

Interglacial instability of North Atlantic Deep Water ventilation

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Title: Interglacial instability of North Atlantic Deep Water ventilation

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20 Abstract: Disrupting North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) ventilation is a key concern in

- climate projections. We use (sub-)centennially resolved bottom water δ^{13} C records spanning
- the interglacials of the last 0.5 million years to assess the frequency and climatic backgrounds
- 23 capable of triggering large NADW reductions. Episodes of reduced NADW in the deep
- 24 Atlantic, similar in magnitude to glacial events, have been relatively common and occasionally
- 25 long-lasting features of interglacials. Critically, NADW reductions were triggered across the
- 26 range of recent interglacial climate backgrounds, demonstrating that catastrophic freshwater
- 27 outburst floods were not a prerequisite for large perturbations. Our results argue that large
- NADW disruptions are more easily achieved than previously appreciated and occurred in past
- 29 climate conditions similar to those we may soon face.

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One Sentence Summary: Large and frequent changes in ocean ventilation during recent warm
 periods question its modern stability.

Main Text: Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) and North Atlantic Deep 32 Water (NADW) ventilation represents a low probability, high impact tipping point (1) in the 33 climate system with implications for the distribution and sequestration of anthropogenic CO₂ 34 and heat, and for Atlantic-wide patterns of climate and sea level (2-4). While the consequences 35 of any changes are clearly severe, the probability for instabilities in the rate or pathways of 36 NADW ventilation remains highly uncertain. Simple and complex models both suggest large 37 changes are possible, but also that a strong overturning like that found in the modern ocean 38 may be more difficult to disrupt than an overall weaker circulation (4-6). Likewise, most 39 models simulate moderate to no reduction in AMOC in response to future source region 40 buoyancy increases (1) but may be biased towards stability (7) and struggle to reproduce the 41 rich spectrum of variability revealed by a decade of observations (8, 9). Testing these physical 42 and conceptual models, and more generally the stability of NADW ventilation in warm 43 climates, requires empirical constraints from beyond the current state of circulation. 44

Given a background climate similar to today, the modern mode of deep Atlantic 45 ventilation with strong NADW influence (Fig. 1) appears stable on long multi-millennial 46 timescales. Proxy reconstructions indicate that modern NADW ventilation pathways persisted 47 with little multi-millennial variability in recent interglacial periods (10-14). By contrast, 48 pronounced AMOC variability has occurred on timescales of a decade or less in observations 49 (8, 9) suggesting strong mean overturning is comprised of significant variance. However, little 50 is known about NADW variability on the intermediary timescales, leaving the variability 51 within a long-term 'vigorous' mean ventilation state poorly defined. There are few proxy 52

reconstructions depicting higher-frequency variability and those available are largely confined 53 to the last two interglacials, the Holocene and Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5e. During these 54 periods, the largest changes in deep Atlantic ventilation involving reductions of NADW 55 influence occurred on relatively short centennial timescales and were focused around intervals 56 with wasting of continental ice sheet remnants from the preceding glaciation (10, 12, 15). This 57 includes the century-long NADW reduction at 8.2 thousand years (ky) before present (B.P.) 58 following the freshwater outburst flood from glacial Lake Agassiz (12). Absence of similarly 59 large changes in the last ~eight ky of the Holocene (e.g., 12) has supported the notion of 60 61 vigorous and stable ventilation as generally representative of interglacial boundary conditions.

Beyond the last two interglacials, little is known about centennial-scale variability in 62 NADW, despite its relevance for delimiting the natural variability of ocean ventilation and the 63 frequency of large NADW reductions under different background climates. The most recent 64 interglacials MIS 5e, 7e, 9e, and 11c are particularly relevant, as these periods had similar 65 climate boundary conditions to the current MIS 1 in addition to episodes of high-latitude 66 warming, Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) retreat, and sea level rise relative to the modern (16-18). 67 This offers an opportunity to test the robustness of NADW ventilation under source region 68 conditions similar to those projected for the future (1). Here we reconstruct northwest Atlantic 69 bottom water δ^{13} C to trace NADW influence (Fig. 1) over MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c and provide a 70 detailed perspective on NADW ventilation instability during recent interglacials. 71

Our epibenthic foraminifera *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* (sensu stricto) δ^{13} C record (*19*) from International Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Site U1305 (57°29'N, 48°32'W; 3459 m water depth) at the Eirik Drift is situated to monitor lower NADW entering the deep Atlantic (Fig. 1). Due to the potential for uncertainty in δ^{13} C reconstructions (e.g., *20*), we only consider

changes in the running mean of three samples (averaging five data points; see (19)) and signals 76 outside the standard error of data within this window to reflect bottom water δ^{13} C variability. 77 which, given negligible influence from organic carbon fluxes (21), provides a proxy for past 78 changes in the ventilation and distribution of water masses (e.g., 20, 22). The Eirik Drift 79 bottom water δ^{13} C record indicates large changes in deep Atlantic carbon chemistry during the 80 interglacial δ^{18} O plateaus of MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c (Fig. 2). Each interglacial contained abrupt 81 changes in bottom water δ^{13} C as large ($\leq 1.0\%$) as those of the bordering glacial terminations 82 and inceptions (Fig. 2), and similar to those occurring after freshwater outburst floods such as 83 the \sim 8.2 ky B.P. event (12) and during MIS 5e (10). Absolute values range from near modern 84 NADW levels ($\geq 0.8\%$; Fig. 1) to those typical of the glacial deep Atlantic (13, 14, 23, 24). 85 While similar in magnitude, the frequency, timing, and duration of these changes differ among 86 individual interglacial periods. Low bottom water δ^{13} C values persist for a millennium or more 87 during late MIS 7e (~233.5-243.5 ky; on our age model, 19) and mid- to late MIS 9e (~323.0-88 326.0 ky), whereas large (~0.5‰) multi-centennial variability punctuated MIS 11c 89 superimposed on multi-millennial trends. 90

Low bottom water δ^{13} C values at Site U1305 likely reflect reduced NADW influence and changes in deep Atlantic ventilation patterns. Reduced (high- δ^{13} C) NADW influence and incursions of (low- δ^{13} C) Southern source water (SSW) explain many features of the observed variability, including the: 1) spatial consistency of intermittently low δ^{13} C observed at different deep sites (Site U1304 and U1305; Fig. 3); 2) abruptness of the δ^{13} C changes as the NADW-SSW water mass boundary shifted across the core sites; 3) shift of Site U1305 δ^{13} C towards the millennially averaged values found near the northern or the southern source regions (Fig. 3); and 4) association of high (low) *C. wuellerstorfi* δ^{13} C with high (low) *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca in selected Eirik Drift samples (Fig. S6) (*19*).

We further use a transient interglacial (115-125 ky) simulation (19) with the isotope-100 enabled intermediate complexity iLOVECLIM Earth system model (25) to assess potential 101 links between variability in deep Atlantic δ^{13} C, NADW distribution, and AMOC. Simulated 102 centennial-scale episodes of NADW shoaling and SSW expansion produce δ^{13} C reductions in 103 the deep Atlantic that strongly match the magnitude, rate and duration of the variability 104 observed in our (Fig. 4) and other reconstructions (e.g., 10, 12-14) consistent with the inference 105 that the δ^{13} C variability reflect changes in NADW distribution. These large deep Atlantic δ^{13} C 106 changes, which are similar in magnitude to glacial millennial-scale changes (e.g., 23, 24), were 107 achieved without a total collapse of but with a significant (~16 to ~8 Sv) decrease in AMOC 108 109 strength and accompanied by cooling in the subpolar North Atlantic (Fig. 4).

Our results call for reconsideration of the long-held notion of warm-climate stability in 110 deep Atlantic carbon chemistry and ventilation. This view of stability likely remains true for 111 112 the (multi-)millennial mean state, as previously depicted by lower-resolution records lacking the fidelity to resolve the shorter timescale that is characteristic of NADW reductions (Fig. 3). 113 High-resolution records are naturally biased towards the youngest strata and the current 114 interglacial, the Holocene. Yet, when contextualized against the late Pleistocene interglacials, 115 the Holocene stands out as having had the most stable lower NADW ventilation of the last half 116 million years (Fig. 3), which was only strongly curtailed at ~8.2 ky B.P. (12). Bottom water 117 δ^{13} C and NADW reductions similar to that at ~8.2 ky B.P. were prevalent features of prior 118 interglacials, occasionally even lasting millennia (Fig. 3). Ventilation patterns changed 119 repeatedly from one similar to the modern (Fig. 1) to one with reduced NADW and incursions 120

of SSW in the deep North Atlantic (~3.4 km), similar to that illustrated by our model simulation (Fig. 4).

The short duration of interglacial NADW reductions may indicate a change in the 123 intrinsic ocean dynamics operating under different background climate states. The interglacial 124 deep Atlantic is clearly better ventilated than the glacial on long equilibrium timescales (11, 13, 125 14, 23, 24). However, the magnitude of ventilation pattern changes that are possible appears 126 similar in (de-)glacial (e.g., 11, 24, 26) and interglacial periods when variability in lower 127 NADW is considered at shorter timescales (Fig. 3). The centennial-scale duration and transient 128 129 nature of most interglacial NADW reductions (Fig. 3; Fig. 4) suggests the modern ventilation pattern tends to recover quickly when perturbed, and is similar to the AMOC recovery 130 timescale seen in many numerical models forced with buoyancy increases (e.g., 4). With this in 131 mind, the longer-lasting NADW reductions in MIS 7e (~233.5-234.5 ky), 9e (~323-326 ky), 132 and late 11c (~401-408 ky) either required more sustained forcing or suggests that the recovery 133 timescale following perturbations is not fixed. Most interglacial NADW reductions were still 134 135 short-lived compared to those associated with glacial (Dansgaard-Oeschger) variability (e.g., 24), suggesting either that NADW ventilation behaved differently or the persistence of any 136 forcing changed, depending on the climate state. One possible explanation for this timescale 137 difference is the extensive glacial expansion of high-latitude sea ice, which could promote a 138 baseline increase in SSW ventilation (27) and prolong the duration of northern ventilation 139 anomalies (28). A lack of strong sea ice responses could also explain the potentially muted 140 climate variability in interglacial compared to glacial climates (10, 13, 14, 29), despite the 141 presence of NADW variability. More high-resolution climate records spanning past 142 interglacials are however needed to conclusively evaluate the impacts of warm-climate NADW 143

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reductions, and delineate its role relative feedbacks such as sea ice responses in drivinginterglacial climate variability.

Model simulations suggest future warming and freshwater addition from an intensified 146 hydrological cycle and ice sheet melting could all increase source region buoyancy and curtail 147 convective NADW renewal (1, 4). The common occurrence of NADW reductions in past 148 interglacials (Fig. 3) clearly demonstrates the potential for large changes in deep Atlantic 149 ventilation and allows us to explore the triggers for perturbations. NADW reductions during 150 the last two interglacial periods were confined mainly to the early warm interglacial phases, 151 152 concurrent with high northern hemisphere summer insolation and known freshwater outburst floods accompanying the final retreat of residual glacial ice sheets (Fig. 3) (10, 12, 30, 31). 153 While stratigraphically belonging to interglacial periods, to the extent that these anomalies are 154 155 related to wasting vestiges of glaciation, they are likely best viewed mechanistically as the final episodes of deglaciation. By contrast, NADW reductions in MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c occurred in 156 the mid and late interglacial phases under low summer insolation (Fig. 3) and after any likely 157 deglacial freshwater influences. This implies that NADW reductions can occur without the 158 excess buoyancy input provided by wasting residual glacial ice sheets, or the influence of large 159 continental ice sheets on atmospheric circulation. Ice sheet activity may still have played a role 160 in regulating the stability of NADW ventilation during some periods. NADW reductions in 161 MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c often coincided with, or were preceded by, input of ice-rafted debris (IRD) 162 at Site U1305 (Fig. 3), indicating supply of icebergs and freshwater proximal to the NADW 163 source region. Furthermore, the prolonged NADW reduction of MIS 9e was associated with 164 elevated southern GrIS sediment discharge and MIS 1 stability with low GrIS activity (32), 165 while particularly strong GrIS retreat in MIS 11c (16, 18) occurred alongside persistent NADW 166

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variability (Fig. 3). These observations are consistent with ice sheet activity and freshwater
addition intermittently influencing the formation or downstream density of lower NADW.
However, variability in NADW ventilation, IRD input, and GrIS discharge also occurred
independently of each other (Fig. 3), implicating additional controls on NADW ventilation and
supporting models suggesting convective instability is possible with relatively small buoyancy
input if delivered to the convection regions (e.g., *6*).

Our results suggest we should consider rapid and large changes in NADW ventilation 173 not only as a possibility (10, 12, 30) but even as an intrinsic feature of centennial-scale 174 175 variability in warm climate states. This has implications for constraining the potential for and cause of change in the modern Atlantic. First, it supports concerns that disregarding large 176 variability in simulations may have biased future AMOC projections towards stability (7). The 177 178 possibility of large natural variability on decadal (8, 9) to centennial timescales (Fig. 3) also complicates attribution of variability in the deep Atlantic, but the characteristics of this 179 variability may be used to differentiate between natural and anthropogenic change in the 180 181 coming century. While past changes were predominantly multi-centennial, there are also climate and ocean conditions that can drive longer NADW reductions, as evidenced for 182 example by the ~3000 years-long anomaly in mid-MIS 9e (Fig. 3). Specifically what these 183 conditions were remains unclear, but the triggers for NADW instability have clearly operated 184 across the range of recent interglacial climate conditions. Recognizing this requires moving 185 186 beyond the notion of vigorous and stable deep Atlantic ventilation as representative of warm climate states (e.g., 1, 5, 11), and towards conceptual and numerical models that can account 187 for pronounced variability across various timescales and climate states. 188

IPCC, in Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working

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- 339 Supplementary Materials:
- 340 Materials and Methods
- 341 Supplementary text
- 342 Figures S1-S7
- 343 References (39-57)



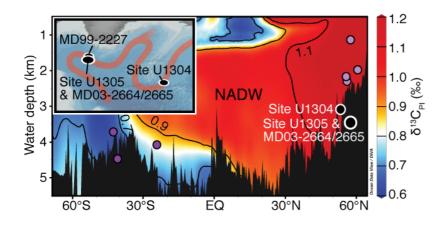


Fig. 1. Core locations. IODP Site U1305 (57°29'N, 48°32'W; 3459 m), MD03-2664 345 (57°26'N, 48°36'W; 3442 m), MD03-2665 (57°26'N, 48°36'W; 3440 m), and IODP Site 346 U1304 (53°03'N, 33°32'W; 3082 m) projected on a western Atlantic north-south section of 347 preindustrial δ^{13} C (δ^{13} C^{PI}) (22) plotted using Ocean Data View. Core sites depicted in the data 348 composites of Fig. 3C are included (light and dark purple circles). Inset, plotted using 349 GeoMapApp, shows the key subpolar core sites including MD99-2227 (58°21'N, 48°37'W; 350 3460 m) and the main spreading pathways of Nordic Seas-sourced deep water contributing to 351 352 lower NADW (red).

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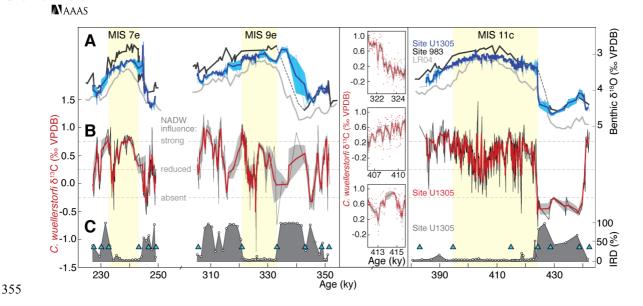


Fig. 2. IODP Site U1305 MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c C. wuellerstorfi stable isotope and ice-rafting 356 **records.** A) Benthic δ^{18} O from IODP Site U1305 (thin blue line, sample average of replicate 357 measurements; bold dark blue, 3-point running mean; shading, the standard error of the 3-point 358 window), age model tuning target ODP Site 983 (60°23'N, 23°38'W; 1983 m) (black; dashed 359 360 lines denote prolonged gaps) (33), and LR04 for reference (gray) (34); B) Site U1305 C. *wuellerstorfi* δ^{13} C (black, sample average; red, 3-point running mean; shading, standard error 361 of 3-point window) with dashed vertical lines denoting approximate levels of NADW 362 influence; C) position of age model tie points (triangles) and Site U1305 ice-rafted debris 363 (IRD; % of >150 μ m entities; black and gray) (19). All records are on the LR04 timescale (19). 364 365 The sample spacing gives the benthic stable isotope records a nominal time resolution of 70 years during the interglacial benthic δ^{18} O plateaus (shaded yellow). Insets show examples of 366 the C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C variability (coloring as in B, individual data as dots). VPDB, Vienna 367 Pee Dee Belemnite standard. 368

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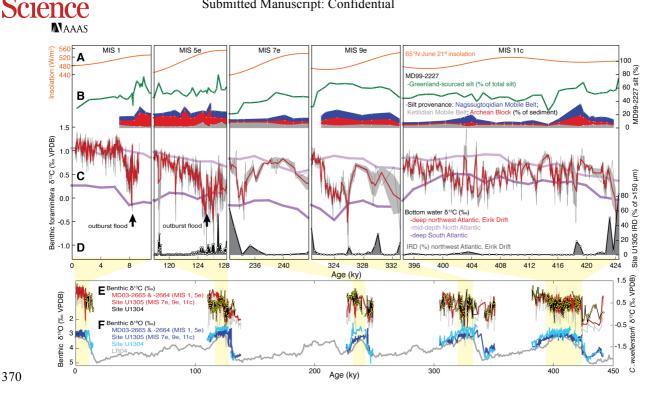


Fig. 3. Variability in NADW ventilation during interglacials MIS 1-11c. Focused on the 371 interglacial δ^{18} O plateaus: A) 65°N insolation at June 21st (orange) (35): B) core MD99-2227 372 records of GrIS sediment discharge showing silt sourced from Precambrian Greenland terranes 373 (green, % of total silt) (32) and from different Greenland provenances (% of sediment: colored, 374 see text inset) (18, 32, 36); C) bottom water δ^{13} C reconstructions from mid-depth North (light 375 purple) (23) and deep South Atlantic composites (dark purple) (37) (see Fig. 1 for locations), 376 and from the deep Eirik Drift (MIS 1: 12; MIS 5e: 10; MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c: this study) 377 (coloring as in Fig. 2) with arrows denoting freshwater outburst floods as determined in (10, 378 12); and D) Eirik Drift ice-rafted debris (IRD) records (MIS 5e: 10; MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c: 19). 379 Glacial-interglacial records of: E) C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C from the Eirik Drift (as in C; gray line, 380 sample average; red line, 3-point mean) and IODP Site U1304 (black and yellow, sample 381 average) (15, 38) (note difference in resolution, U1305: ~70 years; U1304: ~300 years); F) 382 Benthic foraminifera δ^{18} O from the Eirik Drift and Site U1304 (colored, see inset; references as 383 for δ^{13} C), and LR04 (gray) (34). All records are plotted on the LR04 timescale (19). 384

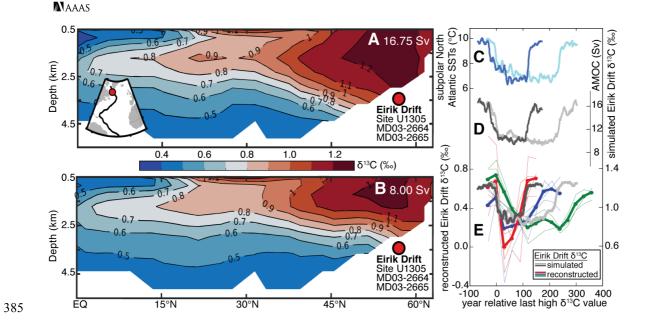


Fig. 4. Modeled and reconstructed deep Atlantic δ^{13} C changes. (Left) The iLOVECLIM 386 simulated $\delta^{13}C$ distribution and Eirik Drift core location (red circle) along a north-south 387 transect (inset) averaged for years with: A) strong, modern-like AMOC (> 2σ ; 16.75±0.70 Sv 388 mean; n=460 model years) and NADW distribution; and B) weaker AMOC ($<2\sigma$; 8.00±0.42 389 Sv mean; n=63 model years) and shoaled NADW (see (19) for details). (Right) Across two 390 391 simulated NADW shoaling events (ten-year mean values): C) subpolar North Atlantic mean sea surface temperature (SST; light and dark blue); D) AMOC stream function at 27°N (light 392 and dark gray); and E) Eirik Drift bottom water δ^{13} C changes (light and dark gray; magnitude 393 similar for different preformed δ^{13} C values, see (19)) compared to the reconstructions by 394 aligning at the last high δ^{13} C values. To illustrate common features that account for interglacial 395 differences in preformed δ^{13} C values, the reconstructed events are shown as the average (bold 396 lines) of multiple events (thin lines) at 30-year steps (obtained by linear interpolation) binned 397 according to durations of ≤ 100 (red; n=5), 101-200 (blue; n=4), and 201-300 years (green; 398 n=3). 399

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404	Supplementary Materials for
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406	Interglacial instability of North Atlantic Deep Water ventilation
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415	This PDF file includes:
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417	Materials and Methods
418	Supplementary Text
419	Figs. S1 to S7
420	References 39-57
421	
422	Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:
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424	Data S1 [Eirik-Drift_MIS-7e-9e-11c.xlxs]
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431 Materials and Methods

432 Sample processing and *C. wuellerstorfi* stable isotopes

The International Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Site U1305 intervals spanning Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 7e, 9e, and 11c were identified from the stable isotope stratigraphy of Hillaire-Marcel et al. (*39*) and continuously subsampled at 2-cm spacing at the IODP Bremen Core Repository by the curatorial staff. Bulk sediment samples were kept in deionized water on a shaker for 12 hours for disaggregation before being wet sieved using a 63 μ m mesh sieve to separate the fine (<63 μ m) and coarse fraction material (>63 μ m). Following wet sieving, samples were dried at 50°C.

Epibenthic foraminifera Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi (sensu stricto) shells (Fig. S1) were 440 selectively picked from the $>150 \mu m$ sediment fraction for stable isotope analyses. The stable 441 isotope analyses were performed at the Facility for advanced isotopic research and monitoring 442 443 of weather, climate and biogeochemical cycling (FARLAB), Department of Earth Science, University of Bergen, Norway, on a Finnigan MAT 253 mass spectrometer coupled to an 444 automated Kiel IV preparation line kept at constant 70°C. Measurements were performed on 445 446 one to three individual C. wuellerstorfi shells, depending on availability and size, and duplicated per sample when possible ($\sim 64\%$ of the samples analyzed). Fig. S2 shows the C. 447 wuellerstorfi stable isotope results from Site U1305 including all individual data points. We 448 used Carrera Marble (CM12) as a working standard measured parallel to the foraminifera 449 samples, and all values are reported relative Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) calibrated 450 using National Bureau of Standards (NBS) standard NBS 19 and NBS 18. The long-term 451 reproducibility (1 σ) of in-house standards over the analysis period was $\leq 0.08\%$ and $\leq 0.04\%$ 452 for δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C, respectively. The standard cleaning step for foraminiferal stable isotope 453 analyses, involving methanol and ultrasonication, was avoided to retain mass and increase the 454 number of measurements possible, as C. wuellerstorfi shells were generally few and small in 455 size, often providing a total weight at the lower limit possible for analysis (~10-15 µg). Instead 456 of performing the standard cleaning step, C. wuellerstorfi tests were visually cleaned using a 457 brush and deionized water ('brush-cleaned') to remove any foreign material on or within them 458 prior to stable isotope analyses. To test the impact of omitting the standard cleaning step, we 459 measured surplus shells from samples (n=22) containing sufficient mass that were cleaned 460 following standard protocols ('standard-cleaned') for removing fine-grained material: adding 461 methanol to reaction vials containing the shells and keeping them in an ultrasonic bath for 10 462 seconds before extracting the methanol. The δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of the 'standard-cleaned' C. 463 wuellerstorfi tests are very similar to the sample average of the 'brush-cleaned' tests (Fig. S1). 464 465 Further, the intra-sample reproducibility of the 'brush-cleaned' Site U1305 C. wuellerstorfi δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C data is similar to a large data set of exclusively 'standard-cleaned' C. 466 wuellerstorfi shells from the same region (the MIS 5e section of MD03-2664; location shown 467 in Fig. 1) (Fig. S1). This indicates that the visual 'brush-cleaning' and 'standard-cleaning' steps 468 performed similarly well with no discernible difference in the stable isotope values or in the 469 intra-sample variability. Nonetheless, performing the standard cleaning step for foraminiferal 470 stable isotope analyses is highly recommended when possible. Indeed, in certain regions and 471 time intervals, a cleaning procedure more stringent than the standard one is likely required to 472 accurately determine for a stable isotope values (40). 473

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475 <u>C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca</u>

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We measured B/Ca ratios in C. wuellerstorfi tests from intervals in MD03-2664 (MIS 476 5e) and Site U1305 (MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c). To obtain sufficient mass for B/Ca analyses (~250-477 300 µg), and due to scarcity of C. wuellerstorfi tests in these sediments, it was often necessary 478 to combine tests from up to a maximum of six adjacent samples (or 12 cm of core) that we 479 restricted according to consistent C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C values. Following the selective picking, 480 the C. wuellerstorfi tests were opened using clean glass slides and transferred into acid-leached 481 vials. The C. wuellerstorfi tests were subsequently cleaned for contaminating phases, including 482 clay removal, reductive and oxidative steps, a weak acid leach, and dissolution in dilute HNO₃. 483 The B/Ca analyses were performed using the method outlined in Rosenthal et al. (41) on a 484 Finnigan MAT Element XR Sector Field Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer 485 (ICP-MS) at the ICP-MS laboratory at the Institute of Marine and Coastal Sciences, Rutgers, 486 The State University of New Jersey, USA. 487

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489 <u>Site U1305 N. pachyderma (s) δ^{13} C records</u>

N. pachvderma (s) tests were selectively picked from the 150-212 um sediment fraction 490 at continuous 4-cm spacing across MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c (with notable gaps only in MIS 9e due 491 to scarcity of *N. pachyderma* (s) tests). Prior to the stable isotope analyses, the tests were 492 cleaned by adding methanol to the sample kept in reaction vials and ultrasonicating them for 493 ten seconds before removing the supernatant. The stable isotope analyses were performed at 494 FARLAB, University of Bergen, Norway, as outlined for benthic foraminifera C. wuellerstorfi 495 above, and with identical standard reproducibility. Measurements on N. pachyderma (s) were 496 replicated whenever possible (~92% of the samples), and each individual measurement was 497 498 performed on 6-10 individual N. pachyderma (s) tests.

- 499
- 500 <u>Ice-rafted debris</u>

The ice-rafted debris (IRD) counts were performed on the same Site U1305 samples as the benthic foraminiferal stable isotope measurements, but at lower sampling density. IRD counts were performed at 32-cm spacing for MIS 7e and 11c, and 16-cm spacing for MIS 9e (42). Following the sample processing steps outlined above, material in the >150 μ m fraction were split, IRD grains visually identified, and IRD calculated as the percent of \geq 300 counted entities.

508 Hole U1305C MIS 11c mcd fine-tuning

Sediment physical properties (e.g., magnetic susceptibility) indicated cm-scale offsets between Hole U1305C and the original (Hole A & B) splice over ~74.5-78.5 mcd (Fig. S3A), corresponding to most of MIS 11c. We fine-tuned the mcd scale for the Hole U1305C MIS 11c interval using magnetic susceptibility, shifting it between -3 cm and -19 cm to align the physical property records (Fig. S3B), and include both the original and corrected core depth scales in the MIS 11c data table.

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516 <u>iLOVECLIM model simulation</u>

⁵¹⁷ We used the iLOVECLIM Earth system model of intermediate complexity to simulate ⁵¹⁸ and assess potential relationships between NADW distribution, northwest Atlantic bottom ⁵¹⁹ water δ^{13} C, and AMOC. The iLOVECLIM model is an isotope-enabled development branch of ⁵²⁰ LOVECLIM version 1.2 (43) and includes an ocean component (CLIO) with 20 vertical layers ⁵²¹ and 3° by 3° horizontal resolution as well as land and ocean carbon cycle modules (25). We

performed a transient simulation for 125-115 ky (corresponding to MIS 5e) using annually 522 interpolated greenhouse gas and orbital forcings following the third phase of the Paleoclimate 523 Modelling Intercomparison Project (PMIP; https://pmip3.lsce.ipsl.fr/), initialized from a quasi-524 equilibrium spin up of 5000 years forced with constant 125 ky boundary conditions. We 525 performed two quasi-equilibrium spin-ups prior to the 125-115 ky simulation, each integrated 526 for 5000 years. The first is based on preindustrial conditions and the second on 125 ky 527 boundary conditions. The preindustrial simulation was used to validate and confirm that 528 iLOVECLIM reproduces the spatial distribution of preindustrial ocean δ^{13} C (22), and the 125 529 ky spin-up to initialize the 125-115 transient simulation. To test the sensitivity of the simulated 530 deep Atlantic δ^{13} C variability to changes in surface biological processes and preformed δ^{13} C 531 values, we ran to additional 125-115 ky transient simulations using similar initial conditions as 532 above but starting at 125 ky with either: 1) atmospheric δ^{13} C fixed at value decreased by 533 $\sim 0.6\%$ (at -7.1%); or 2) with 50% decreased primary productivity in the modeled convection 534 regions off southern Greenland and in the Nordic Seas. We expand on the model results in the 535 discussion section of the supplement below. 536

The modeled inorganic carbon cycle is represented by dissolved inorganic carbon 537 (DIC) and alkalinity (ALK), while the organic carbon cycle includes phytoplankton, 538 zooplankton, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), slow dissolved organic carbon (DOCs), 539 particulate organic carbon (POC), and CaCO₃. The phytoplankton is partially remineralized as 540 it sinks through the water column, while all the POC and CaCO₃ is remineralized at depth. The 541 remineralization profile follows an exponential law, adjusted to have less remineralization in 542 the upper layers and more at depth. Carbon fractionation during photosynthesis fixes ¹²C in the 543 544 organic matter, which is added back by the remineralization process at depth. At the air-sea interface, the carbon flux is computed from the CO₂ partial pressure difference between the 545 atmosphere and ocean at a constant gas exchange coefficient of 0.06 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹, where sea 546 surface pCO₂ is a function of temperature, salinity, DIC, and ALK following Millero (44). The 547 modeled δ^{13} C distribution is thus affected by air-sea gas exchange and organic matter 548 production/remineralization, and transported by the advection-diffusion scheme of the model. 549 Unlike ${}^{12}C$, the atmospheric ${}^{13}C$ is prognostically simulated in response to land and ocean 550 processes. 551

552

553 Supplementary Text

554 Site U1305 age model

The age models for the MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c intervals of Site U1305 were constructed 555 by correlating our benthic δ^{18} O record to and adopting the age model constructed for ODP Site 556 983 (33, 45) (Fig. 2, Fig. S4). Using Site 983 benthic δ^{18} O as a tuning target has advantages 557 over other reference records. First, Site U1305 shares well-defined structures in benthic δ^{18} O 558 with Site 983 (Fig. 2; Fig. S4) allowing relatively robust correlation. Further, high-resolution 559 IRD records are available from both sites and allow us to validate the benthic δ^{18} O-correlation 560 near deglacial intervals where Site U1305 benthic δ^{18} O data were often lacking due to C. 561 wuellerstorfi absence (Fig. 2). Tie points were defined based on major benthic δ^{18} O transitions 562 and linearly interpolated between to obtain ages for all core depths (Fig. S4). The Site U1305 563 564 and MD03-2664 IRD records were also used to guide the determination of tie points at the start of the interglacial δ^{18} O plateaus, as deglacial IRD increases are observed to coincide with 565 transient decreases in benthic δ^{18} O values before MIS 5e (10) and MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c in this 566

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region (Fig. 2; Fig. S4). Given their transient nature and co-occurrence with deglacial IRD, 567 these deglacial benthic δ^{18} O reductions may reflect contamination from low- δ^{18} O detrital 568 carbonate commonly deposited during Heinrich-events (40). Consequently, deglacial samples 569 with low C. wuellerstorfi δ^{18} O and high IRD were disregarded when we constructed our age 570 model and we defined the first interglacial benthic δ^{18} O value, and start of the interglacial 571 plateaus, as the first continuously low δ^{18} O value occurring after large deglacial IRD increases. 572 Corroborating this approach, the Site U1305/MD03-2664 and Site 983 deglacial IRD peaks 573 align using this additional constraint for the benthic δ^{18} O tuning (Fig. S4) but would otherwise 574 be offset by a few thousand years. 575

Age uncertainties involved with benthic δ^{18} O-based age models can be considerable. 576 For example, age differences between major δ^{18} O transitions can reach up to a few thousand 577 years between different ocean basins (46). The absolute age uncertainty provided by the Site 578 U1305-Site 983 correlation is likely less than millennial, given i) the relative proximity of 579 these core sites, ii) the similarity of the benthic δ^{18} O records—indicating a shared δ^{18} O 580 evolution, and iii) the alignment of deglacial IRD peaks (Fig. 2; Fig. S4). Despite a relatively 581 robust correlation, the original age model still carries considerable uncertainty in absolute ages. 582 583 For example, adopting a different age model constructed for Site 983 by Barker et al. (45) (e.g., EDC3 and AICC2012), would shift absolute ages up to a few thousand years. 584

In addition to absolute age uncertainties, relative (sample-to-sample) age uncertainties 585 likely also exist for the Eirik Drift (Site U1305 and MD03-2664) records. Correlation of 586 benthic δ^{18} O records is achieved using a limited number of tie points. This is especially true for 587 interglacial δ^{18} O plateaus, here defined by two (MIS 5e, 7e, and 9e) or three (MIS 11c) tie 588 points (Fig. 2, Fig. S4). These tie points were linearly interpolated between, assuming constant 589 sedimentation rates. However, interglacial sedimentation rates can vary on a range of 590 timescales in this area (39, 47-49). For example, radiocarbon-dated sections indicate that 591 sedimentation rates were higher in the early compared to the late phase of the current 592 interglacial at multiple Eirik Drift locations (e.g., 12, 48). If this temporal sedimentation pattern 593 persisted in the older interglacial periods, our age models based on the conservative approach 594 of linear interpolation may over- and underestimate the durations of early and late interglacial 595 intervals, respectively. 596

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598 Site U1304, MD03-2664, MD03-2665, and MD99-2227 age models

To place all proxy records on a common age scale, we revised the age models for all core intervals containing data we compare to the IODP Site U1305 records. We tuned the MIS 5e interval of MD03-2664 and the MIS 5e, 7e, 9e, and 11c intervals of IODP Site U1304 to the same ODP Site 983 reference record (Fig. S4), applying identical tie points and linearly interpolating between as outlined above. The MIS 1 and last deglacial intervals of Site U1304 and MD03-2665 were left on their original age models as presented in Xuan et al. (*38*) and Kleiven et al. (*12*), respectively.

To compare our records to the MD99-2227 southern Greenland sediment discharge reconstructions (*18, 32, 36*), we transferred our benthic δ^{18} O-based age models for MIS 5e (MD03-2664), 7e, 9e, and 11c (Site U1305) to MD99-2227 by correlating magnetic susceptibility between this core and MD03-2664 (MIS 5e) and Site U1305 (MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c) (Fig. S5). The strong similarity of the magnetic susceptibility records indicate that these core sites shared sedimentation histories, providing robust relative age control to comparisons of the Site U1305/MD03-2664 and MD99-2227 records. The alignment of glacial and Science NAAAS

613 interglacials values in epibenthic foraminifera *C. wuellerstorfi* δ^{18} O from MD03-2664/Site 614 U1305 and planktic foraminifera *N. pachyderma* (s) δ^{18} O from MD99-2227 on the obtained 615 age models supports the magnetic susceptibility correlation (Fig. S5). Carlson et al.'s (*50*) age 616 model was used for the MIS 1 and last deglacial intervals of MD99-2227.

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618 <u>C. wuellerstorfi</u> B/Ca and N. pachyderma (s) δ^{13} C

To test the fidelity of Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C as recorder of bottom water 619 carbon chemistry and water mass tracer, we use epibenthic foraminifera C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca, 620 a proxy for bottom water carbonate ion saturation ($\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$) and independent metric of the 621 influence of high- $[CO_3^{2-}]$ NADW versus low- $[CO_3^{2-}]$ SSW (e.g., 51, 52). The Eirik Drift C. 622 wuellerstorfi B/Ca data span a range of 185-215 µmol/mol with distinct changes within each of 623 MIS 5e, 7e, 9e, and 11c (Fig. S6). Using Yu & Elderfield's (51) B/Ca to Δ [CO₃²⁻] relationship 624 for C. wuellerstorfi, the B/Ca data indicates intra-interglacial changes in bottom water $[CO_3^{2-}]$ 625 by 25-30 µmol/kg, similar to that expected from shifting between NADW and SSW influence 626 (e.g., 52). The concurrent and coupled changes in C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C by up to ~0.8‰ within 627 the same sample pool (Fig. S6) is similarly consistent with shifts between NADW and SSW 628 influence. Indeed, the paired change in Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca and δ^{13} C we observe is 629 similar to that recorded in the last glacial to Holocene sections of two North Atlantic cores 630 from similar water depths (Fig. S6) that was previously interpreted to reflect the well-631 established deglacial shift from SSW to NADW influence in the deep North Atlantic (52). We 632 suggest that the Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca record supports the interpretation of the C. 633 wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C variability as reflecting changes in NADW versus SSW influence. 634

An alternative explanation for co-variability in trace element ratios and $\delta^{13}C$ is 635 contamination by secondary CaCO₃ precipitation and presence of authigenic overgrowths. 636 However, several lines of evidence argue against a role for contamination by secondary CaCO₃ 637 precipitation. The C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C record suggest no discernible influence by its own 638 merit, showing for example i) absolute values within the range of values observed in the 639 modern ocean or relevant reconstructions (e.g., 22, 23; Fig. 3) and ii) a consistency in the 640 signal and a lack of extremely large fluctuations that would require the mass and isotope value 641 of any contamination to have adjusted itself to balance changes in the mass and isotope value 642 of the foraminifera tests. Further, secondary CaCO₃ precipitation should, if present, influence 643 all foraminifera tests in a given core depth to some degree similarly. That is, if secondary 644 CaCO₃ precipitation drove relatively large changes in C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C and B/Ca, planktic 645 foraminifera δ^{13} C should also show low δ^{13} C values in addition to some degree of co-variability. The Eirik Drift *N. pachyderma* (s) δ^{13} C records from MIS 5e, 7e, 9e, and 11c do not 646 647 show values as low as the *C. wuellerstorfi* δ^{13} C records and there is no significant relationship 648 between N. pachyderma (s) and C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C (Fig. S6). In sum, we suggest secondary 649 CaCO₃ precipitation is either unimportant or entirely absent and consider it as an unlikely 650 explanation for the co-variability in C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca and δ^{13} C. Changes in the influence 651 of NADW versus SSW could conversely explain these observations. 652

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654 <u>iLOVECLIM model simulation results</u>

We identified persistent centennial-scale variability in δ^{13} C and the distribution of NADW in our 125-115 ky transient simulation occurring over a ~6 ky long interval in-between intervals of relative stability during the initial 2-3 and final 1-2 ky. A subsequent study will outline and discuss the results of the model simulation in detail (Kessler et al., in prep.). Here, we use the simulation to help the interpretation of the reconstructed bottom water δ^{13} C variability by assessing how centennial-scale changes in NADW distribution can impact deep Atlantic δ^{13} C. We focus on the simulated episodes of NADW shoaling and recovery to assess the possible rate, duration, and magnitude of water mass distribution and associated bottom water δ^{13} C changes and compare these to the reconstructed δ^{13} C variability. In the simulation, episodes of NADW shoaling were abruptly initiated, lasted some centuries, and were associated with decreases in AMOC strength and North Atlantic bottom water δ^{13} C (Fig. 4).

The simulated episodes of NADW shoaling/deepening produced distinct North Atlantic 666 bottom water δ^{13} C variability as (low- δ^{13} C) Southern source water (SSW) expanded/contracted 667 in concert with (high- δ^{13} C) NADW contracting/expanding (Fig. 4). In the northwest Atlantic 668 region corresponding to the location of Eirik Drift core sites U1305, MD03-2664, and MD03-669 2665, shoaling of NADW and incursions of SSW manifested as ~0.4‰ decreases in bottom 670 water δ^{13} C achieved over a few decades, events that ended equally abrupt as NADW deepened 671 some centuries (~100-500 years) later (Fig. 4). To illustrate these NADW and δ^{13} C distribution 672 changes, Fig. 4A and Fig. 4B displays the North Atlantic mean δ^{13} C distribution below 500 m 673 water depth for all simulated years with anomalously strong AMOC (> 2σ ; n=460 model years; 674 mean AMOC strength: 16.75 \pm 0.70 Sv) and anomalously weak AMOC (<2 σ ; n=63 model 675 vears; mean AMOC strength: 8.00±0.42 Sv), respectively. We further selected two simulated 676 intervals of NADW shoaling and recovering to compare to the reconstructed bottom water $\delta^{13}C$ 677 variability (Fig. 4B), differing from other simulated shoaling episodes only in duration. The 678 magnitude of any bottom water δ^{13} C variability driven by such changes in the relative 679 influence of northern versus southern source water could depend strongly on the preformed 680 δ^{13} C of, and the gradient between, competing water masses. While iLOVECLIM captures the 681 preindustrial preformed δ^{13} C of northern and southern source waters relatively well (e.g., 682 compare Fig. 1 to Fig. 4A), proxy records suggest considerable changes in preformed water 683 mass δ^{13} C occurred between and even within past interglacial periods. For example, the 684 preformed δ^{13} C of northern source water may have been higher in the Holocene than the late 685 Pleistocene interglacials (see data composites, purple lines, in Fig. 3), while it likely increased 686 across MIS 5e (Fig. 3) consistent with planktic and epibenthic foraminifera δ^{13} C records from 687 the Nordic Seas (e.g., 53). This model-data difference should be noted when comparing and 688 contrasting the simulated and reconstructed time series. For the proxy reconstructions, we took 689 this into account by averaging multiple events in order to illustrate common features 690 independent of specific interglacials and preformed δ^{13} C values (Fig. 4). Still, the similarity of 691 the modeled and reconstructed bottom water $\delta^{13}C$ changes could result from the simulation 692 having a specific set of preformed $\delta^{13}C$ values in NADW and SSW. To assess how different background states and preformed $\delta^{13}C$ in NADW and SSW could impact the magnitude and 693 694 character of the simulated bottom water δ^{13} C variability, we reran the simulation twice with 1) 695 atmospheric δ^{13} C lowered by ~0.6‰ and 2) 50% decreased primary productivity in the 696 simulated deep water formation regions off southern Greenland and in the Nordic Seas. Both 697 experiments shift the absolute values of the simulated Eirik Drift bottom water δ^{13} C time series 698 but in both cases the relative magnitudes and character of the variability is only negligibly 699 impacted (Fig. S7). The simulation with perturbed primary productivity, resulting in limited 700 change in deep Atlantic δ^{13} C, supports previous studies suggesting that organic carbon fluxes 701 have little influence on the δ^{13} C of C. wuellerstorfi (e.g., 21). Thus, the character of the Eirik 702 Drift bottom water δ^{13} C variability driven by shifts in the distribution of water masses appears 703 to be relatively stable in face of different preformed δ^{13} C values and background biological 704

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processes in the model, indicating that the similarity between the simulated and reconstructed variability is not strongly dependent on the specific model configuration. That this character is similar to the reconstructed Eirik Drift bottom water δ^{13} C reductions, including in the magnitude, rate, and duration of events (Fig. 4; Fig. S7), supports the inference that characteristic deep Atlantic δ^{13} C changes can be explained with changes in the distribution and influence of NADW and SSW.

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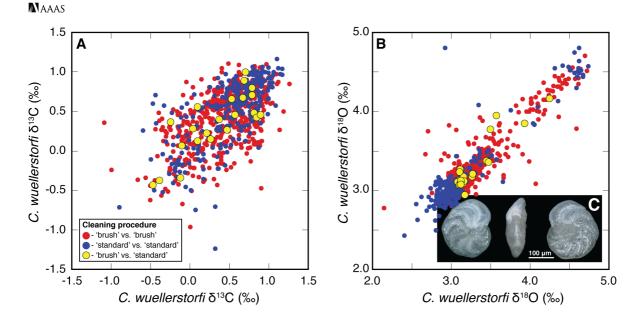
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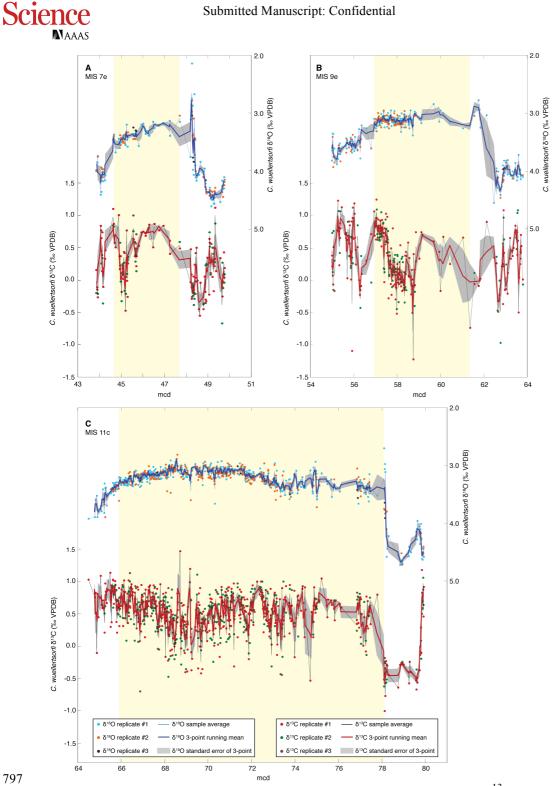
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Fig. S1. Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi (sensu stricto) replicate stable isotope values for different cleaning procedures. Cross-plots comparing sample replicate measurements where sufficient C. wuellerstorfi tests were present to allow it (n=493): A) Site U1305 C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C values of tests visually cleaned using a brush and distilled water ('brush-cleaned'; sample average; x-axis) plotted versus tests cleaned using the standard protocol involving methanol (yellow circles), Site U1305 C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C values of brush-cleaned versus brush-cleaned tests (red circles), and MD03-2664 C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C values of standard-cleaned vs. standard-cleaned tests (blue circles; 10). B) Same as in A) but for C. wuellerstorfi δ^{18} O. Note the similarity in stable isotope values for the different cleaning protocols. C) Umbilical (lef), apertural (middle), and spiral view (right) of an example specimen of C. wuellerstorfi sensu stricto from Site U1305 Hole C, 8H-3, 100-102 cm.



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Fig. S2. Stable isotope results. The Site U1305 C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C (red) and δ^{18} O (blue) 798 records for A) MIS 7e, B) MIS 9e, and C) MIS 11c plotted versus core depth (meter composite 799 depth; mcd) showing all individual data points (dots; see inset at bottom for color coding), the 800 sample average values (thin lines), the three-point running mean (bold lines), and the standard 801 802 error of the mean of three-point running window (gray shading; includes on average five individual data points). 803

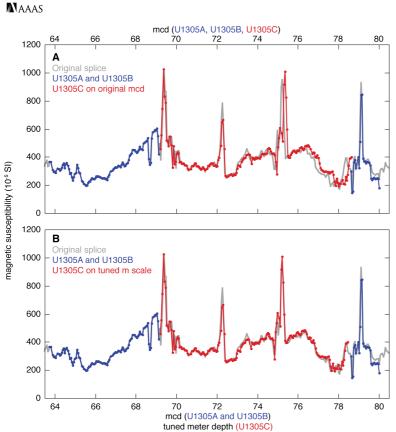


Fig. S3. Hole U1305C MIS 11c meter depth scale tuning. A) Magnetic susceptibility (*54*) of the original splice (gray) and our sampled intervals of U1305A and U1305B (blue) and U1305C (red) on the original mcd scale. Note the offset between U1305C and the original splice (gray) and our sampled intervals (*54*) of the original splice (gray) and our sampled intervals (*54*) of the original splice (gray) and our sampled intervals (*54*) of the original splice (gray) and our sampled intervals of U1305B (blue) on the original splice (gray) and 01305C (red) on the tuned meter depth scale.

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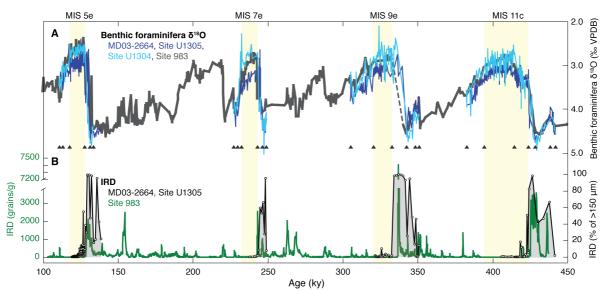


Fig. S4. Age model correlation. Plotted on LR04 age (ky): A) Benthic for aminifera δ^{18} O from MD03-2664 (dark blue; MIS 5e) (10), Site U1305 (dark blue; MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c), Site U1304 (light blue) (15, 38), and age model correlation target Site 983 (gray) (33) with tie points denoted by triangles; B) Site 983 ice-rafted debris (IRD) as grains gram⁻¹ (45) compared to NW Atlantic IRD (black with gray shading) from MD03-2664 (MIS 5e) (55) and Site U1305 as percent IRD grains in total entities >150 µm shown only for the deglacial intervals where it was used to guide the age model construction. Dashed line in A) marks a prolonged interval lacking Site 983 δ^{18} O data across the MIS 10 to 9e transition. Yellow shading denotes the interglacial δ^{18} O plateaus as in the main text.

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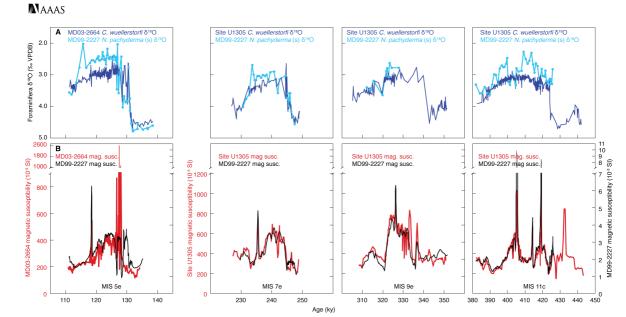


Fig. S5. Magnetic susceptibility correlation of MD03-2664/Site U1305 and MD99-2227. Plotted on the LR04 age scale obtained from transferring our δ^{18} O-based age models of MD03-2664 (MIS 5e) and Site U1305 (MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c) to MD99-2227 by correlating magnetic susceptibility: A) epibenthic foraminifera *C. wuellerstorfi* δ^{18} O from core MD03-2664 (dark blue; MIS 5e) (10) and Site U1305 (dark blue; MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c) and planktic *N. pachyderma* (s) from core MD99-2227 (light blue) (32); B) magnetic susceptibility for MD03-2664 (red; MIS 5e) (56), Site U1305 (red; MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c) (54), and MD99-2227 (black)

(47).

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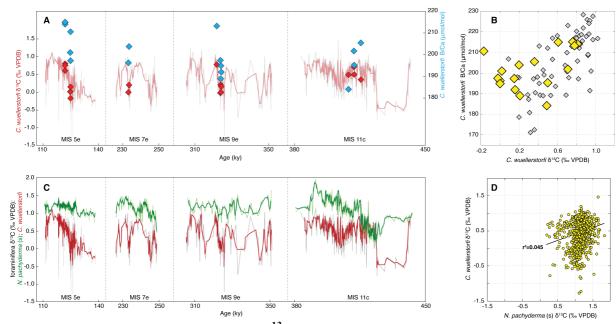


Fig. S6. Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C, C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca, and N. pachyderma (s) 895 δ^{13} C. A) The Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi B/Ca values (blue diamonds) of tests combined from 896 selected intervals in MIS 5e (core MD03-2664), 7e, 9e, and 11c (Site U1305), the average δ^{13} C 897 values of C. wuellerstorfi in the same intervals (red diamonds), and the full C. wuellerstorfi 898 δ^{13} C time series shaded in the background for comparison (thin gray line, sample average; bold 899 red line: 3-point running mean) over MIS 5e (MD03-2664; 10), 7e, 9e, and 11c (Site U1305) 900 plotted versus age (ky; LR04). B) Cross-plot of the Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C and B/Ca 901 data (vellow diamonds; comparing the red and blue diamonds from A)) compared to the 902 equivalent data of the last glacial-to-Holocene intervals of cores BOFS 5K (50°42'N, 903 21°54'W; 3547 m w.d.; B/Ca from C. wuellerstorfi and C. mundulus; δ^{13} C from Cibicidoides 904 spp.) and BOFS 8K (52°30'N, 22°06'W; 4045 m w.d.; B/Ca from C. wuellerstorfi and C. 905 *mundulus*; δ^{13} C from C. *wuellerstorfi*) (gray diamonds; B/Ca data from Yu et al. (52), adjusted 906 by +5% to correct for inter-laboratory differences; $\delta^{13}C$ data from Yu et al. (52) and references 907 therein). C) The Eirik Drift C. wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C (coloring and references as in A)) and N. 908 pachyderma (s) δ^{13} C from MIS 5e (MD03-2664; 55) and MIS 7e, 9e, and 11c (Site U1305; this 909 study). The N. pachvderma (s) data were corrected by +1.0% to account for disequilibrium 910 (57). D) Cross-plot of Eirik Drift N. pachyderma (s) δ^{13} C (also corrected by +1.0‰) versus C. 911 wuellerstorfi δ^{13} C (sample average values; data and references as in C)) where the solid line 912 shows the linear fit ($r^2=0.045$). 913

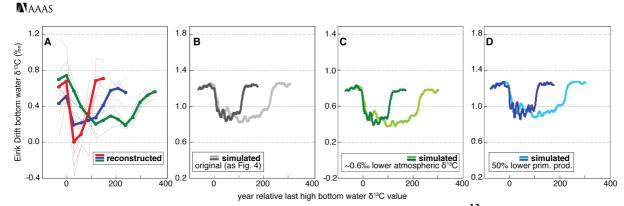
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Fig. S7. Reconstructed and simulated Eirik Drift bottom water δ^{13} C variability. Plotted 925 versus years relative the final high values preceding distinct bottom water δ^{13} C reductions at 926 the Eirik Drift: A) reconstructed bottom water (C. wuellerstorfi) δ^{13} C changes shown as 927 averages (bold lines) of individual events from MIS 1, 5e, 9e, and 11c (thin lines) at 30-year 928 steps (obtained by linear interpolation) and binned according to durations of <100 (red; n=5), 929 101-200 (blue; n=4), and 201-300 years (green; n=3); for the same two simulated NADW 930 shoaling events (showing ten-year running means): B) the original simulation as shown in Fig. 931 4; C) the original simulation but with atmospheric δ^{13} C decreased by ~0.6‰ and fixed (at -932 7.1%); and D) the original simulation but with 50% decreased primary productivity in the 933 northern deep water formation regions off southern Greenland and in the Nordic Seas. 934 935

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937 Data S1. (separate file)

938 Data S1_Eirik-Drift_MIS-7e-9e-11c.xlsx