Evaluation of lipid biomarkers as proxies for sea ice and ocean temperatures along the Antarctic continental margin

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Abstract

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The importance of Antarctic sea ice and Southern Ocean warming has come into the focus of polar research induring the last couple of decades. Especially inaround West Antarctica, where warm water masses approach the continent and where sea ice has declined, the distribution and evolution of sea ice play a critical role for the stability of nearby ice shelves. Organic geochemical analyses of marine seafloor surface sediments from the Antarctic continental margin permitallow an evaluation of the applicability of biomarker-based sea ice and ocean temperature reconstructions in these vulnerableclimatically sensitive areas. We analysed highly branched isoprenoids (HBIs), such as the sea-ice proxy IPSO25 and phytoplankton-derived HBI-trienes, but also phytosterols and isoprenoidal glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs), which are established tools for the assessment of primary productivity and ocean temperatures, respectively. The combination of IPSO₂₅ with a phytoplankton marker (i.e. the PIPSO25 index) permits semi-quantitative sea--ice reconstructions and avoids

misleading over- or underestimations of sea-ice cover. Comparisons of the PIPSO₂₅-based sea-ice distribution patterns and TEX^L₈₆- and RI-OH'-derived ocean temperatures with (1) sea-ice concentrations obtained from satellite observations and (2) instrumental instrument measurements of sea surface and subsurface temperatures corroborate the general capability of these proxies to properly displaydetermine oceanic key variables properly. This is further supported by model data. We also highlight specific aspects and limitations that need to be considered when interpreting taken into account for the interpretation of such biomarker data and discuss the potential of IPSO₂₅ to reflect as an indicator for the former occurrence of platelet ice and/or the export of ice shelf water.

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1. Introduction

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2 One of the key components of the global climate system, influencing major atmospheric and oceanic 3 processes, is floating on the ocean's surface at high latitudes - sea ice (Thomas, 2017). Southern Ocean sea ice is one of the most strongly changing features of the Earth's surface as it experiences considerable 4 5 seasonal variabilities with decreasing sea-ice extent decreasing from a maximum of 20 x 106 km² in 6 September to a minimum of 4 x 106 km² in March (Arrigo et al., 1997; Zwally, 1983). This seasonal 7 waxing and waning of sea ice substantially modifies deep-water formation-as well as, influences the 8 ocean-atmosphere exchange of heat and gas, and strongly affects surface albedo and radiation budgets 9 (Abernathey et al., 2016; Nicholls et al., 2009; Turner et al., 2017), and also). Moreover, sea ice 10 regulates ocean buoyancy flux, upwelling and primary production (Schofield et al., 2018).

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Based on the 40-year satellite record, Southern Ocean sea-ice extent as a whole followed an increasing trend (Comiso et al., 2017; Parkinson and Cavalieri, 2012), experiencing an abrupt reversal from 2014ca. 2015 to 2018 (Parkinson, 2019; Turner et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2019), which has been attributed to a decadedecades-long oceanic warming and increased advection of atmospheric heat (Eayrs et al., 2021). However, the sea-ice extent around major parts of West Antarctica has been decreasing over the last 40 years- (Parkinson and Cavalieri, 2012). The Antarctic Peninsula is particularly affected by a significant reduction in sea-ice extent and rapid atmospheric and oceanic warming (Etourneau et al., 2019; Li et al., 2014; Massom et al., 2018; Vaughan et al., 2003). The Larsen Ice Shelves A and B, located ice shelves on the east coast of the Antarctic Peninsula, collapsed in 1995 and 2002, respectively, which was. These collapses were triggered by the loss of a sea-ice buffer, enabling which enabled an increased flexure of the ice-shelf margins by ocean swells well (Massom et al., 2018). The Along the Pacific margin of West Antarctica, the Bellingshausen and Amundsen Seas areseas have also been affected by a major sea-ice decline and regional surface ocean warming (Hobbs et al., 2016; Parkinson, 2019). Marine-terminating glaciers draining into the Amundsen Seaand Bellingshausen seas are thinning at an alarming rate, which has been linked to sub-ice shelf melting caused by relatively warm Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) incursions into sub-ice shelf cavities (e.g., Jacobs et al., 2011; Khazendar et al., 2016; Nakayama et al., 2018; Rignot et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2017). The disintegration of ice shelves reduces the buttressing effect that they exert on ice grounded

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29 further upstream, which may can lead to a partial collapseor total loss of the ice in the catchments of the 30 affected glaciers, eventually raising and, thus, raise global sea level considerably (3.4 to 4.4 m resulting 31 from a WAISin case of a total West Antarctic Ice Sheet collapse; Fretwell et al., 2013; Jenkins et al., 32 2018; Pritchard et al., 2012; Vaughan, 2008). 33 State-of-the-art climate models are not yet fully able to depict sea-ice seasonality and sea-ice cover, 34 which the 5th Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (Stocker et al., 35 2013) attributes to a lack of validation efforts using proxy-based sea-ice reconstructions. Knowledge 36 about (paleo-)sea-ice conditions and ocean temperatures in the climate sensitive areas around the West 37 Antarctic Ice Sheet is hence considered as crucial for understanding past and future climate evolution, 38 To date, the most common proxy-based sea-ice reconstructions in the Southern Ocean are conducted 39 by the useutilize fossil assemblages of sympagic diatom assemblages, which are strongly dependent on 40 their preservation(i.e. living within thesea ice) diatoms preserved within the seafloor sediments (Allen 41 et al., 2011; Armand and Leventer, 2003; Crosta et al., 1998; Esper and Gersonde, 2014; Gersonde and 42 Zielinski, 2000; Leventer, 1998). Dissolution effects within the water column or after deposition, 43 however, determine the preservation state of the small, lightly silicified microfossilsdiatom taxa and 44 maytherefore can alter the diatomassemblage record, leading to inaccurate sea-ice reconstructions 45 (Leventer, 1998; Zielinski et al., 1998). Recently, the molecular remains of certain diatoms, diatom taxa, 46 i.e. specific organic geochemical lipids, have emerged as a potential proxy for reconstructing past 47 Antarctic sea-ice cover (Barbara et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2013; Crosta et al., 2021; Denis et al., 2010; 48 Etourneau et al., 2013; Lamping et al., 2020; Massé et al., 2011; Vorrath et al., 2019; 2020). 49 Specifically, a di-unsaturated highly branched isoprenoid (HBI) alkene (HBI diene, C25:2) has been 50 detected in both sea-ice diatoms and sediments infrom the Southern Ocean and Antarctic marine 51 sediments (Johns et al., 1999; Massé et al., 2011; Nichols et al., 1988), and recently. Recently, the 52 sympagic (i.e. living within sea ice) tube dwelling diatom Berkeleya adeliensis has been identified as producer, which preferably proliferates in platelet ice, has been identified as the producer of these HBI 53 54 alkene (Belt et al., 2016; Riaux-Gobin and Poulin, 2004). However, B. adeliensis seems rather flexible 55 concerning its habitat, since it was also recorded in the bottom ice layer and seems to be apparently 56 well adapted to changes in texture during ice melt (Riaux-Gobin et al., 2013). Belt et al. (2016)

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the counterpart IP₂₅ in the Arctic. Commonly, for a more detailed assessment of sea-ice conditions, IP₂₅ in the Arctic Ocean and IPSO25 in the Southern Ocean have been measured alongside complementary phytoplankton-derived lipids, such as sterols and/or HBI-trienes, which are indicative of open-water conditions (Belt and Müller, 2013; Lamping et al., 2020; Etourneau et al., 2013; Vorrath et al., 2019; 2020). The combination of the sea-ice biomarker and a phytoplankton biomarker, the so-called PIPSO₂₅ index (Vorrath et al., 2019), allows for a more quantitative differentiation of contrasting sea-ice settings and helps to avoid misinterpretations of the absence of IPSO₂₅-which. An absence of the sea-ice biomarker can result from either a lack of sea-ice cover or a permanentlypermanent thick sea-ice cover, that prevents light penetration and hence limiting limits ice algae growth. These two contrasting scenarios can be distinguished by using the additional phytoplankton biomarker. Recently, Lamping et al. (2020) used this approach the PIPSO25 index to study reconstruct changes in sea-ice conditions during the last deglaciation of the Amundsen Sea shelf, which were likely linked to advance and retreat phases of the Getz Ice Shelf. Multiple mechanisms exist that can cause ice-shelf instability. As previously mentioned, relatively warm CDW is considered one of the main drivers for ice-shelf thinning in the Amundsen Sea Embayment and Bellingshausen Sea sectors of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (Nakayama et al., 2018; Jenkins and Jacobs, 2008; Rignot et al., 2019). Accordingly, changing ocean temperatures are another crucial factor for the stability of the marine-based ice streams draining most of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (e.g., Colleoni et al., 2018). As for sea-ice reconstructions, organic geochemical lipidslipid proxies have been employed over the past decades for reconstructing ocean temperatures in high latitudes have come into focus in the past decades, since the abundance and preservation of calcareous microfossils, which are commonly used for such reconstructions, is very poor in polar marine sediments (e.g., Zamelczyk et al., 2012). ArchaealIn contrast, archaeal isoprenoidal glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (isoGDGTs), sensitive to temperature change and relatively resistant to degradation

processes, are well-preserved in all types of marine sediments (Huguet et al., 2008; Schouten et al.,

2013). Schouten et al. (2002) found that the number of rings in sedimentary GDGTs is correlated with

introduced the term IPSO₂₅ ("Ice Proxy of the Southern Ocean with 25 carbon atoms") by analogy to

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surface water temperatures and developed the first archaeal lipid paleothermometer TEX₈₆, a ratio of certain GDGTs, as a sea surface temperature (SST) proxy. For polar oceans, Kim et al. (2010) developed a more specific calibration model for temperatures below 15 °C, TEXL86, which employs a different GDGT combination. There is an emerging consensus that GDGTs are rather reflecting predominantly reflect subsurface ocean temperatures (SOT) along the Antarctic margin (Kim et al., 2012; Etourneau et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020). This is supported by observations of elevated archaeal abundances (and GDGTs) in warmer subsurface waters (Liu et al., 2020; Spencer-Jones et al., 2021). Archaea adapt their membrane in cold waters by adding hydroxyl groups and changing the number of rings, OH-GDGTs (Fietz et al., 2020). Huguet et al. The (2017) found in molecular dynamic simulations that the additional hydroxyl moieties lead to an increase of the membrane fluidity-that, which aids trans-membrane transport in cold environments, which. This explains Huguet et al. (2017) found in molecular dynamic simulations, explaining the higher relative abundance of OH Archaea lipids in cold environments. Taking the OH-GDGTs into account, Lü et al. (2015) proposed an SST-proxy for the polar oceans, the RI-OH'. Our The aim with this of our study is to provide insight into the application of biomarkers for sea ice as well as ocean temperature reconstructions in Southern Ocean sediments as sea ice and ocean temperature proxies. Estimates on recent sea-ice coverage and ocean temperatures along the eastern and western Antarctic Peninsula (EAP and WAP) as well as in the Amundsen and Weddell Seas, seas are based on the analyses of IPSO₂₅, HBI-trienes and phytosterols as well as and GDGTs in seafloor surface sediment samples from these areas. An intercomparison A comparison of biomarker-based-derived estimates of sea--ice as well asextent and ocean temperature estimates-with (1) sea-ice distributions obtained from satellite observations and (2) ocean temperatures deduced from instrumental datain-situ ocean temperature measurements allows for an evaluation of the proxy approaches approach. We further consider AWI-ESM2 climate model data to assess the model's performance in depicting recent oceanic key variables and to examine the potential impact of paleoclimate conditions on the biomarker composition of the investigated surface sediments. In regard of Taking into account the various factors affecting the use of marine biomarkers as paleoenvironmental proxies, we further-comment on the limitations of GDGT temperature estimates and the novel PIPSO₂₅ approach, and Furthermore, we

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discuss the potential connection between IPSO₂₅ and platelet ice formation under near-coastal fast ice,

which is related to the near-surface presence of sub-ice shelf melt water.

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2. Regional setting

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The areas of investigation investigated in this study include the southern Drake Passage, the continental shelves of the WAP and EAP (\sim 60° S) and the more southerly located Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas (\sim 75° S; Fig. 1). The different study areas are all connected by the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), the Antarctic Coastal Current and the Weddell Gyre, respectively (Meredith et al., 2011; Rintoul et al., 2001).

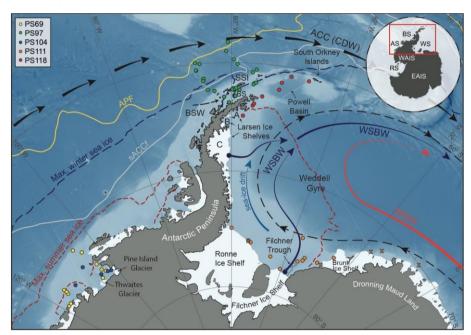


Fig. 1: Map of the study area (location indicated by red box in insert map) including all 41 sample locations (see different colored dots for individual RV *Polarstern* expeditions in the top left corner; for detailed sample information, see Table S1) and main oceanographic features. Maximum summer and winter sea-ice boundaries are marked by dashed red and blue line, respectively (Fetterer et al., 2016). OrangeThe orange crosses in the Weddell Sea indicate samples where a PIPSO₂₅ value of 1 has been assigned due to with low biomarker concentrations, close to detection limit, to which we assigned a PIPSO₂₅ value of 1. ACC: Antarctic Circumpolar Current, APF: Antarctic Polar Front, sACCf: southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front, SSI: South Shetland Islands, BS: Bransfield Strait, BSW: Bellingshausen Sea Water, CDW: Circumpolar Deep Water; WDW: Weddell Deep Water, WSBW: Weddell Sea Bottom Water (Mathiot et al., 2011; Orsi et al., 1995). Insert map shows grounded ice only (j.e., no. without ice shelves); in black; WAIS: West Antarctic Ice Sheet, EAIS: East Antarctic Ice Sheet, RS: Ross Sea, AS: Amundsen Sea, BS: Bellingshausen Sea, WS: Weddell Sea. Background bathymetry derived from IBCSO data (Arndt et al., 2013).

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The ACC, which is mainly composed of CDW and characterised by strong eastward flow, is the largest current system in the world characterised by a strong eastward flow, which finds and has its narrowest constriction in the Drake Passage. AlongIn the Bellingshausen Sea, the Amundsen Sea and along the WAP, where the ACC flows close to the continental shelf edge, CDW is upwelling onto the shelf and flows to the coast via bathymetric troughs, contributing to basal melt and retreat of marine-terminating glaciers and ice shelves (Cook et al., 2016; Jacobs et al., 2011; Jenkins and Jacobs, 2008; Klinck et al., 2004). In the Weddell Sea, the Weddell Gyre, a subpolar cyclonic circulation is present south of the ACC, the Weddell Gyre, which deflects part of the ACC's CDW towards the south turning and turns it into Warm Deep Water (WDW; Fig. 1; Hellmer et al., 2016; Vernet et al., 2019). In close vicinity to the Filchner-Ronne and Larsen Ice Shelves, glacially derived freshwaterglacial meltwater as well as dense brinebrines released during sea-ice formation contribute to the formation of Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) - a major precursor of Antarctic Bottom Water (Hellmer et al., 2016). WindAlong the EAP coast wind and currents force a northward sea ice drift in the western Weddell Sea along the eastern coast of the Antarctic Peninsula sea ice (Harms et al., 2001) until leaving it to melt in), which melts when reaching warmer waters to in the North and up to the in Powell Basin (Vernet et al., 2019). At the northern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula, colder and saltier Weddell Sea water masses branch off westwards into the Bransfield Strait, where they encounter the well-stratified, warm, and fresh Bellingshausen Sea Water (BSW; Fig. 1), which is entering the Bransfield Strait from the West (Sangrà et al., 2011),

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Since 1978, satellite observations show strong seasonal as well as and decadal changes in sea-ice cover at the around the Antarctic Peninsula, which are less pronounced in the more southerly. Amundsen and Weddell Seas (Fig. 2a c).seas (Vaughan et al., 2003; Parkinson and Cavalieri, 2012). Mean monthly sea-ice concentrations (SIC) for austral winter (JJA), spring (SON) and summer (DJF) reveal a permanently ice-free Drake Passage, while the WAP and EAP shelf areas are influenced by a changing sea-ice cover inthroughout the course of a year (Fig. 2a-c). For the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas, satellite data reveal a closed seasonal sea ice cover with up to ~90 % sea-ice concentration during winter and spring (Fig. 2a+b), and a late break up of sea ice cover to a minimum concentration of ~30 % during summer (Fig. 2c).

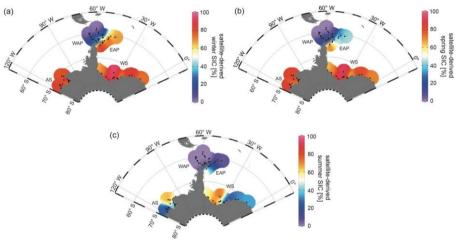


Fig. 2: Distribution of mean monthly satellite-derived sea-ice concentrations for (a) winter (JJA), (b) spring (SON) and (c) summer (DJF) in % (downloaded from the National Snow and Ice Data Center, NSIDC; Cavalieri et al., 1996). AS: Amundsen Sea, WAP: West Antarctic Peninsula, EAP: East Antarctic Peninsula, WS: Weddell Sea.

3. Material and methods

3.1 Sediment samples

In total, weWe analysed a set of 41 surface sediment samples (0-1 cm subbottom depth) from different areas of the Southern Ocean (Fig. 1) retrieved by multicorers and giant box corers during RV Polarstern expeditions over the past 15 years. Sixteen surface sediment samples from the Amundsen Sea continental shelf were collected during RV Polarstern expeditions PS69 in 2006 (Gohl, 2007) and

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PS104 in 2017 (Gohl, 2017). Twenty-five surface sediment samples from the southeastern and southwestern Weddell Sea continental shelf were collected during *RV Polarstern*-expeditions PS111 in 2018 (Schröder, 2018) and PS118 in 2019 (Dorschel, 2019). This new data set of samples was complemented by data from 26 surface sediment samples from the collected in Bransfield Strait/WAP for, which the analytical results had been previously published by Vorrath et al. (2019).

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3.2 Bulk sediment and organic geochemical analyses

The sediment material was freeze-dried and homogenized with an agate mortar and stored in glass vials at -20 °C before and after these initial preparation steps to avoid degradation of targeted molecular components. Total organic carbon (TOC) contents were measured on 0.1 g of sediment after removing inorganic carbon (total inorganic carbon, carbonates) with 500 μl 12 N hydrochloric acid. MeasurementsTOC contents were conducted by means of determined with a carbon-sulphur determinator analyzer (CS 2000; Eltra) with standards being measured for calibration being routinely measured before sample analyses analysis and after every tenth sample to ensure accuracy (error ± 0.02 %).

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Lipid biomarkers were extracted from the sediments (4 g for PS69 and PS104; 6 g for PS111 and PS118) by ultrasonication (3 x 15 min), using dichloromethane:methanol (3 x 6 ml for PS69 and PS104; 3 x 8 ml for PS111 and PS118; 2:1 v/v) as solvent. Prior to this step, the internal standards 7-hexylnonadecane (7-HND; 0.038 μ g/sample for PS69 and PS104 and 0.057 μ g/sample for PS111 and PS118), 5 α -androstan-3-ol (1.04 μ g/sample) and C₄₆ (0.98 μ g/sample) were added to the sample for quantification of HBIs, sterols and GDGTs, respectively. Via open-column chromatography, with SiO₂ as stationary phase, fractionation of the extract was achieved by eluting the apolar fraction (HBIs) and the polar fraction (sterols and GDGTs) with 5 ml n-hexane and 5 ml DCM/MeOH 1:1, respectively. The polar fraction was subsequently split into two fractions (sterols and GDGTs) for further processing. The sterol fraction was silylated with 300 μ l bis-trimethylsilyl-trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA; 2h at 60 °C). Compound analyses of HBIs and sterols were carried out on an Agilent Technologies 7890B gas chromatograph (GC; fitted with a 30 m DB 1MS column; 0.25 mm diameter and 0.25 μ m film thickness) coupled to an Agilent Technologies 5977B mass selective detector (MSD; with 70 eV constant

ionization potential, ion source temperature of 230 °C). The GC oven was set to: 60 °C (3 min), 150 °C (rate: 15 °C/min), 320 °C (rate: 10 °C/min), 320 °C (15 min isothermal) for the analysis of hydrocarbons and to: 60 °C (2 min), 150 °C (rate: 15 °C/min), 320 °C (rate: 3 °C/min), 320 °C (20 min isothermal) for the analysis of sterols. Helium was used as carrier gas. The identification of HBI and sterol compounds is based uponwere identified by their GC retention times and mass spectra (Belt, 2018; Belt et al., 2000; Boon et al., 1979). Lipid quantification was obtained Lipids were quantified by setting the individual, manually integrated, GC-MS peak area in relation to the peak area of the respective internal standard and normalization to the amount of extracted sediment. Quantification of IPSO25 and HBI trienes was achieved usingwere quantified by relating their molecular ions (IPSO25: m/z 348 and HBI trienes: m/z 346) in relation to the fragment ion m/z 266 of the internal standard 7-HND (Belt, 2018). Quantification of sterols was achieved by comparison of Sterols were quantified by comparing the molecular ion of the individual sterol with the molecular ion m/z 348 of the internal standard 5α androstan-3-ol. Instrumental response factors for the target lipids were considered as recommended by hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) Belt et al. (2014) and Fahl and Stein (2012). All biomarker concentrations were subsequently normalized to the TOC content of each sample to account for different depositional settings within the different study areas. hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) For calculating the phytoplankton-IPSO₂₅ (PIPSO₂₅) index, we used the equation introduced by Vorrath et al. (2019); hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigtes Königreich) hat formatiert: Schriftart: +Überschriften CS (Times New $PIPSO_{25} = IPSO_{25} / (IPSO_{25} + (phytoplankton marker x c))$ where c (c = mean IPSO₂₅/mean phytoplankton marker) is applied as a concentration balance factor to account for high concentration offsets between IPSO $_{25}$ and the phytoplankton biomarker (see Table S1 for c-factors of individual PIPSO₂₅ calculations). hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) Following the approach by Müller and Stein (2014) and Lamping et al. (2020), a PIPSO₂₅ value of 1 was assigned to samples with exceptionally low (at detection limit) concentrations of both biomarkers have been assigned a PIPSO₂₅ value of 1 (see chapter 4.1.2). This comprises the five Weddell SeamSea samples PS111/13-2, /15-1, /16-3, /29-3 and /40-2 (marked as orange x in Fig. 1), hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)

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The GDGT fraction was dried under N₂, redissolved with 120 µl hexane:isopropanol (v/v 99:1) and then filtered using a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter with a 0.45 µm pore sized membrane. GDGT measurementsGDGTs were carried outmeasured using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC; Agilent 1200 series HPLC system) coupled to an Agilent 6120 mass spectrometer (MS), operating with atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI). The injection volume was 20 µl. For separating the GDGTs, a Prevail Cyano 3 µm column (Grace, 150 mm * 2.1 mm) was kept at 30 °C. Each sample was eluted isocratically for 5 min with solvent A = hexane/2-propanol/chloroform; 98:1:1 at a flow rate of 0.2 ml/min, then the volume of solvent B = hexane/2-propanol/chloroform; 89:10:1 was increased linearly to 10 % within 20 min and then to 100 % within 10 min. The column was backflushed (5 min, flow 0.6 ml/min) after 7 min after each sample and re-equilibrated with solvent A (10 min, flow 0.2 ml/min). The APCI was set to the following: N2 drying gas flow at 5 l/min and temperature to 350 °C, nebulizer pressure to 50 psi, vaporizer gas temperature to 350 °C, capillary voltage to 4 kV and corona current to +5 µA. Detection of GDGTs was achieved by means of selective ion monitoring (SIM) of [M+H]+ ions (dwell time 76 ms). Determination and quantification of the molecular ions of GDGT-0 (m/z 1302), GDGT-1 (m/z 1300), GDGT-2 (m/z 1298), GDGT-3 (m/z 1296) and crenarchaeol (m/z 1292) as well as of brGDGT-III (m/z 1050), brGDGT-II (m/z 1036) and brGDGT-I (m/z 1022) was done in relation were quantified by relating their molecular ions to the molecular ion m/z 744 of the internal standard C₄₆-GDGT. The late eluting hydroxylated GDGTs (OH-GDGT-0, OH-GDGT-1 and OH-GDGT-2 with m/z 1318, 1316 and 1314, respectively) were quantified in the scans (m/z 1300, 1298, 1296) of their related GDGTs, as described by Fietz et al. (2013). TEX^L₈₆ values and their conversion into SOTs were determined following Kim et al. (2012);

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[GDGT_2] [GDGT_2]

$$230 TEX_{86}^{L} = \frac{LOG}{\frac{[GDGT-2]}{[GDGT-1] + [GDGT-2] + [GDGT-2]}} LOG \frac{[GDGT-2]}{[GDGT-1] + [GDGT-2] + [GDGT-3]},$$

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$$SOT^{TEX} [°C] = 50.8 \times TEX_{86}^{L} + 36.1.$$
 (3)

233 Temperature calculations based on OH-GDGTs were carried out according to Lü et al. (2015);

$$RI - OH' = \frac{[OH - GDGT - 1] + 2 \times [OH - GDGT - 2]}{[OH - GDGT - 0] + [OH - GDGT - 1] + [OH - GDGT - 2]},$$
(4)

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$$SST^{OH} [{}^{\circ}C] = RI - OH' - 0.1/0.0382.$$
 (5)

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To determine the relative influence of terrestrial organic matter input, the Branched Isoprenoid

Tetraether (BIT)-index was calculated following Hopmans et al. (2004):

 $BIT = \frac{[brGDGT-I]+[brGDGT-II]+[brGDGT-III]}{[ChrenarchaeoI]+[brGDGT-II]+[brGDGT-II]+[brGDGT-III]}.$ (6)

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3.3 Numerical model

3.3.1 Model description

AWI-ESM2 is a state-of-the-art coupled climate model developed by Sidorenko et al. (2019) which comprises an atmospheric component ECHAM6 (Stevens et al., 2013) as well as an ocean-sea ice component FESOM2 (Danilov et al., 2017). The atmospheric module ECHAM6 is the most recent version of the ECHAM model developed at the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (MPI) in Hamburg. The model is branched from an early release of the European Center (EC) for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) model (Roeckner et al., 1989). ECHAM6 dynamics is based on hydrostatic primitive equations with traditional approximation. We used a T63 Gaussian grid which haswith a spatial resolution of about 1.9 x 1.9 degree (1.9 ° or 210 km). There are 47 vertical layers in the atmosphere. Momentum transport arising from boundary effects is configured using the subgrid orography scheme as described by Lott (1999). -Radiative transfer in ECHAM6 is represented by the method described in Iacono et al. (2008). ECHAM6 also contains a Land-Surface Model (JSBACH) which includes 12 functional plant types of dynamic vegetation and 2 bare-surface types (Loveland et al., 2000; Raddatz et al., 2007). The ice-ocean module in AWI-ESM2 is based on the finite volume discretization formulated on unstructured meshes. The multi-resolution for the ocean is up to 15 km over polar and coastal regions, and 135 km for far-field oceans, with 46 uneven vertical depths. The impact of local dynamics on the global ocean is related to a number of FESOM-based studies (Danilov et al., 2017). The multi-resolution approach advocated by FESOM allows-one to explore the impact of local processes on the global ocean with moderate computational effort (Danilov et al., 2017). AWI-ESM2 employs the OASIS3-MCT coupler (Valcke, 2013) with an intermediate regular exchange grid. Mapping between the intermediate grid and the atmospheric/oceanic grid is handled with bilinear

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interpolation. The atmosphere component computes 12 air—sea fluxes based on four surface fields provided by the ocean module FESOM2. AWI-ESM2 has been validated under modern climate conditions (Sidorenko et al., 2019) and has been applied for marine radiocarbon concentrations (Lohmann et al., 2020), the latest Holocene (Vorrath et al., 2020), and the Last Interglacial (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2021).

3.3.2 Experimental design

One transient experiment was conducted using AWI-ESM2, which applied the boundary conditions, including orbital parameters and greenhouse gases. Orbital parameters are calculated according to Berger (1978), and the concentrations of greenhouse gases are taken from ice-core records as well as from recentand measurements of recent firn air and atmospheric samples (Köhler et al., 2017). The model was initialized from a 1,000-year spin-up run under mid-Holocene (6,000 before present, BP) boundary conditions as described by Otto-Bliesner et al. (2017). In our modeling strategy, we follow Lorenz and Lohmann (2004) and use the climate condition from the mid-Holocene spin-up run as the initial state for the subsequent transient simulation covering the period from 6,000 BP to 2014 Common Era (CE-). In the present study we derived seasonal SIC, SSTs and SOTs in the study area from a segment of the transient experiment (1950-2014 CE). Topography including prescribed ice sheet configuration was kept constant in our transient simulation. All model data are provided in Table S2.

3.4. Satellite SIC and SSTs

Satellite sea-ice data arewere derived from Nimbus-7 SMMR and DMSP SSM/I-SSMIS passive microwave data and downloaded from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC; Cavalieri et al., 1996). The sea-ice data represent mean monthly SIC, which are expressed to range from 0 % to 100 % and are averaged over a period of the beginning of satellite observations in 1978 CE to the individual year of sample retrieval collection. The monthly mean SIC were then split into different seasons: winter (JJF), spring (SON) and summer (DJF) (Fig. 2a-c-), and the these data are considered to represent the recent mean state of sea-ice coverage. All satellite data are provided in Table S3.

Modern annual mean SSTs and SOTs <u>arewere</u> derived from the World Ocean Atlas <u>13 representing 2013</u> and represent averaged values for the years 1955-2012 CE (WOA13; Locarnini et al., 2013).

293 4. Results and discussion

In the following, we first present and discuss the biomarker data assembled duringgenerated for this study from North (Antarctic Peninsula) to South (Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas) and draw conclusions about the environmental settings deduced from the data set. As-In regard to the phytoplankton-derived biomarkers, we here—focus on the significance of HBI Z-triene and brassicasterol, while because the HBI E-triene and dinosterol—showing data, which are presented in the supplementary material (Fig. S1), show very similar patterns—are moved to the supplement (Fig. S1) to avoid repetition. All biomarker data collected during this study—are provided in Table S1 and are available via from the PANGAEA data repository (DOI in prep.). For the discussion of the target environmental variables, i.e. PIPSO₂₅-based sea—ice and GDGT-derived ocean temperature estimates, satellite—and, instrumental as well as modelled and model data are considered. In Sect. section 5, we further address potential caveats in biomarker-based environmental reconstructions that need to be considered taken into account when applying these proxies.

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4.1 TOC content. HBIs and sterols in Antarctic surface sediments

TOC contents in marine sediments in a first approximation are often viewed as an indicator for primary productivity in surface waters (Meyers, 1997). However, we are aware that additional factors, such as different water depths orand depositional regimes, may exert control on sedimentary TOC as well. The TOC contents of the herein investigated surface samples are lowest in Drake Passage with values around 0.12-0.54 %, increasing in a% and increase from northwest-to southeast gradient into Bransfield Strait, ranging betweenwhere they range from 0.59 andto 1.06 % (Fig. 3a; WAP). AtAlong the EAP, higher TOC contents (0.57-0.86 %) prevail around the former Larsen A Ice Shelf with a decreasing trendand north of James Ross Island but they decrease towards the Powell Basin (0.22-0.37 %) and anthen increase to 0.50 % around the area of the South Orkney Islands, which may point to elevated

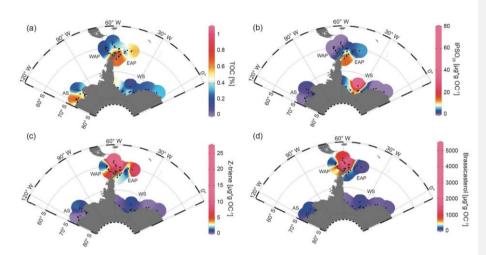


Fig. 3: Distribution of (a) TOC [%], (b) IPSO₂₅, (c) Z-triene and (d) brassicasterol in surface sediment samples. Sample locations are marked as black dots. Concentrations of biomarkers [$\mu g * g OC^{-1}$] were normalized to the TOC content of each sample. AS: Amundsen Sea, WAP: West Antarctic Peninsula, EAP: East Antarctic Peninsula, WS: Weddell Sea.

At the WAP, concentrations of the sea-ice biomarker IPSO₂₅ show a-increase from northwest- to southeast gradient with. IPSO₂₅ being absent in samples from the permanently ice-free Drake Passage and increasing concentrations increases towards the continental slope and the seasonally ice-covered continental shelf (0.37-17.81 μg*g OC-1; Fig. 3b; Vorrath et al., 2019). Highest IPSO₂₅ concentrations are observed in samples of the northern Bransfield Strait, which is affected by . Here, the inflow of water masses waters from the Weddell Sea through the Antarctic Sound and along the Antarctic Peninsula and frequent transport of transports sea ice into the Bransfield Strait (Vorrath et al., 2019). Elevated IPSO₂₅ concentrations are also observed at the EAP, influenced by a seasonal seasonally seaice covercovered EAP, where relatively higherhigh concentrations of the sea-ice biomarker prevail in those samples located in front he area of the former Larsen A Ice Shelf and north of James Ross Island (12.59-17.74 μg*g OC-1; Fig. 3b). As Because these locations are also influenced by the northward drift of sea ice within the Weddell Gyre (Fig. 1), the elevated IPSO₂₅ concentrations could also result from sea ice advected from the southern Weddell Sea. We suggest that the decreasing decrease of IPSO₂₅

concentrations towards the Powell Basin and the South Orkney Islands (0.59-5.36 µg*g OC-1; Fig. 3b) can be connected to warmer ocean temperatures towards in the North and less reduced sea-ice coverage cover during spring. Concentrations of the phytoplankton biomarker HBI Z-triene around the Antarctic Peninsula are highest in the eastern Drake Passage and along the WAP continental slope (where IPSO25 is absent) and decrease in the Bransfield Strait (0.33-26.86 µg*g OC⁻¹; Fig. 3c; Vorrath et al., 2019). Elevated HBI Ztriene concentrations have thus, so far, been detected in surface waters along an the sea-ice edge (Smik et al., 2016) and hence were suggested to be a proxy for marginal ice zone conditions (Belt et al., 2015; Collins et al., 2013; Schmidt et al., 2018), Vorrath et al. (2019), however, relate the high concentrations of HBI Z-triene at the northernmost stations in the permanently ice-free eastern Drake Passage to their proximity to the Antarctic Polar Front. Here, productivity of the source diatoms of HBI-trienes (e.g., Rhizosolenia spp.; Belt et al., 2017) may be enhanced by meander-induced upwelling leading to increased nutrient flux to surface waters (Moore and Abbott, 2002). Since Cardenas et al. (2019) document only minor abundances of Rhizosolenia spp. in seafloor surface sediments from this area, we assume that HBI-trienes might also be biosynthesized by other diatomsdiatom taxa. Moderate concentrations along the continental slope of the WAP and in the Bransfield Strait have been were associated with elevated inflow of warm BSW which leads to a retreating sea-ice margin during spring and summer (for more details, see Vorrath et al., 2019; 2020). Samples from the EAP continental shelf and the Powell Basin are characterised by relatively low HBI Z-triene concentrations of HBI Z-triene (Fig. 3c; 0.1-2.37 μg*g OC⁻¹), showing a) that decrease from southwest- to northeast-gradient, while, whereas the northernmost sample closest to the South Orkney Islands is characterized by an elevated HBI Z-triene concentration of ~8.49 μg*g OC⁻¹ (Fig. 3c; EAP). This relatively high concentration may be related to an "Island Mass Effect", coined by Doty and Oguri (1956), which refers to an-increased primary production around oceanic islands in comparison to surrounding waters. Nolting et al. (1991) found extraordinarily high dissolved iron levels (as high as 50-60 nM) on the shelf of the South Orkney Islands, and shelf, while Nielsdóttir et al. (2012) observed enhanced iron and Chl a concentrations in the vicinity of the South Orkney Islands. These authors explain the increased dissolved iron levels with input from seasonally retreating sea ice, which is recorded by satellites (Fig. 2a-c) and probably leads

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to substantial annual phytoplankton blooms, which may also cause the elevated TOC content in the corresponding seafloor sediment sample (Fig. 3a). Alternatively, remobilization of shelf sediments or vertical mixing of iron-rich deep waters, leading to high iron contents in surface waters, may stimulate primary productivity (Blain et al., 2007; de Jong et al., 2012).- However, it remains unclear why the brassicasterol concentration is distinctly low in this sample, and we assume that different environmental preferences of the source organisms may account for this. In Drake Passage and along the EAP, brassicasterol displays a similar pattern as the-HBI Z-triene, with relatively high concentrations (more than 2 orders of magnitudes), ranging between from 1.86 and to 5017.44 µg*g OC⁻¹ (Fig. 3d). In the Weddell Sea, TOC contents are generally $\frac{lowerlow}{low}$ (< 0.4 %), with slightly elevated values in the West (up to 0.50 %) and right in front of the Filchner Ice Shelf (up to 0.52 %; Fig. 3a). The Amundsen Sea is characterized by slightly higher TOC contents, with concentrations of up to 0.91 % in the West and lower values in the East (0.33 %; Fig. 3a; AS), In the samples from the Amundsen and Weddell Seas; seas, that both are dominated by-a strong winter sea-ice cover lasting until spring (Fig. 2a-c), all three biomarkers are present in low concentrations only. An exception are the samples located in front of the Filchner Ice Shelf with significantly higher concentrations of IPSO₂₅ (7.09-73.87 μg*g OC⁻¹; Fig. 3b; WS). Concentrations of IPSO₂₅ on the Amundsen Sea shelf are relatively low (0.04-3.3 µg*g OC⁻¹), with slightly higher values observed towardsin the north-east (Fig. 3b; AS). HBI Z-triene isconcentrations are also very low-concentrated, showing, but slightly higher concentrations in Filchner Trough (0.04-1 µg*g OC-1) and towards theat more distal locations inon the northeastern Amundsen Sea shelf (0.01-1.88 μg*g OC-1; Fig. 3c). Brassicasterol generally shows a similar patternspattern as the HBI Z-triene, with concentrations rangingvarying between 1.86 and 220.54 µg*g OC⁻¹ (Fig. 3d; for HBI E-triene and dinosterol distribution, see Fig. S1).

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4.2 Combining individual biomarker records: the PIPSO₂₅ index

The PIPSO₂₅ index combines the relative concentrations of IPSO₂₅ and a selected phytoplankton biomarker, such as HBI-trienes and sterols, as indicator for an open-ocean environment (Vorrath et al., 2019). The combination of both end members (sea ice vs. open-ocean) prevents misleading

interpretations regarding the absence of IPSO₂₅ in the sediments, which can be the result of two entirely different scenarios. At<u>Under</u> heavy/perennial sea-ice conditionscoverage, the thickness of sea ice hinders light penetration, thereby limiting the productivity of algae living in basal sea ice (Hancke et al., 2018). This scenario maycan cause the absence of both phytoplankton and sea-ice biomarkers in the sediment. The other scenario depicts a permanently open ocean, where the sea-ice biomarker is absent as well, but here, the phytoplankton biomarkers are present in variable concentrations (Müller et al., 2011). The presence of both biomarkers in the sediment is indicative of seasonal sea-ice coverage and/or the occurrence of stable sea-ice margin conditions, promoting biosynthesis of both biomarkers (Müller et al., 2011). We here distinguish between PzIPSO₂₅ and P_BIPSO₂₅ using HBI Z-triene and brassicasterol as phytoplankton biomarker, respectively (Fig. 4a+b; for PIPSO₂₅ values based on HBI E-triene and dinosterol see Table S1 and Fig. S2).

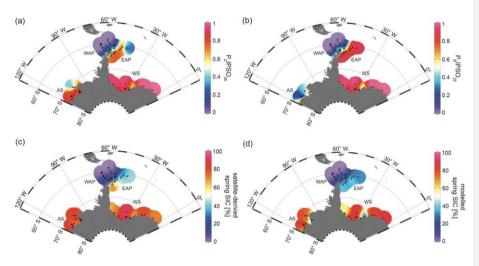


Fig. 4: Distribution of the sea-ice index PIPSO₂₅ in surface sediment samples, with (a) P_ZIPSO_{25} based on Z-triene and (b) P_BIPSO_{25} based on brassicasterol, (c) satellite-derived spring SIC [%] and (d) modelled spring SIC [%]. AS: Amundsen Sea, WAP: West Antarctic Peninsula, EAP: East Antarctic Peninsula, WS: Weddell Sea.

Both PIPSO₂₅ indices are 0 in the predominantly ice-free Drake Passage and display a northwest-increase towards southeast gradient-to intermediate values towardson the continental WAP slope and around the South Shetland Islands, reflecting increased influence of marginal sea-ice cover towards the coast (0.02-0.70; Vorrath et al., 2019). At the seasonally sea-ice covered EAP, PzIPSO₂₅ values reach

403 0.84, while lower values of around 0.25 are observed close to the South Orkney Islands, which relates 404 tois caused by the elevated HBI Z-triene concentrations at the stations there (Fig. 3c; EAP). The 405 P_BIPSO₂₅ index exhibits even higher values of up to 0.98 at the EAP/northwestern Weddell Sea. These 406 elevated PIPSO₂₅ indices align well with the significant northward sea-ice-drift within the Weddell 407 Gyre-in that region, which leads to prolonged sea-ice cover along the EAP, hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) 408 In samples from the southern Weddell Sea, both PIPSO25 indices show a similar pattern with high values 409 up to 0.9, and slightly lower values in front of the Brunt Ice Shelf (0.6; Fig. 4a+b). Very low 410 concentrations (close to detection limit) of both biomarkers in samples located on from the continental 411 shelf off Dronning Maud Land (Fig. 1) result in low PIPSO₂₅ values, strongly underestimating the seaice cover in thatthis area. Regarding the, where satellite-derived sea-ice data, this area of the continental 412 413 shelf is influenced by a document severe seasonal sea-ice cover (Fig. 2). As previously mentioned, we 414 followed the approach by Müller and Stein (2014) and Lamping et al. (2020) and assigned by assigning 415 a maximum PIPSO₂₅ value of 1 to these samples to circumvent misleading interpretations and aid 416 visualisation. hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) 417 The intermediate PIPSO₂₅ value (~0.51) derived for one sample collected in front of the Brunt Ice Shelf 418 points to a less severe sea-ice cover in that area. A possible explanation for the relatively lowerlow 419 PIPSO₂₅ value may be is the presence of a coastal polynya that has been reported by Anderson (1993) 420 and which is further supported by Paul et al. (2015), who). These authors note that the sea-ice area 421 around the Brunt Ice Shelf is the most active in the southern Weddell Sea, with an annual average 422 polynya area of 3516 ± 1420 km². Interestingly, the reduced SIC here is also captured by our model 423 (see Sect.section 4.3). 424 PIPSO₂₅ values in the Amundsen Sea point to different scenarios. The PzIPSO₂₅ index rangesvaries 425 around 0.9, with only the easterly, more distal locations showing samples having lower values between 426 0.3 and 0.6 (Fig. 4a). The P_BIPSO₂₅ index generally presents has lower values, ranging from 0.6 in the 427 coastal area to 0.2 in the more distal samples (Fig. 4b). This difference between PzIPSO25 and PBIPSO25 428 may be explained by the different source organisms biosynthesizing the individual phytoplankton hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten) 429 biomarkers. While the main origin of HBI-trienes seems to be restricted to diatoms (Belt et al.,

2017), brassicasterol is known to be produced by several algal groups that are adapted to a wider range of sea surface conditions (Volkman, 2006; see Sect.section 5.2).

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4.3 Biomarker-based sea ice estimates vs. satellite and model data

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The main ice algae bloom in the Southern Ocean occurs during spring, when solar insolation and air temperatures/SSTs increase and sea ice starts meltingto melt, which results in the release of nutrients and stratification of the water column stimulating the productivity of photosynthesizing organisms (Arrigo, 2017; Belt, 2018). The sea-ice biomarker IPSO₂₅ is hence commonly interpreted as a spring sea-ice indicator, which is why, in the following, we compare the biomarker-based sea-ice reconstructions to satellite-derived and modelled spring SIC. IPSO₂₅ concentrations in the surface sediments around the Antarctic Peninsula exhibit similar trends as the satellite-derived and modelled SIC (Figs. 3+4), while they differ significantly in the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas, where high SIC are depicted recorded by satellites and the model but IPSO25 is verypresent in low concentrated.concentrations. The low IPSO₂₅ concentrations in these areas highlight the uncertainty, when considering IPSO₂₅ as a sea-ice proxy alone, since such low concentrations are not only observed under open water conditions, but also under a-severe sea-ice cover. In this easethe Amundsen and Weddell seas, the low IPSO₂₅ concentrations of IPSO₂₅ are the result of the latter, where limited light availability hinders ice algae growth, leading to an underestimation of sea-ice cover. Accordingly, we note a weak correlation between IPSO₂₅ data and satellite SIC (R² = 0.19; Fig. 5a). As stated above, the combination of IPSO₂₅ and a phytoplankton marker may prevent this ambiguity. The higher sea-ice concentrations in the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas are better reflected by maximum PzIPSO25 values than by IPSO25 alone. However, we note that the PzIPSO25 index seems to apparently does not further resolve SICs higher than 50 % (see Fig. S3), which may indicate a threshold (here ~50 % SIC) where the growth of the HBI-triene and IPSO25 producing algae is limited.

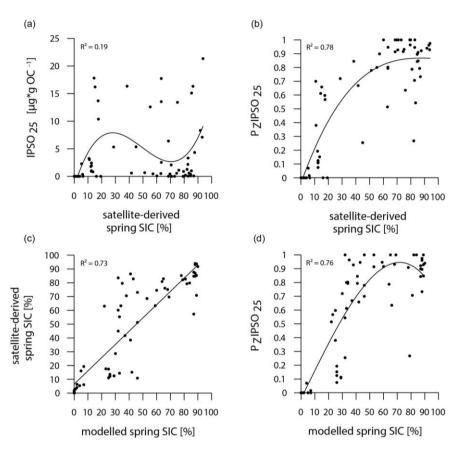


Fig. 5: Correlations of (a) IPSO₂₅ concentrations vs. satellite-derived spring SIC, (b) P_ZIPSO_{25} values vs. satellite-derived spring SIC, (c) satellite-derived spring SIC vs. modelled spring SIC and (d) P_ZIPSO_{25} values vs. modelled spring SIC. Coefficients of determination (R^2) are given for the respective regression lines.

In general, however, the P_ZIPSO_{25} values correlate much better with satellite and modelled SIC ($R^2 = 0.78$ and $R^2 = 0.76$, respectively; Fig. 5b+d) than $IPSO_{25}$ concentrations. Correlations of satellite and model data with $PIPSO_{25}$ calculated using the HBI E-triene, brassicasterol and dinosterol, respectively, are also positive but less significant (Fig. S4), and we hence focus the discussion on P_ZIPSO_{25} . The AWI-ESM2-derived spring SICs correctly display the permanently ice-free Drake Passage and the northwest-southeast gradientincrease in sea-ice cover from the WAP continental slope towards—the Bransfield Strait (Fig. 4d). The model, however, significantly underestimates the elevated sea-ice concentrations (up to 70 %) in front of the former Larsen Ice Shelf A and east of James Ross Island at

the EAP depicted by observed in satellite data. In the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas, the model shows apredicts heavy sea-ice cover (~90 %), only slightly underestimating the sea-ice cover at the near-coastal sites in front of Pine Island Glacier and the Ronne Ice Shelf. Interestingly, modelled SIC in the area in front of the Brunt Ice Shelf is as low as ~45 % (Fig. 4d+e), corresponding well with the reduced P_ZIPSO_{25} value of ~0.51, and. This may reflect the polynya conditions in that region documented by Anderson (1993) and Paul et al. (2015). Overall, we note that modelled modern SICs correlate well with satellite data ($R^2 = 0.73$; Fig. 5c) and P_ZIPSO_{25} values ($R^2 = 0.76$; Fig. 5d), while we observe weaker correlations between modelled paleo-SICs and P_ZIPSO_{25} values (Fig. S5; see Sect.section 5.1).

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4.4 TEX^L₈₆₋ and RI-OH'--derived ocean temperatures

For a critical appraisal of the applicability and reliability of GDGT indices as temperature proxies in polar latitudes, we here focus on the TEXL86 proxy by Kim et al. (2012), which potentially reflectingreflects SOTs, and the RI-OH' proxy, by Lü et al. (2015), which is assumed to reflect SSTs, by Lü et al. (2015)... The reconstructions are considered believed to represent annual mean ocean temperatures (for correlations of TEXL86-derived SOTs with WOA spring and winter SOTs, see Fig. S6). In all samples, the BIT-index (Eq. 6) is <0.3, indicating no significant contributionimpact of terrestrial input influencing of organic material on the distribution of GDGTs and hence applicability of GDGTs to estimate ocean temperaturestheir reliability as temperature proxy. RI-OH'-derived temperatures and TEXL86-derived SOTs both show a similar pattern, but different temperatures rangingranges between -2.62 to +4.67 °C and -2.38 to +8.75 °C, respectively (Fig. 6a+b). At the WAP, RI-OH'- as well as TEX^L₈₆-derived temperatures follow a northwest-southeast gradient with higher temperatures inincrease northwestwards across the Antarctic continental slope and into the permanently ice-free Drake Passage and on the Antarctic continental slope, which are influenced by the ACC and relatively warm CDW (Orsi et al., 1995; Rintoul et al., 2001). Temperatures decrease towards the Bransfield Strait and the EAP, which are influenced by a-seasonal sea-ice cover and relatively colder and highly saline cold water from the Weddell Sea, branching that branches off the Weddell Gyre (Collares et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2009). At the EAP, a southwest northeast gradient can besouthwestward decrease is observed, with relatively lowerlow temperatures alongat the former Larsen A Ice Shelf and higher temperatures towards the recorded in Powell Basin and around the South Orkney Islands (Fig. 6a+b).

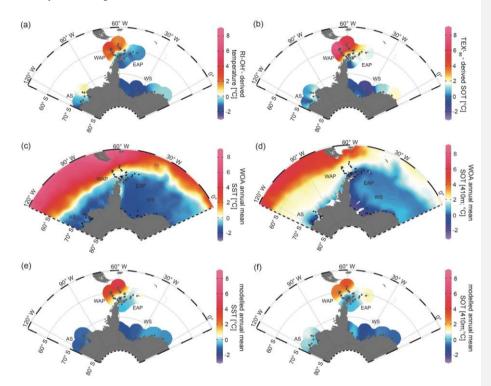


Fig. 6: Annual mean temperature distributions with (a) RI-OH'-derived temperature, (b) TEX^{L}_{86} -derived SOT, (c) WOA13 SST (Locarnini et al., 2013), (d) WOA13 SOT (410 m; Locarnini et al., 2013), (e) modelled SST and (f) modelled SOT (410 m) in °C. AS: Amundsen Sea, WAP: West Antarctic Peninsula, EAP: East Antarctic Peninsula, WS: Weddell Sea.

Further to the South, in In the Amundsen and Weddell Seas, seas further south, reconstructed temperatures are generally lower than at around the Antarctic Peninsula. Samples from the Weddell Sea display a temperature decrease from east to west, which may reflect the eddy driven route of eddies in the north eastern corner of the north eastern Weddell Gyre earrying. These eddies carry relatively warm, salty CDW, which then advects westward along the southern edgelimb of the Weddell Gyre as, where it becomes WDW (Vernet et al., 2019). Coldest TEX^L₈₆ as well as and RI-OH' temperatures

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(<0 °C) at sites along the Filchner-Ronne Ice Shelf front may be further linked to the presence of cold precursor water masses for WSBW.

With regard to ongoing discussions, whether GDGT-based temperature reconstructions represent SSTs or SOTs (Kalanetra et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2012; Park et al., 2019), we here compare our RI-OH' and TEX^L₈₆-derived temperatures with instrumental and modelled surface as well as and subsurface temperature data obtained by in-situ measurements and modelling (Fig. 6c-f). Based on correlationsComparison of GDGT-derived temperatures with WOA13 temperatures reflectingfrom different water depths, we observe reveals the highest significance at most significant correlation for a water depth of 410 m (for respective correlations, see Fig. S7). When discussing instrumental and modelled SOTs, we hence refer to 410 m water depth.

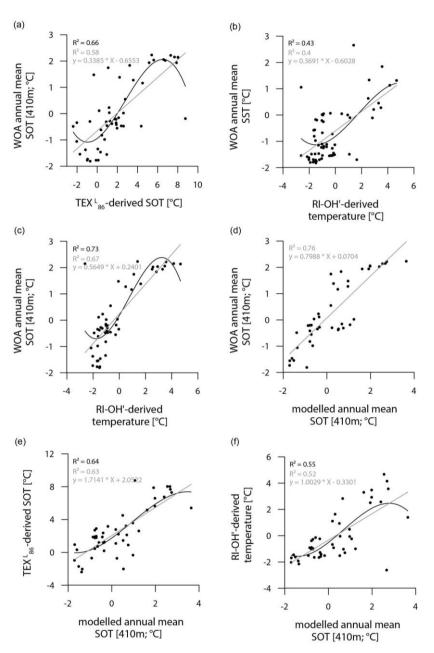


Fig. 7: Correlations of (a) WOA annual mean SOT (410 m) vs. TEX^{L}_{86} -derived SOT, (b) WOA annual mean SST vs. RI-OH'-derived temperature, (c) WOA annual mean SOT (410 m) vs. RI-OH'-derived temperature, (d) WOA annual mean SOT (410 m) vs. modelled annual mean SOT (410 m), (e) TEX^{L}_{86} -derived SOT vs. modelled annual mean SOT (410 m), (f) RI-OH'-derived temperature vs. modelled annual mean SOT (410 m) in °C. Coefficients of determination (R^{2}) are given for the respective regression lines.

While the correlation between TEX^L₈₆-derived SOTs and instrumental SOTs is reasonably wellgood (Fig. 7a; $R^2 = 0.66$), also supporting the assumption of a subsurface origin for the TEX^L_{86} proxy, we note a significant overestimation of SOTs by up to 6 °C in the-Drake Passage (Fig. S8). This warmbiased TEXL86 signal is a known caveat and is, among others, assumed to be connected to GDGTs produced by deep-dwelling Euryarchaeota (Park et al., 2019), which have been reported in CDW (Alonso-Sáez et al., 2011) and in deep waters at the Antarctic Polar Front (López-García et al., 2001). Maximum TEX^L₈₆-based SOTs of 5 °C - 8 °C in the central Drake Passage (Fig. 6b), however, distinctly exceed the common temperature range of CDW (0-2 °C). Interestingly, TEXL86-derived SOTs in the colder regions of the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas relate reasonably well to instrumental temperatures and are only slightly warm-biased (Fig. S8). Correlations between RI-OH'-derived temperatures withand instrumental SSTs are comparatively weak (R² = 0.43; Fig. 7b). Recently, Liu et al. (2020) concluded in their study on surface sediments from Prydz Bay (East Antarctica), that also the RI-OH' index holds promise as a tool to reconstruct SOTs rather than SSTs. When correlating our RI-OH'-derived temperatures with instrumental SOTs, we similarly find a high correlation ($R^2 = 0.73$; Fig. 7c), too, hence supporting this hypothesis. We further note that the RI-OH' temperature range of RI-OH'-is much more realistic than the TEXL₈₆₇ supporting the study by Park et al. (2019) and demonstrating range. This suggests that the addition of OH-isoGDGTs in the temperature index is a promising step towards reliable high latitude temperature reconstructions and may improve our understanding of the temperature responses of archaeal membranes in Southern Ocean waters (Fietz et al., 2020; Park et al., 2019). Clearly, more data - ideally obtained from sediment traps, seafloor surface sediment samples as well as and longer sediment cores - and calibration studies will help to further elucidate the applicability of this approach the RI-OH' and TEXL₈₆ temperature reconstructions. Similar to the model-derived sea-ice data, we-here also evaluate the model's performance in depicting ocean temperatures (Fig. 6e+f). Modelled annual mean SSTs and SOTs are highest (with up to 5 °C and 3 °C, respectively;) in the permanently ice-free Drake Passage, which is influenced by the relatively warm ACC. Decreasing Lower SSTs are simulated towards predicted for the Antarctic Peninsula continental slope and-the Bransfield Strait (~0.5 to 1 °C), coinciding with the increase in the duration

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of seasonal sea-ice cover in that area. At the EAP/northwestern Weddell Sea, modelled SSTs as well as SOTs show aincrease from southwest-to northeast directed increase-towards Powell Basin. In the Amundsen and Weddell Seasseas, annual mean SSTs are negative, with temperatures ranging from -1 to -0.5 °C, while SOTs are positive in the Amundsen Sea and negative in the Weddell Sea. Overall, we note that modelled SOTs reflect instrumental SOTs reasonably well ($R^2 = 0.76$; Fig. 7d). Interestingly, while RI-OH'-derived SOTs relate better to instrumental SOTs (than TEX^L₈₆-based SOTs), we note a better correlation between TEX^L₈₆-derived SOTs and modelled SOTs ($R^2 = 0.64$; Fig. 7e) and a weaker correlation with Ri-OH'-derived temperatures ($R^2 = 0.55$; Fig. 7f)-; is found.

5. Caveats and recommendations for future research

Marine core top studies to elucidate evaluating the applicability and reliability of climate proxies are often concerned with affected by limitations and uncertainties regarding the age control of the investigated seafloor surface sediments as well as the production, preservation and degradation of target compounds. In the following, we shortly address some of these factors and provide brief recommendations for future investigations.

5.1 Age control

Information on the actual age of the surface sediments are sediment samples is a major requirement determining their suitability to reflect modern sea surface conditions. When comparing sea-ice conditions or ocean temperatures estimated from sedimentary-biomarker data obtained from 0.5-1 cm thick surface sediment samples (easily spanning decades to millennia, depending on sedimentation rates) with satellite-derived sea-ice data or instrumental records (covering only the past ~40 and 65 years, respectively), the different time periods reflected in the data sets need to be considered when interpreting the results. To address the issue of lacking age constraints for most of the herein studied surface sediments investigated here, we also performed paleoclimate simulations providing sea-ice concentration data for three time slices (2 ka, 4 ka and 6 ka BP; see Fig. S5) to evaluate, if the surface sediments may have recorded significantly older environmental conditions. Correlations of PIPSO₂₅

values against with these paleo time slice sea-ice concentrations depicted are notably weaker relations (Fig. S5) compared to than the correlations with recent (1951-2014 CE) SIC model output, which points to a relatively young to modern age of the majority of the herein studied sediments. This is further supported by AMS ¹⁴C-dating of calcareous microfossils and ²¹⁰Pb-dating of seafloor surface sediments from the Amundsen Sea shelf documenting recent ages for most sites (Hillenbrand et al., 2010, 2013, 2017; Smith et al., 2011, 2014, 2017; Witus et al., 2014) as well as modern ²¹⁰Pb-dates obtained for three multicores collected in the Bransfield Strait (PS97/56, PS97/68, PS97/72; Vorrath et al., 2020), which are considered in this study, too.). AMS 14C dates obtained for nearby seafloor surface samplessediments in the vicinity of the South Shetland Islands and the Antarctic Sound revealed ages of 100 years and 142 years BP, respectively (Vorrath et al., 2019). As both uncorrected ages lie within the range of the modern marine reservoir effect (e.g. Gordon and Harkness, 1992), we may consider these two dates still modernas recent. However, in an area that is significantly affected by rapid climate warming over the past decades and a regionally variable sea--ice coverage, the age uncertainties associated with ¹⁴C dating of calcareous material for at least ¹⁴C dated samples may easily lead to an over- or underestimation of biomarker-based sea-ice cover and ocean temperature estimatestemperatures, respectively, which needs to be eonsideredtaken into account for comparisons with instrumental data. While the The utilization of (paleo) model data may alleviate the lack of age control for each seafloor sediment sample to some extent. Nevertheless, we accordingly recommend that for a robust calibration of e.g., PIPSO25 values against satellite-derived sea-ice concentrations (and this is not the aim of this study) only surface sediment samples with a modern age confirmed by ²¹⁰Pb-dating are incorporated.

5.2 Production and preservation of biomarkers

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Biomarkers are considered have the potential to reveal the former occurrence of their precursor organisms producers, which requires a certain knowledge of the source specificity organisms. While there is general consensus on e.g. Thaumarchaeota being the major source for iso-GDGTs (Fietz et al., 2020 and references therein) or and diatoms synthesizing HBIs (Volkman 2006), this is not the case formain source of brassicasterol, which is not only found in diatoms but also in e.g. dinoflagellates and

haptophytes (Volkman 2006);, remains unclear. Accordingly, the use of brassicasterol to determine the PIPSO₂₅ index may introduce uncertainties regarding the environmental information pertinent torecorded by this phytoplankton biomarker. A further aspect concerns the different chemical structures of HBIs and sterols, which raises the risk of a selective degradation (see Belt, 2018 and Rontani et al., 2018; 2019 for detailed discussion) with potentially considerable effects on the PIPSO₂₅ index. Regarding the different sectors of theareas investigated in our study-area, also spatially different microbial communities as well asand varying depositional regimes, such as sedimentation rate, redox conditions and water depth, may lead to different degradation patterns, which. This means that variations in the biomarker concentrations between different sectors areas may not strictly reflect changes in the production of these compounds (driven by sea surface conditions) but may also relate to different degradation states. In particular, lower sedimentation rates and thus extended oxygen exposure times promote chemical alteration and degradation processes (Hedges et al., 1990; Schouten et al., 2013). Regarding the transport of organic matter from the sea surface through the water columnHowever, it has been previously notedreported that the formation of mineral aggregates and fecal pellets, however, often accelerates the vertical export towards-transport of organic matter from the sea surface through the water column to the seafloor during the melting season, leading to a more rapid burial and hence better preservation of the organic compounds (Bauerfeind et al., 2005; Etourneau et al., 2019; Müller et al., 2011). Another rather technical drawback concerning the use of the PIPSO₂₅ index may appearoccurs when the concentrations of the sea-ice proxy IPSO25 and the phytoplankton marker are similarly low (due to unfavourable conditions for both ice algae as well as and phytoplankton) or similarly high (due to a significant seasonal shift in sea-ice cover and/or stable ice edge conditions). This may lead to similar PIPSO₂₅ values, although the sea-ice conditions are fundamentally different from each other. This scenario occurred atis evident for five sampling sites in the Weddell Sea (PS111/13-2, /15-1, /16-3, /29-3, and /40-2; Fig. 3b+c), where IPSO₂₅ and the HBI Z-triene concentrations are close to the detection limit and PzIPSO25 values are very low, suggesting a reduced sea-ice cover. Satellite and model data, however, show that these sample locations are influenced by heavy, nearly year-round sea-ice cover. We conclude that biomarker concentrations of both biomarkers at or close to the detection limit;

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indicative of a severe ice cover, need to be treated with caution. As mentioned above Here, we assigned a maximum PzIPSO₂₅ value of 1 to thesethose samples, and we note that such a practice always needs to be made clearclarified when applying the PIPSO₂₅ approach. The Nonetheless, the coupling of IPSO₂₅ with a phytoplankton marker, nonetheless, provides more reliable sea-ice reconstructions. Regarding the above mentioned all these ambiguities, we recommend not only to calculate the PIPSO₂₅ index, but also to carefully consider individual biomarker concentrations and, if possible, to utilize other sea-ice measures iceproxies, such as data from well-preserved diatom assemblage data assemblages (Lamping et al., 2020; Vorrath et al., 2019; 2020). While the PIPSO₂₅ index is not yet a fully quantitative proxy to provide for paleo sea-ice concentrations, the GDGT paleothermometers have gone through-several calibration iterations have been applied to the GDGT-paleothermometers (Fietz et al., 2020). As noted above, the observation of distinctly warm-biased TEXL₈₆-derived SOTs calls for further efforts in terms of regional calibration studies and/or investigations of archaean adaptation strategies regarding at different water depths, and under different nutrient and temperature conditions.

5.3 The role of platelet ice for the production of IPSO₂₅

The sympagic, tube-dwelling, diatom *B. adeliensis* is a common constituent of Antarctic sea ice, and preferably flourishingflourishes in the relatively open channels of sub-ice platelet layers in near-shore locations covered by fast ice (Medlin, 1990; Riaux-Gobin and Poulin, 2004). Based on investigations of sea-ice samples from the Southern Ocean, Belt et al. (2016) detected this diatom species to be a source of IPSO₂₅, which, according to its habitat, led to the assumption of the sea-ice proxy being a potential indicator for the presence of platelet ice. As stated above, *B. adeliensis* is not confined to platelet ice, but is also observed in basal sea ice and described as well adapted to changes in the texture of sea ice during ice melt (Riaux-Gobin et al., 2013). Platelet ice formation, however, plays an important role in sea-ice generation along some coastal regions of Antarctica (Hoppmann et al., 2015; 2020; Lange et al., 1989; Langhorne et al., 2015). In these regions, CDW and High Saline Shelf Water (HSSW) flowingflow into sub-ice shelf cavities of ice shelves and cause basal melting and the discharge of cold and less saline water (Fig. 8; Hoppmann et al., 2020, Scambos et al., 2017). The surrounding water is

cooled and freshened and is then transported towards the surface. Under the large Filchner-Ronne and Ross ice shelves the pressure relief can cause this water, called Ice Shelf Water (ISW), to be supercooled (Foldvik and Kvinge, 1974). The temperature of the supercooled ISW is potentiallytypically below the in-situ freezing point, which may eventually eausecauses the formation of ice platelets that accumulate under landfast ice attached to adjacent ice shelves (Fig. 8; Holland et al., 2007; Hoppmann et al., 2015; 2020).

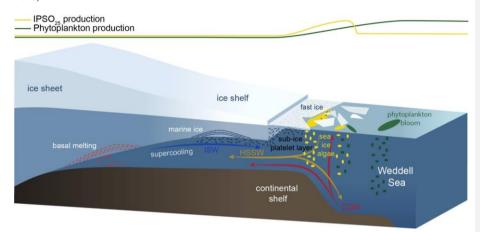


Fig. 8: Schematic illustration of the formation of platelet ice and the main production areas of sea ice algae producing IPSO₂₅ (yellow ovalsellipses) and phytoplankton (green ovalsellipses), also displayed by yellow and green curves at the top. CDW: Circumpolar Deep Water, HSSW: High Saline Shelf Water, ISW: Ice Shelf Water. Schematic Illustration modified after from Scambos et al. (2017).

In an attempt to elucidate the relationship ofbetween IPSO₂₅ and platelet ice more clearly, we here regardinvestigated our data in connection respect to locations of observed platelet ice occurrences. iceformation. While the maximum IPSO₂₅ concentrations in front of the Filchner Ice Shelf could be directly related to the above-mentioned platelet ice formation in this area, the elevated IPSO₂₅ concentrations in frontnorth of the Larsen C Ice ShelvesShelf at the EAP could be linked to several processes. According to Langhorne et al. (2015), sea-ice cores retrieved from that area did not incorporate platelet ice. The high IPSO₂₅ concentrations could hence be explicable explained by either input from drift ice transported with the Weddell Gyre or by basal freeze-on. We do, however, However, we note that our samples may reflect much longer time framesperiods than the sea-ice samples investigated by Langhorne et al. (2015) and the lack of platelet ice in their investigated sea-ice cores

does not rule out the former presence of platelet ice, which may be captured in our investigated sediment samples.

There are several previous studies on IPSO₂₅ which report that reported a close connection of the proxy towith proximal, coastal locations and polynyas in the seasonal ice zone (i.e., Collins et al., 2013; Smik et al., 2016). They do not, however, discuss the relation to adjacent ice shelves as possible "platelet ice factories". We note that the core locations investigated by Smik et al. (2016) are in the vicinity of the Moscow University Ice Shelf, where Langhorne et al. (2015) did not observe platelet ice within sea-ice cores. Hoppmann et al. (2020), however, report a sea-ice core from that area, which incorporates platelet ice. The different observations by Langhorne et al. (2015) and Hoppmann et al. (2020) highlight the temporal variability in the occurrence of platelet ice in the cold water regime around the East Antarctic margin.

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RegardingFor the observed IPSO₂₅ minimum abundance of IPSO₂₅-in the Amundsen Sea (Fig. 3b; AS), which we tentatively relate to the extended and thick sea--ice coverage, the absence of platelet ice in that region may be there is an alternative explanation. The Amundsen/Bellingshausen Sea and WAP shelves are classified as "warm shelves" (Thompson et al., 2018) characterized by), where the upwelling of warm CDW (Schmidtko et al., 2014), hindering) hinders the formation of ISW-and making, which makes the presence of platelet ice inunder recent conditions highly unlikely (Hoppmann et al., 2020). This theory is also supported by Langhorne et al. (2015), stating who stated that platelet ice formation is not observed; in areas where-thinning from basal ice-shelf melting of ice shelves is believed to be greatest, which applies to is considerable, such as on the warm West Antarctic continental shelf in the eastern Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean (Thompson et al., 2018). Accordingly, if the formation and accumulation of platelet ice - up to a certain degree - is indicative of basal-indicates subice shelf melting on fresh cold shelves (Hoppmann et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2018), high IPSO25 concentrations determined found in marine sediments may hence serve as indicator of past ISW formation and associated ice shelf dynamics. This may Thisis, however, probably only be true up to a certain threshold, where platelet ice formation decreases or is diminished/hampered due to warm oceanic conditions causing too intense sub-ice shelf melting (Langhorne et al., 2015).

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While When using IPSO₂₅ as a sea-ice proxy in Antarctica, it is hence important to also consider regional platelet ice formation processes—as, too, because these may affect the IPSO₂₅ budget. Determining thresholds associated with platelet ice formation is challenging. Therefore, further investigations, such as in-situ measurements of IPSO₂₅ concentrations in platelet ice or culture experiments in home laboratories, are needed to better depietunderstand the connection between IPSO₂₅ and platelet ice formation (and basal ice—shelf-basal melting).

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7. Conclusions

Biomarker analyses focusing on IPSO25, HBI-trienes, phytosterols and GDGTs in surface sediment samples from the Antarctic continental margin were investigated to depict recent sea-ice conditions and ocean temperatures in this climate sensitive region. Proxy-based reconstructions of these key variables were compared to (1) satellite sea-ice data, (2) instrumental ocean temperature data-as well as, and (3) modelled sea-ice patterns and ocean temperatures. The semi-quantitative sea-ice index PIPSO₂₅, combining the sea-ice proxy IPSO₂₅ with an open-water phytoplankton marker, yielded reasonably good correlations with satellite observations and numerical model results, while correlations with the sea-ice proxy IPSO25 alone are rather low. Minimum concentrations of both biomarkers, used for the PIPSO₂₅ calculations, however, may lead to ambiguous interpretations and significant underestimations of sea-ice conditions. Different Therefore, different sea-ice measures should be considered when interpreting biomarker data should hence be considered. Ocean temperature reconstructions based on the TEXL86- and RI-OH'-paleothermometers show similar patterns, but different absolute temperatures. While TEX¹₈₆-derived temperatures are significantly biased towards warm temperatures in Drake Passage, the RI-OH'-derived temperature range seems more realistic, when compared to temperature data based on the WOA13 and modelled annual mean SOTs. Further investigations of HBI- as well as GDGT-synthesis, transport, sedimentation deposition and preservation within the sediments would help to guide the proxies' application. Further work on the

taxonomy workof the IPSO25 producers, the composition of the IPSO25 producer's their habitat (basal

sea ice, platelet ice, brine channels) and its connection to platelet ice formation via in-situ or laboratory

716	measurements are required to better constrain the $IPSO_{25}$ potential as a robust sea-ice biomarker. The	
717	presumed relationship between IPSO $_{25}$ and platelet ice formation in connection to $\frac{basal_{\text{Sub-ice}}}{basal_{\text{Sub-ice}}}$	
718	$melting \ \underline{of \ ice \ shelves} \ is \ supported \ by \ our \ data, showing \ high \ IPSO_{25} \ concentrations \ in \ areas \ \underline{where} \underline{with}$	
719	$\underline{known} \ platelet \ ice \ formation \ \underline{has \ previously \ been \ reported} \ and \ low \ IPSO_{25} \ concentrations \ \underline{where \ no}\underline{in}$	
720	areas without observed platelet ice formation-is observed. Accordingly, oceanic conditions and the	
721	intensity of sub-ice shelf melting need to be considered when using IPSO $_{25}\left(1\right)$ as an indirect indicator	
722	for sub-ice shelf melting processes and associated ice shelf dynamics and (2) for the application of the	
723	PIPSO ₂₅ index to estimate sea—ice coverage.	
724		
725	Data availability,	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
726	Datasets related to this article can be found online on PANGAEA Data Publisher for Earth &	
727	Environmental Science (doi: in prep)	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
728		
729	Author contribution,	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
730	N.L. and J.M. designed the concept of the study. N.L. carried out biomarker experiments. X.S and G.L.	
731	developed the model code and X.S. performed the simulations. C.H. provided the satellite data. M	
732	E.V. provided hitherto unpublished GDGT data for PS97 samples. G.M. and J.H. carried out GDGT	
733	analyses. CD.H. collected surface sediment samples and advised on their ages. N.L. prepared the	
734	manuscript and visualizations with contributions from all co-authors,	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
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736	Competing interests	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
737	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.	hat formatiert: Englisch (Vereinigte Staaten)
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