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1 Contrasting distributions of glycerol dialkyl glycerol
2 tetraethers (GDGTs) in speleothems and associated soils

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19 ABSTRACT

20 Glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) preserved in speleothems can
21 form useful records of terrestrial palaeotemperature. However,
22 understanding of the sources of these compounds in caves is limited,
23 particularly whether or not they should be considered as an in situ signal
24 derived from microbial communities in the cave or vadose zone, a
25 transported soil signal, or a mixture of the two. We have analysed
26 speleothem samples and related soils from five cave sites and demonstrate
27 that clear differences were apparent between soils and speleothems in
28 GDGT distributions. Speleothems were primarily, but not uniformly,
29 dominated by crenarchaeol, reflected in the Branched and Isoprenoid
30 Tetraether (BIT) index values, and had a lower relative abundance of the
31 crenarchaeol regioisomer than soils. The most distinct differences were in
32 the bacterially derived branched GDGTs, where no relationship was seen
33 between speleothems and soils for the Cyclisation of Branched Tetraethers
34 (CBT) index, with speleothems in four out of five caves showing a higher
35 degree of cyclisation in GDGT structures than could be explained by
36 measured pH values. Differences in speleothem GDGT composition between
37 sites were also seen. We suggest that the speleothem GDGT record is
38 distinct from the GDGT distribution produced in soils, and is primarily
39 derived from in situ microbial communities within the cave or vadose zone.
40 Variation within these communities or in cave microenvironment also acts
41 to produce site-specific differences.

42 **Keywords**

43 Speleothem; soil; temperature; pH; cave, microbe; GDGT; MBT; CBT; TEX₈₆

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46

47 Understanding past changes in our terrestrial environment, and
48 especially identifying local and regional changes in continental temperature
49 and the associated environmental response, is vital in understanding how
50 our world will change in future. Speleothems (chemically precipitated cave
51 deposits) are particularly well placed to provide such integrated terrestrial
52 palaeoenvironmental records. They can be robustly dated, and contain a
53 wealth of chemical signals, reflecting climate, for example, stable oxygen
54 isotopes reflecting rainfall and fluctuations in global climate systems, (e.g.
55 McDermott, 2004; Lachniet, 2009); and vegetation, for example, stable
56 carbon isotopes of both the calcite and organic matter (e.g. Genty et al.,
57 2003; Blyth et al., 2013), lipid biomarkers (e.g. Xie et al., 2003; Blyth et al.,
58 2007, 2011), and lignin (Blyth & Watson 2009). Recent work has
59 demonstrated that glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs), compounds
60 whose structure and composition in sedimentary records are known to relate
61 to environmental parameters, and in particular, temperature (Schouten et
62 al., 2013), are present in speleothems at recoverable levels (Yang et al.,
63 2011; Blyth and Schouten, 2013). Two types of temperature proxy have been
64 proposed using GDGTs, one using isoprenoid GDGTs (Fig. 1) derived from

65 aquatic archaea (e.g. TEX₈₆ (TetraEther indeX of tetraethers consisting of 86
66 carbon atoms), Schouten et al., 2002) and one using branched GDGTs (Fig.
67 1) derived from bacteria in soils and other terrestrial environments (e.g.
68 MBT/CBT (Methylation of Branched Tetraethers, and Cyclisation of
69 Branched Tetraethers), Weijers et al., 2007). Generally, TEX₈₆ has been
70 applied to aquatic, in particular marine, settings, whilst the branched
71 GDGTs have been associated with the terrestrial environment (reviewed by
72 Schouten et al., 2013). For speleothems it has been shown that indices based
73 on both branched and isoprenoid compound groups have a clear relationship
74 with temperature (Blyth and Schouten, 2013). The use of a geographically
75 diverse sample set to correlate speleothem GDGT composition with surface
76 air temperature provided two speleothem-specific calibration equations
77 (Blyth and Schouten, 2013), one for TEX₈₆ (r^2 0.78, standard error of
78 estimate \pm 2.3 °C) and one for MBT/CBT (r^2 0.73, standard error of estimate
79 \pm 2.7 °C). It is therefore clear that speleothems have the potential to
80 provide GDGT based palaeotemperature records.

81 A complicating factor identified by both Yang et al. (2011) and Blyth
82 and Schouten (2013), is the difficulty in identifying the source environment
83 of the GDGTs, with potential contributions from both in situ input from
84 microbial communities in the cave and within the vadose zone of the
85 overlying bedrock, and allochthonous input transported from the soil via
86 infiltrating groundwater. The issue is of importance because the source of
87 the compounds dictates which modern temperature measurements should

88 be used in future calibrations. If the compounds are primarily cave derived,
89 then the optimal calibration should be based on measured cave
90 temperatures. If they are soil derived, then they should be based on modern
91 surface or soil temperatures. At present, the published calibration equations
92 are based on surface air temperature as the values were available for the
93 largest data set, and mean annual surface temperature and cave air
94 temperature are considered to form a reasonable if not perfect
95 approximation. However, if the compounds could be shown to be primarily
96 in situ cave derived, then there would be a strong case for significantly
97 expanding the data set of available sites where modern calcite and
98 accurately measured cave temperatures can be obtained. Additionally, our
99 understanding of the more subtle relationships between the distributions of
100 GDGTs and environmental parameters is constantly evolving as increasing
101 numbers of studies are undertaken (e.g. Xie et al., 2012; Dirghangi et al.,
102 2013; Huguet et al., 2013). Increasing understanding of GDGT production in
103 cave and vadose zone environments and microenvironments should add to
104 the sum of this knowledge, especially if later combined with appropriate
105 microbiological research.

106 Clues about the origin of GDGTs in speleothems can be identified on
107 the basis of the composition of the GDGT signal. Blyth and Schouten (2013)
108 found that in most, but not all, samples, the speleothem GDGT signal was
109 dominated by crenarchaeol, a specific biomarker lipid for Thaumarchaeota,
110 whose presence in caves has been noted in DNA studies (Gonzalez et al.,

111 2006). Branched GDGTs formed a relatively minor component, in contrast to
112 the distribution seen in most soils (Weijers et al., 2006; Schouten et al.,
113 2013). Similarly, Yang et al., (2011) analysed soil, drip water and cave
114 calcite samples from Heshang Cave in China, and found the cave signal
115 (including speleothems, and surface cave bedrock samples) to be dominated
116 by archaeal isoprenoid GDGTs, while the soil was dominated by bacterially
117 derived branched GDGTs. Additionally, the internal composition of the
118 isoprenoid and branched compound groups differed markedly between the
119 soils and the calcite, lending credence to the idea of predominantly in situ
120 GDGT production. However, to test the hypothesis of cave derived GDGTs
121 more fully, it is necessary to look at paired soil and calcite samples from a
122 broader range of geographical locations.

123 Here we have analysed the GDGTs present in soils recovered from
124 above five caves in the UK and Australia, with a surface mean annual air
125 temperature (MAT) range of 9 – 16 °C, and a surface mean annual
126 precipitation (MAP) range of 617 – 1300 mm (Pooles Cavern, UK; Lower
127 Balls Mine, UK; Wombeyan Caves, New South Wales, Australia; Gaden and
128 Cathedral Caves, Wellington cave system, New South Wales, Australia). At
129 least one speleothem from each of these caves has been previously analysed
130 and included in the Blyth and Schouten (2013) calibrations, and the
131 speleothems show a range of BIT (branched and isoprenoid tetraether index)
132 values (0.05 – 0.69), indicating a varying degree of branched or isoprenoid
133 compound dominance.

134

135 **2. Material and method**

136 *2.1. Sites and samples*

137

138 Table 1 lists the locations and environmental parameters for the five
139 cave sites: Poole's Cavern (Derbyshire, UK) a shallow cave formed in Lower
140 Carboniferous limestone, and overlain by woodland formed on abandoned
141 lime kilns; Lower Balls Mine (Wiltshire, UK) a now abandoned limestone
142 mine sunk into Middle Jurassic Oolites, and overlain by agricultural
143 pasture (lower mine) and woodland (upper mine), with carbonaceous clayey
144 soils; Wombyan Caves Reserve (New South Wales, Australia), a highly
145 developed karst system formed in the high purity Wombeyan Marble unit in
146 the Great Dividing Range, south-west of Sydney; and two caves at
147 Wellington Caves Reserve (New South Wales, Australia), formed in the
148 mixed thinly bedded and massive limestones of the Early Devonian Garra
149 Formation. Speleothem GDGT data for these sites is taken from the sample
150 set analysed in Blyth and Schouten (2013), and these sites were chosen in
151 part because the speleothems are some of the guaranteed youngest in the
152 sample set, providing closest comparability with the newly collected soils.
153 The sample from Poole's Cavern was taken from regrowth on a stalagmite
154 boss previously sampled in the late 1990s. At Wellington the samples were
155 recently formed drip-straws and flowstones formed on man-made artefacts,
156 and at Lower Balls Mine, where the speleothems are known to have a

157 maximum age of 100 years dating from the mine abandonment, the samples
158 were thin and actively forming at collection. The sample from Wombeyan
159 encompasses the last 40 years.

160 At each site a minimum of two soil samples were taken. Where
161 contrasting vegetation or soil regimes were present over the cave (e.g. at
162 Lower Balls Mine (LBM), where both woodland and agricultural grassland
163 are present, and Pooles Cavern, where there is both a natural soil and soil
164 developed over lime waste), a sample was taken from each regime. At all
165 sites, the soil profile was thin, and the sample encompassed the whole
166 available depth before the sampler hit either bedrock or rubble. All soils
167 were analysed in replicate to take account of natural small scale
168 heterogeneity.

169

170 *2.2. Extraction*

171

172 Speleothem samples were processed via acid digestion and
173 liquid/liquid extraction, as described by Blyth and Schouten (2013). Soil
174 samples were freeze-dried and aliquots of 1-10 g were crushed in a pestle
175 and mortar. Samples from Pooles Cavern and LBM were extracted using
176 9:1 (v:v) dichloromethane (DCM)/ methanol (MeOH), at high temperature
177 (100 °C) and pressure (7.6×10^6 Pa) with a Dionex Accelerated Solvent
178 Extractor (ASE) at NIOZ, while samples from Wombeyan and Wellington
179 were extracted using a Dionex 150 ASE following the NIOZ methods at

180 UNSW. The extracts were dried under N₂, rediluted in DCM and separated
181 into non-polar and polar fractions over activated Al₂O₃, eluted with DCM
182 and 1:1 DCM/MeOH respectively. Samples Gad-soil-1 and Cat-soil-1 from
183 above Gaden and Cathedral caves at Wellington were pre-filtered over dry
184 MgSO₄ and cleaned cotton wool to remove excess particulates that otherwise
185 blocked the Al₂O₃ column. The polar fraction was dried under N₂, rediluted
186 in 99:1 (v/v) hexane/propanol, and filtered through a 0.45 µm PTFE filter (ø
187 4 mm).

188 Soil pH was measured at NIOZ (LBM and Poole's Cavern), and
189 UNSW (Wombyean and Wellington). Briefly, an aliquot of crushed dry soil
190 was suspended in deionised water at a ratio of 1 g soil:2.5 ml water, agitated
191 for 5 min, and allowed to settle for 10 min. The pH was then measured
192 using a calibrated probe (2 point calibration, standard solutions of pH 4 and
193 7) suspended in solution just above the surface of the soil. Measurements
194 were performed in triplicate and averaged for each soil sample. WB-soil-2a
195 was excluded from pH measurement due to lack of sample.

196

197 *2.3. GDGT analysis*

198

199 All analyses were undertaken at NIOZ in order to provide consistency
200 with the previous speleothem analyses, and used the same analytical
201 method as Blyth & Schouten (2013). Polar fractions were analysed for
202 GDGTs using high performance liquid chromatography-atmospheric

203 pressure positive ion chemical ionization-mass spectrometry (HPLCAPCI-
204 MS) following Schouten et al. (2007). HPLC-APCI-MS used an Agilent 1100
205 series LC with a Prevail Cyano column (2.1 x 150 mm, 3 µm; Alltech)
206 maintained at 30 °C. GDGTs were eluted using a changing mixture of
207 hexane and propanol as follows: 99% hexane/1% propanol (5 min), then a
208 linear gradient to 1.8% propanol in 45 min. Flow rate was 0.2 ml/min. Single
209 ion monitoring was set to scan the [M+H]⁺ ions of the GDGTs with a dwell
210 time of 237 ms for each ion. Only peaks with areas above 5000 were
211 considered as being above the limit of quantitation (c.f. Schouten et al.,
212 2007).

213 The following ratios were calculated (cren = crenarchaeol; cren' =
214 crenarchaeol regio isomer):

215

216 Branched and Isoprenoid Tetraether index (Hopmans et al., 2004)

$$217 \text{ BIT} = (\text{III} + \text{II} + \text{I}) / (\text{Cren} + \text{III} + \text{II} + \text{I}) \quad [1]$$

218

219 TetraEther indeX of tetraethers consisting of 86 carbon atoms (Schouten et
220 al., 2002)

$$221 \text{ TEX}_{86} = (2 + 3 + \text{Cren}') / (1 + 2 + 3 + \text{Cren}') \quad [2]$$

222

223 Methylation of branched tetraethers (Weijers et al., 2007)

$$224 \text{ MBT} = (\text{I} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic}) / (\text{I} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic} + \text{II} + \text{IIb} + \text{IIc} + \text{III} + \text{IIIb} + \text{IIIc}) \quad [3]$$

225

226 Cyclisation of branched tetraethers (Weijers et al., 2007)

$$227 \text{ CBT} = -\text{Log}[(\text{Ib} + \text{IIb})/(\text{I} + \text{II})] \quad [4]$$

228

229 Degree of cyclisation of branched tetraethers (closely related to CBT)

$$230 \text{ DC} = (\text{Ib} + \text{Ic} + \text{IIb} + \text{IIc})/(2 \times \text{I} + 2 \times \text{II}) \quad [5]$$

231

232 pH from CBT (Weijers et al., 2007)

$$233 \text{ Calculated pH} = (3.33 - \text{CBT})/0.38 \quad [6]$$

234

235 **3. Results and discussion**

236

237 *3.1. GDGT composition*

238

239 All samples, with the exception of speleothem LBM-S3, contained
240 archaeal GDGTs 0, 1, 2, 3, crenarchaeol and the regio isomer of
241 crenarchaeol. LBM-S3 contained all of the above except for the regio isomer,
242 which was below the detection limit. For the branched GDGTs, speleothem
243 LBM-S3 was removed from the data set due to compound abundance being
244 below detection limits. All the other samples contained GDGT I, Ib, II, IIb,
245 IIc and III. GDGT Ic occurred in all samples except for speleothems LBM-S2
246 and PE-1. GDGT IIIb was detected in all samples except speleothem Wel-G-
247 1, while GDGT IIIc occurred in all speleothem and soil samples from Poole's
248 Cavern and LBM in the UK, but was only seen in two Australian samples –

249 a single soil replicate from Wombeyan (WB-soil-1bi), and speleothem Wel-C-
250 2.

251

252 *3.2. Variation in GDGT distribution between soils and speleothems*

253

254 Fig. 2 shows a ternary plot of crenarchaeol, GDGT 0 and the
255 combined branched GDGTs (I, II, III). Crenarchaeol is indicative of
256 Thaumarchaeota, while GDGT 0 (also known in the literature as
257 caldarchaeol) can be derived from Euryarchaeota including methanogenic
258 archaea, Crenarchaeota and Thaumarchaeota. A ratio value of GDGT 0 to
259 crenarchaeol > 2 has been proposed as a marker for methanogenic input
260 (Blaga et al., 2009). In the majority of samples crenarchaeol was
261 consistently the dominant isoprenoid compound. The only exception was
262 LBM-soil-1 where there was a high relative abundance of GDGT 0. LBM-
263 soil-1 had a GDGT 0/cren ratio of 9 – 11, in comparison to values of 0.1 – 0.5
264 for all the other soils as well as the speleothems. Similarly low values were
265 reported in other speleothems (Blyth and Schouten, 2013). This confirmed
266 that LBM-soil-1 was an outlier, with an abnormally high GDGT-0 input,
267 presumably due to highly localised methanogenic activity. Yang et al. (2012)
268 proposed an increase in GDGT 0 as a response to higher pH, but no
269 relationship between measured pH and relative abundance of GDGT 0 was
270 seen in the data here (r^2 0.00, data not shown), although it is worth noting
271 the range of measured pH was relatively limited.

272 The BIT index was originally designed to compare the input of
273 bacterially derived branched GDGTs against crenarchaeol derived from
274 Thaumarchaeota as a proxy for soil input to marine environments
275 (Hopmans et al., 2004). Here we use it as a measure to compare the
276 distribution of GDGTs in soils with that in speleothems. At Poole's Cavern,
277 LBM and both Wellington sites, the speleothem BIT values were clearly
278 lower than those for the corresponding soils, indicating lower comparative
279 abundances of the branched tetraethers (Fig. 3). At Wombeyan, the
280 difference was less marked, with WB-soil-1 in particular being very similar
281 to the underlying speleothems. Recent studies have suggested that BIT
282 values for soils may be affected by both pH and moisture, with more
283 alkaline soils and drier soils showing lower values (Dirghangi et al., 2013;
284 Yang et al., 2012). This has also been reflected in a broader isoprenoid /
285 branched GDGT index using all GDGTs (Xie et al., 2012); however, no
286 meaningful relationship was seen with any measured environmental
287 parameter to explain the variation in this limited data set (pH r^2 0.01, p
288 0.94; surface MAP r^2 0.16, p 0.05; surface MAT r^2 0.13, p 0.13; data not
289 shown).

290 Interestingly, whilst branched GDGTs were dominant in all the soils,
291 the ternary plot and BIT values show that they also dominated in two
292 speleothems – Pooles-1 and WM-4. The results suggest that, as indicated by
293 the BIT results of Blyth and Schouten (2013), the crenarchaeol dominance
294 seen by Yang et al., (2011) is site specific, and that the relative proportion of

295 the two groups of GDGTs in the speleothem bears no obvious relationship
296 with that in the associated soils – e.g. the soil BIT values at Gaden Cave,
297 Wellington were the second highest, whilst the underlying speleothem BIT
298 was the lowest measured.

299

300 *3.3. Variation in relative composition of isoprenoid tetraethers*

301

302 To investigate the variation in compound relative abundance in the
303 isoprenoid GDGTs, two measures were considered, TEX₈₆, and a principal
304 components analysis (PCA) of the full compound distribution. For
305 Wombeyan, Poole's Cavern and LBM, the speleothems showed a lower
306 TEX₈₆ value than the soils, while the samples from both Wellington caves
307 were approximately in the same range as their associated soils (Fig. 4). The
308 lower speleothem TEX₈₆ values at Wombeyan, LBM and Poole's were
309 primarily driven by a lower relative abundance of the crenarchaeol regio
310 isomer (Table 2). A recent study of soil dwelling Thaumarchaeota showed
311 that this isomer is produced in significant quantities in soils only where the
312 I.1b subgroup of Thaumarchaeota are present (Sinninghe Damsté et al.,
313 2012), suggesting that the difference seen here may reflect differences in the
314 types of archeal communities present in some caves. Future microbiological
315 and genetic studies are required to confirm this. However, despite the
316 differences, both the speleothem and soil sample sets showed a good
317 correlation between TEX₈₆ and surface MAT (Fig 4.b; r^2 0.93, $p < 0.0001$ and

318 r^2 0.75, $p < 0.0001$, respectively), the soil data set showing higher TEX_{86}
319 values particularly at lower temperature. Similar inverse correlations were
320 seen between TEX_{86} and surface MAP (Fig. 4.c; speleothems, r^2 0.96, $p <$
321 0.0001; soils, r^2 0.67, $p < 0.0001$); however, as there is a clear inverse
322 relationship between temperature and rainfall at these sites, this would be
323 expected, and cannot be used to further extrapolate the role of rainfall in
324 GDGT distribution.

325 Two PCAs were run, one including all the isoprenoid GDGTs, and one
326 excluding GDGT 0 to avoid distortion from the LBM soil outliers for this
327 compound. Both indicate that the variation within the data could be
328 explained by a simple two component model (eigenvalues >1) and in both
329 cases the speleothems were separated from the soils. The loadings plots
330 indicate that this is a result of differences in the relative abundances of the
331 crenarchaeol regio isomer (PC-1) and of GDGTs 1, 2, and 3 (PC-2). Figure 5
332 shows the PCA excluding GDGT-0. The soils generally cluster around the
333 origin, with a tendency to score negatively on PC-1, while most of the
334 speleothems score positively on PC-1, but are split into two groups by PC-2.
335 The exception is Wel-G-1 which clusters with the soils from that site. The
336 division of the speleothems in PC-2 is driven by GDGTs 1, 2 and 3, with PE-
337 1 and the LBM speleothems having a higher relative abundance of GDGT-1
338 and a lower relative abundance of GDGT 3. This is not simply driven by the
339 differences in MAT between the UK and Australian sites since, using the
340 Blyth and Schouten (2013) calibration equations, LBM S-2 and S-3, WM-4,

341 and all Wellington speleothems showed TEX₈₆ derived temperatures within
342 the error of the calibration (generally within 1 °C of measured), while PE-1
343 under estimated the temperature by > 4 °C. Collectively, the distribution of
344 the isoprenoid compounds indicate that speleothems and soils were
345 generally distinct, possibly due to the types of Thaumarchaeota in the
346 microbial community, but that there was an overall response to
347 temperature, with some variation between different cave sites.

348

349 *3.4. Variation in relative composition of branched tetraethers*

350

351 Fig. 6 shows the scores and loadings plots for a PCA based on the
352 relative abundances of the branched GDGTs. The variation is explained by a
353 three component model (eigenvalues >1) and although the PCA did not show
354 very distinct relationships between the compounds and groups of samples, it
355 is clear from the loadings plots that certain compounds grouped consistently
356 as might be expected (e.g. I and II; Ib and Ic; IIIb, and IIIc) and that some
357 compounds did influence certain sample scores (e.g the score for WM-4
358 appeared to have a consistent relationship with GDGT III). Some consistent
359 trends can also be seen in the grouping of soils and speleothems. All the
360 Australian soils and Pooles-soil-1 cluster together on PC-2 and 3. On PC-1
361 there is some separation between the Wellington soils, and the Wombeyan
362 soils, the latter of which cluster with Pooles-soil-1. However, they all have
363 negative scores compared with the speleothems. Only the LBM soils cluster

364 differently, having positive scores on PC1 and 3, and slightly negative on
365 PC-2. The speleothems are distinct from the soils (with the exception of the
366 soils from LBM), being largely positive on PC-1. However, they show much
367 greater scatter, indicating variable relationships with different compounds.
368 As GDGT IIIc was only present at two sites, a second PCA was run with this
369 compound removed, but the results were broadly the same.

370 To investigate the role of cyclisation and degree of methyl branching
371 in distinguishing between samples, Figs. 7 and 8 show plots of the MBT
372 index (the degree of methylation, believed to be influenced by pH and
373 temperature; Weijers et al., 2007) and the CBT and DC ratios, depicting the
374 degree of cyclization (influenced by pH). MBT', as defined by Peterse et al.
375 (2012), excluding IIIb and IIIc, was calculated for the sample set but, as the
376 resulting values were within 0.01 of MBT, we used the Weijers et al. (2007)
377 equation to maintain consistency with Blyth and Schouten (2013).

378 The results show that the speleothems at LBM and Cathedral Cave,
379 Wellington were within the same range of MBT values as their overlying
380 soils, but that at Wombeyan Caves, the speleothem had a lower MBT (e.g. a
381 greater relative abundance of branched GDGTs) and at Gaden Cave,
382 Wellington, Wel-G-1 had a distinctly higher MBT than related soils. At
383 Poole's Cavern, the speleothem was broadly similar to Pooles-soil-2, but
384 much lower than Pooles-soil-1. When correlated against environmental
385 parameters, MBT in the soils showed a better relationship with MAT than
386 the speleothems (soils, r^2 0.75, $p < 0.0001$; speleothems, r^2 0.63, p 0.03. Fig.

387 7b), while no relationship between MBT and pH was apparent (Fig 7c.).
388 Both groups had an inverse correlation with MAP, although as noted above
389 this is most likely due to the relationship between MAT and MAP at these
390 sites.

391 The CBT and DC ratios of the speleothems were distinct from the
392 soils at all sites (Fig. 8a,b). For Wombeyan, Wellington and LBM, the
393 speleothems had a lower CBT/higher DC (i.e. more compounds with
394 cyclopentane moieties) than their related soils. The reverse was the case for
395 Poole's Cavern. Fig. 9 shows the calculated pH based on the CBT values
396 (following Weijers et al., 2007), against measured pH for the soils and drip
397 water. For the soils, all the Australian sites showed a good match between
398 measured and calculated pH, while Poole's Cavern and LBM soils had a
399 higher calculated pH than the measured values. In the speleothems, the
400 CBT proxy consistently overestimated pH, except for PE-1 from Poole's
401 Cavern, where there is a very high drip water pH, which was substantially
402 underestimated by the calculated value. The general overestimation of pH
403 vs. drip water values may simply be due to the fact we were perforce using a
404 soil-derived equation (Weijers et al., 2007) to estimate pH in a speleothem
405 context – a speleothem specific CBT - pH calibration needs to be developed
406 in future to test this. Another possibility is that the drip-water pH sampling
407 is not fully representative of longer term variations in the cave water pH
408 that might occur during speleothem formation. The finding from PE-1 is in
409 line with work from lakes and soils, which found that at high pH levels

410 above 7.5 -8.5, the relationship between CBT and pH breaks down (Xie et
411 al., 2012; Schoon et al., 2013), possibly due to differences in the proton
412 gradients within the cell membranes in high pH environments. Nonetheless,
413 excluding Poole's Cavern, there were marked differences between the CBT
414 and DC values of the soils on the one hand and speleothems on the other
415 which were not reflected in the measured pH values. This was especially
416 noticeable at the Wellington Caves sites where the drip water and soil pH
417 values were within error of each other, but the CBT and DC of the
418 speleothems against the soils were very clearly distinct. This suggests that
419 additional parameters, tending towards increasing the relative abundance
420 of cyclic moieties within branched GDGTs, act on the speleothem signal.

421

422 **4. Conclusions**

423

424 The results clearly show that there are substantial differences
425 between GDGT distributions in soils and speleothems. Fig. 10 shows a
426 summary graph plotting soils against speleothems for the major GDGT
427 parameters. Some relationship is apparent in TEX₈₆ and MBT, although in
428 both cases the range of values in the speleothem samples is greater than
429 that in the corresponding soils. Neither BIT or CBT show any relationship
430 between the two groups. In some cases, the results show similarities in the
431 GDGT signals at a specific site. However, in no case does this extend across
432 all the measured parameters (e.g. Wel-G-1 has an isoprenoid GDGT

433 composition similar to that for the Wellington soils, but the branched GDGT
434 composition is markedly different). We therefore conclude that there is clear
435 evidence that the dominant sources of GDGTs in speleothems result from in
436 situ production within either the cave or the overlying vadose zone and,
437 whilst we do not rule out some soil derived input to the signal, this appears
438 to be a minor component of the overall speleothem GDGT record. We
439 suggest that the relationships between soils and speleothems (e.g. in TEX₈₆,
440 and to a lesser extent MBT) are due to parallel response to the same
441 environmental parameter, most likely temperature in this case, rather than
442 a common GDGT source. To enhance understanding of the speleothem
443 GDGT signal further, future work is indicated in three directions: further
444 in-depth studies of specific sites to identify where in the cave/bedrock the
445 primary source is located; combined geochemical and microbiological studies
446 of modern cave environments to establish the degree of variation within and
447 between cave sites and the relationship with environmental parameters;
448 lastly, the collection of an increased modern speleothem sample set from
449 sites with monitored cave temperatures in order to refine the speleothem
450 TEX₈₆ and MBT/CBT calibrations for use in palaeoenvironmental research.

451

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467

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561 China. *Science China Earth Sciences* 55, 236-245.

562

563 **Table and figure captions**

564 **Table 1.**

565 Location and environmental details for samples.

566 **Table 2.**

567 Relative abundance of isoprenoid GDGTs, normalised to total isoprenoid
568 GDGTs and total isoprenoid GDGTs excluding GDGT 0 (speleothem
569 samples are marked in italics).

570 **Fig. 1.** Structures for the isoprenoid and branched GDGTs.

571 **Fig. 2.** Ternary plot of relative abundances of GDGT 0, crenarchaeol and
572 summed branched GDGTs (GDGT I, II, III).

573 **Fig. 3.** BIT index for the speleothem and soil samples. No relationship is
574 apparent between the soil and speleothem values for each site.

575 **Fig. 4.** a) TEX₈₆ in speleothem and soil samples; b) relationship between
576 TEX₈₆ and surface MAT; and c) the relationship between TEX₈₆ and surface
577 MAP in the speleothems and soils respectively.

578 **Fig. 5.** a) PCA scores plot for isoprenoid GDGTs showing separation of
579 samples on two components; b) PCA plot showing loadings for isoprenoid
580 compounds. This analysis was run with GDGT 0 excluded due to distorting
581 methanogenic input to LBM soils.

582 **Fig. 6.** a) PCA scores plots for a 3 component model for branched GDGTs; b)
583 loadings plot of PC-1 vs. PC-3; c) loadings plot for PC-2 vs. PC-3

584 **Fig. 7.** a) MBT for speleothem and soil samples; b) relationships in the two
585 groups between MBT and MAT, showing a stronger correlation for the soil
586 data set; c) relationship between MBT and pH showing no correlation. The
587 regression line for the speleothems was not included as it was distorted by
588 the abnormally high drip water value at Poole's Cavern.

589 **Fig. 8.** a) CBT for speleothem and soil samples; b) DC for speleothem and
590 soil samples. PE-1 shows an opposite response to the rest of the speleothem
591 samples.

592 **Fig. 9.** Measured vs. calculated (Eq. 6) pH, with the dotted line indicating
593 1:1. PE-1 forms a clear outlier, consistent with the relationship between
594 CBT and pH breaking down at high pH levels, as observed for lakes (Schoon
595 et al., 2013). Slight overestimation of pH in the other speleothems may
596 result from the use of a soil calibrated equation.

597 **Fig 10.** Scatter plots comparing average speleothem and soil GDGT
598 parameters for each site. a) BIT; b) TEX_{86} ; c) CBT (triangle represents
599 Poole's Cavern which has been excluded from this regression due to the
600 abnormal drip-water pH); d) MBT.

Table 1

Sample	Type	Location	Soil pH	Drip water pH ^b	Surface MAT °C ^c	MAP mm ^d
PE-1 ^a	Stalagmite	Pooles Cavern, England	-	11.7 ± 0.4		
PC-soil-1	Soil (top 10 cm)	Pooles, natural soil above cave, adjacent to lime spoil heap	6.4	-	9	1300
PC-soil-2	Soil (top 10 cm)	Pooles, soil from lime soil heap above cave	7.8	-		
LBM-S2	Stalagmites	Lower Balls Mine (LBM), England	-	8		
LBM-S3			-	8		
LBM-soil-1	Soil (top 10 cm)	LBM, thin soil under light woodland, over limestone. Outside upper entrance to mine	7.6	-	10	995
LBM-soil-2	Soil (top 10 cm)	LBM, soil under agricultural grassland above mine, halfway between upper and lower entrances	7.5	-		
WM-4	Stalagmite	Wombeyan Caves, New South Wales, Australia	-	7.6 ± 0.4		
WB-soil-1a	Soil (0-2 cm)	Wombeyan, above caves, very thin soil under open woodland	8.0	-	13.7	804
WB-soil-1b	Soil (2-5 cm)		8.2	-		
WB-soil-2a	Soil (0-2 cm)		-	-		
WB-soil-2b	Soil (2-5 cm)		8.0	-		
Wel-C-1	Straw	Cathedral Cave, Wellington, NSW, Australia	-	7.7 ± 0.5		
Wel-C-2	Flowstone		-	7.7 ± 0.5		
Wel-C-3	Flowstone on bottle		-	7.7 ± 0.5		
Cat-soil-1	Soil (top 20 cm)	Wellington, above Cathedral Cave, degraded box grass woodland, with bare soil and sparse tree cover	7.5	-	16	617
Cat-soil-2	Soil (top 20 cm)		7.3	-		
Wel-G-1	Straw	Gaden Cave, Wellington NSW, Australia	-	7.7 ± 0.5		
Gad-soil-1	Soil (top 20 cm)	Wellington, above Gaden Cave, box grass woodland, not degraded.	7.3	-		
Gad-soil-2	Soil (top 20 cm)		7.8	-		

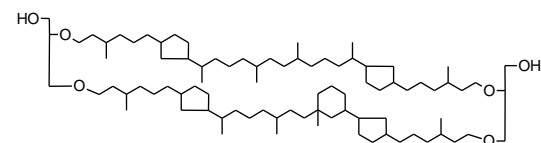
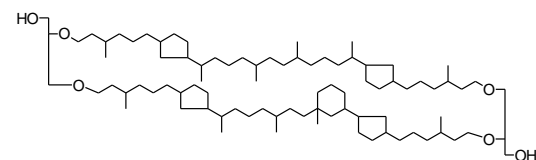
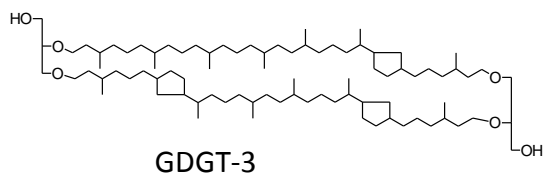
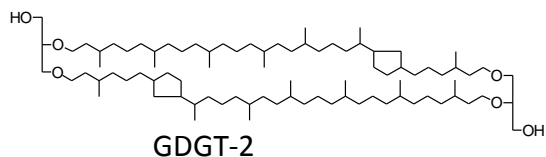
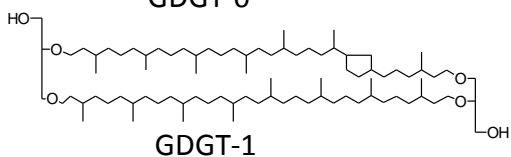
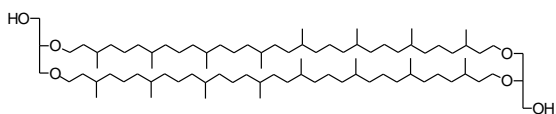
^a PC-1 in Blyth and Schouten, 2013; ^b Drip water pH taken from: Poole's Cavern, Hartland et al., 2011; LBM, I. Fairchild personal communication; Wombeyan, McDonald et al. 2007; Wellington, Martin Andersen, Nerilee Edwards personal communication; ^c surface MAT as reported by Blyth and Schouten, 2013; ^d surface mean annual rainfall: Poole's Cavern and LBM, Hartland et al 2012; Wellington and Wombeyan data from the Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology.

Table 2.

Sample	Isoprenoid GDGTs (%)						Isoprenoid GDGTs (%;GDGT 0 excluded)					
	GDGT 0	GDGT 1	GDGT 2	GDGT 3	Cren	Cren isomer	GDGT 1	GDGT 2	GDGT 3	Cren	Cren isomer	
<i>PE-1</i>	17.7	21.4	10.2	2.0	48.1	0.6	26.0	12.4	2.4	58.5	0.7	
PC-soil-1	16.9	9.5	7.6	3.9	59.8	2.4	11.4	9.1	4.7	71.9	2.9	
PC-soil-2	16.8	10.1	9.8	4.7	56.5	2.2	12.1	11.7	5.7	67.9	2.6	
<i>LBM-S2</i>	24.4	12.6	7.2	3.4	52.4	0.0	16.6	9.6	4.5	69.3	0.0	
<i>LBM-S3</i>	17.1	18.1	16.0	3.7	44.2	0.8	21.9	19.3	4.5	53.4	1.0	
LBM-soil-1	88.5	1.2	1.0	0.4	8.6	0.3	10.8	8.7	3.8	74.3	2.4	
LBM-soil-2	21.7	6.2	5.3	3.4	60.2	3.2	7.9	6.8	4.4	76.8	4.1	
<i>WM-4</i>	12.8	14.9	11.4	12.2	47.6	1.3	17.1	13.0	13.9	54.5	1.4	
WB-soil-1a	14.0	6.3	6.5	4.0	62.4	6.8	7.3	7.5	4.7	72.5	7.9	
WB-soil-1b	10.2	5.7	6.6	4.2	65.4	7.9	6.3	7.3	4.7	72.9	8.8	
WB-soil-2a	10.4	7.3	7.4	3.8	63.3	7.7	8.2	8.2	4.2	70.7	8.6	
WB-soil-2b	9.5	7.0	7.6	3.7	64.0	8.1	7.8	8.4	4.1	70.8	8.9	
<i>Wel-C-1</i>	8.9	11.0	10.7	11.9	55.7	1.8	12.1	11.8	13.1	61.1	2.0	
<i>Wel-C-2</i>	8.0	9.6	9.8	10.8	58.2	3.7	10.4	10.7	11.7	63.2	4.0	
<i>Wel-C-3</i>	8.8	9.9	10.1	12.1	56.6	2.6	10.9	11.0	13.3	62.0	2.9	
Cat-soil-1	15.0	8.3	10.9	4.1	57.2	4.5	9.8	12.8	4.8	67.4	5.2	
Cat-soil-2	22.1	4.7	7.7	4.3	53.3	7.9	6.0	9.8	5.6	68.4	10.1	
<i>Wel-G-1</i>	6.9	7.3	6.0	8.7	63.8	7.3	7.9	6.5	9.4	68.5	7.8	
Gad-soil-1	15.4	7.8	10.4	4.5	55.5	6.5	9.2	12.3	5.3	65.6	7.6	
Gad-soil-2	13.0	7.2	11.2	5.3	56.2	7.2	8.3	12.8	6.0	64.6	8.3	

Fig. 1

Isoprenoid GDGTs



Isoprenoid GDGTs:

GDGT 0: m/z 1302 GDGT 1: m/z 1300

GDGT 2: m/z 1298 GDGT 3: m/z 1296

Crenarchaeol: m/z 1292

Branched GDGTs:

GDGT I: m/z 1022 Ib: m/z 1020 Ic: m/z 1018

GDGT II: m/z 1036 IIb: m/z 1034 IIc: m/z 1032

GDGT III: m/z 1050 IIIb: m/z 1048 IIIc: m/z 1046

Branched GDGTs

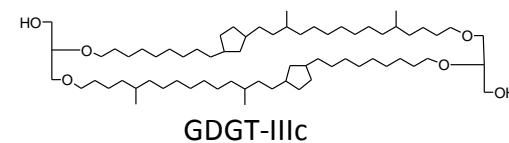
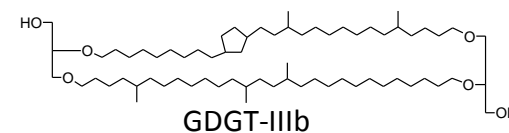
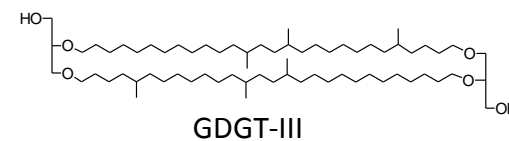
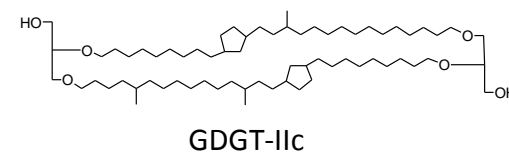
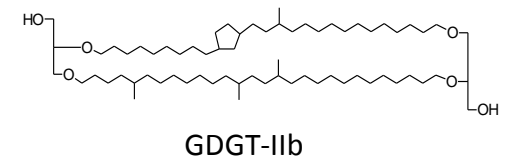
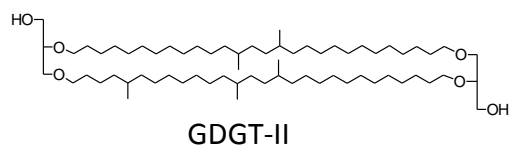
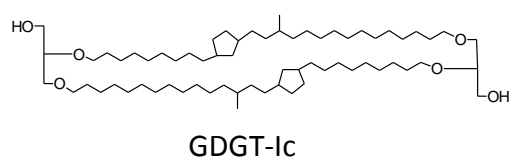
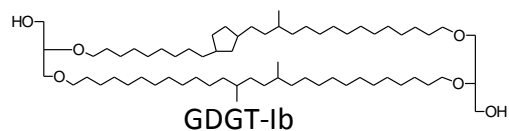
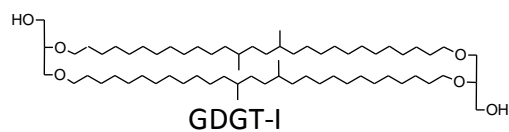


Fig. 2

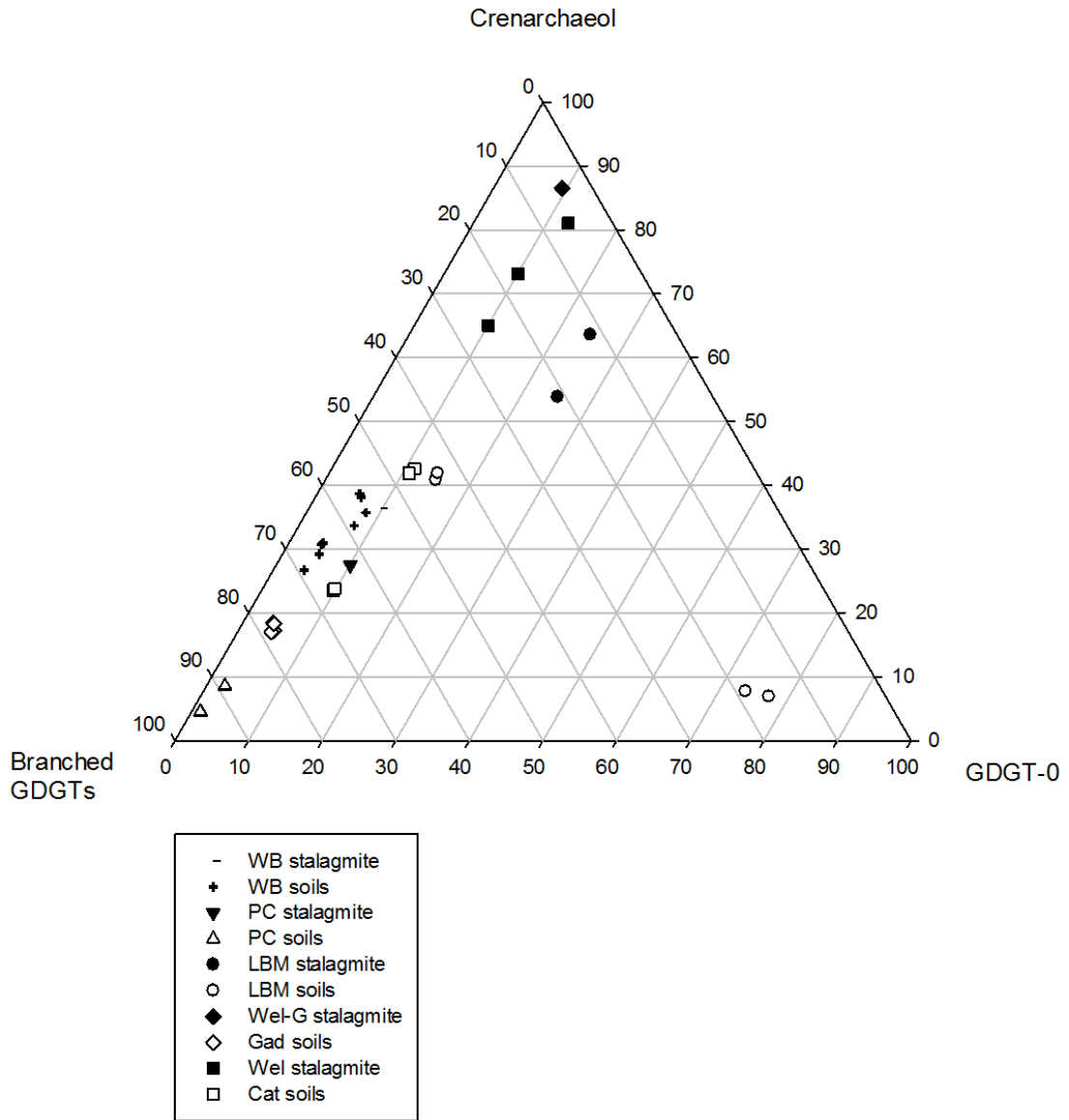


Fig. 3

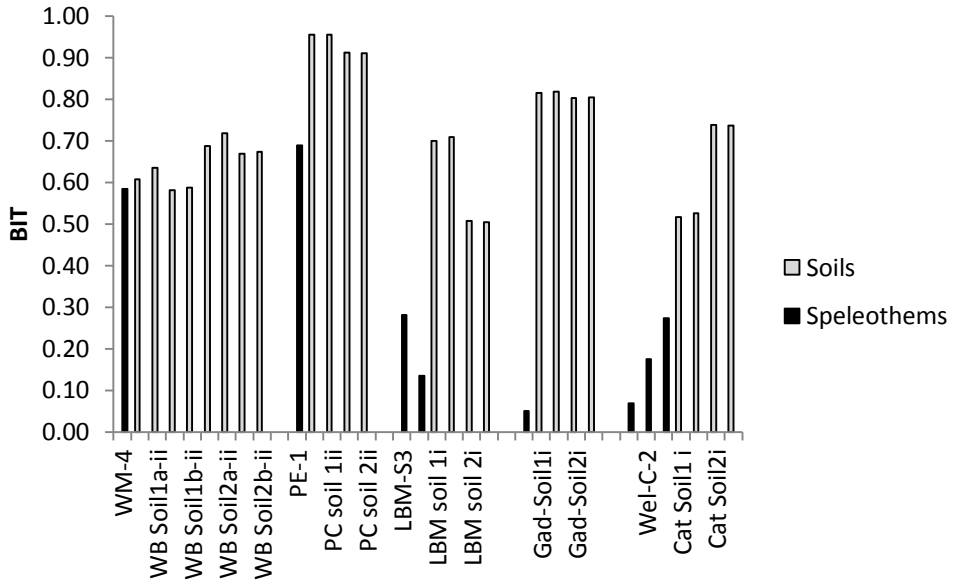


Fig. 4

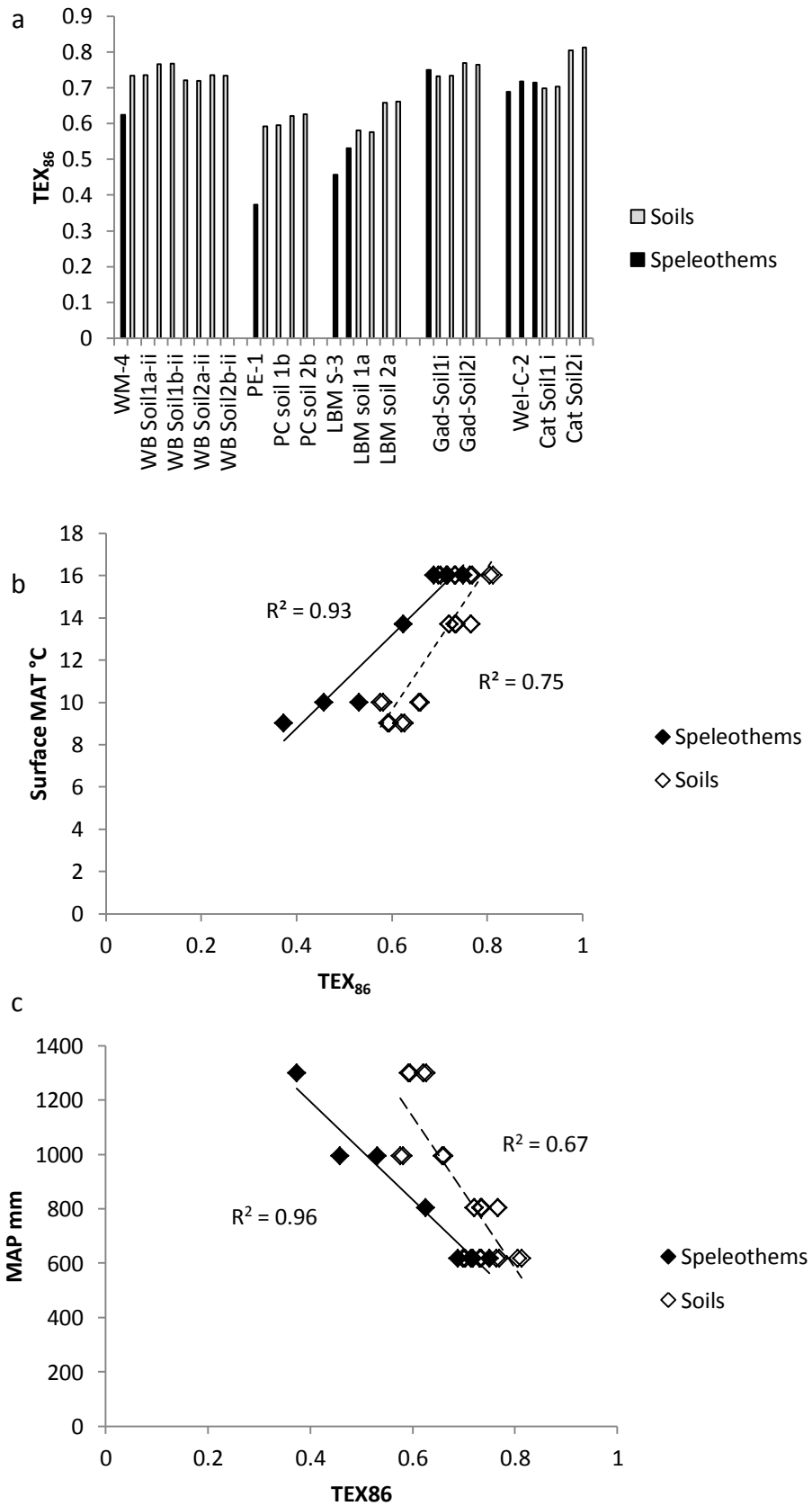


Fig. 5

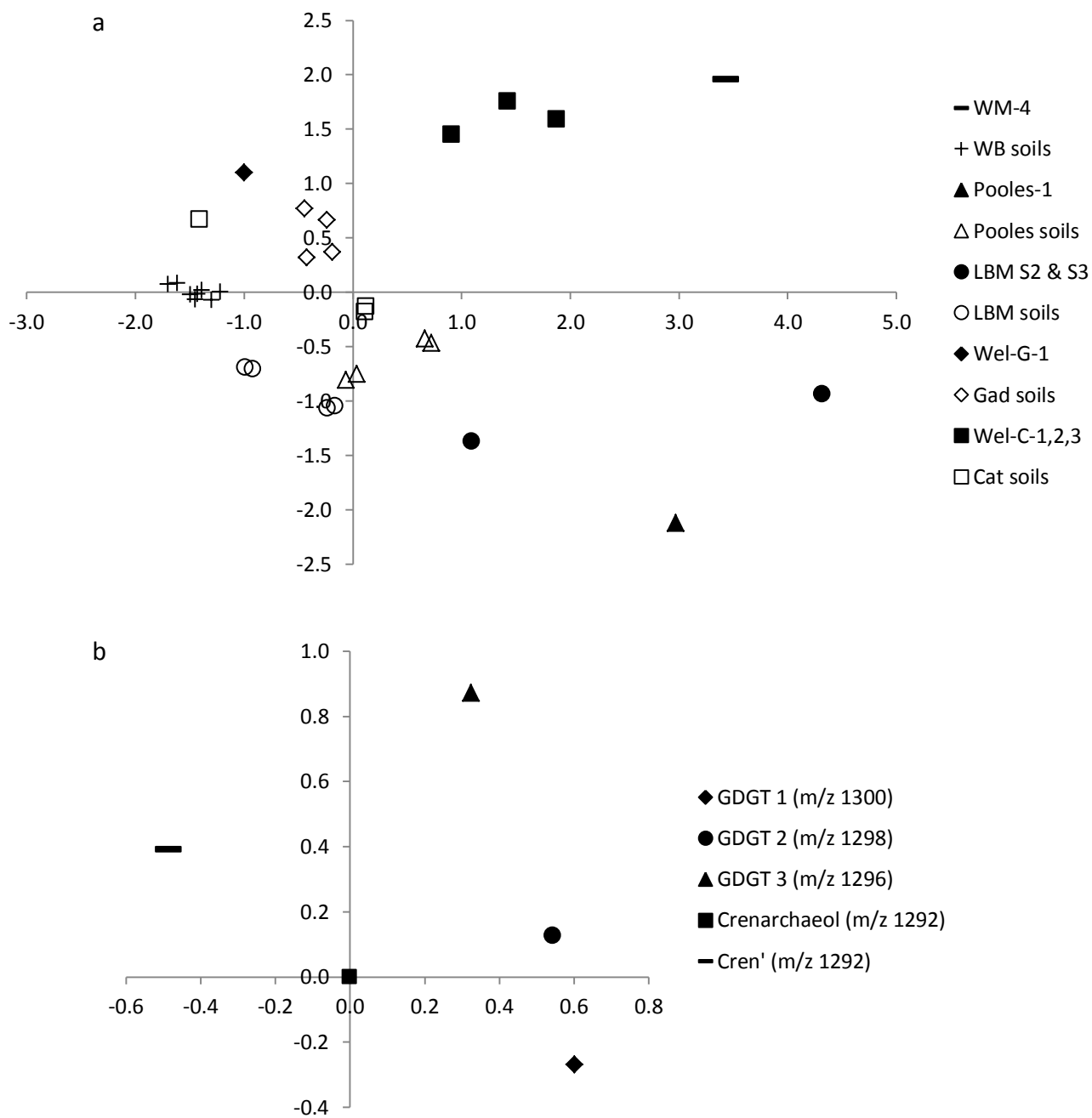


Fig. 6

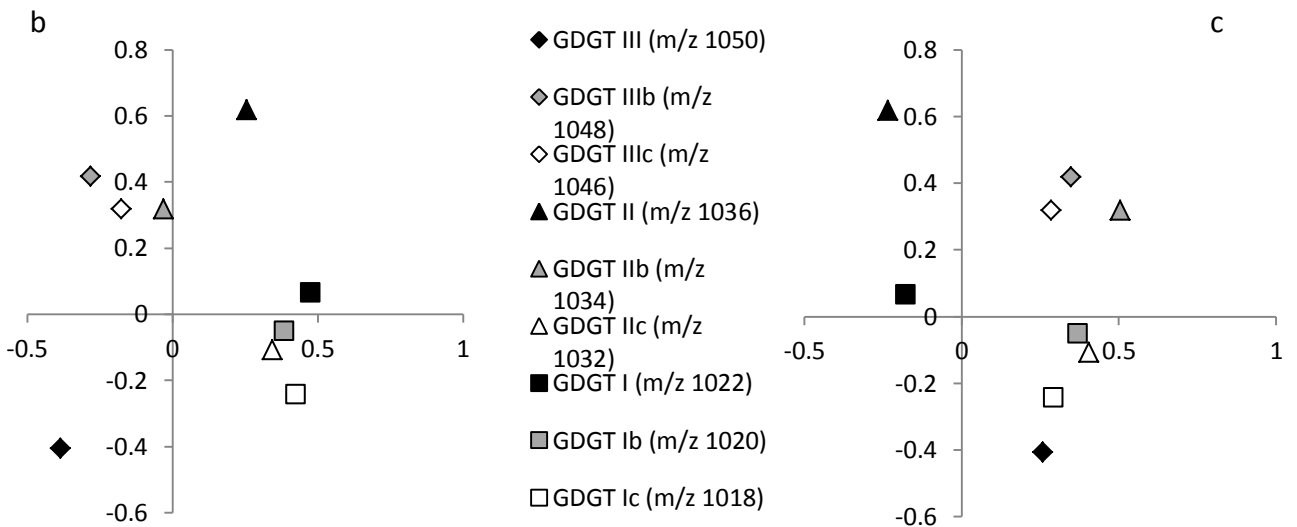
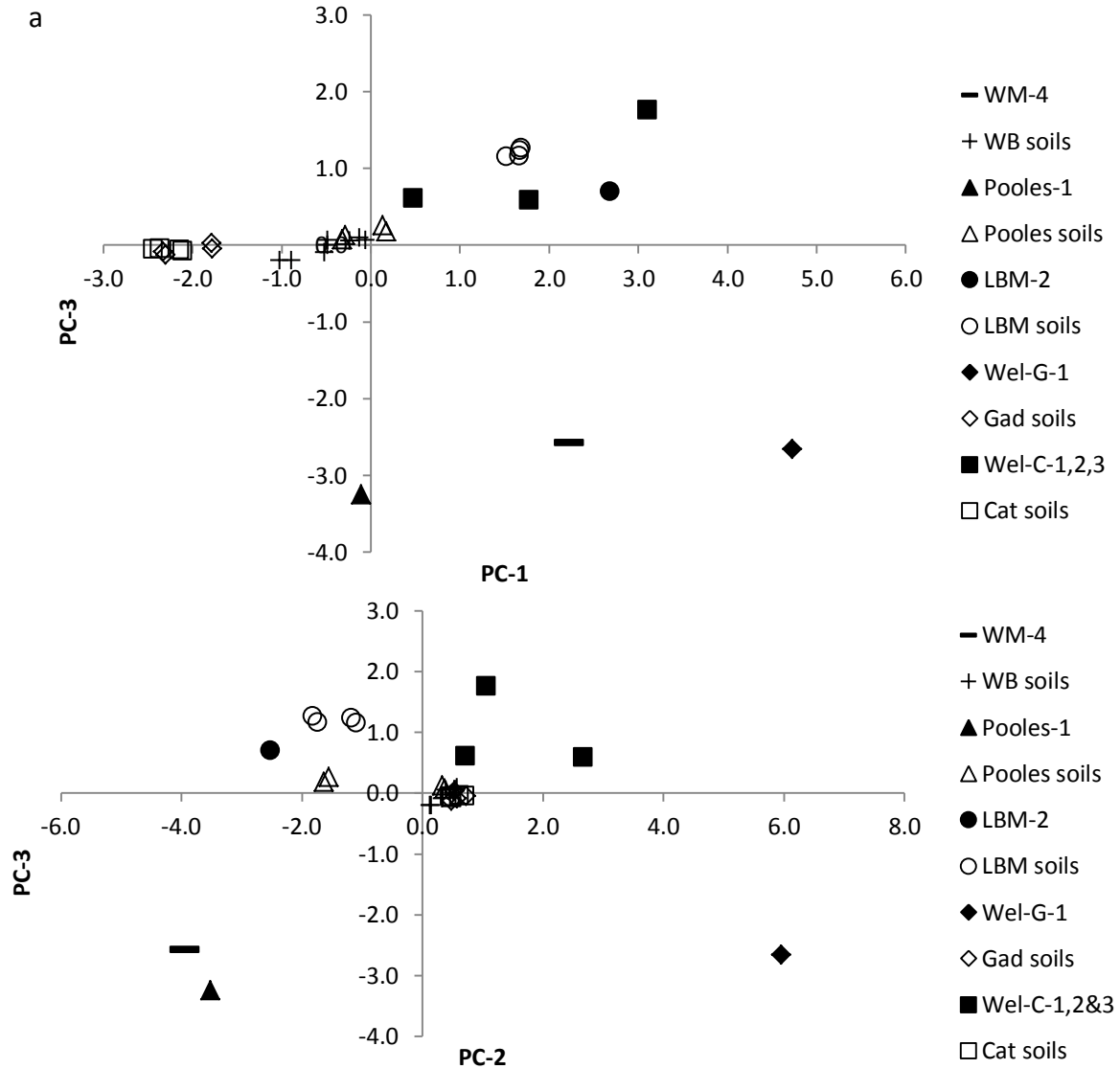


Fig. 7

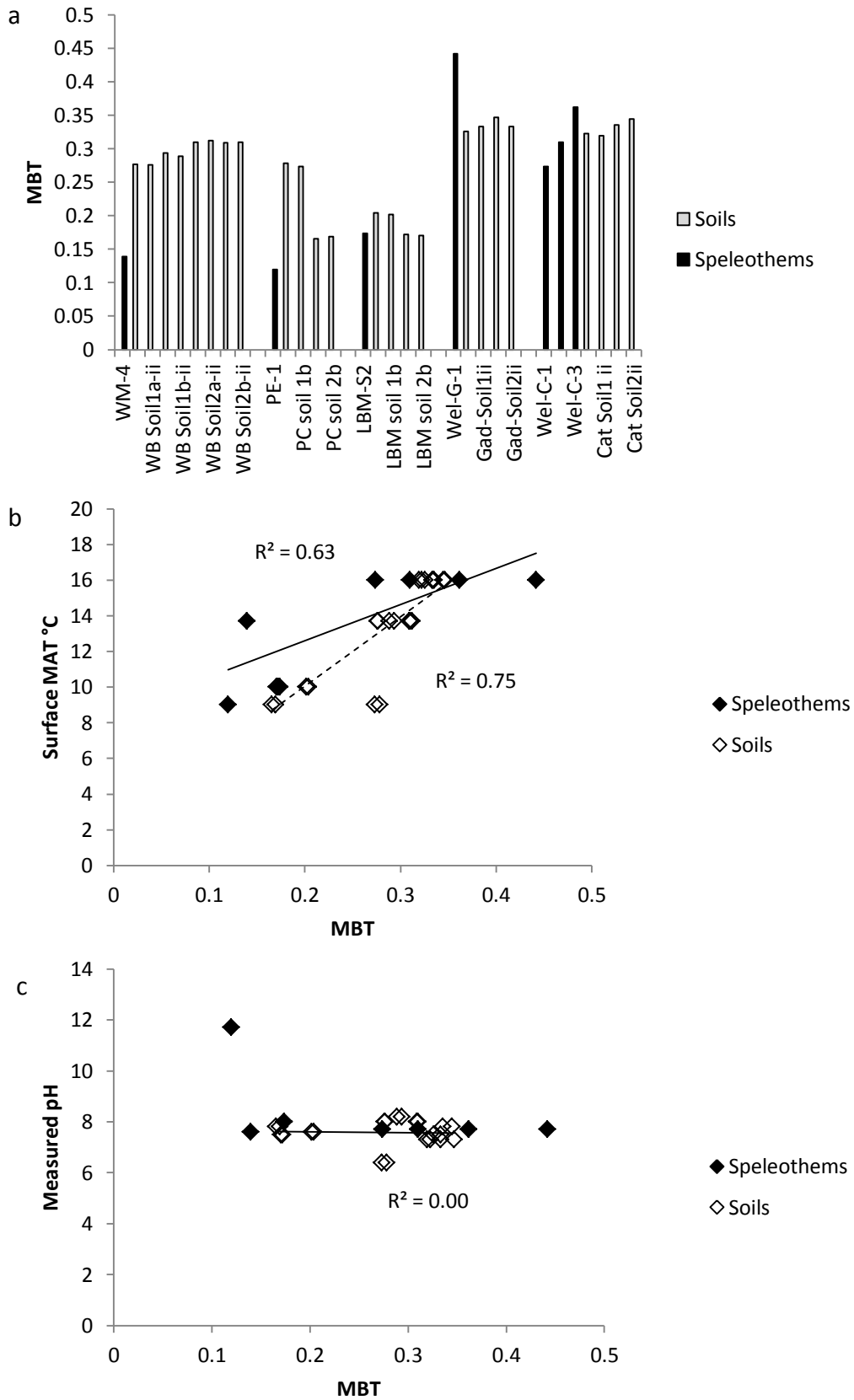


Fig. 8

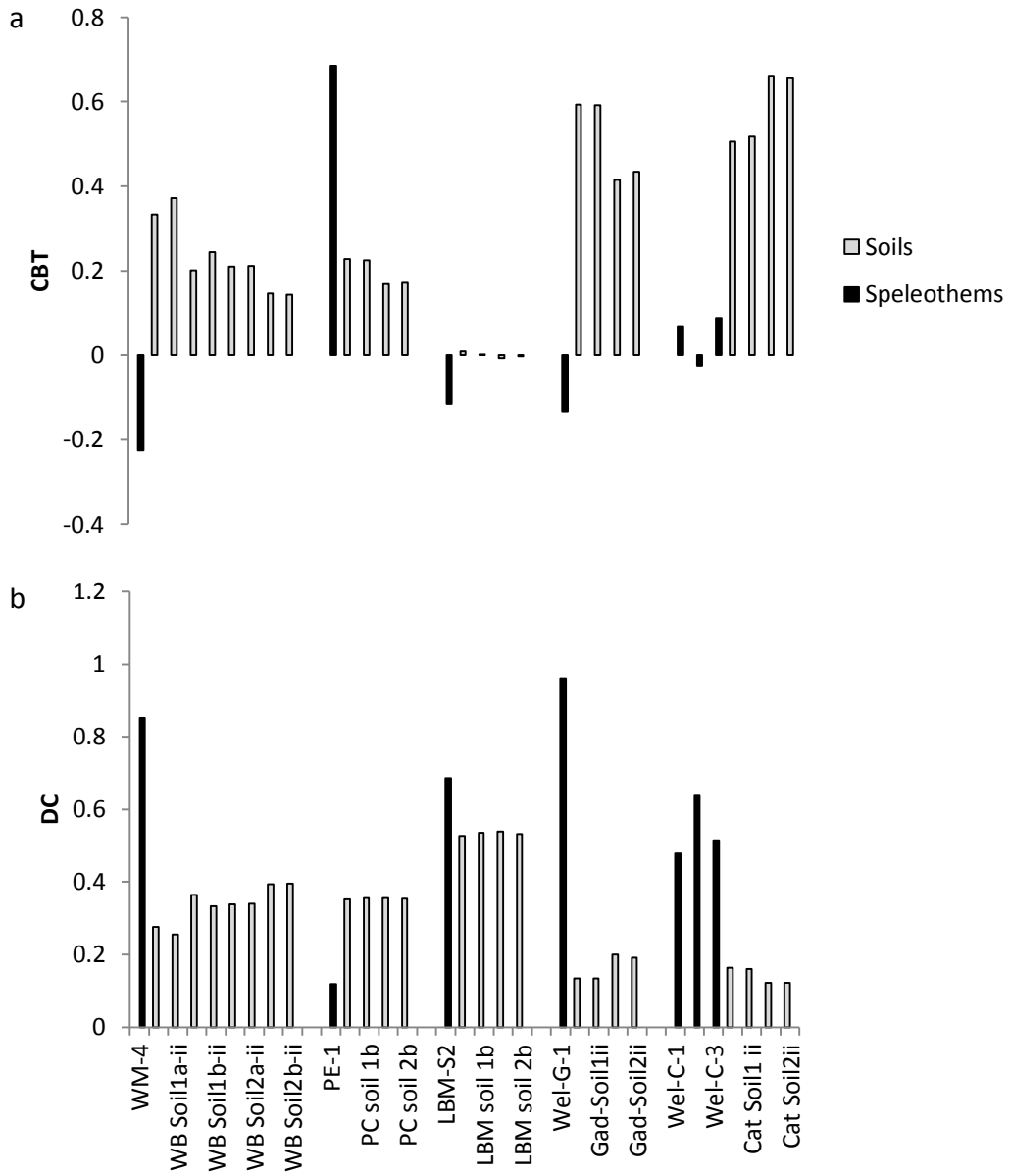


Fig. 9

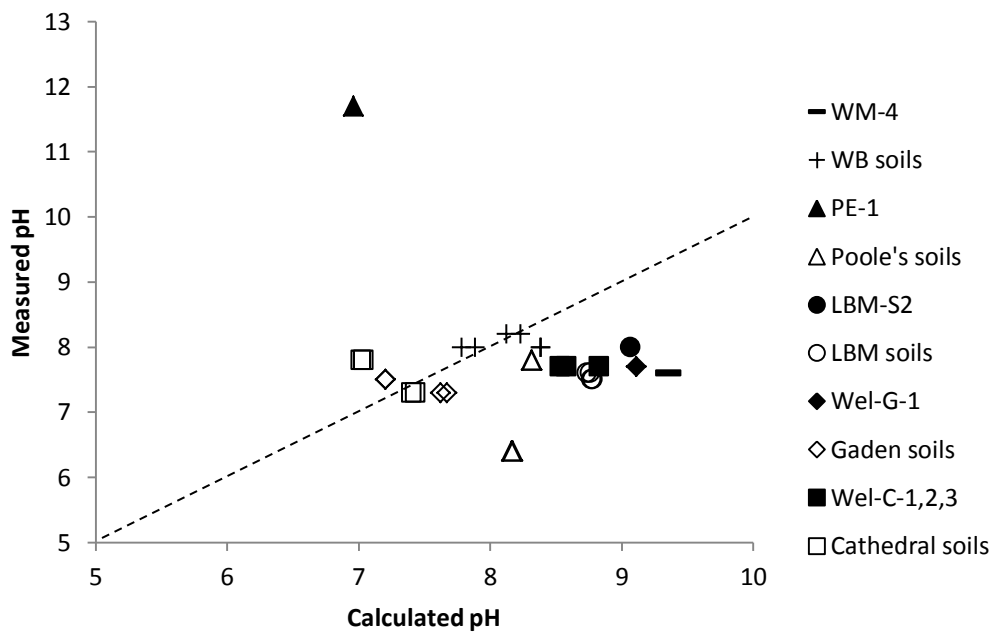


Fig. 10

