

1 **Responses of the deep ocean carbonate system to carbon reorganization during the last**
2 **glacial-interglacial cycle**

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35 **Highlights:**

- 36 • New [CO₃²⁻] for the intermediate Atlantic and deep Pacific during 0-160 ka;
37
38 • [CO₃²⁻] records show both temporal and transient changes that differ from δ¹³C;
39
40 • The MIS 5c-to-3 [CO₃²⁻] rise is consistent with the “coral-reef” hypothesis;
41
42 • Vertical carbon shifting affects [CO₃²⁻] variations at MIS 4 and 2;
43
44 • Deep water [CO₃²⁻] controlled CaCO₃ preservation in the deep Pacific.
45
46

47 **Abstract**

48 We present new deep water carbonate ion concentration ($[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$) records, reconstructed
49 using *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* B/Ca, for one core from Caribbean Basin (water depth = 3623
50 m, sill depth = 1.8 km) and three cores located at 2.3-4.3 km water depth from the equatorial
51 Pacific Ocean during the last glacial-interglacial cycle. The pattern of deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the
52 Caribbean Basin roughly mirrors that of atmospheric CO_2 , reflecting a dominant influence from
53 preformed $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the North Atlantic Ocean. Compared to the amplitude of $\sim 65 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in
54 the deep Caribbean Basin, deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the equatorial Pacific Ocean has varied by no
55 more than $\sim 15 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ due to effective buffering of CaCO_3 on deep-sea pH in the Pacific
56 Ocean. Our results suggest little change in the global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ between the Last
57 Glacial Maximum (LGM) and the Late Holocene. The three records from the Pacific Ocean
58 show long-term increases in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ by $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ from Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5c to mid
59 MIS 3, consistent with the response of the deep ocean carbonate system to a decline in neritic
60 carbonate production associated with ~ 60 m drop in sea-level (the “coral-reef” hypothesis).
61 Superimposed upon the long-term trend, deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the Pacific Ocean displays
62 transient changes, which decouple with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the same cores, at the start and end of MIS 4.
63 These changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are consistent with what would be expected from vertical
64 nutrient fractionation and carbonate compensation. The observed $\sim 4 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ decline in
65 the two Pacific cores at >3.4 km water depth from MIS 3 to the LGM indicate further
66 strengthening of deep ocean stratification, which contributed to the final step of atmospheric CO_2
67 drawdown during the last glaciation. The striking similarity between deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and
68 ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 flux at two adjacent sites from the central equatorial Pacific Ocean
69 provides convincing evidence that deep-sea carbonate dissolution dominantly controlled CaCO_3

70 preservation at these sites in the past. Our results offer new and quantitative constraints from
71 deep ocean carbonate chemistry to understand roles of various mechanisms in atmospheric CO₂
72 changes over the last glacial-interglacial cycle.

73

74 **Keywords:** deep ocean carbonate ion, global carbon cycle, B/Ca, carbonate compensation, ocean
75 stratification, Pleistocene

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78 **1. Introduction**

79 Antarctic ice core records reveal that atmospheric CO₂ contents have varied systematically
80 with Earth's climate during the past 800,000 years, displaying lower atmospheric CO₂ during
81 cold glacials, by 80-100 ppm, than during warm interglacials (Lüthi et al., 2008). Proxy
82 reconstructions and models suggest that the carbon stock of the land biosphere was ~500 GtC
83 less during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 19-23 ka) than during the Late Holocene (0-5 ka)
84 (Bird et al., 1994; Ciais et al., 2012). Everything else being equal, introducing 500 GtC into the
85 ocean-atmosphere system would elevate atmospheric CO₂ by ~45 ppm or, if deep ocean
86 carbonate compensation is taken into account, by ~15 ppm (Sigman and Boyle, 2000). This
87 leaves greater carbon storage in the ocean as the only viable reason for low atmospheric CO₂
88 during ice ages.

89

90 Changes in physical conditions of the ocean during the LGM have opposing influences on
91 atmospheric CO₂: cooling of the ocean decreases atmospheric CO₂ by ~30 ppm, more saline
92 seawater raises atmospheric CO₂ by ~6.5 ppm (Sigman and Boyle, 2000), and the reduction in

93 ocean volume raises atmospheric CO₂ by ~8 ppm (Brovkin et al., 2007). These changes lead to a
94 net decline in atmospheric CO₂ of ~15 ppm, which is barely enough to counter the atmospheric
95 CO₂ rise (~15 ppm) due to the contraction of terrestrial biosphere (Sigman and Boyle, 2000).
96 Therefore, explaining lower atmospheric CO₂ during ice ages clearly requires more complex
97 aspects of the ocean carbon cycle involving changes in ocean chemical composition, which is
98 greatly influenced by marine biological processes and oceanic carbonate burial/dissolution
99 budgets.

100

101 Nearly all hypotheses to decrease atmospheric CO₂ during glacials invoke greater
102 sequestration of carbon in the deep ocean (Broecker, 1982). However, evaluating the importance
103 of various processes that are thought to regulate atmospheric CO₂ on the timescales of
104 glacial/interglacial transitions has been challenging and controversial (Kohfeld et al., 2005;
105 Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Sigman et al., 2010). To fully understand reasons for atmospheric CO₂
106 changes in the past, it is necessary to accurately reconstruct the history of physiochemical
107 conditions of the ocean. Among many parameters, deep ocean carbonate ion concentration,
108 [CO₃²⁻], provides key information about the global carbon cycle in the past. To a first
109 approximation, [CO₃²⁻] ≈ ALK – DIC, where ALK is alkalinity and DIC is dissolved inorganic
110 carbon. Both ALK and DIC have profound influences on carbon storage in the ocean and hence
111 atmospheric CO₂. For example, the “nutrient deepening” hypothesis (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle,
112 1988b) suggests that a shift of carbon from the upper ocean to the deep ocean would increase
113 DIC while having a much smaller impact on ALK in deep waters. The resulting decrease in
114 [CO₃²⁻] would enhance CaCO₃ dissolution in the deep ocean. The enhanced deep-sea carbonate

115 dissolution disturbs the steady-state ALK input/output balance and leads to a net gain in the
116 oceanic ALK inventory, which lowers atmospheric CO₂.

117

118 Another mechanism to decrease atmospheric CO₂, which could occur during glaciations, is
119 the “coral reef” hypothesis (Berger, 1982; Opdyke and Walker, 1992). During marine
120 regressions, decreased coral growth, together with a general decline in neritic CaCO₃ burial due
121 to shrinking continental shelf availability, would drive up seawater ALK and [CO₃²⁻], thus
122 lowering atmospheric CO₂ (Ridgwell et al., 2003a). Box models suggest that changes in oceanic
123 ALK associated with the ocean CaCO₃ preservation and production could account for up to 40
124 ppm variations in atmospheric CO₂ on glacial-interglacial timescales (Hain et al., 2010; Sigman
125 et al., 2010).

126

127 As illustrated by the examples above, deep ocean [CO₃²⁻] is tightly linked to processes that
128 affect carbon reorganization in the ocean. Therefore, reconstructing the history of deep ocean
129 [CO₃²⁻] will help constrain the roles of various processes in past atmospheric CO₂ changes
130 (Menviel et al., 2012). However, most published records are qualitative and often suffer
131 complicating factors such as pore water dissolution and surface productivity changes (Broecker,
132 2008). Quantitative deep ocean [CO₃²⁻] reconstructions are only available at limited locations
133 (Marchitto et al., 2000; Marchitto et al., 2002; Raitzsch et al., 2011; Rickaby et al., 2010; Yu et
134 al., 2010a). At present, we have an insufficient number of quantitative [CO₃²⁻] records to
135 constrain the roles of the “nutrient deepening” and “coral reef” hypotheses during the last
136 glaciation.

137

138 In this study, we present new deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ records quantified using benthic B/Ca for
139 four cores from the tropical Atlantic and Pacific Oceans over the last glacial-interglacial cycle.
140 Combined with carbon isotopic ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) from the same cores, we investigate possible
141 processes responsible for the transient and temporal $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ changes observed in our records and
142 evaluate their roles in atmospheric CO_2 changes in the past. We also compare our deep water
143 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ with ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 fluxes (Anderson et al., 2008) in two adjacent cores from
144 the central deep equatorial Pacific Ocean to assess the roles of surface productivity (Marcantonio
145 et al., 2001; Paytan et al., 1996) and deep-sea dissolution in controlling carbonate preservation at
146 these sites during the last 160 ka.

147

148 **2. Core materials and methods**

149 We present paired benthic B/Ca and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for core VM28-122 at 3.6 km water depth (sill
150 depth is 1.8 km) from the Caribbean Basin in the North Atlantic Ocean and three cores MW91-9
151 GGC15 (hereafter GGC15), MW91-9 GGC48 (hereafter GGC48) and TTNO13 PC61 (hereafter
152 PC61) located respectively at 2.3 km, 3.4 km, and 4.3 km water depths from the equatorial
153 Pacific Ocean (Table 1; Fig. 1). The age models for these cores are based on radiocarbon dates
154 during the last ~30 ka and visual tuning of *Cibicidoides* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to the global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack
155 (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) at older ages (Fig. 2). The age model of the deepest core PC61 is
156 further supplemented by a slightly higher resolution *Pulleniatina obliquiloculata* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 2D).
157 During the last 160 ka, the sedimentation rates range from ~3-12 cm/ka at core VM28-122 to ~1-
158 3 cm/ka at the three sites from the equatorial Pacific Ocean (Fig. 2). Despite their low
159 sedimentation rates, benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of cores from the Pacific Ocean capture the expected structures
160 shown by the global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). One exception is the time

161 interval between Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 6 and 5e at site GGC48, during which benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
162 does not show an expected decrease during MIS 5e (from 130 to 122 ka) and the amplitude in
163 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between MIS 5e and 6 is only $\sim 1\text{‰}$ compared to $\sim 1.7\text{‰}$ in the global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve
164 (Fig. 2C). We suspect that data over MIS 6-5e in core GGC48 are likely compromised by
165 bioturbation. Therefore, we refrain from discussing B/Ca data from 145-120 ka in this core.

166

167 We picked all benthic foraminifera including *C. wuellerstorfi* and other *Cibicidoides* genera
168 from the $>250\ \mu\text{m}$ size fraction at sampling intervals of $\sim 10\ \text{cm}$ in core VM28-122, 2-4 cm in
169 cores GGC15 and GGC48, and 1-2 (0-100 cm or 0-50 ka) to $\sim 5\ \text{cm}$ (100-270 cm) in core PC61.
170 At site PC61, the high sampling rate for the 0-100 cm depth range is aimed to detect an expected
171 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ spike at the last deglaciation. Picked *C. wuellerstorfi* were double checked under a
172 microscope before crushing with due attention to use tests of most consistent morphology for
173 B/Ca analyses throughout the cores (Rae et al., 2011). In general, the starting material for each
174 B/Ca measurement has ~ 10 shells, equivalent to ~ 300 to $600\ \mu\text{g}$. When allowed by the shell
175 availability, we carried out replicate B/Ca analyses. Foraminiferal shells were cleaned by the
176 “Mg-cleaning” method (Barker et al., 2003) and different cleaning methods yielded similar B/Ca
177 (Yu et al., 2007). Foraminiferal B/Ca were measured by ICP-MS using an established procedure
178 (Yu et al., 2005). Because of the long residence time and the conservative nature of B in the
179 ocean (Lemarchand et al., 2000), no significant change in [B] is expected on glacial-interglacial
180 timescales. *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca were converted to deep-sea $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ using a sensitivity of 1.14
181 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ per $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ specific to this species obtained from a global core-top calibration (Fig. 3)
182 by: $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{downcore}} = [\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{preindustrial}} + \Delta(\text{B/Ca})/1.14$, where the preindustrial $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ ($[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{preindustrial}}$)
183 is estimated using the GLODAP dataset (Key et al., 2004), and $\Delta(\text{B/Ca})$ is the

184 deviation of B/Ca of down-core samples relative to the core-top value. Changes in temperature,
185 salinity, and water pressure (sea level) have a negligible effect on deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ on glacial-
186 interglacial time scales (Yu et al., 2008). Existing data also suggest a minimal influence of
187 dissolution on benthic B/Ca (Yu et al., 2007; Yu and Elderfield, 2007). Based on replicate
188 analyses of a consistency standard and down-core samples, the average analytical uncertainty in
189 B/Ca is about $\pm 3 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ (1σ), corresponding to an error of $\pm 2.5 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$.

190

191 In most cases, we used *Cibicidoides* for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements to save *C. wuellerstorfi*
192 for B/Ca analyses. However, *C. wuellerstorfi* were the preferred species for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
193 whenever they were available after B/Ca measurements. Foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ were
194 measured at University of Cambridge with the average analytical error of $\sim 0.08\text{‰}$ in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
195 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Bulk sediment carbonate content ($\%\text{CaCO}_3$) data for core PC61 were provided by W.
196 S. Broecker at LDEO of Columbia University, with an analytical precision of $\sim \pm 1\%$.

197

198 Some of the data presented here have been published previously. Benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ over
199 the last ~ 30 ka in VM28-122 are from (Oppo and Fairbanks, 1990) and all *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca
200 from this core have been published for proxy evaluation purposes (Yu et al., 2010b).
201 Radiocarbon dates, benthic B/Ca, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ over the last ~ 30 ka for cores VM28-122,
202 GGC15 and GGC48 are from (Yu et al., 2010a). In total, new measurements presented here
203 include 354 paired $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, 271 B/Ca, 6 radiocarbon dates, and 76 $\%\text{CaCO}_3$, which are
204 tabulated in the Supplementary Materials. Wherever applicable, we note data sources in figure
205 captions.

206

207 3. Results

208 3.1. Core-top calibration

209 Although our major focus here are down-core records, we take this opportunity to present
210 new core-top B/Ca that expands the geographic coverage of the original calibration (Fig. 3). All
211 core-tops are judged to be the Late Holocene (<5 ka) in age. Deep water carbonate saturation
212 state with respect to calcite, $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, overlying these core-tops are estimated using the
213 GLODAP dataset (Key et al., 2004), following the approach described in Yu and Elderfield
214 (2007).

215

216 Fig. 3 shows core-top B/Ca in the benthic foraminifera *C. wuellerstorfi* and *C. mundulus*
217 against deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ from five studies (Brown and Elderfield, 1996; Rae et al., 2011;
218 Raitzsch et al., 2011; Yu and Elderfield, 2007; this study). Altogether, we have 212 and 68 B/Ca
219 measurements (including replicates) at 152 and 48 core-top sites for *C. wuellerstorfi* and *C.*
220 *mundulus*, respectively. B/Ca ratios were analyzed by two techniques including solution ICP-MS
221 and laser ablation ICP-MS in four laboratories. Core-top B/Ca and deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ are
222 tightly correlated with high R^2 values of 0.81-0.83 (Fig. 3). Regressions on B/Ca (including
223 replicates) yield sensitivities of B/Ca versus deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ of 1.14 and 0.69 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ per
224 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ for *C. wuellerstorfi* and *C. mundulus*, respectively, which are indistinguishable from
225 those originally published in (Yu and Elderfield, 2007). Using the averaged B/Ca of replicates
226 for regression analyses would have negligible influences on intercepts and slopes (see Fig. 3
227 caption). Due to the scatter in our calibration (see below), we have applied linear regression
228 analyses to the data in Fig. 3, although eight *C. wuellerstorfi* samples from deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
229 < -15 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ plot below the calibration line. More core-tops from low deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ are

230 needed to investigate whether there is any change in the B/Ca- $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ sensitivity. The
231 compilation in Fig. 3 strengthens the calibration in Yu and Elderfield (2007).

232

233 Despite the strong correlation, an individual data point may deviate from the regression line
234 by up to ~ 15 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ (Fig. 3). The scatter may come from the following sources: (i) inter-shell
235 B/Ca variability of up to ~ 10 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, which may be due to bioturbation mixing of shells of
236 different ages, as revealed by duplicate analyses of core-top samples (~ 8 shells per sample) (Yu
237 and Elderfield, 2007); (ii) intra-shell B/Ca variability of up to ~ 100 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ (or $\pm 43\%$)
238 probably introduced by biological influences (“vital effects”) (Raitzsch et al., 2011); (iii) B/Ca
239 variability up to ~ 40 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ associated with different morphologies within the same species
240 (“vital effects”) (Rae et al., 2011); and (iv) uncertainties associated with deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
241 estimates ($\sim \pm 5$ - 10 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) for core-top shells calcified over the last ~ 5 ka. It is possible that the
242 integrated uncertainties in B/Ca may be largely determined by factor (i), but further work is
243 needed to evaluate B/Ca variabilities at sites of different sedimentation rates. Large variability in
244 ratios has also been observed in other proxies such as benthic Mg/Ca ($\pm 51\%$; compared to $\pm 43\%$
245 in B/Ca) (Raitzsch et al., 2011), Cd/Ca (Boyle, 1984, 1995), and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (McCave et al., 2005;
246 Sortor and Lund, 2011), and we know these proxies offer valuable information about
247 paleoceanography. Indeed, core-top B/Ca ratios from different studies plot along the same trend
248 (Fig. 3) and the down-core B/Ca record from the Caribbean Sea, which was published before
249 acknowledging “noise” from (ii) and (iii), shows a pattern that is consistent with $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ over the
250 last 160 ka (Yu et al., 2010b).

251

252 Various sources of noise mentioned above highlight the need to practice caution when
253 interpreting relatively small $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ changes down core. To improve the signal to noise ratio, we
254 suggest the following practical approaches: (i) use high sedimentation rate cores to minimize the
255 effect of bioturbation, just as one would do when working on other proxies; (ii) use multiple
256 shells, ideally as many as possible and preferably >8 shells per analysis in practice, to obtain
257 integrated B/Ca ratios that are minimally influenced by intra-shell variability; (iii) use shells of
258 the most consistent morphology throughout the core; and (iv) make replicate measurements,
259 when possible, to evaluate overall uncertainty.

260

261 **3.2. Down-core B/Ca results**

262 During the last 160 ka, *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca in core VM28-122 from the North Atlantic
263 varied between ~ 185 and $260 \mu\text{mol/mol}$, corresponding to a range of $\sim 65 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in deep water
264 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ (Fig. 4A). Due to the shallow sill depth of Caribbean Basin (~ 1800 m), core VM28-122
265 records intermediate water chemistry in the past (Ribbat et al., 1976) (Fig. 1). By comparison, the
266 amplitudes in B/Ca in the three cores from the western and central equatorial Pacific Ocean are
267 much smaller, exhibiting ~ 165 - $180 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ in GGC15, ~ 145 - $165 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ in GGC48 and
268 ~ 130 - $155 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ in PC61, respectively (Fig. 4B-D). These variations in B/Ca suggest a
269 maximum change of $\sim 15 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the three sites from the equatorial
270 Pacific Ocean during the last full glacial-interglacial cycle.

271

272 Down-core *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca at VM28-122 mimics that of $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ in *Globigerinoides ruber*
273 from the tropical Atlantic (Foster, 2008; Henahan et al., 2013), showing high deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
274 during cold periods (MIS 2, 4, 6) and low values during relatively warm periods (MIS 1, 3, 5)

275 (Fig. 4A). Results for the three cores from the equatorial Pacific Ocean show different patterns
276 between themselves and differ significantly from those at site VM28-122. B/Ca-derived deep
277 water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the shallowest site (GGC15; 2.3 km water depth) in the western equatorial
278 Pacific Ocean display similar values during the last 50 ka and at late MIS 6, interrupted by low
279 values during MIS 5 and early MIS 4 (Fig. 4B). At 3.4 km water depth, B/Ca ratios in core
280 GGC48 suggest a $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ spike at the last deglaciation, similar deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ values during
281 MIS 3 and at the core-top, and significantly decreased $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at MIS 2, 4, and 5b-d (Fig. 4C). At
282 site PC61 from 4.3 km water depth in the central equatorial Pacific Ocean, a spike in deep water
283 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ is also discernable at the last deglaciation (Fig. 4D), but is less obvious than at core
284 WIND 28 (10.2°S, 51.8°E, 4147 m) from the deep Indian Ocean (Yu et al., 2010a), possibly due
285 to lower sedimentation rates at PC61. At site PC61, we observe high deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at MIS 3
286 and 6 and low values at MIS 2, 4, and 5d-e. Table 2 summarizes deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ for a few
287 time intervals and $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ differences between them at four studied sites.

288

289 Despite their differences in detail, all three records from the equatorial Pacific Ocean show
290 long-term rises in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ from MIS 5c to mid-MIS 3 and transient
291 decreases(increase) in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the onset(end) of MIS 4 (Fig. 4B-D; Table 2).

292

293 **4. Discussion**

294 **4.1. Deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ between the Late Holocene and LGM and implications**

295 The elevated deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at core VM28-122 during the LGM fits well with previous
296 reconstructions (Yu et al., 2008) (Fig. 5) and is consistent with substantial ocean circulation
297 changes in the North Atlantic Ocean (Lippod et al., 2012; Lund et al., 2011; Marchitto et al.,

298 2002; Oppo and Lehman, 1993; Yu et al., 2008). In line with foraminiferal assemblage and
299 benthic Zn/Ca results (Anderson and Archer, 2002; Marchitto et al., 2005), reconstructions on
300 the three cores from the equatorial Pacific Ocean and one core (WIND 28K) from the
301 southwestern Indian Ocean (Yu et al., 2010a) reveal much smaller changes of -5 to 3 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$
302 between the LGM and the Late Holocene (Fig. 5; Table 2). These small changes point to
303 efficient buffering of deep-sea CaCO_3 on deep water pH in the Indo-Pacific Oceans (Anderson
304 and Archer, 2002). During the LGM, the global deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at $>\sim 3.5$ km water depth
305 appeared to be more homogeneous relative to the late Holocene, because $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ decreased in
306 the deep North Atlantic and slightly increased in the deep Indo-Pacific Oceans (Fig. 5),
307 consistent with previous modeling work (Emerson and Archer, 1992).

308

309 Although large in amplitude, changes in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the Atlantic Ocean may have
310 relatively modest impacts on the global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ because (i) the Atlantic is
311 relatively small in volume ($\sim 25\%$ of the global ocean) and (ii) opposite changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at
312 shallow and deep water depths tend to cancel their influences on the global mean deep ocean
313 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ (Fig. 5). It is expected that changes in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the Indian and Pacific
314 Oceans, where the largest volume of the global seawater is stored, should impose the dominant
315 influence on the global mean deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$. Supported by foraminiferal assemblage
316 estimates (Anderson and Archer, 2002), the small variations in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ for cores
317 located at 2.3-4.3 km water depth in the Indian and Pacific Oceans (this study; Yu et al., 2010a)
318 suggest that the global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ is likely similar between the LGM and the Late
319 Holocene.

320

321 Similar global mean deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ between the LGM and the Late Holocene places
322 important constraints on factors influencing the global carbon cycle and low atmospheric CO_2
323 during glacials. First, little change in the global mean deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ strengthens the
324 previous view that transportation of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -depleted terrestrial carbon to the ocean (Curry et al.,
325 1988), as opposed to a carbonate ion effect on the carbon isotope incorporation into benthic tests
326 (Lea et al., 1999), caused the $\sim 0.32\%$ decrease in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during the LGM. Second, neither
327 the “rain ratio” nor “silica leakage” hypothesis can be a primary mechanism for low atmospheric
328 CO_2 during glacials because both hypotheses would require a significant increase in the deep
329 ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ during the LGM (Kohfeld et al., 2005), which is not supported by our
330 reconstructions. Third, since carbon lost from the atmosphere and the land biosphere must have
331 been stored as DIC in the deep ocean during glacials (Broecker, 1982), little change in the global
332 mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ suggests that deep ocean ALK ($\approx [\text{CO}_3^{2-}] + \text{DIC}$) during the LGM must
333 have been higher than today, consistent with previous model results (Toggweiler, 2008). By
334 increasing CO_2 solubility in seawater, high ocean ALK helps to lower atmospheric CO_2 during
335 glacials (Hain et al., 2010; Sigman et al., 2010).

336

337 Our results are obviously at odds with the $\sim 100 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ higher $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the glacial deep
338 ocean based on $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ measurements on mixed benthic foraminifera (Sanyal et al., 1995). $\delta^{11}\text{B}$
339 from Sanyal et al. (1995) are likely compromised by “vital effects” (Hönisch et al., 2008; Rae et
340 al., 2011) and/or analytical uncertainties (Foster et al., 2006). Our estimate is also in contrast to a
341 previous reconstruction in the Weddell Sea, which suggests that glacial deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ was
342 $\sim 25 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ higher than during interglacials (Rickaby et al., 2010; Zeebe and Marchitto, 2010).
343 However, the sedimentation rate of the Weddell Sea core is low with only 3 data points during

344 the last 20 ka, warranting further work in the Southern Ocean to investigate deep water carbonate
345 chemistry in this region (Zeebe and Marchitto, 2010).

346

347 **4.2. Deglacial deep ocean [CO₃²⁻] spikes**

348 Modeling work suggests that the release of carbon from the deep ocean and associated
349 carbonate compensation would produce [CO₃²⁻] peaks in the Indian and Pacific Oceans during
350 deglaciations (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b; Broecker and Peng, 1987). We see no deglacial
351 [CO₃²⁻] peak at cores VM28-122 and GGC15, maybe due to circulation changes as discussed
352 previously (Yu et al., 2010a). During the LGM, VM28-122 and GGC15 would be affected by
353 intermediate waters formed in the North Atlantic and North Pacific, respectively (Boyle and
354 Keigwin, 1987; Matsumoto et al., 2002). With dense sampling in the top 100 cm (1 sample every
355 1-2 cm), our B/Ca ratios at site PC61 indeed resolve a [CO₃²⁻] peak during the last deglaciation
356 (Fig. 6G). This peak is centered at ~9 ka, slightly later than the timing (~14-10 ka) observed at a
357 shallower core GGC48 from the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6E) and at core WIND 28K from the deep
358 Indian Ocean (Yu et al., 2010a) (Supplementary Fig. S1). This age offset is probably an artifact
359 of strong bioturbation due to low sedimentation rates at site PC61 (Fig. 2D), highlighting the
360 need for high-resolution in the Pacific Ocean. The decline in deep water [CO₃²⁻] during the
361 Holocene at site PC61 is about 10 μmol/kg, comparable to a previous estimate of 10-15 μmol/kg
362 based on a dissolution model (Berelson et al., 1997). The evolution of deep water [CO₃²⁻] at site
363 PC61 during the last deglaciation is consistent with deep ocean carbon release and carbonate
364 compensation discussed previously (Yu et al., 2010a). We therefore refer reader to (Yu et al.,
365 2010a) for the interpretation of the last deglacial [CO₃²⁻] records from the equatorial Pacific
366 Ocean.

367

368 Changes in deep Pacific $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the penultimate deglaciation are less comprehensive,
369 because we only have two records at sites GGC15 and PC61 extending back to MIS 6 (Fig. 6C,
370 G). Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at 4.3 km water depth core PC61 appears to show a simple decline of ~ 7
371 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ from MIS 6 to 5e, instead of a deglacial spike (Table 2). Our record at 2.3 km water
372 depth core GGC15 is too short to reveal an unambiguous spike at the penultimate deglaciation.
373 At this site, the obvious decline in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ of $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ from MIS 6 to 5 is in stark contrast to
374 stable $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ during the last ~ 30 ka. These observations suggest that deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ must
375 have responded differently during the last two glacial terminations. This conclusion is consistent
376 with $\% \text{CaCO}_3$ at ODP 1089 from Cape Basin, a qualitative record of deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ (Hodell
377 et al., 2001), which shows a broad peak at ~ 190 - 120 ka (the penultimate deglacial) compared to a
378 narrow $\% \text{CaCO}_3$ spike at the last deglaciation. More records, especially for the penultimate
379 deglaciation, are needed to investigate reasons for different variations in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
380 between the two terminations.

381

382 **4.3. Deep Pacific $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ rise from MIS 5c to 3 and sea-level drop**

383 Details aside, all three cores from the Pacific Ocean show long-term increases in deep water
384 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, by $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol/kg}$, from MIS 5c to mid MIS 3 (Fig. 6C, E, G; Table 2). Because these cores
385 cover a large water depth range (2.3-4.3 km) in the equatorial Pacific Ocean which hosts the
386 largest volume of the global seawater, the observed increases probably reflect a response of the
387 global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$. The much greater amplitude change at core VM28-122 in the
388 Caribbean Basin over the same time interval (Fig. 6A; Table 2) is likely due to large changes in
389 the pre-formed $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the North Atlantic Ocean (Foster, 2008; Yu et al., 2010b). In the North

390 Atlantic, surface seawater $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ during the LGM was about 60 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ greater than the Late
391 Holocene (Yu et al., 2013).

392

393 During the last glaciation, decreasing temperatures, vegetation and precipitation would reduce
394 the global chemical erosion rate on continents (Broecker and Peng, 1987). However, exposure of
395 carbonates on the shelves, which weather at a faster rate than other rock types, tends to increase
396 the global chemical erosion rate (Gibbs and Kump, 1994). Therefore, the alkalinity flux from
397 rivers to the ocean may have remained roughly constant in the past, and may not be responsible
398 for the long-term rise in deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$. Pelagic carbonate production in the past is poorly
399 constrained, with some studies suggest higher export production during the LGM than during
400 MIS 5a-d (e.g., Kohfeld et al., 2005; Menviel et al., 2012; Paytan et al., 1996), which would
401 decrease the deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ from MIS 5c to 3, opposite to the trend observed in our records.

402

403 We argue that the long-term rise in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the Pacific Ocean from MIS 5c to mid MIS 3 is
404 consistent with the “coral reef” hypothesis (Berger, 1982; Opdyke and Walker, 1992) (Fig. 7A).
405 This rise in deep Pacific $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ coincided with a global sea-level drop of ~60 m (Fig. 6I) (Grant
406 et al., 2012; Thompson and Goldstein, 2006; Waelbroeck et al., 2002). Today, shallow water
407 carbonate production makes up about half of the global CaCO_3 burial (Opdyke and Walker,
408 1992) and a drop of 60 m in sea-level would result in a substantial loss of the shelf area and
409 hence a decrease in neritic carbonate production and preservation (Milliman, 1974, 1993).
410 Everything else being equal, a decrease in carbonate deposition on shelves would raise the global
411 ALK and DIC at a ratio of 2:1, resulting in an increase in the whole ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ ($\approx \text{ALK} -$
412 DIC) which deepens the calcite saturation horizon and improves CaCO_3 preservation in the deep

413 sea. By raising deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, a sea-level drop shifts the locus of carbonate deposition from
414 the shelves to the deep sea, helping to maintain the whole ocean ALK balance (Berger, 1982;
415 Menviel and Joos, 2012; Opdyke and Walker, 1992; Ridgwell et al., 2003b). The associated gain
416 in oceanic ALK due to the decline in coral growth during marine regression contributes to the
417 decrease in atmospheric CO_2 (Fig. 6J). Our results provide important constraints for models to
418 quantify the role of the “coral reef” hypothesis in atmospheric CO_2 declines during the last
419 glaciation.

420

421 **4.4. Transient $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ changes at MIS 4 and carbonate compensation**

422 Superimposed upon the long-term rise (Section 4.3), deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ records at all three
423 sites from the equatorial Pacific Ocean show transient changes at MIS 4 (Fig. 6C, E, G). These
424 changes differ from variations in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from the same cores (Fig. 6D, F, H). For example,
425 at the start of MIS 4, deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at site GGC15 declined by $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ and coincided
426 with a $\sim 0.3\text{‰}$ decrease in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Fig. 6C, D). While $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ stayed low for $\sim 10,000$ years
427 during MIS 4, $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ recovered back to the long-term trend within $\sim 7,000$ years. At the end of
428 MIS 4, the opposite changes occurred. Similar patterns in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are also observed at
429 sites GGC48 and PC61 (Fig. 6E-H), although amplitudes slightly differ. The reoccurrence of
430 similar patterns in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from all three cores lead us to believe that these changes are
431 robust features of the deep ocean carbonate system at MIS 4 in the Pacific Ocean. Furthermore,
432 we rely on the relative variations in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from the same cores to minimize any
433 complications from age model uncertainties.

434

435 The observed changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at MIS 4 cannot be explained by changes in the
436 pre-formed values in the North Atlantic, because records at site VM28-122 show general
437 increases in both $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during MIS 4 (Fig. 6A, B). At the onset of MIS 4, sea-level is
438 thought to have dropped by ~ 50 m (Fig. 6I) (Grant et al., 2012; Thompson and Goldstein, 2006;
439 Waelbroeck et al., 2002) and any decrease in neritic carbonate production associated with the
440 sea-level drop should have driven up ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ (Section 4.3), opposite to the observed
441 decreases in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the three sites from the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6C, E, G). Instead, we argue
442 that the observed changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at MIS 4 are consistent with vertical nutrient
443 fractionation (i.e., a shift of nutrient and presumably carbon between shallow and deep water
444 depths) and carbonate compensation (Fig. 7B) (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b; Broecker and Peng,
445 1987).

446

447 During the transition from MIS 5 to 4, marine sediment evidence indicates the first
448 significant increases in dust fluxes, surface nutrient utilization, and marine export production in
449 the Subantarctic zone of the Southern Ocean (Francois et al., 1997; Hain et al., 2013; Kohfeld et
450 al., 2005; Kumar et al., 1995; Lambert et al., 2008; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2011; Robinson and
451 Sigman, 2008). At this transition, benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ increased by $\sim 0.4\text{‰}$ in the upper North Atlantic
452 Ocean (Fig. 6B) and decreased by $\sim 0.5\text{--}1.5\text{‰}$ at greater water depths ($> \sim 3$ km) in the global
453 ocean (Fig. 8) (Hodell et al., 2003; McCave et al., 2005; Mix, 2001; Ruddiman et al., 1989).
454 These observations agree well with the nutrient deepening hypothesis that invokes sequestration
455 of biological carbon from the surface and upper oceans to the deep ocean at the start of MIS 4
456 (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b).

457

458 By shifting the aqueous carbonate equilibrium $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_3^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow 2\text{HCO}_3^-$ to the right,
459 sequestration of carbon in the deep ocean would initially lower deep-sea $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, as observed in
460 our records from the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6C, E, G), and enhance CaCO_3 dissolution in the deep
461 ocean at the onset of MIS 4 (Crowley, 1983; Hodell et al., 2001; Le and Shackleton, 1992;
462 Raitzsch et al., 2011). Assuming constant pelagic CaCO_3 production and weathering rate,
463 increased CaCO_3 dissolution in the deep ocean caused by accumulation of respiratory CO_2 ,
464 together with a decline in neritic CaCO_3 production due to the sea-level drop (Section 4.3),
465 would elevate ocean ALK and DIC at a ratio of 2:1, leading to a rise in seawater $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ until a
466 balance between ALK input from rivers and deep-sea CaCO_3 burial is reestablished on a
467 timescale of $\sim 7,000$ years (Fig. 7B) (Archer et al., 2000; Broecker and Peng, 1987). Carbonate
468 compensation has little effect on seawater $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and would decouple $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during the
469 recovery stage of the deep ocean carbonate system, which is observed in our records (Fig. 6C-H;
470 Fig. 7B). At the end of MIS 4, the opposite changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are in line with “nutrient
471 shoaling” (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b). As discussed previously, both initial carbon
472 reorganization and the associated carbonate compensation affect atmospheric CO_2 (Archer et al.,
473 2000; Broecker and Peng, 1987; Hain et al., 2010; Menviel et al., 2012). Our results provide
474 critical constraints for models to quantify their respective roles in atmospheric CO_2 changes at
475 MIS 4.

476

477 **4.5. Changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ from MIS 3 to the LGM**

478 Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ records show contrasting trends from MIS 3 to the LGM. In the
479 Caribbean Basin, deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ rose by $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (Fig. 6A), likely reflecting an increase
480 in pre-formed $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in response to a decrease in atmospheric CO_2 (Lüthi et al., 2008) (Fig. 6J),

481 due to its proximity to the deep water formation sites in the North Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). In the
482 Pacific Ocean, we observe little change in deep water [CO_3^{2-}] at site GGC15 and ~ 4 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$
483 decrease at sites GGC48 and PC61 from mid MIS 3 to the LGM (Fig. 6C, E, G; Table 2).
484 Although generally weaker than in the Atlantic, circulation changes in the Pacific Ocean might
485 be significant enough to overwhelm deep ocean [CO_3^{2-}] at sites close to water mass boundaries.
486 Benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ results suggest an existence of new water mass above ~ 2 km water depth in the
487 North and Equatorial Pacific, whereas the North Pacific Deep Water deepened from today's 1-2
488 km to >3 km water depth during the LGM (Herguera et al., 2010; Keigwin, 1998; Leduc et al.,
489 2010; Matsumoto et al., 2002; McCave et al., 2008) (Fig. 1). A change in the structure of water
490 masses in the Pacific Ocean could cause different evolutions of deep water [CO_3^{2-}] at the three
491 sites from the Pacific Ocean from the MIS 3 to the LGM (Fig. 6C, E, G).

492

493 Located at 4.3 km water depth in the central Pacific Ocean, site PC61 may have been
494 minimally affected by ocean circulation changes, so the ~ 4 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ decrease in [CO_3^{2-}] between
495 MIS 3 and the LGM recorded at this site is interpreted to reflect the change in deep Pacific
496 carbonate chemistry independent of changes in ocean circulation. Reconstructions using benthic
497 B/Ca showed a decline of ~ 5 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ over the same time interval in the deep ($>\sim 4$ km water
498 depth) North and Equatorial Atlantic and Indian Oceans (Raitzsch et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2010a).
499 Dissolution indices also indicated deteriorated carbonate preservation from MIS 3 to the LGM in
500 the deep Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific Oceans (Barker et al., 2006; Bickert and Mackensen, 2003;
501 Crowley, 1983; Farrell and Prell, 1989, 1991; Hodell et al., 2001; Howard and Prell, 1994; Le
502 and Shackleton, 1992). Therefore, it seems that the MIS 3-to-LGM decrease in deep water
503 [CO_3^{2-}] is widespread in the global deep ocean ($>\sim 4$ km water depth).

504

505 As shown by previous model results (Opdyke and Walker, 1992), a sea level drop of ~30 m
506 from the mid MIS 3 to the LGM (Grant et al., 2012; Thompson and Goldstein, 2006;
507 Waelbroeck et al., 2002) (Fig. 6I) would increase in the global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$,
508 opposite to our observation (Fig. 7A, Section 4.3). Although an increase in pelagic CaCO_3
509 production would lead to a decrease in deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, we dismiss this possibility for three
510 reasons. First, while permanently decreasing deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, an increase in pelagic CaCO_3
511 production would deepen the Carbonate Compensation Depth (CCD) during the first few
512 thousand years of the surface production increase and result in a decoupling of deep ocean
513 carbonate saturation horizon and CCD (Sigman and Boyle, 2000), evidence for which is lacking.
514 Second, the steady increase in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ from MIS 5c to mid MIS 3 (Fig. 6C, E, G) must require
515 that any increase in the surface CaCO_3 production rate should not exceed the rate of decline in
516 neritic CaCO_3 production until mid MIS 3, a strict condition to satisfy. Third, an increase in
517 surface CaCO_3 productivity would increase atmospheric CO_2 , opposite to the observed decline
518 from ice cores (Lüthi et al., 2008) (Fig. 6J). Currently, paleo-proxy data are inconclusive on
519 changes in the pelagic rain rate of CaCO_3 in the past (Meniel et al., 2012).

520

521 We argue that an increased in ocean stratification is responsible for the widespread decreases
522 in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ observed at our sites GGC48 and PC61 as well as at other locations in the
523 Atlantic and Indian Oceans (Raitzsch et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2010a). From MIS 3 to the LGM the
524 deep ocean ($>\sim 3$ km) may have become further stratified (Adkins et al., 2002; Burke and
525 Robinson, 2012; Lund et al., 2011) and sequestered more respired carbon, as suggested by
526 decreases in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ over this time interval (Fig. 6F, H; 8). During the LGM, stratification

527 and the efficiency of the biological pump might have reached its maximum potential (Hain et al.,
528 2013), overwhelming the increase in deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ due to lowering sea level (Section 4.3).
529 Increased sequestration of respired carbon is further supported by low deep water O_2 deduced
530 from increased authigenic uranium in sediments (Bradt Miller et al., 2010; Jaccard et al., 2009).
531 The associated shift of carbon to greater depths would transiently decrease $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in the deep
532 ocean (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b), explaining the observed decreases at site PC61 and other
533 locations. Carbonate compensation should bring the deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ back to a steady state
534 within $\sim 7,000$ years (Archer et al., 2000; Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b; Broecker and Peng, 1987),
535 seemingly inconsistent with the sustained low $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ for $\sim 10,000$ years during MIS 2 at site
536 GGC48 (Fig. 6E). However, we note that, in addition to the influence from the global deep ocean
537 stratification, site GGC48 may be further affected by deepening of NPDW during the LGM
538 (Matsumoto et al., 2002). The expected recovery of deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ due to CaCO_3
539 compensation during the LGM at core PC61 is not evident in our data (Fig. 6G), which may be
540 caused by strong bioturbation at low sedimentation rates (Fig. 2D). More importantly, any rise in
541 deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ in response to deep ocean carbonate compensation during MIS 2 might have
542 been overwhelmed by carbon release due to a change in deep ocean vertical stratification during
543 the last deglaciation (Anderson et al., 2009). We suggest that increased vertical ocean
544 stratification at the transition of MIS 3 to the LGM has contributed to the 20 ppmv decrease in
545 atmospheric CO_2 at the final step of the last glaciation (Lüthi et al., 2008) (Fig. 6J) by
546 sequestering carbon in the deep ocean and by increasing ocean ALK through deep ocean CaCO_3
547 dissolution.

548

549 **4.6. Inter-ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ gradient and atmospheric CO_2**

550 Fig. 9 shows the differences in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between sites VM28-122 and PC61, in
551 comparison with atmospheric CO_2 during the last 160 ka. Differencing $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between
552 the two sites removes influences from “open-system” responses including deep ocean carbonate
553 compensation, changes in neritic carbonate production associated with sea-level fluctuations, and
554 transportation of terrestrial biosphere carbon to the ocean, all of which should be global and
555 impose equal impacts on chemical properties at different locations. These open-system processes
556 sometimes can significantly affect changes in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at a given location
557 caused by processes within the ocean interior. In contrast, gradients in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between
558 cores VM28-122 and PC61 should mainly reflect “closed-system” processes such as ocean
559 circulation, ocean stratification, and biological respiration that redistribute DIC and ALK among
560 different volumes of the ocean. Over the last 160 ka, both $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradients co-vary
561 with atmospheric CO_2 , showing large gradients during MIS 2, 4, and 6 when atmospheric CO_2
562 was low (Fig. 9A, B). Furthermore, $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradients are positively correlated and plot
563 along the Redfield slope (Yu et al., 2008) (Fig. 9C). Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at VM28-122
564 are negatively correlated with atmospheric CO_2 over the last 160 ka, but they plot along a
565 shallower slope than the Redfield ratio on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ space (Supplementary Fig. S2).
566 Differencing $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between sites VM28-122 and PC 61 slightly improves the
567 correlation and, importantly, increases the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ slope close to the Redfield ratio (Fig. 9).

568

569 The results in Fig. 9 are consistent with the “ocean stratification” hypothesis (Francois et al.,
570 1997; Sigman and Boyle, 2000). Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at core VM28-122 suggests that
571 this site has been bathed by a water mass located above the stratification boundary (Yu et al.,
572 2010b). Located in the abyss of the Pacific Ocean, core PC 61 likely records the maximum

573 impact of nutrient deepening associated with the deep ocean stratification. Stratification and
574 associated nutrient accumulation in the deep ocean would drive both $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in opposite
575 directions for cores VM28-122 and PC61, leading to greater $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradients between
576 the two sites when stratification was strengthened. Therefore, greater gradients in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and
577 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ together with decreases in atmospheric CO_2 during MIS 2, 4, and 6 (Fig. 9) suggest
578 stepwise strengthening of deep ocean stratification has played an important role in atmospheric
579 CO_2 drawdown during the last glaciation.

580

581 The recent “ventilation volume” hypothesis (Kwon et al., 2012) suggests that a large volume
582 of glacial deep ocean was ventilated by deep waters formed in the North Atlantic which is
583 characterized by low pre-formed nutrient and high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. According to this idea, any increase in
584 seawater nutrient in the ocean’s interior would mainly reflect a greater regeneration of biogenic
585 carbon and hence a stronger biological pump which acts to lower atmospheric CO_2 (Hain et al.,
586 2013; Kwon et al., 2012). In this case, and excluding influences from carbonate compensation,
587 changes in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ should be correlated and plot along the Redfield slope
588 (Yu et al., 2008), which is observed in Fig. 9C. Therefore, our data appear to be consistent with
589 the “ventilation volume” hypothesis as a feasible mechanism for changes in atmospheric CO_2 in
590 the past (Hain et al., 2013; Kwon et al., 2012).

591

592 **4.7. CaCO_3 preservation in the central deep Equatorial Pacific Ocean**

593 Since its discovery by Arrhenius (1952), the origin of the “Pacific-type” $\% \text{CaCO}_3$ pattern
594 remains debated, centering on whether surface productivity or deep-sea dissolution controls
595 downcore variability of CaCO_3 accumulation (Anderson et al., 2008; Archer, 1991; Hodell et al.,

596 2001; Lyle et al., 2000; Lyle et al., 1992). Fig. 10 shows a comparison of B/Ca derived deep
597 water [CO_3^{2-}], % CaCO_3 , and ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 flux for two adjacent cores from the
598 central Pacific Ocean (Anderson et al., 2008). Considering the data over the entire studied time
599 interval, deep water [CO_3^{2-}] and ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 flux show striking similarities during
600 the last 160 ka. Therefore, along with little change in surface productivity based on ^{230}Th -
601 normalized Ba and ^{10}Be (Anderson et al., 2008; Marcantonio et al., 2001; Paytan et al., 1996),
602 our data provide convincing evidence for deep ocean dissolution as a dominant control on CaCO_3
603 accumulation in the central deep Pacific Ocean during the last glacial-interglacial cycle
604 (Anderson et al., 2008; Berelson et al., 1997).

605

606 We also observe some differences in our records. During MIS 5, % CaCO_3 at site PC61 is
607 higher than that at PC72 (Fig. 10A), possibly suggesting different degrees of sediment focusing
608 even at closely located cores, or possibly reflecting the southward decrease in dust (lithogenic)
609 accumulation across the equatorial Pacific (see Fig. 4 of (Anderson et al., 2006)), which would
610 have had the greatest impact on measured % CaCO_3 during periods of minimal CaCO_3
611 preservation, such as MIS 5. Deep water [CO_3^{2-}] differs from the ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 flux
612 mainly during MIS 5 and 2. During MIS 5, [CO_3^{2-}] at site PC61 exhibited large fluctuations with
613 three short-term excursions, in contrast to stable ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 fluxes at site PC72.
614 The difference may be due to the selective preservation of a small number of whole foraminifera
615 shells used for B/Ca. Although the periods of elevated [CO_3^{2-}] were brief, compared to
616 background periods of lower [CO_3^{2-}], the benthic foraminifera that lived during periods of high
617 [CO_3^{2-}] were preferentially preserved, thereby biasing the population of specimens that survived
618 in favor of periods of high [CO_3^{2-}]. By contrast, Th-normalization integrates fragments from

619 periods of poor preservation (most of the time) with whole foraminiferal shells (preferentially
620 preserved, but representing only a small portion of the integrated time interval). Because of the
621 nature of these different measurements, it is necessary to have a longer period of high $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ to
622 detect the effect in Th-normalized CaCO_3 flux in cores with low accumulation rates.
623 Alternatively, the difference may be caused by a lower sampling resolution in core PC72 (12
624 samples in PC61 versus 6 samples in PC72 during 72-128 ka). During MIS 2, the $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ minima
625 seems to occur $\sim 3,000$ years later than the minima in ^{230}Th -normalized CaCO_3 flux (Fig. 10B),
626 which could be an artifact of bioturbation for low sedimentation rates (~ 2 cm/ka) at both sites
627 (Fig. 2D).

628

629 **5. Conclusions**

630 Based on paired $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from Caribbean Basin and the equatorial Pacific
631 Ocean, we reach the following conclusions:

632

633 (1) Over the last glacial-interglacial cycle, deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at the mid-depth of the North
634 Atlantic Ocean displays a large amplitude variability of ~ 65 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$, reflecting strong
635 influences from surface ocean chemistry in this well ventilated water mass. In contrast, deep
636 water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at three sites at 2.3-4.3 km water depth from the equatorial Pacific Ocean has
637 varied by no more than ~ 15 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ due to effective buffering effect of the deep-sea CaCO_3
638 (Anderson and Archer, 2002).

639

640 (2) Our data suggest that the global mean deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ is likely similar between the Late
641 Holocene and the LGM. Considering the storage of extra carbon in the deep ocean, the global

642 deep ocean alkalinity (salinity normalized) during the LGM must have been substantially
643 higher than today.

644

645 (3) Our data from the three sites in the Pacific Ocean show temporal rises in deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
646 from MIS 5c to mid MIS 3, consistent with a response of the deep ocean carbonate system to
647 a decrease in neritic CaCO_3 production associated with ~60 m drop in sea-level (Berger,
648 1982; Opdyke and Walker, 1992).

649

650 (4) The transient changes in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at MIS 4 observed in our records from the deep Pacific
651 Ocean are consistent with expectation from the vertical nutrient fractionation and carbonate
652 compensation (Boyle, 1988a; Boyle, 1988b; Broecker and Peng, 1987).

653

654 (5) Although sea-level dropped by ~30 m from MIS 3 to the LGM, we see no rise in deep ocean
655 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ over this time interval. The observed decrease in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ at site PC61
656 from 4.3 km water depth in the central Pacific Ocean is consistent with enhanced ocean
657 stratification from the MIS 3 to the LGM (Adkins et al., 2002; Burke and Robinson, 2012;
658 Lund et al., 2011).

659

660 (6) Over the last glacial-interglacial cycle, gradients in $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between the mid-depth
661 North Atlantic (VM28-122) and deep equatorial Pacific (PC61) have varied systematically
662 with atmospheric CO_2 and changed along the biogenic regeneration trend on the $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]-\delta^{13}\text{C}$
663 space, lending support to changes in ocean stratification and associated accumulation of

664 respired carbon in the deep ocean as an important factor controlling past atmospheric CO₂
665 variations (Francois et al., 1997; Sigman and Boyle, 2000).

666

667 (7) Covariation of deep water [CO₃²⁻] and ²³⁰Th-normalized CaCO₃ flux at two adjacent cores in
668 the central deep Pacific Ocean provides strong support for deep-sea dissolution as a dominant
669 control on past CaCO₃ accumulation at these sites (Anderson et al., 2008; Berelson et al.,
670 1997).

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947 **Tables**

948 **Table 1.** Core locations together with deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{sat}}$ ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$) above these
 949 sites (Key et al., 2004).
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Core	Latitude	Longitude	Water depth	$[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{preindustrial}}$	$[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]_{\text{sat}}$
VM28-122	12°N	79°W	3623 m [†]	106	86
GGC15	0°N	58°E	2311 m	73	67
GGC48	0°N	161°E	3400 m	78	83
PC61	0.86°S	140°W	4276 m	80	98

951 [†]: sill depth is 1800 m.
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974 **Table 2.** Average deep water [CO₃²⁻] for selected time intervals and differences between them at
 975 the four studied sites. Errors represent 1 standard deviation of reconstructions within the
 976 indicated time interval.

Core	Deep water [CO ₃ ²⁻] (μmol/kg)						Difference (μmol/kg)			
	Late HOL	LGM	mid MIS 3	MIS 5c	MIS 5e	mid MIS 6	LGM - Late HOL	MIS 6 - MIS5e	MIS 5e - Late HOL	MIS 5c - mid MIS 3
	0-5 ka	19-23 ka	36-45 ka	93-105 ka	115-130 ka	135-145 ka				
VM28-122	111±4 (2) [§]	145±5 (4)	138±6(8)	122±7(11)	105±7 (6)	135±15 (4)	34±6	30±17	-6±8	-16±9
GGC15	70±2 (3)	73±2 (3)	72±2(5)	65±4(7)	66±4 (4)	73±2 (7)	3±3	7±4	-4±4	-7±4
GGC48	79±2 (2)	74±2 (3)	78±3(11)	70±3(10)	—	—	-5±3	—	—	-8±4
PC61	86±4 (8) [*]	87±3 (3)	91±5(13)	84±4(2)	75±2 (4)	82±2 (4)	1±4	7±3	-10±4	-7±6

[§]: number of samples used for averaging; ^{*}: for the time interval <8 ka.

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985 **Figure captions**

986 **Fig. 1.** Locations of cores used in this study in the context of pre-industrial seawater $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
987 based on the GLODAP dataset (Key et al., 2004). Core VM28-122 is plotted at the sill depth of
988 1.8 km of Caribbean Basin (Table 1). Inset shows the hydrographic transect used to generate the
989 bathymetric profile of $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$. Profile and map are generated using ODV (Schlitzer, 2006).
990 NADW: North Atlantic Deep Water; LCDW: Lower Circumpolar Deep Water; NPDW: North
991 Pacific Deep Water. The reader is referred to the web version of this article for colour figures.

992
993 **Fig. 2.** Age models and sedimentation rates of four studied cores. The ages of cores are based on
994 radiocarbon dates at $<\sim 30$ ka (crosses) and visual comparison of benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (triangles) with the
995 global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack curve (grey curves) (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). In **(D)**, *Pulleniatina*
996 *obliquiloculata* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (empty diamonds) is shifted by +3.5‰ to place the record in the same range
997 as benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. With the exception of GGC48 during ~ 150 -120 ka which is likely compromised
998 by bioturbation (dark grey triangles), all cores capture expected glacial-interglacial structures in
999 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Data sources: radiocarbon dates for PC61 are from this study (Supplementary Materials)
1000 and others are from (Yu et al., 2010a); $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at $<\sim 30$ ka in VM28-122 are from (Oppo and
1001 Fairbanks, 1990), $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at <50 ka in GGC15 and GGC48 from (Yu et al., 2010a), and all others
1002 from this study (Supplementary Materials). The reader is referred to the web version of this
1003 article for colour figures.

1004
1005 **Fig. 3. (A)** Calibration of core-top B/Ca against pre-industrial deep water $\Delta[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ for two
1006 epifaunal benthic foraminifera *C. wuellerstorfi* and *C. mundulus*. Core-top data are from five
1007 studies (Brown and Elderfield, 1996; Rae et al., 2011; Raitzsch et al., 2011; Yu and Elderfield,

1008 2007; this study). Altogether, 7 B/Ca in *C. wuellerstorfi* and 1 B/Ca in *C. mundulus* are judged as
1009 outliers and are excluded, due to possible laboratory contamination based on replicate analyses
1010 (Yu and Elderfield, 2007), high Al/Ca (Rae et al., 2011), and anomalous morphology of
1011 foraminiferal shells (Rae et al., 2011). The regressions shown are for all B/Ca replicates. If B/Ca
1012 averages are used, the regressions are: $y = 1.16 \pm 0.04x + 176.5 \pm 1.2$, $n=152$, $R^2 = 0.86$, $P < 0.0001$
1013 for *C. wuellerstorfi* and $y = 0.67 \pm 0.04x + 122.1 \pm 2.0$, $n= 48$, $R^2=0.84$, $P < 0.0001$ for *C. mundulus*.
1014 The intercepts and slopes are indistinguishable from those based on the regression on all
1015 replicates (shown in Fig. 3) and from previous estimates (Raitzsch et al., 2011; Yu and
1016 Elderfield, 2007). Uncertainties associated with slopes and intercepts are standard errors. **(B)**
1017 locations of core-top samples (circles: *C. wuellerstorfi*, squares: *C. mundulus*). Map generated by
1018 ODV (Schlitzer, 2006). Data are presented in supplementary Materials. The reader is referred to
1019 the web version of this article for colour figures.

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1021 **Fig. 4.** *C. wuellerstorfi* B/Ca of four studied cores. Grey symbols represent B/Ca replicates. In
1022 **(C)**, empty triangles indicate samples probably biased by bioturbation (Fig. 2C) and these B/Ca
1023 are not plotted in other figures. Data sources: B/Ca in VM28-122 are from (Yu et al., 2010b),
1024 B/Ca at <50 ka in GGC15 and GGC48 from (Yu et al., 2010a), and all others from this study
1025 (Supplementary Materials). The reader is referred to the web version of this article for colour
1026 figures.

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1028 **Fig. 5.** Vertical distribution of deep water $[CO_3^{2-}]$ in the North Atlantic (circles) and Indo-Pacific
1029 (triangles) Oceans during the Late Holocene (Late HOL; solid symbols) and the LGM (open
1030 symbols). Data for the North Atlantic profile are based on VM28-122 (Table 2) and 6 cores

1031 presented in (Yu et al., 2008), while those for the Indo-Pacific profile are based on WIND 28K
1032 from the Indian Ocean (Yu et al., 2010a) and three cores from the Pacific Ocean (Table 2). The
1033 water depths of cores are adjusted by -120 m during the LGM. Compared to the North Atlantic
1034 Ocean, the Indo-Pacific Oceans witnessed relatively small changes in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$. The
1035 reader is referred to the web version of this article for colour figures.

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1037 **Fig. 6.** Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of four studied cores (**A-H**) compared with the global sea
1038 level change (Grant et al., 2012; Thompson and Goldstein, 2006; Waelbroeck et al., 2002) (**I**)
1039 and atmospheric CO_2 (Lüthi et al., 2008) (**J**) during the last 160 ka. Deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ are
1040 derived from B/Ca shown in Fig. 4 and only average $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ with 1SD error bars are shown for
1041 clarification. Black and red arrows show the long-term trends and transient changes,
1042 respectively. Benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data sources: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at <30 ka in VM28-122 are from (Oppo and
1043 Fairbanks, 1990), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at <50 ka in GGC15 and GGC48 from (Yu et al., 2010a), and others from
1044 this study (Supplementary Materials). The reader is referred to the web version of this article for
1045 colour figures.

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1047 **Fig. 7.** Schematic diagram showing responses of deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, whole ocean
1048 alkalinity, and atmospheric CO_2 to (**A**) sea level changes and (**B**) ocean vertical carbon
1049 fractionation. No scales are given to either axis, and thus the changes are only qualitative to
1050 assist understanding the deep ocean carbonate system. The horizontal grey lines represent the
1051 long-term steady state values. In (**A**), it is assumed that the growth of coral reefs on shelves are
1052 coupled with sea level changes at all times: when sea-level drops neritic CaCO_3 production
1053 decreases and vice versa. While this may be reasonable during most of times at marine

1054 regressions since corals die as sea level drops, a lag in the coral reef growth with respect to the
1055 sea level rise is expected at deglaciations due to the fact that coral growth cannot catch up the
1056 rate of the sea level rise at transgressions. Dashed curves shown in (A) show delayed responses
1057 of deep ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$, oceanic alkalinity, and atmospheric CO_2 . Deep ocean alkalinity and
1058 $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ are expected to change at a ratio of 2:1 in scenario (A), while no overall correlation is
1059 expected between them in scenario (B). In each scenario of A and B, other factors affecting deep
1060 ocean $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ such as ALK inputs from rivers and pelagic CaCO_3 production are assumed
1061 constant. Mechanisms causing changes in ocean ALK in scenarios A and B are different. In A, a
1062 change in ocean ALK is a response to changes in the production and burial of CaCO_3 on
1063 continental shelves. In B, a change in ocean ALK is a response to changes in preservation of
1064 CaCO_3 in deep-sea sediments, forced by variable levels of respiratory CO_2 . G: glacial; IG:
1065 interglacial; dg: deglacial. The reader is referred to the web version of this article for colour
1066 figures.

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1068 **Fig. 8.** Benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from the global deep ocean showing significant changes by $\sim 0.5\text{-}1.5\text{‰}$ at
1069 the start and end of MIS 4 (Hodell et al., 2003; McCave et al., 2005; Mix, 2001; Ruddiman et al.,
1070 1989). The reader is referred to the web version of this article for colour figures.

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1072 **Fig. 9.** Comparison of gradients in deep water $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ (A) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (B) between cores VM28-
1073 122 and PC61 with atmospheric CO_2 during the last 160 ka (Lüthi et al., 2008). To difference
1074 records between the two cores, $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at site VM28-122 are firstly interpolated at the
1075 resolution of PC61 (Supplementary Materials). (C) Correlation of $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradients
1076 compared with the biogenic regeneration trend (green) (Yu et al., 2008). The best linear fit (red)

1077 of data in (C) is based on reduced major axis regression (Bohonak, 2004). The reader is referred
1078 to the web version of this article for colour figures.

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1080 **Fig. 10.** Comparison of %CaCO₃ (A) ²³⁰Th-normalized CaCO₃ flux and deep water [CO₃²⁻] (B)
1081 at two adjacent cores PC61 (this study; Supplementary Materials) and PC72 (0.1137°N,
1082 139.4015°W, 4298 m water depth) (Anderson et al., 2008) from the central deep Pacific Ocean
1083 during the last 160 ka. Overall, deep water [CO₃²⁻] and ²³⁰Th-normalized CaCO₃ flux show
1084 similar patterns during the last glacial-interglacial cycle. The reader is referred to the web
1085 version of this article for colour figures.

Figures

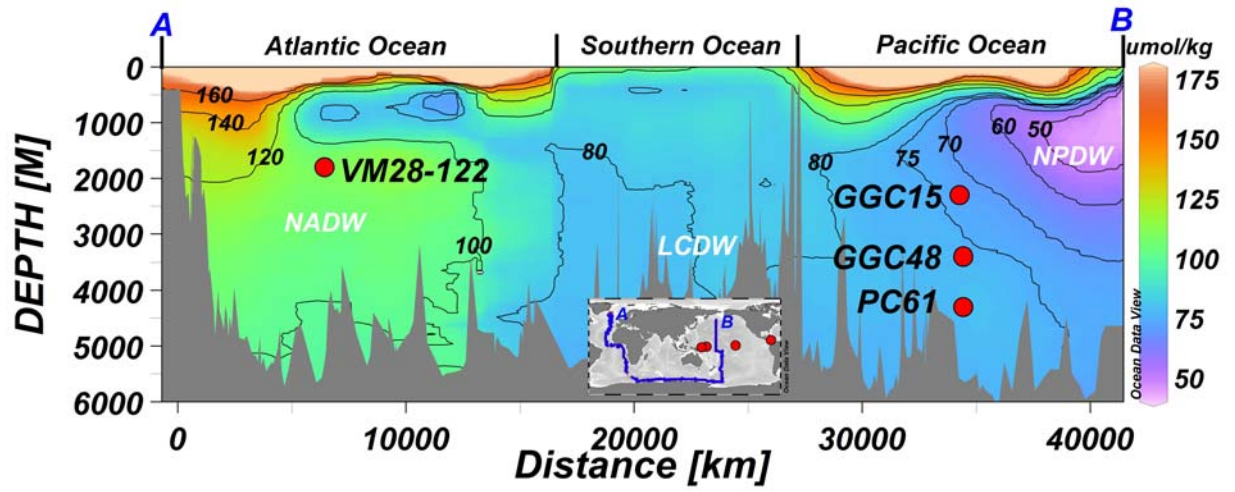


Fig. 1.

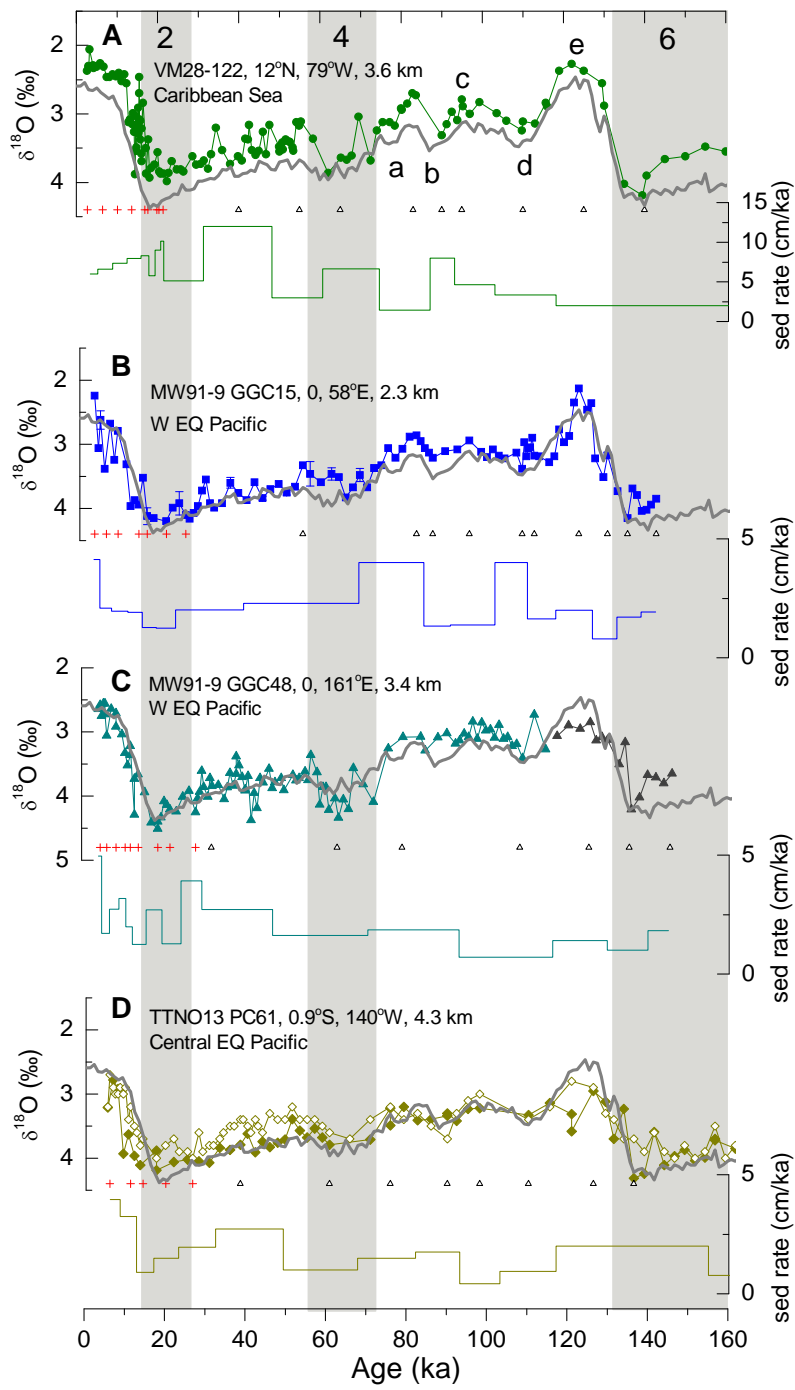


Fig. 2.

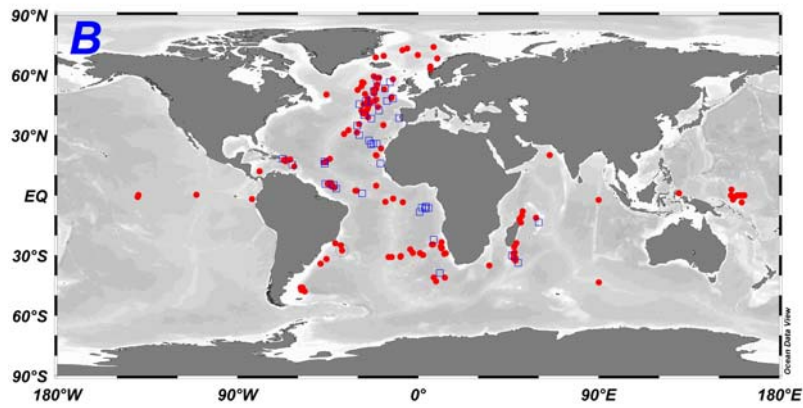
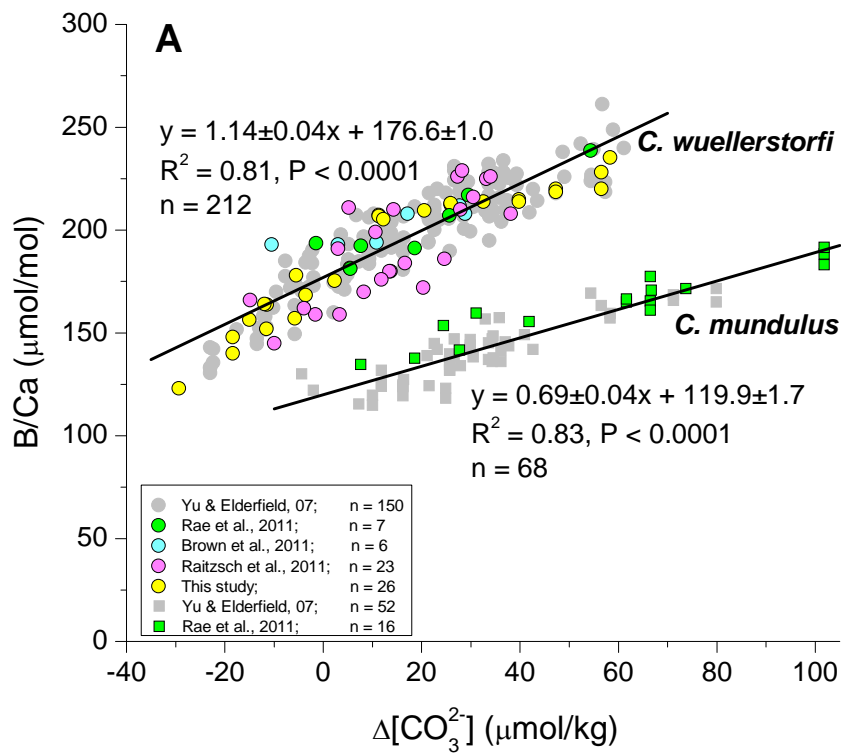


Fig. 3.

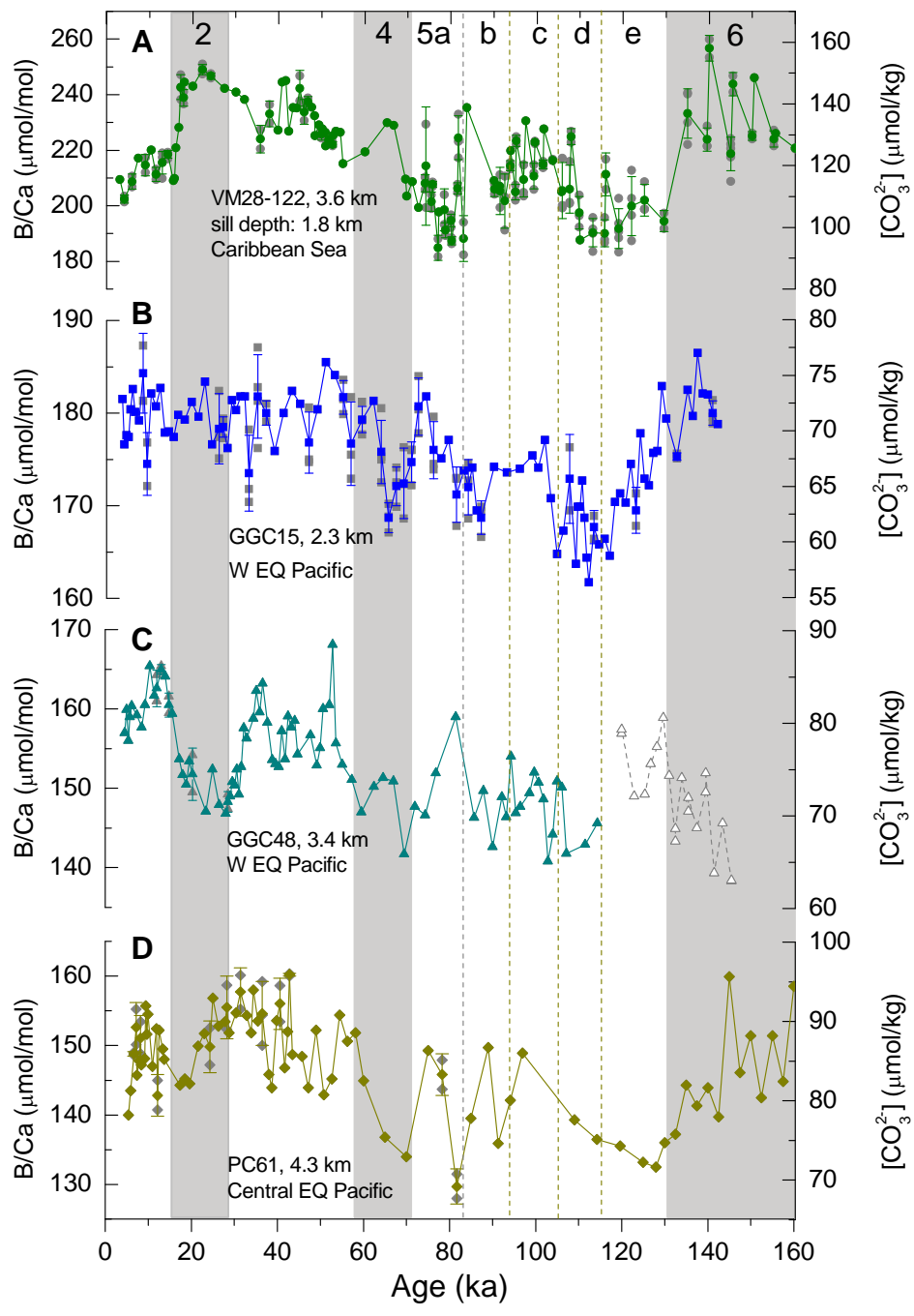


Fig. 4.

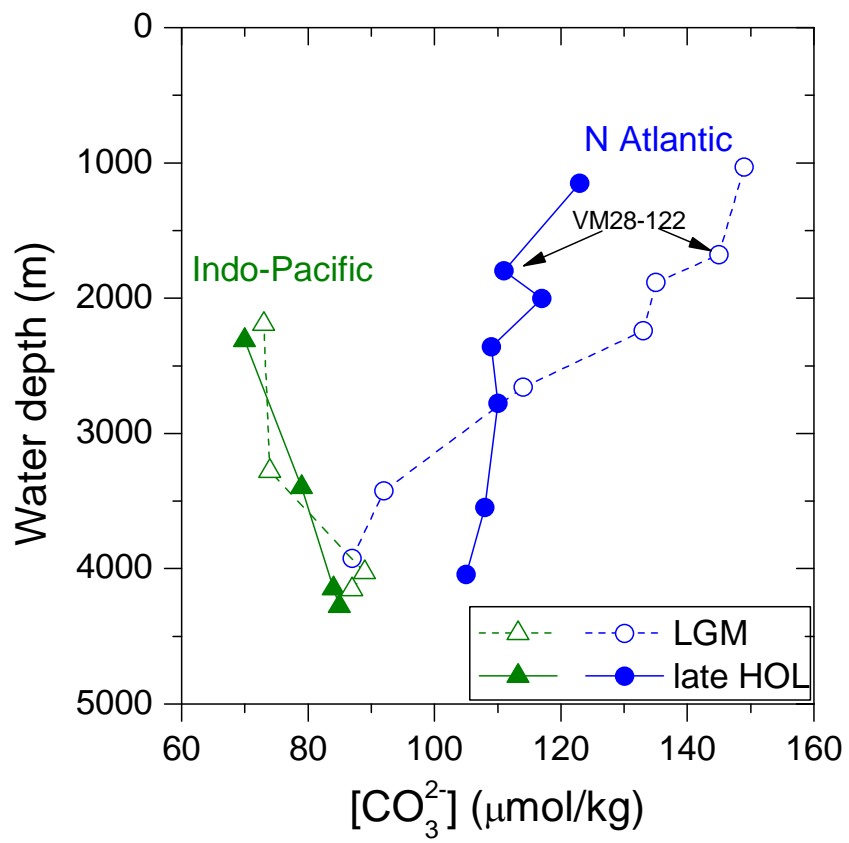


Fig. 5.

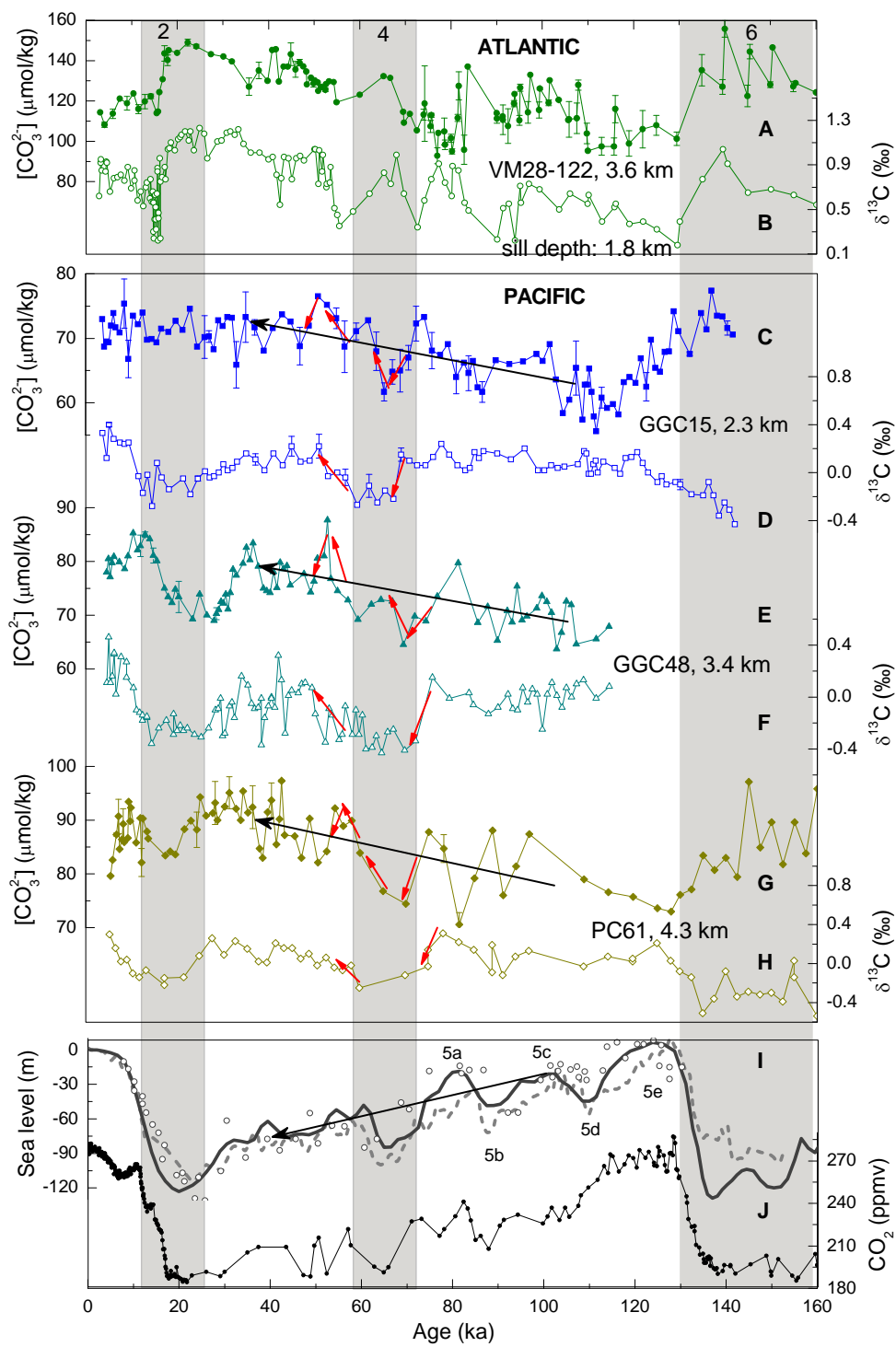


Fig. 6.

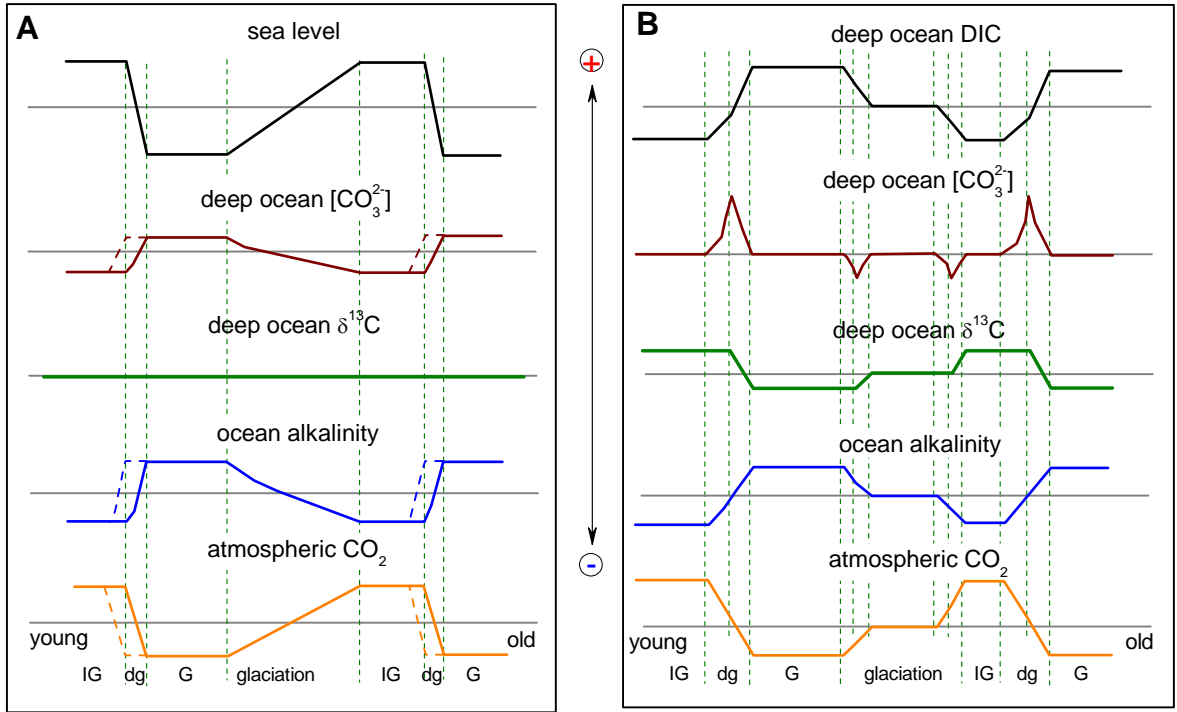


Fig. 7.

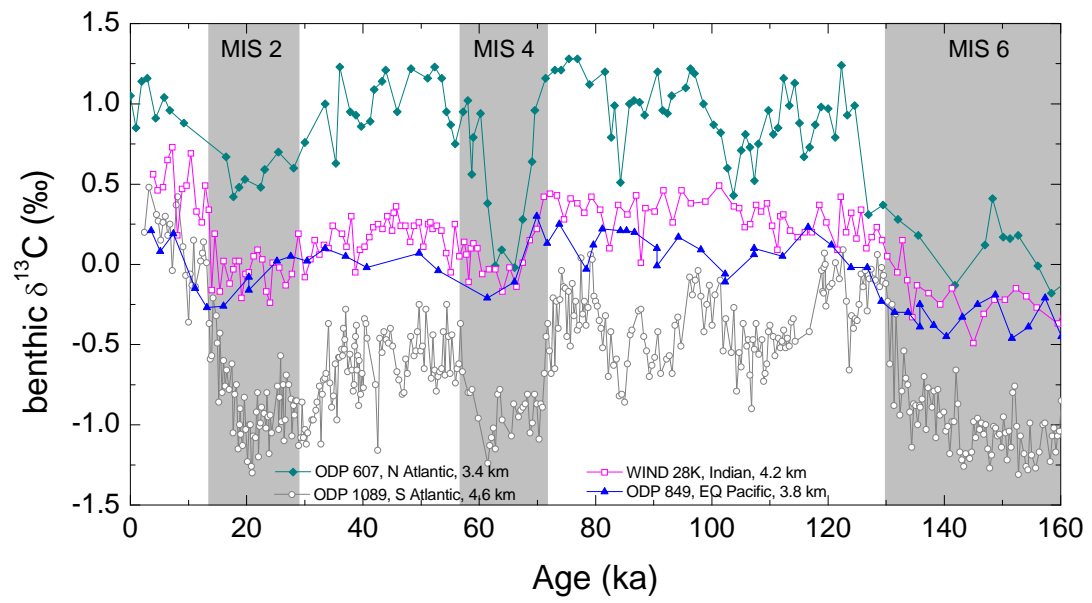


Fig. 8.

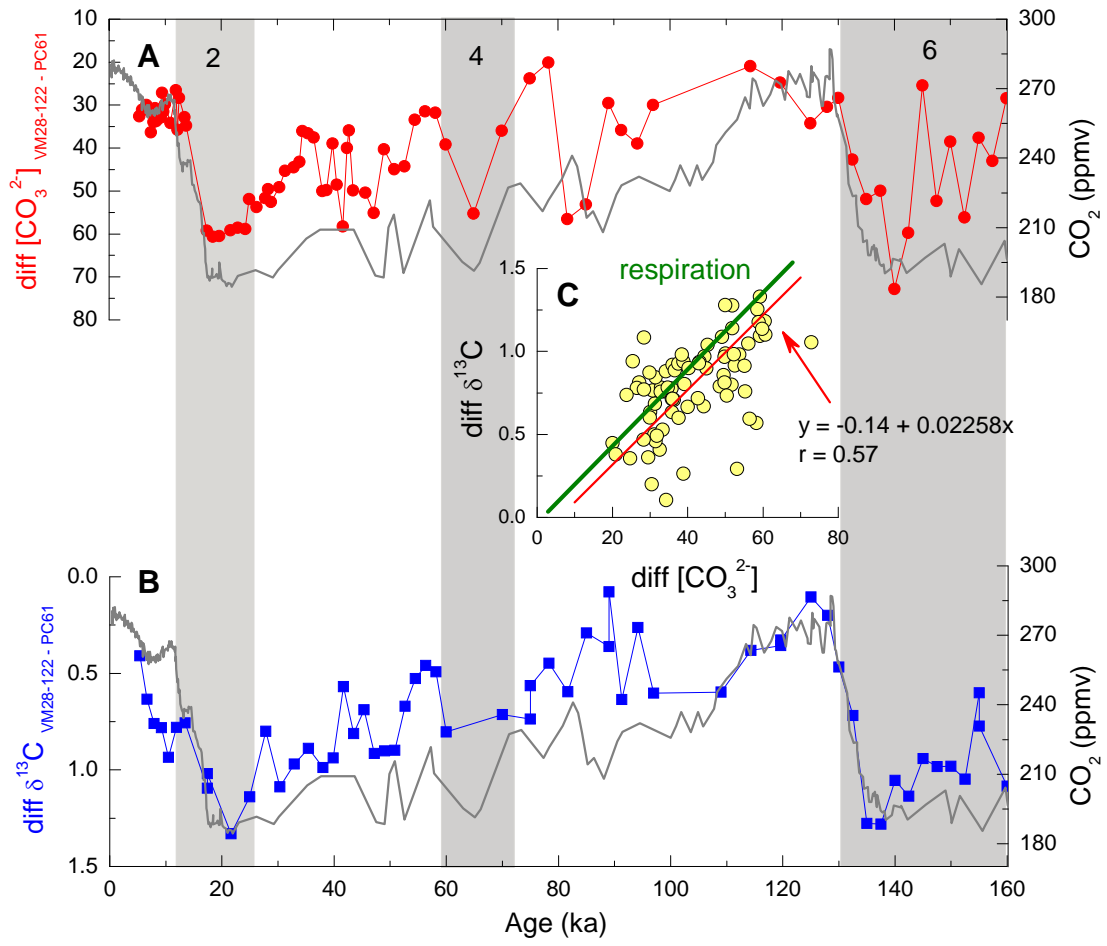


Fig. 9.

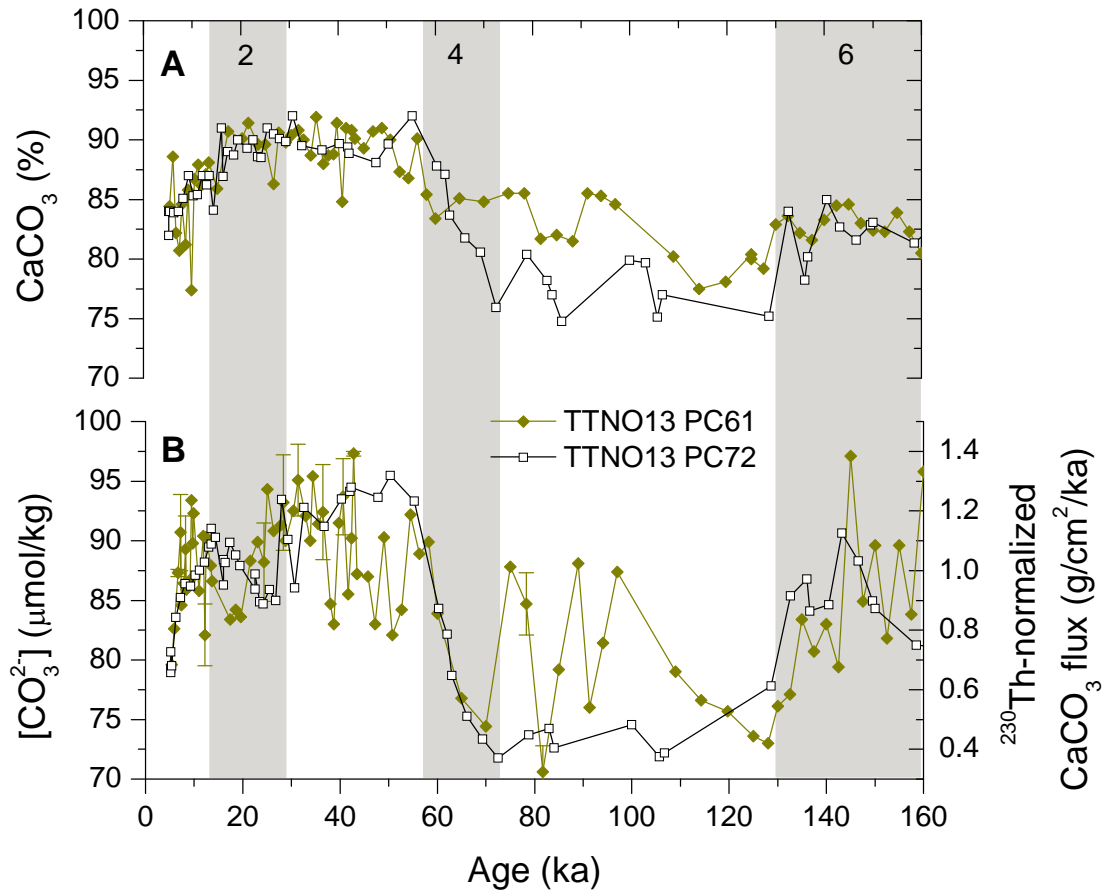


Fig. 10.

Supplementary figures

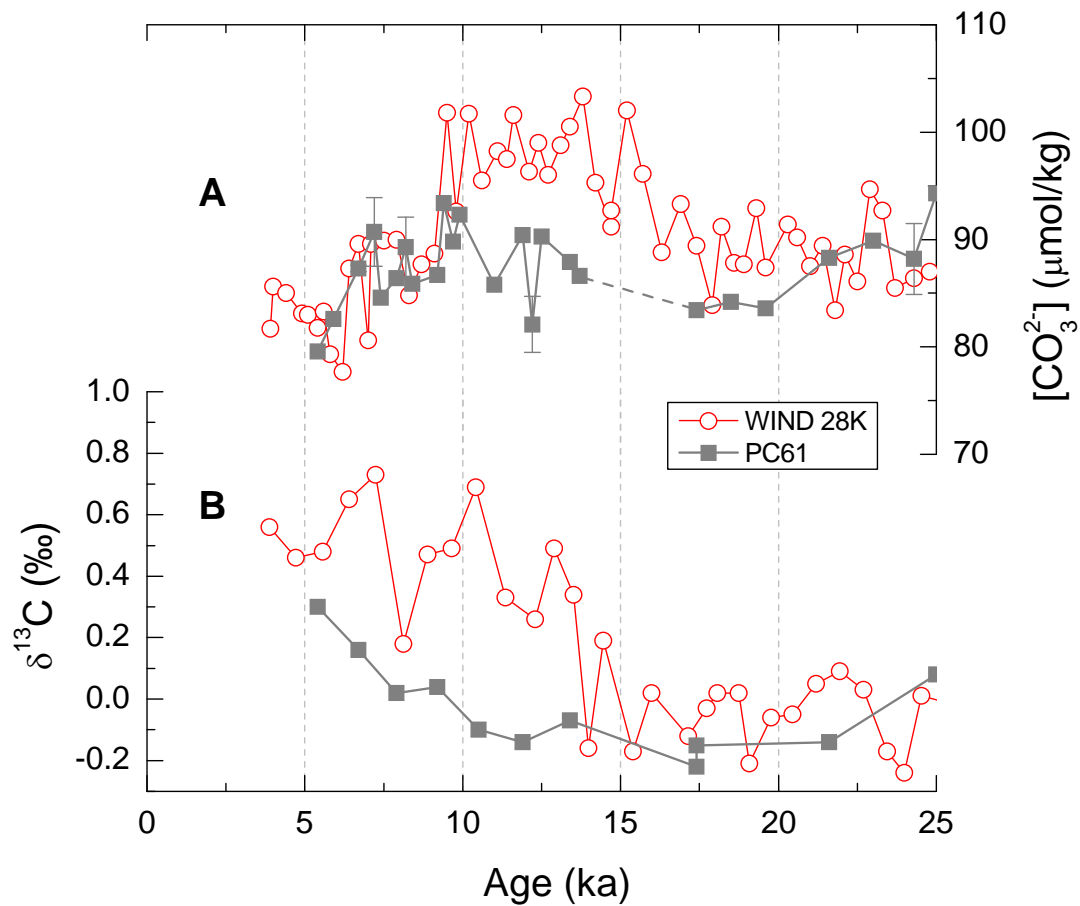


Fig. S1. Comparison of deep water $[CO_3^{2-}]$ (A) and $\delta^{13}C$ (B) in cores PC61 (0.86°S, 140°W, 4276 m) (this study) from the equatorial Pacific Ocean and WIND 28K (10.2°S, 51.8°E, 4147 m) (Yu et al., 2010) from the Indian Ocean during the last 25 ka. Both $[CO_3^{2-}]$ records show spikes during the last deglaciation, but $[CO_3^{2-}]$ at PC61 peaked at a later age (~9 ka) than $[CO_3^{2-}]$ at WIND 28K (~14-10 ka). This age offset is probably an artifact of strong bioturbation due to low sedimentation rates at site PC61 (Fig. 2D), highlighting the need for high-resolution in the Pacific Ocean.

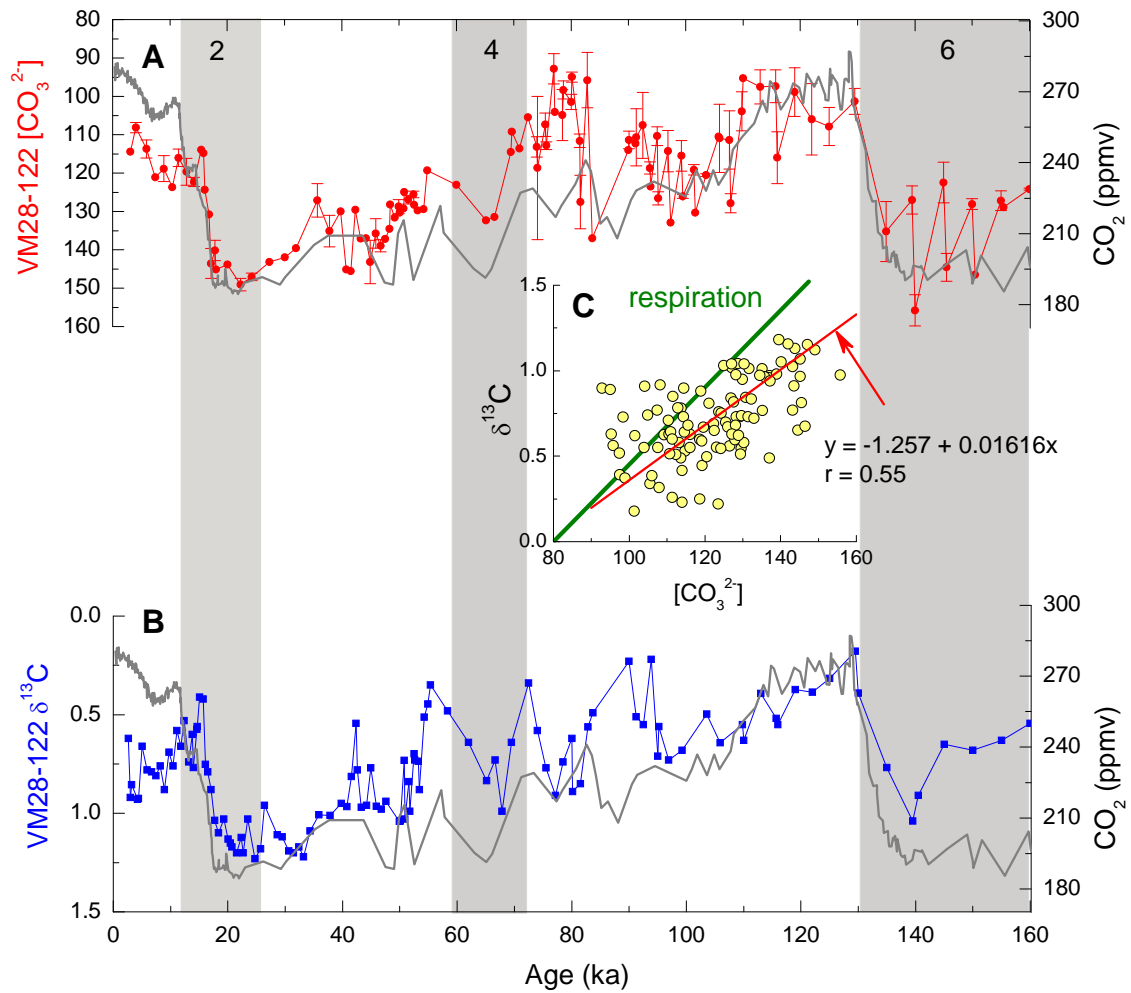


Fig. S2. Variations of deep water $[CO_3^{2-}]$ (A) and $\delta^{13}C$ (B) in core VM28-122 during the last 160 ka. Both $[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}C$ correlated with atmospheric CO_2 (Lüthi et al., 2008), but they plot along a different trend from the Redfield slope on the $\delta^{13}C$ - $[CO_3^{2-}]$ space (Yu et al., 2008) (C).

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