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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Key Points:

- Coccolithophore ϵ_p sensitivity to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ is consistent with that observed in cultures but contrasts with predictions of classical diffusive models of CO_2 acquisition
- Geochemical, micropaleontological, and morphometrical proxies are assessed as indicators of the non- CO_2 effects on ϵ_p
- *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths show coupled variations in oxygen and carbon isotope vital effects over the time series

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Carbon Isotopic Fractionation of Alkenones and *Gephyrocapsa* Coccoliths Over the Late Quaternary (Marine Isotope Stages 12–9) Glacial-Interglacial Cycles at the Western Tropical Atlantic

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Abstract The sensitivity of coccolithophores to changing CO_2 and its role modulating cellular photosynthetic carbon isotopic fractionation (ϵ_p) is crucial to understand the future adaptation of these organisms to higher CO_2 world and to assess the reliability of ϵ_p for past CO_2 estimation. Here, we present ϵ_p measured on natural fossil samples across the glacial-interglacial (G-I) CO_2 variations of marine isotope stages 12 to 9 interval (454–334 ka) at the western tropical Atlantic Ocean Drilling Program Site 925 together with a set of organic and inorganic geochemical, micropaleontological and morphometrical data from *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths in the same samples. The $\sim 2\text{‰}$ variation in ϵ_p is significantly correlated with the $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ concentrations calculated from assumption of air-sea equilibrium with measured ice core $p\text{CO}_2$ concentrations. The sensitivity of ϵ_p to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ is similar to that derived from a multiple regression model of culture observations and is not well simulated with the classical purely diffusive model of algal CO_2 acquisition. The measured range of *Gephyrocapsa* cell sizes is insufficient to explain the non- CO_2 effects on ϵ_p at this location, via either direct size effect or growth rate correlated to cell size. Primary productivity, potentially triggered by shifting growth rates and light levels, may also affect ϵ_p . Proposed productivity proxies % *Florisphaera profunda* and the ratio between the C_{37} to $\text{C}_{38,\text{et}}$ alkenone ($\text{C}_{37}/\text{C}_{38,\text{et}}$ ratio) both correlates modestly with the non- CO_2 effects on ϵ_p . When the observed G-I ϵ_p to CO_2 sensitivity at this site is used to estimate $p\text{CO}_2$ from ϵ_p since the Miocene, the inferred $p\text{CO}_2$ declines are larger in amplitude compared to that calculated from a theoretical ϵ_p diffusive model. We find that oxygen and carbon stable isotope vital effects in the near monogeneric-separated *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths (respectively $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-Trilobatus sacculifer}}$ and $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$) are coupled through the time series, but the origins of these vital effects are not readily explained by existing models.

1. Introduction

Coccolithophores, single-celled marine phytoplankton, play a unique role in the marine carbon cycle because their primary production contributes to both the operation of the carbonate counter pump and the biological organic carbon pump during their lifecycle. There is considerable interest in understanding their past role in the carbon cycle and how their growth and calcification may have been affected by changing oceanographic conditions and changing CO_2 availability (e.g., Bach et al., 2011, 2013; Rigual-Hernández et al., 2020).

At the same time, they produce alkenones, organic biomarkers preserved in sediments, which have been widely applied for two proxies: (a) using the unsaturation ratio of C_{37} ketones (U_{37}^k), as a proxy for temperature (Müller et al., 1998; Prahl & Wakeham, 1987) and (b) using the photosynthetic carbon isotopic fractionation of alkenones (ϵ_p), to estimate past changes in carbon limitation of algae as an indicator of changing $p\text{CO}_2$ (e.g., Pagani et al., 1999, 2011; Seki et al., 2010; Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013).

In addition, the carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of their intracellularly produced coccoliths (calcite platelets) are being explored to evaluate if they might provide additional paleoclimatic information. Early studies (e.g., Dudley et al., 1986; Ziveri et al., 2003) documented that the coccolith isotopic composition did not reflect equilibrium precipitation from seawater but was offset due to “vital effects.” Recent models

(Bolton & Stoll, 2013; Hermoso et al., 2014; Holtz et al., 2017; McClelland et al., 2017; Ziveri et al., 2012) have explored whether such vital effects might record different aspects of coccolithophore physiology during cellular growth, such as the ratio of calcification to photosynthesis, carbon uptake and allocation strategies or changes in the dissolved (aqueous) seawater concentration of CO_2 (hereafter referred as $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$).

While the alkenone temperature proxy is widely applied as a standard temperature indicator, many open questions remain regarding the application of ϵ_p for $p\text{CO}_2$ estimation. The ϵ_p is expected to increase with a higher CO_2 supply to photosynthesis relative to the cellular carbon demand (see Pagani, 2014 for a review). Traditionally, this dependence has been modeled as a passive cellular CO_2 acquisition by diffusive transport, in which ϵ_p varies as a function of $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ and the physiological parameter b (Bidigare et al., 1997; Rau et al., 1996). According to the physical diffusive model, b is most sensitive to cell size, algal growth rate and the cell permeability to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$; whereas abiotic factors such as ocean temperature, pH and salinity only exert a minor influence on b (Bidigare et al., 1997). Under the perspective of this classical model, the limited variation in ϵ_p over known quaternary glacial-interglacial (G-I) variations in $p\text{CO}_2$ has led some to question the suitability of ϵ_p as a $p\text{CO}_2$ proxy (see Badger et al., 2019). Recent aggregate analysis of a large experimental culture data set suggest that the ϵ_p dependence on CO_2 does not follow a purely diffusive model, and that similarly, ϵ_p is less sensitive to glacial CO_2 variations in some sites than predicted by this classical approach (Stoll et al., 2019). One explanation is that intracellular active carbon transport systems sustain carbon concentrating mechanisms (CCM; Cassar et al., 2006; Laws et al., 2002), resulting in the observed lowered sensitivity of ϵ_p to CO_2 within the low CO_2 range. Among recent contributions considering the role of CCM on ϵ_p for $p\text{CO}_2$ reconstruction, Badger (2021) suggested a $7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ threshold for the operation of the CCM, proposing the breakdown of the diffusive alkenone $p\text{CO}_2$ approach below this threshold concentration. The culture-based regression of the ϵ_p dependence on $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ by Stoll et al. (2019) incorporates the operation of these non-diffusive mechanisms, regardless of the existence of a threshold, and offers the opportunity to evaluate the implication of further reconstructed coccolithophore physiological (i.e., cell size and growth rate) and environmental (i.e., light) constraints affecting ϵ_p .

The most important physiological and environmental processes contributing to carbon and oxygen isotope vital effects in coccoliths remain under investigation. Coccolith oxygen isotopic vital effects have been proposed to reflect the intracellular pH of the calcification space due to the pH effect on the relative contribution of the different carbonate species to calcification (e.g., Langer et al., 2006; Ziveri et al., 2012). This mechanism is analogous to that proposed in planktic foraminifera (e.g., Zeebe, 1999) and arises because of varying fractionation factors between water and the different dissolved carbon species. Alternatively, changes in the intracellular residence time of dissolved carbon species related to cellular growth rates was proposed to regulate oxygen isotope vital effects (e.g., Hermoso et al., 2014). Carbon isotopic fractionation of coccoliths is modeled to be controlled by several factors, such as intracellular HCO_3^- allocation between photosynthesis and calcification, the significance of HCO_3^- pumping into the cell, $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, organic carbon fixation rate, and the calcification/photosynthesis ratio (e.g., Bolton & Stoll, 2013; Holtz et al., 2017; McClelland et al., 2017), but experimental confirmation of these processes in culture studies remains sparse, and only few studies have explored the effects in coccoliths produced in the ocean under known CO_2 conditions, as reviewed in Stoll et al. (2019).

In this contribution, we explore the processes influencing the variations in ϵ_p and vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith carbon and oxygen isotopes in natural samples recovered from sediments from the Western Tropical Atlantic (WTA) warm pool between the Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 12 to MIS 9 (454–334 ka). The low amplitude of the eccentricity changes during this interval (e.g., Jansen et al., 1986) minimizes the effect of the variance in the magnitude of precessional forcing on productivity and potentially growth rate, increasing the signal/noise ratio for the main research question in this study: the relationship between ϵ_p and CO_2 . This period contains, furthermore, strong contrasts from the extreme glacial MIS 12 to the longest interglacial MIS 11 (e.g., Lang & Wolff, 2011; Yin & Berger, 2012), that provides a broad spectrum to test our results under high and low CO_2 endmembers during the late Quaternary. A conspicuous feature of this interval is the dominance of the *Gephyrocapsa* genus in the global ocean (Baumann & Freitag, 2004; Bollmann et al., 1998), the main coccolithophore alkenone producer prior to the appearance and proliferation of *Emiliania huxleyi* at ~ 280 ka (e.g., Volkman, 2000). As a result, coccolith assemblages in sediment records are nearly monogeneric, facilitating the generation of coccolith geochemical records derived from

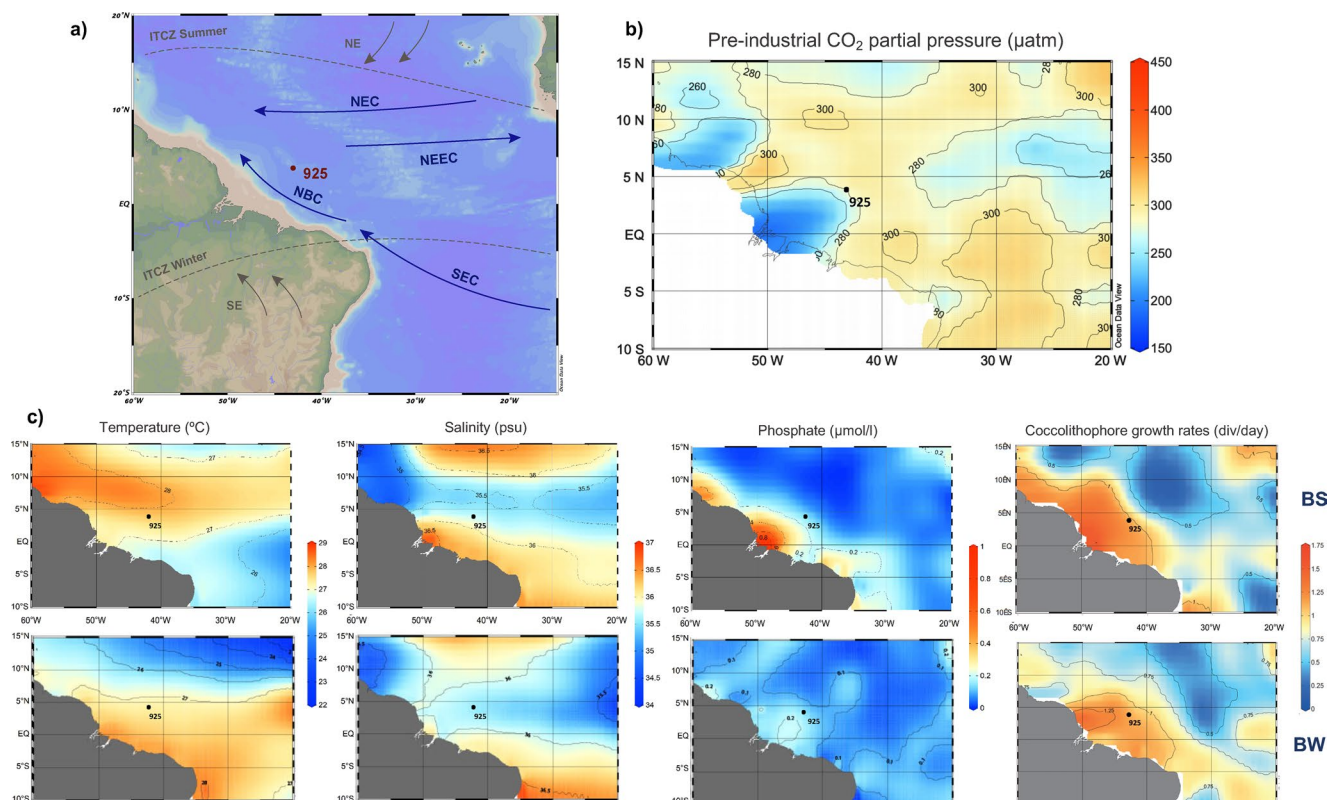


Figure 1. (a) Geographic location of the ODP Site 925 and modern oceanographic and climatic scheme. Arrows indicates the trajectories of water masses (in blue) and wind systems (in gray). North Equatorial Current; North Equatorial Counter Current; North Brazilian Current; South Equatorial Current; and Intertropical Convergence Zone. (b) Pre-industrial CO_2 partial pressure (μatm) in the regional ocean surface calculated with MOCSY 2.0 (Orr & Epitalon, 2015) using SST and salinity from GLODAP (Olsen et al., 2016; Key et al., 2015). (c) Seasonal variability at 10 m depth of temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), salinity (psu), phosphate concentration ($\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$), and coccolithophore growth rate (divisions day^{-1} ; Krumhardt et al., 2017). Temperatures, salinities, and $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ were extracted from the Locarnini et al. (2013) and were plotted using Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2008). BS, Boreal summer; BW, Boreal winter.

few closely related *Gephyrocapsa* species (e.g., Bendif et al., 2019), and assessing a unique haptophyte group as alkenone source.

The ODP Site 925 has been previously selected for the reconstruction of CO_2 , using both boron isotope (Foster et al., 2012; Sosdian et al., 2018) and the alkenone $p\text{CO}_2$ proxy, including the longest single site $p\text{CO}_2$ record from present to 40 my (Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013). This site has been chosen for these studies because it is not affected by upwelling and sufficiently distant from coastal influences, so that it is interpreted to have remained close to equilibrium with atmospheric CO_2 . It maintains very low ($<18 \mu\text{atm}$) post-industrial air-sea $p\text{CO}_2$ difference (Takahashi et al., 2009) and a low air-sea disequilibrium in the pre-industrial (Figure 1b). It has been, as well, considered for the study of long term evolution of coccolithophore stable isotope vital effects and cellular calcification (e.g., Bolton et al., 2016). In general, tropical sites offer some advantages for the study of the effect of varying $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ on coccolithophore proxies: temperature changes are lower than high latitude locations because they are much less affected by the G-I movements of the polar fronts (e.g., Rehfeld et al., 2018), so $p\text{CO}_2$ is the main driver of $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ variations. However, at the location of Site 925, there is only limited published data of ϵ_p and coccolith stable isotope fractionation during a quaternary G-I (e.g., Stoll et al., 2019; Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013) to evaluate these proxies against independently constrained variations in $p\text{CO}_2$ from available ice core records.

We therefore provide new determinations of ϵ_p from biomarker analyses and new determinations of carbon and oxygen vital effects from separated coccoliths of the genus *Gephyrocapsa*; hence, we provide matched records of the organic and inorganic carbon isotopic fractionation in coccoliths. The sea surface temperature (SST) and productivity conditions are well reconstructed from $U_{37}^{k'}$ index, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ gradients between surface and intermediate dwelling planktic foraminifera species, coccolith counts, % *Florisphaera profunda*

and the ratio between the C_{37} to $C_{38.et}$ alkenone ($C_{37}/C_{38.et}$ ratio). *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith morphometry (coccolith length, mass, and thickness) and coccolith assemblage characterization provide additional information on the production environment and surface ocean conditions. The integration of all of these proxies gives us a unique opportunity to parse out the effect of the changing environmental conditions at the WTA and the physiological modulation from *Gephyrocapsa* on ϵ_p across the investigated period. Specifically, we are able to compare the new ϵ_p observations with the predictions of the diffusive and culture-derived models of the relationship between ϵ_p and $CO_2[aq]$. In addition, we evaluate whether other independent proxies have power to predict the non- CO_2 influences on ϵ_p .

2. Modern Oceanographic Setting of the Western Tropical Atlantic

The studied ODP Site 925 ($4^{\circ}12.249'N$; $43^{\circ}29.334'W$) is located in Ceara Rise, the western sector of the tropical Atlantic Ocean (WTA; Figure 1a). Surface circulation in the region is characterized by the preferential westward flow of the North Equatorial Current (NEC; Figure 1a). South of the NEC, the North Equatorial Counter Current (NECC; Figure 1a), flows in a counter direction (Stramma & Schott, 1999). The North Brazilian Current (NBC; Figure 1a) is the northward bifurcation of the South Equatorial Current (SEC; Peterson & Stramma, 1991).

The seasonal variability in surface ocean conditions is driven by the seasonal shifts in the intensities of SE and NE trade winds and the coupled migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ; Figure 1a). During boreal summer and fall, the strengthening of SE trade wind system promotes the northernmost movement of the ITCZ and intensification of the westward circulation. In turn, this is the time of NECC development (Hastenrath & Merle, 1987). The NBC experiences a detachment from its Brazilian-coast pathway and retroflects eastward into the NECC (Richardson & Reverdin, 1987). Most of the Amazon discharges concentrate in the shelf, but 7%–17% of terrigenous particles are transported northwest through NBC as dispersion plumes. During boreal winter and spring, when the NE trade winds intensify, the ITCZ reach its southwardmost position (Figure 1a). This causes the disappearance of the NECC. At this time, the NBC continues to flow north-westward off the South American coasts (Philander, 2001; Richardson & Reverdin, 1987).

In the modern WTA, the depth of the mixed layer is stable, with near-permanent highly stratified surface conditions through the entire year (Philander & Pacanowski, 1986). A strong thermocline and nutricline below the photic zone (>100 m) limits the nutrient renewal and the primary productivity in the upper photic zone (see Mann & Lazier, 2006). Surface temperatures and salinities are high and stable throughout the year, with a small temperature increase during the summer (Figure 1c; Locarnini et al., 2013) most likely related to the slight thermocline deepening by pileup of SEC waters (Hastenrath & Merle, 1987). As light and temperature are not limiting factors in the region, changes in coccolithophore growth and production rates are controlled by the changes in nutrient distribution through the euphotic zone (Kinkel et al., 2000). Surface phosphate concentrations and coccolithophore growth rates seasonally range around 0.1 – $0.2 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ (Locarnini et al., 2013) and 1 – 1.25 day^{-1} (Krumhardt et al., 2017), respectively, with slight increases during the summer (Figure 1c). Despite modest changes, coccolithophore fluxes are highest during the summer and fall, when the water column is stabilized by the northward positioning of ITCZ and weaker influence of NE trades (Guerreiro et al., 2017). Minima in coccolithophore fluxes were found during winter and spring, associated with water column instabilities due to the southward displacement of ITCZ and intensified influence of NE trade winds (Guerreiro et al., 2017).

As important feature in the modern setting, significant stimulation of coccolithophore primary productivity is driven by the eventual nutrient input of Amazon origin (Korte et al., 2020). Higher fluxes of opportunistic species like *Emiliania huxleyi* and those belonging to the *Gephyrocapsa* genus were consistently described as fast productivity response to the increased input of low-salinity and nutrient-enriched waters within the upper ~ 50 m (e.g., Demaster & Pope, 1996; Guerreiro et al., 2017).

3. Sediments and Inference of $p\text{CO}_2$ for Sampled Intervals

The studied materials were retrieved during the expedition ODP 154. The ODP Site 925 is located at 3.040 m water depth, in the shallowest part of Ceara Rise, well above the modern carbonate lysocline (at 4.500 m; Bickert et al., 1997). The studied interval, from 12.96 to 18.80 mcd (meters composite depth) of the splice, corresponds to holes B and C. Sediments are characterized by a continuous alternation of nannofossil clay and nannofossil ooze (Curry et al., 1995).

Twelve samples were selected following the available age model by Wilkens et al. (2017), covering the interval between MIS 12 to MIS 10/MIS 9 (454.24–334.69 ka).

A critical step is the proper assignment of a reference ice core $p\text{CO}_2$ value for each of the samples considered in this study. To minimize uncertainty due to absolute chronology in both the marine record and Antarctic ice cores, the $p\text{CO}_2$ corresponding to each sample age was derived from the regression between the deep North Atlantic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic stack LS16 (Lisiecki & Stern, 2016) and the $p\text{CO}_2$ ice core compilation by Köhler et al. (2017) for the last 40 kyr, which is constrained by ^{14}C dates in the marine archive and layer counted Antarctic ice core chronology back to 30 ka. Results and calibration are shown in Text S1 and Figures S1 and S2. The corresponding $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ values for our samples are calculated using Henry's law. We use the alkenone-derived SST at Site 925 for the calculation of CO_2 solubility. Detailed information and the conversion of values from $p\text{CO}_2$ to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ for each sample is included in Text S1 and Table S1.

4. Analytical Methods and Calculations

4.1. Alkenone Analysis and Proxies

Lipids were extracted from 20 g freeze-dried sediment at ETH Zürich with the use of an *Accelerated Solvent Extraction 350*. The lipids were saponified using ~ 2 ml of a 0.5 M solution of potassium hydroxide (KOH) in 95:5 methanol (MeOH)/ H_2O and the neutral fraction extracted with hexane (C_6H_4). The hydrocarbon, ketone and polar organic fractions were separated through silica gel columns, respectively eluted with 4 ml of C_6H_4 , dichloromethane (CH_2Cl_2), and MeOH. The ketone quantification was carried out on a *Thermo Scientific Trace 1310 Gas Chromatograph* (GC) coupled to a Flame Ionization Detector (FID). GC-FID was equipped with an Agilent capillary column (60 m \times 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μm) *VF-200 ms* and a 5-m guard column. Helium (He) at 2 ml min^{-1} was used as carrier gas flow. GC oven was set at 60°C for a minute after injection and then ramped at 20°C min^{-1} to 255°C, 3°C min^{-1} to 300°C, and finally 10°C min^{-1} to 320°C to be held 5 min.

The $U_{37}^{k'}$ index (Brassell et al., 1986) was calculated after the abundance of the C_{37} di- and triunsaturated ketones. C_{39} n -alkane was added to every sample as internal standard, and replicates and an in-house alkenone standard was injected at every sequence to determine the analytical accuracy of 0.025 $U_{37}^{k'}$ units. The $U_{37}^{k'}$ index was converted into SST values with the BAYSPLINE calibration (Tierney & Tingley, 2018), which re-examined available core top data and improves the attenuation observed at high $U_{37}^{k'}$ with classical linear calibrations, producing a better fit for the SST changes in tropical regions.

Following the connection between the ratio of production of C_{37} to C_{38} organic compounds with haptophyte growth rates proposed by Herbert et al. (2018), the proportion of C_{37} to $\text{C}_{38,\text{et}}$ ($\text{C}_{37}/\text{C}_{38,\text{et}}$) was calculated; it was proposed that the increase in the value of this ratio implies an increase in the growth rate of the producers that, in this case, corresponds to *Gephyrocapsa*.

The carbon isotopic composition of the diunsaturated alkenone $\text{C}_{37:2}$ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2}$) was analyzed on a Delta V isotope-ratio mass spectrometer coupled to a *Trace 1310 GC* (GC-IRMS) from *Thermo Scientific* at ETH Zürich. Combustion reactor was oxidized for one hour and seed oxidized during one minute before each sequence and injection respectively with equivalent purge of He backflush time. GC was equipped as the GC-FID previously described. Oven temperature was set at 90°C for injection to be ramped after 1 min to 250°C at 25°C min^{-1} , 1°C min^{-1} to 305°C, and finally to 320°C at 10°C min^{-1} . The temperature was kept isothermal for 10 min. To determine analytical precision of the measurements, molecular standards A6 and B4, containing n -alkanes of known isotopic mixtures (supplied by Arndt Schimmelmann, University of Indiana) replicates and an in-house standard were injected in every sequence to determine the analytical

accuracy. Values are reported relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard. Measurement replicates yielded a mean difference of 0.5‰.

4.2. Planktic Foraminifers

Bulk samples were sieved through 425, 350, 250 and 150 μm with DI water and oven dried overnight at 50°C. Foraminifers were picked from narrow size ranges to minimize large changes in the isotope signal due to size variations (Ezard et al., 2015). Approximately, 15 specimens of *Neogloboquadrina dutertrei* were extracted from the 425–350 μm fraction and the same number of specimens of *Trilobatus sacculifer* (without sac, var. *Trilobatus inmaturus*; Leroy, 1939) and *Globigerinoides ruber* (“white” sensu stricto; Aurahs et al., 2011) from the 350–250 μm fraction. The foraminifer specimens were crushed with two clean moistened glass-slides and rinsed two times in ultrapure MilliQ water. After adding 500 μl of methanol, samples were ultrasonicated for 1 min. Clays were removed with a pipet as an overlying residue. The remaining carbonate content was oven dried overnight at 50°C. Stable isotope analyses were carried out at ETH Zurich (see Section 4.4. for further instrumental details).

The selected species *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer* dwell near the surface, from 0 to 50 m (Ravelo & Fairbanks, 1992), while *N. dutertrei* is a common thermocline dweller, between 60 and 150 m (Steph et al., 2009). A foraminifer multispecies isotopic approach allows to trace the physical and chemical structure of the mixed layer and thermocline across during the interval. To correct for the influence of species-specific fractionation factors on oxygen isotopes, we applied the species-specific normalization values at 25°C summarized by Spero et al. (2003) to the measured isotope values (Figure 2c). For $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, these normalization factors are derived from empirical culture or plankton tow regressions of temperature and foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and normalize the other species to the *G. ruber* calibration; that is, we apply the correction factors of -0.11‰ and $+0.05\text{‰}$, respectively to *T. sacculifer* and *N. dutertrei* (see Spero et al., 2003 and references therein).

4.3. *Gephyrocapsa* Coccolith Microfiltration

The coccolith assemblages were extracted and size-separated to isolate the fraction containing the species belonging to the *Gephyrocapsa* genus (see Text S3). An amount of 0.5 g of bulk sample was disaggregated by suspension in 2% ammonia solution and ultrasonication. Larger-sized particles were removed by filtering through a 20 μm nylon mesh. The <2 μm fraction, which includes *Florisphaera profunda*, was removed on the basis of its slow settling velocity (H. Zhang et al., 2018). Subsequently, we used 5 and 3 μm polycarbonate membranes to filter a 2 L suspension of the sediment in 2% ammonia to produce a 3–5 μm coccolith fraction. Size fractions were collected by high-speed (4000 RPM) centrifugation, and pellets were rinsed with ultrapure water (Milli-Q). After removing the liquid with a pipette, the coccolith fractions were oven-dried overnight at 50°.

The separation efficiency was checked in smear slides and confirmed that the 3–5 μm fraction is dominated by the *Gephyrocapsa* genus with an average proportion of 86.6%. The <3 μm fraction, which also contains *Gephyrocapsa* individuals of 2–3 μm , was not further analyzed as it contained a proportion of undetermined small carbonate fragments.

4.4. Stable Isotope Analysis on Planktic Foraminifers and *Gephyrocapsa* Coccoliths

Carbonate samples from *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith and planktic foraminifers were analyzed at ETH Zürich on a GasBench II coupled to a Delta V isotope-ratio mass spectrometer, as described by Breitenbach and Bernasconi (2011) for small carbonate samples. The instrument was calibrated with the internal standards MS2 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -1.81\text{‰}$) and ETH-4 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.71\text{‰}$) to the international reference materials NBS 19 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -2.2\text{‰}$) and NBS 18 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -23.00\text{‰}$), yielding a precision of 0.07‰ for both isotopes. Values are reported in relative to the VPDB standard. Measurement replicates yielded a mean difference for oxygen and carbon isotopes of 0.04‰.

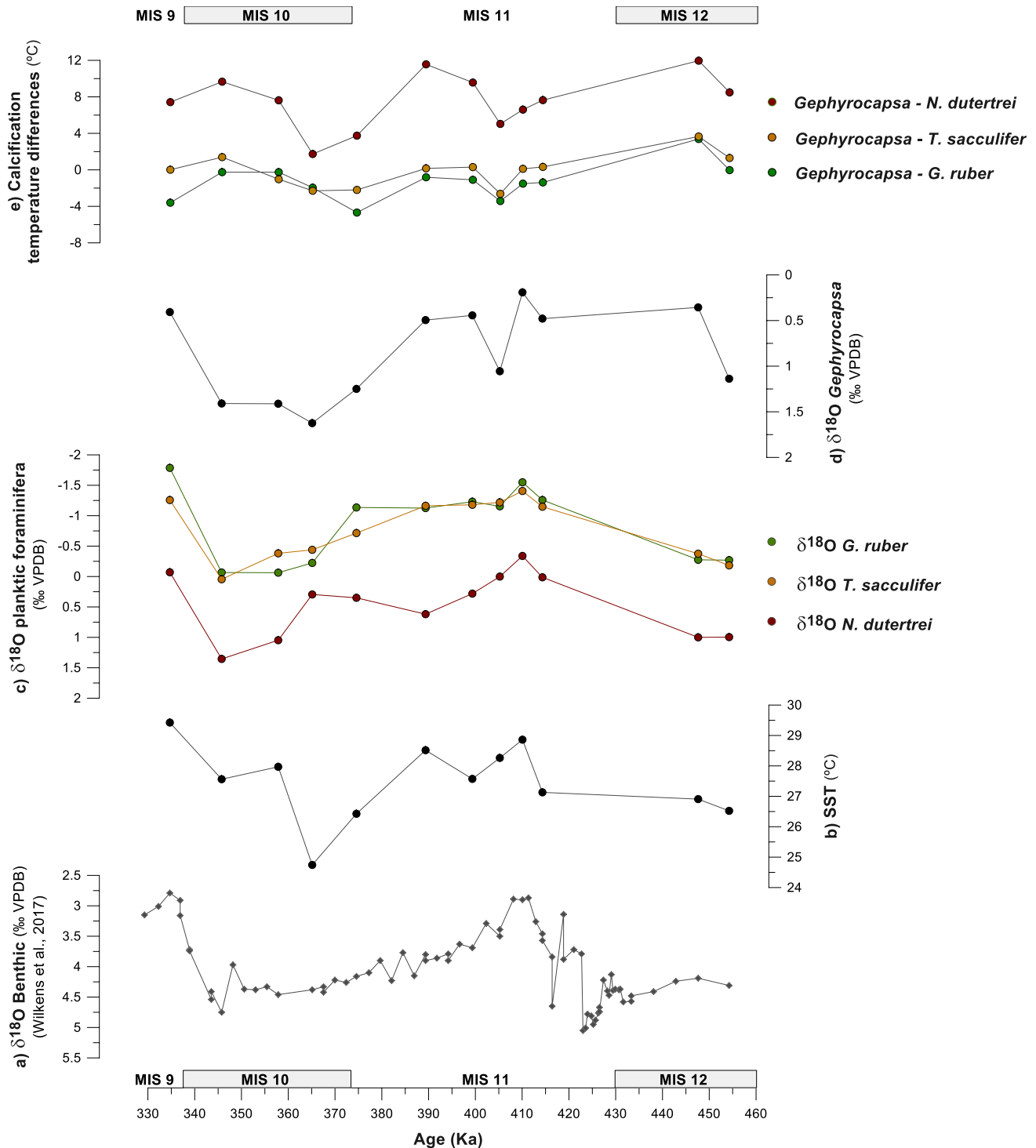


Figure 2. Changes in surface water properties across the MIS 12 to MIS 9. (a) spliced $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic profile at Site 925 (‰ VPDB) by Wilkins et al. (2017); (b) U_{37}^k alkenone-derived SST (°C); (c) species-specific corrected $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of planktic foraminifera species (‰ VPDB); (d) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *Gephyrocapsa* (‰ VPDB); and (e) paired equilibrium calcification temperature relationships between *Gephyrocapsa* and the planktic foraminifera species (°C). Error bars of inorganic isotopic measurements are omitted for clarity and the values can be found in methods.

4.5. Calculation of ϵ_p and Vital Effects in Coccolith Carbon and Oxygen Isotopes

The carbon isotopic fractionation during photosynthesis (ϵ_p) is calculated from the carbon isotopic composition of $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ and the carbon isotopic composition of the haptophyte biomass, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, using the following equation by Jasper et al. (1994):

$$\epsilon_p = \left[\left(\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}] + 1000 \right) / \left(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} + 1000 \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

For the estimation of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the planktic foraminifer *T. sacculifer* species were used. Given uncertainty about the offset between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *T. sacculifer* and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ (e.g., Birch et al., 2013; Spero et al., 2003), we follow the practice of previous studies (Badger et al., 2019; Y. G. Zhang et al., 2020) and apply the 1‰ calcite- HCO_3^- fractionation factor, following Romanek et al. (1992), on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *T. sacculifer* for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ estimation. Applying a different fractionation factor between foraminiferal calcite $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ could lead to slightly different absolute ϵ_p values, but would not affect the trends, neither their correlation with any variables which are discussed below. The $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ is calculated from $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, as in Benthien et al. (2002). The required temperature values are derived from the U_{37}^k SST at Site 925.

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ is obtained from the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the alkenone, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2}$, following the equation that integrates the 4.2‰ fractionation factor between alkenones and cellular particulate organic carbon (Jasper et al., 1994; Popp et al., 1998):

$$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} = \left[\left(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2} + 1000 \right) \times \left(\left(4.2/1000 \right) + 1 \right) \right] - 1000 \quad (2)$$

The carbon isotope vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* are calculated as the isotopic offset between the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *Gephyrocapsa* and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ ($\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-DIC}}$), which approximates $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$. The oxygen isotope vital effect in *Gephyrocapsa* is here reported as $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$, the isotopical offset in values between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *Gephyrocapsa* and the normalized to equilibrium $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the planktic foraminifer species *T. sacculifer*.

4.6. Coccolith Micropaleontological Analysis and Proxies

Slides for microscopic nanoplankton analysis were prepared following the random settling technique outlined by Flores & Sierro (1997). The abundance of the assemblages was estimated by counting a minimum of 400 coccoliths in a variable number of fields of view with the use of a double polarized-light *Nikon Eclipse 80i* microscope at 1000X magnification at the University of Salamanca. For coccolithophore species identification, we followed Young et al. (2003) and the guide of biodiversity the guide of biodiversity and taxonomy of coccolithophores Nannotax 3 (ina.tmsoc.org/Nannotax3). Further considerations for the recognition and classification of the species belonging to the *Gephyrocapsa* genus and grouping are found in Text S3.

The absolute coccolith abundances (coccolith g^{-1} sediment), referred as N, are calculated following Flores and Sierro (1997). N values of the total assemblage could be considered as an estimate of paleoproductivity (e.g., Baumann et al., 2005; Kinkel et al., 2000; Stolz & Baumann, 2010). From the general dependence of the r-strategists *Gephyrocapsa* species on eutrophic conditions in the upper photic zone (e.g., Barber & Hiscock, 2006; Baumann et al., 2005; Young et al., 2000), we use the N *Gephyrocapsa* spp. as a proxy to estimate the degree of nutrient-enriched surface condition in the region.

The species *F. profunda* is a common inhabitant of the deep photic zone (Kinkel et al., 2000; Okada & Honjo, 1973). Following previous authors (Beaufort et al., 1997; Molino & McIntyre, 1990), the relationship between the percentages of *F. profunda* is used to monitor the changes in depth of the nutricline due to water column stratification.

4.7. *Gephyrocapsa* Coccolith Size, Mass, and Thickness

Slides were imaged using a *Zeiss Axiocam 506 color* camera coupled to a *Zeiss Axio Scope HAL100 POL* microscope configured with circular polarization and *Zeiss Plan-APOCHROMAT 100x/1.4 Oil* objective at ETH Zürich. Coccolith length, volume and mass were obtained by processing images with the C-Calcita

software (Fuertes et al., 2014). For thickness calibration, a calcite wedge manufactured at ETH Zürich was used as independent reference, giving its robust relationship between gray level and thickness (González Lemos et al., 2018). A minimum of 100 *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths between 3 and 5 μm was analyzed. Coccolith lengths serve to derive the *Gephyrocapsa* coccolithophore cellular sizes (radius), following the dimensional relation in Noëlaerhabdaceae by Henderiks and Pagani (2007).

Following Bolton et al. (2016) and references therein, the coccolith thickness is considered as representative of the degree of calcification of coccolithophore cell. Size normalized thickness (SN thickness) was calculated to accurate the size relation of calcification for every measured coccolith by following the equation by O'Dea et al. (2014):

$$\text{SN thickness} = \left[(\text{ML} - \text{CL}) \times S \right] + \text{CT} \quad (3)$$

where ML = mean coccolith length; CL = length of each individual coccolith in sample; S = slope of the regression between length and thickness for all coccoliths in sample; and CT = original thickness of each individual coccolith in sample.

4.8. Statistical Analyses

The Pearson correlation coefficient (R) and its level of significance (p -values) are shown to assess the relationship between the proxy data produced and discussed in this study (e.g., Table 2; Figures 5, 6, 9, S7, and S8). This analysis was performed using the package GGally (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/GGally/index.html>) in R software (R core Team, 2021). Correlations with p -values lower than or equal to the threshold of 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) are considered as statistically representative in this study.

Coefficients of determination (R^2) were calculated to determine how much of the variation of the predicted variable is explained by the response variable or variables (e.g., Figure 7; Tables S3–S6).

Monte Carlo error propagation was employed to constrain the uncertainty associated with the calculation of ϵ_p when we apply the relationships identified during the Late Quaternary (this study) on $p\text{CO}_2$ estimation back to the Neogene (see Section 6.4).

5. Results

5.1. Planktic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Surface Ocean Temperature

Planktic foraminifer $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $U_{37}^{k'}$ alkenone-derived SST temperature record G-I oscillations (Figures 2b and 2c) and show significant correlations with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ($R = 0.92/p \leq 0.05$ and $R = -0.66/p \leq 0.05$, respectively; Figure 6). The SST records oscillate between 24 and 27°C in glacials MIS 10 and 12 and 27 and 29°C in interglacials MIS 9 and 11, with the coldest temperatures recorded at the early MIS 10 and sustained warmth during the MIS 11 interglacial (Figure 2b). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ trends in the three studied planktic foraminifer species closely parallel the G-I cycles observed in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record at Site 925 (Figures 2a and 2c). Following correction for species-specific vital effects, trends and values of *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer* are similar, whereas *N. dutertrei* has $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ more positive than both *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer* (by +1.3‰ and +1.24‰, respectively; Figure 2c).

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *Gephyrocapsa* records a comparable G-I trend to the planktic foraminifer *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer*, but offset to higher absolute values (Figure 2d). When specific $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ temperature calibration equations for each taxa are used to estimate calcification temperature relationships (see protocol of calculation in Text S2), assuming similar $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ in foraminiferal and coccolithophore habitats across the photic zone, as suggested by modern monitoring (Waelbroeck et al., 2014), the calcification temperature of *Gephyrocapsa* is most similar to that of *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer* and significantly warmer than that of *N. dutertrei* (Figure 2e).

5.2. Stratification and Export Production and *Gephyrocapsa* Morphometries

Temporal variations in the indicators of water column stratification and export production exhibit some similarities but also significant divergences. There is a large range (from 0.6‰ to 1.8‰) in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ gradient between *N. dutertrei* and *G. ruber* or *T. sacculifer* (Figure 3b). The lowest gradients coincide with the coldest U_{37}^k SST, early in MIS 10 (Figures 2b and 3b). In contrast to this large variability in the isotopic indicators of stratification, the coccolith-derived proxy of stratification, *F. profunda*, is more stable (Figure 3c). The coccolith assemblage is dominated by the *Gephyrocapsa* genus (average 70%; Figure 3d and Text S3) and the relative abundance of *F. profunda* varies only slightly between 20% and 32% (Figure 3c). These modest variations in the percentages of *F. profunda* show no consistent relationship with G-I cycles (Figure 3c), nor with the higher amplitude variations in $\Delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ (Figures 2b and 6).

The N of the total assemblage and *Gephyrocapsa* species is high during MIS 12 and progressively decreases by 40% within MIS 11 and MIS 10 (Figure 3f). A moderate final increase is observed at MIS 10/MIS 9 (334 ka; Figure 3f). The maintenance of high values around 1 in the CEX dissolution index (Text S4 and Figure S5) indicates a negligible dissolution effect. The alkenone C37/C38. et ratio exhibits high values from 1.75‰ to 1.95‰ at MIS 12 and generally decreases through MIS 11 and MIS 10, from 1.95‰ to 1.6‰, but exhibits more structure than the N coccolith, with local maxima at 447, 399, 374, and 357 ka (Figure 3g).

Maximum length and mass of *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths are attained during the glacial periods (Figures 3i and 3j). A maximum mass of 8 pg characterizes the coldest part of MIS 10 glacial at 365 ka, whereas minimum mass of 6.5 pg occurs during the earlier MIS 11, at 414 ka (Figure 3j); length is significantly correlated with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ as an indicator of G-I stages ($R = 0.56/p \leq 0.05$; Figure 6). In comparison with the measured range in modern Noëlaerhabdaceae (González Lemos et al., 2018), the SN thickness in *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths does not vary significantly at Site 925 (Figure 3h). There is no overall correspondence between the changes in the *Gephyrocapsa* morphometrical parameters and the changes in the species composition of the *Gephyrocapsa* assemblage, because the assemblage variations are minor and not dominated by G-I cyclicity (Text S3 and Figure S5).

5.3. ϵ_p and Vital Effects in *Gephyrocapsa* Coccolith Carbon and Oxygen Isotopes

ϵ_p and $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ are calculated using the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *T. sacculifer* (Figure 4b) as an indicator of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$. As this planktic foraminifer species shows a similar calcification temperature as *Gephyrocapsa* through the interval (Figure 2e), it is considered to share the most similar production depth and season as the alkenone producers. ϵ_p ranges from 12.1‰ to 14.3‰, and is dominantly driven by the 3‰ variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2}$ (Figures 4c and 4d). ϵ_p is higher during interglacials and lower during glacials (Figure 4d) and is significantly correlated with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ($R = -0.7/p \leq 0.05$; Figures 5a and 6) and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of *G. ruber* ($R = -0.61/p \leq 0.05$; Figures 5b and 6).

The *Gephyrocapsa* carbon vital effects from $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ ranges from 0.47‰, recorded at MIS 12, to 2.32‰ at MIS 10 (Figure 4f). The *Gephyrocapsa* oxygen vital effects, from $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ range from +0.7 to +2.2 (Figure 4g). Both the carbon and oxygen vital effect profiles increase from the lowest values at MIS 12 (447 ka) to the highest at MIS 10 (365 ka; Figures 4f and 4g).

6. Discussion

6.1. Evolution of Surface Production Environment From MIS 12 to MIS 9

Both the relative abundance of deep photic zone coccolithophore species *F. profunda* and the isotopic $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}$ gradient between the shallow living species *G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer* and the thermocline-dwelling *N. dutertrei* (Figures 3b and 3c) are proposed as indicators of upper water column stratification. Higher values of $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-T. sacculifer}$ are indicative of large temperature gradients that imply increased stratification (Vink et al., 2002). In oligotrophic water masses, higher percentages of *F. profunda* are linked to a deep nutricline, while low percentages characterize a shallow nutricline (e.g., Ahagon et al., 1993; Beaufort et al., 1997; Molino & McIntyre, 1990). Compared with other oceanographic regions, the maxima $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ (1.7‰) and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-T. sacculifer}$ (1.78‰) in this study (Figure 3b)

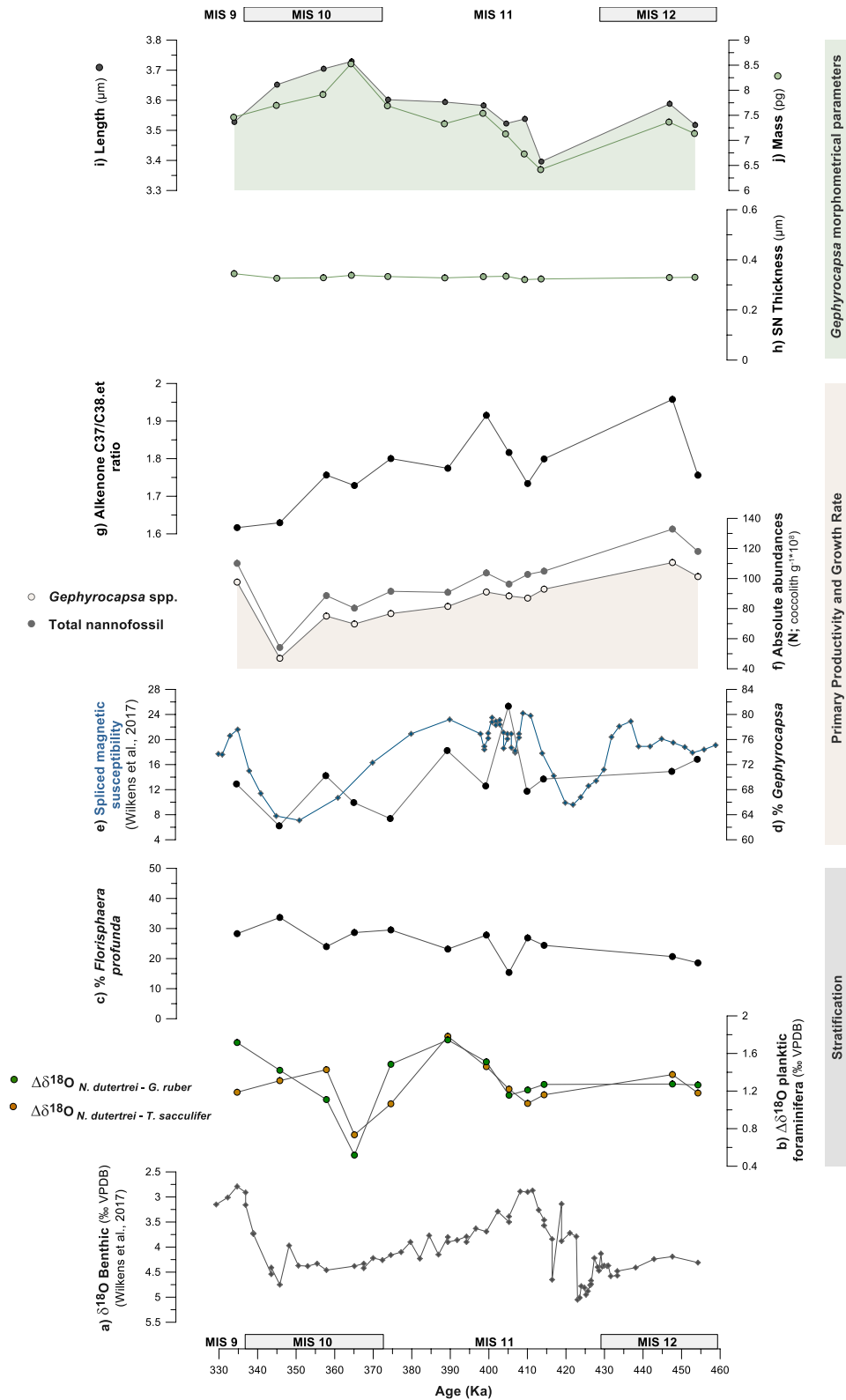


Figure 3

are intermediate between those of intensely upwelled waters of the Arabian sea (1‰; Prell & Curry, 1981) and the highly stratified surface waters of the northern Panama basin (2‰; Curry et al., 1983). However, our G-I $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}$ estimates for the MIS 12–9 at Site 925 are similar to those observed in core tops in the region (Dekens et al., 2002) and during the last glacial cycle, from comparable $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{T. \text{sacculifer-G. truncatulinoides}}$ (Wilson et al., 2011).

The relative abundance of *F. profunda* at Site 925 is also intermediate between the low values of upwelling regions and the very high values of strongly stratified regions. Application of the global calibration of % *F. profunda* by Hernández-Almeida et al. (2019) suggests an average primary productivity of $760 \text{ mgC m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$, also corresponding to a moderate supply of deep nutrients into the upper photic zone. These estimates are consistent with the modest growth rates modeled for Site 925 today, which are also in the intermediate range compared to other tropical settings (Krumhardt et al., 2017, Figure 1c). Although these proxies agree on the intermediate average rate of nutrient supply to the surface photic zone, $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-T. sacculifer}$ are much more variable than percentages of *F. profunda* (Figures 3b and 3c). We suggest that the minimum in $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-T. sacculifer}$ at 365 ka, coincident with the lowest SST of the record (Figures 2b and 3b) may reflect a shallowing of the depth habitat of *N. dutertrei* in response to the intense cooling, rather than a true reduction in stratification. We, therefore, more confidently interpret the *F. profunda* record and infer that the stratification and rate of mixing of the upper water column has not varied significantly at this site through MIS 12–9.

While stratification was invariant over time, the abundance of coccoliths in sediments decreases progressively from MIS 12 through MIS 9, a trend also observed as a decrease in the alkenone C37/C38.et ratio (Figures 3f and 3g). This suggests potential variation in algal growth rates and export production unrelated to changes in stratification. At the Site 925 setting, the Amazon River plume represents another source of nutrients to the upper photic zone, which are distributed in the upper 50 m of water column (e.g., Boyle et al., 1977; DeMaster et al., 1986). The magnetic susceptibility at Site 925, inferred as an indicator of Amazon-derived detrital magnetic minerals (Francois & Bacon, 1991), is significantly correlated to N *Gephyrocapsa* ($R = 0.68/p \leq 0.05$; Figure 6) and has a correspondence with the percentages of *Gephyrocapsa* (Figures 3e and 3d). This positive correlation trend is opposite to that expected if coccoliths were diluted by terrigenous input or carbonate dissolution were controlling the concentration of magnetic minerals.

The multiple linear regression of magnetic susceptibility and percentages of *F. profunda* explains 62% of the variability of N *Gephyrocapsa* (Table S3). We suggest that the decrease in *Gephyrocapsa* production was mainly triggered by a decline in delivery of nutrients from Amazon plume waters to the surface above the Site 925. The increase in percentages of *F. profunda* and decrease of N *Gephyrocapsa* from MIS 12 to MIS 9 (Figures 3c and 3f) is coherent with reduced euphotic zone fertilization, either from a decline in the surface delivery of nutrients by a limitation in the influence of Amazon plume waters above the Site 925 (Figure 3e) or a slight general deepening of the nutricline.

6.2. CO₂ and Other Environmental Influences on ϵ_p at Site 925

At Site 925, 48% of the variability of the measured ϵ_p record is explained by $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$, $R^2 = 0.48$ (Figure 7), confirming a significant influence of the changes in $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ on ϵ_p across the MIS 12 to MIS 9.

The mechanistic interpretation of the relationship between ϵ_p and $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ is still under debate (e.g., Badger, 2021; Stoll et al., 2019). Traditionally, the relationship has been interpreted to arise from a purely diffusive CO_2 supply across a cell into a single intracellular space in which carbon was fixed (e.g., Rau et al., 1996). Subsequently, multiple-compartment cellular models revealed that, in addition to diffusion into the cell, enhancement of the concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon in intracellular compartments, including the site of carbon fixation, could regulate the relationship between ϵ_p and $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ (e.g., Cassar et al., 2006;

Figure 3. Surface production proxies: (a) spliced $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic profile at Site 925 (‰ VPDB) by Wilkens et al. (2017); (b) $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}$ (green dots) and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{N. dutertrei-T. sacculifer}$ (yellow dots) (‰ VPDB); (c) % *Florisphaera profunda*; (d) % *Gephyrocapsa*; (e) spliced magnetic susceptibilities at Site 925 by Wilkens et al. (2017); (f) absolute abundances, N (coccolith g^{-1} sediment), of *Gephyrocapsa* (colored section) and the total assemblage (black dots); and (g) alkenone C37/38.et ratio. *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith morphometries in samples (h) average size normalized (SN) thickness (μm). The scale is adjusted to the range of variability of modern Noëlaerhabdaceae by González Lemos et al. (2018); (i) average coccolith length (μm); and (j) average coccolith mass (pg).

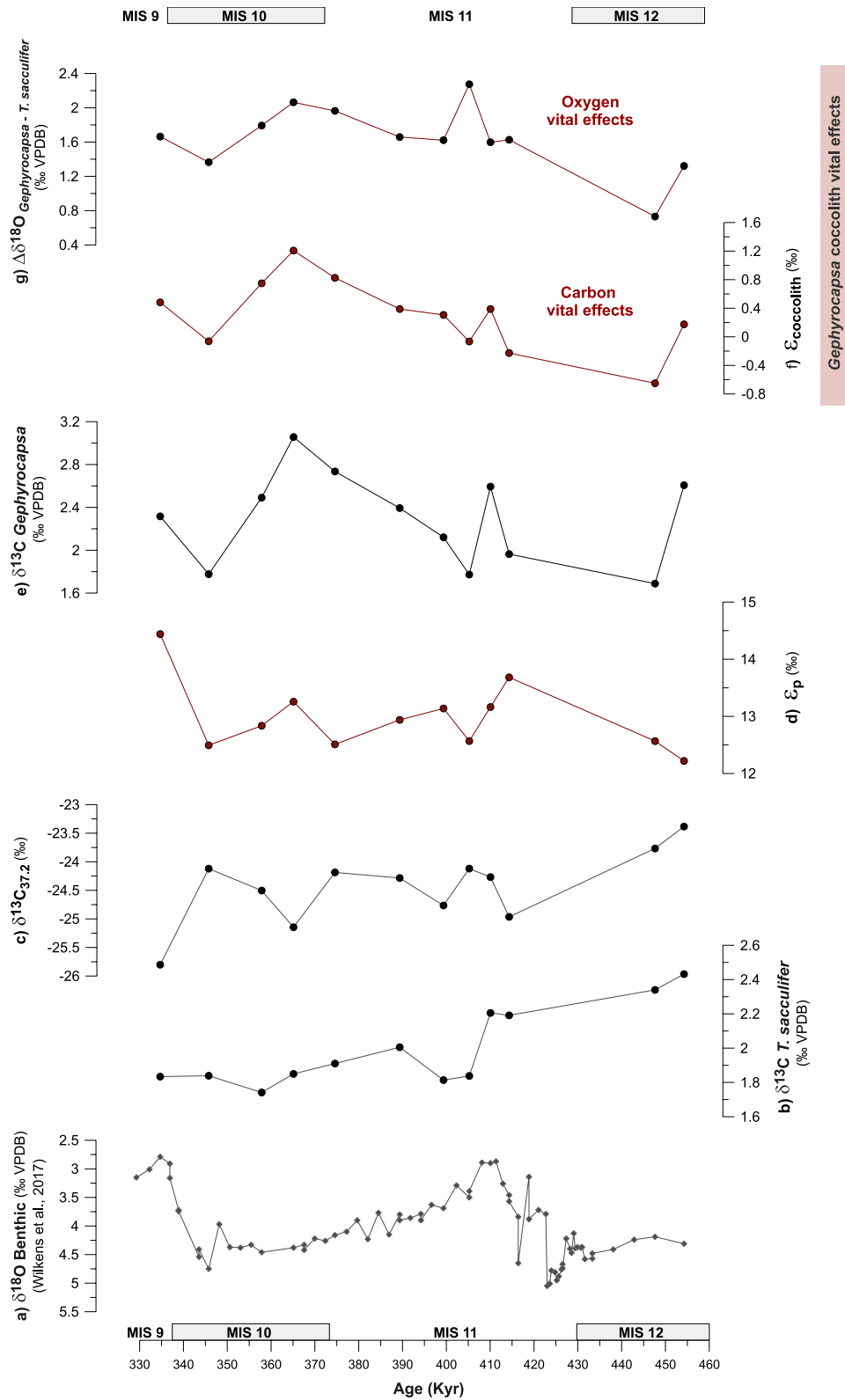


Figure 4

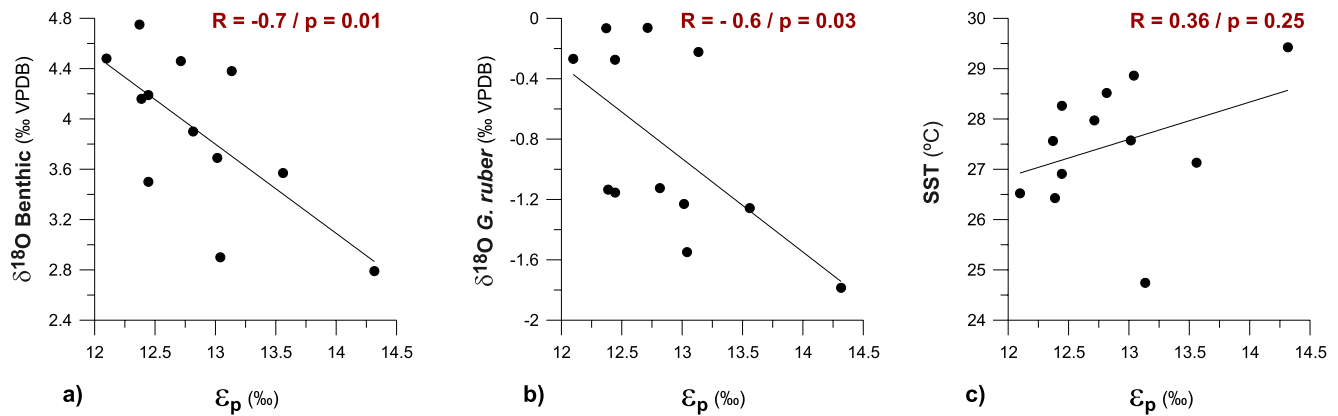


Figure 5. Relationship of ϵ_p with regional proxies at Site 925: (a) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic at Site 925 (Wilkins et al., 2017); (b) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *G. ruber*; and (c) U_{37}^k alkenone-derived SST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

Hopkinson et al., 2011). The relationship between ϵ_p and $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ found in cultured phytoplankton appears inconsistent with a purely diffusive acquisition (Stoll et al., 2019).

In this section, we review the degree to which the new data of ϵ_p from fossil record at Site 925 could be consistent with (a) the diffusive model (Rau et al., 1996) with varying assumptions of growth rate and the Rubisco fractionation factor (Section 6.2.1) and (b) the empirical dependence observed in laboratory cultures (Stoll et al., 2019), which is known to respond to the operation of carbon concentrating mechanisms (Section 6.2.2).

6.2.1. ϵ_p Compared to Predictions From Diffusive Model

According to the diffusive model of phytoplankton carbon acquisition, the increasing $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ promotes a higher relative carbon supply to cellular demand, resulting in higher ϵ_p (Rau et al., 1996). Beyond this control, other environmental and physiological parameters can modify this relationship if cellular carbon requirements change: smaller cell sizes, entailing a higher surface area/volume (SA/V) ratio, or lower growth rates, would both be expected to maintain a high ratio of diffusive CO_2 supply relative to cellular carbon demand, leading as well to higher ϵ_p .

Using the model of Rau et al. (1996), we incorporate the measured *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius and ϵ_p at Site 925 together with the estimated $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, and the recent experimental determinations of cell permeability to CO_2 by Blanco-Ameijeiras et al. (2020) to evaluate if the response of ϵ_p is consistent with the physical diffusive model. There are no independent determinations of absolute growth rates across the MIS 12–9 at the studied location, so we explore possible values, including (a) the application of a recently suggested regression to infer growth rates from coccolithophore cell size by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2020) (simulations A and F in Table 1 and Figure 8), (b) growth rates estimated using the PO_4 and temperature formulation by Krumhardt et al. (2017) with constant modern PO_4 (Figure 1c) and either average constant temperature (simulation E in Table 1; Figure 8b) or the U_{37}^k SST temperature variation at Site 925 (simulations B and G in Table 1; Figure 8), and (c) absolute growth rates used as a tuning parameter to improve agreement between the modeled and observed ϵ_p (simulations C and D in Table 1; Figure 8a).

When the diffusive model is applied assuming a maximum effective enzymatic Rubisco fractionation factor (ϵ_r) of 25‰, as traditionally simulated (Figure 8a) the modeled ϵ_p is significantly higher than the

Figure 4. ϵ_p and vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith carbon and oxygen stable isotopes: (a) spliced $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic profile at Site 925 (‰ VPDB) by Wilkins et al. (2017); (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ calculated from $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *T. sacculifer* (‰ VPDB); (c) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2}$ (‰ VPDB); (d) ϵ_p measured at Site 925 (‰ VPDB); (e) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *Gephyrocapsa* (‰ VPDB); (f) *Gephyrocapsa* carbon vital effects, as $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ (‰ VPDB); and (g) *Gephyrocapsa* oxygen vital effects as $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ (‰ VPDB). Error bars of organic isotopic measurements are omitted for clarity and the values can be found in methods; error on ϵ_p is typically $<0.5\%$, smaller than the size of the symbol.

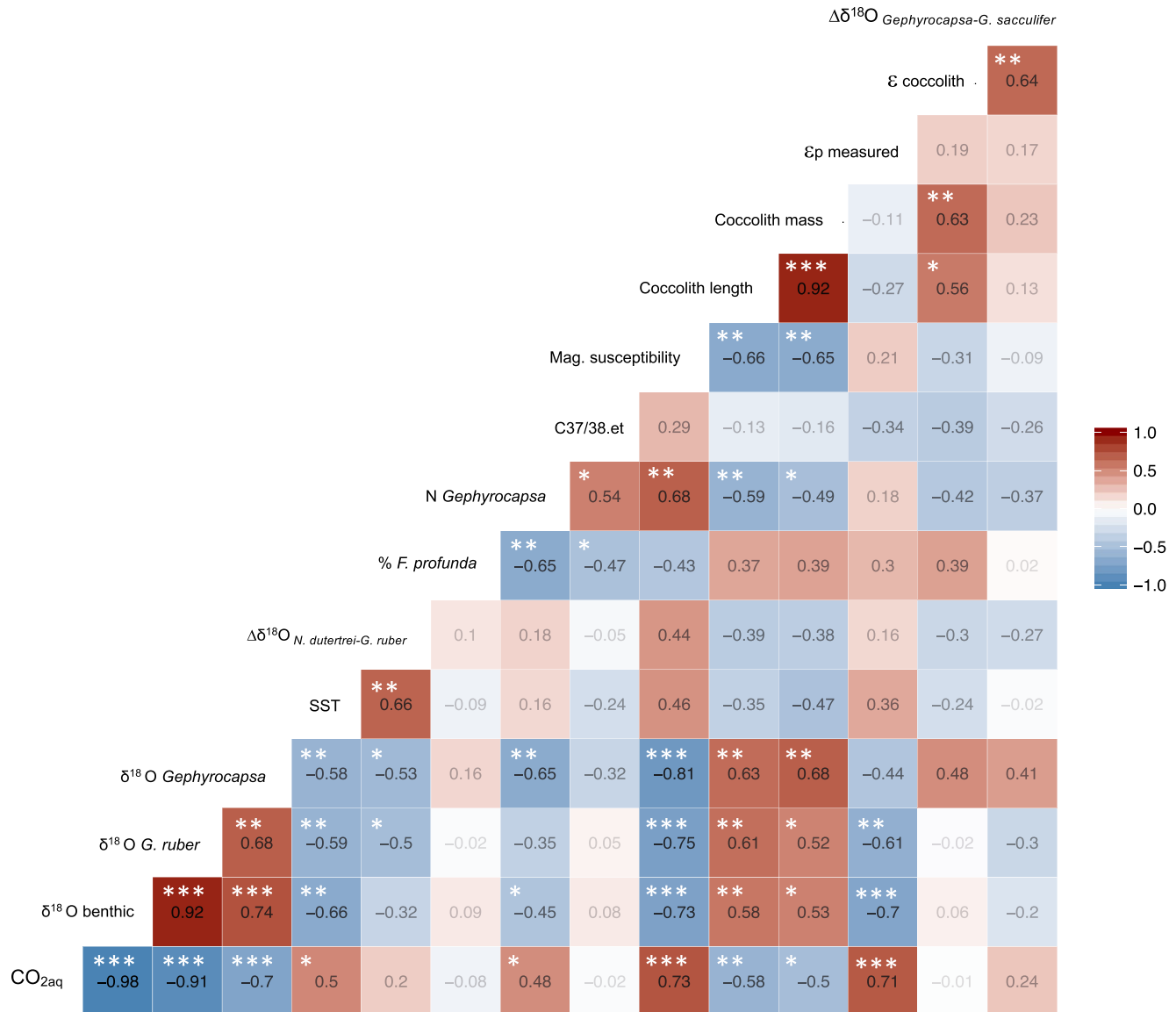


Figure 6. Pearson correlation matrix of the proxies and data in this study: CO₂[aq], δ¹⁸O *G. ruber*, δ¹⁸O *Gephyrocapsa*, U₃₇^{k'} alkenone-derived SST, Δδ¹⁸O_{N. dutertrei-G. ruber}, % *F. profunda*, absolute values (N; coccolith g⁻¹ sediment) of *Gephyrocapsa*, alkenone C37/38.et ratio, average *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith length and mass, ε_p, ε_{coccolith}, and Δδ¹⁸O_{*Gephyrocapsa-G. sacculifer*}. The spliced δ¹⁸O benthic and magnetic susceptibilities at Site 925 by Wilkens et al. (2017) are also included. Symbols represent the statistical significance: ***p ≤ 0.01; **p ≤ 0.05 and *p ≤ 0.1.

observations at Site 925 when growth rates are estimated (a) using the cell size regression by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2020) from the *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius at Site 925 (simulation A; Figure 8a) or (b) following Krumhardt et al. (2017) with constant modern PO₄ (Figure 1c) and variable temperature from SST at Site 925 (simulation B; Figure 8a). With ε_f of 25‰, only significantly higher growth rates lead to ε_p close to the measured values at Site 925: a constant high growth rate of 2.2 days⁻¹ matches the average measured ε_p, but features a much higher than observed slope of ε_p versus CO₂[aq] (simulation C; Figure 8a). However, while this growth rate matches ε_p, it is not consistent with independent estimates of the growth rate in this setting (e.g., Krumhardt et al., 2017). Only a model in which the growth rate is high but decreases significantly (26%) as CO₂[aq] decreases to glacial values, is able to reproduce the slope and absolute values of the measured ε_p at Site 925 (simulation D; Figure 8a), that is, the low sensitivity of ε_p to CO₂ would need to be caused by a compensating depression of growth rate during the low CO₂ periods. However, laboratory experiments based on half-saturation constant (K_M) for CO₂ from observations by Sett et al. (2014) suggest that growth rate is much less sensitive to CO₂ (around 6% reduction in growth rates over this range of CO₂[aq]).

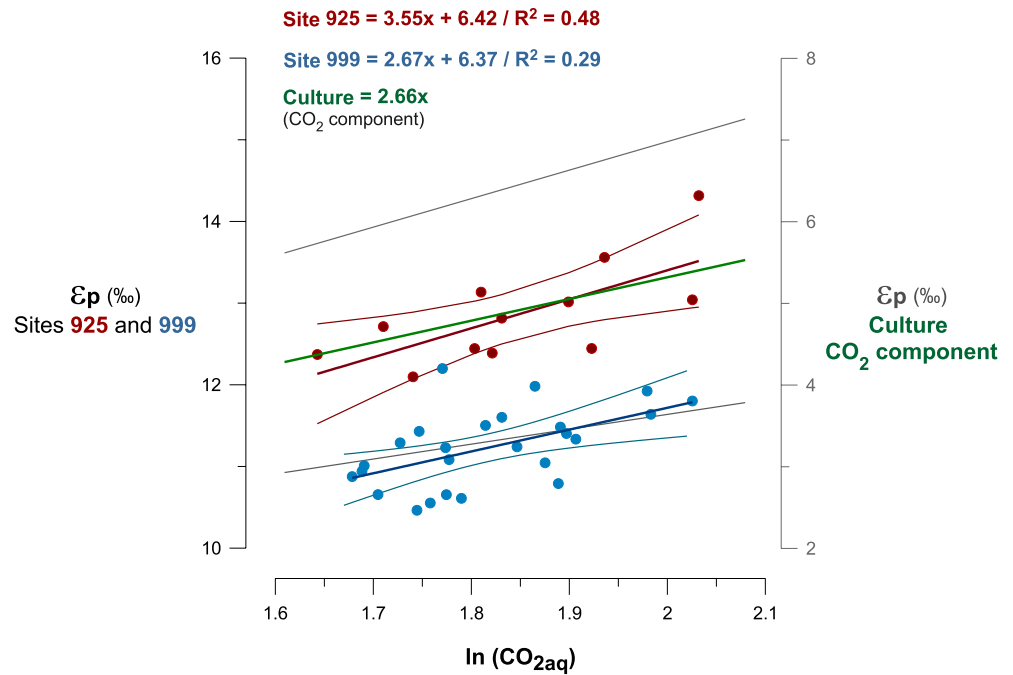


Figure 7. On the left y-axis: Regression of ϵ_p measured at Site 925 and $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$ during the MIS 12–9, in red; regression of ϵ_p at the nearby Site 999 and $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$ during the G-I period between MIS 8–5 (Badger et al., 2019), in blue. The best fit (lineal equation) and 95% confidence intervals are represented for both data sets. On the right y-axis: slope of the culture regression between the CO_2 component on ϵ_p and $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$ (Stoll et al., 2019), in green; the black lines represent the range of culture ϵ_p obtained from the upper and lower confidence interval (95% CI: 3.5 and 1.83, respectively) of the slope of the culture dependence of ϵ_p on CO_2 (ϵ_p vs. $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$).

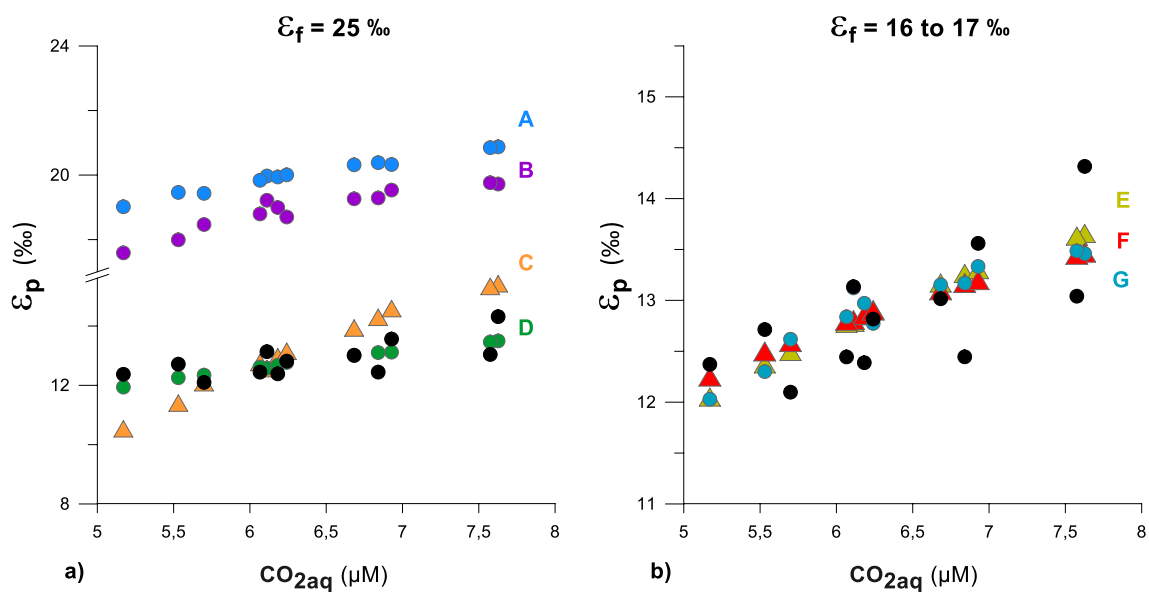


Figure 8. Regression of ϵ_p measured at Site 925 and $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, in black dots, in comparison with the ϵ_p predicted from the diffusive model given different assumptions of (a) large Rubisco fractionation ($\epsilon_f = 25\%$) or (b) lower fractionation ($\epsilon_f = 16\text{--}17\%$). The different assumptions and estimations for growth rate carried out for each ϵ_p simulation (a) to (g) are indicated with colored symbols in the figure detailed in Table 1.

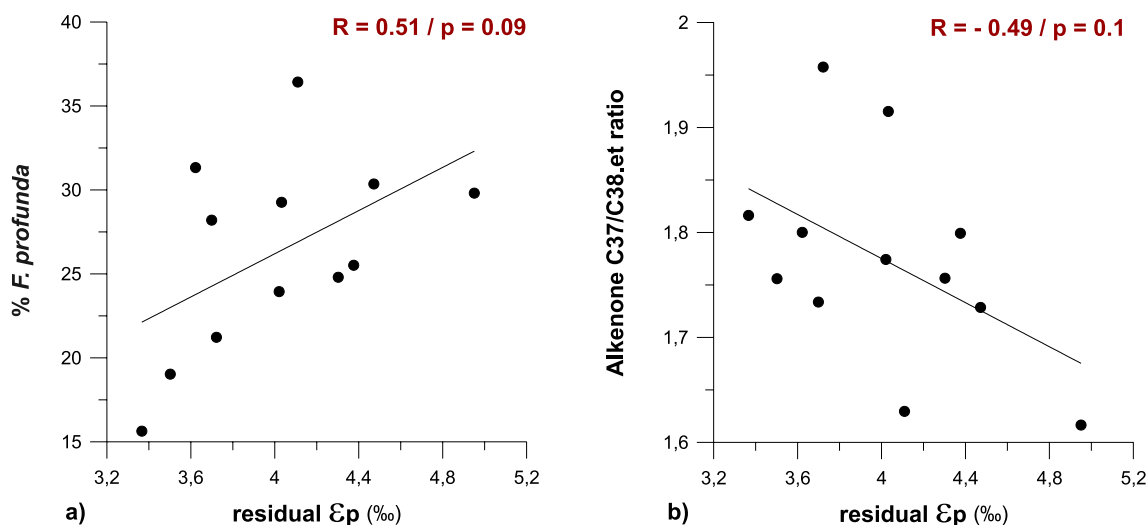


Figure 9. Correlation R of the non- CO_2 variation in ϵ_p (residual ϵ_p variation) with the surface production and growth rate proxies (a) % *Florispheera profunda* and (b) alkenone C37/38.εt ratio.

Alternatively, the low observed CO_2 sensitivity of ϵ_p could arise in a diffusive model due not to the influence of compensating effects of growth rate, but rather to a lower slope of the ϵ_p to CO_2 relationship, as would occur if ϵ_f were lower than 25‰ (Figure 8b). There are no ϵ_f data for *Gephyrocapsa* species to date, but some recent studies of Rubisco fractionation in marine eukaryotes suggest values lower than 25‰, which yield a range of 11‰–18‰ from the study of the coccolithophore species *E. huxleyi* and the diatom species *Skellonema costatum* (Boller et al., 2011, 2015). With growth rates in the range of 0.9–1.14 day^{-1} , as obtained when estimating growth rates following both Y. G. Zhang et al. (2020) and Krumhardt et al. (2017 Table S2), the ϵ_p measured at Site 925 and the observed slope of ϵ_p versus $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ are well matched by the ϵ_p diffusive simulations when ϵ_f values are in the range of 16‰–17‰ (simulations E–G; Figure 8b), an intermediate value between 11‰ and 18‰, which we incorporate as a sensitivity analysis. This suggests that, if the observations are to be described by diffusive model, much lower ϵ_f than 25‰ (Figure 8b), or a much stronger growth rate dependence on CO_2 , must be used (simulations C and D; Figure 8a). However, in the Oligocene at Site 925, the measured ϵ_p values of 18‰–25‰ (Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013) are not compatible with an ϵ_f of

Table 1

Compilation of Detailed Information of ϵ_p Simulations From the Different Assumptions of Rubisco Fractionation (ϵ_f) and Growth Rate (μ) Applied to Evaluate the Adequacy of the Physical Diffusive Model (Rau et al., 1996) to Explain the Variability in ϵ_p Measured in Site 925.

Simulations	RMSE	ϵ_f (‰)	Estimation or assumption for μ (day^{-1})	μ variation (%)	μ average (day^{-1})
A	7.51	25	Cell size regression by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2020) from <i>Gephyrocapsa</i> cell radius at Site 925	10	0.92
B	6.38	25	Estimation by Krumhardt et al. (2017) with constant modern PO_4 and temperature variation from SST at Site 925	14	1.14
C	1.24	25	Constant high μ to minimize RMSE	0	2.2
D	0.46	25	High μ that decreases during low CO_2 (compensating depression of μ)	26	2.32
E	0.46	17	Estimation by Krumhardt et al. (2017) with constant modern PO_4 and constant temperature from average SST at Site 925	0	1.14
F	0.46	16	Average μ from cell size regression by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2020) from <i>Gephyrocapsa</i> cell radius at Site 925	0	0.92
G	0.48	17	Estimation by Krumhardt et al. (2017) with constant modern PO_4 and temperature variation from SST at Site 925	14	1.14

Note. A constant value of cell permeability (P) of $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ is taken from experimental determinations by Blanco-Ameijeiras et al (2020). The ϵ_p simulations A to G are plotted in Figure 8.

Abbreviation: RMSE, root mean square error.

Table 2
Pearson Correlation R Between the Residual ϵ_p and the Set of Proxies for Surface Production and Growth Rate

	$\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{N. duertrei-G. ruber}} (\text{‰})$ VPDB)	% <i>F. profunda</i>	C37/38.et	N <i>Gephyrocapsa</i>	<i>Gephyrocapsa</i> cell radius (μm)
Residual ϵ_p	0.0013	0.51	-0.49	-0.17	0.15

Note. The level of significance (p -values) is over the threshold of 0.05 in all cases, whereas bold values correspond to p values at least ≤ 0.1 .

16‰, suggesting either that this is not the mechanistically correct explanation for the low G-I ϵ_p sensitivity or that long-term evolution of enzymes involved in carbon isotopic fractionation of alkenone producers has occurred.

In summary, the observed ϵ_p variations at Site 925 are not consistent with the application of the classical diffusive model, nor growth rate as a function of coccolith size, as recently proposed for other locations (Y. G. Zhang et al., 2020).

6.2.2. Comparison With Culture Observations of ϵ_p Dependence on CO_2

While agreeing on the influence of these same factors on ϵ_p , a recent culture reanalysis suggests a non-diffusive logarithmic dependence of ϵ_p on CO_2 (see Stoll et al., 2019).

In the regression between the ϵ_p record at Site 925 and $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$ across the MIS 12 to MIS 9, we obtained a slope value of 3.55 (Figure 7). Our estimated slope is on the upper end of that inferred from laboratory cultures (95% confidence interval; 1.83 to 3.5) by Stoll et al. (2019), suggesting (a) a similar sensitivity of ϵ_p to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ on ϵ_p at Site 925 as observed in cultures and (b) supporting the further application of the ϵ_p multiple regression statistical model by Stoll et al. (2019) to provide a suitable quantification of the effect of other non- CO_2 parameters on ϵ_p at Site 925.

The slope between ϵ_p and $\ln(\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}])$ of 2.67 at the Site 999 through the MIS 8 to MIS 5 G-I cycles studied by Badger et al. (2019, Figure 7), is within the 95% confidence interval by Stoll et al. (2019). This record comes from the western Caribbean Sea, so both locations of Sites 925 and 999 are assumed to share comparable air-sea equilibrium conditions and absence of remarkable upwelling activity across the Pleistocene (see Badger et al., 2019 and references therein). The comparison suggests a similar phytoplankton sensitivity to changing G-I $p\text{CO}_2$ across the Pleistocene, from the MIS 12 to MIS 9 in our record and through the MIS 8–5. ϵ_p over the interval between 20 and 430 ka (from MIS 12 to the last glacial maximum) at ODP 925 was reported by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2013), and although the absence of reported benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for the sampled intervals leads to greater uncertainty in the estimation of the $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, these data also show a similar sensitivity of ϵ_p to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ (see Text S1 and Figure S3).

6.2.3. Evaluating the Non- CO_2 Influences on ϵ_p and Potential Proxies for Them

Because the slope of ϵ_p relative to $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ at 925 is similar to that of cultures by Stoll et al. (2019), but the cultures are defined by a larger data set and, therefore, a narrower confidence interval, we employ the slope from cultures to evaluate the non- CO_2 influences on ϵ_p in our record at Site 925. Unlike the diffusive model, the regression model is empirical and not dependent on quantifying the ϵ_p , nor *a priori* assumptions about the significance of diffusive versus active carbon supply (CCMs) to photosynthesis. We have chosen the culture regression with a limited range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, consistent with expectations for the Late Quaternary, and the model which provided the highest experimental R^2 value (see Stoll et al., 2019). In this model, ϵ_p is a combination of the influence of $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, growth rate (μ), cell radius and light as:

$$\epsilon_p \sim a \times \ln\text{CO}_2 + b \times \ln \text{light} + c \times \mu + d \times \text{radius} \quad (4)$$

As approximately 50% of variance on ϵ_p at Site 925 is attributed to CO_2 (Figure 7), the remaining 50% may arise due to temporal variation in cell radius, light, or growth rate. Of these parameters, we have direct estimates only for *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius from coccolith length (Figure 3i), in which increasing radius toward MIS 10, from minima values at MIS 11, is similar to that shown for the same time interval in the equatorial Pacific by Beaufort et al. (2020). The *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius values at Site 925 from coccolith length show, however, a non-significant correlation with ϵ_p ($R = -0.27/p \geq 0.05$; Figure 6). This fact suggests that such

changes across the MIS 12 to MIS 9 did not exert significant modulation on ϵ_p . In effect, the calculation of the effect of *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius on ϵ_p at 925 by applying the slope of size effect from the culture observations by Stoll et al. (2019) suggests that such a small size variation would affect ϵ_p by less than 0.14‰, a difference that we consider negligible.

Using the estimated $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ and the values of *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius for each sample, we predict the CO_2 and cell size components of ϵ_p at Site 925 by applying the ϵ_p multiple regression model with the coefficient values and a fixed intercept from culture ($a = 2.66$, $d = -1.28$ and intercept = 6.30; see Stoll et al., 2019). The residual difference of the measured ϵ_p at Site 925 minus this calculated variation in ϵ_p (residual ϵ_p variation) reflects the summed effects of light and growth rate contributing to ϵ_p at Site 925.

Analysis of ϵ_p in core tops suggests that some micropaleontological proxies have a strong correlation with spatial variations in the light or growth rate effects on ϵ_p in the modern ocean (Hernández-Almeida et al., 2020). For our sample set, the residual ϵ_p variation has not statistically significant correlation with some proxies for surface production and growth rate ($p > 0.05$; Table 2). However, some relationships are observed. The comparison with percentages of *F. profunda* results in some correlation of $R = 0.51$ ($p > 0.05$; Table 2 and Figure 9a). In addition, the alkenone C37/C38.et ratio has an inverse relationship with the residual non- CO_2 variation in ϵ_p , $R = -0.49$ ($p > 0.05$; Table 2 and Figure 9b). On the other hand, the residual non- CO_2 variation in ϵ_p is not significantly correlated with the $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{N. duterrei-G. ruber}}$, $R = 0.001$ ($p > 0.05$; Table 2), nor with N *Gephyrocapsa*, $R = -0.17$ ($p > 0.05$; Table 2). It is important to note that N *Gephyrocapsa* may not accurately reflect the production of *Gephyrocapsa* if the growth rate may be decoupled from the standing stock and total biogenic export.

The positive relationship between the percentages of *F. profunda* and the non- CO_2 ϵ_p is consistent with lower growth rates (or higher light) during periods of increased % *F. profunda*. The inverse relationship between the alkenone C37/38.et ratio is consistent with higher growth rates (or lower light) during periods of higher C37/38.et. This is in agreement with Herbert et al. (2018), who proposed a correlation of the C37 to C38 organic compounds with algal growth rates. The combination of percentages of *F. profunda* and the values of C37/38.et does not explain additional variation nor increased significance, with $R^2 = 0.34$ (Table S4), suggesting that both are indicating similar aspects of *Gephyrocapsa* growth and that other factors influencing ϵ_p are not yet resolved by the existing proxy suite.

We next evaluate if we can establish a quantitative estimation of the growth rate ϵ_p variation from the use of micropaleontological proxies in this study. On a regional scale, the percentages of *F. profunda* has been established as a proxy for surface ocean $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ from the study of surface sediment samples by Hernández-Almeida et al. (2020). When the $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ obtained applying that same regression (0.28–0.38 μM ; Figure S6c) is incorporated into the growth rate parametrization by Krumhardt et al. (2017), we estimate growth rates ranging from 1.4 to 1.6 day^{-1} (Figure S6d). According to the steep dependence of ϵ_p on growth rate in cultures, this 0.2 day^{-1} variation in growth rate would be expected to lead to 1.4‰ variations in ϵ_p , similar to 1.5‰ found in this study. However, comparing the growth rates values estimated from this calculation with the measured ϵ_p at Site 925 is more difficult because the light level during *Gephyrocapsa* growth is not independently constrained. If *Gephyrocapsa* was produced at 50 m depth under modern conditions, yearly average light would be 113 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, whereas if it was deeper between 60 and 70 m, the value would be lower, between 62 and 84 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (further details on this calculation and resulting values are included in Text S6 and Table S7). Nevertheless, we note that the parametrized growth rates using the estimation of $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ from percentages of *F. profunda* are higher than the modern modeled values (1–1.25 day^{-1} ; Krumhardt et al., 2017, Figure 1c), suggesting that the approach using *F. profunda* may overestimate $[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$ at this location during MIS 12–9 compared to the more open ocean settings from which the calibration was developed.

We finally explore if there is a relationship between the variability in *Gephyrocapsa* cell radius and growth rate during the MIS 12 to MIS 9, since larger cell sizes have higher nutrient requirements to attain a given growth rate. For this, we used the culture regression from different studies of the K_M for growth limited by the concentration of NO_3 as a function of the cell radius (Cermeño et al., 2011; Eppley et al., 1969; Perrin et al., 2016; Riegman et al., 2000). The difference between the derived $K_M \text{NO}_3$ values from the smallest and largest size values at Site 925 is of about 0.075 μM , a maximum variability of too small magnitude to

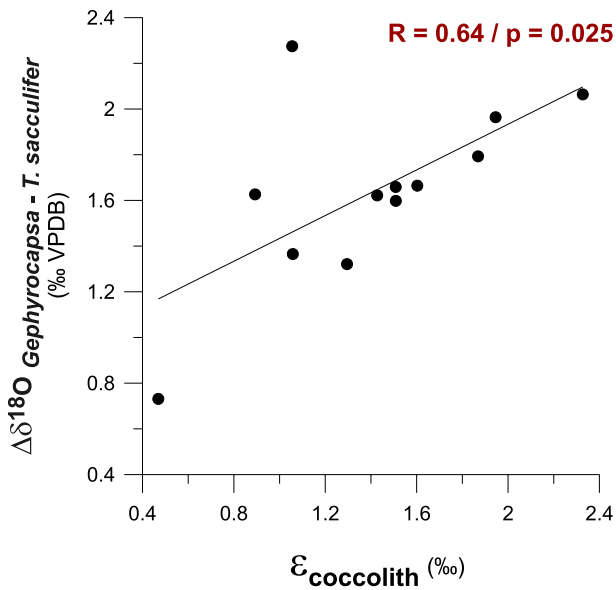


Figure 10. Correlation R between carbon and oxygen vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith calcite at Site 925, respectively, represented from $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$.

exert a significant modulation on the *Gephyrocapsa* growth rates across the interval. We neither find a significant correlation between the *Gephyrocapsa* size trends and the residual ϵ_p ($R = 0.15/p > 0.05$; Table 2). This suggests that *Gephyrocapsa* cell sizes is a poor predictor of the growth rate or light variation effects on ϵ_p through MIS 12 to MIS 9 at Site 925.

6.3. Carbon and Oxygen Vital Effects in *Gephyrocapsa* Coccolith Calcite

Until this study, well-separated near monogeneric coccolith records examined for *Gephyrocapsa* vital effects spanning G-I cycles had been only made by Jin et al. (2018). Some previous studies have used bulk carbonate samples from the Caribbean Sea without quantification of the relative abundance of different coccolith species (e.g., Hermoso, 2016) or, alternatively, fine fractions in which analyses of the species abundances revealed systematic variation in assemblage (i.e., *F. profunda*) over G-I cycles (e.g., Mejía et al., 2014; Stoll et al., 2019). Because different coccolith sizes and genera are known to have contrasting isotopic fractionation (e.g., Candelier et al., 2013; Dudley et al., 1986; Hermoso et al., 2014; Rickaby et al., 2010; Ziveri et al., 2003), in mixtures with varying contribution of different groups, it is not possible to distinguish the effect of species-specific offsets from changes in stable isotope vital effects due to environmental and biological factors. Here, the specimens of the genus *Gephyrocapsa* represent the 84%–91% of the 3–5- μm microfiltered coccolith size fraction. We therefore examine to what extent the isotopic composition differs from that of coeval planktic foraminifera, to evaluate possible environmental influences on the vital effects in carbon and oxygen isotopes.

The carbon isotope vital effect from $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ is significantly correlated with the vital effect in oxygen isotopes in coccoliths from $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ ($R = 0.64/p \leq 0.05$; Figures 6 and 10). There is no correlation between the vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* and the changes in the assemblage structure in our record (Figures 4f, 4g, and S5), so we suggest that the vital effect is not controlled by the changes in the species composition of the *Gephyrocapsa* assemblage through time. In contrast we suggest a variable physiological effect in Noëlaerhabdaceae on the magnitude of stable isotope fractionation in coccolith calcite, in agreement with previous studies (e.g., Bolton & Stoll, 2013; Hermoso et al., 2015).

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6.3.1. Carbon Isotope Vital Effects

Cell modeling suggests that the $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ may increase with higher photosynthetic rates and low $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ (Bolton & Stoll, 2013; Holtz et al., 2017; McClelland et al., 2017). The reason is that photosynthesis fractionates against the heavy isotope, so the intracellular DIC pool is more positive when there is a higher photosynthetic rate, resulting in higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the carbon available for calcification. In this sense, faster growth rates may result in a higher $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ (Holtz et al., 2017). When the $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ is low and the diffusive CO_2 flux is low, this isotopically heavy carbon may remain a more significant fraction of the intracellular DIC pool; conversely, at high $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, a significant CO_2 influx may dilute the intracellular carbon pool. These processes driving an internal isotopically heavy signature could be incorporated into coccolith vesicle and recorded by $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$. In addition, the inorganic/organic carbon (PIC/POC) ratio in some circumstances is modeled to affect as well the $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$: a higher $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ is expected to result from low PIC/POC (McClelland et al., 2017).

However, the variations in $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ in our new record are not readily explained by the processes simulated in models. For example, although $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ varies by over 1‰ in our record (Figure 4f), we observe a non-significant correlation with $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, $R = -0.01$ ($p > 0.05$; Figures 6 and S8a). This contrasts with the previous results on non-monogeneric coccolith fractions from the last 200 kyr at Site 925, which evidenced correlation of higher $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ with lower $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ (Stoll et al., 2019). We suggest that the resulting $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ record for the samples younger than 200 ka not dominated by species of the genus *Gephyrocapsa* may reflect the impact of major changes in the coccolithophore assemblages rather than CO_2 on isotopic fractionation in a given

species. Thus, our new results suggest that non-CO₂ aspects of the surface production conditions may exert dominant effect on the *Gephyrocapsa* $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ across the MIS 12 to MIS 9. For example, while low CO₂[aq] is expected to increase $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$, such a signal could be obscured if there were a compensating process working to decrease $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ at low CO₂ effect, such as (a) a reduced growth rate or (b) an increase in PIC/POC. Regarding the latter mechanism, since coccolith SN thickness has a negligible variation among our samples (Figure 3h), we have no evidence for significant changes in the degree of cellular calcification (PIC/cell surface area) or PIC/POC. There are positive correlations between $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ and *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith length $R = 0.56$ (Figure 6) and mass $R = 0.63$ (Figure 6). If the ratio of cellular carbon supply to demand correlated with coccolith size and SA/V ratio, then larger sizes might be expected to increase the $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ (McClelland et al., 2017), as we observe (Figures 3i and 4f). However, while this process is working in the expected direction, its magnitude may not be sufficient: in cellular process models, a 1‰ shift in $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ would require a 60% increase in carbon utilization (McClelland et al., 2017). The maximum range in *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith length (size) is <10% (Figure 3i).

$\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ shows a non-significant correlation with the surface production proxies of % *F. profunda* ($R = 0.39/p > 0.05$; Figure 6) and *N Gephyrocapsa* ($R = -0.42/p > 0.05$; Figure 6), and the growth rate proxy C37/C38.et ($R = -0.39/p > 0.05$; Figure 6) and the sign of this relationship is opposite to that predicted by cellular process models. It is important to note that the percentages of *F. profunda* and C37/C38.et have the expected correlation for growth rate effect on ϵ_p (Section 6.2.3). These results evidence that the variations in growth rate or production indicated by these proxies do not influence $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ in the manner predicted by cellular process models, as neither have a significant influence individually on $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$. However, it is possible that these growth rate and production proxies contain complementary information that helps to explain a higher proportion of the $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$ variance when they are combined. Thus, when we combine in a multiple linear regression model the *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith mass and the C37/C38.et to predict $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$, the explained variance is higher, $R^2 = 0.49$ (Table S5), and even higher with the addition of CO₂[aq] to the previous variables, improving the performance of the multiple linear regression model ($R^2 = 0.59$; Table S6).

6.3.2. Oxygen Isotope Vital Effects

The $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ values (Figure 4g) are consistent with previous studies, showing *Gephyrocapsa* to have higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than equilibrium calcite (Dudley et al., 1986; Hermoso et al., 2015; Ziveri et al., 2003). The temporal variation in $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ is >1‰, suggesting that recent assumptions of a constant $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Gephyrocapsa-T. sacculifer}}$ for paleoceanographic studies (e.g., Hermoso et al., 2020; Tremblin et al., 2016 and references therein) may require reevaluation. More specifically, our results from time series are in agreement with core-top calibration by Hermoso et al. (2015), in which Noëlaerhabdaceae $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ may be controlled by multiple factors in addition to temperature.

Positive correlation between oxygen and carbon isotope vital effects among coeval coccolith populations of different species from sediments (Bolton & Stoll, 2013), core top sediments (Hermoso et al., 2015), or among species in culture (Ziveri et al., 2003) has been widely described but seldom documented in time series (e.g., Hermoso et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2002). The main physiological mechanisms alluded as triggering Noëlaerhabdaceae $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ enrichment from equilibrium has been (a) intracellular pH reduction in the coccolith vesicle (Hermoso et al., 2015; Ziveri et al., 2003, 2012) and (b) the effect of fast growth rates on the DIC pool signature (e.g., Hermoso et al., 2014). However, coupled models of carbon and oxygen isotope vital effects are not yet published. This data set could be an important model target.

As observed for $\epsilon_{\text{coccolith}}$, CO₂[aq] is not a main control of the oxygen vital effects from a low and non-significant correlation $R = 0.23$ ($p > 0.05$; Figures 6 and S8b). As suggested by Jin et al. (2018) for the Western Equatorial Pacific, it is possible that the narrow range of CO₂[aq] variability across the studied interval (~5–8 μM; Figure S2) was not significant enough to affect the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *Gephyrocapsa*. Whereas some albeit limited correlations between productivity proxies and carbon isotope vital effects were found, there are no significant correlations between the oxygen isotope vital effects and the surface production and growth rate proxies in our study as % *F. profunda* ($R = 0.02/p > 0.05$; Figure 6), *N Gephyrocapsa* ($R = -0.37/p > 0.05$; Figure 6), and C37/C38.et ($R = -0.28/p > 0.05$; Figure 6).

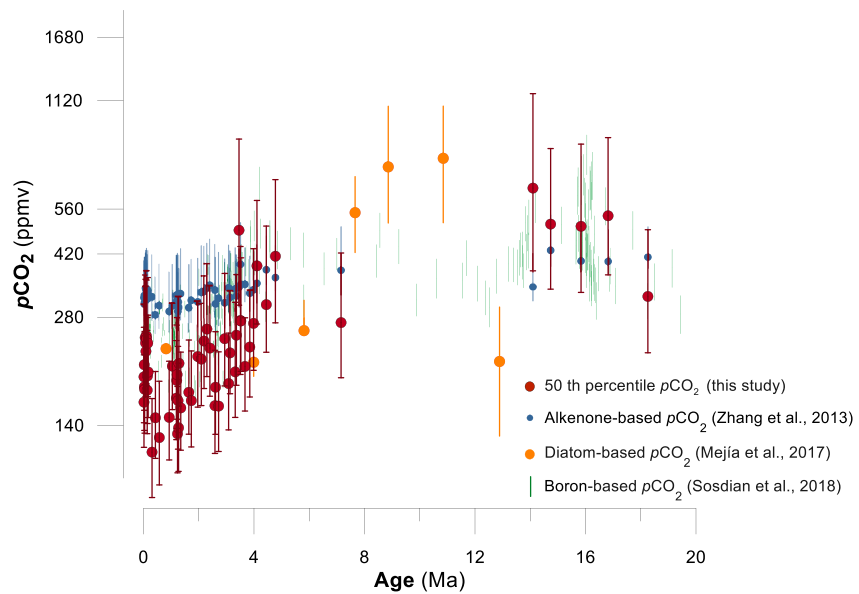


Figure 11. $p\text{CO}_2$ estimated at Site 925 from the MIS 12 to MIS 9 (Late Quaternary) data set and Monte Carlo error propagation through the Neogene: red dots are the 50th percentile resulting from $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates and the red bars represent the Monte Carlo error propagation between the 16th and 84th percentiles. Previously published $p\text{CO}_2$ records are shown for comparison as colored symbols: blue = alkenone ϵ_p -based $p\text{CO}_2$ by Y. G. Zhang et al. (2013); yellow = diatom ϵ_p -based $p\text{CO}_2$ by Mejía et al. (2017); and green = boron-based $p\text{CO}_2$ updated calculations reported in Sosdian et al. (2018).

6.4. Implications for Neogene $p\text{CO}_2$ Estimation at Site 925

At Site 925, previous studies reported alkenone ϵ_p through the Neogene (e.g., Pagani et al., 2011; Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013). Our results spanning MIS 12 to MIS 9 at Site 925 confirm that ϵ_p at this location is significantly influenced by the changes in $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$, with a sensitivity similar to that inferred through culture regressions (Stoll et al., 2019). So, we aim to evaluate the implications of the relationships identified in this fossil proxy data set during the Late Quaternary for longer term Neogene $p\text{CO}_2$ reconstruction.

From this relationship, we calculate the range of $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ consistent with Neogene ϵ_p to compare it with previous calculations, which employed the classical diffusive model to derive the $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$. The Neogene data set does not include potential proxies for growth rate, such as % *F. profunda* nor alkenone C37/38:et ratio, nor continuous data on the size of coccoliths in the time slices for which ϵ_p was analyzed. Consequently, as in previous interpretations, this exercise assumes that the magnitude of growth rate and other non- CO_2 contributions to ϵ_p has remained invariable through the Neogene. Regardless of whether this assumption is correct, we can evaluate the effect of applying an ϵ_p to CO_2 calibration similar to the sensitivity observed during the MIS 12 to MIS 9 glacial, versus applying a calibration based on using the classic diffusive model.

As there are no size, growth rate, or light data, we simplify the culture-based statistical calibration equation by Stoll et al. (2019) to:

$$\epsilon_p = m(\ln \text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]) + I \quad (5)$$

where m is the slope (2.66 ± 0.42 1 s.d.) derived from cultures (see Stoll et al., 2019) and I is the intercept which encompasses, in aggregate, all other controls on ϵ_p . We estimate I from the Late Quaternary data set in this study (7.88 ± 0.4 1 s.d.). Given uncertainty about the offset between foraminiferal calcite $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, a slightly different I value from the Late Quaternary anchoring would be obtained from an initial selection of a different fractionation factor; however, it is important to note that this it would not change the slope of the ϵ_p versus $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ relationship during the Late Quaternary, nor the $p\text{CO}_2$ estimate from Neogene recalculated ϵ_p data. We implement this equation in a Monte Carlo error propagation, which also incorporates the following normally distributed uncertainty in terms employed for ϵ_p calculation and for

$p\text{CO}_2$ calculation using Henry's Law: salinity: (s.d. = 1 psu), temperature (s.d. = 2°), $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{37:2}$ (as reported or s.d. = 0.2‰), and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ foraminifera (s.d. = 0.1‰).

When calculated with the sensitivity observed in cultures (Stoll et al., 2019) and over the MIS 12–9, Neogene $p\text{CO}_2$ declined over the last 5 Myr at an average rate of 26 ppm per Myr (50th percentile values; Figure 11). The values for the four points in the mid-Miocene (~14–17 Ma) range from 500 to 640 ppmv, with one significantly higher $p\text{CO}_2$ estimate of 836 ppm in the earliest Miocene (Figure 11). Further comparison to other $p\text{CO}_2$ proxy records can be found in the recent review by Rae et al. (2021).

The temperature history at this site suggests minimal cooling over the Neogene (e.g., Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013), in contrast to mid and high latitude sites (e.g., Herbert et al., 2016). If the temperature change over the Neogene at Site 925 is underestimated and Miocene temperatures were significantly warmer than estimated (Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013), then the CO_2 solubility would be underestimated and the absolute $p\text{CO}_2$ likewise underestimated. Furthermore, if higher temperatures would suggest a higher growth rate, the use of constant growth rate over time might underestimate the amplitude of $p\text{CO}_2$ change.

From the relationships observed in our fossil data set, we suggest that (a) the diffusive model and conventional parameters ($\epsilon_f = 25\%$) provide a poor fit to the ϵ_p during the Late Quaternary CO_2 variations (Section 6.2.1) and consequently (b) the previously published Neogene $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates calculated with these parameters reveal more stable $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates, particularly over the last 5 Myr (e.g., Y. G. Zhang et al., 2013). Alternatively, if the diffusive model was configured to fit Late Quaternary observations, for example, with $\epsilon_f = 16\%$, it would imply mean b values of 19 (± 3.15 s.d.) for the Late Quaternary. Application of this parameter set would yield an average decline of 37 ppm per Myr in the last 5 Myr, and mid-Miocene $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates around 500 ppmv. Therefore, when the parameters for calculation of Neogene $p\text{CO}_2$ are adjusted to fit the observed Late Quaternary G-I ϵ_p sensitivity at Site 925 (Figure 11), similar $p\text{CO}_2$ estimates are obtained regardless of whether a diffusive-based or empirical culture-based calibration approach is employed. However, because $\epsilon_f = 16\%$ is not consistent with Paleogene ϵ_p , we suggest that tuning ϵ_f is not the optimal approach for past $p\text{CO}_2$ reconstruction.

7. Conclusions

The integration of organic geochemical (SST from alkenone $U_{37}^{k'}$ and the C37/C38.et ratio), micropaleontological (amount of *Gephyrocapsa* per gram and % *F. profunda*), geochemical (stable isotope $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in planktic foraminifera species), and *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith morphometrical (average length, mass, and SN thickness) data analyzed on the same samples allowed us to explore different options to differentiate and evaluate the load of CO_2 and non- CO_2 effects on ϵ_p .

We found that phytoplankton ϵ_p sensitivity on $\text{CO}_2[\text{aq}]$ across the G-I cycles from MIS 12 to MIS 9 (454–334 ka) at the Western Tropical Atlantic is consistent with the observation in cultures (Stoll et al., 2019) and in the western Caribbean (Badger et al., 2019). This sensitivity is much lower than that predicted by the classically applied model of diffusive phytoplankton CO_2 acquisition. The diffusive model, with or without the effect of cell size or growth rate variations estimated by size, provides a poor fit to our ϵ_p data. This result suggests that if ϵ_p is to be applied for CO_2 estimation, at least in tropical oligotrophic settings, the classic diffusive model may significantly underestimate both the variability and absolute $p\text{CO}_2$ concentrations. For such sites, either empirical relationships anchored to known Late Quaternary ice core $p\text{CO}_2$ concentrations, or the empirical multiple regression model from cultures by Stoll et al. (2019), may provide more robust estimates, at least for the late Neogene. We provide an example of the recalculated $p\text{CO}_2$ since the Miocene from published ϵ_p at Site 925, illustrating solely the effect of the ϵ_p sensitivity to CO_2 on the calculation.

Our analysis suggests that, at least at some sites, further improvements to $p\text{CO}_2$ estimation may be possible using additional indicators of non- CO_2 effects on ϵ_p . We found that % *F. profunda* and the alkenone C37/38.et ratio were able to explain part of the non- CO_2 variability. At Site 925, this may reflect a marked fertilization response of the coccolithophore species of the *Gephyrocapsa* genus to the surface nutrient input triggered by Amazon-affected waters that may have an effect on the changes in growth rate and light levels through the interval.

This data set further provides clear evidence of coupled models of carbon and oxygen isotope vital effects in *Gephyrocapsa* coccolith calcite through the MIS 12 to MIS 9, but further evaluation with cellular process models for vital effects is needed for a quantitative understanding of the drivers of these effects.

Data Availability Statement

All original data produced for this work is available at the public repository Mendeley as: González-Lanchas, Alba; Stoll, Heather; Hernández-Alméida, Iván; Flores, José-Abel; Sierro, Francisco J.; Guitián, José (2020), “Carbon isotopic fractionation of alkenones and *Gephyrocapsa* coccoliths over the Late Quaternary (Marine Isotope Stages 12 to 9) glacial-interglacial cycles at the western tropical Atlantic,” Mendeley Data (<https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/zhmwhjjs63>).

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