Vanishing coccolith vital effects with alleviated carbon limitation

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M. Hermoso¹, I. Z. X. Chan¹, H. L. O. McClelland¹, A. M. C. Heureux¹ and R. E. M. Rickaby¹

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7 [1] {University of Oxford – Department of Earth Sciences, South Parks Road, Oxford
8 OX1 3AN, United Kingdom}

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10 Correspondence to: M. Hermoso (Michael.Hermoso@earth.ox.ac.uk)

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12 Abstract

13 By recreating a range of geologically relevant concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon 14 (DIC) in the laboratory, we demonstrate that the magnitude of the vital effects in both carbon 15 and oxygen isotopes of coccolith calcite of multiple species relates to ambient DIC 16 concentration. Under high DIC levels, all the examined coccoliths exhibit significantly 17 reduced isotopic offsets from inorganic calcite compared to the substantial vital effects 18 expressed at low (preindustrial and present-day) DIC concentrations. The supply of carbon to 19 the cell exerts a primary control on biological fractionation in coccolith calcite via the 20 modulation of coccolithophore growth rate, cell size and carbon utilisation by photosynthesis 21 and calcification, altogether accounting for the observed interspecific differences between 22 coccolith species. These laboratory observations support the recent hypothesis from field 23 observations that the appearance of interspecific vital effect in coccolithophores coincides 24 with the long-term Neogene decline of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and bring further 25 valuable constraints by demonstrating a convergence of all examined species towards 26 inorganic values at high pCO_2 regimes. This study provides palaeoceanographers with a 27 biogeochemical framework that can be utilised to further develop the use of calcareous 28 nannofossils in palaeoceanography to derive sea surface temperature and pCO₂ levels, especially during periods of relatively elevated pCO₂ concentrations, as they prevailed during 29 30 most of the Meso-Cenozoic.

1 1 Introduction

2 The quest to generate reliable and accurate palaeoenvironmental reconstructions is hindered 3 by uncertainties in our current proxies from the sedimentary archive. One prominent caveat 4 owes to the biological origin of sedimentary calcareous particles in marine and oceanic 5 realms. As a consequence of the biological controls on chemical signals in algae, most 6 biominerals do not precipitate at equilibrium conditions and the compositional departure 7 between biocarbonates and an inorganic reference is commonly referred to as the vital effect. 8 Therefore, geochemical data from ancient biomineralising organisms must be corrected in 9 order to derive the primary signals from palaeoseawater. In the case of the foraminifera, 10 corals and coccoliths, the foremost carbonate producers in the marine realm, there has been a 11 considerable number of studies during which living organisms were cultured in strictly 12 controlled environmental conditions and their biominerals measured for a range of isotopic 13 systems to generate empirical proxy calibrations (Erez and Boa, 1982; Dudley et al., 1986; 14 Spero et al., 1997; Bemis et al., 1998; Ziveri et al., 2003; Tripati et al., 2010; Rickaby et al., 15 2010; Rollion-Bard et al., 2011; Grauel et al., 2013; Hermoso et al., 2014; Minoletti et al., 16 2014; Hermoso, 2015).

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Another important aim in palaeoceanography is to determine whether the physiology-induced fractionation for a given taxon was constant through time from an evolutionary perspective, and over shorter time intervals comprising large climatic fluctuations, in turn inducing an environmentally-driven modulation of the vital effect (Hermoso, 2014). In the absence of more reliable information, the Uniformitarianism principle – by which, the processes that were operating in the geological past still exist today, and *vice-versa*, is commonly applied for elucidating vital effects and reconstructing primary oceanographic signals.

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26 Although coccoliths are relatively challenging to extract at the species-specific level from 27 sediments compared to foraminifera, coccolith-based studies represent a growing field since 28 the pioneering work by Anderson and Steinmetz (1981). To better interpret coccolith isotope 29 signals and generate more reliable palaeoenvironmental estimates from these cosmopolitan 30 organisms, we need to gain a broader picture of their vital effects, and more specifically 31 determine how environmental parameters govern their magnitude. Several studies have specifically measured coccolith δ^{18} O with changing temperature in laboratory cultures in 32 33 order to determine and calibrate the temperature / δ^{18} O relationship for a wide range of species (Dudley et al., 1986; Ziveri et al., 2003; Candelier et al., 2013; Stevenson et al., 34

1 2014). Meanwhile, other culture studies have kept temperature constant but have manipulated 2 the carbonate chemistry of the culture medium and the irradiance level (Ziveri et al., 2003; 3 Rickaby et al., 2010; Hermoso, 2015) and found substantial modulation of the oxygen isotope 4 vital effect with these parameters at constant temperature. In most cases, only one parameter 5 was controlled at a time, and we are lacking cross-parameter investigations that are required 6 for the effective application of palaeoproxies. In nature, environmental parameters generally 7 co-vary, such as sea surface temperatures and pCO₂ concentrations. This is illustrated by the 8 recent natural environment study by Hermoso et al. (2015) analysing coccoliths 9 microseparated from core top sediments, which further illustrates the intricate (multiparameter) control of coccolith oxygen and carbon isotope compositions (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C. 10 11 respectively).

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13 These biogeochemical proxies raise questions regarding what vital effect coefficients should 14 be applied to ancient coccolith species extracted from Meso-Cenozoic sediments as 15 temperature and pCO₂ significantly evolved before reaching preindustrial levels. In the 16 present study, we document a multi-species control of stable carbon and oxygen isotope 17 composition under a wide range of DIC (hence pCO₂) levels at a constant pH of 8.2 (total 18 scale) recreated in the laboratory. As varying the availability of ambient DIC substrate may 19 modulate the degree of carbon limitation for algal growth (cell division rate and size), this 20 culture approach will allow us to determine whether the vital effect is constant for a given 21 coccolith species or changes with the environment, and in particular in response to ambient 22 carbon concentrations.

23

24 2 Material and methods

25 **2.1 Coccolithophore strains studied**

Emiliania huxleyi has attracted most recent attention in coccolithophore research due to its
dominance in present-day oceans, its importance in biogeochemical cycles, and
accompanying relevance to ocean chemistry and climate of the Anthropocene (*e.g.*, Bidigare
et al., 1997; Riebesell et al., 2000; Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 2008; De Bodt et al., 2010;
Suffrian et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2012; Bach et al., 2013; Sett et al., 2014; Tchernov et al.,
2014; Young et al., 2014; Aloisi, 2015; Holtz et al., 2015). The strain RCC 1256 used in this
study produces lightly calcified coccoliths assigned to the morphotype A (Langer et al.,

33 2011). From a geological point of view however, palaeoceanographic applications on *E*.

huxleyi only cover a narrow time interval as this species has only recently evolved (~ 268 kyr
 ago; Thierstein et al., 1977).

3

4 The species *Calcidiscus leptoporus* has a longer geological record with its first appearance in 5 pelagic sediments reported in the Miocene (Bown, 1998). This species was studied in culture 6 to assess changes in the morphology of its coccoliths with altered medium chemistry (Langer 7 and Bode, 2011) and isotopically (Ziveri et al., 2012; Candelier et al., 2013; Hermoso et al. 8 2014). In the present study, we used the strain RCC 1129 corresponding to the intermediate 9 morphotype on the merit of coccolith size. The same monoclonal strain was previously cultured by Candelier et al. (2013) and Hermoso et al. (2014) where cells were successively 10 11 subjected to change in temperature and medium oxygen composition.

12

13 The large and relatively ancient taxon *Coccolithus pelagicus* (strain RCC 1202 being studied

14 here) corresponds to the subspecies *braarudii*. This taxon has been examined isotopically in

15 culture (Rickaby et al., 2010; Hermoso et al. 2014; Stevenson et al., 2014). Amongst all

16 extant coccolithophore species, C. pelagicus has the longest geological record with a first

17 occurrence of the informally defined "C. pelagicus group" dated back to the Palaeogene (~ 66

- 18 Myr ago).
- 19

Pleurochrysis placolithoides has no direct geological relevance. The occurrence of this
species has not been reported in the fossil record owing to its nearshore ecology compared to
most coccolithophore species living in more open ocean settings (Young et al., 2003).
However, its coccosphere size is in between *C. pelagicus* and *C. leptoporus* – all taxa
belonging to the Coccolithales Order. As these two strains have contrasting vital effects, it is
interesting to study an intermediate cell size to further explore a link between cell morphology

and coccolith isotopic composition. The strain used in this study is RCC 1401.

27

28 2.2 Culture medium preparation

A raw batch of natural seawater collected from the English Channel (Station L4; 50° 15.00' N -4° 13.02' W) was supplied by MBA, Plymouth (UK). The batch of seawater (salinity ~ 33) was first acidified using concentrated HCl to reach pH ~ 2, conditions under which most of the dissolved inorganic carbon was present in form of aqueous CO₂. The batch was bubbled overnight with pure N₂ to remove DIC. Subsequently, pH was brought back to a value around 8 by addition of NaOH. Still under N₂ purge, we amended the medium in nitrate, phosphate,

1 EDTA and vitamins according to the K/2 recipe (see Hermoso et al., 2014 for further details). 2 To obtain the desired DIC level (2; 4; 6; 8; 10 and 12 mmol / kg_{sw}), we proceeded to add 3 calculated amounts of NaHCO₃ powder (Sigma – Batch CAS 144-55-8) in different aliquots 4 with immediate pH adjustment to 8.2 (total scale), after which each DIC batch then was 5 promptly filtered-sterilised and kept in Teflon-sealed flasks without headspace. Prior to 6 inoculation, each medium was measured for its total alkalinity using a 916 Ti Touch 7 automatic titrator (Metrohm) (Table 1). Successive alterations of the carbonate chemistry, due 8 to the addition of HCl, NaHCO₃ and NaOH, did not induce change in total alkalinity 9 compared to the original seawater batch, and there was a very good agreement between target 10 and measured DIC concentrations for each batch (within a range of 5 %).

11

12 2.3 Cell density, size and growth

During the acclimation and culture phases, cells were maintained at 15 °C and illuminated 13 14 under a daily 14h/10h light/dark cycle in Sanvo MLR-351 plant growth chambers. The irradiance was measured as 150 μ umol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Duplicate culture batches were 15 16 performed semi-continuously to allow DIC to remain stable with cell growth and preferential 17 CO₂ assimilation and utilisation by the cells leading to increasing pH (Hermoso, 2014), which 18 conforms to experimental guidelines (Barry et al., 2010). Unfortunately due to this 19 experimental set-up, too low amount (mass) of harvested culture residues has prevented us 20 from generating meaningful PIC/POC ratios for this study.

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22 The evolution of culture growth was determined by cell enumeration made every two days, 23 approximately 3 hours after the onset of the illuminated phase using a Beckman Coulter 24 Counter Series Z2 apparatus fitted with a 100 µm aperture tube. The diluent used was 25 ISOTON II obtained from Beckman Ltd. Calibration of spherical-equivalent coccosphere 26 sizes was performed daily using 10.16 µm diameter latex beads provided by the same 27 company. Coccosphere sizes were determined by the mode of Gaussian distribution on the 28 coccospheres given by the Coulter Counter device (Table 1). The specific growth rates (μ) 29 were calculated from cell densities measured at time of culture harvest (c_f) and two days prior 30 to that (c_{f-2}) , using the formula:

31

32
$$\mu [day^{-1}] = [\ln(c_f) - \ln(c_{f-2})]/2$$
 (1)

33

34 where cell concentrations are in number of cells per mL of culture medium.

2 2.4 **Isotopic analyses** Carbon and oxygen isotope compositions of coccolith calcite and the oxygen isotopic ratios 3 4 from water media were measured as described in Hermoso et al. (2014). In brief, coccolith 5 calcite from rinsed and oxidised culture residues were measured using a VG Isogas Prism II 6 mass spectrometer with an on-line VG Isocarb at Oxford University. Results ($\delta^{18}O_c$ and $\delta^{13}C_c$) are expressed against the international V-PDB reference (Table 1). Medium $\delta^{18}O$ 7 compositions ($\delta^{18}O_{sw}$) were determined by gas-water exchange on a Delta Gas Bench II 8 coupled to a Delta V Advantage mass spectrometer at the University of Oxford. A similar 9 10 value was obtained for all the DIC batches with a typical value of +0.50% V-SMOW. 11 The δ^{13} C of NaHCO₃ powder used was directly measured on the Prism with a value of -2.5412 % V-PDB. Subsequently, $\delta^{13}C$ of DIC ($\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$) were measured at Cambridge University 13 using a Thermo Gas Bench attached to a Delta V mass spectrometer and isotopic values were 14 similar for each batch (within typical error of ± 0.1 ‰) and indistinguishable from that of the 15 16 NaHCO₃ powder employed to amend the growth milieus. 17 18 The magnitude of the vital effects for the oxygen and carbon isotope systems is expressed as the isotopic offset of coccolith calcite from inorganic calcite ($\delta^{18}O_{inorg and}\delta^{13}C_{inorg}$, 19 respectively) calculated using the equations provided by Kim and O'Neil (1997) and 20 21 Romanek et al. (1992). 22 ¹⁸O Vital effect [‰ V-PDB] = $\delta^{18}O_c$ [‰ V-PDB] - $\delta^{18}O_{inorg}$ [‰ V-PDB] 23 (2) 24 where $\delta^{18}O_{inorg}$ is calculated after the equation of Kim and O'Neil (1997) and Bemis et al. 25 26 (1998). We note that this computed oxygen isotopic composition is indistinguishable from 27 that of Watkins et al. (2014) with a biogenic-relevant kinetic effect (see Hermoso, 2015). For our experiments, a constant δ^{18} O_{inorg} value of -0.04 % V-PDB was calculated for a 28 29 temperature of 15 °C and an oxygen isotope composition of the culture medium of +0.5 ‰ 30 V-SMOW. 31 ¹³C Vital effect [‰ V-PDB] = $\delta^{13}C_{c}$ [‰ V-PDB] – $\delta^{13}C_{inorg}$ [‰ V-PDB] 32 (3) 33

1	where $\delta^{13}C_{\text{inorg}}$ is calculated as $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ +1 (Romanek et al., 1992), hence $\delta^{13}C_{\text{inorg}}$ has a
2	constant value of +1 ‰ expressed in the $\delta^{13}C_c - \delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ referential.

4 3 Results

5 3.1 Modern-day dissolved inorganic carbon concentration (~ 2 mmol / kg of

6 **DIC)**

7 3.1.1 Growth rates and coccosphere sizes

- 8 Cell division rates at pre-industrial DIC levels (~ 2 mmol / kg) are similar to those found in
- 9 published literature (Langer et al., 2006, 2009; Rickaby et al., 2010; Bach et al., 2013;
- 10 Candelier et al., 2013; Hermoso et al., 2014; Kottmeier et al., 2014; Sett et al., 2014).
- 11 Emiliania huxleyi is the fastest grower for the smaller cell size, achieving about one division
- 12 per day ($\mu \sim 0.7 \text{ day}^{-1}$) (Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b). The largest cells of *C. pelagicus* and *P*.
- 13 *placolithoides* (19 and 16 µm diameter on average, respectively) show specific growth rates
- 14 around 0.5 day⁻¹. *Calcidiscus leptoporus* with a coccosphere diameter between *E. huxleyi* and
- 15 *P. placolithoides* (~ 10 μ m) exhibits the lowest division rates among all examined species at 2

16 mmol / kg of DIC, with μ values around 0.3 day⁻¹ (Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b).

17

18 **3.1.2** Carbon isotope composition of coccolith calcite

- 19 The interspecies range in coccolith $\delta^{13}C_c$ values grown under preindustrial CO₂ levels (~ 270
- 20 ppm / \sim 2 mmol / kg of DIC) is considerable, on the order of 3 ‰ (Fig. 2a). This variation
- 21 confirms the presence of very large vital effects for the carbon isotope system (Ziveri et al.,

22 2003; Rickaby et al., 2010; Hermoso et al., 2014). Coccolith calcite carbon isotopic

- 23 compositions are distributed either side of the inorganic reference value (Fig. 2a): *E. huxleyi*
- 24 and *P. placolithoides* exhibit positive δ^{13} C values (hence, a "positive" ¹³C vital effect). Due to

25 insufficient calcite yield at harvest for isotopic analysis for *P. placolithoides* grown at 2 mmol

- 26 / kg of DIC, the assignment of *P. placolithoides* to an isotopic "heavy group" (*sensu* Dudley
- et al., 1986) is inferred by extrapolation from the 4 12 mmol / kg range. *C. pelagicus* and *C*.
- 28 *leptoporus* meanwhile have relatively similar $\delta^{13}C_c \delta^{13}C_{inorg}$ values, corresponding to a -2.5
- 29 % vital effect. Overall, these numbers are in good agreement with published literature when
- 30 cultures were grown at low cell concentration (see synthesis in Hermoso, 2014). However,
- 31 substantial differences in the carbon isotope fractionation of *E. huxleyi* are apparent between
- 32 the data reported here and in the work by Rost et al. (2002) (Fig. 2a). It is worth noting that
- 33 different methodologies were applied to manipulate the carbonate chemistry of the media. In

1 the present study, [DIC] and $[CO_{2 aq}]$ linearly covary, whereas in the work by Rost et al. 2 (2002), [DIC] was constant, but the pH values of each batch were different (7.9 – 8.6), hence 3 suggesting a combined CO₂ availabity and pH effect on coccolith δ^{13} C values. The same 4 study also revealed a modulation of the ¹³C vital effect operated by the intensity of light

5 irradiance and by the photoperiod.

6

7 3.1.3 Oxygen isotope composition of coccolith calcite

8 The δ^{18} O of coccolith calcite grown by algae exposed to 2 mmol / kg of DIC is also

- 9 comparable to values reported in literature with media aerated with laboratory air (Ziveri et
- 10 al., 2003; Candelier et al., 2013; Hermoso et al., 2014; Stevenson et al., 2014) (Fig. 2b). Our
- 11 data are thus compatible with the assignment of coccolith species into three groups on the
- 12 merit of oxygen isotope composition either from $\delta^{18}O_c \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ or from $\delta^{18}O_c \delta^{18}O_{inorg}$
- 13 values (the latter being used to quantify the magnitude of the "vital effect"; Eq. 2). *Emiliania*
- 14 *huxleyi* ("heavy group") has the most positive $\delta^{18}O_c$ values and large vital effects (+2 ‰) (Fig.
- 15 2b). *Coccolithus pelagicus* ("equilibrium group") produces calcite with oxygen isotope
- 16 composition close to that of inorganic calcite, although in the present study, the values are
- 17 slightly (~ 0.5 ‰) shifted towards relatively high δ^{18} O ratios. *Calcidiscus leptoporus* ("light
- 18 group") exhibits lower $\delta^{18}O_c$ values than the inorganic reference (Fig. 2b). The offset from
- 19 inorganic calcite is -1.4 ‰ for *C. leptoporus*, the same magnitude of the vital effect reported
- 20 by Candelier et al. (2013) rather than those by Dudley et al. (1986). By extrapolation from
- 21 higher DIC levels in amended medium, it can be deduced that *P. placolithoides* would belong

to the "light group", which is consistent with the work of Dudley et al. (1986) concerning the

- 23 closely related species *Pleurochrysis carterae*.
- 24

3.2 Effect of increased DIC (at constant pH) on growth and isotopes (4 – 12 26 mmol / kg of DIC)

27 3.2.1 Change in cell size and growth rate with increased DIC

28 Contrasting responses among examined species are observed in the evolution of specific

29 growth rates and coccosphere volume with increased ambient DIC level, and as a result, in the

- 30 carbon resource around the cells (Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b). The relatively fast growing *E. huxleyi*
- 31 species exhibits fertilisation (higher growth rates) from 2 to 8 mmol / kg, beyond which a
- 32 decrease is observed at the highest DIC levels. A similar decrease at high alkalinity was
- 33 previously observed on the close relative *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* (Rickaby et al., 2010). Both

1 C. leptoporus and C. pelagicus decreased cellular division rates over the 2 to 12 mmol / kg

- 2 range of DIC concentration, but decreased growth rates are marked for C. *pelagicus* with μ
- 3 linearly changing from 0.5 down to 0.1 day^{-1} with increasing DIC concentrations. Changing
- 4 ambient DIC does not induce significant modulation of growth rate for the species *P*.
- 5 *placolithoides.* One may expect decreased μ to be accompanied by longer generation time,
- 6 and hence larger cell sizes (Aloisi, 2015). However, there is no covariation between growth
- 7 rates and coccosphere and cell sizes for the species examined here (Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b).
- 8 Nevertheless, the data confirm that both *E. huxleyi* and *P. placolithoides* cells become
- 9 relatively larger with elevated DIC levels, as observed for the former in the work by Müller et
- 10 al. (2012). Calcidiscus leptoporus exhibits no change in size with DIC availabity, whereas C.
- 11 *pelagicus* shows significantly decreased coccospheres sizes at high DIC levels.
- 12

13 **3.2.2** Change in carbon isotope composition of coccolith calcite

14 With increased DIC concentration in the culture medium, species that exhibited high $\delta^{13}C$

15 values at 2 mmol / kg of DIC show a significant decrease in $\delta^{13}C_c - \delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values, hence a

- 16 diminished vital effect (Fig. 2a). The observed decreases in $\delta^{13}C_c \delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ with increasing
- 17 DIC are linear ($r^2 = 0.96$ for *E. huxleyi* and 0.70 for *P. placolithoides*). At the highest DIC
- 18 concentrations, it appears that the averages between the two duplicates show coccolith calcite
- 19 $\delta^{13}C_c$ values for these two species indistinguishable from that of the inorganic reference
- 20 (sensu Romanek et al., 1992), hence vital effects vanish at high DIC. By contrast, species with
- 21 lowest δ^{13} C at 2 mmol / kg (*C. pelagicus and C. leptoporus*) show increased carbon isotope
- 22 compositions with addition of DIC in the medium, a trend that also corresponds to a strong
- 23 decrease in the expression of the vital effect for these species (Fig. 2a). This positive
- evolution is linear for *C. leptoporus* ($r^2 = 0.83$) and *C. pelagicus* ($r^2 = 0.85$), although for the
- 25 latter largest species the 2 mmol / kg datapoints departs from the 4 12 mmol / kg linear trend
- 26 with substantial low δ^{13} C values. This "jump" in *C. pelagicus* δ^{13} C values between 2 and 4
- 27 mmol / kg represents most of the evolution in the δ^{13} C composition over the whole range of
- 28 DIC concentration investigated here. At the highest DIC concentration, *C. pelagicus* exhibits
- 29 near inorganic δ^{13} C values, whereas *C. leptoporus* remains –0.4 ‰ negatively shifted from
- 30 this reference.
- 31

32 **3.2.3** Change in oxygen isotope composition of coccolith calcite

1 The typology of a heavy and light isotopic group for the oxygen isotope system still exists 2 with increased ambient DIC concentration, but the magnitude of the vital effect is considerably reduced with coccolith $\delta^{18}O_c$ tending towards inorganic values over the 2 to 12 3 mmol / kg of DIC range. Not only are interspecies ¹⁸O vital effects reduced at high DIC, but 4 also as is the case for carbon isotopes, the absolute vital effects become significantly reduced 5 6 at the highest DIC level (Fig. 2b). There is, however, a residual +1.3 $\% \delta^{18}$ O shift for E. 7 huxleyi at 12 mmol / kg of DIC, yet representing a substantial decrease in the magnitude of 8 the vital effect compared to the 2 mmol / kg measurement. The large species C. pelagicus, 9 assigned to a near-inorganic (sensu Kim and O'Neil, 1997) group shows constant δ^{18} O values 10 with a limited vital effect (+0.45 %), regardless of changes in ambient DIC concentrations.

11

12 4 Discussion

13 4.1 Nature of observed isotopic changes: inorganic or vital effect?

14 In biological systems, an increase in the DIC concentration of the ambient medium may not 15 be linearly related to that of the mineralising fluid due to the effects of physiology (vital effect). The observation of such contrasting interspecific responses in μ , $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ with 16 17 increased DIC levels in different species points towards a biological control. That the light group increases and the heavy group decreases coccolith δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values precludes a 18 19 unified thermodynamic mechanism, as the direction of isotopic changes with increased DIC 20 are opposite (Fig. 2a; Fig. 2b). Likewise, we cannot explain the isotopic data of coccoliths by 21 a shift in the relative assimilation of HCO_3^- and CO_2 by the cells with changing ambient DIC 22 concentration (Kottmeier et al., 2014).

23

24 Theoretical work and experiments seeking to identify the control of inorganic calcite isotopes 25 have provided useful reference points that are valuable to understand biogeochemical signals and the magnitude of the vital effect. For the carbon isotope system, calcite $\delta^{13}C$ composition 26 27 is insensitive to temperature, precipitation rates and geologically relevant seawater pH values 28 (Romanek et al., 1992). Thermodynamically, the mechanisms and the dynamics of oxygen 29 isotope fractionation are very different to those for the carbon isotopes (Zeebe and Wolf-30 Gladrow, 2001). Large isotopic kinetic effects are documented with high precipitation rates favouring ¹⁶O incorporation into the calcite crystal (Gabitov et al., 2012). This effect can be as 31 high as 1.5 % for δ^{18} O values, and corresponds to the "kinetic limit" by Watkins et al. (2013, 32 33 2014). An understanding of the saturation state with respect to calcite in the coccolith vesicle,

and of true calcite precipitation rates is currently lacking. Both of these concepts are relevant
 for understanding the vital effect.

3

The present dataset is not sufficient to tackle whether coccolithophore calcite isotopically derives from a CO₂ or a HCO₃⁻ source, as it would have required measurement of coeval $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ values. Current literature points towards a mixture of these two DIC species for calcification (e.g. Kottmeier et al., 2014). In the following account, we develop an empirical approach on stable isotopes in coccoliths. Our primary aim here is to better interpret fossil coccolith isotopic signals in the context of DIC availability in the past, without making a hypothesis on which DIC species is used.

11

12 **4.2** From carbon availability for the cell to the expression of vital effect

13 **4.2.1 Carbon isotope system**

14 In photosynthetic, or photosynthetic-associated biomineralisers such as the foraminifera,

- 15 corals and coccolithophores, a ¹²C-DIC depletion of the internal carbon pool due to
- 16 photosynthetic fractionation by the enzyme Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate
- 17 carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) may imprint the whole internal carbon pool (Ci) leading
- 18 to substantial isotopic consequences on the stable isotope composition of biominerals
- 19 (McConnaughey, 1989; Spero et al., 1997; Hermoso et al., 2014).
- 20
- 21 The species *E. huxleyi* and *P. placolithoides* show particularly high calcite δ^{13} C values,
- isotopically higher than both the possible HCO₃⁻ and CO_{2 aq} sources (for reference: $\Delta^{13}C_{CO2 aq}$
- 23 $_{-\text{HCO3}}$ ~ 9 ‰ and Δ^{13} C_{calcite-HCO3} ~ 1 ‰ at 15 °C; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). By
- 24 contrast, C. pelagicus and C. leptoporus have lower carbon isotopic composition at
- 25 preindustrial (2 mmol / kg) DIC level, falling between δ^{13} C of CO_{2 aq} and δ^{13} C of HCO₃⁻,
- 26 hence with a lower carbon isotope composition than the inorganic calcite (Fig. 2a).
- 27
- 28 In species characterised by low PIC/POC, typically E. huxleyi, the internal DIC pool is
- 29 isotopically offset towards high δ^{13} C values due to intense preferential ¹²C fixation by
- 30 photosynthesis (Laws et al., 2002; Benthien et al., 2007; Hermoso et al., 2014; Tchernov et
- al., 2014). In the culture experiments on *E. huxleyi* by Bach et al. (2013), PIC/POC ratios
- 32 increased in response to increasing [DIC], which was explained by a decrease in the
- 33 production of POC. Thus, the lowered *E. huxleyi* δ^{13} C measured at high DIC concentrations in
- 34 the present study are the likely consequence of the internal carbon pool becoming less

- 1 imprinted by ¹²C photosynthetic-driven Rayleigh fractionation because the latter process is 2 "diluted" in a larger internal carbon pool. We must note, however, that there are substantial 3 discrepancies in the reported $\delta^{13}C_c - \delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values for *E. huxleyi* between the present study 4 and that by Rost et al. (2002) (Fig. 2a). These differences can be tentatively assigned to 5 divergences in the experimental setup, such as a combined effect of $[CO_{2 aq}]$ and pH in the 6 dataset by Rost et al. (2002), pointing towards a more complex control on the expression of 7 the vital effect than that exerted merely by CO₂ availability.
- 8
- Species originally with very high δ^{13} C values at 2 mmol / kg of DIC show a clear increase in 9 their coccolith carbon isotopic ratios with increasing DIC. The increase in C. leptoporus and 10 C. pelagicus δ^{13} C with increased DIC is well-correlated with DIC concentrations (Fig. 2a). It 11 is surprising to observe a clear decrease of specific growth rates of C. leptoporus and C. 12 13 *pelagicus* with more carbon resource in the medium. It has been suggested that intense 14 calcification in C. pelagicus may impair growth under high DIC levels due to the challenge to 15 translocate protons outside the cells (Rickaby et al., 2010; Hermoso, 2015). The explanation for higher δ^{13} C values of C. leptoporus and C. pelagicus is likely to be common, as with more 16 17 DIC, a decrease of the PIC/POC ratio is observed in both species (Rickaby et al., 2010; 18 Langer and Bode, 2011; Bach et al., 2013; Diner et al., 2015). With enhanced organic carbon 19 fixation over calcification (*i.e.*, decreased PIC/POC), the whole cell carbon isotopic inventory may become more imprinted by photosynthetic ¹²C depletion, and as a result, both species 20 21 produce coccoliths exhibiting isotopically higher carbon isotope signatures, an opposite trend 22 to that observed for *E. huxlevi*.
- 23

24 4.2.2 Oxygen isotope system

25 It has been hypothesised that the isotopic heavy group is an isotopic relic of a partial CO₂

- 26 assimilation by coccolithophore cells (Hermoso et al., 2014). Indeed, CO_2 bears excess ¹⁸O
- atoms compared to DIC and HCO_3^- ; the isotopic composition used to compute that of

equilibrium calcite (Kim and O'Neil, 1997; Bemis et al. 1998; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow,

- 29 2001). The fraction of the DIC influx to the cell entering in the form of HCO_3^- does not
- 30 induce any ¹⁸O-enrichment of the *Ci* ($\Delta^{18}O_{CO2 aq-HCO3}$ -= 23.6 ‰; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow,
- 31 2001). As the oxygen isotopic composition of inorganic calcite is primarily computed from
- 32 δ^{18} O of HCO₃⁻ (Kim and O'Neil, 1997; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). Without other
- 33 thermodynamic effects, a mere acquisition of HCO_3^- by the cell would correspond to
- 34 equilibrium values. We must add that due to the complexity of the kinetics of the oxygen

1 isotope system, it is, however, impossible to use coccolith δ^{18} O to quantify the relative supply 2 of DIC by aqueous CO₂ and bicarbonate ions.

3

4 Under low ambient DIC level and consecutive carbon limited conditions there may be a fast 5 turnover of the internal carbon pool (Nimer et al., 1992), which allows less time between CO₂ 6 assimilation and calcification in the coccolith vesicle. The residence time of the fraction of the 7 Ci built from assimilation of aqueous CO₂ to calcification is fundamental for the extent to which this ¹⁸O-rich carbon influx is registered by the coccolith calcite, as it tends to be erased 8 9 due to isotopic exchange between DIC and H₂O molecules. In a fast growing (calcifying) species, the ¹⁸O excess borne by the Ci is less isotopically re-equilibrated, and leads to 10 relatively high δ^{18} O values in coccoliths compared to inorganic calcite or slow growers such 11 12 as C. pelagicus.

13

14 In the present study, in all species except C. *pelagicus* that always displays near-inorganic δ^{18} O values, a link between [DIC] and δ^{18} O values confirms that the ¹⁸O vital effect may be 15 16 related to the overturning rate (or the "demand-to-supply" ratio, see Bolton and Stoll, 2013). 17 The corresponding isotopic relevant process for the oxygen isotope system is the residence 18 time of the internal carbon pool from cell assimilation of carbon resource to calcification. In *E. huxleyi* with increasing DIC, the record of this ¹⁸O excess vanishes, implying that the 19 intracellular residence time of the DIC species in the carbon pool must increase with DIC 20 21 availability, therefore diminishing the isotopic offset. Comparing our isotope data for E. 22 huxlevi and those for G. oceanica by Rickaby et al. (2010), we observe that there seems to be 23 an isotopic continuum between the two species based on their isotopic composition / [DIC] 24 relationship (Fig. 3).

25

26 For C. pelagicus, possible changes of the residence time of the carbon pool prior to its partial mineralisation does not induce expression of an ¹⁸O vital effect (Fig. 2b). Near-equilibrium 27 28 composition of C. pelagicus calcite was consistently found under changing temperature and pH conditions (Stevenson et al., 2014; Hermoso, 2015). The expression of very limited ¹⁸O 29 30 vital effect, likely due to the completeness of the oxygen isotope DIC - H₂O exchange at time 31 of calcification in this relatively slow growing species (Hermoso et al., 2014), is a 32 fundamentally important observation with respect to palaeoclimate studies in deep time, due 33 to the geological importance of this near "vital effect-free" species that can be used as a

34 reference.

With this biogeochemical control of oxygen isotope fractionation in coccolith calcite in mind, it remains difficult to explain the lower magnitude of the ¹⁸O vital effect for the isotopic "light group" (*C. leptoporus* and *P. placolithoides*). That higher coccolith δ^{18} O values are recorded with higher ¹⁸O-rich CO₂ influx may represent an intuitive reasoning, and reconcile the data. However, their δ^{18} O values are "capped" by equilibrium values and do not go towards the heavy group end-member as observed in *E. huxleyi* or *G. oceanica* (Fig. 2b), challenging this hypothesis.

9

10 4.3 Outlook for coccolith-based palaeoceanographic reconstructions

Using geological evidence in the Neogene, it was reported that large coccoliths exhibit $\delta^{13}C$ 11 12 values similar to that of planktonic foraminifera whose composition was regarded close to the DIC composition (Bolton et al., 2012). In contrast, small coccoliths were reported to have 13 relatively high δ^{13} C values in the same study. Our culture data at relatively low DIC 14 15 concentrations are compatible with these natural environment observations. Furthermore, the present culture-based study confirms the limited expression of ¹³C vital effect at highest DIC 16 level (Fig. 2a). For coccolith δ^{18} O, the same authors found the opposite: the smallest 17 18 coccoliths are closest to the foraminifera, and the bigger coccoliths show higher isotopic 19 values. This is also in agreement with the isotopic typology of coccolith calcite, with the 20 notable difference that in culture, larger cells such as C. pelagicus exhibit near equilibrium 21 composition. One possible explanation for this discrepancy between culture and sediment data 22 may be the exacerbation of the vital effect in culture due to highly fertilising growth 23 conditions of coccolithophores exposed to high light and nutrient levels (Hermoso et al., 24 2015). Although the present culture data can be regarded as robust, based on reproducibility 25 of growth and isotope composition in replicated bioassays and thanks to the very dilute 26 cultures undertaken, other carefully conducted studies have reported significantly different 27 carbon isotope fractionation values for E. huxlevi using another methodology than that 28 implemented in the present study (Rost et al., 2002; Fig. 2a). This discrepancy highlights that 29 carbon availability cannot be considered as the only driving parameter dictating the 30 magnitude of the vital effects in coccolith calcite. Further experimental work is required to 31 deconvolve the effects of the intricate mechanisms governing them, and ultimately to account 32 for changes in seawater carbonate chemistry as they occur in the "real" oceans. On a similar 33 note, we should stress the importance to consider the whole set of environment parameters, as 34 in our study case, light, nutrient and DIC conditions were likely replete with respect to the

1 natural environment. Under the assumption that in culture, growth rate reached their maxima,

2 it would appear that in the natural environment growth rates were lower, and as a

3 consequence the vital effect, especially for the oxygen isotopes, were also lower.

4

5 Using our empirical calibration between the magnitude of the vital effect with DIC 6 concentration or with equivalent pCO₂ (Fig 2a; Fig. 2b; Fig. 3), we validate and encourage the 7 use of coccolith monotaxic to infer SST estimates. The present study indicates that 8 reconstructing meaningful SST estimates from coccolith calcite (and hence, bulk carbonate) 9 δ^{18} O values requires the a priori knowledge of the range of pCO₂ concentrations for the 10 considered time interval. Further, the data indicate that a constant coefficient of the vital 11 effect cannot homogenously be applied on a coccolith species over its entire geological 12 existence with the notable exception of *Coccolithus pelagicus*. For this species, a unique correction of the ¹⁸O vital effect of 0.5 % can be applied on $\delta^{18}O_c$ values to reconstruct SSTs 13 14 under relatively elevated pCO₂ levels, typically over 600 ppm. Furthermore, it is worth noting 15 that the magnitude of this biological fractionation does not change with pH in this species 16 (Hermoso, 2015). In the dataset of Rickaby et al. (2010), the reported coefficient of the vital 17 effect is the same for C. pelagicus at high DIC than in the present study, and for G. oceanica, 18 it is of 0.7 ‰ above a 600 ppm threshold.

19

20 Exploiting interspecies signals, as the large-small coccolith isotopic offset proposed by 21 Bolton et al. (2012) has the notable advantage to circumvent uncertainties that complicate palaeoceanographic reconstructions (salinity, temperature, seawater δ^{18} O), as they are 22 23 cancelled out, as they have, at least to first order, a similar effect on coccolith calcite 24 composition. Indeed, considering the arguments presented in this study showing a control by 25 ambient carbon availability and growth dynamics, it appears that the magnitude of the vital 26 effect contains an important environmental parameter sought in palaeoceanography, namely DIC concentrations. Interspecies $\Delta \delta^{18}$ O and $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C offsets with [DIC] can be calculated in the 27 28 context of the investigated geological period using the data from the present work or those in 29 Rickaby et al. (2010).

30

31 The hypothesis by Bolton and Stoll (2013) about a possible "Late Miocene threshold" at

32 about 375 - 575 ppm of atmospheric of CO₂ is expressed in our dataset by a big "jump" in

33 δ^{13} C value for *Coccolithus pelagicus* (not seen in δ^{18} O values). In high DIC (elevated

34 atmospheric CO₂) regimes of ocean history with vanished vital effects, departures from the

1	unified +1 ‰ in $\delta^{13}C_c - \delta^{13}C$ values that can be reconstruct with paired coccolith /
2	foraminifera measurements can be used as a proxy for photosynthetic activity in
3	coccolithophores. This approach could complement alkenone-derived palaeo-CO ₂ estimates
4	by significantly contribute constraining seawater $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ composition and the so-called "b"
5	coefficient (Pagani, 2002; Pagani et al., 2005). This novel approach (recently outlined in
6	Hermoso, 2015; Hermoso et al., 2015) will require coupled foraminiferal data that may serve
7	as inorganic reference (Spero et al., 2003). In addition, it appears possible to reconstruct cell
8	geometry via morphometric measurements made on fossil coccoliths (Henderiks and Rickaby,
9	2007; Henderiks, 2008; Henderiks and Pagani, 2008), as this parameter is of paramount
10	importance for inferring algal growth dynamics and cell size in the absence of preserved
11	coccospheres in the sedimentary register, except in some peculiar settings (Gibbs et al., 2013).

13 **5** Conclusions

This work provides new constraints on the "mobilis in mobili" nature of the vital effect in 14 15 coccolith calcite (Hermoso, 2014). We show that the turnover of carbon and differences in growth rates and potentially relative allocation of the internal pool to photosynthesis and 16 17 calcification (PIC/POC) concurrently set the magnitude of the vital effect in both carbon and 18 oxygen isotope systems. In coccolithophores, the expression of the vital effect is stronger with 19 a small internal carbon reservoir induced by relatively low ambient carbon concentrations 20 typical of the modern oceans compared to the pCO_2 Neogene history. Several lines of 21 evidence now point towards reduced, if not absent, vital effect under high CO₂ levels, as 22 prevailed during the most of the Meso-Cenozoic. Therefore, the assumption that downcore 23 coccolith δ^{18} O can be transferred into SST estimates using the equations outlined in Kim and 24 O'Neil (1997) or more recently in Watkins et al. (2013) becomes practical when studying 25 deep time intervals. Due to the complex physiological and environmental control on isotopes 26 in coccolithophores, a fully quantitative modelling approach is now essential, in particular to 27 trace which DIC species are used from the external environment to the coccolith vesicle, and 28 thus refine our understanding of the precise mechanisms behind the vital effect. 29

30 Since the pioneering studies on coccolith geochemistry in the 1980s (Anderson and

31 Steinmetz, 1981; Steinmetz and Anderson, 1984; Dudley et al., 1986), a growing body of

32 literature highlights the potential for application to palaeoceanography. Recent work shows

33 major steps towards a complete understanding of the vital effect imprinting isotopes of

34 coccolith calcite based on biogeochemistry and physiology, which may "rival" our

quantitative understanding of foraminiferal proxies. These studies and the present work point
 towards the possibility to generate coccolith-derived long term SST reconstruction and/or
 pCO₂ levels during periods of abrupt climate change, such as the PETM, Cenozoic climate
 optima or Mesozoic OAEs.

5

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- 1 Figure captions
- 2

Figure 1. Changes in algae specific growth rates (panel a) and coccosphere diameter (panel b)
on a range of 2 to 12 mmol / kg of DIC per kg of seawater in the culture medium. Key for

5 species is inset at the top of the figure.

6

7 Figure 2. Changes in coccolith (a) carbon and (b) oxygen isotopes with DIC addition in the culture medium. The results are expressed by isotopic offset of coccolith composition from 8 $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ for carbon (panel a) and from medium $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ for oxygen (panel b). Inorganic calcite 9 references as materialised by the grey horizontal bars on the graphs are calculated according 10 11 to the equation given by Romanek et al. (1992) and Kim and O'Neil et al. (1997) for carbon 12 and oxygen isotopes, respectively. Correspondence between DIC concentrations and pCO₂ 13 levels were obtained via the CO2Calc software (Table 1). Legend for species is inset. For comparison with previous studies, the grev circles indicate the $\delta^{13}C_c - \delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values for E. 14 *huxleyi* grown by Rost et al. (2002) – work in which targeted $[CO_{2a0}]$ were obtained by the 15 16 titration method (hence pH was left variable between 7.9 and 8.6). Note that only the pCO_2 17 scale on top of the graph applies for these datapoints. 18

19 Figure 3. Scatter plot of carbon and oxygen isotopic offsets with increased DIC

20 concentration. Superimposed on the linear regression lines, the wider side of the red triangles

21 denotes higher DIC level. With increased DIC and aqueous CO₂ concentration in the medium,

22 we observe a clear decrease in the magnitude of isotopic disequilibria in both carbon and

23 oxygen systems, with coccolith isotope compositions converging towards inorganic

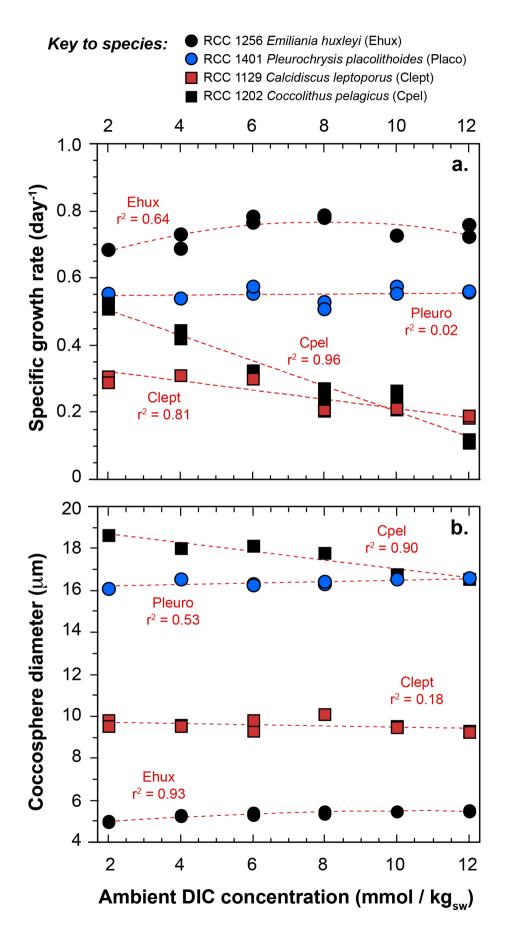
24 composition. Note that a correction of +0.64 ‰ was applied to the $\delta^{18}O_c$ values of Rickaby et

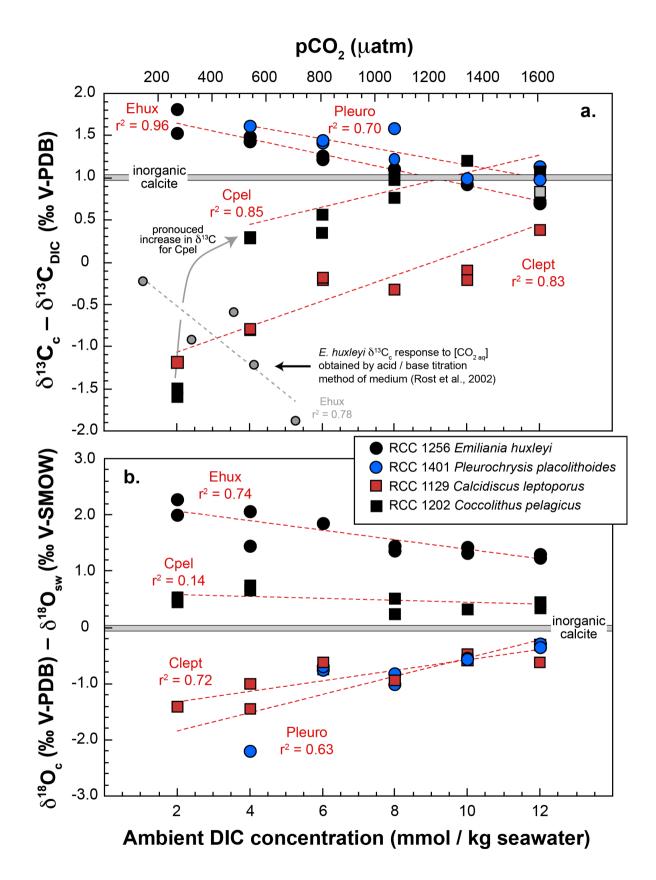
al. (2010) to account for a temperature offset of +3 °C with the culture data of the present

study.

27

28 **Table 1.** Numerical dataset.





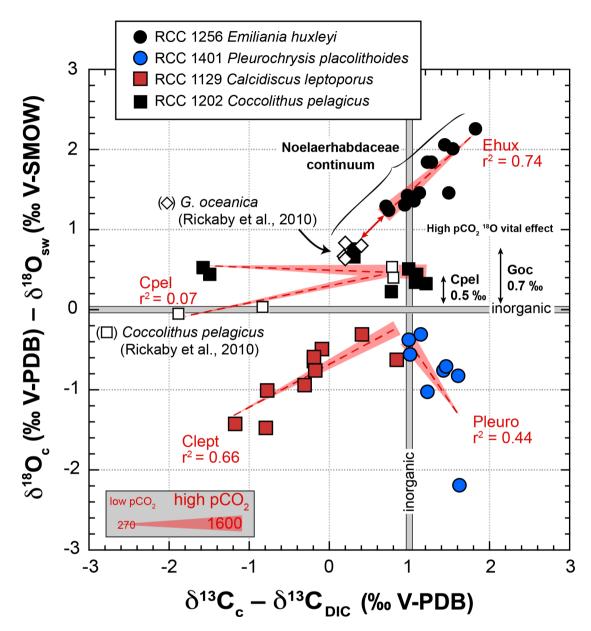


Table 1: Numerical dataset.	Table	1:	Numerical	dataset.
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	Target DIC	Temperatur	e	pН	TA	CO _{2 aq}	HCO3	CO32-	pCO ₂	δ ¹⁸ O _{5W}	$\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$	$\delta^{13}C_{\text{inorg}}$	$\delta^{18}O_{inorg}$	$\delta^{13}C_c$	δ ¹⁸ O _c	$\delta - \delta^{18}O_{c-sw}$	$\delta\text{-}\delta^{13}C_{\text{c-DIC}}$	ε ¹⁸ _{c-sw}	ε ¹³ c-DI	, μ	Coccosphere diameter
	mmol kg ⁻¹	°C	Salinity	total scale	µmol kg-1	µmol kg-1	µmol kg ⁻¹	µmol kg ⁻¹	μatm		% V-PDB	% V-PDB	% V-PDB			% V-PDB - V-SMOW	% V-PDB	no unit			μm
Emiliania huxleyi	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-0.73	2.77	2.27	1.81	29.66	0.81	0.69	
	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.00	2.51	2.01	1.54	29.38	0.54	0.68	5.01
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	20.2	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.05	1.96	1.46	1.49	29.33	0.49	0.73	
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	19.9	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.10	2.56	2.06	1.44	29.28	0.44	0.69	
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	30.3	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.31	2.36	1.86	1.23	29.05	0.23	0.77	
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	29.8	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.28	2.35	1.85	1.26	29.09	0.26	0.78	
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.49	1.87	1.37	1.05	28.87	0.05	0.78	
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.43	1.96	1.46	1.11	28.93	0.11	0.79	
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.56	1.94	1.44	0.98	28.80	-0.02		5.50
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.61	1.82	1.32	0.93	28.75	-0.07	0.73	
	12 12	15 15	33 33	8.2 8.2	12963 12963	60.6 59.6	10684.7 10684.7	1254.7 1254.7	1604 1604	0.50 0.50	-2.54 -2.54	-1.54 -1.54	-0.04 -0.04	-1.85	1.81 1.75	1.31 1.25	0.69 0.73	28.51 28.55	-0.31	0.76	5.53 5.48
	12	15	33	8.2	12903	59.6	10684.7	1204.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.04	-0.04	-1.81	1.75	1.25	0.73	28.55	-0.27	0.72	5.48
Pleurochrysis placolithoides	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					0.56	16.12
	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					NA	NA
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	20.2	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					NA	NA
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	19.9	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-0.92	-1.68	-2.18	1.62	29.47	0.62	0.54	16.55
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	30.3	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.11	-0.26	-0.76	1.43	29.26	0.43	0.55	
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	29.8	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.09	-0.19	-0.69	1.45	29.28	0.45	0.58	16.26
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-0.94	-0.32	-0.82	1.60	29.44	0.60	0.53	16.33
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.32	-0.51	-1.01	1.22	29.05	0.22	0.51	16.43
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.54	-0.05	-0.55	1.00	28.82	0.00	0.58	16.56
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.54	-0.05	-0.55	1.00	28.82	0.00	0.56	16.56
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	60.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.40	0.21	-0.29	1.14	28.96	0.14	0.56	16.53
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	59.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.55	0.14	-0.36	0.99	28.81	-0.01	0.56	16.59
Calcidiscus leptoporus	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					0.31	9.83
	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-3.72	-0.91	-1.41	-1.18	26.57	-2.18	0.29	9.53
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	20.2	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-3.34	-0.96	-1.46	-0.80	26.97	-1.80	0.31	9.61
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	19.9	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-3.32	-0.51	-1.01	-0.78	26.99	-1.78	0.31	9.54
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	30.3	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.74	-0.13	-0.63	-0.20	27.58	-1.20	0.30	9.34
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	29.8	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.72	-0.24	-0.74	-0.18	27.61	-1.18	0.30	9.80
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					0.20	10.10
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.86	-0.44	-0.94	-0.32	27.46	-1.32	0.21	
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.64	0.02	-0.48	-0.10	27.69	-1.10	0.21	9.53
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.75	-0.09	-0.59	-0.21	27.58	-1.21	0.21	9.48
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	60.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.70	-0.11	-0.61	0.84	28.66	-0.16	0.18	9.30
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	59.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.15	0.20	-0.30	0.39	28.20	-0.61	0.19	9.24
Coccolithus pelagicus	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-4.13	1.04	0.54	-1.59	26.15	-2.59		18.65
	2	15	33	8.2	2370	10.1	1780.8	209.1	267	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-4.04	0.95	0.45	-1.50	26.25	-2.50		
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	20.2	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.24	1.26	0.76	0.30	28.10	-0.70		
	4	15	33	8.2	4406	19.9	3561.6	418.2	535	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.25	1.17	0.67	0.29	28.09	-0.71	0.42	18.03
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	30.3	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.03	NA		0.51			0.33	
	6	15	33	8.2	6590	29.8	5342.4	627.4	802	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-2.15	NA		0.39			0.32	
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.55	1.02	0.52	0.99	28.81	-0.01	0.27	
	8	15	33	8.2	8535	40.4	7123.2	836.5	1070	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.77	0.74	0.24	0.77	28.59	-0.23	0.24	17.80
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.33	0.84	0.34	1.21	29.03	0.21	0.27	
	10	15	33	8.2	10853	50.5	8903.9	1045.6	1337	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	NA	NA					0.23	
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	60.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.45	0.96	0.46	1.09	28.91	0.09	0.11	16.58
	12	15	33	8.2	12963	59.6	10684.7	1254.7	1604	0.50	-2.54	-1.54	-0.04	-1.48	0.86	0.36	1.06	28.88	0.06	0.12	16.58