7 | -26.8 | - | Third molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 2801 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -11.0 | -35.4 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 3201 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -8.2 | -33.7 | - | Penular or incisor | This study | | |
| WCRP 32213 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | - | -10.1 | -33.9 | - | Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 32381 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | - | -10.1 | -34.7 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 34657 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0110 | - | -9.1 | -35.4 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 34690 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 or 0710 | - | -9.7 | -34.7 | - | Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 39321* | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 or 0710 | - | -8.6 | -33.8 | - | Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 39322 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0112 | - | -7.5 | 0.8 | 34.4 | 0.1 | 2 | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 46258 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | - | -8.0 | -32.6 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 46259 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | - | -11.0 | -30.6 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 46260 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0313 | - | -11.0 | -31.4 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 5266 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.8 | -32.2 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 5565 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.0 | -36.0 | - | Fragment | This study | | |
| WCRP 5654 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -7.6 | -33.2 | - | First molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 5655 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -9.4 | -33.3 | - | Molar | This study | | |
| WCRP 5655 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | | 0609 | - | -6.9 | -32.6 | - | Molar | This study | | |

Table S2.2. Compilation of new and published $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of tooth enamel from Pliocene and Pleistocene sites in southwestern South Africa.

| Sample ID | Family | Tribe | Genus | Species | Locality | Collection horizon ^b | Bay ^c | Behaviour ^d | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VPDB) \pm 1 σ | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VSMOW) \pm 1 σ | n ^e | Tooth element ^f | Reference |
|------------|------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|------------------|------------------------|--|---|----------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| WCRP 5659 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -7.6 | -33.1 | - | Second molar | This study |
| WCRP 5660 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.7 | -35.0 | - | Second molar | This study |
| WCRP 5823 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.3 | -35.4 | - | M2 or M3 | This study |
| WCRP 5825 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.0 | -35.2 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 5843 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -11.0 | -33.9 | 0.5 | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 6445 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0309 | - | -7.1 | -33.9 | - | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 6643 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0309 | - | -9.3 | -33.2 | - | Molar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 6695 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -10.1 | -34.0 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 6703 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -11.7 | -32.3 | - | Premolar | This study |
| WCRP 6717 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -11.2 | -30.6 | - | Premolar or first molar | This study |
| WCRP 6802 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -7.8 | -30.8 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 6806 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -9.5 | -35.6 | - | Second molar | This study |
| WCRP 6975* | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -9.5 | -33.6 | 0.2 | Second molar | This study |
| WCRP 6975* | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -7.5 | -30.7 | 0.5 | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 7589 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -10.8 | -30.1 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 7611 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -9.0 | -30.7 | - | Molar or premolar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 7659 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -9.5 | -30.5 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 7852 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -11.9 | -32.9 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 9045* | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.1 | -35.1 | 0.3 | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 9050 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.5 | -37.1 | - | Molar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 9050 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.5 | -37.1 | - | Molar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 9079 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0510 | Site | -8.0 | -32.0 | - | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 9085 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0510 | - | -9.0 | -32.0 | - | Molar | This study |
| WCRP 9577 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0809 | - | -10.4 | -32.4 | - | Fragment | This study |
| WCRP 9578 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | ND | - | -7.9 | -34.9 | - | Third molar | This study |
| WCRP 9586 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.8 | -33.5 | - | Third molar | This study |
| WCRP 9944 | Bovidae | Bovidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -11.6 | -34.7 | - | Molar fragment | This study |
| WCRP 3232 | Cercopithecoidea | - | <i>Theropithecus</i> | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0313 | - | -10.2 | -31.2 | 1.9 | lm3 | This study |
| WCRP 17199 | Elephantidae | Elephantidae indet. | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | Grazer | -8.5 | -30.8 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -10.3 | -31.2 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.9 | -29.4 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.4 | -32.6 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.7 | -31.0 | - | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.0 | -31.6 | 0.6 | lm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.2 | -33.0 | - | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -11.2 | -32.0 | - | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -10.6 | -33.9 | - | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -9.5 | -33.1 | - | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Grazer | -8.5 | -32.0 | 0.1 | rm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | Grazer | -10.1 | -32.3 | - | lm3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0309 | Grazer | -10.0 | -32.4 | - | RM3 | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | Grazer | -9.8 | -32.6 | 0.3 | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | <i>Equus</i> | <i>capensis</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | Grazer | -9.2 | -32.9 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.3 | -32.7 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0109 | - | -9.8 | -32.6 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.4 | -33.7 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.4 | -33.3 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.5 | -33.0 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.5 | -32.0 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -9.3 | -33.6 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -8.4 | -31.1 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.5 | -34.2 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0110 | - | -11.4 | -33.5 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0909 | - | -9.4 | -32.7 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0209 | - | -9.0 | -32.6 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -9.7 | -33.5 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | ND | - | -9.9 | -34.0 | 0.3 | Fragment | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0610 | - | -9.8 | -32.4 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.3 | -33.5 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -10.1 | -32.6 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Equidae | - | - | - | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0609 | - | -9.5 | -31.4 | 0.2 | Fragment | This study |
| - | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Browser | -11.2 | -31.3 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| - | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Browser | -10.8 | -30.6 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| - | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Browser | -10.8 | -29.7 | - | Second or third molar when possible | Luyt et al., 2000 |
| EFTM 4028 | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Browser | -10.8 | -35.0 | - | Second molar? | This study |
| EFTM 4031 | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | EFTM | - | Browser | -11.7 | -35.5 | 0.6 | lm3 | This study |
| WCRP 8031 | Griffidae | - | <i>Syntherium</i> | <i>mauritanum</i> | Elandsfontein | WCRP | 0709 | Browser | -10.1 | -32.8 | - | rm3 | This study |

Table S2.2. Compilation of new and published $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the carbonate component of tooth enamel from Pliocene and Pleistocene sites in southwestern South Africa.

| Sample ID | Family | Tribe | Genus | Species | Locality | Collection horizon ^b | Bay ^c | Behaviour ^d | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VPDB) \pm 1 σ | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel}}$ (‰ VSMOW) \pm 1 σ | n ^e | Tooth element ^f | Reference |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------------------------|------------------|------------------------|--|---|----------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -10.3 | - 27.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -12.5 | - 29.7 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -10.4 | - 27.9 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -10.8 | - 27.3 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -12.3 | - 29.7 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -11.1 | - 27.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -13.5 | - 25.4 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -13.0 | - 25.4 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Mixed feeder | -12.0 | - 34.0 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Grafiidae | - | <i>Svaenherium</i> | <i>hendeyi</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | - | -9.2 | - 30.3 | - | Fragment | This study |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -10.9 | - 27.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -13.3 | - 23.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -11.6 | - 26.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -14.9 | - 24.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -12.0 | - 23.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -11.8 | - 24.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -9.4 | - 24.4 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -12.1 | - 25.7 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -11.5 | - 25.9 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -13.6 | - 24.5 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -10.0 | - 25.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -13.8 | - 24.3 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -11.7 | - 23.7 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Semi-aquatic | -13.3 | - 28.0 | - | Molar fragment | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | Semi-aquatic | -10.9 | - 27.1 | - | Molar | This study |
| - | Hippopotamidae | Hippopotamidae | - | - | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | Semi-aquatic | -10.2 | - 29.5 | - | Pre-molar | This study |
| - | Rhinocerotidae | Rhinocerotidae | <i>Ceratoheterium</i> | <i>praecox</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Brower | -11.1 | - 25.5 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Rhinocerotidae | Rhinocerotidae | <i>Ceratoheterium</i> | <i>praecox</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Brower | -10.1 | - 28.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Rhinocerotidae | Rhinocerotidae | <i>Ceratoheterium</i> | <i>praecox</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Brower | -10.5 | - 25.0 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Suidae | Suidae | <i>Nyanzachoerus cf.</i> | <i>jaegeri</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM, Bed 3AN | - | Brower | -11.7 | - 26.2 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Suidae | Suidae | <i>Nyanzachoerus cf.</i> | <i>jaegeri</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | - | -12.2 | - 27.9 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Suidae | Suidae | <i>Nyanzachoerus cf.</i> | <i>jaegeri</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | - | -10.3 | - 26.5 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Suidae | Suidae | <i>Nyanzachoerus cf.</i> | <i>jaegeri</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | - | -12.5 | - 27.7 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |
| - | Suidae | Suidae | <i>Nyanzachoerus cf.</i> | <i>jaegeri</i> | Langebaanweg | Vanwater Formation, PPM | - | - | -12.0 | - 28.6 | - | Molar fragments when possible | Franz-Odenwald et al., 2002 |

^a Averaged enamel samples from one specimen.

^b Teeth are from EFTM (Elandsfontein Main) or WCRP (West Coast Research Project, collected as part of this study). Information for Langebaanweg and Bloeifespunt are about the collections and geological context.

^c Location of teeth of WCRP collection is given by bay number (see Braun et al., 2013).

^d Taxa were considered semi-aquatic, grazer, mixed feeder and browser when possible (Sponheimer et al., 2001; Franz-Odenwald et al., 2004; Spinder 2009; 2011; Hare and Sealy, 2013).

^e Original data were reported relative to VPDB and were converted to the VSMOW notation using the equation $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}} = 1.308 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VPDB}} + 30.86$.

^f Number of analyses averaged.

^g Abbreviations for tooth position and elements are as follows: R, right; L, left; M, molar. Uppercase and lowercase letters refer to the maxillary and mandibular teeth, respectively. Molar position is indicated by 1, 2 or 3, when known.

Tooth element and position information for previously published samples are reported from the original studies.

Table S2.3: The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the phosphate and carbonate component of tooth enamel from Elandsfontein and Langebaanweg.

| Sample ID | Family | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel-phosphate}}$ | | | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel-carbonate}}$ | | | $\epsilon_{\text{CO}_3\text{-PO}_4}$ | |
|----------------------|----------------|---|-----------|-----|---|-----------|-----|--------------------------------------|-------------|
| | | (‰ VSMOW) | 1σ | n | (‰ VSMOW) | 1σ | n | avg (‰ VSMOW) | $1\sigma^a$ |
| Elandsfontein | | | | | | | | | |
| WCRP-1669 | Bovidae | 23.7 | 0.3 | 3 | 34.1 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.2 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-6177.8 | Bovidae | 23.5 | 0.5 | 2 | 32.6 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.9 | 1.1 |
| EFTM-8953 | Bovidae | 23.0 | 0.3 | 4 | 31.6 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.4 | 0.9 |
| WCRP-5043 | Bovidae | 24.1 | 0.2 | 4 | 34.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.0 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-11908 | Bovidae | 21.6 | 0.2 | 4 | 30.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.9 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-5063 | Bovidae | 24.0 | 0.3 | 4 | 33.2 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.0 | 1.0 |
| IZ-7892E | Bovidae | 23.2 | 0.1 | 4 | 32.9 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.5 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-5113.6 | Bovidae | 24.2 | 0.4 | 7 | 34.4 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.0 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-1746 | Bovidae | 22.6 | 0.2 | 3 | 31.9 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.2 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-1694 | Bovidae | 25.6 | 0.2 | 4 | 35.5 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.6 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-8657 | Bovidae | 24.4 | 0.3 | 3 | 34.8 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.1 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-2728 | Bovidae | 25.7 | 0.2 | 4 | 36.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.7 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-2738 | Bovidae | 25.1 | 0.4 | 4 | 34.8 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.4 | 1.0 |
| WCRP-1666 | Bovidae | 23.0 | 0.1 | 3 | 32.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.5 | 0.8 |
| EFTM-4088 | Hippopotamidae | 20.3 | 0.2 | 4 | 29.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.8 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-4030 | Hippopotamidae | 21.2 | 0.2 | 3 | 30.5 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.1 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-MSI2699 | Hippopotamidae | 19.9 | 0.4 | 4 | 28.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.6 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-6727 | Equidae | 22.1 | 0.2 | 4 | 32.0 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.7 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-16660 | Equidae | 22.8 | 0.4 | 6 | 32.0 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.0 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-2112 | Equidae | 23.5 | 0.1 | 3 | 33.9 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.2 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-5065 | Equidae | 23.7 | 0.1 | 4 | 33.1 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.1 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-8958A | Equidae | 22.8 | 0.3 | 3 | 32.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.7 | 1.0 |
| WCRP-2103 | Equidae | 23.1 | 0.4 | 6 | 32.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.9 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-2619 | Equidae | 22.3 | 0.2 | 2 | 31.6 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.0 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-1952 | Equidae | 23.3 | 0.3 | 4 | 33.1 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.6 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-4028A | Giraffidae | 24.4 | 0.0 | 3 | 35.0 | 0.6 | 1 | 10.3 | 0.8 |
| EFTM-4031 | Giraffidae | 23.6 | 0.3 | 2 | 33.5 | 0.6 | 2 | 9.6 | 0.9 |
| WCRP-8031 | Giraffidae | 23.1 | 0.3 | 4 | 32.8 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.5 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-20939 | Rhinocerotidae | 23.6 | 0.2 | 2 | 32.2 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.5 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-20982D | Rhinocerotidae | 23.3 | 0.2 | 4 | 33.0 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.4 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-16617A | Rhinocerotidae | 24.0 | 0.4 | 4 | 31.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 7.4 | 1.0 |
| EFTM-8700K | Rhinocerotidae | 23.3 | 0.2 | 4 | 31.1 | 0.3 | 2 | 7.6 | 0.7 |
| EFTM-3410A | Rhinocerotidae | 23.8 | 0.1 | 2 | 32.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.3 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-8610B | Rhinocerotidae | 22.9 | 0.2 | 3 | 32.2 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.0 | 0.9 |
| EFTM-93998 | Rhinocerotidae | 22.5 | 0.2 | 3 | 31.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.6 | 0.9 |
| WCRP-12156 | Suidae | 22.5 | 0.3 | 3 | 32.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.6 | 1.0 |
| WCRP-12284 | Suidae | 22.7 | 0.3 | 4 | 32.5 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.6 | 1.0 |
| WCRP-6438 | Suidae | 22.8 | 0.3 | 1 | 31.4 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.4 | 1.0 |
| Langebaanweg | | | | | | | | | |
| LBW13G-001 | Bovidae | 25.2 | 0.2 | 4 | 34.6 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.2 | 0.9 |
| LBW13G-004 | Equidae | 22.8 | 0.4 | 6 | 31.2 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.2 | 1.0 |
| LBW13G-006 | Hippopotamidae | 20.3 | 0.1 | 4 | 28.1 | 0.6 | 1 | 7.7 | 0.9 |
| LBW13G-007 | Hippopotamidae | 19.9 | 0.2 | 4 | 27.1 | 0.6 | 1 | 7.0 | 0.9 |
| LBW13G-008A | Hippopotamidae | 21.3 | 0.7 | 2 | 30.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.8 | 1.2 |
| LBW13G-008B | Hippopotamidae | 21.2 | 0.6 | 2 | 28.7 | 0.6 | 1 | 7.4 | 1.1 |
| LBW13G-008 (A & B) | Hippopotamidae | 21.3 | 0.6 | 4 | 29.5 | 1.1 | 2 | 8.1 | 1.3 |
| LBW13G-009 | Giraffidae | 25.2 | 0.1 | 4 | 34.0 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.6 | 0.9 |
| LBW13G-010 | Giraffidae | 24.0 | 0.4 | 4 | 33.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 9.1 | 1.0 |
| LBW13G-011 | Giraffidae | 21.9 | 0.2 | 4 | 30.3 | 0.6 | 1 | 8.3 | 0.9 |

^a propagated error

$$\epsilon_{\text{carbonate-phosphate}} = \sqrt{(\text{standard deviation } \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel-phosphate}})^2 + (\text{standard deviation } \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{enamel-carbonate}})^2}$$

Table S2.4: Oxygen and hydrogen isotope composition of waters from southwestern South Africa.

| Location | Sample source | Year(s) of collection ^a | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of water avg ^b ‰ VSMOW | $\delta^2\text{H}$ of water avg ^b ‰ VSMOW | Rainfall zone | References |
|--|--|------------------------------------|--|---|----------------------|---|
| Cape Town | Springs | 1996, 1997, 2010 - 2012 | -3.3±0.5 (<i>n</i> = 87) | -10.7±2.0 (<i>n</i> = 69) | Winter | Harris et al., 2000; Harris and Diamond, 2013 |
| Cape Town | Water treatment plants | 1996, 1997 | -3.0±1.5 (<i>n</i> = 16) | -10.3±8.5 (<i>n</i> = 16) | Winter | Harris et al., 1999 |
| Cape Town | Aquifers | 1996, 1997 | -3.0±0.6 (<i>n</i> = 29) | -12.1±4.7 (<i>n</i> = 29) | Winter | Harris et al., 1999 |
| Western Cape (primarily surrounding Cape Town) | Rivers | 1996, 1997, 2010 - 2012 | -3.5±1.2 (<i>n</i> = 68) | -16.1±10.0 (<i>n</i> = 70) | Winter | Harris et al., 1999; Harris and Diamond, 2013 |
| University of Cape Town | Precipitation (monthly) | 1996 - 2008 | -2.8±1.7 (<i>n</i> = 163) | -9.5±2.8 (<i>n</i> = 163) | Winter | Harris et al., 2010 |
| University of Cape Town | Precipitation (daily) | 1996 - 2008 | -2.67±2.1 (<i>n</i> = 109) | -7.1±14.2 (<i>n</i> = 109) | Winter | Harris et al., 2010 |
| Western Cape (primarily surrounding Cape Town) | Precipitation | 2010 - 2012 | -2.9 (<i>n</i> = ND) ^c | -9.2 (<i>n</i> = ND) ^c | Winter | Harris and Diamond, 2013 |
| Table Mountain Cableway, Cape Town | Precipitation | 2010 - 2012 | -3.6±1.1, -3.7 (<i>n</i> = 18) ^c | -12.4±5.8, 14.4 (<i>n</i> = 17) ^c | Winter | Harris and Diamond, 2013 |
| Jonkershoek Valley (closest major city is Western Cape, West Coast) | Catchment waters | 1992 | -4.0±0.2 (<i>n</i> = 24) | ND | Winter | Midgley and Scott, 1994 |
| Western Cape, South Coast | Groundwater and precipitation | 1999 - 2000 | -3.9±1.4 (<i>n</i> = 19) | ND | Winter | Weaver and Telma, 2005 |
| Western Cape, South Coast | Groundwater and precipitation | 1999 - 2000 | -5.2±1.3 (<i>n</i> = 5) | ND | Annual | Weaver and Telma, 2005 |
| Hopefield, Western Cape | Precipitation (annually cumulative) | 1999 - 2000 | -3.2 (<i>n</i> = 1) | ND | Winter | Weaver and Telma, 2005 |
| Langebaan Road Wellfield, Western Cape | Precipitation (annually cumulative) | 1999 - 2000 | -2.8 (<i>n</i> = 1) | ND | Winter | Weaver and Telma, 2005 |
| Langebaan Road Wellfield, Western Cape | Aquifer | 1999 - 2000 | -3.6±0.1 (<i>n</i> = 4) | ND | Winter | Weaver and Telma, 2005 |
| Cape Fold Belt | Precipitation | 2010 - 2012 | -4.3±1.8 (<i>n</i> = 226) | -17.1±9.8 (<i>n</i> = 232) | Winter and Annual | Harris and Diamond, 2013 |
| Jonkershoek Valley area | Groundwater, tapwater, modeled isoscape | 2006, 2007, 2009, 2010 | -5.2 to -2.9 (model based on 770 water samples) | -29.0 to -10.0 | Winter | West et al., 2014 |

Table S2.4: Oxygen and hydrogen isotope composition of waters from southwestern South Africa.

| Location | Sample source | Year(s) of collection ^a | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of water avg ^b ‰ VSMOW | $\delta^2\text{H}$ of water avg ^b ‰ VSMOW | Rainfall zone | References |
|--|---|------------------------------------|--|---|---------------|--|
| Elandsfontein area | Groundwater, tapwater, modeled isoscape | 2006, 2007, 2009, 2010 | -2.8 to -0.5 (model based on 770 water samples) | -19.0 to 0.0 | Winter | West et al., 2014 |
| Elandsfontein ^d | Standing water | 2010 | 1.5 ($n = 1$) | 6.2 ($n = 1$) | Winter | This study (sample SA10W400) WGS-84 Lat/Long: -33.1250, 18.23667 |
| Elandsfontein ^d | Spring water | 2010 | -3.2 ($n = 1$) | -13.8 ($n = 1$) | Winter | This study (sample SA10W401) WGS-84 Lat/Long: -33.10744, 18.20932 |
| Western Cape Fossil Park ^d | Tap water | 2010 | -1.9 ($n = 1$) | -9.2 ($n = 1$) | Winter | This study (sample SA10W402) WGS-84 Lat/Long: -32.95659, 18.11633 |
| Brakfontein, near Elandsfontein ^d | Spring water | 2010 | -3.3 ($n = 1$) | -14.4 ($n = 1$) | Winter | This study (sample SA10W403) WGS-84 Lat/Long: -32.95215, 18.24296 |

^a Only months with both precipitation amount and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of precipitation were used for this study. Samples were not collected over continuous time periods for every site.

^b Isotope data are reported as averages with their standard deviation (1σ). The number of samples are given in parentheses.

^c Weighted mean of rainfall as reported in Harris and Diamond (2013).

^d GPS coordinates for the samples collected and their sample ID are provided in the reference column. 'ND' is used to indicate no data.

Appendix II
(CHAPTER 3 Supplementary Tables)

Table S3.1: Bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios for major substrates in southwestern South Africa from this study and Sealy et al. (1991).

| Sample ID | Geological substrate | Site ^a | Location | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | | Material | Common name | Species | Reference |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|--|---------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|
| | | | | Average | Stdev ^b | | | | |
| RND 130919 | Cape Granite suite | A | Rondeberg | 0.715661 | 0.000012 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| RND130914 | Cape Granite suite | A | Rondeberg | 0.713183 | 0.000015 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| RND130915 | Cape Granite suite | A | Rondeberg | 0.713116 | 0.000011 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| RND130916 | Cape Granite suite | A | Rondeberg | 0.713353 | 0.000010 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| SA14M-500 | Cape Granite suite | A | Rondeberg | 0.711421 | 0.000013 | Bone | Geometric tortoise | <i>Psammobates geometricus</i> | This study |
| Silvertree upper (granite location) | Cape Granite suite | B | Vlaakenberg, Constantia Valley | 0.719891 | 0.000009 | Plant | Silver tree plant | <i>Leucadendron argenteum</i> | This study |
| P1 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.719300 | 0.000015 | Plant | Fern/buckhorn | <i>Pteridium</i> sp. | This study |
| P2 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.717402 | 0.000016 | Plant | Lance-leaved Waxberry | <i>Morella serrata</i> | This study |
| P3 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.718053 | 0.000013 | Plant | Sumac | <i>Rhus</i> sp. | This study |
| P4 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.722416 | 0.000013 | Plant | Daisy | <i>Eriosephalus</i> sp. | This study |
| P5 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.723563 | 0.000011 | Plant | Hopbush | <i>Dodonaea</i> sp. | This study |
| P6 | Cape Granite suite | C | Paarl Rock | 0.722537 | 0.000018 | Plant | Protea | <i>Protea</i> sp. | This study |
| UCT 2274 | Malmesbury shale | D | Botmskloof Pass, near Riebeeck Kasteel | 0.715332 | 0.000014 | Bone | Porcupine | <i>Hystrix africaeaustralis</i> | This study |
| UCT 3389 | Malmesbury shale | E | Elandsberg | 0.718540 | 0.000014 | Bone | Geometric tortoise | <i>Psammobates geometricus</i> | This study |
| UCT 3390 | Malmesbury shale | E | Elandsberg | 0.720390 | 0.000013 | Bone | Geometric tortoise | <i>Psammobates geometricus</i> | This study |
| UCT 3392 | Malmesbury shale | E | Elandsberg | 0.718410 | 0.000011 | Bone | Geometric tortoise | <i>Psammobates geometricus</i> | This study |
| UCT 2247 | Malmesbury shale | - | Terrestrial area | 0.717770 | 0.000040 | Bone | Bat-eared fox | <i>Otocyon megalotis</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 2801 | Malmesbury shale | - | Terrestrial area | 0.717940 | 0.000030 | Bone | Elephant shrew | <i>Macroscelides Elephantulus</i> sp. | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| SA14M-103 | Marine sands | Elandsfontein | Elandsfontein | 0.710276 | 0.000010 | Enamel (incisor) | Small rodent | - | This study |
| SA14M-106 | Marine sands | Elandsfontein | Elandsfontein | 0.710310 | 0.000014 | Enamel (incisor) | Small rodent | - | This study |
| UCT 876 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.711240 | 0.000030 | Bone | Steenbok | <i>Raphicercus campestris</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 1074 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.711690 | 0.000030 | Bone | Steenbok | <i>Raphicercus campestris</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 1192 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.710410 | 0.000040 | Bone | Grey duiker | <i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 732 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.710240 | 0.000040 | Bone | Steenbok | <i>Raphicercus campestris</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 821 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.709470 | 0.000030 | Bone | Springbok | <i>Antidorcas marsupialis</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 2061 | Marine sands | - | Coastal area | 0.709380 | 0.000030 | Bone | Bontebok | <i>Damaliscus dorcas dorcas</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| Fern (granite location) | Mixed granite and marine sands | B | Vlaakenberg, Constantia Valley | 0.714741 | 0.000010 | Plant | Fern | <i>Pteridium</i> sp. | This study |
| Silvertree lower (granite location) | Mixed granite and marine sands | B | Vlaakenberg, Constantia Valley | 0.711217 | 0.000011 | Plant | Silver tree | <i>Leucadendron argenteum</i> | This study |
| UCT 130921 | Table Mountain Sandstone | F | Mertenhof | 0.718119 | 0.000013 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| UCT 14347E | Table Mountain Sandstone | F | Mertenhof | 0.718546 | 0.000013 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| UCT 14347 | Table Mountain Sandstone | F | Mertenhof | 0.718411 | 0.000012 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| UCT 14335 | Table Mountain Sandstone | G | Heuningvlei, Biedouw Valley | 0.714159 | 0.000011 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| UCT 14335E | Table Mountain Sandstone | G | Heuningvlei, Biedouw Valley | 0.714092 | 0.000013 | Bone | Dassie | <i>Petromus typicus</i> | This study |
| UCT 4082 | Table Mountain Sandstone | H | Boontjieskloof (Sevilla, Boontjieskloof) | 0.718039 | 0.000013 | Enamel (third molar) | Porcupine | <i>Hystrix africaeaustralis</i> | This study |
| UCT 2544 | Table Mountain Sandstone | H | Boontjieskloof | 0.716081 | 0.000014 | Bone | Aardvark | <i>Oryzctopus afer</i> | This study |
| UCT 2074 | Table Mountain Sandstone | - | Terrestrial area | 0.715430 | 0.000030 | Bone | Grey duiker | <i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |
| UCT 2081 | Table Mountain Sandstone | - | Terrestrial area | 0.717460 | 0.000030 | Bone | Chacma baboon | <i>Papio ursinus</i> | Sealy et al. (1991) |

^a see Figure 1 for site locations on map of southwestern South Africa

^b standard deviation is $\pm 2\sigma$ of the internal standard

Table S3.2. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil mammals from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

| Sample ID (top to bottom of the tooth) | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| | Average | Stdev ^a |
| Bovidae | | |
| <u>Bovid sp., third molar, solution analysis on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 1468 1.5 | 0.710167 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 2.5 | 0.710181 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 3.5 | 0.710069 | 0.000012 |
| 1468 4.5 | 0.710084 | 0.000017 |
| 1468 5.5 | 0.710169 | 0.000017 |
| 1468 6.5 | 0.710181 | 0.000013 |
| 1468 7.5 | 0.710039 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 8.5 | 0.710049 | 0.000012 |
| 1468 9.5 | 0.709976 | 0.000011 |
| 1468 10.5 | 0.709982 | 0.000013 |
| | | |
| <u>Alcelaphini sp. indet., potentially migratory, grazer, molar, laser ablation serial sampling on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| WCRP-1358A_4 | 0.709810 | 0.000080 |
| WCRP-1358A_3 | 0.709770 | 0.000080 |
| WCRP-1358A_2 | 0.709820 | 0.000090 |
| WCRP-1358A_1 | 0.709900 | 0.000080 |
| WCRP-1358B_4 | 0.709860 | 0.000090 |
| WCRP-1358B_3 | 0.709860 | 0.000100 |
| WCRP-1358B_2 | 0.709790 | 0.000110 |
| WCRP-1358B_1bottom | 0.709880 | 0.000100 |
| WCRP-1358C_4 | 0.709790 | 0.000070 |
| WCRP-1358C_3 | 0.709830 | 0.000100 |
| WCRP-1358C_2 | 0.709980 | 0.000100 |
| WCRP-1358C_1worn | 0.709820 | 0.000090 |
| | | |
| <u>Syncerus antiquus, Giant buffalo (extinct), potentially migratory, grazer, third molar, laser ablation serial sampling</u> | | |
| WCRP-36309_1root | 0.711120 | 0.003000 |
| WCRP-36309_2 | 0.710710 | 0.000150 |
| WCRP-36309_3 | 0.711060 | 0.000120 |
| WCRP-36309_4 | 0.711050 | 0.000100 |
| WCRP-36309_5 | 0.711000 | 0.000090 |
| WCRP-36309_6 | 0.711120 | 0.000090 |
| | | |
| WCRP-9043_01root | 0.710140 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_02 | 0.710140 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_03 | 0.710160 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_04 | 0.710130 | 0.000030 |
| WCRP-9043_05 | 0.710240 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_06 | 0.710270 | 0.000050 |
| WCRP-9043_07 | 0.710260 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_08 | 0.710340 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_09 | 0.710390 | 0.000040 |
| WCRP-9043_10 | 0.710460 | 0.000050 |
| WCRP-9043_11 | 0.710420 | 0.000060 |
| WCRP-9043_12 | 0.710570 | 0.000040 |
| | | |
| <u>Syncerus antiquus, Giant buffalo (extinct), potentially migratory, grazer, third molar, solution analysis on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 46225.01 | 0.709656 | 0.000058 |
| 46225.02 | 0.709658 | 0.000084 |
| 46225.03 | 0.709657 | 0.000118 |
| 46225.04 | 0.709640 | 0.000142 |
| 46225.05 | 0.709617 | 0.000048 |
| 46225.06 | 0.709609 | 0.000070 |

Table S3.2: $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil mammals from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

| Sample ID (top to bottom of the tooth) | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| | Average | Stdev ^a |
| 46245.01 | 0.709324 | 0.000192 |
| 46245.02 | 0.709832 | 0.000142 |
| 46245.03 | 0.709905 | 0.000162 |
| 46245.04 | 0.709847 | 0.000154 |
| 46245.05 | 0.709873 | 0.000112 |
| 46245.06 | 0.709939 | 0.000114 |
| 46245.07 | 0.710002 | 0.000084 |
| 46245.08 | 0.710141 | 0.000114 |
| 46245.09 | 0.709952 | 0.000114 |
| 46245.10 | 0.709921 | 0.000116 |
| 46245.11 | 0.709953 | 0.000118 |
| 46245.12 | 0.709826 | 0.000112 |
| 1666 1.5 | 0.709521 | 0.000020 |
| 1666 2.5 | 0.709528 | 0.000013 |
| 1666 3.5 | 0.709711 | 0.000019 |
| 1666 4.5 | 0.709457 | 0.000023 |
| 1666 5.5 | 0.710078 | 0.000020 |
| 1666 6.5 | 0.709689 | 0.000022 |
| 1666 7.5 | 0.709879 | 0.000019 |
| 1666 8.5 | 0.709656 | 0.000015 |
| 1666 9.5 | 0.709255 | 0.000012 |
| 36309 1.5 | 0.710462 | 0.000025 |
| 36309 2.5 | 0.710442 | 0.000014 |
| 36309 3.5 | 0.710351 | 0.000014 |
| 36309 4.5 | 0.710412 | 0.000016 |
| 36309 5.5 | 0.710488 | 0.000023 |
| 8787 1.5 | 0.711171 | 0.000015 |
| 8787 2.5 | 0.711079 | 0.000020 |
| 8787 3.5 | 0.710889 | 0.000014 |
| 9046.1 A.5 | 0.710693 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.1 B.5 | 0.710636 | 0.000016 |
| 9046.1 C.5 | 0.710574 | 0.000026 |
| 9046.1 D.5 | 0.710554 | 0.000016 |
| 9046.1 E.5 | 0.710526 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.1 F.5 | 0.710457 | 0.000014 |
| 9046.2 G.1 | 0.710428 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.2 H.5 | 0.710420 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.2 I.5 | 0.710382 | 0.000017 |
| 9046.2 J.5 | 0.710407 | 0.000020 |
| 9046.3 K.5 | 0.710700 | 0.000016 |
| 9046.3 L.5 | 0.710340 | 0.000013 |
| 9046.3 M.5 | 0.710327 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.3 N.5 | 0.710351 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.3 O.5 | 0.710380 | 0.000019 |
| 9046.3 P.5 | 0.710360 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.4 Q.5 | 0.710363 | 0.000017 |
| 9046.4 R.5 | 0.710492 | 0.000015 |
| 9046.4 S.5 | 0.710570 | 0.000014 |
| 9046.4 T.5 | 0.710622 | 0.000027 |
| 9046.4 U.5 | 0.710835 | 0.000023 |

Table S3.2. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil mammals from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

| Sample ID (top to bottom of the tooth) | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| | Average | Stdev ^a |
| 9944.2 A.5 | 0.709771 | 0.000028 |
| 9944.2 B.5 | 0.709888 | 0.000039 |
| 9944.2 C.5 | 0.709883 | 0.000032 |
| 9944.2 D.5 | 0.709877 | 0.000136 |
| <u>Tragelaphus strepsiceros, Greater kudu, potentially migratory, browser, third molar, solution analysis on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 9386 1.5 | 0.709546 | 0.000017 |
| 9386 2.5 | 0.709607 | 0.000013 |
| 9386 3.5 | 0.709648 | 0.000023 |
| 9386 4.5 | 0.709653 | 0.000021 |
| 9386 5.5 | 0.709749 | 0.000021 |
| 9386 6.5 | 0.709754 | 0.000019 |
| 9386 7.5 | 0.709723 | 0.000011 |
| 9386 8.5 | 0.709738 | 0.000015 |
| 9386 9.5 | 0.709741 | 0.000014 |
| 9386 10.5 | 0.709727 | 0.000014 |
| 36612 1.5 | 0.709775 | 0.000012 |
| 36612 2.5 | 0.709780 | 0.000015 |
| 36612 3.5 | 0.709750 | 0.000014 |
| 36612 4.5 | 0.709693 | 0.000020 |
| 36612 5.5 | 0.709685 | 0.000014 |
| 36612 6.5 | 0.709671 | 0.000011 |
| 36612 7.5 | 0.709694 | 0.000012 |
| 20443 1.5 | 0.709414 | 0.000018 |
| 20443 2.5 | 0.709354 | 0.000010 |
| 20443 3.5 | 0.709367 | 0.000013 |
| 20443 4.5 | 0.709376 | 0.000013 |
| 20443 5.5 | 0.709382 | 0.000015 |
| 20443 6.5 | 0.709400 | 0.000013 |
| 20443 7.5 | 0.709406 | 0.000013 |
| 20443 8.5 | 0.709428 | 0.000012 |
| 20443 9.5 | 0.709330 | 0.000025 |
| <u>Bovid sp., potentially migratory, grazer, molar, solution analysis ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 32386 1.5 | 0.710356 | 0.000012 |
| 32386 2.5 | 0.710495 | 0.000014 |
| 32386 3.5 | 0.710588 | 0.000015 |
| 32386 4.5 | 0.711105 | 0.000011 |
| 32386 5.5 | 0.710982 | 0.000017 |
| 32386 6.5 | 0.710441 | 0.000061 |
| 32386 7.5 | 0.710369 | 0.000013 |
| 32386 8.5 | 0.709993 | 0.000014 |
| 32386 9.5 | 0.709873 | 0.000011 |
| 32386 10.5 | 0.709856 | 0.000017 |
| 32386 11.5 | 0.709863 | 0.000012 |
| 32386 12.5 | 0.709920 | 0.000010 |
| <u>Bovid sp., solution analysis ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 1468 1.5 | 0.710167 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 2.5 | 0.710181 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 3.5 | 0.710069 | 0.000012 |

Table S3.2. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the fossil mammals from mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein.

| Sample ID (top to bottom of the tooth) | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| | Average | Stdev ^a |
| 1468 4.5 | 0.710084 | 0.000017 |
| 1468 5.5 | 0.710169 | 0.000017 |
| 1468 6.5 | 0.710181 | 0.000013 |
| 1468 7.5 | 0.710039 | 0.000014 |
| 1468 8.5 | 0.710049 | 0.000012 |
| 1468 9.5 | 0.709976 | 0.000011 |
| 1468 10.5 | 0.709982 | 0.000013 |
| Elephantidae | | |
| <u><i>Loxodonta africana</i>, African elephant, potentially migratory, grazer, molar fragment, solution analysis ICP-MS</u> | | |
| WCRP 6088 | 0.710547 | 0.000017 |
| WCRP 12298 | 0.710071 | 0.000014 |
| Equidae | | |
| <u><i>Equus capensis</i>, Cape zebra, potentially migratory, grazer, third molar, solution analysis ICP-MS</u> | | |
| WCRP 2048 | 0.709705 | 0.000016 |
| Hystriidae | | |
| <u><i>Hystrix africaeaustralis</i>, Porcupine, not migratory, mixed feeder, third molar, laser ablation serial sampling on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 32012.01 | 0.709587 | 0.000320 |
| 32012.01 | 0.709428 | 0.000162 |
| 32012.02 | 0.709552 | 0.000084 |
| 32012.03 | 0.709470 | 0.000124 |
| 32012.04 | 0.709446 | 0.000114 |
| 32012.05 | 0.709423 | 0.000120 |
| 32012.06 | 0.709429 | 0.000112 |
| Bathyergidae | | |
| <u><i>Bathyergus suillus</i>, Dune mole rate, not migratory, mixed diet, incisor, laser ablation serial sampling on ICP-MS</u> | | |
| 32007.01 | 0.709348 | 0.000166 |
| 32007.02 | 0.709275 | 0.000192 |
| 32007.03 | 0.709349 | 0.000112 |
| 32007.04 | 0.709489 | 0.000182 |
| 32007.05 | 0.709414 | 0.000130 |
| 32007.06 | 0.709476 | 0.000130 |
| Hyaenidae | | |
| <u><i>Hyaena brunnea</i>, Brown hyena, potentially migratory, carnivore, third molar, solution analysis ICP-MS</u> | | |
| WCRP 32121 | 0.709393 | 0.000018 |
| WCRP 32442 | 0.709620 | 0.000024 |

^a standard deviation is $\pm 2\sigma$ from the internal standard

Table S.3.3: Profiles for mid-Pleistocene and modern enamel fragments from Elandsfontein using the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of rinses and enamel powder after series of rinses.

| Sample ID | Sample description (enamel or rinse #) | mid-Pleistocene or modern enamel | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|---|---|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------|
| | | | Average | Stdev* |
| <u>WCRP 46257 (bovid)</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709570 | 0.000018 |
| rinse 6 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709481 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 12 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709448 | 0.000012 |
| rinse 18 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709449 | 0.000016 |
| rinse 24 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709405 | 0.000015 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709428 | 0.000014 |
| | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | 0.709463 ± 0.000058 | |
| | | <i>range</i> | 0.709405 to 0.709570 | |
| | | <i>span</i> | 0.000165 | |
| <u>WCRP 46251</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709814 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 6 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709569 | 0.000019 |
| rinse 12 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709507 | 0.000018 |
| rinse 18 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709576 | 0.000016 |
| rinse 24 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709535 | 0.000015 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709474 | 0.000012 |
| | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | 0.709579 ± 0.000121 | |
| | | <i>range</i> | 0.709474 to 0.709814 | |
| | | <i>span</i> | 0.000340 | |
| <u>WCRP - 46245 (Syncerus antiquus)</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709879 | 0.000011 |
| rinse 6 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709871 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 12 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709849 | 0.000019 |
| rinse 18 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709824 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 24 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709829 | 0.000029 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709802 | 0.000016 |
| | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | 0.709842 ± 0.000029 | |
| | | <i>range</i> | 0.709802 to 0.709879 | |
| | | <i>span</i> | 0.000077 | |
| <u>G</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | | 0.709982 | 0.000012 |
| rinse 5 | supernatant | | 0.709980 | 0.000016 |
| rinse 10 | supernatant | | 0.709990 | 0.000017 |
| rinse 15 | supernatant | | 0.709977 | 0.000015 |
| rinse 20 | supernatant | | 0.709945 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 25 | supernatant | | 0.709969 | 0.000013 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | | 0.709871 | 0.000011 |
| | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | 0.709955 ± 0.000044 | |
| | | <i>range</i> | 0.709871 to 0.709999 | |
| | | <i>span</i> | 0.000119 | |
| <u>Z</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | | 0.709649 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 5 | supernatant | | 0.709400 | 0.000015 |
| rinse 10 | supernatant | | 0.709366 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 15 | supernatant | | 0.709402 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 20 | supernatant | | 0.709383 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 25 | supernatant | | 0.709401 | 0.000020 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | | 0.709411 | 0.000014 |
| | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | 0.709394 ± 0.000016 | |
| | | <i>range</i> | 0.709366 to 0.709411 | |
| | | <i>span</i> | 0.000045 | |
| <u>WCRP 2048 (equid)</u> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709799 | 0.000008 |
| rinse 5 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709784 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 10 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709772 | 0.000021 |
| rinse 15 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709696 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 20 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709631 | 0.000017 |
| rinse 25 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709664 | 0.000019 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709705 | 0.000016 |

Table S.3.3: Profiles for mid-Pleistocene and modern enamel fragments from Elandsfontein using the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of rinses and enamel powder after series of rinses.

| Sample ID | Sample description (enamel or rinse #) | mid-Pleistocene or modern enamel | $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | Average | Stdev ^a |
| | | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | <i>0.709709 ± 0.000060</i> |
| | | | <i>range</i> | <i>0.709631 to 0.709784</i> |
| | | | <i>span</i> | <i>0.000153</i> |
| <i>WCRP 6088</i> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710358 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 5 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710556 | 0.000011 |
| rinse 10 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710679 | 0.000028 |
| rinse 15 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710588 | 0.000017 |
| rinse 20 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710542 | 0.000034 |
| rinse 25 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710545 | 0.000023 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710547 | 0.000017 |
| | | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | <i>0.710576 ± 0.000053</i> |
| | | | <i>range</i> | <i>0.710542 to 0.710679</i> |
| | | | <i>span</i> | <i>0.000137</i> |
| <i>WCRP 12298</i> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709930 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 5 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710085 | 0.000012 |
| rinse 10 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710171 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 15 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710228 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 20 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710247 | 0.000043 |
| rinse 25 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710265 | 0.000015 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710071 | 0.000014 |
| | | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | <i>0.710178 ± 0.000084</i> |
| | | | <i>range</i> | <i>0.710071 to 0.710265</i> |
| | | | <i>span</i> | <i>0.000194</i> |
| <i>SA13M-507 (bovid)</i> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.709631 | 0.000014 |
| rinse 6 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710104 | 0.000012 |
| rinse 12 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710091 | 0.000016 |
| rinse 18 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710092 | 0.000019 |
| rinse 24 | supernatant | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710099 | 0.000024 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | mid-Pleistocene | 0.710131 | 0.000013 |
| | | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | <i>0.710025 ± 0.000193</i> |
| | | | <i>range</i> | <i>0.709631 to 0.710131</i> |
| | | | <i>span</i> | <i>0.000499</i> |
| <i>SA13M-011 (juv. Alcelaphine)</i> | | | | |
| rinse 1 | supernatant | modern | 0.713023 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 6 | supernatant | modern | 0.713592 | 0.000016 |
| rinse 12 | supernatant | modern | 0.713603 | 0.000012 |
| rinse 18 | supernatant | modern | 0.713606 | 0.000013 |
| rinse 24 | supernatant | modern | 0.713616 | 0.000012 |
| enamel residue | enamel powder residue | modern | 0.713633 | 0.000012 |
| | | | <i>avg ± stdev</i> | <i>0.713512 ± 0.000240</i> |
| | | | <i>range</i> | <i>0.713023 to 0.713633</i> |
| | | | <i>span</i> | <i>0.000610</i> |

^a standard deviation is $\pm 2\sigma$ from the internal standard

Appendix III
(CHAPTER 4 Supplementary Tables)

Table S4.1. Sample site location and climate information.^a

| Sample location | Latitude | Longitude | MAT (Celsius) ^b | MAP (mm) ^c | Mean RH (%) ^d | PET (mm) ^e | Aridity Index ^f | Climate classification (UNESCO 1979) ^g |
|--|----------|-----------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| <i>East Africa</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Turkana, Kenya | 4.2 N | 36.3 E | 27.9 | 364.0 | 52.9 | 1840.6 | 0.20 | Arid |
| Awash, Ethiopia | 8.9 N | 40.0 E | 25.1 | 625.1 | 62.6 | 1320.4 | 0.47 | Semi-arid to arid |
| Tsavo, Kenya | 3.4 S | 38.6 E | 23.8 | 726.3 | 63.3 | 1154.7 | 0.63 | Dry subhumid |
| Meru National Park, Kenya | 0.1 N | 38.2 E | 25.6 | 894.9 | 63.2 | 1372.8 | 0.65 | Dry subhumid |
| Shimba Hills, Kenya | 4.1 S | 39.2 E | 25.5 | 914.9 | 70.9 | 1374.9 | 0.67 | Dry subhumid |
| Kidepo, Uganda | 3.9 N | 33.8 E | 23.2 | 809.7 | 57.9 | 1079.3 | 0.75 | Dry subhumid |
| Garamba, DRC | 4.1 N | 29.5 E | 24.8 | 1423.5 | 67.1 | 1258.9 | 1.13 | Moist subhumid |
| Laikipia, Kenya | 0.3 N | 36.9 E | 17.3 | 952.2 | 63.9 | 740.7 | 1.29 | Dry subhumid |
| Ituri Forest, DRC | 1.8 N | 29.9 E | 21.9 | 1277.8 | 71.6 | 974.5 | 1.31 | Humid |
| Aberdares, Kenya | 0.4 S | 36.8 E | 14.0 | 1381.5 | 70.2 | 652.9 | 2.12 | Moist subhumid to humid |
| <i>South Africa</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Kgalagadi National Park | 26.3 S | 20.4 E | 20.2 | 212.2 | 43.8 | 981.0 | 0.22 | Arid |
| Addo National Park | 33.3 S | 25.5 E | 17.7 | 444.3 | 64.2 | 790.4 | 0.56 | Semi-arid |
| <i>Finland</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Norrmark | 61.4 N | 21.5 E | 4.3 | 542.2 | 81.6 | 475.0 | 1.14 | Humid |
| Karessuando (Lapland) | 68.3 N | 22.3 E | -2.7 | 442.3 | 86.5 | 367.1 | 1.20 | Humid |
| Rovaniemi | 66.3 N | 25.4 E | 0.3 | 514.9 | 80.0 | 405.7 | 1.27 | Humid |
| Pernaja | 60.3 N | 26.0 E | 4.2 | 662.3 | 81.1 | 463.3 | 1.43 | Humid |
| Aunus, Nurmoila | 60.3 N | 23.6 E | 3.9 | 645.7 | 81.8 | 450.2 | 1.43 | Humid |
| <i>United States</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Badlands National Park, SD | 43.5 N | 102.2 W | 8.3 | 417.9 | 60.5 | 569.9 | 0.73 | Semi-arid to dry subhumid |
| Edness Kimball Wilkins State National Park, WY | 42.5 N | 106.1 W | 5.4 | 327.1 | 55.3 | 422.3 | 0.77 | Semi-arid |
| Wichita Mountains Federal Wildlife Refuge, OK | 34.5 N | 98.4 W | 16.6 | 696.0 | 63.7 | 871.9 | 0.80 | Dry subhumid to semi-arid |
| Theodore Roosevelt National Park, ND | 46.6 N | 103.3 W | 5.6 | 392.2 | 63.9 | 454.0 | 0.86 | Dry subhumid |
| Antelope Island, UT | 40.5 N | 112.1 W | 8.3 | 538.3 | 54.3 | 550.1 | 0.98 | Dry subhumid |
| Parowan, UT | 37.5 N | 112.5 W | 5.3 | 404.2 | 48.1 | 407.6 | 0.99 | Semi-arid |
| Arctic National Wildlife Refuge, AK | 68.3 N | 143.4 W | -12.3 | 131.3 | 67.9 | 119.3 | 1.10 | Dry subhumid/cold climate |
| Middle Fork, Selman River, ID | 44.6 N | 114.6 W | 3.8 | 488.0 | 59.9 | 362.4 | 1.35 | Dry subhumid |
| Piedmont National Wildlife Refuge, GA | 33.1 N | 83.5 W | 17.0 | 1181.9 | 70.2 | 844.9 | 1.40 | Humid |
| Berkley Springs, WV | 39.4 N | 78.1 W | 11.7 | 961.0 | 69.6 | 676.5 | 1.42 | Humid |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------|---------|------|--------|------|-------|------|-------|
| Baltimore, MD | 39.2 N | 76.4 W | 13.4 | 1076.1 | 66.6 | 736.3 | 1.46 | Humid |
| Westchester County, NY | 41.1 N | 73.5 W | 10.3 | 1247.5 | 67.7 | 626.8 | 1.99 | Humid |
| Dairymens Country Club, WI | 46.1 N | 89.4 W | 3.6 | 814.6 | 72.6 | 347.9 | 2.34 | Humid |
| Yellowstone National Park, WY | 44.3 N | 110.4 W | 0.3 | 542.7 | 55.7 | 225.6 | 2.41 | Humid |

^a Climate information for each sample sites is the output for a model produced by University of East Anglia, Climate Research Unit (CRU). These modeled data are based on measured data from 1961 to 1990 and estimated data are produced for mean climate grids of 10-minute latitudinal/longitudinal global land areas (New et al., 2000).

^b Mean annual temperature (MAT)

^c Mean annual precipitation (MAP)

^d Mean daily relative humidity (RH) is modeled from measurements of the monthly average of daily averages (24 hour) RH values or calculated from vapor pressure measurements and not based on RH at any specific time.

^e Mean Potential Evapotranspiration (PET) is calculated using the Thornwaite equation PET calculation

$$PET = \sum_{i=1}^{12} 16 * K * \left(10 * \frac{t}{T}\right)^a$$

where K is a factor for the duration of sunlight during each month and varies by latitude, *a* is a coefficient, *t* is temperature and *T* is an annual heat index.

^f Aridity Index is used as a proxy for aridity and calculated using [MAP:PET]. Where PET is calculated using the Thornwaite PET calculation.

^g Climate classifications taken from UNSECO Aridity maps of Africa and of the continents (www.unesco.org).

Table S4.2: Triple oxygen isotope data for enamel samples listed by Analytical ID.

| Analytical ID | Sample ID | Session ID | $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰) | Additional CO_2 | | Reference | |
|---------------|-------------------------|------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|
| | | | | | adjustment amount for $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ per meg | | |
| JHU-170-2539 | AK Caribou #1 | Nov 2015 | 13.47 | 26.00 | - | -0.171 | -171 | this study |
| JHU-170-2540 | AK Caribou #1 | Nov 2015 | 12.71 | 24.53 | - | -0.170 | -170 | this study |
| JHU-170-2535 | ID deer | Nov 2015 | 16.80 | 32.44 | - | -0.195 | -195 | this study |
| JHU-170-2536 | ID deer | Nov 2015 | 17.76 | 34.31 | - | -0.212 | -212 | this study |
| JHU-170-2520 | MD deer #1 | Nov 2015 | 18.91 | 36.46 | - | -0.177 | -177 | this study |
| JHU-170-2521 | MD deer #1 | Nov 2015 | 19.69 | 37.98 | - | -0.183 | -183 | this study |
| JHU-170-2522 | MD deer #2 | Nov 2015 | 18.12 | 34.97 | - | -0.193 | -193 | this study |
| JHU-170-2523 | MD deer #2 | Nov 2015 | 18.53 | 35.77 | - | -0.192 | -192 | this study |
| JHU-170-2552 | ND bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 13.06 | 25.15 | - | -0.140 | -140 | this study |
| JHU-170-2553 | ND bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 13.71 | 26.44 | - | -0.158 | -158 | this study |
| JHU-170-2554 | ND bison #2 | Nov 2015 | 14.50 | 27.97 | - | -0.168 | -168 | this study |
| JHU-170-2555 | ND bison #2 | Nov 2015 | 14.08 | 27.17 | - | -0.171 | -171 | this study |
| JHU-170-2542 | OK Bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 18.57 | 35.76 | - | -0.157 | -157 | this study |
| JHU-170-2543 | OK Bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 19.54 | 37.65 | - | -0.158 | -158 | this study |
| JHU-170-2556 | SD bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 14.17 | 27.36 | - | -0.177 | -177 | this study |
| JHU-170-2557 | SD bison #1 | Nov 2015 | 14.81 | 28.57 | - | -0.168 | -168 | this study |
| JHU-170-2526 | WI deer | Nov 2015 | 16.95 | 32.71 | - | -0.189 | -189 | this study |
| JHU-170-2527 | WI deer | Nov 2015 | 16.43 | 31.70 | - | -0.179 | -179 | this study |
| JHU-170-2524 | WV deer | Nov 2015 | 19.16 | 37.00 | - | -0.207 | -207 | this study |
| JHU-170-2525 | WV deer | Nov 2015 | 19.51 | 37.67 | - | -0.204 | -204 | this study |
| JHU-170-2537 | WY deer | Nov 2015 | 17.84 | 34.47 | - | -0.208 | -208 | this study |
| JHU-170-2538 | WY deer | Nov 2015 | 17.30 | 33.42 | - | -0.203 | -203 | this study |
| JHU-170-2541 | WY Yellowstone Moose #1 | Nov 2015 | 13.79 | 26.59 | - | -0.161 | -161 | this study |
| JHU-170-2080 | A1JB-B3-T4-DP4 | Nov 2014 | 16.67 | 32.16 | - | -0.179 | -179 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2081 | A1JB-B3-T4-DP4 | Nov 2014 | 16.01 | 30.89 | - | -0.176 | -176 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2052 | CME | Nov 2014 | 19.01 | 36.62 | - | -0.155 | -155 | this study |
| JHU-170-2053 | CME | Nov 2014 | 19.34 | 37.24 | - | -0.152 | -152 | this study |
| JHU-170-2054 | CME | Nov 2014 | 19.51 | 37.57 | - | -0.151 | -151 | this study |
| JHU-170-2050 | ET03-71 | Nov 2014 | 17.74 | 34.12 | - | -0.129 | -129 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2051 | ET03-71 | Nov 2014 | 17.64 | 33.93 | - | -0.130 | -130 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2059 | ET05-MAGO-19 | Nov 2014 | 23.53 | 45.39 | - | -0.181 | -181 | this study |
| JHU-170-2060 | ET05-MAGO-19 | Nov 2014 | 23.56 | 45.46 | - | -0.188 | -188 | this study |
| JHU-170-2071 | GNP-giraffe2 | Nov 2014 | 23.57 | 45.52 | - | -0.212 | -212 | this study |
| JHU-170-2072 | GNP-giraffe2 | Nov 2014 | 24.09 | 46.53 | - | -0.208 | -208 | this study |
| JHU-170-2069 | GNP-Hippo | Nov 2014 | 20.02 | 38.54 | - | -0.146 | -146 | this study |
| JHU-170-2070 | GNP-Hippo | Nov 2014 | 20.06 | 38.60 | - | -0.134 | -134 | this study |
| JHU-170-2073 | Ituri Giraffe | Nov 2014 | 21.84 | 42.13 | - | -0.183 | -183 | this study |
| JHU-170-2074 | Ituri Giraffe | Nov 2014 | 21.72 | 41.90 | - | -0.182 | -182 | this study |
| JHU-170-2077 | K00-TSV-113 | Nov 2014 | 24.38 | 47.15 | - | -0.237 | -237 | this study |
| JHU-170-2078 | K00-TSV-113 | Nov 2014 | 24.43 | 47.24 | - | -0.234 | -234 | this study |
| JHU-170-2075 | K98-Lai-310 | Nov 2014 | 22.85 | 44.18 | - | -0.230 | -230 | this study |
| JHU-170-2076 | K98-Lai-310 | Nov 2014 | 22.35 | 43.18 | - | -0.218 | -218 | this study |
| JHU-170-2048 | KN07-112 | Nov 2014 | 22.07 | 42.53 | - | -0.157 | -157 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2049 | KN07-112 | Nov 2014 | 22.33 | 43.01 | - | -0.150 | -150 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2079 | MGL-93-16 | Nov 2014 | 23.10 | 44.57 | - | -0.187 | -187 | this study |
| JHU-170-2057 | TMO | Nov 2014 | 22.79 | 44.08 | - | -0.238 | -238 | this study |
| JHU-170-2058 | TMO | Nov 2014 | 23.02 | 44.52 | - | -0.232 | -232 | this study |
| JHU-170-2061 | UT-deer | Nov 2014 | 18.14 | 35.13 | - | -0.249 | -249 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2062 | UT-deer | Nov 2014 | 18.13 | 35.13 | - | -0.261 | -261 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2055 | KN07-108 | Nov 2014 | 25.03 | 48.50 | - | -0.285 | -285 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2056 | KN07-108 | Nov 2014 | 25.18 | 48.78 | - | -0.281 | -281 | Hu et al., <i>in prep.</i> |
| JHU-170-2160 | ET05-AWSH-04 | June 2015 | 23.33 | 45.06 | - | -0.206 | -206 | this study |
| JHU-170-2161 | ET05-AWSH-04 | June 2015 | 23.68 | 45.74 | - | -0.209 | -209 | this study |
| JHU-170-2151 | ET05-AWSH-29 (HIPPO) | June 2015 | 20.66 | 39.81 | - | -0.166 | -166 | this study |
| JHU-170-2152 | ET05-AWSH-29 (HIPPO) | June 2015 | 20.64 | 39.77 | - | -0.164 | -164 | this study |
| JHU-170-2154 | ET05-MAG0-10 HIPPO | June 2015 | 23.12 | 44.61 | - | -0.188 | -188 | this study |
| JHU-170-2155 | ET05-MAG0-10 HIPPO | June 2015 | 23.50 | 45.35 | - | -0.186 | -186 | this study |
| JHU-170-2158 | KN07-111 | June 2015 | 22.53 | 43.41 | - | -0.156 | -156 | this study |
| JHU-170-2159 | KN07-111 | June 2015 | 22.50 | 43.34 | - | -0.151 | -151 | this study |
| JHU-170-2156 | MGL-93-06 | June 2015 | 20.88 | 40.25 | - | -0.177 | -177 | this study |
| JHU-170-2157 | MGL-93-06 | June 2015 | 20.67 | 39.87 | - | -0.180 | -180 | this study |
| JHU-170-2328 | GA Beaver | Aug 2015_1 | 19.38 | 37.34 | - | -0.158 | -158 | this study |
| JHU-170-2329 | GA Beaver | Aug 2015_1 | 18.41 | 35.45 | - | -0.152 | -152 | this study |
| JHU-170-2354 | GA Beaver | Aug 2015_1 | 17.55 | 33.79 | - | -0.150 | -150 | this study |

Table S4.2: Triple oxygen isotope data for enamel samples listed by Analytical ID.

| Analytical ID | Sample ID | Session ID | $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰) | Additional | | Reference | |
|---------------|---------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| | | | | | CO_2 adjustment amount for $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ per meg | | |
| JHU-170-2355 | GA Beaver | Aug 2015_1 | 17.74 | 34.15 | - | -0.147 | -147 | this study |
| JHU-170-2347 | GA deer 1 | Aug 2015_1 | 19.43 | 37.53 | - | -0.207 | -207 | this study |
| JHU-170-2348 | GA deer 1 | Aug 2015_1 | 19.74 | 38.11 | - | -0.199 | -199 | this study |
| JHU-170-2343 | GA deer 2 | Aug 2015_1 | 19.58 | 37.81 | - | -0.210 | -210 | this study |
| JHU-170-2344 | GA deer 2 | Aug 2015_1 | 19.15 | 36.99 | - | -0.213 | -213 | this study |
| JHU-170-2326 | Kidepo buffalo | Aug 2015_1 | 21.50 | 41.49 | - | -0.195 | -195 | this study |
| JHU-170-2327 | Kidepo buffalo | Aug 2015_1 | 22.34 | 43.12 | - | -0.197 | -197 | this study |
| JHU-170-2349 | Kidepo buffalo | Aug 2015_1 | 21.94 | 42.36 | - | -0.197 | -197 | this study |
| JHU-170-2350 | Kidepo buffalo | Aug 2015_1 | 22.19 | 42.85 | - | -0.209 | -209 | this study |
| JHU-170-2322 | MGL-93-10 Shimba Hills elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 19.96 | 38.47 | - | -0.163 | -163 | this study |
| JHU-170-2323 | MGL-93-10 Shimba Hills elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 19.67 | 37.87 | - | -0.152 | -152 | this study |
| JHU-170-2320 | MGL-93-17 Meru elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 19.84 | 38.24 | - | -0.173 | -173 | this study |
| JHU-170-2321 | MGL-93-17 Meru elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 20.52 | 39.58 | - | -0.184 | -184 | this study |
| JHU-170-2315 | MGL-93-7 Aberdares elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 19.37 | 37.30 | - | -0.152 | -152 | this study |
| JHU-170-2316 | MGL-93-7 Aberdares elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 19.67 | 37.88 | - | -0.154 | -154 | this study |
| JHU-170-2345 | NY deer 1 | Aug 2015_1 | 16.95 | 32.75 | - | -0.208 | -208 | this study |
| JHU-170-2346 | NY deer 1 | Aug 2015_1 | 16.84 | 32.52 | - | -0.200 | -200 | this study |
| JHU-170-2339 | UCT 14223 Kgalagadi giraffe#1 | Aug 2015_1 | 22.81 | 44.20 | - | -0.285 | -285 | this study |
| JHU-170-2340 | UCT 14223 Kgalagadi giraffe#1 | Aug 2015_1 | 24.38 | 47.27 | - | -0.298 | -298 | this study |
| JHU-170-2331 | UCT 14224 Kalagadi Wildebeest | Aug 2015_1 | 23.85 | 46.20 | - | -0.279 | -279 | this study |
| JHU-170-2332 | UCT 14224 Kalagadi Wildebeest | Aug 2015_1 | 23.30 | 45.14 | - | -0.281 | -281 | this study |
| JHU-170-2341 | UCT 14285 Addo hartebeest | Aug 2015_1 | 21.04 | 40.66 | - | -0.220 | -220 | this study |
| JHU-170-2342 | UCT 14285 Addo hartebeest | Aug 2015_1 | 19.89 | 38.41 | - | -0.208 | -208 | this study |
| JHU-170-2324 | UCT 1697 Addo elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 20.56 | 39.62 | - | -0.168 | -168 | this study |
| JHU-170-2325 | UCT 1697 Addo elephant | Aug 2015_1 | 20.94 | 40.36 | - | -0.170 | -170 | this study |
| JHU-170-2480 | AA1 Finland Moose #1 | Aug 2015_2 | 15.56 | 30.02 | +0.031 | -0.147 | -147 | this study |
| JHU-170-2481 | AA1 Finland Moose #1 | Aug 2015_2 | 14.97 | 28.89 | +0.031 | -0.152 | -152 | this study |
| JHU-170-2488 | AA2 Finland Moose#2 | Aug 2015_2 | 13.41 | 25.91 | +0.031 | -0.153 | -153 | this study |
| JHU-170-2489 | AA2 Finland Moose#2 | Aug 2015_2 | 13.73 | 26.51 | +0.031 | -0.147 | -147 | this study |
| JHU-170-2486 | CF2 Finland Beaver#2 | Aug 2015_2 | 14.52 | 28.00 | +0.031 | -0.139 | -139 | this study |
| JHU-170-2487 | CF2 Finland Beaver#2 | Aug 2015_2 | 15.35 | 29.62 | +0.031 | -0.141 | -141 | this study |
| JHU-170-2482 | FT1 Finland deer#1 | Aug 2015_2 | 14.65 | 28.27 | +0.031 | -0.140 | -140 | this study |
| JHU-170-2483 | FT1 Finland deer#1 | Aug 2015_2 | 15.43 | 29.77 | +0.031 | -0.150 | -150 | this study |
| JHU-170-2484 | RT1 Finland deer#3 | Aug 2015_2 | 15.14 | 29.20 | +0.031 | -0.143 | -143 | this study |
| JHU-170-2485 | RT1 Finland deer#3 | Aug 2015_2 | 15.42 | 29.74 | +0.031 | -0.142 | -142 | this study |
| JHU-170-2300 | GNP giraffe #1 | July 2015 | 24.46 | 47.28 | +0.04 | -0.188 | -188 | this study |
| JHU-170-2301 | GNP giraffe #1 | July 2015 | 25.56 | 49.45 | +0.04 | -0.204 | -204 | this study |

Table S4.3. Modeled body water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values at RH of 80%, 50% and 30% for animals with a minimum and maximum WEI resulting from a representative range of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of meteoric water from The United States and Finland and from Africa^a

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|-------|-----|--------|-----|-------|------|--------|-----|--------|------|--------|
| -2.7 | -0.2 | 0.006 | 3.5 | -0.101 | 0.3 | 0.002 | 11.3 | -0.162 | 0.7 | -0.001 | 16.6 | -0.189 |
| -2.6 | -0.1 | 0.007 | 3.5 | -0.101 | 0.4 | 0.002 | 11.4 | -0.162 | 0.8 | -0.001 | 16.7 | -0.189 |
| -2.5 | 0.0 | 0.007 | 3.6 | -0.101 | 0.5 | 0.002 | 11.4 | -0.162 | 0.9 | -0.001 | 16.8 | -0.189 |
| -2.4 | 0.1 | 0.007 | 3.7 | -0.101 | 0.6 | 0.003 | 11.5 | -0.162 | 1.0 | -0.001 | 16.9 | -0.189 |
| -2.3 | 0.2 | 0.007 | 3.8 | -0.101 | 0.7 | 0.003 | 11.6 | -0.162 | 1.0 | 0.000 | 16.9 | -0.189 |
| -2.2 | 0.3 | 0.007 | 3.8 | -0.101 | 0.8 | 0.003 | 11.7 | -0.162 | 1.1 | 0.000 | 17.0 | -0.189 |
| -2.1 | 0.3 | 0.007 | 3.9 | -0.101 | 0.9 | 0.003 | 11.7 | -0.162 | 1.2 | 0.000 | 17.1 | -0.189 |
| -2 | 0.4 | 0.007 | 4.0 | -0.101 | 1.0 | 0.003 | 11.8 | -0.162 | 1.3 | 0.000 | 17.2 | -0.189 |
| -1.9 | 0.5 | 0.007 | 4.1 | -0.101 | 1.0 | 0.003 | 11.9 | -0.162 | 1.4 | 0.000 | 17.2 | -0.189 |
| -1.8 | 0.6 | 0.007 | 4.1 | -0.101 | 1.1 | 0.003 | 12.0 | -0.162 | 1.5 | 0.000 | 17.3 | -0.189 |
| -1.7 | 0.7 | 0.007 | 4.2 | -0.101 | 1.2 | 0.003 | 12.0 | -0.162 | 1.6 | 0.000 | 17.4 | -0.189 |
| -1.6 | 0.8 | 0.007 | 4.3 | -0.101 | 1.3 | 0.003 | 12.1 | -0.162 | 1.7 | 0.000 | 17.5 | -0.189 |
| -1.5 | 0.9 | 0.007 | 4.4 | -0.101 | 1.4 | 0.003 | 12.2 | -0.162 | 1.8 | 0.000 | 17.5 | -0.190 |
| -1.4 | 1.0 | 0.007 | 4.4 | -0.100 | 1.5 | 0.003 | 12.3 | -0.162 | 1.8 | 0.000 | 17.6 | -0.190 |
| -1.3 | 1.0 | 0.007 | 4.5 | -0.100 | 1.6 | 0.003 | 12.3 | -0.162 | 1.9 | 0.000 | 17.7 | -0.190 |
| -1.2 | 1.1 | 0.007 | 4.6 | -0.100 | 1.7 | 0.003 | 12.4 | -0.162 | 2.0 | 0.000 | 17.8 | -0.190 |
| -1.1 | 1.2 | 0.007 | 4.7 | -0.100 | 1.8 | 0.003 | 12.5 | -0.162 | 2.1 | 0.000 | 17.8 | -0.190 |
| -1 | 1.3 | 0.007 | 4.7 | -0.100 | 1.8 | 0.003 | 12.6 | -0.162 | 2.2 | 0.000 | 17.9 | -0.190 |
| -0.9 | 1.4 | 0.007 | 4.8 | -0.100 | 1.9 | 0.003 | 12.6 | -0.162 | 2.3 | 0.000 | 18.0 | -0.190 |
| -0.8 | 1.5 | 0.007 | 4.9 | -0.100 | 2.0 | 0.003 | 12.7 | -0.162 | 2.4 | 0.000 | 18.1 | -0.190 |
| -0.7 | 1.6 | 0.007 | 5.0 | -0.100 | 2.1 | 0.003 | 12.8 | -0.162 | 2.5 | 0.000 | 18.1 | -0.190 |
| -0.6 | 1.7 | 0.007 | 5.0 | -0.100 | 2.2 | 0.003 | 12.9 | -0.162 | 2.6 | 0.000 | 18.2 | -0.190 |
| -0.5 | 1.8 | 0.007 | 5.1 | -0.100 | 2.3 | 0.003 | 12.9 | -0.162 | 2.6 | 0.000 | 18.3 | -0.190 |
| -0.4 | 1.8 | 0.008 | 5.2 | -0.100 | 2.4 | 0.003 | 13.0 | -0.162 | 2.7 | 0.000 | 18.4 | -0.190 |
| -0.3 | 1.9 | 0.008 | 5.3 | -0.100 | 2.5 | 0.003 | 13.1 | -0.162 | 2.8 | 0.000 | 18.4 | -0.190 |
| -0.2 | 2.0 | 0.008 | 5.3 | -0.100 | 2.6 | 0.003 | 13.2 | -0.162 | 2.9 | 0.000 | 18.5 | -0.190 |
| -0.1 | 2.1 | 0.008 | 5.4 | -0.100 | 2.6 | 0.004 | 13.3 | -0.162 | 3.0 | 0.000 | 18.6 | -0.190 |
| 0 | 2.2 | 0.008 | 5.5 | -0.100 | 2.7 | 0.004 | 13.3 | -0.162 | 3.1 | 0.001 | 18.7 | -0.190 |
| 0.1 | 2.3 | 0.008 | 5.6 | -0.100 | 2.8 | 0.004 | 13.4 | -0.162 | 3.2 | 0.001 | 18.8 | -0.190 |
| 0.2 | 2.4 | 0.008 | 5.6 | -0.100 | 2.9 | 0.004 | 13.5 | -0.162 | 3.3 | 0.001 | 18.8 | -0.190 |
| 0.3 | 2.5 | 0.008 | 5.7 | -0.100 | 3.0 | 0.004 | 13.6 | -0.162 | 3.3 | 0.001 | 18.9 | -0.190 |
| 0.4 | 2.5 | 0.008 | 5.8 | -0.100 | 3.1 | 0.004 | 13.6 | -0.162 | 3.4 | 0.001 | 19.0 | -0.190 |
| 0.5 | 2.6 | 0.008 | 5.9 | -0.100 | 3.2 | 0.004 | 13.7 | -0.162 | 3.5 | 0.001 | 19.1 | -0.190 |
| 0.6 | 2.7 | 0.008 | 5.9 | -0.100 | 3.3 | 0.004 | 13.8 | -0.162 | 3.6 | 0.001 | 19.1 | -0.190 |
| 0.7 | 2.8 | 0.008 | 6.0 | -0.100 | 3.3 | 0.004 | 13.9 | -0.162 | 3.7 | 0.001 | 19.2 | -0.190 |
| 0.8 | 2.9 | 0.008 | 6.1 | -0.100 | 3.4 | 0.004 | 13.9 | -0.162 | 3.8 | 0.001 | 19.3 | -0.190 |
| 0.9 | 3.0 | 0.008 | 6.2 | -0.100 | 3.5 | 0.004 | 14.0 | -0.162 | 3.9 | 0.001 | 19.4 | -0.191 |
| 1 | 3.1 | 0.008 | 6.3 | -0.099 | 3.6 | 0.004 | 14.1 | -0.162 | 4.0 | 0.001 | 19.4 | -0.191 |

^a Model outputs for the maximum and minimum animalbody water triple oxygen isotopes are also represented in the Fig. 4 and based on the model parameters from Hu et al. *In Prep*

^b Where mw is meteoric water

^c Where bw is body water

Table S4.4: Minimum evaporation modeled data for the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of animals with minimum and maximum WEI index with increasing Relative Humidity (RH).^a

| | <i>Minimum WEI animal^b</i> | | <i>Maximum WEI animal^b</i> | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | Model source water input | | Model source water input | |
| | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) |
| | -7.0 | 0.035 | -7.0 | -0.010 |
| | Model source body water output | | Model source body water output | |
| RH (%) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) |
| 0 | -2.5 | -0.007 | 21.6 | -0.204 |
| 1 | -2.5 | -0.007 | 21.3 | -0.204 |
| 2 | -2.6 | -0.007 | 21.0 | -0.204 |
| 3 | -2.6 | -0.007 | 20.7 | -0.204 |
| 4 | -2.6 | -0.007 | 20.4 | -0.204 |
| 5 | -2.6 | -0.006 | 20.2 | -0.203 |
| 6 | -2.6 | -0.006 | 19.9 | -0.203 |
| 7 | -2.6 | -0.006 | 19.6 | -0.203 |
| 8 | -2.7 | -0.006 | 19.3 | -0.203 |
| 9 | -2.7 | -0.006 | 19.1 | -0.202 |
| 10 | -2.7 | -0.006 | 18.8 | -0.202 |
| 11 | -2.7 | -0.005 | 18.5 | -0.201 |
| 12 | -2.7 | -0.005 | 18.2 | -0.201 |
| 13 | -2.8 | -0.005 | 18.0 | -0.201 |
| 14 | -2.8 | -0.005 | 17.7 | -0.200 |
| 15 | -2.8 | -0.005 | 17.4 | -0.200 |
| 16 | -2.8 | -0.005 | 17.2 | -0.199 |
| 17 | -2.8 | -0.004 | 16.9 | -0.198 |
| 18 | -2.8 | -0.004 | 16.6 | -0.198 |
| 19 | -2.9 | -0.004 | 16.3 | -0.197 |
| 20 | -2.9 | -0.004 | 16.1 | -0.196 |
| 21 | -2.9 | -0.004 | 15.8 | -0.196 |
| 22 | -2.9 | -0.004 | 15.5 | -0.195 |
| 23 | -2.9 | -0.004 | 15.2 | -0.194 |
| 24 | -2.9 | -0.003 | 15.0 | -0.194 |
| 25 | -3.0 | -0.003 | 14.7 | -0.193 |
| 26 | -3.0 | -0.003 | 14.4 | -0.192 |
| 27 | -3.0 | -0.003 | 14.2 | -0.191 |
| 28 | -3.0 | -0.003 | 13.9 | -0.190 |
| 29 | -3.0 | -0.003 | 13.6 | -0.189 |
| 30 | -3.0 | -0.002 | 13.4 | -0.188 |
| 31 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 13.1 | -0.187 |
| 32 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 12.8 | -0.186 |
| 33 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 12.6 | -0.185 |
| 34 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 12.3 | -0.184 |
| 35 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 12.0 | -0.183 |
| 36 | -3.1 | -0.002 | 11.7 | -0.182 |
| 37 | -3.2 | -0.001 | 11.5 | -0.181 |
| 38 | -3.2 | -0.001 | 11.2 | -0.179 |
| 39 | -3.2 | -0.001 | 10.9 | -0.178 |
| 40 | -3.2 | -0.001 | 10.7 | -0.177 |
| 41 | -3.2 | -0.001 | 10.4 | -0.176 |
| 42 | -3.3 | -0.001 | 10.1 | -0.174 |
| 43 | -3.3 | 0.000 | 9.9 | -0.173 |
| 44 | -3.3 | 0.000 | 9.6 | -0.172 |
| 45 | -3.3 | 0.000 | 9.3 | -0.170 |
| 46 | -3.3 | 0.000 | 9.1 | -0.169 |
| 47 | -3.3 | 0.000 | 8.8 | -0.167 |
| 48 | -3.4 | 0.000 | 8.6 | -0.166 |
| 49 | -3.4 | 0.000 | 8.3 | -0.164 |
| 50 | -3.4 | 0.001 | 8.0 | -0.163 |
| 51 | -3.4 | 0.001 | 7.8 | -0.161 |
| 52 | -3.4 | 0.001 | 7.5 | -0.160 |
| 53 | -3.4 | 0.001 | 7.2 | -0.158 |
| 54 | -3.5 | 0.001 | 7.0 | -0.156 |
| 55 | -3.5 | 0.001 | 6.7 | -0.155 |
| 56 | -3.5 | 0.001 | 6.4 | -0.153 |
| 57 | -3.5 | 0.001 | 6.2 | -0.151 |
| 58 | -3.5 | 0.002 | 5.9 | -0.149 |
| 59 | -3.5 | 0.002 | 5.7 | -0.148 |
| 60 | -3.6 | 0.002 | 5.4 | -0.146 |
| 61 | -3.6 | 0.002 | 5.1 | -0.144 |
| 62 | -3.6 | 0.002 | 4.9 | -0.142 |
| 63 | -3.6 | 0.002 | 4.6 | -0.140 |
| 64 | -3.6 | 0.002 | 4.4 | -0.138 |
| 65 | -3.6 | 0.003 | 4.1 | -0.136 |
| 66 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 3.8 | -0.134 |
| 67 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 3.6 | -0.132 |

Table S4.4: Minimum evaporation modeled data for the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values of animals with minimum and maximum WEI index with increasing Relative Humidity (RH).^a

| <i>Minimum WEI animal^b</i> | | | <i>Maximum WEI animal^c</i> | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Model source water input | | | Model source water input | | |
| | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | |
| | -7.0 | 0.035 | -7.0 | -0.010 | |
| Model source body water output | | | Model source body water output | | |
| RH (%) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ (‰ SMOW) | |
| 68 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 3.3 | -0.130 | |
| 69 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 3.1 | -0.128 | |
| 70 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 2.8 | -0.126 | |
| 71 | -3.7 | 0.003 | 2.5 | -0.124 | |
| 72 | -3.8 | 0.003 | 2.3 | -0.122 | |
| 73 | -3.8 | 0.004 | 2.0 | -0.120 | |
| 74 | -3.8 | 0.004 | 1.8 | -0.118 | |
| 75 | -3.8 | 0.004 | 1.5 | -0.115 | |
| 76 | -3.8 | 0.004 | 1.3 | -0.113 | |
| 77 | -3.9 | 0.004 | 1.0 | -0.111 | |
| 78 | -3.9 | 0.004 | 0.7 | -0.108 | |
| 79 | -3.9 | 0.004 | 0.5 | -0.106 | |
| 80 | -3.9 | 0.004 | 0.2 | -0.104 | |
| 81 | -3.9 | 0.005 | 0.0 | -0.101 | |
| 82 | -3.9 | 0.005 | -0.3 | -0.099 | |
| 83 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -0.5 | -0.097 | |
| 84 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -0.8 | -0.094 | |
| 85 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -1.0 | -0.092 | |
| 86 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -1.3 | -0.089 | |
| 87 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -1.6 | -0.087 | |
| 88 | -4.0 | 0.005 | -1.8 | -0.084 | |
| 89 | -4.1 | 0.005 | -2.1 | -0.081 | |
| 90 | -4.1 | 0.006 | -2.3 | -0.079 | |
| 91 | -4.1 | 0.006 | -2.6 | -0.076 | |
| 92 | -4.1 | 0.006 | -2.8 | -0.073 | |
| 93 | -4.1 | 0.006 | -3.1 | -0.071 | |
| 94 | -4.1 | 0.006 | -3.3 | -0.068 | |
| 95 | -4.2 | 0.006 | -3.6 | -0.065 | |
| 96 | -4.2 | 0.006 | -3.8 | -0.063 | |
| 97 | -4.2 | 0.006 | -4.1 | -0.060 | |
| 98 | -4.2 | 0.006 | -4.3 | -0.057 | |
| 99 | -4.2 | 0.007 | -4.6 | -0.054 | |
| 100 | -4.2 | 0.007 | -4.8 | -0.051 | |

^a Model outputs for the maximum and minimum animalbody water triple oxygen isotopes are also represented in the Fig. 4 and based on the model parameters from Hu et al. (*in prep*).

^b Where an animal with a minimum WEI (water economy index) is one that must consume a lot of water in different environments.

^c Where an animal with a maximum WEI (water economy index) is one that need not consume a lot of water in different environments.

Table S4.5. Analytical run data for sessions containing the newly analyzed enamel samples.*

| Date | Rank in run | Analytical ID | Sample ID | Sample Description | Original Phase | Voltage mismatch corrected data | | | Corrected carbonate data | | | Session ID | |
|----------|-------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------|-----------|------------|----------|
| | | | | | | Exclude? | d33 vs ref. R2 > 0.6 | d34 vs ref. R2 > 0.6 | Δ'VO (‰) | δ'VO (‰) | δ''VO (‰) | | Δ'VO (‰) |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12/8/15 | 106 | JHU-170-2597 | 102-GC-AZ01 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | -6.70 | -12.98 | -0.123 | 13.21 | 25.40 | -0.121 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/9/15 | 107 | JHU-170-2598 | 102-GC-AZ01 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | -7.38 | -14.31 | -0.097 | 12.43 | 23.86 | -0.096 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/9/15 | 108 | JHU-170-2599 | 7/2DLR01 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 1.56 | 2.81 | -0.216 | 22.65 | 43.76 | -0.215 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/9/15 | 109 | JHU-170-2601 | 7/2DLR01 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 4.96 | 9.34 | -0.248 | 26.54 | 51.36 | -0.247 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/9/15 | 110 | JHU-170-2602 | 78R060DW1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 3.86 | 7.25 | -0.252 | 25.28 | 48.93 | -0.250 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/9/15 | 111 | JHU-170-2603 | 78R060DW1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 3.58 | 6.70 | -0.244 | 24.96 | 48.28 | -0.242 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 112 | JHU-170-2604 | 21K1DW1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 3.19 | 5.88 | -0.207 | 24.51 | 47.34 | -0.206 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 113 | JHU-170-2605 | 21K1DW1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 1.88 | 3.40 | -0.200 | 23.02 | 44.44 | -0.198 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 114 | JHU-170-2606 | 1H-16-1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 1.97 | 3.46 | -0.180 | 23.11 | 44.51 | -0.148 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 115 | JHU-170-2607 | 1H-16-1 | carbonate | CaCO3 | | 2.31 | 4.11 | -0.149 | 23.50 | 45.28 | -0.147 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 116 | JHU-170-2608 | 63Q2W-333-34A | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | 0.65 | 0.94 | -0.146 | 21.60 | 41.59 | -0.144 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/10/15 | 117 | JHU-170-2609 | 63Q2W-333-34A | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | -0.45 | -1.16 | -0.132 | 20.35 | 39.15 | -0.130 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 118 | JHU-170-2610 | LJ pp421 | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | -2.01 | -4.11 | -0.138 | 18.56 | 35.72 | -0.137 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 119 | JHU-170-2611 | LJ pp421 | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | -2.11 | -4.29 | -0.138 | 18.45 | 35.50 | -0.136 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 120 | JHU-170-2612 | 56Q2-92-95 | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | 1.01 | 1.64 | -0.148 | 22.02 | 42.40 | -0.147 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 121 | JHU-170-2613 | 56Q2-92-95 | lake carbonate | CaCO3 | | 1.35 | 2.29 | -0.147 | 22.41 | 43.15 | -0.146 | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 122 | JHU-170-2614 | VSMOW2-A2-12-02 | water | H2O | Exclude | -15.70 | -30.02 | | | | | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 123 | JHU-170-2615 | VSMOW2-A2-12-02 | water | H2O | | -16.79 | -32.08 | | | | | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 124 | JHU-170-2616 | VSMOW2-A2-12-02 | water | H2O | | -17.59 | -33.59 | | | | | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 125 | JHU-170-2617 | Lake Turkana water | water | H2O | | -15.77 | -30.21 | | | | | Nov 2015 |
| 12/11/15 | 126 | JHU-170-2618 | Lake Turkana water | water | H2O | | -15.68 | -30.02 | | | | | Nov 2015 |

* Samples in each run that are not relevant to this study are in gray-colored text.

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RESEARCH INTERESTS

Evaluation of paleoclimate, paleovegetation and landscape using a multiproxy approach (e.g., isotopes, sediments, paleosols, mapping). Terrestrial response to global climate change. Development and application of methods in isotopic geochemistry to address questions about Earth history, including but not limited to conventional stable isotopes, clumped isotopes, triple oxygen isotopes and utilizing radiogenic isotopes for addressing questions of dating.

EDUCATION

Ph. D., Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore Maryland, expected 2016

Thesis topic: Multiproxy reconstructions of Plio-Pleistocene climate, ecology and environment in the western coast of South Africa and triple oxygen isotopes in tooth enamel.

Advisor: Naomi E. Levin

M. S., Geology, Miami University of Ohio, Oxford Ohio, 2012

Thesis: Climatic and tectonic implications of a mid-Miocene landscape: examination of the Tarapacá Pediplain, northern Atacama Desert, Chile.

Advisor: Jason A. Rech

B. A., Geology, *magna cum laude*, The College of Wooster, Wooster Ohio, 2008

Thesis: Shallow marine paleoenvironments and paleocommunities of the Middle Jurassic (Callovian, Upper Zohar Formation and Lower Matmor Formation) within Hamakhtesh Hagadol in Israel's Negev Desert.

Advisor: Mark A. Wilson

Study abroad, Geological Sciences, University of Oxford, UK, 2006 - 2007

Advisors: Hugh Jenkins and Martin Brasier

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Research Assistant, Teaching Assistant, 2011 - present

Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University

Research and Teaching Assistant, 2008 - 2011

Department of Geology, Miami University of Ohio

Student Advisor, Wiles Wooster Tree-Ring Lab, 2007 - 2008

Teaching Assistant, 2007 - 2008

Department of Geology, The College of Wooster

GRANTS, HONORS AND AWARDS

35th International Geological Congress Students and Early Career Scientists GSA Travel Grant, \$3,500, 2016
Palmer Field Fund, Johns Hopkins University, \$4,500, field and lab work in South Africa, 2014
Palmer Field Fund, Johns Hopkins University, \$2,000, fieldtrip in Patagonia, 2014
Palmer Field Fund, Johns Hopkins University, \$3,000, fieldwork in South Africa, 2012
NASA Graduate Fellowship, Sulfate soils and life on Earth and Mars, \$90,000, 2011 (*declined*)
Phi Kappa Phi, Miami University of Ohio Chapter, 2010
Geological Society of America Graduate Grant, \$2,690, 2010
Miami University of Ohio, Graduate Student Association, \$500, 2009
Geological Society of America, Travel Grant, \$600 each year, 2009 & 2010
College of Wooster, Ohio: Geology Departmental Honors & Independent Study Honors, 2008
College of Wooster Copland Fund, Independent Study, \$2,000, National History Museum, London, 2008
The Robert W. McDowell Prize in Geology, The College of Wooster, 2008
College of Wooster Copland Fund, Independent Study, \$2,000, fieldwork in Negev Desert, Israel, 2007
The Karl Ver Steeg Prize in Geology and Geography, The College of Wooster, 2007
Patricia E. Blosser Scholarship, The College of Wooster, 2005 - 2008
Edward S. Foster Scholarship, The College of Wooster, 2004 - 2008

PUBLICATIONS

Lehmann SB, Braun DR, Dennis KJ, Patterson DB, Stynder DD, Bishop LC, Forrest F, Levin NE, 2016, Stable isotopic composition of fossil mammal teeth and environmental change in southwestern South Africa during the Pliocene and Pleistocene. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 457; 396-408

Patterson DB, **Lehmann SB**, Matthews T, Levin NE, Stynder D, Braun DR, 2016, Stable isotope ecology of Cape dune mole-rats (*Bathyergus suillus*) from Elandsfontein, South Africa: implications for C₄ vegetation and hominin paleoecology in the Cape Floral Region. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 457; 409-421

Braun DR, Levin NE, Stynder D, Herries AIR, Archer W, Forrest F, Roberts DL, Bishop LC, Matthews T, **Lehmann SB**, Pickering R, Fitzsimmons KE, 2013, Mid-Pleistocene hominin occupation at Elandsfontein, Western Cape, South Africa. *Quaternary Science Reviews*, 82; 145-166.

Kirk-Lawlor NE, Jordan TE, Rech JA, **Lehmann SB**, 2013, Late Miocene to Early Pliocene paleohydrology and landscape evolution of northern Chile, 19° to 20° S. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 387; 76-90.

Rech JA, Pigati JS, **Lehmann SB**, McGimpsey CN, Grimley DA, Nekola, JC, 2011, Assessing open-system behavior in of ¹⁴C in terrestrial gastropod shells. *Radiocarbon*, 53; 325-335.

PUBLICATIONS – *in preparation*

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Passey BP, Hu H, Miller JH, Hoppe KA, Arppe L, Hynek S, Cerling TE, *in prep*, Triple oxygen isotopes in bioapatite: modern range, primary influences and potential geological application, Target journals are *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* or *Geology*. Plan to submit in Fall 2016.

Lehmann SB, Braun, DR, Sealy J, le Roux P, Zhu M, Levin NE, *in prep*, Strontium isotope ratios of fossil herbivore and carnivore tooth enamel and the environment and ecology of mid-Pleistocene Elandsfontein and southwestern South Africa. Target journals are *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* or *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*. Plan to submit in Fall 2016.

ON-LINE REPORTS AND CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Kirk-Lawlor NE, Jordan TE, Rech J, and **Lehmann SB**, 2012, Paleolago Tiliviche y sus relaciones estratigráficas y paleoclimáticas, Cuenca Pampa del Tamarugal, I Región, Chile. *Proceedings 13th Congreso Geológico Chileno*, 631-633.

Lehmann SB, Rech JA, 2009, NSF Vignette Online Contribution- Key Concepts in Geomorphology: Soils, relict landscapes and paleoclimate in the Atacama Desert, Chile. <http://serc.carleton.edu/41080>.

PRESENTATIONS – first author only

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Passey BH, Cerling TE, Hu H, 2016, Evaluating aridity using triple oxygen isotopes in tooth enamel. *35th International Geological Congress, Cape Town, South Africa, 27 August – 4 September 2016*

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Passey BH, Cerling TE, Hu H, 2015, Triple oxygen isotopes in teeth: implications for reconstructing paleoaridity. *Geological Society of America Annual Meeting, Baltimore, Maryland, USA, 1-4 November 2015. Geological Society of America Abstracts with Programs*. 47(7); 285

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Braun DR, Dennis KJ, Stynder DD, Bishop LC, Forrest F, 2014, A Plio-Pleistocene record of vegetation, climate, and hydrology in western South Africa using carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of fossil tooth enamel. *4th Southern Deserts Conference, Mendoza, Argentina, November 2014*. Program page 17

Lehmann SB, Patterson DB, Braun DR, Stynder DD, Matthews T, Levin NE, 2013, Regional and landscape-scale Pleistocene paleoecology using carbon and oxygen isotopes from in situ macro- and micromammal tooth enamel at Elandsfontein, Western Cape, South Africa. *Society of Vertebrate Paleontology Annual Meeting, Los Angeles CA, Oct 30-Nov 2, 2013. Journal of Vertebrate Paleontology* 33: Program and Abstracts, p. 161

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Dennis KJ, Bishop LC, Stynder DD, Braun DR, 2013, Trends in climate and vegetation of Plio-Pleistocene South Africa: using fossil enamel isotopic data to address questions of regional environmental change. *Geological Society of America Annual Meeting, Denver, CO, October 2013*. Abstract 187-15. *Geological Society of America Abstracts with Program*. 45(7): 458

Lehmann SB, Levin NE, Stynder DD, Bishop LC, Forrest F, Braun DR, 2012, New tooth enamel isotopic data from the West coast of South Africa and a comparison of terrestrial and marine records of Plio-Pleistocene climate change. *Annual Meeting of the American Geophysical Union, San Francisco CA, December 2012*. Abstract PP51B-2122

Lehmann SB, Rech JA, Currie BS, Jordan TE, Riquelme R, 2010, Climatic and tectonic implications of a mid Miocene landscape: examination of the Tarapacá Pediplain, northern Atacama Desert, Chile. *Geological Society of America Annual Meeting, Denver CO, October 2010*. Abstract 251-6. *Geological Society of America Abstracts with Program* 42(5): 597

Lehmann SB, Rech JA, Currie BS, Jordan TE, Riquelme R, 2009, Redefining the Tarapacá Pediplain; analysis of relict soils in the northern Atacama Desert, Chile. *Geological Society of America Annual Meeting, Denver CO, October 2009*. Abstract 244-33. *Geological Society of America Abstracts with Programs* 41(7): 624

Lehmann SB, Belding E, Wiles GC, Brush N, 2007, Development and climatic analysis of a 465-year tree ring chronology from northeast Ohio. *Geological Society of America Annual Meeting, Denver CO, October 2007*. Abstract 237-6. *Geological Society of America Abstracts with Program* 39(6): 637

Lehmann SB, Wiles GC, Cook ER, 2006, Use of stream flow and precipitation records for validating dendrochronological findings related to climate in Northeast Ohio. *Geological Society of America North-Central Session, Akron OH, April 2006*

Lehmann SB, Wiles GC, Cook ER. 2006. Extending drought-sensitive oak tree-ring chronologies by dating historical structures in Northeastern Ohio. Geological Society of America North Central Section, Akron Ohio, April 2006. Abstract 20-5. *Geological Society of America Abstracts with Programs, North-Central Section* 38(4): 27

Lehmann SB, Wiles GC, 2005, Dendroarchaeology: tree ring dating of historical structures in Northeastern Ohio. *Midwest Archaeological Conference, Dayton, OH, October 20-23, 2005*. Program and Abstracts page 68. <http://www.midwestarchaeology.org/storage/2005Program.pdf>

FIELD EXPERIENCE

Elandsfontein, Western Cape, South Africa, 2012 - 2016

Mapping, stratigraphy, and sample collection for isotopic analysis for Pleistocene paleoecology and various dating techniques

Montana, Wind River and Absaroka ranges, 2010

Miami University of Ohio Field Camp

Tarapacá PEDIPLAIN, northern Atacama Desert, Chile, 2008 and 2009

Landscape mapping of relict and buried landscapes, and collection of Neogene paleosol samples for elemental and isotopic geochemistry, petrography and detrital zircon dating

Negev Desert, Israel, 2007

Stratigraphic mapping and fossil collection for Jurassic shallow marine community ecological and paleontological analysis

Assynt, Scotland, and Pembrokeshire, Wales, 2006 and 2007

University of Oxford field camp

Glacier Bay National Park, Alaska, 2006

Field collection of subfossil trees for Holocene paleoclimatology and dendrochronology

Northeast and Southwest Ohio, 2006 - 2008

State-wide sampling of Oaks from historical structures and old-growth forests for dendrochronological and paleoprecipitation studies

Northern Kentucky, 2006

Outcrop collection for paleontological studies of shallow marine systems

LABORATORY EXPERIENCE

Levin & Passey Stable Isotope Laboratory, Johns Hopkins University, 2011 - 2016

Conventional and high precision stable isotopic measurements and method development, including triple oxygen isotopes and clumped isotopes of carbonates and bioapatites using a common acid bath peripheral and dual inlet mass spectrometer, laser ablation GC/IRMS system and cavity ring-down spectroscopy. Petrographic microscopy of cements and sand for sedimentological description and determination of environmental processes; XRD analysis of fossil enamel to determine mineralogical composition and degree of diagenesis.

Inductively-Coupled Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) Facilities, University of Cape Town, 2014

Clean lab sample preparation for $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ determination in tooth enamel and rocks

Stable Isotope Ratio Facility for Environmental Research (SIRFER), University of Utah, 2013

Training in sample preparation (leaf water extraction, carbonate sampling, CO_2 digestion and glass tube formation), instrument use (IRMS and cavity ring-down mass spectroscopy) and spectrometer peripheral use (TC/EA, GasBench) for stable isotope research in geology, ecology and environmental science

Rech Geochemistry Laboratory, Miami University of Ohio, 2008 - 2011

Off line extraction of carbonate CO_2 and preparation of hyperarid paleosol samples for HPLC and direct current plasma (DCP) analysis

Zoology Microscopy Laboratory, Miami University of Ohio, 2008 - 2011

Electron microscopy (scanning EM: EDAX and BSE), transmission EM, light microscopy sample preparation and imaging

LaserChron Center, University of Arizona, 2009 & 2010

Zircon grain extraction and LA-ICPMS

Wiles Tree-Ring Laboratory, The College of Wooster, 2005 - 2008

Student manager, tree cross-section and core preparation, measurement and analysis of tree ring width

SERVICE

Student Organizer, Annual Geological Society of America meeting, 2015

Session Co-Chair, Annual Geological Society of America meeting, 2015

Session Title: African environments across space and through time: integrating modern and ancient climate data for insights into terrestrial ecosystem dynamics.

Department Representative in Graduate Organization, Johns Hopkins University, 2011 - 2016

TEACHING AND MENTORING EXPERIENCE

Preparing for an Academic Career in the Geosciences. Madison, Wisconsin, Summer 2015

Science Education Research Center (Carleton College) workshop on career development and teaching skills

Johns Hopkins University, Maryland, 2014-2015

Formation of lab course materials and syllabus and attendance at an introductory teaching course "Introduction to Teaching at the College Level"

Student mentor for undergraduates

Johns Hopkins University, sediment description and preparation, protocol development, 2013 - 2015

Miami University of Ohio, sample preparation, gastropod mineral composition and SEM imaging, 2009

The College of Wooster, Ohio, 2005 - 2008

Wiles Wooster Tree-Ring Lab Student Advisor for College of Wooster Environmental Analysis and Action Program and Research Project: Data collection and analysis for dating historical structures in NE and SW Ohio, trained students and community members basic techniques of dendrochronological collection and analysis, designed payment structure and wrote reports for clients during an entrepreneurial study and established a database of tree-ring widths from local Oaks

Teaching Assistant in courses (format is given as Course, the Professor, Date)

Johns Hopkins University, Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences

Introduction to Sustainability, Cindy Parker, Spring 2015

Guided Tour of the Solar System, Bruce Marsh, Spring 2013

Energy Resources in the Modern World, Linda Hinnov, Fall 2012, 2013 and 2014

Miami University of Ohio, Department of Geology

Introduction to Geology, Lab Course, 2009 - 2010

Introduction to Geology, Lecture Course, Brian Currie, 2009 - 2010

College of Wooster, Ohio, Department of Geology

Paleoclimate, Johannes Koch, 2007

Geomorphology and Hydrology, Johannes Koch, 2008