



Influence of deep-water derived isoprenoid tetraether lipids on the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer in the Mediterranean Sea

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Abstract

The $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer based on isoprenoid glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (isoGDGTs) has widely been applied in various marine settings to reconstruct past sea surface temperatures (SSTs). However, it still remains uncertain how well this proxy reconstructs annual mean SSTs. Here, we assess environmental factors governing the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer in the Mediterranean Sea, by studying the distribution of isoGDGTs in surface sediments, suspended particulate matter (SPM), and two sediment cores. A redundancy analysis using the fractional abundance of the six major isoGDGTs indicates that the sedimentary isoGDGTs are mostly influenced by three environmental factors explaining a large part (74%) of the variance in isoGDGT distribution. In order of decreasing significance, these factors are annual mean SST, continental organic matter input as indicated by the BIT index, and water depth. However, when considering only the four isoGDGTs that are used for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy, water depth is the most significant parameter, explaining 63% of the variance. Indeed, a strong positive relationship between water depth and $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ is observed in both surface sediments and SPM from the Mediterranean Sea. This is driven by an increase in fractional abundances of GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer and a decrease in the fractional abundances of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 with increasing water depth, leading to a bias to higher temperatures of $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ in deep-water surface sediments. The fact that the water-depth trend is also apparent in SPM suggests that this change might be due to a change in thaumarchaeotal community thriving below surface mixed-layer waters and that this signal is, at least partly, incorporated into sedimentary isoGDGTs. Interestingly, surface-sediment $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values from >1000 m water depth do not show a correlation with water depth anymore and instead are correlated to annual mean SSTs. A composite deep-water $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ dataset of surface sediments from both the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea, interconnected regional restricted basins with relatively high bottom-water temperatures and high salinity, forms a distinctive correlation line, statistically distinct from that of the general global correlation. Application of this correlation on two sedimentary

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records from the western Mediterranean Sea covering the last deglaciation yields SSTs nearly identical to those obtained with the U_{37}^K paleothermometer, whereas the global calibration substantially overestimates SSTs. Our results show that the warm bias of the TEX_{86}^H proxy in the Mediterranean Sea is not due to seasonality, as previously suggested. Further research is needed to elucidate the mechanism behind the strong water depth trend of TEX_{86}^H in the Mediterranean Sea which is not apparent in open ocean settings.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Thaumarchaeota, formerly known as Group I Crenarchaeota (e.g., Brochier-Armanet et al., 2008; Spang et al., 2010), produce membrane-spanning isoprenoid glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (isoGDGTs). There are different types of isoGDGTs containing 0 to 3 cyclopentane moieties (GDGT-0 to GDGT-3; Fig. 1) and crenarchaeol, which in addition to 4 cyclopentane moieties has a cyclohexane moiety (Schouten et al., 2000; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002). Relatively small quantities of a regio-isomer of crenarchaeol are also biosynthesized. Schouten et al. (2002) found that the number of cyclopentane moieties in marine sediments increased with rising sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and introduced the TEX_{86} (TetraEther indeX of tetraethers consisting of 86 carbon atoms) as a SST proxy. Subsequently, this proxy has slightly been modified as TEX_{86}^H , i.e., defined as the logarithmic function of TEX_{86} , for (sub)tropical oceans and greenhouse periods,

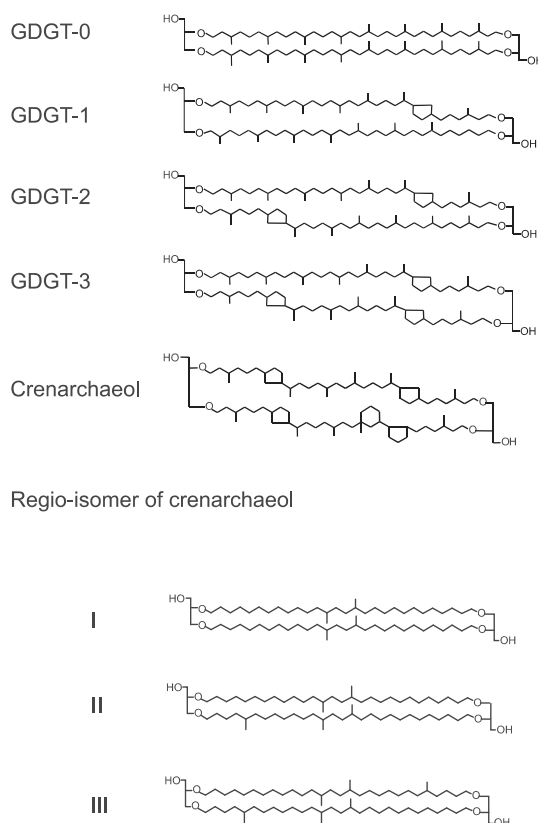


Fig. 1. Structures of isoprenoid and branched GDGTs used in this study.

and as TEX_{86}^L , with a logarithmic function that does not include the crenarchaeol regio-isomer, for (sub)polar oceans (Kim et al., 2010a). On a global scale, both TEX_{86}^H and TEX_{86}^L correlate well with annual mean SSTs (Kim et al. 2010a) as well as with depth-integrated annual mean temperatures from 0 to 200 m water depth (Kim et al., 2012a,b). Mesocosm experiments confirmed that Thaumarchaeota changed their membrane composition with growth temperature and showed that changes in salinity and nutrients do not substantially affect the temperature signal (Wuchter et al., 2004; Schouten et al., 2007a).

Although applications of the isoGDGT-based temperature proxies in various marine sediment core sites have shown their potential, especially where the application of other proxies was limited (e.g., Schouten et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2009; Littler et al., 2011; Bijl et al., 2013), it still remains uncertain how well these proxies reconstruct annual mean SSTs due to several complicating factors (Pearson and Ingalls, 2013; Schouten et al., 2013 and references therein). In particular, it has been shown that Thaumarchaeota, the major producer of the isoGDGT membrane lipids in the marine water-column, are not light-dependent as they use ammonia as their energy source, i.e., they are chemoautotrophs (e.g., Wuchter et al., 2003; Herndl et al., 2005; Könneke et al., 2005). Hence, they occur throughout the water-column (e.g., Karner et al., 2001; Herndl et al., 2005) and in the underlying sediments (e.g., Francis et al., 2005; Dang et al., 2013). Several studies for both modern conditions (e.g., Huguet et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Jia et al., 2012) and paleoenvironments (e.g., Lopes dos Santos et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2012a,b) have actually shown that isoGDGT-based temperature proxies in some regions may better reflect subsurface temperatures (ca. 30–200 m water depth) rather than annual mean SSTs (upper mixed layer of ca. 30 m). Furthermore, the $\Delta^{14}C$ of isoGDGTs have demonstrated that the deep-water residing Thaumarchaeota, i.e., below the euphotic zone, may have the potential to substantially contribute to sedimentary isoGDGTs (Pearson et al., 2001; Smittenberg et al., 2004; Ingalls et al., 2006; Shah et al., 2008). Recently, Taylor et al. (2013) have suggested that Thaumarchaeota thriving in the deeper, bathypelagic water-column (>1000 m water depth) are responsible for increased contributions of GDGT-2 over GDGT-3 to sedimentary isoGDGTs. Consequently, they have argued that the contribution of deep-water derived isoGDGTs may cause a warm bias of isoGDGT-based temperature proxies. Therefore, it is timely to constrain other environmental factors rather than just annual mean SSTs that control isoGDGT distributions and thus influence the isoGDGT-based temperature proxies.

The Mediterranean Sea is a marginal, landlocked sea and shows a rapid and amplified response to climate changes (e.g., Rohling et al., 2002; Kotthoff et al., 2008; Marino et al., 2009). Some previous studies in this region showed that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs were generally higher than those of U_{37}^{K} , an organic-based SST proxy based on the ratio of long-chain diunsaturated and triunsaturated alkenones produced by Haptophyte algae (Brassell et al., 1986; Prahl and Wakeham, 1987), likely because the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ record was predominantly skewed toward reconstructed temperatures warmer than annual mean SSTs (Castañeda et al., 2010; Leider et al., 2010; Huguet et al., 2011; Grauel et al., 2013; Nieto-Moreno et al., 2013). In contrast, Menzel et al. (2006) showed that U_{37}^{K} -based SSTs were virtually constant while $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -based SST estimates decreased substantially during Pliocene sapropel deposition, an interval of strong (upper) water-column stratification. They attributed the difference to Thaumarchaeota thriving at depths corresponding to the deep and cold chemocline. Hence, it appears that the Mediterranean Sea is an ideal test-bed to assess whether environmental factors other than annual mean SST control the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer.

In this study, we investigated a large number of new core-top samples ($n = 146$) and six suspended particulate matter (SPM) samples collected from shallow- and deep-water masses at three different stations in the Mediterranean Sea. In addition, we analyzed two gravity cores from the Alboran Sea, the westernmost Mediterranean Sea, which cover the last 20 kyr (thousand years) (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). Based on the integration of these new data with previously published data, we assess the influence of environmental factors such as SSTs, continental-derived organic matter input, water depth, and primary productivity on the isoGDGT distributions. Our study sheds light on applicability of the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer in the Mediterranean Sea and potentially other deep restricted basins.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Sample collection and environmental data acquisition

Mediterranean core-tops analyzed in this study ($n = 146$) were mostly collected using box- and multi-corers from a variety of locations and different water depths (Fig. 2, Appendix 1). They represent the uppermost surface sediments with a depth from 0 to 2 cm. The core-top samples from the Gulf of Lions were retrieved through several French (River dominated Ocean Margins) and international (European Margin Strata Formation and Hotspot Ecosystem Research on the Margins of European Seas) research programs. The samples from the Balearic Sea were collected at sites situated northwest of Balearic Island and southwest of Mallorca Island during the cruise IDEA with R/V Garcia del Cid in 2004 and the rest of the samples during the R/V Meteor cruise M51/3 in 2001.

Six SPM samples were taken at three different stations during the Bonifacio2011 and MAMBA_C 2011 cruises with R/V URANIA between 14 and 29 March 2011 and between 9 and 22 September 2011, respectively (Fig. 2,

Appendix 2). They were collected at water depths of 50 m and 2000–3000 m (Fig. 2). To collect SPM, 170 to 240 L of water at 50 m water depth and 3400 to 5000 L of water at 2000–3000 m water depths were filtered over ashed glass-fiber filters (Whatman GF-F, 0.7 μm pore size, 142 mm diameter) with a McLane in-situ pump system (WTS 6-1-142LV, McLane Labs, Falmouth, MA) installed in a conductivity, temperature, and depth (CTD) rosette frame. Even though the nominal pore size of the filters is larger than thaumarchaeotal cells (typically $<0.6 \mu\text{m}$; Könneke et al., 2005), previous studies have shown that the concentration profiles of isoGDGTs obtained from 0.7 μm filters correspond well with those of thaumarchaeotal DNA obtained from 0.2 μm filters and that isoGDGT distributions are likely representative (e.g., Herfort et al., 2007; Schouten et al., 2012).

We also analyzed two gravity cores 434G and 293G (Fig. 2A). Core 434G (252.5 cm long; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014) was retrieved in the West Alboran Sea ($36^{\circ}12.313 \text{ N}$, $4^{\circ}18.735 \text{ W}$; 1108 m water depth) during the Training Through Research (TTR) 17 cruise with the R/V Professor Logachev. Core 293G (402 cm long; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014) was recovered from the East Alboran Sea ($36^{\circ}10.414 \text{ N}$, $2^{\circ}45.280 \text{ W}$; 1840 m water depth) during the TTR 12 cruise with the R/V Professor Logachev.

Following the study by Kim et al. (2010a), SST data for each core-top sampling site were retrieved from the NSIPP (NASA Seasonal-to-Interannual Prediction Project) AVHRR (Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer) 9.28 km resolution monthly Pathfinder + Erosion SST climatology dataset for the period of 1985 to 1995 from the Physical Oceanography Distributed Active Archive Center at NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, CA (Casey and Cornillon, 1999). We used 10-yr average values of the annual mean climatology SST data to explore the relationship of the isoGDGT distributions with SSTs. In addition, annual mean temperatures from different water depths were obtained from the World Ocean Atlas 13 (WOA13) dataset (Locarnini et al., 2013). Depth-weighted annual mean temperatures from 0 to 200 m water depth were calculated following to the approach by Kim et al. (2008).

Primary productivity data used were monthly mean sets of the vertically generalized production model data (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) retrieved from Oregon State University (site: <http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/index.php>).

2.2. Lipid extraction and purification procedure

Core-top and down-core sediments (1–5 g) were freeze-dried and homogenized with a mortar and a pestle. The sediments were extracted by Dionex™ accelerated solvent extraction (DIONEX ASE 200) using a mixture of dichloromethane (DCM):methanol (MeOH) (9:1, v:v) at a temperature of 100 °C and a pressure of $7.6 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$. The supernatants were combined, the solvents were removed by rotary evaporation, and the extracts were taken up in DCM and blown down under a stream of nitrogen.

Freeze-dried SPM samples were first saponified by refluxing for 1 h with 1 M KOH in MeOH (96%). After

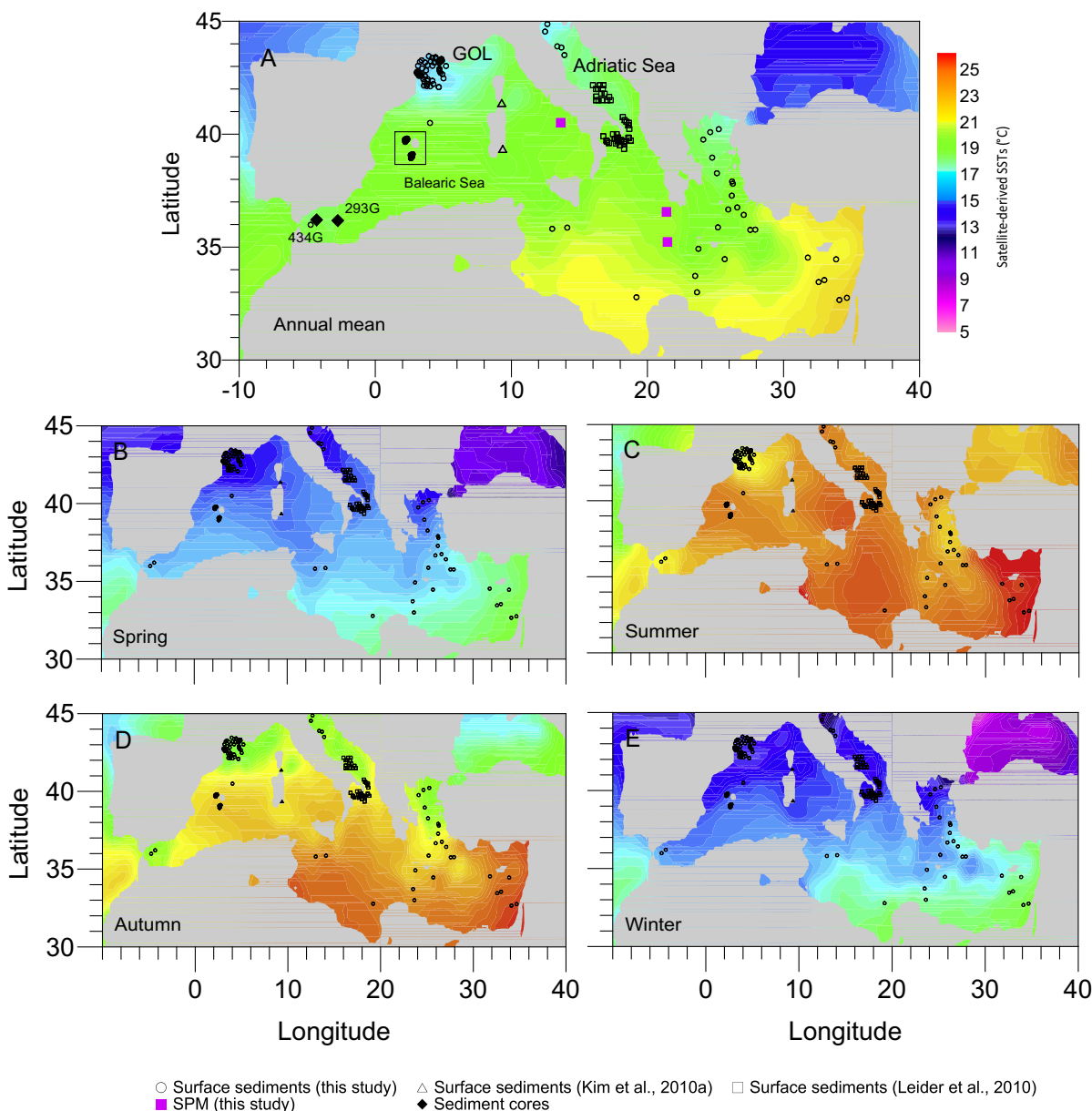


Fig. 2. Spatial distribution pattern of the 10-yr average satellite-derived SSTs in the Mediterranean Sea (based on data from Casey and Cornillon, 1999): (A) annual mean, (B) spring (March–May), (C) summer (June–August), (D) autumn (September–November), and (E) winter (December–February). Black open circles indicate newly analyzed core-tops in this study and open triangles and squares show the positions of the core-tops previously analyzed by Kim et al. (2010a) and Leider et al. (2010), respectively. Three filled purple squares indicate the SPM sampling sites. Two filled diamonds show the sediment core positions (cores 434G and 293G) considered in this study. GOL indicates the Gulf of Lions. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

cooling, solvents were neutralized using 4 M HCl:MeOH (1:1, v:v) and transferred to separatory funnels containing bidistilled H₂O. Subsequently, filters were extracted using MeOH:H₂O (1:1, v:v), MeOH, and DCM (3×) and all solvents were collected in the separatory funnels. The DCM layers were separated from the H₂O:MeOH layers and the remaining H₂O:MeOH layers were extracted (3×) with DCM. The DCM extracts were combined for the different samples, and rotary evaporated to near dryness. Thereafter, both filters and obtained extracts were saponified again, this time by refluxing for 3 h with 4 M HCl:MeOH (1:1,

v:v). After cooling, the solvents were neutralized using 1 M KOH. For the saponified filters, the solvents were again transferred to separatory funnels containing bidistilled H₂O. Subsequently, filters were extracted using MeOH:H₂O (1:1, v:v), MeOH, and DCM (3×) and all solvents were collected in the separatory funnels. The DCM layers were separated from the H₂O:MeOH layers and the remaining H₂O:MeOH layers were extracted (3×) with DCM. The DCM extracts were combined for the different samples and rotary evaporated to near dryness. For the saponified extracts, bidistilled H₂O was added and the

H₂O:MeOH layers were extracted (4×) with DCM. All extracts were combined for the different samples, eluted in DCM over pipette-columns containing Na₂SO₄ to remove remaining salts and H₂O, and dried under N₂.

The total extracts were separated by Al₂O₃ column chromatography using hexane:DCM (9:1, v:v), hexane:DCM (1:1, v:v), and DCM:MeOH (1:1, v:v) as subsequent eluents. The polar (DCM:MeOH) fractions were concentrated under N₂, dissolved in hexane:propanol (99:1, v:v), and filtered using a 0.4 μm PTFE filter prior to injection.

2.3. GDGT analysis and temperature estimation

All GDGT analyses were conducted at NIOZ. The filtered polar fractions were analyzed using high performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure positive ion chemical ionization-mass spectrometry (Agilent Technologies 1100 series, Palo-Alto, CA, USA) equipped with an auto-injector and Chemstation chromatography manager software. Separation was achieved on a Prevail Cyano column (2.1 × 150 mm, 3 μm; Alltech, Deerfield, IL, USA), maintained at 30 °C. Injection volumes varied from 1 to 20 μl. GDGTs were eluted isocratically with 99% A and 1% B for 5 min, followed by a linear gradient to 1.8% B in 45 min, where A = hexane and B = propanol. Flow rate was 0.2 ml min⁻¹. After each analysis the column was cleaned by back-flushing hexane:propanol (90:10, v:v) at 0.2 ml min⁻¹ for 10 min. GDGTs were detected by single ion monitoring of their [M+H]⁺ ions (dwell time 237 ms) (Schouten et al., 2007b). Fractional abundances of each isoGDGT component were obtained by normalizing each peak area to the summed area of all six isoGDGTs.

The TEX₈₆^H (Kim et al., 2010a) and the BIT (Branched and Isoprenoid Tetraether) index (Hopmans et al., 2004), a proxy for input of continental-derived GDGTs were calculated as follows:

$$\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}} = \log \left(\frac{[\text{GDGT-2}] + [\text{GDGT-3}] + [\text{Cren}']}{[\text{GDGT-1}] + [\text{GDGT-2}] + [\text{GDGT-3}] + [\text{Cren}']} \right) = \log(\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{BIT index} = \frac{[\text{I}] + [\text{II}] + [\text{III}]}{[\text{I}] + [\text{II}] + [\text{III}] + [\text{Cren}]} \quad (2)$$

GDGT-1, GDGT-2, and GDGT-3 indicate isoGDGTs containing 1, 2, and 3 cyclopentane moieties, respectively (Fig. 1). The roman numerals (I, II, and III) refer to branched GDGTs while Cren and Cren' indicate crenarchaeol and its regio-isomer, respectively (Fig. 1). TEX₈₆^H values were converted into temperature values using the global core-top calibration for satellite-derived annual mean SST (Eq. (3), Kim et al., 2010a):

$$T = 68.4 \times \text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}} + 38.6 \quad (r^2 = 0.87, n = 255, p < 0.0001, 0 \text{ m water depth}) \quad (3)$$

2.4. Statistical analysis

To examine the relationship between TEX₈₆^H and temperature among different datasets, the homogeneity of slopes and the difference in intercept were tested with an analysis

of covariance (ANCOVA). Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the fractional abundances of isoGDGTs to provide a general view of the variability within the distribution of isoGDGTs. Fractional abundances of each isoGDGT component were obtained by normalizing each peak area to the summed area of all isoGDGTs considered. The relationships between isoGDGTs and environmental variables such as SST (annual mean, spring, summer, autumn, and winter), primary productivity (annual mean, spring, summer, autumn, and winter), water depth, and BIT (an indicator of continental-derived organic matter input) were assessed by applying redundancy analysis (RDA). Multicollinearity between environmental variables was examined using variance inflation factors (VIFs). Large VIFs (>150) indicate that a variable is highly correlated with other variables, and thus contributes little information to the ordination. Preliminary ordinations revealed that annual mean primary productivity had a high VIF value. Therefore, this variable was excluded in the RDA. All statistical analyses were performed using the R-3.0.1 packages.

3. RESULTS

3.1. GDGT distributions in surface sediments, SPM, and sediment cores

We analyzed 146 core-tops collected from Alboran Sea ($n = 2$), Balearic Sea ($n = 39$), Gulf of Lions ($n = 72$), Adriatic Sea ($n = 6$), Aegean Sea ($n = 14$), Ionian Sea ($n = 3$), Libyan Sea ($n = 4$), and Levantine Sea ($n = 6$). TEX₈₆^H values ranged from -0.45 to -0.15 (Appendix 1). The reconstructed SSTs varied between 7.7 and 28.6 °C using the global core-top calibration for 0 m water depth (Eq. (3)) from Kim et al. (2010a). TEX₈₆^H-derived SSTs strongly deviated from satellite-derived SSTs for annual mean, spring, summer, autumn, and winter seasons (Fig. 3). The difference between TEX₈₆^H-derived SST and annual mean temperature (ΔT) ranged from -10 to 9 °C, substantially larger than the error range of the TEX₈₆^H temperature estimates, i.e., ±3 °C, which includes the uncertainty associated with the calibration (±2.5 °C; Kim et al., 2010a) and the analytical error (0.2 °C). The BIT index in surface sediments varied between 0.0 and 0.85, with higher values in the Rhône prodelta (>0.4; Appendix 1).

We also analyzed six SPM samples collected at three different stations in the central Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 2A), three at a water depth of 50 m and three at water depths between 2000 and 3000 m. TEX₈₆^H values varied between -0.19 and -0.17 in the shallow water masses and between -0.12 and -0.11 in the deep-water masses (Appendix 2). The converted temperatures using the global core-top calibration (Eq. (3)) corresponded to an average temperature of 26.3 ± 0.7 °C for the shallow SPM samples and 31.0 ± 0.2 °C for the deep SPM samples. Values for the BIT index were on average 0.01 ± 0.01 for the shallow water SPM and 0.03 ± 0.02 for the deep-water SPM (Appendix 2).

Core 434G had TEX₈₆^H values between -0.32 and -0.18 over the last 14 kyr and core 293G between -0.40 and -0.18 over the last 20 kyr (Appendix 3). When TEX₈₆^H values were translated to SSTs using the global core-top

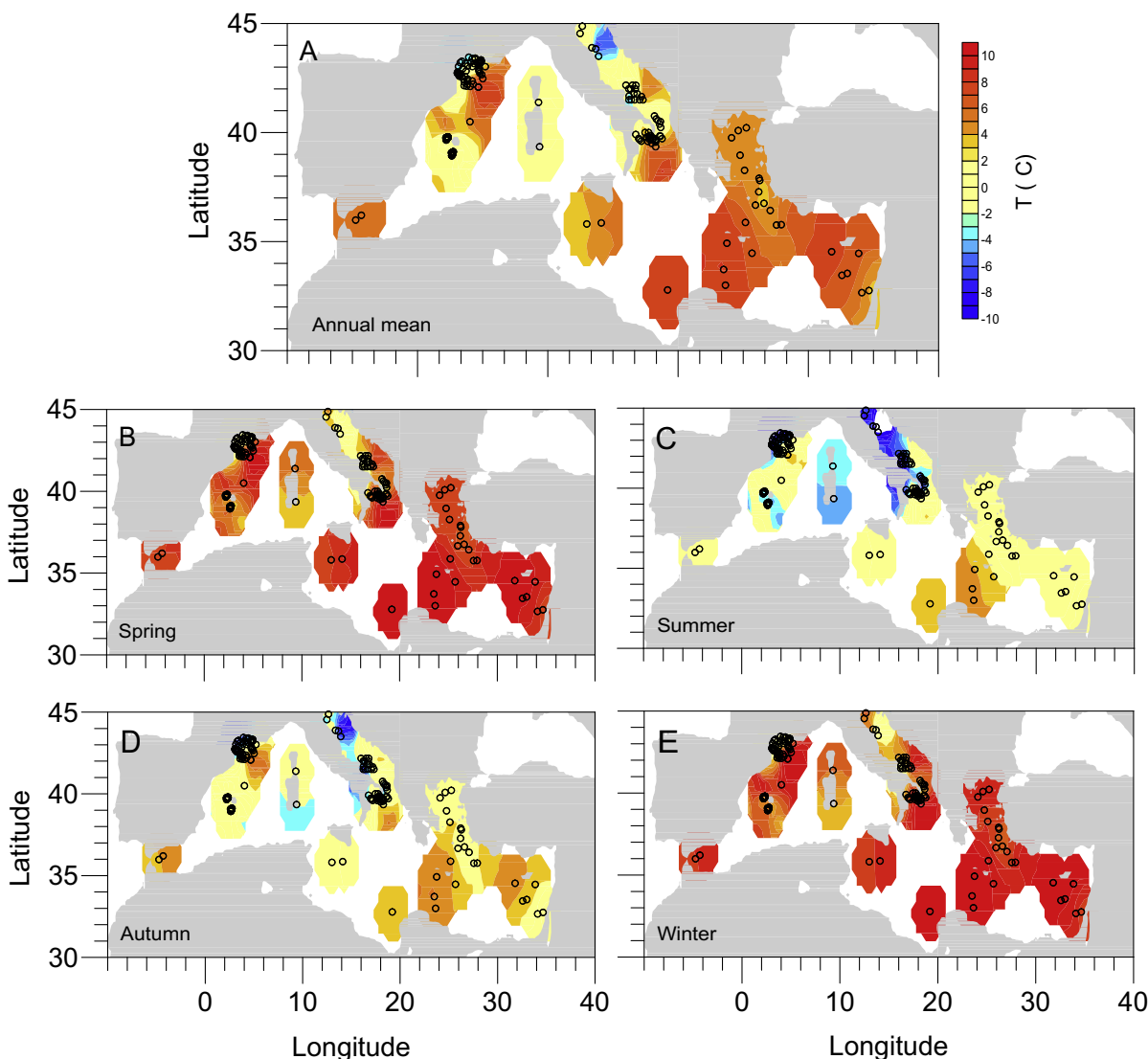


Fig. 3. Temperature differences (ΔT) between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperatures using Eq. (3) and satellite-derived SSTs: (A) annual mean, (B) spring (March–May), (C) summer (June–August), (D) autumn (September–November), and (E) winter (December–February). Black open circles indicate core positions where the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ data were available in this study. The spatial distribution pattern is based on variogram analysis and ordinary kriging, interpolating the data to a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grid with $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ searching radius. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

calibration (Eq. (3)), $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs ranged from 17 to 26 °C for core 434G and from 11 to 26 °C for core 293G. The BIT index values were low in both cores, varying between 0.01 and 0.04 for core 434G and between 0.01 and 0.17 for core 293G.

3.2. Statistical data treatment of isoGDGT distributions in surface sediments

The newly obtained data for surface sediments were combined with previously published GDGT data from the Tyrrhenian Sea ($n = 2$; Kim et al., 2010a) and the Adriatic Sea ($n = 46$; Leider et al., 2010) to establish a Mediterranean core-top dataset ($n = 194$; see Fig. 2 for all sample locations). An instrumental offset between the data obtained at the NIOZ and those by Leider et al. (2010), although possible,

would likely have minor consequences for the results, as recently shown by a large interlaboratory study of TEX_{86} analysis (Schouten et al., 2014). The comparison of $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values with annual mean SST using our Mediterranean core-top dataset showed a lower slope of the calibration line and a weaker correlation with considerable scatter ($r^2 = 0.5$, $p < 0.0001$, black line, Fig. 4) than the global core-top correlation of Kim et al. (2010a) ($r^2 = 0.87$, $p < 0.0001$; Fig. 4, stippled line). The ANCOVA results showed that differences between two datasets were significant for both the slope (homogeneity of regressions, $p < 0.0001$) and the intercept ($p < 0.0001$). This indicates that the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values in the Mediterranean Sea must be influenced by additional factors rather than only annual mean SST.

To examine the distribution of isoGDGTs, principal components analysis (PCA) on the fractional abundances

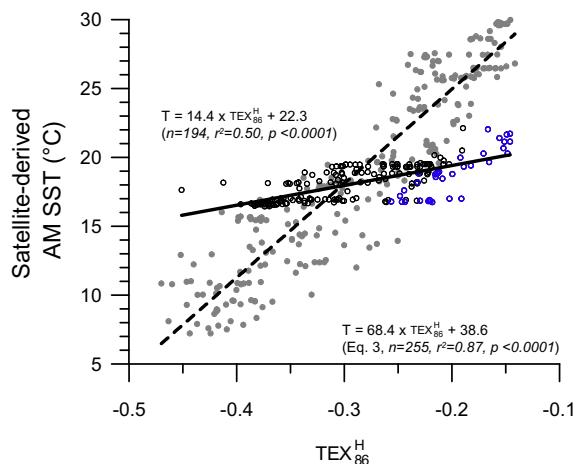


Fig. 4. Cross plots of satellite-derived SSTs with $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values of the Mediterranean core-top dataset (black line, black circles) and with those of the global core-top dataset (Eq. (3), stippled line, grey filled circles) of Kim et al. (2010a). The Mediterranean data from >1000 m water depth are indicated as blue circles. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

of all isoGDGTs was performed. The first two components explained a cumulative 88% of the variance (Fig. 5A). On the first principal component (PC1, explaining 72% of the variance) the loading of GDGT-0 was opposite to that of all other isoGDGTs. Crenarchaeol positively loaded on the second principal component (PC2, explaining 16% of the variance), against all other isoGDGTs. GDGT-1, -2, -3, and the crenarchaeol regio-isomer were clustered together in the same quadrant in the PCA biplot. Interestingly, these are the components used for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy.

To examine which environmental factors controlled the variability in isoGDGT distributions, we performed redundancy analysis (RDA) using all six isoGDGTs (data not shown). The RDA results showed that among the environmental variables annual mean SST (AM SST), the BIT index (a proxy for continental-derived organic matter input) and water depth explained most of the variability in isoGDGT distributions (Table 1). Therefore, we limited the RDA to only these three environmental variables (Fig. 5B). The explanatory (i.e., environmental) variables explained 74% of the variation in the response (i.e., fractional abundance of isoGDGTs) variables. Similar to the PCA results, GDGT-0 was positively loaded on the first axis of RDA (RDA1, explaining 65% of the variance), opposite to all other isoGDGTs. The second axis of RDA (RDA2) explained 9% of the variance. GDGT-1 and crenarchaeol were positively loaded on the RDA2, while GDGT-2, -3, and crenarchaeol regio-isomer were negatively loaded. The RDA results indicated that the isoGDGTs were mostly influenced by three environmental factors, i.e., annual mean SST (49%), continental-derived organic matter input (15%), and water depth (9%).

To examine the environmental factors controlling the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy, we also performed RDA using only the four isoGDGTs used for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calculation (Fig. 5C).

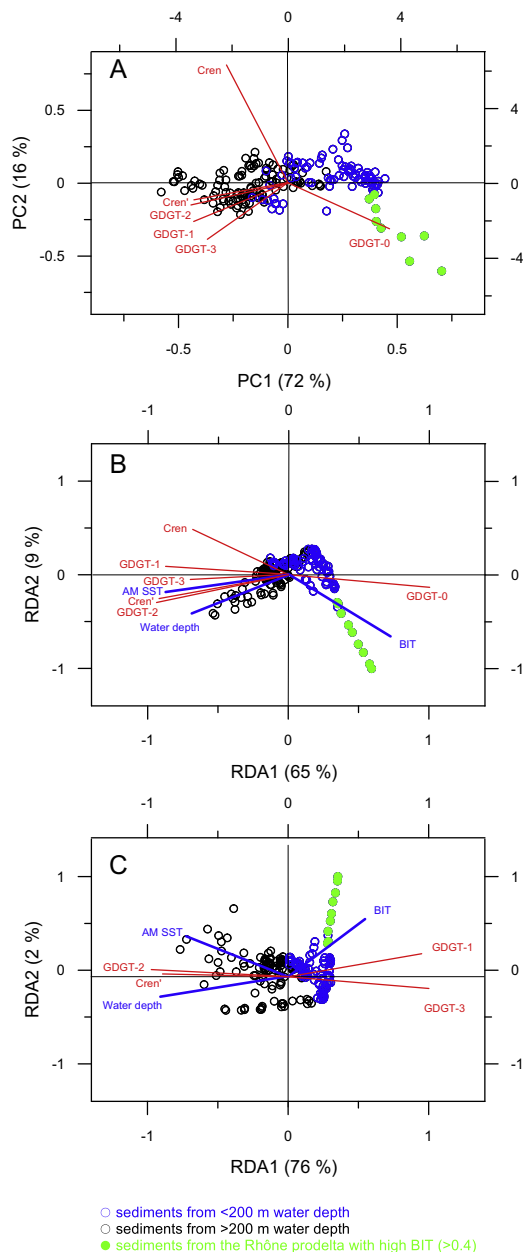


Fig. 5. (A) PCA biplot of the isoGDGT distributions. The first principal component (PC1) explained 72% of the variation and the second principal component (PC2) 16% of the variation. (B) Triplot obtained by the RDA using six isoGDGTs. 65% of the variation was explained by the first axis (RDA1) and 9% of the variation by the second axis (RDA2). (C) RDA triplot based on only four isoGDGTs used for $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$. The RDA1 explained 76% of the variation and the RDA2 2% of the variation. AM SST, Cren, and Cren' indicate annual mean SST, crenarchaeol, and crenarchaeol regio-isomer, respectively. The BIT index was used as an indicator of the continental-derived organic matter input. Red and blue lines indicate the loading of response (isoGDGTs) and explanatory (environmental) variables, respectively. Blue open circles indicate the scores of the samples from <200 m water depth, black open circles from >200 m water depth, and green filled circles from the Rhône prodelta with high BIT values (>0.4). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 1

(A) Numerical output of the RDA applied for all six isoGDGTs. The sum of all canonical eigenvalues is 0.8 and the total variance is 1. λ (eigenvalue) is the standard deviation of the scores. λ as % of sum of all canonical eigenvalues is obtained by multiplying 0.8 (the sum of all canonical eigenvalues) with the variation explained by the first two axes. (B) The results of the forward selection. % of variance indicates the total sum of eigenvalues after including new explanatory variables. T and PP indicate temperature and primary productivity. Significance level: $p < 0.05$.

RDA axis	λ	λ as % of total inertia	λ as cumulative% of total inertia	λ as % of sum of all canonical eigenvalues
A				
1	0.65	65	65	82.1
2	0.09	9	74	93.9
B				
Order	Explanatory variable	% of variance	F-Statistic	p-Value
1	AM SST	49	186.9	0.005
2	BIT	15	77.9	0.005
3	Water depth	9	60.9	0.005
4	Fall PP	2	17.8	0.005
5	Spring PP	2	12.8	0.005
6	Summer T	1	7.1	0.005
7	Winter PP	1	7.4	0.005
8	Winter T	1	5.9	0.005
9	Spring T	0	2.5	0.060
10	Summer PP	0	1.2	0.305
11	Fall T	0	0.7	0.590

GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 were positively loaded on the RDA1, as opposed to GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer, explaining 76% of the variance. RDA2 explained only 2% of the variance. Considering only four isoGDGTs, water depth explained 63% of the variance, while annual mean SST and continental-derived organic matter input accounted for another 14% and 2% of the variance in isoGDGT distributions, respectively (Table 2). The differences

Table 2

As Table 1 but using only four isoGDGTs: (A) numerical output of the RDA and (B) the results of the forward selection. Significance level: $p < 0.05$.

RDA axis	λ	λ as% of total inertia	λ as cumulative% of total inertia	λ as% of sum of all canonical eigenvalues
A				
1	0.76	76	76	97.4
2	0.02	2	78	99.6
B				
Order	Explanatory variable	% of variance	F-Statistic	p-Value
1	Water depth	63	328.6	0.005
2	AM SST	14	112.6	0.005
3	BIT	2	13.9	0.005

between the two RDA analyses are likely due to the overpowering effect of GDGT-0 and crenarchaeol, which are the two dominant isoGDGTs. GDGT-0 may also have multiple archaeal sources and including this isoGDGT will make the RDA analysis less sensitive to factors which influence the subtle changes in distribution of the minor isoGDGTs.

4. DISCUSSION

Our results show that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ does not correlate well with annual mean SST in the Mediterranean Sea. We discuss potential environmental factors affecting the isoGDGT distributions and thus the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer in the following sections.

4.1. Influence of continental isoGDGTs

The surface sediments from the shallow Rhône prodelta area (<100 m water depth) have positive scores on the RDA1, along with the BIT index (green filled data points; Fig. 5B and C). The RDA results thus suggest that continental-derived, i.e., soil- and/or river-derived (cf. Hopmans et al., 2004; Zell et al., 2013a,b; De Jonge et al., 2014) organic matter input, as reflected in the BIT index (e.g., Hopmans et al., 2004), influences the distribution of isoGDGTs (Tables 1 and 2; Fig. 5). The BIT index values are, in general, substantially higher in surface sediments of the continental shelf (<200 m water depth) than in sediments of the continental slope and rise (>200 m water depth) (Fig. 6A) and are especially elevated in the prodeltas of the Rhône River and Po River (Fig. 7A and B, respectively). SPM collected along the Rhône River (SE France) in May 2010 have a high average BIT value of 0.89, and SPM sampled at the Rhône River mouth influenced by the seawater have an average BIT value of 0.65 (Kim et al., 2014). Soils often contain isoGDGTs derived from diverse soil archaea such as Euryarchaeota and Thaumarchaeota (e.g., Leininger et al. 2006; Weijers et al., 2006; Tourna et al., 2011; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2012). Taken together with previous studies in this region (e.g., Kim et al., 2010b; Tesi et al., 2011), the elevated BIT values in the coastal zones of the Gulf of Lions and the Adriatic Sea indicate that the contribution of continental-derived isoGDGTs is probably higher in the inner shelf areas than the outer shelf areas (Fig. 7A and B). Hence, $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values of coastal marine sediments that receive continental-derived organic matter, especially near river outflows, may be affected by continental isoGDGTs in the Mediterranean Sea.

Surprisingly, the reconstructed $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ temperatures off the Rhône and Po River mouths, where BIT values are highest (>0.4; Fig. 7A and B), are still well within the error range of the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy (Fig. 7C and D), with the average ΔT (the difference between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperatures using Eq. (3) and satellite-derived SSTs) value of -0.5 ± 1.3 °C ($n = 10$). This is somewhat unexpected given that previous studies in the equatorial Atlantic and the North Sea showed that the high inputs of continental isoGDGTs (i.e., high BIT values) were associated with a

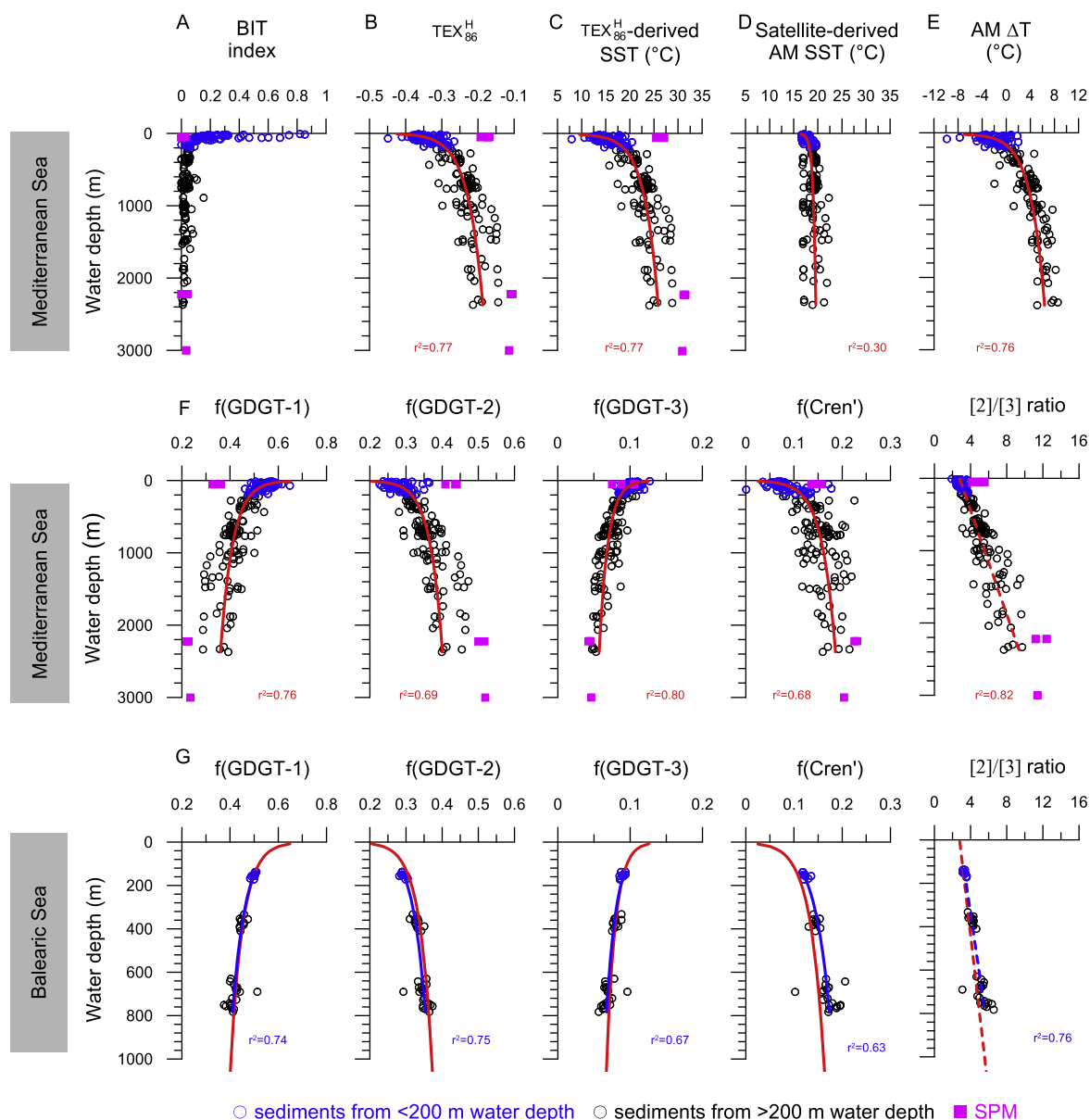


Fig. 6. Vertical water depth profiles of (A) the BIT index, (B) $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$, (C) $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperatures using Eq. (3), (D) satellite-derived annual mean SSTs, (E) ΔT between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs using Eq. (3) and satellite-derived annual mean SSTs, (F) fractional abundances of isoGDGTs (based on the four isoGDGTs that are used in $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$) and the [2]/[3] ratio (Taylor et al., 2013) for the entire Mediterranean dataset, and (G) fractional abundances of isoGDGTs and the [2]/[3] ratio for the dataset of the Balearic Sea. Blue open circles indicate the data from the shallow shelf areas (<200 m water depth) and black open circles from deeper water depth (>200 m water depth). Logarithmic (solid) or linear (dashed) regression lines are plotted for the Mediterranean Sea (red line) and the Balearic Sea (blue line) datasets. Determination coefficient (r^2) values are given. Filled purple squares indicate the SPM data. The SPM data were not used for the regression of the data. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

substantial bias in $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs (Herfort et al., 2006; Weijers et al., 2006). Our study indicates that influence of continental-derived isoGDGTs on the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy may depend on the end-member GDGT distribution of the river drainage basin, i.e., if the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ distributions of soils or river SPM in the drainage basin are similar to those in the coastal marine waters the bias might be relatively minor (cf. Schouten et al., 2013). Interestingly, much larger

temperature deviations with negative ΔT values (i.e., $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs < satellite-derived SSTs) are observed on the continental shelves (Fig. 7C and D), where BIT values (<0.05) are much below the cut off value (0.3) proposed earlier (Weijers et al., 2006). Hence, it seems that the continental-derived isoGDGT input is not the main cause for the cold bias of the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ estimates observed along the coasts of the Gulf of Lions and the Adriatic Sea.

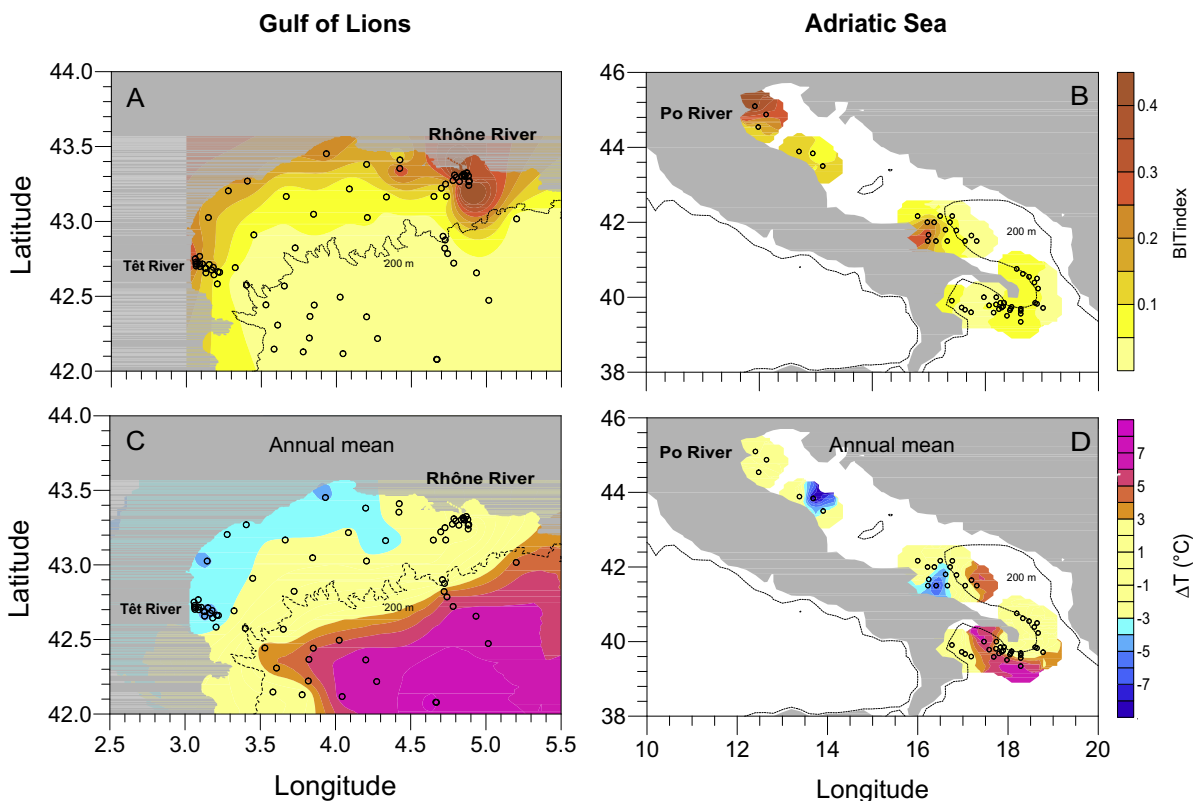


Fig. 7. Spatial distribution patterns of (A and B) the BIT index and (C and D) the temperature differences (ΔT) between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperatures using Eq. (3) and satellite-derived annual mean SSTs for the Gulf of Lions and the Adriatic Sea. The spatial distribution pattern was based on the variogram analysis and ordinary kriging, interpolating the data to a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid with $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ searching radius. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

4.2. Seasonal influences

In previous studies, the predominant production and export of Thaumarchaeota during warm (summer/autumn) seasons have been invoked to explain $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ results from surface sediments and paleorecords (Menzel et al., 2006; Castañeda et al., 2010; Leider et al., 2010; Huguet et al., 2011; Grauel et al., 2013; Nieto-Moreno et al., 2013) in the Mediterranean Sea. For spring and winter, temperature differences (ΔT) between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ – and satellite-derived SSTs in our Mediterranean core-top dataset are larger (up to 12°C) than those for the annual mean (Fig. 3B and E). However, for summer and autumn, ΔT is reduced (up to 6°C), suggesting that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs indeed agree better with warmer summer/autumn SSTs (Fig. 3C and D). Hence, our results seemingly support previous studies, which suggested that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SSTs were skewed towards warm (summer/autumn) seasons in most of the Mediterranean Sea (Menzel et al., 2006; Leider et al., 2010; Castañeda et al., 2010; Huguet et al., 2011; Grauel et al., 2013; Nieto-Moreno et al., 2013). However, it should be noted that for some areas (Fig. 3C and D), $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ still overestimates seasonal SSTs for the warm (summer/autumn) seasons by up to 6°C . Based on the RDA results, the satellite-derived annual mean SST is overall the most significant environmental factor rather than seasonal SSTs

(Table 1). Furthermore, a molecular ecology study conducted in the NW Mediterranean Sea (Blanes Bay Microbial Observatory) found that the abundance of Group I Crenarchaeota (i.e., Thaumarchaeota) was highest during winter when water was nutrient-enriched (Galand et al., 2010). Hence, it appears that seasonal differences between the timing of the Thaumarchaeota blooms or exports cannot fully explain a warm bias of the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy at deep-water sites in the Mediterranean Sea.

4.3. Influence of water depth

Surprisingly, the RDA results show that the distributions in surface sediments of isoGDGTs used in $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ is influenced by water depth. Indeed, the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ ($r^2 = 0.77$, Fig. 6B) and its derived SSTs ($r^2 = 0.77$, Fig. 6C) show strong positive correlations with water depth, while satellite-derived annual mean SST is only weakly correlated with water depth ($r^2 = 0.30$, Fig. 6D). As a result, the temperature difference (ΔT) shows a substantial increase with water depth ($r^2 = 0.76$, Fig. 6E). This is independent of calibration models, as a similarly strong water depth trend in SST estimates based on the Bayesian regression model BAYSPAR (Tierney and Tingley, 2014) is also apparent (data not shown). Examination of the RDA results shows that surface sediments from the meso-bathypelagic zone

(>200 m water depth) score negatively on RDA1 along with water depth and the fractional abundances of GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer, while GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 score positively on RDA1 (Fig. 5C). Indeed, there is a strong trend when the fractional abundances of the isoGDGTs used in $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ are plotted versus water depth; decreasing fractional abundances of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 and increasing fractional abundances of GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer with water depth (Fig. 6F). This water depth dependence is also illustrated by examining a subset of surface sediments from the Balearic Sea, located within a small geographical area (Fig. 2A) with similar annual mean SSTs (on average 19.4 ± 0.1 °C) and presumably similar other environmental factors such as nutrient concentrations. In this region, strong correlations of the fractional abundances of isoGDGTs with water depth are also observed (Fig. 6G).

A recent study by Taylor et al. (2013) suggested that Thaumarchaeota thriving in deeper waters (>1000 m water depth) might have a different distribution of isoGDGTs, with a higher abundance of GDGT-2 relative to GDGT-3 and consequently a high (>5) GDGT-2/GDGT-3 ratio (i.e., [2]/[3] ratio). They argued that this would explain the positive correlation of the [2]/[3] ratio with water depth seen in the Kim et al. (2010a) dataset of surface sediments. In agreement with this, the [2]/[3] ratio in surface sediments strongly increases with water depth in the Mediterranean Sea as well as in the Balearic Sea (Fig. 6F and G). Hence, our results potentially support the idea that deep-water dwelling Thaumarchaeota may have different distributions of isoGDGTs in comparison to those of shallow ones. In addition to the fractional abundance of GDGT-2, our data show that the fractional abundance of the crenarchaeol regio-isomer equally strongly increases with water depth, which was not observed by Taylor et al. (2013) in the global core top dataset of Kim et al. (2010a). The higher fractional abundance of GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer and the lower fractional abundance of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3, possibly produced by Thaumarchaeota thriving below the mixed-layer, explain the higher $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values in surface sediments from areas with a deeper water-column (Fig. 6B) and, consequently, the higher ΔT .

Molecular biological studies have shown that thaumarchaeotal sequences from the meso-bathypelagic (>200 m water depth) waters are phylogenetically different from those retrieved from the epipelagic (0–200 m water depth) waters (e.g., Francis et al., 2005; Hu et al., 2011a,b; Yakimov et al., 2011; Sintes et al., 2012; Schouten et al., 2012) and thus may have a different isoGDGT distribution. Villanueva et al. (2014) showed essential amino acid differences in geranylgeranylglycerol phosphate (GGGP) synthase, a key gene of the GDGT biosynthetic pathway, between ‘shallow water’ and ‘deep water’ Thaumarchaeota residing in the ocean. They attributed observed differences in isoGDGT distributions from subsurface to deep waters to the differences in archaeal population of shallow and deep waters. Differences in isoGDGT distributions have been previously documented for different cultivated species of Thaumarchaeota, e.g., Group 1.1b Thaumarchaeota produce the crenarchaeol regio-isomer in a higher

fractional abundance than Group 1.1a Thaumarchaeota (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2012).

To test the hypothesis of different archaeal populations in different water masses, we analyzed SPM collected from shallow (50 m water depth) and deep (2000–3000 m water depth) water masses of the Mediterranean Sea. Crenarchaeol ($46 \pm 1\%$ of total isoGDGTs) is the most abundant isoGDGT in the shallow-water SPM, followed by GDGT-0 ($28 \pm 2\%$). The most abundant isoGDGT in the deep-water SPM is also crenarchaeol ($47 \pm 2\%$), but GDGT-0 is less abundant ($18 \pm 1\%$). Interestingly, when we focus on the fractional abundances of isoGDGTs that are used for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ paleothermometer, GDGT-2 ($51 \pm 1\%$) and the crenarchaeol regio-isomer ($22 \pm 1\%$) are much more dominant in the deep-water SPM than in the shallow-water SPM, while the fractional abundances of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 show an opposite trend (Fig. 8A and B). This is in line with the idea that the isoGDGT distribution in deeper waters might be different from that in surface waters

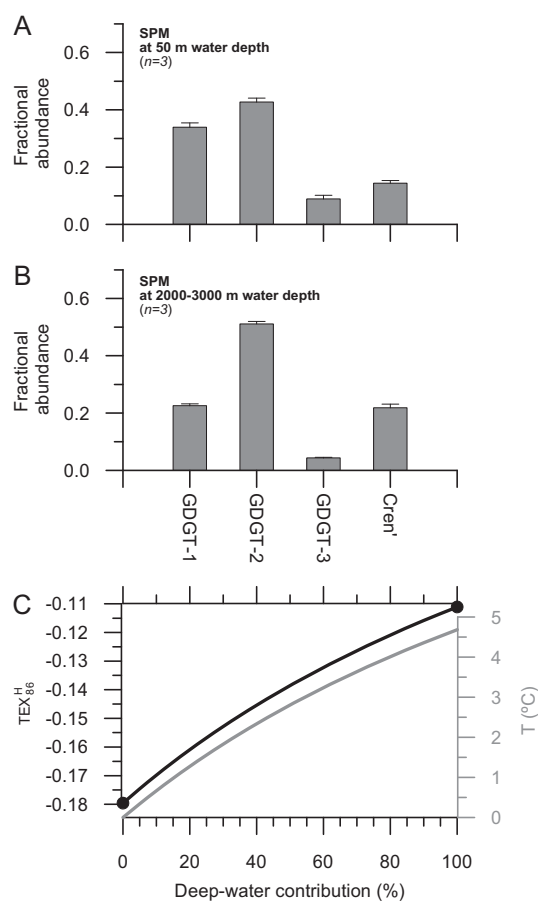


Fig. 8. Hypothetical binary mixing model showing the effect of the contribution of deep-water dwelling Thaumarchaeota on sedimentary isoGDGTs (C) using two end members representing the average distribution of isoGDGTs used for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ (A) of the surface mixed layer and (B) of the deep waters. Different mixing ratios result in different values for the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy (black line) with the accompanying ΔT (grey line). End-member $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values are indicated with closed circles.

due to presence of a different thaumarchaeotal community. $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values of the shallow-water SPM are on average -0.18 ± 0.01 while those of the deep-water SPM are higher with the average value of -0.11 ± 0.004 . Accordingly, the resulting $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperature is higher for the deep-water SPM (with an average value of 31.0 ± 0.2 °C) than for the shallow-water SPM (on average 26.3 ± 0.7 °C) (end member values in Fig. 6C). These $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived temperatures differ from the temperature profile in the water, which drops from ~ 25 °C at 50 m water depth to ~ 14 °C at water depths >2000 m.

The trend observed in the SPM is identical to the observed trend in the isoGDGT distribution in surface sediments with increasing water depth (i.e., increased fractional abundance of GDGT-2 and the crenarchaeol regio-isomer and increased $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values in surface sediments deposited in deep water; Fig. 6). Our SPM data, therefore, support the idea that deep-water dwelling Thaumarchaeota produce isoGDGTs with a higher fractional abundance of GDGT-2 and the crenarchaeol regio-isomer and a lower fractional abundance of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3. With increasing water depth, this deep-water population of Thaumarchaeota may increasingly contribute to the pool of sedimentary isoGDGTs, thereby influencing the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ proxy. To further constrain this, we performed a simple two end-member mixing model, by using the distribution of isoGDGTs of the shallow-water SPM as the surface end-member and that of the deep-water SPM as the deep-water end-member. The results show that the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -derived SST will substantially deviate from the surface end-member value of 26.3 °C with an increasing contribution of isoGDGTs produced in deeper waters (Fig. 8C).

4.4. Distribution of isoGDGTs in deep restricted basins

Our results suggest that there are two major isoGDGT inputs to surface sediments of the Mediterranean Sea: one derived from shallow-water and the other from deep-water dwelling thaumarchaeotal populations. This implies that it will be difficult to predict annual mean SSTs using Eq. (3) (global core-top calibration) of Kim et al. (2010a), especially for deep basins in the Mediterranean Sea. Therefore, we investigated which factors predominantly control the distribution of isoGDGTs in the Mediterranean deep restricted basins. We observe that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values in surface sediments from >1000 m water depth do not correlate with water depth ($r^2 = 0.03$, Fig. 9A). Subsequently, we compared $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values with temperature at 1000 m water depth, assuming that isoGDGTs purely originated from deep waters, but again a weak correlation is observed ($r^2 = 0.30$; Fig. 9B). Instead, we find that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values are strongly associated with satellite-derived annual mean SST ($r^2 = 0.74$; Fig. 9C). Hence, it seems that although sediments deposited in deep waters (>1000 m water depth) receive a substantial contribution of isoGDGTs from a deep-water thaumarchaeotal population, they still reflect a signal which is related to surface water conditions.

It has been observed previously that $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ in the northern Red Sea, another regional restricted basin, had a strongly different correlation with annual mean SST

(Trommer et al., 2009). Notably, most of sediments investigated were taken from deep waters (600–1600 m water depth), suggesting a similar phenomenon as observed for the Mediterranean Sea. Therefore, we have established a composite dataset of deep-water (>1000 m water depth) surface sediments from deep restricted basins in this interconnected region, i.e., the Mediterranean Sea and the northern Red Sea (data from Trommer et al., 2009). As observed for the Mediterranean Sea dataset, the composite dataset shows no significant relationship between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ and water depth ($r^2 = 0.04$). However, the composite dataset also shows a strong correlation between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ and satellite-derived annual mean SST (Fig. 9C) which can be described by the following equation:

$$T = 56.3 \times \text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}} + 30.2 \quad (r^2 = 0.94, n = 45, p < 0.001, 0 \text{ m water depth}) \quad (4)$$

The residual standard error in temperature estimates using this calibration model is only 1 °C. This suggests that in the northern Red Sea, there may be controlling mechanisms on the distribution of isoGDGTs in surface sediments common to those operating in the Mediterranean Sea; i.e., a deep-water population of Thaumarchaeota affecting the sedimentary isoGDGT signal, but not in such a way that the influence of surface water temperatures is eliminated. Interestingly, this deep restricted basin dataset forms a distinctive correlation line in comparison to that of the global core-top dataset (Kim et al., 2010a) (Fig. 9D) with significant differences between both datasets for both the intercept ($df = 1, F = 230, p < 0.001$) and the slope ($df = 1, F = 4.06, p = 0.04$). We also observe this difference if we consider only the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ data from surface sediments deposited at >1000 m water depth in the global core-top dataset (yellow filled circles, Fig. 9D).

When we follow the approach applied by Kim et al. (2008) and correlate $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values of surface sediments from >1000 m water depth with depth-integrated annual mean temperatures for 0 to 200 m water depth an equally strong relation is found:

$$T = 57.6 \times \text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}} + 27.1 \quad (r^2 = 0.90, n = 44, p < 0.0001, 0\text{--}200 \text{ m water depth}) \quad (5)$$

This relationship (Eq. (5); Fig. 9E) also significantly differs from that of the global core-top dataset (Fig. 9F) for the intercept ($df = 1, F = 116.5, p < 0.001$), similar to the SST calibration (Eq. (4); Fig. 9D), but not for the slope ($df = 1, F = 0.32, p = 0.57$).

The reason for this difference between the global core-top dataset and the deep-water restricted basin dataset remains to be fully understood. It is noteworthy that these deep restricted basins are all characterized by higher (i.e., ~ 13 °C for the Mediterranean Sea and ~ 22 °C for the Red Sea) bottom water temperatures than the open ocean (i.e., 4–6 °C) (Locarnini et al., 2013). Warmer deep waters in these restricted basins imply that more organic matter is mineralized in the deeper part of the water column compared to open oceans. This increased break-down of organic matter in bottom waters will result in a higher ammonium generation rate. Since Thaumarchaeota are

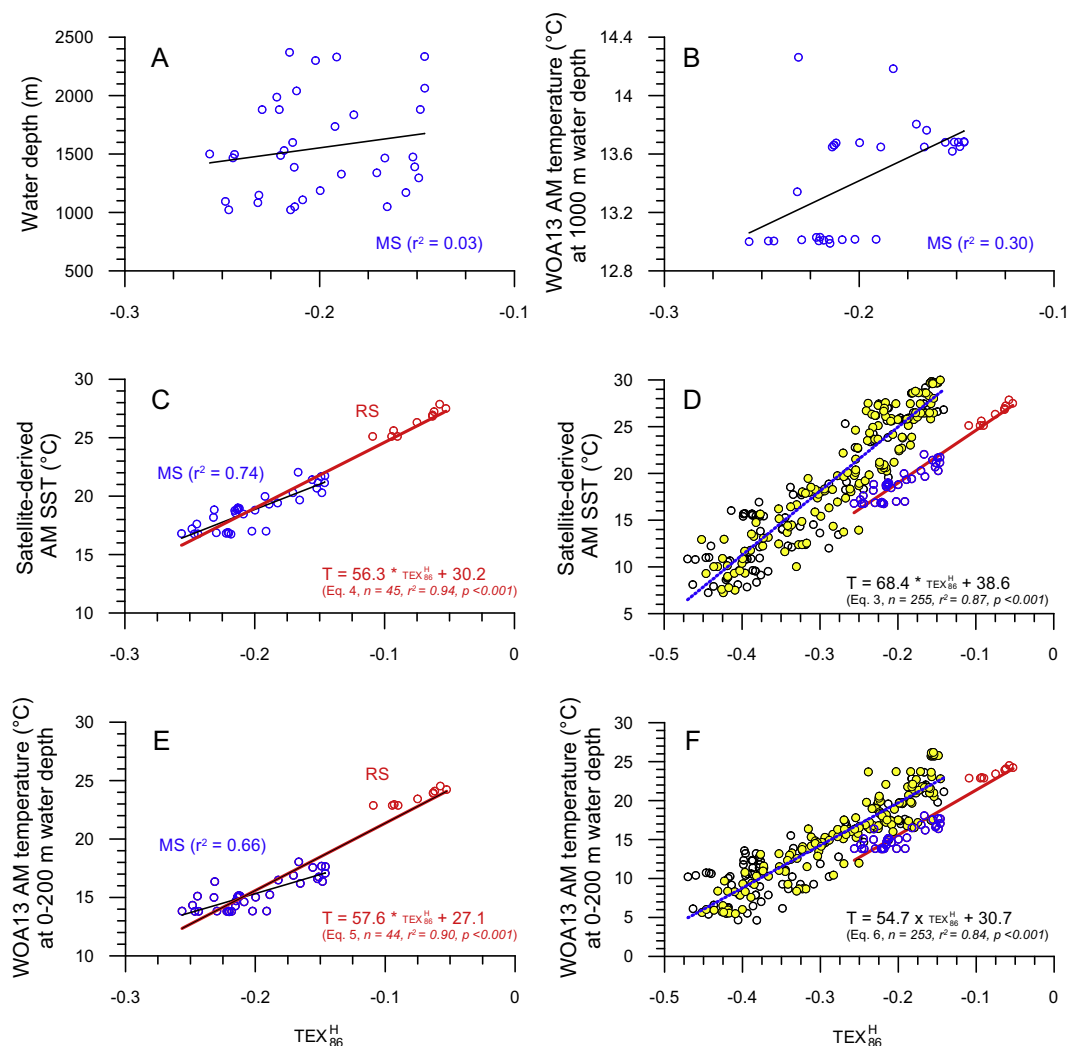


Fig. 9. Cross plots of $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ data for surface sediments from > 1000 m water depth in the Mediterranean Sea (blue circles) and the Red Sea (red circles) (A) with water depth, (B) with annual mean temperature at 1000 m water depth from the World Ocean Atlas 13 (WOA13) dataset (Locarnini et al., 2013), (C and D) with satellite-derived annual mean SSTs, and (E-F) with depth-integrated annual mean WOA13 temperature for 0–200 m water depth. The data are compared with the global core-top dataset of Kim et al. (2010a) (D) based on satellite-derived annual mean SSTs (Eq. (3)) and (F) based on depth-integrated annual mean temperatures for 0–200 m water depth (Eq. (6)). The global core-top data from >1000 m water depth are indicated as yellow filled circles. RS and MS indicate the Red Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

nitrifiers (e.g., Könneke et al., 2005; Wuchter et al., 2006; Yakimov et al., 2011) this may sustain a relatively abundant population of deep water dwelling Thaumarchaeota that apparently have a different GDGT composition in this type of deep restricted basins. This may result in a stronger contribution of deep water Thaumarchaeota in sediments compared to open ocean settings where a trend with water depth is not observed in TEX_{86} values (Tierney and Tingley, 2014). This deep water contribution alters the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values but in such a way that apparently the temperature signal from the upper water column (i.e., epipelagic zone) remains apparent. However, because of the deep water contribution, the relationship between $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values and temperatures of the upper water column is now different compared to that of open ocean settings.

4.5. Testing the deep-water $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ -SST relationship at >1000 m water depth sites

Here we examine if the new empirical relationship based on sedimentary isoGDGT data from >1000 m water depth in the marginal, landlocked seas (Eq. (4)) would better predict annual mean SST changes in the deep restricted basins at water depth >1000 m than the global core-top calibration (Eq. (3); Kim et al., 2010a). We converted $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ values to SSTs using both Eq. (3) (global core-top calibration) and Eq. (4) ('deep-water calibration') for two sediment cores from the Alboran Sea in the western Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 2A): core 434G (1108 m water depth) and core 293G (1840 m water depth) and compared them with previously published U_{37}^{K} -derived SSTs (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al.,

2014). As an alternative approach to the global core-top calibration and the regional deep water calibration, we estimated SSTs using the BAYSPAR calibration model, applying the “standard prediction” mode, which assumes that the oceanographic conditions are sufficiently similar to present day, and using the default settings (Tierney and Tingley, 2014).

Cores 434G and 293G from the western and eastern Alboran Sea (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014) cover the last 14 and 20 kyr, respectively (Fig. 10A and B). For core 293G, $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived SSTs vary between 10 and 20 °C, with an SST increase of ca. 7 °C from the end of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) to the Early Holocene (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). For core 434G, $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived SSTs range from 14 to 22 °C, following those observed for core 293G, but being ca. 2 °C higher during most of the Holocene (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). The higher $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived SSTs in the western Alboran Sea were interpreted as resulting from a southeastward migration of cold waters to the eastern Alboran Sea during late autumn and spring and a resulting divergence in the haptophyte blooming seasons between the western and eastern Alboran Sea (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). TEX_{86}^H -derived SSTs using the global core top calibration (Eq. (3); Kim et al., 2010a) are much

higher (red curve) for both cores, with a range of 11–26 °C for core 293G and 17–26 °C for core 434G. In contrast, when TEX_{86}^H values are translated into SSTs using the empirical ‘deep-water calibration’ (Eq. (4); blue curve), TEX_{86}^H -derived SSTs are much closer to $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived ones, with a range of 9–20 °C for core 293G and 13–20 °C for core 434G. Similarly, SST estimates using the BAYSPAR calibration vary between 7 and 22 °C for core 293G and between 12 and 22 °C for core 434G. All three TEX_{86}^H -derived records are quite similar compared to each other, with the same range of temperatures as the $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived SSTs from the eastern Alboran Sea during the Holocene. However, the TEX_{86}^H -derived temperature difference between the LGM and the Early Holocene is somewhat larger (9 °C for the deep water calibration, and 11 °C for the BAYSPAR) than that derived from $U_{37}^{K'}$ (7 °C). This is due to lower TEX_{86}^H -derived SSTs during the LGM than the $U_{37}^{K'}$ -derived SSTs. The BIT values (green curve) are well below the cut-off value of 0.3 (Weijers et al., 2006). Therefore, an impact of continental-derived organic matter input on the TEX_{86}^H values is likely negligible. Together, this study shows that the regional relationship between TEX_{86}^H and SST for deep-water restricted basins as well as the BAYSPAR calibration, which effectively allows for regional variations in calibrations, may be applicable over glacial to interglacial time scales. It also supports our finding that seasonality may not be a primary cause for a warm bias of the TEX_{86}^H proxy in the Mediterranean Sea. Further research is required before this relationship can be confidently applied as a calibration to estimate temperatures in the Mediterranean Sea and the northern Red Sea.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We investigated isoGDGT distributions of core-top sediments and SPM from the Mediterranean Sea and discussed potential environmental factors influencing the TEX_{86}^H paleothermometer. We observe that TEX_{86}^H -derived SSTs were much cooler along the coast than the satellite-derived annual mean SSTs, while warmer TEX_{86}^H -derived SSTs prevailed at deep-water sites. Our RDA results showed that, when considering only the four isoGDGTs that are used for the TEX_{86}^H proxy, water depth is the most significant parameter. In fact, one of the most striking features in our dataset is a strong positive relationship between water depth and TEX_{86}^H due to elevated fractional abundances of GDGT-2 and crenarchaeol regio-isomer and lower abundances of GDGT-1 and GDGT-3 at deep-water sites. Most likely, Thaumarchaeota thriving in deep-water masses produce isoGDGTs in different distributions in comparison to those of surface-dwelling Thaumarchaeota. Intriguingly, the TEX_{86}^H data from the deep-water (bathypelagic) part (>1000 m water depth) are not correlated anymore with water depth but instead are strongly correlated with annual mean SSTs. The composite deep-water TEX_{86}^H dataset composed of the Mediterranean Sea and the northern Red Sea surface sediments at >1000 m shows a correlation with SST that is clearly distinct from the global core-top dataset. By applying this deep-water relationship, the TEX_{86}^H SST estimates for two sediment cores from the Alboran Sea in the

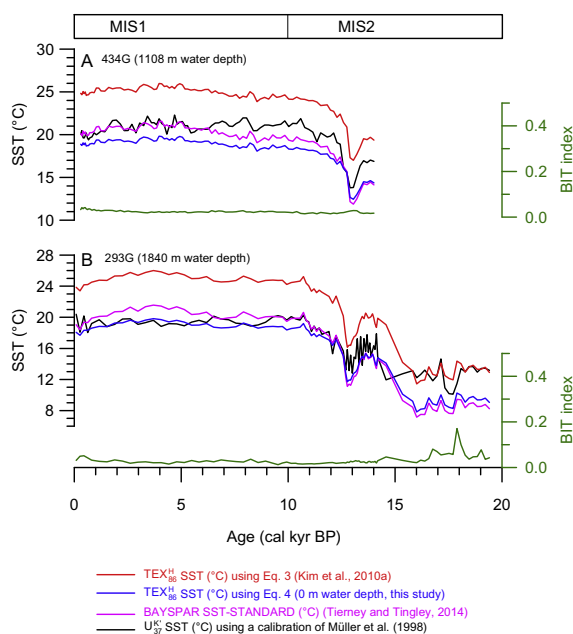


Fig. 10. Application of TEX_{86}^H and $U_{37}^{K'}$ proxies and their calibrations to two sediment cores from the western Mediterranean Sea. Three TEX_{86}^H records are shown based on the global core-top calibration (red curve), the Mediterranean deep water calibration (blue curve), and the BAYSPAR standard prediction model (purple curve). The $U_{37}^{K'}$ values were converted into temperature values (black curves) applying a global core-top calibration ($T = U_{37}^{K'} - 0.044 / 0.033$) of Müller et al. (1998): (A) core 434G (36°12.313 N, 4°18.735 W; 1108 m water depth; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014) and (B) core 293G (36°10.414 N, 2°45.280 W; 1840 m water depth; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). The BIT index was shown as green curves. MIS indicates marine isotope stage. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

western Mediterranean Sea are much closer to U_{37}^K -derived SSTs than those using the global core-top calibration. This suggests that a regional calibration based on a deep-water TEX_{86}^H dataset may be applicable for deep restricted basins to reconstruct past ocean water temperatures, although the reason remains unclear. Clearly, more detailed water-column studies covering different seasons, water depths, and oceanographic provinces are essential for better understanding export dynamics of isoGDGTs and thus the extent of the influence of deep-water derived isoGDGTs to sedimentary isoGDGT distributions.

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APPENDIX A. SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gca.2014.11.017>.

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