
Production of short-chain n-fatty acids in coral reefs in the southern South China Sea since the Late Miocene

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Abstract :

The monsoon system modulates surface production in the South China Sea (SCS). The winter monsoon has long been recognized as the primary factor regulating surface production in the northern SCS; however, the role of monsoon remains in debate in the southern SCS. Here, we present a long record of short-chain n-fatty acids (n-FAs) in reefal carbonates from one deep well (NK1) on an isolated coral atoll (Meiji) in order to provide new insights into the change of surface production in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene (ca. 10.5 Ma). Short-chain n-FAs indicative of total marine organic matter input are rather feasible to reflect the total production associated with mixotrophic reef-building corals that feed on various marine biotas (i.e., phytoplankton, zooplankton and bacteria). By ruling out the significant influence of diagenetic and degradation processes, short-chain n-FAs can be further applied to reconstruct paleo-production in Well NK1 coral reefs. The temporal distribution of short-chain n-FAs changes similarly with many other independent paleo-production records (i.e., Ln(Ba/Ti) and opal) in Well NK1 and adjacent ODP Site 1143, demonstrating the close coupling between coral reef production and surface water production. This occurs through the common factor of nutrients in modulating production of symbiotic autotrophic coralgae and asymbiotic phytoplankton and/or the large heterotrophic dependence of corals on phytoplankton-governed food webs in surface waters. Short-chain n-FAs inferred surface production displays a progressively decreased trend from the Late Miocene to Pliocene (ca. 10.5–2.6 Ma) followed by a substantial increase since the Pleistocene on million-year timescales, which follows the variation of terrigenous supply to the coral atoll and responds almost inversely to the sea-level change. Accordingly, we propose that long-term paleo-production in the southern SCS was associated with terrestrial nutrient input which was controlled by relative sea-level change since the Late Miocene. This study highlights the feasibility of short-chain n-FAs as appropriate production recorders in shallow-water coral reefs which are widespread in tropical-subtropical oceans, providing valuable perspectives on long-term paleo-production evolution in surface waters.

Highlights

► A long coral reef well (NK1) in the southern SCS was studied. ► OM-poor coral reef carbonates were decalcified and extracted for biomarkers. ► Short-chain *n*-FAs reflect paleo-productivity in coral reefs since the Late Miocene. ► Long-term productivity was governed by terrestrial nutrient related to sea level.

Keywords : Words: coral reef carbonates, lipid biomarkers, production, southern South China Sea, Late Miocene

1. Introduction

Phytoplankton, accounting for almost half of the biosphere's primary production (Field et al., 1998), is fundamental to a vast majority of consumers in marine food webs (Chassot et al., 2010). In addition to ecological function, phytoplankton plays a crucial role in regulating Earth's climate through the biological pump that sequesters atmospheric CO₂ into the ocean interior by photosynthesis (Falkowski et al., 1998;

Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Falkowski, 2012). The instantaneous rate of phytoplankton production is critically limited by light availability in the euphotic zone in the contemporary ocean (Field et al., 1998), but as long as nutrients brought into the euphotic zone are eventually consumed, the total production is largely dependent on nutrient availability linked to oceanic and atmospheric dynamics (Falkowski et al., 1998). Therefore, the change in nutrient budgets delivered to the marine euphotic zone will result in significant feedbacks on global biogeochemical cycles and climate systems by regulating phytoplankton production. Though featured by the distinct low production in surface waters, the oligotrophic low-latitude Pacific-Indian-Atlantic Oceans (Falkowski et al., 1998; Field et al., 1998) still play an important role for the global oceanic biological pump due to a vast proportion in the euphotic zone.

As the largest marginal sea in the western Pacific, the South China Sea (SCS) contains a broad eutrophic continental shelf and a large oligotrophic deep basin. The seasonally reversing monsoon is generally proposed as the primary driver for surface production in offshore waters by modulating nutrients from below through mixing and upwelling (Liu et al., 2002; Ning et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2004, 2006; Zhang et al., 2016). The paleo-production records in the northern SCS are generally attributed to the winter monsoon variability and intensity, showing elevated production during glacial mixing/upwelling periods (He et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Han et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2020). However, the importance of monsoon on surface production in the southern SCS remains a matter of debate. For example, a phytoplankton-biomarker study on core MD05-2901 reveals only an insignificant change of total phytoplankton production during glacial-interglacial cycles (Li et al., 2015). In contrast, studies on marine organic carbon in core 17962 (Jia et al., 2002) and biomarkers of ammonia oxidizing *Thaumarchaea* in core MD05-2897 (Dong et al., 2019) point to enhanced

production during glacial periods, whereas most other studies on biogenic elements (i.e., Ba), siliceous (i.e., opal, diatom and radiolarian) and foraminifera assemblages observe higher production associated with intensified summertime upwelling in interglacial times (Jian et al., 2001; Wang and Abelmann, 2002; Wang and Li, 2003; Li et al., 2018). These inconsistencies indicate that the controlling factors on paleo-production in the southern SCS seem to be more heterogeneous as proposed so far.

Shallow-water coral reefs, widespread in tropical-subtropical oceans including the SCS, are formed by symbiotic reef-building corals that inhabit the euphotic zone (Yu, 2012). As mixotrophic organisms, reef-building corals obtain nutrients from autotrophic photosynthesis by endosymbiotic coralline algae and heterotrophic predation on external various food resources (i.e., phytoplankton, zooplankton and bacteria) in surface waters (Wood, 1993, 1995; Anthony and Fabricius, 2000; Houlbrèque and Ferrier-Pagès, 2009). Under the condition of autotrophy, coral autotrophic production by symbiotic algae (i.e., dinoflagellats) correlates in concert with surface production by asymbiotic phytoplankton (i.e., diatoms) due to the common factor of nutrients in the euphotic zone (e.g., He et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2021). In the case of heterotrophy, coral heterotrophic production also relates in coupling to surface production due to the large dependence of corals feeding on asymbiotic phytoplankton (and phytoplankton-governed secondary consumers, i.e., zooplankton and bacteria) in surface waters (Wood, 1993, 1995). The close coupling between the production of mixotrophic reef-building corals and surface phytoplankton production may thus allow shallow-water coral reefs to provide unique insights into surface production in the past.

Lipid biomarkers, which are primarily derived from once-living organisms and

are generally resistant to weathering, biodegradation, evaporation and other processes (Peters et al., 2005), have high potential to give unique clues for paleo-production in coral reefs. As the major component (up to 73%) in coral total lipids (Treignier et al., 2008; Tolosa et al., 2011), fatty acids (FAs) are composed mainly of short-chain *n*-FAs in many corals (e.g., Imbs and Yakovleva, 2012; Kneeland et al., 2013; Radice et al., 2019; Rocker et al., 2019). The dominance of short-chain *n*-FAs occurs also in marine geological archives (i.e., sediments) likely due to their ubiquity in various marine biotas, including phytoplankton, zooplankton and bacteria (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; Volkman, 2006). In view of this character, short-chain *n*-FAs are widely applied to indicate total marine organic matter (OM) input (Mudge and Norris, 1997; Gogou and Stephanou, 2004; Treignier et al., 2006; Hu et al., 2009; Strong et al., 2012, 2013; Zhu et al., 2014, 2021; Guo et al., 2019). Thus, given the incorporation of various marine organisms into reef-building corals through autotrophic and heterotrophic pathways (Anthony and Fabricius, 2000; Houlbrèque and Ferrier-Pagès, 2009), short-chain *n*-FAs are likely feasible to document the production in mixotrophic reef-building corals and their reef builds. Here, lipid biomarker analysis is applied to Well NK1 coral reefs, aiming to: (1) elucidate the ability of short-chain *n*-FAs for reconstruction of paleo-production in coral reefs and in surface waters, and (2) revisit potential factors regulating long-term production evolution in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene (ca. 10.5 Ma).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Study area and samples

The SCS surface hydrology responds actively to the monsoon system, showing a basin-wide cyclonic circulation in winter (or winter monsoon) and a large-scale

anticyclonic circulation in summer (or summer monsoon) (Fig. 1B) (Fang et al., 1998). The monsoon plays a vital role in spatiotemporal variations of surface production in the SCS and high production is present in seasonal upwelling regions, such as the summer monsoon-induced Vietnam Upwelling (Fig. 1B) (Liu et al., 2002; Ning et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2004, 2006). In addition to upwelling-induced high nutrients, terrestrial riverine nutrient influx from the Mekong River plays an important role in fertilizing high production in the coastal Vietnam (Liu et al., 2002; Ning et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2004, 2006). These marine upwelling and terrestrial riverine associated nutrients can also exert a large-spatial influence on surface water production from coastal Vietnam to offshore southern SCS due to oceanic circulation (Fig. 1B) (Liu et al., 2002; Tang et al., 2004, 2006).

Well NK1 (2020.2 m in length) was drilled on the Meiji Atoll, which belongs to the Nansha Islands in the southern SCS (Fig. 1). The lower parts (997.7–2020.2 m) of Well NK1 are composed of basic rocks, and coral reef carbonates comprise the upper intervals (2.6–997.7 m) with a recovery up to 92%. This study focuses on a proportion of (upper ca. 500 m) carbonate sequences, corresponding to a history since the Late Miocene (ca. 10.5 Ma), based on well-established chronological framework as reported in detail in previous studies (Luo et al., 2021, 2022; Yi et al., 2021; Li et al., accepted). The detailed mineral, isotopic and elementary data of Well NK1 can be found in Guo et al. (2021) and Luo et al. (2021, 2022).

2.2 Pre-cleaning, lipid extraction and analysis of lipid biomarkers

As lipid biomarker inventory recovered from OM-poor carbonates (i.e., stalagmites) is susceptible to contamination, the pre-cleaning procedures proposed previously for stalagmites (Blyth et al., 2006) were also performed on our coral reef

carbonate samples, as well as glassware, reagents and consumables used in this study. Carbonate samples with visible high compaction were preferentially selected for lipid biomarker analysis because of their low porosity, which diminishes contamination and microbial degradation after lithification (Heindel et al., 2010). Subsequently, carbonate fragments containing external surfaces were cut to keep the central pillars with a diamond cutter bar (Supplementary Fig. S1A). The fresh pillar samples were then cleaned with deionized water, ethyl alcohol and dichloromethane (DCM) successively in an ultrasonic bath (Supplementary Fig. S1B), afterwards they were oven-dried and powdered with an agate mortar and pestle.

Lipids are usually present in very low concentration in carbonates and are partly trapped within the crystals so that conventional solvent extraction method (i.e., ultrasonic and soxhlet) only recovers lipid biomarkers from free OM pool (Blyth et al., 2006). Therefore, an acid digestion method proposed initially for stalagmites (Blyth et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2012) was used to extract most lipid biomarker yields from Well NK1 coral reef carbonates by releasing carbonate-trapped and chemically-bound OM. A similar decalcification and extraction protocol has been applied to recover lipid biomarkers from reef microbialites (Heindel et al., 2010, 2012; Braga et al., 2019). Briefly, aliquot powdered carbonates (10 g) were digested in pre-cleaned HCl (3 M) and then boiled under reflux for 3 h (Supplementary Fig. S1C), followed by the extraction with pre-redistilled DCM in a separating funnel (Supplementary Fig. S1D).

Further, one sample (at 108.39 m) was measured for a comparison between the Total Lipid Extract (TLE; Supplementary Fig. S2A) from one aliquot (10 g) and individual lipid (i.e., alcohol and FA; Supplementary Figs. S2B–C) classes separated from the TLE of the four aliquots (10 g \times 4). A method similar to that of Zhu et al. (2014) was used for lipid class separation. Briefly, following saponification with

KOH/MeOH (1 M), the neutral fractions were extracted with *n*-hexane and the residuals were treated with acidification to obtain the FA fraction. The neutral lipids were purified using silica gel chromatography by elution with *n*-hexane and MeOH to get alkanes and alcohols, respectively. The TLE (from one aliquot) and separated alcohol and FA fractions (from four aliquots) were converted to trimethylsilyl derivatives with bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) at 60 °C for 2 h prior to gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) analyses. The separation of different lipid classes did not yield more kinds of biomarkers (Supplementary Fig. S2), implying that almost all the biomarkers in the TLE are well above the detection limit. Therefore, for simplicity, the TLE without further separation was analyzed to show a general composition and distribution of lipid biomarkers in Well NK1 in this study.

GC–MS analysis was performed at the State Key Laboratory of Organic Geochemistry, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, with a Thermo Scientific Trace gas chromatograph coupled to a Thermo Scientific DSQ II mass spectrometer. Separation was achieved with a 60 m × 0.32 mm i.d. fused silica column (J & W DB-5) coated with a 0.25 μm film thickness. The oven temperature was programmed from 80 °C (held 2 min) to 160 °C at 6 °C/min, and then to 270 °C at 3 °C/min, and at last to 310 °C (held 30 min) at 8 °C/min. Helium was used as the carrier gas at 1.1 ml/min. The ion source was operated in the electron ionization (EI) mode at 70 eV, and a full scan mode in a range of m/z 50–750 was applied.

3. Results

3.1 Lipid biomarker compositions

A great variety of FAs are identified in Well NK1 coral reef carbonate samples (Supplementary Fig. S2A), with *n*-FAs being the predominant constituents (ranged

0.4–18.2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged $7.1 \pm 5.0 \mu\text{g/g}$ bulk carbonate) followed by second abundant unsaturated FAs (ranged 0.0–9.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged $2.5 \pm 2.4 \mu\text{g/g}$) and minimum *br*-FAs (ranged 0.0–1.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged $0.2 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{g/g}$) (Fig. 2A). The *n*-FAs are composed of short-chain homologs (C_{12} – C_{24}) dominated by C_{16} and C_{18} (ranged 0.2–8.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and 0.2–5.8 $\mu\text{g/g}$, and accounted for averaged $54.1\% \pm 8.7\%$ and $35.1\% \pm 9.4\%$ in total *n*-FAs, respectively) (Fig. 2B). The *n*- $\text{C}_{22:1}$ FAs (the sum of *n*- $\text{C}_{22:1\omega 9}$ and *n*- $\text{C}_{22:1\omega 7}$) are the most abundant component (ranged 0.0–8.2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged $2.1 \pm 2.1 \mu\text{g/g}$) in unsaturated FA class, accounting for averaged $78.7\% \pm 22.2\%$ (Fig. 2C). The *i*- C_{16} is slightly more abundant, accounting for averaged $29.8\% \pm 8.0\%$ in total *br*-FAs, followed by relatively equivalent *a*- C_{15} ($22.1\% \pm 14.6\%$), *a*- C_{17} ($17.6\% \pm 24.9\%$), *i*- C_{17} ($17.3\% \pm 15.5\%$), *i*- C_{15} ($16.6\% \pm 6.5\%$) and *i*- C_{14} ($16.4\% \pm 9.4\%$) (Fig. 2D).

In alcohol fraction, only *n*-alcohols are detected (Supplementary Figs. S2A–B), which have significantly lower abundances (ranged 0.1–2.0 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged $0.5 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{g/g}$) than *n*-FA counterparts (Fig. 2A). The *n*-alcohols also consist of short-chain homologs (C_{14} – C_{20}), but are dominated solely by C_{18} (ranged 0.0–1.8 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and accounted for averaged $87.3\% \pm 8.3\%$ in total *n*-alcohols) (Fig. 2E).

As the major components in alkane class, *n*-alkanes are dominated by short-chain homologs (accounted for averaged $71.0\% \pm 13.8\%$ in total *n*-alkanes) with rather low contents as compared to FAs and alcohols in most samples (Supplementary Fig. S2A). The alkane fraction is not further discussed in this study due to the absence of diagnostic biomarkers, as suggested previously (Heindel et al., 2010, 2012; Braga et al., 2019), but the pristine/phytane (Pr/Ph) ratio (ranged 0.14–0.83) is used in the following discussion.

3.2 Distribution of lipid biomarker in Well NK1

Contents of n -C_{14–18} FAs, n -C_{22:1} FAs, br -FAs and n -C_{14–18} alcohols exhibit good positive correlations with each other (Supplementary Table S1), thereby allowing for n -C_{14–18} FAs to provide a general view of the biomarker distribution in upper ca. 500 m of Well NK1. The distribution of n -C_{14–18} FAs can be divided into three intervals (Fig. 3): (1) relatively high contents (ranged 2.2–10.7 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged 4.6 ± 2.2 $\mu\text{g/g}$) with frequent oscillations at ca. 300–500 m intervals, (2) substantially lower abundances (ranged 0.4–5.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged 1.9 ± 1.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$) without significant change at ca. 120–300 m intervals, and (3) comparatively higher concentrations (ranged 1.2–14.7 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and averaged 9.0 ± 4.0 $\mu\text{g/g}$), oscillated with varying degrees and large amplitudes and peaked at ca. 45–60 m and 95–115 m in upper ca. 120 m intervals.

4. Discussion

4.1 The feasibility of n -C_{14–18} FAs for production of reef-building corals in Well NK1

The n -C_{14–18} FAs (and n alcohols) are generally used to reflect total marine OM input, including phytoplankton, zooplankton and bacteria (Mudge and Norris, 1997; Gogou and Stephanou, 2004; Treignier et al., 2006; Hu et al., 2009; Strong et al., 2012, 2013; Zhu et al., 2014, 2021; Guo et al., 2019); whereas n -C_{22:1} FAs and br -FAs are usually specified to inputs of zooplankton and bacteria, respectively (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; Volkman, 2006). The abundant presence of these biomarkers in Well NK1 coral reefs (Fig. 2) likely indicates the incorporation of various marine biotas (and their lipids) into reef-building corals to support their growth and development through autotrophic and heterotrophic pathways. This is consistent with the predominance of modern *Porites* in the Meiji Atoll (Zhao et al., 2013) and the wide occurrence of

Porites corallites in Well NK1 (Luo et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021), as trophic strategies of stress-tolerant massive *Porites* are highly variable that can switch plastically between autotrophy and heterotrophy (Grottoli et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2020). Therefore, n -C_{14–18} FAs, which are likely produced by external various food resources in surface waters before serving as dietary inputs for heterotrophic corals and/or produced in vivo by coral-associated autotrophic symbionts, are rationally feasible to reflect the total production of mixotrophic reef-building corals in Well NK1.

We notice the good positive correlations among n -C_{14–18} FAs (and alcohols), zooplankton-derived n -C_{22:1} FAs and bacteria-derived *br*-FAs in Well NK1 (Supplementary Table S1). Similar scenarios have also been documented in three shallow-water cores (water depths <35 m) in the northern SCS, showing strong correlations of phytoplankton-sterols with zooplankton-produced n -C_{20:1} alcohols and n -C_{14–18} alcohols (Zhu et al., 2021). These occurrences may reflect the close coupling among different groups of marine biotas (i.e., phytoplankton, zooplankton and bacteria) through food chains and their coupled contribution to the production of n -C_{14–18} FAs and alcohols in the euphotic shallow-water zone.

4.2 Evaluation on the reliability of n -C_{14–18} FAs as production recorders in coral reefs

As explained above, n -C_{14–18} FAs indicative of total marine OM input are rather suitable to register total production associated with mixotrophic reef-building corals that feed on various marine organisms. However, before applying n -C_{14–18} FAs as effective recorders of paleo-production in Well NK1 coral reefs, their suitability as such an approach should be examined. This is because n -C_{14–18} FAs in reefal deposits may have undergone some alteration due to diagenetic and degradation processes, which can confound their implications for initial biotic precursors and related

environmental conditions. Here, the potential degradation loss of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in the euphotic shallow-water zone, where reef-building corals inhabit, is not considered, as the degradation of biomarkers has been found insignificant even in deep-sea water column (Prahl et al., 2000; Wakeham et al., 2002; Hernández-Sánchez et al., 2014). Therefore, in the following, we focus mainly on the potential influence of diagenetic alteration and degradation loss during burial in reefal carbonate deposits.

The diagenetic alteration mainly involved meteoric diagenesis under subaerial conditions and dolomitization forming in marine phreatic environments (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022). Intensive meteoric diagenesis occurred mainly at ca. 20–120 m intervals and several limestone interlayers at depths of ca. 440–500 m have experienced meteoric diagenesis (Fig. 3D) (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022). The limestones forming in meteoric diagenetic environments are also accompanied by the pronounced negative signatures of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Figs. 3B–C) and high contents of low-Mg calcite (Fig. 3D) (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022). These isotopic and mineral characterizations have also been cited as the compelling evidence for the presence of extensive meteoric diagenesis on coral reefs of XC1 (Liu et al., 1997), ZK1 (Wang et al., 2018), and XK1 (Liu et al., 2019) in the Xisha Islands in the northern SCS. Therefore, the potential influence of carbonate diagenesis on $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs can be elucidated based on their correlation analyses with diagenetic proxy records of isotopes and minerals. As illustrated in Figs. 4A–B, contents of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs display relatively strong negative correlations with values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, indicating the accelerated accumulation of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in correspondence to intense meteoric diagenesis. This occurrence should be attributed to the high terrigenous nutrient loading that fertilized the production in surface waters and in coral reefs due to reduced sea levels, as explained below. However, the comparatively high resistance

of lipid biomarkers in coral reef carbonates to post-depositional diagenesis should also be responsible for the coupling between abundant $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs and extensive meteoric diagenesis.

The high degradation of lipid biomarkers occurs usually under aerobic conditions (Hoefs et al., 2002; Sinninghe Damsté et al., 2002; Versteegh et al., 2010). Accordingly, the potential influence of degradation on $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs can be evaluated in the context of paleo-redox conditions. Shao et al. (2017a) proposed a simple redox framework of coral reefs in relation to sea-level changes, suggesting more reducing (marine) conditions during sea-level high stands and more oxidizing (subaerial) conditions with declined sea levels. Accordingly, the extensive subaerial meteoric diagenesis due to sea-level low stands (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022) may infer more oxidizing environments at ca. 20–120 m and 440–500 m intervals of Well NK1. The Pr/Ph ratio records are consistent with the diagenetic facies in Well NK1 (Fig. 3E), showing higher ratio values indicative of more oxidizing environments (Didyk et al., 1978). Thus, the good positive correlation between contents of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs and values of Pr/Ph (Fig. 4C) suggests that $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs are present in higher amounts under more oxidized conditions. This occurrence, as mentioned above and explained below, should be due to the importance of terrestrial nutrient input for coral reef production, leading to higher abundances of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs corresponding to more oxidizing conditions (and extensive meteoric diagenesis) during sea-level low stands. Nevertheless, it should also reflect that $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in coral reef carbonates are highly resistant to oxic environments (and aerobic degradation).

The present study on $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in Well NK1, together with previous studies on glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) in Well XK1 (Shao et al., 2017a, b) demonstrate the conservative behavior of lipid biomarkers in coral reef carbonates.

This suggests that lipid biomarkers are, to a large extent, protected by the initial coral skeletons from post-depositional diagenetic (i.e., recrystallization and dolomitization) and degradation alteration. This is further supported by the biomarker composition in Well NK1 coral reef carbonates that shows a high similarity to that in modern corals. For example, the majority of FAs that are dominated by short-chain *n*-FAs in Well NK1 coral reefs (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Fig. S2) is compatible with lipid studies on modern corals, showing the predominance of FAs (Treignier et al., 2008; Tolosa et al., 2011) that consist mainly of short-chain *n*-FAs (e.g., Irsh and Yakovleva, 2012; Kneeland et al., 2013; Radice et al., 2019; Rocker et al., 2019). Besides, the dominance of marine-sourced short-chain compound classes in Well NK1 (Figs. 2B–E; Supplementary Fig. S2) is consistent with the records of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, C/N and $n\text{-C}_{25-27}/n\text{-C}_{15-17}$ in adjacent core 17962 which reveal that sedimentary OM is mainly of marine origin (Jia et al., 2002). This is followed by a recent study on nearby ODP Site 1143 (O'Brien et al., 2014) showing substantially low GDGTs-derived BIT values (mostly <0.2), which typically suggest a predominant contribution of marine OM input (Hopmans et al., 2004). These consistencies demonstrate the reliability of coral reef carbonate biomarkers that can preserve the initial environmental information.

4.3 Production of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in coral reefs linked to surface production since the Late Miocene

As discussed above, $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs are conservative in carbonate deposits, thereby allowing them to infer past changes in the production of Well NK1 coral reefs. The $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs inferred coral reef production exhibits a generally decreased trend during the Late Miocene–Pliocene (ca. 10.5–2.6 Ma) followed by a substantial increase with varying oscillations since the Pleistocene on million-year timescales (Fig. 5A), which

resembles largely to the $\text{Ln}(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ ratio in Well NK1 (Fig. 5B). Biogenic Ba is considered as a good proxy for surface production in global oceans (Dymond et al., 1992; Francois et al., 1995), including the southern SCS (Zhang et al., 2009; Li et al., 2018). The $\text{Ln}(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ ratio has been recently applied for Well XK1 coral reefs to reconstruct surface production in the northern SCS since the early Pliocene (Wu et al., 2019). Therefore, the large similarity between profiles of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs and $\text{Ln}(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ in Well NK1 (Figs. 5A–B) demonstrates that the production in coral reefs is closely linked to surface production. This is further supported by many other independent production records in adjacent ODP Site 1143, showing largely similar decreased trends in surface production since the Late Miocene on million-year timescales (Figs. 5C–F), such as opal (Li et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2006), Ba/Ti (Zhang et al., 2009), diatom (Lu et al., 2003) and radiolarian (Chen et al., 2003). However, records of Ba/Ti, diatom and radiolarian indicate that surface production shifted to rise after ca. 0.6 Ma (Fig. 5D–F; Yang et al., 2002; Lu et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2009), much later than inferred from records of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs and $\text{Ln}(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ in Well NK1 (Figs. 5A–B; this study) and opal in ODP Site 1143 (Fig. 5C; Li et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2006). Besides, contents of $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs and values of $\text{Ln}(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ in Well NK1 are peaked at ca. 0.5–0.7 and 1.2–1.4 Ma (Figs. 5A–B) likely reflective of extremely high production events in the Quaternary southern SCS; however, they are not found in the production records from ODP Site 1143 (Figs. 5C–F). These discrepancies could be attributed to the different sample resolutions among these studies and/or the different implications of these proxy records. For example, fossil diatoms and radiolarians are critically dependent on the production of diatoms and radiolarians in surface waters, respectively; whereas biogenic opal reflects the production of siliceous organisms, including diatoms and radiolarians (Wei et al.,

2003; Wan et al., 2006).

In summary, our $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FA records match well with many other independent paleo-production records in most parts of Well NK1 and ODP Site 1143 since the Late Miocene (Fig. 5), demonstrating the close coupling between coral reef production and surface phytoplankton production. This occurrence should be due to the common factor of nutrients in modulating production of endosymbiotic autotrophic coralline algae (i.e., dinoflagellats) and asymbiotic phytoplankton (i.e., diatoms) in the euphotic zone and/or the large dependence of heterotrophic corals on phytoplankton-governed food webs in surface waters. The $n\text{-C}_{14-18}$ FAs in Well NK1 coral reefs thus allows for a reevaluation of potential controlling factors, such as monsoon proposed previously, on long-term changes in surface production in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene on million-year timescales.

4.4 Potential factors controlling long-term production evolution in the southern SCS

Previous studies have revealed that surface phytoplankton production is critically limited by nutrient availability in surface waters in the oligotrophic oceans (Falkowski et al., 1998), including the southern SCS (Liu et al., 2002; Ning et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2004, 2006). The summertime upwelling-induced nutrients were proposed as the main nutrient resources delivered to offshore waters in the southern SCS, leading to higher nutrient loading in response to intensified summer monsoon in the early Late Miocene (i.e., 10–7 Ma; Chen et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2003; Wan et al., 2006). However, the proposed summer monsoon intensification is not compatible with many other proxy records from the monsoon-domain that indicate a major weakening of summer monsoon in the early Late Miocene (Guo et al., 2002; Jia et al., 2003; Sun and Wang, 2005; Clift et al., 2014; Gupta et al., 2015; Clift and Webb, 2019). For example,

planktonic foraminifer *Globigerina bulloides*, which is mainly produced at times of upwelling in summer, was nearly disappeared during ca. 11–7 Ma in the Arabian Sea upwelling regimes (Gupta et al., 2015).

Terrestrial nutrient influx from the Mekong River driven by chemical weathering was proposed as the complementary nutrient supply to the oligotrophic open southern SCS (Zhang et al., 2009). However, the inferred summer monsoon intensification that induced enhanced chemical weathering in the early Late Miocene (i.e., 10–7 Ma), as proposed by Zhang et al. (2009), was not supported by many other monsoon records (Guo et al., 2002; Jia et al., 2003; Sun and Wang, 2005; Clift et al., 2014; Gupta et al., 2015; Clift and Webb, 2019). This contradiction likely indicates that chemical weathering is not mainly governed by summer monsoon-induced precipitation, but is closely coupled to global temperature (Clift et al., 2014), thus leading to weakened chemical weathering since the Late Miocene (Zhang et al., 2009) as a response of global cooling (Fig. 6F; Zachos et al., 2001; Westerhold et al., 2020). However, this scenario did not occur in other sediment records. For example, a comprehensive study on clay mineralogy, major element, stable and radiogenic isotope abundances in the Bengal Fan indicates intense chemical weathering since the Late Miocene (i.e., ca. 7–1 Ma; Derry and France-Lanord, 1996). In contrast, other studies focused on the ^{10}Be records suggest long-term stability of global erosion and weathering rates through the late Cenozoic (Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2010; Lenard et al., 2020). In spite of these uncertainties, long-term changes of surface production in the southern SCS (Fig. 5) fail to follow any reconstructed context of chemical weathering variability since the Late Miocene shown above.

The strengthened wind regime resulting from global cooling has been invoked to interpret the rise in surface production in the Indian Ocean in the early Late Miocene

(Gupta et al., 2004). However, this is not so suitable for our study, as long-term evolution of paleo-production in the southern SCS does not track the progressive decrease in global temperature since the Late Miocene (Fig. 6F; Zachos et al., 2001; Westerhold et al., 2020). Besides, the reconstructed paleo-production in the southern SCS differs largely with the Pacific-Indian-Atlantic Oceans, where peaks in production occurred during ca. 6–4 Ma (Dickens and Owen, 1999; Hermoyian and Owen, 2001; Grant and Dickens, 2002). This appears to contradict the importance of global nutrient cycling in regulating regional production in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene.

In summary, the summer upwelling, chemical weathering, global cooling and oceanic nutrient cycling are difficult to interpret long-term changes of surface production in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene. This prompts us to consider the possible role of relative sea-level change, as we notice that n -C_{14–18} FAs and Ln(Ba/Ti) change largely in parallel with terrigenous element Ti in Well NK1 (Figs. 6A–C) and respond almost inversely with sea-level variations since the Late Miocene (Figs. 6D–E; Shao et al., 2017a; Miller et al., 2020). Reduced sea levels in the early Late Miocene and since the Pleistocene (Figs. 6D–E; Shao et al., 2017a; Miller et al., 2020) are consistent with the subaerial meteoric diagenetic facies on Well NK1 coral reefs (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022). During sea-level low stands, the emergence of the huge continental platforms led to the development of numerous drainage systems, and meanwhile, the study sites approached much closer to the river mouth, thus increasing terrestrial riverine input to offshore waters in the southern SCS (e.g., Jia et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2003; Pelejero, 2003; Wei et al., 2003; Huang and Tian, 2012). This is compatible with the global compilation suggesting that terrigenous sediment input into the oceans was largely regulated by sea-level variations since 5

Ma (Hay et al., 1988). Therefore, the elevated marine production documented in the southern SCS in the early Late Miocene and since the Pleistocene (Fig. 5) may be fertilized by higher terrigenous riverine nutrient input due to relatively low sea levels (Figs. 6D–E; Shao et al., 2017a; Miller et al., 2020). However, the meteoric diagenesis did not occur on Well NK1 coral reefs during ca. 2.6–1.5 Ma (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022) featured by sea-level low stands (Figs. 6D–E; Shao et al., 2017a; Miller et al., 2020). This occurrence might be caused by the failure of regional sea-level decline to track tectonic subsidence, thus making the Meiji Atoll still submerged by the sea.

The proposed importance of relative sea-level change in controlling terrigenous riverine nutrient delivery to offshore waters appears to reconcile the argument of summer monsoon-induced upwelling-involved nutrients on interpreting long-term production variations in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene. This is supported by the covariation of higher terrestrial input and marine production in low-sea-level glacial times in cores 17962 (Jia et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2003) and MD05-2897 (Huang and Tian, 2012; Dong et al., 2019), but contradicts other observations showing higher production during high-sea-level interglacial periods (Jian et al., 2001; Wang and Abelmann, 2002; Wang and Li, 2003; Li et al., 2018). We believe these discrepancies may be reconciled by invoking most available proxy or seeking most reliable archive for reconstruction of paleo-production. As most of production recorders generated in surface waters would be altered to some extent during their descent in the water column and during burial in the sediment (e.g., Wei et al., 2003 and references therein), the production in shallow-water coral reefs should be more representative of surface production than inferred from seafloor sediments. This appears to signify a novel better approach to evaluate long-term paleo-production evolution in the euphotic zone

based on short-chain *n*-FAs in shallow-water coral reefs, which are widespread in tropical-subtropical oceans.

5. Conclusions

A series of lipid biomarkers are recovered from Well NK1 coral reef carbonates by an acid digestion extraction method and short-chain *n*-C_{14–18} FAs are examined for their applicability to reconstruct paleo-production in coral reefs in the southern SCS since the Late Miocene. Comparisons with the isotopic ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), mineral and redox (Pr/Ph) records demonstrate that *n*-C_{14–18} *n*-FAs in coral reef carbonates are largely protected from or highly resistant to diagenetic and degradation alteration. The temporal distribution of short-chain *n*-FAs resembles largely to many other production records (i.e., Ln(Ba/Ti) and opal) since the Late Miocene, demonstrating that coral reef production is closely linked to surface water production in the southern SCS. This occurrence is attributable to the common factor of nutrients in modulating production of endosymbiotic coralline algae and asymbiotic phytoplankton and/or the large dependence of heterotrophic corals on primary production by asymbiotic phytoplankton in surface waters. Records of *n*-C_{14–18} FAs and Ln(Ba/Ti) change almost in parallel with terrigenous element Ti in Well NK1 and largely reversed with relative sea-level variations since the Late Miocene, implying a long-term important role of sea-level change in terrestrial nutrient input and marine production in the southern SCS. This study highlights the feasibility of short-chain *n*-FAs as effective recorders for paleo-production in coral reefs that can be used to monitor surface water production in the geological past. We hope to develop the measurement on lipid biomarkers (i.e., compound-specific $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) to distinguish between autotrophic and heterotrophic production in coral reefs in future studies.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Lists of Figures

Fig. 1 Location of coral reefs (red; A) and sediment cores (yellow; B) mentioned in this study. (A): NK1 (this study) on the Meiji Atoll in the Nansha Islands in the southern SCS, and XC1 (Liu et al., 1997), XK1 (Shao et al., 2017a, b; Liu et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019) and ZK1 (Wang et al., 2018) on the Xisha Islands in the northern SCS. (B): sediment cores 17954 (Jian et al., 2001), 17957 (Wang and Abelmann, 2002), 17961&17964 (Pelejero, 2003), 17962 (Jia et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2003), MD05-2901 (Li et al., 2015), MD05-2897 (Huang and Tian, 2012; Dong et al., 2019), NS93-5 (Wei et al., 2003), B9 (Li et al., 2018), and ODP Site 1143 (Li et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2003; Wang and Li, 2003; Wang et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2009; O'Brien et al., 2014) around the study area. Surface currents in winter (black dotted lines) and summer (red solid lines) in Fig. 1B are redrawn from Fang et al. (1998). The Vietnam Upwelling in summer is marked with a grey box in Fig. 1B (Liu et al., 2002; Tang et al., 2004, 2006).

Fig. 2 Average abundances ($\mu\text{g/g}$) of total *n*-FAs, *un*-FAs (unsaturated FAs), *br*-FAs and *n*-OLs (*n*-alcohols) (A), and fractional abundances (%) of individual compounds in each class: *n*-FA (B), *un*-FA (C), *br*-FA (D) and *n*-OL (E). Error bars indicate the standard deviations. Numbers denote carbon numbers. In the *un*-FA fraction, *n*-C_{16:1}: the sum of *n*-C_{16:1 ω 9} and *n*-C_{16:1 ω 7}, *n*-C_{18:1}: the sum of *n*-C_{18:1 ω 9} and *n*-C_{18:1 ω 7}, *n*-C_{20:1}: the sum of *n*-C_{20:1 ω 9} and *n*-C_{20:1 ω 7}, *n*-C_{22:1}: the sum of *n*-C_{22:1 ω 9} and *n*-C_{22:1 ω 7}.

Fig. 3 Depth profiles of *n*-C_{14–18} FAs (A) and the Pr/Ph ratio (E) (this study), and isotopes (B–C) and minerals (D) (Guo et al., 2021, Luo et al., 2021, 2022) in Well NK1. In Fig. 3D, Ara, HMC, LMC and Dol indicate aragonite, high-Mg calcite, low-Mg calcite and dolomite, respectively. Grey columns denote two intervals at ca. 20–120 m and 440–500 m, which have experienced meteoric diagenesis under subaerial oxidizing conditions due to sea-level low stands (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022)

Fig. 4 Linear correlations of contents of *n*-C_{14–18} FAs with values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (A), $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (B) and Pr/Ph (C) in Well NK1.

Fig. 5 Temporal changes in *n*-C_{14–18} FAs (A) and Ln(Ba/Ti) (B) in Well NK1 (this study), and opal (C) (Li et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2006) and Ba/Ti (D) (Zhang et al., 2009) in ODP Site 1143. The *n*-C_{14–18} FA, Ln(Ba/Ti) and opal curves are smoothed by 3-point running average. Also shown are the depth profiles of diatoms (E) (Lu et al., 2003) and radiolarians (F) (Chen et al., 2003) with ages labeled in the curves based on age models in Wang et al. (2004).

Fig. 6 Comparisons of n -C₁₄₋₁₈ FAs (A), Ln(Ba/Ti) (B) and terrigenous element Ti (C) in Well NK1 (this study) with the global compilation of sea-level variations (D) (Miller et al., 2020), BIT records (E) (with lower values indicating higher sea levels) in Well XK1 in the northern SCS (Shao et al., 2017a) and global deep-sea $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records (F) (Westerhold et al., 2020). The n -C₁₄₋₁₈ FA, Ln(Ba/Ti) and Ti curves are smoothed by 3-point running average. Grey columns are the same as in Fig. 3, denoting two intervals marked with meteoric diagenesis due to sea-level low stands (Guo et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2021, 2022). Yellow columns indicate two time-intervals with reduced sea levels, but are characterized by the disappearance of meteoric diagenesis on coral reef carbonates.

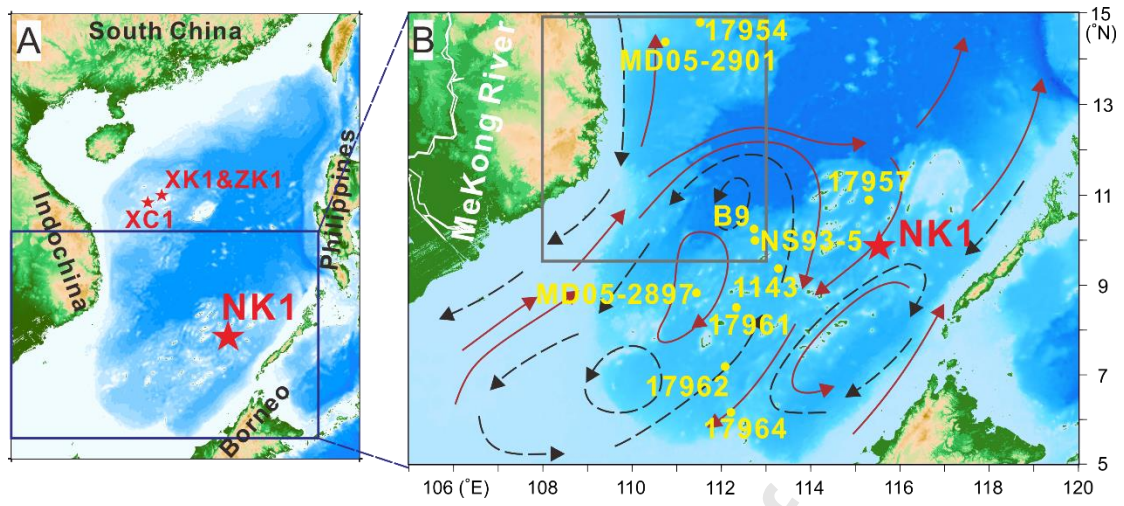


Fig. 1

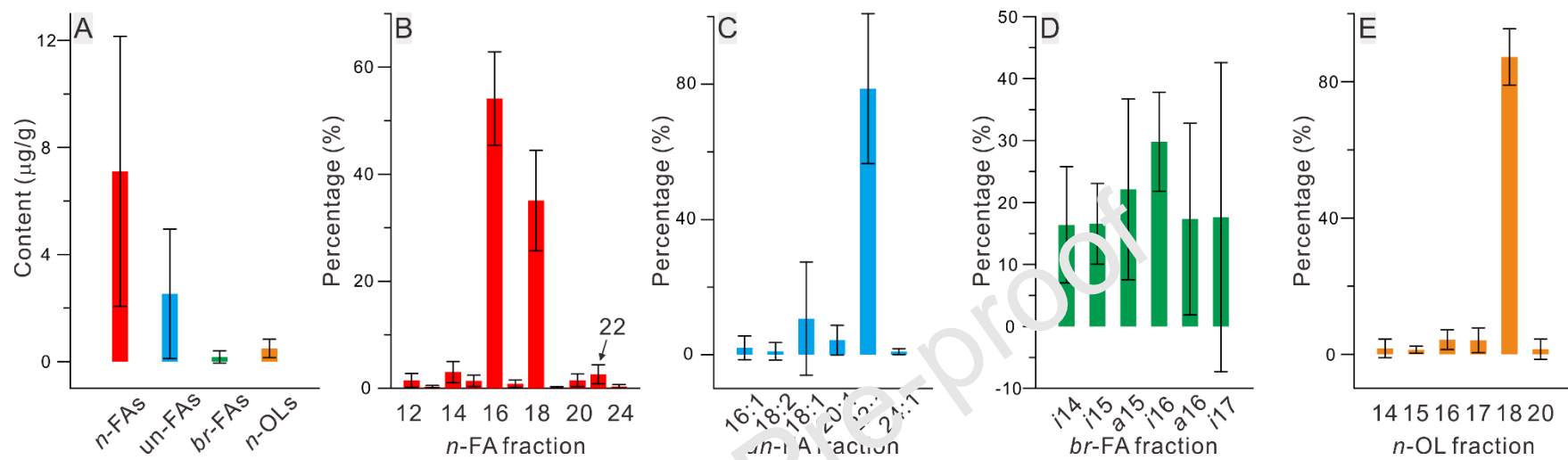


Fig. 2

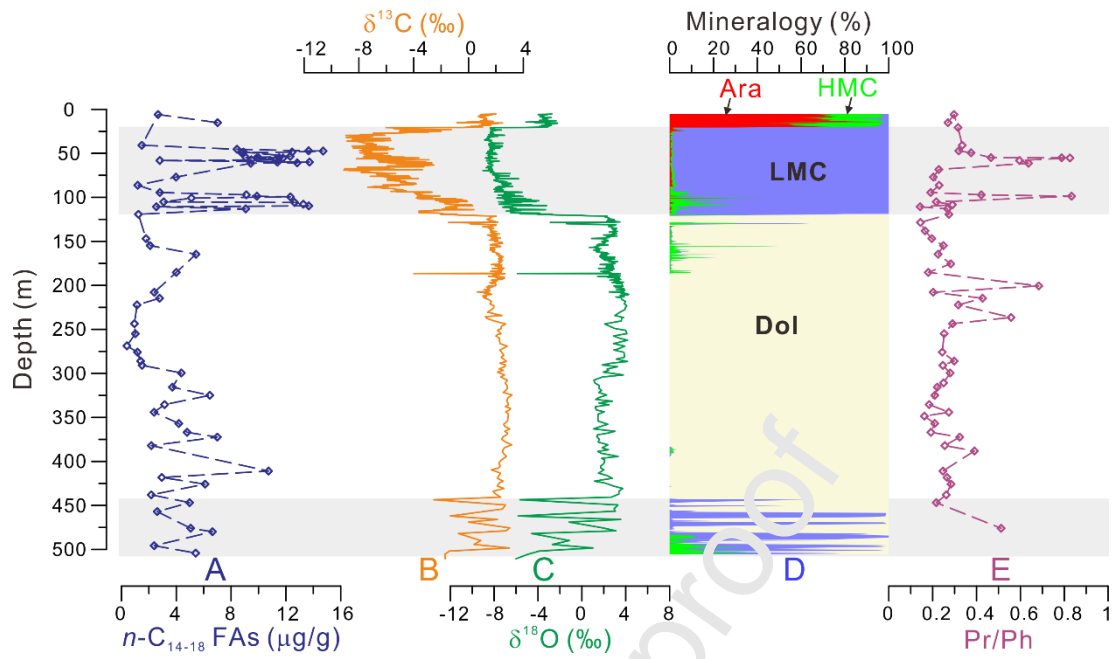


Fig. 3

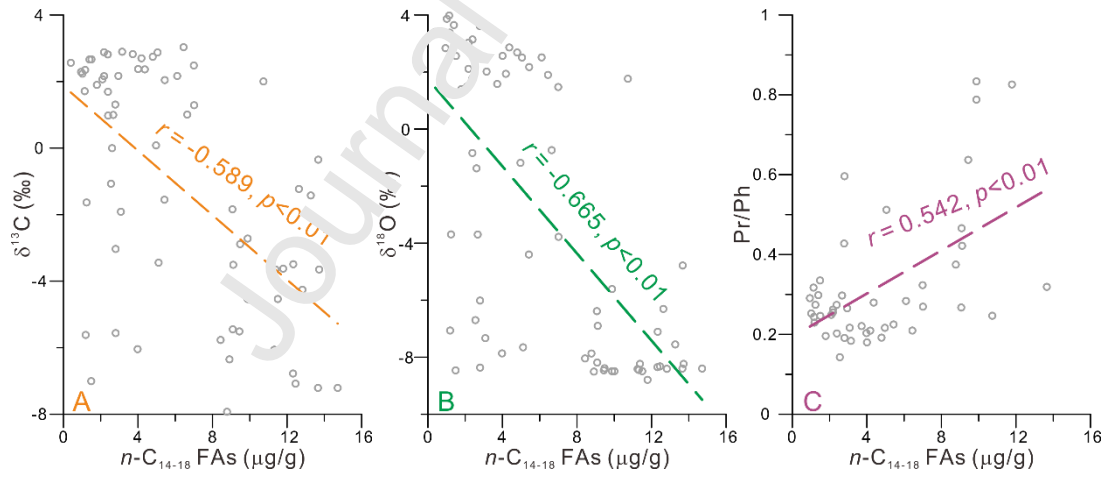


Fig. 4

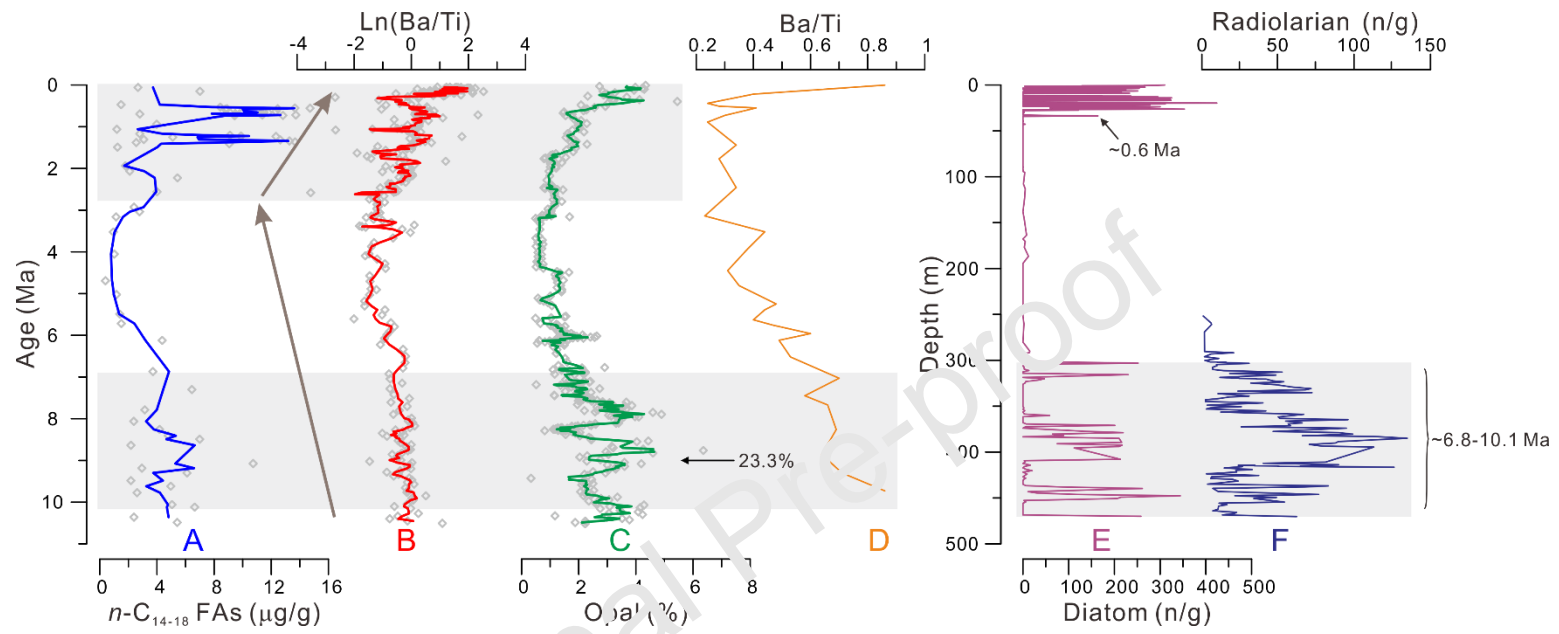


Fig. 5

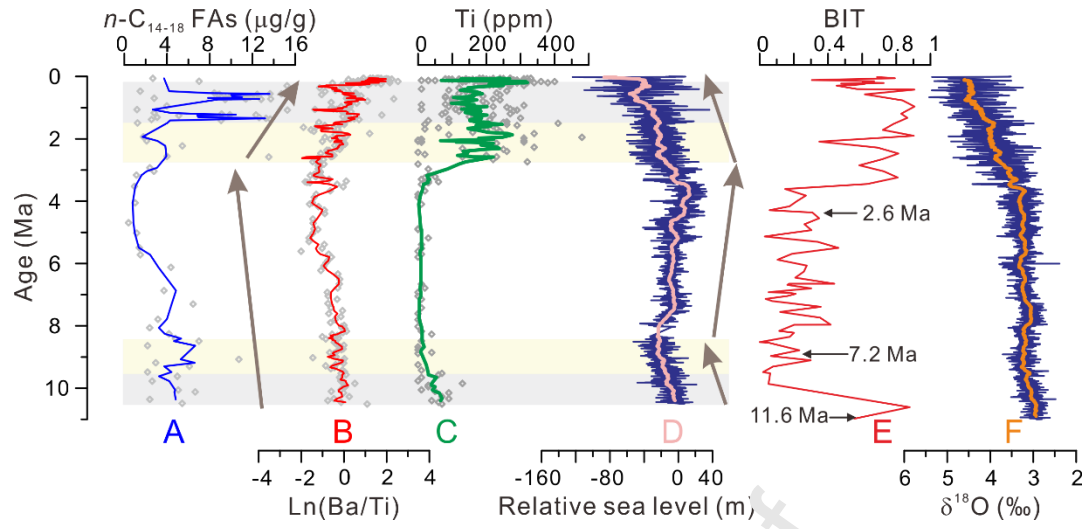


Fig. 6

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

- ✓ A long coral reef well (NK1) in the southern SCS was studied
- ✓ OM-poor coral reef carbonates were decalcified and extracted for biomarkers
- ✓ Short-chain *n*-FAs reflect paleo-productivity in coral reefs since the Late Miocene
- ✓ Long-term productivity was governed by terrestrial nutrient related to sea level

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