

# Supporting Information Appendix

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**Dataset description.** We compile and review published leaf-lipid  $\delta D$  data to form a compilation ( $n=159$ ) of 76 plant species from 31 sites (1-13). Sites are located within 5 biomes and have mean annual precipitations ranging from 183 mm to more than 1200 mm. Leaf-lipid data derive from living subtropical and tropical plants belonging either to the monocot clade or the two largest dicot clades (rosid and asterid) in ecosystems with discontinuous woody cover and herbaceous understory. We calculate species means for individual sites to remove within-species variability (14). We use modeled annual  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values to calculate representative  $\epsilon_{\text{lipid/water}}$  values because measured  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values rarely accompany published leaf-lipid  $\delta D$  values.

**Salinity reconstructions.** Today, saline-alkaline lake waters in eastern Africa show remarkably consistent trends in major solute compositions of water (15). In closed basins, water chemistry is primarily a function of dissolved  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{CO}_3\text{--HCO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{K}^+$  species (16). The presence of distinctive minerals such as trona ( $\text{NaHCO}_3 \cdot \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) in Bed I lake sediments suggests a similar water chemistry for paleolake Olduvai (17, 18).

Species diversity and composition of aquatic organisms are influenced by the interplay between salinity and habitat availability (19, 20). Fossil remains of two fish taxa (*Clarias* sp. (catfish) and *Oreochromis* sp. (tilapia)) occur in Bed I sediments from about 1.835 Ma (18, 21). Today, catfish similar to those occurring in Bed I sediments (e.g., *C. gariepinus* and *C. lazera*) survive at salinities of up to 20 ppt in shallow benthic habitats (22, 23). Extant tilapias can survive in open waters at salinities of up to 40 ppt (24), but most species reproduce in littoral habitats of between 4 and 5 m depth at salinities of 20 ppt or less (21, 24-26).

In shallow saline-alkaline lakes, salinity is controlled primarily by water level fluctuations over long timescales ( $10^1$  to  $10^3$  kyr) (27-29). Solute balance is largely a function of mineral precipitation and solute diffusion at water-sediment interfaces (30, 31), and we use a conservative solute balance for paleolake Olduvai during deposition of Bed I sediments.

Paleolake Olduvai occupied an elliptical conic basin with high surface area-to-volume ratio (32, 33). Today, closed basins with similar morphology show strong correlations between water level and surface area (27, 34). Stratigraphic evidence in lake-margin deposits suggests a maximum water level of about 5 m (18, 33), which is consistent with fossil occurrences of tilapia (21). During maximum expansion, paleolake Olduvai extended to 15 km in average diameter (32).

Relative lake levels correlate strongly with sedimentary total organic carbon (%TOC) in many shallow lakes in eastern Africa (35, 36). Although this relationship may not be purely mechanistic, in part, low lake levels result in low %TOC values due to selective removal of unstable organic compounds during bacterial respiration and to sediment dilution (36). Thus, we interpret %TOC values as a reflection of relative lake levels.

Reconstructed levels for paleolake Olduvai agree closely with independent records for lake level (lithological and faunal) during deposition of Bed I sediments (18, 33, 37, 38).

We develop a conservative lake-water evaporation model for paleolake Olduvai based on the strong empirical relationship between observed and modeled salinity in modern saline-alkaline lakes (27, 34) (SI Figure 2):

$$S = 55000 (E/D) (0.55/U) (\sqrt{A_L}/D)^{2/3}$$

Here,  $S$  is salinity in parts per million,  $E$  is annual potential evaporation in feet,  $D$  is average lake level in feet,  $U$  is the coefficient of variation for lake area change (about 1.75 for shallow lakes in eastern Africa) (34, 39, 40) and  $A_L$  is lake area in square miles. Thus, based on stratigraphic evidence for average lake level (about 6.5 feet) (18, 32) and area (about 70 square miles) (32, 33) during maximum lake expansion, we calculate a salinity of about 20 ppt for paleolake Olduvai during maximum lake expansion, which is consistent with faunal evidence for salinity (SI Figure 1). Evidence for wave or current action at several localities in lake sediments from central parts of the paleolake Olduvai basin suggest lake levels ranged between a maximum of 1 to 2 m (average depth of about 1.5 feet) (18, 32) during lake contraction with lake areas of about 10 square miles (32, 33); thus, we calculate salinity of about 105 ppt during lake contraction, which is consistent with mineralogical evidence for high salinity during low lake levels (*e.g.*, trona and gaylussite) (18, 32). Overall, reconstructed salinity primarily fluctuates between about 20 and 80 ppt during and is consistent with the range of modern fluctuations in nearby lakes considered as chemical and sedimentary analogues for paleolake Olduvai (*e.g.*, Natron and Nakuru) (15, 18, 39, 40).

**Monthly and regional amount effects.** Amount effects are strongest in tropical regions and function via re-evaporation and diffusive exchange during precipitation events (41). Thus, amount effects are sensitive to relative humidity and precipitation rate (42), resulting in monthly and regional variability (43). Modeled monthly  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values (44) and precipitation averages (45)

for rainy seasons and the climatologically important (46, 47) months that precedes them (February (long rains) and September (short rains)) from 48 stations in central eastern Africa show amount effects of about  $-0.125\% \text{ mm}^{-1}$  (SI Figures 3 and 4). Interestingly, the  $x$ -intercept for short rains is about 10% more negative than for long rains. Thus, amount effects for central eastern Africa are broadly consistent with those for Central America (about  $-0.125\% \text{ mm}^{-1}$ ) (ref. 48) and for tropical and coastal regions receiving less than 750 mm of MAP (about  $-0.145\% \text{ mm}^{-1}$ ) (ref. 49).

**Evaporative balance reconstructions.** Isotopic mass balance for evaporative loss in well-mixed lakes with constant volume is equal to (50):

$$I\delta_{\text{input}} = Q\delta_{\text{outflow}} + E\delta_{\text{evaporation}} \quad (1)$$

$I$  is input,  $Q$  is outflow and  $E$  is lake evaporation. Variables  $\delta_{\text{input}}$ ,  $\delta_{\text{outflow}}$  and  $\delta_{\text{evaporation}}$  represent isotopic compositions of input, outflow and evaporation, respectively. Since  $\delta_{\text{outflow}}$  is similar to the composition of lake water ( $\delta_{\text{lake}}$ ):

$$E/I = (\delta_{\text{input}} - \delta_{\text{lake}}) / (\delta_{\text{evaporation}} - \delta_{\text{lake}}) \quad (2)$$

Values for  $\delta_{\text{evaporation}}$  cannot be measured directly, but fractionation between  $\delta_{\text{evaporation}}$  and  $\delta_{\text{lake}}$  depends on temperature, boundary layer and atmospheric conditions. Assuming negligible resistance to mixing (51):

$$\delta_{\text{evaporation}} \approx (\alpha^* \delta_{\text{lake}} - h(\delta_{\text{input}} - \varepsilon^*) - \varepsilon) / (1 - h + 10^{-3} \varepsilon_K) \quad (3)$$

Here,  $\alpha^*$  is equilibrium isotopic fractionation between lake-water and vapor and  $h$  is relative humidity. The variable  $\varepsilon$  equals the sum of equilibrium ( $\varepsilon^*$ ) and kinetic ( $\varepsilon_K$ ) fractionations. We calculate  $\varepsilon^*$  for deuterium using the empirical equation (52):

$$\varepsilon^* = 1158.8(T^3/10^9) - 1620.1(T^2/10^6) + 794.84(T/10^3) - 161.04 + 2.9992(10^9/T^3)$$

$T$  is lake surface temperature in Kelvin. We also calculate  $\varepsilon_K$  for deuterium (53):

$$\varepsilon_K = 12.5(1 - h) \quad (5)$$

Next, we substitute equation (3) into equation (2):

$$E/I = (\delta_{\text{input}} - \delta_{\text{lake}}) / (-\varepsilon^* - \varepsilon_K) = (\delta_{\text{lake}} - \delta_{\text{input}}) / \varepsilon \quad (6)$$

We calculate the ratio of lake evaporation to input for Olduvai Gorge during arid and wetter intervals. We define  $\delta_{\text{lake}}$  based on reconstructed  $\delta_{\text{lake}}$  values, but must define several other variables based on historical observations:

1. Mean annual  $\delta D_{\text{input}}$  value equals  $-22\%$  (refs. 44, 53-57).

2. Mean annual  $h$  rose to 75% during wetter intervals but fell to 55% during arid intervals (47, 58). Mean annual  $h$  is currently about 65% (ref. 58).
3. Mean annual temperature of 23°C with little seasonal variability (18).

Then, we use equation (8) to calculate  $E/I$  of 2.9 ( $\delta_{\text{lake}} = +59 \text{ ‰}$ ) during arid intervals and 1.3 ( $\delta_{\text{lake}} = +16 \text{ ‰}$ ) during wetter intervals. Values vary by less than 0.5 if mean annual  $h$  is used to calculate  $E/I$ . These values are in close agreement with modeled  $E/I$  ( $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ) (ref. 59) near Olduvai Gorge using prescribed MAP values of 250 mm ( $E/I = 3.2$ ) and 700 mm ( $E/I = 1.3$ ) (ref. 60).

**Uncertainty in  $\epsilon_{31/\text{model}}$  values.** We propagate uncertainty in  $\epsilon_{\text{landscape}}$  values (95% confidence intervals,  $\sigma_{\text{landscape}}$ ) using a linear combination of 95% confidence interval values for individual  $C_4$  graminoids ( $\pm 8\text{ ‰}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{gram}}$ ),  $C_3$  herbs ( $\pm 10\text{ ‰}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{herb}}$ ) and  $C_3$  woody plants ( $\pm 8\text{ ‰}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{woody}}$ ) and modeled annual  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values ( $\pm 6\text{ ‰}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{rain}}$ ) (ref. 60). We account for uncertainty in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{31}$ -based estimates of relative plant functional type abundances (about 20%) (ref. 61) by multiplying respective standard error values by 1.2:

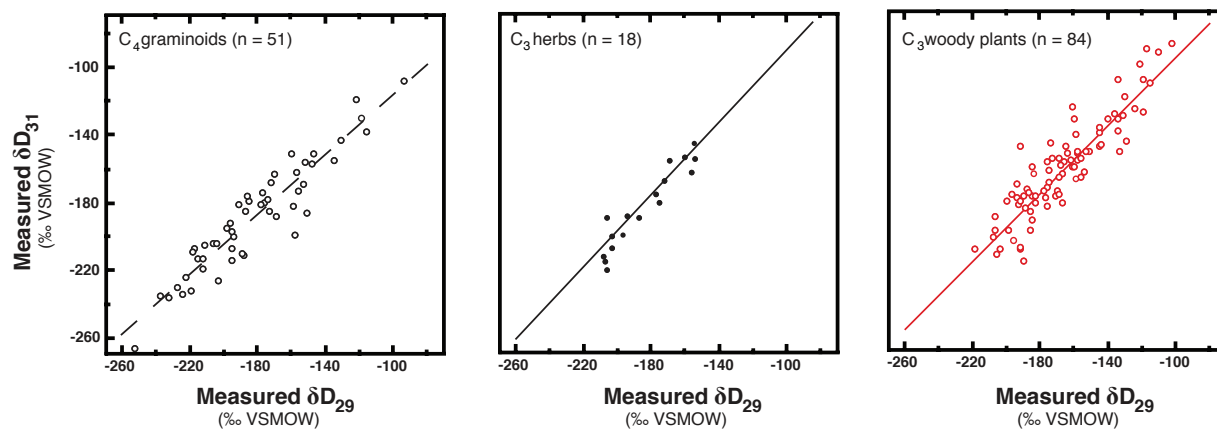
$$\sigma_{\text{landscape}}^2 = 1.2\sigma_{\text{gram}}^2 + 1.2\sigma_{\text{herb}}^2 + 1.2\sigma_{\text{woody}}^2 + 3\sigma_{\text{rain}}^2$$

Thus,  $\sigma_{\text{landscape}}$  is equal to about 20‰.

**Determination of environmental water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values.** In this study, we use a single soil carbonate sample (nodule with sparry calcite) from the eastern lake-margin of Olduvai Gorge that has a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of  $-6.2\text{ ‰}$  (62) to determine  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{rain}}$  values. We assume a mean annual soil temperature (MAST) of 25°C in order to calculate apparent fractionation values for oxygen isotopes between environmental water and soil carbonate minerals ( $\epsilon_{\text{carb/water}} = (R_{\text{carb}}/R_{\text{water}}) - 1$ ) (refs. 62, 63). Uncertainty of  $\pm 5^\circ\text{C}$  in MAST results in about 1‰ uncertainty in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{rain}}$  values.

We determine apparent fractionation values for oxygen isotopes between environmental water and clay minerals ( $\epsilon_{\text{clay/water}} = (R_{\text{clay}}/R_{\text{water}}) - 1$ ) according to bond-type calculations of Savin and Lee (ref. 64) from structural formulas. Our determination of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{lake}}$  values derives from a single sediment sample composed of 97% illite and 3% analcime ( $w/w$ ). Mean annual temperature at Olduvai Gorge during the deposition of Bed I sediments has been estimated as 14–16°C (refs. 18, 62), as compared to about 22°C in the present, and we use 15°C to calculate

$\epsilon_{\text{clay/water}}$  values. Bulk clay minerals show a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of 27.1‰, to which we apply a  $\epsilon_{\text{clay/water}}$  value of 24.8‰.

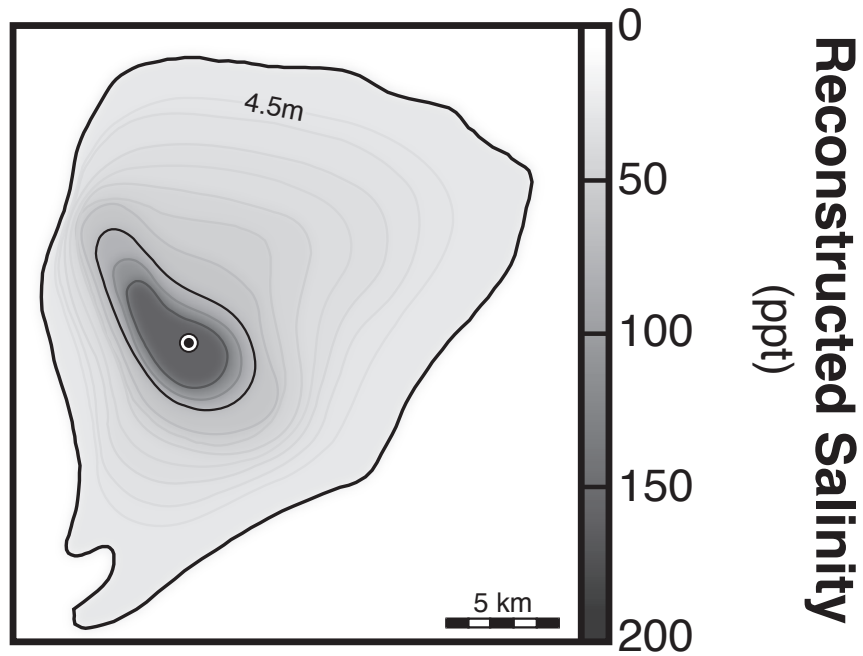


**SI Figure 1:** Published  $\delta D$  values for the lipids  $nC_{31}$  ( $\delta D_{31}$ ) and  $nC_{29}$  ( $\delta D_{29}$ ) (1-13), cross-plotted by photosynthetic pathway and growth habit.

$$C_4 \text{ graminoids: } \delta D_{31} = 0.94 \delta D_{29} - 26\text{‰} \quad r^2 = 0.88$$

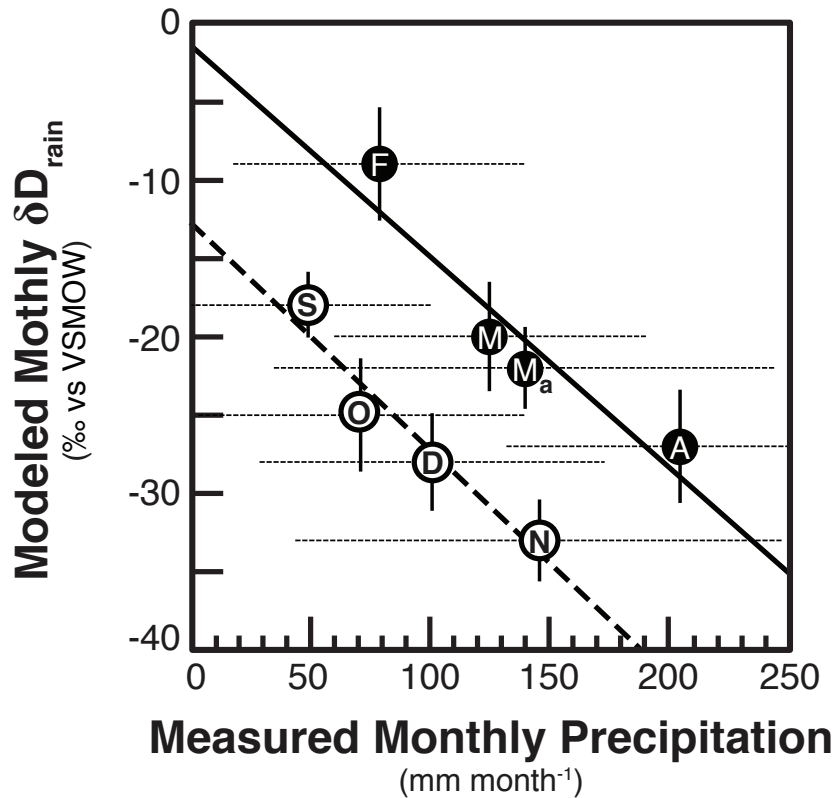
$$C_3 \text{ herbs: } \delta D_{31} = 1.1 \delta D_{29} + 15\text{‰} \quad r^2 = 0.88$$

$$C_3 \text{ woody plants: } \delta D_{31} = 1.0 \delta D_{29} + 1\text{‰} \quad r^2 = 0.81$$



**SI Figure 2:** Bathymetric contours (lines) and reconstructed salinity (shading) for paleolake Olduvai. Bold outlines represent ancient shorelines during expanded and contracted phases (18, 33, 66). Fish fossils constrain salinity to 20 ppt or less during maximum lake expansion (21-26), and we use 20 ppt for our conservative lake water evaporation model. Bathymetric contours occur at approximately 0.5 m intervals.



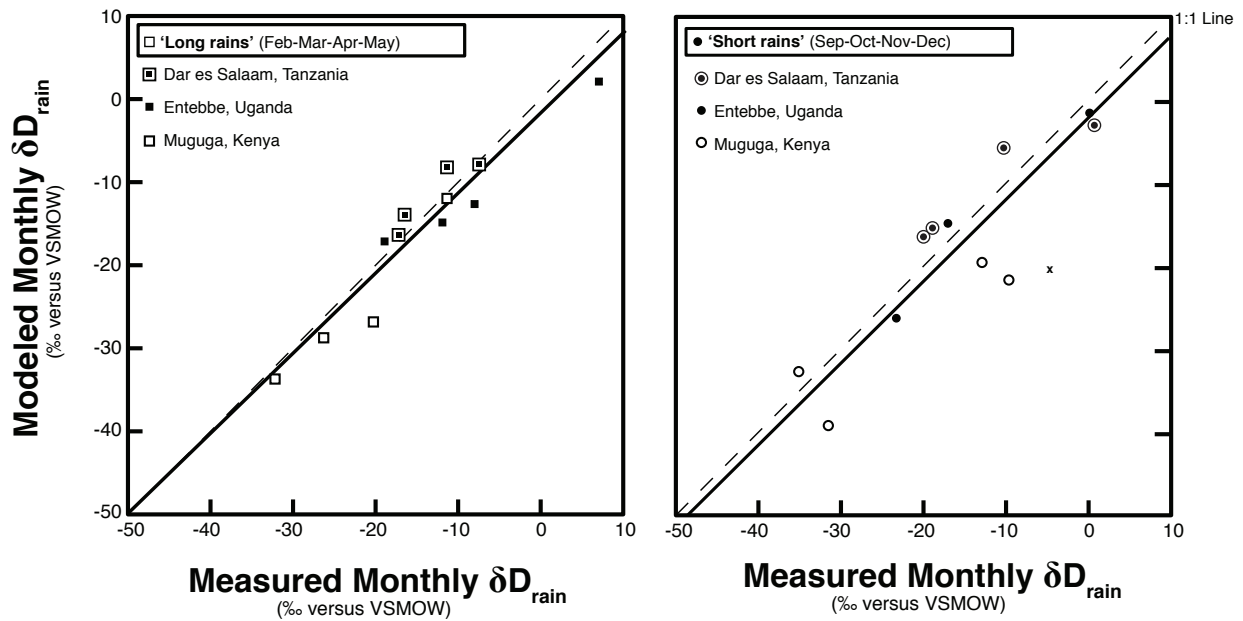


**SI Figure 3:** Modeled monthly  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values (44) versus measured monthly precipitation ( $P$  in mm)(ref. 45) for rainy seasons from 48 stations in central eastern Africa (SI Figure 4). Short rains ( $n=6200$ ) and long rains ( $n=6335$ ) show amount effects of about  $-0.125\text{‰ mm}^{-1}$ :

$$\text{'Long rains': } \delta D_{\text{rain}} = -0.132 P - 2\text{‰} \quad (r^2 = 0.87; \text{ bold regression})$$

$$\text{'Short rains': } \delta D_{\text{rain}} = -0.138 P - 12\text{‰} \quad (r^2 = 0.90; \text{ dashed regression})$$

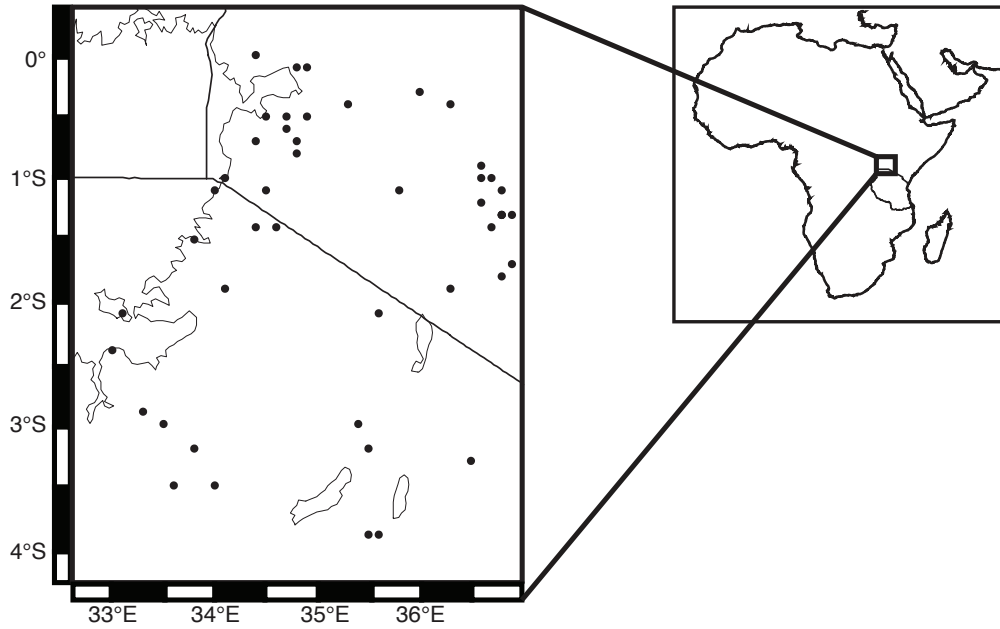
Bold vertical lines represent uncertainty in modeled monthly  $\delta D_{\text{rain}}$  values (95% confidence interval) and dotted horizontal lines represent average monthly precipitation variability. Long rains include the months February (F), March (M<sub>a</sub>), April (A) and May (M); short rains include the months September (S), October (O), November (N) and December (D)(refs. 46,67).



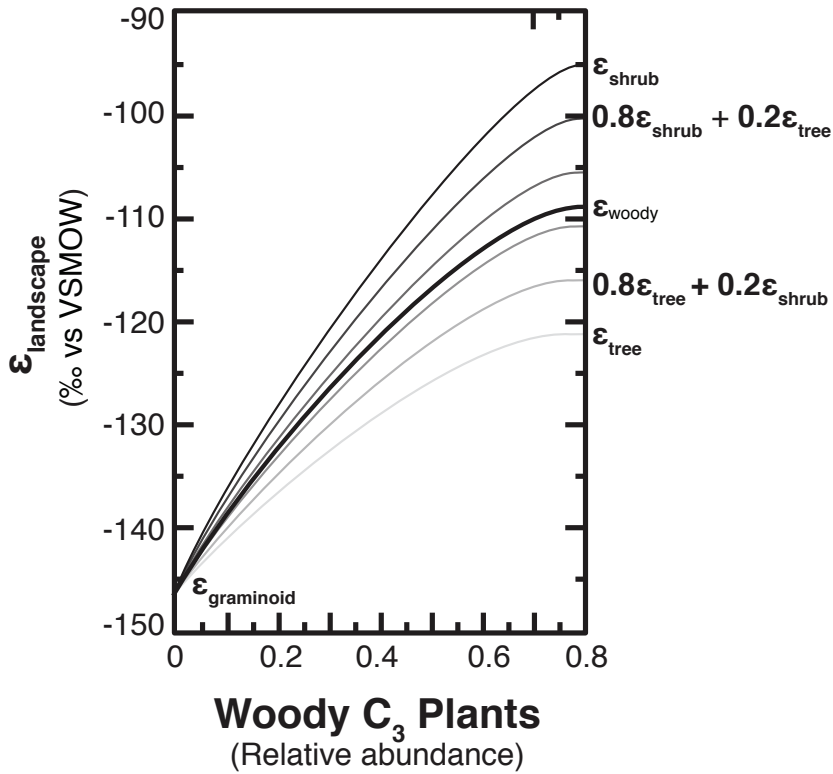
**SI Figure 4:** Measured (65) versus modeled (44) monthly  $\delta D_{rain}$  values for eastern African sites with at least 2 years of rainy season precipitation data (Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; Entebbe, Uganda; Muguga, Kenya). One ‘short rains’ data point (marked x) has been omitted from linear regression analysis because it is an outlier (jackknife estimate).

‘Long rains’: Modeled  $\delta D_{rain} = 0.9621 \delta D_{rain} - 2\text{‰}$  ( $r^2 = 0.91$ ;  $n = 12$ )

‘Short rains’: Modeled  $\delta D_{rain} = 0.9362 \delta D_{rain} - 3\text{‰}$  ( $r^2 = 0.80$ ;  $n = 11$ )



**SI Figure 5:** Geographic locations of the 48 stations used to calculate amount effects for eastern Africa.



**SI Figure 6:** Alternative  $\epsilon_{\text{landscape}}$  values based on modified proportions of trees versus shrubs in  $C_3$  woody plants. We use median  $\epsilon_{31/\text{model}}$  values for  $C_4$  graminoids ( $\epsilon_{\text{gram}} = -146\text{‰}$ ),  $C_3$  non-woody plants ( $\epsilon_{\text{herb}} = -124\text{‰}$ ),  $C_3$  shrubs ( $\epsilon_{\text{shrub}} = -87\text{‰}$ ) and  $C_3$  trees ( $\epsilon_{\text{tree}} = -121\text{‰}$ ) (refs. 1-13).

$$\epsilon_{\text{landscape}} = f_{\text{gram}} \epsilon_{\text{gram}} + f_{\text{herb}} \epsilon_{\text{herb}} + f_{\text{shrub}} \epsilon_{\text{shrub}} + f_{\text{tree}} \epsilon_{\text{tree}}$$

Taken together, the  $\epsilon_{31/\text{model}}$  value for combined  $C_3$  woody plants is  $-109\text{‰}$ . Alternative scenarios yield  $\epsilon_{\text{landscape}}$  values that vary by up to  $15\text{‰}$ , although differences are nominal for relative  $C_3$  woody plant abundances of less than about  $50\%$ .

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