

Climate, Dust, and Fire Across the Eocene-Oligocene Transition, Patagonia**METHODS***Sampling*

The Sarmiento Formation is divided into six members, most of which are laterally discontinuous along the main outcrop (Bellosi, 2010b), along the shore of Lake Colhue-Huapi. Sediments now recognized as the Eocene–Oligocene Vera Member of the Sarmiento formation unconformably overlie the pinkish carbonate paleosol of the Bartonian Rosado Member and clastic rocks of the Priabonian Lower Puesto Almendra Member. The Vera Member is lens-shaped in outcrop, varying in thickness along strike up to a maximum of ~90 m (Bellosi, 2010b). Largely homogeneous in appearance, the Vera Member comprises massive to poorly bedded pale yellow (Munsell 10YR8/2) to pinkish white (5YR8/2) mudstone with rare bentonite beds and paleosol intervals (Bellosi, 2010a). Although root voids and bioturbation are visible in places within the Vera Member, no erosional surfaces are readily apparent. This suggests that deposition was nearly continuous from at least 34.285 to 33.232 Ma (Dunn et al., 2013). The well-cemented, fossiliferous La Cancha bed (~48–51 m above the base of the Vera Member) is a conspicuous, laterally continuous feature in the Vera Member. A sandy deposit containing cross-beds and abundant *Coprinospaera* ichnofossils crops out at the same stratigraphic level as the La Cancha bed ~150 m to the east of the main sampling transect of this study. We interpret this sandy deposit as a fluvial channel facies of the Vera Member.

Samples used for sedimentology and phytolith analysis in this study were taken along a transect through the Vera Member with a stratigraphic spacing of 2–4 m between sampling sites. The transect described here is Profile M of Dunn et al. (2013) and Strömberg et al. (2013), which is one of the thickest and most complete exposures of the Vera Member. Our profile (base of lower section: 45°S 43'21.0026" 68°W 40'58.2018", top of lower section: 45°S 43'36.8287" 68°W 40'55.8461", base of upper section: 45°S 43'39.3468" 68°W 41'13.9796", top of upper section: 45°S 43'40.9270" 68°W 41'10.9880") is roughly equivalent to Profile M sampled by Ré et al. (2010) albeit with a lateral offset towards Profile L, and extends Simpson's (1930) Profile M above the level of the La Cancha interval. Although we did sample the sandy facies in the La Cancha bed (45°S 43'32.2445" 68°W 40'51.9397") as well as in the La Cancha tuff in Profile K (45°S 43.14119' 68°W 42.04163'), we restrict our study to the M profile of Dunn et al. (2013).

For this study, one sample was collected per site. Samples were collected during two field seasons (2009, 2010), with samples from the 2010 season collected to fill stratigraphic gaps between samples from the 2009 season. Magnetic properties were measured on the samples collected in 2009, and major element geochemistry was measured on a representative subset of the 2009 and 2010 samples.

Particle Size Analysis and Percent Carbonate

Particle sizes were measured at the University of Washington Tacoma. For particle size analysis, ~2 g of lightly crushed sediment samples were acidified (0.1M acetic acid) to remove carbonate cements. Carbonate-free sediments were then rinsed with deionized water and dispersed using sodium hexametaphosphate. Particle size distributions were measured on the dispersed material using a Coulter LS-200 laser particle size analyzer.

Acid treatment to remove carbonate allowed us to quantify the amount of (dry) mass lost during treatment, which we used to determine carbonate concentrations.

Phytoliths

Phytolith extraction followed standard methods (see Strömberg, 2004). Approximately one gram of sediment was crushed and treated with concentrated hydrochloric acid to dissolve carbonates. The >250 micrometer fraction was removed through sieving, and the boiled with Schultze's solution (nitric acid + potassium chlorate) to remove any organic material. The sample was further disaggregated through sieving through a 53-micrometer sieve (with fractions >53 microns and <53 microns recombined); clays were removed through repeated washing, centrifuging, and decanting. Biosilica (and other lighter components, e.g., volcanic ash) were separated from non-biogenic minerals (e.g., quartz, feldspar) using heavy liquid consisting of zinc bromide dissolved in hydrochloric acid + water with a specific gravity of 2.38. The biosilica yield was washed and dried out in ethanol and then mounted on slides in a plastic medium (Meltmount) with a refractive index of 1.539. A general vegetation analysis was published for 13 out of the 23 phytolith assemblages described herein (Strömberg et al., 2013). This work demonstrated that Vera samples tend to contain extremely low frequencies of grass silica short cell phytoliths (GSSC), hence it was not considered necessary to analyze GSSCs in immersion oil for the purpose of this study.

Phytolith identification, counting, and analysis followed Strömberg et al. (2013). Accordingly, at least 200 diagnostic phytoliths, namely forest indicator (FI; see below) or GSSC phytoliths, were identified to ensure statistical robustness of the results (Strömberg, 2009). FI morphotypes are typically produced by various forest indicator taxa (palms, woody and herbaceous dicotyledonous angiosperms, conifers, and non-seed

plants such as ferns and lycophytes) (for references, see Strömberg, 2004; Strömberg et al., 2013). The abundance of grass in vegetation was determined as the relative percentage of GSSCs of diagnostic forms (FI + GSSC). We looked further at the composition of FI phytoliths to interpret vegetation type. Because GSSCs were overall so rare in the assemblages from the Vera Member, we did not analyze in detail the composition of the GSSC assemblages. The abundance of diatom frustules, sponge spicules, and chrysophyte cysts relative to diagnostic plant phytoliths from plants, as well as the relative abundance of biosilica from aquatic plants (e.g., sedges) were used to indicate the proximity of lakes or rivers to the sampling site (Strömberg, 2004, 2005).

Magnetic Properties

For magnetic analyses, ~0.2 g lightly crushed sediment was packed tightly into #4 gelcaps along with nonmagnetic foam. Low-field bulk magnetic susceptibility was measured in a Bartington dual-frequency susceptometer at UW Tacoma. Curie temperatures were evaluated using the second derivative (Tauxe et al., 2010) of temperature-dependent susceptibility data from an AGICO Kappabridge KLY-3 at Western Washington University (WWU). Magnetic hysteresis, IRM acquisition spectra, and DC demagnetization curves were measured in fields of up to 1 T using a Princeton Measurements Micromag 3900 vibrating sample magnetometer at WWU. Full hysteresis loops were measured, including initial curves. Hysteresis loops appeared to close in fields $\ll 1$ T, so high-field slope was measured on M-H data above 700 mT. IRM acquisition spectra were measured using a logarithmic step sequence with either 25 or 75 steps and analyzed using both unconstrained and constrained log-Gaussian fits (Robertson and France, 1994; Kruiver et al., 2001; Geiss and Zanner, 2006).

Two factors that are not discussed in the manuscript informed our component analysis and our interpretation of it, although they are not essential to either one. First, hysteresis data imply that the burned loesses contain a mixture of single-domain and multidomain magnetic particles, and that the unburned loess contains additional material we believe to be superparamagnetic. However, loops characteristic of overlapping coercivity spectra (distinctly wasp-waisted, goosenecked, or potbellied hysteresis loops) were not observed. Second, the high-coercivity component recognized in IRM spectra has a higher median coercivity in specimens from the burnt intervals. Indeed, the high-coercivity component has a median coercivity that varies with the IRM magnitude of the low-coercivity component, such that the stronger the IRM of the low-coercivity component, the lower the coercivity is of the high-coercivity component. This is consistent with the interpretation that the low-coercivity component is produced by decomposing hematite.

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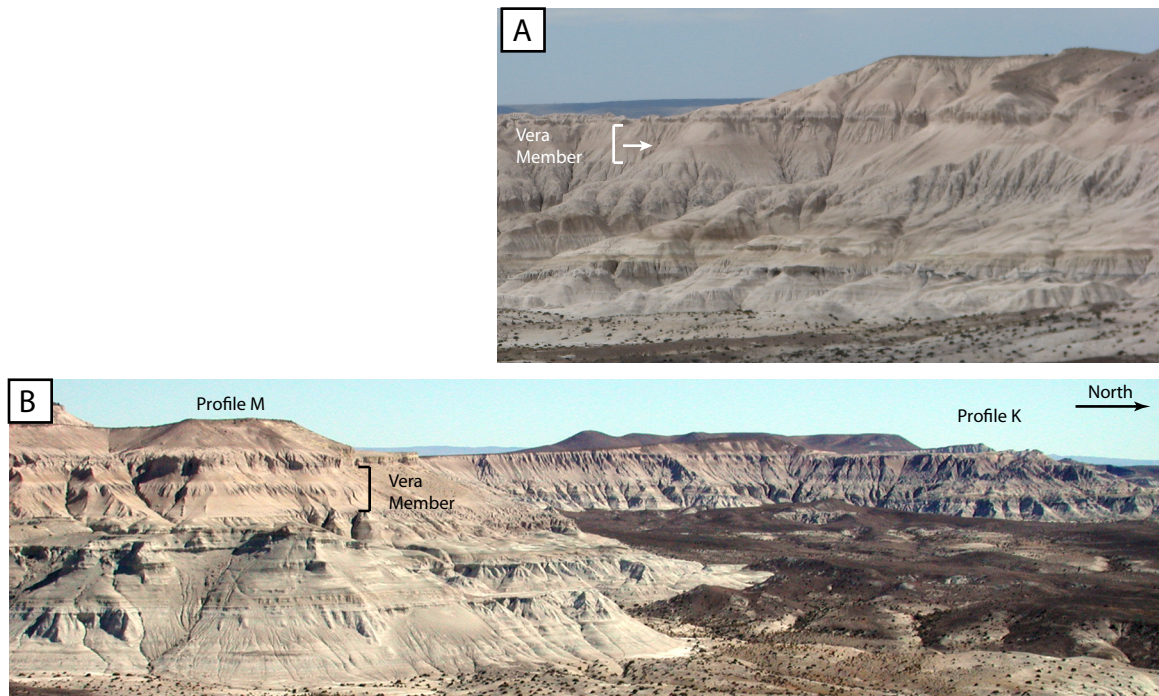


Figure DR1. Exposures of the Vera Member of the Sarmiento Formation at Gran Baranca, central Chubut Province, Argentina. A) The Vera Member at Profile K. Arrow indicates fossiliferous La Cancha bed. B) Vera Member between Profiles M and K looking to the west.

PHYTOLITH TAPHONOMY AND THE VERA MEMBER—WHERE DO THE PHYTOLITHS COME FROM?

Background on phytoliths and wind transport

Once phytoliths have been incorporated in soils they behave much like silt particles and are subject to wind transport, sometimes as far as hundreds of kilometers (e.g., Locker and Martini, 1986; Piperno, 2006; Osterreith et al., 2009). The extent to which phytoliths (and clastic grains) move laterally through eolian processes varies depending on the openness of vegetation. Closed habitats with little wind result in very little lateral movement, hence local deposition of phytoliths, and open habitats where winds tend to be strong result in regional mixing of phytolith assemblages (e.g., Piperno, 1988). Using a new phytolith-based proxy for openness (Dunn et al., 2015), we have inferred that vegetation during Vera time was very open, meaning that it is likely that Vera phytolith assemblages were influenced by long-distance transport of phytoliths throughout the study interval. That said, most studies show that local vegetation will majorly determine phytolith assemblage composition and that local differences in vegetation are distinguishable based on phytoliths, even in open vegetation where wind transport is important (Fredlund and Tieszen, 1994; Alexandre et al., 1997; Barboni et al., 1999; Kerns et al., 2001; Bremond et al., 2005; Osterreith et al., 2009; Mercader et al., 2011).

Are the Vera assemblages dominated by wind-transported phytoliths?

Because the phytolith assemblages of the Vera Member are composed mainly of palm phytoliths, which are small grains, in the 5-15(-20) micrometer size range, we hypothesize that the high abundance of palms may be related to size sorting during wind transport.

Test: To test this hypothesis, we looked at whether the relative abundance of palms is correlated with the relative abundance of the relevant grain size fraction (5-15 micrometers; hereafter referred to as D5-15) in several ways. To account for the fact that the residuals of the data are not normally distributed we square-root-transformed them before conducting parametric statistical tests (Pearson's product-moment correlation) as is recommended for count data (McDonald, 2014). We also performed non-parametric tests (Spearman rank correlation, Kendall rank correlation); in some cases where there were one or more ties in the data, resulting in imprecise p-values using these methods, we also calculated a Goodman and Kruskal's Gamma statistic, which is less sensitive to this problem (e.g., Ritchey, 2007). To compare only samples from the same facies, we excluded PB24838 (47.9 m in section) from the analysis. This sample comes from a horizon, the only one in the Vera Member, with carbonate nodules indicative of a longer period of paleosol development, and it formed an outlier in many of the analyses (see text and Fig. 2). R statistical software (R Core Team, 2014) was used for all analyses.

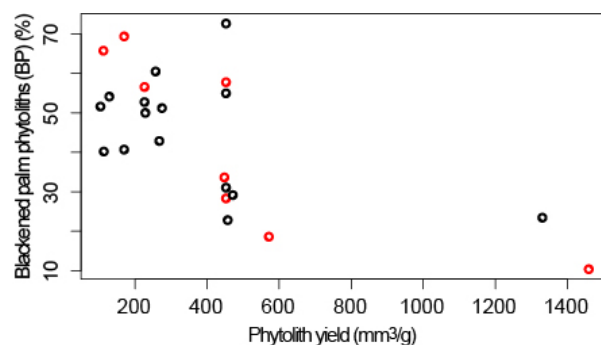
Results: All analyses failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between grain size and palm phytolith relative abundance (DR6), indicating that the assemblage composition is not simply driven by allochthonous phytolith input. Based on this we argue that local vegetation was the main source of phytoliths for all samples.

Is the variation in “burnt” palm phytoliths a result of variation in wind-transport (regional mixing)?

Studies have shown that phytoliths released from burning vegetation directly to the air have the ability to travel very far (e.g., Wallis, 2001; Piperno, 2006). These findings suggest that, in an area with a lot of fire, phytoliths will contribute disproportionately to the aerosol of silt-sized particles (that is, the regional flux of wind-borne phytoliths relative to sediment would increase), and the input of phytoliths in general to a soil would increase as a result. For this reason, we hypothesize that there will be higher concentrations of phytoliths in the soil/sediment (assuming ~constant sediment accumulation rates) in which we find high relative abundances of burnt palms. We also hypothesize that wind regime (wind speed, number of windy days etc.) has a similar effect on the relative abundance of phytoliths released from burning vegetation and the relative abundance of the 5-15 micrometer fraction of sedimentary particles in the soil.

Test: To test the relationship between blackened (“burnt”) palm phytoliths (of the total palm phytoliths) and relative abundance of phytoliths in the soil/sediment, we first estimated phytolith yield as the volume of extracted phytoliths per gram sediment processed (mm^3/g). Specifically, we measured the thickness of the yield in the glass vials and multiplied by the internal area of the vials; note that these estimates are approximate. We then tested for correlation between the relative abundance of blackened (“burnt”) palm phytoliths (BP) and phytolith yield using the same parametric and non-parametric statistical tests described above, again excluding PB24838 (47.9 m in section) from the analysis. As with the analyses of grain size (D5-15) vs. percent palm phytoliths, Gamma statistics were used when there were ties in the data. We further divided the dataset into samples from levels where markers of (weak) soil formation (e.g., root traces) were observed in the field, and conducted the same analyses separately on samples from weakly developed paleosols (SO) and samples from levels lacking any soil characteristics (NSO). Note that the sample size for the SO dataset is very small ($n=7$).

To test to what extent grain size distribution and percentage of blackened palm phytoliths changed in parallel, we also analyzed the relationship between D5-15 (we also studied 30-100



micrometer fraction; data not shown), and BP.

Figure DR2. There is a significant, strong, negative relationship between relative abundance of blackened palm phytoliths (BP) and phytolith yield. Note that samples from levels with weak signs of soil formation

(SO; red circles) and samples from levels lacking these signs (NSO; black circles) span the same range of BP and phytolith yield.

Results: For all samples taken together, phytolith yield is significantly lower in samples with abundant burnt palm phytoliths (DR6, Fig. DR5-1). When samples are split up into levels with some indications of soil processes (SO) and those without (NSO), we found that for NSO samples, there was no significant correlation between phytolith yield and relative abundance of burnt palm phytoliths, whereas for SO samples, a significant, strong, negative correlation exists (DR6). These patterns reject our hypothesis that wind transported phytoliths resulting from regional fires would add extra phytoliths to the paleosols.

What could these patterns instead indicate? The variation in relative abundance of phytoliths in the soils/sediment in general can be assumed to result either from (1) variation in local/regional primary productivity (given that the plant taxa represented in the phytolith record do not appear to change), and/or (2) variation in (eolian) sedimentation rates between samples and with that, variation in the influx of regionally derived phytoliths. Variation in primary productivity would be linked primarily to variation in temperature and evapotranspiration, which depends mainly on precipitation, precipitation seasonality, temperature, and soils (e.g., Churkina and Running, 1998). Current evidence point to relatively stable climates both in terms of temperatures and precipitation/precipitation seasonality from the middle Eocene to early Oligocene (Kohn et al., 2004; Dunn et al., 2015), but the temporal resolution is insufficient to rule out short-term variation. That said, we also see very little variation in the presence of diatoms and other biosilica that would signal a difference in environmental moisture (DR3).

Grain size analysis reveals marked differences in the fine fractions through the Vera section (DR4), pointing to variation in the eolian contribution, and therefore also potentially sedimentation rates. Could this pattern be driving BP? Across all samples, statistical analyses reveal no significant correlation between BP and D5-15, and there is also no difference in the appearance of the finer fractions (silt, clay) in thin section among samples. This in combination with the lack of significant correlation between phytolith yield and BP during times when there is no evidence of soil formation (NSO data) suggests that the percentage of burnt palm phytoliths reflect primarily variation in local (to regional) fire regime, rather than changes in relative input of eolian material.

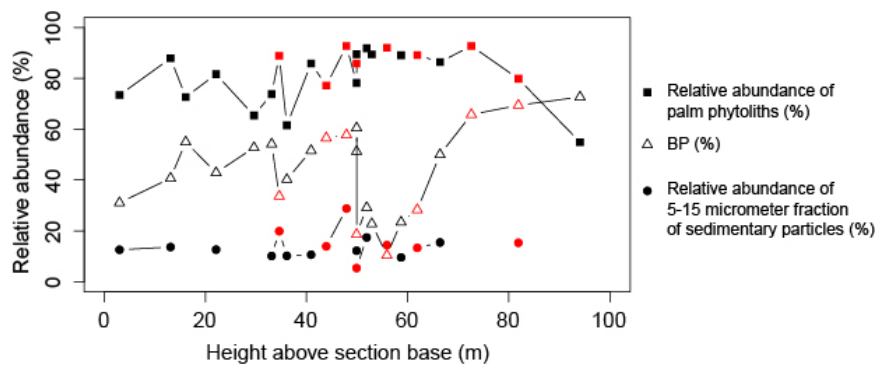


Figure DR3. Relative abundance of palms (% of total diagnostic phytoliths), blackened palms (BP; % of total palm phytoliths), and 5-15 micrometer fraction of sedimentary particles (%) through the Vera Member section. Red symbols = samples from levels with weak signs of soil formation (SO); black symbols = samples from levels without such signs (NSO).

The very strong, negative correlation between phytolith yield and blackened palm phytoliths shows that intervals when sedimentation slowed down enough to promote (some) soil formation coincided with less input of burnt palm phytoliths into the soil. We attribute this decrease in sedimentation rates to changes in wind patterns. One might therefore argue that the change in BP simply reflects less long-distance transport of burnt phytoliths. However, the fact that the shift in BP is clear in both SO and NSO samples (Fig. DR5-2) rejects this hypothesis and suggests, again, that BP records a local-regional change in fire regime. The spread and intensity of fire in modern ecosystems depends strongly on wind patterns (e.g., Linn and Cunningham, 2005); thus, we propose that altered wind patterns after Oi-1 that led to changes in sedimentation also promoted a less intense fire regime across the region.

In sum, the coincidence between changes in BP with variation in magnetite, a locally formed fire proxy, strongly points to altered fire regime in the Gran Barranca (local) area as an explanation of the observed patterns.

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Table DR1. Phytolith assemblage data.

UWBM ² no.	Meter level in section	Age ³	Preservation ⁴	Phytolith morphotypes, rel. abundance of total count (%) ⁶																						
				biogenic silica ⁵	GSSC										Tree cover ⁷	diagnostic forms ⁸			Burnt palm (BP) ⁹							
					Forest indic.											FI-t	FI-t ratio 95% C.I. (%)	Pooideae	PACMAD	Danthonioideae?/ Rambucoidae?	BP=100*PALM _{bu} / PAI M (%)	BP 95% C.I. (%)	BP count size			
					Diatoms	Chrysophyte cysts	Sponge spicules	AQ	PALM	Other FI	CH TOT	POOID TOT	PACMAD	OTHG										NDG	NDO	Total phytolith count
PB18443	3	35.15342	G (alt, fra)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	71	25	0	0.5	0	0	0.9	1.9	422	99.3	98.3-100	CE-1	n.o.	p	31	22.4-39.7	116		
PB18444	13	34.81480	G	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	80	10	0	0.3	0.1	0	1.1	7.5	280	99.2	98.0-100	CE-1	n.o.	p?	41	32.2-50.0	118		
PB18445	16	34.71421	G (alt, fra)	n.o.	n.o.	p	0	71	27	0	0	0.1	0	0.9	1.5	550	99.8	99.4-100	CE-1	n.o.	p	55	45.9-64.0	111		
PB18446	22	34.51305	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	77	17	0	0.3	0.1	0	0	5.5	363	99.1	98.0-100	CE-1	n.o.	p	43	34.5-52.1	119		
PB18447	30	34.26160	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	63	33	0	0	0	p	1.9	2.1	376	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	53	43.6-61.8	110		
PB28470	33	34.144254	G (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0	56	19	0	0.4	0	0	3.2	21	277	99	97.6-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	54	45.9-62.4	133		
PB18448	35	34.09396	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	p	1	86	11	0	0	0	0	0.5	2.1	382	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	p	34	25.0-42.2	116		
PB18449	36	34.04367	G (alt)	n.o.	p	n.o.	0	59	37	0	0.1	0.1	0	1.4	2.5	441	99.8	99.3-100	BI-1	n.o.	n.o.	40	30.8-49.5	107		
PB24837	41	33.882743	G-P (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0	64	11	0	0	0	0	3.2	22	283	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	52	42.9-60.3	126		
PB18450	44	33.78216	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	p	62	17	0.1	0.2	0.2	1	2.6	17	273	98.2	96.3-99.6	n.o.	BI-5	n.o.	57	47.5-65.6	122		
PB24838	48	33.648054	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0.4	81	6.3	0	0	0	0	3.4	8.9	237	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	58	48.3-66.4	116		
PB18451	50	33.581 (La	G (alt)	p	mab	p	0	73	12	0	0	0	0	0.7	14	283	99.6	98.7-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	19	11.5-26.5	113		
PB18452	50	Cancha	G (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	p	0	75	21	0	0	0	0	0.9	2.8	458	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	p?	51	42.4-60.0	125		
PB24839	50	tuff)	VG (alt)	p	n.o.	p	0	79	8.4	0	0.4	0	0	0.8	11	238	99	97.6-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	60	51.6-69.4	124		
PB24840	52	33.569209	G (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0.4	81	7.2	0	0	0	0	0.8	11	237	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	29	21.3-37.0	127		
PB24841	53	33.551524	G-P (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0	77	7.2	0	0.8	0	1	3.8	11	265	97.8	95.7-99.6	CE-1	n.o.	n.o.	23	16.2-30.1	136		
PB24842	56	33.51851	G-P (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0	78	4.7	0	0.8	0.4	1	2.1	13	236	97.5	95.1-99.5	n.o.	SA-2?	n.o.	10	5.17-16.4	116		
PB24843	59	33.49375	G (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0.4	71	8	0	0.8	0	0	1.5	18	263	99	97.6-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	23	16.3-30.5	141		

PB18453	62	33.44069	P (et)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	65	8	0	0	0	0	2.4	24	289	100	N/A	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	28	19.8-36.8	106
PB18454	66	33.39530	G (alt)	n.o.	p	n.o.	0	71	10	0.4	0	0	0	1.8	16	279	99.1	97.7-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	50	40.9-59.1	110
PB24844	73	33.35875	VG (alt)	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	0	76	5.1	0	0.4	0	0	6.7	12	254	99.0	97.5-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	66	60.3-71.2	292
PB24845	82	33.30392	VG (alt)	p	n.o.	n.o.	0.4	63	15	0	0	0	1	3.7	18	272	98.6	96.7-100	n.o.	n.o.	n.o.	69	63.7-75.1	245
PB18455	94	33.23200	G (alt)	p	p	p	0.3	32	17	0	5.8	0.6	2	8.2	34	392	85.0	80.2-89.7	BI-1,	BI-5, n.o.	SA-6	73	64.1-80.3	117

¹N/A = not applicable.

²UWBM = University of Washington Burke Museum of Natural History and Culture.

³Age model, see Dunn et al. (2013) and Strömberg et al. (2013).

⁴G = good-pristine (occluded organic material and fine ornamentation routinely preserved on GSSC; elongates and bulliform cells may be etched or broken); P = poor (occluded material often missing and GSSC commonly broken or etched; elongates and bulliform cells often etched or broken); VP = very poor (phytoliths fragmentary or structurally/texturally altered to such a degree that identification is complicated); alt = altered; et = etched, fra=fragmented.

⁵Semiquantitative estimation: n.o. = not observed; p = present (rare); mab = moderately abundant; ab = abundant; vab = very abundant.

⁶AQ = phytoliths from wetland plants (e.g., *Equisetum*, sedges); other FI = morphotypes typical of forest indicators (woody and herbaceous dicotyledons, ferns, conifers); NDG = non-diagnostic (potential) grass phytoliths (e.g., cuneiform bulliforms, elongate sinuous, echinate, and dendritic, acicular hair base); NDO = non-diagnostic and indeterminable phytoliths. For other definitions, see Strömberg et al. (2013) and text.

⁷Tree cover is estimated using a rough proxy: FI-t = 100*(PALM + Other FI)/(PALM + Other FI + GSSC).

⁸Particularly diagnostic GSSC morphotypes: BI-1 = *Stipa*-type bilobate; BI-5 = simple lobate bilobate; CE-1 = crenate with symmetry A; SA-2 = almost true saddle; SA-6 = saddle-bilobate (Z-axis); n.o. = not observed; p = present; ab = abundant. See Strömberg et al. (2013); full description of morphotypes in Strömberg (2003).

⁹BP = Percentage of palm phytoliths that show clear signs of alteration possibly due to burning (dark centers, black bubbles, "melted" surface). See text.

Table DR2

[illegible]

Explanation of Columns

ID	Specimen ID from PSA filename, fixed so that it contains 3 letters, 2 numbers, a dash, and 3 numbers
Position	Stratigraphic position relative to base of Vera Member
Age	Age (Dunn et al, 2013)
Mass	Mass of sediment in g
Mean	Mean grain diameter in μm from PSA data file
Mode	Mode of grain diameters in μm from PSA data file
Median	Median grain diameter in μm from PSA data file
SD	Standard deviation in grain diameter in μm from PSA data file
CV	CV? of grain diameter in μm from PSA data file
Variance	Variance of grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
Skew	Skewness of grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
Kurtosis	Kurtosis of grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
PC_Sand	Sand fraction (vol % $>62 \mu\text{m}$) calculated from grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
PC_Silt	Silt fraction (vol % $4-62 \mu\text{m}$) calculated from grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
PC_Clay	Clay fraction (vol % $<4 \mu\text{m}$) calculated from grain diameters measured in μm from PSA data file
Xlfreq	Low-frequency susceptibility (mass normalized), in m^3/kg
Munsell	Munsell color
M1	Low Coercivity IRM Component, Magnetization (Am^2/kg)
DP1	Low Coercivity IRM Component, Dispersion Parameter (Am^2/kg)
Bh1	Low Coercivity IRM Component, Median Coercivity (Am^2/kg)
M2	Moderate Coercivity IRM Component, Magnetization (Am^2/kg)
DP2	Moderate IRM Component, Dispersion Parameter (Am^2/kg)
Bh2	Moderate IRM Component, Median Coercivity (Am^2/kg)
PC_CaCO3	Percent carbonate (by volume, %)
Si	Major elements (as oxides) determined by ICP-OES
Ti	
Al	
Fe	
Mg	
Mn	
Ca	
Na	
P	
K	
CIA.K	Chemical Index of Alteration minus Potassium
P_Sheldon	MAP (calculated as per Sheldon, 2002); $\sim 8\%$ 1σ propagated analytical uncertainty
Mr	Saturation isothermal remanent magnetization (typically magnetized in 1T; Am^2)
Ms	Saturation moment (Am^2)
Mr.Ms	Squareness ratio, Mr/Ms
Hc	Bulk Coercivity (T)
Hcr	Coercivity of remanence (T)
Hcr.Hc	Coercivity ratio, Hcr/Hc
Xi	Initial magnetic susceptibility (Am^2/T)
Xhf	High-field magnetic susceptibility (Am^2/T)

; (e.g. ARG10-001 or SGB09-117)

Table DR3. Testing hypotheses relating phytolith assemblage composition with different measurements of sediment transport.

Hypothesis	Metrics to be compared	Data	# samples	Data transformation	Test	p-value	Correlation coefficient
Relative abundance of palms in phytolith assemblages is correlated with relative abundance of fine sediment particles	PALM/(PALM+Other FI+GSSC) (%) vs. relative abundance of 5-15 micrometer sedimentary particles (%)	All samples with phytolith and grain size information (excluding fluvial facies)	16*	Square-root	Pearson's product-moment correlation	0.3065	0.2729
				None	Spearman rank correlation**	0.1229	0.4029
				None	Kendall's rank correlation**	0.0961	0.3167
				None	Gamma statistic	N/A	0.3167
Relative abundance of blackened palm phytoliths is correlated with relative abundance of fine sediment particles	BP (%) vs. relative abundance of 5-15 micrometer sedimentary particles (%)	All samples with phytolith and grain size information (excluding fluvial facies)	16*	Square-root	Pearson's product-moment correlation	0.5139	0.1762
				None	Spearman rank correlation	0.6968	0.1059
				None	Kendall's rank correlation	0.6901	0.0833
Phytolith yield is correlated with relative abundance of blackened palm phytoliths	Phytolith yield (mm ³ /g) vs. BP (%)	All samples with phytolith and grain size information (excluding fluvial facies)	22*	Square-root	Pearson's product-moment correlation	0.0001	-0.7314
				None	Spearman rank correlation**	0.0014	-0.6380
				None	Kendall's rank correlation**	0.0017	-0.4891
				None	Gamma statistic	N/A	-0.4978
		NSO sample subset	14	Square-root	Pearson's product-moment correlation	0.0573	-0.5007
				None	Spearman rank correlation**	0.1668	-0.3763
				None	Kendall's rank correlation**	0.2328	-0.2319
				None	Gamma statistic	N/A	-0.2353
		SO sample subset	7*	Square-root	Pearson's product-moment correlation	0.0017	-0.9395
				None	Spearman rank correlation**	0.0028	-0.9643
				None	Kendall's rank correlation**	0.0028	-0.9048
				None	Gamma statistic	N/A	-0.9048

BP = relative abundance of blackened palms, see Table DR1; NSO = samples with no indications of soil formation; SO = samples from levels with clear indications of soil formation (root traces, burrows and other trace fossils, nodules); * = sample PB24838 excluded; ** = one or more ties present in data, resulting in inexact p-values. For other abbreviations, see Table DR1.