

1 **Modelling silicon supply during the Last Interglacial (MIS 5e) at Lake Baikal**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Throughout the Quaternary, lake productivity has been shown to be sensitive to drivers such as climate
15 change, landscape evolution and lake ontogeny. In particular, sediments from Lake Baikal, Siberia,
16 provide a valuable uninterrupted and continuous sequence of palaeoproductivity, which document
17 orbital and sub-orbital frequencies of regional climate change. Here we augment these records through
18 the application of silicon stable isotope analyses of diatom opal ($\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$), from sediments spanning
19 the Last Interglacial cycle (approximately equivalent to Marine Isotope Stage [MIS] 5e; c. 130 to 115
20 ka BP) as a means to test the hypothesis that diatom nutrient utilisation was greater, than during the
21 Holocene. Results show that diatom dissolved silicon (DSi) utilisation, was significantly greater
22 ($p=0.001$) during MIS 5e than the current interglacial, which reflects increased diatom productivity
23 over this time (concomitant with higher biogenic silica and warmer pollen-inferred vegetation
24 reconstructions). Diatom biovolume accumulation rates (BVAR) are used, in tandem with $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$
25 data, to model DSi supply to Lake Baikal surface waters. When constrained by sedimentary
26 mineralogical archives of catchment weathering indices (e.g. the Hydrolysis Index), data highlight the
27 small degree of weathering intensity and therefore representation that catchment-weathering DSi
28 sources had, over the duration of MIS 5e. Changes to DSi supply during the Last Interglacial are
29 attributed to variations in within-lake conditions (e.g. turbulent mixing) over the period, where periods

30 of both high productivity and modeled-DSi supply (e.g. strong convective mixing) account for the
31 decreasing trend in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions (after c. 124 ka BP).

32

33 **Key words**

34 Last Interglacial, Kazantsevo, diatoms, silicon isotopes, Siberia, palaeoproductivity

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36 **1. Introduction:**

37 Primary productivity is a key ecosystem function synthesizing organic matter, and in deep lakes
38 production is usually dominated by phytoplankton. Over long timescales, primary production is
39 controlled by a number of extrinsic drivers such as climate change, landscape evolution and lake
40 ontogeny, although species composition also has an important influence on productivity-diversity
41 relationships (e.g. Dodson et al., 2000). On Quaternary timescales palaeoproductivity may be estimated
42 using a number of different techniques, including palaeoecological (e.g. diatom analysis)
43 biogeochemical (e.g. biogenic silica or pigment analysis) and stable isotope approaches.
44 Palaeoproductivity records allow us to test key hypotheses related to climate variability, including
45 differences between interglacial periods, which may act as analogues to a future warming world. One
46 of the most studied interglacials is the Last Interglacial, as a possible analogue for a future, warmer
47 Earth (although in terms of orbital configuration, this comparison is imperfect).

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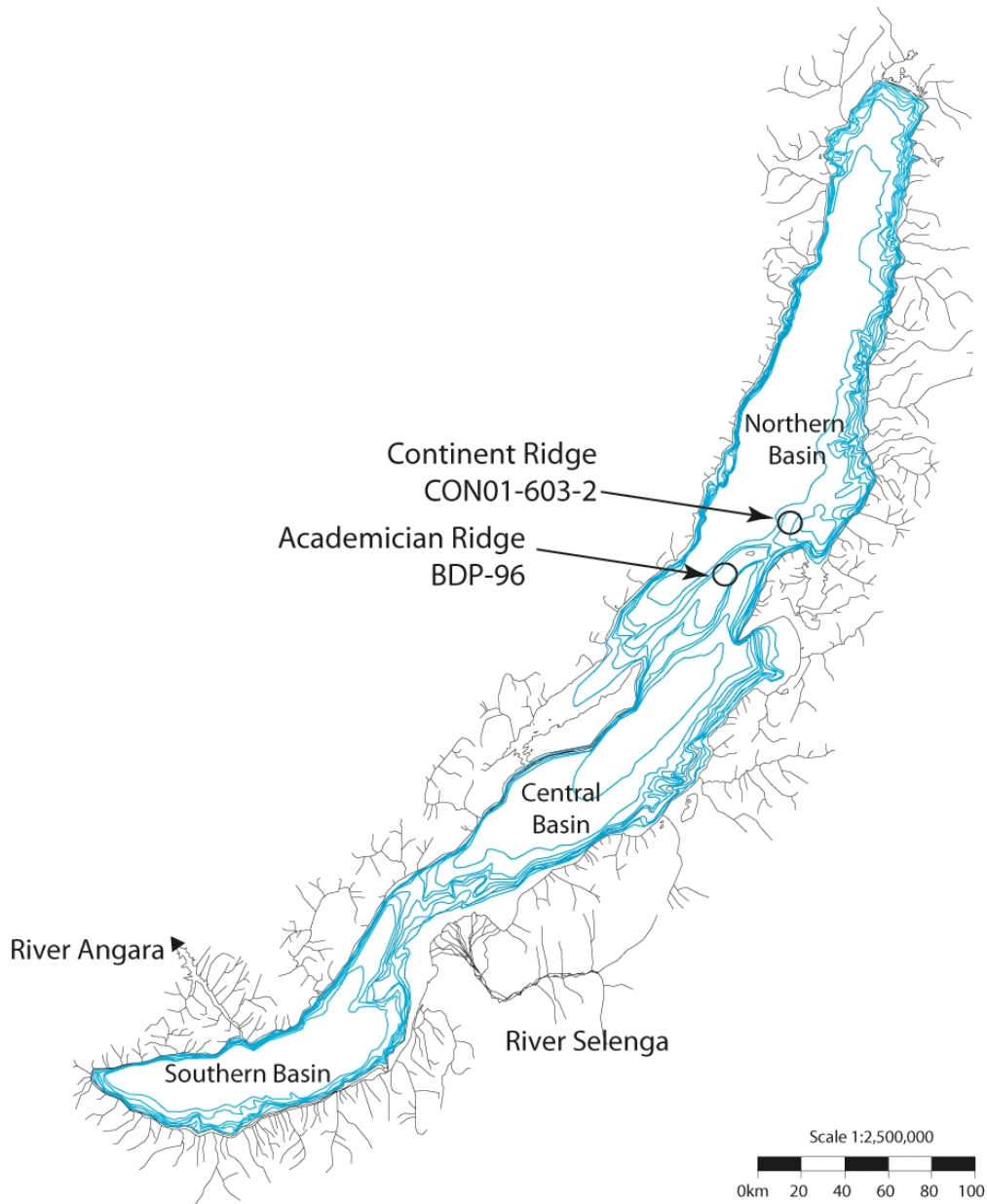
49 The Last Interglacial, corresponding to Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5e (130 - 115 ka BP; PAGES,
50 2016; Railsback et al., 2015), is often referred to as the Eemian in Western European continental
51 records or the Kazantsevo in southern Siberia. In order to more fully understand the nature, duration
52 and synchronicity of MIS 5e across the globe, the comparison of independent continental and oceanic
53 climate records are needed. Lake Baikal, Siberia (103°43'-109°58'E and 51°28'-55°47'N; Figure 1)
54 provides a key uninterrupted, continental sedimentary archive, which spans at least the past 20 million
55 years (Williams et al., 2001), to which further Eurasian continental records (e.g. loess sequences) can
56 be compared (Prokopenko et al., 2006). Lake Baikal is the world's deepest and most voluminous lake
57 (23, 615 km²) with a catchment of over 540, 000 km². Its mid-latitude location in central Asia means
58 that the lake is highly continental (Lydolph, 1977), and sensitive to obliquity- and precessional-driven

59 forcing (Short et al., 1991) which has allowed an astronomically tuned climate record for the entire
60 Pleistocene (Prokopenko et al., 2006).

61

62 **Figure 1.**

63 Map of Lake Baikal and its catchment with core locations CON-01-603-2 and BDP-96 identified.



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68 Prokopenko et al. (2001) argued that biogenic silica (BSi) records from Lake Baikal register regional
69 climatic fluctuations (e.g. glacial-interglacial cycles), and are linked to incoming solar radiation
70 (hereafter insolation) forcing, via heat balance exchanges within the lake (e.g. Prokopenko et al., 2006;
71 Prokopenko et al., 2001). At sub-orbital frequencies, BSi concentration may be related to regional
72 climate change, linked to teleconnections with shifting Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation
73 (e.g. Karabanov et al., 2000). On orbital timescales, Lake Baikal BSi records are interpreted as a
74 palaeoproductivity proxy (Mackay, 2007; Prokopenko et al., 2006; Prokopenko et al., 2001). Seasonal
75 phytoplankton succession at Lake Baikal today is controlled by the timing of ice-off (end of May-June)
76 and ice-on (after October), which promote a period of rapid diatom growth via upper water column
77 turbulent mixing (Popovskaya, 2000). The thermal regime of Lake Baikal in spring and autumn periods
78 is therefore very important in regulating diatom bloom development at these times, although the
79 availability of dissolved silicon (DSi) is also significantly important (Panizzo et al., In review;
80 Popovskaya et al., 2015). While these productivity proxies (e.g. BSi, in tandem with diatom
81 assemblages) can provide an insight into variations in limnological characteristics (e.g. length of
82 growing season, lake turnover) over previous glacial-interglacial cycles, they do not provide the ability
83 to quantitatively assess variations between within-lake, versus catchment, delivery of nutrients (namely
84 DSi). We aim to address this in this study, via the use of silicon stable isotope geochemistry to
85 reconstruct such changes over the Last Interglacial.

86

87 There are three stable isotopes of silicon (Si: ^{28}Si , ^{29}Si and ^{30}Si), which fractionate during almost all
88 low-temperature processes of the continental and oceanic silicon cycles, highlighting their value as a
89 geochemical tracer. Variations in the isotope abundances (e.g. $^{30}\text{Si}/^{28}\text{Si}$ [although previously more
90 commonly $^{29}\text{Si}/^{28}\text{Si}$]) are reported via the delta notation ($\delta^{30}\text{Si}$), when compared to a known standard
91 reference material (e.g. NBS 28). Records of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}$ composition of waters and diatom opal ($\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$ and
92 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ respectively) from Lake Baikal have demonstrated the clear relationship between diatom
93 biomass and nutrient availability (Panizzo et al., In review; Panizzo et al., 2017; Panizzo et al., 2016),
94 pointing to $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ as a proxy for surface water DSi utilisation. This is as DSi (in the form of silicic
95 acid [$\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$]), is a key nutrient for diatom uptake and growth (Martin-Jezequel et al., 2000). During
96 biomineralisation diatoms discriminate against the heavier isotopes (^{29}Si and ^{30}Si), over the lighter
97 (^{28}Si), which leads to the preferential isotopic enrichment of the residual solution (in this case, the

98 dissolved phase: $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$) in the heavier isotopes. This in turn leaves a clear biological imprint on the
99 isotopic composition of BSi (De La Rocha et al., 1997). While the per mille fractionation or enrichment
100 factor (termed $^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}}$) between both phases is considered to be between c. -1.1 and -1.6‰ (estimated
101 from freshwater systems; Alleman et al., 2005; Opfergelt et al., 2011; Panizzo et al., 2016; Sun et al.,
102 2013) and be independent of temperature, $p\text{CO}_2$ and nutrient availability (De La Rocha et al., 1997;
103 Fripiat et al., 2011; Milligan et al., 2004; Varela et al., 2004) some *in-vitro* studies on oceanic diatoms
104 have pointed to a species dependent $^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}}$ effect (Sutton et al., 2013). While this final attestation
105 remains in dispute, in the case of Lake Baikal *in-situ* estimations of diatom $^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}}$ are c. -1.6‰,
106 derived from calculations of seasonal BSi (Panizzo et al., 2016). A final important consideration is the
107 preservation of the $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ in surface sediments, where in Lake Baikal, it is estimated that only c. 1%
108 of total diatom valves are preserved (Ryves et al., 2003). Nevertheless, Panizzo et al. (2016)
109 demonstrate the absence of any diatom dissolution associated $^{30}\epsilon$ (as per earlier studies by Demarest et
110 al., 2009) and therefore validate the application of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ reconstructions from lake sediments.

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112 On the basis of the above discussion and earlier work at Lake Baikal (Panizzo et al., In review; Panizzo
113 et al., 2017; Panizzo et al., 2016), we propose that $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ sedimentary records can act as a tracer of
114 past diatom nutrient uptake. In addition, we here apply silicon isotope geochemistry from Lake Baikal
115 sediments as a means to explore, in more detail, the catchment and within-lake constraints on silicon
116 cycling (via the application of independent diatom productivity proxies), as a means to understand how
117 climate has impacted nutrient supply, productivity and export at Lake Baikal over MIS 5e. Our
118 objectives are to firstly provide an overview of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures in MIS 5e and determine if diatom
119 utilisation was greater than the current interglacial. Secondly, to reconstruct palaeo-nutrient supply of
120 DSi in Lake Baikal surface waters over the course of the Last Interglacial. In particular, we compare
121 these parameters with existing palaeolimnological proxies to better reconstruct variations in nutrient
122 availability and diatom uptake, as a response to prevailing orbital and climatological changes. Finally
123 we devise a new interpretive model to best describe intra-Last Interglacial variability at Lake Baikal.

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128 **2. Materials and methods:**

129 **2.1. Core collection**

130 Core CON-01-603-2 was collected in the Continental Ridge, north basin, of Lake Baikal in July 2001
131 at the location of 53°57' N, 108°54' E (Figure 1). The core was collected from a water depth of 386 m
132 using a piston corer, with full details provided by Demory et al. (2005a); Demory et al. (2005b) Charlet
133 et al. (2005). Detailed summaries on CON-01-603-2 core collection, chronology formation
134 (radiocarbon and palaeomagnetism) can be found therein. Here we present the methods for this new
135 data set of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ alone, although reference is also made to existing datasets of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ (Mackay et
136 al., 2013), diatom biovolume accumulation rates (BVAR) (Rioual and Mackay, 2005), catchment
137 weathering indices (e.g. sediment clay mineralogy; Fagel and Mackay, 2008) and pollen-derived
138 vegetation biome reconstructions (Tarasov et al., 2005; derived from the pollen reconstructions of
139 Granoszewski et al., 2005) from the same core (Figures 3,4).

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141 **2.2. Silicon isotope preparation and analysis**

142 A total of 16 samples for $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ analyses were selected across an existing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ record (Mackay
143 et al., 2013) from sediment core CON-01-603-2. Samples underwent further preparation to remove
144 high episodes of contamination (namely Al_2O_3) via more vigorous cleaning (of the existing diatom
145 opal from Mackay et al., 2013), including heavy density separation and organic material oxidation (as
146 per methods outlined in Morley et al., 2004). Prior to isotopic analysis, all samples were visually
147 inspected via a Zeiss Axiovert 40 C inverted microscope with X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analyses also
148 conducted in order to quantitatively verify their purity. All samples demonstrated no visual
149 contamination (e.g. clay) and quantitative estimations via XRF are <1% (with sample $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$
150 <0.01).

151

152 Alkaline fusion (NaOH) of cleaned diatom opal and subsequent ion-chromatography (via cation
153 exchange methods; BioRad AG50W-X12) followed methodologies outlined by Georg et al. (2006),
154 with further methodological practices mentioned in Panizzo et al. (2016). Samples were analysed in
155 wet-plasma mode using the high mass-resolution capability of a ThermoScientific Neptune Plus MC-
156 ICP-MS (multi collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer) at the British Geological
157 Survey. Full analytical methods are detailed in Panizzo et al. (2017); Panizzo et al. (2016), including

158 practices applied to minimize instrument induced mass bias and drift (e.g. Cardinal et al., 2003; Hughes
159 et al., 2011). Full procedural blank compositions from MC-ICP-MS analyses were c. 31 ng compared
160 to typical fusion amounts of c. 3390 ng and differed from sample compositions by < 0.5%. Using the
161 worst case scenario (i.e. calculated using the sample with the lowest Si concentration) this level of
162 blank could result in a potential shift in sample composition by < 0.04%. All blank measurements
163 therefore demonstrated an insignificant effect relative to the typical <0.11‰ propagated sample
164 uncertainties (Table 1) and no correction for procedural blank was made.

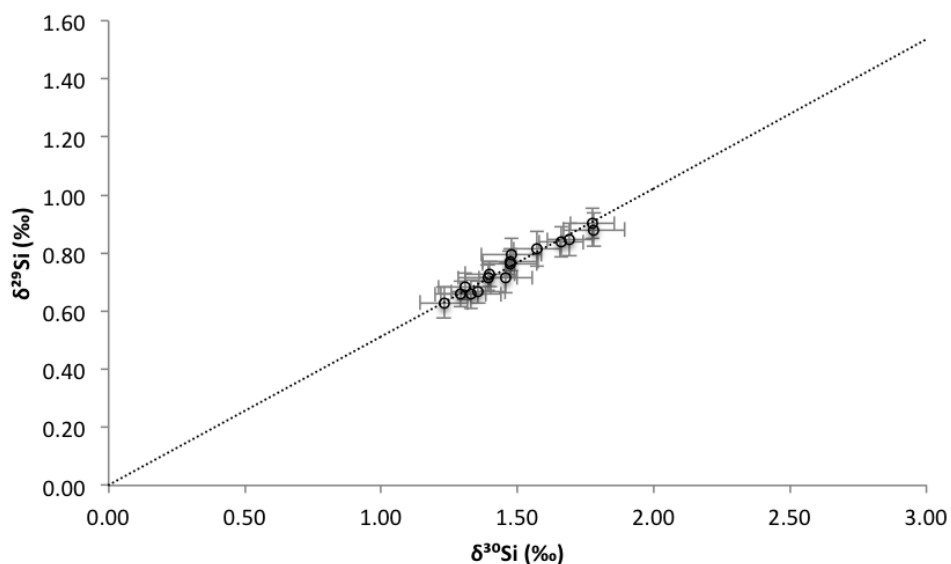
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166 All uncertainties are reported at 2σ absolute (Table 1), and incorporate an excess variance derived from
167 the NBS 28 reference material, which was quadratically added to the analytical uncertainty of each
168 measurement. $\delta^{29}\text{Si}$ and $\delta^{30}\text{Si}$ were compared to the mass dependent fractionation line to which all
169 samples comply (Figure 2). Long term (~ 2 years) reproducibility and machine accuracy are assessed
170 via analyzing the Diatomite secondary standard and data agree with the published values: Diatomite =
171 $+1.24\text{‰} \pm 0.18\text{‰}$ (2 SD, $n=244$) (consensus value of $+1.26\text{‰} \pm 0.2\text{‰}$, 2 SD; Reynolds et al., 2007).

172

173 **Figure 2.**

174 Three-isotope plot ($\delta^{29}\text{Si}$ vs $\delta^{30}\text{Si}$) for all silicon isotope data ($n=16$) presented in this manuscript, with
175 data falling within analytical uncertainty of the mass-dependent fractionation line (dashed).
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180 **2.3. Modeling palaeo-surface water nutrient availability**

181 Based on an open system model approach (Eq. 1), which is considered most appropriate at Lake Baikal
 182 (Panizzo et al. (2017), the equation can be re-arranged to calculate palaeo %DSi_{utilisation} (Eq. 2):

183

$$184 \quad \delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}} = \delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}} - {}^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}} (1-f_{\text{Si}}) \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$185 \quad \% \text{DSi}_{\text{utilisation}} = 1 - [(\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}} - \delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}}) / -{}^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}}] \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

186

187 Where $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}}$ is the initial composition of the dissolved pool, before biological enrichment. This is
 188 set here at +1.71‰ based on modern day south basin deep water (>400m) compositions from Lake
 189 Baikal, which we argue act as baseline surface water compositions when ice-off and turbulent mixing
 190 occurs, leading to the first (larger) spring diatom bloom (Panizzo et al., 2017). The assumption that
 191 modern day $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}}$ can be applied here may lead to some uncertainty in %DSi_{utilisation} estimations (e.g.
 192 >100%; Table 1) however, in the absence of palaeo- $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}}$ compositions from Lake Baikal we argue
 193 its application here. $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ is the isotopic composition of diatom opal at any given time interval and
 194 ${}^{30}\epsilon_{\text{uptake}}$ is set at -1.6‰, as discussed in Section 1 (Panizzo et al., 2017; Panizzo et al., 2016).

195

196 In addition to simply quantifying past DSi surface utilisation via diatom biomineralisation, a further
 197 application is applied here. As independent diatom productivity indicators (e.g. BVAR) are also
 198 available from core CON-01-603-2, (Rioual and Mackay, 2005), an estimate of DSi supply can be
 199 made by constraining $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions by the net export of BSi to sediments (e.g. as a function
 200 of export production or nutrient demand; Horn et al., 2011). This application has been seen in oceanic
 201 settings as a method to better constrain reconstructions of nutrient supply, when coupled with other
 202 algal productivity indicators (Horn et al., 2011).

203

$$204 \quad \text{DSi Supply} = \frac{F_{\text{BVAR}}^{\text{sample}} / F_{\text{BVAR}}^{120.5 \text{ ka}}}{\% \text{DSi}_{\text{consumed}}^{\text{sample}} / \% \text{DSi}_{\text{consumed}}^{120.5 \text{ ka}}} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

205

206 $F_{\text{BVAR}}^{\text{sample}}$ is the flux of BVAR in sediments and $\% \text{DSi}_{\text{consumed}}^{\text{sample}}$ is the percentage of the DSi consumed by
 207 diatoms (in the sediment record). $F_{\text{BVAR}}^{120.5 \text{ ka}}$ and $\% \text{DSi}_{\text{consumed}}^{120.5 \text{ ka}}$ are defined as the sample with the
 208 greatest modeled supply in the MIS 5e record (at c. 120.5 ka BP; Table 1). We apply the use of BVAR

209 here (over %BSi) as we argue this reflects more realistically the DSi demand of diatoms. Diatom
210 BVAR take into consideration diatom size (e.g. volume) and cell fluxes, and so the amount of DSi
211 biomineralised in the valve (refer to Rioual and Mackay, 2005, for full explanation of calculation). BSi
212 records on the other hand represent bulk biogenic opal in sediments, which has evaded remineralisation
213 (e.g. Ryves et al., 2003) and may not be exclusively diatomaceous in origin (e.g. catchment derived
214 amorphous silica). Zonation of Figure 4 and the discussion surrounding the conceptual model at Lake
215 Baikal (Section 4.2; Figure 5) is based on the Diatom Assemblage Zonations (DAZ) defined by Rioual
216 and Mackay (2005).

217

218 3. Results:

219 The data set presented here starts at the end of Termination 2 (c. 132 ka BP, n=1) through to the
220 transition from MIS 5e to MIS 5d at c. 116 ka BP. The resolution of sampling is at the millennial-scale,
221 c. every 850 years. All $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ data range between +1.23 and +1.78‰ (0.17‰ 1SD of all final data,
222 n=16; Table 1). Lowest $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions are seen at c. 132.1 ka BP (+1.23 ± 0.09‰, n=1; Table
223 1), during zone MIS 6. Highest values (between +1.77 ± 0.08‰ and +1.48 ± 0.11‰, n=7; Table 1) are
224 demonstrated in early MIS 5e (c. 127.4 and 123.0 ka BP), with a progression to lower values (c. 1.47 ±
225 0.1‰ and +1.30 ± 0.10, n=8; Table 1) between c. 122.0 and 116.1 ka BP (Figure 3). There is one
226 episode of lower signatures, outside of the general MIS 5e decreasing trend, between c. 127.4 and
227 126.8 ka BP, where values fall to +1.46 ± 0.1‰ (at c. 126.8 ka BP).

228

229 The linear approximation (via open system/steady state modeling) of DSi supply are portrayed in Table
230 1 and Figure 4. Percentage results are relative to the sample that has the highest modeled supply in the
231 record (e.g. 100% at c. 120.5 ka BP; Table 1). Results show an average c. 70% supply (range between
232 c. 64 and c. 100% over the period of MIS 5e) (e.g. c. 30% less supply than at 120.5 ka BP) after the
233 termination of the previous glacial MIS 6 (Figure 4). There is a step increase in modeled supply during
234 MIS 5e, after c. 124.9 ka, which is coincident with the continued decreasing trend in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$
235 signatures and estimated %DSi utilisation over the course of the Last Interglacial (Figure 4).

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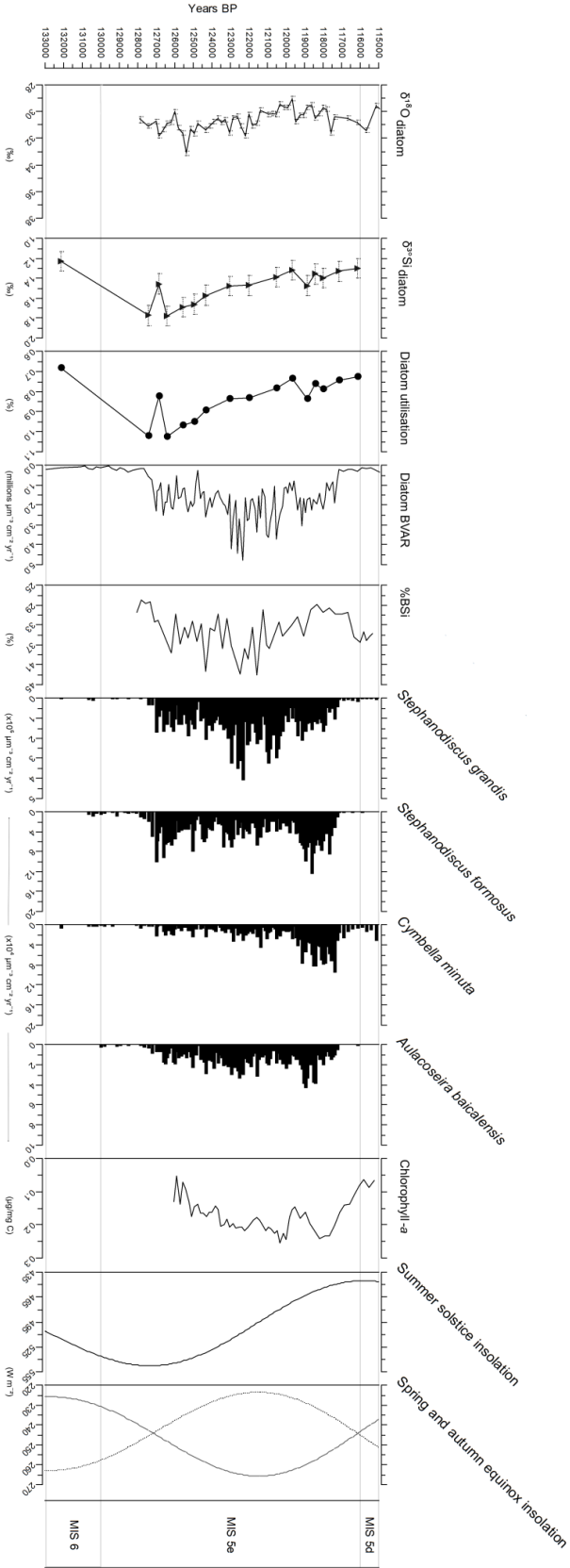
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239 **Table 1**
 240 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ and $\delta^{29}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ data ($n=16$) reported for the period 132.15 ka BP and 116.16 ka BP, with respective 2σ absolute analytical errors ‰. Sample names are provided in
 241 tandem with the modeled respective ages (ka BP) and mid-sediment sampling depth (CON-01-603-2). Data are presented with published total biovolume (millions $\mu\text{m}^{-3} \text{cm}^{-2}$
 242 year $^{-1}$) (Rioul and Mackay, 2005) data and the modeled open system %D/Si utilisation and Supply (%) for each sample are given.

Sample Name	Mid-sediment depth (cm)	Dating profile (ka BP)	$\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ (‰)	$\pm 2\sigma$ absolute (‰)	$\delta^{29}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ (‰)	$\pm 2\sigma$ absolute (‰)	Biovolume (millions $\mu\text{m}^{-3} \text{cm}^{-2}$ year $^{-1}$)	BV/AR Utilisation (%)	BV/AR Supply (%)
EEM_12	613	116.16	+1.29	0.09	+0.66	0.04	0.27	73	9
EEM_14	617	117.17	+1.33	0.11	+0.66	0.05	0.18	75	6
EEM_18	625	118.00	+1.40	0.09	+0.73	0.04	1.81	79	59
EEM_20	629	118.42	+1.36	0.10	+0.67	0.04	1.51	76	50
EEM_22	633	118.84	+1.47	0.10	+0.77	0.05	1.39	83	43
EEM_26	641	119.68	+1.31	0.09	+0.68	0.05	1.05	74	36
EEM_30	649	120.53	+1.39	0.11	+0.72	0.04	3.06	78	100
EEM_37	663	122.00	+1.47	0.10	+0.76	0.05	2.21	83	68
EEM_42	673	123.05	+1.48	0.11	+0.80	0.06	1.23	84	38
EEM_48	685	124.32	+1.57	0.08	+0.81	0.06	2.12	90	61
EEM_51	691	124.95	+1.66	0.08	+0.84	0.05	1.56	95	42
EEM_54	697	125.58	+1.69	0.08	+0.85	0.06	1.01	97	27
EEM_58	705	126.42	+1.78	0.11	+0.88	0.06	1.55	102	39
EEM_60	709	126.85	+1.46	0.10	+0.72	0.05	1.02	82	32
EEM_62	713	127.44	+1.77	0.08	+0.90	0.05	0.47	102	12
EEM_73	735	132.15	+1.23	0.09	+0.63	0.05	0.11	68	4

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 246

247 **Figure 3.**
 248 Stratigraphic plot displaying $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ (‰) from Mackay et al. (2013) (note that data before c. 128 ka BP are not plotted due to contamination issues outlined by the authors),
 249 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ (‰) with respective analytical errors, modeled %DSi utilisation from this dataset (open system model), total diatom biovolume accumulation rates (BVAR)
 250 (millions $\mu\text{m}^3 \text{cm}^{-2} \text{year}^{-1}$) (Rioul and Mackay, 2005), %BSi (from core BDP-96, Academician Ridge; Prokopenko et al., 2006), dominant diatom species BVAR
 251 (thousands/millions $\mu\text{m}^3 \text{cm}^{-2} \text{year}^{-1}$) (Rioul and Mackay, 2005), Chlorophyll *a*/TOC data ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mg C}$; Fietz et al., 2007) and insolation at 55°N (W m^{-2}) for the summer
 252 solstice and winter, spring (dashed) equinoxes. All sediment core proxies presented (apart from %BSi) are derived from core CON-01-603-2 (Figure 1).
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258 **4. Discussion**

259 **4.1. $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures during MIS 5e**

260 Although one data point for this record is derived from MIS 6 (before c. 130 ka BP; Table 1, Figure 3),
261 the remainder of the record captures MIS 5e at Lake Baikal and therefore this period acts as the main
262 focus for this discussion. The overall decreasing trend in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ from c. 127.4 ka BP to c. 116 ka BP,
263 over MIS 5e, is concomitant, and significantly correlated with, the decrease in June (solstice) insolation
264 (at 55°N) ($r^2=0.53$, $p=0.001$). However, there is an absence of correlation between $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ and
265 insolation (at 55°N) records of each spring and autumn equinoxes (Figure 3) or winter solstice (data not
266 shown). The range of values presented here (from sediments collected from the North Basin; Figure 1)
267 (+1.23 to $+1.78 \pm 0.17\text{‰}$; Table 1) encompass mean modern day south basin surface sediment $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$
268 signatures ($+1.23\text{‰} \pm 0.08$ 1 SD; Panizzo et al., 2016), especially the MIS 6 value. Furthermore, Last
269 Interglacial $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ values (between $+1.30 \pm 0.10\text{‰}$ and $+1.77 \pm 0.08\text{‰}$; Table 1) are significantly
270 greater than Holocene $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions (Panizzo et al, unpublished data) derived from sediment
271 cores across all three Lake Baikal basins ($p=0.001$, via a Kruskal Wallis test).

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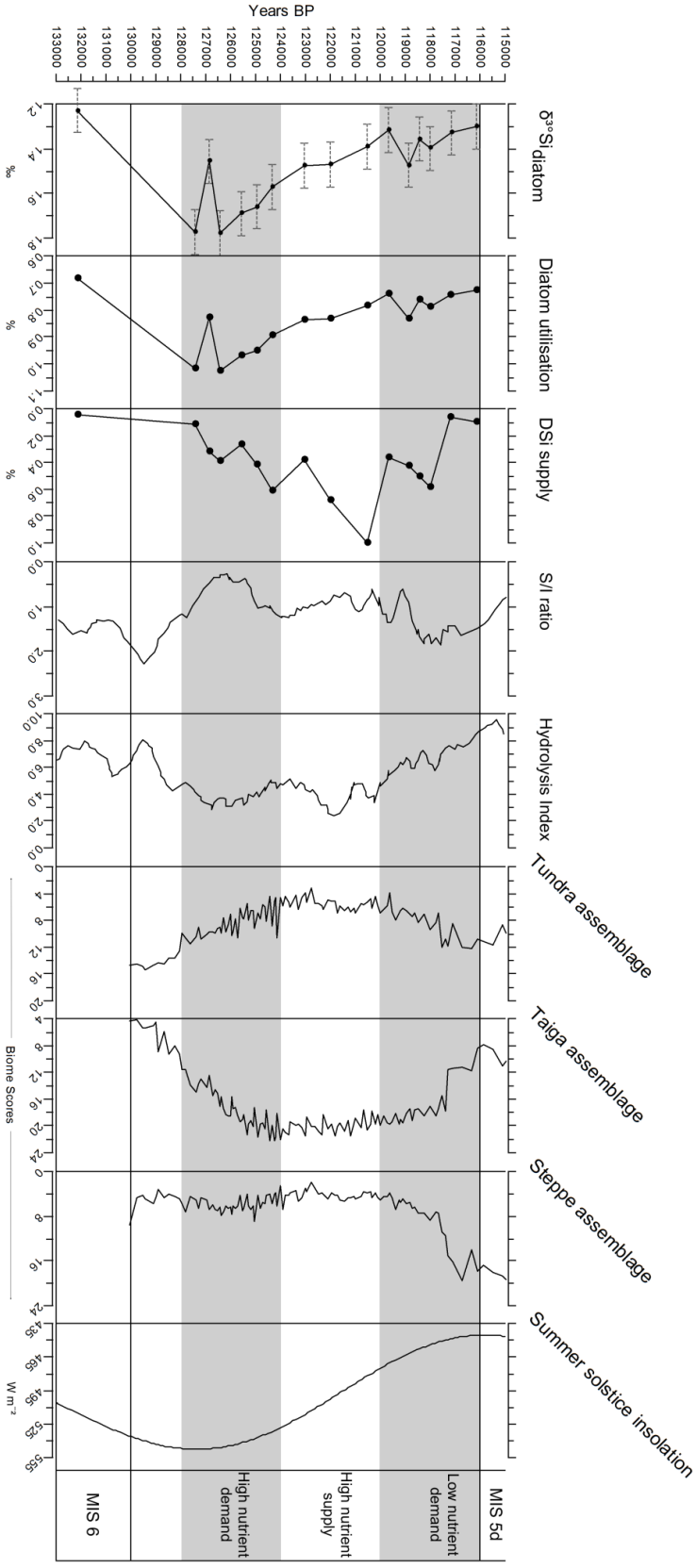
273 Given the significant greater $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures for MIS 5e we can interpret this as a period of either
274 greater utilisation of DSi by diatoms (e.g. enhanced productivity) and/or a weakened supply of
275 nutrients to the surface (e.g. reduced convective mixing or catchment derived nutrients). The Lake
276 Baikal region was consistently warmer and wetter during the Last Interglacial than the Holocene
277 (Tarasov et al., 2007), which in turn may account for the greater $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ -inferred utilisation over this
278 period (Figure 3). These arguments will be discussed further in the following section, in conjunction
279 with other climate and productivity indicators from Lake Baikal during MIS 5e.

280

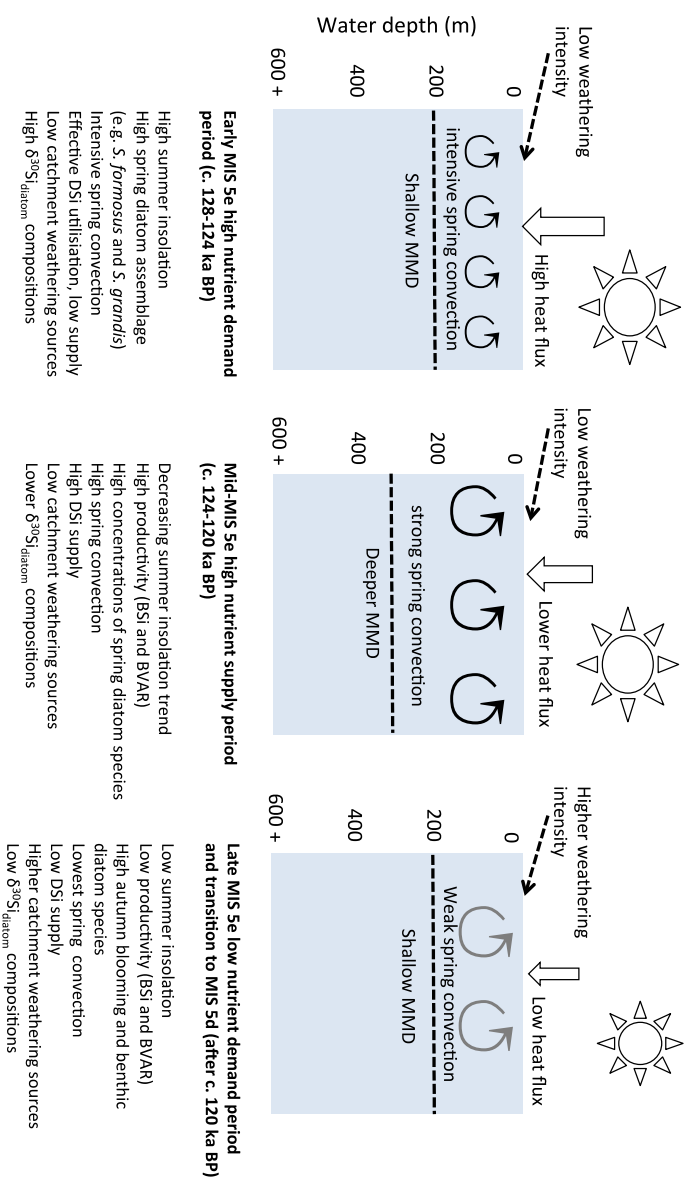
281

282

283 **Figure 4.**
 284 Summary diagram of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ (‰) with respective analytical errors, modeled %DSi utilisation and estimated %DSi supply, both constrained by BYAR. S/I ratios and the
 285 Hydrolysis Index (note reverse axis) (Fagel et al., 2005), along with dominant catchment biome scores (Tarasov et al., 2005) and summer solstice insolation at 55°N (W m^{-2}).
 286 Lines correspond to the time transition from MIS 6 to MIS 5e and MIS 5d. Shaded areas correspond to the interpretation of lake nutrient cycling as described in Section 4.2
 287 and Figure 5 (defined as the DAZ of Rioual and Mackay., 2005).
 288



290 **Figure 5.** A schematic nutrient-productivity model for the Lake Baikal upper water column (including surface waters to the MMID), during the Last Interglacial. Three
 291 interpretive periods are identified (Section 4.2) for MIS 5e and a description of the dominant drivers of upper water column nutrient availability (e.g. catchment versus
 292 within-lake) are provided. A summary of the dominant palaeoecological characteristics of these periods is also provided (based on Figures 3, 4), along with the main climatic
 293 forcing (e.g. insolation).



294

295

296 **4.2. A conceptual model of diatom responses to altering DSi supply during the Last Interglacial**

297 In the past, a hydrodynamic-insolation model for the Lake Baikal BSi signal was proposed by
298 Prokopenko et al. (2001), where two models were put forward for diatom productivity during either
299 interglacial (high insolation and high BSi) and glacial cycles (low insolation and low BSi). However, as
300 intra-Last Interglacial climate variability has been demonstrated (Karabanov et al., 2000; Mackay et al.,
301 2013; Rioual and Mackay, 2005), we here propose a more sensitive interpretation via the application of
302 diatom BVAR (Section 2.3; Figure 5). This revised nutrient-productivity model reflects the variation
303 captured in both diatom utilisation and nutrient (DSi) supply over the course of MIS 5e (Figure 4),
304 which was otherwise overlooked in earlier models (e.g. Prokopenko et al, 2001).

305
306 For the purpose of this discussion, we consider the delivery of nutrients (DSi) from both within-lake
307 (upwelling) and catchment derived processes. The Hydrolysis Index (HI) (Figure 4) of Fagel and
308 Mackay (2008) can be used to examine catchment weathering in the Lake Baikal as a function of
309 climatic conditions, parent rock type and catchment topography (Fagel and Boes, 2008). Higher values
310 therefore indicate the presence of more secondary minerals (e.g. increased weathering), while lower
311 values are indicative of primary mineral clay sources in sediments (e.g. reduced catchment
312 weathering). Furthermore, smectite/illite ratios (S/I) are indicative of increased chemical weathering
313 (>1) or increased physical catchment weathering (<1), with illite being defined as one parent mineral
314 endmember for the site (Fagel and Mackay, 2008). In terms of silicon geochemistry, chemical
315 weathering of silicate rocks and minerals are attributable to the DSi load of rivers (and ultimately lakes
316 and oceans)(e.g. Stumm and Wollast, 1990) however, physical erosion (controlled by climate, soil
317 formation and catchment vegetation) can also play an important role in deriving continental DSi fluxes
318 (Gaillardet et al., 1999). Under low erosion rates, weathering is regarded to be supply-limited; so that
319 clay mineral formation is greater (than primary mineral dissolution), which will reduce DSi fluxes
320 (relative to parent material)(e.g. low $DSi/[Na+K]^*$; Fontorbe et al., 2013; Frings et al., 2015; Hughes et
321 al., 2013) and preferentially discriminate against the heavy isotopes (indicative of higher river $\delta^{30}Si_{DSi}$
322 signatures). This interpretation is referred to as incongruent weathering (refer to the comprehensive
323 discussion of Frings et al., 2016 and references therein). The opposite scenario (kinetic-limited or more
324 congruent weathering) occurs under higher physical erosion rates (e.g. low weathering intensity [W/D];
325 Bouchez et al., 2014), where the rapid removal of material and low riverine/sedimentary residence

326 times reduces the accumulation of secondary mineral phases (high DSi/[Na+K]*, higher DSi fluxes and
327 lower river $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$ signatures).

328

329 Quantitative catchment reconstructions of palaeo-weathering fluxes and DSi inflow compositions to
330 Lake Baikal are limited here due to the absence of catchment or riverine endmembers (from MIS 5e).
331 The overall need to expand silicon isotope continental paleo-weathering reconstructions has been
332 highlighted by Frings et al. (2016), although the greatest interest to date centers on quantifying river
333 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$ signature variation to oceans (e.g. continental export) over glacial-interglacial cycles. Given
334 that the global river $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$ signatures exported to the ocean, between glacial-interglacial cycles, are
335 modeled to be only small (e.g. estimated globally to increase only c. $0.2 \pm 0.25\%$ since the Last Glacial
336 Maximum following a reduction in weathering congruency; Frings et al., 2016) it is probable that
337 intra-MIS 5e variability of weathering regimes also has a small impact on altering Lake Baikal source
338 waters over this time. However, we here use the HI and S/I ratio of Fagel and Mackay (2008) as an
339 independent palaeo-weathering proxy to explore this argument and constrain any catchment derived
340 sources of DSi for diatom biomineralisation.

341

342 Three descriptive zones (derived from the DAZ of Rioual and Mackay, 2005; shaded in Figure 4) are
343 applied here to examine variations in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ over the Last Interglacial, as a response to regional
344 climate changes and insolation forcing (Figure 5). We propose that while catchment changes (e.g.
345 biome shifts and weathering rates) may have played a role in regulating catchment DSi supply to Lake
346 Baikal (via rivers) over the course of MIS 5e (Figure 4), these act as more mediated responses. Rather
347 we propose that, as today, within-lake processes (reduced lake ice duration and increased turbulent
348 convective mixing) are more rapid responses to, and therefore act as, the dominant driver in controlling
349 surface waters nutrient change over this time. Below we present a palaeoecological interpretation of the
350 three descriptive zonations (for MIS 5e alone), to which we propose this new interpretation of diatom
351 and nutrient responses over this period (Figure 5).

352

353 *4.2.1. Early MIS 5e high nutrient demand period (c. 128-124 ka BP):*

354 The increase to higher $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures in MIS 5e (after c. 127.4 ka BP) occurs at peak summer
355 insolation and is also coincident with the increase in diatom BVAR (Rioual and Mackay, 2005) and

356 BSi records (Prokopenko et al., 2006) and later (after c. 126 ka BP) Chlorophyll-*a* (Figure 3). Mackay
357 et al. (2013) interpret $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ data to reflect a period of increased river discharge to Lake Baikal, in
358 response to regional warming (increased pollen-inferred precipitation and temperatures; Tarasov et al.,
359 2007; Tarasov et al., 2005), a weaker Siberian High (Velichko et al., 1991) and teleconnections with
360 the North Atlantic (lowest global ice volume; Kukla et al., 2002; and warmer North Atlantic sea
361 surface temperatures; Oppo et al., 2006). Apart from a brief reduction in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures to
362 +1.46‰ ($\pm 0.10\ 2\sigma$) at c. 126.8 ka BP, values otherwise remain high during this period.

363

364 Both HI and S/I ratios are low after c. 128 ka BP (after a decreasing trend at the start of MIS 5e; Figure
365 4), which is indicative of physical (over chemical) weathering processes dominating in the catchment,
366 with limited secondary mineral formation in soils (e.g. low weathering intensity and greater proportion
367 of primary minerals in lake sediments) (Fagel and Mackay, 2008). During this period, these conditions
368 are concomitant with high summer insolation (Figures 4; 5) and an increase in taiga biome scores,
369 indicative of a warming climate (Tarasov et al., 2007; Tarasov et al., 2005). Although the low S/I ratios
370 (the lowest in the record during this period) highlight changes in sediment clay mineralogy, which are a
371 result of soil destabilization in the catchment (Fagel and Mackay, 2008), the low HI is indicative of a
372 low weathering intensity regime in the catchment (with probable low fractionation potential of river
373 waters). This interpretation compares well with BVAR-modeled DSi supply, which is among the
374 lowest of the whole record (40-90% less than peak supply at c. 120.5 ka BP; Table 1). Taken together
375 these data suggest that the magnitude of change to catchment DSi source waters was not great enough
376 to considerably alter $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{initial}}$, so that the high $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures are driven more strongly by diatom
377 biomineralisation.

378

379 During the “high nutrient demand period” (c. 128 to 124 ka BP), spring blooming species
380 *Stephanodiscus formosus* and *Stephaniodiscus grandis* (the latter which contributes the greatest to
381 diatom BVAR; Figure 3) also increase, along with other planktonic endemic *Aulacoseira baicalensis*
382 and *Aulacoseira skvortzowii* species (Rioual and Mackay, 2005). Although these *Stephanodiscus*
383 species are today extinct, based on modern analogues, Rioual and Mackay (2005) attribute them to be
384 slow growing due to their large size, existing in low light conditions with a high phosphorous and
385 moderate silica demand, associated today with long deep convective spring mixing (up to 300 m;

386 Shimaraev et al., 1993). These data point to the interpretation of enhanced nutrient exchange in surface
387 waters at the beginning of MIS 5e, and a productive initial spring diatom bloom, dominated by the high
388 phosphorous, moderate DSi, nutrient demand *Stephanodiscus* species (Figures 3,4). With low-modeled
389 DSi supply over this period (including from catchment sources), $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions become more
390 enriched with an overall switch to greater diatom productivity (%BSi, BVAR; Figures 3, 4) and DSi
391 utilisation.

392

393 4.2.2. Mid-MIS 5e high nutrient supply period (c. 124-120 ka BP)

394 After c. 124 ka BP lower estimations of DSi utilisation are seen, with more nutrient rich conditions
395 (concomitant with the decreasing trend in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures and step shift in higher diatom BVAR)
396 (Figure 4). This trend also follows the decreasing summer insolation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions
397 (Figures 3, 4), although the catchment is composed of a stable taiga biome (Figure 4; Tarasov et al.,
398 2007; Tarasov et al., 2005). Clay mineralogy (S/I ratio) during this zone continues to suggest
399 conditions indicative of physical (over chemical) weathering, with sediments dominated by primary
400 mineral sources (low HI; Figure 4) and therefore low chemical weathering in the catchment over this
401 period. We interpret the record therefore to point to a continued low weathering intensity (Section
402 4.2.1). As Lake Baikal catchment conditions appear relatively stable during this zone (based on pollen
403 and clay mineralogy) but modeled DSi supply increases (Figure 4), we attribute this to mean that
404 within-lake DSi sources (e.g. increased mixing) are more important in driving lower $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$
405 signatures (i.e. increased supply versus reduced diatom uptake) rather than an increased catchment
406 derived source of DSi (e.g. of lower $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$ composition).

407

408 Estimated supply increases during this period (c. 124 to 120 ka BP) reaching the time of highest
409 modeled supply (100%) at 120.5 ka BP (Table 1), concomitant with highest diatom BVAR and
410 increased Chlorophyll-*a* concentrations (Fietz et al., 2007) and %BSi (Prokopenko et al., 2006)(Figure
411 3). The increase in diatom BVAR is again attributed to the increase in *S. grandis* species (Rioul and
412 Mackay, 2005), which proportionally dominates diatom biovolumes over MIS 5e. We propose (based
413 on modern-analogue diatom ecology) a shift towards a deeper mesothermal maximum depth (MMD;
414 Figure 5), concomitant with a deeper spring mixing layer compared to the previous period. This will

415 account for the increase in DSi supply to surface waters and therefore some of the lowest $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$
416 compositions in the reconstruction, despite increased diatom productivity.

417

418 4.2.3 Low nutrient demand period and the transition to MIS 5d (after 120 ka BP)

419 After c. 120.4 ka BP Rioual and Mackay (2005) document a notable change in individual diatom
420 species BVAR at Lake Baikal, from the large-celled *Stephanodiscus* species (particularly *S. grandis*
421 which dominates the overall proportion of total biovolumes) to smaller celled *Cyclotella* species,
422 especially *Cyclotella minuta* (Figures 3; 5). *C. minuta* can tolerate relatively high summer surface
423 water temperatures (e.g. during stratification), so that when autumnal mixing begins they are among the
424 first species to bloom (Jewson et al., 2015). These species changes are concomitant with a stepwise
425 decrease in both %BSi and total diatom BVAR, which points to a decrease in overall diatom
426 productivity in Lake Baikal (Figure 3). Decreasing $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions and modeled DSi utilisation
427 may further corroborate this reduction in productivity, leading to the interpretation of reduced DSi
428 demand (due to both reduced productivity and the prevalence of smaller diatom species) along with
429 low $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions and modeled DSi supply (Figure 5). Overall we propose conditions less
430 favorable for larger spring blooming species (e.g. *S. grandis*). In particular, overall reduced
431 productivity is attributed to weaker spring convective mixing, the breakdown in thermal driven
432 stratification and a reduction in the overall growing season (increased ice cover duration) consistent
433 with the move to cooler conditions in the region (Figure 5).

434

435 Superimposed on these trends is a minimum in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions between c. 120.5 and 119.7 ka
436 BP (Figure 3), which Mackay et al. (2013) attribute to a cold perturbation in the Lake Baikal region (an
437 increase in Siberian High intensity; Tarasov et al., 2005) with increased snowmelt contributions and a
438 reduction in primary productivity (Fietz et al., 2007; Prokopenko et al., 2006; Rioual and Mackay,
439 2005). Similarly, $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures also show a small decline (although within analytical
440 uncertainty), which could be reflecting reduced diatom productivity during this cold event and
441 therefore low DSi uptake (and low modeled DSi supply) (Figures 4, 5). Interestingly, S/I ratios and HI
442 increase after c. 120 ka BP (Figure 4), which points to an increase in chemical weathering (intensity) in
443 the Lake Baikal catchment (e.g. towards supply-limited weathering regimes, indicative of higher river
444 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{DSi}}$), although as there are no large changes in $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions after this time, we again

445 suggest that isotopically altered source waters to the lake have not had a confounding impact in driving
446 $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ signatures after this time.

447

448 After c. 117.2 ka BP benthic diatom species increase in relative abundance (Rioual and Mackay, 2005).
449 This, along with a sharp fall in %BSi (Prokopenko et al., 2006) and Chlorophyll-*a* concentrations
450 (Fietz et al., 2007), points to a reduction in pelagic productivity indicative of a switch to a much colder
451 climate, coincident with a continued decline in summer insolation, a shift to increased steppe biome
452 scores (Figure 4) and reduced mean summer temperatures (Tarasov et al., 2007; Tarasov et al., 2005),
453 all while ice sheet growth occurred in the Northern Hemisphere (Kukla et al., 2002).

454

455 5. Conclusions

456 We present the first application of $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ in the palaeorecord at Lake Baikal and present it as a
457 proxy for both nutrient availability and demand over the Last Interglacial (MIS 5e). Overall, diatom
458 productivity is significantly greater in MIS 5e compared to the Holocene. In tandem with other
459 published productivity indicators from core CON-01-603-2, data point to an early interglacial stage of
460 high DSi demand by diatoms although low nutrient conditions, in response to regional climate
461 warming, catchment vegetation and weathering regime changes. After c. 124 ka BP data suggest a
462 move to greater nutrient supply, although we attribute this to an increase in spring convective mixing
463 based on overall reconstructions of a stable Lake Baikal catchment (e.g. weathering indices and
464 vegetation). We propose complex within-lake conditions over the duration of MIS 5e, based on the
465 variability in diatom nutrient uptake and surface water nutrient availability (e.g. driven by changes in
466 lake ice duration and turbulent convective mixing). Unlike the earlier interpretative palaeoproductivity
467 models based on BSi data alone, we derive a more nuanced reconstruction highlighting that more
468 caution should be taken to better understand the mechanisms at play both inter- and intra-
469 interglacial/glacial climates. This will better inform the sensitivity and response of Lake Baikal to
470 climate change both in the past and under future anthropogenic and climate pressures.

471

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473

474

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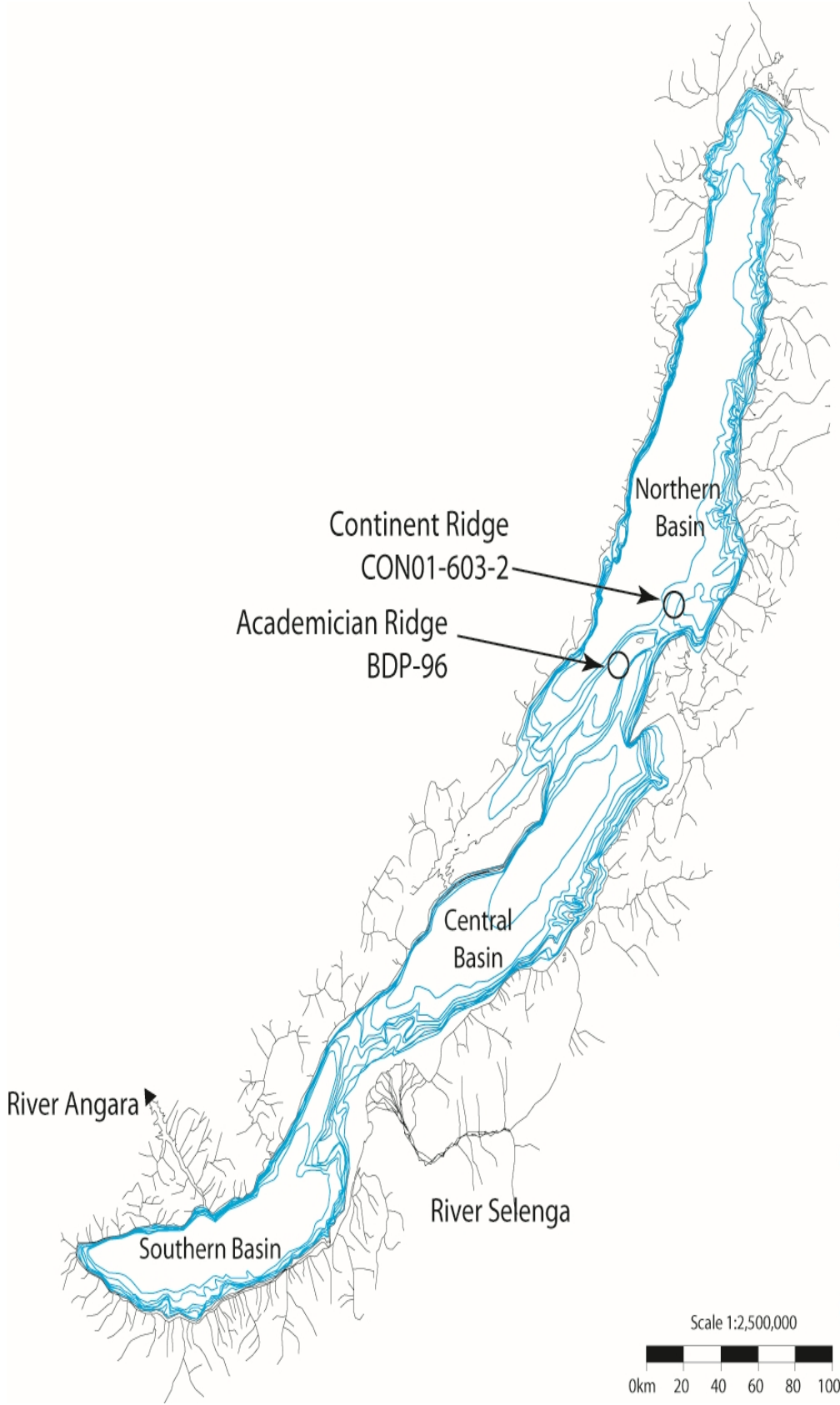
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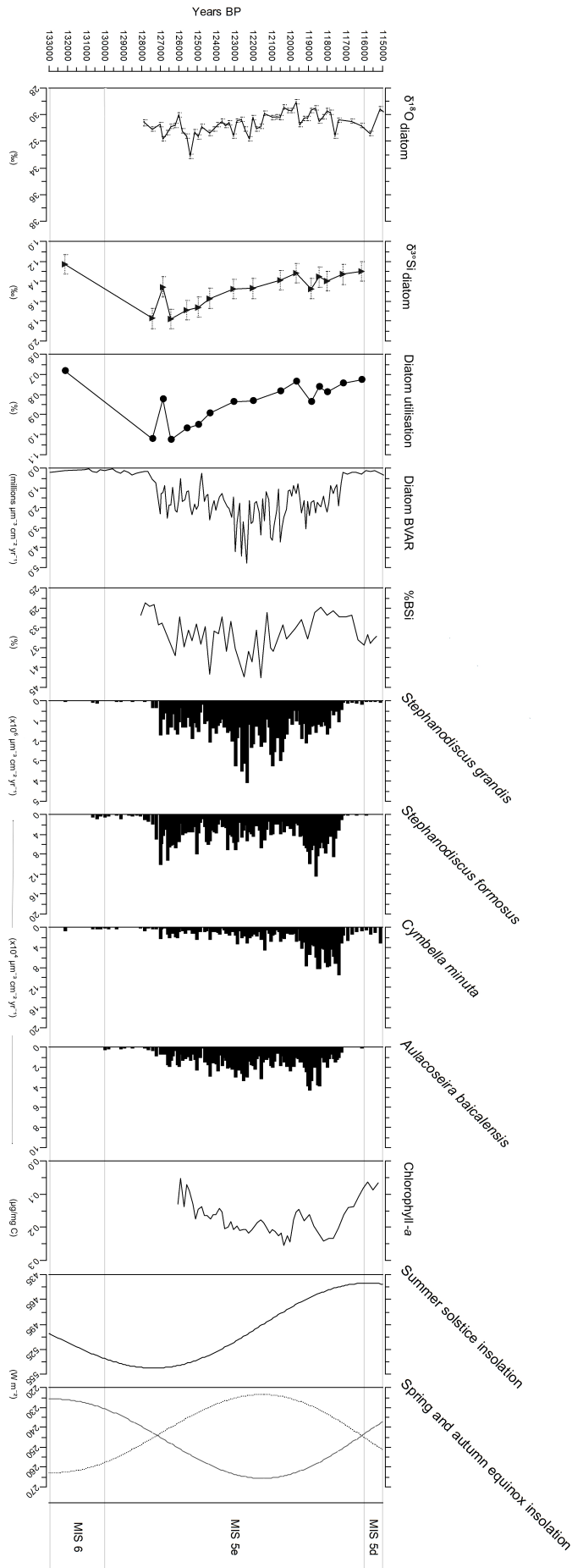
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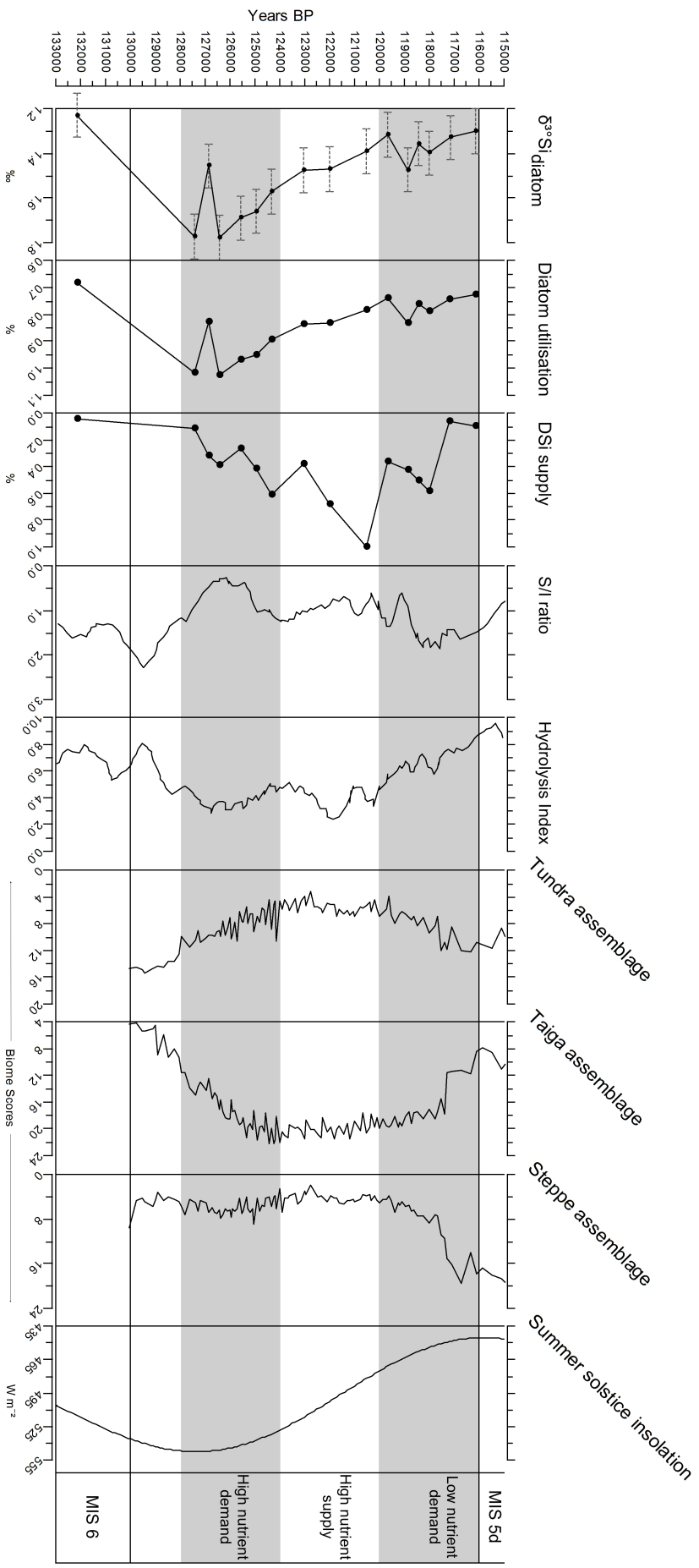
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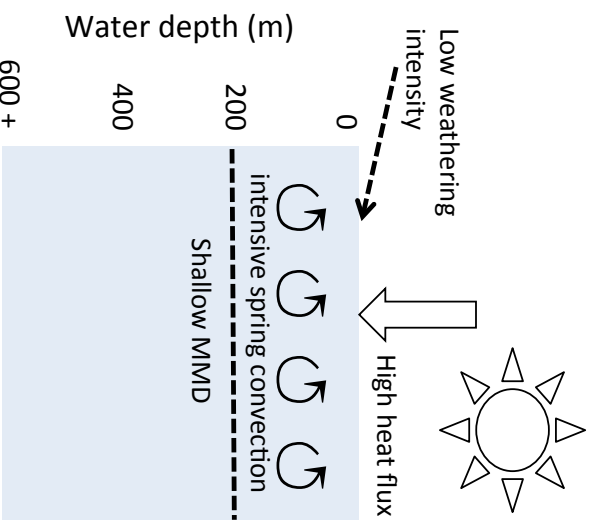
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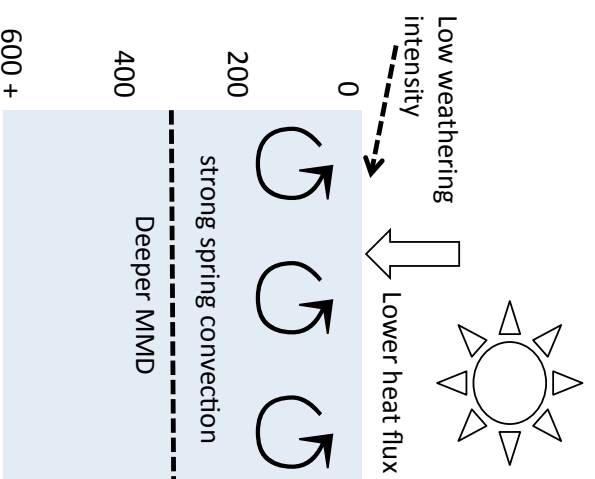






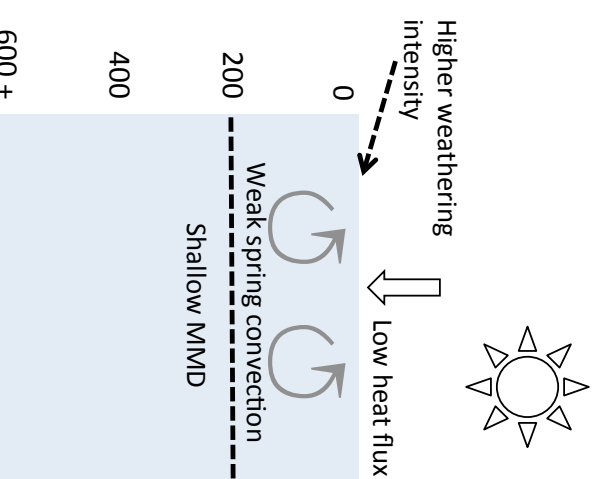
Early MIS 5e high nutrient demand period (c. 128-124 ka BP)

- High summer insolation
- High spring diatom assemblage (e.g. *S. formosus* and *S. grandis*)
- Intensive spring convection
- Effective DSI utilisation, low supply
- Low catchment weathering sources
- High $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions



Mid-MIS 5e high nutrient supply period (c. 124-120 ka BP)

- Decreasing summer insolation trend
- High productivity (BSI and BVAR)
- High concentrations of spring diatom species
- High spring convection
- High DSI supply
- Low catchment weathering sources
- Lower $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions



Late MIS 5e low nutrient demand period and transition to MIS 5d (after c. 120 ka BP)

- Low summer insolation
- Low productivity (BSI and BVAR)
- High autumn blooming and benthic diatom species
- Lowest spring convection
- Low DSI supply
- Higher catchment weathering sources
- Low $\delta^{30}\text{Si}_{\text{diatom}}$ compositions