Pelagic ecosystem responses to changes in seawater conditions during

the Middle Pleistocene Transition in the Eastern Mediterranean

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Abstract

We provide here a multi-proxy, ecosystem-level assessment of paleoenvironmental change

and its impacts on marine organisms living in the Eastern Mediterranean during the Middle

Pleistocene Transition, between 923 and 756 kyr B.P. (marine isotope stages MIS 23–18).

This study combines organic biomarker analyses; organic matter content analyses; carbon and

oxygen stable isotope analyses on bulk sediment, surface-dwelling, deep-dwelling planktonic

and benthic foraminifera, ostracods and fish otoliths; and foraminifera, ostracod and sponge

abundance estimates, with statistical assessment of paleoenvironmental regime shifts and

estimation of fish distribution depths in the past. Our results show that temperature and

productivity played the most important role in driving ecosystem changes in the study area at

different times: temperature was the primary driver during MIS 21 interglacial, whereas

productivity became a dominant factor in the MIS 19 interglacial. In addition, organism

responses varied across the ecosystem. Both interglacials yielded higher plankton and benthos

biomasses. However, for fishes, the responses differ. The early MIS 21 abrupt global

warming, which was also captured by our record, probably led to a reduction in their diel

vertical migration by the mesopelagic fishes, and consequently to the efficiency of the biological carbon pump. In contrast, increased productivity across trophic levels is attested for MIS 19, and subsequent drop in MIS 18, affecting foraminifera, ostracod and sponge biomasses, but not inhibiting fish DVM. As a result, carbon sequestration during MIS 19 was enhanced.

Keywords: marine ecosystem, climate, fish, foraminifera biomass, carbon pump

1. Introduction

The Middle Pleistocene Transition (MPT; 1.25–0.7 Ma) is a distinct period in recent climate evolution, marking the shift from Pliocene symmetrical 41-ky to the modern 100-ky frequency, higher-amplitude, asymmetrical climate cycles (Head and Gibbard, 2015). This shift was associated with the expansion of the Northern Hemisphere ice sheets (Ao et al., 2023; Berends et al., 2021; Clark et al., 2006; Elderfield et al., 2012) triggered by Antarctic ice-sheet growth (An et al., 2024) and led to major changes in the marine (e.g. Agiadi et al., 2011) and terrestrial biota (e.g. Cirilli et al., 2023), including a severe demographic crisis affecting human populations (Hu et al., 2023; Margari et al., 2023).

The conditions in the Mediterranean have been the topic of numerous studies, since it is a hotspot of ancient human population change due to climate during the MPT (Margari et al., 2023). Sea surface temperature (SST) and primary productivity changes have been reconstructed with high temporal resolution in the Western and Central Mediterranean (Capraro et al., 2023; Maiorano et al., 2016; Marino et al., 2020, 2022; Martínez-Dios et al., 2021; Nomade et al., 2019; Peral et al., 2020; Quivelli et al., 2020, 2021; Toti et al., 2020) and the southwestern Iberian margin (Girone et al., 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2017; Sánchez Goñi et al., 2023), providing up to millennial-scale paleoclimate reconstructions with even records of short-term extreme cooling events attributed to the reduction of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation. Very few studies have been conducted on the Eastern Mediterranean however (Eichner et al., 2024; Incarbona et al., 2022; Quillévéré et al., 2016, 2019). Particularly, a gap in knowledge remains regarding seawater conditions (i.e., temperature, thermal gradient, salinity) as well as the productivity in the Eastern Mediterranean during the MPT. The Eastern is at present affected by particularly much drier and ~4 °C warmer climate conditions than the Western Mediterranean (Minnett et al., 2019). In addition, the riverine influx counterbalances up to a point only the negative water budget of the region promoted by extreme evaporation, generating the prevalence of much saltier sea surface conditions (> 39) when compared to Western Mediterranean (~36.5). Such warmer

and saltier conditions were last seen in the area in the Late Miocene (e.g. Besiou et al., 2024; Kontakiotis et al., 2022; Vasiliev et al., 2019) and it becomes intuitive that seawater conditions during the MPT may have been very different from the Western Mediterranean too.

Climate change affects the size and metabolism of marine organisms (Daufresne et al., 2009; Ohlberger, 2013), and therefore marine ecosystem structure and function (Hildrew et al., 2007). Although some aspects of the response of marine organisms to paleoclimatic changes that occurred in the Mediterranean during the MPT have been studied so far, such as the composition of the calcareous nannoplankton (Marino et al., 2008, 2020), planktonic foraminifera (Quillévéré et al., 2019; Quivelli et al., 2021), fish faunas (Agiadi et al., 2011, 2018; Girone and Varola, 2001), and the body size of bivalves (Porz et al., 2024) and fishes (Agiadi et al., 2023), many questions remain about secondary production by zooplankton and zoobenthos, and the metabolic response of higher-trophic–level organisms.

Foraminifera are very sensitive to the parameters of ambient seawater, such as food supply, light intensity, and sea temperature, which control community composition and pelagic biomass production (e.g. Gooday and Jorissen, 2012; Schiebel et al., 2018). In the case of the MPT, no consistent global patterns have been found, and paleoproductivity changes were mostly related to regional changes in nutrient supply through variations in the hydrographic regime (Diester-Haass et al., 2018). With the production of their calcareous shells, both planktonic and benthic foraminifera contribute actively to the biological carbon pump (Grigoratou et al., 2022; Schiebel, 2002). However, their contribution to carbon export to the seafloor in the geological past is hampered by the lack of estimates of their biomass. Although foraminifera are a very powerful tool for paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic studies, these have almost exclusively been based on the assemblage composition, species abundance data or biogeochemical proxies, whereas very little is known about the fluctuations of foraminifera biomass in response to changes of environmental parameters. Planktonic foraminifera biomass is mainly controlled by temperature during the early stage of their development, but food availability becomes more important for adults (Grigoratou et al., 2019), whereas benthic foraminifera biomass is tightly linked to organic matter fluxes and oxygenation (Milker et al., 2019).

Ostracods are very sensitive to changes in the oxygen content of the seawater (Huang et al., 2019), and paleoclimatic changes associated with the MPT severely affected the ostracod fauna composition and abundance in many places of the world (DeNinno et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2019) including the Mediterranean (Rossi et al., 2018).

Sponges are very attuned to seawater depths, pH, temperature, oxygenation, making their assemblages and abundance very good indicators of paleoenvironmental conditions (Łukowiak, 2020). Sponge spicules in the sediment, reflecting biogenic silica accumulation over MPT, have been used as a proxy of sea bottom conditions, reflecting cool, oxygen-rich water masses (Alvarez et al., 2017; Auer et al., 2021).

Fish respond swiftly to unfavorable environmental conditions by adjusting their geographic and depth distribution range (Perry et al., 2005), but changes in temperature, salinity, oxygenation and the availability of food eventually lead to eco-evolutionary shifts in their growth and mortality rates, size at maturity, and life-history patterns (Gallo and Levin, 2016; Lindmark et al., 2022; Rountrey et al., 2014). The MPT has already been shown to have affected the distribution and body size of fishes (Agiadi et al., 2018, 2023).

Mesopelagic fish of the family Myctophidae link trophic levels and play an essential role in the biological carbon pump through their diel vertical migration (Pinti et al., 2023). Diel vertical migration (DVM) is the daily movement performed by several marine organisms, including the mesopelagic fishes of the family Myctophidae, between the twilight (day-time) and the euphotic zone (night-time) (Brierley, 2014). Because these fishes feed at the surface and excrete and respire carbon at depth, their DVM leads to a net drawdown of carbon from the surface waters. According to some estimates, DVM contributes approximately 20% of the biological carbon pump in modern oceans, with more than 1 PgC/y being actively transported below the euphotic zone by all migrating organisms (Aumont et al., 2018). Carbon is directly injected deeper through DVM than by any other BCP process (Aumont et al., 2018). As a result, the contribution of DVM to carbon sequestration amounts up to more than 50% of the global total, and mesopelagic fishes contribute half of this (Aksnes et al., 2023; Pinti et al., 2023). The capacity of myctophids to perform diel vertical migration vary by species and are affected by the seawater conditions, as well as food availability and type (Olivar et al., 2018). Nothing is known about these regular movements of fishes in the geological past.

In this study, we investigate the response of the pelagic ecosystem to changes in sea surface temperature, salinity, and primary productivity and relate these to the contemporaneous important climate changes that occurred during the MPT, between 923 and 756 kyr B.P., largely overlapping with MIS 23–MIS 18. We quantify changes in sea surface temperature (SST), sea surface salinity (SSS), and productivity. We use the findings to further tie the events to the observed changes in important groups of pelagic life forms, namely foraminifera and ostracods (zooplankton), sponges (benthos), and fishes (nekton). Using the isotopic composition of foraminifera shells and fish otoliths, we infer the thermohaline gradient, detect shifts in the depth distribution and diel vertical migration patterns of myctophids, and derive changes in the fish metabolism.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Study area, sampling and chronostratigraphic background

The material used in this study originates from the Lindos Bay Formation exposed at Lardos, northeastern Rhodes, Greece. On the island of Rhodes, the Mesozoic–Paleogene limestone substratum is overlain by marine siliciclastic-carbonate Pleistocene deposits. Since the Pliocene, the compressive regime of this area of the Hellenic fore-arc and the concomitant opening of the > 4000 m deep Rhodes Basin have triggered rapid vertical tectonic motions resulting in the deposition and then uplift of Pleistocene marine sediments that are now exposed along the eastern coast of the island (Cornée et al., 2006, 2019; Van Hinsbergen et al., 2007). The Early–Middle Pleistocene hemipelagic sediments of the Lindos Bay Formation sampled for this study were deposited at bathyal depths during the maximum flooding of this tectonically driven transgression-regression cycle (Cornée et al., 2019; Milker et al., 2017; Quillévéré et al., 2019). This occurrence of Pleistocene deep-water sediments accessible on land is unique for the Eastern Mediterranean, providing a valuable reference point for studying the Early–Middle Pleistocene marine faunas of the region (Quillévéré et al., 2016).

The studied section (36°05'19.5"N 28°00'35.9"E) is located at the northern flank of a hill positioned ~900 m southwest of the village of Lardos. The total section comprises 30 meters of marine marls and silts initially studied by Titschack et al. (2013). In this work, we focus on the 2.4 m lowest marls of the section already studied by Titschack et al. (2013) and dug a pit beneath in order to extend the MPT record to a total thickness of 3.1 m. Thirty-two samples were obtained every 10 cm after the outcrop surface was refreshed.

A chronostratigraphic framework has been previously established for this section based on nannoplankton and foraminiferal biostratigraphic analyses, oxygen isotope compositions of surface-dwelling planktonic foraminifera (Titschack et al., 2013), and U^{234}/U^{238} dating of deep-water *Desmophyllum pertusum* coral fragments collected in a ~25–cm-thick horizon at ~2.3 m section height, which yielded mean ages of 755.2 ± 15.5 and 756.0 ± 17.5 kyr (Titschack et al., 2013). Altogether, these data showed that the lowermost part of the Lardos section recovers the Early–Middle Pleistocene boundary (774 kyr) and the MPT interval between the Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 22 (*partim*) and MIS 18. By digging a pit at the base of the section, we extend the record down to MIS 23. In addition, by comparing new local $\delta^{18}O$ compositions of monospecific samples of benthic and planktonic foraminifera (see subsection 2.5) to those occurring in the global ocean (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and Mediterranean reference records (Konijnendijk et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2010), we aim to refine the location in the section of climatic cycle terminations within the MIS 23–18 interval.

    2.2. Paleodepth estimates

The 32 sediments samples were dried in an oven, weighed and placed in water and Calgon for

size hours on a shaker table. Then, they were sieved in a 63-µm mesh sieve and dried in an

oven at 60°C and the residues were weighed. The depositional depths through the 3.1 m

sedimentary unit were assessed by counting the number of planktonic foraminifera relative to

the total number of planktonic and benthic foraminifera (counted up to 300 planktonic

foraminifera) in representative splits of the >125-µm size fraction of the 32 collected samples.

Indeed, the planktonic/benthic ratio %P(P+B) classically increases with water depth or

distance from shorelines (Gibson, 1989). We estimated paleodepths (D) by using the transfer

function developed by van der Zwaan et al. (1990) with $D = e^{3.58718} + 0.03534 \times P$.

Several limiting factors play a significant role in controlling benthic and/or planktonic

foraminifera depth habitat, notably a sensitivity of benthic foraminifera assemblages to

changes in oxygen levels of the bottom waters (e.g., Jorissen et al., 1995), thus leading to

potentially biased paleodepth estimates. We consequently followed the methodology

proposed by van der Zwaan et al. (1990), discarding from the counts the infaunal benthic

genera *Uvigerina*, *Bolivina*, *Bulimina*, *Globobulimina* and *Fursenkoina* as characteristic of

organic-rich and oxygen-deficient environments.

2.3. Oxygen and carbon isotope analyses

The δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C of 32 samples was measured on grinded bulk sedimentary rock samples.

Stable oxygen (δ^{18}O) and carbon (δ^{13}C) isotope compositions were also measured on shells of

benthic (*Uvigerina peregrina*) and planktonic foraminifera (*Globigerinoides ruber*,

Globoconella inflata), and fish otoliths (*Hygophum benoiti*, *Ceratoscopelus maderensis*).

Uvigerina peregrina, which occurs continuously in the section, is a shallow infaunal benthic

species whose δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C mirrors the physical conditions and compositions of ambient

bottom waters at the time of calcification. Time-series analysis of δ^{18}O values measured in

Uvigerina peregrina constitutes a powerful practical tool for global scale correlation (e.g.,

Elderfield et al., 2012). *Globigerinoides ruber*, also occurring continuously in the section, is a

symbiont bearing planktonic species that preferably calcifies in the oligotrophic upper-most

part of the water column (e.g., Schiebel and Hemleben, 2017). *Globoconella inflata* occurs in

29 out the 32 collected samples, is an algal symbiont-barren planktonic species that calcifies

mainly at intermediate depths of the photic zone in stratified water masses or in nutrient-rich

surface waters (e.g., Schiebel and Hemleben, 2017). All δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C measurements on

foraminifera were performed on specimens handpicked from the 250-355 µm size fraction.

About 10 to 15, 20 to 25 and 15 to 20 specimens (supplementary table) of *U. peregrina*, *G.*

ruber and *G. inflata*, respectively, were analyzed per sample to supply sufficient calcium

carbonate and to limit the effect of individual variation on the isotopic values. The

foraminifera analyzed were free of carbonate infilling or visible dissolution features. They

were ultrasonically cleaned in distilled water, and weighted prior to isotopic analyses.

The δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C isotope compositions were also measured on *Bairdopilata* spp. ostracods

(2 to 4 valves per sample), found in 15 out the 32 collected samples, and on otoliths of the

mesopelagic fish *Hygophum benoiti* (9 samples) and *Ceratoscopelus maderensis* (8 samples)

(supplementary table).

Otoliths are aragonitic, incremental hard parts in the inner ear of teleost fishes, which are

metabolically inert (Campana, 1999). Their δ^{18}O depends on temperature and the δ^{18}O of

ambient water, but it is not affected by fish somatic or otolith growth (Kalish, 1991a). In

paleoceanographic setting, it has also been shown that the δ^{18}O of otoliths of epipelagic fish

follows closely that of planktic foraminifera, whereas the δ^{18}O of the benthic fish otoliths

exhibits values in the range of those measured in benthic foraminifera from the same

sediment samples (Agiadi et al., 2024a). The δ^{13}C of otoliths reflects the δ^{13}C of the fish diet

and that of the dissolved inorganic carbon, and it is therefore a proxy of the fish metabolic

rate (Chung et al., 2019a, b; Kalish, 1991a; Martino et al., 2020; Smoliński et al., 2021;

Solomon et al., 2006; Trueman et al., 2016, 2023). In fossil fish otoliths, δ^{13}C has already

been successfully used as a metabolic proxy (Agiadi et al., 2024a; Wurster and Patterson,

2003).

The two fish species were selected because they are among the most common myctophid

species still living today in the Mediterranean (Mytilineou et al., 2005; Olivar et al., 2012),

with very broad distributions (Eduardo et al., 2021; Olivar et al., 2017; Zelck and Klein,

1995), and they are the most abundant in the Pleistocene fossil record (Agiadi et al., 2010,

2011, 2018, 2023; Girone et al., 2006).

All ostracods and otoliths were sonicated in MeOH for about 10 s to remove clay particles

adhering, rinsed at least five times in ultraclean water and dry in clean-air flow. Randomly

selected specimens were observed using a stereoscope to confirm their good preservation

state (Agiadi et al., 2022; Antonarakou et al., 2019; Dufour et al., 2000). For otoliths, a single

specimen per sample was crushed, homogenized and analyzed.

The bulk samples were dried and drilled with a manual electric drill at SBiK-F laboratory

after being tested with HCl 10% for carbonate presence. The obtained powder was weighed

and calibrated against standard reference materials (Carrara marble, NBS 18 and Merck). The

δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C ratios were analysed at Goethe University using a Thermo Scientific MAT 253

mass spectrometer coupled to a GasBench II type with continuous flow using the calibration

of Spötl and Vennemann (2003). Isotopic values were calculated against a CO_2 reference gas

with a precision of 0.008‰ δ^{18}O and for 0.06‰ for δ^{13}C. All values are presented with

respect to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB).

The foraminifera, ostracod, and otolith δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C measurements were performed using an

Elemental Multiprep system on line with a dual Inlet IsoPrime^{TM} Isotope Ratio Mass

Spectrometer (IRMS) at the Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, France. The principle of the

fully automated device is to react the calcium carbonates of the foraminifera, ostracods or

otoliths with anhydrous phosphoric acid at 90°C to generate CO_2, which is then analyzed with

the spectrometer. Isotopic compositions were quoted in the standard δ-notation in per mil (‰)

relative to V-PDB for both ^{18}O/^{16}O and ^{13}C/^{12}C. All sample measurements were adjusted to

the international references NBS18 (δ^{18}O$_{V-PDB}$ = −23.2‰; δ^{13}C$_{V-PDB}$ = −5.01‰) and an in-

house Carrara Marble standard (δ^{18}O$_{V-PDB}$ = −1.84‰; δ^{13}C$_{V-PDB}$ = +2.03‰) calibrated against

international references NBS18 and NBS19. With the Carrara marble, repeatability for δ^{18}O

and δ^{13}C measurements was 0.16‰ and 0.08‰ (2σ, n = 32), respectively. With NBS18,

repeatability for δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C measurements was 0.24‰ and 0.16‰ (2σ, n = 16),

respectively. Replicate analyses of 13 foraminifera, 3 ostracod and 20 otolith samples

generated replicate data within the repeatability of the method for both δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C

(Supplementary Table S1).

2.4. Biomarker analysis and sea surface temperature reconstruction

The biomarker analyses followed standard grinding, extraction, purification, and

measurements detailed elsewhere (e.g., Besiou et al., 2024). Briefly, between 30 and 60 g of

all 32 collected samples were dried and powdered. Lipids were extracted using a Soxhlet

apparatus with a mixture of dichloromethane (DCM) and methanol (MeOH) (7.5:1; *v*:*v*) and

pre-extracted cellulose filters. All extracts were evaporated to near dryness under N_2 flow

with a TurboVap LV obtaining the total lipid extracts (TLE). Subsequently, elemental sulphur

was removed using 10% HCl-activated, neutralized, and solvent-cleaned Cu shreds. The TLE

vials containing the activated Cu and magnetic rods were stirred overnight on a rotary plate.

The samples were filtered over a Na_2SO_4 column, dried subsequently, and desulphurized

again until no reaction with Cu could be observed. A fraction of the TLE was separated into

fractions by solid-phase SiO_2 gel column chromatography based on mixtures of solvents of

increasing polarity. The apolar fraction was eluted using a mixture of *n*-hexane and DCM

(9:1, *v*:*v*), the ketone fraction using DCM, and the polar fraction using a mixture of

DCM/MeOH (1:1, *v*:*v*). The ketone fraction was analyzed using Gas Chromatography-Mass

Spectrometry (GC-MS), but the samples showed only seldom traces of alkenones, intended to

be used for complementary SS reconstruction. The polar fraction containing glycerol dialkyl

glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) was dried under N_2, dissolved in a 1 ml mixture of *n*-hexane (*n*-

hexane)/isopropanol (IPA) (99:1, *v:v*), dispersed for ~30 s using an ultrasonic bath, then

filtered over a 0.45 mm PTFE filter using a 1 ml syringe, and subsequently concentrated. The

filtered polar fraction was measured using a Shimadzu HPLC, with two UHPLC silica

columns (2.1 × 150 mm, 1.7 μm) in series, connected to a 2.1 × 5 mm pre-column coupled to

an ABSciex 3200 Qtrap chemical ionization mass spectrometer (HPLC/APCIeMS) at SbiK-F.

Column temperature was 30 °C and flow rate was 0.2 ml × min^{-1}. GDGTs were eluted

isocratically using 18% B for 25 min, then a linear gradient to 35% B in 25 min, followed by

a ramp to 100% B in 30 min, where B in *n*-hexane/isopropanol (9:1; *v:v*) and A is *n*-hexane.

For each sample a 5 μl injection volume was used and GDGT detection was achieved through

single ion monitoring for selected scanned masses: 1018, 1020, 1022, 1032, 1034, 1036,

1046, 1048, 1050, 1292, 1296, 1298, 1300, 1302. The quantification of GDGTs was

performed using the Analyst software and the peaks were integrated manually, more than

twice for each sample to control the human-induced analytical bias. Because of absence

and/or traces of alkenones we were unable to estimate SST using the $U^{K'}_{37}$ paleothermometer.

However, we found easily identifiable amounts of isoprenoidal (iso)GDGTs mainly produced

by the Archaea (Schouten et al., 2013) in open marine settings. Consequently, we applied

TEX_{86} paleothermometry (Kim et al., 2010; Schouten et al., 2002) to estimate the sea surface

temperature (SST), as follows (Schouten et al., 2002):

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$$TEX86 = \frac{[GDGT-2]+[GDGT-3]+[Cren']}{[GDGT-1]+[GDGT-2]+[GDGT-3]+[Cren']},$$

where *GDGT-1*, *GDGT-2*, *GDGT-3* and *Cren'* are isoprenoid GDGTs. TEX_{86} values were

converted into SST using the calibration and recommendation of Kim et al. (2010) to apply

the $TEX_{86}^{H} > 15$ °C for regions outside the polar and subpolar latitudes as follows:

$TEX^{H}_{86} = \log(TEX_{86})$ and the SST based on TEX_{86}^{H} (TEX^{H}_{86}-SST)

TEX^{H}_{86}-SST $= 68.4 \times$ (GDGT index-2) $+ 38.6$, ($r^2 = 0.87$, p<0.0001),

where

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$$GDGT\ index - 2 = \log \frac{[GDGT-2]+[GDGT-3]+[Cren']}{[GDGT-1]+[GDGT-2]+[GDGT-3]+[Cren']},$$

SST calculations based on TEX_{86}^{H} has a calibration residual standard (1σ) error of ± 2.5 °C

and is based on 255 core-top sediments using Kim et al. (2010) calibration equation. The

temperature error between sample replicates is ±0.3 °C. Thus, the propagated error in

temperature estimates is ±2.52 °C. The estimated SST values from Lardos are reported in the

supplementary table.

2.5. Organic matter content and sources

Productivity proxies produce different results depending on the setting and the origin of the

organic matter (Rühlemann et al., 1996). Relative changes in total productivity were

estimated from the TOC content and the bulk δ^{13}C, considering the sedimentary C/N ratio to

distinguish between marine and terrestrial organic matter, as well as changes in the

sedimentation rate that are expected between glacials and interglacials (El Frihmat et al.,

2015).

To evaluate the relative input of terrestrial organic matter for coastal versus marine organic

matter we used Branched Isoprenoid Tetraether (BIT) index (Hopmans et al., 2004; Weijers et

al., 2006), a biomarker-based proxy calculated as:

$$BIT = [(GDGT-I) + (GDGT-II) + (GDGT-III)]/[(Crenarchaeol) + GDGT-I) +$$

$$(GDGT-II) + (GDGT-III),$$

where *GDGT-I*, *GDGT-II* and *GDGT-III* are branched (br)GDGTs, components of bacterial

cell membranes (particularly from Acidobacteria found in terrestrial, estuarine, and marine

environments (Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2011; Weijers et al., 2006). *Crenarchaeol* is an

isoGDGT and, together with brGDGTs, was analyzed and isolated as explained at section 2.2.

BIT values are reported in the supplementary table.

2.6. Foraminifera biomasses, ostracod and sponge spicule counts

The sediment samples were dry-sieved into seven size categories: < 125 μm, 125–150 μm,

150–200 μm, 200–250 μm, 250–315 μm, 315–400 μm, 400–500 μm, > 500 μm. The < 125-

μm residuals were excluded from the analyses following (Milker et al., 2017; van der Zwaan

et al., 1990). We counted the number of planktonic and benthic foraminifera, ostracod valves,

and sponge spicules in each size-fraction. For foraminifera and ostracods, we only counted

individuals whose shell or valve was at least half-preserved.

We estimated the planktonic foraminifera biomass (*pfb*) based on the empirical relationship

between test size and protein mass (equivalent of biomass) developed by Schiebel and

Movellan (2012) for 26 planktonic foraminifera species: $M = 3.889 \times 10^{-4} \times d^{1.48}$, where

M is the mass of the protein content (μg) and *d* the minimum diameter of the indivitual (μm).

The benthic foraminifera biomass (*bfb*) was estimated using the relationship by Movellan et

al. (2012) for *Ammonia tepida*: $M = 5.537 \times 10^{-8} \times d^{2.941}$. The total foraminifera biomass

(*fb*), *pfb*, and *bfb* (total and for each size class) are then calculated as the *M* times the number

of tests counted in the sample or fraction, divided by the dry weight of the sediment sample in

g. Ostracod and sponge spicules were counted at each sediment fraction and reported here as

number of valves or spicule fragments, respectively, per gram of sediment. Sponge spicule

abundance is related to the abundance of sponge individuals (Łukowiak, 2020).

2.7. Sea surface salinity estimates

Foraminifera δ^{18}O records reflect both temperature and the ambient oxygen isotopic

composition of seawater (δ^{18}O$_{sw}$) in which the shells precipitated. δ^{18}O$_{sw}$, in turn, is influenced

by global ice volume and ocean salinity. When the temperature (T) component is accounted

for, foraminifera calcite δ^{18}O can be used to estimate past salinity changes, as δ^{18}O$_{sw}$ co-varies

linearly with sea surface salinity (SSS). Both increase with evaporation and decrease with the

addition of low-δ^{18}O freshwater (Legrande and Schmidt, 2006).

Building on this concept and in line with earlier studies (e.g., Kontakiotis et al., 2022;

Vasiliev et al., 2019), we employed a multi-proxy geochemical approach to estimate regional

past SSS variability. To isolate δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ from the measured foraminifera δ^{18}O, we used δ^{18}O

measurements from *Globigerinoides ruber* shells (δ^{18}O$_{rub}$), the most surface-dwelling species.

The temperature component was removed using the *Orbulina universa* low-light

paleotemperature equation of Bemis et al. (1998), which is widely regarded as the most

accurate for estimating paleo-SST in symbiotic planktonic foraminifera from subtropical

settings in deep time (Williams et al., 2005).

Removing the temperature component from the δ^{18}O record using the paleotemperature

equation enables the estimation of salinity. To account for the effect of continental ice

volume, we utilized the Pleistocene eustatic sea-level curve of Rohling et al. (2014).

Specifically, we linearly interpolated the sea-level curve to the studied time period and

generated a record of global δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ changes associated with the melting of continental ice

sheets during the Early–Middle Pleistocene. This was achieved by converting the sea-level

data into mean ocean δ^{18}O changes and applying a 0.011‰ increase per meter of sea-level

drop (Fairbanks and Matthews, 1978; Lea et al., 2002; Schrag et al., 1996). Furthermore, the

δ^{18}O values of *G. ruber* were corrected for species-specific disequilibria from ambient

seawater equilibrium ("vital effects") by applying a 0.48‰ adjustment (Peeters et al., 2002;

Pracht et al., 2019). We then subtracted this component from the δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ profile to derive the

regional ice volume-free residual (δ^{18}O$_{IVF-SW}$). The calculated δ^{18}O$_{IVF-SW}$ values reflect

changes in regional hydrography and are therefore considered to approximate local variations

in sea surface salinity (SSS). To convert the δ^{18}O$_{rub}$ signal into absolute SSS values, we

applied the modern δ^{18}O$_{SW}$–salinity relationship for the Mediterranean Sea of Pierre (1999)

referring to the surface waters with salinities greater than 36.2 [δ^{18}O = 0.25 ($\pm$0.02) * S – 8.2

($\pm$0.96)].

The uncertainty in salinity estimates arises from the propagation of errors associated with

temperature estimates, δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ reconstructions, and the δ^{18}O$_{SW}$–salinity calibration equation.

As demonstrated above, the error in temperature estimates is 2.5 °C. Based on the δ^{18}O

analytical error and the error associated with the paleotemperature equation, the propagated

error for δ^{18}O is 0.63 ‰. Using the δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ – salinity relationship from Pierre (1999), the

average propagated uncertainty in salinity reconstruction is calculated to be ~5.4. In the

accompanying graphs, the propagated salinity error has been calculated for each sample

individually, using the sample-specific δ^{18}O$_{SW}$ residual.

2.8. Statistical analyses

In order to detect regime shifts, we first checked the time series of all the variables measured

for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. For the variable whose values did not exhibit a

normal distribution, applied the L-method (Lanzante, 1996), which is based on the Mann-

Whitney U test. For the variables whose values were normally distributed, we used the

Sequential T-test Analysis of Regime-Shifts (STARS), which is additionally robust at the

ends of the time series (Rodionov, 2004), setting the Huber's weight parameter of 1 and the

window size arbitrarily at 10. In both the L-method and the Rodionov's method, the *p*-value

was set at 0.05.

Correlation was performed between: a) SST and all the δ^{18}O values (for bulk sediments,

foraminifers, ostracods and otoliths); b) TOC (as a proxy of productivity and preservation of

organic matter) and all the δ^{13}C values; c) SST and the foraminifera biomasses (*fb*, *pfb*, *bfb*);

d) TOC and the δ^{13}C in bulk sediment and foraminifers, against the foraminifera biomasses;

e) SST and the ostracod weighted average body size; and f) TOC and the δ^{13}C in bulk

sediment and foraminifers, against the ostracod body size. In all cases, we used the Spearman

rank correlation coefficient (95% confidence level).

The above analyses were performed in R (version 4.3.3) (R Development Core Team, 2024)

with the package *rshift* (Room et al., 2020).

2.9. Lifetime-average depth of mesopelagic fish

The foraminifera δ^{18}O data represent the thermohaline gradient in the southeastern Aegean

through time, and, with certain assumptions, are used here to estimate the position of the

fishes in the water column. An exponential model is fitted using a log-linear regression on the

δ^{18}O values on the foraminifera living at different depths to infer lifetime-average depths of

the two common mesopelagic fish species, *Ceratoscopelus maderensis* and *Hygophum*

benoiti, at each individual MIS. The benthic foraminifera *Uvigerina peregrina* occupies the

sea bottom and the depth used in our model is the paleodepth estimated in each sample based

on the %P/(B+P) ratio. We assigned a distribution of 100–300 m to *Globoconella inflata*,

assuming that his relatively deep-dwelling planktonic foraminifera is consistently most

abundant at cool and nutrient-rich subsurface depths (Rohling et al., 2004; Schiebel and

Hemleben, 2017). We finally assigned a distribution depth of 10–50 m to *Globigerinoides*

ruber, assuming that this surface-dweller is most abundant at warmer and oligotrophic surface

mixed-layer depths (Rohling et al., 2004; Schiebel and Hemleben, 2017).

Since direct measurements of depth (*y*) were not available for the foraminifera, we simulated

the values within the ecological depth ranges of each species. For each species, depths were

drawn from a uniform distribution over the respective depth ranges, assuming equal

probability across the range.

We fit an exponential model using a log-linear regression where the realizations of our

response variable y_i represent the observed depths of any foraminifera species. The response

variable was log-transformed during modeling to establish an exponential relationship

with $\delta^{18}O$ (*x*):

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$$\log(y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + e_i \ , \ e_i \sim N(0, \sigma) \ , \ i = 1, \ldots, n$$

where we assume that $\log(y_i)$ follows a normal distribution and the linear predictor is made of

an intercept β_0 and the relationship with $\delta^{18}O$. Separate models were fitted for glacial and

interglacial MIS to account for potential differences in the $\delta^{18}O$-depth relationship between

these periods.

Using the model at each individual MIS, we thus estimated the fish lifetime-average depth

based on their otolith $\delta^{18}O$ values. This model approach assumes that the thermal gradient

remains the same within each MIS and that the water column is always well mixed. Although

this is a simplified model of the thermohaline conditions, the outputs offer valuable

perspective on the evolution of the lifetime-average depth and diel vertical migration patterns

of mesopelagic fishes.

3. Results

3.1. Paleodepths

The %P/(P+B) ratio ranges between 45% and 76% and the 32 collected samples consequently

deposited at outer shelf (5 samples) and upper bathyal (27 samples) depths, with paleodepths

D estimates ranging between ~176 m and ~528 m. Although absolute paleodepth values based

on %P(P+B) need to be taken very cautiously (see Van Hinsbergen et al., 2007; van der

Zwaan et al., 1990), three main intervals with lower approximate values around ~200 m are

recorded in the lower part of the section at heights between 40 and 60 cm, in the middle part

of the section between 170 and 180 cm, and in the uppermost part of the studied deposits

above 270 cm (Fig. 1). Overall, highest upper bathyal depths are reached in three main

intervals: below the height of 40 cm, between 70 and 160 cm, and between 190 and 270 cm.

     3.2. Oxygen and carbon isotopic compositions

The $\delta^{18}O$ of bulk sediments ($\delta^{18}O_{bulk}$) vary between −2.82 (LR30) and −0.70 ‰ (LR16)

(supplementary material). It is relatively higher overall up to height 160 cm (LR17) and lower

thereafter. The $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$ ranges from −2.68 (LR25) to −0.96 ‰ (LR12) (supplementary

material). Lower values appear in general until LR16 and higher thereafter.

$\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ values range from −0.62 (864 ka) to 1.22 ‰ (LR01), $\delta^{18}O_{inflata}$ from 1.23 (LR17) to

2.19 ‰ (LR01), and $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ from 1.51 (LR22) to 2.56 ‰ (LR30). The three foraminifera

species exhibit $\delta^{18}O$ values that reflect their depth-related ecology, with higher values in the

benthic species *Uvigerina peregrina*, and lower $\delta^{18}O$ values in the surface mixed-layer

species *Globigerinoides ruber* (Fig. 2). *Globoconella inflata* exhibits intermediate $\delta^{18}O$ values

that are closer to those of *U. peregrina* (0.5 ‰ average gradient) than to those of *G. ruber*

(1.7 ‰ average gradient), then confirming that *G. inflata* mineralized at cooler/deeper water

depths than *G. ruber*. *Globigerinoides ruber* and *U. peregrina* exhibit an average gradient of

1.9 ‰ between surface and bottom waters. *Uvigerina peregrina*, *G. inflata* and *G. ruber* show

similar overall variation trends throughout the section, but with discrepancies notably

recorded between *G. ruber* and the two other species.

We were only able to find valves of the ostracod genus *Bairdopilata* at the upper part of the

section. $\delta^{18}O_{baird}$ ranges from 1.93 (LR28) to 5.69 ‰ (LR30).

For the fishes, $\delta^{18}O_{benoiti}$ ranges from 2.56 (LR28) to 7.35 ‰ (LR02), and $\delta^{18}O_{mader}$ ranges

from −3.3 (LR16) to 3.50 ‰ (LR10). There is no significant correlation between otolith

weight and $\delta^{18}O$. $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ ranges from −0.18 (LR02) to 1.13 ‰ (LR19), with lower values

until LR07. $\delta^{13}C_{inflata}$ ranges from −0.2 (LR17) to 0.58 ‰ (LR07), and $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ ranges from

−0.89 (LR16) to −0.3 ‰ (LR10). Ostracod $\delta^{13}C_{baird}$, only measured in the upper part of the

section, ranges from −1.18 (LR28) to −0.61 ‰ (LR25). For the fishes, $\delta^{13}C_{benoiti}$ ranges from

−5.25 (LR32) to 0.99 ‰ (LR09), with generally more negative values in the upper part of the

section, and $\delta^{13}C_{mader}$ ranges from −6.70 (LR07) to 2.92 ‰ (LR16). The distribution of

$\delta^{13}C_{mader}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{benoiti}$ values are shown in Fig. S1. There is significant correlation between

otolith weight and otolith $\delta^{13}C$ for both *Hygophum benoiti* (rho = 0.45, p = 0.04) and

Ceratoscopelus maderensis (rho = 0.80, p = 0.0003). The different foraminifera and fish

species show distinctive patters of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ (Fig. S2).

3.3. Refining the age model

We used the new local oxygen isotopic stratigraphy and paleodepth estimates from this work

to refine the published chronostratigraphy of the studied deposits (Titschack et al., 2013). At

heights of 30 to 40 cm (LR04–05), the $\delta^{18}O$ values of all three foraminifera species increase

and the paleodepth shows a sharp decrease. Such changes are proposed to correlate with those

occurring in the LR04 global (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and Mediterranean (Konijnendijk et

al., 2015) benthic δ^{18}O stacks, and in that occurring in the planktonic foraminifera

Mediterranean δ^{18}O Medstack (Wang et al., 2010) between MIS 23 and MIS 22 (Fig. 1). In

this re-examination of the age model of the Lardos section, we assign the MIS 22/21

termination (866 ka; Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) to the height of 65 cm, in accordance with

Titschack et al. (2013). Such a level, characterized by a change in the slope in all foraminifera

δ^{18}O records and a sharp increase in paleodepths, is proposed in agreement with those

occurring in open-ocean references records (Fig. 1). We also delineate the MIS 21/20 (814

ka) and MIS 20/19 (790 ka) terminations to the heights 165 and 185 km, respectively. Within

the sedimentary interval that we allocate to MIS 20, and that shows shallower paleodepths,

both *U. peregrina* and *G. ruber* exhibit increasing δ^{18}O values similar to those of open-ocean

reference records (Fig. 1). Finally, we assign the MIS 19/18 termination (761 ka) to the height

of 275 cm, in accordance with the previously published chronostratigraphy (Titschack et al.,

2013). Such a level shows increasing δ^{18}O values in all foraminifera taxa, similarly to the

open-ocean records, and a sharp decrease in paleodepths.

Figure 1. Paleodepth estimates based on %P/(B+P) ratio and proposed correlation between foraminifera

δ^{18}**O records of the Lardos section and open ocean** δ^{18}**O reference records: the LR04 benthic global** δ^{18}**O**

stack (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005), the benthic Eastern Mediterranean δ^{18}**O compilation data from Ocean**

Drilling Program (ODP) Sites 967 and 968 (Konijnendijk et al., 2015), and the planktonic (*Globigerinoides*

*ruber***)** δ^{18}**O Medstack (Wang et al., 2010). The paleodepth changes (with a glacio-eustatic component) and**

the coincidence of successive positive and negative excursions in the δ^{18}**O records allow refining the**

chronostratigraphy previously published for the section (Titschack et al., 2013). This revised age model

reveals the identification of six distinct isotopic stages between MIS 23 and MIS 18, including three

interglacials (grey areas) and three glacials (white areas).

Based on these tie-points, we estimate the average sedimentation rates for the deposits within

each climate cycles in the MIS 22–19 interval. Sedimentation rates within MIS 22 and MIS

19 are then linearly extrapolated to MIS 23 and MIS 18, respectively. According to this

refined age model, the samples analyzed in this study deposited within the MIS 23–18

interval, between ~923 and ~756 ka. The age estimate of each sample is reported in the

supplementary table and further used for the results and discussions on the observed changes

during the MPT at Lardos.

3.4. TEX$^H_{86}$-SST and SSS

SST ranges from 19.2 to 26.1 °C (Fig. 2). From 923 ka to 864 ka, SST decreases to 20.5 °C.

The interval 861–858 ka exhibits higher temperature, but afterwards it is low until 820 ka,

when it starts to increase to a maximum of 24.4 °C around 798 ka. Between 788 and 762 ka,

SST shows intermediate, but rather stable values fluctuating around 23 °C, and then increases

until 756 ka to 25.9 °C.

SSS ranges from 31.9 to 42.3 (Fig. 2). From 923 ka to 864 ka, SSS decreases to 31.9, but

861–858 ka experiences the highest SSS values. Afterwards, SS decreases again and shows

intermediate values after 760 ka.

3.5. Organic content in the sediments

The BIT index is lower in the older part of the section (i.e., greater input of marine organic

matter), with a minimum of 0.45 at 870 ka (Fig. 3). It then increases (towards more terrestrial

origin of organic matter) to reach the maximum of 0.80 at 815–808 ka, and remains high in

the younger part of the section. TOC ranges from 0.152 to 0.266% and TN from 0.027 to

0.042%, making the C/N ratio range from 5.14 to 7.27 (Fig. 3). From 923 ka, both TOC and

TN increase to reach 0.266% and 0.042%, respectively, at 864 ka. In the interval 861–820 ka,

they show relatively high values, which then decrease to a minimum at 798 ka of 0.180 and

0.032%, respectively. Intermediate values appear from 788 to 762 ka, and then low values for

both TOC and TN until 756 ka.

3.6. Foraminifera biomass

Foraminifera biomass is mostly comprised of plankton (*pfb*), which is much larger than

benthos (*bfb*) at all levels: the minimum is found at 756 ka (88.3 µg/g for *fb*, 58.8 µg/g for

pfb, and 29.4 µg/g for *bfb*), whereas the maximum biomass is found at 766 ka (1763.3 µg/g

for *fb*, 1518.2 µg/g for *pfb*, and 245.1 µg/g for *bfb*) (Fig. 4). In both *pfb* and *bfb*, the

contributions of the size classes to the total biomass varies greatly (Figs. S3 and S4). From

923 ka to 880 ka, both *pfb* and *bfb* are low, and then they increase to peak at 861 ka (867.7

µg/g and 240.4 µg/g, respectively). They remain high until 815 ka, and then decrease until

788 ka (minima are 303.5 µg/g at 798 ka and 60.7 µg/g at 788 ka, respectively). In general, *bfb* co-varies with *pfb*, with two exceptions, at 774 and 769 ka, where *bfb* is particularly low (77.6 and 66.5 µg/g).

Figure 2. Paleoceaclimatic and paleoceanographic conditions at Lardos. Paleodepth estimates based on the %P/(B+P) ratio. $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values of surface-dwelling planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides ruber*, deeper-dwelling planktonic foraminifera *Globoconella inflata*, and the benthic foraminifera *Uvigerina peregrina*. TEX$_{86}$-derived sea surface temperature (SST) and salinity (SSS), where bars are used to visualize the ±2.5 °C error. The three red wide-dashed vertical lines indicate the three regime shifts identified using the STARS algorithm (TOC, $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ at 760 ka; $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and the ostracod weighted average body size at 788 ka; and $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ at 851 ka), whereas the narrow-dashed line shows the regime shift identified using the L-method (ostracod weighted average body size at 864 ka).

3.7. Ostracod and sponge spicule counts

Total ostracod abundance increases ranges from 2 valves/g at 774 ka to 25 valves/g at 758 ka (Fig. 4). From 923 to 903 ka, the medium-high abundance is driven by ostracod valves in the

150–200 μm size-class. Then the overall number of valves drops, and high values are found

again from 861 ka to 820 ka, when their abundance increases across size-classes. Abundance

after that point fluctuates between low and medium levels, and only shows the maximum

values at 758 ka due to highs in the >500, 315–400, and <200 μm size-classes.

Figure 3. Organic matter and productivity proxy records at Lardos area. Paleodepth estimates based on the

P/(B+P) ratio. δ^{13}C values of planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides ruber* (surface-dweller), *Globoconella*

inflata (deep-dweller), and the benthic foraminifera *Uvigerina peregrina*. The δ^{13}C of the fish otoliths results

from the δ^{13}C of the dissolved inorganic carbon in the ambient water (indicated here at different depths by

the foraminifera δ^{13}C values) and the δ^{13}C of their diet items. Ultimately, the δ^{13}C of otoliths is a proxy of

the fish metabolic rate. Total organic carbon (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) contents reflect productivity,

and the Branched Isoprenoid Tetraether (BIT) index reflects the source of the organic matter in the

sediment (increases with enhanced terrestrial influx).

Sponge spicule fragments per gram of sediment range from 2 at 880 ka to 18 at 826 ka (Fig.

4). The weighted average size of the ostracod valves ranges from 159 μm at 903 ka to 241 μm

at 774 ka. Broadly, like ostracod abundance and foraminifera biomass, the values are

generally higher around 861–820 ka. The weighted average size of the spicules ranges from

149 μm at 760 ka to 318 μm at 758 ka.

Figure 4. Planktic foraminifera biomass, ostracod and sponge spicule counts at Lardos.
Paleodepth estimates.

3.8. Fish average depth in the water column

Our model shows a steeper δ^{18}O gradient during the interglacials than the glacials, predicting

greater depth values for fish (Fig. 5). Based on the model results, the lifetime-average depth

ranges from 474 m at 870 ka to 933 m at 839 ka for *Hygophum benoiti*, and from 330 m at

903 ka to 1502 m at 858 ka for *Ceratoscopelus maderensis* (Fig. 6). We could not detect with

our data significant correlation between the modeled fish depth and otolith weight, which

suggests that fish depth is not controlled by life history in the same way throughout the study

interval for neither species. Additionally, we did not find significant correlation between

modeled depth and SST, TOC, or δ^{13}C$_{bulk}$.

Figure 5. Fitted regression for glacial and interglacial periods with extrapolated fish predictions and 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 6. Paleodepth and modeled lifetime-average depths where the two mesopelagic fish species lived in the study area, obtained from the δ^{18}O values in their otoliths by modeling the thermohaline gradient using the δ^{18}O of foraminifera. Circle diameter scales with otolith weight, reflecting fish size, while vertical lines indicate the depth ranges.

3.9. Regime shifts and covariance

Positive values of the Regime Shift Index (RSI) indicate the presence of regime shifts (95%

confidence level) for: a) TOC, $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ at 760 ka (RSI = 0.940, 1.437 and

0.265, respectively); b) $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and the ostracod weighted-average body size at 788 ka

(RSI = 0.583 and 0.231, respectively); and c) $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ at 851 ka (RSI = 0.788). Additionally, a

regime shift was found using the Lanzante method for the sponge weighted-average size at

864 ka (p = 0.006).

Regarding foraminifera biomasses, medium correlation is detected between: a) SST and

benthic foraminifera biomass (rho = −0.44; p = 0.03); b) $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ and the benthic foraminifera

biomass (rho = 0.45; p = 0.01); c) $\delta^{13}C_{inflata}$ and the total foraminifera biomass (rho = −0.42; p

= 0.02), the planktic foraminifera biomass (rho = −0.45; p = 0.014), and the benthic

foraminifera biomass (rho = −0.44; p = 0.014); d) $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and the total foraminifera

biomass (rho = −0.47; p = 0.007) and the planktic foraminifera biomass (rho = −0.53; p =

0.002); and e) $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$ and the total foraminifera biomass (rho = 0.52; p = 0.003), the planktic

foraminifera biomass (rho = 0.52; p = 0.003), and the benthic foraminifera biomass (rho =

0.42; p = 0.019). Medium correlation is also found between $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and the ostracod

weighted average body size (rho = 0.40; p = 0.02).

4. Discussion

4.1. Climate, productivity and organic carbon burial

The SST reconstruction presented here is the only available in the Eastern Mediterranean and

it is not nearly as resolved in time as the equivalent from deep-sea cores in the Western

Mediterranean and the Atlantic due to the large difference in sedimentation rates between the

sites, highlighting the importance of obtaining SST records from deep-sea drilling sites in the

East. SST in the study area is consistently warmer than in the Central and Western

Mediterranean, with higher mean SST values in all climate cycles, MIS 23 to 18 (Table S1;

Fig. 7), as observed also today (Minnett et al., 2019). The glacial–interglacial SST amplitude

is similar (~5 °C) at both LC07 and Lardos, but very different from that recorded at the

Atlantic site U1385 (Fig. 7). The two-times lower temperature change observed in the

Mediterranean sites shows that the basin did respond to the global climate change during the

MPT but the recorded temperatures must have also been influenced by the semi-enclosed

configuration of the Mediterranean Sea. The SST values from Lardos are higher also than

those from LC07 site. Part of this difference can be explained by a similar system as today,

when the Eastern Mediterranean is ~2 °C warmer than the central part (Minnett et al., 2019).

Another part of the difference can also be explained by the different proxies used to obtain the

SST estimates, i.e. TEX_{86} for Lardos and $U^{K'}_{37}$ for LC07. TEX_{86} generally overestimates

SSTs by 2–6 °C (Kim et al., 2015), whereas $U^{K'}_{37}$ tends to underestimate SSTs by 2–4°C

(Tierney and Tingley, 2018). One important aspect is that, based on the TOC content in the

analyzed samples, we could not capture any sapropels in the study area. Four

paleoceanographic regimes were identified within the studied time interval in the southeastern

Aegean, based on the regime shift analysis: a) 923–858 ka; b) 851–798 ka; c) 788–762 ka;

and d) 760–756 ka.

Figure 7. Map of the Mediterranean region with present-day SST (Minnett et al., 2019), and SST time series

at: Lardos (this study), LC07 (Martínez-Dios et al., 2021), U1385 (Rodrigues et al., 2017), ODP975 (Quivelli

et al., 2020, 2021), M.J. Montalbano Jonico (Marino et al., 2020; Peral et al., 2020). Mean SSTs for all

localities are shown in Table S1.

4.1.1.   923–858 ka

The interval between 923 and 858 ka includes the MIS 23 interglacial, the MIS 22 glacial,

and the early part of MIS 21 interglacial. SST declines from MIS 23 to MIS 22 and increases

in MIS 21 (Fig. 2). TOC (and TN) increase throughout (Fig. 3). Planktic and benthic

foraminifera biomasses are low in MIS 23 and even lower in MIS 22, but increase drastically

in MIS 21 (Fig. 4). Overall stable high values appear for this interval in $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$, and

$\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ shows intermediate values (Fig. 3). $\delta^{13}C_{inflata}$ decreases in the 864–858 ka interval.

In contrast, $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ exhibits higher values in MIS 23 and MIS 21, and lower values in MIS

22.

TOC and the $\delta^{13}C$ values of the bulk sediment and foraminifera shells reflect changes in

productivity as well as enhanced organic carbon burial (Jing et al., 2024; Spezzaferri, 1995).

Benthic foraminifera accumulation rates from deep-sea drilling sites are often used to

estimate changes in productivity (Diester-Haass et al., 2018). Our results suggest that

productivity during the 923–864 ka interval fluctuates with climate, as seen by the values of

$\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ (Fig. 3) and the foraminifera biomasses (Fig. 4). In contrast, organic carbon burial

declines during the 923–864 ka interval, since the benthic $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ remains approximately

the same. The regime shift in the sponge weighted average size at 864 ka is coupled to large

increase in BIT (Fig.3) and foraminifera biomasses, and decrease in $\delta^{18}O_{inflata}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$

(while $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ remains at the same levels), suggesting lengthening of the thermal gradient in

the water column associated with influx of terrestrial organic matter (i.e., higher BIT) that

benefits secondary production.

658   4.1.2.   851–798 ka

This interval encompasses most of the MIS 21 interglacial, after the SST maximum at 858 ka

(Fig. 2), and the MIS 20 glacial. The regime shift in $\delta^{13}C_{ruber}$ denotes a paleoenvironmental or

ecosystem change in Lardos at 851 ka. The $\delta^{13}C$ of foraminifera is a proxy of the $\delta^{13}C$ of

dissolved inorganic carbon in the seawater where the shell calcification took place, which

increases with primary productivity, influx of terrestrial organic matter and water mixing

(Ravelo and Hillaire-Marcel, 2007). The lack of regime shifts in $\delta^{13}C_{inflata}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$

imply that surface waters were the most affected by the change. BIT increases to a maximum

around the MIS 21/MIS 20 transition (Fig. 3), reflecting more terrestrial organic matter, and

foraminifera biomass increases, both for planktic and benthic foraminifera, show higher

values at the same time.

669   4.1.3.   788–762 ka

The interval between 788 and 762 ka includes the entire MIS 19 and is characterized at

Lardos by a regime shift in $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and the ostracod weighted-average body size.

$\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ values during this interval are generally the lowest, while ostracods show a drastic

decline in body size with almost complete absence of sizes > 500 μm. From 780 ka towards

MIS 18, SST indicates a cooling trend (Fig. 2), which was also detected along the Iberian

Margin and has been related to a progressive southward migration of the polar front (Girone

et al., 2023). A decreasing trend is also evidenced in SSS (Fig. 2) from 780 until 762 ka.

Higher foraminifera (planktonic especially) biomasses are observed throughout the 788–762

ka interval, as expected since they are significantly correlated with $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$. Lowest values

are also observed in $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$. Therefore, we propose higher productivity during MIS 19

accompanied by enhanced organic carbon burial to explain the concurrent higher planktonic

foraminifera biomass and low $\delta^{13}C_{peregrina}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{bulk}$ values. Higher primary productivity and

organic carbon burial have been evidenced at least for the early MIS 19 in the Western

Mediterranean as well (ODP Site 975; Marino et al., 2022; Quivelli et al., 2020).

684   4.1.4.   760–756 ka

The interval from 760 to 756 ka captures the oldest part of MIS 18 at Lardos. SW Europe

winter precipitation and the East Asia summer monsoon strength peaked during MIS 18,

contributing to the expansion of the Northern Hemisphere ice sheets (Sánchez Goñi et al.,

2023). In our study area, the paleoceanographic conditions change at the MIS19–MIS18

boundary, as captured by regime shifts in TOC, $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$. TOC shows low

values (Fig. 3), whereas $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ show higher values than in MIS 19 (Fig. 2).

However, SST and SSS are not higher than in early MIS 19, but the estimated paleodepth is

shallower at this time (Fig. 2). It is likely that the sea-level change during MIS 18 and

shallowing of the Lardos area seems to explain the observed regime shift.

4.2. Thermohaline gradient

The thermohaline gradient is inferred from the $\delta^{18}O_{ruber}$ (corresponding to surface waters),

$\delta^{18}O_{inflata}$ (intermediate waters), and $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ (bottom waters), considering the paleodepth in

the study area (Fig. 2). The gradient between these values is steeper in MIS 23–MIS 22 but

attenuates already in MIS 21. In the late part of MIS 21, a short warmer period around 820 ka

(Fig. 2), the differences between the foraminifera $\delta^{18}O$ values are maintained despite the

greater paleodepth, suggesting that the thermohaline gradient is less steep than before. In MIS

20 and MIS 18, the gradient is smaller but this can be explained by the shallower paleodepth

during the glacials (Fig. 2). Our model produces more steep thermohaline gradients during

interglacials than during glacials (Fig. 5), as expected due to the lower thermal conductivity

of water.

4.3. Responses across the food web

Planktonic and benthic foraminifera biomass changes closely follow the paleodepth changes

recorded in the study area (Fig. 4). Since paleodepths exceeds the euphotic zone depth at all

times, this observation is unlikely to be due to increased accumulation of shells on the seabed

with increasing depth, but rather a genuine signal. Accordingly, higher foraminifera biomass

is observed during interglacials than glacials, and this is confirmed by the ostracod and

sponge abundances (Fig. 4). Additionally, the planktic foraminifera in MIS 21 and MIS 19

interglacials are the largest overall, with the > 500 μm size fraction increasing in those

intervals. Larger shell sizes in planktic foraminifera are typically associated with temperature

and/or primary productivity conditions that are close to the optimum values for that group

(Schmidt et al., 2004). Therefore, we can safely assume overall higher secondary production

during interglacials.

Otolith δ^{13}C in conjunction with foraminifera δ^{13}C is informative of the fishes metabolic rate

changes through time (Agiadi et al., 2024b). In this case, no important changes in the otolith

δ^{13}C values of the two fish species are observed through time. An exception is the slight drop

in $\delta^{13}C_{benoiti}$ in MIS 18, which is only from one point however. In general, lower $\delta^{13}C_{oto}$

reflects a higher metabolic rate or a change to higher trophic-level (and therefore lower δ^{13}C)

food items (Chung et al., 2019b). Here, overall, the larger otolith specimens exhibit higher

δ^{13}C values, suggesting that, as the animals grew, they consumed less and/or switched to

lower-trophic level items. A possible explanation could be that younger individuals ate

consumed a lot, primarily detritus, whereas adults became more selective, consuming

mesozooplankton.

4.4. Changes in fish diel vertical migration and implications for the carbon pump

The δ^{18}O of both mesopelagic fish species show consistently more positive values than those

of the foraminifera, which indicates that these fishes were experiencing on average much

cooler and/or saltier seawater temperatures. Otolith δ^{18}O is a function of seawater temperature

and varies following the lifestyle of the species in question (Kalish, 1991b, a). Both

Ceratoscopelus maderensis and *Hygophum benoiti* perform DVM. The fact that $\delta^{18}O_{benoiti}$ and

$\delta^{18}O_{mader}$ fluctuate between much more positive and almost the values of $\delta^{18}O_{peregrina}$ suggests

that they spend only part of their day in the study location, migrating from greater depths.

Furthermore, the $\delta^{18}O_{benoiti}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{mader}$ variability cannot with the present data be related to

the $\delta^{18}O_{foram}$ or $\delta^{18}O_{bulk}$ variability, nor the SST changes. Particularly, for *Ceratoscopelus*

maderensis, this variability shows high amplitude, suggesting that this species changed its

DVM pattern and/or its depth distribution within the studied time interval. Today, the

common, extant species *Ceratoscopelus maderensis* shows different depth ranges in the

Atlantic Ocean (Badcock and Merrett, 1976; Killen et al., 2010; Kinzer and Schulz, 1985)

than in the Mediterranean Sea, and even within the latter (up to 1480 m in the Levantine Sea

(Goren and Galil, 2015), but up to 2500 m in the Ionian Sea (Olivar et al., 2012)). Our δ^{18}O–

depth model estimates of the lifetime-average depth of the two mesopelagic fishes show high

variability.

In MIS 23–22, *Ceratoscopelus maderensis* (indicated by small otolith specimens

corresponding to young individuals) are distributed on average at depths of 330 m (Fig. 6),

which is on the very shallow end of the present-day distribution of this species, suggesting

that the individuals (at least the young ones) were performing DVM and/or occupying

shallow depths, as observed today in the Mediterranean (Olivar et al., 2012). The modeled

depth of *Hygophum benoiti* is deeper in MIS 23, but the same in MIS 22, as *C. maderensis*.

However, we cannot interpret this as an absence of DVM by that species in MIS 23, because

we have only examined a few specimens per species as replicates. A greater number of otolith

specimens should be analyzed per sampling unit to reconstruct the frequency distribution of

the lifetime-average depths of each species to be able to confidently exclude DVM. Large

adults of both species are distributed at shallower depths (776 and 698 m, respectively) in the

later part of MIS 21, and the same pattern is observed in MIS 19.

A drastic shift to great depth (model estimate: 1502 m) is observed for *Ceratoscopelus*

maderensis in the initial part of MIS 21 (Fig. 6), which similarly indicates slowing down of

DVM or drastic shift of these fish to much greater mesopelagic depths than before. These two

alternative explanations would have the opposite effect on the biological carbon pump and

therefore on carbon sequestration and burial. If the fishes simply expanded their depth

distribution range to greater depths but continued to perform DVM, then we would expect to

see an increase in organic carbon burial at the time, which is not observed in TOC or δ^{13}C

(Fig. 2). In contrast, we support that fish DVM capacity was hindered by the warming that

occurred in the early part of MIS 21, resulting in reduction of the biological carbon pump

efficiency and relatively stable carbon burial despite the enhanced terrestrial input (increased

BIT; Fig. 3) and subsequent interglacial. The rather great depths for the distribution of both *C.*

maderensis (457 m) and *H. benoiti* (933 m) juveniles around the middle part of MIS 21

reinforce the interpretation of a reduction in DVM, and further signal a gradual re-

establishment of regular DVM patterns (replicate data confirming this are available in

supplementary material). This event is concurrent with a shift in global and Mediterranean

SST (Fig. 7). Although higher resolution and more sites are necessary to investigate the extent

of this phenomenon, our results support the hypothesis that warming reduces the biological

carbon pump efficiency by restricting mesopelagic zone ecosystem functioning (Boscolo-

Galazzo et al., 2021).

5. Conclusions

We employed here a multi-proxy approach to reconstruct the paleoceanographic conditions

and the response of the pelagic ecosystem to their changes between 923 and 756 kyr. Glacial–

interglacial changes in the Pleistocene tested the limits of marine ecosystem resilience in

multiple ways, resulting in distribution range shifts, ecophenotypic adaptations, and

ultimately species extinctions (Agiadi et al., 2011, 2018, 2023; Porz et al., 2024). The Eastern

Mediterranean, during the time interval of the study, was a warm subtropical area with

fluctuating influxes of terrestrial organic matter. The global warm MIS 21 initiation, the sea-

level drop in MIS 20, and high productivity accompanied by enhanced organic matter burial

during MIS 19 are the most notable environmental changes evidenced in the study area at this

time. All the studied fossil groups seem to have been affected by the warming that took place

during the early part of MIS 21, with increases in biomass observed for the invertebrate

groups (foraminifera, ostracods and sponges) and a reduction of DVM for mesopelagic fishes.

Similarly, large variability in foraminifera, ostracod and sponge biomasses is observed within

the MIS 19 interglacial. However, we could not find evidence of a disruption in the fish DVM

pattern in this interval, although the fish abundances and body sizes have been shown to be

affected by this interglacial (Agiadi et al., 2023). Planktonic foraminifera biomass is

negatively affected by the MIS 20 and MIS 18 glacials. Although our ecosystem-level

approach is challenging, it offers a holistic approach to assessing the impacts of

paleoenvironmental change that can be most informative for ecosystem management.

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Authors Contribution

Conceptualization: KA, FQ; Formal analysis: KA, IV, AV, AFA, JMT, FQ; Funding

acquisition: KA, FQ; Investigation: KA, IV, AV, EK, SZ, AFA, JMT, FQ; Methodology: KA,

IV, SZ, AFA, JMT, FQ; Supervision: KA, FQ; Writing – original draft: KA, IV, AV, SZ,

AFA, JMT, FQ; Writing – review and editing: EK.

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The data produced for this work is publicly available at DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.14565652.

Code Availability Statement

The code to estimate the fish lifetime-average depth is publicly available at DOI:

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Supplementary material

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Figure S1. Distribution of the $\delta^{13}C_{mader}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{benoiti}$ values.

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Figure S2. $\delta^{13}C$ vs. $\delta^{18}O$ in foraminifera and the fish otoliths. The different species are clustered well, and otolith are clearly separated from foraminifera values. The circle diameter for the otoliths is scaled according to the otolith weight, which is used here as an indication of fish size, since otoliths grow throughout the lifetime of the fish. Therefore, within the same species, small (and light) otoliths correspond to younger individuals than larger (and heavier) ones.

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1319   **Figure S3. Contribution of the different size classes to total benthic and planktonic foraminifera biomass.**

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1322   **Figure S4. Benthic and planktonic foraminifera biomass at Lardos by size class through time.**

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Table S1. Mean SST values estimated at different in the region for each MIS.

MIS	Site	SST (°C)	Proxy	Reference
18	Lardos	23.5	TEX_{86}	This study
	M.J.	15.0	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Marino et al., 2020)
	LC07	20.7	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	U1385	15.6	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)
19	Lardos	22.8	TEX_{86}	This study
	LC07	19.8	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	ODP975	16.3	Forams	(Quivelli et al., 2020)
	U1385	18.1	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)
20	Lardos	23.7	TEX_{86}	This study
	LC07	18.9	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	ODP975	10.8	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Quivelli et al., 2021)
	U1385	14.0	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)
21	Lardos	22.2	TEX_{86}	This study
	LC07	19.1	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	U1385	16.9	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)
22	Lardos	23.6	TEX_{86}	This study
	LC07	16.9	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	U1385	11.4	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)
23	Lardos	23.5	TEX_{86}	This study
	LC07	18.7	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Martínez-Dios et al., 2021)
	U1385	15.5	$U^{k'}_{37}$	(Rodrigues et al., 2017)