# 1 BrGDGTs-based seasonal paleotemperature reconstruction for the last 15,000 years

## 2 from a shallow lake on the eastern Tibetan Plateau

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#### 13 ABSTRACT

14 Knowledge of Holocene temperature changes is crucial for addressing the problem of the discrepancy between Holocene proxy temperature reconstructions and climate model 15 16 simulations. The complex spatiotemporal pattern of temperature variations on the Tibetan 17 Plateau (TP) further complicates the study of Holocene continental climate change. The 18 discrepancy between model-based and proxy-based Holocene temperature reconstructions 19 possibly results from the seasonal biases and environmental ambiguities of the proxies. 20 Quantitative temperature reconstructions using different proxies from the same sediment core 21 can provide an effective means of evaluating different proxies; however, this approach is 22 unusual in terrestrial environments. Here, we present an ice-free-season temperature record 23 for the past 15 ka from a shallow, freshwater lake on the eastern TP, based on brGDGTs 24 (branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers). This record shows that the Holocene Thermal 25 Maximum lags the pollen-based July temperature recorded in the same sediment core. We 26 conclude that the mismatch between the brGDGTs-based and pollen-based temperatures is 27 primarily the result of seasonal variations in solar irradiance. The overall pattern of 28 temperature changes is supported by other summer temperature records, and the Younger 29 Dryas cold event and the Bølling-Allerød warm period are also detected. A generally warm 30 period occurred during 8–3.5 ka, followed cooling in the late Holocene. Our findings have 31 implications for understanding the seasonal signal of brGDGTs in shallow lakes, and provide 32 critical data for confirming the occurrence of seasonal biases in different proxies from high-33 elevation lakes. To further investigate the significance of the brGDGTs and temperature 34 patterns on the TP, we reviewed previously published brGDGTs-based Holocene temperature

35 records across the TP. The results demonstrate that brGDGTs have been employed to 36 reconstruct various temperatures in different studies, including annual average temperature 37 and warm-biased temperature, and that both show a gradual warming trend during the 38 Holocene with relatively cooler conditions during the middle Holocene, and a cooling trend 39 during the middle to late Holocene. We analyzed the possible reasons for the diverse 40 brGDGTs records on the TP and emphasize the importance of considering lake conditions and modern investigations of brGDGTs in lacustrine systems when using brGDGTs to 41 42 reconstruct paleoenvironmental conditions.

Keywords: Tibetan Plateau, brGDGTs, the mean temperature of Months Above Freezing,
shallow lake, Holocene

## 45 **1 Introduction**

46 Global climate change has had a profound impact on both the natural ecological and socio-47 economic systems that are vital for human survival and development, making climate change 48 a critical limiting factor for the sustainable development of human society. The Tibetan 49 Plateau (TP), also called the "Third Pole" (Qiu, 2008), has undergone a more rapid warming 50 over the last five decades, with a rate twice that of the global average  $(0.3 - 0.4^{\circ}C/decade)$ 51 (Chen et al., 2015; Kuang and Jiao, 2016), making it one of the world's most temperature-52 sensitive regions (Chen et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2022). Consequently, assessing the impact of future climate change on the TP is becoming increasingly important. To enhance the 53 54 precision and accuracy of future climate change estimates for the TP under ongoing global 55 climate change and to minimize the uncertainty in climate simulations, it is essential to investigate the processes and mechanisms of regional climate and environmental changes, 56

with particular emphasis on temperature, on a relatively long timescale, such as that of theHolocene.

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The Holocene, the most recent geological epoch, is closely linked with the development of 60 61 human civilization. Quantitative reconstructions of Holocene temperature trends can be used 62 to explore their impacts on civilization and to establish a geological and historical context for 63 predicting future climate changes. In recent decades, many Holocene quantitative 64 reconstructions of seasonal and annual temperatures for the TP have been produced using 65 various proxies, like pollen (Herzschuh et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2011), chironomids (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019a),  $\delta^{18}$ O in ice cores (Pang et al., 2020; Thompson et al., 1997), 66 and biomarkers (Cheung et al., 2017; Hou et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2013). These 67 reconstructions have provided crucial data for the elucidation of Holocene temperature 68 69 changes. However, the available Holocene temperature records from the TP show divergent 70 trends. Multiple proxy indicators indicate three different Holocene temperature patterns on 71 the TP. First, a consistent Holocene warming trend (Feng et al., 2022; Opitz et al., 2015; Sun 72 et al., 2022). For example, brGDGTs based annual temperatures (Feng et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2022) indicate a gradual warming trend which resembles the  $\delta^{18}$ O temperature record from 73 74 the Chongce ice core on the western TP, except for the last 2 ka (Pang et al., 2020). Second, 75 an early to middle Holocene summer temperature maximum and a gradual cooling trend 76 during the late Holocene are observed in pollen-, alkenone- and chironomid-based 77 temperature records (Herzschuh et al., 2014; Hou et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021a; Zhang et 78 al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2015). Third, a prominent relatively cool middle Holocene (Li et al., 79 2017; Wang et al., 2021c); for example, a composite temperature record suggests that

80 temperatures were  $\sim 2^{\circ}$ C cooler during the middle Holocene than during the early and late 81 Holocene (Wang et al., 2021c). Several records also show a steady long-term trend without 82 distinct cooling or warming (Sun et al., 2021). Moreover, the cooling trends in proxy-based 83 Holocene temperature records are inconsistent with those of climate models, which indicate a 84 warming trend, and this inconsistency is widely known as the "Holocene temperature 85 conundrum" (Liu et al., 2014). There are several potential factors that may contribute to the disparity in Holocene temperature trends, including seasonal biases and uncertainties in 86 87 temperature proxies and reconstructions, independent of climate models (Bova et al., 2021; 88 Cartapanis et al., 2022; Hou et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2014; Marsicek et al., 2018). While 89 several recent studies have suggested that seasonality in proxies is not the major cause of the 90 Holocene temperature conundrum (Dong et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022b), it is significant 91 that the TP is an alpine and high-altitude region with significant seasonal temperature 92 variations. Moreover, most organisms tend to grow during the warmer seasons at high latitudes and high altitudes (Zhao et al., 2021a). Currently, however, we lack unambiguous 93 94 and reliable seasonal temperature records to support a seasonality-bias hypothesis. Extensive 95 research has been conducted in lakes, employing a single proxy to reconstruct past 96 temperature fluctuations. However, there have been scarce studies that employ various 97 proxies within the same core to reconstruct paleotemperature variations. Furthermore, the 98 limited number of studies primarily concentrate on reconstructing summer temperature and 99 annual average temperature. For example, a chironomid-based July temperature 100 reconstruction for Tiancai lake on the southeastern TP shows higher temperatures during the 101 early to middle Holocene (Zhang et al., 2017), while the brGDGTs-based annual average

temperature shows a warming trend (Feng et al., 2022). Different proxies may reflect the seasonal temperatures in different months, and thus producing temperature reconstructions for different months for the same sediment core may help better understand the seasonal bias of terrestrial temperature records. Furthermore, the reconciliation of the divergent trends of Holocene temperature on the TP and its surroundings requires additional high-altitude temperature records from these regions, with reliable chronologies and proxy records with an unambiguous climatological significance.

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110 Branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs) are a group of membrane-spanning 111 lipids found in bacteria (Fig. S1) (Chen et al., 2022; Halamka et al., 2022; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2000), and they have become a powerful tool for quantifying past terrestrial 112 113 temperature variations. Through investigations of brGDGTs in globally-distributed soils, it 114 was found that the distribution of brGDGTs is primarily related to temperature and pH 115 (Weijers et al., 2007). Subsequently, brGDGTs-temperature calibrations from soil, peat and 116 lake sediments were established on scales from global (Crampton-Flood et al., 2020; De Jonge et al., 2014; Martínez-Sosa et al., 2021; Weijers et al., 2007) to regional (e.g., East Asia) 117 (Dang et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016), leading to 118 119 considerable progress in reconstructing terrestrial temperatures, particularly on the TP (Cheung et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022a). 120

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122 Natural lakes are widely distributed across the TP (Zhang et al., 2019b). Lake sediments,
123 characterized by their organic matter-rich composition, exhibit continuous and rapid

124 accumulation rates. As a result, they offer high-resolution records of environmental changes, making them highly valued as a primary terrestrial climate archive (Moser et al., 2019). 125 126 BrGDGTs in lacustrine systems are often more strongly correlated with temperature, with higher coefficient of determination  $(r^2)$  and lower root mean square error (RMSE) values 127 (Martínez-Sosa et al., 2021), than in soils and peats. However, the factors that impact the 128 129 distribution of brGDGTs in lakes are intricate and multidimensional. Notably, the sources of 130 brGDGTs within lakes are intricate, involving contributions from soil as well as autochthonous lake processes. Moreover, an expanding body of research underscores a 131 substantial prevalence of autochthonous brGDGTs in lakes (Tierney and Russell, 2009; 132 133 Tierney et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2021b; Weber et al., 2015). Furthermore, the origins of brGDGT producers remain uncertain and could be influenced by various factors, including 134 135 lake salinity (Wang et al., 2021b), redox conditions (Weber et al., 2018), oxygen content and/or mixing patterns (Buckles et al., 2014; van Bree et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021). 136 137 Additionally, even lake depth plays a role due to distinct ecological niches (Woltering et al., 138 2012), thereby contributing to the intricate interplay that shapes the distribution of brGDGTs 139 within lakes.

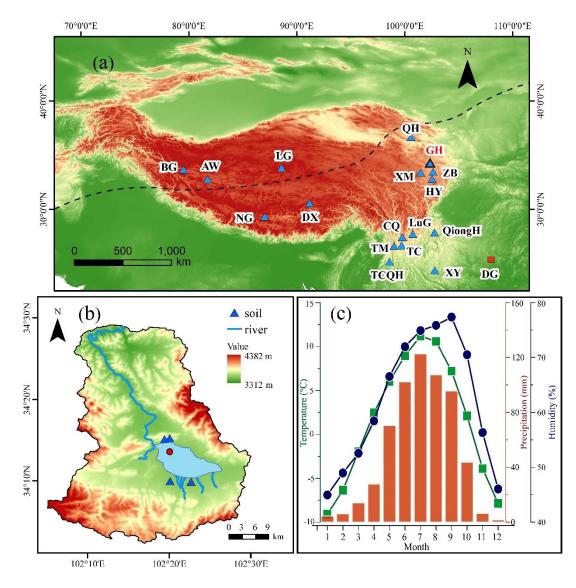
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In this study, we obtained a quantitative temperature reconstruction for the past 15 ka from Gahai, a shallow (average depth of ~2 m) freshwater lake located in the source area of the Yellow River. This region is an important ecological protection area on the eastern edge of the TP. Freshwater environments avoid the confounding effects of salinity on brGDGTsbased temperature reconstructions, and shallow lakes also minimize the impact of the uneven distribution of light and nutrients on brGDGTs. Our specific aims were: (1) to determine the long-term trend of Holocene warm-biased terrestrial temperatures at a high elevation; (2) to compare records of ice-free season temperatures with July temperatures from the same sediment core; and (3) to gain a better understanding of the possible mechanisms responsible for Holocene temperature variations, especially on the TP.

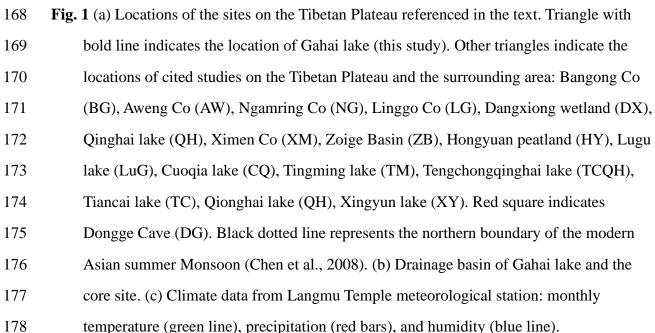
#### 151 **2 Materials and methods**

152 2.1 Study site

Gahai (102°11′–102°28′ E, 34°04′–34°4′ N, 3444 m a.s.l.) is a freshwater lake and part of the 153 154 Gahai meadow wetland, which is a national nature reserve with restricted human access, on the eastern edge of the Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1). The lake is fed by runoff from the 155 156 surrounding hills, drains into the Tao River, and ultimately enters the Yellow River. Thus, 157 Gahai lake is a critical water conservation area in the upper reaches of the Yellow River. The 158 average water depth of Gahai is  $\sim 1-2$  m, and the maximum depth is  $\sim 5$  m. The vegetation in 159 the catchment consists mainly of Kobresia tibetica, Equisetum arvense, Potentilla anserina, 160 Artemisia subulate, and Oxytropis falcata (Ma et al., 2019). Meteorological data for the area 161 are available from Langmu Temple station (1957-1988) (Fig. 1) (102°38' E, 34°5' N, 3412 m 162 a.s.l.), ~32 km northwest of Gahai lake. They indicate an annual average (mean) precipitation of 781 mm, with > 67% occurring between June and September, and mean annual 163 164 temperature of 1.2 °C with a relative humidity of ~65%. The summers are mild and humid and the winters are cold and dry. From May to September, the mean average temperature is 165 166 above freezing ( $0^{\circ}$ C), but the temperature in May is very low, close to  $0^{\circ}$ C.







179 2.2 Sampling

A sediment core with the length of 329 cm was obtained from Gahai Lake in January 2019, at a water depth of 1.95 m, using a UWITEC platform operated from the frozen lake surface. In addition, four catchment soil samples were collected from around the lake (Fig. 1). All samples were transported to the Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (ITPCAS). The sediment core was split lengthwise, and one half was subsampled and freeze-dried for subsequent analysis.

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187 *2.3 Chronology* 

188 The chronology of the upper 20 cm of the sediment core is based on measurements of <sup>210</sup>Pb

and <sup>137</sup>Cs, at a 1-cm interval. The chronology for the deeper part of the core is provided by

190 accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) <sup>14</sup>C measurements of 13 bulk sediment samples, which

191 were conducted by Beta Analytic Inc. (Miami, USA) (Fig. 2) (Wang et al., 2022).

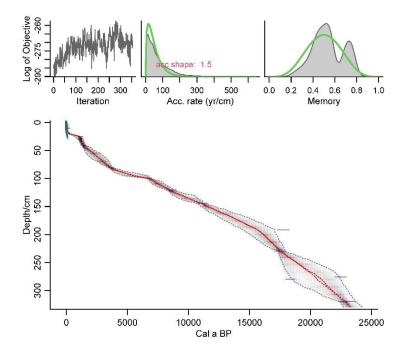
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The <sup>210</sup>Pb age model was constructed using the constant rate of supply (CRS) model and the <sup>137</sup>Cs peak was used as supplement (Appleby, 2002). The calculated age of <sup>210</sup>Pb using CRS model aligned well with the <sup>137</sup>Cs peak at 6 cm. Overall, the CRS model was deemed suitable for determining the age of Gahai lake.

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Reservoir age, as highlighted by Hou et al. (2012), is a crucial factor affecting the age determination of lake sediment cores on the TP. Therefore, it was necessary to establish the reservoir age of Gahai lake before undertaking paleoclimate reconstruction. The linear

extrapolation relationship between the <sup>14</sup>C ages and depth to the sediment-water interface is 201 often used to estimate the reservoir age. The <sup>14</sup>C age of 13 samples exhibits a good linear 202 relationship with sediments depth in Gahai lake. Extrapolation of this 13 <sup>14</sup>C ages down to the 203 204 depth of 6 cm yielded a <sup>14</sup>C age of 461 yr BP, while the reliable <sup>210</sup>Pb age at 6 cm is -27 yr BP. Consequently, the difference between the two ages, which amounts to 488 yr, was taken as 205 the reservoir age. Additionally, it's worth noting that independent estimations of the <sup>14</sup>C 206 calibration age and <sup>210</sup>Pb age around 10 cm in Gahai lake was obtained, resulting in values of 207 208 497 yr BP and 18 yr BP, respectively. The difference of 479 yr between these two ages can also be considered as the reservoir age. These two methods of estimating reservoir age of 209 210 Gahai lake show very close, which are mutually supportive. So, the average of 483 yr was adopted as the reservoir age. All original <sup>14</sup>C dates were corrected by subtracting the reservoir 211 212 age (483 yr) and calibrating them to calendar ages using Calib 8.1. The age-depth model (Fig. 2) was constructed using the Bacon program with the <sup>14</sup>C ages and <sup>210</sup>Pb ages (Blaauw and 213 214 Andres Christen, 2011) and was reported by Wang et al. (2022).



- 216 **Fig. 2** Age-depth model for Gahai, based on AMS <sup>14</sup>C, <sup>210</sup>Pb and <sup>137</sup>Cs ages (Wang et al.,
- 217 2022). The ages of the upper 20 cm are based on <sup>210</sup>Pb and <sup>137</sup>Cs dating (green symbols)
  218 and those of the lower part on AMS <sup>14</sup>C dates (blue symbols).
- 219
- 220 2.4 Lipids extraction and brGDGTs analysis

For lipids extraction, ~5 g samples were ground to a powder and extracted ultrasonically with 221 222 dichloromethane (DCM): methanol (MeOH) (9: 1, v: v) three times. The supernatants were combined and dried under a stream of nitrogen gas. Subsequently, the total lipid extracts were 223 224 separated into neutral and acid fractions through a LC-NH<sub>2</sub> silica gel column using DCM: 225 isopropyl alcohol (2: 1, v: v) and ether with 4% acetic acid (v: v), respectively. The neutral 226 fraction was then eluted through a silica gel column using n-Hexane, DCM and MeOH, and 227 the GDGTs were dissolved in the MeOH. The GDGTs fraction was passed through a 0.45 µm 228 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter before analysis. C<sub>46</sub>-GDGT (a standard compound) 229 (Huguet et al., 2006) was added to the samples before analysis.

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BrGDGTs were detected using an HPLC-APCI-MS (Waters ACQUITY UPLC I-Class/Xevo 231 232 TQD) with auto-injection at the ITPCAS. The compounds were separated by three Hypersil 233 Gold Silica LC columns in sequence (each 100 mm  $\times$  2.1 mm, 1.9  $\mu$ m, Thermo Fisher 234 Scientific; USA), maintained at a temperature of 40°C. GDGTs were eluted isocratically 235 using 84% hexane and 16% ethyl acetate (EtOA) for the first 5 min, followed by a linear gradient change to 82% hexane and 18% EtOA from 5 to 65 min. The columns were cleaned 236 using 100% EtOA for 10 min, and then back to 84% hexane and 16% EtOA to equilibrate the 237 238 column, with a flow rate of 0.2 ml min<sup>-1</sup>.

The APCI-MS conditions were as follows: nebulizer pressure at 60 psi, APCI probe temperature at 400°C, drying gas flow rate of 6 L/min and temperature of 200°C, capillary voltage of 3600 V, source corona of 5.5  $\mu$ A. Detection was performed in selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode, targeting the protonated molecules at m/z 1050, 1048, 1046, 1036, 1034, 1032, 1022, 1020, 1018 and 744. The results were analyzed using MassLynx V4.1 software, and quantification was achieved by comparing the peak areas of targeted ions and the internal standard, assuming an identical response factor for GDGTs.

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## 248 **3 Results and Discussion**

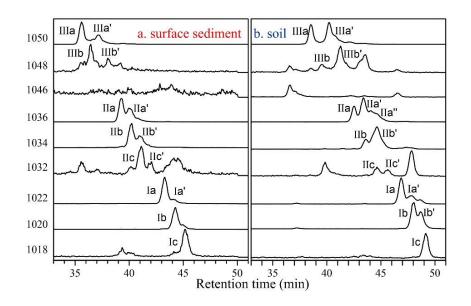
#### 249 3.1. Concentration and distribution of brGDGTs in the sediment core and catchment soils

BrGDGTs were detected in both the catchment soils and the downcore sediments. The 250 average concentration of brGDGTs in the catchment soils (0.07 ng g<sup>-1</sup>dw) was lower than in 251 the surficial core sediments (0.70 ng  $g^{-1}$ dw). In the soil samples, pentamethylated brGDGTs 252 were generally the most abundance (55.33%), followed by tetramethylated brGDGTs 253 254 (23.60%) and hexamethylated brGDGTs (21.07%) (Fig. S2). The relative amount of 255 cyclopentane ring-containing brGDGTs in the soil samples was generally low (24.34%) and it was sometimes too low to be detected, especially the fractions of IIIb, IIIb', IIIc, IIIc', IIc and 256 257 IIc'. In the downcore sediments, the relative abundance of tetramethylated brGDGTs (43.84%) was like that of pentamethylated brGDGTs (41.93%), and hexamethylated brGDGTs were the 258 259 least abundance (14.22%) (Fig. S2). The relative abundant of cyclopentane ring-containing 260 brGDGTs in the downcore sediments (67.82%) was lower than that in the catchment soils.

#### 261 *3.2 In situ production of brGDGTs in Gahai lake*

262 Although lacustrine brGDGTs have great potential for quantitatively reconstructing terrestrial 263 paleotemperatures, uncertainties about their sources in lacustrine environments are a major factor limiting their application (Buckles et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2020; Sinninghe Damsté et 264 265 al., 2009; Sun et al., 2011; Tierney and Russell, 2009). To investigate the origin and 266 characteristics of brGDGTs in the Gahai lake sediments, we examined the distributions and concentrations of brGDGTs in the sediments and catchment soils and found notable 267 differences between them. First, as described in the previous section, the average content of 268 269 brGDGTs in the catchment soils was ~10% that of the surficial lake sediments, suggesting the 270 absence of large-scale allochthonous inputs from the catchment soils. Second, the brGDGTs 271 distributions in the downcore sediments were quite different from those in the catchment soils, 272 which suggests a substantial autochthonous brGDGTs contribution to the lake sediments (Fig. 273 3 and Fig. S2). Moreover, the ratios of 6-methyl brGDGTs to 5-methyl GDGTs (IR<sub>6ME</sub>) in the 274 soils and sediments, calculated according to the formula proposed by De Jonge et al. (2014), 275 were different. In the soil samples, IR<sub>6ME</sub> varied between 0.54 and 0.57 and the average ratio 276 in the downcore samples was 0.26, varying between 0.18 and 0.47. Third, the in-situ 277 production of brGDGTs in Gahai lake is suggested by the discrepancies in the degree of 278 methylation (MBT'<sub>5ME</sub>) between the soils and surface sediments. The average value of MBT'<sub>5ME</sub> in the Gahai lake surface sediments was 0.48, which is clearly higher than in the 279 280 catchment soils, with the range of 0.32–0.35. Fourth, and potentially the most significant, the 281 IIIb'and Ib' compounds are present in the catchments soil but not in the Gahai lake surficial sediments, which may be direct evidence of an autochthonous brGDGTs contribution in the 282

lacustrine environment (Fig. 3), and a lower proportion of soil-derived brGDGTs input.
Therefore, we conclude that the brGDGTs in the Gahai lake sediments are mainly of in-situ
origin.



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Fig. 3 Representative high-performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure
 chemical ionization-mass spectrometry (HPLC/APCIMS) chromatograms of brGDGTs
 from (a) surface sediments from Gahai lake, and (b) soils in the catchment of Gahai lake.

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## 291 *3.3 brGDGTs-temperature calibration and Holocene temperature reconstruction*

Gahai is a shallow lake in the eastern Tibetan Plateau that is typically completely frozen during winter and spring. Local meteorological data indicate that the average snowfall period lasts for 269 days, with around 50 days of continuous snowfall (Luqu County Local Chronicles Compilation Committee, 2006). The freezing of the lake surface begins in late October each year and gradually thaws starting from May of the following year. As a result, the light transmittance and oxygen content in the lake water are reduced during the freezing season, leading to decreased nutrient levels, which severely hinder the growth of autotrophic microorganisms. Although the bacteria responsible for producing brGDGTs have not been thoroughly characterized, the abundance of heterotrophic bacteria will likely decrease due to the reduced autotrophic biomass during the winter and spring ice-covered period. The weakened light penetration, decreased oxygen levels, and lack of nutrient replenishment during the frozen period significantly impact the growth of autochthonous microorganisms.

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305 While the specific bacterial species responsible for brGDGT production are not yet well understood, it is known that these bacteria, as heterotrophic organisms, will also be 306 307 influenced by the reduction in autotrophic biomass. Furthermore, some research suggests that 308 the production of brGDGTs might be related to factors such as water depth, seasonal 309 alternation of water column mixing and stratification (Loomis et al., 2014; van Bree et al., 310 2020). During the summer and autumn seasons when the lake ice melts and the water 311 becomes more mobile, the nutrient content increases, resulting in elevated lake biomass, 312 moreover, the oxygen levels at the bottom of Gahai lake are not expected to be too high, 313 which could further contribute to the proliferation of brGDGT-producing bacteria, potentially 314 leading to an increase in the brGDGT-producing bacteria (Weber et al., 2018). Therefore, 315 brGDGTs in Gahai lake may provide records of the average temperature during the ice-free 316 months of the summer and autumn seasons.

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Additionally, the presence of the frozen lake surface during winter creates a thermal barrier, impeding the exchange of heat between the lake water and the atmosphere. Consequently, any brGDGTs generated within the lake water during this period lose their ability to accurately reflect atmospheric temperature variations (Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022a).
Thus, they were no longer able to track atmospheric temperature changes during the frozen
season. So, we prefer to use Gahai brGDGTs to reconstruct temperatures during the summer
and ice-free seasons. For this purpose, we employed the new Bayesian calibration for the
mean temperature of the Months Above Freezing, as proposed by Martínez-Sosa et al. (2021),
to derive a warm-biased temperature for Gahai lake.

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328 To assess the accuracy of this calibration approach, we compared the fractional abundances 329 of summed tetra-, penta-, and hexamethylated brGDGTs in Gahai lake sediments with other 330 datasets (Fig. 4). These datasets include lake sediments from the Tibetan Plateau (Günther et 331 al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016), East Africa (Russell et al., 2018), and global lakes (Martínez-Sosa et al., 2021). The distribution pattern of Gahai core sediments is distinctly remarkable 332 333 compared to that of other lake sediments within the Tibetan Plateau, even though they share a 334 common regional origin (Fig. 4). However, its resemblance to the global distribution of 335 brGDGTs in lake sediments is evident. Notably, the calibration developed by Martínez-Sosa 336 et al. (2021) is based on brGDGTs from a global lake dataset.

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Using calibration of Martínez-Sosa's et al. (2021), we reconstructed the surface sediment temperature of Gahai lake, resulting in a temperature estimate of 9.4°C. This reconstructed temperature closely matches the ice-free season temperature recorded by meteorological stations in the Gahai region (8.8°C for May to September). Furthermore, considering the significant contribution of autochthonous brGDGTs in Gahai lake, we also attempted to 343 reconstruct the Holocene paleotemperature record using previously published lake-specific 344 brGDGTs-temperature calibrations (e.g., Dang et al., 2018; Günther et al., 2014; Martínez-345 Sosa et al., 2021; Russell et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016). As illustrated in 346 Fig. S3, most of these calibrations showed qualitatively similar patterns of temperature 347 change when applied to the sediment core from Gahai lake. However, the magnitudes of 348 temperature fluctuations varied considerably and were found to be unsuitable for application 349 in Gahai lake due to several key reasons. Firstly, the fractional abundances of summed tetra-, penta-, and hexamethylated brGDGTs in Gahai lake were inconsistent with those found in the 350 351 reference datasets (Fig. 4). Secondly, the analytical technique used for distinguishing 5- and 352 6-methyl isomers, which was a crucial aspect of some calibration studies (Günther et al., 353 2014; Wang et al., 2016), was not employed in those studies, resulting in their exclusion from 354 our analysis. Thirdly, although the brGDGTs fractions in Gahai lake are resembled those of 355 East African lakes, the annual mean temperature reconstructed using this calibration significantly differed from the temperature data recorded at the Langmu Temple station. 356 357 Moreover, even though the paleotemperature reconstruction for Gahai lake based on the 358 warm-season temperature calibration by Dang et al. (2018) showed similarity to the 359 calibration by Martínez-Sosa et al. (2021). However, it is worth noting that the calibration by 360 Dang et al. (2018) was established based on an investigation of 35 Chinese alkaline lakes, 361 which may not be directly applicable to the freshwater environment of Gahai lake. Similarly, despite the salinity correction, the calibration reported by Wang et al. (2021) was not 362 363 considered suitable for our study.

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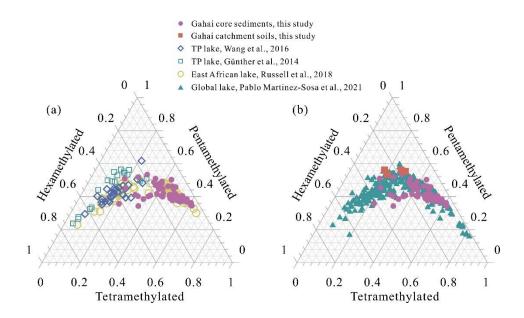


Fig. 4 Comparison of the fractional abundances of tetramethylated, pentamethylated, and
hexamethylated bGDGTs in sediment core samples from Gahai with lake surface
sediments from the Tibetan Plateau (Günther et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016), East Africa
(Russell et al., 2018), and worldwide (Martínez-Sosa et al., 2021).

Given these limitations, we ultimately opted to use the new Bayesian calibration for the mean
temperature of the Months Above Freezing, as proposed by Martínez-Sosa et al. (2021), to
reconstruct a warm-biased temperature record for Gahai lake.

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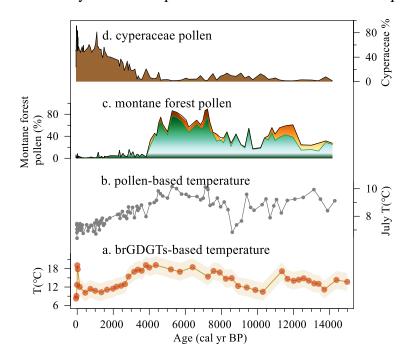
374 The depth interval of 191–279 cm in the Gahai sediment core represents an interval of rapid 375 allocthonous sedimentation, or alternatively a slump, and therefore the results for the corresponding time interval of 20-15 ka may be unreliable. Thus, our temperature record of 376 Months Above Freezing from the eastern TP spans the past 15 ka, with the average 377 378 temperature of 4°C, as shown in Fig. 5a. Within the range of age uncertainties, weak warming occurred during 14.8-11.8 ka, likely to corresponding to the Bølling-Allerød (B/A) 379 interstadial. A minor cold reversal occurred during 11.8–10.5 ka, potentially corresponding to 380 381 the Younger Dryas (YD) event. Notably, the samples collected between 11.8 ka and 10.5 ka

382 exhibited GDGT concentrations below the detection limit. Therefore, we directly linked the 383 temperature reconstructions at the two aforementioned time points, ~11.8 ka and ~10.5 ka, 384 resulting in the lowest temperature of this time period appearing around 10.5 ka. This may cause a time lag with the occurrence of the YD event. The temperature record indicates a 385 386 colder period during 11.5–8.0 ka. During 8.0–3.5 ka, Gahai experienced a stable warm period with the average temperature of ~16.5°C, after which the temperature decreased gradually. 387 388 Overall, the maximum temperature difference since 15 ka was ~10°C. As for the absolute temperature changes since 15,000 yr, although some influential studies indicate a warming of 389 390 approximately 6.1-7°C from the deglaciation onset to preindustrial times (Osman et al., 2021; 391 Tierney et al., 2020). However, these results are based on global mean sea surface 392 temperatures. Our reconstructed temperature range is about 10°C, considering the remarkable 'elevation-dependent warming' observed in high-altitude regions compared to low-altitude 393 394 areas (Mountain Initiative EDW Working Group, 2015). Thus, this range could be accurate. Nevertheless, we do not rule out the possibility that our temperature reconstruction may 395 396 exhibit an overestimation. This is a known issue in temperature reconstruction using 397 biomarkers. Aside from potential uncertainties associated with the biomarkers themselves, 398 calibrations may also considerably influence the observed amplitude. We examined 399 temperature variations reconstructed using different calibrations (Fig. S3), with the smallest range being 6°C and the largest being 12°C. Undoubtedly, further efforts are needed to 400 401 constrain the inherent uncertainties related to biomarker-based temperature reconstructions.

402

## 403 *3.4 Holocene temperature changes on the eastern edge of TP and their origin*

404 Despite the difference in amplitude, the temperature record of Months Above Freezing from 405 Gahai resembles the pollen record and the pollen-based temperature reconstruction from the 406 same site (Fig. 5) (Wang et al., 2022). However, the brGDGTs-based Holocene Thermal 407 Maximum (HTM) lags the pollen-based reconstruction (Fig. 5a, b). Wang et al. (2022) used a 408 weighted-averaging partial least regression approach to produce a temperature record for 409 Gahai, based on a modern pollen dataset (n=731) from the eastern TP. Assessment of the 410 statistical significance of the pollen-based climate variables for Gahai suggests that the mean July temperature is the most important environmental factor influencing the fossil pollen 411 412 assemblages. The brGDGTs in Gahai are indicative of summer and autumn temperatures, and 413 the mismatch between the temperature records inferred from brGDGTs and the pollen record 414 may be attributed to the difference between the solar irradiance during June–October and that 415 during July. A detailed analysis of this topic will be undertaken in the subsequent section.



416

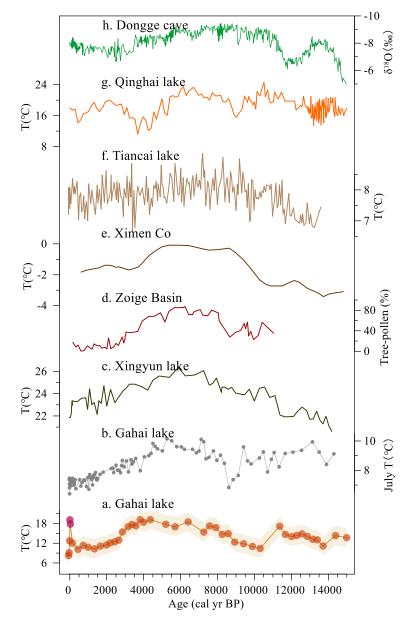
417 **Fig. 5** Comparison of multiproxy records from Gahai lake. (a) brGDGTs-based warm-bias

418 temperature (this study). (b) Temperature of the warmest month (July) based on pollen

assemblages (Wang et al., 2022). (c, d) Pollen-reconstructed montane forest (Pinus,

- 420 *Picea*, *Abies*) and Cyperaceae pollen record (Wang et al., 2022).
- 421

422 The brGDGTs-based temperature record from Gahai confirms the occurrence of a climate 423 optimum in the mid-Holocene on the northeast Tibetan Plateau, which is consistent with 424 several other pollen and pollen-reconstructed temperature records from the fringe areas of the 425 Asian summer monsoon (Fig. 6), suggesting that it is a reliable representation of Holocene 426 temperature changes in this region. For example, pollen-based temperature reconstructions 427 from Xingyun lake and Ximen Co on the eastern TP show a early to middle HTM (9-4 ka) and a cooling trend thereafter (Fig. 6c, e) (Herzschuh et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2021a; Wu et 428 429 al., 2018). Additionally, lake water temperature reconstructions based on subfossil 430 chironomids from Tiancai lake (Fig. 6f) (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019a) and 431 alkenones from Qinghai lake (Fig. 6g) (Hou et al., 2016) show the same trends during the past 15 ka, as also shown by other pollen-based temperature records from the TP (Chen et al., 432 2020). Pollen, chironomids and alkenones mainly respond to the growing season 433 434 temperatures in middle and high latitudes, and thus the reconstructed temperature records are 435 consistent with the variations in summer solar irradiance. Similar variations were documented in temperature reconstructions at a global scale (Cartapanis et al., 2022; Marcott et al., 2013). 436



438 Fig. 6 Comparison of temperature at Gahai and other records from the eastern edge of the 439 Tibetan Plateau. (a) brGDGTs-based warm-bias temperature at Gahai, the purple dots 440 may indicate unreliable temperature changes influenced by human activities (this study). (b) Temperature of the warmest month (July) based on pollen data from Gahai (Wang et 441 442 al., 2022). (c) Pollen-based temperature at Xingyun lake (Wu et al., 2018). (d) Tree 443 pollen percentages from the Hongyuan peatland in the southern Zoige Basin (Zhou et al., 444 2010). (e) Pollen-based temperature at Ximen Co (Herzschuh et al., 2014). (f) 445 Chironomid-based temperature at Tiancai lake (Zhang et al., 2017, 2019a). (g) 446 Alkenone-based temperature at Qinghai lake (Hou et al., 2016). (h) Stalagmite  $\delta^{18}$ O record of Donge cave (Dykoski et al., 2005). 447

449 Nevertheless, the timing and amplitude of the Gahai temperature fluctuations differ from 450 those of other temperature records from this region (Fig. 6). These discrepancies may be the 451 result of the chronological uncertainties of these records, and to differences in the seasonal 452 and spatial responses to climate forcing and feedbacks. The temperature records shown in Fig. 453 6 mostly refer to summer temperatures, which are primarily influenced by summer insolation.

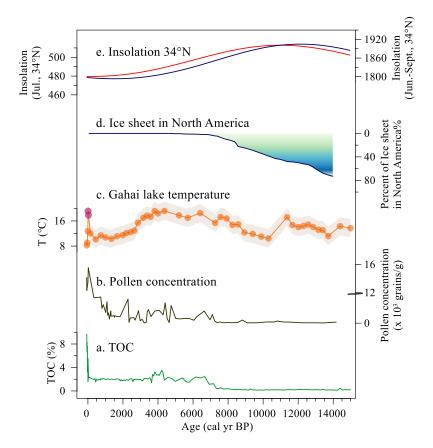


Fig. 7 Temperature fluctuations and forcing factors during the Holocene. (a, b) TOC content
and pollen concentrations from Gahai (Wang et al., 2022). (c) brGDGTs-based warmbias temperature from Gahai, the purple dots may indicate unreliable temperature
changes influenced by human activities (this study). (d) Percentage of the remnant
Laurentide ice sheet in North America relative to the Last Glacial Maximum (Dyke,
2004). (e) Local insolation at 34 °N during ice-free months (Laskar et al., 2004).

462 The temperature record in Gahai during the early Holocene fails to closely track the Northern 463 Hemisphere insolation trend, and there is also a time lag. The pollen-based temperature 464 record for Xingyun Lake in southwestern China also shows lower temperatures in the early 465 Holocene (Fig. 6c). The albedo effect caused by the increased cloud cover may be the reason 466 for the early Holocene decrease in summer temperatures (Wu et al., 2018). However, the pollen record from Gahai indicates dry conditions during the early Holocene (Wang et al., 467 2022), and cloud cover may not be the primary factor responsible for the low temperatures at 468 469 this time. The melting of Northern Hemisphere ice sheets during the early Holocene weakened the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) and potentially also the 470 471 global thermohaline circulation. This led to a reduction in the amount of heat transport by the 472 North Atlantic warm current to high-latitude regions, which resulted in the low temperatures 473 in middle to high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere. The persistence of the Laurentide ice sheet into the early Holocene maintained the regional albedo, as well as discharging 474 475 meltwater into the North Atlantic (Fig. 7d) (Dyke, 2004). In addition, a Holocene temperature 476 simulation showed that global warming was more pronounced when dust factors were 477 excluded from the simulation (Liu et al. (2018). The record of insoluble particles in the 478 Greenland GISP2 ice core indicates relatively high concentrations of atmospheric aerosols in the early Holocene (Zielinski and Mershon, 1997), which would gave weakened summer 479 480 solar irradiation via radiative feedback, leading to the cool temperatures during this period. 481 These factors may together have caused the early Holocene temperature decline at Gahai Lake, which slightly delayed the onset of the Holocene Warm Period. 482

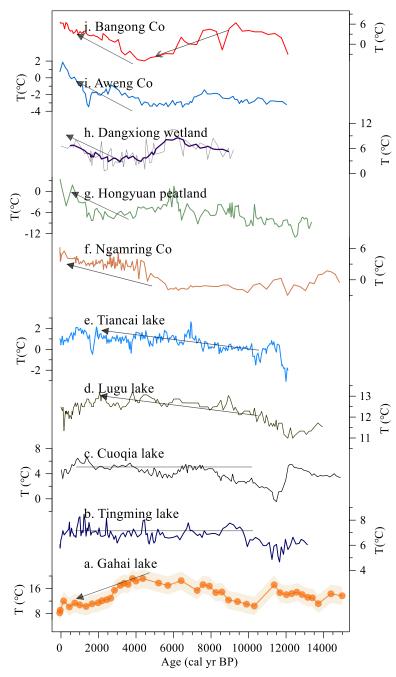
484 A notable and rapid temperature increase is evident at Gahai in recent decades, which differs 485 from the other records (Fig. 7c). Moreover, there are notable increases in pollen concentration, 486 TOC, and TN (Fig. 7a, b) in the Gahai sediment core, indicating intensive local human 487 activities like grazing and tourism, which may be the primary cause of the environmental 488 changes in this region (Wang et al., 2022). This intensive human activity may have reduced 489 the ability of the brGDGTs to record the natural temperature background. These observations 490 emphasize the important impact of human activities on climate proxies and the need to 491 carefully consider their effect on temperature reconstructions.

492

## 493 3.5 Spatiotemporal pattern of brGDGTs-based TP temperatures

494 In addition to comparing the Gahai temperature with the summer temperature records from 495 the eastern TP and its surrounding areas, we compiled and reviewed published Holocene 496 brGDGTs-based quantitative temperature records from across the TP. As shown in Fig. 8, 497 with the increasing number of these records for the TP, the differences between the results 498 have become more pronounced. The brGDGTs records from lakes in the central and western 499 parts of the plateau show higher temperatures in the early and late Holocene, and lower 500 temperatures in the middle Holocene (He et al., 2020; Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2021c), 501 while the brGDGTs records from lakes in the southern and south-eastern parts of the TP show 502 a warming trend throughout the Holocene (Feng et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2022). In addition, 503 brGDGTs in Cuoqia lake and Tingming lake, on the south-eastern TP, recorded the ice-free 504 season temperature, which was relatively stable during the Holocene (Sun et al., 2021; Zhang

et al., 2022a). However, our temperature record from Gahai is different from the above
records and resembles summer temperature changes during the Holocene (Chen et al., 2020).
This is because the brGDGTs record from Lake Gahai represents warm season temperatures,
which adds to its reliability.



509

510 Fig. 8 Comparison of Holocene temperature based on brGDGTs at Gahai (a) and other

511 records from around the TP. Reconstructed ice-free-season temperatures from (b)

- Tingming lake (Sun et al., 2021), (c) Cuoqia lake (Zhang et al., 2022a). Reconstructed
  annual temperature from (d) Lugu lake (Zhao et al., 2021b), (e) Tiancai lake (Feng et al.,
  2022), (f) Ngamring Co(Sun et al., 2022), (g) Hongyuan peatland (Yan et al., 2021). (h)
  Dangxiong wetland (Cheung et al., 2017), (i) Aweng Co (Li et al., 2017), (j) Bangong
- 517

Co (Wang et al., 2021c).

518 We suggest that the complexity of Holocene temperature patterns recorded by brGDGTs in 519 TP lakes is primarily due to the ambiguity of brGDGTs in these lakes, as well as to the spatial 520 heterogeneity of climate change across the TP. This ambiguity can be attributed to several 521 factors. First, the origin of brGDGTs in lakes remains an uncertain factor in temperature reconstruction. An increasing number of studies indicate the occurrence of a remarkable 522 523 amount of autochthonous brGDGTs in lakes, but their abundance in soil can also affect the 524 distribution of brGDGTs in lakes due to their supply via soil erosion (e.g., Tierney and 525 Russell, 2009; Wang et al., 2023; Weber et al., 2015). In fact, even within the same lake (e.g., 526 Tengchongqinghai lake in southwestern China), two studies reached inconsistent conclusions 527 regarding the origin of brGDGTs (Tian et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2021b), possibly because the 528 niches of certain brGDGTs may expand or contract compared to other locations within a lake. 529 Therefore, it is important to conduct detailed modern process studies to accurately assess the sources of brGDGTs in lakes, especially with regard to evaluating the proportion of 530 531 autochthonous brGDGTs (Martin et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). Second, brGDGTs may 532 show a seasonal signal. Current brGDGTs-temperature calibrations for lakes reflect the 533 annual average temperature (De Jonge et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2011), as well as the growing 534 season temperature (Dang et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2011) and the ice-free season temperature (Martínez-Sosa et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022a). Thus, there is no consensus regarding 535 536 whether the brGDGTs have a seasonal bias, and it is necessary to conduct continuous, highresolution seasonal investigations of lakes on the Tibetan Plateau to comprehensively 537 538 elucidate the seasonal characteristics of brGDGTs. This can enhance the accuracy of regional 539 temperature reconstruction and may help reconcile the complex temperature patterns 540 observed on the Tibetan Plateau. Third, the factors affecting the distribution of brGDGTs in 541 lakes are complex, including not only temperature, pH and salinity but also oxygen content, 542 water depth, and so on (Wang et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2016). The distribution of brGDGTs 543 in lakes is significantly influenced by the hydrological and physical properties of the lakes, 544 and thus it is necessary to attain a more comprehensive understanding of the characteristics of 545 the lakes in the study area and their effects on brGDGTs. Fourth, different brGDGTs-546 temperature calibrations may lead to markable differences in both the amplitude and trend of temperature from the same dataset (Feng et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2016). One reason for this 547 548 is the deviation between in-situ measured temperature and atmospheric temperature (Wang et 549 al., 2020). Thus, selecting an appropriate calibration and attempting to establish a brGDGTs-550 in situ temperature calibration are effective means of enhancing the reliability of brGDGTs-551 based temperature reconstructions.

552

## 553 4 Conclusions

We present a quantitative, brGDGTs-based seasonal paleotemperature record over the last 15 ka from the sediments of a shallow lake on the eastern Tibetan Plateau. Our reconstruction 556 resembles the summer temperature trend, with the Holocene Thermal Maximum occurring during 8–3.5 ka. There is a lag between our brGDGTs-based reconstruction and pollen-based 557 558 July temperature recorded in the same sediment core, indicating a seasonal bias between different proxies. Since 3.5 ka, the temperature decreased gradually, and the surficial 559 560 sediments reliably recorded the warm season temperature during the current period in the 561 Gahai Lake region. However, intensive local human activity during the last century has affected the distribution of brGDGTs, resulting in temperature deviations recorded by 562 brGDGTs. However, the implementation of environmental protection policies have reduced 563 564 this anthropogenic signal. Our findings help better understand the seasonal signal of 565 brGDGTs in shallow lakes and provide important data for improving projections of terrestrial 566 climate change at high elevations.

567

We also investigated previously published brGDGTs-based Holocene temperature records on the TP to determine the pattern of brGDGTs-based temperature changes and the possible causes of the differences between reconstructions. We emphasize the need for the careful examination of both the source and behavior of these compounds in lacustrine environments and lake status, prior to the application of brGDGTs proxies in paleolimnological reconstruction.

574

## 575 **Competing interests**

576 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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