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1	Northeast African temperature variability since the Late Pleistocene
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18 Abstract

19 The development and application of lacustrine paleotemperature proxies based on 20 microbial membrane lipid structures, including the TEX_{86} and branched glycerol dialkyl 21 glycerol tetraether (brGDGT) paleothermometers, have greatly advanced our 22 understanding of the late-glacial and postglacial temperature history of Africa. However, 23 the currently available records are from equatorial and southern hemisphere sites, limiting 24 our understanding of the spatial patterns of temperature change. Here we use the 25 brGDGT paleotemperature proxy to reconstruct Late Pleistocene and Holocene temperatures from Lake Tana, Ethiopia (12°N, 37°E). Following the termination of 26 27 Heinrich Stadial 1 at ~15 ka, Lake Tana experienced a 3.7°C oscillation over 1.2 ky. Temperatures then increased abruptly by nearly 7°C between 13.8 and 13.0 ka, followed 28 29 by a slow warming trend that peaked during the mid Holocene. Temperatures 30 subsequently cooled from ~6 ka to ~0.4 ka. These data indicate that temperature at Lake 31 Tana was sensitive to climate changes caused by variations in the Atlantic Meridional 32 Overturning Circulation during the Late Pleistocene, as well as to regional hydroclimatic changes and reorganizations of the monsoons. Our record suggests that late-glacial 33 temperature changes in northeast Africa were linked to high-latitude northern 34 35 hemispheric climate processes, but that subsequent post-glacial temperature variations 36 were strongly influenced by tropical hydrology. 37 38 *Keywords:* tropical paleoclimate, east Africa, GDGT, paleotemperature, Holocene, Lake Tana 39

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions are crucial for testing global climate models and for understanding the drivers of past and future climate change (Schmittner et al., 2011): 43 44 Shakun et al., 2012). Despite the importance of tropical temperatures in driving atmospheric 45 convection, continental temperature reconstructions from the tropics are very limited. This is 46 largely due to difficulties in reconstructing tropical continental temperatures using conventional 47 proxies, such as tree rings (e.g. Gebrekirstos et al., 2009), pollen (e.g. Coetzee, 1967), and stable 48 isotopes (e.g. Thompson et al., 2002). In recent years, the development of glycerol dialkyl 49 glycerol tetraether (GDGT) paleothermometry has greatly enhanced our ability to reconstruct 50 terrestrial tropical temperatures and the thermal history of Africa in particular. The TEX_{86} proxy 51 (TetraEther indeX of tetraethers with 86 carbon atoms; Schouten et al., 2002), based on the 52 relative abundances of isoprenoidal GDGTs produced by mesophilic archaea, has been used to 53 reconstruct past temperature in Lakes Malawi (Powers et al., 2005; Woltering et al., 2011), 54 Tanganyika (Tierney et al., 2008), Turkana (Berke et al., 2012b), Victoria (Berke et al., 2012a), 55 and Albert (Berke et al., 2014). However, TEX_{86} is only applicable in some large lakes (Powers et al., 2010), limiting its ability as a widespread terrestrial paleotemperature proxy. 56 57 Branched GDGTs (brGDGTs) are produced by heterotrophic acidobacteria (Weijers et 58 al., 2006, 2010; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011, 2014) and their relative abundances are also 59 temperature dependent (Weijers et al., 2007a). brGDGTs are much more abundant than isoprenoidal GDGTs in sediments from smaller lakes (e.g. Tierney and Russell, 2009; Powers et 60 61 al., 2010; Loomis et al., 2014a), and they have been used to reconstruct paleotemperatures using lake sediments at temperate (Fawcett et al., 2011; Niemann et al., 2012), subtropical (Woltering 62 63 et al., 2014), and tropical (Loomis et al., 2012) latitudes. GDGT-based temperature records from

equatorial East Africa have begun to illuminate the region's thermal history and generally exhibit
coherent trends and amplitudes of change on orbital timescales. For instance, these records
suggest that, compared to pre-industrial period, temperatures were 3-5°C cooler at the last glacial
maximum (LGM; Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Loomis et al., 2012) and between 1
and 3 degrees warmer during the mid-Holocene, ca. 7-5 ka (Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al.,
2008; Berke et al., 2012b; Loomis et al., 2012), similar to findings from TEX₈₆ reconstructions
from the region's large lakes.

Thus far, all of the published paleotemperature records from eastern Africa are from equatorial regions or the southern hemisphere, hindering our understanding of inter-hemispheric temperature variability on longer timescales. In order to better understand the climatic controls on northeastern African temperature variability and cross-equatorial spatial gradients from the late Pleistocene through the Holocene, we have reconstructed paleotemperatures from Lake Tana, Ethiopia, using the brGDGT paleotemperature proxy.

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79 2. Materials and Methods

80 2.1 Site Information

Lake Tana (12.0°N, 37.3°E; 1830 m elevation; Fig. 1) is a large (3156 km²) but shallow (maximum depth = 14 m, mean depth = 9 m) freshwater lake located on the basaltic plateau of northeastern Ethiopia. It is a slightly alkaline (pH = 8), oligo-mesotrophic lake (Wood and Talling, 1988) with four major inflows that contribute >95% of the riverine input, and one outflow, the Blue Nile (Lamb et al., 2007).

86	Mean annual air temperature at Lake Tana is 18.8°C, and total annual precipitation is
87	1450 mm (Kebede et al., 2006). Atmospheric temperature seasonality at Lake Tana is relatively
88	weak, with monthly temperatures ranging from 16.3°C in December to 21.3°C in May (Kebede et
89	al., 2006). Precipitation seasonality, however, is extreme at Lake Tana due to its position near
90	the northern limit of the annual migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), with
91	monthly average rainfall ranging from 2 mm in February to 430 mm in July (Kebede et al.,
92	2006). Wind direction also varies seasonally, with southerly flow during boreal summer and
93	northeasterly flow during boreal winter due to the east African and Indian monsoons (Wondie et
94	al., 2007).

95 Mean surface water temperature at Lake Tana is 22.9 ± 0.7 °C, and water temperature 96 does not correlate with increased runoff or primary productivity (Wondie et al., 2007). The large 97 surface area of the lake relative to its depth, combined with diurnal atmospheric temperature 98 variations and wind strength inhibit the development of a thermocline in the lake, resulting in 99 minimal seasonal stratification (Wood and Talling, 1988; Wondie et al., 2007). Given the local 100 climate and surface water temperature measurements, hydrodynamic modeling predicts that 101 bottom water temperatures at the deepest point (14 m) are ~1°C colder than surface water 102 temperatures (Dargahi and Setegn, 2011).

103

104 2.2 Core collection, sedimentology, and chronology

In October 2003, a 10.3 m sediment core (03TL3) was recovered from 13.8 m water depth near the center of the lake using a Livingstone piston corer. This core has four distinct lithological units (Lamb et al., 2007). Unit 1 (1030-1000 cm) is a dark gray silt with an organic matter content of 9-22%, and is overlain by Unit 2 (1000-955 cm), a dark brown herbaceous peat with an organic matter content of 30-70%. Unit 3 (955-937) has sharp upper and lower contacts, is comprised of slightly calcareous silt and organics, and diatom evidence suggests that it was likely deposited in waters with higher conductivity (3500 μ S/cm) (Lamb et al., 2007). Unit 4 (937-0 cm) is a uniform fine gray diatomaceous silt, containing lower organic matter and higher magnetic susceptibility than Units 1-3. Core chronology is derived from mixed effect regression (Heegaard et al., 2005) on 19 radiocarbon ages (Marshall et al., 2011). Errors (1 σ) on the age model range from 120 years over the top 200 cm of the core to 500 years at the base of Unit 4.

117 2.3 Sample preparation and GDGT analysis

118 2 cm-thick subsamples were collected from core 03TL3 every 15 cm (~235 yr) and were 119 transported to Brown University for preparation and analysis. Sample preparation followed that 120 of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried then homogenized with a mortar and 121 pestle. Lipids were extracted using a Dionex 350 Accelerated Solvent Extractor (ASE) using 9:1 122 dicloromethane (DCM): methanol (MeOH). Extracts were separated into non-polar and polar 123 fractions with an Al₂O₃ column using 9:1 hexane:DCM and 1:1 DCM:MeOH, respectively, as 124 eluents. The polar fractions were filtered through a 0.22 µm glass fiber filter and analyzed using high performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure chemical ionization-mass 125 126 spectrometry (HPLC/ACPI-MS).

To explore potential changes in microbial ecology through time, we quantified the
relative abundance of branched to isoprenoidal tetraethers (BIT; Hopmans et al., 2004) using the
following equation:

130

BIT = (Ia + IIa + IIIa)/(Ia + IIa + IIIa + cren)(1)

131	where the Roman numerals refer to structures in Figure 2. Mean annual air temperature	
132	(MAAT) was reconstructed using the East African stepwise forward selection (SFS) calibration:	
133	MAAT = 22.7 - 33.58*IIIa - 12.88*IIa - 418.53*IIc + 86.43*Ib (2)	
134	of Loomis et al. (2012).	
135	Analytical error was quantified by running 10% of samples in duplicate, and	
136	reconstructed MAAT error was determined through bootstrapping the reconstruction with the	
137	East African lakes calibration data (Loomis et al., 2012). Duplicate samples show an average	
138	analytical BIT error of 0.0009, while the average analytical reconstructed MAAT error is 0.08°C.	
139	Bootstrapped MAAT error on individual samples ranges from 0.2-1.3°C, with an average of	
140	0.9°C (Fig 3a).	
141		
142		
143	3. Results and Discussion	
144	3.1 Production and distribution of GDGTs in Lake Tana	
145	Both branched and isoprenoidal GDGTs were detected in all samples from Lake Tana	
146	core 03TL3. BIT values range from 0.29 to 1.00 (mean = 0.71 , standard deviation = 0.15 ; Fig.	
147	3b), with the highest values located in the silts and peats that comprise Units 1-3 at the base of	
148	the core (BIT = $0.96-1.00$). BIT values remain relatively constant from the base of Unit 4 to	
149	\sim 300 cm depth (mean = 0.75, standard deviation = 0.11), but become more variable (standard	
150	deviation = 0.17) and have a lower mean (0.55) than the rest of the unit above 300 cm.	
151	BrGDGT reconstructed temperatures range from 11.2 to 21.9°C (Fig. 3a). Reconstructed	
101		
152	temperatures are lowest below 800 cm, shift to higher temperatures between 800 and 775 cm,	

excursions in samples with BIT < 0.5 (133-59 cm). The relationship between BIT and
reconstructed temperatures could suggest that the environmental conditions and/or ecological
changes associated with increased isoprenoidal GDGTs relative to brGDGTs affects the relative
abundances of brGDGTs and thereby reconstructed temperatures. Before making paleoclimatic
interpretations of the Lake Tana brGDGT temperature record, it is important to understand the
environmental controls on the production of brGDGTs and their depositional history.

160

161 <u>3.1.1 Influence of paleolimnology and sediment lithology on brGDGT distributions</u>

162 BrGDGTs have been detected in peat (e.g. Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2000), soil (e.g. 163 Weijers et al., 2007a), lake sediments (e.g. Tierney et al., 2010), and marine sediments (e.g. 164 Weijers et al., 2007b). Although some studies have concluded that brGDGTs in particular lakes 165 are derived from soil runoff (Niemann et al., 2012; Woltering et al., 2014), the majority of 166 studies (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2009; Tierney and Russell, 2009; Loomis et al., 2011, 2014b; 167 Tierney et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Buckles et al., 2014a,b) – including all of those that have 168 been performed in the tropics – have found that the concentrations and distributions of brGDGTs 169 in lake sediments are substantially different from surrounding soils, indicating that in most 170 lacustrine environments, brGDGTs are predominantly derived from *in situ* production. The 171 differences in brGDGT distributions in lake sediments and surrounding soils can result in 172 differences between reconstructed temperatures in soils and adjacent lake sediments; for 173 instance, offsets of up to 10°C are commonly observed between soils and lake sediment in East 174 Africa (Tierney et al., 2010; Loomis et al., 2012). Thus, changes in catchment hydrology, soil erosion, and lake sedimentation - such as large variations in the inputs of soil-derived organic 175 176 matter - have the potential to affect reconstructed temperatures from brGDGTs. While the reason

177 for these differences between brGDGTs in lakes and soils is still unknown, it is possible that it is 178 related to changes in water or gas saturation in the environment (Loomis et al., 2011) and/or 179 differences in the microbial ecology between lake and soil environments (Loomis et al., 2014a). 180 The basal units of core 03TL3 include organic-rich silts, peats, and calcareous muds that 181 could signal varying sources of brGDGTs to these sediments, including not only soil vs. 182 lacustrine production, but also in situ production of brGDGTs in peat. A greenhouse experiment 183 carried out on peat bogs demonstrated that brGDGT distributions in surface peat layers change in 184 response to variations in mean air temperature (Huguet et al., 2013). However, there is also good 185 evidence of *in situ* production of brGDGTs within deeper peat layers (Weijers et al., 2009; 186 Peterse et al., 2011), which may potentially alter the brGDGT distributions that were present 187 when these sections were exposed and responding to surface air temperatures, thereby biasing 188 the temperature signal. Unfortunately, widespread calibration studies have vet to be carried out 189 on peat, inhibiting our understanding of the temperature/brGDGT relationship in peat samples. 190 To examine the potential for varying brGDGT sources to affect reconstructed 191 temperatures in the Lake Tana core, we compared the fractional abundances of brGDGTs from 192 Units 1-3 to Unit 4 using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing. We find that the 193 fractional abundances of brGDGTs with zero (IIIa, IIa, and Ia) and one cyclopentyl rings (IIIb, 194 IIb, Ib) are significantly different ($p \le 0.002$) between these stratigraphic units. As several of 195 these compounds are important to our temperature calibration, and in light of the possibility of 196 changing microbial sources of brGDGTs in the variable depositional environments represented 197 by these units, we limit our temperature interpretation of reconstructed temperatures in this core 198 to Unit 4 (937-0 cm).

199	While the lithology and percent organic matter $(9.5 \pm 1.1\%)$ remain fairly constant	
200	throughout Unit 4 (Marshall et al., 2011), the Ti record shows substantial variability, including	
201	an abrupt increase in Ti concentrations at 700 cm (~12 ka), a negative Ti oscillation between 515	
202	and 575 cm (~7-8.5 ka), and a decrease in Ti concentrations at 400 cm (~4.5 ka) (Fig. 4c). These	
203	large changes in Ti concentration indicate variations in soil runoff (Marshall et al., 2011), which	
204	has the potential to change the relative proportions of allochthonous vs. autochthonous brGDGTs	
205	in the lake sediments. However, the large and abrupt shifts in Ti concentrations at 700 cm (12	
206	ka) and 400 cm (4.5 ka) do not correspond to large changes in reconstructed temperature (Fig.	
207	4a), indicating that the effects of changing delivery of soil-derived brGDGTs from the catchment	
208	on our temperature reconstruction is limited. The negative Ti oscillation between 515 and 575	
209	(7-8.5 ka), however, is contemporaneous with a negative temperature oscillation (Fig. 4), and	
210	thus, we cannot rule out a changing brGDGT source during this interval. In spite of this, we	
211	believe that these oscillations are a result of climate variability (see section 3.2.2) rather than a	
212	change in runoff, as other large Ti changes are not correlated with temperature variability.	
213	Variations in water depth also have the potential to alter brGDGT reconstructed MAAT	
214	due to variations in integrated water column temperatures (Loomis et al., 2014b), which could	
215	greatly affect lakes that have large differences between epi- and hypolimnetic temperatures.	
216	Marginal seismic reflectors are also present at Lake Tana during the periods of lowest Ti (just	
217	below 700 cm, 525 and 550 cm, and 400 cm; Marshall et al., 2011), indicating relative lake	
218	lowstands during these periods of decreased precipitation. However, given that Lake Tana water	
219	column temperatures show $\leq 1^{\circ}$ C variability between the surface and the bottom (Dargahi and	
220	Setegn, 2011), it is unlikely that changes in the water depth of Lake Tana had a significant	
221	impact on brGDGT distributions.	

223

23 <u>3.1.2 Influence of changing microbial ecology on brGDGT distributions</u>

224 In addition to brGDGT variations associated with lithological changes, we note that 225 several samples with low BIT values have much lower reconstructed MAAT values than 226 adjacent samples with a high BIT value. The BIT index was initially proposed as a proxy for 227 terrestrial organic matter inputs to marine environments (Hopmans et al., 2004), with higher BIT 228 values (higher relative abundances of brGDGTs) indicating a larger input of soil-derived organic 229 matter relative to aquatically produced organic matter, represented by the relative abundance of 230 crenarchaeol (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002). As soil-derived brGDGTs have a different 231 empirical temperature relationship than lacustrine brGDGTs (Tierney et al., 2010; Pearson et al., 232 2011; Sun et al., 2011; Loomis et al., 2012), large changes in soil-derived organic matter, as 233 defined by the BIT index, have the potential to affect reconstructed temperatures. However, 234 there is strong evidence that brGDGTs in tropical lake sediments are largely derived from 235 production within the lake itself (e.g. Tierney and Russell, 2009; Tierney et al., 2010; Loomis et 236 al., 2011; Buckles et al., 2014b), so BIT values likely record changes in the microbial ecology of 237 lakes, rather than allochthonous vs. autochthonous sources of organic matter in lacustrine 238 environments. Thus, we do not believe that the negative temperature excursions associated with 239 low BIT values are a result of changes soil-derived organic matter; rather, we suggest that the 240 temperature changes in samples with low BIT are tied to changes in the production of brGDGTs 241 and crenarchaeol in the lake itself.

BrGDGTs are likely produced by heterotrophic acidobacteria (Weijers et al., 2006, 2010;
Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011, 2014), and there is empirical evidence to suggest that brGDGT
production increases in deeper, less oxic lake waters (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2009; Bechtel et

245 al., 2010; Woltering et al., 2012; Buckles et al., 2014b; Loomis et al., 2014b). Crenarchaeol is 246 produced by an ammonia-oxidizing archaea (Francis et al., 2005), and in lakes, peak production 247 of ammonia-oxidizing archaea takes place near the oxycline (Pouliot et al., 2009; Llirós et al., 248 2010; Buckles et al., 2013). It seems unlikely that competitive interactions between these two 249 groups could cause changes in the depth of brGDGT production; however, such changes could 250 affect reconstructed temperatures at higher latitudes with large hypolimnetic/epilimnetic 251 temperature gradients. In contrast, water temperature gradients within east African lakes are 252 minimal ($<2^{\circ}$ C; Loomis et al., 2014a and references therein), and thus, variations in production 253 depth are not the cause of these large temperature excursions.

254 While the mechanism linking low BIT to negative temperature anomalies is unknown, we 255 suggest that it likely involves changes in the microbial flora that produce brGDGTs. BIT values 256 in Lake Tana surface sediments are relatively high, indicating relatively low production of 257 crenarchaeol-producing ammonia-oxidizing archaea. Presently, wind speeds at Lake Tana cause 258 nearly constant mixing (Wondie et al., 2007) resulting in only weak seasonal stratification 259 (Wood and Talling, 1988), thereby inhibiting the formation of an oxycline, which would likely 260 suppress the growth of ammonia-oxidizing archaea. It is possible that in the past, changes in 261 wind speed and/or nitrogen cycling in the lake increased production of crenarchaeol, thereby 262 decreasing BIT values. Moreover, there is evidence of human disturbance in the Lake Tana 263 catchment starting near 1.7 ka (177 cm depth; Marshall et al., 2011), which has the capability to 264 alter the nitrogen cycle of the lake (Russell et al., 2009), potentially increasing crenarchaeol 265 production as well. Changes in water column oxygenation and nutrient concentrations alone are likely not the direct cause of the negative temperature excursions, as nutrient and oxygen 266 267 concentrations do not significantly control brGDGT distributions in East African lakes (Loomis

et al., 2014a). However, it is possible that these changes affect the microbial ecology of the lake,
including both the changes in bacterial vs. archaeal populations signified by BIT, as well as the
populations of brGDGT-producing bacteria, thereby altering the distributions of brGDGTs
deposited in the lake sediments.

272 At Lake Tana, it appears that brGDGT reconstructed temperatures strongly deviate from 273 the reconstructed temperatures of adjacent samples when BIT are less than 0.5 (Fig. 3). 274 Interestingly, TEX₈₆ reconstructed temperatures in global lakes do not accurately record 275 observed temperatures when BIT > 0.5 (Powers et al., 2010), and reconstructed temperatures 276 from surface sediments in East African rift lakes are on average 10°C lower than observed 277 temperatures, which also have low BIT values (mean = 0.35; Loomis et al., 2014a). These data 278 could suggest that the shift in microbial ecology when archaeal and bacterial GDGTs are 279 produced at similar rates (theoretical BIT = 0.5) is a critical threshold when applying GDGT-280 based paleotemperature proxies; however, the exact threshold should be applied cautiously given 281 that a wide range of BIT values can be obtained for the same sample run in different laboratories 282 (Schouten et al., 2013). Furthermore, given the limited number of lakes with low BIT in the 283 global lacustrine TEX₈₆ dataset (Powers et al., 2010) and the fact that the source organism(s) for 284 brGDGTs are yet unknown, it is difficult to ascertain the reason for reconstructed temperature 285 offsets in samples with low BIT, either in modern or in ancient sediments.

Regardless of the mechanism, large changes in BIT do suggest the potential for biases to the brGDGT paleotemperature reconstruction related to changing brGDGT sources. Thus, we will focus our paleoclimatic interpretation of the Lake Tana temperature record only on samples with BIT ≥ 0.5 .

291 3.2 Temperature variability in Northeast Africa from 15 ka to present

292 Widespread drought in the Afro-Asian monsoon region during Heinrich Stadial 1 (H1; 293 e.g. Stager et al., 2011 and references therein) led to desiccation of Lake Tana (Lamb et al., 294 2007; Marshall et al., 2011). Flooding at 15.2 ka returned Lake Tana to a lacustrine environment 295 (Fig. 4a), and our brGDGT data indicate reconstructed temperatures of 12.1°C at this time. 296 Between 15 ka and 13.8 ka, Lake Tana experienced a 3.7°C oscillation, followed by a rapid 297 temperature increase of \sim 7°C in 0.8 ky, resulting in temperatures of 18.1°C at 13 ka. 298 Temperatures then gradually increased to a maximum of 21.9°C at 6.6 ka, followed by a gradual 299 cooling to 16.7°C in the most recent sample at 0.4 ka. This long-term warming and cooling trend 300 during the Holocene was interrupted by a -3°C temperature oscillation lasting ~1.5 ky and 301 centered at 7.4 ka. Below we discuss this record and its relation to Late Pleistocene and 302 Holocene climate changes on a global and regional scale.

303

304 <u>3.2.1 Late Pleistocene</u>

305 Temperature variability at Lake Tana during the late Pleistocene is broadly consistent 306 with other records of temperature from around North Africa. At the termination of H1, Lake 307 Tana experienced a 3.7°C warming between 15.2 and 14.5 ka. Sea surface temperature (SST) 308 records from the Red Sea (Arz et al., 2003) and Eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010) 309 show an abrupt $\sim 5^{\circ}$ C warming between 15 ka and 14.5 ka as well (Fig. 5b-c). This warming is 310 consistent with the timing of the Bølling Oscillation recorded in Greenland ice cores (North 311 Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004; Fig. 5a), which was driven by the resumption of 312 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) after H1 (McManus et al., 2004), 313 suggesting that abrupt warming observed in much of the northern hemisphere (Shakun et al.,

314 2012) was also felt in northern tropical Africa. In contrast, this abrupt warming is absent from 315 southern and equatorial African continental paleotemperature records (Fig. 6). This could 316 indicate a northern hemispheric temperature history at Lake Tana that is decoupled from that of 317 equatorial and southeastern Africa. 318 Temperatures in the eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010) and the Red Sea (Arz 319 et al., 2003) remain warm during the subsequent Allerød Oscillation, yet temperatures at Lake 320 Tana decrease to near H1 values at 13.8 ka (Fig. 5). These minimum temperatures are coincident 321 with the Older Dryas cooling event identified between the Bølling and Allerød warm periods. 322 Although identification of the Older Dryas has mainly been limited to North Atlantic and 323 northern Eurasian paleoclimate records, contemporaneous climate events have also been 324 identified in the tropics, including decreased temperatures in the Cariaco basin (Lea et al., 2003) 325 and Lake Albert (Berke et al., 2014), decreased biogenic silica production in Lake Tanganvika 326 (Tierney and Russell, 2007), and increased primary productivity in the Cariaco Basin (Hughen et 327 al., 1996). Hughen et al. (1996) postulate that increased primary productivity in the Cariaco 328 Basin is driven by a strengthening of the trade winds associated with North Atlantic cooling, 329 while Tierney and Russell (2007) attribute the decrease in biogenic silica production to a 330 weakening of the southerly winds that drive upwelling in Tanganyika. The strengthening 331 (weakening) of northerly (southerly) winds may also explain temperature decreases at Lake 332 Tana, as strengthened northerly trade winds transport cool, dry air from the Tibetan Plateau over 333 the Arabian Sea and into northeast Africa. 334

Following the temperature minimum at 13.8 ka, temperatures at Lake Tana increased to 18.1°C by 13 ka and remained fairly stable (mean = 18.3°C, standard deviation = 0.2°C) into the Holocene (Fig. 6a). The abrupt temperature increase at 13.8 ka is contemporaneous with a 3°C

337 increase at Sacred Lake (Loomis et al., 2012; Fig. 6b), but is not observed in other 338 paleotemperature records from east Africa (Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 339 2012a, 2014; Fig. 6c-e). The abrupt (800 year) nature of this event indicates that changes in 340 local insolation are not likely to be the cause of the temperature increase. Greenhouse gas 341 forcing is also likely not the cause of this warming, as atmospheric CO₂ concentrations varied 342 little between 13.8 and 13.0 ka (Monnin et al., 2001). The temperature increase at 13.8 ka, 343 however, is similar in timing to changes in the temperature and circulation of the Arabian Sea. 344 SSTs off the coast of Oman, recorded by foraminiferal assemblages (Naidu and Malmgren, 345 2005; Fig. 7d) and TEX₈₆ (Huguet et al., 2006; Fig. 7c), increased rapidly starting near 14 ka. 346 Foraminiferal assemblage data suggests this increase was mainly driven by increases in winter 347 SSTs (Naidu and Malmgren, 2005). Furthermore, there are large increases in the fractional 348 abundances of dinoflagellates that thrive under high nutrient conditions (Zonneveld et al., 1997; 349 Fig. 7a) along with the foraminifera *Globigerina bulloides* (Naidu and Malmgren, 1996; Fig. 7b), 350 indicating enhanced upwelling at this time. Taken together, these Arabian Sea data indicate an 351 increase in the strength of the Indian Summer Monsoon and a decrease in the intensity of the 352 Indian Winter Monsoon (Naidu and Malmgren, 2005). We hypothesize that the temperature increase at Lake Tana near 14 ka is associated with this shift in Indian Monsoon circulation. 353 354 The Indian summer and winter monsoons are driven by differential heating/cooling of the 355 Asian continent compared to the ocean (Hastenrath, 1991). During northern hemisphere 356 summer, the Tibetan Plateau warms rapidly compared to the Indian Ocean, resulting in low 357 pressure over the continent, which drives southwesterly winds (Fig 1a) and generates the summer 358 monsoon. Conversely, during the winter months, the Tibetan Plateau cools compared to the 359 ocean, reversing the wind direction over the Arabian Sea to northeasterly (Fig 1b) and generating

the winter monsoon. Modern fluctuations in the strength of the monsoons are controlled, in part,
by Eurasian snow and ice cover (Hahn and Shukla, 1976; Vernekar et al., 1995). Continental
summer temperatures are lower after winters with large snowfall due to the increased albedo and
latent heat fluxes associated with snow melt and evaporation. These weaken the summer
monsoon, and result in anomalous northeastern winds and a weakening of the Somali Jet.
Fluctuations in the Somali Jet alter the transport of moist, warm air from the Congo Basin

to northeast Africa, affecting precipitation on the Ethiopian Plateau (Camberlin, 1997).
Paleoclimate modeling studies focused on this region show that increased ice cover over Eurasia
decreases temperatures and precipitation over Northeast Africa due to a strengthening of the
northeasterly winds (deMenocal and Rind, 1993; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2014). The onset of a
strong Indian summer monsoon at 14 ka would have weakened the easterly trade winds and
strengthened the southwesterly winds and the Somali Jet, transporting warm air to the Ethiopian
Plateau.

373 Our hypothesis that large changes in Indian Monsoon circulation trigger changes in 374 temperature at Lake Tana is supported by a leaf wax hydrogen isotope record from Lake Tana 375 (Costa et al., 2014), which shows that the leaf waxes became more D-depleted concomitantly 376 with the rise in temperature (Fig. 4a-b). The temperature increase and the initial onset of the leaf 377 wax δD depletion after 13.8 ka lead increased runoff at Lake Tana (Marshall et al., 2011; Fig. 4c) 378 and in the Nile River catchment (Weldeab et al., 2014) by ~2 ky, but peak leaf wax δD depletion 379 is contemporaneous with peak local and regional runoff. This would suggest that the 380 temperature increase/ δD depletion starting at 13.8 ka was caused by an incursion of warm, δD 381 depleted air masses from the Congo Basin (Costa et al., 2014) to the Ethiopian Plateau, which

was subsequently followed by an increase in precipitation over ~2 ky, peaking during the early
Holocene, causing additional depletion of the leaf wax isotopes through the amount effect.

Interestingly, although temperatures at Lake Tana appear to be affected by AMOCinduced global climate events early in the deglacial process, including H1 and the Bølling Oscillation, there is no apparent cooling coincident with the Younger Dryas (YD, 12.8-11.5 ka; Fig. 5). This observation is again consistent with an incursion of Congo Basin air masses onto the Ethiopian Plateau starting at 14 ka, as the Congo Basin temperature record (Weijers et al., 2007b) does not show a temperature decrease associated with the YD.

390 The linkage between Indian Monsoon circulation and temperature at Lake Tana and 391 Sacred Lake (Loomis et al., 2012) contrasts with temperature records from central equatorial 392 Africa (Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a), where variability is more strongly tied to 393 changes in CO₂ and insolation. Furthermore, the temperature changes associated with Indian 394 Monsoon circulation are more pronounced at Lake Tana (~7°C) than at Sacred Lake (~3°C). 395 This would suggest that temperature changes in northeast Africa are more strongly influenced by 396 large changes in atmospheric circulation during the last deglaciation than locations to the south 397 and west.

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399 <u>3.2.2 Holocene</u>

Temperatures at Lake Tana gradually increase from 18.1°C at 13 ka to 21.9°C at 6.6 ka, gradually cool to 19.5°C at 2 ka, and then cool more rapidly to 16.7°C by the most recent sample at 0.4 ka (Fig. 6a). Broadly, the trends in Holocene temperature at Lake Tana are similar to other equatorial east African paleotemperature records, with highest reconstructed temperatures during the mid-Holocene and lowest reconstructed temperatures during the late Holocene (Fig. 5).

405 However, the timing of the mid Holocene thermal maximum differs among the different records, 406 with maxima near 9 ka at Lake Victoria (Berke et al., 2012a), near 7 ka at Lake Tana and Sacred 407 Lake (Loomis et al., 2012), and near 5 ka at Lakes Malawi (Powers et al., 2005) and Tanganyika 408 (Tierney et al., 2008). Peak mid-Holocene temperatures in Africa are not the result of 409 greenhouse gas radiative forcing, as CO₂ reaches a relative minimum during the mid-Holocene 410 (Indermuhle et al., 1999). The thermal maxima are also not a direct result of local insolation 411 forcing, as peak temperatures at Lake Tana and Sacred Lake lag maximum northern hemisphere 412 summer insolation by ~4 ky, while peak temperatures at Lakes Malawi and Tanganyika lead 413 peak southern hemisphere summer insolation by ~3 ky. Furthermore, east African temperature 414 variability during the Holocene does not vary systematically with changes in hydrology, as peak 415 temperatures at Lake Tana, Lake Tanganyika, and Lake Victoria occur during a transition from 416 wet to dry conditions (Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a; Costa et al., 2014), while peak 417 temperatures at Lake Malawi (Powers et al., 2005) occur during a transition from dry to wet 418 conditions (Castañeda et al., 2007). Finally, the relative abruptness of mid-Holocene thermal 419 maxima varies between different locations: Lakes Tanganyika and Malawi record temperature 420 increases of 2-3°C over 2 ky, while temperature maxima at Lake Tana and Sacred Lake are 421 reached through a gradual increase starting at the beginning of the Holocene. Thus, despite the 422 prevalence of warmer mid-Holocene conditions at these sites, the differences in timing, relative 423 abruptness, and hydrological linkages indicate that mid-Holocene thermal maxima at different 424 east African locations are likely driven by different mechanisms.

The broad Holocene warming and cooling trend at Lake Tana is interrupted by a 3°C temperature oscillation over 1.5 ky centered at 7.4 ka. While this oscillation could be associated with the 8.2 cooling event identified in the Greenland ice cores (Alley et al., 1997), the event we

428 observe is outside of age model error of 8.2 ka ($\sigma = 0.37$ ky at this time) and appears to have 429 been much longer-lived than the 8.2 ka event observed in Greenland. This cold oscillation is not 430 apparent in either continental (Fig. 6) or marine (Figs. 5, 7) temperature records from the region, 431 but the onset does align with an abrupt leaf wax δD enrichment (Costa et al., 2014; Fig. 4b) and a 432 decrease in Ti (Marshall et al., 2011; Fig. 4c), indicating a concomitant drought. In this context, 433 the Ti record from Lake Tana shows that precipitation gradually decreased after 7 ka (Marshall 434 et al., 2011; Fig. 4c), potentially suggesting that the gradual cooling we observe from 7 ka 435 through the late Holocene is linked to regional hydrological change. Although the mechanisms 436 linking temperature and precipitation at Lake Tana are not known, it is possible that reductions in 437 cloud cover and atmospheric humidity stimulated long-wave and latent heat losses, thereby 438 cooling Lake Tana during drier intervals. In any case, our data suggest that the hydrological and 439 thermal histories of northeastern Africa are more intimately linked than hydrological and 440 temperature histories in equatorial and southern Africa. Such a link is plausible, given the 441 strongly monsoonal nature of precipitation in northeastern Africa.

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443

444 **4.** Conclusions

We present the first quantitative paleotemperature record from northern Africa using the brGDGT lacustrine paleothermometer to investigate the controls on temperature variability in the northern tropics over the past 15 ka. We find that the thermal history of northeast Africa is distinct from the equatorial and southern tropics, and is instead largely tied to variations in the strength of the monsoons and regional hydrology. The Bølling Oscillation induced a large warming at Lake Tana, which is evident in temperature records from the Red Sea (Arz et al., 451 2003) and eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010) but is not seen in equatorial and 452 southeast African paleotemperature records. After this oscillation, temperatures warmed near 14 453 ka, likely due to large-scale reorganization of wind patterns associated with a weakening of the 454 Indian Winter Monsoon and a strengthening of the Indian Summer Monsoon, which greatly 455 diminished the transport of cold, dry air masses from the Tibetan Plateau. Finally, like other east 456 African paleotemperature locations (Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a; 457 Loomis et al., 2012), Lake Tana experienced a mid-Holocene thermal maximum. However, 458 existing data suggest discrepancies in the timing and magnitude of the mid-Holocene 459 temperature maximum in different regions of Africa, suggesting this warming arises from 460 diverse causes. Cooling near 7.4 ka, and gradual cooling from the mid-Holocene to present, 461 occur in association with drier conditions, suggesting that, unlike equatorial and southeast 462 Africa, the thermal history of northeast Africa is more directly linked to changes in regional 463 hydrology. Finally, the magnitude of temperature change is larger at Lake Tana compared to 464 other east African locations, potentially due to an amplification of warming at higher latitudes. 465

466

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745 Figure	es
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747	Figure 1: Map of average surface winds and air temperatures at 850 mb. a) June, July, and	
748	August (JJA), b) December, January, and February (DJF). White dot (1) marks the location of	
749	Lake Tana core 03TL3 (this study, Marshall et al., 2011, and Costa et al., 2014), and gray boxes	
750	mark the locations of other paleoclimate records mentioned in the text. 2: Sacred Lake, (Loomis	
751	et al., 2012); 3: Lake Victoria (Berke et al., 2012a); 4: Lake Tanganyika (Tierney et al., 2008); 5:	
752	Lake Malawi (Powers et al., 2005); 6: Red Sea, GeoB 5844-2 (Arz et al., 2003); 7: Eastern	
753	Mediterranean, GeoB 7702-3 (Castañeda et al., 2010); 8: Arabian Sea, 905P (Zonneveld et al.,	
754	1997); 9: Arabian Sea, 74KL (Huguet et al., 2006); 10: Arabian Sea, ODP 723A (Naidu and	
755	Malmgren, 1996, 2005).	
756		
757	Figure 2: Structures of GDGTs discussed in the text, including the isoprenoidal crenarchaeol	
758	(cren) and the brGDGTs (IIIa-Ic).	

759

Figure 3: GDGT records from Lake Tana core 03TL3. a) Reconstructed mean annual air temperature (MAAT). Black circles are samples with BIT values ≥ 0.5 , open circles are samples with BIT values < 0.5. Bootstrapped 1 σ errors on reconstructed temperatures are indicated by the gray lines. b) BIT record. Black triangles along the x-axis mark the depths of age control points (Marshall et al., 2011). Background is shaded to represent the different lithological units (Lamb et al., 2007) described in the text: medium gray for Unit 1 (dark gray silt; organic matter = 9-22%), light gray for Unit 2 (dark brown herbaceous peat; organic matter = 30-70%), dark gray for Unit 3 (calcareous silt; deposition conductivity = 3500μ S/cm), and white for Unit 4 (uniform fine gray diatomaceous silt; low organic matter and magnetic susceptibility).

769

Figure 4: Temperature and precipitation records from Lake Tana core 03TL3. a) Mean annual

air temperature (MAAT; this study), b) δD of leaf waxes (Costa et al., 2014), c) low pass filter of
Ti counts (Marshall et al., 2011).

773

Figure 5: Comparison of North African temperature records with the Greenland ice core record.

a) δ^{18} O of the NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004), b) Eastern

776 Mediterranean sea surface temperature (SST; Castañeda et al., 2010), c) Red Sea SST (Arz et al.,

2003), and d) Lake Tana mean annual air temperature (MAAT; this study). Gray shading marks
the Bølling Oscillation as defined by the NGRIP ice core.

779

Figure 6: Comparison of continental East African paleotemperature records. a) Mean annual air
temperature (MAAT) at Lake Tana (12.0°N; this study), b) MAAT at Sacred Lake (0°N; Loomis
et al., 2012), c) lake surface temperature (LST) at Lake Victoria (1°S; Berke et al., 2012a), d)

LST at Lake Tanganyika (7°S; Tierney et al., 2008), and e) LST at Lake Malawi (10°S; Powers et
al., 2005).

785

Figure 7: Comparison of paleoclimate records influenced by the Indian Monsoon. Strength of
upwelling in the western Arabian Sea measured by a) the relative abundance of dinoflaggelate
species with highest relative abundance during the Indian Summer Monsoon at 905P (Zonneveld
et al., 1997) and b) the relative abundance of G. bulloides at ODP 723A (Naidu and Malmgren,

- 1996); sea surface temperature (SST) in the western Arabian Sea reconstructed using c) the
- 791 TEX₈₆ proxy at 74KL (Huguet et al., 2006) and d) foraminifera at ODP 723A (Naidu and
- Malmgren, 2005); e) mean annual air temperature (MAAT) at Lake Tana (this study). ¹⁴C ages
- from 905P were converted to calendar years using the Marine13 radiocarbon curve (Reimer et
- al., 2013), and the new age model was constructed using Bacon 2.2 (Blaauw et al., 2007).

1	Northeast African temperature variability since the Late Pleistocene	
2		
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18 Abstract

19	The development and application of lacustrine paleotemperature proxies based
20	$\frac{1}{100}$ on microbial membrane lipid structures, including the TEX ₈₆ and branched glycerol
21	dialkyl glycerol tetraether (brGDGT) paleothermometers, have greatly advanced our
22	understanding of the deglacial late-glacial and postglacial temperature history of Africa,
23	but current. However, the currently available records are limited to from equatorial and
24	southern hemisphere sites-, limiting our understanding of the spatial patterns of
25	temperature change. Here we use the brGDGT paleotemperature proxy to reconstruct
26	Late Pleistocene and Holocene temperatures from Lake Tana, Ethiopia (12°N, 37°E).
27	Following the termination of Heinrich EventStadial 1 at ~15 ka, Lake Tana experienced a
28	3.7°C oscillation over 1.2 ky. Temperatures then increased abruptly by nearly 7°C deg
29	between 13.8 and 13.0 ka, followed by a slow warming trend that peaked during the mid
30	Holocene. Temperatures subsequently cooled from ~ 6 ka to ~ 0.4 ka. These data indicate
31	that temperature at Lake Tana is highly was sensitive to global climate changes caused by
32	variations in the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation induring the Late
33	Pleistocene, as well as to regional elimatehydroclimatic changes caused by hydrologic
34	variability and reorganizationand reorganizations of the monsoons. ThisOur record
35	suggests that delate-glacial temperature changes in northeast Africa were strongly
36	tiedlinked to high-latitude northern hemispheric glacial climate processes, but following
37	deglaciation, temperature variability was strongly-that subsequent post-glacial
38	temperature variations were strongly influenced by tropical hydrology.
39	
40	<i>Keywords:</i> tropical paleoclimate. Easteast Africa. GDGT. paleotemperature. Holocene. Lake

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44	1. Introduction
45	Quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions are crucial to test the output from for testing
46	global climate models and for understanding the amplitudedrivers of and mechanisms that cause
47	past and future climate change (Schmittner et al., 2011; Shakun et al., 2012). Despite the
48	importance of tropical temperatures in driving atmospheric convection, continental
49	paleotemperature reconstructions in from the tropics are very limited. This is largely due to
50	difficulties in reconstructing tropical continental temperatures using conventional proxies, such
51	as tree rings (e.g. Gebrekirstos et al., 2009) and), pollen (e.g. Coetzee, 1967), and stable isotopes
52	(e.g. Thompson et al., 2002). In recent years, the development of glycerol dialkyl glycerol
53	tetraether (GDGT) paleothermometry has greatly enhanced our ability to reconstruct terrestrial
54	tropical paleotemperatures.temperatures and the thermal history of Africa in particular. The
55	TEX ₈₆ proxy (TetraEther indeX of tetraethers with 86 carbon atoms; Schouten et al., 2002),
56	based on the relative abundances of isoprenoidal GDGTs produced by mesophilic archaea, has
57	been used to reconstruct past temperature in Lakes Malawi (Powers et al., 2005; Woltering et al.,
58	2011), Tanganyika (Tierney et al., 2008), Turkana (Berke et al., 2012b), Victoria (Berke et al.,
59	2012a), and Albert (Berke et al., 2014). However, TEX_{86} is only applicable in some large lakes
60	(Powers et al., 2010), limiting its ability as a widespread terrestrial paleotemperature proxy.
61	The relative abundances of branchedBranched GDGTs (brGDGTs)
62	by heterotrophic acidobacteria (Weijers et al., 2006, 2010; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011, in
63	press) -2014) and their relative abundances are also temperature dependent (Weijers et al.,
64	2007a) and). brGDGTs are much more abundant than isoprenoidal GDGTs in sediments from
65	smaller lakes (e.g. Tierney and Russell, 2009; Powers et al., 2010; Loomis et al., 2011).
66	BrGDGTs2014a), and they have been used to reconstruct paleotemperatures using lake

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67	sediments at both-temperate (Fawcett et al., 2011; Niemann et al., 2012), subtropical (Woltering	
68	et al., 2014), and tropical (Loomis et al., 2012) latitudes.	
69	_GDGT-based temperature records from equatorial East Africa have begun to illuminate	
70	the region's thermal history and generally exhibit coherent trends and amplitudes of change on	
71	orbital timescales. ComparedFor instance, these records suggest that, compared to present_	
72	industrial period, temperatures were 3-5°C cooler at the last glacial maximum (LGM; Powers et	
73	al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Loomis et al., 2012) and between 1 and 3 degrees warmer during	
74	the mid-Holocene, ca. 7-5 ka (Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012b;	
75	Loomis et al., 2012)), similar to findings from TEX ₈₆ reconstructions from the region's large	
76	lakes.	
77	Thus far, all of the published paleotemperature records from eastern Africa are either	
78	from equatorial regions or from the southern hemisphere, hindering our understanding of inter-	
79	hemispheric temperature variability on longer timescales. In order to better understand the	
80	climatic controls on northeastern African temperature variability and cross-equatorial spatial	
81	gradients from the late Pleistocene through the Holocene, we have reconstructed	
82	paleotemperatures from Lake Tana, Ethiopia, using the brGDGT paleotemperature proxy.	
83		
84		
85	2. Materials and Methods	
86	2.1 Site Information	
87	Lake Tana (12.0°N, 37.25° <u>3°</u> E; 1830 m elevation; Fig. 1) is a large (3156 km ²) but	
88	shallow (maximum depth = 14 m, mean depth = 9 m) freshwater lake located on the basaltic	
89	plateau of northeastern Ethiopia. It is a slightly alkaline ($pH = 8$), oligo-mesotrophic lake (Wood	

90	and Talling, 1988) with weak seasonal stratification (Wood and Talling, 1988). Lake Tana has
91	four major inflows , which that contribute >95% of the riverine input, and one outflow, the Blue
92	Nile (Lamb et al., 2007).
93	Mean annual air temperature at Lake Tana is 18.8°C, and total annual precipitation is
94	1450 mm. Temperature (Kebede et al., 2006). Atmospheric temperature seasonality at Lake
95	Tana is <u>relatively</u> weak, with monthly temperatures ranging from 16.3°C in December to 21.3°C
96	in May- <u>(Kebede et al., 2006).</u> Precipitation seasonality, however, is extreme at Lake Tana due
97	to its position near the northern limit of the annual migration of the Intertropical Convergence
98	Zone (ITCZ), with monthly average rainfall ranging from 2 mm in February to 430 mm in July-
99	(Kebede et al., 2006). Wind direction also varies seasonally, with southerly flow during boreal
100	summer and northeasterly flow during boreal winter, due to the east African and Indian
101	monsoons <u>- (Wondie et al., 2007).</u>
102	Mean surface water temperature at Lake Tana is 22.9 ± 0.7 °C, and water temperature
103	does not correlate with increased runoff or primary productivity (Wondie et al., 2007). The large
104	surface area of the lake relative to its depth, combined with diurnal atmospheric temperature
105	variations and wind strength inhibit the development of a thermocline in the lake, resulting in
106	minimal seasonal stratification (Wood and Talling, 1988; Wondie et al., 2007). Given the local
107	climate and surface water temperature measurements, hydrodynamic modeling predicts that
108	bottom water temperatures at the deepest point (14 m) are ~1°C colder than surface water
109	temperatures (Dargahi and Setegn, 2011).
110	

111 2.2 Core collection, sedimentology, and chronology

112	In October 2003, a 10.3 m lake-sediment core (03TL3) was recovered from 13.88 m
113	water depth near the center of the lake using a Livingstone piston corer. This core has four
114	distinct lithological units (Lamb et al., 2007). Unit 1 (1030-1000 cm) is a dark gray silt with an
115	organic matter content of 9-22%, and is overlain by Unit 2 (1000-955 cm) is), a dark brown
116	herbaceous peat with an organic matter content of 30-70%. Unit 3 (955-937) has sharp upper
117	and lower contacts, is comprised of slightly calcareous silt and organics, and diatom evidence
118	suggests that it was likely deposited in waters with higher conductivity (3500 µS/cm) (Lamb et
119	al., 2007). Unit 4 (937-0 cm) is a uniform fine gray diatomaceous silt, containing lower organic
120	matter and higher magnetic susceptibility than Units 1-3. Core chronology is derived from mixed
121	effect regression (Heegaard et al., 2005) on 1719 radiocarbon ages (Marshall et al., 2011).
122	Errors (1 σ) on the age model range from 120 years over the top 200 cm of the core to 500 years
123	at the base of Unit 4.
124	
125	2.3 Sample preparation and GDGT analysis
126	Core2 cm-thick subsamples were collected from core 03TL3 was subsampled every 15
127	cm (~235 yr) and subsamples were transported to Brown University for preparation and analysis.
128	Sample preparation followed that of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried
128 129	Sample preparation followed that of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried then homogenized with a mortar and pestle. Lipids were extracted using a Dionex 350
128 129 130	Sample preparation followed that of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried then homogenized with a mortar and pestle. Lipids were extracted using a Dionex 350 Accelerated Solvent Extractor (ASE) using 9:1 dicloromethane (DCM): methanol (MeOH).
128 129 130 131	Sample preparation followed that of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried then homogenized with a mortar and pestle. Lipids were extracted using a Dionex 350 Accelerated Solvent Extractor (ASE) using 9:1 dicloromethane (DCM): methanol (MeOH). Extracts were separated into non-polar and polar fractions with an Al ₂ O ₃ column using 9:1
 128 129 130 131 132 	Sample preparation followed that of Loomis et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were freeze-dried then homogenized with a mortar and pestle. Lipids were extracted using a Dionex 350 Accelerated Solvent Extractor (ASE) using 9:1 dicloromethane (DCM): methanol (MeOH). Extracts were separated into non-polar and polar fractions with an Al ₂ O ₃ column using 9:1 hexane:DCM and 1:1 DCM:MeOH, respectively, as eluents. The polar fractions were filtered

134	chromatography/atmospheric pressure chemical ionization-mass spectrometry (HPLC/ACPI-	
135	MS).	
136	To explore potential changes in microbial ecology through time, we quantified the	
137	relative abundance of branched to isoprenoidal tetraethers (BIT; Hopmans et al., 2004) using the	
138	following equation:	
139	BIT = (Ia + IIa + IIIa)/(Ia + IIa + IIIa + cren) (1)	
140	where the Roman numerals refer to structures in Figure 2. Mean annual air temperatures	
141	(MAAT) werewas reconstructed using the East African stepwise forward selection (SFS)	
142	calibration:	
143	MAAT = 22.7 - 33.58*IIIa - 12.88*IIa - 418.53*IIc + 86.43*Ib (2)	
144	of Loomis et al. (2012).	
145		
146		
147	Analytical error was quantified by running 10% of samples in duplicate, and	
148	reconstructed MAAT error was determined through bootstrapping the reconstruction with the	
149	East African lakes calibration data (Loomis et al., 2012). Duplicate samples show an average	
150	analytical BIT error of 0.0009, while the average analytical reconstructed MAAT error is 0.08°C.	
151	Bootstrapped MAAT error on individual samples ranges from 0.2-1.3-°C, with an average of	Formatted: Font: Not Bold
152	<u>0.9°C (Fig 3a).</u>	
153		
154		
155	3. Results/and_Discussion	
156	3.1 Production and Distributional Variations in distribution of GDGTs in Lake Tana	

157	Both branched and isoprenoidal GDGTs were detected in all samples examined from	
158	Lake Tana core 03TL3. BIT values average 0.71 , and range from 0.29 to 1.00 (mean = 0.71,	
159	standard deviation = 0.15 ; Fig. 3b), with the highest values located in the silts and peats that	
160	comprise Units 1-3 at the base of the core (BIT = $0.96-1.00$). BIT values remain relatively	
161	constant from the base of Unit 4 to \sim 300 cm depth (mean = 0.75, standard deviation = 0.11), but	
162	become more variable (standard deviation = 0.17) and have a lower mean (0.55) than the rest of	
163	the unit above 300 cm.	
164	BrGDGT reconstructed temperatures range from 11.2-to_21.9°C (Fig. 3a). Reconstructed	
165	temperatures are lowest below 800 cm, shift to higher temperatures between 800 and 775 cm,	
166	and peak near 500 cm. This trend is interrupted by large negative reconstructed temperature	
167	excursions in samples with BIT < 0.5 (133-59 cm). This The relationship between BIT and	
168	reconstructed temperatures could suggest that the environmental conditions and/or ecological	
169	changes associated with increased isoprenoidal GDGTs relative to brGDGTs may affectaffects	
170	the relative abundances of brGDGTs- <u>and</u> thereby affecting reconstructed temperatures. Before	
171	making paleoclimatic interpretations of the Lake Tana brGDGT temperature record, it is	
172	important to understand the environmental controls on the production of brGDGTs and their	
173	depositional history.	
174		
175	3.1.1 Influence of paleolimnology and sediment lithology on brGDGT distributions	
176	BrGDGTs have been detected in peat (e.g. Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2000), soil (e.g.	[I
177	Weijers et al., 2007a), lake sediments (e.g. Tierney et al., 2010), and marine sediments (e.g.	5
178	Weijers et al., 2007b). Lacustrine brGDGTs were originally thought to be derived solely from	t
179	soil runoff, but numerous studies have found that the concentrations and distributions of	

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180	brGDGTs in lake sediments are different from surrounding soils (e.g. Although some studies		
181	have concluded that brGDGTs in particular lakes are derived from soil runoff (Niemann et al.,		
182	2012; Woltering et al., 2014), the majority of studies (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2009; Tierney		
183	and Russell, 2009; Loomis et al., 2011), indicating that lacustrine brGDGTs are largely derived		
184	from an in situ source that has a different temperature response than soil-derived brGDGT		
185	producers., 2014b; Tierney et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Buckles et al., 2014a,b) – including		
186	all of those that have been performed in the tropics - have found that the concentrations and		
187	distributions of brGDGTs in lake sediments are substantially different from surrounding soils,		
188	indicating that in most lacustrine environments, brGDGTs are predominantly derived from in		
189	situ production. The differences in brGDGT distributions in lake sediments and surrounding		
190	soils can result in offsets in differences between reconstructed temperatures in soils and adjacent		
191	lake sediments; for instance, offsets of up to 10°C are commonly observed between soils and		
192	lake sediment in East Africa, for instance (Tierney et al., 2010; Loomis et al., 2012). Thus,	Formatted: Border: : (No border)	_
193	drastie changes in catchment hydrology, soil erosion, and lake sedimentation - such as large	Formatted: Border: : (No border)	
194	variations in the inputs of soil-derived organic matter - have the potential to affect reconstructed	Formatted: Border: : (No border)	_
195	temperatures from brGDGTs. While the reason for these differences between brGDGTs in lakes		
196	and soils is still unknown, it is possible that it is related to changes in water or gas saturation of in		
197	the production-environment (Loomis et al., 2011) and/or differences in the microbial ecology		
198	between lake and soil environments (Loomis et al., 2014 <u>a</u>).	Formatted: Border: : (No border)	_
199	The basal units of core 03TL3 include organic-rich silts, peats, and calcareous muds that		
200	could signal varying sources of brGDGTs to these sediments, including not only soil vs.		
201	lacustrine production, but also in situ production of brGDGTs in peat. A greenhouse experiment		
202	carried out on peat bogs has demonstrated that brGDGT distributions in surface peat layers		

203	change in response to variations in mean air temperature (Huguet et al., 2013). However, there is	
204	also good evidence of <i>in situ</i> production of brGDGTs within deeper peat layers (Weijers et al.,	Formatte
205	2009; Peterse et al., 2011), which may potentially alter the brGDGT distributions that were	
206	present when these sections were exposed and responding to surface air temperatures, thereby	
207	biasing the temperature signal. Unfortunately, widespread calibration studies have yet to be	
208	carried out on peat, inhibiting our understanding of the temperature/brGDGT relationship in peat	
209	samples. To examine the potential for varying brGDGT sources to affect reconstructed	
210	temperatures in the Lake Tana core, we compared the fractional abundances of brGDGTs from	
211	Units 1-3 to Unit 4 using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing. We find that the	
212	fractional abundances of brGDGTs with zero (IIIa, IIa, and Ia) and one cyclopentyl rings (IIIb,	
213	IIb, Ib) are significantly different (p ≤ 0.002) between these stratigraphic units. As several of	
214	these compounds are important to our temperature calibration, and in light of the possibility of	
215	changing microbial sources of brGDGTs in the variable depositional environments represented	
216	by these units, we limit our temperature interpretation of reconstructed temperatures in this core	
217	to Unit 4 (937-0 cm).	
218	In addition to brGDGT variations associated with these lithological changes, we note that	
219	several samples with low BIT values have large negative temperature changes. While the	
220	lithology and percent organic matter $(9.5 \pm 1.1\%)$ remain fairly constant throughout Unit 4	
221	(Marshall et al., 2011), the Ti record shows substantial variability, including an abrupt increase	
222	in Ti concentrations at 700 cm (~12 ka), a negative Ti oscillation between 515 and 575 cm (~7-	
223	8.5 ka), and a decrease in Ti concentrations at 400 cm (~4.5 ka) (Fig. 4c). These large changes in	
224	Ti concentration indicate variations in soil runoff (Marshall et al., 2011), which has the potential	
225	to change the relative proportions of allochthonous vs. autochthonous brGDGTs in the lake	

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226	sediments. However, the large and abrupt shifts in Ti concentrations at 700 cm (12 ka) and 400
227	cm (4.5 ka) do not correspond to large changes in reconstructed temperature (Fig. 4a), indicating
228	that the effects of changing delivery of soil-derived brGDGTs from the catchment on our
229	temperature reconstruction is limited. The negative Ti oscillation between 515 and 575 (7-8.5
230	ka), however, is contemporaneous with a negative temperature oscillation (Fig. 4), and thus, we
231	cannot rule out a changing brGDGT source during this interval. In spite of this, we believe that
232	these oscillations are a result of climate variability (see section 3.2.2) rather than a change in
233	runoff, as other large Ti changes are not correlated with temperature variability.
234	Variations in water depth also have the potential to alter brGDGT reconstructed MAAT
235	due to variations in integrated water column temperatures (Loomis et al., 2014b), which could
236	greatly affect lakes that have large differences between epi- and hypolimnetic temperatures.
237	Marginal seismic reflectors are also present at Lake Tana during the periods of lowest Ti (just
238	below 700 cm, 525 and 550 cm, and 400 cm; Marshall et al., 2011), indicating relative lake
239	lowstands during these periods of decreased precipitation. However, given that Lake Tana water
240	<u>column temperatures show \leq 1°C variability between the surface and the bottom (Dargahi and</u>
241	Setegn, 2011), it is unlikely that changes in the water depth of Lake Tana had a significant
242	impact on brGDGT distributions.
243	
244	3.1.2 Influence of changing microbial ecology on brGDGT distributions
245	In addition to brGDGT variations associated with lithological changes, we note that
246	several samples with low BIT values have much lower reconstructed MAAT values than
247	adjacent samples with a high BIT value. The BIT index was initially proposed as a proxy for
248	terrestrial organic matter inputs to marine environments (Hopmans et al., 2004), with higher BIT

249	values (higher relative abundances of brGDGTs) indicating a larger input of soil-derived organic
250	matter relative to aquatically produced organic matter-, represented by the relative abundance of
251	crenarchaeol (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002). As soil-derived brGDGTs have a different
252	empirical temperature relationship than lacustrine brGDGTs (Tierney et al., 2010; Pearson et al.,
253	2011; Sun et al., 2011; Loomis et al., 2012), large changes in soil-derived organic matter, as
254	defined by the BIT index, have the potential to affect reconstructed temperatures. However,
255	there is strong evidence that brGDGTs in tropical lake sediments are largely derived from
256	production within the lake itself (e.g. Tierney and Russell, 2009; Tierney et al., 2010; Loomis et
257	al., 2011; Buckles et al., 2014b), so BIT values likely record changes in the microbial ecology of
258	lakes, rather than allochthonous vs. autochthonous sources of organic matter in lacustrine
259	environments. Thus, we do not think believe that the negative temperature excursions associated
260	with low BIT values are a result of changes soil-derived organic matter. Rather; rather, we
261	suggest that the temperature changes in samples with low BIT are tied to changes in the
262	production of brGDGTs and crenarchaeol in the lake itself.
263	BrGDGTs are likely produced by heterotrophic acidobacteria (Weijers et al., 2006, 2010;
264	Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011, in press2014), and there is empirical evidence to suggest that
265	brGDGT production increases in deeper, less oxic lake waters (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2009;
266	Bechtel et al., 2010; Woltering et al., 2012; Loomis, 2013; Buckles et al., 2014b; Loomis et al.,
267	2014b). Crenarchaeol is produced by an ammonia-oxidizing archaea (Francis et al., 2005), and
268	in lakes, peak production of ammonia-oxidizing archaea takes place near the oxycline (Pouliot et
269	al., 2009; Llirós et al., 2010; Buckles et al., 2013). It seems unlikely that these competitive
270	interactions between these two groups could cause changes in the depth of brGDGT production;
271	however, such changes could affect reconstructed temperatures at higher latitudes with large

272	hypo-limnetic/epilimnetic temperature gradients. In contrast, water temperature gradients within
273	Easteast African lakes are minimal (<2°C; Loomis et al., 20142014a and references therein), and
274	thus, variations in production depth are not the cause of these large temperature excursions.
275	While the mechanisms linking low BIT to negative temperature anomalies is unknown,
276	we suggest that they it likely involves changes in the microbial flora that produce brGDGTs.
277	BIT values in Lake Tana surface sediments are relatively high, indicating relatively low
278	production of the crenarchaeol-producing ammonia-oxidizing archaea. Presently, wind speeds at
279	Lake Tana cause nearly constant mixing (Wondie et al., 2007) resulting in only weak seasonal
280	stratification (Wood and Talling, 1988), thereby inhibiting the formation of an oxycline, which
281	would likely suppress the growth of ammonia-oxidizing archaea. It is possible that in the past,
282	changes in wind speed and/or nitrogen cycling in the lake increased production of crenarchaeol,
283	thereby decreasing BIT values. Moreover, there is evidence of human disturbance in the Lake
284	Tana catchment starting near 1.7 ka (177 cm depth; Marshall et al., 2011), which has the
285	potentialcapability to alter the nitrogen cycle of the lake (Russell et al., 2009), potentially
286	increasing crenarchaeol production as well. Changes in water column oxygenation and nutrient
287	concentrations alone are likely not the direct cause of the negative temperature excursions, as
288	nutrient and oxygen concentrations do not significantly control brGDGT distributions in East
289	African lakes (Loomis et al., 2014 <u>a</u>). However, it is possible that these changes affect the
290	microbial ecology of the lake, including both the changes in bacterial vs. archaeal populations
291	signified by BIT, as well as the populations of brGDGT-producing bacteria, thereby altering the
292	distributions of brGDGTs deposited in the lake sediments.
293	Interestingly, At Lake Tana, it appears that brGDGT reconstructed temperatures begin

294 tostrongly deviate from observed the reconstructed temperatures of adjacent samples when BIT <

295	$\frac{0.5}{0.5}$, while are less than 0.5 (Fig. 3). Interestingly, TEX ₈₆ reconstructed temperatures in global
296	lakes do not accurately record observed temperatures when BIT > 0.5 (Powers et al., 2010).
297	Moreover,), and reconstructed temperatures from surface sediments in East African rift lakes are
298	on average 10°C lower than observed temperatures, which also have low BIT values (mean =
299	0.35; Loomis et al., 2014 <u>a</u>). These data could suggest that the shift in microbial ecology
300	nearwhen archaeal and bacterial GDGTs are produced at similar rates (theoretical BIT -= 0.5-) is
301	a critical threshold when applying GDGT-based paleotemperature proxies. However, without
302	knowing which organisms produce brGDGTs; however, the exact threshold should be applied
303	cautiously given that a wide range of BIT values can be obtained for the same sample run in
304	different laboratories (Schouten et al., 2013). Furthermore, given the limited number of lakes
305	with low BIT in the global lacustrine TEX ₈₆ dataset (Powers et al., 2010) and the fact that the
306	source organism(s) for brGDGTs are yet unknown, it is difficult to ascertain the reason for
307	reconstructed temperature offsets in samples with low BIT, either in modern or in ancient
308	sediments.
309	Regardless of the mechanism, large changes in BIT do suggest the potential for biases to
310	the brGDGT paleotemperature reconstruction related to changing brGDGT sources. Thus, we
311	will focus our paleoclimatic interpretation of the Lake Tana temperature record only on samples
312	with BIT ≥ 0.5 .
313	
314	3.2 Temperature variability in Northeast Africa from 15 ka to present
315	Widespread drought in the Afro-Asian monsoon region during Heinrich EventStadial 1

316 (H1; e.g. Stager et al., 2011 and references therein) led to desiccation of Lake Tana (Lamb et al.,
317 2007; Marshall et al., 2011). Flooding at 15.2 ka returned Lake Tana to a lacustrine environment

318	(Fig. 4d4a), and our brGDGT data indicate reconstructed temperatures of 12.1°C at this time.
319	Between 15 ka and 13.8 ka, Lake Tana experienced a 3.7°C oscillation, followed by a rapid
320	temperature increase of ~7°C in 0.8 ky, resulting in temperatures of 18.1°C at 13 ka.
321	Temperatures then gradually increased to a maximum of 21.9°C at 6.6 ka, followed by a gradual
322	cooling to 16.7°C in the most recent sample at 0.4 ka. This long-term warming and cooling trend
323	during the Holocene was interrupted by a -3°C temperature oscillation lasting ~1.5 ky and
324	centered at 7.4 ka. Below we discuss this record and its relation to Late Pleistocene and
325	Holocene climate changes on a global and regional scale.
326	
327	3.2.1 Late Pleistocene
328	Temperature variability at Lake Tana during the late Pleistocene is broadly consistent
329	with other records of temperature from around North Africa. At the termination of H1, Lake
330	Tana experienced a 3.7°C warming between 15.2 and 14.5 ka. Sea surface temperature (SST)
331	records from the Red Sea (Arz et al., 2003) and Eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010)
332	show an abrupt ~ 5°C warming between 15 ka and 14.5 ka as well (Fig. 4b <u>5b</u> -c). This warming
333	is consistent with the timing of the Bølling Oscillation recorded in Greenland ice cores (North
334	Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004; Fig. 4a5a), which was driven by the resumption of
335	Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) after H1 (McManus et al., 2004),
336	suggesting that abrupt warming observed in much of the northern hemisphere (Shakun et al.,
337	2012) was also felt in northern tropical Africa. In contrast, this abrupt warming is absent from
338	southern and equatorial African continental paleotemperature records (Fig. 56). This could
339	indicate a northern hemispheric temperature history at Lake Tana that is decoupled from that of
340	equatorial and southeastern Africa.

341	Temperatures in the eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010) and the Red Sea (Arz
342	et al., 2003) remain warm during the subsequent Allerød Oscillation, yet temperatures at Lake
343	Tana decrease to near H1 values at 13.8 ka (Fig. 5). These minimum temperatures are
344	concomitantcoincident with the Older Dryas cooling event identified between the Bølling and
345	Allerød warm periods. Although identification of the Older Dryas has mainly been limited to
346	North Atlantic and northern Eurasian paleoclimate records, contemporaneous climate events
347	have also been identified in the tropics, including decreased temperatures in the Cariaco basin
348	(Lea et al., 2003) and Lake Albert (Berke et al., 2014) as well as), decreased biogenic silica
349	production in Lake Tanganyika (Tierney and Russell, 2007), and increased primary productivity
350	in the Cariaco Basin (Hughen et al., 1996) in the Cariaco Basin.). Hughen et al. (1996) postulate
351	that increased primary productivity in the Cariaco Basin is driven by a strengthening of the trade
352	winds associated with North Atlantic cooling. While the resolution of our record is inadequate to
353	unequivocally link, while Tierney and Russell (2007) attribute the cooling observed at this time
354	to-decrease in biogenic silica production to a weakening of the Older Dryas event, this
355	mechanismsoutherly winds that drive upwelling in Tanganyika. The strengthening (weakening)
356	of northerly (southerly) winds may also explain temperature decreases at Lake Tana, as
357	strengthened northerly trade winds transport cool, dry air from the Tibetan Plateau over the
358	Arabian Sea and into northeast Africa.
359	Following the temperature minimum at 13.8 ka, temperatures at Lake Tana increased to
360	18.1°C by 13 ka and remained fairly stable (mean = 18.3 °C, standard deviation = 0.2 °C) into the
361	Holocene (Fig. <u>5a6a</u>). The abrupt temperature increase at 13.8 ka is contemporaneous with a 3°C
362	increase at Sacred Lake (Loomis et al., 2012; Fig. 5b), and occurs shortly after large and abrupt
363	warmings in Lakes Malawi and Victoria6b), but is not observed in other paleotemperature
	I

364	records from Easteast Africa (Powers et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a; Berke
365	et al., 2014; Fig. 6c-e). The abrupt (800 year) nature of this event indicates that changes in local
366	insolation are not likely to be the cause of the temperature increase. Greenhouse gas forcing is
367	also likely not the cause of this warming, as atmospheric CO ₂ concentrations varied little
368	between 13.8 and 13.0 ka (Monnin et al., 2001). The temperature increase at 13.8 ka, however,
369	is similar in timing to changes in the temperature and circulation of the Arabian Sea. SSTs off
370	the coast of Oman, recorded by foraminiferal assemblages (Naidu and Malmgren, 2005; Fig.
371	6e7d) and the TEX ₈₆ proxy (Huguet et al., 2006; Fig. 6d7c), increased rapidly starting at
372	aboutnear 14 ka. Foraminiferal assemblage data suggests this increase was mainly driven by
373	increases in winter SSTs (Naidu and Malmgren, 2005). Furthermore, there are large increases in
374	the fractional abundances of dinoflagellates that thrive under high nutrient conditions (Zonneveld
375	et al., 1997; Fig. 6a7a) along with the foraminifera Globigerina bulloides (Naidu and Malmgren,
376	1996; Fig. 6b7b), indicating enhanced upwelling at this time. Taken together, these Arabian Sea
377	data indicate an increase in the strength of the Indian Summer Monsoon and a decrease in the
378	intensity of the Indian Winter Monsoon (Naidu and Malmgren, 2005). We hypothesize that the
379	temperature increase at Lake Tana near 14 ka is associated with this shift in the-Indian Monsoon
380	circulation.
381	The Indian summer and winter monsoons are driven by differential heating/cooling of the
382	Asian continent compared to the ocean (Hastenrath, 1991). During northern hemisphere
383	summer, the Tibetan Plateau warms rapidly compared to the Indian Ocean, resulting in low
384	pressure over the continent, which drives southwesterly winds (Fig 1a) and generates the summer
385	monsoon. Conversely, during the winter months, the Tibetan Plateau cools compared to the
386	ocean, reversing the wind direction over the Arabian Sea to northeasterly (Fig 1b) and generating

387	the winter monsoon. Modern fluctuations in the strength of the monsoons are controlled, in part,
388	by Eurasian snow and ice cover (Hahn and Shukla, 1976; Vernekar et al., 1995). Continental
389	summer temperatures are lower after winters with large snowfall due to the increased albedo and
390	latent heat fluxes associated with snow melt and evaporation. These weaken the summer
391	monsoon, and result in anomalous northeastern winds and a weakening of the Somali Jet.
392	Fluctuations in the Somali Jet alter the transport of moist, warm air from the Congo Basin
393	to northeast Africa, affecting precipitation on the Ethiopian Plateau (Camberlin, 1997).
394	Paleoclimate modeling studies focused on this region show that increased ice cover over Eurasia
395	decreases temperatures and precipitation over Northeast Africa due to a strengthening of the
396	northeasterly winds (deMenocal and Rind, 1993; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2014). The onset of a
397	strong Indian summer monsoon at 14 ka would have weakened the easterly trade winds and
398	strengthened the southwesterly winds and the Somali Jet, transporting warm, moist air to the
399	Ethiopian Plateau.
400	Our hypothesis that large changes in Indian Monsoon circulation trigger changes in
401	temperature at Lake Tana is supported by a leaf wax hydrogen isotope record from Lake Tana
402	(Costa et al., 2014), which shows that the leaf waxes became more D-depleted concomitantly
403	with the rise in temperature (Fig. 7e). This depletion is likely a result of increased precipitation
404	triggered by a strengthening of the monsoon (Costa et al., 2014). The 4a-b). The temperature
405	increase and the initial onset of the leaf wax δD depletion after 13.8 ka lead increased runoff at
406	Lake Tana (Marshall et al., 2011; Fig. 4c) and in the Nile River catchment (Weldeab et al., 2014)
407	by ~2 ky, but peak leaf wax δD depletion is contemporaneous with peak local and regional
408	runoff. This would suggest that the temperature increase/\deltaD depletion starting at 13.8 ka was
409	caused by an incursion of warm, δD depleted air masses from the Congo Basin (Costa et al.,

410	2014) to the Ethiopian Plateau, which was subsequently followed by an increase in precipitation	
411	over ~2 ky, peaking during the early Holocene, causing additional depletion of the leaf wax	
412	isotopes through the amount effect.	
413	Interestingly, although temperatures at Lake Tana appear to be affected by AMOC-	
414	induced global climate events early in the deglacial process, including H1 and the Bølling	
415	Oscillation, there is no apparent cooling coincident with the Younger Dryas (YD, 12.8-11.5 ka;	
416	Fig. 5). This observation is again consistent with an incursion of Congo Basin air masses onto	
417	the Ethiopian Plateau starting at 14 ka, as the Congo Basin temperature record (Weijers et al.,	
418	2007b) does not show a temperature decrease associated with the YD.	
419	The linkage between Indian Monsoon circulation and temperature at Lake Tana and	Formatted: Indent: First line: 1.27
420	Sacred Lake (Loomis et al., 2012) contrasts with temperature records from central equatorial	(cm
421	Africa (Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a), where variability is more strongly tied to	
422	changes in CO ₂ and insolation. Furthermore, the temperature changes associated with Indian	
423	Monsoon circulation are more pronounced at Lake Tana (~7°C) than at Sacred Lake (~3°C).	
424	This would suggest that temperature changes in northeast Africa are more strongly influenced by	
425	large changes in atmospheric circulation during the last deglaciation than locations to the south	
426	and west.	
427		
428	3.2.2 Holocene	
429	Temperatures at Lake Tana gradually increase from 18.1°C at 13 ka to 21.9°C at 6.6 ka,	
430	gradually cool to 19.5°C at 2 ka, and then cool more rapidly to 16.7°C by the most recent sample	
431	at 0.4 ka-(Fig. 6a). Broadly, the trends in Holocene temperature at Lake Tana are similar to	
432	other equatorial Easteast African paleotemperature records, with highest reconstructed	

433	temperatures during the mid-Holocene and lowest reconstructed temperatures during the late
434	Holocene (Fig. 5). However, the timing of the mid Holocene thermal maximum differs
435	substantially among the different records, with maxima near 9 ka at Lake Victoria (Berke et al.,
436	2012a), near 7 ka at Lake Tana and Sacred Lake (Loomis et al., 2012), and near 5 ka at Lakes
437	Malawi (Powers et al., 2005) and Tanganyika (Tierney et al., 2008). Peak mid-Holocene
438	temperatures in Africa are not the result of greenhouse gas radiative forcing, as the timing at
439	different locations differs and CO ₂ reaches a relative minimaminimum during the mid-Holocene
440	(Indermuhle et al., 1999). The thermal maxima are also not a direct result of local insolation
441	forcing, as peak temperatures at Lake Tana and Sacred Lake lag maximum northern hemisphere
442	summer insolation by \sim 4 ky, while peak temperatures at Lakes Malawi and Tanganyika lead
443	peak southern hemisphere summer insolation by \sim 3 ky. Furthermore, Easteast African
444	temperature variability during the Holocene does not vary systematically with changes in
445	hydrology, as peak temperatures at Lake Tana, Lake Tanganyika, and Lake Victoria occur during
446	a transition from wet to dry conditions (Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a; Costa et al.,
447	2014), while peak temperatures at Lake Malawi (Powers et al., 2005) occur during a transition
448	from dry to wet conditions (Castañeda et al., 2007). Finally, the relative abruptness of mid-
449	Holocene thermal maxima varies between different locations; Lakes Tanganyika and Malawi
450	record temperature increases of 2-3°C over 2 ky, while temperature maxima at Lake Tana and
451	Sacred Lake are reached through a gradual increase starting at the beginning of the Holocene.
452	Thus, despite the prevalence of warmer mid-Holocene conditions at these sites, the differences in
453	timing, relative abruptness, and hydrological linkages indicate that mid-Holocene thermal
454	maxima at different East Africaeast African locations are likely driven by different mechanisms.

455	The broad Holocene warming and cooling trend at Lake Tana is interrupted by a 3°C
456	temperature oscillation over 1.5 ky centered at 7.4 ka. While this oscillation could be associated
457	with the 8.2 cooling event identified in the Greenland ice cores (Alley et al., 1997), the event we
458	observe is outside of age model error of 8.2 ka (σ = 0.37 ky at this time) and appears to have
459	been much longer-lived than the 8.2 ka event observed in Greenland. This cold oscillation is not
460	apparent in either continental (Fig. 56) or marine (Figs. 45 , 7) temperature records from the
461	region, but the onset does align with an abrupt <u>leaf wax </u> δD enrichment (Costa et al., 2014; Fig.
462	7e4b) and <u>a</u> decrease in Ti (Marshall et al., 2011; Fig. 7d4c), indicating a concomitant drought.
463	In this context, the Ti record from Lake Tana shows that precipitation gradually decreased after 7
464	ka (Marshall et al., 2011; Fig. 7d4c), potentially suggesting that the gradual cooling we observe
465	from 7 ka through the late Holocene is linked to regional hydrological change. Although the
466	mechanisms linking temperature and precipitation at Lake Tana are not known, it is possible that
467	reductions in cloud cover and atmospheric humidity stimulated long-wave and latent heat losses,
468	thereby cooling Lake Tana during drier intervals. In any case, our data suggest that the
469	hydrological and thermal histories of northeastern Africa are more intimately linked than
470	hydrological and temperature histories in equatorial and southern Africa. Such a link is
471	plausible, given the strongly monsoonal nature of precipitation in northeastnortheastern Africa.
472	
473	
474	4. Conclusions
475	We present the first quantitative paleotemperature record from North-northern Africa
476	using the brGDGT lacustrine paleothermometer to investigate the controls on temperature
477	variability in the northern tropics over the past 15 ka. We find that the thermal history of North

478	Eastnortheast Africa is distinct from the equatorial and southern tropics, and is instead largely
479	tied to variations in the strength of the monsoons and regional hydrology. The Bølling
480	Oscillation induced a large warming at Lake Tana, which is evident in temperature records from
481	the Red Sea (Arz et al., 2003) and eastern Mediterranean (Castañeda et al., 2010) but is not seen
482	in equatorial and southeast African paleotemperature records. After this oscillation,
483	temperatures warmed near 14 ka, likely due to large-scale reorganization of wind patterns
484	associated with a weakening of the Indian Winter Monsoon and a strengthening of the Indian
485	Summer Monsoon, which greatly diminished the transport of cold, dry air masses from the
486	Tibetan Plateau. Finally, like other Easteast African paleotemperature locations (Powers et al.,
487	2005; Tierney et al., 2008; Berke et al., 2012a; Loomis et al., 2012), Lake Tana experienced a
488	mid-Holocene thermal maximum. However, existing data suggest discrepancies in the timing
489	and magnitude of the mid-Holocene temperature maximum in different regions of Africa,
490	suggesting this warming arises from diverse causes. Cooling near 7.4 ka, and gradual cooling
491	from the mid-Holocene to present, occur in association with drier conditions, suggesting that,
492	unlike equatorial and southeast Africa, the thermal history of northeast Africa is more directly
493	linked to changes in regional hydrology. Finally, the magnitude of temperature change is larger
494	at Lake Tana compared to other Easteast African locations, potentially due to an amplification of
495	warming at higher latitudes.
496	

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788 Figures

790	Figure 1: Map of average surface winds and air temperatures at 850 mb-in_ a) June, July, and
791	August (JJA)-and), b) December, January, and February (DJF). White dot (1) marks the location
792	of Lake Tana core 03TL3 (this study, Marshall et al., 2011, and Costa et al., 2014), and gray
793	boxes mark the locations of other paleoclimate records mentioned in the text. 2: Sacred Lake,
794	SL1-(Loomis et al., 2012); 3: Lake Victoria (Berke et al., 2012a); 4: Lake Tanganyika (Tierney
795	et al., 2008); 5: Lake Malawi (Powers et al., 2005); 6: Red Sea, GeoB 5844-2 (Arz et al., 2003);
796	7: Eastern Mediterranean, GeoB 7702-3 (Castañeda et al., 2010); 8: Arabian Sea, 905P
797	(Zonneveld et al., 1997); 9: Arabian Sea, 74KL (Huguet et al., 2006); 910: Arabian Sea, ODP
798	723A (Naidu and Malmgren, 1996, 2005).

- 801 Figure 2: Structures of GDGTs discussed in the text, including the isoprenoidal crenarchaeol
- 802 (cren) and the brGDGTs (IIIa-Ic).

805	Figure 3: a) Reconstructed temperatures from Lake Tana. Figure 3: GDGT records from Lake
806	Tana core 03TL3. a) Reconstructed mean annual air temperature (MAAT). Black circles are
807	samples with BIT values ≥ 0.5 , open circles are samples with BIT values < 0.5 . Bootstrapped
808	<u>1σ errors on reconstructed temperatures are indicated by the gray lines.</u> b) BIT record from Lake
809	Tana. The background. Black triangles along the x-axis mark the depths of age control points
810	(Marshall et al., 2011). Background is shaded to represent the different lithological units (Lamb
811	et al., 2007) described in the text: medium gray for Unit 1 (dark gray silt; organic matter = 9-
812	22%), light gray for Unit 2 (dark brown herbaceous peat; organic matter = 30-70%), dark gray
813	for Unit 3 (calcareous silt; deposition conductivity = $3500 \ \mu$ S/cm), and white for Unit 4 (uniform
814	fine gray diatomaceous silt; low organic matter and magnetic susceptibility).
815	

817	Figure 4: Comparison of climate records with Northern Hemispheric forcing. Figure 4:
818	Temperature and precipitation records from Lake Tana core 03TL3. a) Mean annual air
819	temperature (MAAT; this study), b) δD of leaf waxes (Costa et al., 2014), c) low pass filter of Ti
820	counts (Marshall et al., 2011).
821	
822	Figure 5: Comparison of North African temperature records with the Greenland ice core record.
823	a) δ^{18} O of the NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004), b) Eastern
824	Mediterranean sea surface temperature (SST-(; Castañeda et al., 2010), c) Red Sea SST (Arz et
825	al., 2003), and d) Lake Tana mean annual air temperature (MAAT-(: this study). Gray shading
826	marks the Bølling Oscillation as defined by the NGRIP ice core.
827	
828	

- 829 *Figure <u>56</u>*: Comparison of continental East African paleotemperature records. a) <u>Mean annual air</u>
- 830 temperature (MAAT) at Lake Tana (12.0°N; this study), b) MAAT at Sacred Lake (0°N; Loomis
- et al., 2012), c) lake surface temperature (LST) at Lake Victoria (1°S; Berke et al., 2012a), d)
- LST at Lake Tanganyika (7°S; Tierney et al., 2008), and e) LST at Lake Malawi (10°S; Powers et
- 833 al., 2005).
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836	Figure 67: Comparison of paleoclimate records influenced by the Indian Monsoon. Strength of
837	upwelling in the western Arabian Sea measured by a) the relative abundance of dinoflaggelate
838	species with highest relative abundance during the Indian Summer Monsoon at 905P (Zonneveld
839	et al., 1997) and b) the relative abundance of G. bulloides at ODP 723A (Naidu and Malmgren,
840	1996),); sea surface temperature (SST) in the western Arabian Sea reconstructed using c) the
841	TEX_{86} proxy at 74KL (Huguet et al., 2006) and d) for aminifera at ODP 723A (Naidu and
842	Malmgren, 2005), and); e) mean annual air temperature (MAAT) at Lake Tana (this study). 14 C
843	ages from 905P were converted to calendar years using the Marine13 radiocarbon curve (Reimer
844	et al., 2013), and the new age model was constructed using Bacon 2.2 (Blaauw et al., 2007).
845	
846	

847	Figure 7: Comparison of temperature and precipitation records at Lake Tana with globally
848	averaged records of temperature change. a) Anomalies in northern hemisphere temperatures, b)
849	MAAT from Lake Tana (this study), c) bD from Lake Tana (Costa et al., 2014), d) low pass filter
850	of Ti record from Lake Tana (Marshall et al., 2011), and e) mean northern hemisphere minus
851	southern hemisphere temperature anomalies as a proxy for global mean position of the ITCZ
852	(after McGee et al., 2014). Data from (a) and (e) are derived from deglacial (dashed lines;
853	Shakun et al., 2012) and Holocene (solid lines; Marcott et al., 2013) global reconstructed
854	temperature stacks normalized to mid Holocene temperatures.
855	<u>۸</u>
- We present the first terrestrial temperature record from northern Africa (Lake Tana)
 Temperature change at Lake Tana is affected by changes in the Indian Monsoon
 Magnitude of temperature changes are larger than lower latitude sites in Africa

















Supplemental Material Click here to download Background dataset for online publication only: Loomis_2015_TanaSupp.xlsx