

Dear Marcel van der Meer,

thank you for serving as handling author of our manuscript and for the constructive feedback. Please find attached the revised versions of the author responses to referee #1 and #2 as well as the manuscript and the supplements (track change marked versions).

Best regards,
Johannes Hepp

Revised reply to Referee #1

by Johannes Hepp, Michael and Roland Zech & co-authors

We are grateful to anonymous Referee #1 for her/his constructive suggestions helping to improve our manuscript. Please find our replies to the individual comments below.

Major issues:

1) The brGDGT calibration presented here is of limited use, since the study uses an outdated method to measure brGDGTs and does not distinguish between the 5 methyl and 6 methyl compounds. Hepp et al. thus calibrate indices (CBT and MBT') that have fallen out of favor and been replaced by the more robust CBT' and MBT5Me indices. The new indices and new methods developed by De Jonge et al. (GCA, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.gca.2014.06.013) and Hopmans et al. (Organic Geochemistry, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.orggeochem.2015.12.006) are not even mentioned in the text, and the limitations of the brGDGT data presented here are not acknowledged. Without reanalyzing these samples with a method that resolves all isomers, I fear that the present sample set has limited value for the calibration of brGDGT-based proxies.

→ Referee #1 is right in his/her statement that the GDGT data presented in our manuscript were not acquired based on the up-to-date method. During revision, we therefore explicitly emphasize that meanwhile new indices and methods were developed (including citations). We would still see a high value of having our GDGT dataset published. De Jonge et al. (2014) presented a new HPLC method which enables the separation for the brGDGTs with m/z 1036, 1034 and 1032, 1050, 1048 and 1046 into 6-methyl and 5-methyl stereoisomers. The old method did not allow such a separation (Zech et al., 2012b) thus in the calibration often the sum of 6 and 5-methylated brGDGTs was used because the shoulders of the peaks could not be identified in each case (see and compare De Jonge et al., 2014; Peterse et al., 2012). This introduces scatter to the MBT'-CBT-based MAT reconstructions and can cause a correlation between pH and MBT' (for more details see De Jonge et al., 2014). The authors moreover show that the 6-methyl brGDGTs are ubiquitous abundant in soils from all over the world. However, they also compare reconstructed MAT values based MBT'-CBT calibration (Peterse et al., 2012) and their new developed MAT_{mr} calibration and state that they plot around a 1:1 relationship. They furthermore state that only for arid areas a strong deviation can be obtained. Finally, they conclude that the use of the new developed calibrations will improve the MAT and pH reconstructions for dry conditions/areas. Because our study transect spans from southern Germany to southern Sweden, representing temperate and humid climate conditions, we argue that the usage of the older HPLC method does not introduce a systematic error in our reconstructions. Still, a higher variability/scatter is associated with the calibration of Peterse et al. (2012) and therefore present in our MAT and pH reconstructions. However, we firstly compared our data only to those of Peterse et al. (2012), and we secondly prevented an over-interpretation of our data. This discussion is now included as a separate discussion chapter in the revised version of the manuscript.

2) *There are some big assumptions in the proposed approach for reconstructing relative humidity using paired $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of n-alkanes and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of sugars. In particular, the assumption that biosynthetic fractionation for these compounds is constant is contradicted by lots of existing work, which is briefly mentioned by the authors in their discussion. Figure 8 is not a very good advertisement for the utility of the paired $\delta^2\text{H}$ -alkane/ $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ sugar approach, and the lack of correlation suggests that some of the many assumptions that go into this method are not valid. This paired approach has not caught on beyond the Zech group, and the data presented here suggests that it may not be useful as presently conceived. The authors state they have shown the “great potential” for this proxy. I remain unconvinced by the data and analysis shown here.*

→ We accept that Referee #1 remains unconvinced by our coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ biomarker approach. We moreover we (i) agree, (ii) are aware and (iii) explicitly state that the assumption of constant biosynthetic fraction is likely a major uncertainty of our approach. Still we are convinced that the ‘opening of the second dimension’ by our group is a cutting-edge step forward and more promising than focusing on $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ alone. The reason for other working groups not having caught on the coupled approach might have to be seen, in our opinion, in the uniqueness of compound-specific $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses: according to our knowledge, only 3 working groups world-wide have respective experience/publication records. Still, we would be delighted to see the coupled approach being tested or applied by other groups, readily in cooperation with us. Still we acknowledge that focusing on $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ has the advantage that a lot of research was done and many working groups around the world published results during the last years. The coupling is still work in progress but we think we have to start somewhere and this introduces also (new) uncertainties for sure, but is still worth to publish and start the process of proxy improvement via scientific discussions with this.

Possibly, Referee #1 misunderstood Fig. 8. No correlation for the data points shown in Fig. 8 are to be expected. We clarified in our revision that Fig. 8 illustrates the ‘concept of the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ biomarker approach’. This conceptual figure illustrates (together with Fig. 9) that $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{prec}}$ values reconstructed by the coupled approach are more accurate than $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{prec}}$ values reconstructed using $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ alone. Moreover, Fig. 10 illustrates that reconstructed RH values under deciduous forest sites and grassland sites are quite well in accordance with RH values of climate stations, thus indeed demonstrating the great potential of the coupled approach.

3) *The writing is in places unclear and difficult to follow. I have noted a few of these instances in my technical corrections, but the manuscript would benefit from more careful editing.*

→ We insure a technical and grammatical improvement for the revised version of the manuscript.

Specific comments:

Line 110: This adds up to more than 16, some sites were considered to be more than one of these categories? Would be good to rewrite to clarify

→ Following the recommendation of Referee #1 we will restructure this sentence. The revised version will read: "In November 2012, we collected 29 topsoil samples (0-5 cm depth) from 16 sites along a transect from Southern Germany to Southern Sweden (Fig. 1A). We distinguished between coniferous forest (con, n = 9), ...".

Line 114: Was there a threshold for what was considered "close-by"?

→ We agree with Referee #1 that this was not obvious so far in the manuscript and especially not in the supplementary material where the longitude, latitude and altitude were provided for the climate stations (Tab. S2) but not for the locations/sites. In the revised manuscript, we will add the respective characteristics to Tab S1.

Line 133: Machine learning techniques like random forest aren't so commonly used in Biogeosciences and it would be helpful to provide more details here. How many trees did you use? How was data partitioned into training and testing sets? What metric was used to assess model performance? What was the minimum number of samples in the terminal nodes? What was the maximum number of terminal nodes? What variables ended up being ranked as most important (could be useful to show a plot of ranked variable importance in the supplemental materials)?

→ As suggested, we will add a supplementary method description part and refer to it in the text.

Line 136: Why wasn't it possible? Lack of measured data for a robust training data set? Please specify

→ Because no precipitation isotope data was available for the Danish and Swedish sites.

Lines 128-139: How did the calculated values you obtained for the German sites compare to OIPC? What is your evidence for your approach providing superior estimates of precip isotopes than OIPC? OIPC is obviously not perfect, but as written, we have no evidence to evaluate if your results are any more accurate. There is also no discussion of the implications of using one target for precip isotopes in the southern half of your transect and a different one in the northern half.

→ Please allow us to refer to the (cited) Diploma Thesis of Schlotter (2007): there are numerous reasons mentioned already in the introduction highlighting that OPIC is probably not the most robust estimator for middle and high latitudes. That's why we used our own regionalization where it was possible.

Section 2.3.1: No internal standard was added? How do you account for losses of brGDGTs during sample handling?

→ We used standard laboratory procedure for GDGT sample preparation. The internal standard was, as written, added before the measurements. A correction for GDGT losses during sample preparation is therefore not possible.

Lines 165-171: This is not the most current method used for robust brGDGT analysis (see Hopmans et al., Organic Geochemistry, 2016. DOI: 10.1016/j.orggeochem.2015.12.006). Does your method allow for 5'

and 6' methyl brGDGTs to be distinguished from one another? If not, severely diminishes the accuracy of results. Based on the results that are shown, it seems like this method does not distinguish the different isomers.

→ That's correct. Please see our reply to major issue 1.

Lines 172-173: how was the pH measured?

→ We will include the information that a pH meter was used.

Section 2.3.2: Were the n-alkanes quantified prior to measuring their stable isotopes?

→ Yes, namely by Schäfer et al. (2016). We therefore added the following sentence in the section: "For more details about n-alkane quantification the reader is referred to Schäfer et al. (2016).".

Also, please briefly describe the operating conditions of the GC-pyr-IRMS (or cite another publication that used an identical method and provides all the relevant details)

→ As suggested, we added now in the revised version of the manuscript a reference (Christoph et al., 2019), in which the method is described in more detail and we added that the ²H pyrolysis reactor temperature was kept at 1420 °C.

Line 199: It is not clear how you had 29 samples from 16 sites. Were some of the sites sampled in duplicate?

→ We will clarify during revision that 29 samples were collected from 16 sites. These are, however, no duplicates, but rather different dominant vegetation types (see reply above).

Lines 211-221: The more robust indicator of soil pH is CBT' and the more robust indicator of soil temperature is MBT5me (De Jonge et al., GCA, 2014, DOI:10.1016/j.gca.2014.06.013).

→ See our reply to major issue 1.

Lines 227-229: A number of papers have shown that e_{bio} is not constant and different among plant types and seasonally. See for example Feakins & Sessions 2010 (cited previously), Eley et al., GCA, 2014 (DOI: 10.1016/j.gca.2013.11.045), Cormier et al., New Phytologist, 2018 (DOI: 10.1111/nph.15016).

→ That's true and especially important when only $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ is used to reconstruct $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$. Nevertheless, we emphasize in our manuscript that ϵ_{bio} is a major uncertainty in our coupled approach, too. At the same time, it's exactly such uncertainties why we need climate transect calibration studies as the one presented here for Europe.

Lines 383-385: are these concentrated weighted means? That is what is typically used to compare d2H values of n-alkanes where not all homologues are present in all samples

→ We used here mean values, because the areas and concentrations were not determined during isotope measurements.

Line 395: I think you mean "unenriched xylem water"?

→ Yes, changed.

Lines 431-432: This is not particularly convincing, the reconstructed precipitation isotopes are not correlated with the GIPR/OIPC precipitation isotopes. No evidence is provided to show that this approach is any better than the most up to date methods for obtaining precipitation isotopes from leaf wax n-alkane isotopes alone. For example, how do your results compare to the predictions from the proxy system model developed by Konecky et al. (JGR-Biogeoscience, 2019, DOI: 10.1029/2018JG004708)? Maybe your approach is better, but you need to prove this by providing a direct comparison, rather than just telling us

→ Please note that we do not necessarily expect a good correlation of our reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{prec}}$ values with the GIPR/OIPC data, but rather a good (accurate) match on the 1:1 line. Nevertheless, many thanks for pointing us to the new publication by Konecky et al. (2019). While we will readily include a respective citation, we think that a direct comparison of our approach with the one suggested by Konecky et al. (2019) would be beyond the scope of our manuscript.

Lines 448-450: If this was the case, wouldn't you expect all the coniferous sites to be biased in the same direction? Instead, they are evenly distributed above and below the 1:1 line

→ No, please see Fig. 9: we do not see that the coniferous sites are evenly distributed around the 1:1 line. Except for one data point, they are clearly below the 1:1 line.

Line 454: Is this signal damping correction shown anywhere? How would this work practically in sediments?

→ No, sorry. This signal damping correction is not shown or quantified in this manuscript. This would require a quantitative estimation of the contribution of grass vegetation to the total biomass pool in the topsoil. For an example how such a correction can be applied to lake sediments please see e.g. Hepp et al. (2019, CP).

Lines 467-468: Actually, there are plenty of n-alkanes in roots and they have very different H isotopic composition than in leaves. See work from Guido Wiesenberg's group and Gamarra and Kahmen. I'm also confused about what you are referring to as "the discussion". There is not a separate discussion section to this manuscript.

→ Changed to "Zech et al. ,2012b and the discussion therein". We do not agree and we are not aware of any new studies showing that n-alkanes are produced in large amounts by roots in comparison to leaves. Recent studies show (e.g. Gamarra and Kahmen, 2015) that root n-alkane concentration is always the lowest compared to the other plant tissues sampled.

Lines 489-494: Not stated here is that there is no correlation between the reconstructed and measured RH values. This suggests that this approach for reconstructing RH is not particularly useful Line 565: The data in the paper is not very convincing that there is great potential for the coupled d2H n-alkane d18O sugar approach

→ We think this is connected to the low range of measured RH values along this European climate transect and the uncertainties of the coupled approach for reconstructing RH values.

Therefore, the lack of a respective correlation is explainable. Please compare a similar climate transect study by Tuthorn et al. (2015, BG) where the RH range is much larger and where indeed a significant correlation can be found. For this European transect study here, the usefulness of the coupled approach for reconstructing RH values should be rather inferred from the quite well 1:1 match for deciduous forest sites and grassland sites (cf. Fig. 9). The RH underestimation for coniferous forest sites can be easily explained with the extremely low *n*-alkane production of coniferous trees (see ll. 495-502).

Lines 566-567: I don't see evidence of this in your analysis, nor examples of how you would take vegetation into account when applying this proxy.

→ See for example Hepp et al. (2019).

Technical corrections and typing errors:

Lines 54-56: The way this sentence is written is confusing. Suggest rewriting as "Climate proxies based on molecular fossils, also known as biomarkers, have great potential..."

→ Changed.

Line 56: don't need the comma after "particular"

→ Changed.

Line 59: "need to be known"?

→ Changed.

Line 61: It would be better to start this paragraph with a clear link back to the previous one

→ We now start the paragraph with "One famous and widely applied lipid biomarker group are terrestrial branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs). They are synthesized... and..."

Line 74: don't need commas before and after "it is known"

→ Changed.

Line 79: Again, some sort of transition would be helpful to begin this paragraph

→ We now start the paragraph with "Concerning paleohydrology proxies, compound-specific..."

Line 82: "all along the way" too wordy

→ Changed

Lines 93-94: "as well as concerning possible effects related to" awkward phrasing

→ Changed.

Figure 1: would be nice to have a legend on panel B or have the axis colors match the variable colors. At the moment we are left to guess that blue bars are precip and the red dots are temp, since this is not stated in the figure caption or the legend. Also would be nice to offset the panel letters with a () or . to break them apart from the title of the panel

→ Changed.

Line 180: No "the" needed in front of ETH

→ Changed.

Line 225: the n at the beginning of n-alkane should be italicized. Check throughout

→ Changed.

Line 234: Generally, figures should be numbered in the same order that they are referenced in the text

→ Checked and changed if necessary.

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Revised reply to Referee #2

by Johannes Hepp, Michael and Roland Zech & co-authors

GENERAL:

The topic of the manuscript is interesting and important as it deals with the evaluation of highly promising proxies used to reconstruct past environmental conditions. While the data produced are rare and are certainly worth publishing, the manuscript has severe flaws that prevent, in my opinion, its publication in this form.

→ While we are grateful to Referee #2 for her/his constructive suggestions helping to improve our manuscript (see our replies below).

MAJOR PROBLEMS:

*A) While reading the manuscript, the connection between GDGT and the plant proxies (i.e. *n*-alkanes and hemicellulose) is not clear and seems disconnected as if from two separate manuscripts. Moreover, in the section 3.1 of the discussion, the GDGT data are presented in a way leading the readers to believe that these molecules are produced by plants.*

→ Thank you for raising this issue. We think that approaches are based on biomarkers/molecular proxies and are used for paleoclimate reconstructions. Moreover, we clearly state and explain in the introduction and method sections how the applied biomarkers (GDGT's as well as *n*-alkanes and sugars) are produced, how calculations are done and how the proxies can be interpreted. Please note that there are plenty of studies in the literature presenting both GDGT and $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ results in one publication. However, we will check the whole manuscript during revision in order to be clear about the origin of the presented biomarker proxies.

*B) The other major point is that the authors suggest that it is "often" not feasible to disentangle between the evapotranspirative enrichment from the precipitation signal, but there is at least another well-established method to do so and published in *Climate of the Past* (see recent Sachse's group publications, e.g. A dual-biomarker approach for quantification of changes in relative humidity from sedimentary lipid D/H ratios, *Climate of the Past*, 2017). While this method should at least be mentioned, I also believe the method should be compared to help the readers understand the full set of tools available to study that issue. These two methods are very likely to be highly complementary.*

→ Thank you for raising this issue, but please note that the 'dual biomarker approach' of Rach et al. (2017, CP) is not applicable to terrestrial (soil) samples/archives, it works only under lacustrine settings. For a critical evaluation and assessment of both approaches when applied to lacustrine paleoclimate archives, we kindly refer our readers to Hepp et al. (2019, CP) and to our replies to the referee and short comments (<https://www.clim-past.net/15/713/2019/cp-15-713-2019-discussion.html>).

SPECIFICS:

Line 298 to 303: This section is not clear due to some typos or mistakes, please reformulate.

→ Changed.

Line 389 to 407: While the difference of ϵ_{bio} is reported at the end of the section (around line 477 to 487), the possibility that a variable ϵ_{bio} could explain the different signals in different types of vegetation, beside the damping effect, is evacuated of the discussion. This should at least be discussed.

→ Changed.

Line 432: Is that referring to simply using isotope values of a single compound? What is that hitherto method (reference missing?)? I believe this brings us back to the problem B. The results would gain a lot to be compared with the updated tool box of proxies.

→ The sentence was slightly changed. See also our reply to ‘major problem B’.

Line 444 to 458: The argumentation is not clear/convincing, please reformulate.

→ We deleted the respective sentence from the revised version of the manuscript.

*Line 483-484: The idea of a variable ϵ_{bio} is well expressed in general, but references to some recent works is missing that shows even greater variability in n-alkane δD values under different metabolisms (e.g. Cormier et al, 2018 – *New Phytologist*, Tipple & Ehleringer 2018 – *Oecologia*, Cormier et al, 2019 – *Oecologia*)*

→ Please note that we already included Cormier et al. (2018) in the actual version of the manuscript and that the fact is mentioned that ϵ_{bio} can range even larger when also the metabolic status of the plants is considered. However, we changed the respective sentence to: “The wide range in biosynthetic ^2H fractionation factors, which can be even larger, is therefore also related to the carbon and energy metabolism state of plants (Cormier et al., 2018).”.

Line 490 to 494: Please reformulate, this section is not clear.

→ We changed the quoting of Fig. 10B.

Line 550: If the author are really considering a variable ϵ_{bio} , the damping effect can only potentially explain the different signals observed in different types of vegetation. Again, ϵ_{bio} should be part of the points because standing alone, they can induce confusion even if mentioned afterward.

→ You are right. Gao et al. (2014) and Liu et al. (2016) showed that the ϵ_{bio} of monocot plants could larger than those of dicots. This would therefore course a more negative apparent fractionation factor for grasses compared to trees. We observe that the apparent fractionation is indeed more negative for the grass sites compared to the forest sites. We will included a discussion about the indistinguishable effects of “signal damping” vs. variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types in the respective parts of the manuscript.

References

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1 **Evaluation of bacterial glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraether and ²H-**
2 **¹⁸O biomarker proxies along a Central European topsoil transect**

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20 **Keywords**

21 Leaf wax *n*-alkanes, hemicellulose sugars, pH, temperature, CBT, MBT', precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$, and
22 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, relative humidity

Gelöscht: /

23 **Abstract**

24 Molecular fossils, like bacterial branched glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs), and
25 the stable isotopic composition of biomarkers, such as $\delta^2\text{H}$ of leaf wax-derived *n*-alkanes ($\delta^2\text{H}_{n-}$
26 alkane) or $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of hemicellulose-derived sugars ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$) are increasingly used for the
27 reconstruction of past climate and environmental conditions. Plant-derived $\delta^2\text{H}_{n-}$ and
28 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ values record the isotopic composition of plant source water ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$, and
29 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$), which usually reflects mean annual precipitation ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{precipitation}}$, and
30 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$), modulated by evapotranspirative leaf water enrichment and biosynthetic
31 fractionation. Accuracy and precision of respective proxies should be ideally evaluated at a
32 regional scale. For this study, we analysed topsoils below coniferous and deciduous forests, as
33 well as grassland soils along a Central European transect in order to investigate the variability
34 and robustness of various proxies, and to identify effects related to vegetation. Soil pH-values
35 derived from brGDGTs correlate reasonably well with measured soil pH-values, but
36 systematically overestimate them ($\Delta\text{pH} = 0.6 \pm 0.6$). The branched vs. isoprenoid tetraether
37 index (BIT) can give some indication whether the pH reconstruction is reliable. Temperatures
38 derived from brGDGTs overestimate mean annual air temperatures slightly ($\Delta T_{\text{MA}} = 0.5^\circ\text{C}$
39 ± 2.4). Apparent isotopic fractionation (ϵ_{n-} and ϵ_{sugar}) is lower for
40 grassland sites than for forest sites due to "signal damping", i.e. grass biomarkers do not record
41 the full evapotranspirative leaf water enrichment. Coupling $\delta^2\text{H}_{n-}$ with $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ allows to
42 reconstruct the stable isotopic composition of the source water more accurately than without
43 the coupled approach ($\Delta\delta^2\text{H} = \sim 21\% \pm 22$ and $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O} = \sim 2.9\% \pm 2.8$). Similarly, relative
44 humidity during daytime and vegetation period (RH_{MDV}) can be reconstructed using the coupled
45 isotope approach ($\Delta\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}} = \sim 17 \pm 12$). Especially for coniferous sites, reconstructed RH_{MDV}
46 values as well as source water isotope composition underestimate the measured values. This
47 can be likely explained by understory grass vegetation at the coniferous sites contributing
48 significantly to the *n*-alkane pool but only marginally to the sugar pool in the topsoil. The large
49 uncertainty likely reflect the fact that biosynthetic fractionation is not constant, as well as
50 microclimate variability. Overall, GDGTs and the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n-}$ - $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ approach have
51 great potential for more quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions.

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55 **1 Introduction**

56 Information about the variability and consequences of past climate changes is a prerequisite for
57 precise predictions regarding the present climate change. Molecular fossils, so called
58 biomarkers, have great potential to enhance our understanding about variations of past climate
59 and environmental changes. Lipid biomarkers in particular, are increasingly used for
60 paleoclimate and environmental reconstructions (e.g. Brincat et al., 2000; Eglinton and
61 Eglinton, 2008; Rach et al., 2014; Romero-Viana et al., 2012; Schreuder et al., 2016). However
62 strengths and limitations of respective proxies need to be known (Dang et al., 2016). For this,
63 calibrations using modern reference samples are essential.

64 One famous and widely applied lipid biomarker group are terrestrial branched glycerol dialkyl
65 glycerol tetraethers (brGDGTs). They are synthesized in the cell membranes of anaerobe
66 heterotrophic soil bacteria (Oppermann et al., 2010; Weijers et al., 2010) have great potential
67 for the reconstruction of past environmental conditions (e.g. Coffinet et al., 2017; Schreuder et
68 al., 2016; Zech et al., 2012), although some uncertainties exist. Calibration studies suggest that
69 the relative abundance of the individual brGDGTs varies with mean annual air temperature
70 (T_{MA}) and soil pH (Peterse et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007), at least across large, global climate
71 gradients or along pronounced altitudinal gradients (Wang et al., 2017). However, in arid
72 regions the production of brGDGT is limited, while isoprenoidal GDGTs (iGDGTs) produced
73 by archaea provide the dominant part of the overall soil GDGT pool (Anderson et al., 2014;
74 Dang et al., 2016; Dirghangi et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2012). The ratio of
75 brGDGTs vs. isoprenoid GDGTs (BIT) can be used as indication whether a reconstruction of
76 T_{MA} and pH will be reliable. Moreover, Mueller-Niggemann et al. (2016) revealed an influence
77 of the vegetation cover on the brGDGT producing soil microbes. From field experiments, it is
78 known that vegetation type and mulching practice strongly effect soil temperature and moisture
79 (Awe et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2014). Thus, multiple factors can be expected to influence soil
80 microbial communities and GDGT production. So far, little is known about the variability of
81 GDGT proxies on a regional scale, and a calibration study with small climate gradient but with
82 different vegetation types might be useful.

83 Concerning paleohydrology proxies, compound specific stable hydrogen isotopes of leaf wax
84 biomarkers, such as long chain *n*-alkanes ($\delta^2H_{n-alkanes}$) record the isotopic signal of precipitation
85 and therefore past climate and environmental conditions (Sachse et al., 2004, 2006). However,
86 various influencing factors are known e.g. the moisture source to leaf waxes (Pedentchouk and
87 Zhou, 2018 and Sachse et al., 2012 for review). Next is the evapotranspiration of leaf water
88 (Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Kahmen et al., 2013; Zech et al., 2015), which is strongly driven
89 by relative air humidity (RH; e.g. Cernusak et al., 2016 for review). In addition, a strong
90 precipitation signal is known to be incorporated into long chain leaf waxes (Hou et al., 2008;
91 Rao et al., 2009; Sachse et al., 2004). In paleoclimate studies, it is often not feasible to
92 disentangle between the evapotranspirative enrichment from the precipitation signal. Zech et
93 al. (2013) proposed to couple $\delta^2H_{n-alkane}$ results with oxygen stable isotopes of hemicellulose-
94 derived sugars ($\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$). Assuming constant biosynthetic fractionation factors (ϵ_{bio}) for the
95 different compound classes (*n*-alkanes and hemicellulose sugars), the coupling enables the
96 reconstruction of the isotopic composition of leaf water, RH and δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ of plant source
97 water ($\approx \delta^2H$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of precipitation; Tuthorn et al., 2015). So far, a detailed evaluation of

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109 this approach on the European scale, as well as related effects concerning vegetation changes
110 is missing.

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111 We analysed topsoil samples under coniferous, deciduous and grassland vegetation along a
112 Central European transect in order to estimate the variability of the biomarker proxies. More
113 specifically, we aim to test whether:

114 (i) the vegetation type has an influence on the brGDGT proxies, the $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$
115 stable isotopic composition, as well as on reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ and RH.

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116 (ii) the published brGDGT proxies used for reconstructing mean annual temperature and soil
117 pH are sensitive enough to reflect the medium changes in temperature and soil pH along our
118 transect.

119 (iii) the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ approach enables a $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of precipitation and RH
120 reconstruction along the transect.

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122 2 Material and methods

123 2.1 Geographical setting and sampling

124 In November 2012, we collected 29 topsoil samples (0-5 cm depth) from 16 locations along a
125 transect from Southern Germany to Southern Sweden (Fig. 1A). We distinguished between sites
126 with coniferous forest (con, n = 9), deciduous forest (dec, n = 14) and grassland (grass, n = 6)
127 vegetation cover (for more details see Schäfer et al. (2016) and Tab. S1).

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129 2.2 Database of instrumental climate variables and isotope composition of precipitation

130 Climate data was derived from close-by weather observation stations operating by the regional
131 institutions (Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD) for Germany, Danmarks Meteorologiske Institut
132 (DMI) for Denmark and the Sveriges Meteorologiska och Hydrologiska Institute (SMHI) for
133 Sweden). The DWD provides hourly data for each station (DWD Climate Data Center, 2018b),
134 enabling not only the calculation of T_{MA} , but also of the mean annual relative air humidity
135 (RH_{MA}), mean temperature and relative air humidity during the vegetation period (T_{v} and
136 RH_{MV}), and of daytime temperature and relative humidity averages over the vegetation period
137 (T_{v} and RH_{MDV}). In addition, annual precipitation observations were used to derive the mean
138 annual precipitation amount (P_{MA} ; DWD Climate Data Center, 2018b). From the DMI, the
139 respective climate variables were derived from published technical reports (Cappelen, 2002;
140 Frich et al., 1997; Laursen et al., 1999). The SMHI provides open data from which we derived
141 the climate variables for the Swedish sites (Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute,
142 2018). For more details about the climate database used for calculations and comparisons, the
143 reader is referred to Tab. S2.

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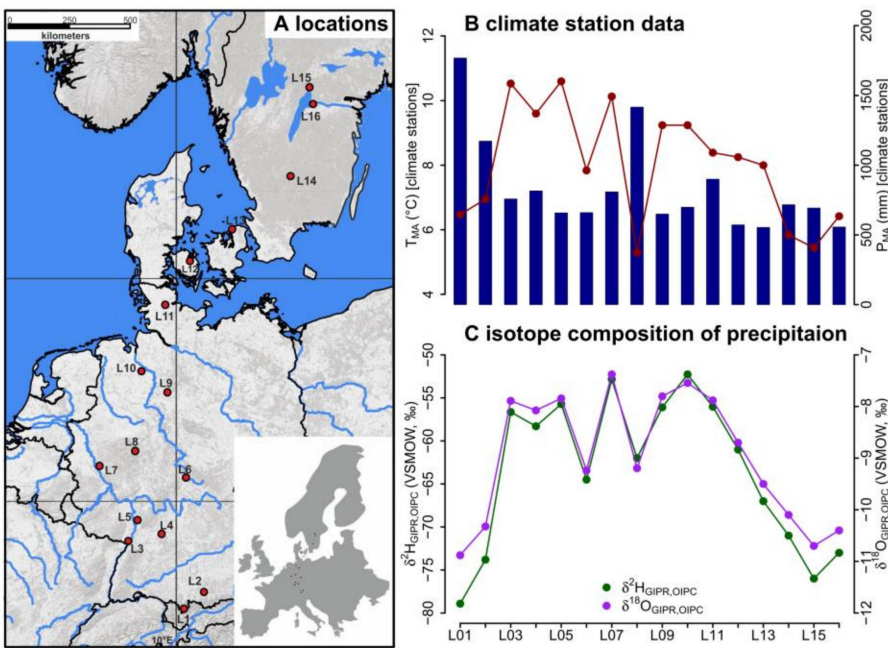
144 For comprising German precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$ along the transect, we realized a regionalisation
145 (called $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR}}$) using online available data from 34 German GNIP stations, 4
146 Austrian ANIP stations and the Groningen GNIP station (van Geldern et al., 2014;
147 IAEA/WMO, 2018; Stumpp et al., 2014; Umweltbundesamt GmbH, 2018), following the
148 approach of Schlotter (2007). However, instead of the multivariate regression procedure applied

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159 by Schlotter (2007), we used a random forest approach (Hothorn et al., 2006; Strobl et al., 2007,
 160 2008) to describe the relationship of squared latitude, latitude, longitude and altitude vs. long
 161 term weighted means of precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and realized the prediction for each site
 162 (see supplementary method description for more information). For the Danish and Swedish
 163 sites, such a procedure was not possible. Hence, the annual precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values
 164 were derived from the Online Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator (OIPC, version 3.1), therefore
 165 called $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{OIPC}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{OIPC}}$ (Bowen, 2018; Bowen and Revenaugh, 2003; IAEA/WMO, 2015).
 166 The finally used $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ data are given in Tab. S1.

167 The T_{MA} along the transect ranges from 5.3 to 10.6°C, and P_{MA} ranges from 554 to 1769 mm
 168 (Fig. 1B). Precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$ shows moderate changes along the transect, $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$
 169 varies between -52 and -79‰, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ ranges from -7.4 to -10.9‰ (Fig. 1C).

170 Correlations between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ and P_{MA} , altitude of the locations, T_{MA} are given in the
 171 supplementary material (Fig. S1 to S3), along with a $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ scatter plot
 172 (Fig. S4).



173 **Fig. 1.** (A) Sample locations (red dots, map source: US National Park Service), (B) variations
 174 of mean annual air temperature (T_{MA} , red dots and line) and mean annual precipitation (P_{MA} ,
 175 blue bars) derived from close-by climate station data, and (C) hydrogen and oxygen stable
 176 isotope composition of precipitation ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$, respectively) as derived for
 177 the sampled transect locations (see section 2.2 GIPR $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ generation procedure). The
 178 reader is referred to section 2.2 (and Tab. S1 and S2) for database and reference information of
 179 data plotted in (B) and (C).

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191 **2.3 Soil extractions and analysis**

192 2.3.1 GDGTs and pH

193 A detailed description of sample preparation for lipid analysis can be found in Schäfer et al.
194 (2016). Briefly, 1–6 g freeze-dried and grounded soil sample was microwave extracted with 15
195 ml dichloromethane (DCM)/methanol (MeOH) 9:1 (v:v) at 100°C for 1 h. Extracts were
196 separated over aminopropyl silica gel (Supelco, 45 µm) pipette columns. The nonpolar fraction
197 (including *n*-alkanes) was eluted with hexane and further purified over AgNO₃ coated silica
198 pipette columns (Supelco, 60–200 mesh) and zeolite (Geokleen Ltd.). The GDGT-containing
199 fraction was eluted with DCM:MeOH 1:1 (v:v), re-dissolved in hexane/isopropanol (IPA) 99:1
200 (v:v) and transferred over 0.45 µm PTFE filters into 300 µl inserts. For quantification, a known
201 amount of a C₄₆ diol standard was added after transfer. The samples were analysed at ETH
202 Zurich using an Agilent 1260 Infinity series HPLC–atmospheric chemical pressure ionization
203 mass spectrometer (HPLC–APCI-MS) equipped with a Grace Prevail Cyano column (150 mm
204 × 2.1 mm; 3 µm). The GDGTs were eluted isocratically with 90% A and 10% B for 5 min and
205 then with a linear gradient to 18% B for 34 min at 0.2 ml min⁻¹, where A=hexane and
206 B=hexane/isopropanol (9:1, v:v). Injection volume was 10 µl and single ion monitoring of
207 [M+H]⁺ was used to detect GDGTs.

208 The pH of the samples was measured in the laboratory of the Soil Biogeochemistry group,
209 Institute of Agronomy and Nutritional Sciences, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg,
210 [using a pH meter](#) in a 1:3 soil:water (w/v) mixture.

211

212 2.3.2 δ²H_{*n*-alkane}

213 The hydrogen isotopic composition of the highest concentrated *n*-alkanes (*n*-C₂₅, *n*-C₂₇, *n*-C₂₉,
214 *n*-C₃₁, and *n*-C₃₃) was determined using a TRACE GC Ultra Gas Chromatography connected to
215 a Delta V Plus Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer via a ²H pyrolysis reactor [kept at 1420 °C](#) (GC-
216 ²H-Py-IRMS; Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) at [ETH Zurich](#) (Christoph et al., 2019).
217 [For more details about *n*-alkane quantification the reader is referred to](#) Schäfer et al. (2016).

218 The compound-specific ²H/¹H ratios were calibrated against an external standard with C₁₅–C₃₅
219 homologues. External standard mixtures (A4 mix from A. Schimmelmann, University of
220 Indiana) were run between the samples for multipoint linear normalization. The H⁺³ factor was
221 determined on each measurement day and was constant throughout the periods of the sample
222 batches. Samples were analysed in duplicates, and results typically agreed within 4% (average
223 difference = 1.4%). All δ²H values are expressed relative to the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean
224 Water (V-SMOW).

225

226 2.3.3 δ¹⁸O_{sugar}

227 Hemicellulose sugars were extracted and purified using a slightly modified standard procedure
228 (Amelung et al., 1996; Guggenberger et al., 1994; Zech and Glaser, 2009). Briefly, myoinositol
229 was added to the samples prior to extraction as first internal standard. The sugars were released
230 hydrolytically using 4M trifluoroacetic acid for 4 h at 105°C, cleaned over glass fiber filters and
231 further purified using XAD and Dowex columns. Before derivatization with methylboronic acid
232 (Knapp, 1979), the samples were frozen, freeze-dried, and 3-O-methylglucose in dry pyridine

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234 was added as second internal standard. Compound-specific hemicellulose sugar ^{18}O
 235 measurements were performed in the laboratory of the Soil Biogeochemistry group, Institute of
 236 Agronomy and Nutritional Sciences, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg, using GC-
 237 ^{18}O -Py-IRMS (all devices from Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). Standard
 238 deviations of the triplicate measurements were 1.4‰ (over 29 investigated samples) for
 239 arabinose and xylose, respectively. We focus on these two hemicellulose-derived neutral sugars
 240 arabinose and xylose as they strongly predominate over fucose in terrestrial plants, soils and
 241 sediments (Hepp et al., 2016 and references therein). Rhamnose concentrations were too low to
 242 obtain reliable $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ results. All $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are expressed relative to the Vienna Standard Mean
 243 Ocean Water (V-SMOW).

244

245 2.4 Theory and Calculations

246 2.4.1 Calculations used for the GDGT-based reconstructions

247 The branched and isoprenoid tetraether (BIT) index is calculated according to Hopmans et al.
 248 (2004), for structures see Fig. S5:

$$249 \text{ BIT} = \frac{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIIa}}{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIIa} + \text{crenarchaeol}} \quad (1)$$

250 The cyclopentane moiety number of brGDGTs correlates negatively with soil pH (Weijers et
 251 al., 2007), which led to the development of the cyclization of branched tetraethers (CBT) ratio.
 252 CBT and the CBT based pH (pH_{CBT}) were calculated according to Peterse et al. (2012):

$$253 \text{ CBT} = -\log \frac{\text{Ib} + \text{IIb}}{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa}} \quad (2)$$

$$254 \text{ pH}_{\text{CBT}} = 7.9 - 1.97 \times \text{CBT} \quad (3)$$

255 The number of methyl groups in brGDGTs correlates negatively with T_{MA} and soil pH (Peterse
 256 et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007). Thus, the ratio of the methylation of branched tetraethers
 257 (MBT) ratio and the CBT ratio can be used to reconstruct T_{MA} . We use the equation given by
 258 Peterse et al. (2012):

$$259 \text{ MBT}' = \frac{\text{Ia} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic}}{\text{Ia} + \text{Ib} + \text{Ic} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIb} + \text{IIc} + \text{IIIa}} \quad (4)$$

$$260 T_{\text{MA}} = 0.81 - 5.67 \times \text{CBT} + 31.0 \times \text{MBT}' \quad (5)$$

261

262 2.4.2 Calculations and concepts used for the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}$ - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ approach

263 The apparent fractionation is calculated according to Cernusak et al. (2016):

$$264 \epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}} = \left(\frac{\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}} - \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR}_{\text{OIPC}}}}{1 + \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR}_{\text{OIPC}}}/1000} \right) \quad (6)$$

$$265 \epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}} = \left(\frac{\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR}_{\text{OIPC}}}}{1 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR}_{\text{OIPC}}}/1000} \right) \quad (7)$$

266 The isotopic composition of leaf water ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$) can be calculated using ϵ_{bio}
 267 for $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ (-160‰, Sachse et al., 2012; Sessions et al., 1999) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ (+27‰, Cernusak
 268 et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2001):

$$269 \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}} = \left(\frac{1000 + \delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}}{1000 + \epsilon_{\text{bio}}(n\text{-alkane})} \right) \times 10^3 - 1000, \quad (8)$$

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$$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}} = \left(\frac{1000 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}}{1000 + \epsilon_{\text{bio}}(\text{sugar})} \right) \times 10^3 - 1000. \quad (9)$$

Zech et al. (2013) introduced the conceptual model for the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ approach in detail. Briefly, the coupled approach is based on the following assumptions (illustrated in Fig. 8): (i) The isotopic composition of precipitation, which is set to be equal to the plant source water, typically plots along the global meteoric water line (GMWL; $\delta^2\text{H} = 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 10$) in a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ vs. $\delta^2\text{H}$ space (Craig, 1961); (ii) Source water uptake by plants does not lead to any fractionation (e.g. Dawson et al., 2002), and significant evaporation of soil water can be excluded; (iii) Evapotranspiration leads to enrichment of the remaining leaf water along the local evaporation line (LEL; Allison et al., 1985; Bariac et al., 1994; Walker and Brunel, 1990), compared to the source water taken up by the plant; (iv) The biosynthetic fractionation is assumed to be constant. In addition, isotopic equilibrium between plant source water (~weighted mean annual precipitation) and the local atmospheric water vapour is assumed. Further assumption concerns the isotope steady-state in the evaporating leaf water reservoir. The coupled approach allows for reconstructing the isotopic composition of plant source water ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$) from the reconstructed leaf water, by calculating the intercepts of the LELs with the GMWL (Zech et al., 2013). The slope of the LEL (S_{LEL}) can be assessed by the following equation (Gat, 1971):

$$S_{\text{LEL}} = \frac{\epsilon_2^* + C_k^2}{\epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^{18}}, \quad (10)$$

where ϵ^* are equilibrium isotope fractionation factors and C_k are kinetic fractionation factors. The latter equals to 25.1‰ and 28.5‰, for C_k^2 and C_k^{18} , respectively (Merlivat, 1978). The equilibrium fractionation factors can be derived from empirical equations (Horita and Wesolowski, 1994) by using T_{MDV} values. For two Danish sites T_{MDV} are not available, instead T_{MV} is used here (section 2.2 and Tab. S2).

In a $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-}\delta^2\text{H}$ diagram, the distance of the leaf water from the GMWL define the deuterium-excess of leaf water ($d_{\text{leaf-water}} = \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}} - 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$, according Dansgaard, (1964); Fig. 8). To convert $d_{\text{leaf-water}}$ into mean RH during daytime and vegetation period (RH_{MDV}), a simplified Craig-Gordon model can be applied (Zech et al., 2013):

$$\text{RH} = 1 - \frac{\Delta d}{\epsilon_2^* - 8 \times \epsilon_{18}^* + C_k^2 - 8 \times C_k^{18}}, \quad (11)$$

where Δd is the difference in $d_{\text{leaf-water}}$ and the deuterium-excess of source water ($d_{\text{source-water}}$).

2.5 Statistics

In the statistical analysis we checked sample distributions for normality (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965) and for equal variance (Levene, 1960). If normality and equal variances are given, we perform an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). If that is not the case, we conduct the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis Test. ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis are used to find significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between the vegetation types (deciduous, conifer and grass).

In order to describe the relation along a 1:1 line, the coefficient of correlation (R^2) was calculated as $R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum(\text{modeled} - \text{measured})^2}{\sum(\text{measured} - \text{measured mean})^2}$. The small r^2 is taken as coefficient of correlation of a linear regression between a dependent (y) and

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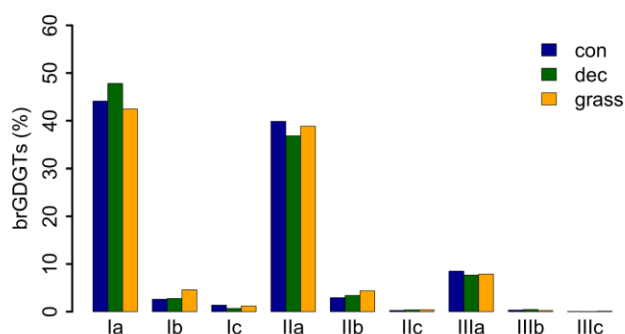
317 explanatory variable(s). The root mean square error (RMSE) of the relationships was calculated
 318 as $RMSE = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum(\text{modeled} - \text{measured})^2\right)}$. All data plotting and statistical analysis was
 319 realized in R (version 3.2.2; R Core Team, 2015).

320

321 3 Results and Discussion

322 3.1 GDGT concentrations

323 GDGT Ia has the highest concentration under all vegetation types, followed by GDGT IIa and
 324 GDGT IIIa (Fig. 2). GDGT Ib, IIb and Ic occur in minor, GDGT IIc and IIIb only in trace
 325 amounts. GDGT IIIc was below the detection limit in most of the samples (Tab. S3). Although
 326 other studies document an influence of the vegetation cover on soil temperature and soil water
 327 content, which control the microbial community composition in soils (Awe et al., 2015; Liu et
 328 al., 2014; Mueller-Niggemann et al., 2016), we find no statistically different pattern of the
 329 individual brGDGTs.



330

331 **Fig. 2.** Mean concentrations of individual brGDGTs as percentage of all brGDGTs for the three
 332 investigated types. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest
 333 sites (n=14); grass = grassland sites (n=6).

334 Total concentrations of brGDGTs range from 0.32 to 9.17 µg/g dry weight and tend to be
 335 highest for the coniferous samples and lowest for the grasses (Fig. 3A, Tab. S3). Bulk brGDGT
 336 concentrations lie within the range of other studies examining soils of mid latitude regions
 337 (Huguet et al., 2010b, 2010a; Weijers et al., 2011). Similar concentrations in coniferous and
 338 deciduous samples imply that brGDGT production does not strongly vary in soils below
 339 different forest types. The grass samples show lower brGDGT concentrations compared to the
 340 forest samples, but this is probably mainly due to ploughing of the grass sites in former times
 341 and hence admixing of mineral subsoil material. The differences in brGDGT concentrations are
 342 not significant (p-value = 0.06).

343

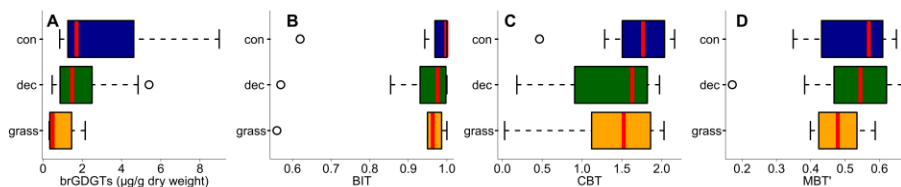
344 3.2 BIT index

345 Most of the samples have a BIT index higher than 0.9 (Fig 3B and Tab. S3). The BIT-values
 346 are typical for soils in humid and temperate climate regions (Weijers et al., 2006). However,

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349 outliers exist. The most likely source of iGDGTs in soils are Thaumarchaeota, i.e. aerobic
 350 ammonia oxidizing archaea producing Crenarchaeol and its regioisomer (Schouten et al., 2013
 351 and references therein), precipitation amounts drop below 700-800 mm (Dang et al., 2016;
 352 Dirghangi et al., 2013). The P_{MA} data of our sampling sites mostly show precipitation > 550
 353 mm (Fig. 1B), but one has to be aware that this data is based on the climate station nearest to
 354 the respective sampling locations and microclimate effects, such as sunlight exposure, canopy
 355 cover or exposition might have a pronounced influence on the brGDGT vs. iGDGT distribution.
 356 Mueller-Niggemann et al. (2016) found higher BIT indices in upland soils compared to paddy
 357 soils and stated that the management type also influences BIT values in soils. Along our
 358 transect, grass sites tend to have slightly lower BIT-values than forest sites, probably due to the
 359 absence of a litter layer and hence, no isolation mechanism preventing evaporation of soil water.
 360 Differences between vegetation types are not significant (p-value = 0.32).



361 **Fig. 3.** (A) Total concentrations of brGDGTs in $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry weight, as well as (B) BIT, (C) CBT
 362 and (D) MBT. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites
 363 (n=14); grass = grassland sites (n=6). Box plots show median (red line), interquartile range
 364 (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower
 365 quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers.

367

368 3.3 CBT-derived pH

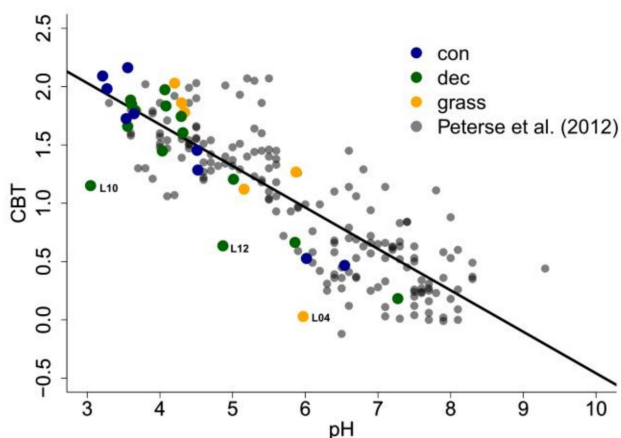
369 The CBT ratio shows a pronounced variation independent of vegetation type with values
 370 between 0.03 and 2.16 (Fig 3C). The coniferous samples tend to be highest, but the differences
 371 between vegetation types are not significant (p-value = 0.48). The CBT index can be related to
 372 pH in acidic and/or humid soils (e.g. Dirghangi et al., 2013; Mueller-Niggemann et al., 2016;
 373 Peterse et al., 2012; Weijers et al., 2007) but might be an indicator of soil water content and
 374 hence, precipitation in more arid and alkaline soils (e.g. Dang et al., 2016). There is a
 375 pronounced correlation between CBT and soil pH (Fig. 4), which is in good agreement with
 376 other studies from mid latitude regions where precipitation is relatively high (Anderson et al.,
 377 2014 and references therein). Moreover, the CBT to pH relationship in terms of slope and
 378 intersect in our dataset ($\text{CBT} = -0.47 \times \text{pH} + 3.5$, $r^2 = 0.7$, p-value < 0.0001, n = 29) is well
 379 comparable to the correlation described for the global calibration dataset of Peterse et al. (2012)
 380 ($\text{CBT} = -0.36 \times \text{pH} + 3.1$, $r^2 = 0.7$, p-value < 0.0001, n = 176).

381 However, there are some outliers in the CBT-pH correlation, which need a further examination
 382 (see locations grass L04, dec L10 and dec L12 as marked in Figs. 4 and 5). The outliers show
 383 lower BIT indices (< 0.85, Tab. S3). Even though the data from the nearest climate station
 384 suggest no abnormal P_{MA} . Local effects such as differences in the amount of sunlight exposure,
 385 nutrient availability for brGDGT producing organisms or, most likely soil water content might
 386 influence the brGDGT production at these locations (Anderson et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2016).

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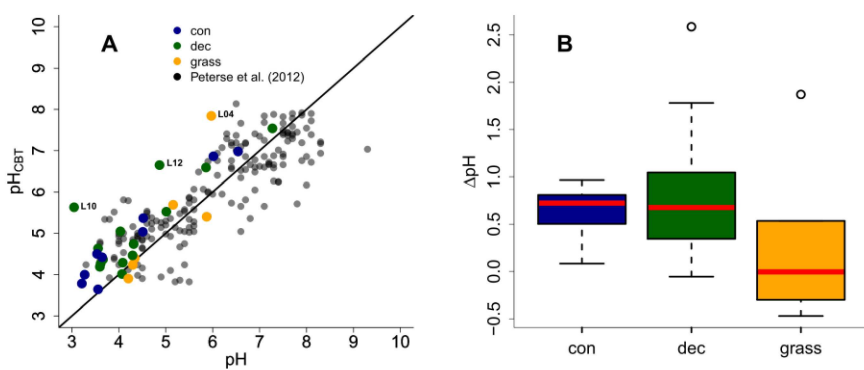
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389 A lower BIT index as well as a lower CBT occur when soil water content decreases (Dang et
 390 al., 2016; Sun et al., 2016) or when aeration is high and less anoxic microhabitats for GDGT
 391 producing microbes exist (e.g. Dirghangi et al., 2013).



392
 393 **Fig. 4.** CBT to pH relationship in our dataset in comparison to the global calibration dataset
 394 from Peterse et al. (2012) ($CBT = -0.36 \times pH + 3.1$, $r^2 = 0.7$, p -value < 0.0001 , $n = 176$, black
 395 line). Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites ($n=9$); dec = deciduous forest sites ($n=14$);
 396 grass = grassland sites ($n=6$).

397
 398 As the CBT and pH are similarly correlated in our dataset and the global dataset of Peterse et
 399 al. (2012), the CBT-derived pH correlated well with the actual pH (Fig. 5A; $R^2 = 0.3$).
 400 Expressed as ΔpH (CBT-derived pH - measured pH), there is a tendency that the GDGTs result
 401 in an overestimation of the real pH for the forest sites (Fig. B). Yet a Kruskal-Wallis test shows
 402 no statistically significant difference between the vegetation types, with a p -value of 0.13. The
 403 overall ΔpH of 0.6 ± 0.6 shows that the reconstruction of soil pH using brGDGTs works well
 404 along this transect.



405
 11

406 **Fig. 5.** (A) Correlation between measured pH and reconstructed soil pH (pH_{CBT}) from our
 407 transect data in comparison to the global calibration dataset from Peterse et al. (2012) ($R^2 = 0.7$,
 408 $\text{RMSE} = 0.75$, $n = 176$). Black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Boxplots of ΔpH (refers
 409 to $\text{pH}_{\text{CBT}} - \text{pH}$). Box plots show median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%)
 410 and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest
 411 whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers. Abbreviations: con =
 412 coniferous forest sites ($n=9$); dec = deciduous forest sites ($n=14$); grass = grassland sites ($n=6$).

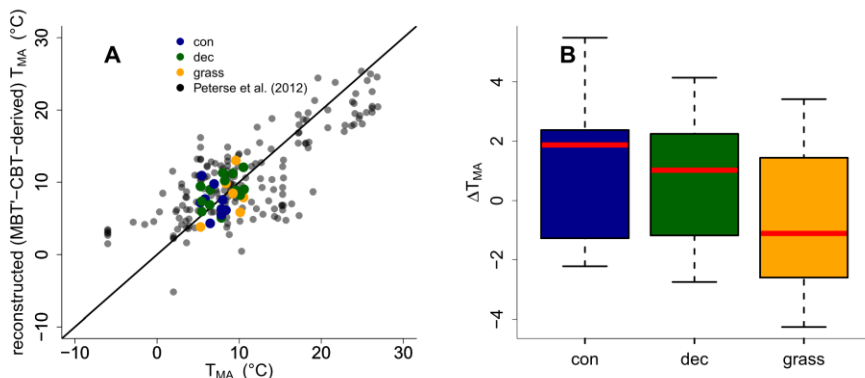
413

414 3.4 MBT'-CBT-derived T_{MA} reconstructions

415 The MBT' shows high variability with values ranging from 0.17 to 0.67 no statistical
 416 differences between vegetation types ($p\text{-value} = 0.54$; Fig. 3D, Tab. S3). When comparing
 417 reconstructed (MBT'-CBT-derived) T_{MA} with climate station T_{MA} , the data plot close to the 1:1
 418 line, and fit well into the global dataset of Peterse et al. (2012) (Fig. 6A). The ΔT_{MA} reveal an
 419 overall offset of $0.5^\circ\text{C} \pm 2.4$ and there is no statistically difference between vegetation types
 420 (Fig. 6B). The standard deviation in ΔT_{MA} of ± 2.4 is well in line with the RMSE of 5.0 for the
 421 global calibration dataset (Peterse et al., 2012).

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422 **Fig. 6.** (A) Correlation between climate station T_{MA} and reconstructed (MBT'-CBT-derived)
 423 T_{MA} . For comparison, the global calibration dataset from Peterse et al. (2012) is shown. The
 424 black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Boxplots of ΔT_{MA} (refers to reconstructed T_{MA} -
 425 T_{MA} from climate stations) in the different vegetation types from our transect study. Box plots
 426 show median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles,
 427 lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of
 428 upper quartile, dots mark outliers. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites ($n=9$); dec =
 429 deciduous forest sites ($n=14$); grass = grassland sites ($n=6$).

431

432 3.5 Potential impact of the used liquid chromatography method on pH and T_{MA} 433 reconstructions

434 The GDGT data presented in this study are not acquired on the up-to-date method (e.g. compare
 435 De Jonge et al., 2014 vs. Zech et al., 2012c). De Jonge et al. (2014) presented a new liquid
 436 chromatography method which enables the separation for the brGDGTs with m/z 1036, 1034

439 and 1032, 1050, 1048 and 1046 into 6-methyl and 5-methyl stereoisomers. The old method did
440 not allow such a separation (Zech et al., 2012c), thus in the calibration often the sum of 6 and
441 5-methylated brGDGTs was used (see and compare De Jonge et al., 2014 vs. Peterse et al., 2012).
442 This introduce scatter to the MBT'-CBT-based T_{MA} reconstructions and can cause a correlation
443 between pH and MBT' (for more details see De Jonge et al., 2014). De Jonge et al. (2014)
444 moreover show that the 6-methyl brGDGTs are ubiquitous abundant in soils from all over the
445 world, based on reanalysing the dataset of Peterse et al. (2012). However, they also compare
446 reconstructed T_{MA} values based MBT'-CBT calibration (Peterse et al., 2012) and their new
447 developed T_{MA} calibration and state that they plot around a 1:1 line. They furthermore state,
448 that especially for arid areas larger deviations can be expected. Finally, they conclude that the
449 use of the new developed calibrations will improve the T_{MA} and pH reconstructions for areas
450 with arid climate conditions. Because our study transect spans from southern Germany to
451 southern Sweden, representing temperate and humid climate conditions, we argue that the usage
452 of the older liquid chromatography method do not introduce a systematic error in our T_{MA} and
453 pH reconstructions. Still, a higher variability/scatter could be associated with the calibration of
454 Peterse et al. (2012) and therefore also present in our T_{MA} and pH reconstructions.

456 **3.6 Apparent fractionation of $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the different vegetation types**

457 The $\delta^2\text{H}$ values could be obtained for *n*-alkanes C₂₇, C₂₉ and C₃₁ in all samples and additionally
458 at two locations for *n*-C₂₅ and *n*-C₃₃ at six other locations. The $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ values, calculated as
459 mean of *n*-C₂₅ to *n*-C₃₁ $\delta^2\text{H}$, ranges from -156 to -216‰. Pooled standard deviations show an
460 overall average of 3.6‰. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ values, calculated as the area weighted means for
461 arabinose and xylose, ranges from 27.7 to 39.4‰. The average weighted mean standard
462 deviation is 1.4‰. The compound-specific isotope data is summarized along with the
463 calculations in Tab. S4.

464 Apparent fractionation ($\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$) is on the order of -120 to -150‰, i.e. a bit less than
465 the biosynthetic fraction of -160‰. This implies that evapotranspirative enrichment is ~ 10 to
466 40‰ (Fig. 7A). $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$ is lower for grass sites compared to the forest sites. Differences
467 are significant between deciduous and grass sites (p-value = 0.005). This finding supports the
468 results of other studies (Kahmen et al., 2013; Liu and Yang, 2008; McInerney et al., 2011), and
469 can be named "signal damping". Grasses do not only incorporate the evaporatively-enriched
470 leaf water only but also unenriched **xylem** water in the growth and differentiation zone of
471 grasses (Gamarra et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017).

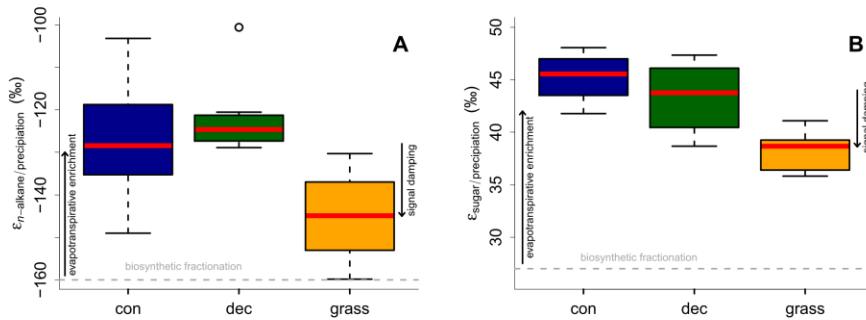
472 The grass-derived hemicellulose sugar biomarkers do not fully record the evapotranspirative
473 enrichment of the leaf water, either, as indicated by lower apparent fractionation ($\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$)
474 in Fig. 7B. The differences are significant between forest and grass sites (p-value < 0.005). This
475 is in agreement with a study on cellulose extracted from grass blades (Helliker and Ehleringer,
476 2002), and again, the "signal damping" can be explained with incorporation of enriched leaf
477 water and non-enriched stem water.

478 Based on the comparison of evapotranspirative enrichment between forest and grass sites, the
479 "signal damping" can be quantified to be ~ 31% for the hemicellulose sugars, and ~ 49% for
480 the *n*-alkanes. This is in agreement with other studies that reported a loss of 22% of the leaf

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483 water enrichment for hemicellulose sugars (Helliker and Ehleringer, 2002) and 39 to 62% loss
 484 of the leaf water enrichment for *n*-alkanes (Gamarra et al., 2016).



485
 486 **Fig. 7.** Apparent fractionation (A) $\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$ and (B) $\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$. Biosynthetic
 487 fractionation factors according to section 2.4.2. Box plots show median (red line), interquartile
 488 range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR
 489 of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile, dots mark outliers.
 490 Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11 and 14
 491 for *n*-alkanes and sugars, respectively); grass = grassland sites (n=4 and 6 for *n*-alkanes and
 492 sugars, respectively). The figure conceptually illustrates the effect of biosynthetic fractionation
 493 and evapotranspirative enrichment as well as “signal damping”.

494
 495 **3.7 $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ reconstructions**
 496 The $\delta^2\text{H}$ versus $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ diagram shown in Fig. 8 graphically illustrates the reconstruction of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-}}$
 497 $\text{water and } \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{leaf-water}}$ (colored dots) from $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ (crosses), as well as the
 498 reconstruction of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ (black dots). For reconstructing $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$
 499 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$, LELs with an average slope of 2.8 ± 0.1 (Eq. 10) can be generated through
 500 every leaf water point and the intercepts of these LELs with the GMWL.

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543 Prietzel et al., 2013; Zech et al., 2012a), and all biomarkers reflect and record the
544 evapotranspirative enrichment of the leaf water (e.g. Kahmen et al., 2013; Tuthorn et al., 2014),
545 However, coniferous trees produce quite low amounts of *n*-alkanes (Diefendorf and Freimuth,
546 2016; Zech et al., 2012a), while sugar concentrations are as high as in other vascular plants (e.g.
547 Hepp et al., 2016; Prietzel et al., 2013). For the coniferous soil samples this means that the *n*-
548 alkanes stem most likely from the understory whereas the sugars originate from grasses and
549 coniferous needles. When the understory is dominated by grass species then the *n*-alkane
550 biomarkers do not record the full leaf water enrichment signal, whereas the sugars from the
551 needles do. The reconstructed leaf water for the coniferous sites is therefore too negative
552 concerning $\delta^2\text{H}$, and reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ values thus also become too
553 negative (Fig. 8). Concerning the grass sites the following explanation can be found. Correcting
554 for “signal damping” makes the reconstructed leaf water points more positive and shifts them
555 in Fig. 8 up and right. As the “signal damping” is stronger for $\delta^2\text{H}$ than for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ the corrected
556 leaf water points would now be above the uncorrected ones. The corrected leaf water points leads
557 to more positive reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ values for the grass sites.
558 However, Gao et al. (2014) and Liu et al. (2016) showed that the ϵ_{bio} of monocotyledon plants
559 could be larger than those of dicotyledonous ones. This would therefore cause a more negative
560 apparent fractionation factor for grasses compared to trees. We observe that the apparent
561 fractionation is indeed more negative for the grass sites compared to the forest sites. The effects
562 of “signal damping” vs. variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types are indistinguishable here. As
563 an outlook for a future study, we therefore strongly recommend a comparison between the here
564 measured $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}$ values with modelled ones using a new available model approach from
565 Konecky et al. (2019), which could provide insights if such vegetation effects on ϵ_{bio} of ^2H in
566 *n*-alkanes are describable.

567

568 Vegetation type specific rooting depths could partly cause the overall high variability in
569 reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$. Deep rooting species most likely use the water
570 from deeper soil horizons and/or shallow ground water, which is equal to the (weighted) mean
571 annual precipitation (e.g. Herrmann et al., 1987). Shallow rooting plants take up water from
572 upper soil horizons, which is influenced by seasonal variations in $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{precipitation}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$
573 and by soil water enrichment (Dubbert et al., 2013). Thus, the overall assumption that the source
574 water of the plants reflects the local (weighted) mean precipitation might be not fully valid for
575 all sites. Moreover, a partly contribution of root-derived rather than leaf-derived sugar
576 biomarkers in our topsoil samples is very likely. This does, by contrast, not apply for *n*-alkanes,
577 which are hardly produced in roots (Zech et al., 2012b and the discussion therein).

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Gelöscht: The coupled approach and the leaf water reconstruction based on the *n*-alkane and sugar biomarkers thus works well.

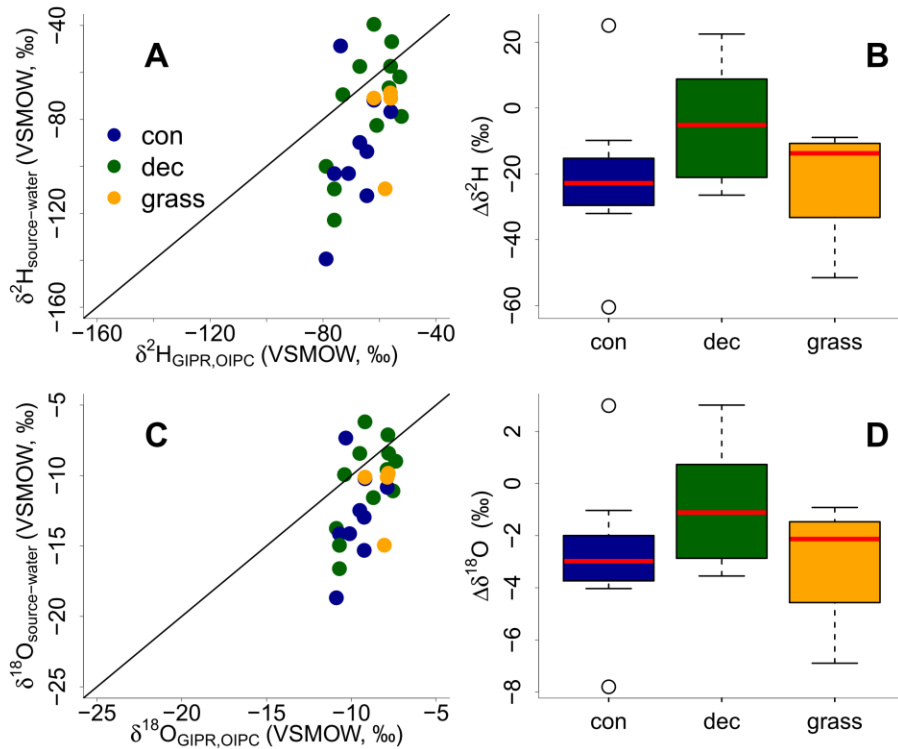
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586 **Fig. 9.** Correlation of reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ vs. precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ (A and C). Black lines indicate 1:1 relationship. Differences between reconstructed source water and precipitation ($\Delta\delta^2\text{H}, \Delta\delta^{18}\text{O} = \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}, \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}} - \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}, \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$) for the three different vegetation types (B and D). Box plots show median (red line), interquartile range (IQR) with upper (75%) and lower (25%) quartiles, lowest whisker still within 1.5IQR of lower quartile, and highest whisker still within 1.5IQR of upper quartile. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).

595 Moreover, the high variability within the vegetation types could be caused by variability in ϵ_{bio} of ^2H in *n*-alkanes, as well as ^{18}O in sugars. There is an ongoing discussion about the correct ϵ_{bio} for ^{18}O in hemicellulose sugars (Sternberg, 2014 vs. Zech et al., 2014), and ϵ_{bio} is probably not constant over all vegetation types. This translates into errors concerning leaf water reconstruction and thus for reconstructing $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ values (Eq. 9 and Fig. 8). Likewise, the ϵ_{bio} values reported in the literature for ^2H of *n*-alkanes can be off from -160‰ by tens of permille (Feakins and Sessions, 2010; Tipple et al., 2015; Feakins et al., 2016; Freimuth et al., 2017). The degree to which hydrogen originates from NADPH rather than leaf water is important, because NADPH is more negative (Schmidt et al., 2003). The wide range in biosynthetic ^2H fractionation factors, which can be even larger, is therefore also related to the carbon and energy metabolism state of plants (Cormier et al., 2018).

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3.8 RH reconstruction

Reconstructed RH_{MDV} ranges from 34 to 74%, while RH_{MDV} from climate station data range from 61 to 78% (Fig. 10A). Biomarker-based values thus systematically underestimate the station data ($\Delta RH_{MDV} = -17\% \pm 12$). Yet the offsets are much less for deciduous tree and grass sites ($\Delta RH_{MDV} = -10\% \pm 12$ and $-7\% \pm 9$, respectively; Fig. 10B). The offsets for the coniferous sites are $-30\% \pm 11$, and significantly larger than for the deciduous and grass sites (p -values < 0.05).

Too low reconstructed RH_{MDV} values for the coniferous sites make sense in view of the previously discussed option that soils contain n -alkanes from the understory (which is dominated by grass species), while sugars stem from needles and grasses. As explained earlier already, the “signal damping” leads to too negative reconstructed $\delta^2H_{leaf-water}$ (whereas $\delta^{18}O$ is affected less by the “signal damping”), and too negative $\delta^2H_{leaf-water}$ translates into overestimated d -excess and underestimated RH values. In Fig. 8, a correction for this require moving the coniferous leaf water data points upwards towards more positive δ^2H values, thus the distance between the leaf water and the source water is reduced. It should be noted that also here variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types could not be distinguished from “signal damping” effects.

The underestimation of RH for the deciduous and grass sites could be partly associated with the use of the GMWL as baseline for the coupled $\delta^2H_{n-alkane}-\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ approach. The deuterium-excess of the LMWLs is generally lower than the $+10\text{‰}$ of the GMWL, while the slopes of the LMWLs are well comparable to the GMWL (Stumpp et al., 2014). In addition, if soil water evaporation occurred before water uptake by the plants, this would lead to an underestimation of biomarker-based RH_{MDV} values. It can be furthermore assumed that plant metabolism is highest during times with direct sunshine and high irradiation, i.e. during noon at sunny days. The relevant RH could therefore be lower than the climate station-derived RH_{MDV} . Indeed, already climate station RH_{MDV} is considerable lower than RH_{MA} and RH_{MV} (Tab. S1).

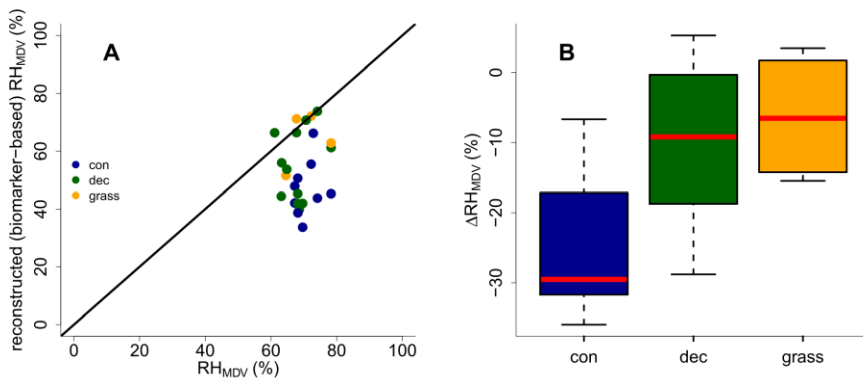


Fig. 10. (A) Comparison of reconstructed (biomarker-based) RH_{MDV} values and climate station RH_{MDV} data. The black line indicates the 1:1 relationship. (B) Differences between reconstructed and climate station RH_{MDV} values ($\Delta RH_{MDV} = \text{reconstructed} - \text{climate station } RH_{MDV}$) for the three different vegetation types along the transect. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites ($n=9$); dec = deciduous forest sites ($n=11$); grass = grassland sites ($n=4$).

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649 The uncertainty of reconstructed RH_{MDV} values are large for all three investigated vegetation
 650 types, and again these uncertainties are probably also related to ϵ_{bio} , which is most likely not
 651 constant as assumed for our calculations. Moreover, microclimate variability is underestimated
 652 in our approach. As mentioned in sections 2.4.2 and 3.7, in the coupled approach not only the
 653 source water of the plants is equated with (weighted) mean annual precipitation, but also an
 654 isotopic equilibrium between the source water and the (local) atmospheric water vapour is
 655 assumed. However, in areas with distinct seasonality this might be not fully valid. To account
 656 for this lack of equilibrium between precipitation and local atmospheric water vapour, apparent
 657 ϵ values can be calculated with data from Jacob and Sonntag, (1991). As shown by Hepp et al.
 658 (2018) those values can be used to achieve alternative RH reconstructions based on the coupled
 659 $\delta^2H_{n\text{-alkane}}-\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ approach. Such calculated RH_{MDV} values are on average 1.5% more
 660 negative than the original values. However, this difference in RH is far below the analytical
 661 uncertainties of the compound-specific biomarker isotope analysis.

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662 Finally, the integration time of the investigated topsoils has to be discussed. Unfortunately, no
 663 ^{14}C dates are available for the soil samples. However, most likely the organic matter has been
 664 built up over a longer timescale than the available climate data, which is used for comparison.
 665 In combination with vegetation changes/management changes throughout that period, this
 666 could surely lead to a less tight relationship of the reconstructions compared to the climate
 667 station data. Root input of arabinose and xylose seems to be of minor relevance in our topsoil
 668 samples. Otherwise, the reconstructed $\delta^{18}O_{sugar}$ values would be too negative resulting in
 669 RH_{MDV} overestimations, which is not observed.

670

671 4 Conclusions

672 We were able to show that

- 673 (i) the vegetation type does not significantly influence the brGDGT concentrations and
 674 proxies, yet the coniferous sites tend to have higher brGDGT concentrations, BIT
 675 indices and CBT-MBT' ratios, while grass sites tend to be lowest.
- 676 (ii) CBT faithfully records soil pH with a median ΔpH of 0.6 ± 0.6 . The CBT
 677 overestimates the real pH particularly at the forest sites.
- 678 (iii) CBT-MBT'-derived T_{MA} reflect the climate station-derived T_{MA} values with a
 679 median ΔT_{MA} of $0.5^\circ C \pm 2.4$, but again slightly too high reconstruction for the forest
 680 sites were observed.
- 681 (iv) differences in the apparent fractionation between the investigated vegetation types
 682 could be caused by "signal damping" or variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types, which
 683 are indistinguishable here.
- 684 (v) the reconstructed $\delta^2H_{source\text{-}water}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{source\text{-}water}$ reflects the $\delta^2H_{GIPR,OIPC}$ and
 685 $\delta^{18}O_{GIPR,OIPC}$ with a systematic offset for δ^2H of $\sim -21\text{‰} \pm 22$ and for $\delta^{18}O$ of $\sim -2.9\text{‰}$
 686 ± 2.8 (based on overall medians of $\Delta\delta^2H$, $\delta^{18}O$). This is caused by too negative
 687 reconstructions for coniferous and grass sites. For coniferous sites, this can be
 688 explained with n -alkanes originating from understory grasses. As for the grass sites,
 689 the "signal damping" or variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types more effect δ^2H

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702 than $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. This leads to too negative reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{leaf-water}}$ values and thus to too
703 negative $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ reconstructions.
704 (vi) reconstructed (biomarker-based) RH_{MDV} values tend to underestimate climate
705 station-derived RH_{MDV} values ($\Delta\text{RH}_{\text{MDV}} = \sim -17\% \pm 12$). For coniferous sites the
706 underestimations are strongest, which can be explained with understory grasses
707 being the main source of *n*-alkanes for the investigated soils under coniferous
708 forests.

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709 Overall, our study highlights the great potential of GDGTs and the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$
710 approach for more quantitative paleoclimate reconstructions. Taking into account effects of
711 different vegetation types improves correlations and reconstructions. This holds particularly
712 true for the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ approach, which is affected by “signal damping” of the
713 grass vegetation or variable ϵ_{bio} along with vegetation types. Assuming constant biosynthetic
714 fractionation is likely a considerable source of uncertainty and should be in focus in future field
715 and/or modelling studies. Climate chamber experiments would be very useful to further
716 evaluate and refine the coupled $\delta^2\text{H}_{n\text{-alkane}}\text{-}\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sugar}}$ approach, because uncertainties related to
717 microclimate variability can be reduced. Field experiments like ours suffer from the fact that
718 biomarker pools in the sampled topsoils may have been affected by past vegetation and climate
719 changes.

Gelöscht: of the grass vegetation

720

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Supplementary method description

We used a random forest approach in order to predict the long term weighted means of precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ and the long term weighted means of precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for each site. To implement the model, we used the cforest function of the party package (Hothorn et al., 2006; Strobl et al., 2007, 2008) of the software R (R Core Team, 2015). Predictor variables were latitude, squared latitude, longitude and altitude. The explained variance of the random forest for long term weighted means of precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was 77.5 % and the explained variance of the random forest for long term weighted means of precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ was 82.3%.

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Supplementary figures

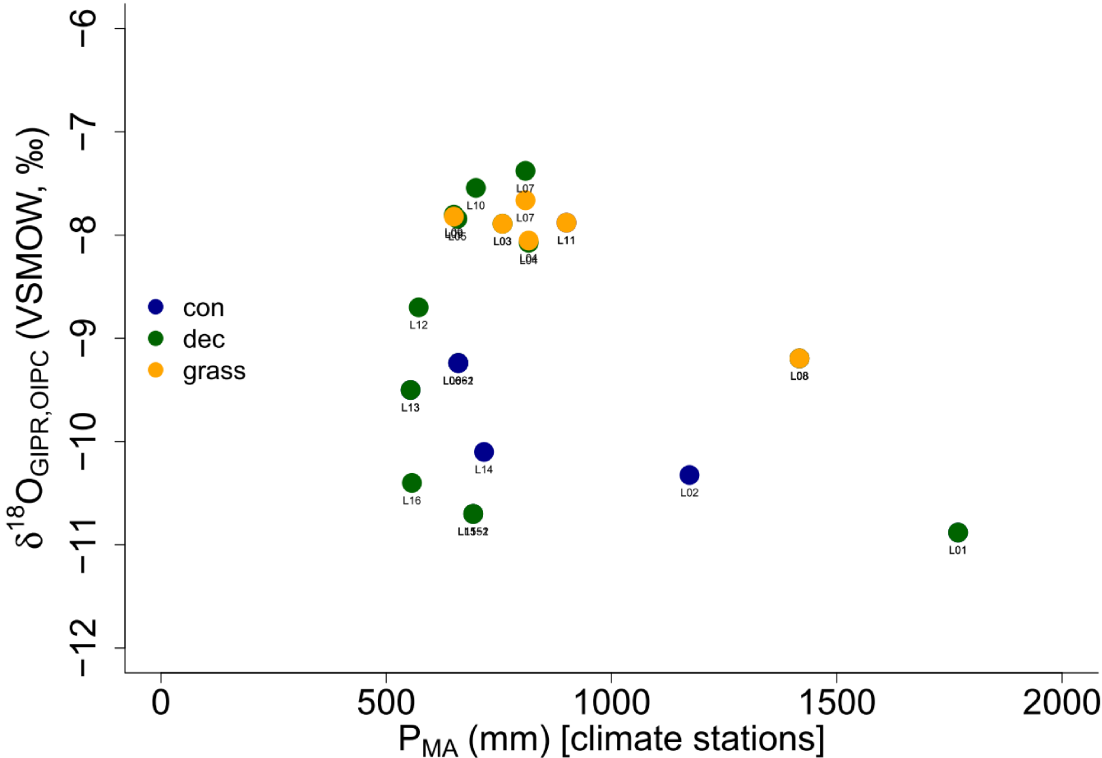


Fig. S1. Comparison between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ values vs. P_{MA} for the three different vegetation types along the transect. All data points are marked with the location names. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).

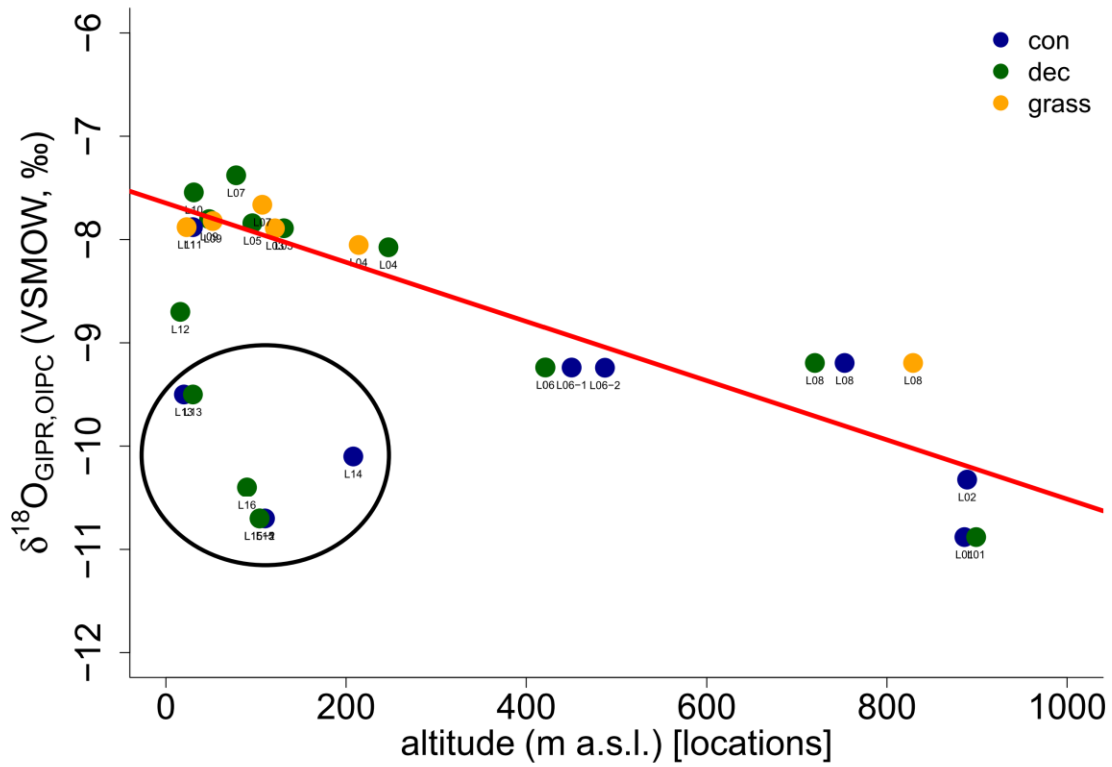


Fig. S2. Comparison between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ values vs. location altitudes for the three different vegetation types along the transect. The red line represents the regression line throughout all German sites. All data points are marked with the location names. Swedish and Danish sites are boarded with a black circle. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).

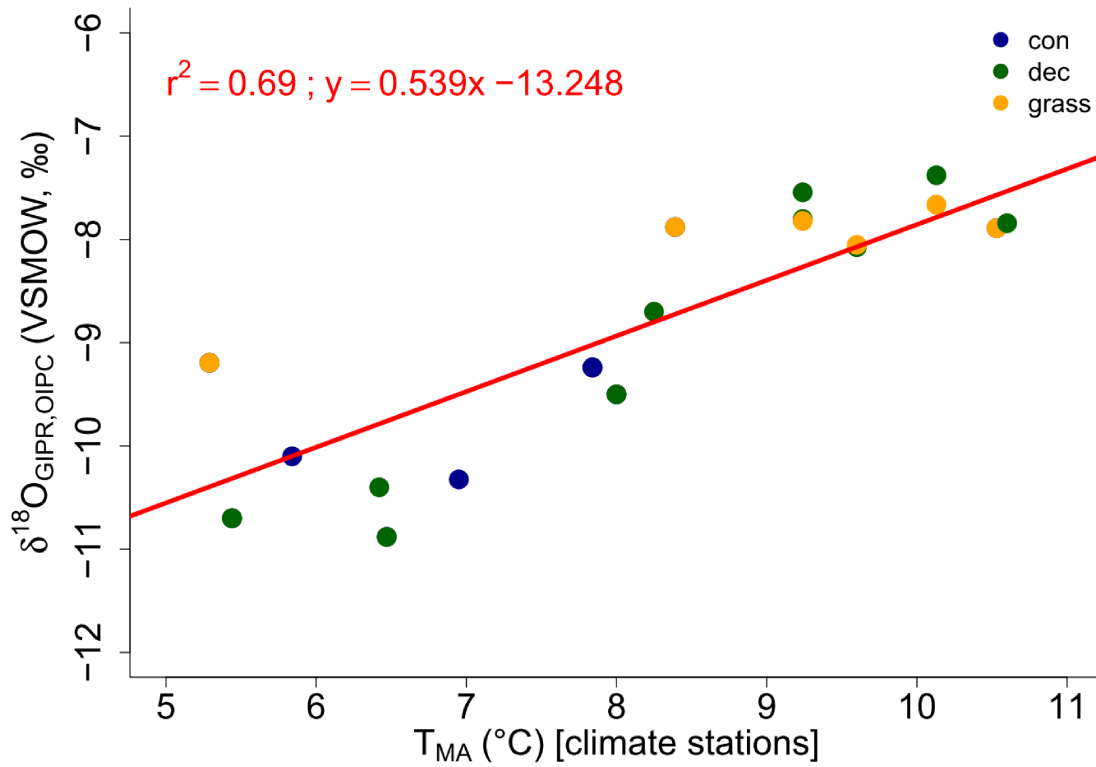


Fig. S3. Comparison between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ values vs. T_{MA} for the three different vegetation types along the transect. The red line represents the regression line throughout all sites. Abbreviations: con = coniferous forest sites (n=9); dec = deciduous forest sites (n=11); grass = grassland sites (n=4).

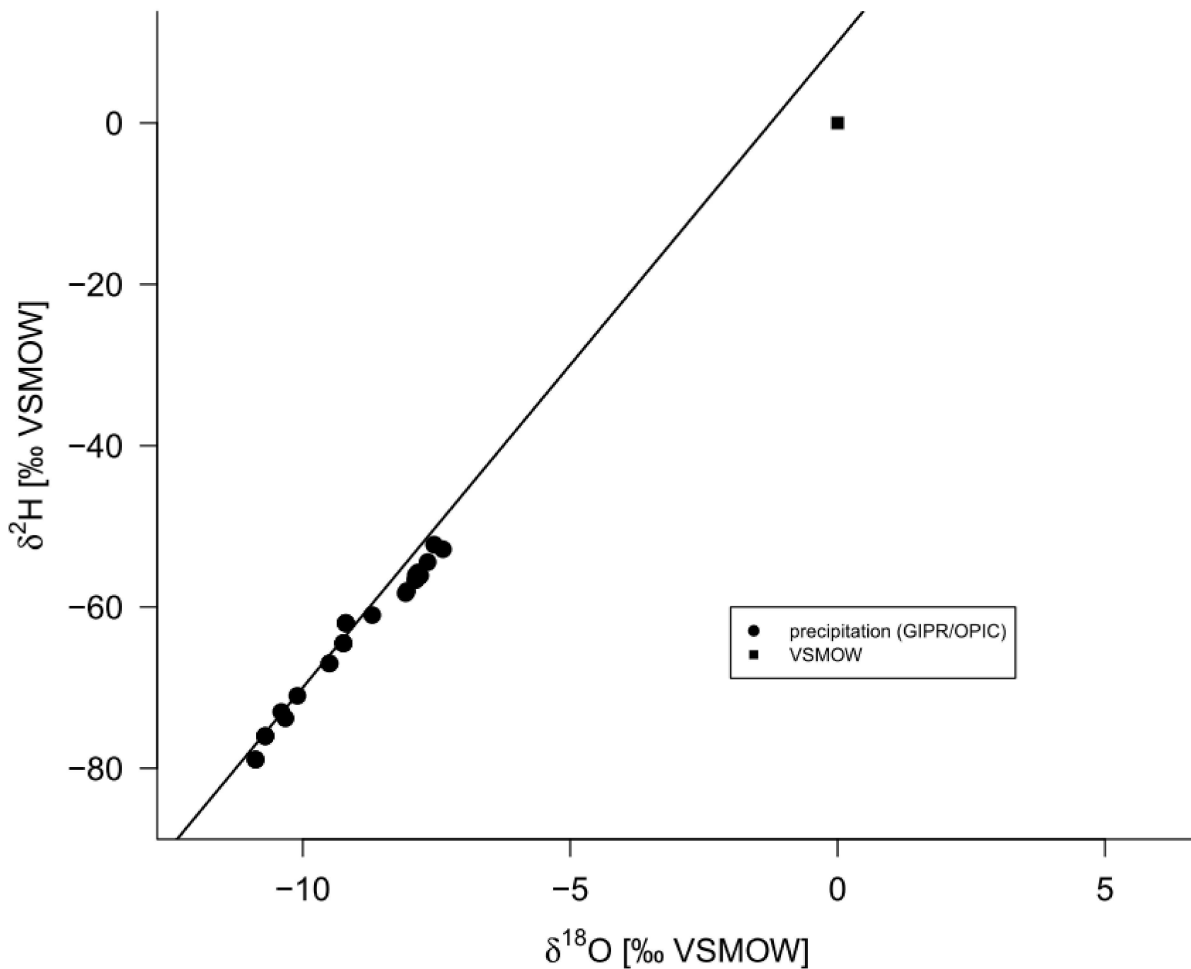


Fig. S4. $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{GIPR,OIPC}}$ diagram along the transect. The black line represents the global meteoric water line (GMWL; $\delta^2\text{H} = 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 10$; Dansgaard, 1964).

Based on the values quoted in the Tabs. S1 and S2, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is plotted as functions of the reported environmental parameters (climate station P_{MA} , location altitude and T_{MA} ; Figs. S1 to S3). It is worth to note that the five points representing Danish and Swedish sites (L12 to L16) form a separate group in Figs. S2 and S3, with clear more negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. All other (continental) sites show a regular altitude effect (decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values with increasing altitude; red trend in Fig. S3). All Danish and Swedish isotope signatures of precipitation are shifted from the trend line by ca 2 to 2.5‰ towards more negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. One would rather expect more enriched values due to relative proximity to the sea. It should be noted that those values were derived from OIPC, while the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data for the German sites is derived from GNIP/ANIP data (see section 2.2 for more details). The precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ shows the expected relationship with T_{MA} (Fig. S4). The slope of this relationship (ca. 0.54‰/°C) is in the range of the slope of δ - T spatial relationship observed at mid latitudes of the northern hemisphere (e.g. Rozanski et al., 1993). It is apparent from the above Fig. S5 that the data points plot along the GMWL. Only more positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values cluster below the line, indicating most probably some evaporation enrichment effects (partial evaporation of raindrops and/or evaporation effects in the rain gauges).

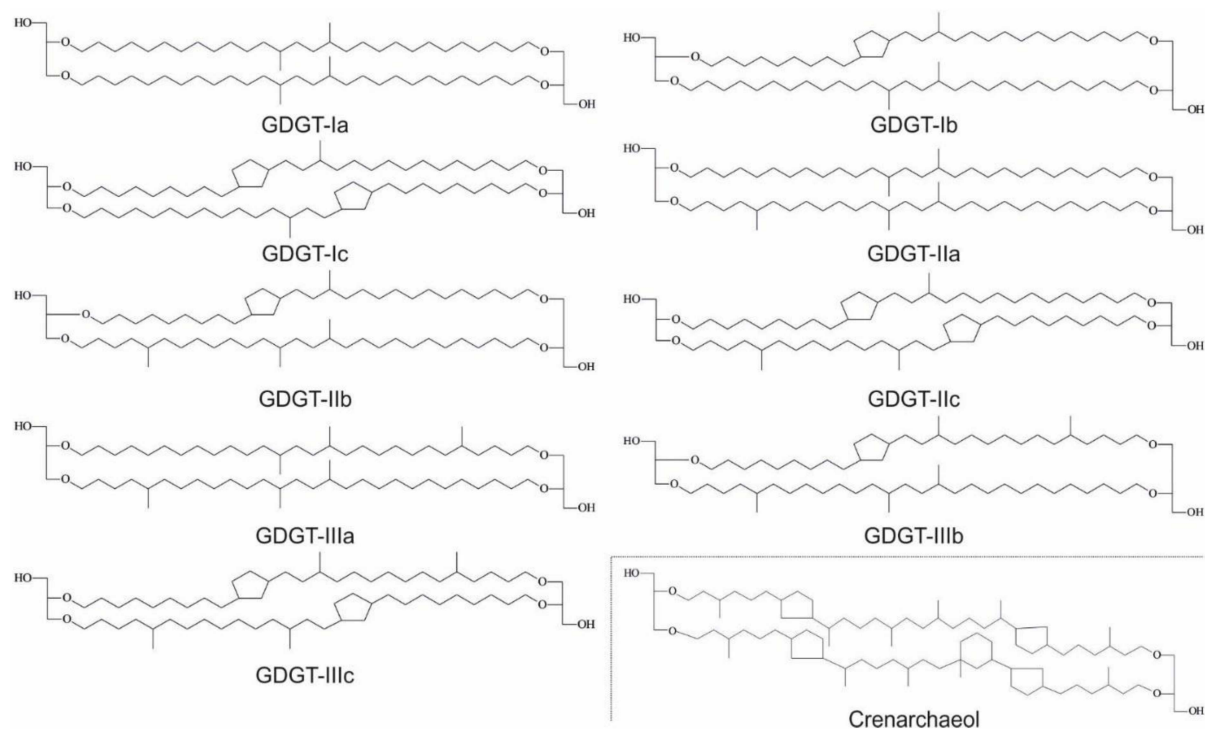


Fig. S5. Structures of brGDGTs and Crenarchaeol mentioned.

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Supplementary data

Tab. S1. Location characterization, GIPR and OIPC data.

Location	Vegetation	Characterization	Latitude (decimal °)	Longitude (decimal °)	Altitude (m)	Precipitation δ ² H (‰)	Precipitation δ ¹⁸ O (‰)	source
L01	con	spruce forest, steep hillside	47.4	10.3	886	-78.9	-10.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L01	dec	beech forest, close to fir stand	47.4	10.3	899	-78.9	-10.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L02	con	fir forest	47.8	11.0	889	-73.8	-10.3	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L03	dec	beeches, oaks, limes, sparse pines	49.1	8.2	131	-56.6	-7.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L03	grass	glade, next to farmland and fruit trees (apple, plum)	49.1	8.2	121	-56.6	-7.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L04	dec	beech forest, sparse firs and oaks	49.2	9.5	247	-58.3	-8.1	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L04	grass	grassland in the valley, next to beech forest	49.2	9.5	214	-58.0	-8.1	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L05	dec	oak forest, sparse beeches, elms and pines	49.6	8.6	96	-55.7	-7.8	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L06	dec	beech forest, steep hillside	50.6	10.4	421	-64.5	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L06-1	con1	spruce pine forest with grass layer	50.6	10.4	450	-64.5	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L06-2	con2	sparse larch forest with grass layer	50.6	10.4	487	-64.5	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L07	dec	beeches, acers, elms, oaks	50.8	7.2	78	-52.8	-7.4	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L07	grass	heath	50.8	7.2	107	-54.4	-7.7	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L08	con	luxuriant spruce forest	51.2	8.5	753	-62.0	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L08	dec	young beech forest at hillside, close to spruce stand	51.2	8.5	720	-62.0	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L08	grass	heath, small shrubs, close to spruce stand, initially cleared	51.2	8.5	829	-62.0	-9.2	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L09	dec	birch forest with small oaks, sparse poplars, surrounded by farmland	52.5	9.7	48	-56.1	-7.8	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L09	grass	next to farm track	52.5	9.7	52	-56.2	-7.8	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L10	dec	beech-oak-forest	53.0	8.7	31	-52.3	-7.5	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L11	con	spruce forest with larches	54.4	9.6	30	-56.0	-7.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L11	grass	cow pasture, sparse oaks	54.4	9.6	23	-56.0	-7.9	GIPR ^{A,B,C,D}
L12	dec	acer forest with poplars, ashes and elder	55.4	10.5	16	-61.0	-8.7	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L13	con	fir forest with swampy underground	56.0	12.1	20	-67.0	-9.5	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L13	dec	beech forest with sparse acers, birches, loamy underground	56.0	12.1	30	-67.0	-9.5	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L14	con	spruce-pine-forest with moss layer	57.6	14.2	208	-71.0	-10.1	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L15	con	spruce forest, sparse birches, used as cattle run	58.9	14.9	110	-76.0	-10.7	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L15-1	dec1	acers, oaks, beeches, sparse firs, on partly pebbly, partly humus-rich floor	58.9	14.9	104	-76.0	-10.7	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L15-2	dec2	birch- and oak-belt at spruce forest edge, grass layer, also used as cattle run	58.9	14.9	104	-76.0	-10.7	OIPC ^{E,F,G}
L16	dec	oak forest, sparse birches and larches	58.5	15.0	90	-73.0	-10.4	OIPC ^{E,F,G}

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Tab. S2. Climate station data.

Location	Vegetation	Station ID	Name	Latitude (decimal °)	Longitude (decimal °)	Altitude (m)	Observation begin (YYYYMMDD)	Observation end (YYYYMMDD)	T _{max} (°C)	T _{min} (°C)	Observation begin (YYYYMMDD)	Observation end (YYYYMMDD)	T _{max} (°C)	T _{min} (°C)	Station ID	Name	Latitude (decimal °)
L01	con	3730	Oberstdorf	47.40	10.28	806	19480101	20171231	6.5 ^A	11.5 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.2 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L01	dec	3730	Oberstdorf	47.40	10.28	806	19480101	20171231	6.5 ^A	11.5 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.2 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L02	con	2290	Hohenpeißenberg	47.80	11.01	977	20171231	20171231	7.0 ^A	11.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	12.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L03	dec	2522	Karlsruhe	49.04	8.36	112	19480101	20081102	10.5 ^A	15.3 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	17.8 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L03	grass	2522	Karlsruhe	49.04	8.36	112	19480101	20081102	10.5 ^A	15.3 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	17.8 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L04	dec	3761	Öhringen	49.21	9.52	276	19550101	20171231	9.6 ^A	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	16.8 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L04	grass	3761	Öhringen	49.21	9.52	276	19550101	20171231	9.6 ^A	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	16.8 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L05	dec	5906	Mannheim	49.51	8.56	98	19480101	20171231	10.6 ^A	15.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	17.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L06-1	dec	3231	Meiningen	50.56	10.38	450	19790101	20171231	7.8 ^A	12.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L06-2	con1	3231	Meiningen	50.56	10.38	450	19790101	20171231	7.8 ^A	12.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L07	dec	2667	Köln-Bonn	50.86	7.16	92	19600101	20171231	10.1 ^A	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	16.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L07	grass	2667	Köln-Bonn	50.86	7.16	92	19600101	20171231	10.1 ^A	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	16.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L08	con	2483	Kahler Asten	51.18	8.49	839	19510101	20171231	5.3 ^A	9.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	10.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L08	dec	2483	Kahler Asten	51.18	8.49	839	19510101	20171231	5.3 ^A	9.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	10.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L08	grass	2483	Kahler Asten	51.18	8.49	839	19510101	20171231	5.3 ^A	9.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	10.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L09	dec	2014	Hannover	52.46	9.68	55	19490101	20171231	9.2 ^A	13.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	15.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L09	grass	2014	Hannover	52.46	9.68	55	19490101	20171231	9.2 ^A	13.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	15.9 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L10	dec	691	Bremen	53.05	8.80	4	19490101	20171231	9.2 ^A	13.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	15.7 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L11	con	4466	Schleswig	54.53	9.55	43	19510101	20171231	8.4 ^A	12.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L11	grass	4466	Schleswig	54.53	9.55	43	19510101	20171231	8.4 ^A	12.6 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	14.4 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L12	dec	06120	Odense Lufthavn	55.48	10.33	15	19610101	20001231	8.3 ^{CD}	12.5 ^{CD}	n.n.	n.n.	n.a.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L13	con	30110	Spodsbjerg	55.98	11.85	34	19610101	19901231	8.0 ^C	12.5 ^C	n.n.	n.n.	n.a.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L13	dec	30110	Spodsbjerg	55.98	11.85	34	19610101	19901231	8.0 ^C	12.5 ^C	n.n.	n.n.	n.a.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L14	con	74180	Hagshult Mo	57.29	14.13	169	19430101	20180601	5.8 ^F	10.8 ^F	19490101	20180601	14.5 ^F	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.
L15	con	84580	Snavlunda	58.97	14.90	144/140	19440101	19830901	5.4 ^F	10.8 ^F	19941014	19830831	13.9 ^F	85460	Kettstaka A	58.72	n.n.
L15-1	dec1	84580	Snavlunda	58.97	14.90	144/140	19440101	19830901	5.4 ^F	10.8 ^F	19941014	19830831	13.9 ^F	85460	Kettstaka A	58.72	n.n.
L15-2	dec2	84580	Snavlunda	58.97	14.90	144/140	19440101	19830901	5.4 ^F	10.8 ^F	19941014	19830831	13.9 ^F	85460	Kettstaka A	58.72	n.n.
L16	dec	85330	Motala Kraftverk	58.55	15.08	94	19340101	19901228	6.4 ^F	11.6 ^F	19610101	19851024	14.9 ^F	84310	Karlsborg Mo	58.51	n.n.

n.n. = not needed/see information further left

n.a. = not available

^A DWD Climate Data Center, 2018a. Historical hourly station observations of 2m air temperature and humidity for Germany, version v006.

^B DWD Climate Data Center, 2018b. Historical annual precipitation observations for Germany, version v007.

^C Laursen, E.V., Thomsen, R.S., Cappelen, J., 1999. Observed Air Temperature, Humidity, Pressure, Cloud Cover and Weather in Denmark - with Climatological Standard Normals, 1961-90.

^D Cappelen, J., 2002. Danish Climatological Normals 1971-2000 - for selected stations.

^E Frich, P., Rosenørn, S., Madsen, H., Jensen, J.J., 1997. Observed Precipitation in Denmark, 1961-90.

^F Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute, 2018. SMHI Open Data Meteorological Observations, <https://opendata-download-metobs.smhi.se/explore/>.

Tab. S2. continuation...

Longitude (decimal °)	Altitude (m)	Observation begin (YYYYMMDD)	Observation end (YYYYMMDD)	RH _{min} (%)	RH _{WV} (%)	RH _{max} (%)	RH _{max} (%)	Name	Latitude (decimal °)	Longitude (decimal °)	Altitude (m)	Observation begin (YYYYMMDD)	Observation end (YYYYMMDD)	P _{max} (mm)	Source
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	82 ^A	80 ^A	70 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1769 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	82 ^A	80 ^A	70 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1769 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	78 ^A	77 ^A	73 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1173 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	73 ^A	63 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	758 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	73 ^A	63 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	758 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	74 ^A	65 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	816 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	74 ^A	65 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	816 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	75 ^A	71 ^A	61 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	658 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	79 ^A	75 ^A	67 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	660 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	79 ^A	75 ^A	67 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	660 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	79 ^A	75 ^A	67 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	660 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	74 ^A	65 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	809 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	77 ^A	74 ^A	65 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	809 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	87 ^A	84 ^A	78 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1417 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	87 ^A	84 ^A	78 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1417 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	87 ^A	84 ^A	78 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	1417 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	80 ^A	76 ^A	68 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	650 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	80 ^A	76 ^A	68 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	650 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	80 ^A	77 ^A	69 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	699 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	80 ^A	77 ^A	69 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	699 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	83 ^A	80 ^A	72 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	900 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	83 ^A	80 ^A	72 ^A	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	900 ^B	DWD
n.n.	n.n.	19971231	19971231	81 ^C	76 ^C	63 ^C	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	572 ^E	DWI
n.n.	n.n.	19690101	19921231	84 ^C	80 ^C	74 ^C	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	554 ^E	DWI
n.n.	n.n.	19690101	19921231	84 ^C	80 ^C	74 ^C	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	554 ^E	DWI
n.n.	n.n.	20130101	20180601	86 ^F	79 ^F	68 ^F	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	n.n.	19430101	20180601	717 ^F	SMHI	
15.03	225	19950801	20180601	82 ^F	75 ^F	68 ^F	Snavlunda D	58.95/58.97/58.97 14.91/14.90/14.90	135/144/140	19440101	20150101	693 ^F	SMHI		
15.03	225	19950801	20180601	82 ^F	75 ^F	68 ^F	Snavlunda D	58.95/58.97/58.97 14.91/14.90/14.90	135/144/140	19440101	20150101	693 ^F	SMHI		
15.03	225	19950801	20180601	82 ^F	75 ^F	68 ^F	Snavlunda D	58.95/58.97/58.97 14.91/14.90/14.90	135/144/140	19440101	20150101	693 ^F	SMHI		
14.51	95	20130101	20180601	83 ^F	78 ^F	71 ^F	Motala	58.56/58.55/58.55 15.02/15.01/15.08	95/95/94	19310101	20180501	557 ^F	SMHI		

Tab. S3. GDGT data. Crenarcheol and brGDGTs in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight.

Location	Vegetation	pH (H ₂ O)	Crenarcheol ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIia ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIib ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIic ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIa ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIb ^a (ng/g dry weight)	IIc ^a (ng/g dry weight)	Ia ^a (ng/g dry weight)	Ib ^a (ng/g dry weight)	Ic ^a (ng/g dry weight)
L01	con	4.5	2	194	3	0	845	34	1	531	38	7
L01	dec	4.0	1	109	1	0	536	7	3	687	37	10
L02	con	6.5	38	128	9	1	329	81	4	160	86	79
L03	dec	4.3	16	55	0	0	617	17	5	1289	30	9
L03	grass	5.2	12	28	0	0	142	8	1	124	12	2
L04	dec	5.9	13	60	4	1	185	37	3	137	33	6
L04	grass	6.0	208	54	7	3	131	105	8	79	92	27
L05	dec	4.1	15	25	0	0	204	2	1	380	5	1
L06	dec	7.3	16	226	26	1	304	184	6	78	66	5
L06-1	con1	4.5	2	116	0	0	585	18	2	549	21	1
L06-2	con2	6.0	19	332	24	2	695	197	7	295	97	12
L07	dec	3.6	149	67	1	1	506	10	4	677	16	5
L07	grass	4.2	18	19	0	0	141	1	1	183	2	1
L08	con	3.3	29	213	0	0	2265	26	19	3287	32	13
L08	dec	3.6	11	84	0	0	821	12	5	1450	21	8
L08	grass	4.3	0	232	0	0	996	11	2	884	21	6
L09	dec	3.6	64	101	1	0	943	13	5	1513	19	8
L09	grass	4.3	16	26	1	0	169	1	1	275	5	1
L10	dec	3.0	1084	157	33	4	463	68	17	816	23	8
L11	con	3.5	512	76	0	1	353	6	0	406	8	2
L11	grass	5.9	19	89	0	0	579	26	2	714	44	5
L12	dec	4.9	735	450	16	2	2219	418	36	1642	476	142
L13	con	3.2	0	56	0	3	619	0	6	993	13	20
L13	dec	3.7	0	150	0	0	1422	28	16	3165	46	19
L14	con	3.6	0	103	2	0	1180	5	9	2077	17	4
L15	con	3.6	0	207	3	1	2866	48	26	5695	98	35
L15-1	dec1	5.0	7	192	2	0	933	41	4	658	58	22
L15-2	dec2	4.1	5	210	1	0	1896	24	14	2541	41	13
L16	dec	4.3	0	54	0	0	349	5	1	424	9	2

^a Structures can be found in Fig. S5

^b BIT index was calculated according to Hopmans, E.C., Weijers, J.W.H., Scheffuß, E., Herfort, L., Sinninghe Damsté, J.S., Schouten, S., 2004. A novel proxy for terrestrial organic matter in sediments based on branched and isoprenoid tetraether lipids. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 224, 107–116.

^c MBT, CBT, reconstructed T_{MB} and pHCBT according to Petersen, F., van der Meer, J., Schouten, S., Weijers, J.W.H., Flierer, N., Jackson, R.B., Kim, J.H., Sinninghe Damsté, J.S., 2012. Revised calibration of the MBT-CBT paleotemperature proxy based on branched tetraether membrane lipids in surface soils. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 96, 215–229.

Tab. S3. continuation...

brGDGT concentration ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)	BIT	MBT	CBT	reconstructed T_{max} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	pH _{car}
1.65	1.00	0.35	1.3	4.3	5.37
1.39	1.00	0.53	1.4	9.0	5.05
0.88	0.94	0.37	0.5	9.8	6.98
2.02	0.99	0.66	1.6	12.1	4.74
0.32	0.96	0.43	1.1	7.9	5.69
0.47	0.97	0.38	0.7	8.9	6.59
0.51	0.56	0.40	0.0	13.0	7.84
0.62	0.98	0.63	2.0	9.0	4.01
0.90	0.97	0.17	0.2	5.1	7.54
1.29	1.00	0.44	1.5	6.3	5.04
1.66	0.99	0.25	0.5	5.5	6.86
1.29	0.89	0.54	1.7	8.2	4.63
0.35	0.95	0.53	2.0	5.9	3.90
5.86	1.00	0.57	2.0	7.2	4.00
2.40	1.00	0.62	1.8	9.4	4.26
2.15	1.00	0.42	1.8	3.8	4.39
2.60	0.98	0.59	1.9	8.5	4.19
0.48	0.97	0.59	1.9	8.5	4.23
1.59	0.57	0.55	1.2	11.2	5.63
0.85	0.62	0.49	1.7	6.2	4.50
1.46	0.99	0.52	1.3	9.8	5.40
5.40	0.85	0.42	0.6	10.2	6.65
1.71	1.00	0.60	2.1	7.6	3.78
4.85	1.00	0.67	1.8	11.3	4.37
3.40	1.00	0.62	2.2	7.7	3.64
8.98	1.00	0.65	1.8	10.9	4.42
1.91	1.00	0.39	1.2	6.0	5.52
4.74	1.00	0.55	1.8	7.4	4.29
0.84	1.00	0.52	1.7	6.9	4.46

Tab. S4. Measured *n*-alkane $\delta^2\text{H}$ and sugar $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data along with calculations and reconstruction results.

Location	Vegetation	<i>n</i> -alkane $\delta^2\text{H}$ (%)	sugar $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (%)	$\epsilon_{n\text{-alkane/precipitation}}$ (%)	$\epsilon_{\text{sugar/precipitation}}$ (%)	reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{source-water}}$ (%)	reconstructed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source-water}}$ (%)	reconstructed RH _{MDV} (%)
L01	con	-216.2	34.17	-149	45.5	-139	-18.7	34
L01	dec	-190.6	35.95	-121	47.3	-100	-13.8	42
L02	con	-169.4	32.95	-103	43.7	-49	-7.3	66
L03	dec	-176.8	34.54	-127	42.8	-67	-9.6	56
L03	grass	n.a.	29.96	n.a.	38.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
L04	dec	n.a.	35.30	n.a.	43.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
L04	grass	-208.6	30.80	-160	39.2	-110	-14.9	52
L05	dec	-169.6	32.95	-121	41.1	-47	-7.1	66
L06	dec	n.a.	34.30	n.a.	43.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
L06-1	con1	-201.5	34.27	-146	43.9	-113	-15.3	42
L06-2	con2	-191.0	34.39	-135	44.0	-94	-13.0	48
L07	dec	-170.4	36.07	-124	43.8	-62	-9.0	54
L07	grass	n.a.	31.28	n.a.	39.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
L08	con	-168.3	38.42	-113	48.1	-72	-10.2	45
L08	dec	-156.3	36.19	-101	45.8	-40	-6.2	61
L08	grass	-184.2	31.51	-130	41.1	-71	-10.1	63
L09	dec	-177.8	31.66	-129	39.8	-57	-8.4	66
L09	grass	-191.6	28.30	-144	36.4	-69	-9.8	71
L10	dec	-171.6	39.45	-126	47.3	-79	-11.1	40
L11	con	-183.6	33.56	-135	41.8	-77	-10.8	55
L11	grass	-194.1	27.67	-146	35.8	-71	-10.1	72
L12	dec	-177.4	37.30	-124	46.4	-83	-11.6	44
L13	con	-182.9	36.62	-124	46.6	-90	-12.5	44
L13	dec	-183.8	28.79	-125	38.7	-57	-8.4	74
L14	con	-190.3	36.85	-128	47.4	-103	-14.1	39
L15	con	-201.1	32.13	-135	43.3	-103	-14.1	51
L15-1	dec1	-201.6	33.41	-136	44.6	-110	-15.0	45
L15-2	dec2	-209.7	33.05	-145	44.2	-123	-16.6	42
L16	dec	-191.6	28.41	-128	39.2	-69	-9.9	71

n.a. = not available