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Enhanced Carbonate Counter Pump and upwelling strengths in the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean during MIS 11

Brandon Margaux ^{1, 2, *}, Duchamp-Alphonse Stéphanie ¹, Michel Elisabeth ², Landais Amaëlle ², Isguder Gulay ², Richard Patricia ², Pige Nicolas ³, Bassinot Franck ², Jaccard Samuel L. ⁴, Bartolini Annachiara ⁵

¹ Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS, GEOPS, 91405, Orsay, France

² Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS, CEA, UVSQ, Laboratoire des Sciences du climat et de l'environnement, 91191, Gif-sur-Yvette, France

³ Univ Lyon, UCBL, ENSL, UJM, CNRS, LGL-TPE, F-69622, Villeurbanne, France

⁴ Institute of Earth Sciences, University of Lausanne, 1015, Lausanne, Switzerland

⁵ Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Département Origines & Évolution, CR2P MNHN, CNRS, Sorbonne Université, 8 rue Buffon CP38, 75005, Paris, France

* Corresponding author : Margaux Brandon, email address : margaux.brandon@locean.ipsl.fr

Abstract :

While numerous studies have highlighted the central role of Southern Ocean (SO) dynamics in modulating rapid increases in atmospheric CO2 concentrations during deglaciations, fewer studies have vet focused on the impact of the Biological Carbon Pump - and more specifically the Carbonate Counter Pump (CCP) - in contributing to increase the CO2 concentration in oceanic surface waters and thus, in the atmosphere. Here, we present micropaleontological (coccolith, planktonic foraminifera) and geochemical (CaCO3, CaXRF, δ13CN. pachyderma) constraints from sediment core MD04-2718 retrieved in the Polar Front Zone of the Indian Ocean covering the time interval spanning Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 12 to MIS 10 (440,000–360,000 years). We compare our results with published records from the SO to reconstruct past changes in CCP and upwelling dynamics and understand their leverage on the ocean-atmosphere portioning of CO2. We demonstrate that the sharp increase in atmospheric pCO2 during Termination V was likely associated with enhanced deep-water ventilation in the SO, that promoted the release of previously sequestered CO2 to the ocean surface as the westerly wind belt and the frontal system migrated southwards. Enhanced CCP is observed later, during MIS 11, and is likely the consequence of higher sea surface temperature and higher nutrient availability due to the reinvigoration of SO upwelling leading to increased coccolith (and to a lesser degree, planktonic foraminifera) production and export. The low eccentricity signal recorded during MIS 11 might have additionally strengthened the CCP, exerting a specific control on Gephyrocapsa morphotypes. In addition to the strong global biological productivity and higher carbon storage on land, these synergistic mechanisms may have permitted to shape the distinctive 30 ka-long pCO2 plateau characteristic of MIS 11.

Highlights

▶ Multiproxy approach to reconstruct Carbonate Counter Pump strength and upwelling dynamics. ▶ Increase in pCO_2 during Termination V coincides with enhanced upwelling. ▶ Strong Carbonate Counter Pump during MIS 11 in the Indian Southern Ocean. ▶ Enhanced upwelling and Carbonate Counter Pump helped shape the pCO_2 plateau.

Keywords : Southern Ocean, Marine Isotope Stage 11, Coccolith, Planktonic foraminifera, Geochemistry, Carbonate Counter Pump, Upwelling, Atmospheric CO2 concentration

42 1. Introduction

43

44 The Earth's climate system of the past 800 000 years (800 ka) has been characterised by 45 glacial-interglacial cycles that are tightly coupled to pCO₂ changes (Lüthi et al., 2008; Bereiter et al., 46 2015). Causes underlying these changes, especially in conjunction with deglaciations (glacial 47 Terminations) that registered pCO₂ rises of about 50-100 ppm, are still under debate. It is recognised 48 that complex, synergistic interactions involving changes in sea-ice cover, surface water stratification 49 and marine productivity in the SO together with the dynamics of the westerly winds may have played 50 a major role in modulating the efficiency of the physical and biological carbon pumps (François et al., 51 1997; Stephens and Keeling, 2000; Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Hodell et al., 2003; Toggweiler et al., 52 2006: Jaccard et al., 2013: Ferrari et al., 2014: Abelmann et al., 2015: Galbraith & Jaccard, 2015: 53 Menviel et al., 2018; Gottschalk et al., 2019; Stein et al., 2020; Sigman et al., 2021). The 54 reinvigoration of SO upwelling has been held responsible for a substantial part of the abrupt pCO_2 55 rise observed during Terminations (Hodell et al., 2003; Anderson et al., 2009; Skinner et al., 2010; 56 Siani et al., 2013, Jaccard et al., 2016; Rae et al., 2018; Gottschalk et al., 2020; Sigman et al., 2021) 57 while an increase in the efficiency of the Biological Carbon Pump (BCP) might have accounted for up 58 to 40-50 ppmv CO₂ drawdown during glacial maxima (Hain et al., 2010; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2009; 59 Jaccard et al., 2013). However, due to a lack of high-resolution primary productivity reconstructions 60 and, more generally, to the scarcity of multiproxy approaches (Duncan et al., 2016; Duchamp-61 Alphonse et al., 2018), it remains difficult to apprehend the spatio-temporal patterns underpinning 62 changes in the BCP and compare them to the SO upwelling dynamics to understand their impact on 63 pCO₂. Furthermore, most of the studies aiming to reconstruct changes in the strength and efficiency 64 of the BCP focus on the export of phytoplankton-derived organic carbon to the deep ocean (i.e., the 65 Soft Tissue Pump (STP)) that directly lowers atmospheric CO₂ (Martin et al., 1990; Martinez-Garcia et 66 al., 2009; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2014; Thöle et al., 2019). They typically overlook the export of 67 phytoplankton- and zooplankton-derived calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), which raises surface water CO_2

(i.e., the CCP) (Baumann et al., 2004; Barker et al., 2006; Broecker and Clark, 2009; Salter et al., 2014; 68 Rembauville et al., 2016), and contributes to the CaCO₃/organic carbon ratio in the biogenic particle 69 70 flux to the sea-floor (namely the rain ratio), especially in the SO (Duchamp-Alphonse et al., 2018; 71 Krumhardt et al., 2020). This omission may relate to the fact that calcareous phytoplankton is in part 72 represented by coccoliths, which detailed analysis requires sophisticated tools such as SYRACO 73 (SYstème de Reconnaissance Automatique des Coccolithes), a software using automated optical 74 microscope that allows the robust determination of coccolith mass and thus, coccolithophore 75 calcification rates, based on the optical properties (birefringence) of calcite under cross-polarized 76 light (Beaufort et al., 2005; 2014). It is also probably linked to the lack of well-preserved carbonate 77 fraction in sediment cores of the SO, making the reconstruction of biogenic carbonate export in the 78 past challenging (Barker et al., 2006; Jaccard et al., 2013; Thöle et al., 2019).

79 Amongst the interglacials of the past 800 ka, MIS 11 is the longest (~30 ka) as well as one of 80 the warmest (Tzedakis et al., 2022 and references therein). Following the cold glacial MIS 12, MIS 11 81 begins at the end of Termination V (TV), the first Termination recording high amplitude increases in both pCO₂ (~ 90 ppmv) (Bereiter et al., 2015; Nehrbass-Ahles et al., 2020) and Antarctic air 82 temperatures (> 12°C) (Jouzel et al., 2007). MIS 11 occurs during an eccentricity minimum (Laskar et 83 84 al., 2004) and coincides with strong global biosphere productivity (Brandon et al., 2020), a major 85 phase in coral reef expansion (Husson et al., 2018), and a climax in coccolithophore (Gephyrocapsa sp.) production (Barker et al., 2006; Beaufort et al., 2022). Recent studies document the increase in 86 87 coccolith abundances over this time interval in the Pacific and Atlantic sectors of the SO (Flores et al., 88 2003; Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b). However, no studies exist in the Indian sector of the 89 SO yet, and none focus on the CCP and its impact on atmospheric pCO_2 based on combined coccolith 90 and planktonic foraminifera carbonate export data.

91 Here, we provide coccolith and planktonic foraminifera abundance and mass from core MD04-92 2718 retrieved in the Indian sector of the SO. Using these data, we demonstrate the biogenic origin 93 of the sedimentary CaCO₃ at this site and calibrate the carbonate signal to reconstruct high 94 resolution changes in CCP strength across the time interval covering MIS 12 – MIS 10 (440-360 ka), including TV and MIS 11. Combined with reconstructed summer SST and $\delta^{13}C_{N. pachyderma}$ data obtained 95 96 from the same core, as well as previously published micropaleontological and geochemical data from 97 the Pacific and Atlantic sectors of the SO as well as geochemical data from EPICA Dome C (EDC), our 98 study further highlights the synergistic contribution of changing global productivity and terrestrial 99 carbon storage, SO ventilation and CCP strength on atmospheric CO₂ during this key period of the 100 past 800 ka.

2. Regional oceanic setting

104 The SO is delimited by the Antarctic continent to the South and by the Subtropical front (STF) 105 to the North (Fig. 1a). The eastward-flowing Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) connects the 106 Atlantic, Pacific and Indian sectors of the SO. This current, driven by Coriolis and the Southern 107 Hemisphere westerlies, is characterised by the largest mass transport of all ocean currents, averaging 108 150 Sv (10⁶m³s⁻¹) in the Indian Ocean (Park et al., 2009). Its Northern and Southern Boundaries (NB 109 and SB) are often delimited around 40°S and 60°S respectively, but their exact location depends on 110 bottom topography (Sokolov and Rintoul, 2009, Park et al., 2019) and varies latitudinally (Freeman et al., 2016). Three hydrological fronts generally characterised by stronger flows, are defined in the 111 ACC: the Subantarctic Front (SAF), the Polar Front (PF) and the Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Front 112 113 (SACCF) (Fig. 1). They help defining the Subantarctic Zone (SAZ) between the STF and the SAF, the Polar Front Zone (PFZ) between the SAF and the PF, and the Antarctic Zone (AAZ) delimited by the PF 114 115 to the North, and the SB to the South (Orsi et al., 1995, Park et al., 2019). Within the Indian sector of 116 the SO, the Kerguelen Plateau that extends from \sim 46°S to 63°S and between \sim 62°E and 85°E, is the 117 second largest submarine plateau in the world. Due to its great meridional extent and topography, it constitutes a major bathymetric constrain to the ACC flow and thus exerts a significant impact on 118 119 both ACC transport and front patterns (Park et al., 2009; Sokolov and Rintoul, 2009). In this context, 120 the PF is located alongside the southern coast of the Kerguelen archipelago (Park et al., 2014). The 121 circulation in the Southern Ocean is also regulated by the upwelling of CO₂- and nutrient-rich 122 Circumpolar Deep Waters (CDW) that resurface at the Antarctic divergence in the AAZ (Fig. 1c). These 123 waters represent the source for the Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW) and the Antarctic 124 Intermediate Water (AAIW) that flow northward. Today, the change in the strength of upwelling 125 affects the partitioning of CO_2 between the ocean subsurface and the atmosphere on decadal 126 timescales (Lovenduski et al., 2008; Landschützer et al., 2015; Gruber et al, 2019).

127 In the SO, primary productivity is primarily steered by bottom-up control involving both 128 physical and biogeochemical processes, which are spatially and temporally heterogeneous. Today, 129 the presence/absence of sea ice together with the progressive temperature decrease polewards 130 subdivide the SO into distinct provinces characterised by specific functional assemblages (Boyd, 131 2002; Constable et al., 2014). In ecosystems that remain ice-free throughout the year, i.e., within the Permanently Open Ocean Zone (POOZ), primary productivity is commonly co-limited by light and 132 133 micronutrient availability (Boyd et al., 2002; Moore et al., 2013). While the residual surface ocean 134 macronutrient concentrations in the SO are among the highest globally (Pollard et al., 2006) largely due to the large-scale upwelling of CDW at the Antarctic divergence, primary productivity is relatively 135 136 low, owing to the scarcity of bioavailable iron (Fe) imposes on phytoplankton growth (Martin et al., 137 1990; Pollard et al., 2009). In all cases, phytoplankton that flourishes south of the PF is dominated by 138 diatoms, with blooms generally occurring during austral summer (Rigual-Hernandez et al., 2015). 139 Phytoplankton that thrives north of the PF is more heterogeneous and represented by nano- and 140 picoplankton of different origins. One of the most striking patterns associated with phytoplankton in 141 this area, is the significant coccolithophore blooms that occur during spring and summer between 142 ~40 and ~60°S, and that forms the so-called Great Calcite Belt that enriches surface waters in CaCO₃ 143 (Balch et al., 2011; 2016; Rembauville et al., 2016). Within the Indian sector of the SO, near the 144 Kerguelen plateau, this Great Calcite Belt is observed in the PFZ (Smith et al., 2017) and the northern 145 part of the AAZ (between Kerguelen and Heard and McDonald Islands) and may contribute ~ 60 to 85 146 % of the CCP (Blain et al., 2007; Rembauville et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2017; Rigual-Hernandez et al., 2020). Relatively high primary productivity may also be observed locally, near the PF and the Crozet 147 148 and Kerguelen plateaus, where oceanic current and/or bottom topography enriches surface waters 149 with iron (Blain et al., 2007; Sokolov and Rintoul, 2007; Pollard et al., 2009; Quéguiner et al., 2013; 150 Tagliabue et al., 2014).

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- 152 3. Material and methods
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154 3.1 Material core

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The 50-meter-long marine sediment core MD04-2718 (48°53,31S; 65°57,42E, 1428 m water depth) was retrieved from the NW flank of the Kerguelen Plateau in 2004, during the MD136/VIGO expedition aboard the R.V. Marion Dufresne (Fig. 1, Michel and Waelbroeck, 2017) within the PFZ. Surface water properties are largely controlled by CO₂- and nutrient- rich waters upwelling in the Antarctic Zone, that are advected northward by the Ekman transport. Sediment recovered at this site is primarily siliciclastic with alternations of nannofossil (calcareous) and diatom (opal) oozes. MIS 11 is clearly identifiable and represented by calcareous-rich ooze, between 11.5 and 13.1 m core depth.



Figure 1 Core location and study area. a, b Location of the studied core (MD04-2718, red dot) as well as cores from previous
studies (ODP sites 1088 and 1090 (Hodell et al., 2003) and PS75/059-2 (Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b) (black dots).
Oceanic fronts are from Park et al. (2019). NB: Northern Boundary of the ACC, SAZ: Subantarctic Zone, SAF: Subantarctic
Front, PFZ: Polar Front Zone, PF: Polar Front, AAZ: Antarctic Zone, SACCF: Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Front, SB:
Southern Boundary of the ACC .c Salinity (psu) section at 66°E using WOA18 (Zweng et al., 2018) on ODV software
(Schlitzer, 2018). SAMW: Subantarctic Mode Water, AAIW: Antarctic Intermediate Water, CDW: Circumpolar Deep Water,
AABW: Antarctic Bottom Water.

- 172 3.2 Geochemical analyses
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174 Planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C compositions (expressed in ‰) were measured at the 175 LSCE (Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement), based on 67 *Neogloboquadrina* 176 *pachyderma* senestral (200-250 µm fraction, Supplementary Fig. 1) samples, subsampled every 3-4 177 cm between 11.03 and 13.3 m depth (except for 13.07, 13.10 and 13.13 m, which are barren of *N*. 178 *pachyderma* s). For each sample, 30 specimens were hand-picked, cleaned using methanol, 179 ultrasonicated, weighted, and analysed using an IRMS GV ISOPRIME mass spectrometer coupled with 180 an extraction line. The measurements are reported versus the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite standard 181 (VPDB) with respect to NBS-19 standard, with a mean external reproducibility (1 σ) for carbonate 182 standards of ± 0.04 ‰ and 0.06 ‰ for δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, respectively. The reproducibility of isotopic 183 measurements on *N. pachyderma* s. are 0.06 and 0.1 ‰, for δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, respectively.

184 High-resolution, relative sedimentary calcium (Ca) concentrations were measured every 1 cm using 185 an Aavatech profiling X-ray Fluorescence (XRF) core scanner at ETH Zurich, Switzerland with a 10s 186 integration at 10 kV and 500 μ A. In parallel, sedimentary CaCO₃ concentrations were determined on 187 26 samples at GEOPS Laboratory with a \pm 2 % precision, using the vacuum-gasometric technique described in Duchamp-Alphonse et al., (2018) where the amount of CO_2 degassed during the reaction 188 189 of 100 mg ± 2 mg of dried sediments with 6N HCl is converted into CaCO₃ percentages. Comparison 190 between Ca counts and discrete CaCO₃ contents show a highly significant statistical correlation 191 $(r^2=0.97)$, and Ca_{XRF} signal is therefore directly converted into CaCO₃ content (Jaccard et al., 2009; 192 2010; Duchamp-Alphonse et al., 2018; Supplementary Fig. 2).

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- **194** 3.3 Micropaleontological analyses
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196 3.3.1 Coccoliths

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198 Coccolith abundance and mass were determined at the GEOPS (GEOscience Paris Saclay) 199 Laboratory. Smear slides were prepared for 68 samples, based on the protocol detailed in Duchamp-200 Alphonse et al., (2018), after Beaufort et al., (2014). For each sample, the abundance and mass of 201 individual coccoliths (with an average of 6,172 coccoliths per sample (176 to 13,233)) were 202 automatically determined with the help of the SYRACO software using a Leica DM6000B microscope. 203 SYRACO detects and classifies most of the coccoliths (Gephyrocapsa caribbeanica, small 204 Gephyrocapsa, G. oceanica, G. muellerae, Calcidiscus leptoporus and Coccolitus pelagicus) present on 205 the slides. Coccolith mass was also directly obtained using SYRACO based on a quasi-linear 206 relationship between their brightness (birefringence in grey scale) and their thickness under cross-207 polarized light. Because this method applies to coccoliths thinner than 1.55 μ m, we interpret only 208 thickness and mass data for Gephyrocapsa specimens, as C. leptoporus and C. pelagicus display third-209 order interferences. The presence of relatively large detrital particles may lead to an underestimation 210 of small specimens including Gephyrocapsa sp. and an overestimation of larger ones including C. 211 pelagicus. To correct for these potential biases, the abundance of each morphotype was verified 212 manually on 18 samples covering the full spectrum of coccolith abundance observed from MIS 12 to

MIS 10. Visual counts were performed on the same view fields analysed by SYRACO and were compared to the results obtained by the software. *Gephyrocapsa* sp. abundances from SYRACO counts were calibrated using the correlation coefficients between the two datasets, while *C. pelagicus* abundances have been obtained visually for the entire sample set because of the confusion made by SYRACO between detrital particles and this species. *C. leptoporus* abundances did not differ significantly between SYRACO and visual counts were not corrected.

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The number of coccoliths per gram of sediment (absolute coccolith abundance – ACA) was
 determined for each morphotype/species using the equation of Grelaud et al., (2009) as follows:

$$ACA = \frac{N_c * S_f}{N_o * S_o * W_s}$$

where N_c represents the total coccolith number per sample, S_f , the flat beaker area (3117 mm²), N_o , the number of view fields (165), S_o , the view field area (0.01 mm²) and W_s , the dry sediment weight.

The coccolith calcite mass per gram of sediment (per g. sed) was determined using the same equation, where Nc is replaced by Mc, that represents the coccolith calcite mass per view fields. *Gephyrocapsa* calcite mass (CM_{gephy}) was obtained based on the estimation of specimen abundance and mean mass as follows:

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$$CM_{Gephy} = ACA * mean mass_{Gephy}$$

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3.3.2 Planktonic foraminifera

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The abundance and planktonic foraminifera species composition were determined at the LSCE with a binocular microscope, using the > 150 μ m fraction of 57 samples ranging between 11.30 m and 13.3 m depth. For each sample, an average of 450 planktonic foraminifera were counted. The absolute planktonic foraminifera abundance (AFA) per gram of sediment was determined as follows:

$$AFA = \frac{N_f * 2^{split}}{W_{dry}}$$

where N_f represents the number of planktonic foraminifera counted per sample (> 300), split is the number of splits performed on the sediment before counting ($0 \le \text{split} \le 6$), and W_{dry}, the dry sediment sample weight.

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The planktonic foraminifera calcite mass was determined at the LSCE using mean weights of the major planktonic foraminifera species from the >150 μ m fraction. The foraminifera calcite mass is thus underestimated as it does not consider juveniles planktonic foraminifera or smaller species such
as *G. uvula*. Yet the weight variations of this fraction are considered representative of the weight
variations of the total planktic foraminifera fraction. The calcite mass produced by planktonic
foraminifera, CaCO_{3plank.foram}, is (in mg/g):

$$CaCO_{3plank.foram} = \frac{(\sum_{i} (\sum_{j} m_{ji} * size_{ji}) * X_{i}) * AFA}{10^{7}}$$

251 Where m_{jj} represents the mean weight in size range j of specie I (in μ g), size_{ji} the percentage of 252 population in size range j for specie i, and X_i the percentage of the specie i in the sample. The error 253 on the mass will be:

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$$\frac{1}{10^7} * \left(\sum_i X_i * \left(\sum_j size_{ji} * err_{m_{ij}} + \sum_j err_{size_{ji}} * m_{ij}\right) + \sum_i err_{X_i} * \left(\sum_j size_{ji} * m_{ji}\right)\right)$$

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256 where err is the error on each of the variables.

257

The size distribution, considering eight intervals (150-200 µm, 200-250 µm, 250-315 µm, 315-355 258 μ m, 355-400 μ m, 400-450 μ m, 450-500 μ m and >500 μ m), and the mean weight for each size has 259 260 been determined at six depths for the eight species representing > 99 % of the assemblage. The 261 mean weight has been determined from 15 weighings of 1 to 4 individuals (to reach weight between 10 to 40 μ g), to decrease the weight error to 19 % [(1/(2(n-1))^{0.5}]. The eight species include 262 Neogloboquadrina pachyderma sinistral and dextral, Globigerinita glutinata, Turborotalia 263 264 quinqueloba, Globigerina bulloides, Globorotalia inflata, Globoratalia crassaformis and Globorotalia truncatilunoides. We determine mean weights of : $3.55 \pm 0.32 \mu g$ for *N. pachyderma*, $9.42 \pm 2.15 \mu g$ 265 266 for G. bulloides, 3.48 ± 0.42 for G. qlutinata, $13.9 \pm 2.37 \mu g$ for G. crassaformis and $22.4 \pm 5.39 \mu g$ for 267 G. inflata. We assumed a similar weight to G. glutinata for T. quinqueloba. For G. truncatilunoides, 268 we assumed a mean weight similar to G. crassaformis. For N. pachyderma, 90 to 97 % of the 269 population ranges in the minimum measured size range (150-200 μ m), and between 71 to 100 % for 270 G. glutinata and T. quinqueloba. For the other species the size range distribution varies with depth 271 with the main size range varying from 150-200 µm to 250-315 µm for G. bulloides, G. crassaformis 272 and G. truncatulinoides and from 150-200 µm to 315-355 µm for G. inflata. The error on the calcite 273 mass of the planktonic foraminifera depends thus mainly on the error on the population fraction in 274 the different size range for the larger species. The error on the calcite mass of the planktonic 275 foraminifera also considers the variations in planktonic foraminifera weight and size with depth 276 observed in the core, that can be linked with the changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Barker 277 and Elderfield, 2002; Moy et al., 2009; Henehan et al., 2017). For the 57 samples, the calcite mass of 278 the planktonic foraminifera and its error have been calculated from the counted abundance of the

different species and their mean size and mean weight calculated from the six depths. The error on this calcite mass varies from 26 to 57 % and is linearly linked with the abundance of *G. bulloides* (r^2 = 0.91). Although large, the error remains negligible compared to the observed variations that are almost a factor of a thousand.

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Summer SST estimates were determined on the same 57 samples as those used for planktonic foraminifera assemblages based on two independent approaches: the Modern Analog Technique and the percentage of *N. pachyderma* s. The former one relies on the use of a database of modern foraminifera assemblage (Haddam et al., 2016) and the PaleoAnalog software (Therón et al., 2004) to find the closest modern analogues for the fossil assemblage (Prell, 1985; Haddam et al., 2016). The latter one is based on the linear relation between SST and the percentage of *N. pachyderma* s. in the total planktonic foraminifera assemblage following the equation of Govin et al. (2009):

T°C (% pachy s.) = -0.087 (% pachy s.) + 11.339

number of foraminifera per gram of sediment decreases drastically and, in these three levels, the

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292 No SST could be determined between 13.13 and 13.07 m depth as the number of planktonic 293 foraminifera was insufficient (<300) for a robust temperature estimate. During glacial periods the

295 >150 μm fraction contains almost exclusively ice rafted detritus and radiolarians.

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294

297 4. Results

298

299 4.1 Geochemical signals

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301 Planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O values range between 2.2 ‰ and 3.8 ‰ (Fig. 2a). After a rapid 302 decrease from 3.7 to 2.2 ‰ between 13.00 and 12.33 m, values gradually increase to reach around 303 3.6 ‰ at 11.33 m. The δ^{13} C signal ranges from 0.75 ‰ to 1.67 ‰ (Fig. 2b). δ^{13} C values are 304 characterised by a slightly increasing plateau between 12.80 and 12.23 m and two sharp decreases to 305 the minimum value of 0.8 ‰ from 13.23 to 13.03 m and from 11.57 to 11.33 m.

Sedimentary CaCO₃ concentrations range between 5 % and 99 % (Fig. 2c). Values never exceed 20 % between 13.30 and 13.10 m and between 11.30 and 11.03 m, while they average 85 % between 12.67 and 11.90 m. The most striking trends are observed between 13.10 and 12.66 m and 12.03 and 11.41 m, where CaCO₃ concentrations undergo a drastic increase to maximum values of 99 % at 12.65 m and a two-fold decreasing trend to reach minimum values of 7 % at 11.38.



Figure 2 Bulk carbonate signals and stable isotope records of planktonic foraminifera *N. pachyderma s.* from sediment core MD04-2718. **a** $\delta^{18}O_{N. pachys}$ (‰), **b** $\delta^{13}C_{N. pachys}$ (‰), **c** CaCO₃ (%) derived from Ca_{XRF} signal, the envelope representing the error on the calculation of CaCO₃.

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317 4.2 Micropaleontological signals

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319 Coccolith assemblages are predominantly composed of *Gephyrocapsa* sp. i.e., specimens from 320 the Noelaerhabdaceae family whose proportions exceed 98.5 %, reaching maximum values (99.9 %) 321 between 12.87 and 11.33 m depths (Supplementary Fig. 3). *C. pelagicus* and *C. leptoporus* are 322 present as well, but in much lower proportions. They are mainly represented by the subspecies *C.* 323 *pelagicus* ssp. *braarudii* (10-14 μ m) and *C. leptoporus* (5-8 μ m) and range between 0 and 0.9 %, and 324 0 and 0.6 % of the assemblages, respectively. The number of total coccoliths per gram of sediments

- (per g. sed.) ranges from 0.017*10⁹ (at 13.10 m) to 40*10⁹ (at 12.10 m) and is mainly represented by
 the number of *Gephyrocapsa* sp. per g. sed. that fluctuates between 0.016*10⁹ and 40*10⁹ (Fig. 3b
 and 3c).



Figure 3 Coccolith and δ¹⁸O_{N. pachys} signals between 1103 and 1330 cm of the sediment core MD04-2718. a. δ¹⁸O_{N. pachys} (‰),
 abundances of : b coccoliths (number of coccoliths*10⁹ per g sed.), c Gephyrocapsa (number*10⁹ per g sed.), d C. leptoporus
 (number*10⁶ per g sed.), e C. pelagicus (number*10⁶ per g sed.), f Gephyrocapsa mean mass (pg). Envelopes in b, c, d and f
 show the error on SYRACO abundance for each specie and for Gephyrocapsa mean mass.

After an increasing trend from 12.90 to 12.67 m, values show a plateau around $22.5*10^9$ 335 336 specimens per g. sed. between 12.67 and 11.80 m and decreases to reach values as low as 0.35*10⁹ 337 specimens per g. sed. at 11.17 m. C. leptoporus abundance fluctuates between 0.06*10⁶ and 21.6*10⁶ specimens per g. sed. and its distribution generally follows that of *Gephyrocapsa* sp. (and 338 thus of total coccoliths), with an increasing trend between 13.07 and 12.67 cm followed by a long-339 340 term decreasing trend up to 11.47 m, interrupted by a transient a peak at 12.10 m (Fig. 3d). C. 341 pelagicus abundance varies between 0 and 1.6*10⁶ coccoliths per g. sed (Fig. 3e). It is totally absent 342 from the sediment between 12.73 and 11.54 m and is thus only present between 13.30 and 12.77 m and between 11.53 and 11.03 m, where it reaches values as high as 1.6 and 0.77*10⁶ specimens per 343 344 g. sed, respectively. Gephyrocapsa sp. mean mass varies between 1.03 pg and 2.24 pg (Fig. 3f). After 345 reaching maximum values (from 2.07 to 2.24 pg) between 13.23 and 13.13 m, data are consistent 346 with a long-term decrease to reach minimum values around 11.40 m depth.

347 The planktonic foraminifera assemblages are mainly composed of *N. pachyderma* sinistral and G. bulloides with proportions ranging between 0 % and 99.8 % and between 0 and 75.1 %, 348 349 respectively. The other species, represented by G. glutinata, G. inflata, G. crassaformis, N. pachyderma dextral and T. quinqueloba never exceed 6.8 %. (Supplementary Fig. 4). The total 350 351 number of planktonic foraminifera fluctuates between 0 and 18.5*10³ specimens per g. sed (Fig. 4b). 352 No specimen is found between 13.13 and 13.07 m, and the total abundance of planktonic for a minifera never exceeds $5.7*10^3$ between 13.30 and 12.9 m and between 11.5 and 11.3 m. 353 354 Between 12.9 and 11.5 depth the number of *N. pachyderma* s. varies between 0.3 and 12.4*10³ 355 specimens per g. sed (Fig. 4c), and significantly influences the total number of planktonic 356 foraminifera which generally shows the same trends. Its abundance shows an overall plateau around $3^{*}10^{3}$ specimens per g. sed, and 2 maxima ($12.4^{*}10^{3}$ and $10.9^{*}10^{3}$ specimens per g. sed) at 12.70 357 and 11.73 m, respectively. The number of G. bulloides fluctuates between 2.10 and $4.7*10^3$ 358 359 specimens per g. sed (Fig. 4d). After reaching maximum value at 12.70 m, it depicts a long-term 360 decreasing trend to the minimum abundance of 2.1 specimens per g. sed. at 11.3 m. The number of N. pachyderma d. varies between 0.14 and 548.6 specimens per g. sed. and follows the general same 361 362 trends as those of total planktonic foraminifera and N. pachyderma s. (Fig. 4e). G. glutinata abundance ranges between 0.2 and 551 specimens per g. sed (Fig. 4f). It depicts rather scattered 363 364 values with two peaks (512 and 551 specimens per g. sed.) at 12.70 and 12.33 m. G. crassaformis abundance fluctuates between 0 and 259.5 specimens per g. sed, with values averaging 150 365 366 specimens per g. sed between 12.70 and 12.13 m (Fig. 4g). T. quinqueloba abundance fluctuates 367 between 0 and 219.4 specimens per g. sed, and no specific trend may be highlighted (Fig. 4h). Finally,

368 *G. inflata* abundance ranges between 0 and 106 specimens per g. sed (Fig. 4i). Similarly, to *G. crassaformis*, no or very few specimens are found between 12.23 and 11.60 m.

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The reconstructed summer SSTs fluctuate between 1.7 and 9.9 °C (Fig. 4j). The maximum temperature is reached after a drastic warming amounting ~8 °C between 13.27 and 13.00 m. It is followed by temperatures fluctuating between 4.6 and 8.3 °C from 12.93 to 12.70 m, and a plateau around 8 °C between 12.67 and 12.27 m. Then, summer SSTs gradually decrease and reach down to 3 °C between 12.03 and 11.30 m.



Figure 4 Planktonic foraminifera and δ¹⁸O_{N. pachys} signals between 1103 and 1330 cm of the sediment core MD04-2718. a
 Signal of δ¹⁸O_{N. pachys} (‰), b Number of total planktonic foraminifera (per g sed.), Number (per g. of sed.) of: c N.
 pachyderma s., d G. bulloides, e N. pachyderma d., f G. glutinata, g G. crassaformis, h T. quinqueloba, i G. inflata, j
 Reconstructed summer SST (°C) using N. pachyderma s. percentages (blue curve) and based on Modern Analog Technique
 method (green curve).

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384 5. Age model

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The age model of core MD04-2718 is based on the planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O record and sedimentary CaCO₃ signal obtained on the uppermost 30 m of the core (Supplementary Fig. 5). These records helped identifying glacial-interglacial cycles and determining that the uppermost 20 m of the 389 core covered the last 800 ka. It also allowed us to define the depth interval 13.00 to 11.00 m as 390 representing the MIS 12 - MIS 10 time-interval and confirm our assumption that the nannofossil 391 ooze between 11.5 and 13.1m was deposited during MIS 11 (see section 3.1). Numerous studies 392 showed that the correlation between reconstructed SSTs in the Southern Ocean and air temperature 393 reconstructed from Antarctic ice cores was helpful to better constrain sediment core age model (e.g., Pichon et al., 1992; Sowers et al. 1993; Waelbroeck et al., 1995; Thöle et al., 2019; Ai et al., 2020). 394 395 Here, we used the record of δD of the EPICA Dome C ice core as a proxy for Antarctic surface 396 temperature (Jouzel et al., 2007). As such, for the interval MIS 12 - 10, the age model of core MD04-397 2718 was refined based on the graphical alignment of our reconstructed summer SST with record 398 of the δD record on the AICC2012 timescale (Bazin et al., 2013), assuming an in-phase relationship (Fig. 5a). Using Analyseries software (Paillard et al., 1996), we set 5 tie points which helped us 399 400 identifying the 11.03-13.3 m core section as representing the time interval between 438.4 and 360.2 ka i.e., between the end of MIS 12 and the beginning of MIS 10. Over this period, the sedimentation 401 rate averages 3.1 cm.ka⁻¹ with lowest values (1 cm.ka⁻¹) being recorded during MIS 12, and highest 402 403 ones (4.9 cm.ka⁻¹) being observed at the beginning of MIS 11 (Fig. 5b). Given these sedimentation 404 rates, the temporal resolution of our record ranges from ~ 0.6 to 3.8 ka for micropaleontological and 405 stable isotope data and of 0.2 to 2 ka for the CaCO₃ signal.

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415 6. Discussion

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417 6.1 CaCO₃ as a record of CCP strength

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419 In pelagic environments of the SO, sedimentary carbonate concentration and/or coccolith 420 abundances have been assumed to reflect biogenic carbonate export production - and by inference 421 the strength of the CCP - based on the paradigm that in modern environments, and more particularly 422 in the Great Calcite Belt, coccolithophores represent an important – if not dominant – part of 423 exported mineralized organisms (Salter et al., 2014; Rembauville et al., 2016). However, the bulk 424 sedimentary carbonate signal may include detrital or diagenetic phases and within the biogenic 425 fraction, contributions of planktonic foraminifera and pteropods, the latter often considered 426 negligible (Salter et al., 2014; Rembauville et al., 2016). Therefore, special attention must be devoted 427 to assessing the significance of bulk sedimentary carbonate signals before making interpretations in 428 terms of planktonic carbonate productivity and, by inference, of the CCP strength. It requires to 429 carefully select the sedimentary cores that robustly reflect biogenic carbonate accumulation and to 430 consider the potentially obfuscating impact of diagenesis.

431 Core MD07-2418 was retrieved at 1,428 m water depth i.e., well above the modern lysocline 432 located at ~4,300 m (Kolla et al., 1976; Howard and Prell, 1994). The area only receives carbonate-433 free terrigenous material sourced from volcanic rocks of the Crozet and Kerguelen plateau (Nougier, 434 1970). Thus, the sedimented carbonate material directly relates to local biogenic carbonate 435 production, for which the diagenetic overprint and potential detrital contribution are minimal. These 436 assumptions are corroborated by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) observations highlighting that 437 the sedimentary carbonate fraction is predominantly constituted by very well-preserved foraminifera 438 and coccoliths, sometimes represented as intact coccospheres (Fig. 6). In addition, we measured the 439 relative proportion of fragmented planktonic foraminifera shells versus intact foraminifers, a well-440 characterised preservation index (Vazquez-Riveiros et al., 2010; Flores et al., 2003) (Supplementary 441 Fig. 6). This foraminifera fragmentation index varies between 0 and 15.2 % with values higher than 3 442 % observed only between 426 and 417 ka. These results clearly indicate that planktonic foraminiferal preservation is generally good (Le and Shackleton, 1992). 443

Dissolution processes could result in differential sedimentary preservation in the coccolith assemblages as well, preferentially preserving resistant specimens. However, the assemblage is mainly constituted by well-preserved *Gephyrocapsa* sp., as seen on SEM observations. Furthermore, within this genus, small *Gephyrocapsa* sp. (<3 μm) follow the exact same trends as the larger ones, which suggests that differential dissolution does not significantly affect coccolith assemblages insediments from core MD04-2718 (Supplementary Fig. 6).

450





452 Figure 6 Visual estimation of coccolith preservation of sediment core MD04-2718 based on Tescan VEGA II SEM observation
453 (Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, MNHN, Paris) showing good preservation a at 389.1 ka and b at 405.8 ka.

454 At site MD04-2718, Gephyrocapsa calcite mass varies between 0.03 mg/g and 54.62 mg/g. The 455 lowest values are recorded during MIS 12 (0.03 mg/g) and MIS 10 (0.43 mg/g) and the highest ones 456 are documented during MIS 11. In detail, Gephyrocapsa calcite mass increases from 0.03 to 36.68 457 mg/g at the beginning of MIS 11, averages 30 mg/g during MIS 11, and decreases gradually from 382 458 ka to 372 ka to reach low values of 0.43 mg/g during glacial MIS 10. The Gephyrocapsa calcite mass 459 record closely resembles the one of Gephyrocapsa sp. abundance, whereas no relationship may be 460 observed with Gephyrocapsa mean mass (Fig. 7 and Supplementary Fig. 7). Moreover, while the 461 variability in Gephyrocapsa sp. mean mass along the records are of a factor of two, the observed 462 variations in abundance are more than a factor of two thousand. We therefore posit that changes in 463 Gephyrocapsa calcite mass are mainly the consequence of changes in Gephyrocapsa abundance 464 rather than in shell mean mass linked with shift in calcification or morphotypes.-The planktonic foraminifera (>150 µm) calcite mass varies between 0 and 93.9 mg/g. Briefly, it is characterised by 465 466 null or low values during MIS 12 (< 7.2 mg/g) and MIS 10 (< 1.08 mg/g) and generally higher values 467 during MIS 11 and the beginning of MIS 10 (> 20 mg/g). Maximum values are observed around 412.7 468 ka i.e., at the beginning of MIS 11. According to the significant linear correlation that exists between the Gephyrocapsa sp. + planktonic foraminifera calcite mass and sedimentary CaCO₃ content (r^2 = 469 470 0.93), it appears that both plankton groups constitute the major component of the biogenic 471 carbonate signal. Gephyrocapsa sp. seems to have a relatively larger contribution on the sedimentary 472 CaCO₃ content as shown by its greater correlation to CaCO₃ ($r^2 = 0.89$) than planktonic foraminifera 473 calcite mass itself ($r^2 = 0.83$) (Supplementary Fig. 2). Such results are consistent with the major 474 control of coccoliths and more particularly morphotypes of the Noelaerhabdaceae family exert on 475 PIC export today (Rembauville et al., 2016; Patil et al., 2020).

In the following, changes in the downcore CaCO₃ signal at site MD04-2718 will be interpreted
in terms of changes in planktonic carbonate export, and by inference changes in CCP strength.

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Figure 7 Origin of the carbonate fraction. 1 Correlation between CaCO₃ and Gephyrocapsa + planktonic foraminifera calcite mass, 2 a planktonic foraminifera calcite mass (mg/g), b Gephyrocapsa mean mass (pg), c Gephyrocapsa calcite mass (mg/g), d CaCO₃ (%). Smoothed curves use a three-point average using IGOR software. The shaded areas represent the error on the curve. The dotted blue lines represent the beginning and end of MIS 11 from right to left respectively, and the dotted

484 red line represent the middle of the rising slope of CO_2 from glacial to interglacial.

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486 6.2 Increased CCP during MIS 11 as a response to the southward migration of487 westerly winds and ACC front positions

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As represented by the variation in sedimentary CaCO₃ content, it appears that the CCP was strengthened during MIS 11 compared to MIS 12 and MIS 10 (Fig. 8). By analogy to the modern SO (Baumann et al., 1999; Zondervan et al., 2007) and the Pacific sector of the SAZ during MIS 12-MIS 10 492 (Schaefer et al., 2005; Ullermann, 2015; Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b), it is probable that 493 such recorded pattern is related to substantial changes in SST and nutrient conditions. In addition to 494 reconstructed SSTs, the abundances of C. pelagicus and C. leptoporus can be used to indirectly assess 495 past changes in sea surface nutrient and temperature conditions. Indeed, while C. pelagicus seems to 496 proliferate under colder conditions than C. leptoporus (Cobianchi et al., 2012), both these species 497 appear to have affinities with relatively nutrient-rich waters (Andruleit, 1997; Balestra et al., 2004; 498 Amore et al., 2012). This behaviour has been well documented on glacial/interglacial timescales in 499 the SO (Flores et al., 1999; Findlay and Flores, 2000; Marino et al., 2009; Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 500 2017a; 2017b) to characterize frontal zone dynamics (Flores et al., 1999; Findlay and Giraudeau; 501 2000; Flores et al., 2003; Baumann et al., 2004; Malinverno et al., 2015; Marino et al., 2008; 502 Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b). At core site MD04-2718, reconstructed SSTs range between 503 ~2-4°C during glacial MIS 12 and MIS 10, and ~8°C during MIS 11 (Fig. 8). In parallel, relatively fertile 504 conditions are inferred during TV and MIS 11 by the coccolith species *C. pelagicus* and *C. leptoporus* 505 that peak between 426 and 415 ka and between 412 and 392 ka, respectively. The CCP was thus 506 stronger during the relatively warm and nutrient-rich MIS 11 interglacial compared to the relatively 507 cold and nutrient-depleted MIS 12 and MIS 10. The CCP trend shows however some temporal lag 508 with the SST and nutrient records, highlighting other mechanisms in potentially regulating the 509 variability of CCP strength. This is particularly obvious during TV (430-424 ka), when the CCP remains 510 relatively weak despite drastic increases in SSTs and nutrient conditions. At that time, decreasing 511 $\delta^{13}C_{N.pachyderma}$ values and increasing mean mass of *Gephyrocapsa* are recorded (Fig. 8). The rapid $\delta^{13}C$ decrease during the deglaciation is also documented in the South Pacific (Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 512 513 2017b) and South Atlantic (Hodell et al., 2003) (Fig. 8). This isotopic signal is consistent with the 514 resumption of SO upwelling, which supplies abundant nutrients, previously sequestered in the ocean 515 interior owing to greater water-column stratification, to the productive ocean surface (François et al., 516 1997; Spero et al., 2002; Adkins, 2013; Siani et al., 2013). Coeval increase in Gephyrocapsa mean 517 mass has also been associated with increase in CO₂-rich upwelled waters in the SO (Duchamp-518 Alphonse et al., 2018). The reason behind these staggered and seemingly disconnected patterns 519 could relate to the ecological competition between diatoms and coccolithophores in the SO. During 520 glacial periods, favoured by higher iron (Fe) availability, diatom productivity outcompetes 521 coccolithophore growth (Martin, 1990; Kohfeld et al., 2005; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2009; Thöle et al., 522 2019), and call for a weaker CCP. While the availability of Fe dwindled over deglacial periods, reinvigorated upwelling of nutrient-rich waters would have promoted diatom growth during 523 524 Termination V. In such a scenario, we hypothesize that it is only during peak MIS 11 that silicic acid 525 concentrations became too low, thereby limiting diatom growth (Sarmiento et al., 2004), and thus 526 had the potential to favour coccolith production, enhancing the CCP. Overall, since the upwelled 527 waters that (re)surface in the AAZ act under the forcing of the prevailing westerlies (Anderson et al., 528 2009; Lauderdale et al., 2013; Menviel et al., 2018), it is probable that winds migrated poleward between MIS 12 and MIS 11, concomitantly forcing the poleward migration of the entire frontal 529 530 system (Flores and Sierro, 2007; Kemp et al., 2010; Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b). 531 According to the reconstructed SST (< 8°C in mean) as well as the relatively low percentages of C. leptoporus, while close to the SAF, it is likely that site MD04-2718 remained in the PFZ. That is only 532 around 390 ka, when SSTs decreased, that westerlies (along with the frontal system) might have 533 shifted back to the North, leading to a decrease in the CCP. 534

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Figure 8 Records of CCP and upwelling strengths in the SO and relation with variation of atmospheric CO₂ concentration.**a** CO₂ (ppm) (Nehrbass-Ahles et al., 2020), **b** Biopshere productivity (Fbio,t/Fbio,PST) (Brandon et al., 2020), **c** δ^{18} O of N. pachyderma s. from MD04-2718, **d** summer SST reconstructed using N. pachyderma s percentages (blue curve) and using Modern Analog Technique method (green curve), **e** δ^{13} C of N. pachyderma s. from MD04-2718, **f** $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C of benthic Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi from ODP Site 1088- ODP Site 1090 (Hodell et al., 2003), **g** Gephyrocapsa mean mass (pg), **h** C. pelagicus abundance (*10⁶/g sed), **i** C. leptoporus abundance (*10⁶/g sed), **j** CaCO₃ (%) derived from Ca_{XRF}, **k** PS75/059-2 Coccoliths abundance (10⁹coccoliths/g of sediment, Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017b), showed on AICC2012 chronology.

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6 6.3 Increased CCP during TV and MIS 11 and its impact on atmospheric CO₂

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The onset of deep-water ventilation following MIS 12 is recorded at ~432 ka, while the CCP 548 549 starts to increase a few thousand years later, around 426 ka (Fig. 8). This distinct timing suggests that the rapid increase in atmospheric pCO_2 during Termination V was triggered, in part, by the 550 551 reinvigoration of the SO upwelling early in the deglacial progression. Concomitant with the 552 reinvigoration of SO upwelling, the increase in global biosphere productivity (Brandon et al., 2020) 553 that reflects in part, an increase in vegetation cover and terrestrial carbon storage (Tzedakis et al., 554 2006; de Vernal and Hillaire-Marcel, 2008; Prokopenko et al., 2009; Melles et al., 2012; Kousis et al., 555 2018) has probably acted as a sink of atmospheric CO_2 , thereby transiently buffering the impact of oceanic CO₂ degassing (Fig. 8). pCO₂ reached maximum concentration (up to ~ 282 ppm) during the 556 557 second part of MIS 11, as the CCP functioned at maximum strength. Enhanced CCP in the SO contributed to reduce the efficiency of the BCP. Overall, enhanced Gephyrocapsa sp. export and 558 559 burial both in the SO (Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2017a; 2017b) and at low latitudes (Barker et al., 560 2006; Rickaby et al., 2007; Alvarez et al., 2010; Amore et al., 2012; Saavedra-Pellitero et al., 2019), 561 would have led to a global increase in carbonate dissolution at the seafloor (Barker et al., 2006; Qin 562 et al., 2018) and to a significant change in the global rain ratio, eventually impacting atmospheric 563 pCO₂ (Sigman et al., 1998; Sigman and Boyle, 2000; Antia et al., 2001; Barker et al., 2006). This 564 hypothesis warrants further investigations to fully quantify changes in the rain ratio and their impact 565 on atmospheric pCO₂. From 398 ka to 381 ka, the gradual, ~35 ppm decrease in atmospheric pCO₂ coincided well with the rapid increase in benthic foraminifera $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C in the South Atlantic (Hodell et 566 567 al., 2003), consistent with enhanced stratification of the SO and increased carbon storage in the ocean interior. The second part of atmospheric CO₂ drawdown during MIS 10 would be supported in 568 569 part by the reduction in the strength of the CCP combined with a globally more efficient marine BCP.

570 At a global scale, the most striking pattern of MIS 11 relates to the low eccentricity context 571 that is documented around 400 ka (Laskar et al., 2004). Low eccentricity, through the lengthening of 572 the growing season, might have triggered an acme of primary producers such as *Gephyrocapsa* sp., at 573 both high and low latitudes (Rickaby et al., 2007). One cannot exclude either that our record reflects 574 the long-term cyclic Noelaerhabdaceae evolutionary pattern recently highlighted for the tropical area 575 over the Pleistocene (Beaufort et al., 2022), with Gephyrocapsa blooms during MIS 11 being the 576 consequence of reduced seasonality and phytoplankton niches. In all cases, we propose that, under 577 this particularly low eccentricity context, enhanced terrestrial productivity and carbon storage on 578 land, together with enhanced biological carbonate productivity and CCP strength in the SO may have 579 contributed to shape the 30 ka-long CO₂ plateau characteristic of MIS 11.

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582

581 7. Conclusion

583 Our study documents temporal variations in the strength of the CCP based on Southern Ocean 584 sediments and their impact on atmospheric CO₂ concentrations over the period ranging between MIS 585 12 and MIS 10. First, using micropaleontological and geochemical data, we demonstrate that the 586 sedimentary CaCO₃ signal robustly reflects the production and export of Gephyrocapsa sp. and (to a 587 lesser degree) planktonic foraminifera and can therefore be used as a high-resolution proxy of the 588 CCP. Second, using planktic foraminifera, C. leptoporus and C. pelagicus abundances combined with 589 δ^{13} C of *N. pachyderma* s. from the same site, we reconstruct changes in sea surface temperature and 590 nutrient conditions in conjunction with the regional upwelling dynamics, which are closely linked to 591 the latitudinal migration of the westerly winds. Third, the combination of the results obtained in this 592 study together with previous micropaleontological and geochemical data from literature allow us to 593 highlight the sequence of events leading to the deglaciation and to understand the specific 594 atmospheric pCO_2 pattern that characterises this key interval of the past. We show that the abrupt 595 atmospheric CO₂ rise observed during TV is led by the reinvigoration of SO upwelling probably due to 596 a poleward migration of the westerlies and ACC fronts, while the sustained CO₂ plateau observed 597 during MIS 11 is the result of enhanced global primary productivity and increased CCP due to the 598 exceptionally low eccentricity context.

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613 Data availability

- Data will be made available in the Pangaea database prior to publication.
- 615

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