- 1 Deep Atlantic Ocean carbon storage and the rise of 100,000-year glacial cycles
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19 Over the past three million years, Earth's climate oscillated between warmer 20 interglacials with reduced terrestrial ice volume and cooler glacials with expanded 21 polar ice sheets. These climate cycles, as reflected in benthic foraminiferal oxygen 22 isotopes, transitioned from dominantly 41-kyr to 100-kyr periodicities during the 23 mid-Pleistocene (1,250 to 700 ka). Because orbital forcing did not shift at this time, 24 the ultimate cause of this mid-Pleistocene transition (MPT) remains enigmatic. Here 25 we present foraminiferal trace element (B/Ca, Cd/Ca) and Nd isotope data that 26 demonstrate a tight linkage between Atlantic Ocean meridional overturning 27 circulation and deep-ocean carbon storage across the MPT. Specifically, between 28 950 and 900 ka, carbonate ion saturation decreased by 30 µmol/kg and phosphate 29 concentration increased by 0.5 µmol/kg coincident with a 20% reduction of North 30 Atlantic Deep Water contribution to the abyssal South Atlantic. These results 31 demonstrate that the glacial deep Atlantic carbon inventory increased by 32 approximately 50 gigatons during the transition to 100-kyr glacial cycles. We 33 suggest that the coincidence of our observations with evidence for increased 34 terrestrial ice volume reflects how weaker overturning circulation and Southern 35 Ocean biogeochemical feedbacks facilitated deep ocean carbon storage, which 36 lowered atmospheric pCO₂ and thereby enabled expanded terrestrial ice volume at 37 the MPT. 38 Cyclic glaciations are the primary feature of Earth's climate since the late

Pliocene and occur at periodicities linked to variations in solar insolation¹. However, the dominant periodicity of glaciations transitioned from 41-kyr to 100-kyr during the midPleistocene without concomitant changes in external insolation forcing²⁻⁵. It has been

42	suggested that the emergence of high-amplitude 100-kyr cycles in surface and deep ocean
43	climate records during the MPT ^{4,5,6} relates to internal climate amplifiers ("feedbacks") ³ ,
44	including changes in ice sheet dynamics ^{3,5,6-11} , ocean circulation ^{12,13} , and interactions of
45	these processes with Earth's carbon cycle ¹⁰⁻¹⁴ . Although temporal resolution is low,
46	atmospheric pCO_2 reconstructions across the MPT show that glacial pCO_2 decreased by
47	\sim 30 µatm sometime between 1,000 and 800 ka ^{11,15,16} , consistent with more voluminous
48	glacial ice sheets ^{10,17} . The missing glacial pCO_2 was most likely sequestered in the deep
49	ocean ¹⁸ as suggested by benthic foraminiferal carbon isotope records $(\delta^{13}C_b)^{5,14,19}$.
50	However, evidence from $\delta^{13}C_b$ reflects a combination of ocean circulation, air-sea gas
51	exchange, and ocean carbon content, which complicates quantitative reconstructions of
52	any one parameter ^{13,14,19} . Because reliable quantitative records of ocean carbonate
53	chemistry are sparse, it is debated how the ocean sequestered additional CO ₂ at the
54	MPT ^{11,13} . Stronger quantitative constraints on deep ocean dissolved inorganic carbon
55	(DIC) and its relation to meridional overturning circulation (MOC) are needed to evaluate
56	whether, and by which mechanisms, the ocean stored additional carbon at the MPT.

57 Here we test the hypothesis that the onset of 100-kyr glacial cycles during the MPT was facilitated by enhanced deep ocean carbon storage accommodated by reduced 58 Atlantic MOC^{12,13}. We present the first paired reconstructions of deep ocean DIC content 59 60 and MOC using foraminiferal trace element (B/Ca, Cd/Ca) and Nd isotope proxies, 61 recorded in sediments from Ocean Drilling Program Site 1267 from the Southeast 62 Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). In combination with previously published MOC and trace 63 element reconstructions, our results indicate coeval MOC reduction and increased deep Atlantic DIC after 950 ka. We evaluate the contribution of our DIC estimates to 64

atmospheric pCO₂ based on ocean CO₂ sequestration mechanisms identified by modeling
studies of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, ~20 ka), and hypothesise a sequence of
climatic events that link changes in ocean circulation, carbon cycle and Earth's
cryosphere with the emergence of 100-kyr glacial cycles during the MPT.

69 Carbonate chemistry, nutrients, and MOC across the MPT

70 Site 1267 is located at 4.4 km water depth in the Angola Basin north of Walvis Ridge²⁰, within dense Atlantic Ocean bottom waters (Fig. 1b). These waters comprise 71 72 two general endmembers with characteristic chemical properties: North Atlantic Deep 73 Water (NADW) feeds the basin from the north, and Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) 74 from the south. High oxygen, low-CO₂ and nutrient-poor NADW carries a low Nd 75 isotope ratio (expressed as more negative ε_{Nd} , Methods), while low oxygen, high-CO₂ 76 and nutrient-replete AABW carries a more positive ε_{Nd} signature from admixed Pacific 77 waters (Fig. 1). Because Walvis Ridge blocks AABW inflow from the south, AABW 78 enters the Angola Basin via the Romanche Fracture zone (0°N), thereby limiting the 79 contribution of the generally deeper AABW to abyssal Angola Basin waters today (Fig. 1b). However, Site 1267 exhibits higher nutrient conditions (indicated by low $\delta^{13}C_{\rm b}$ 80 values) during Pleistocene glaciations^{21,22}, suggesting that this location tracks the balance 81 82 of NADW and AABW contributions to the deep Atlantic across the MPT. 83 The B/Ca and Cd/Ca ratios of the epibenthic foraminifer Cibicidoides *wuellerstorfi* reflect the deep-sea carbonate ion saturation state²³ (Δ [CO₃²⁻]) and 84 phosphate concentration²⁴ ([PO₄³⁻]), respectively (Methods). Changes in Δ [CO₃²⁻] and 85

86 $[PO_4^{3-}]$ are linked to changes in DIC through ocean biogeochemistry, and we apply these

87 proxies from Site 1267 alongside published B/Ca and Cd/Ca records from North Atlantic 88 Site $607^{13,25}$ to quantitatively constrain deep Atlantic DIC across the MPT. Additionally, 89 ε_{Nd} of planktic foraminiferal Fe-Mn oxide coatings at Site 1267 records the local 90 expression of changes in NADW and AABW contributions to the deep Atlantic Ocean 91 and complements a more southerly reconstruction of MOC strength across the MPT¹².

92 Site 1267 geochemical data show pronounced shifts in circulation and chemical 93 properties between Marine Isotopic Stages (MIS) 26 (970 ka) and 22 (880 ka) (Fig. 2). 94 ε_{Nd} suggests an ~20% reduction in NADW contribution to the South Atlantic between 95 MIS 26/25 and MIS 23/22 (Methods), in agreement with records from Sites 1088 and 1090 located ~10° to the south¹² (Supplementary Fig. 1). These combined ε_{Nd} records 96 97 indicate that the MOC perturbation between MIS 26 and 22 exceeds any previously 98 studied glacial transition before 950 ka. This MOC reduction corresponds with abrupt 99 increases in deep water corrosivity and nutrient content as indicated by an ~30 µmol/kg Δ [CO₃²⁻] decrease and an ~0.5 µmol/kg [PO₄³⁻] increase at Site 1267 (Fig. 2c, d). This 100 chemical transition persisted for at least 500 kyr. Whereas bottom water Δ [CO₃²⁻] was 101 near or above saturation ($\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}] = 0$) prior to 950 ka, $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ values after 950 ka were 102 consistently negative in both glacials and interglacials, and they equaled modern Δ [CO₃²⁻] 103 104 of -2 µmol/kg during interglacials MIS 19, 17, and 13 (Fig. 2c). Similarly, reconstructed $[PO_4^{3-}]$ was significantly higher after 950 ka than before, and approached modern $[PO_4^{3-}]$ 105 106 of 1.6 µmol/kg during MIS 19, 17, and 13 (Fig. 2d).

107 The B/Ca and Cd/Ca patterns displayed by our Site 1267 records are similar in 108 trend but more pronounced than observations at Site 607 in the North Atlantic^{13,25} (Fig. 109 2c, d). Site 607 Δ [CO₃²⁻] is higher and [PO₄³⁻] lower than at Site 1267 for the length of 110 the records (Fig. 2), consistent with continuously better ventilation in the deep North

111 Atlantic compared to the abyssal Southeast Atlantic between 1,400 and 400 ka.

112 Quantifying deep Atlantic DIC increase

Synchronous but opposing $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $[PO_4^{3-}]$ reconstructions across the MPT 113 114 (Fig. 2c-d) suggest the deep Atlantic acquired additional respired carbon after 950 ka. Whereas $[PO_4^{3-}]$ proportionally increases with DIC through the stoichiometric ratio of 115 carbon to phosphorous in organic matter²⁶, the CO_2 released during respiration decreases 116 $[CO_3^{2-}]$, lowering $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ (Supplementary Fig. 2). Using the C:P ratio of organic matter 117 118 exported to the deep ocean $(117\pm14:1, ref. 26)$, and making simplifying assumptions 119 about changes in Cd inventory and seawater Cd:P ratios (Supplementary Information), 120 we quantify deep Atlantic DIC change associated with the MOC shift around 950 ka 121 (MIS 25) in glacial and interglacial climates (Methods). In addition, we also estimate DIC change from $\Delta [CO_3^{2-}]$ by assuming constant local alkalinity (following ref. 27, 122 123 Methods).

124 At South Atlantic Site 1267, glacial DIC after 950 ka increased by 50±16 μ mol/kg reconstructed from Δ [CO₃²⁻], and 49±24 μ mol/kg from Δ [PO₄³⁻], compared to 125 126 glacials before 950 ka (Fig. 3a, b). At North Atlantic Site 607, glacial DIC similarly increased by 50±30 μ mol/kg reconstructed from Δ [CO₃²⁻], and 20±18 μ mol/kg from 127 Δ [PO₄³⁻] (all uncertainties 1*s*). Reconstructed DIC also increased during interglacials 128 after 950 ka; at Site 1267 by 44±24 μ mol/kg from Δ [CO₃²⁻] and by 42±16 μ mol/kg from 129 Δ [PO₄³⁻]; at Site 607 by 23±23 µmol/kg from Δ [CO₃²⁻] and by 10±18 µmol/kg from 130 Δ [PO₄³⁻] (Fig. 3). The averaged deep Atlantic glacial DIC increase after 950 ka (42±15 131

132 μ mol/kg) agrees with the 42±22 μ mol/kg DIC increase reconstructed from benthic foraminiferal B/Ca between MIS 5a and 4 prior to the LGM²⁷. The generally larger DIC 133 134 increases at Site 1267 (Fig. 3a, b) likely reflect the southerly and deeper position of Site 135 1267 relative to Site 607, which makes Site 1267 a more sensitive indicator of the relative 136 contributions of northern and southern sourced deep waters. Nevertheless, these similar 137 DIC estimates from two independent proxies at separate locations lend confidence for a 138 persistent deep Atlantic DIC increase after 950 ka that encompassed both glacial and 139 interglacial climates.

140 Increased DIC after 950 ka is likely the consequence of a more aged deep-water 141 body in the deep Atlantic, with accumulated respired CO_2 and nutrients. Nd isotope ratios 142 show that this aged deep water is associated with reduced NADW. Glacial ε_{Nd} values 143 became more positive after 950 ka at Sites 1088, 1090 and 1267 (Fig. 3c, Supplementary 144 Fig. 1), indicating reduced NADW and/or enhanced AABW. Interglacial ε_{Nd} values also 145 show more positive values after 950 ka compared with before MIS 23 at Site 1267, 146 indicating that reduced MOC after 950 ka was not limited to glacial climates (Methods). Covariance between ε_{Nd} , $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $[PO_4^{3-}]$ at Site 1267 confirms that MOC and 147 148 bottom water chemistry shifts are linked (Supplementary Fig. 3).

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Implications for atmospheric pCO₂

As the Southern Ocean is the principal gateway for CO_2 to escape from the deep Atlantic into the atmosphere, changes in surface Southern Ocean properties that affect CO₂ leakage likely contribute to atmospheric CO₂ variations over Pleistocene glacial cycles^{28,29}. These processes have also been invoked for the MPT³⁰, with recent studies

154	proposing that expanded Southern Ocean sea-ice extent ¹³ or increased iron availability ¹¹
155	lowered pCO ₂ across the MPT. Upon comparing the temporal relationships of the
156	evidence, we propose that MPT pCO_2 reduction was closely related with reduced MOC
157	(Fig. 3). Whereas glacial Subantarctic iron deposition gradually increased between 1,400
158	and 1,100 ka ^{31} (Fig. 3f), ice core and proxy reconstructions suggest glacial pCO ₂ did not
159	decrease before 1,000 ka ^{11,15,16} (Fig. 3d). Instead, glacial pCO ₂ most likely decreased at
160	MIS 24-22, coeval with increased deep Atlantic DIC (Fig. 3a-b), lowered sea-level at
161	MIS $22^{10,17}$ (Fig. 3g), and global surface ocean cooling ^{5,6} . This implies that reduced pCO ₂
162	conforms to the more extensive glacial ice sheets of the 100-kyr world. Our prediction
163	that glacial pCO_2 was primarily reduced during MIS 24 and 22 agrees with pCO_2
164	simulations ^{$32,33$} , and is testable with more detailed pCO ₂ reconstructions from this critical
165	interval.

166 Lower pCO₂ is plausibly linked to increased deep Atlantic DIC by more complete Southern Ocean nutrient utilisation and/or increased deep ocean stratification^{29,34,35} after 167 168 950 ka. As indicated above, we do not believe that iron fertilisation primarily drove lower pCO₂ after 950 ka. Instead, the coherent timing with MOC suggests a circulation-driven 169 170 process. The Southern Ocean's residual overturning circulation is driven by surface density fluxes³⁶, and it has been proposed that changes to these density fluxes in glacial 171 climates are dynamically linked to deep ocean stratification^{35,37} and pCO₂³⁸. Specifically, 172 173 reduced rates of surface water densification combined with a northward shift of Southern Ocean upwelling during glacial climates³⁸ increases the surface ocean residence time of 174 175 nutrient-rich waters, enhancing nutrient utilisation and CO₂ uptake before new AABW is formed³⁸. Both stratification and enhanced nutrient utilisation would increase deep ocean 176

177 DIC by preferentially segregating regenerated products (nutrients and carbon) in the deep 178 ocean. Deep ocean Δ [CO₃²⁻] consequently decreases, driving a transient carbonate 179 (CaCO₃) dissolution event³⁹ that may increase alkalinity and foster additional ocean CO₂ 180 storage^{40,41}, although the mechanisms and timescales of such alkalinity feedbacks are 181 debated²⁵. Accounting for an alkalinity increase slightly elevates our estimate of deep 182 Atlantic DIC increase from B/Ca, but does not fundamentally change our results 183 (Methods).

184 The above conceptual arguments are supported by similar magnitudes of pCO_2 185 reduction at the MPT and in LGM model simulations of reduced MOC coupled to 186 reduced Southern Ocean CO₂ outgassing. Assuming our pooled estimate of glacial DIC 187 increase ($42\pm15 \mu mol/kg$) characterised the entire deep Atlantic below 3 km, then its 188 carbon inventory increased by 51±18 Gt C during glaciations after 950 ka (Methods). 189 Quantifying pCO₂ reduction from this DIC increase requires simulating the new 190 equilibrium reached between the ocean and atmospheric C reservoirs following the DIC 191 increase. Model simulations of the LGM provide a comparable constraint where the 192 effects of MOC and reduced Southern Ocean CO2 outgassing on deep Atlantic DIC and 193 pCO₂ are quantified. In these simulations, combining reduced MOC with reduced 194 Southern Ocean CO₂ outgassing increases deep ocean DIC through a stronger biological $pump^{27,29,43}$ and lowers pCO₂ by 13 to 45 ppm^{29,42,43}. The consistency between these 195 196 pCO₂ estimates and the reconstructed 20-40 ppm glacial pCO₂ decrease across the MPT^{11,15,16} (Fig. 3e) supports a MOC and Southern Ocean pathway for MPT glacial 197 198 pCO₂ reduction. This implies that the 'ventilation volume' CO₂ sequestration hypothesis

for the LGM^{29,43} first initiated with the major glacial MOC reduction after 950 ka¹², and
drove lower glacial pCO₂ levels during ensuing 100-kyr glacial cycles (Fig. 4).

Our averaged estimate for interglacial DIC increase $(30\pm16 \mu mol/kg)$ implies a deep Atlantic carbon inventory increase of 36 ± 20 Gt C during interglacials after 950 ka. This evidence for greater interglacial deep ocean carbon storage after 950 ka may have contributed to the ~30 to 40 ppm lower pCO₂ during the "lukewarm" interglacials between 450 and 900 ka^{15,44}, although identifying mechanisms for this requires further study.

207 **Perspective**

208 An enduring mystery surrounding the MPT is how the cryosphere, ocean, and 209 carbon cycle interacted to initiate 100-kyr climate cycles at this particular time in Earth 210 history. While erosion of Northern Hemisphere regolith has been a central hypothesis for the MPT^{5,7,9,11}, we suggest that an expanded Antarctic Ice Sheet played a key role in 211 212 unleashing the ocean carbon cycle feedbacks necessary for 100-kyr cycles (Fig. 4). 213 Atmospheric cooling associated with growth of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet to marinebased margins around 1000 ka^{8,45} (Fig. 3e) would have enhanced the production and 214 export of Antarctic sea-ice³⁷, expanding the spatial extent^{35,37} but reducing the intensity 215 of surface water densification around Antarctica³⁸. This increased residence time of 216 217 nutrient-rich waters would have enhanced nutrient utilisation and therefore CO₂ uptake. 218 Increased Antarctic surface "buoyancy loss" may also have directly facilitated expanded AABW and enhanced deep ocean stratification^{35,37}, although we cannot rule out Northern 219 220 Hemisphere forcing of the MOC shift through reduced NADW production (Fig. 4c).

Future studies of Southern Ocean nutrient utilisation and deep ocean stratification across the MPT can elucidate how these two mechanisms contributed to MPT pCO₂ decline.

223 In summary, our results demonstrate that the rise of 100-kyr ice age cycles is 224 intimately linked with increased deep ocean carbon storage associated with weakened 225 MOC. The key roles for ocean circulation and the carbon cycle in the natural climate 226 transition at the MPT raise critical questions on the future behaviour of these climate 227 components under anthropogenic warming. By the end of the century, Atlantic MOC is 228 projected to decrease by potentially similar magnitude (~20%) as the MOC reduction at the MPT, albeit with high uncertainty^{46,47}. While we have demonstrated that a weaker 229 230 MOC related to increased deep ocean carbon storage at the MPT, future deep ocean 231 carbon sequestration depends on how future MOC interacts with the evolution of the 232 biological pump and deep ocean stratification. In contrast to the MPT, projected future reductions of Southern Ocean surface density^{37,48} and reduced anthropogenic CO₂ uptake 233 by NADW under MOC weakening⁴⁹ may diminish the future carbon sequestration 234 235 potential of the deep Atlantic Ocean.

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380	MY and JK performed Nd sample processing and isotopic analyses; all authors
381	contributed to interpretation of results and manuscript preparation.

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Figure Captions.

Figure 1. Location of sediment cores and modern Atlantic Ocean hydrography. a) Site

388 1267²⁰ (cyan star) is located in the South Atlantic, along with cores comprising the SUSAS

389 stack⁵⁰ (gray circles), and Sites 1088 and $1090^{12,14,31}$. Site $607^{13,25}$ (orange diamond) is located in

the North Atlantic. Colours denote surface ocean potential density from World Ocean Atlas 2013

data (<u>www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/woa13/</u>); white X's denote regions of modern-day deep-water

392 formation. b) Meridional cross-section showing modern-day phosphate (colour) and salinity

393 (contours indicate isolines) (composite of CLIVAR A20 and A13.5, www.clivar.org). Phosphate-

394 poor NADW fills the Angola Basin to >4 km depth, while phosphate-rich AABW inflow is

395 limited by Walvis Ridge. Phosphate-rich Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) extends

396 northward above 2 km depth. Plots created in Ocean Data View (<u>http://odv.awi.de</u>).

Figure 2. Site 1267 and 607 circulation and trace element records across the MPT. a) Site

398 1267 $\delta^{18}O_b^{21}$ (black) and $\delta^{13}C_b^{21,22}$ (brown); red and blue numbers denote interglacial and glacial

399 stages, respectively. b) Site 1267 ε_{Nd} ; opposite axis gives corresponding percentage North

- 400 Atlantic sourced water (NAW, calculation in Methods). c) B/Ca from 607^{13,25} (gray circles) and
- 401 1267 (filled squares); opposite axis gives Δ [CO₃²⁻] (Methods). d) Cd/Ca from 607¹³ (gray circles)
- 402 and 1267 (outlined squares); opposite axis gives $[PO_4^{3-}]$ (Methods). Error bars are replicate 1*s*,
- 403 and are greater than long-term internal precision (Methods). Red, blue and gray squares indicate
- 404 Site 1267 interglacial, glacial and transitional samples, respectively. Horizontal lines in c) and d)

405 indicate modern $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $[PO_4^{3-}]$ at 1267 (blue) and 607 (orange). Vertical gray shading 406 highlights MIS 25 through 22.

407 Figure 3. Changes in ocean CO₂ feedbacks and climate across the MPT. ADIC reconstructed from $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ (a) and $\Delta[PO_4^{3-}]$ (b) at Sites 1267 (filled squares) and 607 (open squares). c) South 408 Atlantic MOC from ε_{Nd} at Sites 1267 (squares) and 1088¹² (circles). Red/blue symbols in a-c 409 indicate interglacials/glacials, respectively. d) pCO₂ from EPICA Dome C⁴⁴ (black line), Allan 410 Hills¹⁶ (black bar at 1,000 ka), planktic foraminiferal boron isotopes (red/blue/gray circles are 411 interglacials/glacials/transitional from ref. 15; cyan curve, ref. 11), and modeled³³. Yellow 412 413 shading indicates average pCO₂ for 0-420, 420-900, and 950-2,000 ka. e) Terrigenous mass 414 accumulation rate from Site 745 indicating East Antarctic Ice Sheet activity⁴⁵. f) Iron mass 415 accumulation rate in the Subantarctic Atlantic (Site 1090)³¹. g) Eustatic sea level from South Pacific $\delta^{18}O_{sw}^{10}$ (cyan line) and Mediterranean planktic foraminifer $\delta^{18}O^{17}$ (yellow points). 416

417 Figure 4. Schematics of proposed coupling between cryosphere, Atlantic MOC, and carbon

418 cycle responses across the MPT. Glacial Atlantic MOC cross-sections before and after 950 ka

419 are in a) and c), respectively. b) and d) show Antarctic processes within dashed regions of a) and

420 c). Curved arrows trace AABW and NADW pathways; arrow colour indicates $[PO_4^{3-}]$ (Fig. 1) and

421 thickness indicates deep-water contribution (thicker is greater contribution). RFZ= Romanche

422 Fracture Zone. Red arrows indicate ocean CO₂ release; orange dots indicate dust deposition.

423 Black curved lines in b) and d) indicate brine rejection. EAIS= East Antarctic Ice Sheet. Before

424 950 ka, a smaller EAIS limits Antarctic sea-ice coverage, shortening the path for Antarctic

425 surface waters before subduction, giving a larger fraction of unutilised nutrients in AABW and

426 greater CO₂ release (b). NADW dominates Atlantic MOC (a). After 950 ka, EAIS expands to

- 427 marine-based margins and sea-ice expands. Antarctic surface waters upwell farther north,
- 428 travelling further before subduction, decreasing $[PO_4^{3-}]$ in AABW and lowering CO_2 outgassing
- 429 (d). AABW dominates deep Atlantic circulation, effectively trapping CO₂ (cross-hatching, c).

431 Methods

432 **ODP Site 1267 and sample selection.** ODP Site 1267 (28°5.89' S, 1°42.66'E, 4.36 km water depth) was cored near the northwestern margin of Walvis Ridge in the Angola 433 Basin²⁰. Site 1267 chronology was established by aligning *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* 434 $\delta^{18}O^{21}$ to the LR04 global $\delta^{18}O_{\rm b}$ stack⁵¹. For this study, *C. wuellerstorfi* specimens >250 435 um were picked from samples reflecting glacial-interglacial extremes (indicated by 436 437 $\delta^{18}O_{\rm b}$) spanning MIS 46 to MIS 12, and every 25 cm (every ~3 kyr) between MIS 30 and 438 MIS 22 (Supplementary Fig. 4). Our records do not extend beyond MIS 12 due to limited 439 C. wuellerstorfi in younger sediments. Glacial and interglacial extremes in B/Ca and Cd/Ca records from Site $607^{13,25}$ were also selected based on $\delta^{18}O_{\rm b}$ (Supplementary Fig. 440 441 4).

442 **Trace element analyses.** For Site 1267, six to twelve *C. wuellerstorfi* specimens were 443 crushed between two methanol-cleaned glass slides and transferred to HCl-cleaned 0.5 444 mL polypropylene vials. When necessary, adjacent samples were combined to provide 445 200 to 300 µg of calcite. Crushed samples were cleaned via clay removal in methanol and 446 boron-free MilliQ water, removal of Fe-Mn oxides and authigenic Mn carbonates by 447 reduction with an ammonium-citric acid-buffered hydrazine (NH₄(OH)- $C_6H_8O_7-N_2H_4$) 448 solution, organic oxidation with NaOH-buffered H₂O₂, and a weak acid leach with 0.001 N HNO₃ to remove any adsorbed contaminants, following standard protocols 52-54. 449 450 Samples were transferred to HCl-cleaned 2 mL polypropylene vials after the oxidation 451 step. Initial tests showed elevated Mn and Fe concentrations (> 100 μ mol/mol) without 452 reductive cleaning, and thus reductive cleaning was performed on all samples. Removal of Fe and Mn phases is critical for reducing Cd blank⁵³ and does not affect B/Ca ratios⁵⁵. 453 454 All sample preparation was performed in a boron-free HEPA laminar flow bench at the 455 Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory (LDEO).

456 Cleaned samples were dissolved in 0.8 to 1.6 mL of ultrapure 2% HNO₃
457 immediately prior to analysis, with the volume of acid adjusted by sample mass to obtain
458 ~50 ppm [Ca²⁺] solutions. Trace element intensities were measured using a Thermo
459 Scientific iCAP Q inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer at LDEO⁵⁶ following
460 methods adapted from ref. 57. Low mass element ¹¹B was measured in standard mode;

²³Na, ²⁷Al, ⁴³Ca, ⁵⁵Mn, ⁵⁶Fe, and ¹¹¹Cd were measured in kinetic energy discrimination 461 462 mode using a He collision cell to minimise polyatomic interferences. To minimise matrix 463 effects, element intensities were corrected with an internal multi-element quality control 464 standard measured every ten samples. Concentrations and element ratios (relative to Ca) 465 were calculated from element intensities measured on a multi-element stock solution 466 prepared gravimetrically from trace element-grade stock solutions. This solution was diluted to $[Ca^{2+}]$ of 5 to 125 ppm and each dilution was then measured, creating 467 468 calibrations of element intensity to concentration. External precision was evaluated using 469 nine full procedural replicates from Site 1267, with 1s pooled replicate precision of ± 6.6 470 μ mol/mol for B/Ca and $\pm 0.009 \mu$ mol/mol for Cd/Ca. Long-term internal precision (1s) of 471 an in-house quality control standard was $\pm 2.9 \mu mol/mol$ for B/Ca and $\pm 0.006 \mu mol/mol$ 472 for Cd/Ca.

Site 607 B/Ca and Cd/Ca ratios were previously measured via similar protocols^{13,25}. Pooled replicate precision (1*s*) for Site 607 B/Ca and Cd/Ca was \pm 5.9 and \pm 0.007 µmol/mol, respectively¹³. No attempt was made to correct for laboratory B/Ca or Cd/Ca offsets. If laboratory offsets existed, they would not change the results of our study because each core was measured in separate laboratories and we independently calculate Δ DIC from B/Ca and Cd/Ca variations within each core (see below).

Neodymium isotope analyses. Nd isotopes (¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd) were measured on Fe-Mn 479 encrusted planktic foraminifera^{12,58}. Between 20 and 30 mg of planktic foraminifera from 480 481 the >300 µm size fraction were crushed, ultrasonicated and resuspended in MilliQ water 482 and methanol to remove detrital contaminants. Each sample was treated individually to 483 ensure that sufficient rinsing steps were applied. Cleaned fragments were dissolved in 484 dilute acetic acid, and the resulting solution centrifuged. The supernatant was transferred 485 to clean PFA beakers and Nd was separated using Eichrom Tru-Spec and Ln-Spec resins. 486 Nd isotopes were determined by multi-collector inductively coupled mass spectrometry 487 on a ThermoScientific Neptune-Plus at LDEO. Instrumental drift was corrected by sample-standard bracketing (SSB) using JNdi-1 as the primary standard⁵⁹, with matching 488 489 standard and sample Nd concentrations. Nd isotopes are expressed as ε_{Nd} values, which give deviations in parts per 10^4 from the average 143 Nd/ 144 Nd value of chondritic 490

491 meteorites $(0.512638)^{60}$. External analytical reproducibility ($\pm 2s$) was 0.28 and 0.43 ϵ Nd 492 units (± 0.000014 and 0.000021 absolute) for the two analytical sessions where Site 1267 493 samples were measured.

Converting B/Ca, Cd/Ca to DIC_{*resp*}. Global coretop calibration shows that *C*. *wuellerstorfi* B/Ca records $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]^{23,61-63}$, where $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}] = [CO_3^{2^-}]_{in \ situ} - [CO_3^{2^-}]_{saturation}$. 496 Site 607 and 1267 B/Ca was converted to $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ using B/Ca (µmol/mol) = 1.14±0.04* $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ (µmol/kg) + 176.6±1.0 (ref. 63).

Both $[CO_3^{2-}]_{in situ}$ and $[CO_3^{2-}]_{saturation}$ are relatively insensitive to changes in 498 499 temperature, salinity, and pressure. For instance, projected changes in deep ocean 500 temperature, salinity and pressure on glacial-interglacial timescales negligibly influence Δ [CO₃²⁻] compared to instrumental B/Ca precision⁶⁴. Therefore, downcore changes in 501 Δ [CO₃²⁻] primarily reflect changes in deep ocean [CO₃²⁻]_{in situ} driven by changes in the 502 503 difference between total alkalinity (TA) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 504 (Supplementary Fig. 2; ref. 27). If the quantity TA-DIC increases, the greater excess of TA relative to DIC implies a shift in DIC speciation toward CO_3^{2-} and thus increased 505 $[CO_3^{2-}]$. Conversely, a decrease in the quantity TA-DIC implies DIC speciation shifts 506 toward CO_2 , and thus $[CO_3^{2-}]$ decreases. 507

508 Changes in $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ at Sites 1267 and 607 are a function of TA and DIC 509 (Supplementary Fig. 2):

510
$$\left(\Delta [CO_3^{2-}]_{measured} - \Delta [CO_3^{2-}]_{reference}\right) = 0.54 * (\Delta TA - \Delta DIC)$$
(1)

where $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]_{measured} - \Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]_{reference}$ gives the $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ difference from a reference 511 Δ [CO₃²⁻] value (here, the average pre-950 ka interglacial Δ [CO₃²⁻] of +14.8 µmol/kg at 512 Site 1267 and +39.7 μ mol/kg at Site 607), and Δ TA and Δ DIC are the differences in TA 513 514 and DIC between each sample relative to average pre-950 ka interglacial TA and DIC. Note that while we use $\Delta[CO_3^{2^-}]$ instead of $[CO_3^{2^-}]_{in \ situ}$ (as used by ref. 27 and 52), 515 Equation 1 is identical using either parameter because $[CO_3^{2-}]_{saturation}$ is assumed constant 516 due to the small influence of temperature, salinity, and pressure variations on $[CO_3^{2-}]$ 517]_{saturation} (see above). The slope of Equation 1 (k=0.54) is less than one due to a larger 518

519 contribution from non-carbonate species (particularly borate anion) to TA as the quantity 520 TA-DIC increases. We calculated k by varying TA and DIC at the present-day bottomwater temperature (2.4°C), salinity (34.89) and pressure (4429 dbar) of Site 1267 in 521 522 CO2SYS (ref. 65). Following this for Site 607 also returns k of 0.54. In contrast, Yu et al.²⁷ used k=0.59 from regression of oceanographic data below 2.5 km depth in the 523 524 Atlantic Ocean, but this approach includes influences from pressure, temperature, and 525 salinity variations within the dataset used for their regression. Our slope is more 526 appropriate because the expected temperature, salinity and pressure variations at Sites 527 1267 and 607 across the late Pleistocene are smaller than the present-day ranges of these 528 parameters in the Atlantic Ocean below 2.5 km depth.

Two processes primarily control deep ocean TA and DIC: organic matter respiration and calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) dissolution (Supplementary Fig. 2). Explicitly accounting for the effects of respiration and dissolution in Eq. 1 and substituting pre-950 ka interglacial Δ [CO₃²⁻] for Δ [CO₃²⁻]_{reference} gives:

533
$$\left(\Delta [CO_3^{2-}]_{measured} - 14.8\right) = 0.54 * \left(\left(\Delta TA - \Delta DIC\right)_{resp} + \left(\Delta TA - \Delta DIC\right)_{diss}\right)$$
(2)

for Site 1267. (For Site 607, 39.7 μ mol/kg is subtracted from Δ [CO₃²⁻]_{measured} to 534 normalize to average pre-950 ka interglacial $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$). Here *resp* and *diss* denote 535 536 changes from organic matter respiration and dissolution, respectively. Respiring 1 µmol 537 of organic matter in 1 kg seawater increases DIC by 1 µmol/kg and decreases TA by 0.14 538 µmol/kg (ref. 26). This decreases the quantity TA-DIC by 1.14 µmol/kg and thus decreases [CO₃²⁻]_{in situ} by 0.62 µmol/kg. Dissolution of 1 µmol of CaCO₃ in 1 kg seawater 539 540 increases DIC by 1 µmol/kg and increases TA by 2 µmol/kg, which increases TA-DIC by 1 μ mol/kg and thus raises [CO₃²⁻]_{in situ} by 0.54 μ mol/kg. Using these stoichiometric ratios 541 542 of TA- and DIC-change during respiration and dissolution, Eq. 2 becomes:

543
$$\left(\Delta [CO_3^{2^-}]_{measured} - 14.8\right) (\mu mol / kg) = 0.54 * \left(0.5\Delta TA_{diss} - 1.14\Delta DIC_{resp}\right)$$
 (3)

544 for Site 1267. As in Eq. 1, ΔTA_{diss} and ΔTA_{resp} values are calculated relative to pre-950 545 ka interglacial averages.

Equation 3 has three unknowns: $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$, ΔTA_{diss} , and ΔDIC_{resp} . B/Ca constrains 546 Δ [CO₃²⁻], but one more constraint is required to solve Eq. 3. One approach is to assume 547 constant deep ocean alkalinity²⁷ ($\Delta TA_{diss}=0$), which allows Eq. 3 to be solved for 548 549 $\Delta DIC_{resp.}$ Previous applications of B/Ca to reconstruct DIC assumed constant TA over short study intervals^{27,66} (<50 kyr). In contrast, our 1-Myr record covers a climate 550 transition associated with notable changes in deep-sea carbonate sedimentation^{25,49,67} 551 552 (Supplementary Fig. 5). Thus, it may not be practical to assume that $\Delta TA_{diss}=0$ (see below). 553

554 Lacking established paleo-proxies for TA, here we also calculate ΔDIC_{resp} using 555 *C. wuellerstorfi* Cd/Ca, an independent nutrient proxy that is unlikely affected by ΔTA_{diss} . 556 *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* Cd/Ca relates to deep ocean [Cd] through the following 557 relationship:

558
$$[Cd]_{sw}(nmol/kg) = \frac{10*(Cd/Ca)_{C.wuellerstorfi}}{2.9}$$
(4)

559 where 2.9 is the partition coefficient of Cd into calcitic foraminifera below 3 km depth and 10 is the seawater $[Ca^{2+}]$ in mmol/kg^{24,68,69}. $[Cd]_{sw}$ relates to $[DIC]_{resp}$ through 560 stoichiometric relationships in seawater and organic matter. In the modern Atlantic Ocean, 561 $[Cd]_{sw}$ is strongly, but nonlinearly, correlated with phosphate concentration ($[PO_4^{3-1}])^{70-73}$. 562 This nonlinearity might reflect Cd uptake by phytoplankton⁷¹ possibly modulated by the 563 local abundance of other trace elements⁷². Recent high-quality [Cd]_{sw} measurements 564 taken during the GEOTRACES program in the Atlantic Ocean⁷²⁻⁷⁵ exhibit a strong 565 nonlinear correlation to $[PO_4^{3-}]$, which is linearized by using the square root of $[Cd]_{sw}$ 566 (Supplementary Fig. 2c): 567

568
$$[PO_4^{3-}](\mu mol/kg) = \frac{\sqrt{[Cd]_{sw} - 0.062}}{0.361}$$
 (5)

569 *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* Cd/Ca is used to calculate Δ [Cd]_{sw} using Equation 4, 570 and then Δ DIC_{*resp*} associated with Δ [Cd]_{sw} is calculated assuming a Redfield C:P ratio of 571 117±14:1 (ref. 26):

572
$$\Delta DIC_{resp}(\mu mol/kg) = (117 \pm 14) * \frac{\sqrt{\Delta [Cd]_{sw} - 0.062}}{0.361}$$
 (6)

573 As in Equation 3, ΔDIC_{resp} and $\Delta [Cd]_{sw}$ are calculated as differences relative to pre-950 574 ka interglacial averages.

575 Reconstructed ΔDIC_{resp} from Cd/Ca (Equation 6) largely agrees with ΔDIC_{resp} 576 calculated from B/Ca (Equation 3) assuming $\Delta TA_{diss}=0$ over our study interval at Site 1267 (Supplementary Fig. 6). This correspondence argues against major variations in 577 578 uncertainty sources that affect one-but not both-proxies. Specifically, this 579 correspondence suggests that any changes in ΔTA_{diss} (influencing B/Ca) are smaller than 580 the (relatively large) uncertainty on B/Ca-derived ΔDIC_{resp} (discussed below). Similarly, 581 this argues against secondary influences on Cd/Ca-derived ΔDIC_{resp} estimates 582 (Supplementary Information).

562 (Supplementary Information).

583 **Quantifying deep Atlantic carbon storage.** Following ref. 27, we quantify deep

584 Atlantic carbon storage as follows:

585
$$\Delta C(Gt) = \frac{-12.011 * \Delta DIC_{Atlantic>3km} * m_{Atlantic>3km}}{10^{21}}$$
(7)

where $\Delta DIC_{Atlantic>3km}$ is the pooled average DIC increase at Sites 1267 and 607 in µmol/kg (42±15 µmol/kg for glacials and 30±16 µmol/kg for interglacials), m_{Atlantic>3km} is the mass of water in the Atlantic Ocean below 3 km depth (1.01*10²⁰ kg), 12.011 is the mass of carbon (g/mol), and factor 10²¹ converts units from µg C to Gt C⁷⁶. This calculation assumes that the magnitude of DIC increase reconstructed from Sites 1267 and 607 characterises the entire Atlantic Ocean below 3 km.

Significance Testing. Statistical comparisons of mean glacial/interglacial ε_{Nd} and reconstructed DIC before and after 950 ka was performed using one-tailed, two-sample *t*test with unequal variance (Welch's *t*-test) in MATLAB (function ttest2). Significance was evaluated with α =0.05. Mean values and *p*-values for statistical tests are given in Supplementary Table 1. 597 Influence of alkalinity on pCO₂. Records of deep ocean sedimentary CaCO₃ content 598 suggest pronounced changes in CaCO₃ sedimentation at the MPT. Expanded AABW resulting from reduced MOC lowered CaCO₃ preservation throughout the deep Atlantic 599 at the MPT, as evidenced by carbonate $\%^{25}$, sediment lightness (L*) and magnetic 600 susceptibility records⁵⁰ (Supplementary Fig. 5). However, Site 1267 and 607 Δ [CO₃²⁻] 601 reconstructions do not show clear evidence for a transient $\Delta [CO_3^{2-}]$ rise across the MOC 602 reduction (Fig. 2), as might be expected to occur within 5-10 kyr from "classic" 603 carbonate compensation³⁹. Site 1267 has an average sampling resolution of 9.2 kyr 604 605 between 1,000 and 875 ka, and it is possible that this record lacks sufficient resolution to 606 reconstruct a rapid carbonate compensation event. Site 607 has an average resolution of ~3 kyr, yet also does not show transient $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ rises²⁵. 607

One possibility is that any $\Delta[CO_3^{2-}]$ rise from carbonate compensation is masked 608 within these records; i.e., $\Delta [CO_3^{2-}]$ decreases less than expected from DIC increase alone 609 due to the counteracting influence of increased TA from regional carbonate dissolution. 610 611 In this scenario, Δ DIC derived from B/Ca would systematically underestimate true Δ DIC. 612 To quantify this underestimation, Equation 3 shows that a 1 µmol/kg increase in TA from CaCO₃ dissolution increases Δ [CO₃²⁻] by 0.27 µmol/kg. Estimates of the TA contribution 613 from CaCO₃ dissolution in the modern ocean (termed TA^{*}, ref. 77) show TA^{*} of 0-10 614 umol/kg for NADW and 20-30 umol/kg for AABW. Assuming that the MOC shift at Site 615 616 1267 was associated with a 30 µmol/kg TA increase from enhanced CaCO₃ dissolution, Δ [CO₃²⁻] would increase by 8.1 µmol/kg. This increase equates to Δ DIC of -13 µmol/kg. 617 giving a revised post-950 ka glacial Δ DIC estimate of 63±16 µmol/kg from Δ [CO₃²⁻] 618 from Sites 1267 and 607, which is indistinguishable from the Δ [PO₄³⁻]-derived Δ DIC 619 estimate of $49\pm24 \mu mol/kg$. 620

Based on Site 607 Δ [CO₃²⁻], Sosdian et al.²⁵ present a new model of carbonate compensation driven by changes in regional carbonate burial, and not local dissolution. In this model, the relationship between deep Atlantic TA and global ocean TA depends on Pacific CaCO₃ burial, giving a more complex relationship between deep Atlantic TA and potential CO₂ drawdown. Regardless, while the precise magnitude of Δ DIC may be sensitive to TA change from carbonate compensation and compensation mechanisms, the 627 conclusion of increased DIC in the deep Atlantic coeval with reduced MOC is not628 contingent on assuming constant TA.

629 Mixing between NADW and AABW. Supplementary Figure 3 shows relationships between Site 1267 [PO₄³⁻], [CO₃²⁻], $\delta^{13}C^{22}$, and relative NADW/AABW contributions 630 from ε_{Nd} . Mixing curves are calculated using modern day endmember values for NADW 631 and AABW defined from hydrographic data for ε_{Nd} , [PO₄³⁻] and [CO₃²⁻], and using late 632 Holocene benthic foraminifer δ^{13} C for δ^{13} C_{DIC}. Foraminifera were chosen to define the 633 $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ endmembers considering the impact of anthropogenic carbon on hydrographic 634 $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ (the 'Suess effect'), particularly in NADW⁷⁸. Endmember values for ε_{Nd} and 635 [Nd]: NADW = $-14.0\pm0.5 \epsilon$ units and [Nd] = 23.6 pmol/kg, AABW = $-8.0\pm0.5 \epsilon$ units 636 and [Nd] = 26.1 pmol/kg (Y. Wu, pers. comm.); $[PO_4^{3-}]$: NADW = 1.1±0.05 µmol/kg, 637 AABW = $2.25\pm0.01 \ \mu mol/kg^{74}$; [CO₃²⁻]: NADW = $120\pm10 \ \mu mol/kg$, AABW = 85 ± 5 638 μ mol/kg⁷⁴; δ^{13} C: NADW = 1.36±0.08‰ (0-5 ka from BOFS 11K, ref. 64); AABW = 639 0.27±0.1‰ (coretop from TN057-21; ref. 79). Mixing curves are calculated from simple 640 641 two-component concentration and isotope mixture equations (example below for ε_{Nd}):

642
$$\varepsilon_{Nd_mixture} = \frac{f_{NADW} * [Nd]_{NADW} * \varepsilon_{Nd_NADW} + f_{AABW} * [Nd]_{AABW} * \varepsilon_{Nd_AABW}}{f_{NADW} * [Nd]_{NADW} + f_{AABW} * [Nd]_{AABW}}$$
(8)

643 **Preformed nutrients in AABW.** In NADW and AABW endmembers, $[PO_4^{3-}]$ is 644 composed of preformed PO_4^{3-} and regenerated PO_4^{3-} components^{80,81}:

645
$$[PO_4^{3-}]_{total}(\mu mol / kg) = [PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed} + [PO_4^{3-}]_{regenerated}$$
(9)

Following ref. 82, we use $[PO_4^{3^-}]_{preformed}$ of 0.8 µmol/kg for NADW and 1.5 µmol/kg for AABW. These values agree with $[PO_4^{3^-}]_{preformed}$ calculated from GEOTRACES⁷⁴ apparent oxygen utilisation (AOU) data ($[PO_4^{3^-}]_{preformed}$ of 0.78±0.03 and 1.57±0.03 µmol/kg for NADW and AABW, respectively, using AOU of 55±5 and 115±5 µmol/kg for NADW and AABW, respectively, and an O₂:PO₄³⁻ ratio of 170 from ref. 26; calculation in ref. 82).

652 Additional curves in Supplementary Figure 3 show mixing between modern 653 NADW and AABW with $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$ reduced by 25% and 50%, giving AABW $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$

]preformed of 1.13 and 0.9 µmol/kg, respectively. Note that [PO₄³⁻]_{total} is kept constant, any 654 $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$ decrease is added to $[PO_4^{3-}]_{regenerated}^{81}$. The addition of $[PO_4^{3-}]_{regenerated}$ adds 655 regenerated DIC, increasing DIC (117:1 ratio²⁶), and thus decreasing $[CO_3^{2-}]$. The effect 656 of DIC addition on $[CO_3^{2^-}]$ is calculated using Equation 3 (above). The effect on $\delta^{13}C$ is 657 calculated by assuming the added DIC possesses a constant δ^{13} C of -25% corresponding 658 659 to organic matter. Two-component mixing curves are then recalculated using the modernday NADW endmember values and the updated AABW endmember $[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}C$ 660 661 values.

Cross-plots of $[PO_4^{3-}]$, $[CO_3^{2-}]$ and $\delta^{13}C$ with ε_{Nd} show that reconstructed $[PO_4^{3-}]$ 662 corresponds to mixing between modern NADW and AABW endmembers, while $[CO_3^{2-}]$ 663 and benthic δ^{13} C imply mixing with AABW possessing lower [CO₃²⁻] and δ^{13} C_{DIC} than 664 modern (Supplementary Fig. 3). These observations can be reconciled by a higher 665 regenerated to preformed PO_4^{3-} ratio in mid-Pleistocene AABW compared to today. A 666 shift from $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$ to $[PO_4^{3-}]_{regenerated}$ would not change total $[PO_4^{3-}]^{81}$, but would 667 decrease AABW [CO₃²⁻] and δ^{13} C through excess regenerated ¹³C-depleted organic 668 matter and sluggish air-sea gas exchange in the Southern Ocean. Mixing arrays calculated 669 with varying regenerated to preformed PO_4^{3-} ratios suggest that AABW in the Angola 670 Basin may have had up to 50% lower $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$ during the MPT compared to today, 671 particularly in glacials after 950 ka (Supplementary Fig. 3). This level of decreased 672 AABW [PO4³⁻]_{preformed} is similar to estimates for the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM)⁸¹, 673 when AABW δ^{13} C and Δ [CO₃²⁻] were lower than today^{14,63}, and is consistent with the 674 proposed coupling between Southern Ocean nutrient utilisation and expanded AABW 675 676 through Southern Ocean surface buoyancy forcing³⁸.

Because modern AABW has more preformed nutrients than NADW, assuming that modern AABW expanded in the past would have ventilated a greater portion of the deep Atlantic through the Southern Ocean, where the biological pump is less efficient. In this scenario, reduced MOC would both increase deep Atlantic DIC and increase $pCO_2^{29,80}$. For the MPT, if expanded AABW possessed 50% lower $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$, the effect of preformed nutrients on pCO_2 would be minor. This is because AABW would replace NADW of similar $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$, implying that deep Atlantic $[PO_4^{3-}]_{preformed}$ stayed relatively constant. This is critical for pCO_2 because it implies that reduced MOC was not associated with a less efficient biological pump, and further implies that reduced MPT pCO_2 required coupling between MOC and CO₂ outgassing in the Southern Ocean (Fig. 4).

Data availability. The datasets generated during the current study are available as
Supplementary Tables 2 through 5 in the Supplementary Data, and will be publicly
accessible via the National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI) following
acceptance. A persistent web link to the dataset will be provided at that time.

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693 Methods References.

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Pre-MPT Glacials (1,400 to 1,000 ka)

