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[Article begins on next page]

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# **Constraints on the sources of branched tetraether membrane lipids in distal marine sediments**

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#### 1 Abstract

2

Branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs) are membrane lipids produced by soil 3 bacteria and occur in near coastal marine sediments as a result of soil organic matter input. Their 4 abundance relative to marine-derived crenarchaeol, quantified in the BIT index, generally 5 6 decreases off-shore. However, in distal marine sediments, low relative amounts of brGDGTs can often still be observed. Sedimentary in-situ production as well as dust input has been suggested 7 as potential, though as yet not well constrained, sources. In this study brGDGT distributions in 8 9 dust are examined and compared with those in distal marine sediments. Dust was sampled along the equatorial West African coast and brGDGTs were detected in most of the samples, albeit in 10 low abundance. Their degree of methylation and cyclisation, expressed in the MBT' 11 (methylation index of branched tetraethers) and DC (degree of cyclisation) indices, respectively, 12 were comparable to those found for African soils, their presumed source. Comparison of DC 13 indices of brGDGTS in global soils, Congo deep-sea river fan sediments and dust with those of 14 distal marine sediments, however, clearly shows that distal marine sediments yield significantly 15 higher DC indices. This distinctive distribution is suggestive of sedimentary in-situ production as 16 17 source of brGDGTs in marine sediments, rather than dust input. The presence of in-situ produced brGDGTs in marine sediments means that caution should be exercised when applying the MBT'-18 CBT palaeothermometer in sediments with low BIT indices, i.e. <0.1 based on our dataset. 19 20

21

22 Keywords: Branched Tetraether; Dust; Marine Surface Sediment

23 **1. Introduction** 

24

Marine sediments provide a unique archive to study Earth's past environment and climate. 25 Depending on the proximity of the study location to land, a varying proportion of the organic 26 27 matter (OM) input in marine sediments may be land derived. This terrigenous OM can be 28 delivered to marine sediments by several modes of transport, i.e. eolian dust input, suspended in 29 river water, or by means of gravity transport over the sea bed like through deep see canyons or in turbidites. Several proxies have been developed that try to distinguish between marine and 30 31 terrigenous derived OM. These can be either based on bulk properties like the C:N ratio and the stable carbon isotopic ( $\delta^{13}$ C) composition of OM (Hedges et al., 1997 and references therein), or 32 based on the molecular composition, e.g. the (relative) abundance of lignin phenols (e.g. Goñi et 33 al., 1997) or other land specific biomarkers like long chain plant-wax derived *n*-alkanes 34 (Eglinton et al., 1962) or taraxerol (Killops and Frewin, 1994; Versteegh et al., 2004). 35 36 More recently, branched Glycerol Dialkyl Glycerol Tetraether (brGDGT) membrane lipids (Fig. 37

1) have been used as terrigenous biomarkers in marine sediments as they derive from soil 38 39 bacteria, likely belonging to the phylum of Acidobacteria (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2000, 2011; Weijers et al., 2006b, 2009a), and since their abundance in marine sediments quickly decreases 40 with increasing distance from the coast (Hopmans et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2006; Herfort et al., 41 42 2006). Hopmans et al. (2004) proposed the Branched vs. Isoprenoid Tetraether (BIT) index to quantify the relative abundance of these brGDGTs in marine sediments by normalising them to 43 44 crenarchaeol, an isoprenoid GDGT membrane lipid derived from ubiquitous pelagic 45 Thaumarchaeota (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002). It was suggested that this BIT index can be

used as proxy to trace terrigenous OM input into marine sediments (Hopmans et al., 2004).

47 However, subsequent studies demonstrated that the BIT index actually traces soil rather than

48 terrigenous OM input relative to marine OM input in near coastal marine sediments as brGDGTs

49 are present in soils and not in vegetation (Huguet et al., 2007; Walsh et al., 2008; Kim et al.,

50 2009; Weijers et al., 2009b; Smith et al., 2012).

51

Besides information on soil OM input, brGDGT distributions also provide information on 52 climate conditions on land. BrGDGTs vary in the number of methyl groups at the C5 and C5' 53 54 position (and recently it has been shown that methylation at the C6 and C6' position also occurs; De Jonge et al., 2013), and contain one or two cyclopentane moieties (Weijers et al., 2006a). In a 55 set of soils obtained from across the globe, it was found that the degree of cyclisation, expressed 56 in the Cyclisation ratio of Branched Tetraethers (CBT), shows a strong relation with soil pH, and 57 the degree of branching, expressed in the Methylation index of Branched Tetraethers (MBT), 58 shows a strong relation with both soil pH and annual Mean Air Temperature (MAT, Weijers et 59 al., 2007b). Upon transport of brGDGTs to the marine environment and deposition in the marine 60 sedimentary archive, their distribution could hence be used to reconstruct past soil pH and past 61 62 annual MAT using these parameters in the so-called MBT-CBT proxy (e.g. Weijers et al., 2007a). Recently the MBT index has been slightly modified (referred to as MBT') by excluding 63 two brGDGTs from analysis that usually occur in low abundance (i.e. <1 % of total brGDGTs) in 64 soils (Peterse et al., 2012). That same study also provided a new calibration for the MBT'-CBT 65 annual MAT proxy using this MBT' and based on a larger number of soils. In addition to the 66 67 CBT ratio, Sinninghe Damsté et al. (2009) introduced the degree of cyclisation (DC) index in

order to define the degree of cyclisation of brGDGTs in a similar way as the degree of

69 methylation in the MBT index, enabling a more direct comparison between the two.

70

Application of the BIT index and the MBT'-CBT proxy in marine sediments works under the 71 assumption that crenarchaeol is produced in the marine realm and brGDGTs are derived from 72 73 land. It has, however, been shown that Thaumarchaeota also thrive in soils, peat, lakes and river water and hence that crenarchaeol is produced in these environments as well (e.g. Weijers et al., 74 2004, 2006b; Powers et al., 2004; Leininger et al., 2006; Bannert et al., 2011; Zell et al., 2013). 75 76 The amount of crenarchaeol in soil and peat is, however, generally low relative to brGDGTs causing soils and peat to be, on average, still characterised by a high BIT index value though 77 rarely reaching a value of 1 (0.90 on average; Schouten et al., 2013a and references cited 78 therein). A similar situation is observed in marine settings: although the BIT index in distal 79 marine settings is often low, it seldom reaches a value of 0 (average 0.04; Schouten et al., 2013a) 80 as in most distal marine sediments small amounts of brGDGTs remain detectable. The sources of 81 these brGDGTs are uncertain. Long distance dust transport over the oceans might be a plausible 82 mechanism for delivery of brGDGTs to remote ocean settings and brGDGTs have indeed been 83 84 reported in atmospheric dust sampled off northwest Africa (Fietz et al., 2013). Alternatively, brGDGTs could be produced in-situ in marine sediments as suggested for near shore marine 85 sediments in a Svalbard fjord (Peterse et al., 2009) and in East China Sea sediments (Zhu et al., 86 87 2011) based on differences in brGDGT distributions in marine sediments vs. soils on adjacent land. However, it remains unclear to what extent these findings represent local, near coastal in-88 89 situ production, or that marine in-situ production of brGDGTs is a more general phenomenon. 90

To investigate whether dust or in-situ production is responsible for the presence of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments, we analysed the distribution of brGDGTs in atmospheric dust and marine surface waters from the coast of western Africa and in globally distributed open ocean sediments. These data are compared with previously published brGDGT distributions from the western African Congo deep sea river fan sediments and with global soils in order to constrain the potential source of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments and to identify potential implications for the use of GDGT-based proxies.

98

99 **2.** Material and methods

100 *2.1. Samples* 

Atmospheric dust was sampled along the west coast of equatorial Africa onboard the R/V Meteor cruise M41/1 in 1998. Details on sampling and extraction procedures are provided by Schefuß et al. (2003). For the present study, polar fractions of lipid extracts from 13 dust filters (Table 1; Fig. 2) were dried, redissolved in *n*-hexane:*iso*-propanol 99:1 (v/v), and filtered through a 0.45

 $\mu m$  mesh PTFE filter prior to analysis of their GDGT content.

106 Suspended particulate matter (SPM) in marine surface waters was sampled by filtration of ca.

107 100 to 400 L water, provided by the ship's seawater inlet (ca. 5 m water depth), through a  $0.7 \,\mu m$ 

108 GFF filter onboard R/V Meteor during cruise M56 in December 2002 along the west coast of

109 equatorial Africa (Spiess and Cruise Participants, 2008). The eight sampling locations comprise a

- transect along the equatorial African coast and include the lower salinity (down to 28.0 ‰)
- 111 Congo River outflow plume (Table 2; Fig. 2). Filters were freeze dried, cut into small pieces and

112 extracted using a dichloromethane (DCM):methanol (MeOH) 9:1 (v/v) mixture using accelerated

solvent extraction (Dionex ASE 200, 100°C, 1000 psi, 3 cycles of 5 min). The obtained total

114	lipid extract was saponified with 6% KOH (2 h at 85°C) and the extracted neutral fraction was
115	dried and separated over pre-combusted silica gel columns into an apolar, a ketone, and a polar
116	fraction using <i>n</i> -hexane, DCM, and DCM:MeOH 1:1 ( $v/v$ ) solvent mixtures, respectively.
117	Further preparation of the polar fractions was similar to that of the dust samples.
118	A total of 34 distal marine surface sediments (Table 3) were analysed for their brGDGT content.
119	These sediments were selected from the core-top calibration data set used for the $TEX_{86}$ sea
120	surface temperature proxy, based on their low BIT index, i.e. <0.03 (Schouten et al., 2002; Kim
121	et al., 2008, 2010). The polar fractions of the selected samples were obtained as described
122	previously (Schouten et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2008, 2010) and analysed for their brGDGT
123	content. The small differences in extraction techniques and clean up procedures between the
124	sample sets are not expected to influence the GDGT distributions. Previous studies have shown
125	that the type of extraction method and extract processing have not a large effect on the GDGT
126	distributions (Schouten et al., 2007; Escala et al., 2009; Lengger et al., 2012) and that differences
127	remain within repeatability limits (Schouten et al., 2013b).
128	
129	2.2. GDGT analysis
130	Samples were analysed for their GDGT content using High Performance Liquid
131	Chromatography / Atmospheric Pressure Chemical Ionization – Mass Spectrometry
132	(HPLC/APCI-MS) on an Agilent 1100 series instrument equipped with Chemstation software
133	according to Schouten et al. (2007). Separation of compounds was achieved on an analytical
134	Alltech Prevail Cyano column (150 mm x 2.1 mm; 3µm) held at a constant 30°C and using <i>n</i> -

hexane: *iso*-propanol 99:1 (v/v) as eluent, isocratically for the first 5 min, then increasing to 1.8%

*iso*-propanol in 45 min. The column was rinsed in back flush mode with 10% *iso*-propanol in *n*-

137 hexane and re-equilibrated to starting conditions after each run. GDGTs were analysed in

138 Selective Ion Monitoring (SIM) mode as their [M+H]<sup>+</sup> (protonated) derivatives. Relative

quantification of the GDGTs was based on peak areas in the  $[M+H]^+$  mass chromatograms. The

140 BIT index was used as defined by Hopmans et al. (2004):

141

142 
$$BIT = \frac{[Ia + IIa + IIIa]}{[Ia + IIa + IIIa + IV]}$$
(1)

143

The MBT' index was used as defined by Peterse et al. (2012) and differs from the original
definition (Weijers et al., 2007b) in the omission of GDGTs IIIb and IIIc:

146

147 
$$MBT' = \frac{[Ia + Ib + Ic]}{[Ia + Ib + Ic + IIa + IIb + IIc + IIIa]}$$
(2)

148

149 The degree of cyclisation (DC) of brGDGTs was used as defined by Sinninghe Damsté et al.150 (2009):

151

152 
$$DC = \frac{[Ib + IIb]}{[Ia + Ib + IIa + IIb]}$$
(3)

153

154 The CBT ratio was used as defined by Weijers et al. (2007b):

155

156 
$$CBT = -\log\left(\frac{[Ib + IIb]}{[Ia + IIa]}\right)$$
(4)

158 Roman numerals refer to the structures given in Fig. 1.

159

#### 160 *2.3. Statistical analysis*

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the DC and MBT' indices of different sample groups to determine whether or not these differ significantly from each other. The analysis was carried out by means of a pairwise multiple comparison test using Tamhane's T2 procedure, which assumes no equal variance between sample groups. Statistical analyses were conducted using the SPSS 21.0 software package (IBM corp.).

166

167 **3. Results and discussion** 

#### 168 *3.1. Atmospheric dust as a potential source for brGDGTs in the marine environment*

HPLC-MS analysis of the dust sampled along the African coast (Fig. 2) showed the presence of 169 brGDGTs in all but one sample. However, none of the dust samples contained the full suite of 170 brGDGTs, i.e. GDGTs IIIb and IIIc were not detected in any of the dust samples. Only in 5 out 171 172 of the 13 dust samples all brGDGTs necessary for calculating a DC index and CBT ratio were present above detection level (Table 1). In a previous study, the analysis of two dust samples 173 174 obtained from the same area as the dust filters analysed here did not yield any brGDGT signal (Hopmans et al., 2004), making the authors to suggest that brGDGTs are barely, if at all, 175 176 transported by dust. The mass spectrometer in that analysis, however, was set to scan ions over 177 the range m/z 950 to 1450, i.e. in 'full scan' mode. The extracts of dust samples in the present study were run in the more sensitive Selective Ion Monitoring (SIM) mode, scanning only for the 178 masses of interest, thereby increasing the sensitivity for GDGT detection by one to two orders of 179 180 magnitude (cf. Schouten et al., 2007). This likely explains why at least some brGDGTs are now

detected in dust and this implies that dust could be a potential source of brGDGTs in distal
marine sediments. This corroborates a recent publication by Fietz et al. (2013) that reports
brGDGTs in dust sampled off northwest Africa.

Backward trajectories for the dust samples used in our study have been computed previously 184 (Schefuß et al., 2003) and indicate that air masses sampled on the filters mostly originate from 185 186 the nearby African continent, especially from the Faya Largeau region in Chad. Therefore, it could be assumed that the brGDGTs in the dust are derived from nearby African soils and thus 187 that their distributions, as expressed in the degrees of methylation and cyclisation (MBT' and 188 189 DC), should be similar to those of African soils. The average MBT' and DC indices for brGDGTs in the dust samples are 0.80 ( $\pm 0.06$ ; n=8) and 0.11 ( $\pm 0.04$ ; n=5), respectively (Table 190 191 1). This falls within the range of African soils (from the soil database in Peterse et al., 2012), i.e. 192  $0.76 (\pm 0.22; n=12)$  and  $0.13 (\pm 0.18; n=16)$  for MBT' and DC, respectively, although the variation in soils is larger (Fig. 3). Furthermore, the MBT' and DC indices of the dust are similar 193 to previously reported MBT' and DC indices of brGDGTs present in the surface sediments from 194 the Congo deep sea river fan (Weijers et al., 2007a), i.e.  $0.72 (\pm 0.10; n=7)$  and  $0.15 (\pm 0.08; n=7)$ , 195 Table 4, Fig. 3). This indeed suggests that brGDGTs found in the dust are ultimately derived 196 197 from soils on the adjacent African continent. Notably, however, crenarchaeol was detected in all of the 13 dust samples and BIT indices 198

determined for the dust are substantially lower (average  $0.25\pm0.08$ , n=12; Table 1) compared to

values generally found in soils, e.g. the average BIT index value in a compilation of global soil

- data by Schouten et al. (2013a) is 0.90 (±0.14; n=224) with only a minority of soils having BIT
- 202 index values <0.5. Indeed, BIT indices for dust are also clearly lower than BIT indices for
- African soils reported in Peterse et al. (2012), which are on average 0.81 ( $\pm$ 0.21; n=16). The

204 latter dataset only contains two soils with BIT < 0.50 and none reaching as low as 0.25. These 205 differences could be caused by two processes, i.e. selective degradation of GDGTs during atmospheric transport or addition of crenarchaeol to dust. Selective degradation of brGDGTs 206 relative to crenarchaeol during atmospheric dust transport seems unlikely. Huguet et al. (2008) 207 208 have shown that in a turbidite deposit subject to prolonged oxygen exposure, crenarchaeol is 209 preferentially oxidized compared to brGDGTs. This was attributed, however, to the fact that the terrigenous derived brGDGTs were likely protected via close association with clay minerals in 210 contrast to the marine-derived crenarchaeol. If derived from soils, crenarchaeol will be similarly 211 212 associated with dust particles as brGDGTs and therefore no selective degradation is expected. Hence, there may be an additional source for crenarchaeol to explain the low BIT indices for 213 dust. One likely source for additional crenarchaeol on the dust filters is sea spray. Indeed, 214 analysis of the surface waters collected along the western African coast showed the clear 215 presence of crenarchaeol (Table 2) pointing to sea spray as a potential source of crenarchaeol. In 216 217 some of the surface waters brGDGTs were also detected, suggesting that sea spray may also be a source for the brGDGTs on the dust filters. However, only the surface waters from the lower 218 salinity waters of the Congo River plume contain brGDGTs, likely delivered by the Congo River 219 220 (cf. Hopmans et al., 2004; Weijers et al., 2007a). In contrast, surface waters taken outside the Congo River plume area barely contain brGDGTs, if at all (Table 2). Hence, the brGDGTs 221 detected in the dust, sampled outside areas of major river influence, are suggested to be 222 223 predominantly sourced by particles derived from the African continent. Notably, the dust sampled off northwest Africa by Fietz et al. (2013) reflected BIT index values of 0.84 on 224 225 average. Although BIT index analyses between laboratories could differ substantially (Schouten 226 et al., 2013b), this still is a large difference. As yet it is difficult to explain this difference, but

maybe the location of the dust samplers on the research vessel, i.e. their proximity to the seasurface, and weather conditions, might play a role here.

229

## *3.2. Sources of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments*

Transport of dust from the African continent to the equatorial Atlantic oceans is a well-known 231 232 phenomenon (e.g. Darwin, 1846; Chester et al., 1972; Prospero and Carlson, 1972) and for plant wax derived long chain *n*-alkanes it has been shown that they can be delivered to the marine 233 realm via dust transport over distances of several thousand kilometres (e.g. Simoneit, 1977; 234 235 Gagosian et al., 1981; Schefuß et al., 2003; Bendle et al. 2007) and recently Fietz et al. (2013) showed the presence of brGDGTs in dust far off northwest Africa. In order to see if also an 236 important contributor to the pool of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments, we compare 237 distributions of brGDGTs in both African soils and near shore dust with those in low latitude 238 Atlantic Ocean surface sediments (Table 3 and Fig. 2). Analysis shows that all Atlantic Ocean 239 surface sediments contained brGDGTs, though one sediment did not contain all brGDGTs in 240 sufficient amounts for calculating a DC index (Table 3). The MBT' index of these Atlantic 241 242 Ocean sediments is on average 0.28 (±0.10; n=9, Table 5). This is significantly different 243 (p<0.001) from MBT' indices of African soils and dust, i.e. 0.76 (±0.22, n=16) and 0.80 (±0.06, n=8) on average, respectively (Tables 5 and 6). Although this could potentially indicate that 244 brGDGTs in these sediments are not derived from the warm African continent but derived from 245 higher and thus colder latitudes with lower MBT' values, this seems unlikely as Africa is the 246 major source of dust in the Atlantic Ocean (e.g. Schefuß et al., 2003 and references cited therein; 247 Fietz et al., 2013). When DC indices of African soils and dust are compared with those of low 248 249 latitude Atlantic surface sediments, a similar pattern emerges as for the MBT': DC indices of

250	equatorial Atlantic sediments are on average 0.39 ( $\pm$ 0.16, n=8), which is significantly different
251	(p<0.10) from that of African soils and dust, i.e. 0.13 (±0.18, n=16) and 0.11 (±0.04, n=5),
252	respectively (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 4). Collectively, these differences in distribution strongly
253	suggest that brGDGTs in the low latitude Atlantic sediments are not primarily sourced by
254	African dust.
255	In addition to the low-latitude Atlantic Ocean sediments, a set of 25 distal marine sediments from
256	other locations were analysed for their brGDGT distribution (Table 3). Four additional open
257	marine sediments characterised by a low BIT index (i.e. <0.08), and for which brGDGT
258	composition was previously reported by Peterse et al. (2009) and Zhu et al. (2011), were added
259	to the dataset as well to make a total of 38 marine sediments, including the low latitude Atlantic
260	Ocean sediments. Out of these 38 sediments, 35 contained sufficient amounts of brGDGTs
261	required for calculating a DC index (Table 3). The average value of the DC indices for these
262	distal marine sediments is 0.40 (±0.16, n=35). This is similar to the average value as found for
263	the low-latitude Atlantic sediments, but significantly different (p<0.10) from DC indices of
264	global soils (Tables 5 and 6, Fig. 4). Thus, it can be concluded that also on a more global scale
265	the distribution of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments is significantly different from the
266	distribution of brGDGTs in terrigenous sources and, hence, that dust input is likely not a major
267	source for them. The alternative explanation is that brGDGTs in open marine sediments are
268	produced in-situ. For near coastal locations, in-situ production has been suggested previously by
269	Peterse et al. (2009) and Zhu et al. (2011) and, interestingly, these studies reported distinctively
270	high degrees of cyclisation (i.e. low CBT ratios) for marine sediments as well. Peterse et al.
271	(2009) found that marine and fjord sediments around Svalbard were characterised by an average
272	CBT ratio of -0.27 (±0.09), which equals an average DC index of 0.65 (±0.03), much higher than

273 the average DC index of Svalbard soils of  $0.17 (\pm 0.11)$ . Zhu et al. (2011) found increased 274 brGDGT abundances normalised on TOC further away from the river mouth onto the shelf, 275 which is accompanied by a trend to higher DC indices (Fig. 5, based on data reported in Zhu et 276 al., 2011). In addition, brGDGTs have been reported in sediments at and near hydrothermal vents 277 along the Eastern Lau Spreading Center in the South Pacific Ocean (Hu et al., 2012) and two types of brGDGTs have been reported in a carbonate chimney of Lost City Hydrothermal Field 278 279 near the mid-Atlantic Ridge (Lincoln et al., 2013). Notably, based on the data provided in Hu et 280 al. (2012), the brGDGTs in their sediment TVG8 are also characterised by a high degree of 281 cyclisation. Our results, together with those of Peterse et al. (2009) and Zhu et al. (2011), as well 282 as Hu et al. (2012) and Lincoln et al. (2013), form strong circumstantial evidence for the global 283 occurrence of in-situ production of brGDGTs in marine sediments. For soils and peat it has been suggested that Acidobacteria might be the dominant producers of brGDGTs (Weijers et al., 284 2009a; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011). Although a microbial community producing brGDGTs in 285 the marine environment might be totally different from that in soils, Acidobacteria have indeed 286 287 been reported to be present in marine surface sediments as well as in hydrothermal chimneys (Barns et al., 1999; Lopez-Garcia et al., 2003, Polymenakou et al., 2005; Li et al., 2009; 288 289 Brazelton et al., 2010).

290

# *3.3. Exploring factors controlling the distribution of marine brGDGTs*

As discussed in section 3.2, brGDGTs present in open marine sediments are characterised by relatively high DC and low CBT values. In soils the CBT ratio of brGDGTs is related to soil pH (Weijers et al., 2007b; Peterse et al., 2010) with a higher degree of cyclisation (equals low CBT ratios) corresponding to higher pH values. When the marine CBT values are translated to pH

using the global soil calibration (Weijers et al., 2007b), reconstructed pH varies between 6.1 and 296 297 9.9. Although this includes the average ocean water pH of ca. 8, the variability is large in comparison with the relatively small variation in sea water pH. This large variation in DC indices 298 299 may indicate that the brGDGTs found in marine sediments are mainly produced within these sediments, where pH values can rapidly change depending on redox conditions, rather than in the 300 301 marine water column. Unfortunately, no long term pH data are available for the core top sediments used in this study to investigate the relation between the degree of cyclisation and 302 sediment pH in more detail. 303

304

305

## 3.4. Implications for GDGT based proxies

The production of brGDGTs in marine sediments may have consequences for some of the 306 GDGT-based proxies currently used. For example, the BIT index is used as indicator for the 307 relative amount of soil OM in marine sediments (Hopmans et al., 2004). Due to the relatively 308 small amounts of brGDGTs found in distal marine sediments the marine end-member of the BIT 309 310 index will be slightly higher than 0. Indeed, based on a data compilation, Schouten et al. (2013a) 311 found an average BIT index for open marine sediments of 0.04 ( $\pm 0.03$ , n=278). However, as the end-member distributions for soils  $(0.90 \pm 0.14, n=224;$  Schouten et al. 2013a) and marine 312 sediments are still substantially different, marine in-situ produced brGDGTs will not 313 substantially influence the use of the BIT index in marine sediments as indicator of soil derived 314 315 OM. The MBT'-CBT proxy is used to estimate past continental air temperatures based on the 316 distribution of soil-derived brGDGTs (Weijers et al., 2007b; Peterse et al., 2012). It is applied in 317

318 marine sediments that receive substantial soil OM input, and thus characterised by a high BIT

319 index, preferably near river outflows in order to obtain river-basin integrated signals (Weijers et 320 al., 2007a). This study shows that at low BIT indices, the MBT' index and CBT ratio become skewed by the ostensibly marine in-situ produced brGDGTs and, therefore, render the MBT'-321 322 CBT proxy unsuitable. Sites characterised by low BIT indices not only include distal marine settings but also coastal settings removed from any fluvial OM input. In our dataset of Congo 323 deep sea river fan sediments, one location with a low BIT index of 0.05 (T89-14) yields a DC 324 index clearly higher (and consequently a CBT ratio clearly lower) than the other Congo deep sea 325 fan sediments that are characterised by a higher BIT index (Table 4). In the East China Sea 326 327 dataset of Zhu et al. (2011) the sediments with elevated DC indices, i.e. >0.35 (Fig. 5) have an average BIT index of 0.09 (±0.02, n=12). Based on these data, therefore, a BIT index threshold 328 329 of >0.1 seems appropriate for MBT'-CBT applications. It needs to be emphasized, however, that 330 at other locations this threshold might be somewhat higher, for example due to lower crenarchaeol production. Although a previous interlaboratory study highlighted concerns 331 regarding the reproducibility of the BIT index between laboratories and instruments (Schouten et 332 al., 2009), a recent and more extensive interlaboratory comparison showed that low BIT indices 333 (i.e. <0.1) can be reproduced relatively precisely between laboratories (Schouten et al., 2013b). 334 Since variations in terrigenous soil OM input also occur over time, down core MBT'-CBT 335 applications should always be accompanied with a BIT index record. 336

337

#### 338 4. Conclusions

Our study shows that brGDGTs are present in dust, albeit in low abundance. Distributions of
dust-derived brGDGTs are similar to those of soils but clearly different from those of distal
marine sediments. Thus, although dust input to open ocean settings might occur, it does not seem

to be an important source of brGDGTs in distal marine settings. Branched GDGT distributions in 342 distal marine sediments are characterised by a distinctive high DC index. This strongly suggests 343 in-situ production of brGDGTs in distal marine sediments on a global scale, and supports earlier 344 reports of potential in-situ production in near coastal marine sediments (Peterse et al., 2009; Zhu 345 et al., 2011). Based on the large variability of DC indices in marine sediments, it is suggested 346 347 that marine derived brGDGTs are mainly produced in-situ in the sediments rather than the overlying water column. The magnitude of in-situ production of brGDGTs is low compared to 348 pelagic marine crenarchaeol production and, therefore, not notably influencing the use of the BIT 349 350 index as proxy for relative soil OM input in marine sediments. However, the MBT'-CBT proxy for continental temperatures will be biased by in-situ produced brGDGTs when the overall 351 352 abundance of brGDGTs is low, i.e. at low BIT indices (based on data in this study <0.1). It should therefore only be applied to settings known to receive substantial soil OM input. 353 354

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Tables

**Table 1**: Fractional abundances and indices of brGDGTs and crenarchaeol present in dust sampled along the west coast of equatorial Africa. Roman numerals refer to the GDGT structures in Fig. 1, where IV is crenarchaeol; 'b.d.' = below detection limit; '-' indicates that the respective indices are not calculated due to absence of GDGTs.

Duct comple	Latituda	Longitudo	GDGT fractional abundance								BIT	MDT		СРТ		
Dust sample				Longitude	f(la)	<i>f</i> (lb)	f(lc)	<i>f</i> (lla)	<i>f</i> (llb)	f(llc)	<i>f</i> (IIIa)	f(IV)	Ы		DC	СЫ
DO13	1.30 N	6.94 W	0.186	0.014	0.018	0.037	b.d.	b.d.	0.012	0.733	0.24	0.82	-	-		
DO14	1.32 N	2.86 W	0.152	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.848	0.15	-	-	-		
DO15	1.52 N	0.60 W	0.195	0.017	b.d.	0.036	0.015	b.d.	0.015	0.722	0.25	0.76	0.12	0.86		
DO16	1.76 N	1.64 E	0.207	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.793	0.21	-	-	-		
DO17	2.61 N	6.54 E	0.249	0.039	b.d.	0.067	0.020	b.d.	b.d.	0.625	0.34	0.77	0.16	0.73		
DO18	1.68 N	7.97 E	0.153	b.d.	b.d.	0.063	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.784	0.22	0.71	-	-		
DO19	1.74 N	9.14 E	0.309	0.025	b.d.	0.062	0.017	b.d.	b.d.	0.587	0.39	0.81	0.10	0.95		
DO20	1.65 N	9.11 E	0.229	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.771	0.23	-	-	-		
DO21	1.38 S	8.54 E	0.173	0.010	0.004	0.018	0.008	0.002	0.009	0.777	0.20	0.84	0.08	1.04		
DO22	2.91 S	9.21 E	0.219	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.781	0.22	-	-	-		
DO23	6.18 S	10.05 E	0.368	0.018	0.006	0.027	0.009	b.d.	0.007	0.565	0.42	0.90	0.06	1.16		
DO24	8.00 S	11.86 E	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	1.000	-	-	-	-		
DO25	10.69 S	12.50 E	0.138	0.029	b.d.	0.039	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.794	0.18	0.81	-	-		

**Table 2**: Fractional abundances and indices of brGDGTs and crenarchaeol present in SPM of surface waters of the Atlantic Ocean along the west coast of equatorial Africa. Volume indicates the amount of water filtered for analysis; roman numerals refer to the GDGT structures in Fig. 1; 'b.d.' = below detection limit; '-' indicates that the respective indices are not calculated due to absence of GDGTs.

SDM	Lati	Longi	Volumo	Tempe-	Salinity			GDGT	fraction	al abun	dance						
sample	tude	tude	(L)	rature (°C)	(‰)	<i>f</i> (la)	<i>f</i> (lb)	f(lc)	f(lla)	f(llb)	f(llc)	f(IIIa)	f(IV)	BIT	MBT'	DC	СВТ
M56B 2	3.77 S	9.12 E	304	27.3	32.0	0.302	0.021	0.010	0.037	0.003	b.d.	0.004	0.623	0.38	0.88	0.07	1.14
M56B 23	4.81 S	9.91 E	244	28.1	33.5	0.233	0.025	0.014	0.027	0.003	b.d.	b.d.	0.698	0.30	0.90	0.10	0.97
M56B 34	6.28 S	10.47 E	403	27.6	28.0	0.551	0.012	0.005	0.069	0.003	b.d.	0.006	0.353	0.65	0.88	0.02	1.60
M56B 37	9.90 S	10.87 E	304	27.0	36.0	0.389	b.d.	b.d.	0.044	b.d.	b.d.	0.018	0.549	0.45	-	-	-
M56B 43	15.40 S	11.30 E	244	21.6	36.0	0.027	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.973	0.03	-	-	-
M56B 47	18.23 S	11.58 E	111	16.0	35.3	0.002	0.000	b.d.	0.002	b.d.	b.d.	0.001	0.995	0.00	-	-	-
M56B 53	22.99 S	13.17 E	198	18.5	35.3	0.005	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.995	0.01	-	-	-
M56B 57	26.10 S	14.12 E	113	16.2	35.3	0.001	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.999	0.00	-	-	-

**Table 3**: Fractional abundances and indices of brGDGTs present in distal marine surface sediments. Roman numerals refer to the

 GDGT structures in Fig. 1; 'b.d.' = below detection limit; '-' indicates that the respective indices are not calculated due to absence of

 GDGTs. Asterisks indicate sediments included in the 'equatorial Atlantic' subgroup of marine sediments (cf. Figs. 3 and 4).

Cadimont				Water			GDGT fra	actional a	bundance	)					
sample	Ocean/Region	Latitude	Longitude	depth (m)	f(la)	<i>f</i> (lb)	f(Ic)	f(lla)	f(llb)	f(IIc)	f(IIIa)	BIT	MBT'	DC	СВТ
GeoB2212-1	Atlantic Ocean*	4.03 N	25.62 W	5521	0.227	b.d.	b.d.	0.144	b.d.	b.d.	0.629	0.06	0.23	-	-
GeoB2213-1	Atlantic Ocean*	1.27 N	24.15 W	4323	0.150	0.017	b.d.	0.135	0.040	b.d.	0.658	0.01	0.17	0.17	0.70
GeoB2707-4	Atlantic Ocean	41.95 S	56.32 W	3167	0.377	0.077	0.035	0.158	0.228	0.071	0.054	0.01	0.49	0.36	0.25
GeoB2722-2	Atlantic Ocean	47.33 S	58.62 W	2351	0.091	0.103	0.037	0.123	0.454	0.143	0.049	0.00	0.23	0.72	-0.41
GeoB2723-2	Atlantic Ocean	48.91 S	57.88 W	569	0.246	0.104	0.049	0.129	0.322	0.077	0.073	0.02	0.40	0.53	-0.06
GeoB2806-6	Atlantic Ocean	37.83 S	53.14 W	3542	0.159	0.160	0.073	0.149	0.292	0.079	0.089	0.01	0.39	0.59	-0.17
GeoB2809-2	Atlantic Ocean	36.33 S	51.52 W	3539	0.194	0.160	0.072	0.161	0.260	0.068	0.084	0.02	0.43	0.54	-0.07
GeoB2824-1	Atlantic Ocean	33.50 S	42.50 W	4512	0.172	0.065	0.030	0.161	0.115	0.029	0.428	0.01	0.27	0.35	0.27
GeoB6407-2	Atlantic Ocean	42.04 S	19.50 W	3384	0.147	0.026	0.010	0.143	0.135	0.035	0.505	0.01	0.18	0.36	0.26
GeoB6410-1	Atlantic Ocean	44.52 S	20.90 W	4038	0.132	0.028	0.012	0.108	0.103	0.029	0.588	0.01	0.17	0.35	0.26
GeoB8303-5	Atlantic Ocean*	34.26 S	16.78 E	3447	0.134	0.131	0.068	0.145	0.327	0.094	0.101	0.01	0.33	0.62	-0.21
GeoB8336-5	Atlantic Ocean*	29.21 S	12.34 E	3626	0.149	0.069	0.033	0.160	0.157	0.043	0.390	0.01	0.25	0.42	0.14
GeoB8342-5	Atlantic Ocean*	31.50 S	13.00 E	3521	0.143	0.053	b.d.	0.157	0.158	0.049	0.440	0.01	0.20	0.41	0.15
GeoB9526-4	Atlantic Ocean*	12.43 N	18.06 W	3223	0.175	0.107	0.044	0.131	0.351	0.120	0.072	0.02	0.33	0.60	-0.18
GeoB9529-1	Atlantic Ocean*	8.35 N	17.37 W	1234	0.326	0.080	0.047	0.198	0.220	0.064	0.065	0.02	0.45	0.36	0.24
IS-S2	Atlantic Ocean	48.18 N	9.71 W	1035	0.385	0.115	0.069	0.166	0.127	0.045	0.093	0.02	0.57	0.31	0.36
ENAM9407	Atlantic Ocean	62.96 N	4.03 W	2060	0.408	0.082	0.027	0.146	0.233	0.065	0.039	0.02	0.52	0.36	0.24
All-GGC-22	Atlantic Ocean	54.79 S	3.33 W	2768	0.377	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.623	0.03	-	-	-
T89-32	Atlantic Ocean*	14.97 S	10.67 E	3342	0.356	0.040	b.d.	0.190	0.130	b.d.	0.284	0.07	0.40	0.24	0.51
T89-40	Atlantic Ocean*	21.62 S	6.78 E	3060	0.173	0.034	b.d.	0.184	0.117	b.d.	0.491	0.01	0.21	0.30	0.37
NP-07-13-09 <sup>a</sup>	Svalbard	79.07 N	10.67 E	326	0.120	0.149	0.057	0.126	0.274	0.051	0.223	0.02	0.33	0.63	-0.24
NP-07-13-49 <sup>a</sup>	Svalbard	79.01 N	11.38 E	380	0.123	0.170	0.066	0.113	0.292	0.047	0.189	0.01	0.36	0.66	-0.29
HS 253	Southern Ocean	75 S	26 W	unknown	0.099	0.051	0.018	0.129	0.168	0.044	0.492	0.02	0.17	0.49	0.02
GeoB10016-2	Indian Ocean	1.60 N	96.66 E	1900	0.518	0.088	0.053	0.174	0.092	0.028	0.047	0.02	0.66	0.21	0.58
GeoB10040-3	Indian Ocean	6.48 S	102.86 E	2605	0.346	0.083	0.044	0.127	0.209	0.065	0.126	0.01	0.47	0.38	0.21
NIOP 902	Indian Ocean	10.78 N	51.58 E	459	0.241	0.118	0.077	0.273	0.091	0.031	0.170	0.03	0.44	0.29	0.39
NIOP 903	Indian Ocean	10.78 N	51.66 E	789	0.210	0.110	0.072	0.218	0.144	0.035	0.211	0.02	0.39	0.37	0.23
NIOP 904	Indian Ocean	10.79 N	51.77 E	1194	0.198	0.116	0.068	0.187	0.139	0.043	0.249	0.02	0.38	0.40	0.18
NIOP 907	Indian Ocean	10.80 N	52.25 E	2807	0.559	b.d.	b.d.	0.441	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.01	-	-	-
NIOP 908	Indian Ocean	10.78 N	52.92 E	3572	0.193	0.070	0.045	0.151	0.224	0.069	0.247	0.02	0.31	0.46	0.07
Box 476	Arabian Sea	24.10 N	65.47E	1226	0.140	0.063	0.045	0.178	0.105	0.040	0.430	0.03	0.25	0.35	0.28
PM1	Peru Margin	11.98 S	77.32 W	100	0.261	0.047	0.026	0.314	0.042	0.005	0.305	0.02	0.33	0.13	0.81
PM7	Peru Margin	11.05 S	78.07 W	250	0.247	0.037	0.024	0.219	0.050	0.008	0.415	0.03	0.31	0.16	0.73
F1-3 <sup>b</sup>	East China Sea	30.00 N	123.99 W	63	0.169	0.135	0.111	0.255	0.123	0.050	0.156	0.07	0.42	0.38	0.22
F4-7 <sup>b</sup>	East China Sea	27.38 N	123.33 W	106	0.144	0.179	0.128	0.139	0.175	0.062	0.172	0.07	0.45	0.56	-0.10
Cariaco Basin	Caricaco Basin	10.67 N	65.60 W	1460	0.339	0.041	0.023	0.381	0.031	0.008	0.176	0.01	0.40	0.09	1.00
MC-1	Pacific Ocean	41.30 N	141.55 E	1002	0.177	0.143	0.062	0.182	0.194	0.049	0.194	0.02	0.38	0.48	0.03

 BS 07E
 Black Sea
 43.0 N
 34.0 E
 1288
 0.216
 0.117
 0.071
 0.186
 0.177
 0.028
 0.204
 0.02
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 0.42
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 <sup>a</sup> data from Peterse et al. (2009); <sup>b</sup> data from Zhu et al. (2011)
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**Table 4**: Fractional abundances and indices of brGDGTs and crenarchaeol present in surface sediments of the Congo deep sea river fan (from Weijers et al., 2007a). The two anker samples represent grab samples taken from the Congo River estuary (cf. Schefuß et al., 2004). Roman numerals refer to the GDGT structures in Fig. 1; 'b.d.' = below detection limit; '-' indicates that the respective indices are not calculated due to absence of GDGTs.

Sample	Water GDGT fractional abundance														
ID	Latitude	Longitude	depth (m)	<i>f</i> (la)	<i>f</i> (lb)	<i>f</i> (lc)	f(lla)	<i>f</i> (llb)	<i>f</i> (llc)	f(IIIa)	f(IV)	BIT	MBT'	DC	CBT
Anker 24	6.03 S	12.57 E	5	0.712	0.054	0.016	0.140	0.019	0.003	0.015	0.041	0.95	0.82	0.08	1.06
Anker 26	6.05 S	12.48 E	6	0.584	0.062	0.038	0.192	0.026	0.008	0.033	0.056	0.94	0.72	0.11	0.94
T89-12	5.20 S	7.97 E	4068	0.193	0.034	0.009	0.080	0.028	0.003	0.050	0.604	0.35	0.59	0.20	0.64
T89-14	3.51 S	9.69 E	868	0.029	0.004	0.002	0.007	0.007	0.002	0.009	0.939	0.05	0.58	0.29	0.50
T89-15	4.21 S	10.02 E	1930	0.128	0.010	b.d.	0.019	0.018	b.d.	0.015	0.809	0.17	0.73	0.18	0.72
T89-16	5.71 S	11.23 E	826	0.280	0.014	0.005	0.037	0.009	b.d.	0.016	0.638	0.34	0.83	0.07	1.15
T89-19	6.04 S	9.96 E	3140	0.413	b.d.	b.d.	0.047	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.540	0.46	-	-	-
T89-20	7.31 S	11.54 E	1080	0.102	0.005	0.002	0.013	0.007	0.002	0.008	0.861	0.12	0.79	0.10	0.96

**Table 5**: Average BIT, MBT' and DC indices and CBT ratios of the different sample groups discussed in the text. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviations; 'n.a.' = not applicable since samples were selected based on their BIT index values.

Sample group	BIT	MBT'	DC	CBT
Global soils <sup>a</sup>	0.90 <i>(0.15)</i>	0.49 <i>(0.23)</i>	0.16 <i>(0.15)</i>	0.96 <i>(0.59)</i>
African soils <sup>a</sup>	0.85 <i>(0.20)</i>	0.76 <i>(0.22)</i>	0.13 <i>(0.18)</i>	1.28 <i>(0.79)</i>
Dust filters	0.25 (0.08)	0.80 (0.06)	0.11 (0.04)	0.95 (0.17)
Surface water	0.23 (0.25)	0.89 (0.01)	0.06 (0.04)	1.24 (0.33)
Congo fan	0.42 (0.35)	0.72 (0.10)	0.15 (0.08)	0.85 (0.24)
African Atlantic	n.a.	0.28 (0.10)	0.39 <i>(0.16)</i>	0.21 (0.31)
Global marine	n.a.	0.35 (0.12)	0.40 (0.16)	0.20 (0.32)

<sup>a</sup> soils from database in Peterse et al. (2012)

**Table 6**: Results of the ANOVA pairwise multiple comparison test. Values in bold indicate that the mean difference between the respective sample groups is significant at the 90 % confidence level. Group numbers correspond to the following sample groups (cf. Fig. 4): 1 = global soils, 2 = African soils, 3 = dust, 4 = surface water SPM, 5 = Congo deep sea fan sediments, 6 = low latitude Atlantic Ocean sediments with BIT values <0.08, 7 = global marine sediments with BIT <a href="https://www.sediments.com">summer sediments</a> with BIT values <0.08, 7 = global marine sediments with BIT </a>

Group	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	1.000	-	-	-	-	-
3	0.465	1.000	-	-	-	-
4	0.525	0.957	0.996	-	-	-
5	1.000	1.000	0.997	0.740	-	-
6	0.086	0.062	0.024	0.011	0.065	-
7	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000

## **Figure captions**

Figure 1: Structures of glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) referred to in the text

**Figure 2**: Sample location map: A) sample locations of marine surface sediments; B) sample locations of dust, surface waters and Congo deep sea fan sediments along the equatorial African coast.

**Figure 3**: Cross plot of the degree of cyclisation (DC) and the methylation index (MBT') of brGDGTs of the different sample groups discussed in the text.

**Figure 4**: Box plots of DC indices for the different sample groups discussed in the text. Horizontal solid line within the boxes represents the median, gray boxes comprise 50 % of samples and dots beyond the whiskers represent upper- and lowermost 10 % of samples. No whiskers plotted if n<10. The soil data used are those from Peterse et al. (2012). African soils and low latitude Atlantic sediments are subsets of global soils and global marine sediments, respectively. Groups that are statistically significantly different from each other (at 90 % confidence level) are assigned different letters.

**Figure 5**: Degree of cyclisation (DC index) of brGDGTs in coastal and shelf sediments from the East China Sea (ECS) shelf plotted against water depth, which in the ECS is in general equivalent to distance from the coast. Red triangles indicate sediments shallower than 10 m; these shallow sediments are generally characterised by high BIT indices (average = 0.86). Data from Zhu et al. (2011).



Figure 1



- Marine surface water ٠
- O Congo deep sea river fan sediment

Figure 2

**Ö**° Longitude

30°S



Figure 3



Figure 4



Figure 5