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1 Southern Ocean link between changes in atmospheric CO₂ levels and northern-hemisphere cli-

2 mate anomalies during the last two glacial periods

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14

15 Abstract

Past millennial-scale changes in atmospheric CO₂ (CO_{2.atm}) levels have often been attributed to varia-16 17 tions in the overturning timescale of the ocean that result in changes in the marine carbon inventory. There remains a paucity of proxy evidence that documents changes in marine carbon storage globally, 18 and that links them to distinct abrupt climate variability in the northern hemisphere that involve per-19 turbations of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). The last two glacial periods 20 were suggested to differ in the spatial extent of the AMOC and its sensitivity to perturbations. This 21 22 provides an opportunity to study the nature of marine carbon cycling during these two climate intervals. Here, we reconstruct variations in respired carbon storage (via oxygenation) and the AMOC 'ge-23 ometry' (via carbonate ion saturation) in the deep South Atlantic. We infer decreases in deep South 24 Atlantic respired carbon levels at times of weakened AMOC and rising CO_{2.atm} concentrations during 25 26 both glacial periods. These findings suggest a consistent pattern of increased Southern Ocean convec-27 tion and/or air-sea CO₂ fluxes during northern-hemisphere stadials accompanying AMOC perturbations and promoting a rise in CO_{2.atm} levels. We find that net ocean carbon loss, and hence the magni-28 29 tude of CO_{2.atm} rise, during a glacial is largely determined by the stadial duration. North Atlantic cli-30 mate anomalies may therefore significantly affect Southern Ocean carbon cycling through oceanic 31 (e.g., 'ventilation' seesaw) and/or atmospheric processes (e.g., Ekman pumping). (250 words) 32

- Keywords: Glacials; Paleoclimatology; Southern Ocean; Redox-sensitive elements; Carbon cycle;
 Foraminifera; Dansgaard-Oeschger cycles; Atmospheric CO₂ variations; Stadials; Interstadials
- 35
- 36 1. Introduction

37 Changes in the concentration of CO_2 in the atmosphere ($CO_{2,atm}$) recorded in Antarctic ice cores have been found to be tightly linked with Antarctic temperature-proxies over the past eight glacial-38 interglacial cycles (e.g., Fischer et al., 2010). This link can be partly explained by the radiative forcing 39 imparted by CO_{2,atm} (i.e., the greenhouse effect; e.g., Köhler et al., 2017), and by the temperature de-40 pendence of processes governing global ocean- and land-atmosphere CO₂ exchange, such as the ocean 41 42 CO₂ solubility (Bacastow, 1996; Bereiter et al., 2018), metabolic rates of plants and phytoplankton (Eppley, 1972; Policy et al., 1993; Matsumoto, 2007) and organic carbon respiration rates in the ocean 43 44 (Matsumoto, 2007; Matsumoto et al., 2007; Kwon et al., 2009). However, this link is also thought to rely on a variety of biogeochemical and hydrographic feedback mechanisms that affect the deep- and 45 surface ocean's total carbon- and alkalinity levels (e.g., Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Hain et al., 2010; 46 47 Cartapanis et al., 2018). The ocean's sizeable carbon reservoir exchanges with the atmosphere on centennial- to millennial timescales, in particular through vertical mixing and Ekman pumping in the 48 Southern Ocean (Primeau, 2005; Marinov et al., 2006; Gebbie and Huybers, 2011). Other potential 49 carbon sources/sinks that may have influenced CO2 atm concentrations on these timescales include the 50 51 terrestrial biosphere (Köhler et al., 2005; Menviel et al., 2008; Bozbiyik et al., 2011), Arctic permafrost (Zech, 2012; Köhler et al., 2014; Tesi et al., 2016) and the mantle/lithosphere (Huybers and 52 Langmuir, 2009; Broecker et al., 2015; Lund et al., 2016). The Southern Ocean bears a strong leverage 53 on the efficiency of ocean-atmosphere gas exchange (i.e., the "ocean CO₂ solubility pump") and on the 54 55 global-ocean pre-formed versus respired nutrient ratio (i.e., the "soft-tissue/organic carbon pump"), 56 while also influencing global-ocean alkalinity (i.e., the "hard-tissue/carbonate pump"). The Southern 57 Ocean is therefore assumed to play a dominant role in past CO2.atm changes (Sarmiento and Toggweiler, 1984; Volk and Hoffert, 1985; Broecker et al., 1999; Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Ito and 58 Follows, 2005; Fischer et al., 2010; Hain et al., 2010; Sigman et al., 2010). 59

60

Proxy evidence from the Southern Ocean covering the last glacial cycle strongly supports this view. 61 The glacial Antarctic Zone of the Southern Ocean, south of the Polar Front (Fig. 1), has yielded proxy 62 evidence for reduced vertical mixing and stronger water column density stratification during peak 63 glacial periods, suggesting increased carbon sequestration from the atmosphere (e.g., François et al., 64 65 1997; Skinner et al., 2010; Jaccard et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2015; Studer et al., 2015). In addition, an extended seasonal Antarctic sea ice zone during these intervals may have curbed air-sea gas ex-66 change (Stephens and Keeling, 2000; Gersonde et al., 2003; Benz et al., 2016) and may have stimulat-67 ed increased export production of organic carbon (Abelmann et al., 2015), both acting to further de-68 69 crease CO_{2.atm}. In the sub-Antarctic Zone between the sub-Antarctic and sub-Tropical Front (Fig. 1), 70 enhanced supply of aeolian dust that may have alleviated iron-limitation imposed on phytoplankton 71 growth (Martin, 1990; Shoenfelt et al., 2018) has been shown to have led to increased carbon export and CO_{2.atm} drawdown during the last peak glacial (Kumar et al., 1995; Ziegler et al., 2013; Anderson 72 73 et al., 2014a; Lamy et al., 2014; Martínez-García et al., 2014; Gottschalk et al., 2016b; Jaccard et al., 74 2016). These biological and hydrographic conditions were suggested to have relaxed over the last deglaciation and during Antarctic warming intervals, reducing the biological export of carbon to the deep 75 76 ocean, and exposing the deep-ocean carbon reservoir to the atmosphere through enhanced vertical 77 mixing and air-sea gas exchange in the Southern Ocean, causing a rise of CO_{2,atm} (e.g., Anderson et al., 2009; Skinner et al., 2010, 2014; Gottschalk et al., 2016b; Jaccard et al., 2016; Ronge et al., 2016; 78 79 Sikes et al., 2016; Basak et al., 2018). In addition, these processes are thought to be closely connected to North Atlantic climate and parallel perturbations in the AMOC (Sigman et al., 2007; Anderson and 80 Carr, 2010; Charles et al., 2010; Denton et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Chiang et al., 2018). Specifical-81 ly, CO₂ evasion from the Southern Ocean may have been promoted through a poleward shift and/or 82 intensifications of the southern-hemisphere westerlies (SHW) and an associated increase in Ekman 83 pumping (Toggweiler et al., 2006; Anderson et al., 2009; Denton et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011), surface 84 buoyancy variations in the Southern Ocean (Watson and Naveira Garabato, 2006; Watson et al., 85 2015), Antarctic sea ice retreat and/or the rejuvenation of Southern Ocean deep waters (Skinner et al., 86 2010, i.e., a "bi-polar ventilation seesaw"; 2014). These scenarios highlight separate atmospheric and 87 88 oceanic pathways (though not mutually exclusive), by which northern-hemisphere climate variability might affect the respired carbon budgets and marine carbon cycling in the Southern Ocean. Their rela-89 tive contributions to CO_{2,atm} change remain, however, unclear. 90

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92 An important test of the classical view of a primary role of Southern Ocean processes in driving mil-93 lennial-scale CO_{2.atm} variations and their connection to North Atlantic climate anomalies gained from 94 proxy records of the last 70 kyr can be made by extending the analyses to older millennial-scale cli-95 mate events. The penultimate glacial period, i.e., Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 6, may prove particularly useful for this undertaking, because MIS 6 was characterised by slightly different climatic condi-96 tions compared to the last glacial period (i.e., MIS 3), in particular with respect to the extent of north-97 98 ern-hemisphere ice sheets (Svendsen et al., 2004) and the strength of the hydrological cycle (Margari 99 et al., 2010). These differences have likely led to a weaker AMOC during MIS 6 that may be associat-100 ed with lower-amplitude changes in Antarctic temperature (Margari et al., 2010). We hypothesize that 101 the sensitivity of the ocean carbon system to perturbations was likely different during both glacial 102 periods, and a comparison between the two may therefore provide important insights into the dependency of respired carbon changes in the deep South Atlantic and CO2, atm variations to the nature, timing 103 104 and duration of North Atlantic climate events and overall glacial conditions.

105

Here, we assess and compare changes in respired carbon content in the Atlantic sector of the Southern
Ocean and the AMOC 'geometry' during the last two glacial periods based on sub-Antarctic Atlantic
sediment cores MD07-3076Q (14.20°W, 44.10°S, 3777 m water depth) and MD07-3077 (14.23°W,

109 44.15°S, 3776 m water depth). Respired carbon changes are derived from qualitative and quantitative

110 estimates of bottom water oxygen concentrations ([O₂]) variations, which are reflected in the enrich-

- 111 ment of redox-sensitive elements in foraminiferal authigenic coatings and epibenthic-to-deep infaunal for aminiferal δ^{13} C gradients. Reconstructions of AMOC changes are based on partial sedimentary 112 dissolution proxies that track variations in bottom water carbonate ion saturation. These proxies are 113 114 sensitive to the presence of northern-sourced (oversaturated) and southern-sourced (undersaturated) 115 water masses, as well as water mass end-member changes, at our study site (Gottschalk et al., 2015a). 116 Additional analyses of past changes in local productivity approximated by determinations of the sedimentary opal content (e.g., Anderson et al., 2014a) and cryosphere dynamics based on the abundance 117 of ice-rafted debris (IRD; e.g., Kanfoush et al., 2000; Nielsen et al., 2007) help to assess the roles of 118 ocean biology and sea ice/icebergs in Southern Ocean carbon cycle dynamics, respectively. 119
- 120

121 2. Study area

Sediment cores MD07-3076Q and MD07-3077 were retrieved from the eastern flank of the Mid-Atlantic Ocean Ridge and are located within the sub-Antarctic Zone of the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean (Fig. 1). The cores were collected at the same site using different coring techniques, i.e., by square kasten- and piston coring, respectively. With a length of 10.9 m, MD07-3076Q covers the last ~100 kyr, while its sister core MD07-3077 has a length of 49.5 m and extends back to 450 kyr before present (BP) (Vázquez Riveiros et al., 2010). Analyses for MIS 3 are therefore based on core MD07-3076Q, while those for MIS 6 are based on MD07-3077.

129

The core sites are currently bathed in Lower Circumpolar Deep Water (LCDW), which is a mixture of 130 DIC-rich and $[CO_3^{2^-}]$ -low Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), derivatives of DIC-rich and low- $[CO_3^{2^-}]$ 131 Indian and Pacific Deep Water and DIC-low and high- $[CO_3^{2-}]$ North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) 132 (Carter et al., 2009; Talley, 2013). Our site is characterised by slight carbonate (i.e. calcite) oversatura-133 tion ($\Omega = [CO_3^{2^-}]_{in-situ}/[CO_3^{2^-}]_{saturated} = 1.09$), but is proximal to carbonate-undersaturated water masses 134 located deeper in the South Atlantic water column. It is therefore sensitive to changes in the prepon-135 derance of high-[CO₃²⁻] NADW and low-[CO₃²⁻] AABW in the deep South Atlantic through associat-136 ed changes in carbonate saturation at the core site (Gottschalk et al., 2015a). The modern $[O_2]$ at our 137 core site is 215 µmol kg⁻¹(Garcia et al., 2010). 138

139

140 **3. Methods**

141 **3.1. Respired carbon levels**

Respired carbon levels are directly linked to apparent oxygenation utilization (AOU) in the ocean, which reflects the drawdown of O_2 due to the respiration of organic matter (Kroopnick, 1985; Jaccard et al., 2014; Galbraith and Jaccard, 2015). AOU changes were suggested to be the main driver of deepocean $[O_2]$ changes, because $[O_2]$ saturation in the surface- and deep ocean varied little over glacialinterglacial timescales (Jaccard and Galbraith, 2012; Galbraith and Jaccard, 2015). We therefore reconstruct bottom water $[O_2]$ to assess respired carbon changes during the last two glacial periods using the two following independent approaches in order to circumvent potential limitations and biases thatmay come with the analysis of a single proxy.

150

151 **3.1.1.** Uranium enrichment in foraminiferal coatings

The enrichment of uranium (U) in marine sediments is mainly a result of reducing conditions in pore 152 waters of marine sub-surficial sediments (Anderson et al., 1989; Barnes and Cochran, 1990; 153 154 Klinkhammer and Palmer, 1991; Morford and Emerson, 1999; McManus et al., 2006; Tribovillard et al., 2006). Most of the soluble uranyl (U^{VI}) carbonate ions that are reduced to insoluble uraninite (U^{IV}) 155 or U^{III}) under oxygen-depleted conditions in pore waters diffuse from the water column into the sedi-156 ment (Barnes and Cochran, 1990; Klinkhammer and Palmer, 1991; Morford and Emerson, 1999; 157 Zheng et al., 2002). Uraninite precipitates on any substrate within marine sediments, including detrital 158 material and carbonate shells of foraminiferal tests, resulting in a co-variation of authigenic U levels of 159 bulk sediments and foraminiferal coatings (Boiteau et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2017). 160

161

Owing to the very low U concentrations within the carbonate lattice of foraminiferal shells (<~20 162 nmol mol⁻¹) (Russell et al., 2004; Yu and Elderfield, 2007; Yu et al., 2008; Raitzsch et al., 2011) com-163 pared to those measured on non-reductively cleaned bulk (carbonate lattice and authigenic coating) 164 foraminiferal shells (up to 700 nmol mol⁻¹) (Boiteau et al., 2012; Gottschalk et al., 2016b; Lear et al., 165 166 2016), the U/Ca ratio of bulk foraminifera obtained by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry 167 (ICP-MS) are dominated by U/Ca ratios of authigenic coatings. As the thickness of the shells and the 168 size of the foraminifera may have varied over time (Barker and Elderfield, 2002) and may have had an 169 impact on foraminiferal U/Ca ratios, it was suggested that normalization to manganese (Mn) might alleviate morphological biases (Gottschalk et al., 2016b). Under oxic conditions, Mn(II) is oxidised 170 and precipitates as insoluble Mn(IV) or Mn(III) oxyhydroxides (Calvert and Pedersen, 1996). Under 171 reducing conditions, these Mn oxides dissolve releasing Mn(II) that may be precipitated as Mn-172 carbonates below the anoxic boundary, or diffuse upward to the oxic zone, where it can be recycled 173 (Froelich et al., 1979; Tribovillard et al., 2006). As foraminiferal tests in marine sediments act as a 174 nucleus for the accumulation of both solid U- and Mn-phases, they were found to accumulate as in 175 coatings inside and/or outside of the foraminiferal shell (Pena et al., 2005, 2008; Hasenfratz et al., 176 2016; Detlef et al., 2019). Foraminiferal U/Mn ratios, along with U/Ca ratios (Boiteau et al., 2012), 177 were hence suggested to be sensitive to and indicative of changes in bottom water oxygenation in ma-178 179 rine sediments (Gottschalk et al., 2016b; Chen et al., 2017; Detlef et al., 2019).

180

However, Chen et al. (2017) do not find a close relationship between core-top epibenthic foraminiferal U/Mn ratios and bottom water $[O_2]$. This may not be surprising, because the redox-cycling of U was suggested to be closely linked to that of Fe (Barnes and Cochran, 1990; Zheng et al., 2002), and hence occurs a few centimeters below the sediment-water interface, and may thus not be recorded by core-

185 top foraminifera. This becomes evident in the tandem analyses of planktonic foraminiferal coatings and pore-waters in multi-cores from a well-oxygenated setting performed by Skinner et al. (2019), 186 which show that for miniferal Mn/Ca ratios track the pore-water Mn^{2+} concentration (with enrichment 187 of both below the anoxic boundary), while foraminiferal U/Ca ratios track the loss of U from pore-188 waters through precipitation of U-compounds in oxygen-depleted sub-surface sediments (slightly low-189 190 er than the zone of Mn accumulation). These findings emphasise a separation of early diagenetic reac-191 tions involving U and Mn in sub-surface sediments (Froelich et al., 1979). This is consistent with findings of Detlef et al. (2019), who observe a correlation of foraminiferal U/Ca and Mn/Ca ratios in the 192 Bering Sea, suggesting the accumulation of Mn in authigenic or recrystallized carbonate phases in 193 for a miniferal coatings, possibly under anoxic conditions. The authors suggest that the increase in U 194 195 accumulation over Mn accumulation in foraminiferal coatings in this setting is proportional to diagenetic alteration, and hence possibly dependent on bottom water [O₂] conditions. In contrast, Boiteau et 196 al. (2012) show an anticorrelation of foraminiferal U/Ca and Mn/Ca in foraminiferal samples from the 197 Southeast Atlantic, emphasising different oxic and anoxic pathways of diagenetic precipitation of solid 198 199 U- and Mn-phases. Further investigation is needed to fully understand the mechanisms driving the U/Mn proxy. Nonetheless, despite the different processes driving U- and Mn precipitation on forami-200 201 niferal shell, there is a strong connection to redox-chemical cycling in sub-marine sediments that is in 202 turn tightly coupled to the availability of oxygen in bottom waters (Boiteau et al., 2012; Gottschalk et 203 al., 2016b; Chen et al., 2017; Detlef et al., 2019; Skinner et al., 2019). In our study, we analyse the U 204 enrichment in authigenic coatings on several foraminiferal species, and report the associated U/Ca and 205 U/Mn ratios.

206

207 The foraminiferal record of redox-sensitive elements may be influenced by post-depositional deepening of the anoxic boundary, which may cause precipitated U compounds to be oxidised leading to a 208 "burn-down" effect (Zheng et al., 2002; Kasten et al., 2003; McManus et al., 2005). As we find high 209 sedimentation rates of 10 to 15 cm kyr⁻¹ during MIS 3 and 6, we assume that the observed U/Ca and 210 U/Mn ratios represent signals that mostly formed in equilibrium with bottom waters, with little over-211 prints from non-steady state processes. We argue that the temporal offset between our redox-sensitive 212 213 proxy changes and contemporaneous shifts in other foraminiferal proxies during past glacials is limited to a maximum of 500-1000 yr, assuming that oxygen penetration depths into sub-surface sedi-214 ments were of the order of $\sim 5-7$ cm or lower during past glacials. This is supported by a good agree-215 ment of foraminiferal U/Ca and U/Mn ratios with other bottom water oxygenation proxies and ventila-216 217 tion age changes over the last glacial cycle at the core site (Gottschalk et al., 2016b; Skinner et al., 218 2019).

219

U/Ca- and U/Mn analyses were performed on the planktonic foraminifer *Globigerina bulloides* (20-30
 specimens; 250-300 μm size fraction) and *Globorotalia inflata* (20-30 specimens; >212 μm size fraction)

- tion) for MIS 6 and Termination (T) II, and on G. bulloides (20-30 specimens; 250-300 µm size frac-222 tion) and the benthic foraminifer Uvigerina spp. (5-15 specimens; 250-300 µm size fraction) for MIS 223 224 3 and TI. Prior to ICP-MS analyses, the foraminiferal samples were cleaned by clay removal and silicate picking (Barker et al., 2003; Boiteau et al., 2012). The reproducibility of U/Ca and U/Mn ratios of 225 replicate samples is within 30 nmol mol⁻¹ and 0.08 mmol mol⁻¹ (n=6) (1 σ), respectively.
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- 227

3.1.2. Epibenthic-deep infaunal for a miniferal δ^{13} C gradients 228

- The benthic foraminifer *Globobulimina affinis* is thought to actively migrate towards the low-oxygen 229 230 microhabitat near or at the anoxic boundary within marine sub-surface sediments (Geslin et al., 2004), 231 and has therefore a deep infaunal habitat (Corliss and Emerson, 1990; McCorkle et al., 1990). The 232 δ^{13} C offset of *G. affinis* from bottom water (i.e., from the supposedly epibenthic foraminifer *Cibicidoides kullenbergi*), $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$, has been proposed to record the depletion of pore water $\delta^{13}C$ due to 233 organic carbon respiration. This is thought to be controlled by bottom water oxygen diffusion into the 234 235 sediment that is a function of bottom water [O₂] itself (McCorkle and Emerson, 1988; McCorkle et al., 1990; Hoogakker et al., 2015). We use the $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C-bottom water [O₂] calibration of Hoogakker et al. 236 (2015) to obtain quantitative estimates of bottom water $[O_2]$ at our core sites during the past two gla-237 238 cial periods.
- 239

We have performed stable isotopic analyses on G. affinis (Ga) and C. kullenbergi (Ck) on one to four 240 241 specimens of the >150 µm size fraction. The analysed Ck specimens refer to the sensu lato-242 morphotype as illustrated in Gottschalk et al. (2016a). The samples were measured on Finnigan Δ + and Elementar Isoprime mass spectrometers at the LSCE in Gif-sur-Yvette (France). Prior to the anal-243 yses, foraminifera were rinsed with methanol, ultrasonicated for 10 s, dried at room temperature, and 244 finally roasted under vacuum at ~380°C for 45 min to remove contaminant organic phases or detritus. 245

246

The oxygen and carbon isotopic shell composition is expressed as δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C in % versus Vienna 247 Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB). VPDB is defined with respect to the National Bureau of Standards 248 (NBS)-19 calcite standard ($\delta^{18}O = -2.20$ ‰ and $\delta^{13}C = +1.95$ ‰) (Coplen, 1988). The mean external 249 reproducibility of our carbonate standards is $\sigma=0.05\%$ (δ^{18} O) and $\sigma=0.03\%$ (δ^{13} C), and the measured 250 NBS-18 δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values are -23.2± 0.2 % VPDB and -5.0±0.1 % VPDB, respectively. 251

252

253 3.2. Deep South Atlantic carbonate ion saturation as an indicator of the Atlantic overturning 254 'geometry'

- 255 Partial sedimentary dissolution proxies, such as the benthic-to-planktonic (Be/Pl) foraminiferal ratio, planktonic foraminifer abundances or the planktonic foraminiferal fragmentation, are sensitive to the 256 257 carbonate saturation (i.e., corrosiveness) of deep South Atlantic bottom waters (Barker and Diz, 2014;
- 258 Gottschalk et al., 2015a, 2018). We have normalised and averaged these three proxy records from our

- study sites for each glacial period in order to obtain the 'carbonate saturation index' (Gottschalk et al.,
- 260 2015a). This index qualitatively reflects changes in carbonate saturation at our study site, which is
- 261 mainly driven by the southward advance of high- $[CO_3^{2-}]$ NADW (Gottschalk et al., 2015a). However,
- 262 given nonlinearities of processes affecting this proxy (such as changes in water mass end-members,
- local sedimentation rate and sediment porosity) it does not reflect changes in the strength of the AM-
- 264 OC, in particular during different time intervals.
- 265

266 Be/Pl ratios, planktonic foraminifer abundances and the foraminifer fragmentation were determined by sedimentary census counts of a sample aliquot of the $>150 \mu$ m-fraction (CLIMAP project members, 267 1984). At least 300 planktonic foraminifera were counted for each sample, which also allowed an es-268 269 timation of sea surface temperature (SST) changes at the core site based on planktonic foraminiferal 270 assemblages and the Southern Ocean calibration of Haddam et al. (2016). The abundance of planktonic foraminifera is expressed as number per gram dry bulk sediment (>150 μ m), while the fragmenta-271 tion represents the percent fraction of planktonic foraminifer fragments (when larger than half a bro-272 273 ken shell) of the total abundance of planktonic foraminifera and fragments. The reproducibility of reported planktonic foraminifer abundances, planktonic foraminifer fragmentation and the Be/Pl ratio 274 has been inferred from 15 duplicate counts, and amounts to (1 σ =) 6000 g⁻¹, 1.9% and 0.014, respec-275 276 tively.

277

278 **3.3.** Opal as an indicator for export production

The sedimentary biogenic silica (opal) content in our study cores was quantified by Fourier Transform 279 Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIRS; Vogel et al., 2016) using a Vertex 70 FTIR-spectrometer (Bruker Op-280 281 tics Inc.) at the University of Bern. Repeating the analyses of parts of the record in MIS 3 and MIS 6 indicate the robustness of relative changes in sedimentary opal. However, absolute values may differ 282 from wet-chemical opal analyses during MIS 3 (Gottschalk et al., 2016b) and by 4.5 ± 1.6 % (n=55) 283 across different FTIRS sample batches during MIS 6 (Supplementary Fig. S1). This may be associated 284 with a bias related to increased water content of marine samples on FTIR spectra (Vogel et al., 2016) 285 286 that we were not able to eliminate entirely from the samples despite several precautionary measures. Because absorbed water in the samples biases the opal content towards higher values, we have cor-287 rected all individual datasets onto those opal records with the lowest absolute values (based on calcu-288 289 lated offsets in overlapping sections, Supplementary Fig. S1).

290

291 3.4. Ice-rafted detritus as an indicator of sea ice and/or iceberg export

The abundance of IRD was assessed alongside the census counts of fragmented shells and planktonic and benthic foraminifera (see section 3.2. above). It is reported as percentage with respect to the total number of sediment grains (including foraminifera and fragments). The reproducibility of estimated IRD percentages is within 1.5% (1σ , n=15).

297 **3.5.** Chronology

298 Chronological control of sediment core MD07-3076Q younger than 27 kyr BP is based on calibrated 299 radiocarbon ages of mono-specific planktonic foraminifera samples, which have been adjusted for variations in surface ocean reservoir ages (Skinner et al., 2010). The age models of cores MD07-300 301 3076Q (i.e., for MIS 3) and MD07-3077 (i.e., for TII and MIS 6) are based on a stratigraphic align-302 ment of abundance peaks of G. bulloides with maxima in Antarctica air-temperature, represented by 303 peaks of the EPICA (European Project for Ice Coring in Antarctica) Dome C (EDC) &D Antarctic icecore record (Jouzel et al., 2007) (Fig. 2). This approach assumes that temperature-sensitive G. 304 305 *bulloides* abundance variations at our South Atlantic core site and Antarctic air-temperatures (at EDC) 306 co-vary. We therefore take the age model for >27 kyr BP for our core site from a previous study that 307 used this approach (Channell et al., 2017) with minor revision of three tiepoints during MIS 6 (encir-308 cled symbols in Fig. 2a), in order to produce a better match of G. bulloides variations with Antarctica 309 air-temperature (The depths of two of these tiepoints (174.6 and 177.4 kyr) were shifted 20 cm to-310 wards the top of the core, and the tiepoint at \sim 2490 cm was shifted by 1 kyr towards older ages). Our simple approach is consistent with another age model approach that has been applied to study millen-311 nial-scale variability at our core site based on the first time derivative of EDC δD , as demonstrated in 312 Gottschalk et al. (2015a). During Termination II, we use the age control points of Gottschalk et al. 313 314 (2016a) that are based on an alignment of abundance variations of Neogloboquadrina pachyderma 315 with EDC δD . Although this age model approach may deviate from one based on G. bulloides abun-316 dance variations (cf. Fig. 2), these age uncertainties are not relevant for the objectives of this paper.

317

Resulting sedimentation rates range between 5 cm kyr⁻¹ during the last deglaciation and 15 cm kyr⁻¹ 318 during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (Fig. 2). We apply a 700 yr ad-hoc-error for each of our planktonic abun-319 dance-based tiepoints (not considering absolute age uncertainties of the EDC chronology of up to 2400 320 321 yr in MIS 3 and 3000 yr in MIS 6), which translates into a relative age uncertainty of 1700±500 yr during MIS 3 and 1800±800 yr during MIS 6 and TII with respect to the Antarctic AICC2012 ice age 322 323 scale (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013). These age uncertainties were estimated based on Monte 324 Carlo simulations with the Bayesian software package Bchron (Haslett and Parnell, 2008), and consider potential sedimentation rate changes in between our selected tiepoints. Although the millennial-325 scale accuracy of our age model is limited, circumstantial support for our age model alignment comes 326 from benthic (*Cibicidoides* sp.) δ^{18} O analyses. During both MIS 3 and MIS 6, we observe a good 327 agreement on millennial time scales between the benthic δ^{18} O records at our sub-Antarctic Atlantic 328 site and sediment core MD01-2444 from the Iberian margin in the North Atlantic (Skinner et al., 2007; 329 Fig. 2; 2.6 km water depth, Margari et al., 2010), although both records are on entirely independent 330 agescales. Benthic δ^{18} O records are not per se expected to co-vary in the Atlantic (given the finite 331 timescale of transport/mixing in the ocean, e.g., Skinner and Shackleton, 2005). However, the fact that 332

they broadly parallel each other during *both* glacial intervals lends credibility to our chronostratigra-phy.

335

336 **3.6.** Antarctic ice core CO_{2,atm} data

In order to evaluate the possible influence of changes in deep ocean respired carbon change at our 337 study sites on CO_{2.atm}, we compare available high-resolution CO_{2.atm} records (Bereiter et al., 2015) with 338 our marine proxy data on millennial timescales. The mean temporal resolution of the available ice core 339 340 CO_{2.atm} data covering MIS 3 (~160±130 yr, n=279) (Bereiter et al., 2012; Ahn and Brook, 2014) is much higher than during MIS 6 (~1400 \pm 700 yr, *n*=45) (Petit et al., 1999; Schneider et al., 2013), ren-341 dering a comparison of the CO_{2.atm} variability during MIS 6 to our centennially resolved (220±70 yr, 342 n=220) proxy data problematic. In order to circumvent this potential limitation, millennial-scale 343 CO_{2.atm} variations may be predicted by taking advantage of the tight relationship between the Antarctic 344 temperature proxy δD and CO_{2,atm} (Petit et al., 1999; Fischer et al., 2010). We obtain a linear regres-345 346 sion between EDC δD (smoothed by a 500 yr-running average; Jouzel et al., 2007) and CO_{2 atm} during MIS 3 (63-32 kyr BP) and MIS 6 (184-134.5 kyr BP) using the compilation of Bereiter et al. (2015) 347 (Fig. 3). Our MIS 3 regression shows a correlation coefficient of R^2 =0.64) (p<0.05), whereas R^2 for the 348 MIS 6 regression is lower (R^2 =0.41, p<0.05, excluding two outliers; Fig. 3). Both are statistically sig-349 nificant. The resulting 2_σ-uncertainty of the predicted CO_{2.atm} (hereafter referred to as CO_{2.atm-PRED}) is 350 351 10 ppm and 12 ppm, respectively (Fig. 3). Given the low resolution of CO_{2.atm} data during MIS 6 (Petit et al., 1999; Bereiter et al., 2015), we consider our predicted MIS 6 CO_{2,atm} data as a reasonable first-352 order approximation of true CO_{2.atm} variability during that time period. However, high-resolution 353 354 CO_{2.atm} data from Antarctic ice cores during MIS 6 are needed to test the reliability of this approach.

355

356 **4. Results**

357 4.1. Changes in bottom water oxygenation

358 We observe systematic change in the enrichment of uranium in authigenic coatings of foraminifera 359 with past variations in Antarctic temperature and CO_{2.atm} (Fig. 4). Bulk foraminifer U/Mn- and U/Ca ratios closely resemble each other both during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (Supplementary Fig. S2). If forami-360 niferal coating U and Mn enrichment is primarily driven by precipitation under anoxic versus oxic 361 conditions (uraninite and Mn-oxides), respectively, bulk foraminifer U/Ca- and Mn/Ca ratios are ex-362 363 pected to anti-correlate (Boiteau et al., 2012). If their enrichment occurs below the anoxic boundary, they are expected to correlate with one another (Detlef et al., 2019; Skinner et al., 2019). U/Ca- and 364 365 Mn/Ca ratios of our planktonic foraminifer samples show a statistically significant positive regression slope (G. bulloides: n=96; G. inflata: n=237; Supplementary Fig. S2), suggesting that they were gov-366 367 erned by similar processes. In contrast, Uvigerina spp. do not show a strong relationship between U and Mn enrichment (if at all a slight anti-correlation), potentially highlighting the opposing redox-368 369 behaviour of these two elements. However, irrespective of whether Mn/Ca and U/Ca are correlated or anti-correlated, relative changes in the foraminiferal U/Ca- and U/Mn ratios agree (Supplementary Fig.
S2), suggesting that the redox-sensitive U precipitation is the main control of the observed changes in
foraminiferal U/Ca- and U/Mn ratios.

373

During MIS 3 and TI, G. bulloides and Uvigerina spp. U/Mn ratios and the $\delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$ gradient show 374 marked variations during strong Antarctic warming events (AIM 8, 12, 14, 16/17), as well as during 375 the more subdued AIM 6 and 7 (sensu EPICA Community Members 2006; Fig. 4, 5). Both bottom 376 water oxygenation records parallel changes in CO_{2.atm} levels, indicating oxygen-rich bottom waters in 377 the deep sub-Antarctic Atlantic during rising CO_{2,atm}, and vice versa (Fig. 4, 5). The relative change in 378 G. bulloides and Uvigerina spp. U/Mn levels correlates with the magnitude of parallel CO_{2 atm} varia-379 tions (Fig. 6a). During the penultimate glacial period (e.g., AIM 6vi to i), changes in G. inflata U/Mn 380 381 ratios are similar to Antarctic temperature variations (sensu Margari et al. 2010; Fig. 4, 5). Decreases in G. inflata U/Mn levels during Antarctic warming events coincide with predicted increases in CO2 atm 382 383 during MIS 6 (Fig. 4, 5).

384

385 To specify, we estimated the maximum magnitude of foraminiferal U/Mn change during intervals of Antarctic warming as given in Margari et al. (2010) and link that with maximum parallel rise in 386 CO_{2.atm} that we consider to be associated with it (Fig. 5). These intervals do not necessarily fully agree. 387 In fact, during intervals DO14, DO16/17, 6iv and 6ii, the U/Mn maximum occurs slightly later than 388 the onset of Antarctic warming (Fig. 5f). Similarly, intervals of rising CO_{2.atm} levels during MIS 3 389 (e.g., DO14 and DO16/17) may last slightly longer than the period of rising temperatures over Antarc-390 391 tica (Fig. 5g). We find that the relationship between the two agrees during both glacial periods (Fig. 392 6a).

393

Distinct excursions of G. affinis δ^{13} C from C. kullenbergi δ^{13} C during MIS 3 (Supplementary Fig. S3) 394 indicate that bottom water [O₂] change in parallel with variations in foraminiferal U/Mn amounts to 395 110±50 µmol kg⁻¹ on average (Fig. 4; Gottschalk et al., 2016b). Although the U/Mn proxy seems to 396 provide the most consistent pattern of variability between the two glacials, its agreement with $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck}$ 397 $_{Ga}$ -based bottom water [O₂] variations is poor (Fig. 4). As the $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$ proxy is based on the *aerobic* 398 respiration of organic matter in marine sub-surface sediments, one can surmise that strong carbon 399 400 fluxes to the sea floor may have caused *anaerobic* organic matter degradation in sub-surface sediments 401 to severely bias the proxy. This might have been the case during MIS 6, but not during MIS 3. Furthermore, the $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$ proxy relies on an accurate representation of pore-water $\delta^{13}C$ at the anoxic 402 boundary in sub-surface sediments via the deep-infaunal benthic foraminifera G. affinis, and of bottom 403 water δ^{13} C levels in bottom waters by the benthic foraminifer C. kullenbergi. Either or both of these 404 conditions might not have been met during MIS 6: firstly, Globobulimina species and other deep in-405 406 faunal benthic foraminifera were shown to be capable of denitrification, and can hence thrive signifi-

- cantly below the anoxic boundary, where pore water δ^{13} C is reduced independently of [O₂] (Risgaard-407 Petersen et al., 2006; Piña-Ochoa et al., 2010; Glock et al., 2019); and secondly, C. kullenbergi was 408 suggested to thrive and possibly prefer slightly infaunal habitats with lower δ^{13} C than in bottom waters 409 (Gottschalk et al., 2016a). Along with large intra-species δ^{13} C variability and potential vital effects of 410 both benthic foraminifer species, as well as carbonate dissolution changing the pore-water $\delta^{13}C$ gradi-411 ent, these processes may have conspired to cause an insensitivity of the $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C proxy to bottom water 412 $[O_2]$ changes during MIS 6. The discrepancy of our MIS 6 $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$ data underlines possible differ-413 ences in glacial climate background conditions but also emphasizes the need for further work investi-414 gating the controls on both the $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ck-Ga}$ and U/Mn redox proxies under a wide range of depositional 415 and hydrographic settings. 416
- 417

418 4.2. Changes in the carbonate saturation state of the deep sub-Antarctic Atlantic Ocean

The carbonate saturation index (and all individual partial sedimentary dissolution proxies; Supplemen-419 tary Fig. S4) exhibits several minima during MIS 3 and MIS 6 that indicate the presence of corrosive 420 bottom waters in the deep sub-Antarctic Atlantic, likely of southern origin (Fig. 5; Gottschalk et al., 421 2015a). This is also consistent with quantitative bottom water $[CO_3^{2-}]$ variations at the study site dur-422 423 ing MIS 3 (Supplementary Fig. S4; Gottschalk et al., 2015a). The saturation index minima are paralleled by gradually decreasing foraminiferal U/Mn ratios (Fig. 5), and coincides with minima in epiben-424 thic foraminiferal δ^{13} C at the deep Iberian Margin (Fig. 7; Skinner et al., 2007; Margari et al., 2010). 425 The duration of northern-hemisphere stadials was suggested to be expressed in the length of parallel 426 Antarctic warming (Margari et al., 2010). By construction, SST at the core site closely varies with 427 Antarctic temperature, and we hence compare the duration of Antarctic warming, i.e. the length of 428 429 northern-hemisphere stadials, with the maximum amplitude of foraminiferal U/Mn change that we 430 consider to be associated with it (Fig. 5; Margari et al., 2010). We find that the magnitude of change in foraminiferal U/Mn ratios during both glacial periods linearly correlates with the duration of northern-431 432 hemisphere stadial conditions, in a similar fashion (Fig. 6b).

433

The presence of corrosive bottom waters at our core site (i.e., low saturation indices) also parallels intervals of rising $CO_{2,atm}$ levels (Fig. 5). Relying on MIS 6 $CO_{2,atm-PRED}$ levels and ice core observations during MIS 3 (Bereiter et al., 2015), we observe a good correlation between the duration of these stadials and the magnitude of concomitant $CO_{2,atm}$ increase (Fig. 6c). No significant difference in the relationship between the two parameters during MIS 3 and MIS 6 can be identified (Fig. 6c)..

439

440 **4.3.** Changes in opal percentages

441 During MIS 3 and TI, changes in sedimentary opal percentages in MD07-3076Q broadly co-vary with
442 EDC dust fluxes (Fig. 4; Gottschalk et al., 2016b). This relationship could suggest an influence of

443 aeolian dust-driven iron fertilization on nutrient utilization and export production in the sub-Antarctic

Zone during the last glacial period (Martin, 1990; Anderson et al., 2014b; Lamy et al., 2014; MartínezGarcía et al., 2014; Gottschalk et al., 2016b). In contrast, during MIS 6 and TII, the link between opal
percentages and EDC dust variations is rather poor on millennial timescales, and significant offsets
exist between changes in the sedimentary opal content at our study site and the EDC dust flux record
(Fig. 4).

449

450 4.4 Ice-rafted debris

The abundance of IRD in our study core during the first half of MIS 3 is low but progressively in-451 creases towards the end of MIS 3, with pronounced peaks during North Atlantic stadials, and periods 452 of Antarctic warming (Fig. 7). IRD percentages were generally higher during MIS 6 than during MIS 453 454 3, and show a more distinct response during stadials (Fig. 7). Kanfoush et al. (2000) interpreted IRD peaks in the South Atlantic as indication of significant iceberg fluxes to the South Atlantic. In contrast, 455 Nielsen et al. (2007) highlighted that a large proportion of the IRD material in the South Atlantic iden-456 tified by Kanfoush et al. (2000) was likely transported from the South Sandwich and Bouvet Islands 457 458 via sea ice.

459

460 **5. Discussion**

461 5.1. Changes in deep South Atlantic carbon sequestration during the last two glacial periods

462 Our foraminiferal U/Mn records spanning MIS 3 and MIS 6 indicate increases in bottom water oxy-463 genation in the deep South Atlantic during North Atlantic stadials (only partly supported by the $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{Ga-Ck}$ – bottom water [O₂] proxy in MIS 6), which indicate changes in the respired carbon content 464 of the deep South Atlantic (Gottschalk et al., 2016b; this study). During MIS 3, these occur in parallel 465 466 to reductions in the sedimentary opal content, rising SSTs and increased ice-rafting/-export (Fig. 5; Gottschalk et al., 2016b; this study). This also applies to MIS 6, with the exception of distinct offsets 467 between variations in opal, Antarctic dust fluxes and deep South Atlantic bottom water oxygen chang-468 469 es (Fig. 4).

470

471 In MIS 3, variations in the degree of iron fertilization via aeolian dust supply were suggested to control export production, and hence opal fluxes, in the sub-Antarctic Atlantic (Anderson et al., 2014a; 472 Martínez-García et al., 2014), contributing to millennial-scale bottom water oxygen and respired car-473 474 bon changes at depth (Gottschalk et al., 2016b). However, whether the same mechanism operated dur-475 ing MIS 6 remains ambiguous (Fig. 4). The observed offsets may be caused by sediment winnowing 476 or -focussing, or sedimentary opal percentages may in fact poorly represent annually integrated export 477 production (of all taxonomic groups) in the sub-Antarctic Atlantic. Indeed, the opal content in marine 478 sediments was shown to be influenced by the availability of silicic acid, Antarctic sea ice extent, ecosystem structures and the degree of diatom silicification causing variable Si:C ratios of exported mate-479 rial (Chase et al., 2015). Irrespective of whether our opal in MIS 6 faithfully records export produc-480

481 tion, we argue based on our proxy records and earlier findings (Gottschalk et al., 2016b) that increased 482 oxygen levels and decreased respired carbon content in the deep South Atlantic during intervals of 483 Antarctic warming did not occur without the contribution from increased ventilation of the deep Southern Ocean (e.g., Skinner et al., 2010, 2014; Gottschalk et al., 2015b, 2016b; Jaccard et al., 2016). 484 Southern Ocean ventilation was likely accompanied by increased air-sea CO₂ equilibration and adjust-485 ed surface ocean buoyancy forcing in the Antarctic Divergence Zone of the Southern Ocean, driving 486 up both CO_{2.atm} levels and deep Southern Ocean oxygenation (Anderson et al., 2009; Skinner et al., 487 2010, 2014; Gottschalk et al., 2015b, 2016b; Jaccard et al., 2016). These changes have likely also af-488 fected deep-ocean respired carbon content in other ocean basins, such as the Atlantic and the Pacific 489 Ocean (e.g., Menviel et al., 2015b, 2018; Umling and Thunell, 2017; Chalk et al., 2019). Hence, we 490 suggest that similar mechanisms of (southern high-latitude) oceanic CO₂ release might have operated 491 during the last two glacial period, which is supported by similar patterns of reconstructed bottom water 492 493 oxygenation change at our study site and parallel CO_{2.atm} rise observed and predicted from Antarctic ice core proxy data during MIS 3 and MIS 6, respectively (Fig. 6a). Our results therefore predict much 494 495 higher variability in CO_{2,atm} during MIS 6 than current observations from Antarctic ice cores convey.

496

The occurrence of saturation index minima in the deep South Atlantic during intervals of increasing 497 498 bottom water oxygenation (Fig. 6) indicates a shallower cell and/or reduced southward advection of 499 NADW, favouring the presence of southern-sourced (carbonate ion-undersaturated) water masses at 500 our core site, as suggested previously (Gottschalk et al., 2015a). This is supported by an agreement of our saturation index with epibenthic δ^{13} C- (Skinner et al., 2007; Margari et al., 2010) and SST changes 501 at the Iberian Margin (Martrat et al., 2007; Fig. 7), the high-resolution²³¹Pa/²³⁰Th record from Bermu-502 503 da Rise (Henry et al., 2016) and a carbonate saturation record from the deep Cape Basin (Gottschalk et 504 al., 2018), which reflect similar AMOC changes in the Atlantic basin. This agreement corroborates a strong causal link between bottom water [O₂] changes in the deep South Atlantic and end-member 505 changes of southern-sourced water masses related to variations in air-sea gas exchange- and/or the 506 507 ventilation rate, which may be linked to variations in the southward extent of NADW.

508

However, this may be challenged by the observation of increasing bottom water oxygenation (i.e., 509 decreasing respired carbon levels) in deep South Atlantic during periods of rising CO_{2 atm} levels, de-510 spite low [CO₃²⁻] levels (i.e., saturation index minima) (Fig. 5), whereas a positive correlation between 511 bottom water [CO₃²⁻] and -oxygenation is expected. Our saturation index in fact shows an initial drop 512 at the stadial onset and a subsequent gradual increase towards the end of the stadial (Fig. 5). Changes 513 in bottom water $[O_2]$ and $[CO_3^{2-}]$ may be affected by different processes operating on different time-514 scales, involving not only changes in the amount of respired carbon, but also changing northern- and 515 southern-sourced end-member signatures and/or -contributions. A decrease in the contribution of 516 northern-sourced water masses might have strongly affected bottom water [CO32-] levels at the onset 517

- 518 of stadial conditions, when differences in bottom water $[O_2]$ between northern- and southern-sourced
- 519 water masses might have been small, thus explaining the absence of abrupt changes in our U/Mn-
- 520 based bottom water [O₂] record. *During* North Atlantic stadials, however, increasing equilibration of
- 521 southern-sourced water masses with the atmosphere and increased AABW formation might have rap-
- idly affected bottom water $[O_2]$ but more slowly $[CO_3^{2^2}]$, because the carbonate system has an order of
- 523 magnitude longer equilibration time as compared to non-dissociating gases. Further analyses are re-
- 524 quired to test this proposition.
- 525

526 5.2. Inter-hemispheric climate variability and changes in deep-ocean carbon storage during the 527 last two glacial periods

- The exact mechanisms that connect the hemispheres over deglaciations or millennial-scale climate events, and their implications for ocean respired carbon storage and $CO_{2,atm}$ change, remain difficult to unravel. However, insights into the controls on deep-ocean respired carbon storage in the deep South Atlantic may evolve from a comparison of millennial events occurring under different background climate states during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (sections 5.2.1. and 5.2.2 below) and from a comparison of our proxy data with numerical model outputs (sections 5.2.3. and 5.2.4).
- 534

535 5.2.1. Role of glacial background conditions

We observe slightly higher foraminiferal U/Mn ratios (indicative of lower [O₂] and higher respired 536 carbon levels) during MIS 6 (mean U/Mn=1.12 mmol mol⁻¹, 183-143.5 kyr BP) than during MIS 3 537 (mean U/Mn=0.75 mmol mol⁻¹, 63-32 kyr BP) (Fig. 4). This may be associated with differences in the 538 foraminiferal species used for the U/Mn analyses, but a few G. bulloides and Uvigerina spp. analyses 539 540 during MIS 6 show agreement or slightly higher values than the G. inflata data (Fig. 4), which supports our notion. Although this observation needs to be tested with other proxy data, our data suggests 541 542 overall more intense respired carbon sequestration in the deep South Atlantic during MIS 6 compared to MIS 3. In contrast, our $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C-derived [O₂] data suggest similar bottom water oxygenation, and 543 hence respired carbon levels, during these two glacial periods (Fig. 4), but as mentioned above this 544 $[O_2]$ proxy may be biased during MIS 6. On the basis of North Atlantic benthic $\delta^{13}C$ data, Margari et 545 al. (2010) argued for a shallower Atlantic overturning cell during MIS 6 than during MIS 3. This may 546 have promoted an expansion of southern-sourced water masses, and may have hampered mid-depth 547 548 mixing with overlying (northern-sourced) water masses, more so during MIS 6 than during MIS 3, 549 owing to increased distance from rough topography (Adkins, 2013; Ferrari et al., 2014) or an increased 550 density difference between the two. This slightly different water mass structure in the Atlantic and 551 Southern Oceans during MIS 6 may have caused overall increased carbon sequestration in the deep South Atlantic and the Southern Ocean compared to MIS 3, and hence lower CO_{2.atm} levels (Fig. 3). 552 553 This is supported by numerical model simulations that highlight an increased carbon sequestration

potential of the ocean through a combined weakening of the overturning rate of both NADW and
AABW (Menviel et al., 2017; Ödalen et al., 2018).

556

In addition, we find increased variability in IRD supply to the central South Atlantic and overall cooler 557 SST conditions during MIS 6 than during MIS 3 (Fig. 7). Our data are consistent with a more proximal 558 seasonal sea ice edge to the study site and/or an increased production of icebergs, which would sug-559 560 gest more extensive sea ice cover and generally colder conditions in the Southern Ocean during MIS 6 561 (Fig. 7). Along with associated changes in Southern Ocean buoyancy forcing, more extended Antarctic sea ice cover during MIS 6 may have contributed to stronger respired carbon storage during MIS 6 562 compared to MIS 3, as long as this reduced ocean-to-atmosphere CO₂ fluxes (Stephens and Keeling, 563 2000) more than it reduced atmosphere-to-ocean CO₂ fluxes due to diminished biological export pro-564 duction (Kurahashi-Nakamura et al., 2007; Sun and Matsumoto, 2010). Overall, our findings suggest 565 that the difference in glacial boundary conditions, specifically through impacts on water mass geome-566 tries in the Atlantic (as indicated by Iberian margin benthic δ^{13} C values) and Antarctic surface buoy-567 568 ancy forcing (as shown by IRD abundances at our study site) likely accounted for differences in deep 569 ocean carbon storage and CO_{2,atm} background levels during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (Fig. 3).

570

571 5.2.2. Stadial duration and atmospheric CO₂ rise

572 Intervals of rising bottom water oxygenation, and hence decreasing respired carbon levels in the deep South Atlantic, coincide with periods of weakened AMOC, i.e. stadials, during the last two glacial 573 periods (Fig. 4). The tight relationship between the duration of northern-hemisphere stadials and the 574 magnitude of concomitant bottom water oxygen increase at our core site (Fig. 6b) suggests that re-575 576 spired carbon is gradually lost from the deep South Atlantic during AMOC perturbations. The associ-577 ated millennial adjustment timescale may reflect the influence of Southern Ocean vertical mixing and 578 deep-ocean turnover rather than fast (centennial-scale) adjustments in the terrestrial biosphere for instance. The observed link between deep South Atlantic oxygen/respired carbon changes and CO2.atm 579 variations (Fig. 6c) suggests that the time the AMOC remains suppressed largely defines the net CO₂ 580 flux from the ocean to the atmosphere, thus determining the magnitude of CO_{2.atm} increase during sta-581 dials. 582

583

Our interpretation is supported by idealised numerical simulations of stadial periods and parallel CO_{2,atm} change forced by freshwater fluxes to the North Atlantic (see crosses in Fig. 6c; Gottschalk et al., 2019). Although these simulations have different experimental designs, background conditions and forcing functions, the simulated $CO_{2,atm}$ change at the end of stadials is broadly consistent with our observations (Fig. 6c; Schmittner and Galbraith, 2008; Bouttes et al., 2012; Gottschalk et al., 2019), and is largely driven by ocean carbon release (albeit from different ocean reservoirs) with compensatory effects from carbon inventory changes in the terrestrial biosphere (e.g., Marchal et al., 1998; 591 Schmittner and Galbraith, 2008; Bouttes et al., 2012; Menviel et al., 2014). This emphasises that the 592 observed millennial adjustment timescale of $CO_{2,atm}$ in Fig. 6c is consistent with an influence from 593 deep-ocean ventilation (Schmittner and Galbraith, 2008).

594

However, during short stadials, rapid changes in the terrestrial biosphere such as the decline of boreal 595 forests and/or the expansion of southern-hemisphere land vegetation may dominate the atmospheric 596 597 carbon inventory (Köhler et al., 2005; Menviel et al., 2008; Bozbiyik et al., 2011; e.g., Bouttes et al., 2012). This may also be influenced by fast upper-ocean carbon release through SHW strengthening 598 (Menviel et al., 2018) or rapid sea ice changes (Rae et al., 2018). Numerical simulations show that 599 modelled CO_{2,atm} change during short stadials (<700 years) may range between slightly positive and 600 601 negative depending on the interplay between oceanic versus terrestrial processes (Fig. 6c; Gottschalk et al., 2019), while CO_{2.atm} changes observed in the Antarctic ice cores BYRD and Siple Dome were 602 603 suggested to be negligibly small during those intervals (Ahn and Brook, 2014). Two different modes of CO_{2,atm} change during stadials may thus be identified: the first dependent on a more sensitive and 604 605 fast responding terrestrial biosphere or another "reactive" reservoir such as the upper ocean; and the second driven by slowly adjusting ocean processes (i.e., deep-ocean ventilation and -overturning). 606

607

The relationship between the duration of an AMOC perturbation (i.e., stadial) and deep South Atlantic 608 609 respired carbon/oxygen- and CO_{2,atm} change is similar during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (Fig. 6b,c). The rate of 610 respired carbon loss from the deep (southern, high-latitude) ocean during northern-hemisphere stadials 611 was hence not discernibly different during MIS 3 and 6. However, this contrasts with suggested differences in the oceanic settings during the last two glacial periods: It has been suggested that the AMOC 612 was overall weaker during MIS 6, as shown by different baseline benthic δ^{13} C values at the Iberian 613 margin during MIS 3 and MIS 6 (Fig.7f; Margari et al., 2010). The generally weaker AMOC of MIS 6 614 may have resulted from a reduced density of northern-sourced water masses owing to a stronger hy-615 drological cycle in the mid-latitude North Atlantic (Margari et al., 2010). Furthermore, the change in 616 Antarctic temperature and in SST at our core site (Fig. 7b) is much smaller in MIS 6 for a given stadial 617 618 duration than in MIS 3 (Margari et al., 2010), and may suggest weaker AMOC perturbations and less intense Southern Ocean upwelling and deep-ocean ventilation during MIS 6. Additionally, increased 619 IRD abundances at our study site during North Atlantic stadials in MIS 6 imply stronger ice wasting 620 621 and/or -export during periods of Antarctic warming, when compared to MIS 3, which could have had 622 implications for the density structure of the Southern Ocean surface, and hence ocean-atmosphere CO_2 623 fluxes during MIS 3 and MIS 6. However, despite these dynamic and hydrographic differences, we do 624 not resolve any systematic differences in respired carbon loss from the deep sub-Antarctic Atlantic and associated CO_{2,atm} change during the last two glacial periods. Although uncertainties of our estimates 625 are large, in particular with respect to CO_{2,atm} change during MIS 6, this suggests that the rate of 626 Southern Ocean CO₂ outgassing is similar during northern-hemisphere stadials of the last two glacial 627

periods (Fig. 7). However, the degree to which compensatory effects in MIS 6, such as when a larger
respired deep-ocean carbon pool and weaker AMOC/Southern Ocean perturbations are combined,
cause a similar CO_{2.atm} rate of change as in MIS 3 remains unconstrained.

631

632 5.2.3. Comparison with equilibrium climate model simulations

Numerical simulations forced by freshwater hosing in the North Atlantic produce a weakened AMOC-633 scenario (i.e., stadial conditions) that is qualitatively consistent with our observations (Gottschalk et 634 al., 2019). A subset of these freshwater hosing experiments find that changes in Southern Ocean verti-635 cal mixing and -carbon release during AMOC perturbations are the main driver of simulated ocean 636 carbon loss and increase in CO_{2.atm} at that time (Schmittner et al., 2007; Schmittner and Galbraith, 637 2008; Schmittner and Lund, 2015). This is supported by Menviel et al. (2008, 2014, 2015a, 2015b, 638 2018), who highlight that an agreement of simulated and observed CO_{2.atm} changes during stadial peri-639 ods can only be achieved through an increase in AABW formation and Southern Ocean convection. 640 Our proxy data support these model findings and highlight the operation of a bipolar seesaw in deep 641 642 ocean convection between the northern and southern hemispheres ("ventilation seesaw") during the last two glacial periods, which extends the findings of Skinner et al. (2014) to the last two glacial peri-643 644 ods.

645

Intensifications and/or poleward shifts of the SHW were also suggested to occur in parallel with AM-OC perturbations and to increase ocean ventilation and ocean-to-atmosphere CO_2 fluxes, with implications for $CO_{2,atm}$ (Anderson et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2011; Jaccard et al., 2016; Chiang et al., 2018; Pedro et al., 2018). This can be assessed based on numerical simulations that are forced by changes in the SHW, taking advantage of the recent compilation of Gottschalk et al. (2019).

651

652 Model simulations forced by increases in the SHW wind intensity show a CO2,atm rise owing to en-653 hanced Ekman pumping and ocean carbon loss primarily, but not exclusively, from intermediate depths (~500-2000 m) (Gottschalk et al., 2019). These simulations would be consistent with our ob-654 servations, if ocean carbon loss from the deep South Atlantic was non-negligible. With the exception 655 656 of model simulations of Völker and Köhler (2013), numerical models forced by southward shifts of the SHW show a reduction in the surface outcrop area of deep water masses in the Southern Ocean, which 657 decreases the ocean-atmosphere CO₂ flux and therefore lowers CO_{2,atm} levels (Gottschalk et al., 2019). 658 659 These simulations predict increased deep-ocean carbon storage in the South Atlantic during North 660 Atlantic stadials, and would hence contradict our findings.

661

662 In summary, while equilibrium model simulations support our proxy data-based interpretation of an 663 oceanic driver of millennial-scale $CO_{2,atm}$ variations, the relative contributions from Southern Ocean vertical mixing and/or wind-driven Ekman pumping, both potentially representing a Southern Ocean
response to North Atlantic climate anomalies (e.g., Anderson and Carr, 2010), cannot be unraveled.

666

667 5.2.4. Comparison with transient model simulations

To gain more insights into the possible drivers of our deep South Atlantic respired carbon changes, we 668 compare our proxy data with recent transient model simulations of the last early deglaciation (H1) 669 performed with LOVECLIM, an Earth system model of intermediate complexity (Menviel et al., 670 2018). These simulations test the influence of a shutdown of the AMOC on CO_{2,atm} levels (Fig. 8; 671 Menviel et al., 2018) through freshwater supply to the North Atlantic (0.04-0.07 Sv, 19 to 16.2 kyr) 672 and to the Southern Ocean (0.1 Sv, 19 to 15 kyr), as well as a 20%-weakening of the SHW (simulation 673 'LH1'). They also analyse the influence of a surface buoyancy-driven and wind-driven increase in 674 Southern Ocean convection stimulated through additionally prescribing salt fluxes in the Southern 675 Ocean (simulation 'LH1-SO'; -1.5 Sv, 18-18 kyr) or intensifications of the SHW wind stress (simula-676 tion 'LH1-SHW'; 20%-increase, 18.3 to 15 kyr). Simulation 'LH1-SO-SHW' combines changes in 677 678 surface buoyancy and winds and applies both a SHW intensification and negative Southern Ocean freshwater fluxes. 679

680

We derive depth-varying O_2]- and DIC anomalies for H 1 for the South Atlantic (60°W-20°E, 40-681 682 70°S)- and the Southern Ocean (40-70°S) for each of these simulations by referencing the simulated 683 water column profiles from model year 15 ka to background levels at model year 18 ka (Fig. 8a,b), 684 and compare transient changes with our South Atlantic proxy data (Fig. 8c). The simulations show a 3 685 kyr-period of AMOC suppression, which is at the upper end of stadial durations considered here (Fig. 6c). Although these simulations apply transient changes in the orbital parameters and northern-686 hemisphere ice sheet evolution that are appropriate for H1, we assume that the model results provide 687 688 insights into the dynamics during other North Atlantic stadial periods.

689

Simulations LH1-SO and LH1-SO-SHW are characterised by increased AABW formation, and the 690 upwelling of CO₂-rich CDW, which leads to a carbon loss from the deep ocean, both from the South-691 ern and Pacific Oceans, and a simulated CO_{2,atm} rise of 10-20 ppm (see Fig. 3 in Menviel et al., 2018). 692 These findings are qualitatively consistent with our interpretation of the proxy data, although there are 693 694 offsets in absolute bottom water $[O_2]$ anomalies between the model and proxy data (Fig. 8a,b). However, transient changes in simulated bottom water $[O_2]$ in the South Atlantic closely resemble those 695 696 observed in our proxy analyses (Fig. 8c), and is hence consistent with a loss of (respired) carbon from 697 the South Atlantic (Fig. 8d).

698

In simulation LH1, Southern Ocean convection is suppressed due to parallel freshwater hosing in theSouthern Ocean and weakened SHW winds (Menviel et al., 2018). This leads to little change in simu-

701 lated CO_{2.atm} levels owing to a balance between increased ventilation and release of carbon from North Pacific intermediate depths and increased Atlantic carbon storage (Menviel et al., 2018). This is at 702 703 odds with our proxy data and observed CO_{2.atm} change during long stadials (Fig. 8). In the SHW-704 driven simulation, LH1-SHW simulated CO2,atm increases on a centennial timescale, because upper Southern Ocean convection increases and oceanic carbon is rapidly lost primarily from the upper and 705 706 intermediate ocean (Menviel et al., 2018). Its impact on simulated deep-ocean [O₂] and DIC was how-707 ever minimal compared to what our observations suggest (Fig. 8). Although our deep-ocean proxy 708 data cannot rule out a SHW-driven mechanism, they suggest that changes in the SHW geometry have 709 likely not operated alone to change CO_{2 atm}.

710

Overall, simulated geochemical anomalies in the South Atlantic and the Southern Ocean strongly resemble each other (Fig. 8), which suggests that our deep South Atlantic core site may be representative of a wider region of the Southern Ocean. Our proxy data comparison with the transient simulations of Menviel et al. (2018) corroborates our proxy interpretations of a role of Southern Ocean vertical mixing in changes of deep-ocean respired carbon storage, and hence millennial-scale CO_{2,atm} variations, during North Atlantic stadials.

717

718 6. Conclusion

719 We extend existing high-resolution proxy reconstruction of deep South Atlantic bottom water oxygen 720 changes, and by inference variations in respired carbon content, from the last glacial period to MIS 6. 721 Mainly based on sedimentary redox-proxies, we show that during both glacial periods respired carbon 722 levels in the deep South Atlantic changed in parallel with millennial-scale CO2,atm variations. Our ob-723 servations support earlier findings of a contribution of increased Southern Ocean convection and ocean-to-atmosphere CO2 fluxes in the Southern Ocean to increases in millennial-scale CO2,atm con-724 725 centrations, assuming a large enough area of the ocean was similarly affected and the associated ma-726 rine carbon loss was not fully compensated by terrestrial carbon uptake.

727

728 Our foraminiferal U/Mn data suggest that respired carbon storage was overall slightly larger during 729 MIS 6 than during MIS 3 in the deep South Atlantic, possibly due to more expansive southern-sourced water masses and a shallower AMOC cell, more expansive Antarctic sea ice cover and overall colder 730 731 conditions in the Southern Ocean. These glacial differences may have accounted for overall slightly lower observed CO_{2,atm} levels during MIS 6 than during MIS 3. Our findings suggest that glacial back-732 733 ground climate conditions have an impact on marine carbon cycling in the Southern Ocean, for in-734 stance by influencing the extent of Antarctic sea ice (and hence, surface ocean buoyancy forcing in the 735 Southern Ocean).

737 Our proxy data highlight that the magnitude of carbon release from the Southern Ocean was proportional to the duration of the AMOC perturbation. This suggests that the rate of CO_{2.atm} hange during 738 739 long stadial periods was broadly constant, and was primarily set by the millennial timescale for deep 740 ocean adjustment (i.e., ocean mixing/ventilation, Southern Ocean-atmosphere CO_2 fluxes). During long stadials, likely reflecting strong AMOC perturbations, the *duration* of the weakened AMOC may 741 742 have therefore primarily determined the magnitude of net ocean carbon release, and hence the $CO_{2 \text{ atm}}$ rise. However, for shorter stadial periods, processes operating on centennial timescales such as ad-743 justments of land carbon inventories, with contributions from SHW- or sea ice effects on Southern 744 Ocean upper-ocean convection and CO₂ outgassing, may have influenced CO_{2,atm} levels, because they 745 would have overwhelmed the effects of much slower deep-ocean overturning. 746

747

Based on our proxy data and a comparison with existing numerical model simulations, we cannot dis-748 criminate between possible oceanic and atmospheric mechanisms driving a teleconnection between 749 750 Southern Ocean carbon dynamics and North Atlantic climate anomalies, but contributions from both 751 seem likely. A comparison with recent transient model simulations performed with LOVECLIM (Menviel et al., 2018) show the closest model-data agreement for scenarios with increased Southern 752 753 Ocean convection prescribed through Southern Ocean salt fluxes at the surface, rather than SHW-only scenarios. However, whether the prescribed changes in Southern Ocean surface buoyancy forcing are 754 755 realistic and how they are mechanistically linked to North Atlantic climate anomalies remains yet elu-756 sive and needs further study. A better understanding of the atmospheric and oceanic mechanisms by 757 which interhemispheric climate variability affect the Southern Ocean carbon cycle and CO_{2.atm} (for 758 instance through buoyancy-driven Southern Ocean vertical mixing, SHW-driven Ekman pumping, and/or Antarctic sea ice extent) may ultimately emerge from tandem reconstructions of respired car-759 bon reconstruction at intermediate and deep sites throughout the global ocean, and through comparison 760 761 with existing and evolving climate model simulations.

762

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1241 Figures





1243 Fig. 1. Location of study site. Concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC, shaded; Key et al., 2004) in the ocean averaged below 2.5 km water depth. Contours indicate the average seawater dis-1244 solved [O₂] below 2.5 km water depth (Garcia et al., 2014). The location of sediment cores MD07-1245 3076Q and MD07-3077 is indicated by a star. Major fronts are shown as stippled lines from south to 1246 north: Polar Front (dark grey line), sub-Antarctic Front (grey line) and sub-Tropical Front (light grey 1247 1248 line) (Orsi et al., 1995; Sokolov and Rintoul, 2009). The Antarctic Divergence Zone is highlighted by 1249 an orange circumpolar band, representing the region of strong positive air-sea CO₂ fluxes in austral winter in the Southern Ocean at present-day (see maps in Takahashi et al., 2002). 1250 1251



points (grey: ¹⁴C dates, alignment of abundance variations of G. bulloides (orange) and N. pachyderma 1256 (blue) with EPICA Dome C (EDC) δD; Gottschalk et al., 2016a; Channell et al., 2017), (b) abundance 1257 changes of *N. pachyderma*, (c) abundance changes of *G. bulloides*, (d) EDC δD (Jouzel et al., 2007) 1258 1259 shown on the AICC2012 chronology (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013) and (e) C. kullenbergi δ^{18} O records in comparison to mean benthic δ^{18} O records from the Iberian margin (Skinner et al., 1260 2007; MD01-2444; Margari et al., 2010). Lines and envelopes in (b), (c) and (e) show 500 years-1261 running averages and 2σ -uncertainties, respectively. Diamonds at the top of each panel show age 1262 markers obtained by ¹⁴C dating of planktic foraminifera (dark grey) and a stratigraphic alignment of 1263 abundance variations of G. bulloides and N. pachyderma with EDC &D (light grey) (Channell et al., 1264 1265 2017). Encircled symbols show adjusted age markers that differ from the chronology for this core sequence published in Channell et al. (2017), as described in the text. The annotation of Antarctic 1266 1267 warming events (AIM – Antarctic Isotope Maxima) follows EPICA Community Members (2006) for MIS 3 and Margari et al. (2010) for MIS 6. 1268



1272Fig. 3. Prediction of atmospheric CO2 levels (CO2, atm-PRED) during MIS 6 based on δD variations1273in the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. Linear regression model between EDC δD (Jouzel et al.,12742007) and CO2, atm concentrations (Bereiter et al., 2015) for 63-32 kyr BP (MIS 3, orange: CO2, atm-PRED=1275 $1.2\pm 0.1 \times (EDC \ \delta D) + 730 \pm 30)$ and for 183-134.5 kyr BP (MIS 6, green: CO2, atm-PRED=1276 δD)+620±90), excluding two bracketed outliers), used as a transfer function to predict CO2, atm during1277MIS 3 and MIS 6, respectively. Gray symbols show all ice core data from 800-2 kyr BP. Envelopes1278(right) show the 1 σ -uncertainties of the regression models.



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Fig. 4. Deep-ocean oxygenation- and productivity changes in the South Atlantic during TI and 1282 MIS 3 (left, MD07-3076O), and TII and MIS 6 (right, MD07-3077). (a) EDC δD (Jouzel et al., 1283 2007), (b) EDC dust fluxes (grey; Lambert et al., 2012) and sedimentary opal content at our study site 1284 (purple, corrected for incomplete water removal as in Supplementary Fig. S1), (c) difference between 1285 *C. kullenbergi* δ^{13} C (*Ck*) and *G. affinis* δ^{13} C (*Ga*), $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C_{*Ck-Ga*}, and corresponding bottom water [O₂] 1286 after Hoogakker et al. (2015), see Supplementary Fig. S3 for individual benthic foraminifer δ^{13} C rec-1287 ords, (d) U/Mn ratios of G. bulloides (dark brown), Uvigerina spp. (light brown) and G. inflata (or-1288 ange) (cf. foraminiferal U/Ca ratios in Supplementary Fig. S2), (e) observed CO_{2.atm}variations (dark 1289 1290 blue; Bereiter et al., 2015) and CO_{2,atm}variations predicted from EDC δD (grey line with 1σ-envelope; cf. Fig.3) for MIS 3 (left) and MIS 6 (right). Lines and envelopes in (b) to (d) represent 500 yr-running 1291 1292 averages and 1\sigma-uncertainties, respectively. The lower uncertainty range of G. inflata U/Mn is truncated at 0.08 mmol mol⁻¹. Grey bars indicate intervals of rising CO_{2.atm}. 1293 1294



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Fig. 5. Millennial-scale CO_{2.atm} variations compared to changes in carbonate saturation and bot-1297 1298 tom water oxygenation in the deep sub-Antarctic Atlantic during MIS 3 (left, MD07-3076Q) and MIS 6 (right, MD07-3077). (a) Observed (MIS 3: NGRIP members, 2004) and predicted NGRIP 1299 δ^{18} O variations (MIS 6: Barker et al., 2011), (b) EDC δ D (grey; Jouzel et al., 2007) and symbols high-1300 1301 lighting the onset and ends of northern-hemisphere stadials according to Margari et al. (2010) (black), (c) summer sea surface temperatures (green; SST) derived from planktic foraminiferal assemblage 1302 counts in the study cores and the calibration of Haddam et al. (2016), (d) stadial durations (i.e., dura-1303 1304 tion of Antarctic warming) according to Margari et al. (2010), (e) saturation index as defined in Gottschalk et al., (2015a) and shown in Supplementary Fig. S4, (f) authigenic-coating U/Mn ratios of 1305 1306 G. bulloides (dark brown), Uvigerina spp. (light brown) and G. inflata (orange), stars indicate onsets and ends of gradual U/Mn change associated with northern-hemisphere stadials, (g) observed $CO_{2 \text{ atm}}$ 1307 concentrations (dark blue; Bereiter et al., 2015) and CO_{2,atm-PRED} (grey) for MIS 3 (left) and MIS 6 1308 (right), stars indicate onsets and ends of CO_{2,atm} change associated with northern-hemisphere stadials. 1309 1310 Grey bars indicate intervals of rising CO2,atm. . Annotations of Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO)-, Heinrich (H) events and AIMs follow Dansgaard et al. (1993), Hemming (2004), EPICA Community Members 1311 1312 (2006) and Margari et al. (2010), respectively.



Fig. 6. Variations in $CO_{2,atm}$ levels during stadials and associated changes in respired carbon content at our study site. (a) Change in foraminiferal U/Mn versus parallel change in $CO_{2,atm}$ (i.e., based on observations in MIS 3 and our MIS 6 prediction), (b) change in foraminiferal U/Mn ratios versus the duration of northern hemisphere stadials following Margari et al. (2010) and (c) change in $CO_{2,atm}$ (i.e., based on observations in MIS 3 and our MIS 6 prediction) versus the duration of stadial conditions (circles). In (c) we also compare our proxy data with simulated $CO_{2,atm}$ changes during stadials in freshwater hosing experiments in the North Atlantic (crosses; see review of Gottschalk et al., 2019). Data based on *G. inflata*, *Uvigerina* spp. and *G. bulloides* are shown as squares, diamonds and triangles, respectively. Time intervals are annotated as in Fig. 5. AMOC – Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation; SAtl – South Atlantic.



1322 Fig. 7. Comparison of climate variability in the South Atlantic and the North Atlantic Ocean (Iberian margin) during MIS 3 (left) and MIS 6 (right). Sea surface temperature (SST) variability 1323 reconstructed in (a) sediment core MD01-2444 based on alkenone unsaturation indices (annual mean 1324 SST, purple; Martrat et al., 2007) and (b) MD07-3076Q/-3077 based on planktic foraminiferal assem-1325 1326 blage counts (summer SST, green; this study), changes in the abundance of ice-rafted debris (IRD) in (c) MD95-2040 (de Abreu et al., 2003; age model based on Margari et al. 2010) and (d) MD07-1327 3076Q/-3077 (this study), changes in the variability of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circula-1328 tion (AMOC) recorded in (e) epibenthic foraminiferal (C. wuellerstorfi) δ^{13} C changes in core MD01-1329 2444 (2.6 km water depth) (brown; Skinner et al., 2007; Margari et al., 2010), (f) carbonate saturation 1330 indices in core MD07-3076Q/-3077 (green; Gottschalk et al., 2015a; this study), and (g) observed 1331 1332 (dark blue; Bereiter et al., 2015) and predicted CO_{2,atm} levels (grey; this study). Vertical bars highlight intervals of rising CO_{2,atm} concentrations. Solid lines and error envelopes show 500 year-running aver-1333 ages. The error envelopes refer to 1σ -calibration uncertainties: (a) 1.5°C (Martrat et al., 2007), (b) 1334 ~1°C (this study), 1 σ -uncertainties of the IRD counts, i.e., (c) 1.5% (conservative estimate; de Abreu 1335 et al., 2003) and (d) 1.5% (this study), (e) the external δ^{13} C reproducibility of carbonate standards 1336 $(1\sigma=0.06 \%)$, (f) the 1 σ -uncertainties of the saturation index, and (g) the 1 σ -uncertainties of predicted 1337 CO_{2 atm} (~12 ppm, cf. Fig. 3). All data are shown on the GICC05 or equivalent AICC2012 age scales. 1338 1339





1342 Fig. 8. Geochemical fingerprints of different forcings of millennial-scale CO_{2,atm} variations in transient climate model simulations with LOVECLIM (Menviel et al., 2018). Water column pro-1343 1344 files of (a) [O₂]- and (b) DIC-anomalies averaged over the South Atlantic (solid lines; 60°W-20°E, 40-70°S) and the Southern Ocean (stippled lines; 40-70°S). Simulated transient changes of (c) [O₂]- and 1345 1346 (d) DIC-anomalies at our South Atlantic core site (lines) compared to reconstructed bottom water $[O_2]$ 1347 in core MD07-3076O (see Fig. 4). The depth profiles show anomalies at model year 15 ka referenced to background levels at model year 18 ka, and represent a H1 anomaly. The simulations apply transi-1348 ent changes in orbital parameters and in northern-hemisphere ice sheet characteristics for H1, and 1349 1350 force a shutdown of the AMOC through time-varying freshwater supply in the North Atlantic (simulation 'LH1'). They additionally stimulate increased Southern Ocean convection through prescribed 1351 1352 changes in the surface buoyancy fluxes without (simulation 'LH1-SO')or with intensification of the SHW wind stress (simulation 'LH1-SO-SHW'), or in fact with stronger SHW winds only (simulation 1353 'LH1-SHW'). Gray bars indicate mean changes and 1σ -uncertainties of bottom water[O₂] and respired 1354 DIC levels at depth during millennial-scale rises in CO_{2.atm} during MIS 3 derived from proxy recon-1355 structions in core MD07-3076Q (Fig. 4; Gottschalk et al., 2016b). 1356