Archaeal lipid-inferred paleohydrology and paleotemperature of Lake Chenghai during the Pleistocene-Holocene transition

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25 ABSTRACT

Over the past decades, paleoenvironmental studies in the Indian Summer 26 Monsoon (ISM) region have mainly focused on precipitation change, with few 27 28 published terrestrial temperature records from the region. We analyzed the distribution of isoprenoid glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (isoGDGTs) in the sediments of 29 Lake Chenghai in southwest China across the Pleistocene-Holocene transition, to 30 31 extract both regional hydrological and temperature signals for this important transition period. Lake-level was reconstructed from the relative abundance of crenarchaeol in 32 isoGDGTs (%cren) and the crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratio. The %cren-inferred 33 lake-level identified a single lowstand (15.4-14.4 cal ka BP), while the 34 crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratio suggests relatively lower lake-level between 35 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP and 12.5-11.7 cal ka BP, corresponding to periods of weakened 36 ISM during the Heinrich 1 and Younger Dryas cold event. A filtered TetraEther indeX 37 consisting of 86 carbon atoms (TEX₈₆ index) revealed that lake surface temperature 38 39 was similar to present-day values during the last deglacial period, and suggests a 40 substantial warming of ~ 4 °C from the early Holocene to the mid-Holocene. Our paleotemperature record is generally consistent with other records in southwest China, 41 42 suggesting that the distribution of isoGDGTs in Lake Chenghai sediments has potential for quantitative paleotemperature reconstruction. 43

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45 Keywords: Quantitative temperature reconstruction; Lake-level; TEX₈₆; Isoprenoid
46 GDGTs; Lacustrine sediment

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52 1. Introduction

Precipitation variation in the Indian summer monsoon (ISM) region has a great 53 threat to ecosystem function, water availability and economic security across the 54 region (Sinha et al., 2011; Sinha et al., 2015; Ljungqvist et al., 2016). This has 55 stimulated growing scientific interest in understanding the underlying forcing 56 mechanisms behind climate variability in the ISM region on a range of time-scales, in 57 order to better predict future monsoonal variations. Over the past two decades, climate 58 evolution in the ISM region since the Last Glacial Maximum has been reconstructed 59 from various paleoclimatic archives, including speleothems, and marine/lacustrine 60 sediments (Dykoski et al., 2005; Rashid et al., 2007; Govil and Divakar Naidu, 2011; 61 62 Saraswat et al., 2013; Contreras-Rosales et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014b; Dutt et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2015; Kathayat et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017a, 2017b; Li et al., 63 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). These studies provide 64 evidence of changes in ISM precipitation on orbital- and millennial time-scales, with 65 a weakened ISM occurring during cold events, and strengthened ISM occurring 66 during warm intervals. 67

In addition to precipitation, temperature is an important climatic factor, due to its 68 significant effects on evaporation and regional hydrological cycle. There remains a 69 lack of quantitative reconstructions of terrestrial temperature from the ISM region 70 (Shen et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2017a; Wu et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2019; Ning et al., 71 2019; Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). During the last deglaciation-Holocene 72 transition, the climate of high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere is punctuated by 73 74 three abrupt, millennial-scale events: the Heinrich 1 (H1) cold event, the Bølling/Allerød (BA) warm period and the Younger Dryas (YD) cooling (Alley and 75 76 Clark, 1999). These intervals are attributed to a variety of mechanisms including changes to orbitally-controlled insolation, ice sheet extent, oceanic circulation and 77 atmospheric greenhouse concentrations (Alley and Clark, 1999). The recent 78 quantitative summer temperature proxy based on pollen and chironomids from 79 southwest China has been developed to address the response of long-term temperature 80

to the high latitude climate changes (Zhang et al., 2017 and 2019; Wu et al., 2018).
However, the magnitude of these temperature variations is not consistent, and further
studies are required.

84 Glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) have been widely used for the 85 quantitative reconstruction of terrestrial paleotemperature during the Quaternary due to the fact that they are ubiquitous in soils and lacustrine sediments (Blaga et al., 2013; 86 Wang et al., 2017b; Zheng et al., 2018; Ning et al., 2019; Tian et al., 2019). 87 Isoprenoid GDGTs (isoGDGTs), comprising acyclic or ring-containing isoprenoidal 88 biphytanyl carbon chains, are a suit of membrane lipids produced by some species 89 of archaea, such as Euryarchaeota, Crenarchaoeota and Thaumarchaeota (Schouten et 90 91 al., 2013). IsoGDGTs containing 0 to 3 cyclopentane moieties (isoGDGTs 0–3, Fig. 92 S1) are common isoGDGTs with a large range of biological sources (Schouten et al., 2013). For example, Thaumarchaeota were the dominant biological source of 93 GDGT-0 in Lake Lucerne from Switzerland (Blaga et al., 2011); while GDGT-0 in 94 Lake Challa surface sediments might predominantly derive from archaea residing in 95 the deeper, anoxic water column, such as group 1.2 and marine benthic group C group 96 97 of the Crenarchaeota, and the Halobacteriales of the Euryarchaota (Sinninghe Damst é et al., 2009); and methanogenic and methanotrophic archaea can also be two 98 important sources of GDGT-0 within the water column and sediment (Blaga et al., 99 100 2009; Powers et al., 2010). In contrast, crenarchaeol and its regioisomer, crenarchaeol' (Fig. S1), are considered to be produced specifically by mesophilic Thaumarchaeota 101 in aquatic environments (Schouten et al., 2002; Blaga et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2010; 102 Powers et al., 2010; Schouten et al., 2013). On this basis, the ratio of 103 104 GDGT-0/crenarchaeol has been proposed to evaluate the influence of Thaumarchaeota on the distribution of isoGDGTs in lacustrine sediments, and the ratio typically varies 105 between 0.2 and 2 in Thaumarchaeota (Schouten et al., 2002; Blaga et al., 2009). 106

107 Thaumarchaeota have a physiological mechanism to increase the weighted 108 average number of cyclopentane rings in their membrane lipids with growth 109 temperature (Schouten et al., 2002). Thus the TetraEther indeX consisting of 86

carbon atoms (TEX₈₆ index), which represents the relative number of cyclopentane 110 moieties in isoGDGT molecules derived from aquatic Thaumarchaeota, has great 111 potential for use as a paleotemperature proxy in the marine environment and large 112 lakes (Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012; Blaga et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2015). 113 However, the index may not be a reliable proxy for past temperature in small lakes 114 due to substantial amounts of soil and/or methanogenic archaea isoGDGTs identified 115 in the same lacustrine sediment and also due to variability in the depth of isoGDGT 116 117 production in aquatic ecosystems (Blaga et al., 2009; Powers et al., 2010; Sinninghe Damst éet al., 2012a). 118

It has also been shown that crenarchaeol' is only present in low abundance in 119 most Thaumarchaeota except for the group I.1b Thaumarchaeota, where it is one of 120 the major isoGDGTs (Kim et al., 2012; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2012b). The 121 crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios for enrichment cultures of group I.1a aquatic 122 Thaumarchaeota are typically 0.01-0.04, however, for group I.1b Thaumarchaeota 123 124 enriched from soils the crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios are around 0.21 and substantially higher (Pitcher et al., 2011; Sinninghe Damst éet al., 2012a). In addition, 125 126 a likely Group I.1b Thaumarchaeota population inhabiting the subsurface water column near the anoxic-suboxic boundary was found in Lake Malawi, but the total 127 production of isoGDGTs by this group appears to be much lower than the 128 129 surface-dwelling Thaumarchaeota (Meegan Kumar et al., 2019).

In addition, aquatic Thaumarchaeota are nitrifers, that prefer to live above the 130 oxycline of relatively deep lakes, as has been observed by a range of lipid biomarker 131 132 and DNA based investigations of vertical changes in archaea communities in lake water columns (Sinninghe Damst é et al., 2009; Blaga et al., 2011; Schouten et al., 133 2012; Buckles et al., 2013; Meegan Kumar et al., 2019). Some Thaumarchaeota are 134 thought to be suppressed by a high light level, which consequently might also inhibit 135 their ability to thrive near the surface of lakes (Schouten et al., 2013). Further, 136 Thaumarchaeota are chemoautotrophic and thrive predominantly near the oxycline in 137 stratified lakes, mainly due to the release of ammonia derived from descending 138

particulate organic matter that is recycled primarily by photoautotrophs or 139 heterotrophs in the photic zone (Tierney et al., 2010). Consequently, the proportion of 140 crenarchaeol in isoGDGTs (cren%) has been suggested as lake-level proxy (Wang et 141 al., 2014a; Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2019). However, it has also been 142 suggested that mixing of the water column will be much more frequent at lowstand 143 conditions, and therefore periodically or permanently oxic, high nutrient availability 144 water and enhanced nitrogen cycling would be likely to result in a relatively higher 145 146 production of crenarchaeol (Filippi and Talbot, 2005; Sinninghe Damst éet al., 2012).

In this study, we present an isoGDGT record spanning the last 147 deglacial-Holocene transition from Lake Chenghai in the southwest China. Our stable 148 oxygen isotope (δ^{18} O) record of authigenic carbonates from Lake Chenghai 149 previously revealed that drought events occurred from 15.6 to 14.4 cal ka BP and 12.5 150 to 11.7 cal ka BP corresponding to the H 1 and YD event (Sun et al., 2019). The 151 present study aims were to (1) identify sources of isoGDGTs in Lake Chenghai 152 sediments and their linkage, if any, with lake-level variation; (2) test the reliability of 153 isoGDGT-based proxies as temperature indicators, by comparing our results with 154 other paleoenvironmental records from adjacent areas, and explore the possible 155 mechanisms driving temperature variations during the last deglaciation-Holocene 156 transition in southwestern China. 157

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159 2. Materials and methods

160 2.1. Regional setting

Lake Chenghai ($26^{\circ}27'-26^{\circ}38'N$, $100^{\circ}38'-100^{\circ}41'E$, Fig. 1A) is a tectonic lake located in the northwestern part of Yunnan Province (Wang and Dou, 1998). The current water surface elevation is ~1500 m above sea level (a.s.l.), and the maximum water depth is ~35 m. The lake is hydrologically closed at present, with a surface area of ~77 km² and a catchment of ~318 km² (Wu et al., 2004). However, Lake Chenghai was linked to the Jinsha River via the Haikou River before a dam at an elevation of

 \sim 1540 m a.s.l. was constructed on its southern side at \sim 0.3 cal ka BP (Wang and Dou, 167 1998). The annual mean lake surface temperature (LST) is ~16 $\,^{\circ}$ C (Wan et al., 2005). 168 In summer, the lake becomes thermally stratified, with the thermocline at between 10 169 to 20 m (Fig. 1C, Lu, 2018). Despite a relatively large catchment, the lake level is 170 mainly maintained by direct precipitation and groundwater, with a total dissolved 171 solid load of ~1‰ and pH of ~8 (Wan et al., 2005). The lake is eutrophic with a total 172 phosphate concentration of 0.05 mg/L, and total nitrogen concentration of 0.89 mg/L 173 174 (Li et al., 2019). Topsoil types are lateritic red earths and mountain red brown soils in the catchment (Wang and Dou, 1998). The Lake Chenghai region is mainly affected 175 by a warm-humid monsoonal airflow from the tropical Indian Ocean from June to 176 September, and by the southern branch of the Northern Hemisphere westerly jet 177 between October and May (Wang and Dou, 1998). The mean annual temperature is 178 ~14 °C, the mean annual precipitation is ~660 mm with 80% falling between June and 179 September (the Yongsheng meteorological station 26.68 N, 100.75 E; elevation of 180 2130 m a.s.l.). 181

182 2.2. Sampling and dating

In summer 2016, an 874-cm-long sediment core (CH2016) was retrieved using a 183 UWITEC coring platform system with a percussion corer in 30 m of water depth 184 (26°33'29.4"N, 100°39'6.7"E). Each section of the core was split lengthways, 185 photographed and then sectioned at a 1-cm interval in the laboratory; the samples 186 stored at 4 $\,^{\circ}$ C until analysis. The chronology was established using accelerator mass 187 spectrometry (AMS) ¹⁴C dating of eight terrestrial plant macrofossils and charcoal 188 189 (Sun et al., 2019). The radiocarbon analyses were performed at the Beta Analytic Radiocarbon Dating Laboratory in Miami, USA. The age model was developed 190 utilizing Bacon, implemented in R 3.1.0 at 5-cm intervals (Blaauw and Andres 191 Christen, 2011; R Development Core Team, 2013). All AMS ¹⁴C dates were calibrated 192 to calendar years before present (0 BP = 1950) using the program Calib 7.1 and the 193 IntCal13 calibration data set (Reimer et al., 2013). The basal mean weighted age is 194 ~15.6 cal ka BP (Fig. 2, Sun et al., 2019). 195

196 2.3. Lipid extraction and analysis

A total of 102 freeze-dried samples at 4-cm interval were collected for GDGT 197 analysis over the last deglaciation-Holocene transition. The sampling resolution was 198 increased to 1-cm between 792-806 cm, due to the low sedimentation rate observed 199 200 in this section. In addition, seven surface (the top 2 cm) sediments covering the whole lake sampled in 2014 were also analyzed. Lipid extraction was undertaken according 201 to the procedures in Feng et al (2019). A ~4 g aliquot of each sample was extracted 202 ultrasonically (4 times) with a mixture of dichloromethane and methanol (9:1, v/v). 203 The supernatants were condensed and saponified at room temperature for 12 h with a 204 1 M KOH/methanol solution. The neutral fractions were then separated into apolar 205 and polar fractions on a silica gel column, using *n*-hexane and methanol, respectively. 206 The polar fraction containing the GDGTs was concentrated and filtered through 0.45 207 μ m polytetrafluoroethylene syringe filters using *n*-hexane/ isopropanol (99:1 v/v), and 208 209 then dried under N₂.

210 GDGTs were analyzed using an Agilent 1260 series high performance liquid pressure chemical chromatography-atmospheric ionization-mass spectrometer 211 (HPLC-APCI-MS), following the procedure of Yang et al. (2015) at the Institute of 212 Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences. Briefly, the GDGTs were 213 separated using three silica columns in tandem (100 mm× 2.1 mm, 1.9 µm; Thermo 214 Fisher Scientific, U.S.A.), maintained at 40 °C. The elution gradients were 84% 215 *n*-hexane (A): 16% ethyl acetate (B) for 5 min, 84/16 to 82/18 A/B for another 60 min, 216 then to 100% B for 21 min and kept for 4 min, followed by a return to 84/16 A/B for 217 218 30 min. The total flow rate of pump A and pump B was maintained at 0.2 ml/min. The APCI-MS conditions were: vaporizer pressure 60 psi, vaporizer temperature 400 °C, 219 220 drying gas flow 6 L/min and temperature 200 °C, capillary voltage 3500 V and corona current 5 µA (~3200 V). Selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode was performed to target 221 specific m/z values for each GDGT compound, including 1302 (GDGT-0), 1300 222 (GDGT-1), 1298 (GDGT-2), 1296 (GDGT-3), and 1292 (crenarchaeol and 223 crenarchaeol'). The results are presented as the fractional of the sum of the isoGDGTs 224

based on the integration of the peak areas of the $[M+H]^+$ ions.

226 2.4. Index calculation and temperature reconstruction

The percentage of each isoGDGT (X) was calculated according to the followingequation:

229 %X = X/ (GDGT-0+ GDGT-1+ GDGT-2+ GDGT-3+ crenarchaeol+ 230 crenarchaeol') (1)

The TEX₈₆ index was defined by Schouten et al. (2002) as follows:

232 TEX₈₆= (GDGT-2+ GDGT-3+ crenarchaeol')/ (GDGT-1+ GDGT-2+ GDGT-3+ crenarchaeol') (2)

TEX₈₆-inferred LST was calculated using the global lake calibration of Casta \tilde{n} eda and Schouten (2015):

236 LST=
$$49.03 \times \text{TEX}_{86}$$
- 10.99 ($r^2 = 0.88$, n=16, RMSE= 3.1 °C) (3)

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238 **3. Results**

The isoGDGT compositions varied greatly in Lake Chenghai sediments. As 220 240 illustrated in Fig. 3, GDGT-0 is the most abundant isoGDGT composition of the surface sediments. The relative abundance of GDGT-0 (%GDGT-0) ranged from 71.6-241 94.4 with a mean of 89.2%, the % cren values varied from 3.8-18.1% with a mean of 242 243 7.6%. The ratios of GDGT-0/crenarchaeol were from 4.0-24.5 with a mean of 15.5. The average values of GDGT-1, GDGT-2 and GDGT-3 relative abundance were 1.2, 244 1.1 and 1.4%, respectively. The crenarchaeol's regioisomer, crenarchaeol', occurred in 245 only low abundance, close to the detection limit, and therefore TEX₈₆ values could 246 not be calculated for these surface sediments. 247

The %cren values ranged between 2.4-61.3% with a mean of 52.4% in the core CH2016. The %cren values were relatively low and highly variable during 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP, ranging between 1.8-32.0%, with a mean of 11.6%. By contrast, the values were relatively stable during 14.4-7.0 cal ka BP, ranging between 41.8-61.3% with a mean of 58.3%. The relative abundances of crenarchaeol' had a mean of 1.7%. The ratios of crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol were highly variable during 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP with a mean of 0.07. After this time, the values gradually decrease during 14.4-11.7 cal ka BP time interval with a minor increase between 12.5-11.7 cal ka BP, where the ratio averaged 0.05. The crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios were generally stable and fluctuated around 0.03 during the period 11.8-7.0 cal ka BP.

The relative abundances of GDGT-0 (%GDGT-0) showed a significant negative 258 correlation with the % cren in the core CH2016 (r= 0.99, p < 0.001). The %GDGT-0 259 values had a mean of 74.0% between 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP and a mean of 19.6% during 260 the 14.4-7.0 cal ka BP interval. The values of GDGT-0/crenarchaeol were 261 generally >2 during the period 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP, ranging from 1.4-49.9 with a 262 mean of 16.7, and all <2 from 14.4-7.0 cal ka BP. The relative abundance of GDGT-1, 263 GDGD-2 and GDGT-3 were generally low in the sediments, with means of 8.9, 9.2, 264 265 and 1.3, respectively.

The TEX₈₆ values were also highly variable during 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP period, ranging between 0.36-0.68 with a mean of 0.54. Thereafter, the values generally followed an increasing trend, ranging between 0.49-0.63 with a mean of 0.58.

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270 **4. Discussion**

271 4.1. Provenance of isoGDGTs

In order to evaluate the potential sources of isoGDGTs in Lake Chenghai sediments, we plotted a ternary diagram to compare the distribution patterns of GDGT-0, crenarchaeol, and the sum of GDGT-1, GDGT-2, GDGT-3, and crenarchaeol' ('TEX₈₆' GDGT) among our samples, previously published Chinese soils and global marine sediments compiled by Yao et al. (2019), along with previously published Chinese lacustrine surface sediments results (Günther et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016, 2019; Yao et al., 2019; Wang 279 et al., 2020). In Lake Chenghai surface sediments, GDGT-0 is the predominant component among the isoGDGTs, consistent with most previous studies of lacustrine 280 sediments (Blaga et al., 2009; Dang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2019; 281 Wang et al., 2020). For example, GDGT-0 can account for more than 90% of total 282 isoGDGTs in shallow lake surface sediments from East China (Dang et al., 2016); ~80% 283 in saline pond surface sediments from northeast China (Li et al., 2019), and ~54% in 284 surface sediments from the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (Wang et al., 2020). The values 285 286 of GDGT-0/cren >2 in Lake Chenghai surface sediment suggest non-thaumarchaeotal isoGDGTs are also likely to be an important source in this lake system. The 287 distribution of isoGDGTs between Chinese lacustrine surface sediments and soils 288 were similar, and both were generally higher than that in global marine sediments and 289 290 Thaumarchaeota. This line of evidence also suggests that the surface sediments could contain a significant contribution of soil isoGDGTs input (Li et al., 2016; Li et al., 291 2019). 292

293 The distribution of isoGDGT in Lake Chenghai sediment from 15.4-14.4 cal ka 294 BP was similar to that of the surface sediments, suggesting a substantial contribution 295 of non-thaumarchaeota during this period. However, the relative abundance of GDGT-0 significantly decreased and %cren increased in Lake Chenghai sediments 296 from 14.4-7.0 cal ka BP. The plots generally overlapped with those of global marine 297 298 sediments and Thaumarchaeota in the ternary diagram during this period, indicating that Thaumarchaeota dominated the archaea community in Lake Chenghai during the 299 late glacial period and the early Holocene. The observed down-core changes in 300 crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios may be due to relatively high contributions of group 301 302 I.1b Thaumarchaeota from soils during the period 15.4-11.8 cal ka BP, and that these dominate the contributions of isoGDGTs derived from aquatic group I.1a 303 Thaumarchaeota during the period from 11.8-7.0 cal ka BP. 304

305 *4.2. Assessment of isoGDGT-based lake-level proxy*

The environmental implication of %cren at Lake Chenghai during the period from the last deglaciation to the early Holocene is illustrated in Fig. 5. The relatively

low %cren values during 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP is consistent in timing with the δ^{18} O 308 record of authigenic carbonates derived from the same core (Fig. 4e, Sun et al., 2019), 309 speleothem δ^{18} O records from Mawmluh Cave and Bittoo Cave in north India (Fig. 4f, 310 Dutt et al., 2015; Kathayat et al., 2016), and Donnge Cave in southwest China 311 (Dykoski et al., 2005), which all record a substantial positive shift in δ^{18} O values at 312 that time. Speleothem δ^{18} O records in the ISM region are used as a rainfall amount 313 proxy, tracking changes in monsoon intensity (Dykoski et al., 2005; Cheng et al., 314 315 2012; Dutt et al., 2015). This suggests that the Thaumarchaeota were mainly suppressed by non-thaumarchaeotal archaea. Thus the abrupt increase in % cren values 316 at 14.4 cal ka BP is suggested to represent a lowstand of Lake Chenghai during 317 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP, and a highstand period thereafter. 318

The interpretation of %cren contradicts the case for Lake Challa, but is 319 consistent with that for Lake Qinghai in northwest China (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 320 2012; Wang et al., 2014). This difference is possibly due to the different response of 321 Thaumarchaeota in the two types of lakes because of the mixing regime. For the small 322 323 and deep Lake Challa, there is never complete mixing due to the stable stratification 324 of the warmer water column and the lack of seasonality (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2009). Below the oxycline nitrate levels are high, more substantial mixing regenerates 325 more nutrients to the surface waters, resulting a relatively higher production of 326 crenarchaeol (Sinninghe Damst é et al., 2012). In contrast, Lake Chenghai and Lake 327 Qinghai are seasonal mixing lakes, and the vertical change of nutrients may be 328 relatively small in the lake water. In addition, the low lake level during the H1 event 329 was associated with a weakened ISM, and less terrestrial nutrient input due to less 330 runoff would likely suppress the growth of Thaumarchaeota and reduce the 331 production of crenarchaeol. 332

Low lake-levels and a weakened ISM during the H1 cold event are also observed in several previous paleolimnolgical studies from the Yunnan Plateau, within the uncertainties of the age model. Diatom and grain-size records from Lake Tengchongqinghai show a significant decrease in acidophilous diatom species and an

increase in the grain-size of mineral particles from 18.5 to 15.0 cal ka BP, suggesting 337 that the climate was dry and the ISM was at its weakest since the last deglaciation 338 (Fig. 4g, Zhang et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2018). Similarly, an increase in >30 µm 339 grain-size particles in the late glacial sediments from Lake Xingyun reflects a period 340 of abrupt weakening of the ISM during the H1 cold event because of reduced lake 341 level (Wu et al., 2015). In Lake Lugu, the loss of the planktonic diatoms and a switch 342 to small Fragilaria spp. suggests a weaker stratification from 24.5 to 14.5 cal ka BP, 343 344 which might also correspond to low lake-level at that time (Wang et al., 2014b). In addition, there is a peak of cren% centered at ~15.2 cal ka BP, suggesting a centennial 345 high lake-level and strengthened ISM period, which was not identified in a previous 346 δ^{18} O record of authigenic carbonates (Sun et al., 2019). However, the strengthened 347 ISM event at ~15.2 cal ka BP was clearly recorded by speleothem δ^{18} O record from 348 Dongge Cave in southwest China (Dykoski et al., 2005). 349

Lake levels inferred from %cren do not show a lowstand during the YD 350 (~12.8-11.7 cal ka BP), which is generally recognised as a period of low rainfall due 351 to the weakening of the ISM (Dutt et al., 2015; Dykoski et al., 2005; Kathayat et al., 352 2016; Sun et al., 2019). In contrast, a low lake-level signal is observed in the δ^{18} O 353 record of authigenic carbonates from Lake Chenghai (Sun et al., 2019). In addition, 354 increased lake water alkalinity and decreased lake-level are also recorded in the 355 356 diatom and grain-size proxy records between 12.8-11.1 cal ka BP of Lake Tengchongqinghai (Fig. 4g, Zhang et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2018). The inferred high 357 lake levels during the YD which is inconsistent with a weakened ISM inferred from 358 other proxies, might be due to the erosion of soil organic matter into the lake during 359 360 this period (Wang et al., 2019). The crenarchaeol are relatively abundant in topsoils from southwest China, and the influence of soil input should be more significant at 361 times of drier conditions (Yang et al., 2019). It is also worth noting that the 362 crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios were not only relatively higher during the H1 cold 363 event, but also showed a minor reversal during the YD cold event. These results are 364 consistent with group I.1b Thaumarchaeota being an important source of isoGDGTs 365

in small lakes and in the nearshore areas of large lakes (Wang et al., 2019).

Another possibility for the unexpected H1 and YD lake level is the sensitivity of 367 the proxy to lake-level variation in the case of Lake Chenghai. The δ^{18} O record of 368 authigenic carbonates from Lake Chenghai and speleothem δ^{18} O records in the ISM 369 region suggest that the weakening of the ISM during the YD was less marked than 370 that occurring during the H1 event, in turn suggesting that lake-levels in southwest 371 China may have been higher during the YD than the H1 event (Dykoski et al., 2005; 372 Dutt et al., 2015; Kathayat et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). For 373 the %cren proxy, we note that the values are correlated to the logarithm of depth, 374 suggesting that % cren may be less sensitive to water depth variation when the 375 lake-level is relatively high, and more sensitive to water depth variation when the 376 lake-level is lower (Wang et al., 2019). 377

4.3. Warming in the last deglaciation-Holocene transition

The application of the TEX_{86} -based paleotemperature calibration depends 379 critically on the assumption that the isoGDGTs used for calculation of TEX₈₆ values 380 are mainly been derived from group I.1a in the water column (Blaga et al., 2009; 381 Castañeda and Schouten, 2011; Powers et al., 2010; Sinninghe Damstéet al., 2012a). 382 Since the influence of methanogenic archaea in the water column or archaea in the 383 catchment soils has been recognized as significant, Lake Chenghai sediments with 384 crenarchaeol'/crenarchaeol ratios >0.04 and/or GDGT-0/crenarchaeol ratio >2 are 385 excluded from the discussion below (Powers et al., 2010; Castañeda and Schouten, 386 2015). The ratio of branched GDGTs to isoGDGTs should be <0.5 if the 387 TEX₈₆-temperature calibration in previous studies, because the values are 388 generally >0.90 in soils, whereas values are close to zero for sediments from large 389 lakes (Hopmans et al., 2004; Weijers et al., 2006). However, recent studies of a wide 390 variety of lakes have suggested that at least some of the branched GDGTs can be 391 produced in situ in the lake (Blaga et al., 2010; Tierney et al., 2010; Pearson et al., 392 393 2011; Hu et al., 2016; Dang et al., 2018; Russell et al., 2018). Therefore, in situ production of branched GDGTs in Lake Chenghai cannot be fully excluded, and 394

therefore the ratio of branched GDGTs to isoGDGTs was ignored in this study. 74 samples remain that have isoGDGT distributions consistent with their dominant source being the aquatic Thaumarchaeota, most of these being from the time interval between 11.7-7.0 cal ka BP, and only a few from the last deglaciation (n= 6). Using Equation 4 developed by Castañeda and Schouten (2015) to calculate mean LST, yielded LST values from 14.3-20.1 °C, with a mean of 18.0 °C (Fig. 5a).

401 LST was ~15.9 $\,^{\circ}$ C during the last deglacial period, a temperature approaching the 16 $^{\circ}$ C observed in the present Lake Chenghai. Considering the TEX₈₆-based 402 403 LST transfer function has a RMSE of 3.1 °C, this result is consistent with other recent reconstructed mean annual temperatures (MAT) in southwest China, which show the 404 405 temperatures during the last deglaciation were generally similar to the present-day values. For example, the MAT inferred from branched GDGTs from Lake 406 Tengchongqinghai in southwest China increased episodically from 12.0 $\,^{\circ}$ C to 14.0 $\,^{\circ}$ C 407 between 19.2 and 10.0 cal ka BP, where the modern mean annual temperature is 408 409 14.7 $\,^{\circ}$ C (Tian et al., 2019). The TEX₈₆-based deglacial LST and MAT inferred from 410 branched GDGTs from Nam Co in south Tibetan Plateau also reported values similar 411 to the present-day (Günther et al., 2015). Furthermore, the July temperature derived from the chironomid record from Lake Tiancai, and pollen record from Lake Yidun 412 showed that the climate during the deglacial period was \sim 2-3 °C cooler relative to 413 414 today (Fig. 5b and c, Shen et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2019). The amplitudes of reconstructed terrestrial temperatures change in the Indian summer monsoon region 415 416 are generally consistent with those from the tropical Indian Ocean. Although estimates of sea surface temperatures in the Andaman Sea and Bay of Bengal were variable, the 417 418 cooling ranged from 1-4 °C (Rashid et al., 2007; MARGO, 2009; Govil and Naidu, 2011; Gebregiorgis et al., 2016). 419

Following the YD cold event, LST ranged from 16.2 °C to 20.1 °C with an increasing trend, and the middle Holocene was generally warmer than the early Holocene (11.7- 8.2 cal ka BP). In the Indian summer monsoon region, the reconstructed MAT using the branched GDGT calibration from Lake Ximenglongtan

remained at ~12.5 °C from 9.4-7.6 cal ka BP, then experienced a rapid warming to 424 13.8 °C from 7.6-5.5 cal ka BP (Ning et al., 2019). Meanwhile, the branched 425 GDGTs-MAT from Lake Tengchongqinghai also achieved its highest the highest 426 value at around 7.1 cal ka BP (Tian et al., 2019). Similarly, summer temperatures 427 reconstructed from Lake Tiancai and Lake Xingyun displayed lower values in the 428 early Holocene when compared with that in the following millennium, though the 429 amplitude of change is much lower (0.3 and 1.1 °C lower, respectively, Zhang et al., 430 431 2017a; Wu et al., 2018). The amplitude of the absolute scale of cooling and warming is of a lower magnitude in the chironomid, pollen and branched GDGT records 432 compared to the TEX₈₆-based reconstruction from Lake Chenghai. This may be due to 433 the difference in the accuracy and precision of the proxy-based models, which also 434 depend on the biological and seasonal sensitivity of the proxy, to constrain the 435 absolute temperature values (Zhang et al., 2017). 436

437 We also noted that most of the lake records from not only the Indian summer monsoon region, but other parts of East Asia, show a thermal optimum at 438 8.0-7.0 cal ka BP (Ning et al., 2019). The summer isolation over the Northern 439 440 Hemisphere, which is an important external forcing, was highest at ~11.0 cal ka BP, leading the temperature optimum in east and south Asia by 3-4 ka (Berger and Loutre, 441 1991). This indicates that additional feedback between solar insolation and internal 442 processes, such as the persistence of remnants of the Northern Hemisphere ice-sheets 443 during the early Holocene, should be considered in explaining this discrepancy (Ning 444 et al., 2019). The Laurentide and Fennoscandian ice-sheets in the early Holocene 445 enhanced surface albedo and reduced air temperature in the high latitudes, which 446 447 likely led to enhanced westerlies transporting more cold air from the North Atlantic Ocean downward to the Indian monsoon affected regions of southwest China and 448 north India through its south branch flow (Ning et al., 2019). In addition, the melting 449 of ice-sheets is likely to have slowed down the Atlantic Meridional Overturning 450 Circulation. This process could further result in a relatively weakened Indian summer 451 monsoon, and a reduction in heat transported to the continent during the early 452

455 **5. Conclusions**

The record of isoGDGTs in the sediments of Lake Chenghai in southwest China 456 presented in this study allows us to test the ability of isoGDGT-based proxies in the 457 region to reconstruct lake-level and temperature 458 ISM during the last 459 deglaciation-Holocene transition. The lake-level history inferred from % cren shows a relative lowstand of Lake Chenghai during 15.4-14.4 cal ka BP, corresponding to a 460 period of weakened ISM during the H1 cold event. The indistinct signal of lake-level 461 variation during the YD cold event may be due to the group I.1b Thaumarchaeota 462 being an important source of isoGDGTs and consequently the lake level may have 463 been low during the YD cold event. After filtering for the influence of isoGDGTs 464 derived from soils in the surrounding catchment and non-thaumarchaeota, the TEX₈₆ 465 paleothermometry revealed that the LST of Lake Chenghai was similar to the 466 467 present-day value during the last deglaciation. The lake also experienced a substantial warming of ~4 $\,^{\circ}$ C from the early-Holocene to the mid-Holocene due to the melting of 468 the remnants of the continental ice-sheets in the Northern Hemisphere, which 469 gradually reduced winter westerly circulation. Overall, our results show that records 470 of isoGDGTs in Lake Chenghai sediments have potential for quantitative 471 paleotemperature reconstruction once potential underlying biases are properly 472 constrained. 473

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475 **Data availability.**

- 476 All data in this study will be made available on request.
- 477 Author contributions.

W.S and E.Z designed the study, W.S performed the fieldwork and lab analysis. W.S
and E.Z led the writing of the paper, J.C, J. S, M.I.B, C.Z, Q.J and J.S contributed to

data interpretation and paper writing. All authors contributed to discussions and
writing of the manuscript. The authors declare that they have no competing financial
interests.

483 Competing interests.

484 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Fig. 1. (a) Map showing the location of Lake Chenghai in southwest China (red 810 triangle) and other sites (circles) mentioned in the text: 1. Bittoo Cave (Kathayat et al., 811 2016); 2. Mawmluh Cave (Dutt et al., 2015); 3. Lake Ximenglongtan (Ning et al., 812 2019); 4. Lake Tengchongqinghai (Zhang et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2018; Tian et al., 813 2019); 5. Lake Tiancai (Zhang et al., 2017a, 2019); 6. Lake Lugu (Wang et al., 2014); 814 7. Lake Xingyun (Wu et al., 2015, 2018); 8. Dongge Cave (Dykoski et al., 2005); 9. 815 Nam Co (Günther et al., 2015); 10. Dangxiong Co (Ling et al., 2017); 11. Lake Yidun 816 817 (Shen et al., 2006), (b) The red triangle indicates the location of core CH2016 in Lake Chenghai, while green triangles indicate the locations of surface samples. (c) The 818

vertical variation of Lake Chenghai water temperature in March, May, July andOctober (Lu, 2018).



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Fig. 2. (a) Age-depth model for the Lake Chenghai sediment core produced using Bacon software (Blaauw and Andres Christen, 2011) from Sun et al. (2019). Dotted lines indicate the 95% confidence range and the solid line indicates the weighted mean ages for each depth, error bars indicate the standard deviation range (2σ) of the calibrated radiocarbon dates. (b) estimated sedimentation rate (Sun et al., 2019).



Fig. 3. Variations in the relative isoGDGT distribution and isoGDGTs-based proxies
of the Lake Chenghai sediment core. The triangles indicate the mean of surface
sediments.



Fig. 4. Ternary diagram showing the distributions of GDGT-0, crenarchaeol, and
'TEX₈₆' GDGTs in surface and core sediments from Lake Chenghai, global marine
sediments (Kim et al., 2010), published Chinese soils compiled by rad et al. (2019),
and lacustrine surface sediments (Günther et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2016; Hu et al.,
2016; Li et al., 2016, 2019; Yao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020).



Fig. 5. Comparison of the isoGDGT-based lake-level record from Lake Chenghai (a-c) with the δ^{18} O record of carbonate finer in grain size than 63 µm from Lake Chenghai (d, Sun et al., 2019), the stalagmite δ^{18} O records from Mawmluh Cave in northeast Indian (e, Dutt et al., 2015); grain-size and diatom record from Lake Tengchongqinghai (f and g, Zhang et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018). The shading is utilised to represent 'cold' events in the North Atlantic.



Fig. 6. A comparison of TEX₈₆-based lake surface temperature of Lake Chenghai (a) 849 with other paleotemperature records. (b) mean annual temperature based on branched 850 GDGTs from Lake Ximenglongtan (blue line, Ning et al., 2019) and Lake 851 852 Tengchongqinghai (black line, Tian et al., 2019); (c) Alkenone-based mean annual temperature at Lake Dangxiong (blue line, Ling et al., 2017), and TEX₈₆-based lake 853 854 surface temperature of Nam Co from the southern Tibetan Plateau (black line, Günther et al., 2015); (d) July temperature reconstructed from pollen record from 855 Lake Xingyun (blue line, Wu et al., 2018) and subfossil chironomids from Lake 856 857 Tiancai (black line, Zhang et al., 2017a, 2019);; and (e) sea surface temperatures in

- the Andaman Sea and Bay of Bengal (Rashid et al., 2007; Govil and Naidu, 2011;
- 859 Gebregiorgis et al., 2016).